

1 Direct radiative effects during intense Mediterranean desert dust 2 outbreaks

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14 15 16 Abstract

17
18 The direct radiative effect (DRE) during 20 intense and widespread dust outbreaks that affected the
19 broader Mediterranean basin over the period March 2000 – February 2013, has been calculated with the
20 NMMB-MONARCH model at regional (Sahara and European continent) and short-term temporal (84 h)
21 scales. According to model simulations, the maximum dust aerosol optical depths (AODs) range from
22 ~2.5 to ~5.5 among the identified cases. At midday, dust outbreaks induce locally a NET (shortwave plus
23 longwave) strong atmospheric warming (DRE_{ATM} values up to 285 Wm⁻²; Niger-Chad; dust AODs up to
24 ~5.5), a strong surface cooling (DRE_{NETSURF} values down to -337 Wm⁻²) whereas they strongly reduce
25 the downward radiation at the ground (DRE_{SURF} values down to -589 Wm⁻² over the Eastern
26 Mediterranean, for extremely high dust AODs, 4.5 – 5). During nighttime, reverse effects of smaller
27 magnitude are found. At the top of the atmosphere (TOA), positive (planetary warming) DREs up to 85
28 Wm⁻² are found over highly reflective surfaces (Niger-Chad; dust AODs up to ~5.5) while negative
29 (planetary cooling) DREs down to -184 Wm⁻² (Eastern Mediterranean; dust AODs 4.5 – 5) are computed
30 over dark surfaces at noon. Dust outbreaks significantly affect the mean regional radiation budget, with
31 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 and from -
32 1.7 to 20.4 Wm⁻² for TOA, SURF, NETSURF and ATM, respectively. Although the shortwave DREs
33 are larger than the longwave ones, the latter are comparable or even larger at TOA, particularly over the
34 Sahara at midday. As a response to the strong surface daytime cooling, dust outbreaks cause a reduction
35 of the regional sensible and latent heat fluxes by up to 45 Wm⁻² and 4 Wm⁻², respectively, averaged over

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

52 53 **1. Introduction**

54
55 Dust aerosols through their interaction with the incoming solar (shortwave, SW) and the outgoing
56 terrestrial (longwave, LW) radiation, perturb the radiation budget of the Earth-Atmosphere system and
57 redistribute the energy therein. The induced perturbation of the radiation fields by dust particles, the so-
58 called dust radiative effect, takes place through three processes of increasing complexity affecting the
59 energy budgets at the surface, into the atmosphere and at the top of the atmosphere (TOA). The first one,
60 known as direct radiative effect (DRE) and referred as RE_{ari} (aerosol-radiation interactions) in the latest
61 report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, Boucher et al., 2013), is caused by the
62 absorption and scattering of the SW radiation (Sokolik et al., 2001) and the absorption and re-emission
63 of the LW radiation by mineral particles (Heinold et al., 2008). Due to the perturbation of the radiation
64 fields by dust aerosols, the energy budget both at the surface and into the atmosphere is modified and the
65 signal of these impacts is evident in atmospheric stability/instability conditions associated with cloud
66 development and precipitation. These rapid adjustments, which have been earlier referred as semi-direct
67 effects (Hansen et al., 1997), are induced by the dust RE_{ari} on surface energy budget and atmospheric
68 profile (Boucher et al., 2013) contributing to the Effective Radiative Forcing (ERF_{ari}). Moreover, dust

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

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

93 The direct impact of dust aerosols is expressed by the sign and the magnitude of the DRE values,
94 which are defined as the anomalies (perturbation) of the radiation fields attributed to dust-radiation direct
95 interaction, considering as a reference (control) an atmospheric state where mineral particles are not a
96 radiatively active substance. Based on this, negative and positive DREs indicate a cooling (loss of energy)
97 and a warming effect (gain of energy), respectively. Nevertheless, the sign of the DREs varies between
98 the SW and LW spectrum (Osborne et al., 2011) as well as within the Earth-Atmosphere system. More
99 specifically, due to the attenuation (through scattering and absorption) of the SW radiation, dust aerosols
100 warm the atmosphere and cool the surface (Huang et al., 2014), while reverse tendencies are revealed at

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

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

127 The dust radiative effects become important under specific conditions of very high concentrations, so-
128 called events or episodes or outbreaks. Such episodes occur frequently over the broader Mediterranean
129 basin (Gkikas et al., 2013), due to its vicinity to the world's major dust sources situated across the
130 northern Africa (Sahara) and Middle East deserts (Ginoux et al., 2012). Dust particles are mobilized over
131 these areas by strong winds (Schepanski et al., 2009) being uplifted to the free troposphere due to strong
132 convection in the boundary layer (Cuesta et al., 2009) and are transported towards the Mediterranean due

133 to the prevailing synoptic circulation (Gkikas et al., 2015). Under these conditions, dust particles over
134 the Mediterranean are recorded at very high concentrations as it has been confirmed either by satellite
135 (e.g. Moulin et al., 1998; Guerrero-Rascado et al., 2009; Rémy et al., 2015) and ground retrievals (e.g.
136 Kubilay et al., 2003; Toledano et al., 2007) or by surface PM₁₀ measurements (e.g. Rodríguez et al.,
137 2001; Querol et al., 2009; Pey et al., 2013).

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

151 The overarching goals of the present study are: (i) the assessment of the short-term direct radiative
152 effects (DREs) on the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget, induced during intense
153 Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks, based on regional model simulations, (ii) the assessment of the
154 associated impacts on temperature and sensible/latent heat fluxes, (iii) the investigation of possible
155 feedbacks on dust AOD and dust emission and (iv) the assessment of the model's predictive skills, in
156 terms of reproducing temperature and radiation fields, when dust-radiation interactions are taken into
157 account in numerical simulations. To this aim, 20 intense and widespread desert dust outbreaks that
158 affected the broader area of the Mediterranean basin, over the period March 2000 – February 2013, have
159 been identified based on an objective and dynamic satellite algorithm, which utilizes daily multi-sensor
160 satellite retrievals (Section 2). It must be highlighted that through the consideration of a large dataset of
161 desert dust outbreaks is ensured the robustness of our findings, providing thus the opportunity to have a
162 clear view of dust outbreaks' impacts on radiation as well as about the associated impacts on
163 meteorological variables (e.g. temperature). For each dust outbreak, through short-term (84 h) numerical
164 simulations of the regional NMMB-MONARCH model (Section 3), the DREs are calculated at TOA,

165 surface and into the atmosphere, both at grid point (geographical distributions) and regional scale level
166 (Section 5.2), for the SW, LW and NET (SW+LW) radiation. In addition, are examined the impacts of
167 the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks on the sensible/latent heat fluxes (Section 5.3) and on the surface
168 temperature (Section 5.4) as well as the potential feedbacks on dust AOD and dust emissions (Section
169 5.5). The last part of the study (Sections 5.6 and 5.7) investigates the potential improvement of the
170 model's forecasting ability in terms of reproducing the temperature and radiation fields when dust-
171 radiation interactions are included in numerical simulations. A summary is made and conclusions are
172 drawn in Section 6.

173

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

175

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

188 Only a brief discussion of the algorithm operation is given here, whereas a detailed description is
189 provided in Gkikas et al. (2013). The satellite algorithm is applied to each individual $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell of
190 the Mediterranean Satellite Domain (29° N - 47° N and 11° W - 39° E, MSD, red rectangle in Figure 1),
191 separately over land and sea surfaces, during the period March 2000 – February 2013. For each grid cell,
192 from the series (2000-2013) of daily AOD_{550nm} values, the mean ($Mean$) and the associated standard
193 deviation (Std) of AOD_{550nm} are calculated. Based on these two primary statistics, two threshold (or cut-
194 off) levels being equal to $Mean+2*Std$ and $Mean+4*Std$, are defined. By comparing each daily AOD
195 value to the two thresholds, the algorithm determines whether an aerosol episode (or event) occurs over
196 an $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell (or pixel) in that day or not, and labels it as strong or extreme, depending on which
197 AOD threshold is exceeded (lower or higher). Thereby, the term “aerosol episode” refers to pixel-level

198 episodic (extremely high loading) aerosol conditions and it is used with this meaning henceforth.
199 Subsequently, in order to characterize the identified pixel-level episodes as desert dust (DD) ones,
200 appropriate thresholds for α , FF , r_{eff} and AI are used, based on existing knowledge about relevant physical
201 properties (size and absorbing/scattering ability) of dust. According to the algorithm, a strong or extreme
202 pixel-level DD episode occurs if $\alpha \leq 0.7$, $FF \leq 0.4$, $r_{eff} > 0.6 \mu\text{m}$ and $AI > 1$ (conditions should be met
203 simultaneously).

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

216 The majority of the selected desert dust outbreaks (55 % or 11 out of 20) took place in spring (March-
217 April-May) when massive dust loads originating in the Sahara Desert are transported towards the central
218 and eastern parts of the Mediterranean (Gkikas et al., 2013; Pey et al., 2013). Four widespread desert
219 dust outbreaks affected mainly the western sector of the MSD in summer (July, August), while five dust
220 outbreaks were recorded across the central and eastern parts of the basin in winter (January, February).
221 Among the selected cases, the number of pixel-level total (strong plus extreme) DD episodes in the MSD
222 varies from 30 (28 July 2005, western-central Mediterranean) to 85 (31 July 2001, western
223 Mediterranean). Almost in all cases, the number of extreme DD episodes is higher than those for the
224 strong ones spanning from 20 (28 July 2005) to 51 (8 May 2002) and from 3 (24 February 2006) to 56
225 (31 July 2001), respectively. Likewise, the intensity (in terms of AOD at 550 nm) of total DD episodes
226 ranges from 0.74 (31 July 2001) to 2.96 (2 March 2005), being in general higher in winter while
227 moderate-to-high intensities are recorded in spring. Based on the information in Table 1, the selected
228 study cases correspond to widespread and intense dust outbreaks that occurred in various parts of the

229 Mediterranean, and therefore they are representative and appropriate for further studying their radiative
230 effects.

231

232 **3. Model description**

233

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

248

249 *3.1. The NMMB-MONARCH model*

250

251 *3.1.1. The NMMB atmospheric model*

252

253 The Non-hydrostatic Multiscale Model NMMB (Janjic, 2004; Janjic and Black, 2007; Janjic et al.,
254 2011) is a unified atmospheric model developed at the National Centers for Environmental Prediction
255 (NCEP) (Janjic et al., 2001; Janjic, 2003). A powerful element of the model constitutes its non-
256 hydrostatic dynamical core, activated depending on the resolution, providing the capability to be used
257 for applications spanning at a wide range of temporal (from short- to long-term) and spatial (from
258 regional to global) scales. An additional dynamic feature of the NMMB is the consideration of various
259 parameterization schemes which can be incorporated into the numerical simulations. In our experiments,
260 the parameterization schemes of Betts-Miller-Janjic (Betts, 1986; Betts and Miller, 1986; Janjic, 1994,
261 2000), Ferrier (Ferrier et al., 2002), Mellor-Yamada-Janjic (Janjic et al., 2001) and Monin-Obukhov
262 (Monin and Obukhov, 1954) have been utilized for the convection, cloud microphysics, turbulence and

263 surface layer, respectively, as well as the NOAH land model (Ek et al., 2003). Moreover, only the
264 greenhouse gases are taken into account and not the emitted short lived atmospheric gases. The model's
265 dynamic equations, in the horizontal plane, are solved on the Arakawa B grid (Arakawa and Lamb, 1977)
266 while in vertical the general hybrid pressure-sigma coordinate (Simmons and Burridge, 1981) is utilized.
267 For regional simulations, a rotated longitude-latitude coordinated system is used (the Equator is running
268 through the middle of the integration domain) enabling therefore more uniform grid distances.

269
270 *3.1.2. The Dust component*
271

272 The main components of the desert dust life cycle, regarding mineral particles' production in the
273 source areas, transport and removal from atmosphere, are considered in the dust component of the
274 MONARCH model, which is embedded into the NMMB model. The size intervals as well as the effective
275 radii for each one of the 8 dust bins, representing clay-originated sub-micron (bins 1-4) and silt-originated
276 coarse (bins 5-8) particles, that are considered in the dust module were adopted from Pérez et al. (2006).
277 The mass of each bin is calculated at each time step, grid point and layer, while the median mass diameter
278 and the geometric standard deviation of the sub-bin distribution are fixed to 2.524 μm and 2.0 μm ,
279 respectively. In the existing version of the NMMB-MONARCH model, dust aerosols are externally
280 mixed and hydrophobic. All the required parameters regulating dust emission and mobilization namely
281 the: (i) surface wind speed, (ii) turbulence, (iii) land use type, (iv) vegetation cover, (v) erodibility, (vi)
282 surface roughness, (vii) soil texture and (viii) soil moisture, are considered in the dust emission scheme
283 (Pérez et al., 2011). The vertical dust flux for each dust size bin is proportional to the horizontal sand
284 flux while several parameters are tuned to match observations that are mainly available far away from
285 the sources. Coarse dust aerosols are removed efficiently from the atmosphere through sedimentation,
286 which is solved implicitly in each model layer. For the description of dust aerosols' wet removal, a
287 mechanism which is more effective for fine mineral particles, parameterizations representing in- and
288 below-cloud scavenging are included in the NMMB-MONARCH in which the grid-scale cloud
289 microphysical scheme of Ferrier and the convective adjustment scheme of Betts-Miller-Janjic are utilized
290 (Pérez et al., 2011). The ability of the NMMB-MONARCH model to reproduce accurately the dust
291 aerosol fields has been confirmed through evaluation studies, relied on global and regional annual
292 simulations (Pérez et al., 2011) as well as by utilizing measurements from experimental campaigns as
293 reference data (Haustein et al., 2012). Moreover, the reliability of the model in terms of reproducing the
294 Saharan dust patterns over Cape Verde as well as to simulate dust vertical profiles has been confirmed
295 through the analyses made by Gama et al. (2015) and Binietoglou et al. (2015), respectively. In addition,

296 the predictive skills of the NMMB-MONARCH model, in comparison with other regional models, have
297 been assessed for a specific dust outbreak (Huneus et al., 2016) that affected the western parts of the
298 Mediterranean and Europe. Finally, in the framework of the SDS-WAS ([https://sds-
299 was.aemet.es/forecast-products/forecast-evaluation](https://sds-was.aemet.es/forecast-products/forecast-evaluation)), the evaluation of the simulated dust fields (over
300 Sahara, Middle East and Mediterranean) produced by 12 models, versus ground-based (AERONET) and
301 spaceborne (MODIS) retrievals, reveals that the NMMB-MONARCH is ranked at the highest positions.

302

303 *3.2. Radiative transfer model and dust optical properties*

304

305 For the description of dust aerosols interaction both with the SW and LW radiation, the RRTMG
306 (Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for Global Circulation Models, Iacono et al., 2008) radiative transfer
307 model is coupled with the dust module. RRTMG consists a modified version of the RRTM which is a
308 broadband radiative transfer model that includes the molecular absorption of the SW (by water vapor,
309 carbon dioxide, ozone, methane and oxygen) and LW (by water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, methane,
310 nitrous oxide, oxygen, nitrogen and halocarbons) radiation. Even though the basic physics and absorption
311 coefficients utilized in RRTM (Mlawer et al., 1997) remain unchanged in RRTMG, several updates
312 regarding computational efficiency and representation of subgrid-scale cloud variability have been
313 implemented (Iacono et al., 2008). Through these adjustments, it has been improved the efficiency of the
314 RRTMG in global circulation model (GCM) applications with a minimal loss of accuracy (Iacono et al.,
315 2008). In the RRTMG, the total number of quadrature points (g points) used to calculate radiances has
316 been reduced from 224 to 112 and from 256 to 140 for the shortwave and longwave spectrum,
317 respectively. In addition, for the short wavelengths, the discrete ordinates algorithm DISORT (Stammes
318 et al., 1998) has been replaced by a two-stream radiation transfer solver (Oreopoulos and Baker, 1999).
319 All the updates applied in the RRTMG radiation transfer code are listed in the Atmospheric and
320 Environmental Research (AER) radiative transfer web site (<http://rtweb.aer.com/>). Based on evaluation
321 studies, the comparison of the RRTMG clear-sky SW and LW fluxes versus RRTM_SW and LBLRTM,
322 respectively, has revealed that its accuracy at short wavelengths is within 3 Wm^{-2} whereas at long
323 wavelengths is 1.5 Wm^{-2} . As inputs to the radiation transfer scheme, the aerosol optical depth (AOD,
324 measure of the aerosol load), the single scattering albedo (SSA, expresses the fraction of scattering to
325 total extinction) and the asymmetry parameter (ASYM, measures the degree of symmetry of the phase
326 function between the forward and backward hemispheres) are required. In the present version (v1.0) of
327 the model, the calculation of dust optical properties is made based on the formulas presented in Pérez et

328 al. (2006), by using the mass concentration simulated by the NMMB-MONARCH model, the single-
329 particle optical properties derived by the GOCART model (Chin et al., 2002) and the refractive indices
330 from the Global Aerosol Data Set (GADS) (Koepke et al., 1997) which have been modified using Sinyuk
331 et al. (2003), as described in Pérez et al. (2011). The spectral variation of the single-particle dust optical
332 properties for each bin, namely the mass extinction coefficient, the single scattering albedo and the
333 asymmetry parameter are shown in Figures 2-i, 2-ii and 2-iii, respectively. Their calculation for each dust
334 size bin and at each spectral band is made based on the Mie code (Mishchenko et al., 2002) assuming
335 homogeneous and spherical dust particles. For the other types of tropospheric aerosols (sulfate, organic
336 carbon, black carbon, and sea salt), the GOCART monthly climatological AOD, SSA and ASYM values
337 for the year 2000, are utilized.

338

339 *3.3. Model set-up configuration*

340

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

360

361 4. Calculation of the dust direct radiative effects

362

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

367

$$368 \quad DRE_{TOA} = F_{TOA,RADOFF}^{\uparrow} - F_{TOA,RADON}^{\uparrow} \text{ (Eq. 1)}$$

369

$$370 \quad DRE_{SURF} = F_{SURF,RADON}^{\downarrow} - F_{SURF,RADOFF}^{\downarrow} \text{ (Eq. 2)}$$

371

$$372 \quad DRE_{NETSURF} = (F_{SURF,RADON}^{\downarrow} - F_{SURF,RADON}^{\uparrow}) - (F_{SURF,RADOFF}^{\downarrow} - F_{SURF,RADOFF}^{\uparrow}) = F_{NETSURF,RADON} -$$
$$373 \quad F_{NETSURF,RADOFF} \text{ (Eq. 3)}$$

374

$$375 \quad DRE_{ATM} = DRE_{TOA} - DRE_{NETSURF} \text{ (Eq. 4)}$$

376

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

390

391

392

393

394 5. Results

395

396 5.1. Comparison of model and satellite AODs

397

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

411 According to the MODIS-Terra observations on 2nd March 2005, a dust plume extends from the Gulf
412 of Sidra to the southern parts of Greece, with AODs up to 5 (Fig. 3 i-a). As shown in Fig. 3 i-b, the model
413 on this day simulates high dust AOD_{550nm} values (1-3.25) along a dust plume, extending from Algeria to
414 the Black Sea, which affects the eastern parts of the Mediterranean Sea. Through the intercomparison of
415 satellite and model AODs, it is revealed that the desert dust outbreak is slightly shifted eastwards while
416 the maximum dust AODs are lower than those retrieved by the satellite sensor. The second desert dust
417 outbreak occurred on 19th May 2008 and affected the central sector of the MSD. According to MODIS
418 (Fig. 3 ii-a), the intensity of dust loads is maximized (up to 4) in the central parts of the Mediterranean
419 Sea (southeastern of Sicily). This is also reproduced by the model, although somewhat higher AODs are
420 found over the central and southern parts of Italy (Fig. 3 ii-b). In spite of this, however, there is a clearly
421 good model performance in reproducing the dust event that hit the central Mediterranean. An ever better
422 agreement between the model and satellite AODs, in terms of spatial variability and intensity of dust
423 loads, is found for the desert dust outbreak of August 2nd 2012, that affected the westernmost parts of the
424 Mediterranean, with highest AODs (up to 2-2.5) from the Alboran Sea down to the coastal areas of
425 Morocco (Figs. 3 iii-a, b).

426 Apart from a qualitative comparison between MODIS and NMMB-MONARCH, the performance of
427 the model has been assessed also quantitatively. More specifically, for each desert dust outbreak the

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

443 According to the evaluation analysis, the model's ability in terms of reproducing satisfactorily the
444 dust fields varies strongly case-by-case while the simulated intensity of the desert dust outbreaks is lower
445 with respect to the satellite retrievals. Therefore, both facts can raise questions regarding the accuracy of
446 the computed DREs in some cases since the perturbations of the radiation fields are determined to a large
447 extent by AOD (e.g. Hatzianastassiou et al., 2004; Pérez et al., 2006; Papadimas et al., 2012).
448 Nevertheless, several factors affect/determine the level of agreement between observed and simulated
449 AODs providing a reasonable explanation about the discrepancies found between MODIS and NMMB-
450 MONARCH. The most important is the temporal inconsistency between the two products. More
451 specifically, the satellite retrievals correspond to daily averages whereas the model products are
452 representative for a specific forecast time (instantaneous fields). Considering the high variability of
453 aerosols' loads, particularly under episodic conditions, this temporal discrepancy imposes a limitation
454 when a quantitative comparison between MODIS and NMMB is attempted. This can explain the
455 observed differences found either on the intensity or on the spatial patterns of the desert dust events.
456 Also, it must be considered that artifacts of the satellite retrievals (e.g. clouds contamination,
457 representativeness/homogeneity within the 1° x 1° grid cell) may lead to higher AODs as it has been
458 shown in relevant evaluation studies (e.g. Gkikas et al., 2016). Moreover, due to the inability of the
459 MODIS Dark Target (DT) algorithm to retrieve aerosol optical properties over desert areas as well as

460 under cloudy conditions, in a significant part of the study region there are not available satellite
461 observations (white areas in Figs. 3 i-a, ii-a and iii-a) restricting thus their comparison with the model
462 outputs which provide full spatial coverage.

463

464 5.2. Direct radiative effects (DREs)

465

466 5.2.1. Geographical distributions

467

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

480 Based on the model outputs, at 12 h, an arc shaped dust plume affected the western parts of the Sahara,
481 the Canary Islands, the maritime areas off the Moroccan coasts, the southern parts of the Iberian
482 Peninsula and the western Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 4). During the forecast period, the spatial features of
483 the desert dust outbreak do not reveal a remarkable variability, with maximum AODs (up to 3) across
484 Mali, Mauritania, Western Sahara and in the Canary Islands. At a first glance, it is evident that the DRE
485 patterns are driven by those of the desert dust outbreaks whereas small scale isolated features of
486 extremely high/low DREs mainly result from slight “shifts” of clouds between the two independent
487 model runs. Moreover, it is apparent that both the sign and the magnitude of DREs vary among TOA,
488 surface and atmosphere as well as with time (day or night). During daytime (12 h and 36 h) the DREs
489 are driven by their SW components which significantly exceed the LW ones. Through absorption and
490 scattering of solar radiation by mineral particles, the downwelling radiation at the ground (SURF) is
491 reduced by up to 308 Wm^{-2} , indicating a strong surface cooling (bluish colors) in areas where the dust
492 AOD is maximized like Mauritania or south Algeria. During nighttime (24 and 48 h), the sign of the
493 DRE_{SURF} values is reversed and their magnitude decreases compared to that at 12 and 36 h. This is

494 because during the night the DRE_{SURF} values are identical to the LW DRE ones, which are positive,
495 implying extra downwelling LW radiation at the surface, by up to 58 Wm^{-2} , emitted by the overlying
496 dust. This effect, leading to night surface warming, is more visible over specific parts of Sahara that host
497 high dust loads, e.g. in its western parts. The geographical patterns of $DRE_{NETSURF}$ are very similar to
498 those of DRE_{SURF} , as expected, since they only differ by the net upward radiation at the surface, which
499 in turn is determined by the surface albedo (for the SW radiation) and temperature (for the LW radiation).
500 Based on our results, the negative (surface cooling) and positive (surface warming) $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values
501 can reach down to -290 Wm^{-2} (eastern Atlantic Ocean) and up to 42 Wm^{-2} (western Sahara) during day
502 and night, respectively. Among our studied cases (see Table S1) the instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF} and
503 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values at noon can be as large as -589 Wm^{-2} and -337 Wm^{-2} , respectively, in agreement with
504 relevant results reported in previous studies dealing with the radiative impacts of dust intrusions in the
505 Mediterranean (Pérez et al, 2006; Remy et al., 2015), in west Africa (Heinold et al., 2008; Mallet et al.,
506 2009) and in Asia (Wang et al., 2009; Singh and Beegum et al., 2013).

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

520 The sign and magnitude of DRE_{TOA} (Eq. 4) are regulated by $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} . At noon and
521 above cloud-free areas, there is a distinct change of DRE_{TOA} sign over oceanic and desert areas affected
522 by dust loads (note for example the red colors over the dusty western Sahara Desert regions, e.g.
523 Mauritania, against blue colors off the African coasts). This change of the DRE_{TOA} sign is due to the
524 difference in surface albedo of the two types of surface (water and desert), in combination with dust high
525 AODs and low-to-moderate single scattering albedo enhancing solar absorption by dust above highly

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

545 546 *5.2.2. Regional mean results*

547
548 In order to show more clearly temporal patterns, DREs were also averaged over the NSD (outer
549 NMMB Simulation Domain in Figure 1), SDD (Sahara Desert Domain, green rectangle in Figure 1) and
550 MSD (Mediterranean Satellite Domain, red rectangle in Figure 1) domains, for each desert dust outbreak,
551 separately for the NET, SW and LW radiation. Then, in a further step, DRE values have been averaged
552 over the 20 dust outbreaks every three hours during the forecast period (84 hours). Thus, the time series
553 of regional mean and associated standard deviation (shaded areas) all-sky TOA (black curve), SURF
554 (purple curve), NETSURF (blue curve) and ATM (red curve) DREs are depicted in Figure 5.

555 The SW DREs (upper row in Fig. 5) are positive in the atmosphere (ATM, warming effect) and
556 negative at the surface (SURF and NETSURF, cooling effect) throughout the entire forecast period,
557 revealing a distinct diurnal cycle with marked maximum values around noon over all three domains. A
558 careful look, however, reveals some differences between the sub-regions. Thus, in NSD (first column)

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

580 The regional all-sky DREs have been also computed for the LW spectrum (middle row in Figure 5)
581 revealing reverse effects of lower magnitude (in absolute terms) with respect to the corresponding ones
582 found at short wavelengths. Due to the emission of LW radiation by the mineral particles, desert dust
583 outbreaks induce an atmospheric cooling (negative LW DRE_{ATM} values) and increase the amount of the
584 downward LW radiation at the surface (positive LW DRE_{SURF} values). Both DRE_{ATM} and DRE_{SURF} levels
585 do not reveal remarkable temporal variation ranging from -4.8 to -2.2 Wm^{-2} and from 1.4 to 3.7 Wm^{-2} ,
586 respectively, over the Sahara where the maximum values are found. On the contrary, from the timeseries
587 of the LW DREs for TOA and NETSURF it is evident the existence of a diurnal cycle with maximum
588 and minimum values around noon and during nighttime, respectively. Moreover, both DRE_{TOA} and
589 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values are higher than zero, throughout the simulation period, indicating a warming LW
590 radiative effect. More specifically, the regional LW DRE_{TOA} ranges from 0.2 to 1.6 Wm^{-2} and

591 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ varies between 1.7 and 4 Wm^{-2} for the whole simulation domain (NSD). The corresponding
592 maximum DREs for the SDD and MSD are higher by up to 3.6 Wm^{-2} and lower by up to 1.1 Wm^{-2} ,
593 respectively. Dust aerosols act like greenhouse gases (Miller and Tegen, 1998) trapping the outgoing
594 terrestrial radiation while at the same time emit radiation at longer wavelengths back to the ground
595 explaining thus the positive LW DREs for TOA (planetary warming) and NETSURF (surface warming).
596 In addition, the aforementioned LW DREs (TOA and NETSURF) covariate with time revealing that the
597 sign and the magnitude of the LW DRE_{TOA} are determined by the perturbation of the surface radiation
598 budget (LW $DRE_{NETSURF}$) since the LW DRE_{ATM} values are almost constant throughout the simulation
599 period. This is in contrast to the corresponding finding for the SW radiation where the dust outbreaks'
600 impact on the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget is regulated by the perturbation of the
601 radiation fields into the atmosphere (ATM) and at the surface (NETSURF). Finally, between SDD and
602 MSD remarkably stronger LW DREs are found for the former domain due to the higher dust loads over
603 the Sahara as well as due to the larger size of mineral particles close to the source areas.

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

615 At noon, the SW planetary cooling dominates over the LW planetary warming resulting thus to
616 negative DRE_{TOA} values over the simulation (NSD) and the Mediterranean (MSD) domains. On the
617 contrary, in the SDD, both SW and LW DRE_{TOA} are positive due to the higher surface albedo and the
618 trapping of the surface upward LW radiation by mineral particles, respectively, leading to a net warming
619 of the Earth-Atmosphere system. In the atmosphere, for the three domains, the negative LW DREs offset
620 by about 8-26% the positive SW ones resulting to an overall warming effect (positive NET DRE_{ATM})
621 around midday. Moreover, at noon, the increase of the absorbed LW radiation at the ground offsets the
622 decrease of the absorbed SW radiation by about 14-18% resulting in a NET surface cooling (negative

623 NET $DRE_{NETSURF}$) over the simulation domain. The corresponding levels for the SDD and MSD vary
624 from 24 to 26% and from 9 to 13%, respectively.

625 Beyond the hourly and day-to-day variability of dust DREs, the results were averaged over the total
626 84-hour simulation period and the results are given, for the three domains, in Table 2, separately for the
627 SW, LW and NET radiation. At TOA, desert dust outbreaks cause a net planetary cooling with all-sky
628 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,
629 respectively. Note, that due to the very strong temporal variability of DREs at TOA, the computed
630 standard deviations are higher than the averages in the NSD and SDD in contrast to MSD where are
631 equal. The negative averaged NET DRE_{TOA} in SDD is attributed to the planetary cooling found at early
632 morning and afternoon hours. Wang et al. (2011) showed that when solar altitude is low (i.e. high solar
633 zenith angle) DRE at TOA is getting negative even over high-albedo deserts. Similar results reported
634 also by Banks et al. (2014), who studied the daytime cycle of dust DREs during the Fennec campaign
635 held in the central Sahara in June 2011. Our results for the DRE_{TOA} in the MSD are within the ranges
636 reported in previous studies (e.g. Valenzuela et al., 2012; Sicard et al., 2014 a; b) dealing with dust
637 intrusions in the Mediterranean. In the atmosphere, mineral particles cause an overall atmospheric
638 warming with NET DRE_{ATM} levels varying from 6.9 ± 8.3 (MSD) to $7.8 \pm 11.7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (SDD). On average,
639 dust outbreaks reduce the downwelling NET radiation at the ground (DRE_{SURF}) by up to $-14.7 \pm 14.6 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$
640 (NSD), $-18.0 \pm 19.3 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (SDD) and $-14.2 \pm 14 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (MSD) while the corresponding $DRE_{NETSURF}$
641 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. Our results for
642 the SW and LW radiation in the SDD are in a good agreement with the annual averages for the year 2008
643 presented by Nabat et al. (2012) over Northern Africa.

644 *5.3. Impact on sensible and latent heat fluxes*

645
646 As it has been shown in previous section, dust outbreaks exert a strong perturbation of the surface
647 radiation budget by reducing and increasing the absorbed NET radiation at the ground during day and
648 night, respectively. As a response to these disturbances, the surface heat fluxes, both sensible (SH) and
649 latent (LE), associated with the transfer of energy (heat) and moisture between surface and atmosphere,
650 also change in such a way trying to balance the gain or the loss of energy at the ground (Miller and Tegen,
651 1998). Subsequently, variations of SH and LE have impact on the components of the hydrological cycle
652 (Miller et al., 2004b) as well as on the turbulent kinetic energy and momentum transfer which in turn
653 affect near surface winds and dust emission (Pérez et al., 2006). Moreover, Marcella and Eltahir (2014)
654 and Kumar et al. (2014) have shown that due to the presence of dust aerosols into the atmosphere, the

655 daytime surface sensible heat fluxes are reduced leading to a reduction of the planetary boundary layer
656 (PBL) height.

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

679 The diurnal variation of the latent heat fluxes (Fig. 6-ii) is identical to that of sensible heat fluxes;
680 however, LE levels are remarkably lower than the regional averages of SH. This is attributed to the lower
681 soil water content and limited evaporation in arid regions (Ling et al., 2014). Based on our simulations,
682 LE values at noon gradually decrease both for the RADOFF (blue) and RADON (red) experiments over
683 the forecast period attributed to the too moist initialization of the model (Note that the model is initialized
684 with FNL analysis produced by a different model (GFS)). Nevertheless, the latter LE values are lower
685 than the former ones by up to 4 Wm^{-2} indicating that desert dust outbreaks reduce the latent heat fluxes
686 leaving from the ground. The reliability of this finding is further supported by the fact that the RADOFF-

687 RADON differences are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. During night, the RADON LE
688 values are slightly higher (less than 0.5 Wm^{-2}) with respect to the corresponding ones simulated in the
689 RADOFF configuration. The instantaneous reduction and increase of LE (results not shown here) can be
690 as large as -100 Wm^{-2} and $20\text{-}30 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, respectively. Finally, in contrast to SH, the spatial features of LE
691 anomalies are not identical with those of $\text{DRE}_{\text{NETSURF}}$ since other parameters (e.g. soil moisture) regulate
692 also the latent heat fluxes (Marcella and Eltahir, 2014).

693

694 *5.4. Impact on temperature fields*

695

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

715 The vertical distribution of dust layers determines their impacts on radiation with altitude which in
716 turn modify the temperature profiles (Meloni et al., 2015) and subsequently affect convection (Ji et al.,
717 2015), cloud development (Yin and Chen, 2007), precipitation (Yin et al., 2002) and wind profiles
718 (Choobari et al., 2012). In order to investigate the impacts of desert dust outbreaks on temperature fields
719 into the atmosphere, we have reproduced the altitude-latitude cross sections (up to 8 km above mean sea

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

742 In the second example, on 7th March 2009 at 00 UTC, a dust layer extends from the southern parts of
743 the NSD domain to the northern parts of Tunisia, between surface and 4 km m.s.l. (Fig. 8 i-b). Along the
744 dust plume, with AODs reaching up to 1.40, moderate concentrations (up to $0.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) are
745 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 the
746 maximum ones (higher than $2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) are recorded between 25° N and 35° N. Due to the emission
747 of LW radiation by mineral particles, dust aerosols cool the atmospheric layers (Otto et al., 2007) in
748 which they reside, by up to 0.8 K, and increase the temperature, by up to 0.4 K, just above the dust layer.
749 Between the bottom of the dust layer and surface, positive RADON-RADOFF temperature differences
750 (i.e. warming) up to 1.2 K are calculated as indicated by the red colors following the model topography

751 (grey shaded). Nevertheless, this near surface warming is “interrupted”, being null or even reverse (i.e.
752 cooling), in areas where the dust layer abuts the ground.

753

754 *5.5. Feedbacks on dust emission and dust aerosol optical depth*

755

756 In the present section, focus is given on the investigation of the potential feedbacks on dust AOD (at
757 550 nm) and dust emissions attributed to dust radiative effects. To this aim, the timeseries of the regional
758 averages and the associated standard deviations, throughout the forecast period (84 hours), calculated
759 from the 20 desert dust outbreaks for both parameters, based on the RADON (red) and RADOFF (blue)
760 experiments, are analyzed and the obtained results are shown in Figure 9. Over the simulation period,
761 the RADOFF dust AOD_{550nm} gradually increases from 0.31 to 0.34 in contrast to the corresponding
762 outputs from RADON that are gradually decreasing down to 0.29 (Fig. 9-i). The positive RADOFF-
763 RADON differences of dust AOD, indicating a negative feedback when the dust-radiation interactions
764 are considered into the numerical simulations, are getting evident 12 hours (0.005 or 2%) after the
765 initialization of the forecast period and amplify with time (up to 0.036 or 12%), being also statistical
766 significant (paired t-test, confidence level at 95%) at each forecast step. The observed negative feedbacks
767 on dust AOD have been also pointed out in relevant studies (Pérez et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2010) carried
768 out for specific desert dust outbreaks. Through the comparison of the mean dust AOD levels, calculated
769 over the 84-h simulation period, based on RADON (0.288) and RADOFF (0.308) simulations, it is
770 revealed a statistical significant reduction by 0.02 (6.9 %) attributed to the dust radiative effects. Among
771 the 20 desert dust outbreaks, these reductions vary from 1% (22 February 2004) to 12.5% (27 January
772 2005) and are statistical significant at 95 % confidence level in all cases.

773 A similar analysis has been also made for the dust emissions (in kg m⁻²) aggregated over the whole
774 simulation domain (NSD, outer domain in Figure 1) and the overall results are given in Figure 9-ii. Dust
775 emissions are maximized around midday (Cowie et al., 2014) and are very weak during night. Based on
776 the RADOFF simulation, the highest amounts of emitted dust are increased from 2 to 2.5 kg m⁻²
777 throughout the hindcast period. This increasing tendency is encountered also in the RADON experiment
778 but the emitted dust amount is lower. The positive RADOFF-RADON anomalies during daytime range
779 from 0.1 to 0.4 kg m⁻² and are statistical significant at 95% confidence level based on the paired t-test.
780 Therefore, desert dust outbreaks exert a negative feedback on dust emission explaining thus the reduction
781 of dust AOD. The lower amounts of emitted dust, modelled based on the RADON configuration, result
782 from a chain of processes triggered by the surface cooling which decreases the turbulent flux of sensible
783 heat into the atmosphere, weakening the turbulent mixing within the PBL and the downward transport

784 of momentum to the surface and subsequently reduces surface wind speed and dust emission (Miller et
785 al., 2004a; Pérez et al., 2006).

786 During the simulation period, the total emitted amount of desert dust (parentheses in the legend of
787 Figure 9-ii) is equal to 18.279 and 21.849 kg m⁻² based on the RADON and RADOFF, respectively.
788 Therefore, desert dust outbreaks cause a negative feedback on dust emissions reducing them by 3.57 kg
789 m⁻² (-19.5%). This reduction is consistent in all the studied cases of our analysis varying from 0.6 kg m⁻²
790 (~10%, 24 February 2006) to 6.6 kg m⁻² (~34%, 2 August 2012). Negative feedbacks on dust AOD and
791 dust emissions have been also pointed out in previous studies based on short- (e.g. Ahn et al., 2007;
792 Rémy et al., 2015) and long-term (e.g. Perlwitz et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2009) simulations. Woodage
793 and Woodward (2014) relied on climatic simulations of the HiGEM model, found a positive feedback
794 on global dust emissions which is in contradiction with findings reported in the majority of the existing
795 studies. The authors claimed that this discrepancy could be explained by the absence of mineral particles
796 with a radius larger than 10 µm in the emitted dust size distribution leading thus to an underestimation
797 of the LW effects. It must be clarified that according to our results negative feedbacks on dust emission
798 are found at a regional scale. Stanelle et al. (2010) showed that the vertical distribution of dust aerosols
799 determines their impacts on atmospheric stability and wind patterns and subsequently the associated
800 feedbacks on dust emissions which can be even positive at a local scale. This highlights the importance
801 of studying the potential feedbacks on mineral particles' loads as well as on their emissions spatially by
802 analyzing all the contributor factors.

803 804 *5.6. Assessment of the radiation at the ground*

805
806 The performance of the NMMB-MONARCH model in terms of reproducing the downward SW and
807 LW radiation is assessed using as reference data ground measurements derived from the Baseline Surface
808 Radiation Network (BSRN, Ohmura et al., 1998). Through this analysis it is attempted to quantify
809 objectively the potential improvements of the model's predictive skills attributed to the inclusion of the
810 dust radiative effects into the numerical simulations. Globally, 59 BSRN stations are installed at different
811 climatic zones providing radiation measurements (<http://bsrn.awi.de/>) of high accuracy at very high
812 temporal resolution (1 min) (Roesch et al., 2011). For the evaluation analysis, we have used the global
813 (direct and diffuse) shortwave and longwave downwelling radiation at the ground measured at 6 stations
814 (magenta star symbols in Figure 1) located in Spain (Izana, Cener), France (Palaiseau, Carpentras),
815 Algeria (Tamanrasset) and Israel (Sede Boker).

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

832 In both examples presented here, but also for the rest of our dataset, the model captures better the
833 temporal variation of the downwelling SW in contrast to the LW radiation at the ground with correlation
834 coefficients (R) higher than 0.96 and between 0.63 and 0.85, respectively. However, the model-BSRN
835 biases vary strongly in temporal terms because of the inability of the model to reproduce adequately the
836 amount of the suspended mineral particles. For the first desert dust outbreak (left column in Fig. 10),
837 during the first forecast day, the maximum measured SW radiation is higher by about $150 Wm^{-2}$ than the
838 simulated RADON outputs and slightly lower than the corresponding RADOFF levels. The former is
839 explained by the facts that the model reproduces the dust peak earlier than actually recorded according
840 to AERONET observations (see Figure 10 iii-a) and it develops low-level clouds (cloud fractions
841 between 0.5 and 0.6) while the latter one is attributed to the absence of radiative effects. For the rest of
842 the simulation period, the model overestimates and underestimates the shortwave and longwave
843 radiation, respectively, due to its deficiency to reproduce (underestimation) the amount of dust aerosols.
844 More specifically, based on AERONET retrievals, AOD and alpha levels vary from 0.2 to 0.4 and from
845 0.2 to 0.7, respectively, indicating the existence of dust loads of moderate intensity. On the contrary, the
846 simulated dust AOD at 550 is less than 0.1 in both model configurations characterized by a "flat"
847 behavior in temporal terms. Over the simulation period (22 February 2004 00 UTC – 25 February 2004

848 12 UTC), the mean SW (LW) radiation based on BSRN, RADON and RADOFF is equal to 221.6 Wm⁻²
849 ² (290.0 Wm⁻²), 255.4 Wm⁻² (266.4 Wm⁻²) and 272.7 Wm⁻² (264.7 Wm⁻²), respectively. Thanks to the
850 consideration of the dust radiative effects, the positive model-BSRN biases in the shortwave spectrum
851 are reduced from 51.1 Wm⁻² (RADOFF-BSRN) to 33.9 Wm⁻² (RADON-BSRN) while the negative
852 model-BSRN biases in the longwave spectrum are reduced from -25.3 Wm⁻² (RADOFF-BSRN) to -23.6
853 Wm⁻² (RADON-BSRN).

854 In the second case which is analyzed (right column in Fig. 10), two peaks are simulated with dust
855 AOD_{550nm} values up to 0.9 (midday on 23rd April 2007) and 0.5 (afternoon on 21st April 2007). For the
856 major one, the model clearly overestimates aerosol optical depth with respect to AERONET retrievals in
857 which AOD (red x symbols) varies between 0.2 and 0.3 and alpha (green x symbols) ranges from 0.3 to
858 0.5 while the second one cannot be confirmed due to the lack of ground observations. Note, that between
859 09 UTC and 15 UTC on 23rd April 2007, the model underestimates the SW radiation by up to 200 Wm⁻²
860 while overestimates the LW radiation by up to 150 Wm⁻² (maximum overestimations throughout the
861 simulation period) due to the misrepresentation of the dust AODs. Even higher model overestimations
862 of the SW radiation are observed at 12 UTC on 22 April 2007 attributed mainly to the inability of the
863 model to reproduce satisfactorily clouds, since the negative model-AERONET differences of AOD
864 cannot explain these large discrepancies in radiation. Clouds play an important role in such comparisons,
865 particularly when their features are not well reproduced by the model, leading to large overestimations
866 or underestimations, by up to 600 Wm⁻² in absolute terms among the studied cases of the present analysis,
867 as it has been pointed out in previous studies (e.g. Spyrou et al., 2013). Finally, the model (RADON)
868 overestimation of the SW radiation reaching the ground, by up to 200 Wm⁻² at 09 UTC on 21 April 2007,
869 is probably associated with underestimation of the simulated dust AOD since fair weather conditions are
870 forecasted and confirmed by the true color MODIS-Terra images ([http://modis-
871 atmos.gsfc.nasa.gov/IMAGES/](http://modis-atmos.gsfc.nasa.gov/IMAGES/)). For the SW radiation, the positive NMMB-BSRN biases during the
872 simulation period (21 April 2007 00 UTC – 24 April 2007 12 UTC) are reduced from 69.0 Wm⁻² to 40.9
873 Wm⁻² when dust-radiation interactions are activated (RADON) while lower positive biases for the LW
874 radiation are calculated (0.7 Wm⁻²) when dust-radiation interactions are deactivated (RADOFF).
875 Summarizing, in the majority of the studied desert dust outbreaks here, positive and negative model-
876 observations biases are found for the downwelling SW (Table S2) and LW (Table S3) radiation,
877 respectively, which are reduced when the dust-radiation interactions are activated. On the contrary,
878 similar improvements are not evident on the correlation coefficients since are not found remarkable
879 differences between RADON-BSRN and RADOFF-BSRN R values (results not shown).

880
881 *5.7. Assessment of the temperature fields versus analysis datasets*
882

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

898 Figure 11 presents the regional biases (model-FNL) of temperature at 2 meters for the RADON (red
899 curve) and RADOFF (blue curve) experiments, averaged from the 20 desert dust outbreaks every 6 hours
900 of the hindcast period, considering only land grid points where the dust AOD is higher/equal than: (i)
901 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0. In order to avoid misleading interpretations, attributed to possible error
902 compensations as a result of an erroneously representation of the dust patterns or optical properties (see
903 Section 5.1), the corresponding root mean square error (RMSE) values have been calculated as well
904 (Figure S23). The combination of these two skill scores (bias and RMSE) can provide information
905 regarding the model departures (i.e., cold or warm biases) and how much “sensitive” is the level of
906 agreement between NMMB-FNL due to large errors (outliers). Regardless the dust AOD threshold, cold
907 biases are found during night and early morning hours, warm biases are calculated in the afternoon while
908 the minimum biases in absolute terms appear at noon. According to our results, under low desert dust
909 conditions (Fig. 11-i), the agreement between model and FNL is better when the dust radiative effects
910 are neglected (RADOFF) during daytime, while slightly lower RADON-FNL biases compared to
911 RADOFF-FNL ones are found during night. These trivial nocturnal “corrections” are not evident in the
912 RMSE timeseries and therefore are not so trustworthy. At noon, the RADOFF-FNL biases are almost

913 zero (less than 0.1 K) whereas negative RADON-FNL biases (down to -0.27 K) are computed due to the
914 surface cooling induced by the mineral particles. For moderate dust AODs (Fig. 11-ii), during night, the
915 model-FNL temperature biases are lower, being in agreement also with the associated RMSE values (Fig.
916 S23-ii), for the RADON configuration (less than 1 K) in contrast to the RADOFF simulation (less than
917 1.4 K) and these improvements are statistically significant at 95% confidence level. Nevertheless, at
918 midday, the RADOFF-FNL biases are similar to those found for the lowest dust AOD threshold (Fig.
919 11-i), while the model cold biases, varying from -1.15 K (84 h) to -0.55 K (12 h), are amplified when the
920 dust-radiation interactions are activated (RADON). The “corrections” of the near surface temperature
921 forecasts during nighttime become more evident and statistically significant, when only land areas
922 affected by intense dust loads (dust AOD ≥ 1.0) are considered in the NMMB-FNL comparison. Under
923 these high dust AODs, the increase of air temperature at 2 meters due to the dust LW DREs reduces the
924 existing cold biases and the RADON RMSE levels (Fig. S23-iii). Therefore, the improvements on
925 model’s predictability of temperature at 2 meters when accounting for dust-radiation interactions, are
926 more evident when the intensity of dust loads increases.

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

934 Based on our findings, model warm biases are found between 950 and 700 hPa where most of the dust
935 is confined (brown curve). For the lowest dust AOD threshold, these positive model-FNL biases reach
936 up to 0.245 K and 0.313 K at 24 and 48 forecast hours, respectively, when mineral particles are not
937 treated as radiatively active substance (RADOFF). On the contrary, when dust-radiation interactions are
938 activated (RADON) the corresponding biases are reduced down to 0.155 K and 0.239 K, respectively,
939 indicating a better model performance which is further supported by the fact that these improvements are
940 statistical significant (95 % confidence level). In addition, slightly lower RMSEs are also calculated for
941 the RADON configuration between 925 and 700 hPa (Fig. S24-i). Similar but more evident results are
942 found when the dust AOD threshold increases from 0.1 to 0.5 (middle row in Figures 12 and S24-ii).
943 More specifically, at 24 forecast hours, the RADON-FNL temperature differences do not exceed 0.321
944 K in contrast to the corresponding biases between RADOFF and FNL which can be as high as 0.512 K.

945 At 48 forecast hours, between altitudes where the dust concentrations are maximized, the red curve
946 (RADON-FNL) is close to the blue thick line which represents the ideal score (i.e. zero biases), while
947 the RADOFF warm biases can reach up to 0.443 K. As it has been shown in Section 5.4 (see Fig. 8 ii-b),
948 due to the emission of longwave radiation by the mineral particles there is a temperature reduction within
949 the atmospheric layers in which they are confined and a slight warming above the dust layer. The former
950 effect explains the statistically significant reduction of the model warm biases between 950 and 700 hPa
951 whereas the latter one could explain the slight statistically significant reduction of the model cold biases
952 recorded between 600 and 500 hPa (see Fig. 12 ii-a). According to the RMSE vertical profiles, between
953 the two altitude ranges (950-700 hPa and 600-500 hPa), the better performance of the RADON
954 configuration is evident only at pressure levels where the main amount of dust is simulated (Fig. S24 ii-
955 a and ii-b). For the highest dust AOD threshold, at 24 forecast hours (Fig. 12 iii-a), the agreement of
956 temperature profiles between RADON and FNL is better compared to RADOFF-FNL whereas at 48
957 forecast hours depends on altitude (Fig. 12 iii-b). Summarizing, thanks to the consideration of the dust
958 radiative effects the predictive skills of the NMMB-MONARCH model in terms of reproducing
959 temperature fields within the atmosphere are improved as it has been pointed also in previous relevant
960 studies (Pérez et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2010; Wang and Niu, 2013). However, the improvements are
961 relatively small. The consideration of dust-radiation interactions does not always lead to a better model
962 performance since other model first order errors may dominate over the expected improvements. Also
963 the representation of dust plumes' spatiotemporal features and optical properties, particularly the AOD
964 and SSA, may produce double penalty effects. In this sense, the enhancement of dust forecasts via data
965 assimilation techniques may significantly improve the results.

966

967 **6. Summary and conclusions**

968

969 In the present study, the direct radiative effects (DREs) during 20 intense and widespread
970 Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks, that took place during the period March 2000 – February 2013,
971 have been analyzed based on short-term (84 hours) regional simulations of the NMMB-MONARCH
972 model. The identification of desert dust outbreaks has been accomplished via an objective and dynamic
973 algorithm utilizing as inputs daily $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ satellite retrievals providing information about aerosols' load,
974 size and nature. DREs have been calculated at the top of the atmosphere (TOA), into the atmosphere
975 (ATM), and at the surface, for the downwelling (SURF) and the absorbed (NETSURF) radiation, for the
976 shortwave (SW), longwave (LW) and NET (SW+LW) radiation. At a further step, the impacts on sensible
977 and latent heat fluxes as well as on temperature at 2 meters and into the atmosphere have been

978 investigated. Moreover, the potential feedbacks on dust emission and dust AOD have been assessed at
979 regional scale representative for the simulation domain used in our experiments. In the last part of our
980 study, focus was given on the potential improvements on model's predictive skills, attributed to the
981 inclusion of dust radiative effects into the numerical simulations, in terms of reproducing the downward
982 SW/LW radiation at the ground as well as the temperature fields. The main findings obtained from the
983 present analysis are summarized below.

984

985 **Direct Radiative Effects**

986

- 987 ➤ DREs into the atmosphere and at the surface are driven by the dust outbreaks' spatial features
988 whereas at TOA, the surface albedo plays a crucial role, particularly under clear sky conditions.
- 989 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks induce a strong surface cooling with instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF} and
990 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values down to -589 Wm^{-2} and -337 Wm^{-2} , respectively.
- 991 ➤ Through the absorption of the incoming solar radiation by the mineral particles, dust outbreaks
992 cause a strong atmospheric warming effect (by up to 319 Wm^{-2}) around midday.
- 993 ➤ At TOA, during daytime, positive DREs up to 85 Wm^{-2} (planetary warming) are found over
994 highly reflective areas while negative DREs down to -184 Wm^{-2} (planetary cooling) are computed
995 over dark surfaces.
- 996 ➤ During nighttime, reverse effects of lower magnitude are found into the atmosphere and at the
997 surface with maximum instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} values equal to
998 83 Wm^{-2} , 50 Wm^{-2} and -61 Wm^{-2} whereas at TOA due to the offset of the atmospheric cooling
999 by the surface warming, the DRE_{TOA} values are almost negligible (less than 10 Wm^{-2}).
- 1000 ➤ The regional NET all-sky DREs for the NSD range from -8.5 to 0.5 Wm^{-2} , from -31.6 to 2.1 Wm^{-2} ,
1001 from -22.2 to 2.2 Wm^{-2} and from -1.7 to 20.4 Wm^{-2} for TOA, SURF, NETSURF and ATM,
1002 respectively.
- 1003 ➤ The contribution of the LW DREs to the NET ones is comparable or even larger, particularly over
1004 the Sahara at midday.

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1010 **Sensible and latent heat fluxes**

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- 1012 ➤ As a response to the surface radiation budget perturbations, desert dust outbreaks reduce the
1013 sensible heat fluxes (regional averages taking into account only land grid points) by up to 45 Wm^{-2}
1014 2 during daytime while reverse tendencies of lower magnitudes are found during night (2 Wm^{-2}).
1015 ➤ Locally, the aforementioned values can reach down to -150 Wm^{-2} and up to 50 Wm^{-2} .
1016 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks reduce also the surface latent heat fluxes by up to 4 Wm^{-2} and 100 Wm^{-2}
1017 2 at a regional and grid point level, respectively. At night, the regional and the instantaneous LE
1018 levels are increased by up to 0.5 Wm^{-2} and 30 Wm^{-2} , respectively.

1019

1020 **Impact on temperature fields**

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- 1022 ➤ Due to the attenuation of the incoming solar radiation and the emission of radiation at thermal
1023 wavelengths, both induced by dust aerosols, temperature at 2 meters reduces and increases during
1024 day and night, respectively, by up to 4 K in absolute terms in land areas where the dust loads are
1025 intense (AODs higher than 2).
1026 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks warm the atmosphere by up to 0.9 K between altitudes where elevated
1027 dust layers are located and cool the lowest tropospheric levels by up to 1.3 K, due to the reduced
1028 surface sensible heat fluxes.
1029 ➤ Due to the emission of LW radiation and the trapping of the outgoing terrestrial radiation by dust
1030 aerosols, the nocturnal temperature decreases by up to 0.8 K in atmospheric altitudes where
1031 mineral particles are confined, whereas between the bottom of the dust layer and the surface, the
1032 air-temperature increases by up to 1.2 K.

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1034 **Feedbacks on dust AOD and dust emission**

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- 1036 ➤ The total emitted amount of dust is reduced by 19.5% (statistically significant at 95% confidence
1037 level) over the forecast period when dust DREs are included into the numerical simulations,
1038 revealing thus a negative feedback on dust emissions.
1039 ➤ Among the studied cases, the corresponding percentages range from -34% (2 August 2012) to -
1040 10% (24 February 2006) and are statistical significant (95% confidence level) in all cases.

- 1041 ➤ As a consequence of the lower amount of mineral particles emitted in the atmosphere, negative
1042 feedbacks are also found on the mean regional dust AOD_{550nm} which is decreased by 0.02 (6.9%)
1043 with respect to the control experiment (RADOFF).
1044 ➤ Statistically significant reductions of the regional dust AOD_{550nm}, varying from 1% (22 February
1045 2004) to 12.5% (27 January 2005), are found in all the studied cases when dust-radiation
1046 interactions are activated (RADON).

1047

1048 **Assessment of model's predictive skills**

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- 1050 ➤ Through the evaluation of the model's forecast outputs of the SW and LW downwelling radiation
1051 at the ground against surface measurements derived by the BSRN network, it is revealed a
1052 reduction of the modelled positive (for SW) and negative (for LW) biases attributed to the
1053 consideration of dust radiative effects. However, model's accuracy is critically affected by its
1054 ability to represent satisfactorily aerosols' and clouds' spatiotemporal features, highlighting thus
1055 their key role when such comparisons are attempted.
- 1056 ➤ Under high dust load conditions (AODs higher/equal than 0.5), the nocturnal model-FNL
1057 negative regional biases of temperature at 2 meters are reduced by up to 0.5 K (95% statistically
1058 significant) in the RADON experiment. On the contrary, these temperature "corrections" are not
1059 evident during daytime revealing thus that other model errors (particularly those introduced by
1060 the soil model) can dominate over the expected improvements attributed to the consideration of
1061 dust-radiation interactions in the numerical simulations.
- 1062 ➤ The model regional warm biases found at 24 and 48 hours after the initialization of the forecast
1063 period, between pressure levels (950 and 700 hPa) where the dust concentration is maximized,
1064 are reduced by up to 0.4 K (95% statistically significant) in the RADON experiment.
- 1065 ➤ In general, the bias and RSME reductions achieved are relatively small. We recall that the model
1066 simulations show underestimation and spatiotemporal mismatches compared to MODIS. A future
1067 study may consider the potential benefit of AOD data assimilation in the model to better
1068 reproduce the magnitude and spatial features of the events and therefore to further improve the
1069 weather forecast itself.

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1088

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1623 **Table 1:** List of the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks which have been identified within the geographical limits of the
 1624 MSD based on the satellite algorithm. In addition, the number of strong, extreme and total (strong plus extreme) DD episodes
 1625 (number of satellite grid cells at 1° x 1° spatial resolution where a DD episode has been identified), the regional intensity (in
 1626 terms of AOD_{550nm}) calculated from the total DD episodes as well as the dust affected parts of the Mediterranean domain are
 1627 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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1651 **Table 2:** Mean and standard deviation of all-sky DRE_{TOA} , DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} values, over the simulation
 1652 period (84 hours), calculated in the NSD, SDD and MSD domains for the SW, LW and NET radiation. Blue and red
 1653 background colors indicate negative (cooling effect) and positive (warming effect) DREs, respectively.

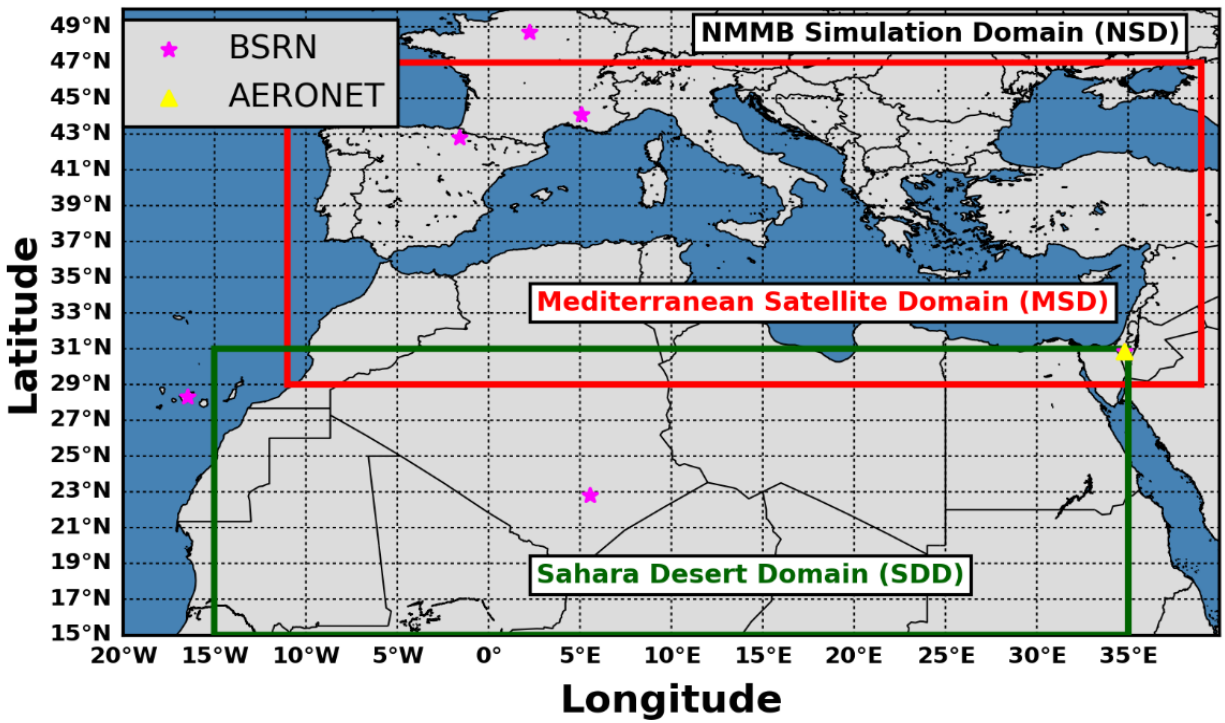
		DRE_{TOA}	DRE_{SURF}	$DRE_{NETSURF}$	DRE_{ATM}
NSD	SW	-3.5±3.4	-16.3±14.3	-12.5±11	9.0±9.3
	LW	0.9±0.5	1.7±0.4	3.0±0.9	-2.0±0.4
	NET	-2.6±3.2	-14.7±14.6	-9.6±10.2	7.0±9.0
SDD	SW	-2.8±5	-20.8±18.8	-14.1±12.8	11.4±12.2
	LW	1.4±1.1	2.8±0.7	5.0±1.8	-3.6±0.8
	NET	-1.3±5	-18.0±19.3	-9.1±11.2	7.8±11.7
MSD	SW	-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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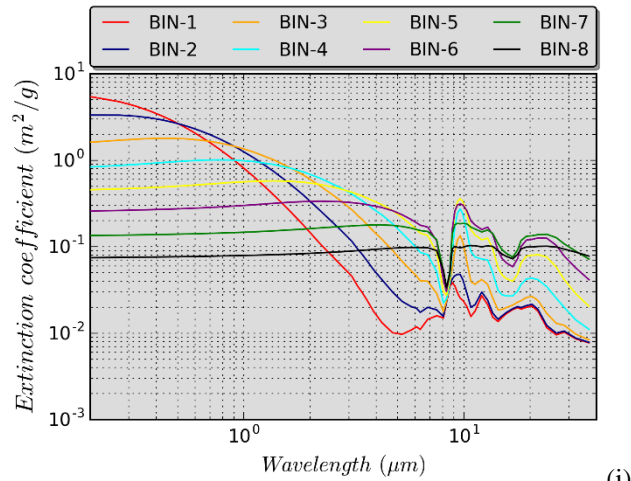
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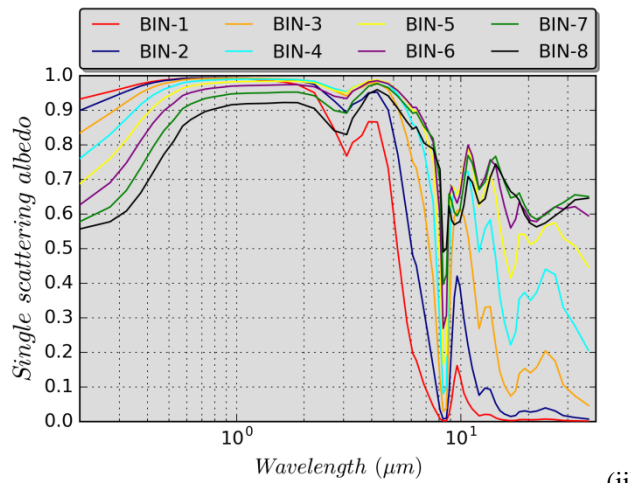


1658
 1659 **Figure 1:** Geographical limits of the: (i) NMMB Simulation Domain (*NSD*, outer domain), (ii) Mediterranean Satellite
 1660 Domain (*MSD*, red rectangle) and (iii) Sahara Desert Domain (*SDD*, green rectangle). With the magenta star symbols are
 1661 depicted the locations of the BSRN stations and with the yellow triangle is denoted the location of the AERONET Sede Boker
 1662 station.

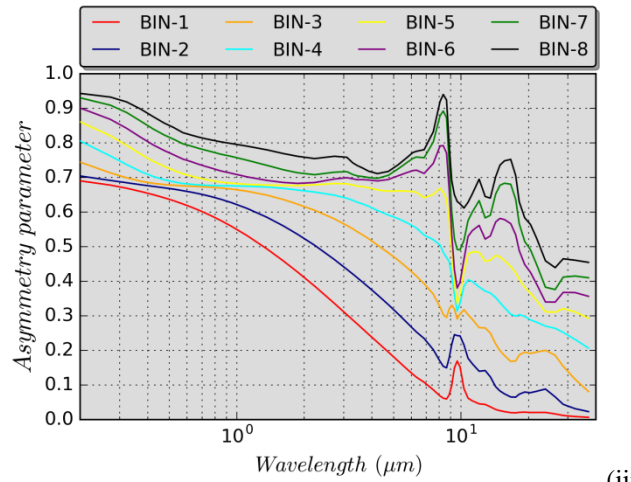
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(i)



(ii)

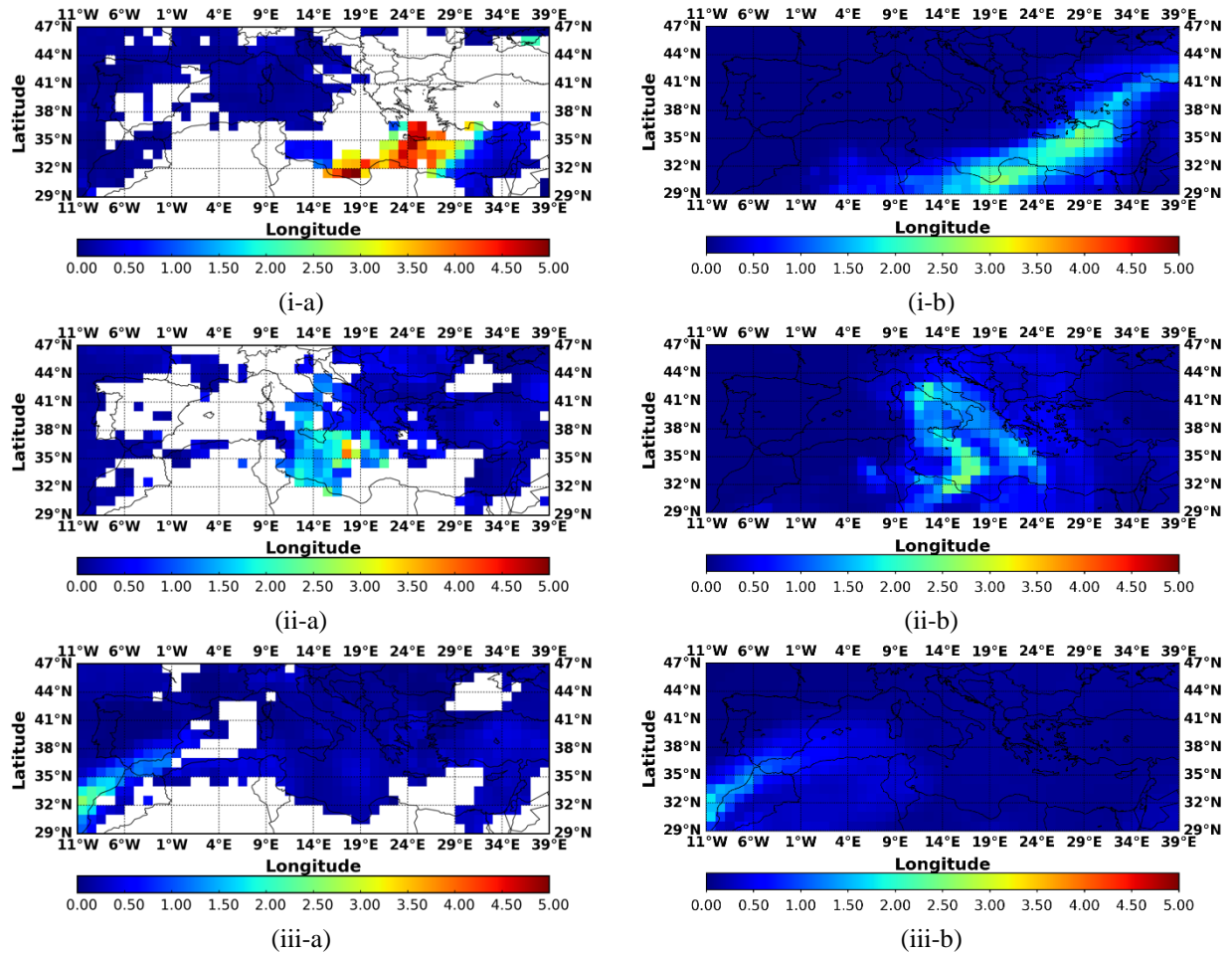


(iii)

1675 **Figure 2:** Spectral variation of the GOCART: (i) extinction coefficient (in m^2/g), (ii) single scattering albedo and (iii)
 1676 asymmetry parameter, for each one of the 8 dust bins which are considered in the dust module.

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1679 **Figure 3:** Geographical distributions of the aerosol optical depth (AOD) at 550 nm: (a) retrieved by the MODIS-Terra sensor
 1680 and (b) simulated by the NMMB-MONARCH model at 12:00 UTC for the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks that took
 1681 place on: (i) 2nd March 2005, (ii) 19th May 2008 and (iii) 2nd August 2012.

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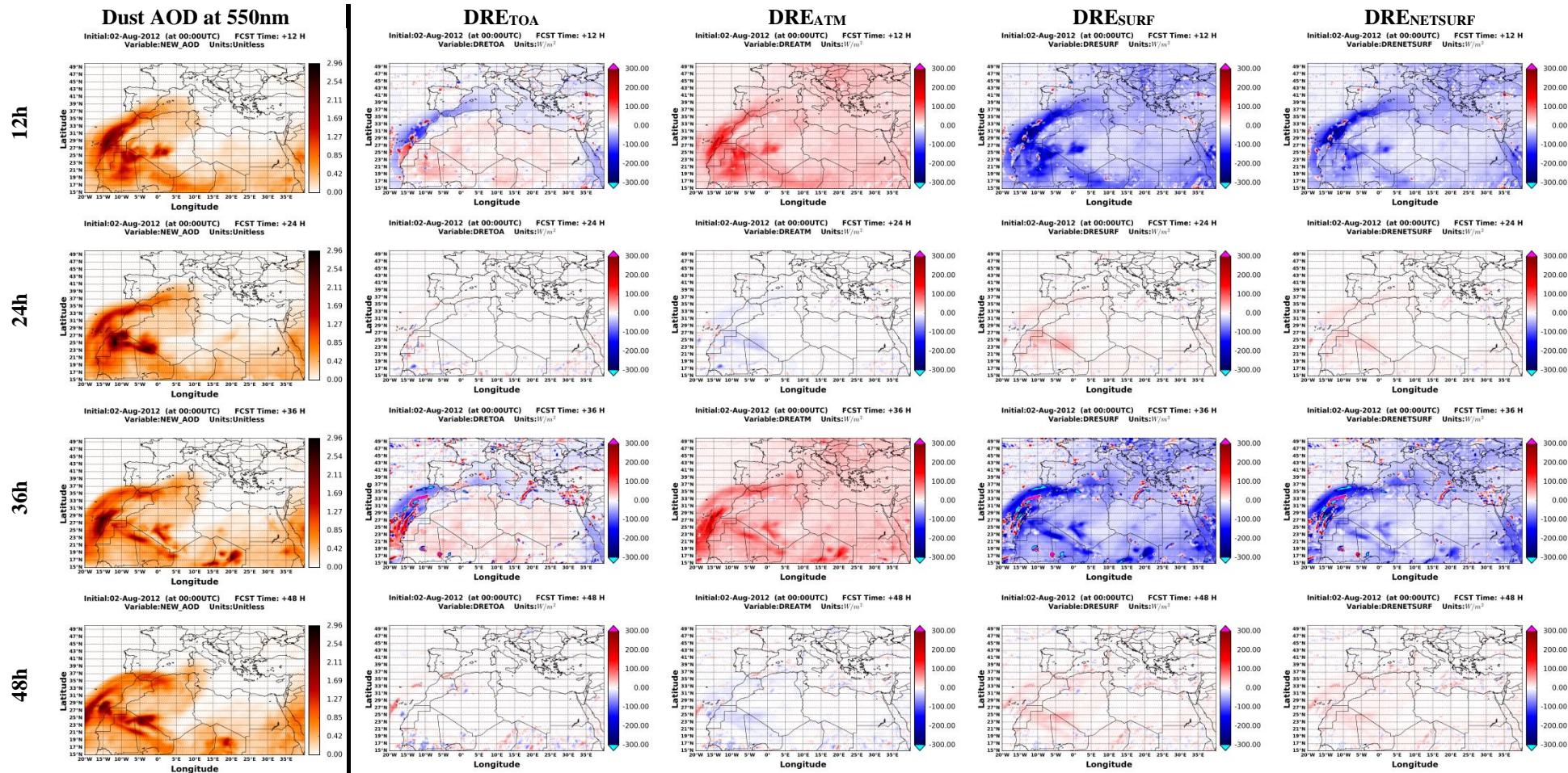


Figure 4: Spatial patterns of the simulated dust AOD_{550nm} and the instantaneous DRE_{TOA}, DRE_{ATM}, DRE_{SURF} and DRE_{NETSURF} values, expressed in Wm⁻², at 12, 24, 36 and 48 hours after the initialization of NMMB-MONARCH model at 00 UTC on 2nd August 2012.

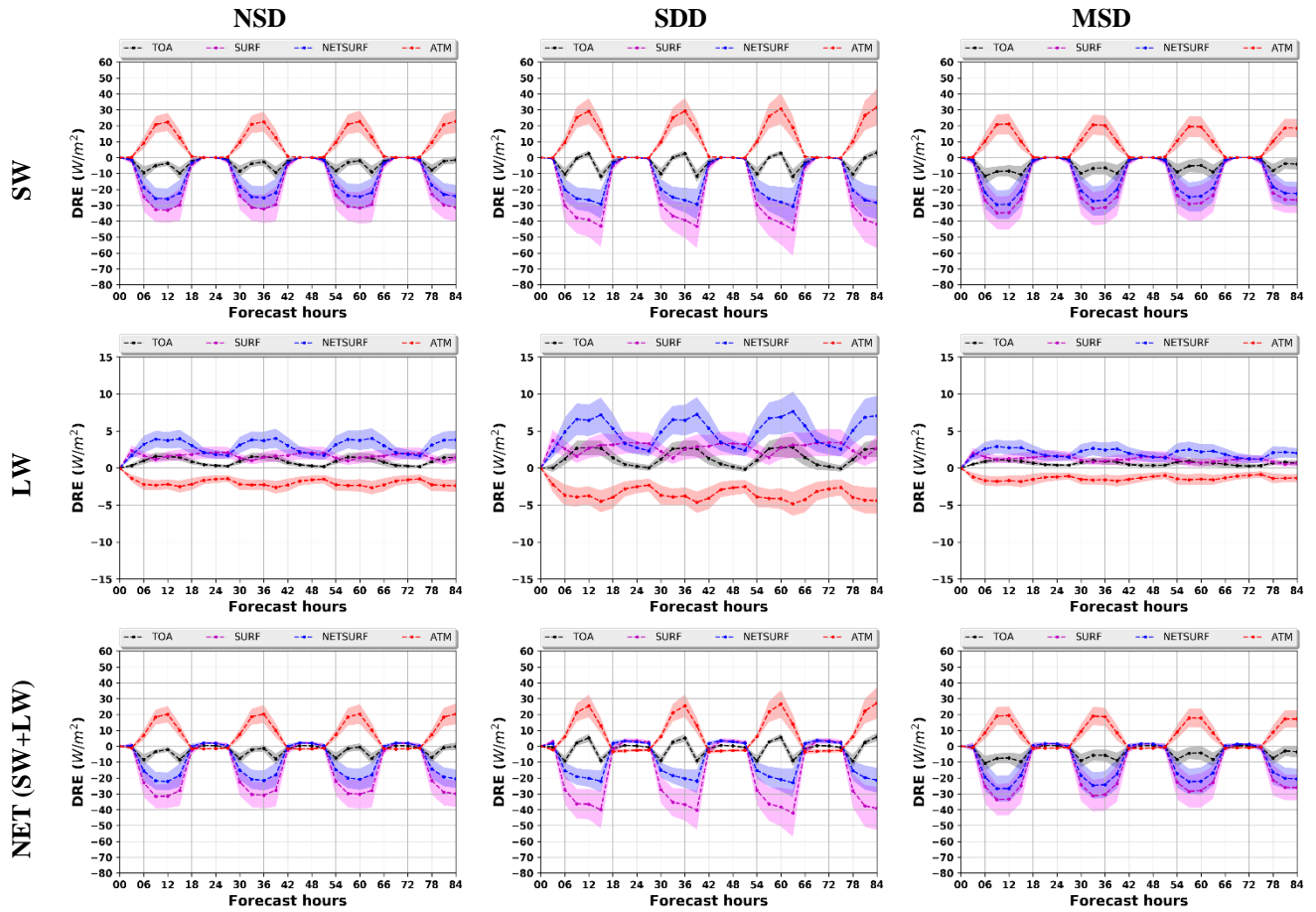
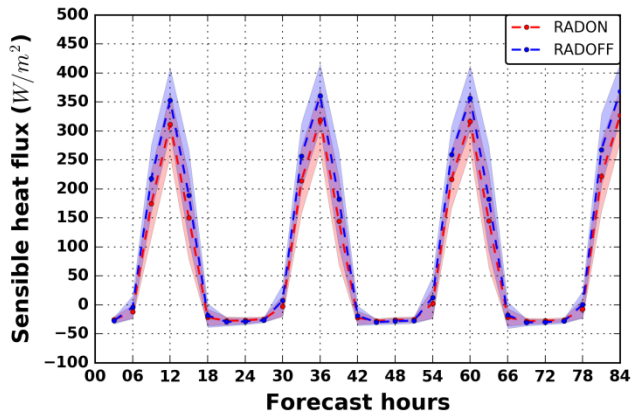
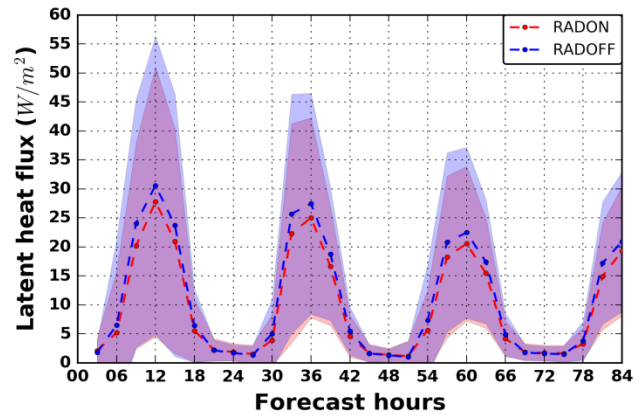


Figure 5: Regional all-sky SW (upper row), LW (middle row) and NET (SW+LW) (bottom row) DREs at TOA (black), SURF (purple), NETSURF (blue) and ATM (red) averaged over the NSD (left column), SDD (central column) and MSD (right column) domains. The calculated DREs correspond to the mean values calculated 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.

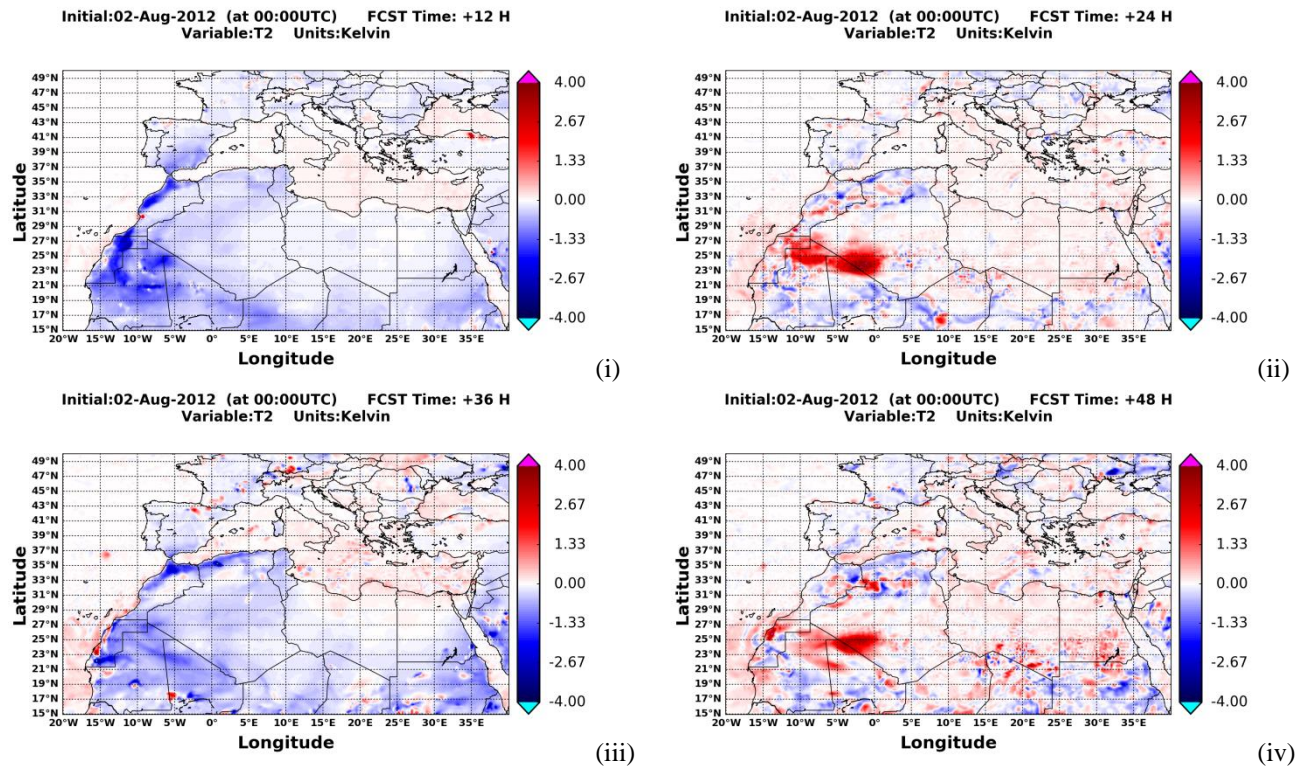
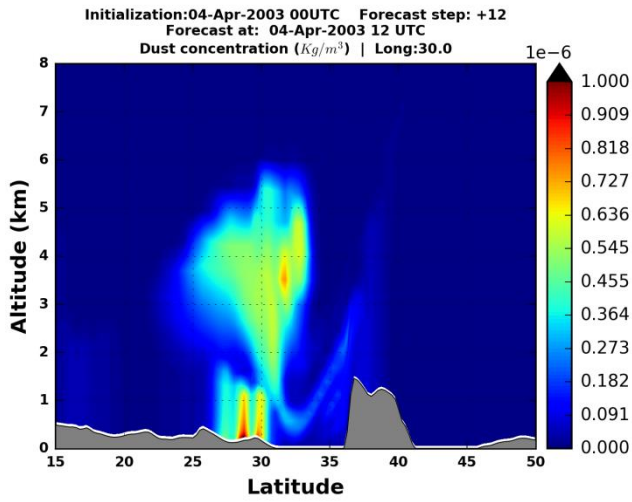
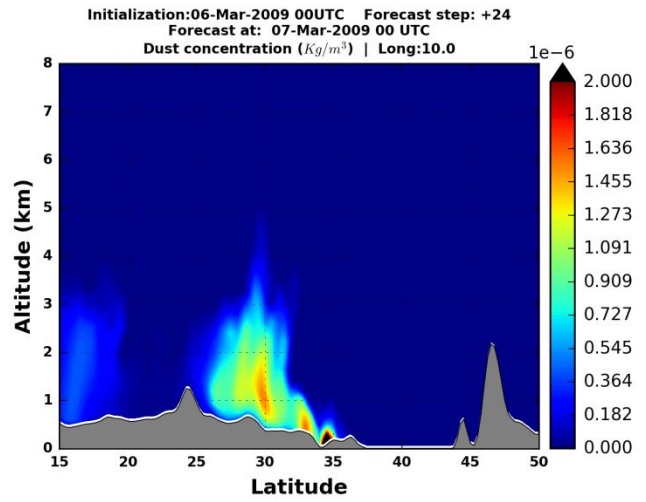


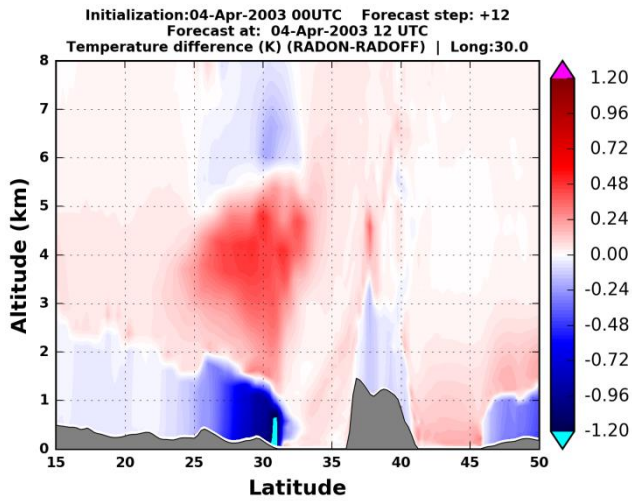
Figure 7: Spatial patterns of temperature differences at 2 meters, between the RADON and RADOFF configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model, for the: (i) 12, (ii) 24, (iii) 36 and (iv) 48 hours forecast of the 00 UTC cycle on 2nd August 2012.



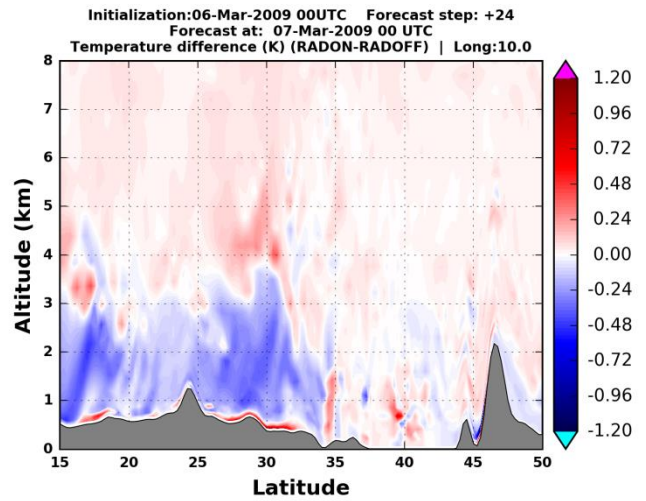
(i-a)



(i-b)

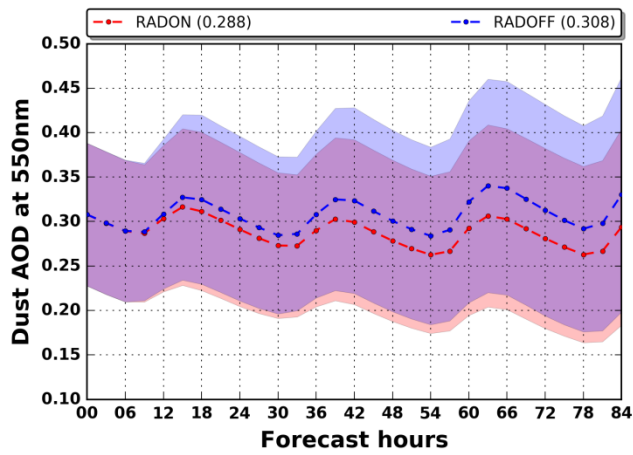


(ii-a)

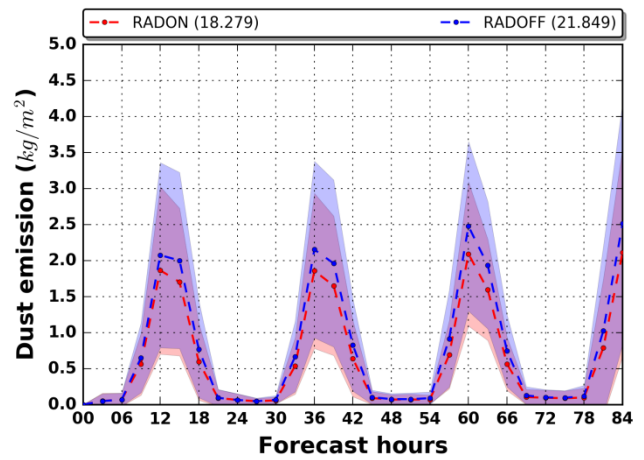


(ii-b)

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 $30^\circ\ E$ and (b) 7 March 2009 00 UTC along the meridional $10^\circ\ E$.

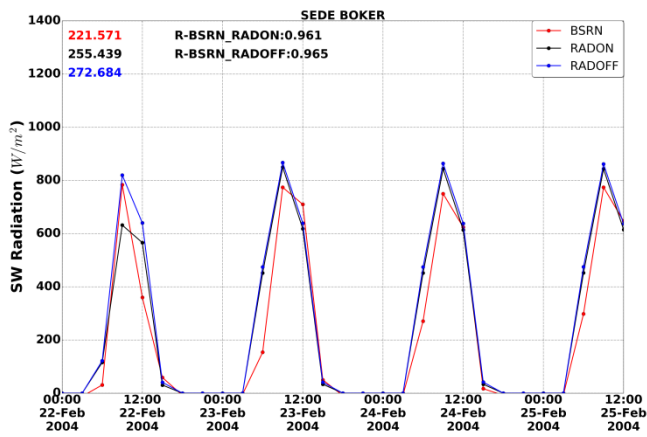


(i)

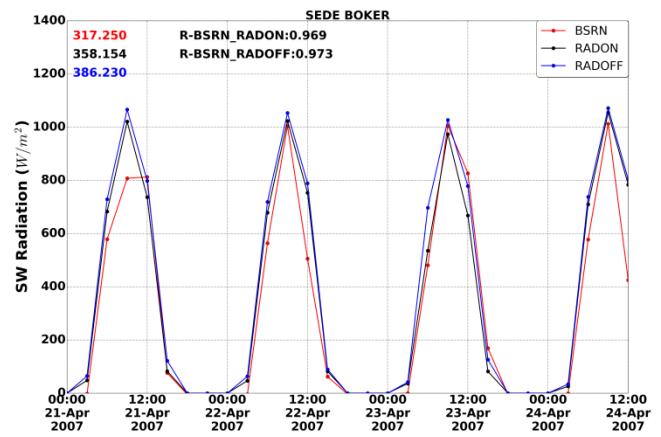


(ii)

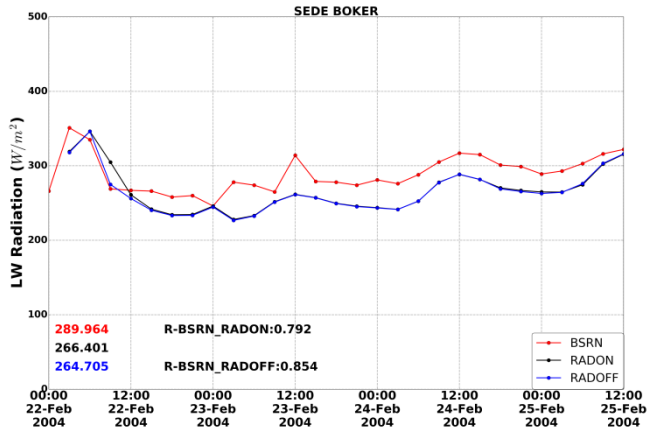
Figure 9: (i) Regional dust AOD at 550nm averaged over the simulation domain (NSD) and (ii) Regional dust emission (in kg m^{-2}) aggregated over the simulation domain (NSD). Blue and red curves correspond to the mean values, calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks, for the RADOFF and RADON simulations,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



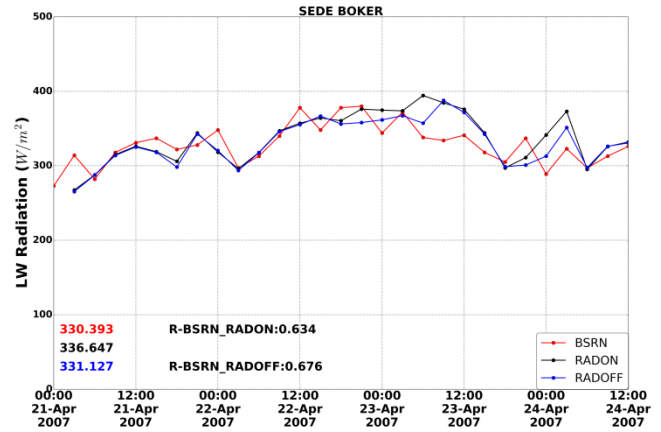
(i-a)



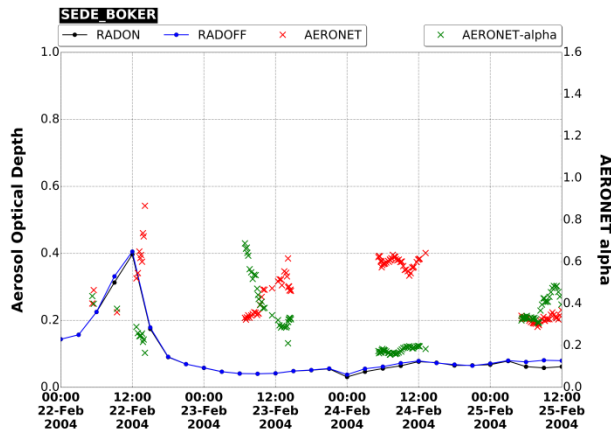
(i-b)



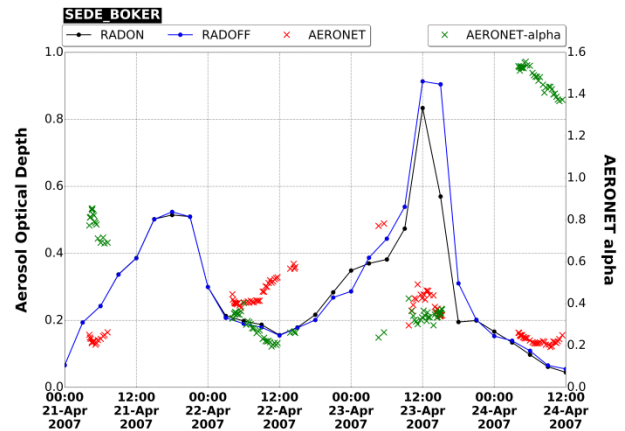
(ii-a)



(ii-b)

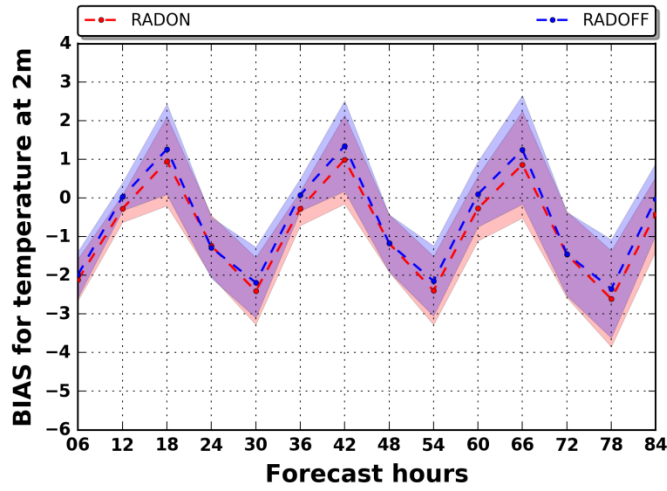


(iii-a)

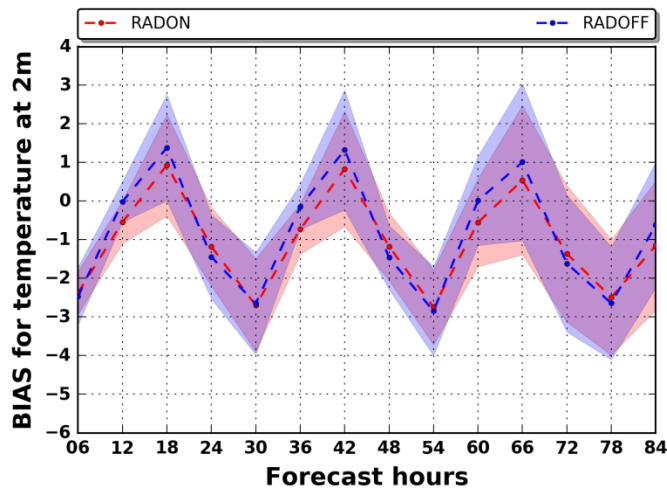


(iii-b)

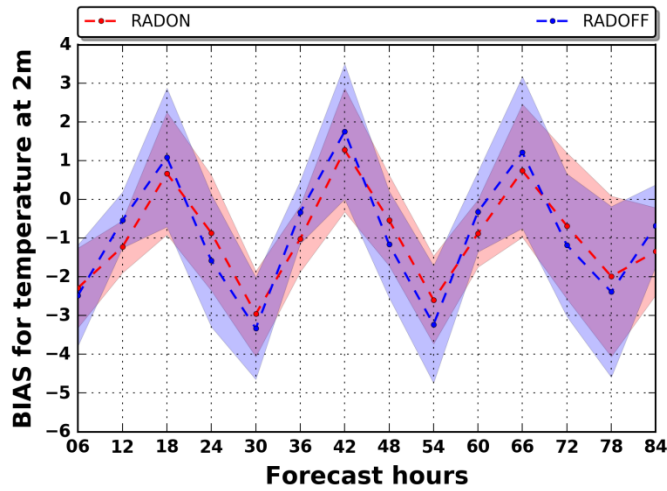
Figure 10: Timeseries of the downwelling: (i) SW and (ii) LW radiation measured at Sede Boker (red line) and simulated based on the RADON (black line) and RADOFF (blue line) configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model during the periods: (a) 22 Feb. 2004 00UTC – 25 Feb. 2004 12UTC and (b) 21 Apr. 2007 00UTC – 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.

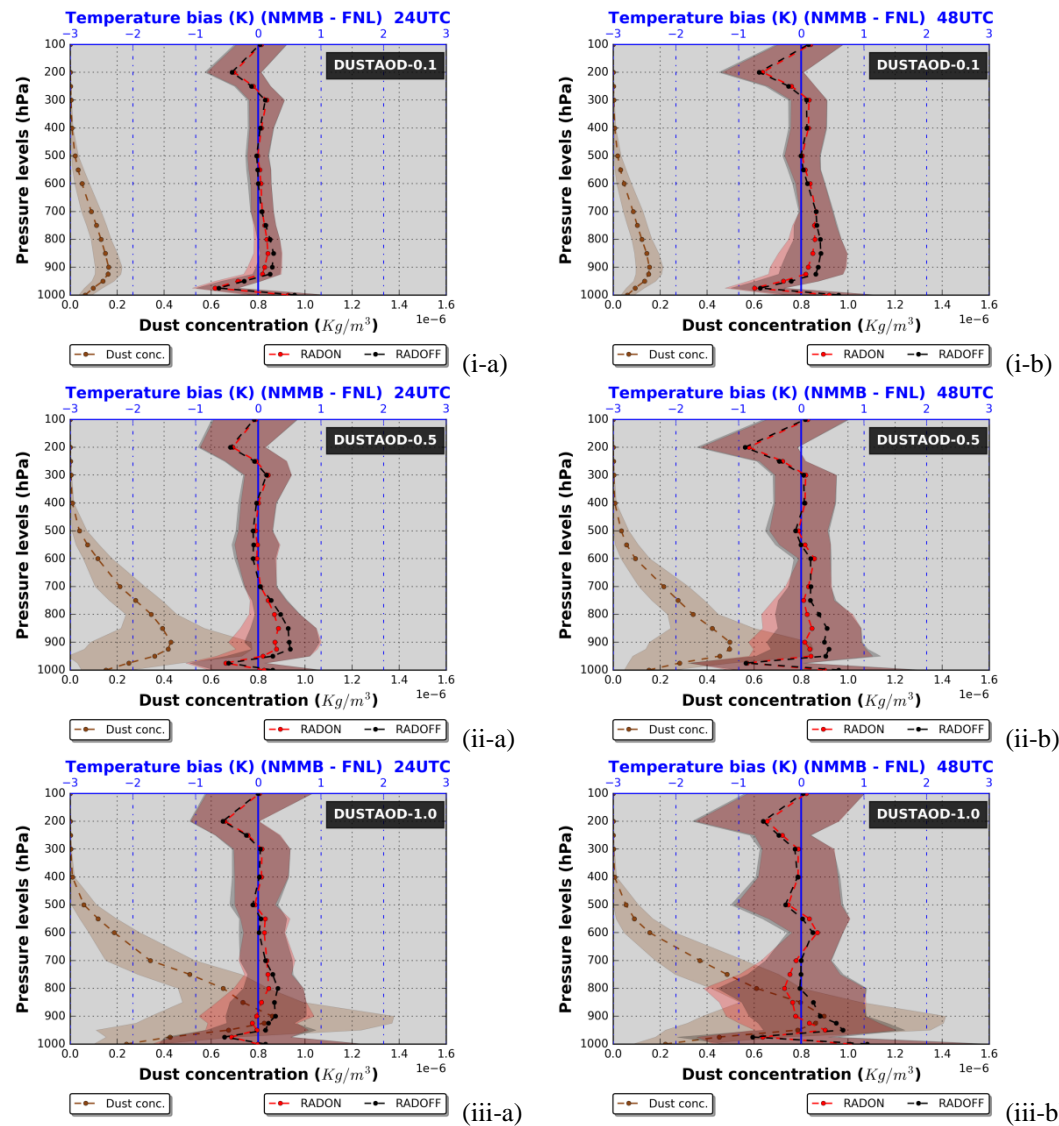


Figure 12: Vertical profiles of the regional temperature RADON-FNL (red curve) and RADOFF-FNL (black curve) biases calculated over grid points ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees spatial resolution) where the dust AOD at 550 nm is higher/equal than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0. In addition, the vertical 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.