



1	Emission, transport and radiative effects of mineral dust
2	from Taklimakan and Gobi Deserts: comparison of
3	measurements and model results
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30 Abstract

The weather research and forecasting model with chemistry (WRF-31 Chem) was used to investigate a typical dust storm event that occurred 32 from 18th to 23rd March 2010 and swept across almost all of China, Japan, 33 and Korea. WRF-Chem captured the spatial and temporal variations in 34 dust aerosols and the meteorological conditions over East Asia well, and 35 the results were used to further investigate details of processes related to 36 37 dust emission, long-range transport, and radiative effects of dust aerosols over the Taklimakan desert (TD) and Gobi desert (GD). Results showed 38 that the differences of weather conditions and topography and surface 39 types in dust source regions may lead to the differences of dust emission, 40 uplift height and transport. The typical dust event over East Asia was 41 classified into two main stages. In the first stage (18th-20th March), the 42 GD was located in the warm zone in advance of a cold front. The 43 enhanced convection increased momentum transfer in the middle and 44 lower troposphere because of the instability in the atmosphere. Moreover, 45 the GD is located in relatively flat, high altitude regions influenced by the 46 confluence of the northern and southern westerly jets. Therefore, the GD 47 48 dust transport was the primary contributor to the dust concentration over East Asia. The strength of the dust emission decreased greatly during the 49 second stage (21st-23rd March). The TD dust emission contributed to the 50 dust concentration over East Asia. Cold air was lifted over the Pamir 51 52 Plateau and intruded into the Tarim basin causing a strong uplifting motion. The average TD dust emission flux was $27.2\pm4.1 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$. 53 However, the transport contribution of the TD dust $(1.1 \text{ ton } \text{day}^{-1})$ to the 54 dust sink was smaller than that of the GD dust (1.4 ton day⁻¹) because of 55 56 the complex terrain and the prevailing wind in the TD. It is noted that the TD is not the main source region in China but a small amount of the TD 57 58 dust was lofted to more than 5 km and transported over greater distances





under the influence of the westerly jets. Moreover, the radiative forcing induced by dust particles is estimated as -3 W m⁻² and -7 W m⁻² at the top of the atmosphere, -8 W m⁻² and -10 W m⁻² at the surface, and +5 W m⁻² and +3 W m⁻² in the atmosphere over the TD and GD, respectively. The study provided confidence for further understanding the climate effect of the TD and GD dust.

Key words: East Asian dust, Dust modelling, WRF-Chem model,
Taklimakan desert, and Gobi desert

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69 1. Introduction

70 Dust is regarded as a major component of tropospheric aerosols in the global atmosphere [Forster et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2003]. It is 71 considered to have a significant direct effect on climate by altering the 72 radiative balance between the incoming solar and outgoing planetary 73 74 radiation in the atmosphere [Ramanathan et al., 2001; Huang et al., 75 2008a, b, c, 2009, 2011; Zhao et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014b]. In addition, dust can also modify the microphysical properties of clouds and 76 the precipitation efficiency [Koren et al., 2004; Huang et al., 2006a, b, c, 77 2010, and 2014; Su et al., 2008; Qian et al., 2009]. Therefore, dust 78 79 aerosols have important roles in changing the energy budget and 80 atmospheric and hydrological system at regional and even global scales [Huang et al., 2010, 2014; Li et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2011, 2012]. 81

East Asian dust is entrained from China and its surrounding regions, which together constitute the second largest contributor to global dust aerosols [Rea, 1994; Zhang et al., 2003]. The Taklimakan desert (TD) and Gobi desert (GD) are regarded as two major dust source regions in East Asia (Fig.1) [Sun et al., 2001]. The TD is the location of the





second largest shifting sand desert in the world and covers an area of 87 337,000 km², approximately 85% of which is covered by shifting sand 88 dunes. It is located in the Tarim Basin and is surrounded by the Kunlun 89 90 Shan Mountains (average elevation 5.5km) to the south, the Tianshan Mountains (average elevation 4.8 km) to the north and the Pamir Plateau 91 92 (average elevation 5.5 km) the to west (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Taklamakan Desert). The GD covers parts 93 of northern China, northwestern China, and southern Mongolia, which is 94 95 bounded by the TD in the west, the North China Plain in the southeast, and the Hexi Corridor and Tibetan Plateau (TP) in the southwest 96 97 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gobi Desert).

Airborne dust over the TD may play an important role in the global 98 radiative energy budget [Huang et al., 2009, 2015]. Special efforts have 99 been dedicated to understanding the spatial and temporal features of TD 100 dust [Liu et al., 2016], dust emission [Zhang et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 101 2003, 2006a; Shao et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2013, 2014a; Xiong et al., 102 2013], long-range transport [Uno et al., 2001; Han et al., 2005, 2006, 103 2008; Zhao et al., 2006b, 2007; Huang et al., 2007], dust radiative forcing 104 [Takamura et al., 2004, 2005; Su et al., 2008; Huang et al., 2009], and its 105 climatic effects [Huang et al., 2006a, b, 2007, 2010, 2014] over the TD. 106 107 However, few of these studies have investigated the role of GD dust in 108 the earth-atmosphere system, especially concerning the differences and 109 similarities of dust emission and transport over the GD and TD. Using dust storm reports of 1960-1999, Sun et al. (2001) have found that the 110 GD is the dominant dust source region for East Asia. The dust deposited 111 112 over East Asia including the Loess Plateau in China and offshore regions. 113 Using Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation (CALIPSO) and surface measurements, Huang et al. (2008) have found 114





that dust events are more frequent over the TD, where suspended dust is 115 dominant locally, whereas GD dust storms are less frequent but more 116 117 intensive. Zhang et al. (2008) have showed that the GD accounts for more 118 than 75% of the dust emission events in all of East Asia using time-series of Multi-angle Imaging SpectroRadiometer (MISR) images. However, it 119 120 is difficult to use observational data to quantify the details of TD and GD dust emission fluxes and to distinguish the contributions of the TD and 121 122 GD to dust transport in the downwind deposition regions of East Asia.

In this study we focused on a state-of-the-art model that simulates 123 detailed dust processes to investigate a typical dust event over East Asia 124 that occurred on 18th-23rd March 2010. The aim of this work was to (1) 125 evaluate the ability of the weather research and forecasting model with 126 127 chemistry (WRF-Chem) to reproduce East Asian dust relative to observational data; (2) investigate the dynamic and thermodynamic 128 mechanisms of dust emission and transport over the TD and GD; (3) 129 130 elucidate the influence of TD and GD dust throughout East Asia; and (4) 131 estimate the direct radiation forcing induced by the TD and GD dust over East Asia. The paper is organized as follows. The model and 132 observational data are described in Sections 2 and 3. The model 133 evaluation and a discussion of the emission and transport of East Asian 134 135 dust are presented in Section 4. The radiative forcing of dust is estimated 136 in Section 5 followed by the discussion and conclusions in Section 6.

137 2. Model description

WRF-Chem, which simultaneously simulates trace gases, particulate materials and meteorological fields [Skamarock et al., 2008], was used in this study. Gas-phase chemical mechanisms, photolysis schemes and aerosols schemes are incorporated into a WRF-Chem mode, which considers a variety of coupled physical and chemical processes such as





emission, transport (advection, diffusion, and convection), drv/wet 143 144 deposition, chemical transport, aerosol interactions, and radiation budget [Grell et al., 2005]. Compared with other numerical models, the "online" 145 146 coupling of meteorology and chemistry in the WRF model more accurately represents the evolution of trace gases and aerosols and 147 permits the inclusion of detailed feedback processes for weather or 148 149 climate change. Details of the model and relevant references can be found 150 at http://www.pnl.gov/atmospheric/research/wrf-chem/ and http://www.pnl.gov/atmospheric/research/wrf-chem/publications.stm, 151

152 respectively.

The Regional Acid Deposition Model version 2 (RADM2) chemical 153 mechanism and Model Aerosol Dynamics Model for Europe and 154 Secondary Organic Aerosol Model (MADE/SORGAM) aerosol model 155 [Ackermann et al., 1998; Schell et al., 2001] were implemented by Grell 156 157 et al. [2005] into WRF-Chem, which includes some aqueous reactions of aerosol 158 and complex treatments radiative properties. MADE/SORGAM model uses the modal approach with Aitken, 159 accumulation, and coarse modes to represent the aerosol size distribution. 160 The aerosol species include mineral dust, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, 161 162 black carbon (BC), organic compounds (OM), and sea salt. Aerosol optical properties (e.g., single-scattering albedo, asymmetry factor, and 163 extinction) are computed as a function of wavelength. Furthermore, each 164 chemical constituent of the aerosol is associated with a complex index of 165 refraction [Barnard et al., 2003]. 166

167 The Goddard Chemistry Aerosol Radiation and Transport 168 (GOCART) dust emission scheme [Ginoux et al., 2001] was coupled with 169 MADE/SORGAM in the WRF-Chem model [Zhao et al., 2010]. 170 Additional details about the GOCART dust emission scheme in the 171 WRF-Chem model can be found in Chen et al. [2013 and 2014]. An





emission inventory of anthropogenic, biomass burning, biogenic, and 172 173 volcanic emissions is also included in the simulation. The anthropogenic emissions of carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), SO₂, volatile 174 organic compounds (VOCs), BC, organic carbon (OC), PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ 175 were taken from the 2006 emission inventory developed by David Street 176 (http://www.cgrer.uiowa.edu/EMISSION DATA new/index 16.html). 177 178 The biomass burning emissions were obtained from the Global Fire Emissions Database, Version 3 (GFED v3) and have a monthly temporal 179

resolution and 0.5° spatial resolution [van der Werf et al., 2010].

Fig. 1 illustrates the modelling domain which covered the entirety of 181 East Asia (10.8°N~59.6°N, 51.9°E~154.3°E) with a horizontal grid 182 interval of 36 km and 138×187 grid cells. The model atmosphere was 183 divided into 35 vertical layers, and the model top pressure was 100 hPa. 184 To reduce the computational time for the simulation, the time domain 185 was 1st-23rd March 2010. Only the results from 18th-23rd March 2010 were 186 used in this study (hereafter referred to as the simulation period). The 187 meteorological initial and boundary conditions were constructed from the 188 National Center for Environmental Prediction final analysis (NCEP/FNL) 189 data at a 6-h temporal interval and 1° horizontal resolution. The NOAA 190 land surface model [Chen et al., 1996; Chen and Dudhia, 2001] and the 191 Yonsei University (YSU) planetary boundary scheme [Hong, Noh and 192 Dudhia, 2006] were used in the simulation. The Morrison two-moment 193 microphysics scheme [Morrison et al., 2005] and Kain-Fritsch (KF) 194 convective scheme [Kain et al., 1990 and Kain et al., 2004] were also 195 196 used to represent cloud microphysics and convection processes [Zhao et al., 2013] in the simulation. To produce a more realistic simulation of the 197 large-scale circulation situation and main weather systems, the modelled 198 199 u- and v- wind components and atmospheric temperatures were nudged





200 towards the NCEP/FNL analysis data with a nudging time scale of 6 h

- 201 [Stauffer and Seaman, 1990].
- 202

203 3. Observations

204 3.1 CALIPSO Aerosol Extinction Coefficients

The aerosol extinction profiles retrieved by the CALIPSO satellite 205 206 were used in this study. The CALIPSO satellite, launched in April 2006 to investigate the vertical structure of aerosols and clouds, carries the 207 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) instrument 208 [Winker et al., 2006, 2007]. In this work, the observed aerosol extinction 209 from the CALIPSO level 2 5-km Cloud and Aerosol Profile Products 210 version 3.3 were analyzed. The retrievals were used to evaluate the 211 simulated vertical structure of dust particles along the orbital path at 212 20:08 UTC on 19th March 2010 in the study. The data for clouds and 213 stratospheric features by the atmospheric volume description and cloud 214 215 aerosol discrimination (CAD) score was screened [Liu et al., 2004]. 216 Features with CAD scores exceeding 80 were selected for this work, which provided a confidence for the classification of dust layers using the 217 CALIOP cloud-aerosol discrimination algorithm. 218

219 3.2 Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) AOD

220 AERONET is a global ground-based aerosol monitoring network 221 established by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), and Photometry for Operational Satellite Processing Standards 222 (Photométrie pour le TraitementOpérationnel de Normalisation 223 Satellitaire, PHOTONS) of the National Center for Scientific Research 224 225 (Centre national de la recherché scientifique, CNRS) involves standardized automatic sun photometers that measure sun and sky 226 radiances at several wavelengths in the visible and near-infrared bands. 227 The observed radiances are further processed to retrieve aerosol 228





properties via algorithms developed by Dubovik and King (2000) and 229 230 Dubovik et al. (2002). Global aerosol optical depth is provided in near real time after calibration, processing and distribution. AOD data 231 232 products are available at three levels based on data quality: unscreened data (Level 1.0), cloud-screened data (Level 1.5), and quality-assured and 233 cloud screened data (Level 2.0). In this work, the level 2.0 products of 234 AOD at SACOL, Mt. Waliguan (Mt WLG), Taihu, Gwangju GIST, 235 236 Shirhuma and Ussuriysksites (Fig.1 and Table 1) were used to evaluate 237 the simulated AODs over the dust source regions and remote regions.

238 4. Results and discussions

239 4.1 Meteorological conditions

240 To evaluate the model performance in simulating dust emissions and transport during the dust storm event, we first compared the simulated 241 meteorological conditions against the reanalysis data and in situ 242 measurements. The average wind and temperature fields at 500 hPa from 243 244 the NCEP/FNL reanalysis data and WRF-Chem simulations over East Asia during the simulation period are shown in Fig. 2. Generally, WRF-245 Chem model reproduced the large-scale circulation field over East Asia 246 extremely well, including the location and shape of the East Asian 247 subtropical westerly jet stream, the lower-latitude edges of the westerly 248 249 jet, and the upper-level westerly jet over East Asia.

Wind rose diagrams for the four meteorological stations including Tazhong over the TD and Guaizihu, Yumenzhen, and Mazongshan over the GD (Fig. 1 and Table 1) are shown in Fig. 3. The hourly 10-m wind observations were obtained from the Chinese National Meteorological Center (CNMC) and will be referred to as the observed wind direction and wind speed records. The winds mainly blow from west to east at the Tazhong site during the dust event. The wind speeds generally exceed 2





m s⁻¹. The frequency of calm winds accounted for 8.0% of the total wind 257 258 records. The average magnitude of the observed wind speed at the Tazhong site (3.4 m s⁻¹) was lower than the average value of the 259 simulations (5.2 m s⁻¹). Over the GD, the wind speeds were primarily 260 between 3-10 m s⁻¹. The average wind speed exceeded that at the Tazhong 261 site. At the Guaizihu site, the prevailing wind direction was from the 262 west and the northwest. The simulated wind speed was slightly higher 263 the observed wind speed. At the Yumenzhen site, 264 than the prevailing wind direction was generally from the east. The simulated 265 wind speed (6.4 m s⁻¹) was higher than the observed wind speed (4.7 m s⁻¹) 266 ¹). The Mazongshan site is west of the Guaizihu site. At this site the 267 268 simulations did not capture the easterly component of the winds well.

Generally, the WRF-Chem simulations reproduced the wind field at 269 the surface in the dust source regions. However, the simulated wind speed 270 at 10 m (4.2 m s⁻¹ over the TD and 6.4 m s⁻¹ over the GD) was slightly 271 higher than the observed wind speed $(3.5 \text{ m s}^{-1} \text{ over the TD and } 5.7 \text{ m s}^{-1} \text{ over the TD$ 272 273 ¹). In addition, the frequency of calm winds in Tazhong and Guaizihu was 8.0% and 0.5%, respectively. The simulation results did not describe the 274 275 calm winds well in these regions. It should be noted that the different frequencies of wind speed and direction between the observational 276 records and numerical model might have contributed to the deviations in 277 the results. Chen et al. (2014a) have analyzed the monthly averages of the 278 10-m winds over the TD and GD from observations, reanalysis data, and 279 280 WRF-Chem simulations during 2007-2011. They also found that the WRF-Chem model could reproduce the observed seasonal and inter-281 annual variations of wind field over the TD and GD. However, the 282 283 simulations misestimated the observed wind speed because of WRF model limitations in representing sub-grid variations and turbulence 284





processes in the complex terrain and land surface types [Hanna et al.,
2000]. This is a common issue in WRF simulations, which will be
improved in a newer version of the WRF model through the use of
surface drag parameterization [Chen et al., 2014; Jiménez and Dudhia,
2012].

290 4.2 Spatial and temporal distribution of dust

291 The modelled dust optical properties were compared with those from 292 surface observation reports and satellite retrievals to validate the WRF-Chem model results. We firstly compared the modelled AOD (Red lines) 293 against AERONET observations (Black dots) near dust source regions 294 (Mt WLG and SACOL in Fig.1 and Table 2) and remote regions (Taihu, 295 Gwangju GIST, Shirhuma and Ussuriysk in Fig.1 and Table 2) (Fig.4). 296 297 In order to show the contribution of dust particles to the total AOD in different regions over East Asia, the simulated dust AOD (Blue lines) are 298 299 also shown in Fig. 4. In addition, the vertical profile of the dust aerosols 300 is the critical factor that determines the radiative forcing and climate response from mineral dust [Huang et al., 2008]. The accurate estimates 301 302 of the vertical structure make sense to reveal the variation of the dust optical properties and dust long-term transport mechanism (Fig. 5). 303

304 The peak value center of the dust aerosol occurred in the TD and GD and declined toward the north on 18th March (Fig. 4). The daily average 305 of the observed AOD at SACOL was 0.28, and the corresponding 306 simulated AOD was less than 0.1. Over dust remote regions, the dust 307 AOD accounted for less than 10% of the total AOD. Then, a large 308 amount of dust aerosol was injected, especially over the GD on 19th 309 March. The simulated AODs showed good consistency with those from 310 the ground-based data. The dust AOD accounted for more than 95% of 311





the total AOD at SACOL. The observed AOD was 0.58, which wascomparable to the corresponding simulated AOD (0.53) at SACOL.

The observed AOD over the TD exceeded that over the GD by 0.3 314 on 20th March. The observed AODs at SACOL were higher than the 315 simulated AOD by up to 15% because of the effects of the local emission 316 317 source. The AODs at SACOL and Mt Waliguan AOD showed a 318 decreasing trend. However, the dust AODs began to increase at the Taihu, Ussuriysk, and Gwangju GIST sites, thus indicating that the dust 319 particles from the dust source regions were transported to Japan, Korea, 320 and Russia. The Mt Waliguan AOD increased rapidly up to 0.5, and the 321 higher dust AOD (0.6 ± 0.14) persisted at the Taihu site on 21^{st} March. On 322 22nd-23rd March, the TD and GD dust mass loadings greatly weakened. 323 The dust AODs were close to 0, except for the SACOL and Mt Waliguan 324 sites, which are near the dust source regions (Fig. 4). 325

Moreover, the WRF-Chem model captured the vertical structure of 326 aerosols over and near the TD well (Fig. 5). As is well known, the 327 vertical structure of mineral dust plays an very important in the 328 329 atmospheric heating rate [Minnis and Cox, 1978; Carlson and Benjamin, 1980], long-wave radiative forcing in clear sky, and short-wave radiative 330 forcing in cloudy sky [Liao and Seinfeld, 1998; Meloni et al., 2005], 331 thereby directly affecting climate systems through changes in cloud 332 333 height, cloud life and precipitation because of the changes in the radiative balance. Therefore, accurate estimates of the vertical structure can 334 reasonably be used to reveal variations in dust optical properties and 335 long-term dust transport mechanisms. 336

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339 4.3 Dust emission and transport

The detailed dynamic processes of the strong dust storm event along with the synoptic situation are discussed in the section. The simulation domain was relatively small (Fig. 1) and the characteristics of the larger scale changes in the atmospheric circulation are not reflected in this discussion. The spatial distributions of the geopotential heights, temperatures and wind circulation at 500 hPa and 850 hPa from the NCEP/FNL reanalysis data are shown in Figs. 7 and 8.

The dust storm was initialized by a cold air intrusion in the northern 347 part of Xinjiang on 18th March.. The dense isotherm gradient led to the 348 stronger cold advection. A mass of cold air accumulated in the northern 349 part of the Tianshan Mountains, which decreased the surface 350 351 temperatures in northern China. The northwest flow along the Tianshan Mountain was then injected into the TD deserts (Figs. 7 and 8). The 352 convergence of the warm and cold air led to the low level convergence, 353 which created dynamic conditions for TD dust emission. The GD was 354 located in the warmer zone in advance of the cold front, which generated 355 356 the uplift movement and further injected dust particles over the GD (Figs. 7 and 8). The daily average of the dust emission fluxes over the TD and 357 GD were 20 and 28 μ g m⁻² s⁻¹, respectively (Fig. 9). The dust layer over 358 the GD accumulated at 850 hPa. The maximum of PM25 dust 359 concentration reached 41 μ g m⁻³ (Fig. 6). 360

Dust emission over GD and TD had reached a maximum on 19th March for the dust event. The stronger cold advection greatly enhanced the atmospheric baroclinicity because the isotherm was almost perpendicular to the isoheight behind the trough. This context aided in the downward transport of momentum produced by the northwest flow in the





high levels, which caused the strong wind at the surface and dust 366 367 emissions (Figs. 7 and 8). The PM_{2.5} dust concentrations over the TD reached up to 65 μ g m⁻³ (Fig. 6). The GD dust particles were then 368 transported long distances to eastern and southern China because of the 369 370 high-level northwest flow. Cold air climbing over the Tianshan Mountain and joining with the strong northeast cold air over the TD caused a strong 371 northwest wind, which enhanced the dust emission over the TD. However, 372 the height of the dust layer over the TD (about 2 km) was lower than over 373 374 the GD (about 4 km) (Fig. 6).

375 The cold advection behind the through helped the cold vortex to spread slowly eastwards when the angle between the isotherm and the 376 isoheight was sufficient on 20th March, (Fig. 7). Cold air accumulated to 377 the north of the Tianshan Mountains and then climbed over the mountains, 378 379 spreading northwestwards (Fig. 8). The dust emission over the TD (18.4 $\mu g m^{-2} s^{-1}$) was further enhanced by the influence of the anticyclone 380 behind the cold front. As the upper troughs weakened and moved out, the 381 GD dust emission (8.2 μ g m⁻² s⁻¹) began to decrease (Fig. 9). The PM_{2.5} 382 dust concentration decreased to $22\pm8.2 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ (Fig. 6), thus indicating 383 that the first stage of the dust storm event was essentially completes. 384

The period of 21st-23rd March is regarded as the second stage of the 385 dust event. The TD dust emission peaked for this dust storm event on 21st 386 March. The average TD dust emission flux was $37.2\pm6.4 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$ (Fig. 387 9). The frontal zone in the upper atmosphere gradually moved south to 388 north of 40°N (Fig. 7). Cold air climbed over the Pamir Plateau and 389 intruded into the Tarim basin, which caused strong uplift motion over the 390 TD. The TD dust particles accompanied by the jet stream and cold 391 392 advection were transported to the most of northern China. However, the





393 strength of the dust emission in this stage was weaker than that on 19^{th} 394 March. The strengthening of the frontal zones gradually decreased and 395 the descending motions typically occurred over a larger area on $22^{nd}-23^{rd}$ 396 March (Fig. 8). The dust emission flux decreased to 10 µg m⁻² s⁻¹ in the 397 two dust source regions (Fig. 9). The dust mass loading over East Asia 398 (including Japan and Korea) weakened further.

399 Moreover, the prevailing wind is the key factor for producing 400 significant differences in dust emission and long-term transport over the 401 TD and GD (Fig. 10). The TD is located in the basin surrounded on three 402 sides by mountains. And the wind at the low level over the TD is the East wind based. Therefore, TD dust is not easily transported out of the basin 403 due to the complex terrain and the prevailing wind, although the TD has 404 the largest dust emission in the second stage of the dust storm event. The 405 406 GD is relatively flat areas. And the strong westerly wind over the GD is advantageous for ejecting and further transporting of GD dust. Sun et al. 407 (2001) have also noted that GD dust can be entrained to an elevation of 408 only <3000 m in most cases (about 90%). The relatively lower-elevation 409 dust layers are deposited mainly in inland China. 410

From the thermodynamic perspective, the GD dust was also more 411 favorable than the TD dust in terms of the dust emission and vertical 412 413 transport (Fig. 11). Specifically, the temperature profile over the GD from the surface to the 700 hPa was almost parallel to the dry adiabatic rate, 414 415 indicating that the layer was in an absolutely unstable state, favoring of the emission and vertical transport of the GD dust particles. In contrast, 416 the sounding data in the TD revealed an unstable layer quite near the 417 418 surface that ranged from the surface to a few hundred meters, helping to vertically elevate the TD dust. With increasing height, the temperature 419 420 lapse rate decreased, thus indicating the existence of little variation in





temperature, even less than that in the wet adiabatic rate, and an 421 422 absolutely stable state, which required more energy to lift an air parcel. Therefore, the vertical movement of the air was inhibited, and the 423 424 elevation of the dust layer ceased. In addition, the relative humidity in the GD was low within the entire layer, whereas it remained low in the TD in 425 the lower-middle troposphere but increased with height, resulting in a 426 humidity condition that was dryer below and wetter above. This is the 427 428 hallmark of a conditional stable state, which inhibits the convective 429 movement of the atmosphere.

430 4.4 Dust budget analysis

To better understand the source of the variations in the dust aerosols 431 over the TD and GD during the dust storm event, the average 432 contributions of the dust emission, transport, and dry and wet depositions 433 to the dust mass balance were calculated and are shown in Fig. 12. 434 Positive values denote positive contributions to the dust mass balance, 435 and negative values represent negative contributions. Over the TD and 436 GD, the source term of the dust concentration was the absolute dust 437 emission for the entire dust storm event. In the first stage (18th-20th 438 March), the GD dust emission was the largest contributor to the dust 439 concentration over East Asia (Figs. 12). The daily dust emission flux over 440 the GD peaked above 68 μ g m⁻² s⁻¹. The contribution of the transport of 441 442 the GD dust particles (up to 3.4 ton day⁻¹) was much greater than that of the TD dust (up to 1.5 ton day⁻¹) (Fig. 12). The strengthening dust 443 emissions weakened substantially in the second stage (21st-23rd March). 444 The TD dust emission exerted an important effect on the dust 445 446 concentration in that stage. The average TD dust emission flux was $20\pm4.6 \ \mu g \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}$ (Fig. 9). Dry deposition was the largest sink over the 447 TD, and the wet deposition was much smaller over the TD and GD. 448





Overall, the dust transport from the GD was the dominant factor 449 contributing positively to TD dust mass concentrations. Dry deposition 450 over TD was the largest sink of dust, following by dust transport and wet 451 452 deposition. The GD dust particles were accumulated under 3 km between 250 K-270 K. The GD dust concentration reached up to 1500 μ g m⁻³ (Fig. 453 13). The mass concentrations of the TD dust were lower than that of the 454 GD dust. However, TD dust particles (>400 µg m⁻³) were lifted to more 455 than 5 km, indicating that the TD dust could have been transported 456 greater distances under the influence of the westerly jets (Figs. 6 and 13). 457

458 4.5 Direct Radiative forcing induced by dust over East Asia

459 Dust significantly affected the radiation budget over East Asia during the dust storm event. The simulation with and without dust particles was 460 used to estimate the magnitude of dust radiative forcing in the study. The 461 spatial distributions of the shortwave (SW), longwave (LW) and net 462 (SW+LW) radiative forcing induced by the dust at the top of the 463 464 atmosphere (TOA), surface (SUR) and in the atmosphere (ATM) during the simulation periods are shown in Fig. 14. The spatial distribution of 465 dust radiative forcing was similar to that of dust mass loading over East 466 Asia with highest values over the TD and GD. The SW forcing over East 467 Asia induced by dust at the TOA was generally negative with greatest 468 values of -6 to -8 W m⁻² and -2 to -4 W m⁻² over the GD and TD, 469 respectively. Compared with the dust aerosol over the Sahara desert, 470 Asian dust has a complex refractive index with small imaginary part and 471 the back scattering of dust particles is relatively strong, which led to the 472 high negative values of SW radiation forcing at the TOA [Wang et al., 473 2004]. The magnitude of the net radiative forcing at the TOA was 474 dominated by the SW radiative forcing because the LW radiative forcing 475 induced by the dust was much smaller. The maximum net radiative 476





forcing value reached -10 W m⁻² over southern Inner Mongolia, larger 477 than over the TD (-5 W m^{-2}) . At the surface the SW cooling effect of the 478 dust was predominant, exceeding -8 W m⁻² over northern China, and was 479 much stronger than the LW warming effect, +2 to +8 W m⁻²). The region 480 of significant LW radiative forcing occurred mainly over the TD and GD 481 482 while the SW radiative forcing almost covered the whole northern China with a higher value. As a result, the dust caused a strong cooling effect at 483 the surface since dust aerosols weakened the incoming radiation through 484 absorption and scattering of dust particles [Kumar et al., 2014]. The 485 maximum net radiative forcing at the surface was as great as -14 W m⁻² 486 over the GD and -9.2 W m⁻² along the dust transport pathway from 487 northern China to Japan and Korean, which were also much larger than 488 TOA, indicating the important effects of dust aerosol on surface radiation 489 490 budget [Wang et al., 2010].

491 In the atmosphere, the dust aerosol induced positive SW radiative forcing (+1 to +11 W m⁻²) and negative LW radiative forcing (-1 to -9 W 492 m^{-2}), which led to warming in the atmosphere because of dust absorption. 493 The LW radiative forcing was negative in TD and GD since the dust 494 layers sent LW to TOA. The slightly positive net forcing varied from +4 495 to +8 W m⁻² over the TD, +3 to +6 W m⁻² over the GD, and 0 to +4 Wm⁻² 496 over eastern China, which showed the warming effect of dust layers in 497 498 the atmosphere. Therefore, the radiative heating rate of dust has a significant influence on the vertical distribution of temperature of 499 atmosphere. Fig. 15 further illustrated that the vertical profiles of the 500 radiative heating rate induced by dust particles over East Asia. In general, 501 502 dust induced warming in the atmosphere, especially over the TD and GD. The radiative heating rate was maximum over the GD at 0.14 ± 0.03 K 503 day⁻¹ in the 1-3 km layers, where the dust mass loading was greatest, and 504





- gradually decreased with height. In comparison, the radiative heating ratepeaked in the 1-2 km layers over the TD, exhibiting values ranging from
- 507 0.04 to 0.12 K day⁻¹, lower than those of the GD.
- 508 5. Summary

The WRF-Chem model was used to investigate a typical dust storm 509 event that occurred from 18th to 23rd March 2010 in the study. Results 510 showed that the WRF-Chem model reproduced the large-scale circulation 511 field and the spatial distributions of dust aerosols over East Asia. 512 However, the model underestimated the GD dust because of its biases in 513 the simulated surface wind at 10 m. The evaluations provided confidence 514 for further understanding the emission and transport of the TD and GD 515 dust over East Asia based on the simulated results. 516

The weather conditions, topographies and surface type of GD and TD 517 are quite different, which may lead to the difference of the dust emission, 518 519 uplifted height, horizontal and vertical dust flux and long distance transport. Results showed that the GD dust contributed significantly to 520 the dust concentration over East Asia, especially on 19th March. The GD 521 was located in the warm zone in advance of a cold front. Rapidly 522 warming surface temperatures and cold air advection at high levels 523 524 caused strong instability in the atmosphere which strengthened the 525 downward momentum transported from the middle and low troposphere and caused strong surface winds and gusts. The ascending motion and 526 strong surface winds provided the energy needed for dust resuspension, 527 lifting and transport over the GD. Moreover, the GD is located at the 528 529 relatively flat and high altitude regions under the influence of and 530 confluence of the northern and southern westerly winds. Therefore, the GD dust particles were easily lofted to 4 km and transported eastward 531





over Japan and Korea. The contribution of transport of the GD dust
particles (up to 3.4 ton day⁻¹) was much greater than of the TD dust (up to
1.5 ton day⁻¹) over East Asia in the simulation periods.

The TD dust was not easily transported out of the basin because of 535 the complex terrain and the prevailing wind, even if the TD has the larger 536 537 dust emission. Specifically, the TD is surrounded by mountain ranges that 538 exceed 3000 m in height, except for the Hexi corridor opening to the 539 northeast. The process that generated the dust storms was strongly affected by these topographical characteristics in addition to the surface 540 conditions. In addition, the easterly wind dominated the TD areas. Thus, 541 542 the contribution of the transported TD dust to the dust sink was still smaller than that of the GD dust, but a small amount of finer dust 543 particles over the TD was lifted to 4 km or higher where they were 544 transported long distances from the source regions. The effects of the TD 545 dust were felt not only locally but more concern in regions far from the 546 547 sources.

548 Dust significantly affected the radiation budget during the dust storm event and the average values of the net radiative forcing induced by the 549 TD and GD dust at the surface were as large as -8 W m^{-2} and -10 W m^{-2} . 550 respectively. While at the TOA the net radiative forcing of GD was much 551 552 larger than those of TD. The average net dust radiative forcing in the atmosphere varied from +1 to +6 W m⁻² over the downwind regions, 553 including eastern China, Korea and Japan. Besides, the larger positive 554 SW radiative forcing in the atmosphere resulted in warming in the 555 atmosphere and the radiative heating rate in TD ranged from 0.04 to 0.12 556 K day⁻¹, lower than those of the GD. 557

558 Compared with the TD dust, the importance of the GD dust to the 559 dust concentration in eastern China, Japan and Korea is most often





neglected. Our study focused primarily on the dynamics and 560 thermodynamics of dust emission and transport over TD and GD and 561 further elucidated the influence of TD and GD dust on the entire East 562 563 Asia based on a case study using the WRF-Chem model. However, it is necessary to further investigate the quantitative contributions of TD and 564 GD dust for the dust mass concentrations over East Asia for a longer time 565 scale based on sensitivity tests in numerical model. In additions, the 566 567 climate effects of the GD dust over East Asia are needed to investigate in the future. 568

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817 Table1 Information about the 10-m wind stations from the Chinese National

Meteorological Center (CNMC)		
Name	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Elevation (m
Tazhong	39.00	83.40	1099.3
Guaizihu	41.22	102.22	960.0
Yumenzhen	40.16	97.02	1527.0
Maoyinbadao	40.10	104.18	1325.9
Table 2 Information abo	out selected AERON	VET stations	
Name	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Elevation (m)
SACOL (China)	35.95	104.14	1965.8
Mt_Waliguan (China)	36.28	100.90	3816.0
Taihu (China)	31.42	120.22	20.0
Gwangju_GIST(Korea)	35.23	126.84	52.0
Shirhuma (Japan)	33.69	135.36	10.0
Ussuriysk(Russia)	43.70	132.16	280.0







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Fig. 1 Modelling domain and spatial distribution of the topography in East Asia. The major
dust source regions over East Asia (Taklimakan Desert, TD and Gobi Desert, GD) are
indicated by the red boxes. The two red boxes are defined as the TD and GD regions for
further analysis. The red dots are the AERONET sites (SACOL, Mt. Waliguan (Mt_WLG),
Taihu, Gwangju_GIST, Shirhuma and Ussuriysk). The black stars are the sites with observed
10-m winds (Tazhong, Maozongshan, Yumenzhen, and Guaizihu). The blown line represents
the orbit path of CALIPSO/CALIOP over the TD at 0:08 UTC (2:08 LT) on 19th March 2010.

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Fig. 2 Average winds (top) and temperature (bottom) at 500 hPa from the NCEP/FNL
reanalysis data and WRF-Chem simulations over East Asia during the period 18th-23rd March
2010. Arrows represent wind direction.

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Fig. 3 Wind rose diagrams for the four surface, 10 meter, meteorological stations: Tazhong(a), Guaizihu (b), Yumenzhen (c), and Maoyinbadao (d) over the TD and GD. The mean wind

868 speed is included at the end of each directional line.







Fig. 4 Times series of the observed and modelled AODs at the six AERONET sites
(SACOL, Taihu, Mt_Waliguan (Mt_WLG), Ussuriysk, Gwangju GIST, and
Shirahama). The black dots denote the 1 h averages of the observed AODs. The red
and blue lines represent the modelled total and dust AODs from the WRF-chem
model, respectively.







532nm Extinction Coefficient (km⁻¹)

892 893 Fig. 5 Cross-sections of aerosol extinction coefficients at 532 nm (km⁻¹) over the TD at 20:08 894 UTC (2:08 LT) on 19th March 2010 from the WRF-Chem model (top) and the CALIPSO 895 retrievals (bottom) along the orbit path of CALIPSO (as shown in Fig. 1).

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900 Fig. 6 Time-space cross sections of the zonal mean $PM_{2.5}$ dust concentration (µg m⁻³) over the 901 Domain simulated by the WRF-Chem model during the simulation periods.







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Fig. 7 Spatial distributions of geopotential heights (blue lines), temperatures (red lines) andwinds (blue vectors) and frontal zones at 500 hPa from the NCEP/FNL reanalysis data over

East Asia during the period 18th-23rd March 2010.







920 Fig.8 Same as Fig. 7 but for 850 hPa.







- 929 Fig. 9 Spatial distributions of daily dust emission (μg m⁻² s⁻¹) and 10-m winds (m s⁻¹) on 18th-
- 930 23rd March 2010 from the WRF-Chem simulations over East Asia.







Fig. 10 Vertical-latitude cross section at 42°N, 75.3-120.2°E of the meridional circulation in
the zonal winds (m s⁻¹) for 18th-23rd March 2010 from the WRF-Chem simulation. The
positive values represent westerly winds.

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Fig. 12 Average contributions of the dust emissions, transport, and dry and wet depositions to
the dust mass balances over the TD and GD in the simulation period. For the dust budget
analysis, positive values denote positive contributions to the dust mass balance. Negative
values represent negative contributions to the dust mass balance. Units: tons day⁻¹.







- 977 Fig. 13 Cross sections of the average dust mass concentrations ($\mu g m^{-3}$) over the TD (a) and
- 978 GD (b) during the simulation period.







990 Fig. 14 Spatial distributions of the SW, LW, and net (SW+LW) direct radiative forcing of

dust (W m⁻²) over East Asia at the TOA (top panels), SUR (bottom panels), and in the ATM
(middle panels).

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- 999 Fig. 15 Vertical profiles of the radiative heating rates (K day⁻¹) induced by dust particles in
- 1000 the dust storm from the WRF-Chem simulation.