



1 **Effect of ecological restoration programs on dust**
2 **pollution in North China Plain: a case study**

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17 **Abstract:** In recent years, Chinese government has taken great efforts in initiating
18 large-scale ecological restoration programs (ERPs) to reduce the dust pollutions in
19 China. Using a satellite measurement product of Moderate Resolution Imaging
20 Spectroradiometer (MODIS), the changes in land cover are quantitatively evaluated in
21 this study. We find that grass and forest are increased in berried lands and deserts in
22 northwestern China, which locate in the upwind regions of the populated areas of the
23 North China Plain (NCP) in eastern China. As a result, the changes in land cover
24 could produce important impacts on the dust pollutions in eastern of China. To assess
25 the effect of ERPs on dust pollutions, a regional transport/dust model (WRF-DUST,
26 Weather Research and Forecast model with dust) is applied to investigate the
27 evolution of dust pollutions during a strong dust episode (from 2 to 8 March 2016).
28 The calculations are intensively evaluated by comparing with the measured data.
29 Despite some model biases, the WRF-DUST model reasonably reproduced the
30 temporal variations and spatial distributions during the dust storm event. The
31 correlation coefficient (R) between the calculated and measured dust concentrations is
32 0.77. The indices of agreement (IOAs) are 0.96 and 0.83, and the normalized mean
33 bias (NMBs) are 2% and -15% in the dust source region (DSR) and the downwind
34 populated area of NCP, respectively, suggesting that the WRF-DUST model well
35 captures the spatial variations and temporal evolutions of the dust storm event. The
36 impacts of EPRs induced land cover changes on the dust pollutions in NCP are
37 quantitatively assessed using the WRF-DUST model. We find that the ERPs
38 significantly reduce the dust pollutions in NCP, especially in the heart area of NCP
39 (BTH, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei). During the episode when the dust storm was
40 transported from the DSR to NCP, the reduction of dust pollutions induced by ERPs
41 ranges from -5% to -15% in NCP, with the maximum reduction of -15.3% ($-21.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
42 in BTH, and -6.2% ($-9.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in NCP. Because the air pollution is severe in
43 eastern China, especially in NCP, the reduction of dust pollutions has important
44 effects on the severe air pollutions. This study shows that ERPs help to reduce air
45 pollutions in the region, especially in springtime, suggesting the important
46 contributions of ERPs to the air pollution control in China.

47 **Key words:** Ecological restoration programs; Dust pollution; North China Plain;
48 WRF-DUST

49



50 **1 Introduction**

51 Dust particles have wide impacts on the Earth's radiative forcing budget (Liao et al.,
52 2004; Haywood et al., 2005), cloud formation (Rosenfeld et al., 2001), atmospheric
53 dynamics (Evan et al., 2008), air quality (Giannadaki et al., 2014), and ocean
54 biogeochemistry (Jickells et al., 2005) in various spatial and temporal scales.
55 Distinguished from the increasing trends observed in other major dust source regions
56 (Moulin et al., 1997), the East Asian dust storms are in decreasing trends since 1950s
57 except for a spike in dust activity (Lee and Sohn, 2011; Wang et al., 2017). The East
58 Asian dust storms could be transported to southern/eastern China (Qian et al., 2002),
59 Korea (Park and In, 2003), and Japan (Watanabe et al., 2014) and even the west coast
60 of North America (Cottle et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2017). There are two dominant
61 source regions of East Asian dust storms locate in China, including the Taklamakan
62 Desert in northwest China and the Gobi Desert in Mongolia and northern China (Sun
63 et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2011). Along the transport pathway, mineral dust particles
64 lead to significant impacts on human's life in the densely populated areas of
65 southern/eastern part of China (Bian et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2013).

66 To reduce dust pollution problem and to improve the environmental conditions, the
67 Chinese government has taken great efforts in initiating large-scale ecological
68 restoration programs (ERPs) (Yin and Yin, 2010; Cao et al., 2011). Chinese ERPs are
69 among the biggest programs in the world because of their ambitious goals, massive
70 scales, huge payments and potentially enormous impacts. As a result, the "Green Wall
71 of China" has been established in North China (Duan et al., 2011). There are strong
72 evidences that a remarkable vegetation increase trend has occurred in the dominant
73 dust source areas, northwestern China, especially after 2000 (Piao et al., 2003; Peng et
74 al., 2011). And the dust storm frequency in Northern China is generally in decreasing
75 trends (Li et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2007). However, it is still prevalent the ongoing
76 debate about effectiveness of the national ERPs. Numerous experts and government
77 officials have attributed the decrease trend to the success of ERPs in controlling dust
78 storms and combated desertification (Wang et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2008; Tan and Li,
79 2015). Conversely, several experts have doubted the program's effectiveness (Jiang,
80 2005; Wang et al., 2010; Cao et al., 2011), generally asserting the climate factors
81 being the main cause for the observed decrease of dust storms in northern China (Li et



82 al., 2014; Fan et al., 2017). Some experts further highlight the potential deterioration
83 of the ecosystem with severe depletion of soil moisture, especially in semiarid and
84 arid regions (Deng et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2016). Hence, there is an increasing need to
85 evaluate the China's ERPs at controlling dust pollution, particularly for the downwind
86 densely populated areas, to improve the decision support for ecological planning and
87 implementation. The mineral dust particles can also serve as carriers and reaction
88 platforms, and the heterogeneous dust chemistry may change the photochemistry, acid
89 deposition, and production of secondary aerosols in the atmosphere (Lou et al., 2014;
90 Fu, 2016; Zhou et al., 2016). The rigorous evaluation of ecological efforts is also
91 beneficial to improve the understanding of the attractive haze pollution research in
92 NCP.

93 There are difficulties to estimate the effectiveness of ERPs in dust control, which are
94 seldom quantitatively specified. On one hand, it is hard to quantify the influence of
95 ERPs in regional scale. The vegetation indices (e.g. NDVI, normalized-difference
96 vegetation index) are the most utilized parameters to conduct quantitative evaluation
97 of ERPs' effectiveness (Duan et al., 2011; Lü et al., 2015; Tan and Li, 2015). But the
98 vegetation indices are not efficient indicators for dust emission, which are mainly
99 related to erodibility of barren land surface directly (Bian et al., 2011). On the other
100 hand, it is hard to distinguish the influences of climate factors, which have been
101 generally asserted to be one of the main causes for the observed decrease of dust
102 storms in northern China. To exclude the influences of climate factors, Tan and Li
103 (2015) have compared the correlation of dust storm indices (intensity and frequency),
104 NDVI, wind speed, and precipitation within and outside the "Green Great Wall"
105 regions, qualitatively inferring the effectiveness of ERPs in reducing dust storm
106 intensity. However, the previous studies didn't quantify the roles of ERPs, such as the
107 detailed variations of ERPs, the effect of regional transport to downwind regions, etc.
108 The focus of our work is to use detailed satellite measurements to assess the region of
109 ERPs, and to use a regional model to quantify the effect of ERPs on the downwind
110 regions, especially in the NCP region.

111 Here our narrative is independently based on first-hand sources of satellite
112 measurements and WRF-DUST model simulation. We investigated the ERPs induced
113 land cover changes in China using the long-term MODIS land cover products. The



114 impacts of the ERPs induced land cover changes on the dust pollution in NCP were
115 further quantitatively evaluated using the WRF-DUST model. We selected two
116 regions of interest (ROIs) (**Fig. 1**): (1) the polluted and dense populated downwind
117 areas of dust storms, the North China Plain (NCP), including five provinces of the
118 Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Henan and Shandong; (2) the dust source region and
119 surrounding areas (DSR), including five provinces in the northwest of NCP (Ningxia,
120 Gansu, Shanxi, Inner Mongolia and Shanxi). The details of ROIs are shown in **Fig. 1b**.
121 The methodology and WRF-DUST model configuration are described in Sect. 2. Data
122 analysis and model results are presented in Sect. 3, together with the conclusions and
123 discussions in Sect. 4.

124 **2 Model and methodology**

125 **2.1 Dust pollutants measurements**

126 The China Ministry of Environmental Protection (China MEP) has commenced to
127 release real-time hourly observations of pollutants since 2013, including O₃, NO₂, CO,
128 SO₂, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ (particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 and
129 10 μm, respectively). We collected the hourly near-surface PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ mass
130 concentrations from the China MEP (<http://www.aqistudy.cn/>). Because there are no
131 detailed aerosol compositions measurements, the PM_{2.5-10} (particulate matter with
132 aerodynamic diameter between 2.5 and 10 μm) mass concentrations (defined as
133 “[PMC]” in the later discussion) were utilized to analyze the dust pollution events.
134 According to several previous studies, the use of [PMC] also has two advantages: (1)
135 the size distribution of dust mass is center on the coarse model, and (2) the difference
136 between PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} can effectively decrease the uncertainty of anthropogenic
137 fine particulate matter, such as sulfate, nitrate, and organic aerosols (Ho et al., 2003;
138 Shen et al., 2011). A total of 184 cities (489 measurement sites) had [PMC]
139 observations in the research domain, including 30 cities within the DSR region and 53
140 cities within the NCP region (**Fig. 1a**). Because the prevailing winds were dominated
141 by west winds, the most measurement sites (as shown in **Fig. 1a**) locate in the
142 downwind area of the dust source regions (such as barren lands and deserts). As a
143 result, the China MEP measurement network provides a good opportunity to explore



144 the dust pollution evolution.

145 **2.2 MCD12Q1 data assimilation and land cover changes assessment**

146 We quantitatively evaluated the characteristics of annual land cover using the MODIS
147 land cover products (MCD12Q1), derived from the Terra- and Aqua- Moderate
148 Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) observations (Friedl et al., 2002).
149 The MCD12Q1 have been widely used in studies of atmospheric science, hydrology,
150 ecology, and land change science (Gerten et al., 2004; Guenther, 2006; Reichstein et
151 al., 2007; Turner et al., 2007). The IGBP (International Geosphere Biosphere
152 Programme) classification within MCD12Q1 (Version 5.1) was analyzed to explore
153 the variability of the land use fraction (LUF) from 2001 to 2013. The IGBP layer is
154 generated using a supervised classification algorithm in conjunction with a revised
155 database of high quality land cover training sites (Friedl et al., 2010). Its accuracy is
156 estimated to be 72.3-77.4% (average 75%) globally, with a 95% confidence interval
157 (Friedl et al., 2002; Friedl et al., 2010).

158 The IGBP layer in MCD12Q1 is well consistent with the MODIS land use scheme in
159 the WRF-CHEM model, including 11 natural vegetation classes, 3 developed and
160 mosaicked land classes, and 3 non-vegetated land classes. **Supplementary Table 1**
161 shows the land use categories for the WRF-CHEM MODIS data and MCD12Q1. We
162 conducted the geospatial processing to assimilate the MCD12Q1 data (500 m) to fit in
163 the WRF-CHEM model (9 km in the present study) by the following steps. (1)
164 Convert the original raster MCD12Q1 dataset to vector files (esri-shapefile) and
165 re-projected them based on the geographic coordinate system configurations in
166 WRF-CHEM module (Its pre-processors). (2) Create vector files (shapefile) of each
167 grid based the domain of WRF-CHEM. (3) Access and iterate the selected
168 grid-shapefile to partition the converted the MCD12Q1 vector dataset into model
169 resolution using the Esri ArcGIS library (arcpy). The empty grids were populated
170 with the vector MCD12Q1 dataset using a spatial join operation in ArcGIS, joining
171 one input feature to one output feature (no aggregation) whenever input and output
172 polygon features intersect. This methodology preserves the values of the original
173 MCD12Q1 dataset. (4) Transcribe the newly merged and re-gridded MCD12Q1
174 datasets into text files readable in WRF-CHEM pre-processors, calculating the



175 gridded LUF of each category by

$$176 \quad LUF_{i,j,k} = \frac{Area_{i,j,k}}{Area_{i,j}} \quad (1)$$

177 where i and j are grid indices, $Area_{i,j,k}$ stands for the total area of each land use
178 category k within grid cell (i, j) , and $Area_{i,j}$ is the area of grid cell (i, j) . The $LUF_{i,j,k}$
179 ranges from 0 to 1, representing the emission potential of the specified dust source (k)
180 in each grid cell (i, j) . The larger $LUF_{i,j,k}$, the higher dust emission potential.

181 2.3 WRF-DUST model and configurations

182 In the present study, we utilized a specific WRF-DUST model developed based on a
183 regional chemical model WRF-CHEM (version 3.2) (Grell et al., 2005). The
184 GOCART (Georgia Tech/Goddard Global Ozone Chemistry Aerosol Radiation and
185 Transport model) scheme (Chin et al., 2000) was utilized to calculate the physical
186 processes of dust emission, transport, dry depositions, and gravitational settling. The
187 dust particle sizes are divided into five size bins with effective radius of 0.7, 1.4, 2.4,
188 4.5 and 8.0 μm . The dust emission in each dust size bins is size-resolved. Dust
189 emission is dependent on the surface wind velocity (Ginoux et al., 2001), and surface
190 land cover properties (such as soil composition, vegetation, soil moisture content, and
191 soil erodibility) (Grini et al., 2005; Li et al., 2016a), which can be calculated by

$$192 \quad G_p = \begin{cases} C\gamma_p EV^2(V - Vt_p) & V > Vt_p \\ 0 & V \leq Vt_p \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

193 Where G is the dust emission flux (kg s^{-1}); p is the dust size bin; C is a dimensional
194 factor ($0.8 \mu\text{g s}^2 \text{m}^{-5}$); γ is the dust particle fraction; E is the probability soil erosion
195 factor; V is the near-surface wind velocity at 10 m (m s^{-1}); and Vt is the threshold
196 velocity (m s^{-1}).

197 The WRF- DUST model was applied to simulate dust storm events in several
198 previous studies (Kang et al., 2009; Bian et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Li et al.,
199 2016a). These studies reported that the WRF-DUST model is generally capable of



200 simulating dust storm events in the Asian region.

201 Because the dust emissions are strongly dependent on different categories of land
202 cover, to better investigate the impacts of land cover changes on the dust emission, we
203 modified the GOCART dust emission scheme, considering the each land cover dust
204 source categories other than the dominant category. The flux of dust emission G in
205 each grid is given by

$$206 \quad G_p = \begin{cases} \sum_k LUF_k C\gamma_p E V^2 (V - V_{\square p}) & V > V t_p \\ 0 & V \leq V t_p \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

207 LUF_k denotes the gridded area fraction of land cover category k derived from the
208 satellite data (MCD12Q1) assimilation. The other parameters are the same as those in
209 Eq. (2). We set the erosion factor $E=0.12$ for cropland and $E=0.5$ for barren following
210 the previous studies.

211 A dust storms episode from 2 to 8 March 2016 in northern China was simulated using
212 the WRF-DUST model. The WRF-DUST model adopts one grid with horizontal
213 resolution of 9 km centered in (112°E, 41°N) and 35 sigma levels in the vertical
214 direction. The grid cells used for the domain are 500×300 (**Fig. 1**). The physical
215 parameterizations include the microphysics scheme of Hong and Lim (2016), the
216 Mellor–Yamada–Janjic (MYJ) turbulent kinetic energy (TKE) planetary boundary
217 layer scheme (Janić, 2001), the unified Noah land-surface model (Chen and Dudhia,
218 2001). Meteorological initial and boundary conditions were taken from the 1°×1°
219 reanalysis data of National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP). For the
220 episode simulations, the spin-up time is 3 days. Considering the impacts of the local
221 dust emission, the coarse mode of anthropogenic particulate matter emission was
222 included in the calculation. The detailed emission inventory was obtained from the
223 Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) (Zhang et al., 2009), which is
224 then updated and improved for the year 2010 (<http://www.meicmodel.org>).

225 **2.4 Statistical methods for comparisons**

226 In order to assess the effect of the ERPs induced land cover changes on the dust
227 pollutions in China, the model calculation is statistically evaluated. The following
228 statistical parameters are calculated for evaluating the model calculation, including



229 the normalized mean bias (*MB*), the index of agreement (*IOA*), and the correlation
230 coefficient (*R*). These parameters are utilized to assess the WRF-CHEM model
231 performance in simulating air pollutants against measurements.

$$232 \quad NMB = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N O_i} \quad (4)$$

$$233 \quad IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|P_i - \bar{P}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2} \quad (5)$$

$$234 \quad R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - \bar{P})(O_i - \bar{O})}{[\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - \bar{P})^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})^2]^{1/2}} \quad (6)$$

235 where P_i and O_i are the calculated and observed PMC concentrations ([PMC]),
236 respectively. N is the total number of the predictions used for comparisons, and \bar{O}
237 represents the average of the prediction and observation, respectively. The *IOA* ranges
238 from 0 to 1, with 1 showing perfect agreement of the prediction with the observation.
239 The *R* ranges from -1 to 1, with 1 implicating perfect spatial consistency of
240 observation and prediction.

241 **3 Results and discussions**

242 **3.1 Land Cover change induced by ERPs**

243 The land surface changes due to the ecological restoration programs (ERPs) were
244 assessed using the MCD12Q1 product. From 2001 to 2013, the land cover exhibits
245 two obvious vegetation increase trends between the dust source region in northwestern
246 China and dense populated areas in eastern China. Firstly, there is a regional
247 grass/savanna increase trend with obvious LUF increase of grass/savanna categories
248 (**Fig. 2b**), corresponding with a regional LUF decrease in barren categories in
249 northwestern China (**Fig. 2a**). The result is consistent with the previous research
250 based on long-term official and synthesized data, which also found a decreasing trend
251 of soil erosion areas in four provinces (e.g. Inner Mongolia, Gansu, Qinghai, and
252 Xinjiang), especially after 2000 (Zhang et al., 2016). Secondly, a regional forest LUF
253 increase trend occurs in the northwestern NCP (**Fig. 2c**), which agrees with the
254 previous study of Li et al., (2016b), who reported a remarkable forest growth in the



255 northwest of NCP from 2000 to 2010. As a result, two obvious vegetation protective
256 barriers arise throughout in southwest to northeast direction, which is well known as
257 “the Green Great Wall” with expectations to prevent the eastern of China from dust
258 pollution (Parungo et al., 1994; Liu et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2011).

259 The land cover changes, especially the obvious vegetation growths, are mainly caused
260 by the China’s national ERPs. (1) The grassland increase is mainly induced by the
261 desertification control programs of the “Desertification Combating around Beijing
262 and Tianjin (DCBT)” and “the Shelterbelt Network Development Program (SNDP)”.
263 They share with the goal of dust control, planning to protect grasslands and to convert
264 the desertified land into forestland and grassland. (2) The forest increase can be
265 attributed to many national afforestation programs, such as the “Natural Forest
266 Protection Program (NEPP)”, “Grain for Green Project”, “Three Norths Shelter Forest
267 System Project” and so on. The China’s State Forestry Administration presented
268 enthusiasm to plant trees in the ecological restoration (Yin and Yin, 2010; Cao et al.,
269 2011).

270 3.2 Model performance

271 The hourly measurements of [PMC] in both the dust source region (DSR) and the
272 downward populated region (NCP region) were used to validate the WRF-DUST
273 model simulations. **Figure 3** presents the diurnal variations of calculated and
274 observed near-surface [PMC] averaged over the ambient monitoring site in provinces
275 within DSR and NCP. The model reasonably well reproduces the temporal variations
276 of surface [PMC] compared to the observations. e.g. the dust storm outbreak with
277 peak [PMC] in DSR are reasonably earlier than that in the downwind NCP areas. The
278 peak [PMC] occurred on 4 March within DSR (**Fig. 3a**), whereas occurred on 5
279 March within NCP (**Fig. 3b**). In the DSR region, the calculated results show a same
280 phase of the peak value compared with the measured peak on 4 March. However, the
281 calculated peak values show some underestimates of the measured value. In the NCP
282 region, the calculated results show a same phase of the peak value compared with the
283 measured peak on 5 March. The calculated peak value is similar to the measured peak.
284 However, after the peak value (after 6th March), the calculated results underestimate
285 of the measured value.



286 In the different provinces of the dust source region, the hourly provincial average
287 [PMC] can exceed $500 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Ningxia, Gansu, and Inner Mongolia (the locations
288 of these provincial average show in **Fig. 1b**) before 20:00 4th March, implicating dust
289 storm outbreak in DSR. In the different provinces of the downward region, the peak
290 values have time-lags (hours to half day) compared to the peak values in DSR. For
291 example, the peak [PMC] arose first in Beijing with a time-lag of 7 hours. In other
292 four provinces of NCP (the locations of these provincial average show in Fig. 1b), the
293 time-lags are about 12 hours (**Fig. 3b**).

294 The statistical results show that the model generally exhibits good performance in
295 simulating [PMC] in the DSR region, involving IOA of 0.96 and NMB of 2% for
296 DSR. For the related provinces, all the IOAs exceed 0.85 and absolute NMB are
297 lower than 13% (**Fig. 3a1–5**). The model also generally reproduces the observed
298 [PMC] in NCP, with IOA of 0.83 for NCP and IOAs exceeding 0.67 for related
299 provinces. However, the model biases still exist, considerably underestimation biases
300 occurred on 6–7 March in NCP. The model underestimates considerably the observed
301 [PMC] with average NMB of -15% in NCP (**Fig. 3b0**). And the model cannot well
302 predict the observed [PMC] in Tianjin (**Fig. 3b2**), which is affected by the sea breeze
303 when the large-scale wind fields are weak (**Fig. 5e, 5h**). In general, however, current
304 numerical weather prediction models, even in research mode, still have difficulties in
305 producing the location, timing, depth, and intensity of the sea-breeze front (Banta et
306 al., 2005; Wang et al., 2013). The model reasonable predicts the [PMC] variations in
307 other four provinces in NCP, with IOAs more than 0.77, but with underestimation of
308 MBs varying from -25% to -3% (**Fig. 3b1, b3–5**), showing model biases in modeling
309 precipitation processes.

310 The episode-averaged calculation was compared with the measured result in **Fig. 4**.
311 Figure 4a provides the horizontal distributions of the simulated and the observed
312 near-surface [PMC], along with the simulated wind fields. The WRF-DUST model
313 reasonably reproduces spatial variation of [PMC] during the dust episode. The model
314 simulation is also able to provide a more detailed horizontal distribution, while the
315 measured data is generally lack of the data in the remote desert area (see **Fig. 4a**). The
316 correlation coefficient (R) between the simulations and observations is 0.77 (see **Fig.**
317 **4b**), suggesting that the model simulation is able to represent the measured result



318 during the dust episode period.

319 In order to evaluate the detailed temporal evolution of the dust plume, the daily
320 average calculated and measured dust distributions are shown in **Fig. 5**. On 2 March,
321 it was a starting dust storm stage, and both the observed and simulated [PMC] reached
322 as high as 200–300 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the upwind DSR region, while in the downwind NCP
323 region, the concentrations of [PMC] were low, being only 20–50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Fig 5a**). On
324 3 March, the dust storm was strengthened in the upwind DSR region (**Fig 5b**). On 4
325 March, the dust storm was further strengthened in the upwind DSR region. The area
326 of the dust storm in DSR was enlarged, and the concentrations of [PMC] were the
327 highest values of the episode, reaching to 300–500 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. In addition, there were
328 strong northwest winds ($> 10 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). Due to the strong northwest prevailing winds, the
329 dust storm started to be transported from upwind DSR to downwind NCP with
330 northwest to southeast direction (**Fig 5c**). On 5 March, due to the strong northwest
331 prevailing winds in the previous day, the dust storm reached to the NCP region, and
332 caused a remarkable [PMC] increase, with the concentrations rise to 100–200 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.
333 At the same time, the dust plume was dispersed in DSR, showing a significant
334 decrease in [PMC]. The model results well represented these important features (**Fig**
335 **5d**). On 6–7 March, the dust storm passed through and the wind speed slowed down,
336 the [PMC] significantly decreased in both the DSR and NCP regions (**Fig. 5e-f**). The
337 correlation coefficients between measured and simulated [PMC] are 0.58–0.90 in
338 starting stage of the dust storm (**Fig. 5a-5c**), and 0.62 – 0.73 in the later stage of the
339 dust storm (**Fig. 5d-5f**).

340 Generally, the WRF-DUST model well captures the spatial variations and temporal
341 evolutions of dust storm during the episode. However, some model biases exist. For
342 example, the model underestimates the observed [PMC] in NCP, especially during the
343 later stage of the episode on 6–7 March (**Fig. 5e-f**), suggesting that several bias in the
344 model (such as the bias in meteorological simulation, a faster deposition, etc.) (Bian et
345 al., 2011; Duan et al., 2011; Bei et al., 2012).

346 **3.3 Effect of ecological restoration on dust pollution**

347 The evaluation the model simulation during dust storm episode suggests that the
348 WRF-DUST model is able to simulate the dust transport from the source region to



349 downwind areas, which can be used to assess the effect of ecological restoration on
350 the dust pollution in the populated region, such as NCP.

351 Despite the ongoing debate about effectiveness (Jiang, 2005; Liu et al., 2008; Wang et
352 al., 2010; Tan and Li, 2015; Deng et al., 2016), there are incontestably great changes
353 of the surface properties induced by the China's national ERPs (Yin and Yin, 2010;
354 Cao et al., 2011; Duan et al., 2011). We conducted model sensitivity studies to
355 quantitatively evaluate the impacts of the land cover changes on the dust pollution in
356 NCP. Two model simulations were performed. In the base case, the MCD12Q1
357 product with IGBP scheme in 2013 was utilized to represent the land cover situations
358 after the ERPs. Compared with the base simulation, another simulation was conducted
359 with same configuration and input data, except the land cover situations assimilated
360 from the MCD12Q1 product with IGBP scheme in 2001. This model simulation
361 represents the land cover situations without the effects of ERPs. The differences of the
362 two model simulations of dust concentrations were compared.

363 **Figure 6** presents the near-surface [PMC] change from 2001 to 2013, including the
364 temporal variations and the episode-average spatial variations. The vegetation
365 increase regions and downwind areas denoted the most remarkable change with [PMC]
366 reduction exceeding 20%, especially for the areas where barren converted to grassland
367 (**Fig. 2a, 2b, Fig. 6b, 6d**). The ERPs generally reduce the dust pollution in NCP
368 during the dust storm episode, except in Henan province. The episode-average [PMC]
369 reduction is -10% to -2% in the heart of NCP (BTH; Beijing, Tianjin, and Hebei) and
370 Shandong. In northern Hebei, the episode-reduce [PMC] can reach as high as -20% to
371 -10% (**Fig. 6b, 6d**). The changes of [PMC] are generally negative, implicating the
372 effectiveness of ERPs in preventing the dust pollution in NCP, especially for BTH.
373 During the episode when the dust storm was transported from the DSR to NCP, the
374 benefits of ERPs induced dust pollution reduction are remarkable, with the reduction
375 of [PMC] ranging -5% to -15% in NCP. The highest reduction of [PMC] induced by
376 ERPs are -15.3% ($-21.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for BTH and -6.2% ($-9.34 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for NCP (**Fig 6a,**
377 **6c**).

378 **Figure 7** shows the detailed horizontal distributions in the different stages of the
379 episode, such as T1 (08:00, 4 March), T2 (02:00, 5 March), T3 (13:00 5 March), and



380 T4 (04:00, 6 March). T1 and T2 are at the time points of dust outbreak in DSR, while
381 the T3 and T4 are at time points of dust pollutants being transported to NCP. All of
382 the four key time points correspond to peak [PMC] change (**Fig 6a, 6c**). To capture
383 different dust pollution phases, we analyzed the [PMC] change distributions for these
384 time points (**Fig. 7**). At T1, the dust storm started and was limited in DSR (**Fig. 7a**).
385 Hence, ERPs caused prominent [PMC] decrease in DSR ($-16.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), whereas had
386 small influence in NCP (lower than $2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ both in NCP and BTH) (**Fig. 6a, Fig.**
387 **7b**). At T2, dust storm was transported from DSR to NCP. As a result, the [PMC]
388 values were diluted in DSR, while were enhanced in NCP (**Fig. 7c**). [PMC] decrease
389 was considerable in DSR ($-8.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and there was a significant [PMC] decrease in
390 northern NCP by about -10.0 to $-30.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Fig. 7d**). At T3, the dust storm moved
391 from the source region to the downwind NCP region (**Fig. 7e**). The ERPs significantly
392 reduced the dust pollution in the NCP region (**Fig. 7f**), causing the remarkable [PMC]
393 reduction in BTH ($-19.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and NCP ($-9.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) (**Fig. 6a, 6c**). At T4, it was
394 the point of the end of the dust episode, and the [PMC] values were started to decrease
395 (**Fig. 7g**).

396 4 Summary and conclusions

397 Dust pollution has significant impacts on human's life in China, especially in
398 springtime. To reduce dust pollution problem, Chinese government has taken great
399 efforts for initiating national ecological restoration programs (ERPs) since 1978.
400 Despite the incontestably great changes of surface properties induced by ERPs, the
401 effectiveness of ERPs in dust pollution control is not well understood. In the present
402 study, we are trying to assess the impact of ERPs on the dust pollutions, especially in
403 the downwind populated region (NCP). First, the ERPs induced land cover changes
404 are investigated, using the long-term satellite measurements. The gridded LUF
405 matrixes are calculated and then assimilated, which can provide more accurate surface
406 properties than previous studies, especially for the dust emissions due to wind erosion
407 in the WRF-DUST model. Second, the WRF-DUST model is applied to evaluate the
408 effects of the ERPs on the dust pollution control in NCP. Some important results are
409 summarized as follows:

410 1. A more detailed land surface properties are quantified by calculating gridded LUF



411 based on long-term satellite measurement. Two important vegetation (grass and
412 forest) are increased in berried lands and deserts in northwestern China, which
413 locate in the upwind regions of the populated areas of NCP in eastern China. As a
414 result, China has impressive progress in implementing some of the world's largest
415 ERPs, which could produce important impacts on the dust pollution in eastern of
416 China.

417 2. The WRF-DUST model is applied to assess the effect of ERPs on dust pollutions.
418 The model calculations are intensively evaluated. Despite some model biases, the
419 WRF-DUST model reasonably reproduced the temporal and spatial dust pollution
420 episode both in upwind DSR and downwind NCP regions, especially for the dust
421 storm outbreak and the down wind transport. The correlation coefficients (R)
422 between simulated and observed [PMC] are 0.96 for DSR and 0.83 for NCP, and
423 the NMBs are 2% and -15%, respectively.

424 3. The impacts of EPRs induced land cover changes on the dust pollution in NCP are
425 assessed during an episode of dust storm (from 02 to 07 March, 2016). The results
426 suggest that ERPs significantly reduce the dust pollution in NCP, especially in the
427 heart area of NCP (BTH). During the episode when the dust storm was transported
428 from the DSR to NCP, the reduction of dust pollution induced by ERPs ranges
429 from -5% to -15% in NCP, with the maximum reduction of -15.3% ($-21.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
430 in BTH, and -6.2% ($-9.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in NCP.

431 The air pollution is severe in eastern China, especially in NCP, and the dust pollutions
432 have important contributions to the severe air pollutions. This study shows that ERPs
433 help to reduce some air pollutions in the region, especially in springtime, suggesting
434 the important contribution of ERPs to the air pollution control in China. It should be
435 reiterated that, considering the limitation of case study and the sparse empirical
436 evidence, the main focus of this study does not intent to give a general conclusion, but
437 rather to provide some insights of the effect of ERPs on the downwind area, where
438 heavy haze often occurred due to anthropogenic air pollutants.

439



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613

Figure Captions

614 **Figure 1.** WRF-DUST simulation domain with surface land properties and major
615 natural dust sources in China. The crosses represent centers with ambient
616 monitoring sites. The land cover properties are derived from the MCD12Q1
617 product in the year 2013. Distribution of Gobi and deserts are adapted from
618 1:200,00 desert distribution dataset provide by the Environmental and
619 Ecological Science Data Center for West China, National Natural Science
620 Foundation of China (<http://westdc.westgis.ac.cn>).

621 **Figure 2.** The horizontal distributions of land cover changes induced by the ERPs
622 from 2001 to 2013 for the categories of **(a)** barrens, **(b)** grasslands/savannas,
623 **(c)** forest, and **(d)** others.

624 **Figure 3.** The temporal variations of predicted (read lines) and observed (black dots)
625 diurnal profiles of near-surface [PMC] over all ambient monitoring stations
626 in provinces within regions of DSR and NCP. The model performance
627 statistics of *NMB*, and *IOA* are also shown. The x-axis is the date in Beijing
628 Time.

629 **Figure 4.** The comparison of calculated (color contour) and observed (colored circles)
630 episode average [PMC]. **(a)** [PMC] distribution along with the simulated
631 wind fields (black arrows). **(b)** The correlation analysis.

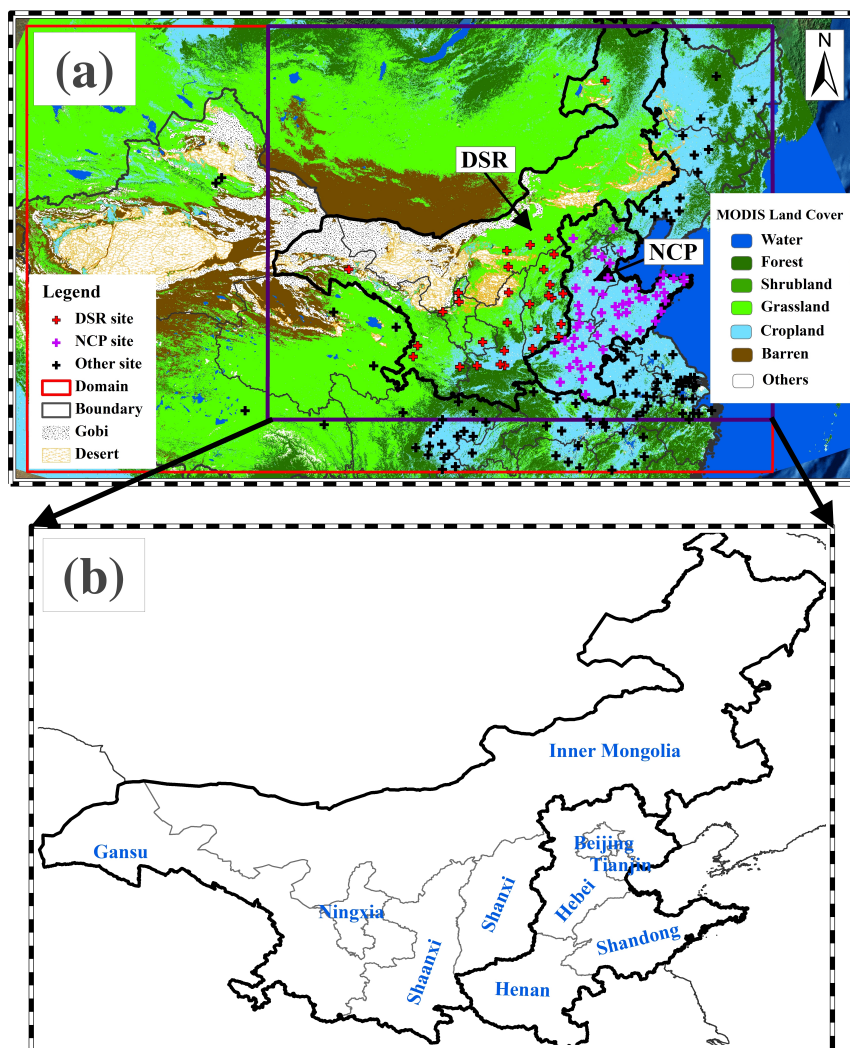
632 **Figure 5.** The distribution of calculated (color contour) and observed (colored circles)
633 daily average [PMC], along with the simulated wind fields (black arrows).
634 The correlation indices (*R*) between measurements and simulations are also
635 presented.

636 **Figure 6.** The impacts of ERPs on near-surface [PMC] in regions of DSR, NCP and
637 BTH, including **(a, c)** the temporal variations and **(b, d)** the
638 episode-average spatial variations. Both the concentration **(a, b)** and
639 percentage **(c, d)** influences are presented.

640 **Figure 7.** The horizontal distributions of **(a, c, e, g)** [PMC] and **(b, d, f, h)** [PMC]
641 change for the key time points of T1, T2, T3, and T4 (see Fig. 6). The
642 pattern comparisons of simulated vs. observed [PMC] are shown in left
643 panels, as well as their correlation indices, along with the simulated wind
644 field.



645 **Figure 1**

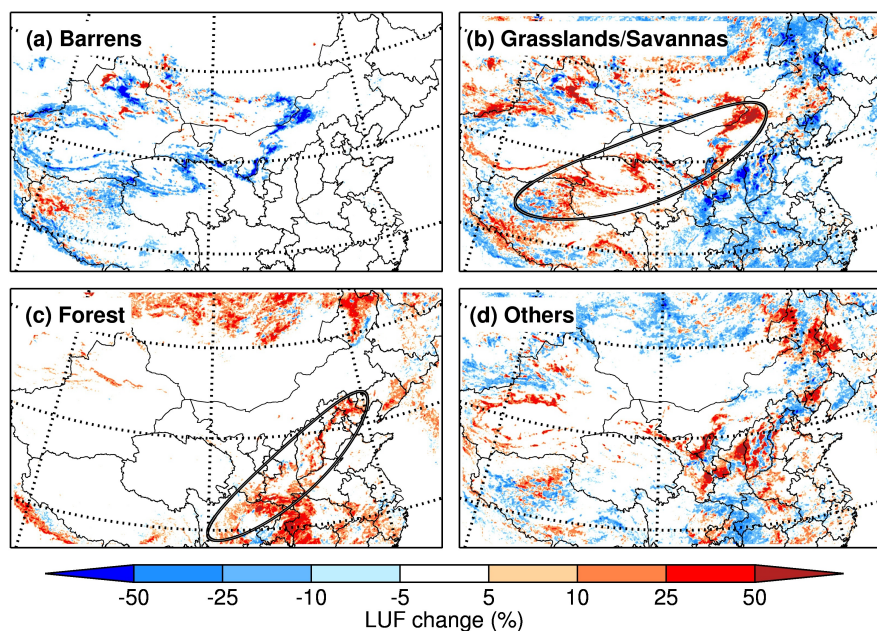


646

647 **Figure 1.** (a) WRF-DUST simulation domain with surface land properties and major
648 natural dust sources in China. (b) The details of ROIs for the dust source region and
649 surrounding areas (DSR) and the downwind North China Plain (NCP) region. The
650 crosses represent centers of ambient monitoring sites. The land cover properties are
651 derived from the MCD12Q1 product in the year 2013. Distribution of Gobi and
652 deserts are adapted from 1:200,00 desert distribution dataset provide by the
653 Environmental and Ecological Science Data Center for West China, National Natural
654 Science Foundation of China (<http://westdc.westgis.ac.cn>). The DSR region contains
655 five provinces in the northwest of NCP, involving Ningxia, Gansu, Shanxi, Inner
656 Mongolia and Shanxi. The NCP includes five provinces of the Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei,
657 Henan and Shandong.



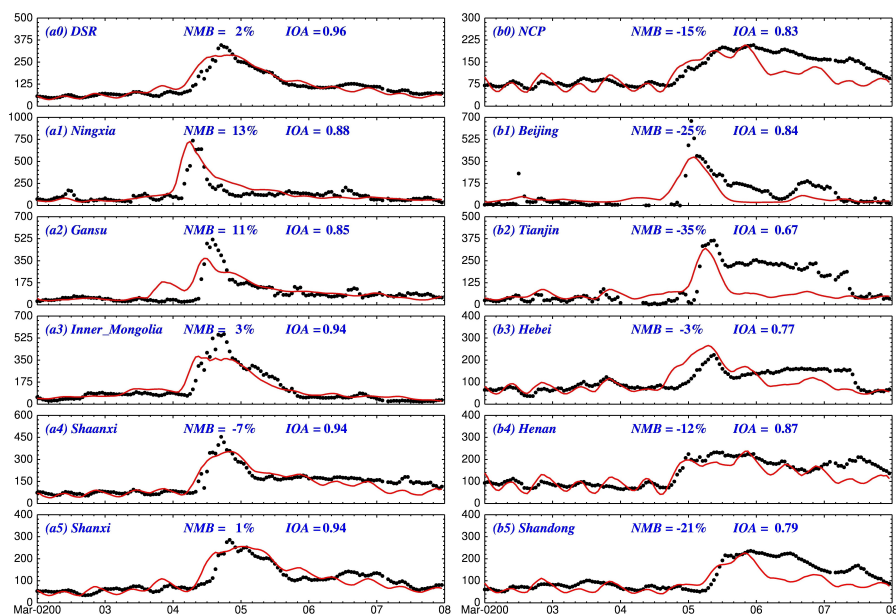
658 **Figure 2**
659



660
661 **Figure 2.** The horizontal distributions of land cover changes induced by the ERPs
662 from 2001 to 2013 for the categories of **(a)** barrens, **(b)** grasslands/savannas, **(c)** forest,
663 and **(d)** others.
664

665 **Figure 3**

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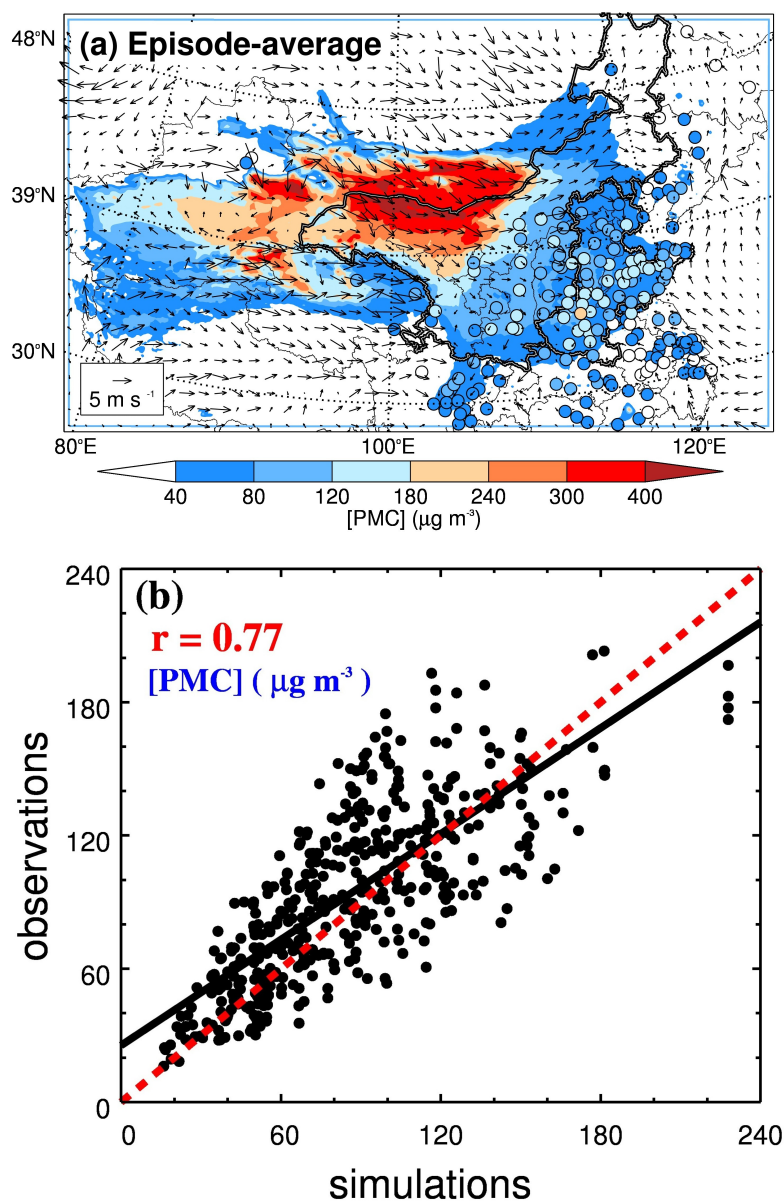
667

668 **Figure 3.** The temporal variations of predicted (read lines) and observed (black dots)
669 diurnal profiles of near-surface [PMC] over all ambient monitoring stations in
670 provinces within regions of DSR and NCP. The model performance statistics of *NMB*,
671 and *IOA* are also shown. The x-axis is the date in Beijing Time.

672



673 **Figure 4**



674

675 **Figure 4.** The comparison of calculated (color contour) and observed (colored circles)

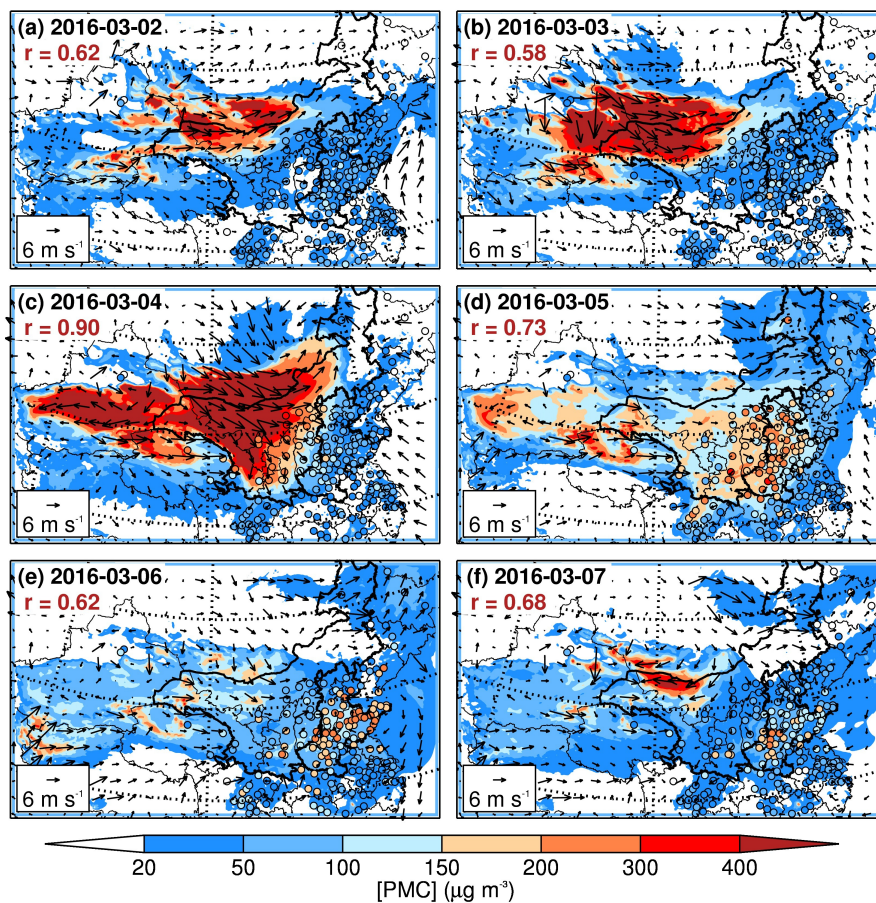
676 episode average [PMC]. (a) [PMC] distribution along with the simulated wind fields

677 (black arrows). (b) The correlation analysis.



678 **Figure 5**

679



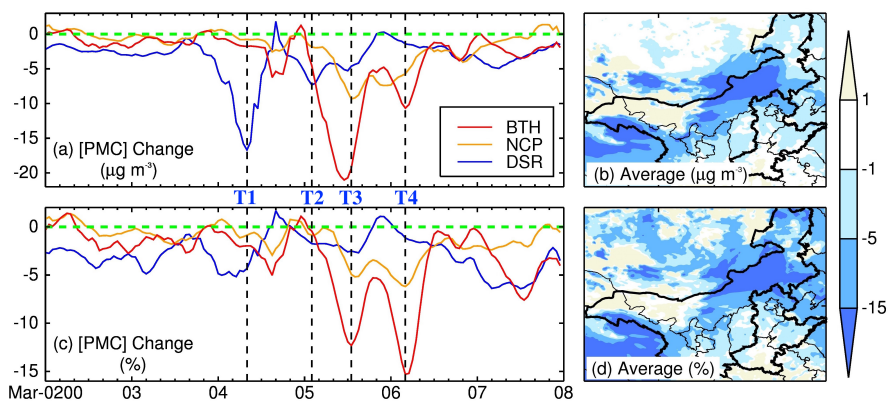
680

681 **Figure 5.** The distribution of calculated (color contour) and observed (colored circles)
682 daily average [PMC], along with the simulated wind fields (black arrows). The
683 correlation indices (R) between measurements and simulations are also presented.



684 **Figure 6**

685



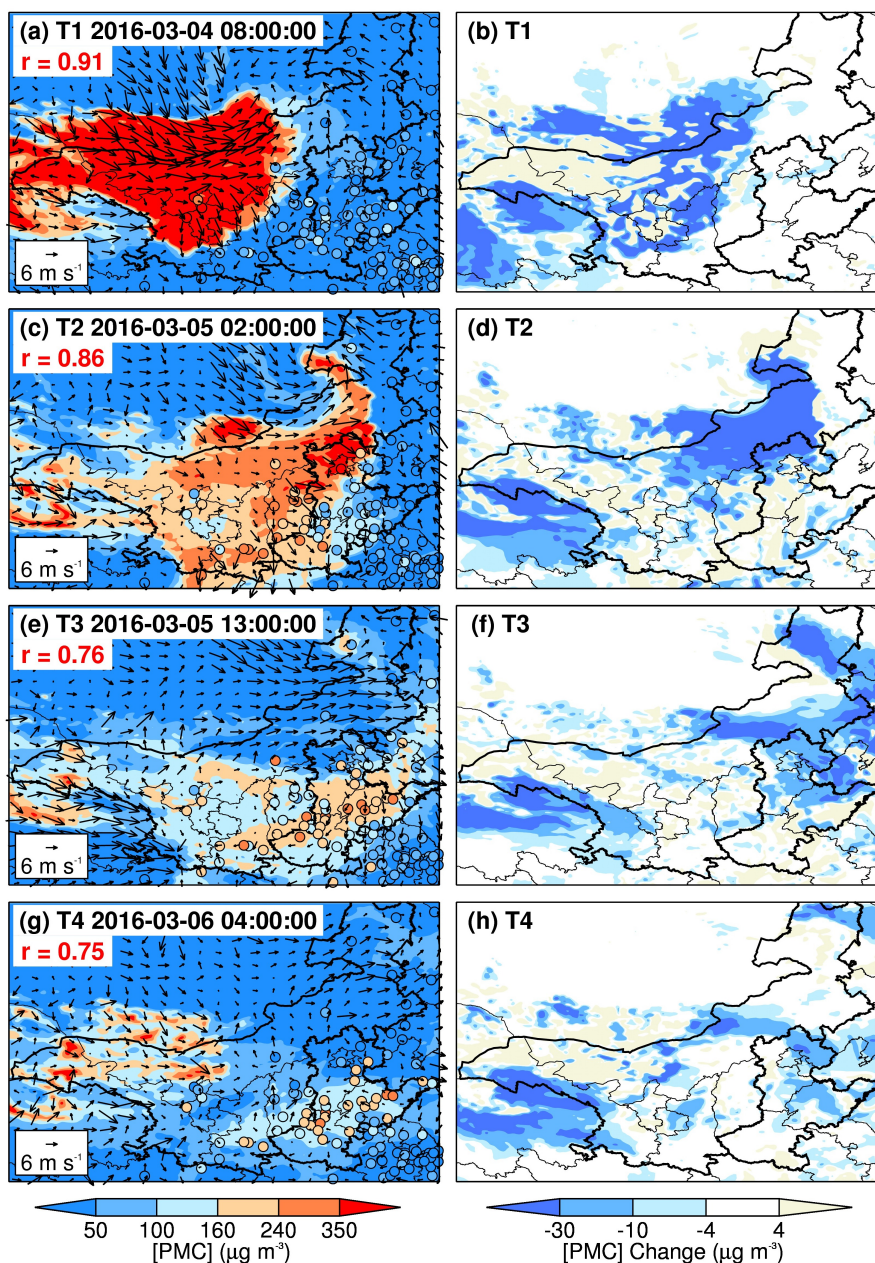
686

687 **Figure 6.** The impacts of ERPs on near-surface [PMC] in regions of DSR, NCP and
688 BTH, including (a, c) the temporal variations and (b, d) the episode-average spatial
689 variations. Both the concentration (a, b) and percentage (c, d) influences are
690 presented.

691



692 **Figure 7**



693

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696

697

Figure 7. The horizontal distributions of (a, c, e, g) [PMC] and (b, d, f, h) [PMC] change for the key time points of T1, T2, T3, and T4 (see Fig. 6). The pattern comparisons of simulated vs. observed [PMC] are shown in left panels, as well as the correlation indices, along with the simulated wind field.