

1 Direct radiative effects during intense Mediterranean desert dust 2 outbreaks

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15 16 17 Abstract

18
19 The direct radiative effect (DRE) during 20 intense and widespread dust outbreaks that affected the
20 broader Mediterranean basin over the period March 2000 – February 2013, has been calculated with the
21 NMMB-MONARCH model at regional (Sahara and European continent) and short-term temporal (84
22 h) scales. According to model simulations, the maximum dust aerosol optical depths (AODs) range
23 from ~2.5 to ~5.5 among the identified cases. At midday, dust outbreaks induce locally a NET
24 (shortwave plus longwave) strong atmospheric warming (DRE_{ATM} values up to 285 Wm⁻²; Niger-Chad;
25 dust AODs up to ~5.5), a strong surface cooling (DRE_{NETSURF} values down to -337 Wm⁻²) whereas they
26 strongly reduce the downward radiation at the ground (DRE_{SURF} values down to -589 Wm⁻² over the
27 Eastern Mediterranean, for extremely high dust AODs, 4.5 – 5). During nighttime, reverse effects of
28 smaller magnitude are found. At the top of the atmosphere (TOA), positive (planetary warming) DREs
29 up to 85 Wm⁻² are found over highly reflective surfaces (Niger-Chad; dust AODs up to ~5.5) while
30 negative (planetary cooling) DREs down to -184 Wm⁻² (Eastern Mediterranean; dust AODs 4.5 – 5) are
31 computed over dark surfaces at noon. Dust outbreaks significantly affect the mean regional radiation
32 budget, with NET DREs ranging from -8.5 to 0.5 Wm⁻², from -31.6 to 2.1 Wm⁻², from -22.2 to 2.2 Wm⁻²
33 and from -1.7 to 20.4 Wm⁻² for TOA, SURF, NETSURF and ATM, respectively. Although the
34 shortwave DREs are larger than the longwave ones, the latter are comparable or even larger at TOA,
35 particularly over the Sahara at midday. As a response to the strong surface daytime cooling, dust

36 outbreaks cause a reduction of the regional sensible and latent heat fluxes by up to 45 Wm^{-2} and 4 Wm^{-2} , respectively, averaged over land areas of the simulation domain. Dust outbreaks reduce the
37 temperature at 2 meters by up to 4 K during daytime, whereas a reverse tendency of similar magnitude
38 is found during nighttime. Depending on the vertical distribution of dust loads and time, mineral
39 particles heat (cool) the atmosphere by up to 0.9 K (0.8 K) during daytime (nighttime) within
40 atmospheric dust layers. Beneath and above the dust clouds, mineral particles cool (warm) the
41 atmosphere by up to 1.3 K (1.2 K) at noon (night). On a regional mean basis, negative feedbacks on the
42 total emitted dust (reduced by 19.5 %) and dust AOD (reduced by 6.9 %) are found when dust interacts
43 with the radiation. Through the consideration of dust radiative effects in numerical simulations, the
44 model positive/negative biases for the downward surface SW/LW radiation, with respect to Baseline
45 Surface Radiation Network (BSRN) measurements, are reduced. In addition, they also reduce the
46 model near-surface (at 2 meters) nocturnal cold biases by up to 0.5 K (regional averages), as well as the
47 model warm biases at 950 and 700 hPa, where the dust concentration is maximized, by up to 0.4 K.
48 However, improvements are relatively small and do not happen in all episodes because other model
49 first order errors may dominate over the expected improvements, and the misrepresentation of the dust
50 plumes' spatiotemporal features and optical properties may even produce a double penalty effect. The
51 enhancement of dust forecasts via data assimilation techniques may significantly improve the results.
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53

54 **1. Introduction**

55

56 Dust aerosols through their interaction with the incoming solar (shortwave, SW) and the outgoing
57 terrestrial (longwave, LW) radiation, perturb the radiation budget of the Earth-Atmosphere system and
58 redistribute the energy therein. The induced perturbation of the radiation fields by dust particles, the so-
59 called dust radiative effect, takes place through three processes of increasing complexity affecting the
60 energy budgets at the surface, into the atmosphere and at the top of the atmosphere (TOA). The first
61 one, known as direct radiative effect (DRE) and referred as REari (aerosol-radiation interactions) in the
62 latest report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, Boucher et al., 2013), is caused
63 by the absorption and scattering of the SW radiation (Sokolik et al., 2001) and the absorption and re-
64 emission of the LW radiation by mineral particles (Heinold et al., 2008). Due to the perturbation of the
65 radiation fields by dust aerosols, the energy budget both at the surface and into the atmosphere is
66 modified and the signal of these impacts is evident in atmospheric stability/instability conditions
67 associated with cloud development and precipitation. These rapid adjustments, which have been earlier
68 referred as semi-direct effects (Hansen et al., 1997), are induced by the dust REari on surface energy

69 budget and atmospheric profile (Boucher et al., 2013) contributing to the Effective Radiative Forcing
70 (ERFari). Moreover, dust aerosols due to their ability to serve as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and
71 ice nuclei (IN), modify the physical (Twomey, 1974; Albrecht, 1989) and optical properties of clouds
72 (Pincus and Baker, 1994), which consist the major regulators of the Earth-Atmosphere system's
73 radiation budget (Lohmann and Feicher, 2005). This chain of complex processes, involving aerosol-
74 cloud-interactions (ACI) and the subsequent modifications of the radiation fields, constitute the indirect
75 impact of mineral particles on radiation, which is characterized by the largest uncertainties, even larger
76 than those of the dust direct and semi-direct effects. In the latest IPCC report (IPCC, 2013), the
77 formerly known as indirect effects have been renamed to Effective Radiative Forcing (ERFaci)
78 including the modification of radiation by clouds as well as the subsequent changes (rapid adjustments)
79 of clouds' physical/microphysical/optical properties (Boucher et al., 2013).

80 Several studies have been conducted aiming at estimating the dust direct/semi-direct (e.g. Pérez et
81 al., 2006; Helmert et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2010; Nabat et al., 2015a) and indirect effects (e.g. Sassen et
82 al., 2003; Seigel et al., 2013). Specifically, numerous studies have been carried out either by means of
83 numerical modelling (e.g. Solmon et al., 2012; Woodage and Woodward, 2014) or through the synergy
84 of observations and radiative transfer codes (Di Sarra et al., 2011; Valenzuela et al., 2012) or solely
85 based on aerosol observations (e.g. Yang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2016) and their findings either
86 referred to extended (e.g. Spyrou et al., 2013) or limited time periods (e.g. Nabat et al., 2015b) or to
87 specific desert dust outbreaks (e.g. Pérez et al., 2006; Santese et al., 2010; Stanelle et al., 2010). The
88 investigation of dust radiative effects is a scientific issue of great concern since it is documented that
89 mineral particles, through their interaction with the radiation, can affect atmospheric processes from
90 short (weather) to long (climate) temporal scales. To this aim, many research efforts were dedicated to
91 the investigation of dust impacts on the convective activity (Mallet et al., 2009), sea surface
92 temperature (Foltz and McPhaden, 2008), hydrological cycle (Miller et al., 2004b), hurricanes (Bretl et
93 al., 2015), boundary layer dynamics (Heinold et al., 2008) and monsoons (Solmon et al., 2008; Vinoj et
94 al., 2014).

95 The direct impact of dust aerosols is expressed by the sign and the magnitude of the DRE values,
96 which are defined as the anomalies (perturbation) of the radiation fields attributed to dust-radiation
97 direct interaction, considering as a reference (control) an atmospheric state where mineral particles are
98 not a radiatively active substance. Based on this, negative and positive DREs indicate a cooling (loss of
99 energy) and a warming effect (gain of energy), respectively. Nevertheless, the sign of the DREs varies
100 between the SW and LW spectrum (Osborne et al., 2011) as well as within the Earth-Atmosphere

101 system. More specifically, due to the attenuation (through scattering and absorption) of the SW
102 radiation, dust aerosols warm the atmosphere and cool the surface (Huang et al., 2014), while reverse
103 tendencies are revealed at longer wavelengths attributed to the absorption and re-emission of LW
104 radiation by the mineral particles (Sicard et al., 2014a). Between the two spectrum ranges, the SW
105 DREs are larger compared to the LW ones, in absolute terms, explaining thus their predominance when
106 the corresponding calculations are made for the NET (SW+LW) radiation (e.g. Pérez et al., 2006; Zhu
107 et al., 2007; Woodage and Woodward, 2014). The perturbations of the radiation budget at the surface
108 and into the atmosphere determine the DRE at TOA (e.g. Kumar et al., 2014), which indicates the
109 increase (planetary cooling) or the decrease (planetary warming) of the outgoing radiation from the
110 Earth-Atmosphere system and is relevant to dust climatic effects (Christopher and Jones, 2007).

111 The scientific importance of investigating the dust direct impacts on radiation has been notified in
112 previous studies where it was shown that the consideration of the dust-radiation interactions may
113 improve the forecasting ability of weather models (Pérez et al., 2006) and can reduce the observed
114 biases of the LW radiation at TOA between models and satellite retrievals (Haywood et al., 2005). The
115 dust direct impacts are highly variable both in space (e.g. Zhao et al., 2010) and time (e.g. Osipov et al.,
116 2015) attributed to several parameters related either to dust aerosols' physical and optical properties or
117 to external factors (e.g. surface type), which determine both the sign and the magnitude of the DREs
118 (Liao and Seinfeld, 1998). One of the most important factor is the composition of mineral particles
119 determining the spectral variation of the refractive index (Müller et al., 2009; Petzold et al., 2009;
120 Perlwitz et al., 2015a,b; Pérez García-Pando et al., 2016) and subsequently their absorption efficiency
121 (Mallet et al., 2009), which are both critical in radiation transfer studies, and are also dependent on the
122 mixing state (either external or internal) of dust aerosols (Scarnato et al., 2015). Under clear skies, apart
123 from mineral particles' optical properties, the shape (Wang et al., 2013a), the emitted dust size
124 distribution (Mahowald et al., 2014), the surface albedo (Tegen et al., 2010) as well as the vertical
125 distribution of dust aerosols (Mishra et al., 2015) have been recognized as determinant factors for the
126 DRE calculation. On the contrary, when clouds are present, the position of dust layers with regards to
127 clouds defines the sign and the magnitude of DREs at TOA (Yorks et al., 2009; Meyer et al., 2013;
128 Choobari et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014).

129 The dust radiative effects become important under specific conditions of very high concentrations,
130 so-called events or episodes or outbreaks. Such episodes occur frequently over the broader
131 Mediterranean basin (Gkikas et al., 2013), due to its vicinity to the world's major dust sources situated
132 across the northern Africa (Sahara) and Middle East deserts (Ginoux et al., 2012). Dust particles are

133 mobilized over these areas by strong winds (Schepanski et al., 2009) being uplifted to the free
134 troposphere due to strong convection in the boundary layer (Cuesta et al., 2009) and are transported
135 towards the Mediterranean due to the prevailing synoptic circulation (Gkikas et al., 2015). Under these
136 conditions, dust particles over the Mediterranean are recorded at very high concentrations as it has been
137 confirmed either by satellite (e.g. Moulin et al., 1998; Guerrero-Rascado et al., 2009; Rémy et al.,
138 2015) and ground retrievals (e.g. Kubilay et al., 2003; Toledano et al., 2007) or by surface PM₁₀
139 measurements (e.g. Rodríguez et al., 2001; Querol et al., 2009; Pey et al., 2013).

140 Among the different aerosol types that co-exist in the Mediterranean (Lelieveld et al., 2002; Basart
141 et al., 2009), dust is the one causing the greatest perturbation of the SW and LW radiation, especially
142 during desert dust outbreaks (e.g. Di Sarra et al., 2008; Di Biagio et al., 2010). Thus, a number of
143 studies focused on Mediterranean dust outbreaks' impacts on the SW (Meloni et al., 2004; Gómez-
144 Amo et al., 2011; Antón et al., 2012; Di Sarra et al., 2013; Obregón et al., 2015), LW (Antón et al.,
145 2014; Sicard et al., 2014a) and NET (Di Sarra et al., 2011; Romano et al., 2016) radiation. However,
146 the obtained results were representative at a local scale and considering the high spatial variability of
147 desert dust outbreaks, the optimum solution of assessing in a comprehensive way their impacts on
148 weather and climate is provided by atmospheric-dust models. To this aim, the induced DREs by the
149 Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks have been analyzed through short-term numerical simulations
150 (Pérez et al., 2006; Santese et al., 2010; Remy et al., 2015) while similar studies have been conducted
151 either at a seasonal (Nabat et al., 2015a) and annual scale (Nabat et al., 2012) or for extended time
152 periods (Spyrou et al., 2013; Nabat et al., 2015b) pointing out the key role of desert dust aerosols in the
153 Mediterranean climate.

154 The overarching goals of the present study are: (i) the assessment of the short-term direct radiative
155 effects (DREs) on the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget, induced during intense
156 Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks, based on regional model simulations, (ii) the assessment of the
157 associated impacts on temperature and sensible/latent heat fluxes, (iii) the investigation of possible
158 feedbacks on dust AOD and dust emission and (iv) the assessment of the model's predictive skills, in
159 terms of reproducing temperature and radiation fields, when dust-radiation interactions are taken into
160 account in numerical simulations. To this aim, 20 intense and widespread desert dust outbreaks that
161 affected the broader area of the Mediterranean basin, over the period March 2000 – February 2013,
162 have been identified based on an objective and dynamic satellite algorithm, which utilizes daily multi-
163 sensor satellite retrievals (Section 2). It must be highlighted that through the consideration of a large
164 dataset of desert dust outbreaks is ensured the robustness of our findings, providing thus the

165 opportunity to have a clear view of dust outbreaks' impacts on radiation as well as about the associated
166 impacts on meteorological variables (e.g. temperature). For each dust outbreak, through short-term (84
167 h) numerical simulations of the regional NMMB-MONARCH model (Section 3), the DREs are
168 calculated at TOA, surface and into the atmosphere, both at grid point (geographical distributions) and
169 regional scale level (Section 5.2), for the SW, LW and NET (SW+LW) radiation. In addition, are
170 examined the impacts of the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks on the sensible/latent heat fluxes
171 (Section 5.3) and on the surface temperature (Section 5.4) as well as the potential feedbacks on dust
172 AOD and dust emissions (Section 5.5). The last part of the study (Sections 5.6 and 5.7) investigates the
173 potential improvement of the model's forecasting ability in terms of reproducing the temperature and
174 radiation fields when dust-radiation interactions are included in numerical simulations. A summary is
175 made and conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

176

177 **2. Selection of desert dust outbreaks**

178

179 In the present study, 20 intense and widespread desert dust outbreaks that affected the broader area
180 of the Mediterranean basin, over the period March 2000 – February 2013, are analyzed. The studied
181 desert dust outbreaks have been identified using an objective and dynamic satellite algorithm
182 introduced in Gkikas et al. (2013; flowchart in their Figure 2) and further improved in Gkikas et al.
183 (2016). The algorithm utilizes daily $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ latitude-longitude resolution satellite retrievals, derived
184 from MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS; Remer et al., 2005), Total Ozone
185 Mapping Spectrometer (TOMS; Torres et al., 1998) and Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI; Torres et
186 al., 2007) observations. The MODIS-Terra (Collection 051) aerosol optical depth at 550 nm
187 (AOD_{550nm}), Ångström exponent (α), fine fraction (FF) and effective radius (r_{eff} , available only over
188 sea) products are used in the algorithm along with EP-TOMS and OMI-Aura Aerosol Index (AI). Using
189 these products, the algorithm takes into account information regarding aerosols' load (AOD), size (FF ,
190 α and r_{eff}) and absorbing/scattering ability (AI) which is necessary for the identification of dust.

191 Only a brief discussion of the algorithm operation is given here, whereas a detailed description is
192 provided in Gkikas et al. (2013). The satellite algorithm is applied to each individual $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell of
193 the Mediterranean Satellite Domain (29° N - 47° N and 11° W - 39° E, MSD, red rectangle in Figure 1),
194 separately over land and sea surfaces, during the period March 2000 – February 2013. For each grid
195 cell, from the series (2000-2013) of daily AOD_{550nm} values, the mean ($Mean$) and the associated
196 standard deviation (Std) of AOD_{550nm} are calculated. Based on these two primary statistics, two
197 threshold (or cut-off) levels being equal to $Mean+2*Std$ and $Mean+4*Std$, are defined. By comparing

198 each daily AOD value to the two thresholds, the algorithm determines whether an aerosol episode (or
199 event) occurs over an $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell (or pixel) in that day or not, and labels it as strong or extreme,
200 depending on which AOD threshold is exceeded (lower or higher). Thereby, the term “aerosol episode”
201 refers to pixel-level episodic (extremely high loading) aerosol conditions and it is used with this
202 meaning henceforth. Subsequently, in order to characterize the identified pixel-level episodes as desert
203 dust (DD) ones, appropriate thresholds for α , FF , r_{eff} and AI are used, based on existing knowledge
204 about relevant physical properties (size and absorbing/scattering ability) of dust. According to the
205 algorithm, a strong or extreme pixel-level DD episode occurs if $\alpha \leq 0.7$, $FF \leq 0.4$, $r_{eff} > 0.6 \mu\text{m}$ and $AI > 1$
206 (conditions should be met simultaneously).

207 Based on the satellite algorithm’s outputs, for each day of the study period it is calculated the total
208 number of grid cells over which a strong or an extreme DD episode has taken place. Subsequently,
209 from the overall series of 4748 days over the study period, are kept only those in which at least 30 grid
210 cells with a DD episode (either strong or extreme) have been recorded. This criterion was first adopted
211 by Gkikas et al. (2015), who analyzed the atmospheric circulation evolution patterns favoring the
212 occurrence of dust outbreaks over the broader Mediterranean basin, in order to keep and study the most
213 extensive ones (in terms of the number of pixel-level DD episodes). In a next step, the days satisfying
214 the defined criterion (i.e. days where at least 30 pixel-level DD episodes have been occurred) are
215 ranked based on their regional MODIS-Terra AODs averaged over the “dust episodic” pixels within the
216 geographical limits of the MSD. If two or more consecutive days are satisfying the defined criteria,
217 then the day with the maximum number of DD episodes is selected. The final dataset consists of 20
218 intense Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks listed in a chronological order in Table 1.

219 The majority of the selected desert dust outbreaks (55 % or 11 out of 20) took place in spring
220 (March-April-May) when massive dust loads originating in the Sahara Desert are transported towards
221 the central and eastern parts of the Mediterranean (Gkikas et al., 2013; Pey et al., 2013). Four
222 widespread desert dust outbreaks affected mainly the western sector of the MSD in summer (July,
223 August), while five dust outbreaks were recorded across the central and eastern parts of the basin in
224 winter (January, February). Among the selected cases, the number of pixel-level total (strong plus
225 extreme) DD episodes in the MSD varies from 30 (28 July 2005, western-central Mediterranean) to 85
226 (31 July 2001, western Mediterranean). Almost in all cases, the number of extreme DD episodes is
227 higher than those for the strong ones spanning from 20 (28 July 2005) to 51 (8 May 2002) and from 3
228 (24 February 2006) to 56 (31 July 2001), respectively. Likewise, the intensity (in terms of AOD at 550
229 nm) of total DD episodes ranges from 0.74 (31 July 2001) to 2.96 (2 March 2005), being in general

230 higher in winter while moderate-to-high intensities are recorded in spring. Based on the information in
231 Table 1, the selected study cases correspond to widespread and intense dust outbreaks that occurred in
232 various parts of the Mediterranean, and therefore they are representative and appropriate for further
233 studying their radiative effects.

234 235 **3. Model description**

236
237 In the present section, the main features of the meteorological driver (Section 3.1.1) and the dust
238 module (Section 3.1.2) used in the regional NMMB-MONARCH (Multiscale Online Nonhydrostatic
239 Atmosphere Chemistry) model, previously known as NMMB/BSC-Dust, are described. The version
240 (v1.0) of the NMMB-MONARCH model used here contributes to different model inter-comparisons
241 like the International Cooperative for Aerosol Prediction (ICAP) initiative and the Sand and Dust
242 Storm Warning Advisory and Assessment System (SDS-WAS), a project developed under the umbrella
243 of the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) with focus on improving capabilities of sand and
244 dust storm forecasts. For brevity reasons, only the main characteristics of the model are discussed here
245 since a thorough description is provided in Pérez et al. (2011, and references therein) as well as in
246 recent publications presenting its developments and applications in gas-phase chemistry (Badia et al.,
247 2017), volcanic ash dispersion (Marti et al., 2017) and data assimilation (Di Tomaso et al., 2017)
248 studies. The spectral variation of the GOCART dust optical properties, utilized as inputs to the
249 radiation transfer scheme, is presented in Section 3.2, whereas the model set up used in our
250 experiments is given in Section 3.3.

251 252 *3.1. The NMMB-MONARCH model*

253 254 *3.1.1. The NMMB atmospheric model*

255
256 The Non-hydrostatic Multiscale Model NMMB (Janjic, 2004; Janjic and Black, 2007; Janjic et al.,
257 2011) is a unified atmospheric model developed at the National Centers for Environmental Prediction
258 (NCEP) (Janjic et al., 2001; Janjic, 2003). A powerful element of the model constitutes its non-
259 hydrostatic dynamical core, activated depending on the resolution, providing the capability to be used
260 for applications spanning at a wide range of temporal (from short- to long-term) and spatial (from
261 regional to global) scales. An additional dynamic feature of the NMMB is the consideration of various
262 parameterization schemes which can be incorporated into the numerical simulations. In our
263 experiments, the parameterization schemes of Betts-Miller-Janjic (Betts, 1986; Betts and Miller, 1986;

264 Janjic, 1994, 2000), Ferrier (Ferrier et al., 2002), Mellor-Yamada-Janjic (Janjic et al., 2001) and
265 Monin-Obukhov (Monin and Obukhov, 1954) have been utilized for the convection, cloud
266 microphysics, turbulence and surface layer, respectively, as well as the NOAH land model (Ek et al.,
267 2003). Moreover, only the greenhouse gases are taken into account and not the emitted short lived
268 atmospheric gases. The model's dynamic equations, in the horizontal plane, are solved on the Arakawa
269 B grid (Arakawa and Lamb, 1977) while in vertical the general hybrid pressure-sigma coordinate
270 (Simmons and Burridge, 1981) is utilized. For regional simulations, a rotated longitude-latitude
271 coordinated system is used (the Equator is running through the middle of the integration domain)
272 enabling therefore more uniform grid distances.

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3.1.2. *The Dust component*

276 The main components of the desert dust life cycle, regarding mineral particles' production in the
277 source areas, transport and removal from atmosphere, are considered in the dust component of the
278 MONARCH model, which is embedded into the NMMB model. The size intervals as well as the
279 effective radii for each one of the 8 dust bins, representing clay-originated sub-micron (bins 1-4) and
280 silt-originated coarse (bins 5-8) particles, that are considered in the dust module were adopted from
281 Pérez et al. (2006). The mass of each bin is calculated at each time step, grid point and layer, while the
282 median mass diameter and the geometric standard deviation of the sub-bin distribution are fixed to
283 2.524 μm and 2.0 μm , respectively. In the existing version of the NMMB-MONARCH model, dust
284 aerosols are externally mixed and hydrophobic. All the required parameters regulating dust emission
285 and mobilization namely the: (i) surface wind speed, (ii) turbulence, (iii) land use type, (iv) vegetation
286 cover, (v) erodibility, (vi) surface roughness, (vii) soil texture and (viii) soil moisture, are considered in
287 the dust emission scheme (Pérez et al., 2011). The vertical dust flux for each dust size bin is
288 proportional to the horizontal sand flux while several parameters are tuned to match observations that
289 are mainly available far away from the sources. Coarse dust aerosols are removed efficiently from the
290 atmosphere through sedimentation, which is solved implicitly in each model layer. For the description
291 of dust aerosols' wet removal, a mechanism which is more effective for fine mineral particles,
292 parameterizations representing in- and below-cloud scavenging are included in the NMMB-
293 MONARCH in which the grid-scale cloud microphysical scheme of Ferrier and the convective
294 adjustment scheme of Betts-Miller-Janjic are utilized (Pérez et al., 2011). The ability of the NMMB-
295 MONARCH model to reproduce accurately the dust aerosol fields has been confirmed through
296 evaluation studies, relied on global and regional annual simulations (Pérez et al., 2011) as well as by

297 utilizing measurements from experimental campaigns as reference data (Haustein et al., 2012).
298 Moreover, the reliability of the model in terms of reproducing the Saharan dust patterns over Cape
299 Verde as well as to simulate dust vertical profiles has been confirmed through the analyses made by
300 Gama et al. (2015) and Biniotoglou et al. (2015), respectively. In addition, the predictive skills of the
301 NMMB-MONARCH model, in comparison with other regional models, have been assessed for a
302 specific dust outbreak (Huneus et al., 2016) that affected the western parts of the Mediterranean and
303 Europe. Finally, in the framework of the SDS-WAS ([https://sds-was.aemet.es/forecast-
304 products/forecast-evaluation](https://sds-was.aemet.es/forecast-products/forecast-evaluation)), the evaluation of the simulated dust fields (over Sahara, Middle East and
305 Mediterranean) produced by 12 models, versus ground-based (AERONET) and spaceborne (MODIS)
306 retrievals, reveals that the NMMB-MONARCH is ranked at the highest positions.

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308 *3.2. Radiative transfer model and dust optical properties*

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310 For the description of dust aerosols interaction both with the SW and LW radiation, the RRTMG
311 (Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for Global Circulation Models, Iacono et al., 2008) radiative transfer
312 model is coupled with the dust module. RRTMG consists a modified version of the RRTM which is a
313 broadband radiative transfer model that includes the molecular absorption of the SW (by water vapor,
314 carbon dioxide, ozone, methane and oxygen) and LW (by water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, methane,
315 nitrous oxide, oxygen, nitrogen and halocarbons) radiation. Even though the basic physics and
316 absorption coefficients utilized in RRTM (Mlawer et al., 1997) remain unchanged in RRTMG, several
317 updates regarding computational efficiency and representation of subgrid-scale cloud variability have
318 been implemented (Iacono et al., 2008). Through these adjustments, it has been improved the efficiency
319 of the RRTMG in global circulation model (GCM) applications with a minimal loss of accuracy
320 (Iacono et al., 2008). In the RRTMG, the total number of quadrature points (g points) used to calculate
321 radiances has been reduced from 224 to 112 and from 256 to 140 for the shortwave and longwave
322 spectrum, respectively. In addition, for the short wavelengths, the discrete ordinates algorithm DISORT
323 (Stammes et al., 1998) has been replaced by a two-stream radiation transfer solver (Oreopoulos and
324 Baker, 1999). All the updates applied in the RRTMG radiation transfer code are listed in the
325 Atmospheric and Environmental Research (AER) radiative transfer web site (<http://rtweb.aer.com/>).
326 Based on evaluation studies, the comparison of the RRTMG clear-sky SW and LW fluxes versus
327 RRTM_SW and LBLRTM, respectively, has revealed that its accuracy at short wavelengths is within 3
328 Wm^{-2} whereas at long wavelengths is 1.5 Wm^{-2} . As inputs to the radiation transfer scheme, the aerosol

329 optical depth (AOD, measure of the aerosol load), the single scattering albedo (SSA, expresses the
330 fraction of scattering to total extinction) and the asymmetry parameter (ASYM, measures the degree of
331 symmetry of the phase function between the forward and backward hemispheres) are required. In the
332 present version (v1.0) of the model, the calculation of dust optical properties is made based on the
333 formulas presented in Pérez et al. (2006), by using the mass concentration simulated by the NMMB-
334 MONARCH model, the single-particle optical properties derived by the GOCART model (Chin et al.,
335 2002) and the refractive indices from the Global Aerosol Data Set (GADS) (Koepke et al., 1997) which
336 have been modified using Sinyuk et al. (2003), as described in Pérez et al. (2011). The spectral
337 variation of the single-particle dust optical properties for each bin, namely the mass extinction
338 coefficient, the single scattering albedo and the asymmetry parameter are shown in Figures 2-i, 2-ii and
339 2-iii, respectively. Their calculation for each dust size bin and at each spectral band is made based on
340 the Mie code (Mishchenko et al., 2002) assuming homogeneous and spherical dust particles. For the
341 other types of tropospheric aerosols (sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, and sea salt), the GOCART
342 monthly climatological AOD, SSA and ASYM values for the year 2000, are utilized.

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3.3. Model set-up configuration

346 In our experiments, the simulation domain (NMMB-MONARCH Simulation Domain, NSD, outer
347 domain in Figure 1) covers the Sahara (dust sources areas), the Mediterranean (mid-range dust
348 transport areas) as well as most of the European continent (long-range dust transport areas). The
349 horizontal resolution is equal to $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ degrees and 40 sigma-hybrid pressure levels up to 50 hPa
350 are used in vertical. The atmospheric model's fundamental time step is set to 25 seconds. The
351 simulations have been made for each one of the 20 identified Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks (see
352 Section 2) considering a spin-up and a forecast period, using $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ NCEP final analyses (FNL) as
353 initial and 6-h boundary conditions. More specifically, for each case, a hindcast period of 84 hours
354 starts at 00 UTC of the day (see the second column in Table 1) when the desert dust outbreak has been
355 identified according to the defined criteria (explained in Section 2). In order to ensure a more
356 "realistic" initial state of the atmosphere, a 10-day spin-up before the initialization of the forecast
357 period is simulated, where the model's meteorology is reinitialized every 24 hours. During the forecast
358 periods, for the computation of the aerosol radiative effects, two configurations of the model were run.
359 In the first one (RADON), all aerosol types interact with radiation while in the second one the
360 corresponding interactions are deactivated (RADOFF). It must be clarified that in the RADON
361 experiment, the perturbation of the radiation fields is mainly caused by dust aerosols, which are

362 dynamically calculated, while the contribution of the other aerosol species depends on climatological
 363 optical properties derived from GOCART. However, since the selected cases refer to desert dust
 364 outbreaks, the term “dust-radiation interactions” instead of “aerosol-radiation interactions” is used
 365 throughout the manuscript.

366
 367 **4. Calculation of the dust direct radiative effects**
 368

369 The direct radiative effects (DREs), expressed in Wm^{-2} , are computed at the top of the atmosphere
 370 (TOA), into the atmosphere (ATM), and at the surface, for the downwelling (SURF) and the absorbed
 371 (NETSURF) radiation, for the shortwave (SW), longwave (LW) and NET (SW+LW) radiation. The
 372 calculations are made according to the following formulas:

373
 374
$$DRE_{TOA} = F_{TOA,RADOFF}^{\uparrow} - F_{TOA,RADON}^{\uparrow} \text{ (Eq. 1)}$$

375
 376
$$DRE_{SURF} = F_{SURF,RADON}^{\downarrow} - F_{SURF,RADOFF}^{\downarrow} \text{ (Eq. 2)}$$

377
 378
$$DRE_{NETSURF} = (F_{SURF,RADON}^{\downarrow} - F_{SURF,RADON}^{\uparrow}) - (F_{SURF,RADOFF}^{\downarrow} - F_{SURF,RADOFF}^{\uparrow}) = F_{NETSURF,RADON} -$$

 379
$$F_{NETSURF,RADOFF} \text{ (Eq. 3)}$$

380
 381
$$DRE_{ATM} = DRE_{TOA} - DRE_{NETSURF} \text{ (Eq. 4)}$$

382
 383 At TOA (Eq.1), DREs are calculated through the subtraction of the RADON (dust-radiation
 384 interaction is activated) from the RADOFF (dust-radiation interaction is deactivated) outputs of the
 385 upward (\uparrow) radiative fluxes (F) and express the loss (cooling effect or planetary cooling) or the gain
 386 (warming effect or planetary warming) of energy within the Earth-Atmosphere system when are
 387 negative and positive, respectively. At the surface, DREs are computed for both the downwelling (\downarrow)
 388 (SURF, Eq. 2) and the net (downward minus upward) radiation (NETSURF, Eq. 3). Both DREs
 389 indicate a dust-induced surface cooling or warming when they get negative or positive values,
 390 respectively. Finally, on energy within the Earth-Atmosphere system, the DRE_{ATM} is calculated by
 391 subtracting the $DRE_{NETSURF}$ from the DRE_{TOA} values (Eq. 4) and quantifies the impact (warming or
 392 cooling) of dust outbreaks on the atmospheric radiation budget. The DREs are based on the subtraction
 393 of two independent model runs. Therefore, our results represent the radiative anomalies induced by

394 dust aerosols including both the direct effect and the rapid response of atmospheric constituents such as
395 humidity and clouds (semi-direct effects).

396

397 **5. Results**

398

399 *5.1. Comparison of model and satellite AODs*

400

401 Before dealing with the DREs, the ability of the model to reproduce satisfactorily the dust AOD
402 fields is assessed using MODIS-Terra AOD_{550nm} retrievals as reference data. The results of the
403 intercomparison between the daily satellite AODs (left column in Fig. 3) and the modelled (right
404 column in Fig. 3) AODs at 12 UTC (instantaneous fields) are presented here for three of the 20
405 identified desert dust outbreaks (see Section 2), which took place on 2nd March 2005 (upper row in Fig.
406 3), 19th May 2008 (middle row in Fig. 3) and 2nd August 2012 (bottom row in Fig. 3) and affected the
407 eastern, central and western parts of the Mediterranean basin, respectively. The corresponding maps for
408 the remaining 17 cases are illustrated in Figure S1. Note, that the evaluation of the model outputs
409 versus the satellite measurements is restricted within the geographical limits of the MSD (red rectangle
410 in Fig. 1), since the satellite algorithm used for identification of the desert dust outbreaks is applied
411 only to this region (see Section 2). Moreover, in order to eliminate the spatial inconsistencies between
412 the two products, we have regridded the model outputs from their raw spatial resolution (0.25° x 0.25°)
413 to 1° x 1° matching them with the satellite retrievals.

414 According to the MODIS-Terra observations on 2nd March 2005, a dust plume extends from the
415 Gulf of Sidra to the southern parts of Greece, with AODs up to 5 (Fig. 3 i-a). As shown in Fig. 3 i-b,
416 the model on this day simulates high dust AOD_{550nm} values (1-3.25) along a dust plume, extending
417 from Algeria to the Black Sea, which affects the eastern parts of the Mediterranean Sea. Through the
418 intercomparison of satellite and model AODs, it is revealed that the desert dust outbreak is slightly
419 shifted eastwards while the maximum dust AODs are lower than those retrieved by the satellite sensor.
420 The second desert dust outbreak occurred on 19th May 2008 and affected the central sector of the MSD.
421 According to MODIS (Fig. 3 ii-a), the intensity of dust loads is maximized (up to 4) in the central parts
422 of the Mediterranean Sea (southeastern of Sicily). This is also reproduced by the model, although
423 somewhat higher AODs are found over the central and southern parts of Italy (Fig. 3 ii-b). In spite of
424 this, however, there is a clearly good model performance in reproducing the dust event that hit the
425 central Mediterranean. An ever better agreement between the model and satellite AODs, in terms of
426 spatial variability and intensity of dust loads, is found for the desert dust outbreak of August 2nd 2012,

427 that affected the westernmost parts of the Mediterranean, with highest AODs (up to 2-2.5) from the
428 Alboran Sea down to the coastal areas of Morocco (Figs. 3 iii-a, b).

429 Apart from a qualitative comparison between MODIS and NMMB-MONARCH, the performance of
430 the model has been assessed also quantitatively. More specifically, for each desert dust outbreak the
431 spatial correlation coefficient (R) values as well as the absolute biases (defined as NMMB-MODIS)
432 have been calculated considering only the grid cells where a DD episode (either strong or extreme) has
433 been identified by the satellite algorithm. In Figure S2, are presented the computed regional R (Fig. S2-
434 ii) and bias (Fig. S2-iii) scores while the stacked bars (Fig. S2-i) illustrate the number of strong,
435 extreme and total DD episodes (available also in Table 1). Among the studied cases, it is revealed a
436 strong variation of R values (Figure S2-ii) reflecting the diversity of the model's capability in terms of
437 capturing the spatial patterns of the desert dust outbreaks. These drawbacks result mainly from
438 displacements of the simulated dust patterns with respect to the observed ones. The best performance is
439 found on 22 Feb 2004 ($R=0.82$) in contrast to 23 Jan 2009 where the correlation coefficient is zero. In 7
440 out of 20 cases, the R values are higher than 0.5 while in 7 cases vary between 0.2 and 0.4 indicating a
441 weak-to-moderate performance of the model. In the remaining 6 dust events, the spatial agreement
442 between MODIS and NMMB is characterized poor ($R<0.2$). As it concerns the bias, in absolute terms,
443 in all the events negative values are recorded ranging from -2.3 (24 Feb 2006) to -0.17 (19 May 2008).
444 This finding shows that the model underestimates consistently the intensity of the desert dust outbreaks
445 which have been analyzed in the present study.

446 According to the evaluation analysis, the model's ability in terms of reproducing satisfactorily the
447 dust fields varies strongly case-by-case while the simulated intensity of the desert dust outbreaks is
448 lower with respect to the satellite retrievals. Therefore, both facts can raise questions regarding the
449 accuracy of the computed DREs in some cases since the perturbations of the radiation fields are
450 determined to a large extent by AOD (e.g. Hatzianastassiou et al., 2004; Pérez et al., 2006; Papadimas
451 et al., 2012). Nevertheless, several factors affect/determine the level of agreement between observed
452 and simulated AODs providing a reasonable explanation about the discrepancies found between
453 MODIS and NMMB-MONARCH. The most important is the temporal inconsistency between the two
454 products. More specifically, the satellite retrievals correspond to daily averages whereas the model
455 products are representative for a specific forecast time (instantaneous fields). Considering the high
456 variability of aerosols' loads, particularly under episodic conditions, this temporal discrepancy imposes
457 a limitation when a quantitative comparison between MODIS and NMMB is attempted. This can
458 explain the observed differences found either on the intensity or on the spatial patterns of the desert

459 dust events. Also, it must be considered that artifacts of the satellite retrievals (e.g. clouds
460 contamination, representativeness/homogeneity within the $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell) may lead to higher AODs
461 as it has been shown in relevant evaluation studies (e.g. Gkikas et al., 2016). Moreover, due to the
462 inability of the MODIS Dark Target (DT) algorithm to retrieve aerosol optical properties over desert
463 areas as well as under cloudy conditions, in a significant part of the study region there are not available
464 satellite observations (white areas in Figs. 3 i-a, ii-a and iii-a) restricting thus their comparison with the
465 model outputs which provide full spatial coverage.

466

467 5.2. Direct radiative effects (DREs)

468

469 5.2.1. Geographical distributions

470

471 For each desert dust outbreak, the TOA, ATM, SURF and NETSURF DREs have been computed
472 for the SW, LW and NET radiation, according to the formulas presented in Section 4. Just as an
473 example, in Figure 4 are illustrated the geographical patterns of the instantaneous NET (SW+LW)
474 DRE_{TOA} (second column), DRE_{ATM} (third column), DRE_{SURF} (fourth column) and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ (fifth
475 column) values, at 12 h (first row), 24 h (second row), 36 h (third row) and 48 h (fourth row) after the
476 initialization of the model forecast on 2nd August 2012 at 00 UTC, along with the simulated patterns of
477 dust AOD at 550 nm on the same day and time (first column). For brevity reasons only the results for
478 the allwave (NET) are given, while the SW and LW DREs and their contribution to NET DREs are
479 discussed in the regional analysis (next sub-section). The corresponding patterns for each desert dust
480 outbreak are given in Figures S3 – S21 in the supplementary material. Moreover, for each desert dust
481 outbreak, the minimum and maximum clear-sky NET DREs at grid point level, during the simulation
482 period, are presented in Table S1.

483 Based on the model outputs, at 12 h, an arc shaped dust plume affected the western parts of the
484 Sahara, the Canary Islands, the maritime areas off the Moroccan coasts, the southern parts of the
485 Iberian Peninsula and the western Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 4). During the forecast period, the spatial
486 features of the desert dust outbreak do not reveal a remarkable variability, with maximum AODs (up to
487 3) across Mali, Mauritania, Western Sahara and in the Canary Islands. At a first glance, it is evident
488 that the DRE patterns are driven by those of the desert dust outbreaks whereas small scale isolated
489 features of extremely high/low DREs mainly result from slight “shifts” of clouds between the two
490 independent model runs. Moreover, it is apparent that both the sign and the magnitude of DREs vary
491 among TOA, surface and atmosphere as well as with time (day or night). During daytime (12 h and 36
492 h) the DREs are driven by their SW components which significantly exceed the LW ones. Through

493 absorption and scattering of solar radiation by mineral particles, the downwelling radiation at the
494 ground (SURF) is reduced by up to 308 Wm^{-2} , indicating a strong surface cooling (bluish colors) in
495 areas where the dust AOD is maximized like Mauritania or south Algeria. During nighttime (24 and 48
496 h), the sign of the DRE_{SURF} values is reversed and their magnitude decreases compared to that at 12 and
497 36 h. This is because during the night the DRE_{SURF} values are identical to the LW DRE ones, which are
498 positive, implying extra downwelling LW radiation at the surface, by up to 58 Wm^{-2} , emitted by the
499 overlying dust. This effect, leading to night surface warming, is more visible over specific parts of
500 Sahara that host high dust loads, e.g. in its western parts. The geographical patterns of $\text{DRE}_{\text{NETSURF}}$ are
501 very similar to those of DRE_{SURF} , as expected, since they only differ by the net upward radiation at the
502 surface, which in turn is determined by the surface albedo (for the SW radiation) and temperature (for
503 the LW radiation). Based on our results, the negative (surface cooling) and positive (surface warming)
504 $\text{DRE}_{\text{NETSURF}}$ values can reach down to -290 Wm^{-2} (eastern Atlantic Ocean) and up to 42 Wm^{-2} (western
505 Sahara) during day and night, respectively. Among our studied cases (see Table S1) the instantaneous
506 NET DRE_{SURF} and $\text{DRE}_{\text{NETSURF}}$ values at noon can be as large as -589 Wm^{-2} and -337 Wm^{-2} ,
507 respectively, in agreement with relevant results reported in previous studies dealing with the radiative
508 impacts of dust intrusions in the Mediterranean (Pérez et al, 2006; Remy et al., 2015), in west Africa
509 (Heinold et al., 2008; Mallet et al., 2009) and in Asia (Wang et al., 2009; Singh and Beegum et al.,
510 2013).

511 The occurrence of desert dust outbreaks results in a strong perturbation of the atmospheric radiation
512 budget, attributed to the interaction of dust aerosols with the SW and LW radiation. More specifically,
513 during daytime (i.e. 12 and 36 h), mineral particles absorb radiation at short wavelengths warming thus
514 the atmosphere as indicated by the positive instantaneous NET DRE_{ATM} values in Figure 4 (third
515 column), reaching up to 189 Wm^{-2} over the dust affected areas. Our calculated noon atmospheric DREs
516 (Table S1) are comparable to those reported by Heinold et al. (2008; 2011) and significantly lower
517 compared to those in Pérez et al. (2006), who found DRE_{ATM} values higher than 500 Wm^{-2} in land
518 areas with dust AOD > 3 during a desert outbreak that affected the Mediterranean on 12th April 2002.
519 We note that Pérez et al. (2006) used complex refractive indices taken from the Global Aerosol Data
520 Set (GADS) that have been shown to be excessively absorbing, which may partly explain their high
521 DRE_{ATM} values. During night, negative DRE_{ATM} values (down to -45 Wm^{-2} in Algeria and Mali) are
522 computed in the dust affected areas indicating an atmospheric cooling because of the emission of LW
523 radiation by mineral particles (Wang et al., 2013b).

524 The sign and magnitude of DRE_{TOA} (Eq. 4) are regulated by $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} . At noon and
525 above cloud-free areas, there is a distinct change of DRE_{TOA} sign over oceanic and desert areas affected
526 by dust loads (note for example the red colors over the dusty western Sahara Desert regions, e.g.
527 Mauritania, against blue colors off the African coasts). This change of the DRE_{TOA} sign is due to the
528 difference in surface albedo of the two types of surface (water and desert), in combination with dust
529 high AODs and low-to-moderate single scattering albedo enhancing solar absorption by dust above
530 highly multiple reflecting surfaces. Such a reverse of DRE_{TOA} sign has been also reported in previous
531 studies (e.g. Santese et al., 2010; Nabat et al., 2012; Papadimas et al., 2012). Over highly reflective
532 surfaces (i.e. deserts), the atmospheric warming is enhanced since dust aerosols absorb not only the
533 incoming solar radiation but also the radiation reflected by the surface. At the same time, the amount of
534 the absorbed radiation at the ground is reduced by the attenuation of the SW radiation and by the
535 increase of the back reflected radiation at the surface. The combination of these processes results in a
536 predominance of the atmospheric warming over surface cooling and subsequently to positive DRE_{TOA}
537 values (planetary warming), which can be as large as 85 Wm^{-2} according to our simulations (Table S1).
538 On the contrary, when dust aerosols are suspended over dark surfaces (i.e. maritime areas), the
539 condition is reversed and negative DRE_{TOA} values down to -184 Wm^{-2} (Table S1) are calculated,
540 revealing thus a strong planetary cooling. Nevertheless, the positive DRE_{TOA} values exceeding 300
541 Wm^{-2} , which are recorded in maritime areas off the western African coasts, are associated with the
542 existence of absorbing dust aerosols superimposed over low- and mid-level clouds. During night, the
543 atmospheric cooling offsets the surface warming, both induced by the desert dust outbreaks, and for
544 this reason the DRE_{TOA} values are almost negligible (do not exceed 10 Wm^{-2} in absolute terms over
545 cloud free areas) indicating an almost null dust direct radiative effect. Our model computed dust
546 induced planetary warming above western Africa is comparable to similar results reported in previous
547 studies focusing on the same or similar desert areas (e.g. Mallet et al., 2009; Pérez et al., 2006; Wang et
548 al., 2010; Nabat et al., 2012; Kalenderski and Stenchikov, 2016).

549 550 5.2.2. *Regional mean results* 551

552 In order to show more clearly temporal patterns, DREs were also averaged over the NSD (outer
553 NMMB Simulation Domain in Figure 1), SDD (Sahara Desert Domain, green rectangle in Figure 1)
554 and MSD (Mediterranean Satellite Domain, red rectangle in Figure 1) domains, for each desert dust
555 outbreak, separately for the NET, SW and LW radiation. Then, in a further step, DRE values have been
556 averaged over the 20 dust outbreaks every three hours during the forecast period (84 hours). Thus, the

557 time series of regional mean and associated standard deviation (shaded areas) all-sky TOA (black
558 curve), SURF (purple curve), NETSURF (blue curve) and ATM (red curve) DREs are depicted in
559 Figure 5.

560 The SW DREs (upper row in Fig. 5) are positive in the atmosphere (ATM, warming effect) and
561 negative at the surface (SURF and NETSURF, cooling effect) throughout the entire forecast period,
562 revealing a distinct diurnal cycle with marked maximum values around noon over all three domains. A
563 careful look, however, reveals some differences between the sub-regions. Thus, in NSD (first column)
564 and SDD (second column) the maximum DRE_{ATM} values increase slightly with time from 22.3 to 22.7
565 Wm^{-2} and from 29.1 to 31.6 Wm^{-2} , respectively, while in contrast they decrease in MSD (third column)
566 from 21 to 18.5 Wm^{-2} . Respectively, the negative DRE_{SURF} values (surface cooling) reach down to -
567 33.1 Wm^{-2} in the NSD and 45.3 Wm^{-2} in the SDD, while in the Mediterranean area reach down to -34.8
568 Wm^{-2} . In addition, the magnitude of DRE_{SURF} and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values in NSD and MSD slightly
569 decrease while an increasing trend (in absolute terms) is recorded in the SDD. The opposite tendencies
570 found for both sub-regions (i.e., SDD and MSD) for the atmospheric and surface DREs are attributed to
571 the increase and decrease of dust AOD over the Sahara (Figure S22-ii) and the Mediterranean (Figure
572 S22-i), respectively. As it concerns the SW $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values, their temporal variation is identical to
573 the corresponding ones for DRE_{SURF} ; however, the former ones are lower by up to 14.6 Wm^{-2} , in
574 absolute terms. The most noticeable difference between the two sub-domains (i.e. SDD and MSD) is
575 encountered for the DRE_{TOA} at noon. Over bright desert surfaces, dust outbreaks warm the Earth-
576 Atmosphere system as indicated by the positive DRE_{TOA} values (up to 3.2 Wm^{-2}) while over the darker
577 (mostly covered by sea) surfaces of the Mediterranean, the mineral particles induce a planetary cooling
578 with DRE_{TOA} values ranging from -12 to -4 Wm^{-2} . In both subdomains, the strongest planetary cooling
579 is found at early morning and afternoon hours with negative SW DRE_{TOA} values down to -11.9 Wm^{-2}
580 and -11.6 Wm^{-2} over Sahara and Mediterranean, respectively. On the contrary, DRE_{TOA} values decrease
581 towards noon, due to increasing solar absorption and decreasing scattering by dust under smaller solar
582 zenith angles. Finally, the regional SW DREs have been analyzed also separately over land and sea
583 surfaces for the three subdomains (results not shown here) revealing that the computed DREs are
584 mainly driven by the corresponding perturbations simulated over continental regions.

585 The regional all-sky DREs have been also computed for the LW spectrum (middle row in Figure 5)
586 revealing reverse effects of lower magnitude (in absolute terms) with respect to the corresponding ones
587 found at short wavelengths. Due to the emission of LW radiation by the mineral particles, desert dust
588 outbreaks induce an atmospheric cooling (negative LW DRE_{ATM} values) and increase the amount of the

589 downward LW radiation at the surface (positive LW DRE_{SURF} values). Both DRE_{ATM} and DRE_{SURF}
590 levels do not reveal remarkable temporal variation ranging from -4.8 to -2.2 Wm^{-2} and from 1.4 to 3.7
591 Wm^{-2} , respectively, over the Sahara where the maximum values are found. On the contrary, from the
592 timeseries of the LW DREs for TOA and NETSURF it is evident the existence of a diurnal cycle with
593 maximum and minimum values around noon and during nighttime, respectively. Moreover, both
594 DRE_{TOA} and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values are higher than zero, throughout the simulation period, indicating a
595 warming LW radiative effect. More specifically, the regional LW DRE_{TOA} ranges from 0.2 to 1.6 Wm^{-2}
596 and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ varies between 1.7 and 4 Wm^{-2} for the whole simulation domain (NSD). The
597 corresponding maximum DREs for the SDD and MSD are higher by up to 3.6 Wm^{-2} and lower by up to
598 1.1 Wm^{-2} , respectively. Dust aerosols act like greenhouse gases (Miller and Tegen, 1998) trapping the
599 outgoing terrestrial radiation while at the same time emit radiation at longer wavelengths back to the
600 ground explaining thus the positive LW DREs for TOA (planetary warming) and NETSURF (surface
601 warming). In addition, the aforementioned LW DREs (TOA and NETSURF) covariate with time
602 revealing that the sign and the magnitude of the LW DRE_{TOA} are determined by the perturbation of the
603 surface radiation budget (LW $DRE_{NETSURF}$) since the LW DRE_{ATM} values are almost constant
604 throughout the simulation period. This is in contrast to the corresponding finding for the SW radiation
605 where the dust outbreaks' impact on the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget is regulated by
606 the perturbation of the radiation fields into the atmosphere (ATM) and at the surface (NETSURF).
607 Finally, between SDD and MSD remarkably stronger LW DREs are found for the former domain due
608 to the higher dust loads over the Sahara as well as due to the larger size of mineral particles close to the
609 source areas.

610 As it has been shown from the above analysis, the dust DREs between short and long wavelengths
611 are reverse (except at TOA over the Sahara around midday) and in order to assess the impact of desert
612 dust outbreaks in the whole spectrum the regional all-sky NET (SW+LW) DREs have been also
613 analyzed (bottom row in Fig. 5). During sunlight hours, the NET DREs result from the compensation
614 of the SW and LW effects while during night the NET and the LW DREs are equal attributed to the
615 absence of SW radiation. Based on our results, in the NSD, the DRE_{TOA} , DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and
616 DRE_{ATM} range from -8.5 to 0.5 Wm^{-2} , from -31.6 to 2.1 Wm^{-2} , from -22.2 to 2.2 Wm^{-2} and from -1.7 to
617 20.4 Wm^{-2} , respectively. In the SDD, the corresponding NET DREs vary from -9.3 to 5.9 Wm^{-2} , from $-$
618 42.2 to 3.5 Wm^{-2} , from -23 to 3.6 Wm^{-2} and from -3.5 to 27.2 Wm^{-2} , respectively. Over the
619 Mediterranean, the DREs for TOA range from -10.7 to 0.5 Wm^{-2} , for SURF from -33.6 to 1.7 Wm^{-2} ,
620 for NETSURF from -26.7 to 1.7 Wm^{-2} and for ATM from -1.3 to 19.3 Wm^{-2} .

621 At noon, the SW planetary cooling dominates over the LW planetary warming resulting thus to
622 negative DRE_{TOA} values over the simulation (NSD) and the Mediterranean (MSD) domains. On the
623 contrary, in the SDD, both SW and LW DRE_{TOA} are positive due to the higher surface albedo and the
624 trapping of the surface upward LW radiation by mineral particles, respectively, leading to a net
625 warming of the Earth-Atmosphere system. In the atmosphere, for the three domains, the negative LW
626 DREs offset by about 8-26% the positive SW ones resulting to an overall warming effect (positive NET
627 DRE_{ATM}) around midday. Moreover, at noon, the increase of the absorbed LW radiation at the ground
628 offsets the decrease of the absorbed SW radiation by about 14-18% resulting in a NET surface cooling
629 (negative NET $DRE_{NETSURF}$) over the simulation domain. The corresponding levels for the SDD and
630 MSD vary from 24 to 26% and from 9 to 13%, respectively.

631 Beyond the hourly and day-to-day variability of dust DREs, the results were averaged over the total
632 84-hour simulation period and the results are given, for the three domains, in Table 2, separately for the
633 SW, LW and NET radiation. At TOA, desert dust outbreaks cause a net planetary cooling with all-sky
634 NET DRE_{TOA} values equal to -2.6 ± 3.2 , -1.3 ± 5 and $-3.8 \pm 3.8 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ for the NSD, SDD and MSD,
635 respectively. Note, that due to the very strong temporal variability of DREs at TOA, the computed
636 standard deviations are higher than the averages in the NSD and SDD in contrast to MSD where are
637 equal. The negative averaged NET DRE_{TOA} in SDD is attributed to the planetary cooling found at early
638 morning and afternoon hours. Wang et al. (2011) showed that when solar altitude is low (i.e. high solar
639 zenith angle) DRE at TOA is getting negative even over high-albedo deserts. Similar results reported
640 also by Banks et al. (2014), who studied the daytime cycle of dust DREs during the Fennec campaign
641 held in the central Sahara in June 2011. Our results for the DRE_{TOA} in the MSD are within the ranges
642 reported in previous studies (e.g. Valenzuela et al., 2012; Sicard et al., 2014 a; b) dealing with dust
643 intrusions in the Mediterranean. In the atmosphere, mineral particles cause an overall atmospheric
644 warming with NET DRE_{ATM} levels varying from 6.9 ± 8.3 (MSD) to $7.8 \pm 11.7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (SDD). On
645 average, dust outbreaks reduce the downwelling NET radiation at the ground (DRE_{SURF}) by up to -
646 $14.7 \pm 14.6 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (NSD), $-18.0 \pm 19.3 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (SDD) and $-14.2 \pm 14 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (MSD) while the corresponding
647 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ levels are equal to $-9.6 \pm 10.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, $-9.1 \pm 11.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ and $-10.8 \pm 11.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, respectively.
648 Our results for the SW and LW radiation in the SDD are in a good agreement with the annual averages
649 for the year 2008 presented by Nabat et al. (2012) over Northern Africa.

650 5.3. Impact on sensible and latent heat fluxes

651 As it has been shown in previous section, dust outbreaks exert a strong perturbation of the surface
652 radiation budget by reducing and increasing the absorbed NET radiation at the ground during day and
653

654 night, respectively. As a response to these disturbances, the surface heat fluxes, both sensible (SH) and
655 latent (LE), associated with the transfer of energy (heat) and moisture between surface and atmosphere,
656 also change in such a way trying to balance the gain or the loss of energy at the ground (Miller and
657 Tegen, 1998). Subsequently, variations of SH and LE have impact on the components of the
658 hydrological cycle (Miller et al., 2004b) as well as on the turbulent kinetic energy and momentum
659 transfer which in turn affect near surface winds and dust emission (Pérez et al., 2006). Moreover,
660 Marcella and Eltahir (2014) and Kumar et al. (2014) have shown that due to the presence of dust
661 aerosols into the atmosphere, the daytime surface sensible heat fluxes are reduced leading to a
662 reduction of the planetary boundary layer (PBL) height.

663 Here, we are investigating the impact of desert dust outbreaks on SH and LE over the simulation
664 domain (NSD). It must be clarified that our analysis is restricted only above land areas since we are
665 looking at short range effects and the atmospheric driver is not coupled with an ocean model. The
666 timeseries of the regional SH and LE values, over the forecast period, based on the RADON (red
667 curve) and RADOFF (blue curve) configurations of the model are presented in Figures 6-i (for SH) and
668 6-ii (for LE). Each curve corresponds to the mean levels calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks
669 while the shaded areas represent the associated standard deviations. According to our results, SH is
670 characterized by a diurnal variation with maximum values ($\sim 350 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$) at noon and minimum ones (\sim
671 -30 Wm^{-2}) during nighttime (Fig. 6-i). Nevertheless, during sunlight hours, the surface sensible heat
672 fluxes simulated in the RADON experiment are lower by up to 45 Wm^{-2} in comparison to the
673 RADOFF outputs. At night, an opposite tendency is recorded and the RADON SH fluxes are higher by
674 up to 2 Wm^{-2} than the corresponding fluxes based on the RADOFF configuration of the model. The
675 reverse effects on SH levels, over the western parts of the Sahara, between daytime and nighttime as
676 well as the diurnal variability of their magnitude have been pointed out by Zhao et al. (2011). Based on
677 the paired t-test, the differences between RADOFF and RADON SH values are statistical significant at
678 95% confidence level throughout the forecast period. At local scale (geographical distributions), among
679 the studied cases, in areas where the desert dust outbreaks' intensity is maximized, the SH fluxes are
680 reduced by up to 150 Wm^{-2} during day and increased by up to 50 Wm^{-2} during night. Our findings are
681 consistent with those presented by Mallet et al. (2009) and Rémy et al. (2015) who analyzed the impact
682 of dust storms on sensible heat fluxes over W. Africa and Mediterranean, respectively, and
683 substantially higher than the instantaneous perturbations of SH calculated by Kumar et al. (2014), who
684 studied a dust outbreak that occurred in northern India (17-22 April 2010).

685 The diurnal variation of the latent heat fluxes (Fig. 6-ii) is identical to that of sensible heat fluxes;
686 however, LE levels are remarkably lower than the regional averages of SH. This is attributed to the
687 lower soil water content and limited evaporation in arid regions (Ling et al., 2014). Based on our
688 simulations, LE values at noon gradually decrease both for the RADOFF (blue) and RADON (red)
689 experiments over the forecast period attributed to the too moist initialization of the model (Note that the
690 model is initialized with FNL analysis produced by a different model (GFS)). Nevertheless, the latter
691 LE values are lower than the former ones by up to 4 Wm^{-2} indicating that desert dust outbreaks reduce
692 the latent heat fluxes leaving from the ground. The reliability of this finding is further supported by the
693 fact that the RADOFF-RADON differences are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. During
694 night, the RADON LE values are slightly higher (less than 0.5 Wm^{-2}) with respect to the corresponding
695 ones simulated in the RADOFF configuration. The instantaneous reduction and increase of LE (results
696 not shown here) can be as large as -100 Wm^{-2} and $20\text{-}30 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, respectively. Finally, in contrast to SH,
697 the spatial features of LE anomalies are not identical with those of DRENETSURF since other parameters
698 (e.g. soil moisture) regulate also the latent heat fluxes (Marcella and Eltahir, 2014).

699

700 *5.4. Impact on temperature fields*

701

702 Through the perturbation of the radiation it is expected that desert dust outbreaks will affect also the
703 temperature fields. In order to quantify these impacts, the temperature differences between the RADON
704 and RADOFF simulations, both at 2 meters and in vertical, are analyzed. In Figure 7, are displayed the
705 RADON-RADOFF anomaly maps of temperature at 2 meters at 12 (i), 24 (ii), 36 (iii) and 48 (iv) hours
706 after the initialization of the forecast period on 2nd August 2012 at 00 UTC. At noon, the highest
707 negative biases (down to -4 K) are observed over land areas where the intensity of dust loads is high
708 (see the first and third row in the first column in Fig. 4) due to the strong reduction of the NET
709 radiation reaching the ground by the mineral particles. Similar findings, under dust episode conditions,
710 have been also reported by previous studies conducted for the Mediterranean (Pérez et al., 2006),
711 across the Sahara (Helmert et al., 2007; Heinold et al., 2008; Stanelle et al., 2010) and in East Asia
712 (Kumar et al., 2014; Ling et al., 2014). Over dust-affected maritime areas, due to the higher heat
713 capacity of the sea, the temperature differences between the RADON and RADOFF experiments are
714 almost negligible at these time scales. During nighttime, dust aerosols emit radiation at thermal
715 wavelengths increasing thus the near surface temperature when the dust-radiation interactions are
716 included into the numerical simulations (RADON experiment). For this reason, the RADON-RADOFF
717 temperature differences at 2 meters become positive (up to 4 K) at 24 and 48 forecast hours over land

718 areas where the “core” of the dust plume is observed. The reduction and the increase of the near surface
719 temperature during daytime and nighttime, respectively, either solely or as a combined result indicate
720 that the temperature diurnal range is reduced due to desert dust outbreaks.

721 The vertical distribution of dust layers determines their impacts on radiation with altitude which in
722 turn modify the temperature profiles (Meloni et al., 2015) and subsequently affect convection (Ji et al.,
723 2015), cloud development (Yin and Chen, 2007), precipitation (Yin et al., 2002) and wind profiles
724 (Choobari et al., 2012). In order to investigate the impacts of desert dust outbreaks on temperature
725 fields into the atmosphere, we have reproduced the altitude-latitude cross sections (up to 8 km above
726 mean sea level, m.s.l.) of RADON-RADOFF temperature differences on 4 April 2003 at 12 UTC along
727 the meridional 30° E (Fig. 8 ii-a) and on 7 March 2009 at 00 UTC along the meridional 10° E (Fig. 8 ii-
728 b). In addition, the corresponding cross sections of dust concentration (in kg m^{-3}) are shown in Figures
729 8 i-a and 8 i-b, respectively. At midday, an elevated dust layer extends from 1.5 to 6 km m.s.l., between
730 23° N and 33° N, with dust concentrations up to $0.8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ while a low elevated dust layer
731 extends from the surface up to 1.5 km m.s.l., between 27° N and 31° N, with concentrations up to 10^{-6}
732 kg m^{-3} (Fig 8 i-a). Along the cross-section, the simulated columnar dust AOD at 550 nm reaches up to
733 1.21. Based on the cross section of temperature differences (Fig. 8 ii-a), dust aerosols via the absorption
734 of solar radiation warm the atmospheric layers by up to 0.8-0.9 K between altitudes where the high-
735 elevated dust layer is located. On the contrary, below the dust cloud, mineral particles cool the lowest
736 tropospheric levels (by up to 1.3 K) by attenuating the incoming solar radiation. Note that between the
737 parallels 31° N and 35° N, where dust loads are recorded at low altitudes (below 2 km), higher
738 temperatures by up to 0.3 K are simulated in the RADON experiment with respect to RADOFF,
739 revealing thus an atmospheric warming near surface. Also, it must be considered that in this area
740 mineral particles are suspended over sea, where the impacts on sensible heat fluxes are negligible,
741 making therefore evident the dust warming effect at low atmospheric levels in contrast to land areas
742 (parallels between 27° N and 31° N), where the near surface temperature is reduced because of the
743 reduction of the sensible heat fluxes, as it has been shown also by Pérez et al. (2006, Fig. 10).
744 Therefore, the vertical distribution of dust loads plays a significant role regarding their impact on near
745 surface temperature which in turn may affect winds and subsequently dust emission (Stanele et al.,
746 2010; Huang et al., 2014). Above the high-elevated dust layer, negative RADON-RADOFF
747 temperature differences (down to -0.3 K) are found indicating an atmospheric cooling attributed to the
748 dust albedo effect (Spyrou et al., 2013).

749 In the second example, on 7th March 2009 at 00 UTC, a dust layer extends from the southern parts
750 of the NSD domain to the northern parts of Tunisia, between surface and 4 km m.s.l. (Fig. 8 i-b). Along
751 the dust plume, with AODs reaching up to 1.40, moderate concentrations (up to $0.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) are
752 simulated between 15° N and 20° N, low (less than $0.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) between 20° N and 25° N while
753 the maximum ones (higher than $2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) are recorded between 25° N and 35° N. Due to the
754 emission of LW radiation by mineral particles, dust aerosols cool the atmospheric layers (Otto et al.,
755 2007) in which they reside, by up to 0.8 K, and increase the temperature, by up to 0.4 K, just above the
756 dust layer. Between the bottom of the dust layer and surface, positive RADON-RADOFF temperature
757 differences (i.e. warming) up to 1.2 K are calculated as indicated by the red colors following the model
758 topography (grey shaded). Nevertheless, this near surface warming is “interrupted”, being null or even
759 reverse (i.e. cooling), in areas where the dust layer abuts the ground.

760

761 *5.5. Feedbacks on dust emission and dust aerosol optical depth*

762

763 In the present section, focus is given on the investigation of the potential feedbacks on dust AOD (at
764 550 nm) and dust emissions attributed to dust radiative effects. To this aim, the timeseries of the
765 regional averages and the associated standard deviations, throughout the forecast period (84 hours),
766 calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks for both parameters, based on the RADON (red) and
767 RADOFF (blue) experiments, are analyzed and the obtained results are shown in Figure 9. Over the
768 simulation period, the RADOFF dust $\text{AOD}_{550\text{nm}}$ gradually increases from 0.31 to 0.34 in contrast to the
769 corresponding outputs from RADON that are gradually decreasing down to 0.29 (Fig. 9-i). The positive
770 RADOFF-RADON differences of dust AOD, indicating a negative feedback when the dust-radiation
771 interactions are considered into the numerical simulations, are getting evident 12 hours (0.005 or 2%)
772 after the initialization of the forecast period and amplify with time (up to 0.036 or 12%), being also
773 statistical significant (paired t-test, confidence level at 95%) at each forecast step. The observed
774 negative feedbacks on dust AOD have been also pointed out in relevant studies (Pérez et al., 2006;
775 Wang et al., 2010) carried out for specific desert dust outbreaks. Through the comparison of the mean
776 dust AOD levels, calculated over the 84-h simulation period, based on RADON (0.288) and RADOFF
777 (0.308) simulations, it is revealed a statistical significant reduction by 0.02 (6.9 %) attributed to the
778 dust radiative effects. Among the 20 desert dust outbreaks, these reductions vary from 1% (22 February
779 2004) to 12.5% (27 January 2005) and are statistical significant at 95 % confidence level in all cases.

780 A similar analysis has been also made for the dust emissions (in kg m^{-2}) aggregated over the whole
781 simulation domain (NSD, outer domain in Figure 1) and the overall results are given in Figure 9-ii.

782 Dust emissions are maximized around midday (Cowie et al., 2014) and are very weak during night.
783 Based on the RADOFF simulation, the highest amounts of emitted dust are increased from 2 to 2.5 kg
784 m^{-2} throughout the hindcast period. This increasing tendency is encountered also in the RADON
785 experiment but the emitted dust amount is lower. The positive RADOFF-RADON anomalies during
786 daytime range from 0.1 to 0.4 kg m^{-2} and are statistical significant at 95% confidence level based on the
787 paired t-test. Therefore, desert dust outbreaks exert a negative feedback on dust emission explaining
788 thus the reduction of dust AOD. The lower amounts of emitted dust, modelled based on the RADON
789 configuration, result from a chain of processes triggered by the surface cooling which decreases the
790 turbulent flux of sensible heat into the atmosphere, weakening the turbulent mixing within the PBL and
791 the downward transport of momentum to the surface and subsequently reduces surface wind speed and
792 dust emission (Miller et al., 2004a; Pérez et al., 2006).

793 During the simulation period, the total emitted amount of desert dust (parentheses in the legend of
794 Figure 9-ii) is equal to 18.279 and 21.849 kg m^{-2} based on the RADON and RADOFF, respectively.
795 Therefore, desert dust outbreaks cause a negative feedback on dust emissions reducing them by 3.57 kg
796 m^{-2} (-19.5%). This reduction is consistent in all the studied cases of our analysis varying from 0.6 kg m^{-2}
797 2 (~10%, 24 February 2006) to 6.6 kg m^{-2} (~34%, 2 August 2012). Negative feedbacks on dust AOD
798 and dust emissions have been also pointed out in previous studies based on short- (e.g. Ahn et al., 2007;
799 Rémy et al., 2015) and long-term (e.g. Perlwitz et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2009) simulations. Woodage
800 and Woodward (2014) relied on climatic simulations of the HiGEM model, found a positive feedback
801 on global dust emissions which is in contradiction with findings reported in the majority of the existing
802 studies. The authors claimed that this discrepancy could be explained by the absence of mineral
803 particles with a radius larger than 10 μm in the emitted dust size distribution leading thus to an
804 underestimation of the LW effects. It must be clarified that according to our results negative feedbacks
805 on dust emission are found at a regional scale. Stanelle et al. (2010) showed that the vertical
806 distribution of dust aerosols determines their impacts on atmospheric stability and wind patterns and
807 subsequently the associated feedbacks on dust emissions which can be even positive at a local scale.
808 This highlights the importance of studying the potential feedbacks on mineral particles' loads as well as
809 on their emissions spatially by analyzing all the contributor factors.

810

811 *5.6. Assessment of the radiation at the ground*

812

813 The performance of the NMMB-MONARCH model in terms of reproducing the downward SW and
814 LW radiation is assessed using as reference data ground measurements derived from the Baseline

815 Surface Radiation Network (BSRN, Ohmura et al., 1998). Through this analysis it is attempted to
816 quantify objectively the potential improvements of the model's predictive skills attributed to the
817 inclusion of the dust radiative effects into the numerical simulations. Globally, 59 BSRN stations are
818 installed at different climatic zones providing radiation measurements (<http://bsrn.awi.de/>) of high
819 accuracy at very high temporal resolution (1 min) (Roesch et al., 2011). For the evaluation analysis, we
820 have used the global (direct and diffuse) shortwave and longwave downwelling radiation at the ground
821 measured at 6 stations (magenta star symbols in Figure 1) located in Spain (Izana, Cener), France
822 (Palaiseau, Carpentras), Algeria (Tamanrasset) and Israel (Sede Boker).

823 In Figure 10, are presented the timeseries of the measured (red curve) SW (i-) and LW (ii-) radiation
824 at Sede Boker and the corresponding model outputs based on the RADON (black curve) and the
825 RADOFF (blue curve) experiments, for the periods 22 February 2004 00 UTC – 25 February 2004 12
826 UTC (-a) and 21 April 2007 00 UTC – 24 April 2007 12 UTC (-b). In the bottom row of Fig. 10 are
827 also provided the temporal evolution of the model dust AOD_{550nm} and the Level 2 AERONET total
828 AOD_{500nm} (red x symbols) retrieved via the O' Neill algorithm (O' Neill et al., 2003). Moreover, the
829 AERONET Ångström exponent (α) retrievals (denoted with green x symbols) are used as an
830 indicator of coarse or fine particles predominance into the atmosphere. For the comparison between
831 model and observations, the nearest grid point to the stations' coordinates is utilized. In Sede Boker,
832 the model's grid point elevation is 465 m being slightly lower than the AERONET (480 m) and BSRN
833 (500 m) stations, and therefore these small altitude differences do not affect substantially the
834 intercomparison results. Likewise, the SW and LW radiation are measured from 0.295 to 2.8 μm and
835 from 4 to 50 μm , respectively, while the spectral intervals in the model's radiation transfer scheme span
836 from 0.2 to 12.2 μm and from 3.3 to 1000 μm in the shortwave and longwave spectrum, respectively.
837 These differences might contribute to the level of agreement between model and observations;
838 however, are not discussed in our evaluation analysis.

839 In both examples presented here, but also for the rest of our dataset, the model captures better the
840 temporal variation of the downwelling SW in contrast to the LW radiation at the ground with
841 correlation coefficients (R) higher than 0.96 and between 0.63 and 0.85, respectively. However, the
842 model-BSRN biases vary strongly in temporal terms because of the inability of the model to reproduce
843 adequately the amount of the suspended mineral particles. For the first desert dust outbreak (left
844 column in Fig. 10), during the first forecast day, the maximum measured SW radiation is higher by
845 about 150 Wm^{-2} than the simulated RADON outputs and slightly lower than the corresponding
846 RADOFF levels. The former is explained by the facts that the model reproduces the dust peak earlier

847 than actually recorded according to AERONET observations (see Figure 10 iii-a) and it develops low-
848 level clouds (cloud fractions between 0.5 and 0.6) while the latter one is attributed to the absence of
849 radiative effects. For the rest of the simulation period, the model overestimates and underestimates the
850 shortwave and longwave radiation, respectively, due to its deficiency to reproduce (underestimation)
851 the amount of dust aerosols. More specifically, based on AERONET retrievals, AOD and alpha levels
852 vary from 0.2 to 0.4 and from 0.2 to 0.7, respectively, indicating the existence of dust loads of
853 moderate intensity. On the contrary, the simulated dust AOD at 550 is less than 0.1 in both model
854 configurations characterized by a “flat” behavior in temporal terms. Over the simulation period (22
855 February 2004 00 UTC – 25 February 2004 12 UTC), the mean SW (LW) radiation based on BSRN,
856 RADON and RADOFF is equal to 221.6 Wm⁻² (290.0 Wm⁻²), 255.4 Wm⁻² (266.4 Wm⁻²) and 272.7
857 Wm⁻² (264.7 Wm⁻²), respectively. Thanks to the consideration of the dust radiative effects, the positive
858 model-BSRN biases in the shortwave spectrum are reduced from 51.1 Wm⁻² (RADOFF-BSRN) to 33.9
859 Wm⁻² (RADON-BSRN) while the negative model-BSRN biases in the longwave spectrum are reduced
860 from -25.3 Wm⁻² (RADOFF-BSRN) to -23.6 Wm⁻² (RADON-BSRN).

861 In the second case which is analyzed (right column in Fig. 10), two peaks are simulated with dust
862 AOD_{550nm} values up to 0.9 (midday on 23rd April 2007) and 0.5 (afternoon on 21st April 2007). For the
863 major one, the model clearly overestimates aerosol optical depth with respect to AERONET retrievals
864 in which AOD (red x symbols) varies between 0.2 and 0.3 and alpha (green x symbols) ranges from 0.3
865 to 0.5 while the second one cannot be confirmed due to the lack of ground observations. Note, that
866 between 09 UTC and 15 UTC on 23rd April 2007, the model underestimates the SW radiation by up to
867 200 Wm⁻² while overestimates the LW radiation by up to 150 Wm⁻² (maximum overestimations
868 throughout the simulation period) due to the misrepresentation of the dust AODs. Even higher model
869 overestimations of the SW radiation are observed at 12 UTC on 22 April 2007 attributed mainly to the
870 inability of the model to reproduce satisfactorily clouds, since the negative model-AERONET
871 differences of AOD cannot explain these large discrepancies in radiation. Clouds play an important role
872 in such comparisons, particularly when their features are not well reproduced by the model, leading to
873 large overestimations or underestimations, by up to 600 Wm⁻² in absolute terms among the studied
874 cases of the present analysis, as it has been pointed out in previous studies (e.g. Spyrou et al., 2013).
875 Finally, the model (RADON) overestimation of the SW radiation reaching the ground, by up to 200
876 Wm⁻² at 09 UTC on 21 April 2007, is probably associated with underestimation of the simulated dust
877 AOD since fair weather conditions are forecasted and confirmed by the true color MODIS-Terra
878 images (<http://modis-atmos.gsfc.nasa.gov/IMAGES/>). For the SW radiation, the positive NMMB-

879 BSRN biases during the simulation period (21 April 2007 00 UTC – 24 April 2007 12 UTC) are
880 reduced from 69.0 Wm^{-2} to 40.9 Wm^{-2} when dust-radiation interactions are activated (RADON) while
881 lower positive biases for the LW radiation are calculated (0.7 Wm^{-2}) when dust-radiation interactions
882 are deactivated (RADOFF). Summarizing, in the majority of the studied desert dust outbreaks here,
883 positive and negative model-observations biases are found for the downwelling SW (Table S2) and LW
884 (Table S3) radiation, respectively, which are reduced when the dust-radiation interactions are activated.
885 On the contrary, similar improvements are not evident on the correlation coefficients since are not
886 found remarkable differences between RADON-BSRN and RADOFF-BSRN R values (results not
887 shown).

888 889 *5.7. Assessment of the temperature fields versus analysis datasets*

891 The forecasting performance of the NMMB-MONARCH model has been also assessed for the
892 temperature fields, utilizing as reference final analyses (FNL) derived from the National Centers for
893 Environmental Prediction database (<http://rda.ucar.edu/>). The evaluation of both model configurations
894 (RADON and RADOFF) against FNL temperature at 2 meters and at 17 pressure levels into the
895 atmosphere is made at a regional scale for the NSD. For the former intercomparison, only land grid
896 points are taken into account, while for the latter one it is not applied any criterion regarding the
897 surface type (land or sea). The evaluation of the model is made by considering grid points where the
898 dust AOD is higher/equal than 0.1, 0.5 and 1.0, respectively. In order to overcome spatial
899 inconsistencies between model and analyses, the model outputs have been regridded from their raw
900 spatial resolution ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ degrees) to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees to match FNL. We note that analyses
901 datasets are only “best” estimates of the observed states of the atmosphere and the surface produced by
902 combining a model (in this case GFS) and available observations through data assimilation techniques.
903 Analysis datasets are more poorly constrained by observations over certain regions including the arid
904 and dusty ones, and more dependent on the model’s behavior. This is even more relevant for surface
905 variables such as 2-m temperature which may heavily depend on the underlying model’s soil scheme.

906 Figure 11 presents the regional biases (model-FNL) of temperature at 2 meters for the RADON (red
907 curve) and RADOFF (blue curve) experiments, averaged from the 20 desert dust outbreaks every 6
908 hours of the hindcast period, considering only land grid points where the dust AOD is higher/equal
909 than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0. In order to avoid misleading interpretations, attributed to possible
910 error compensations as a result of an erroneously representation of the dust patterns or optical
911 properties (see Section 5.1), the corresponding root mean square error (RMSE) values have been

912 calculated as well (Figure S23). The combination of these two skill scores (bias and RMSE) can
913 provide information regarding the model departures (i.e., cold or warm biases) and how much
914 “sensitive” is the level of agreement between NMMB-FNL due to large errors (outliers). Regardless the
915 dust AOD threshold, cold biases are found during night and early morning hours, warm biases are
916 calculated in the afternoon while the minimum biases in absolute terms appear at noon. According to
917 our results, under low desert dust conditions (Fig. 11-i), the agreement between model and FNL is
918 better when the dust radiative effects are neglected (RADOFF) during daytime, while slightly lower
919 RADON-FNL biases compared to RADOFF-FNL ones are found during night. These trivial nocturnal
920 “corrections” are not evident in the RMSE timeseries and therefore are not so trustworthy. At noon, the
921 RADOFF-FNL biases are almost zero (less than 0.1 K) whereas negative RADON-FNL biases (down
922 to -0.27 K) are computed due to the surface cooling induced by the mineral particles. For moderate dust
923 AODs (Fig. 11-ii), during night, the model-FNL temperature biases are lower, being in agreement also
924 with the associated RMSE values (Fig. S23-ii), for the RADON configuration (less than 1 K) in
925 contrast to the RADOFF simulation (less than 1.4 K) and these improvements are statistically
926 significant at 95% confidence level. Nevertheless, at midday, the RADOFF-FNL biases are similar to
927 those found for the lowest dust AOD threshold (Fig. 11-i), while the model cold biases, varying from -
928 1.15 K (84 h) to -0.55 K (12 h), are amplified when the dust-radiation interactions are activated
929 (RADON). The “corrections” of the near surface temperature forecasts during nighttime become more
930 evident and statistically significant, when only land areas affected by intense dust loads (dust AOD \geq
931 1.0) are considered in the NMMB-FNL comparison. Under these high dust AODs, the increase of air
932 temperature at 2 meters due to the dust LW DREs reduces the existing cold biases and the RADON
933 RMSE levels (Fig. S23-iii). Therefore, the improvements on model’s predictability of temperature at 2
934 meters when accounting for dust-radiation interactions, are more evident when the intensity of dust
935 loads increases.

936 The potential impacts of the dust radiative effects inclusion on the model’s forecasting ability have
937 been also investigated for the temperature fields in vertical. For this purpose, from the 20 desert dust
938 outbreaks, the temperature model-FNL biases at 17 pressure levels (from 1000 to 100 hPa) have been
939 calculated for the RADOFF (black curve) and RADON (red curve) and the obtained results are
940 illustrated in Figure 12. The corresponding vertical profiles for the RMSE are given in Figure S24. The
941 assessment results are presented only 24 (a) and 48 (b) hours after the initialization of the forecast
942 period since are not found remarkable differences between the two model configurations at noon (i.e.
943 12 and 36 UTC).

944 Based on our findings, model warm biases are found between 950 and 700 hPa where most of the
945 dust is confined (brown curve). For the lowest dust AOD threshold, these positive model-FNL biases
946 reach up to 0.245 K and 0.313 K at 24 and 48 forecast hours, respectively, when mineral particles are
947 not treated as radiatively active substance (RADOFF). On the contrary, when dust-radiation
948 interactions are activated (RADON) the corresponding biases are reduced down to 0.155 K and 0.239
949 K, respectively, indicating a better model performance which is further supported by the fact that these
950 improvements are statistical significant (95 % confidence level). In addition, slightly lower RMSEs are
951 also calculated for the RADON configuration between 925 and 700 hPa (Fig. S24-i). Similar but more
952 evident results are found when the dust AOD threshold increases from 0.1 to 0.5 (middle row in
953 Figures 12 and S24-ii). More specifically, at 24 forecast hours, the RADON-FNL temperature
954 differences do not exceed 0.321 K in contrast to the corresponding biases between RADOFF and FNL
955 which can be as high as 0.512 K. At 48 forecast hours, between altitudes where the dust concentrations
956 are maximized, the red curve (RADON-FNL) is close to the blue thick line which represents the ideal
957 score (i.e. zero biases), while the RADOFF warm biases can reach up to 0.443 K. As it has been shown
958 in Section 5.4 (see Fig. 8 ii-b), due to the emission of longwave radiation by the mineral particles there
959 is a temperature reduction within the atmospheric layers in which they are confined and a slight
960 warming above the dust layer. The former effect explains the statistically significant reduction of the
961 model warm biases between 950 and 700 hPa whereas the latter one could explain the slight
962 statistically significant reduction of the model cold biases recorded between 600 and 500 hPa (see Fig.
963 12 ii-a). According to the RMSE vertical profiles, between the two altitude ranges (950-700 hPa and
964 600-500 hPa), the better performance of the RADON configuration is evident only at pressure levels
965 where the main amount of dust is simulated (Fig. S24 ii-a and ii-b). For the highest dust AOD
966 threshold, at 24 forecast hours (Fig. 12 iii-a), the agreement of temperature profiles between RADON
967 and FNL is better compared to RADOFF-FNL whereas at 48 forecast hours depends on altitude (Fig.
968 12 iii-b). Summarizing, thanks to the consideration of the dust radiative effects the predictive skills of
969 the NMMB-MONARCH model in terms of reproducing temperature fields within the atmosphere are
970 improved as it has been pointed also in previous relevant studies (Pérez et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2010;
971 Wang and Niu, 2013). However, the improvements are relatively small. The consideration of dust-
972 radiation interactions does not always lead to a better model performance since other model first order
973 errors may dominate over the expected improvements. Also the representation of dust plumes'
974 spatiotemporal features and optical properties, particularly the AOD and SSA, may produce double

975 penalty effects. In this sense, the enhancement of dust forecasts via data assimilation techniques may
976 significantly improve the results.

977

978 **6. Summary and conclusions**

979

980 In the present study, the direct radiative effects (DREs) during 20 intense and widespread
981 Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks, that took place during the period March 2000 – February 2013,
982 have been analyzed based on short-term (84 hours) regional simulations of the NMMB-MONARCH
983 model. The identification of desert dust outbreaks has been accomplished via an objective and dynamic
984 algorithm utilizing as inputs daily $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ satellite retrievals providing information about aerosols' load,
985 size and nature. DREs have been calculated at the top of the atmosphere (TOA), into the atmosphere
986 (ATM), and at the surface, for the downwelling (SURF) and the absorbed (NETSURF) radiation, for
987 the shortwave (SW), longwave (LW) and NET (SW+LW) radiation. At a further step, the impacts on
988 sensible and latent heat fluxes as well as on temperature at 2 meters and into the atmosphere have been
989 investigated. Moreover, the potential feedbacks on dust emission and dust AOD have been assessed at
990 regional scale representative for the simulation domain used in our experiments. In the last part of our
991 study, focus was given on the potential improvements on model's predictive skills, attributed to the
992 inclusion of dust radiative effects into the numerical simulations, in terms of reproducing the
993 downward SW/LW radiation at the ground as well as the temperature fields. The main findings
994 obtained from the present analysis are summarized below.

995

996 **Direct Radiative Effects**

997

- 998 ➤ DREs into the atmosphere and at the surface are driven by the dust outbreaks' spatial features
999 whereas at TOA, the surface albedo plays a crucial role, particularly under clear sky conditions.
- 1000 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks induce a strong surface cooling with instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF} and
1001 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values down to -589 Wm^{-2} and -337 Wm^{-2} , respectively.
- 1002 ➤ Through the absorption of the incoming solar radiation by the mineral particles, dust outbreaks
1003 cause a strong atmospheric warming effect (by up to 319 Wm^{-2}) around midday.
- 1004 ➤ At TOA, during daytime, positive DREs up to 85 Wm^{-2} (planetary warming) are found over
1005 highly reflective areas while negative DREs down to -184 Wm^{-2} (planetary cooling) are
1006 computed over dark surfaces.

- 1007 ➤ During nighttime, reverse effects of lower magnitude are found into the atmosphere and at the
1008 surface with maximum instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} values equal to
1009 83 Wm^{-2} , 50 Wm^{-2} and -61 Wm^{-2} whereas at TOA due to the offset of the atmospheric cooling
1010 by the surface warming, the DRE_{TOA} values are almost negligible (less than 10 Wm^{-2}).
- 1011 ➤ The regional NET all-sky DREs for the NSD range from -8.5 to 0.5 Wm^{-2} , from -31.6 to 2.1
1012 Wm^{-2} , from -22.2 to 2.2 Wm^{-2} and from -1.7 to 20.4 Wm^{-2} for TOA, SURF, NETSURF and
1013 ATM, respectively.
- 1014 ➤ The contribution of the LW DREs to the NET ones is comparable or even larger, particularly
1015 over the Sahara at midday.
- 1016

1017 **Sensible and latent heat fluxes**

- 1018
- 1019 ➤ As a response to the surface radiation budget perturbations, desert dust outbreaks reduce the
1020 sensible heat fluxes (regional averages taking into account only land grid points) by up to 45
1021 Wm^{-2} during daytime while reverse tendencies of lower magnitudes are found during night (2
1022 Wm^{-2}).
- 1023 ➤ Locally, the aforementioned values can reach down to -150 Wm^{-2} and up to 50 Wm^{-2} .
- 1024 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks reduce also the surface latent heat fluxes by up to 4 Wm^{-2} and 100 Wm^{-2}
1025 at a regional and grid point level, respectively. At night, the regional and the instantaneous LE
1026 levels are increased by up to 0.5 Wm^{-2} and 30 Wm^{-2} , respectively.
- 1027

1028 **Impact on temperature fields**

- 1029
- 1030 ➤ Due to the attenuation of the incoming solar radiation and the emission of radiation at thermal
1031 wavelengths, both induced by dust aerosols, temperature at 2 meters reduces and increases
1032 during day and night, respectively, by up to 4 K in absolute terms in land areas where the dust
1033 loads are intense (AODs higher than 2).
- 1034 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks warm the atmosphere by up to 0.9 K between altitudes where elevated
1035 dust layers are located and cool the lowest tropospheric levels by up to 1.3 K , due to the
1036 reduced surface sensible heat fluxes.
- 1037 ➤ Due to the emission of LW radiation and the trapping of the outgoing terrestrial radiation by
1038 dust aerosols, the nocturnal temperature decreases by up to 0.8 K in atmospheric altitudes where

1039 mineral particles are confined, whereas between the bottom of the dust layer and the surface,
1040 the air-temperature increases by up to 1.2 K.

1041

1042 **Feedbacks on dust AOD and dust emission**

1043

- 1044 ➤ The total emitted amount of dust is reduced by 19.5% (statistically significant at 95%
1045 confidence level) over the forecast period when dust DREs are included into the numerical
1046 simulations, revealing thus a negative feedback on dust emissions.
- 1047 ➤ Among the studied cases, the corresponding percentages range from -34% (2 August 2012) to -
1048 10% (24 February 2006) and are statistical significant (95% confidence level) in all cases.
- 1049 ➤ As a consequence of the lower amount of mineral particles emitted in the atmosphere, negative
1050 feedbacks are also found on the mean regional dust AOD_{550nm} which is decreased by 0.02
1051 (6.9%) with respect to the control experiment (RADOFF).
- 1052 ➤ Statistically significant reductions of the regional dust AOD_{550nm}, varying from 1% (22
1053 February 2004) to 12.5% (27 January 2005), are found in all the studied cases when dust-
1054 radiation interactions are activated (RADON).

1055

1056 **Assessment of model's predictive skills**

1057

- 1058 ➤ Through the evaluation of the model's forecast outputs of the SW and LW downwelling
1059 radiation at the ground against surface measurements derived by the BSRN network, it is
1060 revealed a reduction of the modelled positive (for SW) and negative (for LW) biases attributed
1061 to the consideration of dust radiative effects. However, model's accuracy is critically affected
1062 by its ability to represent satisfactorily aerosols' and clouds' spatiotemporal features,
1063 highlighting thus their key role when such comparisons are attempted.
- 1064 ➤ Under high dust load conditions (AODs higher/equal than 0.5), the nocturnal model-FNL
1065 negative regional biases of temperature at 2 meters are reduced by up to 0.5 K (95% statistically
1066 significant) in the RADON experiment. On the contrary, these temperature "corrections" are not
1067 evident during daytime revealing thus that other model errors (particularly those introduced by
1068 the soil model) can dominate over the expected improvements attributed to the consideration of
1069 dust-radiation interactions in the numerical simulations.

- 1070 ➤ The model regional warm biases found at 24 and 48 hours after the initialization of the forecast
1071 period, between pressure levels (950 and 700 hPa) where the dust concentration is maximized,
1072 are reduced by up to 0.4 K (95% statistically significant) in the RADON experiment.
- 1073 ➤ In general, the bias and RSME reductions achieved are relatively small. We recall that the
1074 model simulations show underestimation and spatiotemporal mismatches compared to MODIS.
1075 A future study may consider the potential benefit of AOD data assimilation in the model to
1076 better reproduce the magnitude and spatial features of the events and therefore to further
1077 improve the weather forecast itself.

1078

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1080

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1090

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1658 **Table 1:** List of the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks which have been identified within the geographical limits of the
 1659 MSD based on the satellite algorithm. In addition, the number of strong, extreme and total (strong plus extreme) DD
 1660 episodes (number of satellite grid cells at 1° x 1° spatial resolution where a DD episode has been identified), the regional
 1661 intensity (in terms of AOD_{550nm}) calculated from the total DD episodes as well as the dust affected parts of the
 1662 Mediterranean domain are provided.

Case	Date	Strong DD episodes	Extreme DD episodes	Total DD episodes	Intensity	Affected parts of the Mediterranean domain
1	31 July 2001	56	29	85	0.74	Western
2	8 May 2002	20	51	71	1.60	Central
3	4 April 2003	23	30	53	1.42	Eastern
4	16 July 2003	38	45	83	0.98	Western and Central
5	22 February 2004	10	36	46	2.18	Central and Eastern
6	26 March 2004	28	38	66	1.45	Central and Eastern
7	27 January 2005	12	25	37	1.36	Central and Eastern
8	2 March 2005	8	37	45	2.96	Central and Eastern
9	28 July 2005	10	20	30	1.08	Western and Central
10	24 February 2006	3	42	45	2.92	Eastern
11	19 March 2006	11	28	39	1.37	Eastern
12	24 February 2007	8	34	42	2.29	Central and Eastern
13	21 April 2007	15	27	42	1.65	Central
14	29 May 2007	17	30	47	1.40	Eastern
15	10 April 2008	9	33	42	1.58	Central
16	19 May 2008	16	50	66	1.45	Central
17	23 January 2009	4	32	36	2.65	Eastern
18	6 March 2009	18	23	41	1.41	Eastern
19	27 March 2010	10	29	39	1.43	Central
20	2 August 2012	12	23	35	1.20	Western

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1686 **Table 2:** Mean and standard deviation of all-sky DRE_{TOA} , DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} values, over the simulation
 1687 period (84 hours), calculated in the NSD, SDD and MSD domains for the SW, LW and NET radiation. Blue and red
 1688 background colors indicate negative (cooling effect) and positive (warming effect) DREs, respectively.

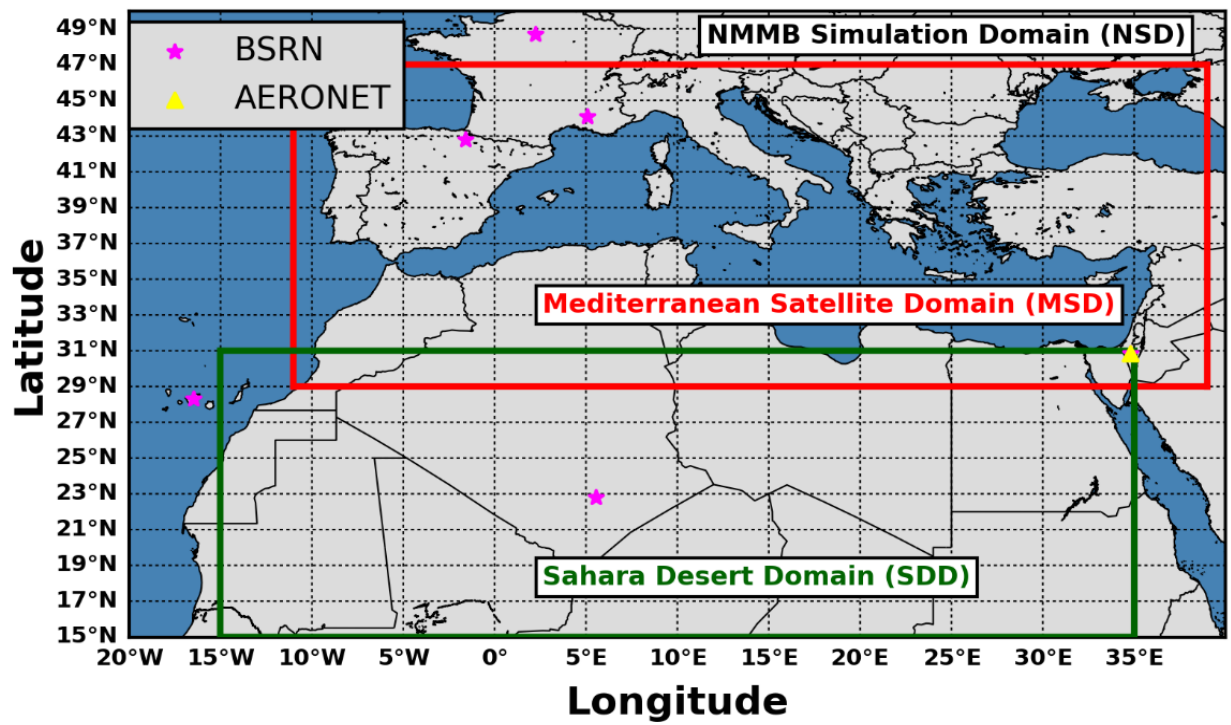
		DRE_{TOA}	DRE_{SURF}	$DRE_{NETSURF}$	DRE_{ATM}
NSD	SW	-3.5±3.4	-16.3±14.3	-12.5±11	9.0±9.3
	LW	0.9±0.5	1.7±0.4	3.0±0.9	-2.0±0.4
	NET	-2.6±3.2	-14.7±14.6	-9.6±10.2	7.0±9.0
SDD	SW	-2.8±5	-20.8±18.8	-14.1±12.8	11.4±12.2
	LW	1.4±1.1	2.8±0.7	5.0±1.8	-3.6±0.8
	NET	-1.3±5	-18.0±19.3	-9.1±11.2	7.8±11.7
MSD	SW	-4.5±4	-15.4±13.8	-12.8±11.6	8.3±8.5
	LW	0.7±0.3	1.2±0.4	2.1±0.5	-1.4±0.3
	NET	-3.8±3.8	-14.2±14	-10.8±11.2	6.9±8.3

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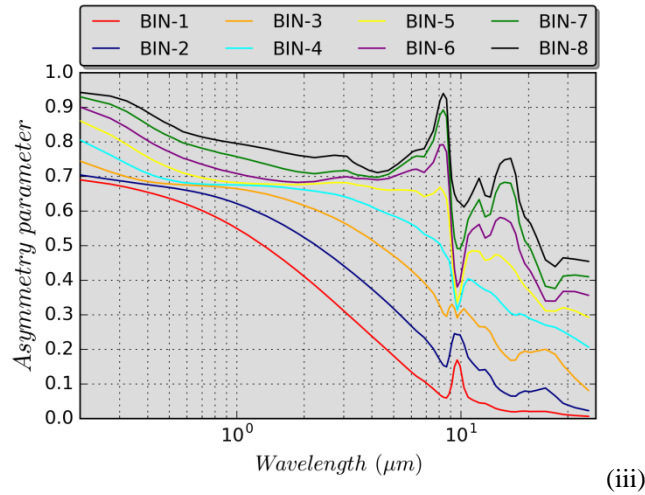
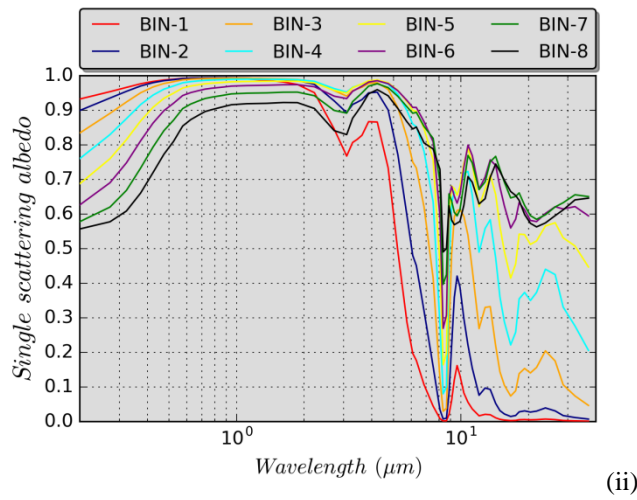
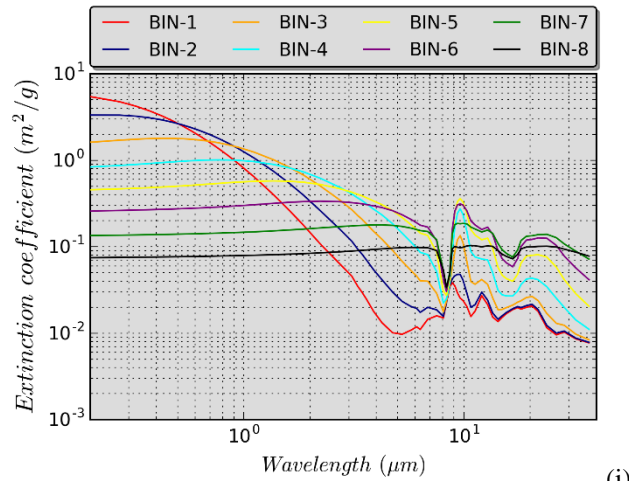
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 1694 **Figure 1:** Geographical limits of the: (i) NMMB Simulation Domain (*NSD*, outer domain), (ii) Mediterranean Satellite
 1695 Domain (*MSD*, red rectangle) and (iii) Sahara Desert Domain (*SDD*, green rectangle). With the magenta star symbols are
 1696 depicted the locations of the BSRN stations and with the yellow triangle is denoted the location of the AERONET Sede
 1697 Boker station.

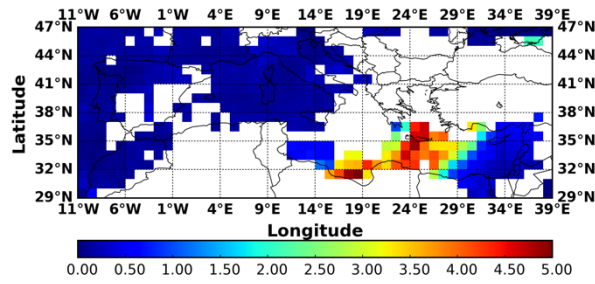
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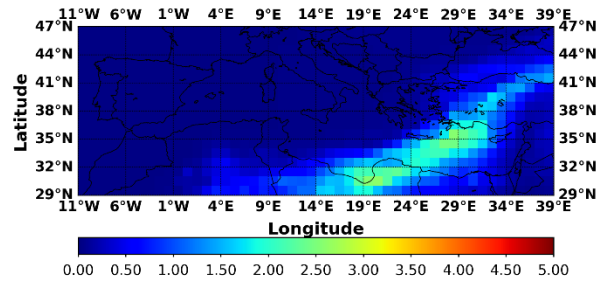
1710 **Figure 2:** Spectral variation of the GOCART: (i) extinction coefficient (in m^2/g), (ii) single scattering albedo and (iii)
 1711 asymmetry parameter, for each one of the 8 dust bins which are considered in the dust module.

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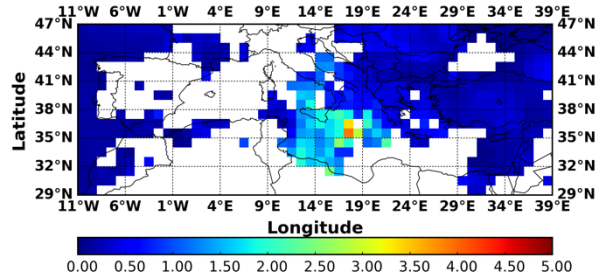
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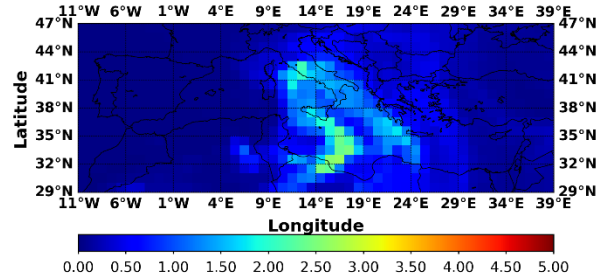
(i-a)



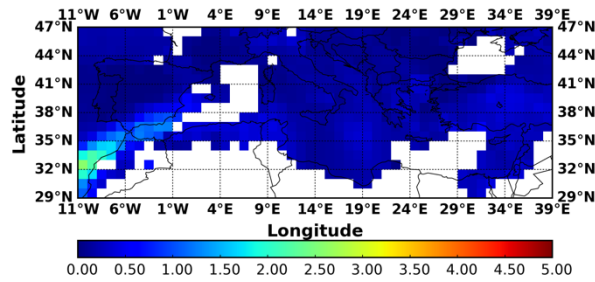
(i-b)



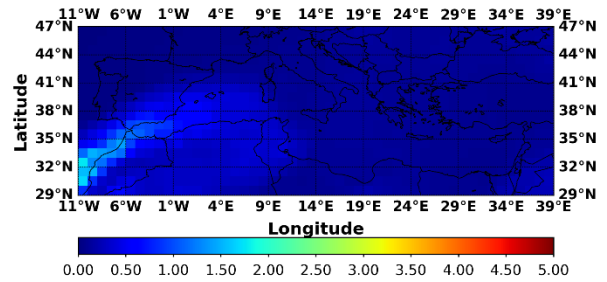
(ii-a)



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(iii-a)



(iii-b)

1714 **Figure 3:** Geographical distributions of the aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 550 nm: (a) retrieved by the MODIS-Terra
 1715 sensor and (b) simulated by the NMMB-MONARCH model at 12:00 UTC for the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks that
 1716 took place on: (i) 2nd March 2005, (ii) 19th May 2008 and (iii) 2nd August 2012.

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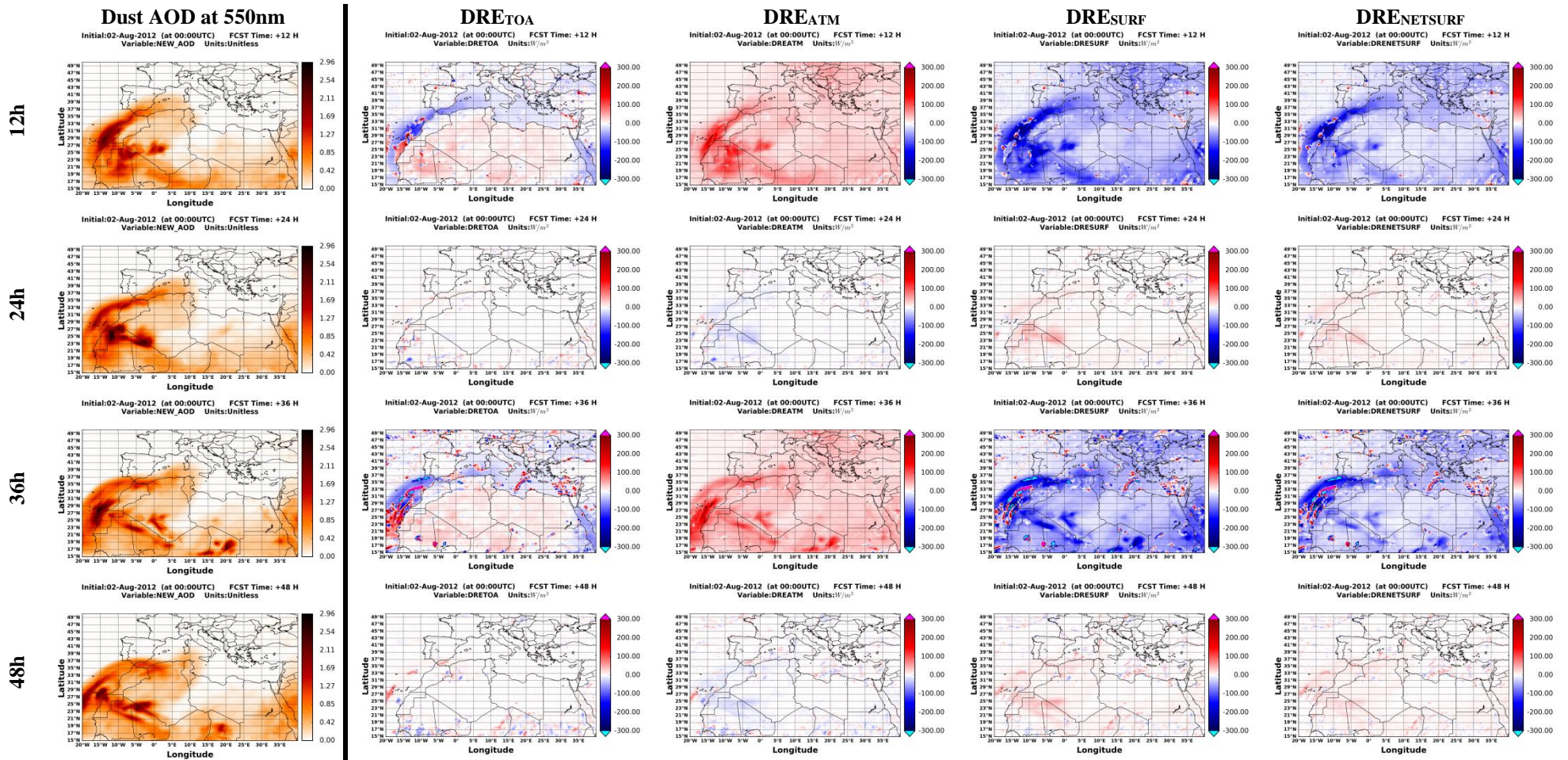


Figure 4: Spatial patterns of the simulated dust AOD_{550nm} and the instantaneous DRE_{TOA}, DRE_{ATM}, DRE_{SURF} and DRE_{NETSURF} values, expressed in Wm⁻², at 12, 24, 36 and 48 hours after the initialization of NMMB-MONARCH model at 00 UTC on 2nd August 2012.

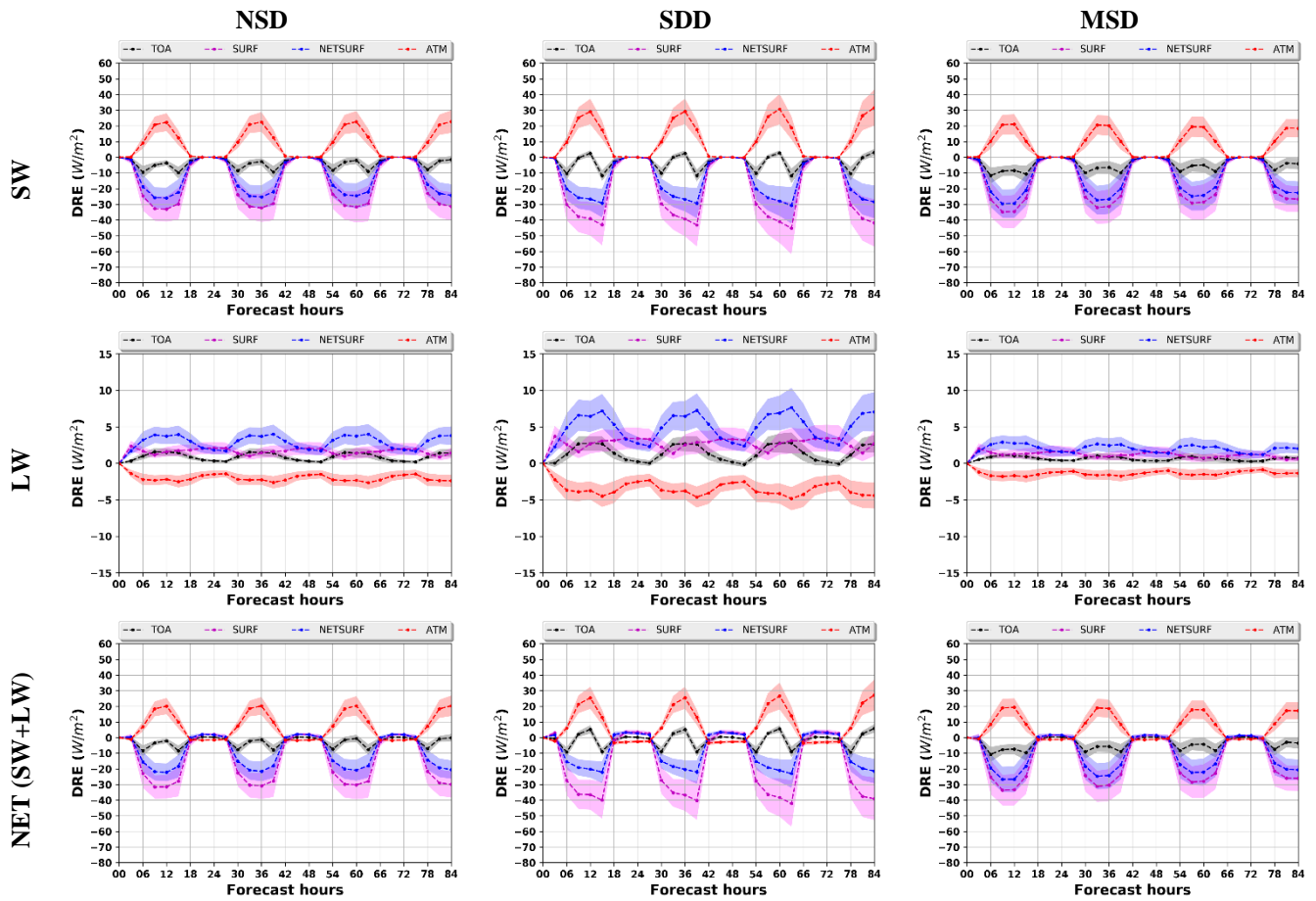
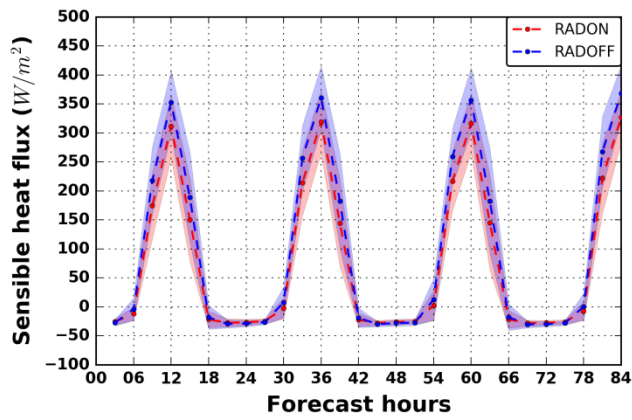
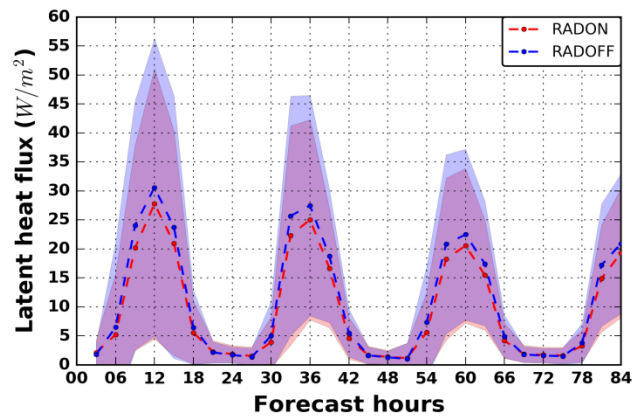


Figure 5: Regional all-sky SW (upper row), LW (middle row) and NET (SW+LW) (bottom row) DREs at TOA (black), SURF (purple), NETSURF (blue) and ATM (red) averaged over the NSD (left column), SDD (central column) and MSD (right column) domains. The calculated DREs correspond to the mean values calculated from the 20 simulated Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks and the shaded areas represent the associated standard deviation.



(i)



(ii)

Figure 6: Regional averaged values, over land areas of the simulation domain affected by dust loads and under clear-sky conditions, of the: (i) sensible and (ii) latent heat fluxes, expressed in Wm^{-2} , based on the RADON (red) and the RADOFF (blue) configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model. The dashed lines correspond to the mean values calculated by the 20 simulated Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks and the shaded areas represent the associated standard deviation.

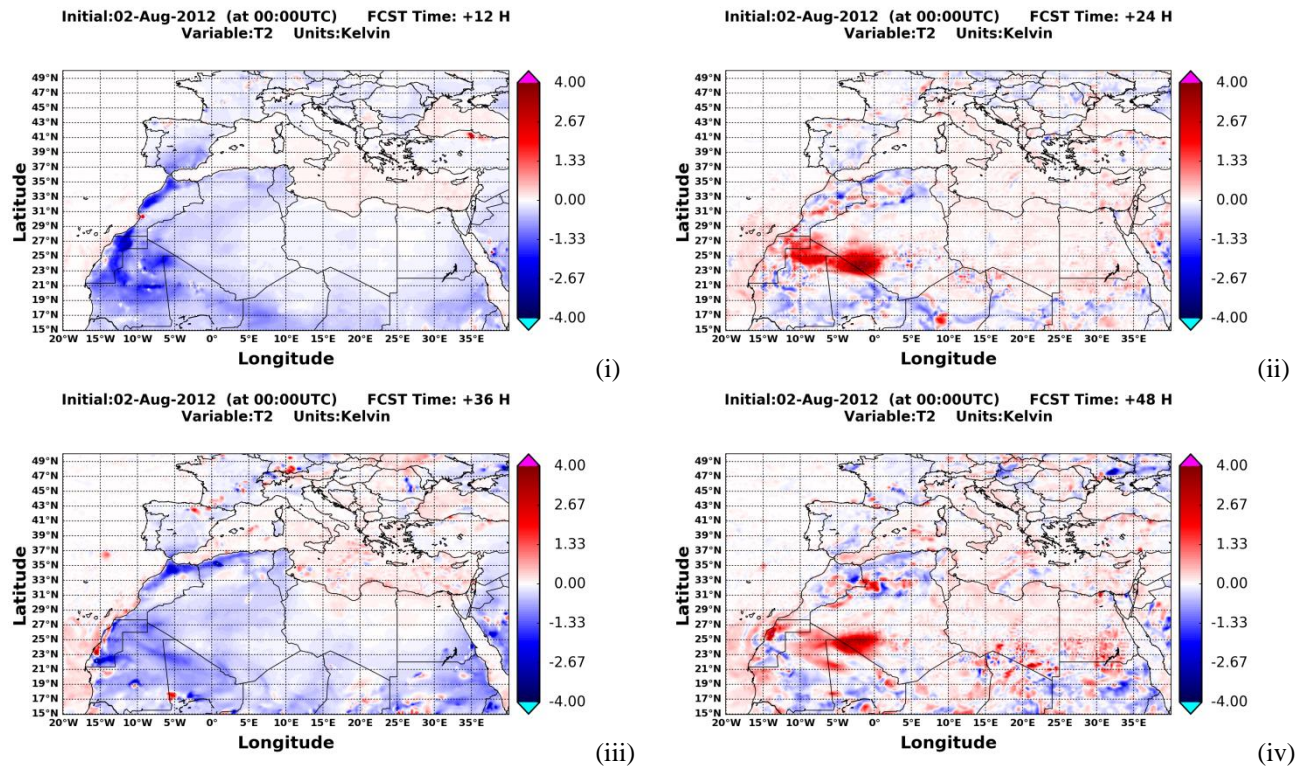


Figure 7: Spatial patterns of temperature differences at 2 meters, between the RADON and RADOFF configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model, for the: (i) 12, (ii) 24, (iii) 36 and (iv) 48 hours forecast of the 00 UTC cycle on 2nd August 2012.

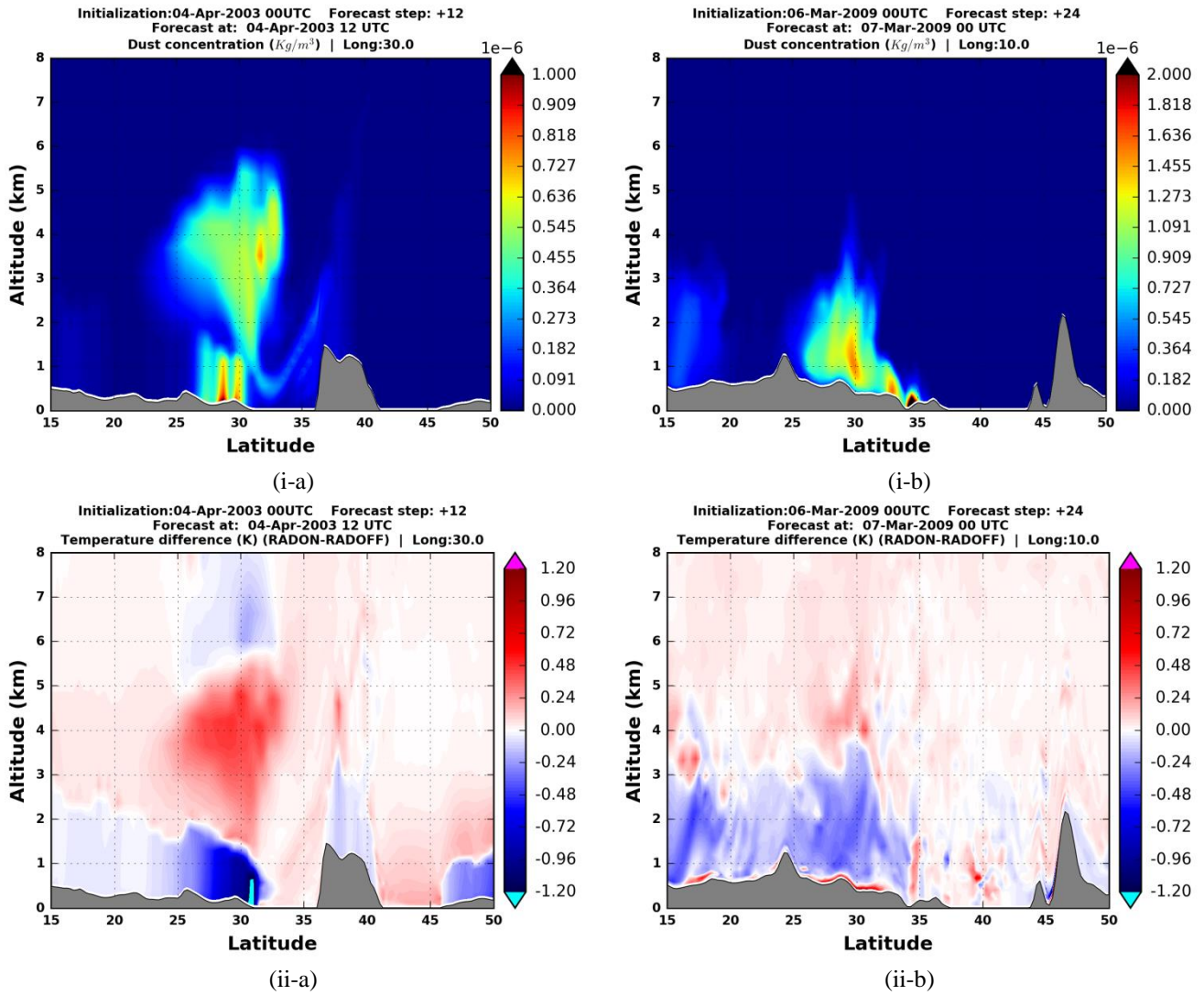
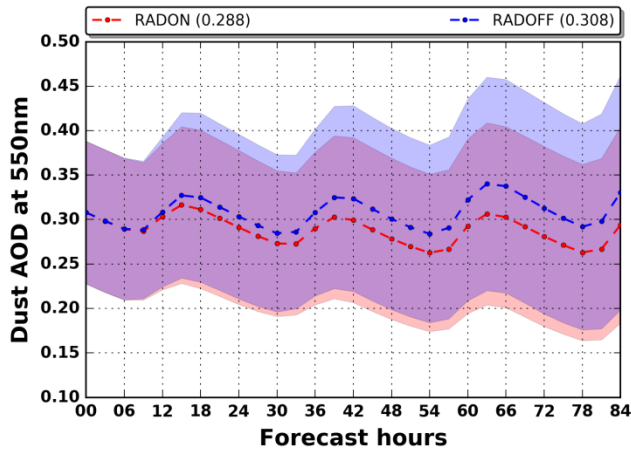
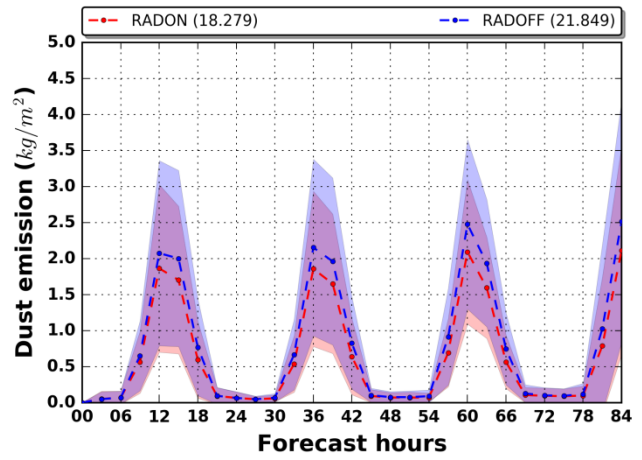


Figure 8: Altitude-latitude cross-sections (up to 8 km m.s.l.) simulated by the NMMB-MONARCH model of the: (i) dust concentration (in kg m^{-3}) and (ii) RADON-RADOFF temperature anomalies (in K) on: (a) 4 April 2003 at 12 UTC along the meridional 30° E and (b) 7 March 2009 00 UTC along the meridional 10° E.

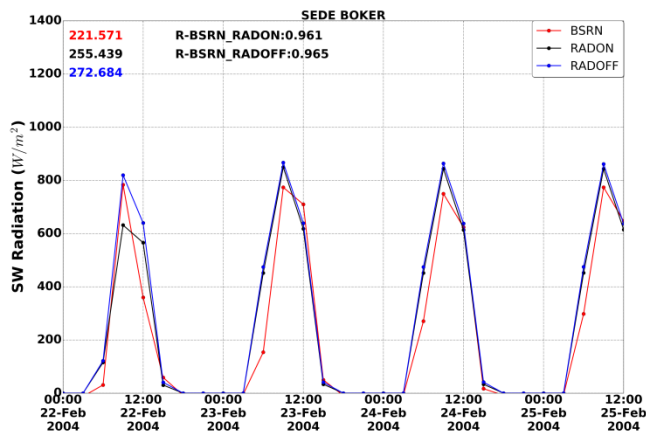


(i)

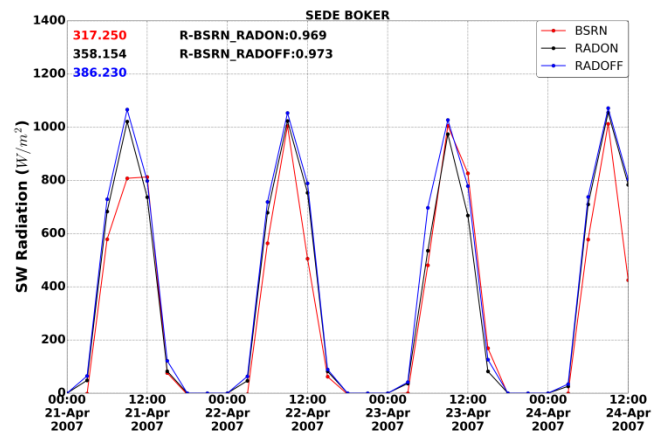


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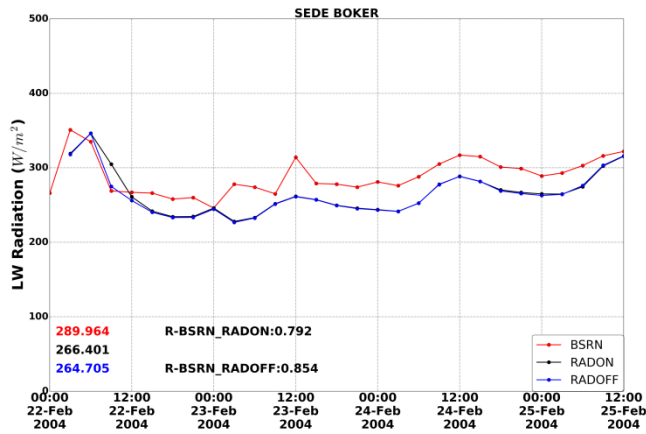
Figure 9: (i) Regional dust AOD at 550nm averaged over the simulation domain (NSD) and (ii) Regional dust emission (in kg m^{-2}) aggregated over the simulation domain (NSD). Blue and red curves correspond to the mean values, calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks, for the RADOFF and RADON simulations, respectively, and the shaded areas represent the associated standard deviation.



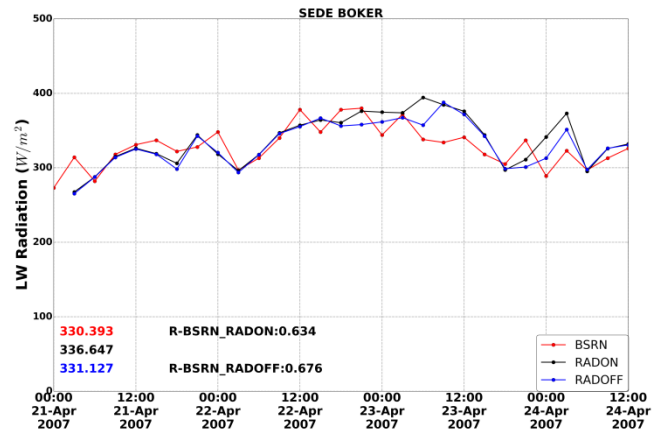
(i-a)



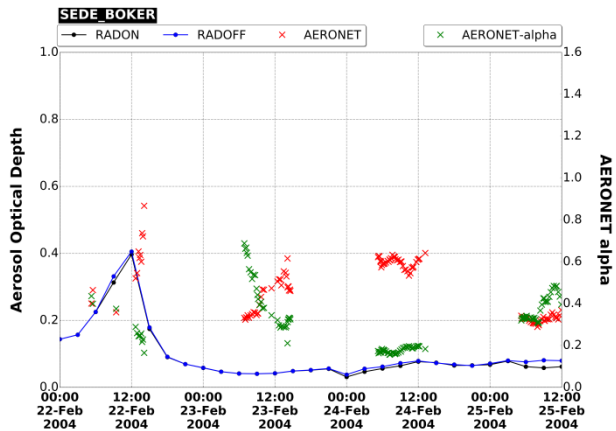
(i-b)



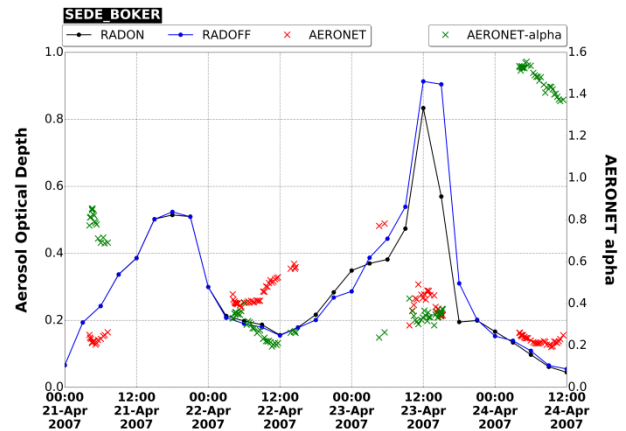
(ii-a)



(ii-b)

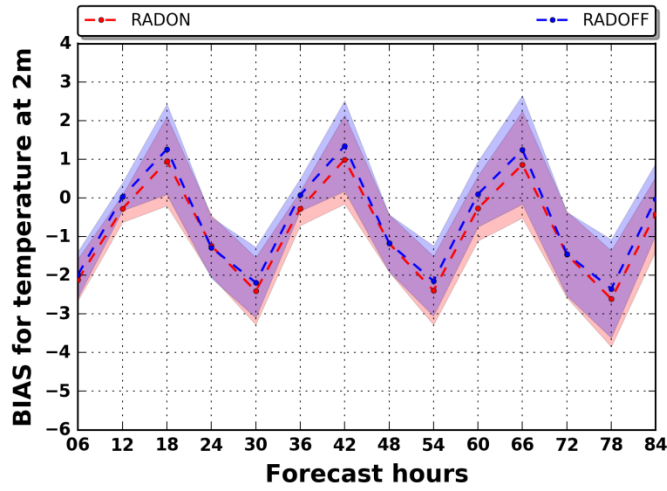


(iii-a)

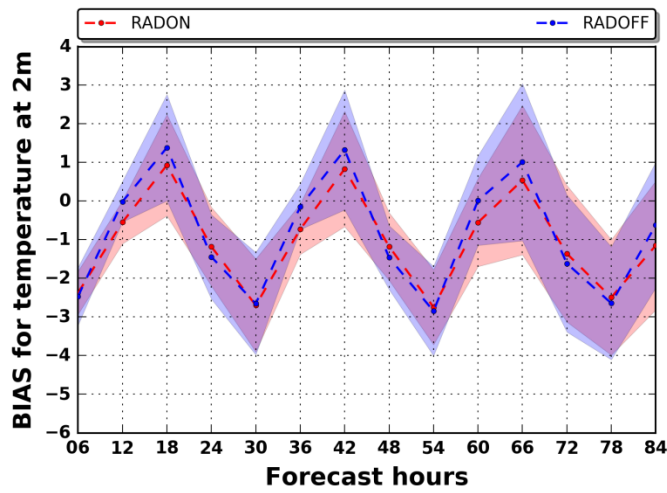


(iii-b)

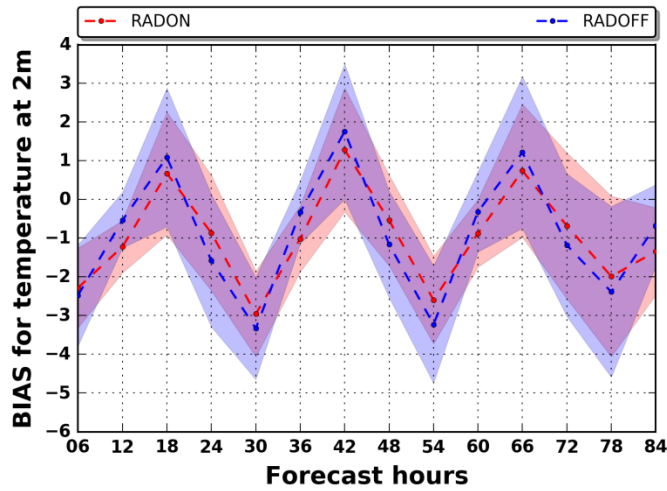
Figure 10: Timeseries of the downwelling: (i) SW and (ii) LW radiation measured at Sede Boker (red line) and simulated based on the RADON (black line) and RADOFF (blue line) configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model during the periods: (a) 22 Feb. 2004 00UTC – 25 Feb. 2004 12UTC and (b) 21 Apr. 2007 00UTC – 24 Apr. 2007 12UTC. The mean ground and modelled values along with the computed correlation coefficients (R) between RADON-BSRN and RADOFF-BSRN, both calculated over the simulation periods, are also provided. (iii) Timeseries of the simulated dust AOD at 550 nm for the RADON (black line) and RADOFF (blue line) configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model. Moreover, the AERONET total AOD at 500 nm (red) and AERONET alpha (green) values are provided.



(i)



(ii)



(iii)

Figure 11: Regional biases of temperature at 2 meters between NMMB-MONARCH and FNL, at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees spatial resolution, calculated over land grid points of the simulation domain (NSD) in which dust AOD at 550 nm is higher/equal than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0.

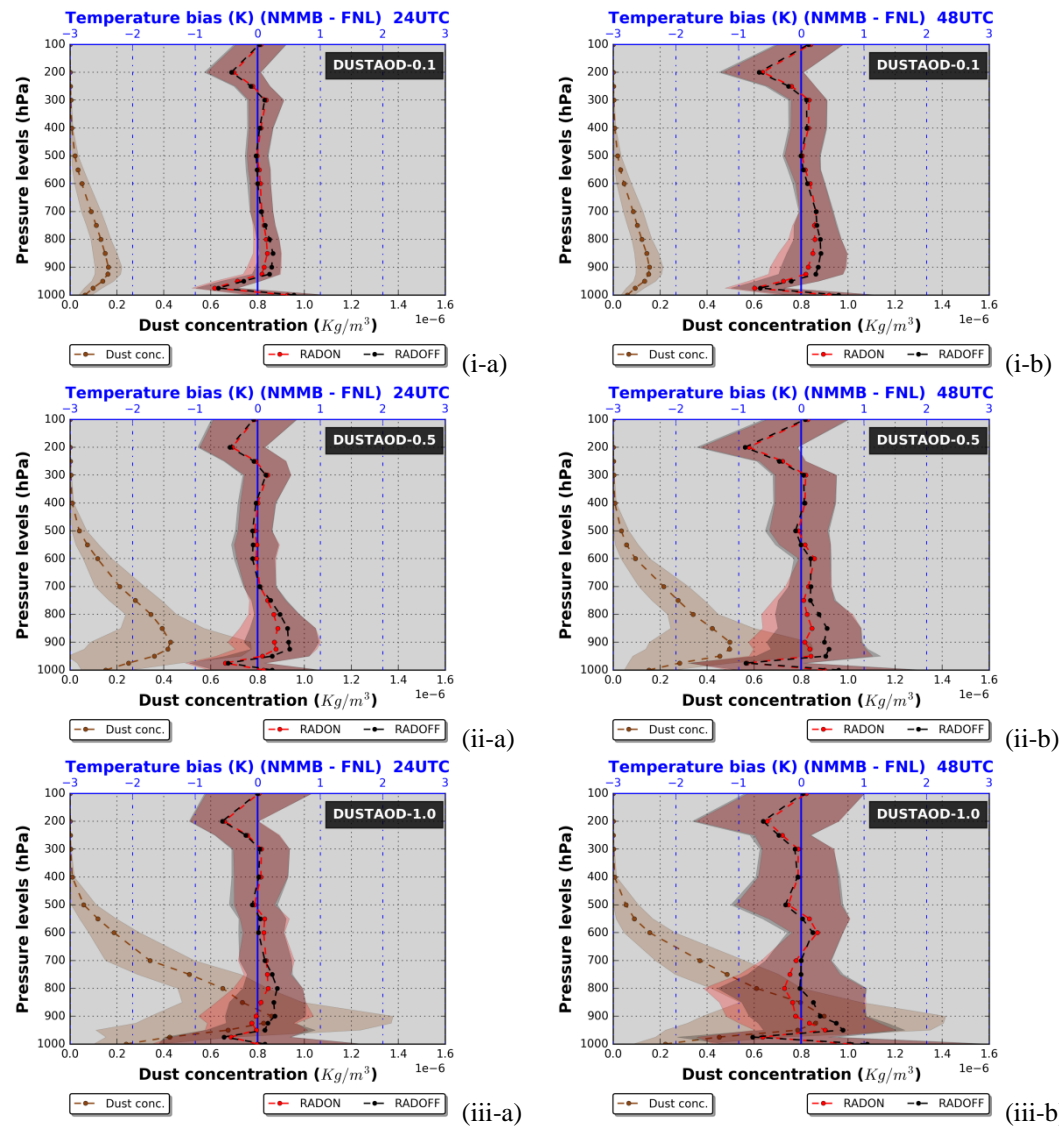


Figure 12: Vertical profiles of the regional temperature RADON-FNL (red curve) and RADOFF-FNL (black curve) biases calculated over grid points ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees spatial resolution) where the dust AOD at 550 nm is higher/equal than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0. In addition, the vertical profiles of the simulated dust concentration (in $\times 10^{-6}kg m^{-3}$) are provided (brown curve). Each profile corresponds to the mean value calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks which are considered while the shaded areas correspond to the associated standard deviations. The obtained results are valid: (a) 24 and (b) 48 hours after the initialization of the forecast period.