



1 Direct radiative effects of intense Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks

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13 14 15 Abstract

16
17 The direct radiative effect (DRE) of 20 intense and widespread dust outbreaks that affected the broader
18 Mediterranean basin during the period March 2000 – February 2013, has been calculated with the
19 regional NMMB-MONARCH model. The DREs have been calculated based on short-term simulations
20 (84 hours) for a domain covering the Sahara and most part of the European continent. At midday, desert
21 dust outbreaks induce locally a NET (shortwave plus longwave) strong atmospheric warming (DRE_{ATM}
22 values up to 285 Wm⁻²), a strong surface cooling (DRE_{NETSURF} values down to -337 Wm⁻²) whereas they
23 strongly reduce the downward radiation at the ground (DRE_{SURF} values down to -589 Wm⁻²). During
24 nighttime, reverse effects of smaller magnitude are found. At the top of the atmosphere (TOA), positive
25 (planetary warming) DREs up to 85 Wm⁻² are found over highly reflective surfaces while negative
26 (planetary cooling) DREs down to -184 Wm⁻² are computed over dark surfaces at noon. Desert dust
27 outbreaks significantly affect the regional radiation budget, with regional clear-sky NET DRE values
28 ranging from -13.9 to 2.6 Wm⁻², from -43.6 to 4 Wm⁻², from -26.3 to 3.9 Wm⁻² and from -3.7 to 28 Wm⁻²
29 for TOA, SURF, NETSURF and ATM, respectively. Although the shortwave (SW) DREs are larger
30 than the longwave (LW) ones, the latter are comparable or even larger at TOA, particularly over the
31 Sahara at midday. As a response to the strong surface cooling during daytime, dust outbreaks cause a
32 reduction of the regional sensible and latent heat fluxes by up to 45 Wm⁻² and 4 Wm⁻², respectively,
33 averaged over land areas of the simulation domain. Dust outbreaks reduce the temperature at 2 meters
34 by up to 4 K during day, whereas a reverse tendency of similar magnitude is found during night.
35 Depending on the vertical distribution of dust loads and time, mineral particles heat (cool) the atmosphere



36 by up to 0.9 K (0.8 K) during daytime (nighttime) within atmospheric dust layers. Beneath and above the
37 dust clouds, mineral particles cool (warm) the atmosphere by up to 1.3 K (1.2 K) at noon (night). When
38 dust radiative effects are taken into account in numerical simulations, the total emitted dust and dust
39 AOD, computed on a regional mean basis, are decreased (negative feedback) by 19.5% and 6.9%. The
40 consideration of dust radiative effects in numerical simulations improves the model predictive skills.
41 More specifically, it reduces the model positive and negative biases for the downward surface SW and
42 LW radiation, respectively, with respect to Baseline Surface Radiation Network (BSRN) measurements.
43 In addition, they also reduce the model near-surface (at 2 meters) nocturnal cold biases by up to 0.5 K
44 (regional averages), as well as the model warm biases at 950 and 700 hPa, where the dust concentration
45 is maximized, by up to 0.4 K.

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47 **1. Introduction**

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49 Dust aerosols through their interaction with the incoming solar (shortwave, SW) and the outgoing
50 terrestrial (longwave, LW) radiation, perturb the radiation budget of the Earth-Atmosphere system and
51 redistribute the energy therein. The induced perturbation of the radiation fields by dust particles, the so-
52 called dust radiative effect, takes place through three processes of increasing complexity affecting the
53 energy budgets at the surface, into the atmosphere and at the top of the atmosphere (TOA). The first one,
54 known as direct radiative effect (DRE) and referred as RE_{ari} (aerosol-radiation interactions) in the latest
55 report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, Boucher et al., 2013), is caused by the
56 absorption and scattering of the SW radiation (Sokolik et al., 2001) and the absorption and re-emission
57 of the LW radiation by mineral particles (Heinold et al., 2008). Due to the perturbation of the radiation
58 fields by dust aerosols, the energy budget both at the surface and into the atmosphere is modified and the
59 signal of these impacts is evident in atmospheric stability/instability conditions associated with cloud
60 development and precipitation. These rapid adjustments, which have been earlier referred as semi-direct
61 effects (Hansen et al., 1997), are induced by the dust RE_{ari} on surface energy budget and atmospheric
62 profile (Boucher et al., 2013) contributing to the Effective Radiative Forcing (ERF_{ari}). Moreover, dust
63 aerosols due to their ability to serve as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and ice nuclei (IN), modify the
64 physical (Twomey, 1974; Albrecht, 1989) and optical properties of clouds (Pincus and Baker, 1994),
65 which consist the major regulators of the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget (Lohmann and
66 Feicher, 2005). Through this chain of complex processes, it is described the indirect impact of mineral
67 particles on the radiation and compared to the other two dust radiative effects (direct and semi-direct) is
68 characterized by even larger uncertainties. In the latest IPCC report (IPCC, 2013), the formerly known



69 as indirect effects have been renamed to Effective Radiative Forcing (ERF_{aci}) including the modification
70 of radiation by clouds, attributed to aerosol-cloud interactions (aci), as well as the subsequent changes
71 (rapid adjustments) of clouds' physical/microphysical/optical properties (Boucher et al., 2013).

72 Several studies have been conducted aiming at estimating the dust direct/semi-direct (e.g. Pérez et al.,
73 2006; Helmert et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2010; Nabat et al., 2015a) and indirect effects (e.g. Sassen et al.,
74 2003; Seigel et al., 2013). Specifically, numerous studies have been carried out either by means of
75 numerical modelling (e.g. Solmon et al., 2012; Woodage and Woodward, 2014) or through the synergy
76 of observations and radiative transfer codes (Di Sarra et al., 2011; Valenzuela et al., 2012) or solely based
77 on aerosol observations (e.g. Yang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2016) and their findings either referred to
78 extended (e.g. Spyrou et al., 2013) or limited time periods (e.g. Nabat et al., 2015b) or to specific desert
79 dust outbreaks (e.g. Pérez et al., 2006; Santese et al., 2010; Stanelle et al., 2010). The investigation of
80 dust radiative effects is a scientific issue of great concern since it is documented that mineral particles,
81 through their interaction with the radiation, can affect atmospheric processes from short (weather) to long
82 (climate) temporal scales. To this aim, many research efforts were dedicated to the investigation of dust
83 impacts on the convective activity (Mallet et al., 2009), sea surface temperature (Foltz and McPhaden,
84 2008), hydrological cycle (Miller et al., 2004b), hurricanes (Bretl et al., 2015), boundary layer dynamics
85 (Heinold et al., 2008) and monsoons (Solmon et al., 2008; Vinoj et al., 2014).

86 The direct impact of dust aerosols is expressed by the sign and the magnitude of the DRE values,
87 which are defined as the anomalies (perturbation) of the radiation attributed to dust-radiation direct
88 interaction, considering as a reference (control) an atmospheric state where mineral particles are not a
89 radiatively active substance. Based on this, negative and positive DREs indicate a cooling (loss of energy)
90 and a warming effect (gain of energy), respectively. Nevertheless, the sign of the DREs varies between
91 the SW and LW spectrum (Osborne et al., 2011) as well as within the Earth-Atmosphere system. More
92 specifically, due to the attenuation (through scattering and absorption) of the SW radiation, dust aerosols
93 warm the atmosphere and cool the surface (Huang et al., 2014), while reverse tendencies are revealed at
94 longer wavelengths attributed to the absorption and re-emission of LW radiation by the mineral particles
95 (Sicard et al., 2014a). Between the two spectrum ranges, the SW DREs are larger compared to the LW
96 ones, in absolute terms, explaining thus their predominance when the corresponding calculations are
97 made for the NET (SW+LW) radiation (e.g. Pérez et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2007; Woodage et al., 2014).
98 The perturbations of the radiation budget at the surface and into the atmosphere determine the DRE at
99 TOA (e.g. Kumar et al., 2014), which indicates the increase (planetary cooling) or the decrease (planetary



100 warming) of the outgoing radiation from the Earth-Atmosphere system and is relevant to dust climatic
101 effects (Christopher and Jones, 2007).

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

119 The dust radiative effects become important under specific conditions of very high concentrations, so-
120 called events or episodes or outbreaks. Such episodes occur frequently over the broader Mediterranean
121 basin (Gkikas et al., 2013), due to its vicinity to the world's major dust sources situated across the
122 northern Africa (Sahara) and Middle East deserts (Ginoux et al., 2012). Dust particles are mobilized over
123 these areas by strong winds (Schepanski et al., 2009) being uplifted to the free troposphere due to strong
124 convection in the boundary layer (Cuesta et al., 2009) and are transported towards the Mediterranean due
125 to the prevailing atmospheric (synoptic) circulation (Gkikas et al., 2015). Under these conditions, dust
126 particles over the Mediterranean are recorded at very high concentrations as it has been confirmed either
127 by satellite (e.g. Moulin et al., 1998; Guerrero-Rascado et al., 2009; Rémy et al., 2015) and ground
128 retrievals (e.g. Kubilay et al., 2003; Toledano et al., 2007) or by surface PM₁₀ measurements (e.g.
129 Rodríguez et al., 2001; Querol et al., 2009; Pey et al., 2013).

130 Among the different aerosol types that co-exist in the Mediterranean (Lelieveld et al., 2002; Basart et
131 al., 2009), dust is the one causing the greatest perturbation of the SW and LW radiation, especially during



132 desert dust outbreaks (e.g. Di Sarra et al., 2008; Di Biagio et al., 2010). Thus, a number of studies focused
133 on Mediterranean dust outbreaks' impacts on the SW (Meloni et al., 2004; Gómez-Amo et al., 2011;
134 Antón et al., 2012; Di Sarra et al., 2013; Obregón et al., 2015), LW (Antón et al., 2014; Sicard et al.,
135 2014a) and NET (Di Sarra et al., 2011; Romano et al., 2016) radiation. However, the obtained results
136 were representative at a local scale and considering the high spatial variability of desert dust outbreaks,
137 the optimum solution of assessing in a comprehensive way their impacts on weather and climate is
138 provided by atmospheric-dust models. To this aim, the induced DREs by the Mediterranean desert dust
139 outbreaks have been analyzed through short-term numerical simulations (Pérez et al., 2006; Santese et
140 al., 2010; Remy et al., 2015), revealing strong perturbations of the energy budget within the Earth-
141 Atmosphere system, which in turn affect atmospheric processes. Moreover, similar studies have been
142 conducted either at a seasonal (Nabat et al., 2015a) and annual scale (Nabat et al., 2012) or for extended
143 time periods (Spyrou et al., 2013; Nabat et al., 2015b) pointing out the key role of desert dust aerosols in
144 the Mediterranean climate.

145 The overarching goals of the present study are: (i) the assessment of the short-term direct radiative
146 effects (DREs) on the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget, induced by intense Mediterranean
147 desert dust outbreaks, based on regional model simulations, (ii) the assessment of the associated impacts
148 on temperature and sensible/latent heat fluxes, (iii) the investigation of possible feedbacks on dust AOD
149 and dust emission and (iv) the assessment of the model's predictive skills, in terms of reproducing
150 temperature and radiation fields, when dust-radiation interactions are taken into account in numerical
151 simulations. To this aim, 20 intense and widespread desert dust outbreaks that affected the broader area
152 of the Mediterranean basin, over the period March 2000 – February 2013, have been identified based on
153 an objective and dynamic satellite algorithm (Section 2). It must be highlighted that through the
154 consideration of a large dataset of desert dust outbreaks is ensured the robustness of our findings,
155 providing thus the opportunity to have a clear view of dust outbreaks' impacts on radiation as well as
156 about the associated impacts on meteorological variables (e.g. temperature). For each dust outbreak,
157 through short-term (84 h) numerical simulations of the regional NMMB-MONARCH model (Section 3),
158 the DREs are calculated at TOA, surface and into the atmosphere, both at grid point (geographical
159 distributions) and regional scale level (Section 5.2), for the SW, LW and NET (SW+LW) radiation. In
160 addition, are examined the impacts of the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks on the sensible/latent heat
161 fluxes (Section 5.3) and on the surface temperature (Section 5.4) as well as the potential feedbacks on
162 dust AOD and dust emissions (Section 5.5). The last part of the study (Sections 5.6 and 5.7) investigates
163 the potential improvement of the model's forecasting ability in terms of reproducing the temperature and



164 radiation fields when dust-radiation interactions are included in numerical simulations. A summary is
165 made and conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

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167 2. Selection of desert dust outbreaks

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

181 Only a brief discussion of the algorithm operation is given here, whereas a detailed description is
182 provided in Gkikas et al. (2013). The satellite algorithm is applied to each individual $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell of
183 the Mediterranean Satellite Domain ($29^\circ \text{ N} - 47^\circ \text{ N}$ and $11^\circ \text{ W} - 39^\circ \text{ E}$, MSD, red rectangular in Figure
184 1) during the period March 2000 – February 2013. For each grid cell, from the series (2000-2013) of
185 daily AOD_{550nm} values, the mean ($Mean$) and the associated standard deviation (Std) of AOD_{550nm} are
186 calculated. Based on these two primary statistics, two threshold (or cut-off) levels being equal to
187 $Mean+2*Std$ and $Mean+4*Std$, are defined. By comparing each daily AOD value to the two thresholds,
188 the algorithm determines whether an aerosol episode (or event) occurs over an $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid cell in that
189 day or not, and labels it as strong or extreme, depending on which AOD threshold is exceeded (lower or
190 higher). Thereby, the term “aerosol episode” refers to pixel-level episodic (extremely high loading)
191 aerosol conditions and it is used with this meaning henceforth. Subsequently, in order to characterize the
192 identified pixel-level episodes as desert dust (DD) ones, appropriate thresholds for α , FF , r_{eff} and AI are
193 used, based on existing knowledge about relevant physical properties (size and absorbing/scattering
194 ability) of dust. According to the algorithm, a strong or extreme pixel-level DD episode occurs if $\alpha \leq 0.7$,
195 $FF \leq 0.4$, $r_{eff} > 0.6 \mu\text{m}$ and $AI > 1$ (conditions should be met simultaneously).



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

208 The majority of the selected desert dust outbreaks (55 % or 11 out of 20) took place in spring (March-
209 April-May) when massive dust loads originating in the Sahara Desert are transported towards the central
210 and eastern parts of the Mediterranean (Gkikas et al., 2013; Pey et al., 2013). Four widespread desert
211 dust outbreaks affected mainly the western sector of the MSD in summer (July, August), while five dust
212 outbreaks were recorded across the central and eastern parts of the basin in winter (January, February).
213 Among the selected cases, the number of pixel-level DD episodes in the MSD varies from 30 (28 July
214 2005, western-central Mediterranean) to 85 (31 July 2001, western Mediterranean), whereas their
215 intensity (in terms of AOD at 550nm) ranges from 0.74 (31 July 2001) to 2.96 (2 March 2005), being in
216 general higher in winter while moderate-to-high intensities are recorded in spring. Based on the
217 information in Table 1, the selected study cases correspond to widespread and intense dust outbreaks that
218 occurred in various parts of the Mediterranean, and therefore they are representative and appropriate for
219 further studying their radiative effects. The occurrence of intense desert dust outbreaks during the first
220 half of the year is favored either by the predominance of intense low pressure systems across the
221 Mediterranean basin (Varga et al., 2014; Gkikas et al., 2015) or by their eastwards shift (Saharan
222 depressions) across the northern coasts of Africa (Alpert and Ziv, 1989). In both seasons, dust transport
223 from the northern Africa deserts towards the Mediterranean is induced by the prevailing southerly or
224 southwesterly airflow (Barkan et al., 2005; Meloni et al., 2008). Some of the identified desert dust
225 outbreaks here, have been also analyzed in previous studies related to particulate matter levels
226 (Kanakidou et al., 2010), chemical speciation (Theodosi et al., 2010), dust layers' vertical structure
227 (Amiridis et al., 2009; DeSouza-Machado et al., 2010), dust radiative effects (Di Sarra et al., 2011), dust



228 modelling (Carnevale et al., 2012) and prevailing synoptic conditions favoring the occurrence of dust
229 events (Nastos, 2012).

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231 **3. Model description**

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

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248 *3.1. The NMMB-MONARCH model*

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250 *3.1.1. The NMMB atmospheric model*

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



262 surface layer, respectively, as well as the NOAH land model (Ek et al., 2003). The model's dynamic
263 equations, in the horizontal plane, are solved on the Arakawa B grid (Arakawa and Lamb, 1977) while
264 in vertical the general hybrid pressure-sigma coordinate (Simmons and Burridge, 1981) is utilized. For
265 regional simulations, a rotated longitude-latitude coordinated system is used (the Equator is running
266 through the middle of the integration domain) enabling therefore more uniform grid distances.

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3.1.2. *The Dust component*

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The main components of the desert dust life cycle, regarding mineral particles' production in the source areas, transport and removal from atmosphere, are considered in the dust component of the MONARCH model, which is embedded into the NMMB model. The size intervals as well as the effective radii for each one of the 8 dust bins, representing clay-originated sub-micron (bins 1-4) and silt-originated coarse (bins 5-8) particles, that are considered in the dust module were adopted from Pérez et al. (2006). The mass of each bin is calculated at each time step, grid point and layer, while the median mass diameter and the geometric standard deviation of the sub-bin distribution are fixed to 2.524 μm and 2.0 μm , respectively. All the required parameters regulating dust emission and mobilization namely the: (i) surface wind speed, (ii) turbulence, (iii) land use type, (iv) vegetation cover, (v) erodibility, (vi) surface roughness, (vii) soil texture and (viii) soil moisture, are considered in the dust emission scheme (Pérez et al., 2011). The vertical dust flux for each dust size bin is proportional to the horizontal sand flux while several parameters are tuned to match observations that are mainly available far away from the sources. Coarse dust aerosols are removed efficiently from the atmosphere through sedimentation, which is solved implicitly in each model layer. For the description of dust aerosols' wet removal, a mechanism which is more effective for fine mineral particles, parameterizations representing in- and below-cloud scavenging are included in the NMMB-MONARCH in which the grid-scale cloud microphysical scheme of Ferrier and the convective adjustment scheme of Betts-Miller-Janjic are utilized (Pérez et al., 2011). The ability of the NMMB-MONARCH model to reproduce accurately the dust aerosol fields has been confirmed through evaluation studies, relied on annual simulations, both at regional and global (Pérez et al., 2011) scale as well as by utilizing measurements from experimental campaigns as reference data (Haustein et al., 2012). Moreover, the reliability of the model in terms of reproducing the Saharan dust patterns over Cape Verde as well as to simulate dust vertical profiles have been confirmed through the analyses made by Gama et al. (2015) and Biniotoglou et al. (2015), respectively. Finally, the predictive skills of the NMMB-MONARCH model, in comparison with other regional models, have been assessed for a specific dust outbreak (Huneus et al., 2016) that affected the western parts of the Mediterranean and Europe.



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296 *3.2. Radiation transfer scheme and dust optical properties*

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For the description of dust aerosols interaction both with the shortwave (SW) and longwave (LW) radiation, the RRTMG (Rapid Radiative Transfer Model, Mlawer et al., 1997; Iacono et al., 2008) radiation transfer scheme is coupled with the dust module. RRTMG consists a modified version of the RRTM which is a broadband radiative transfer model that includes the molecular absorption of the SW (by water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, methane and oxygen) and LW (by water vapor, carbon dioxide, ozone, methane, nitrous oxide, oxygen, nitrogen and halocarbons) radiation. Even though the basic physics and absorption coefficients utilized in RRTM remain unchanged in RRTMG, several updates regarding computational efficiency and representation of subgrid-scale cloud variability have been considered (Iacono et al., 2008). Through these adjustments, it has been improved the efficiency of the RRTMG in global circulation model (GCM) applications with a minimal loss of accuracy (Iacono et al., 2008). In the RRTMG, the total number of quadratic points (g points) used to calculate radiances has been reduced from 224 to 112 and from 256 to 140 for the shortwave and longwave spectrum, respectively. In addition, for the short wavelengths, the discrete ordinates algorithm DISORT (Stamnes et al., 1998) has been replaced by a two-stream radiation transfer solver (Oreopoulos and Baker, 1999). All the updates applied in the RRTMG radiation transfer code are listed in the Atmospheric and Environmental Research (AER) radiative transfer web site (<http://www.rtweb.aer.com>). Based on evaluation studies, the comparison of the RRTMG clear-sky SW and LW fluxes versus RRTM_SW and LBLRTM, respectively, has revealed that its accuracy at short wavelengths is within 3 Wm^{-2} whereas at long wavelengths is 1.5 Wm^{-2} . As inputs to the radiation transfer scheme, the aerosol optical depth (AOD, measure of the aerosol load), the single scattering albedo (SSA, expresses the percentage of scattering to total extinction) and the asymmetry parameter (ASYM, expresses the angular distribution of the scattered radiation) are required. In the present version (v1.0) of the model, the calculation of dust optical properties is made based on the formulas presented in Pérez et al. (2006), by using the mass concentration simulated by the NMMB-MONARCH model and the single-particle optical properties derived by the GOCART model (Chin et al., 2002). The spectral variation of the single-particle optical properties for each bin, namely the mass extinction coefficient, the single scattering albedo and the asymmetry parameter are shown in Figures 2-i, 2-ii and 2-iii, respectively. Their calculation for each dust size bin and at each spectral band is made based on the Mie code (Mishchenko et al., 2002) assuming homogeneous and spherical dust particles. For the other types of tropospheric aerosols (sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, and sea salt), the GOCART monthly climatological AOD, SSA and ASYM values



328 are utilized.

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330 *3.3. Model set-up configuration*

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332 In our experiments, the simulation domain (NMMB-MONARCH Simulation Domain, NSD, outer
333 domain in Figure 1) covers the Sahara (dust sources areas), the Mediterranean (mid-range dust transport
334 areas) as well as most of the European continent (long-range dust transport areas). The horizontal
335 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
336 vertical. The atmospheric model's fundamental time step is set to 25 seconds. The simulations have been
337 made for each one of the 20 identified Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks (see Section 2) considering
338 a spin-up and a forecast period, using $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ NCEP final analyses (FNL) as initial and 6-h boundary
339 conditions. More specifically, for each case, a hindcast period of 84 hours starts at 00 UTC of the day
340 (see the second column in Table 1) when the desert dust outbreak has been identified according to the
341 defined criteria (explained in Section 2). In order to ensure a more "realistic" initial state of the
342 atmosphere, a 10-day spin-up before the initialization of the forecast period is simulated, where the
343 model's meteorology is reinitialized every 24 hours. For the forecast periods, for the computation of the
344 dust radiative effects, two configurations of the model were run. In the first one (RADON), aerosols
345 interact with the short- and longwave radiation while in the second one the corresponding interactions
346 are deactivated (RADOFF).

347

348 **4. Calculation of the dust direct radiative effects**

349

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

354

$$355 \text{DRE}_{TOA} = F_{TOA,RADOFF}^\uparrow - F_{TOA,RADON}^\uparrow \text{ (Eq. 1)}$$

356

$$357 \text{DRE}_{SURF} = F_{SURF,RADON}^\downarrow - F_{SURF,RADOFF}^\downarrow \text{ (Eq. 2)}$$

358

$$359 \text{DRE}_{NETSURF} = (F_{SURF,RADON}^\downarrow - F_{SURF,RADON}^\uparrow) - (F_{SURF,RADOFF}^\downarrow - F_{SURF,RADOFF}^\uparrow) = F_{NETSURF,RADON} -$$

360 $F_{NETSURF,RADOFF}$ (Eq. 3)



361

362
$$DRE_{ATM} = DRE_{TOA} - DRE_{NETSURF} \text{ (Eq. 4)}$$

363

364 At TOA (Eq.1), DREs are calculated through the subtraction of the RADON (dust-radiation
365 interaction is activated) from the RADOFF (dust-radiation interaction is deactivated) outputs of the
366 upward (\uparrow) radiative fluxes (F) and express the loss (cooling effect or planetary cooling) or the gain
367 (warming effect or planetary warming) of energy within the Earth-Atmosphere system when are negative
368 and positive, respectively. At the surface, DREs are computed for both the downwelling (\downarrow) (SURF, Eq.
369 2) and the net (downward minus upward) radiation (NETSURF, Eq. 3). Both DREs indicate a dust-
370 induced surface cooling or warming when they get negative or positive values, respectively. Finally, on
371 energy within the Earth-Atmosphere system, the DRE_{ATM} is calculated by subtracting the $DRE_{NETSURF}$
372 from the DRE_{TOA} values (Eq. 4) and quantifies the impact (warming or cooling) of dust outbreaks on the
373 atmospheric radiation budget. The DREs are based on the subtraction of two independent model runs.
374 Therefore, our results represent the radiative anomalies by dust aerosols including both the direct effect
375 and the fast response of atmospheric constituents such as humidity and clouds (semi-direct effects). DREs
376 are analyzed both at grid point (geographical distributions) and at regional scale levels and the obtained
377 results will be discussed in Section 5.2.

378

379 5. Results

380

381 5.1. Comparison of model and satellite AODs

382

383 Before dealing with the DREs, the ability of the model to reproduce satisfactorily the dust AOD fields
384 is assessed using MODIS-Terra AOD_{550nm} retrievals as reference data. The results of the intercomparison
385 between the daily satellite AODs (left column in Fig. 3) and the modelled (right column in Fig. 3) dust
386 AODs at 12 UTC are presented here for three of the 20 identified desert dust outbreaks (see Section 2),
387 which took place on 2nd March 2005 (upper row in Fig. 3), 19th May 2008 (middle row in Fig. 3) and 2nd
388 August 2012 (bottom row in Fig. 3) and affected the eastern, central and western parts of the
389 Mediterranean basin, respectively. The corresponding maps for the remaining 17 cases are illustrated in
390 Figure S1. Note, that the evaluation of the model outputs versus the satellite measurements is restricted
391 within the geographical limits of the MSD (red rectangle in Fig. 1), since the satellite algorithm used for
392 identification of the desert dust outbreaks is applied only to this region (see Section 2).

393 According to the MODIS-Terra observations on 2nd March 2005, a dust plume extends from the Gulf
394 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



395 is able to reproduce satisfactorily the spatial patterns of AOD on this day, with high dust AOD_{550nm} values
396 (1-4) extending from Algeria to the Black Sea, affecting the eastern parts of the Mediterranean Sea. There
397 is a good agreement between the model and the satellite over areas where the satellite measurements are
398 available, highlighting the ability of the model to capture satisfactorily the spatial features of dust loads.
399 Nevertheless, several factors affect the level of agreement between model outputs and satellite
400 observations and for this reason only a qualitative intercomparison is attempted. The most important of
401 them are related to the differences regarding the spatiotemporal resolution and the aerosol optical depth
402 product. MODIS provides daily total AODs at 1° x 1° spatial resolution in contrast to the NMMB-
403 MONARCH model which produces instantaneous dust AODs at 0.25° x 0.25° spatial resolution.
404 Moreover, due to the inability of the MODIS Dark Target (DT) algorithm to retrieve aerosol optical
405 properties over desert areas as well as under cloudy conditions, in a significant part of the study region
406 there are not available satellite observations (white areas in Figs. 3 i-a, ii-a and iii-a) restricting thus their
407 comparison with the model outputs which provide full spatial coverage.

408 The second desert dust outbreak occurred on 19th May 2008 and affected the central sector of the
409 MSD. According to MODIS (Fig. 3 ii-a), the intensity of dust loads is maximized (up to 4) in the central
410 parts of the Mediterranean Sea (southeastern of Sicily). This is also reproduced by the model, although
411 somewhat higher AODs are found over the central and southern parts of Italy (Fig. 3 ii-b). In spite of
412 this, however, there is a clearly good model performance in reproducing the dust event that hit the central
413 Mediterranean. An ever better agreement between the model and satellite AODs, in terms of spatial
414 variability and intensity of dust loads, is found for the desert dust outbreak of August 2nd 2012, that
415 affected the westernmost parts of the Mediterranean, with highest AODs (up to 2-2.5) from the Alboran
416 Sea down to the coastal areas of Morocco (Figs. 3 iii-a,b). The model's ability to reproduce correctly the
417 spatial patterns and values of dust AODs is crucial for a successful computation of the dust DREs, since
418 DREs are determined to a large extent by AOD (e.g. Hatzianastassiou et al., 2004; Pérez et al., 2006;
419 Papadimas et al., 2012).

420

421 5.2. Direct radiative effects (DREs)

422

423 5.2.1. Geographical distributions

424

425 For each desert dust outbreak, the TOA, ATM, SURF and NETSURF DREs have been computed for
426 the SW, LW and NET radiation, according to the formulas presented in Section 4. Just as an example, in
427 Figure 4 are illustrated the geographical patterns of the instantaneous NET (SW+LW) DRE_{TOA} (second
428 column), DRE_{ATM} (third column), DRE_{SURF} (fourth column) and DRE_{NETSURF} (fifth column) values, at



429 12 h (first row), 24 h (second row), 36 h (third row) and 48 h (fourth row) after the initialization of the
430 model forecast on 2nd August 2012 at 00 UTC, along with the simulated patterns of dust AOD at 550 nm
431 on the same day and time (first column). For brevity reasons only the results for the all wave (NET) are
432 given, while the SW and LW DREs and their contribution to NET DREs are discussed in the regional
433 analysis (next sub-section). Moreover, for each desert dust outbreak, the minimum and maximum clear-
434 sky NET DREs at grid point level, during the simulation period, are presented in Table S1.

435 Based on the model outputs, at 12 h, an arc shaped dust plume affected the western parts of the Sahara,
436 the Canary Islands, the maritime areas off the Moroccan coasts, the southern parts of the Iberian
437 Peninsula and the western Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 4). During the forecast period, the spatial features of
438 the desert dust outbreak do not reveal a remarkable variability, with maximum AODs (up to 3) across
439 Mali, Mauritania, Western Sahara and in the Canary Islands. According to the simulated atmospheric
440 circulation patterns (results not shown here), strong near surface winds prevail across a convergence zone
441 (in western Sahara) developed between a low pressure system with its center in Mauritania-Mali and the
442 Azores subtropical anticyclone. At 700 hPa (~ 3000 meters), the uplifted mineral particles are transported
443 towards the western Mediterranean due to the prevailing strong southwesterly winds (~30 knots) off the
444 Moroccan coasts. Similar synoptic conditions have been presented in Cluster 2 in Gkikas et al., (2015),
445 who studied the atmospheric circulation evolution related to the occurrence of desert dust episodes over
446 the Mediterranean.

447 At a first glance, it is evident that the DRE patterns are driven by those of the desert dust outbreaks
448 whereas small scale isolated features of extremely high/low DREs mainly result from slight “shifts” of
449 clouds between the two independent model runs. Moreover, it is apparent that both the sign and the
450 magnitude of DREs vary among TOA, surface and atmosphere as well as with time (day or night). It
451 must be mentioned that the limits of the DREs’ colorbars in Figure 4 are set equal to -300 and 300 Wm⁻²
452 in order to facilitate the intercomparison among the different levels within the Earth-Atmosphere
453 system, the comparison between day and night DREs and the visualization of our results. During daytime
454 (12 h and 36 h) the DREs are driven by their SW components which significantly exceed the LW ones.
455 Through absorption and scattering of solar radiation by mineral particles, the downwelling radiation at
456 the ground (SURF) is reduced by up to 308 Wm⁻², indicating a strong surface cooling (bluish colors) in
457 areas where the dust AOD is maximized like Mauritania or south Algeria. During nighttime (24 h and
458 48 h), the sign of the DRE_{SURF} values is reversed and their magnitude decreases compared to that at 12
459 h and 36 h. This is because during the night the DRE_{SURF} values are identical to the LW DRE ones, which
460 are positive, implying extra downwelling LW radiation at the surface, by up to 58 Wm⁻², emitted by the



461 overlying dust. This effect, leading to night surface warming, is more visible over specific parts of Sahara
462 that host high dust loads, e.g. in its western parts. The geographical patterns of $DRE_{NETSURF}$ are very
463 similar to those of DRE_{SURF} , as expected, since they only differ by the net upward radiation at the surface,
464 which in turn is determined by surface albedo and temperature. DRE for NETSURF expresses the amount
465 of radiation absorbed at the ground and is calculated through the subtraction of the upward from the
466 downward surface radiative fluxes (see Eq. 3). Therefore, the differences between DRE_{SURF} and
467 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ are regulated by the upward component, which in turn is determined by the surface albedo
468 and temperature for the SW and LW radiation, respectively. For this reason, the negative differences (i.e.
469 $DRE_{SURF}-DRE_{NETSURF}$) at noon are maximized over highly reflective areas, while the positive ones at
470 night are observed in land areas where the surface cooling during sunlight hours is maximized (i.e.
471 reduction of the surface temperature during day leads to reduction of the emitted longwave radiation
472 during night). Based on our results, the negative (surface cooling) and positive (surface warming)
473 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values can reach down to -290 Wm^{-2} (eastern Atlantic Ocean) and up to 42 Wm^{-2} (western
474 Sahara) during day and night, respectively. Among our studied cases (see Table S1) the instantaneous
475 NET DRE_{SURF} and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values at noon can be as large as -589 Wm^{-2} and -337 Wm^{-2} , respectively,
476 in agreement with relevant results reported in previous studies dealing with the radiative impacts of dust
477 intrusions in the Mediterranean (Pérez et al, 2006; Remy et al., 2015), in west Africa (Heinold et al.,
478 2008; Mallet et al., 2009) and in Asia (Wang et al., 2009; Singh and Beegum et al., 2013).

479 The occurrence of desert dust outbreaks results in a strong perturbation of the atmospheric radiation
480 budget, attributed to the interaction of dust aerosols with the SW and LW radiation. More specifically,
481 during daytime (i.e. 12 h and 36 h), mineral particles absorb radiation at short wavelengths warming thus
482 the atmosphere as indicated by the positive instantaneous NET DRE_{ATM} values in Figure 4 (third
483 column), reaching up to 189 Wm^{-2} over the dust affected areas. Our calculated noon atmospheric DREs
484 (Table S1) are comparable to those reported by Heinold et al. (2008; 2011) and significantly lower
485 compared to those in Pérez et al. (2006), who found DRE_{ATM} values higher than 500 Wm^{-2} in land areas
486 with dust AOD > 3 during a desert outbreak that affected the Mediterranean on 12th April 2002. We note
487 that Pérez et al., (2006) used complex refractive indices taken from the Global Aerosol Data Set (GADS)
488 that have been shown to be excessively absorbing, which may partly explain their high DRE_{ATM} values.
489 In order to highlight the strong instantaneous atmospheric warming induced by the desert dust outbreaks,
490 we have compared our results with similar ones obtained by previous studies that have been relied on
491 long-term model simulations. Zhao et al., (2011) found that the average net atmospheric warming across
492 the Sahara Desert, over the period April-September 2006, can be higher than 30 Wm^{-2} based on regional



493 simulations of the WRF-Chem model. According to global simulations conducted at climatic scales (e.g.
494 Woodage and Woodward, 2014), dust aerosols can increase the absorbed radiation into the atmosphere
495 (warming effect) by up to 20 Wm^{-2} across the Northern Africa. Radiative transfer computations of SW
496 DRE_{ATM} for the 2000-2007 period by Papadimas et al. (2012) reported local values of a few decades up
497 to about 100 Wm^{-2} in spring and summer above the Sahara Desert. During night, negative DRE_{ATM} values
498 (down to -45 Wm^{-2} in Algeria and Mali) are computed in the dust affected areas indicating an atmospheric
499 cooling because of the emission of LW radiation by mineral particles (Wang et al., 2013b).

500 The sign and magnitude of DRE_{TOA} (Eq. 4) are regulated by $\text{DRE}_{\text{NETSURF}}$ and DRE_{ATM} . At noon and
501 above cloud-free areas, there is a distinct change of DRE_{TOA} sign over oceanic and desert areas affected
502 by dust loads (note for example the red colors over the dusty western Sahara Desert regions, e.g.
503 Mauritania, against blue colors off the African coasts). This change of the DRE_{TOA} sign is due to the
504 difference in surface albedo of the two types of surface (water and desert), in combination with dust high
505 AODs and low-to-moderate single scattering albedo enhancing solar absorption by dust above highly
506 multiple reflecting surfaces. Such a reverse of DRE_{TOA} sign has been also reported in previous studies
507 (e.g. Santese et al., 2010; Nabat et al., 2012; Papadimas et al., 2012) and is characterized by a clear
508 contrast between red and blue colors (planetary warming and cooling, respectively) over adjacent
509 continental and oceanic areas. Over highly reflective surfaces (i.e. deserts), the atmospheric warming is
510 enhanced since dust aerosols absorb not only the incoming solar radiation but also the radiation reflected
511 by the surface. At the same time, the amount of the absorbed radiation at the ground is reduced by the
512 attenuation of the SW radiation and by the increase of the back reflected radiation at the surface. The
513 combination of these processes results in a predominance of the atmospheric warming over surface
514 cooling and subsequently to positive DRE_{TOA} values (planetary warming), which can be as large as 85
515 Wm^{-2} according to our simulations (Table S1). On the contrary, when dust aerosols are suspended over
516 dark surfaces (i.e. maritime areas), the condition is reversed and negative DRE_{TOA} values down to -184
517 Wm^{-2} (Table S1) are calculated, revealing thus a strong planetary cooling. Nevertheless, the positive
518 DRE_{TOA} values exceeding 300 Wm^{-2} , which are recorded in maritime areas off the western African
519 coasts, are associated with the existence of absorbing dust aerosols superimposed over low- and mid-
520 level clouds. During night, the atmospheric cooling offsets the surface warming, both induced by the
521 desert dust outbreaks, and for this reason the DRE_{TOA} values are almost negligible (do not exceed 10
522 Wm^{-2} in absolute terms over cloud free areas) indicating an almost null dust direct radiative effect. Our
523 model computed dust induced planetary warming above western Africa is comparable to similar results
524 reported in previous studies focusing on the same or similar desert areas (e.g. Mallet et al., 2009; Pérez



525 et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2010; Nabat et al., 2012; Kalendeski and Stenchikov et al., 2016), although
526 differences also exist with regards to the magnitude or spatial DRE_{TOA} patterns. These differences are
527 attributed to the different magnitude and spatial patterns of AOD values (dust loads) associated with the
528 different studied dust outbreaks, and also to differences in dust microphysical and optical properties
529 (Colarco et al., 2014).

530

531 *5.2.2. Regional mean results*

532

533 In order to show more clearly temporal patterns, DREs were also averaged over the NSD (outer
534 NMMB Simulation Domain in Figure 1), SDD (Sahara Desert Domain, green rectangle in Figure 1) and
535 MSD (Mediterranean Satellite Domain, red rectangle in Figure 1) domains, for each desert dust outbreak,
536 separately for the NET, SW and LW radiation. Only cloud free grid points, in both model configurations
537 (RADON and RADOFF), with RADON dust AOD_{550nm} values higher/equal than 0.05 have been
538 considered in this analysis. Then, in a further step, DRE values have been averaged over the 20 dust
539 outbreaks every three hours during the forecast period (84 hours). Thus, the time series of regional mean
540 and associated standard deviation (shaded areas) clear-sky TOA (black curve), SURF (purple curve),
541 NETSURF (blue curve) and ATM (red curve) DREs are depicted in Figure 5.

542 The SW clear-sky DREs (upper row in Fig. 5) are positive in the atmosphere (ATM, warming effect)
543 and negative at the surface (SURF and NETSURF, cooling effect) throughout the entire forecast period,
544 revealing a distinct diurnal cycle with marked maximum values around noon over all three domains. A
545 careful look, however, reveals some differences between the sub-regions. Thus, in NSD (first column)
546 and SDD (second column) the maximum DRE_{ATM} values increase slightly with time from 30 to 35 Wm^{-2}
547 ², while in contrast they decrease in MSD (third column) from 30 to 22 Wm^{-2} . Respectively, the negative
548 DRE_{SURF} values (surface cooling) reach down to $-50 Wm^{-2}$ in the NMMB and the Sahara domain while
549 in the Mediterranean area reach down to $-57 Wm^{-2}$. In addition, the magnitude of DRE_{SURF} and
550 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values in NSD and SDD do not change with time, against a slight decrease in MSD to -40
551 Wm^{-2} . Hence, our results show that during the first 36 forecast hours, the computed DRE_{SURF} and
552 $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values in MSD are larger than in SDD, while SDD is the source area of dust outbreaks. This
553 can be explained by the fact that the massive dust loads originating across the Sahara “enter” very fast
554 the Mediterranean domain leading thus to higher dust AODs (Figure S2) and larger reductions of surface
555 solar radiation (DRE_{SURF} and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values). Another possible explanation can be the variability
556 of dust loads’ intensity across Sahara (SDD) and Mediterranean (MSD). In the former region, mineral
557 particles’ loads are maximum but there are many grid points in which the simulated dust AODs are equal



558 or slightly higher than the required threshold (0.05). Therefore, the regional averages of DREs in SDD
559 are “smoothed” in contrast to MSD, where the number of grid points participating in the regional
560 calculations of DREs, although is lower, moderate-to-high dust AODs are forecasted there. As it concerns
561 the SW $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values, their temporal variation is identical to the corresponding ones for DRE_{SURF} ;
562 however, the former ones are lower by up to 15 Wm^{-2} , in absolute terms. The most noticeable difference
563 between the two sub-domains (i.e. SDD and MSD) is encountered for the DRE_{TOA} at noon. Over bright
564 desert surfaces, dust outbreaks warm the Earth-Atmosphere system as indicated by the positive DRE_{TOA}
565 values (up to 3.2 Wm^{-2}) while over the darker (mostly covered by sea) surfaces of the Mediterranean, the
566 mineral particles induce a planetary cooling with DRE_{TOA} values ranging from -20 to -10 Wm^{-2} . In both
567 subdomains, the strongest planetary cooling is found at early morning and afternoon hours with negative
568 SW DRE_{TOA} values down to -14.1 Wm^{-2} and -25.1 Wm^{-2} over Sahara and Mediterranean, respectively.
569 On the contrary, DRE_{TOA} values decrease towards noon, due to increasing solar absorption and
570 decreasing scattering by dust under smaller solar zenith angles. Finally, due to the gradually decreasing
571 desert dust outbreaks’ intensity within the MSD (Figure S2-i) for increasing forecast time, their radiative
572 impacts at all levels of the Earth-Atmosphere system are reduced as well in contrast to slightly increased
573 values in SDD.

574 The regional clear-sky DREs have been also computed for the LW spectrum (middle row in Figure 5)
575 revealing reverse effects of lower magnitude (in absolute terms) with respect to the corresponding ones
576 found at short wavelengths. Due to the emission of LW radiation by the mineral particles, desert dust
577 outbreaks induce an atmospheric cooling (negative LW DRE_{ATM} values) and increase the amount of the
578 downward LW radiation at the surface (positive LW DRE_{SURF} values). Both DRE_{ATM} and DRE_{SURF} levels
579 do not reveal remarkable temporal variation ranging from -4.8 to -2.8 Wm^{-2} and from 1.9 to 4.3 Wm^{-2} ,
580 respectively, in the NSD and SDD while slightly lower values are calculated for the MSD. On the
581 contrary, from the timeseries of the LW DREs for TOA and NETSURF it is evident the existence of a
582 diurnal cycle with maximum and minimum values around noon and during nighttime, respectively.
583 Moreover, both DRE_{TOA} and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values are higher than zero, throughout the simulation period,
584 indicating a warming LW radiative effect. More specifically, regional LW DRE_{TOA} ranges from 0.1 to
585 3.4 Wm^{-2} and $DRE_{NETSURF}$ varies between 2.9 and 8 Wm^{-2} for the whole simulation domain (NSD). The
586 corresponding maximum DREs for the SDD and MSD are higher by up to 0.5 Wm^{-2} and lower by up to
587 1.2 Wm^{-2} , respectively. Dust aerosols act like greenhouse gases (Miller and Tegen, 1998) trapping the
588 outgoing terrestrial radiation while at the same time emit radiation at longer wavelengths back to the
589 ground explaining thus the positive LW DREs for TOA (planetary warming) and NETSURF (surface



590 warming). In addition, the aforementioned LW DREs (TOA and NETSURF) covariate with time
591 revealing that the sign and the magnitude of the LW DRE_{TOA} are determined by the perturbation of the
592 surface radiation budget (LW $DRE_{NETSURF}$) since the LW DRE_{ATM} values are almost constant throughout
593 the simulation period. This is in contrast to the corresponding finding for the SW radiation where the
594 dust outbreaks' impact on the Earth-Atmosphere system's radiation budget is regulated by the
595 perturbation of the radiation fields into the atmosphere (ATM) and at the surface (NETSURF). Finally,
596 between SDD and MSD stronger LW DREs are found for the former domain due to the higher dust loads
597 over the Sahara as well as due to the larger size of mineral particles close to the source areas.

598 As it has been shown from the above analysis, the dust DREs between short and long wavelengths are
599 reverse (except at TOA over the Sahara around midday) and in order to assess the impact of desert dust
600 outbreaks in the whole spectrum the regional clear-sky NET (SW+LW) DREs have been also analyzed
601 (bottom row in Fig. 5). During sunlight hours, the NET DREs result from the compensation of the SW
602 and LW effects while during night the NET and the LW DREs are equal attributed to the absence of SW
603 radiation. Based on our results, in the NSD, the DRE_{TOA} , DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} range from
604 -13.9 to 2.6 Wm^{-2} , from -43.6 to 4 Wm^{-2} , from -26.3 to 3.9 Wm^{-2} and from -3.7 to 28 Wm^{-2} , respectively.
605 In the SDD, the corresponding NET DREs vary from -11.9 to 7.1 Wm^{-2} , from -46.3 to 4.3 Wm^{-2} , from $-$
606 24.7 to 4.2 Wm^{-2} and from -4.1 to 30.2 Wm^{-2} , respectively. Over the Mediterranean, the DREs for TOA
607 range from -23.7 to 0.9 Wm^{-2} , for SURF from -53.5 to 4.1 Wm^{-2} , for NETSURF from -39.4 to 4.2 Wm^{-2}
608 2 and for ATM from -4 to 25.5 Wm^{-2} . Moreover, due to the reduction of the desert dust outbreaks'
609 intensity for increasing forecast hours (Figure S2-i) the associated direct radiative effects are also reduced
610 within the MSD.

611 At noon, the SW planetary cooling counterbalances the LW planetary warming resulting thus to
612 almost zero DRE_{TOA} values (null effect) over the whole simulation domain (NSD). On the contrary, in
613 the SDD, both SW and LW DRE_{TOA} are positive due to the higher surface albedo and the trapping of the
614 surface upward LW radiation by mineral particles, respectively, leading to a net warming of the Earth-
615 Atmosphere system. In the broader Mediterranean area (MSD), the SW effects at TOA (planetary
616 cooling) dominate over the corresponding effects at longer wavelengths (planetary warming) explaining
617 thus the negative NET DRE_{TOA} values (planetary cooling). In the atmosphere, for the three domains, the
618 negative LW DREs offset by about 12-14% the positive SW ones resulting to an overall warming effect
619 (positive NET DRE_{ATM}) around midday. Moreover, at noon, the increase of the absorbed LW radiation
620 at the ground offsets the decrease of the absorbed SW radiation by about 20-24% resulting in a NET
621 surface cooling (negative NET $DRE_{NETSURF}$) over the simulation domain. The corresponding levels for



622 the SDD and MSD vary from 25 to 28% and from 14 to 15%, respectively. In addition, the increase of
623 the downwelling LW radiation at the ground offsets by up to 8% the decrease of the downward SW
624 radiation resulting in negative NET DRE_{SURF} values across the Sahara Desert (i.e. SDD).

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. The results are similar for the three domains, as to their physical meaning,
628 i.e. dust produces a SW cooling/heating of surface/atmosphere, resulting in a planetary SW cooling,
629 against a LW heating/cooling of surface/atmosphere, yielding a planetary LW heating. At TOA, desert
630 dust outbreaks cause a net planetary cooling with clear-sky NET DRE_{TOA} values equal to -3.4 ± 5.6 , $-$
631 1.6 ± 6.1 and $-8.2 \pm 8.2 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ for the NSD, SDD and MSD, respectively. Note, that due to the very strong
632 temporal variability of DREs at TOA, the computed standard deviations are considerably higher than the
633 averages in the NSD and SDD in contrast to MSD where are equal. Yoshioka et al., (2007), based on
634 long-term simulations, reported a negative DRE_{TOA} (-4.73 Wm^{-2}) averaged over North Africa (mean dust
635 AOD equal to 0.39) and Heald et al. (2014) found that the all-sky NET DRE_{TOA} values vary from -3 to
636 4 Wm^{-2} across the Sahara for the year 2010. Woodage and Woodward (2014) and Zhao et al., (2011)
637 calculated positive DREs at TOA, averaged for the northwestern Africa, equal to 4.74 Wm^{-2} and 0.83
638 Wm^{-2} , respectively. The negative averaged NET DRE_{TOA} in SDD is attributed to the planetary cooling
639 found at early morning and afternoon hours. Wang et al. (2011) showed that when solar altitude is low
640 (i.e. high solar zenith angle) DRE at TOA is getting negative even over high-albedo deserts. Similar
641 results reported also by Banks et al. (2014), who studied the daytime cycle of dust DREs during the
642 Fennec campaign held in the central Sahara in June 2011. Our results for the DRE_{TOA} in the MSD are
643 within the ranges reported in previous studies (e.g. Valenzuela et al., 2012; Sicard et al., 2014a;b) dealing
644 with dust intrusions in the Mediterranean. From the comparison of the SW and LW DRE_{TOA} , it is found
645 that the LW planetary warming offsets the SW planetary cooling by 33.3% in the NSD, by 52.9% in the
646 SDD and by 15.4% in the MSD. In the atmosphere, mineral particles cause an overall atmospheric
647 warming with NET DRE_{ATM} levels varying from 7.3 ± 11 (MSD) to $8.3 \pm 13 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (SDD) while the offset
648 of the SW atmospheric warming by the LW atmospheric cooling ranges from 31.1% to 33.6% among
649 the study domains. On an average, dust outbreaks reduce the downwelling NET radiation at the ground
650 (DRE_{SURF}) by up to $-20.7 \pm 21.6 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (NSD), $-20.1 \pm 21.9 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (SDD) and $-22.7 \pm 23.6 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ (MSD)
651 while the corresponding $DRE_{NETSURF}$ levels are equal to $-11.6 \pm 13.4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, $-9.9 \pm 12.4 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ and $-$
652 $15.6 \pm 17.5 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, respectively. Our results for the SW and LW radiation in the SDD are in a good
653 agreement with the annual averages for the year 2008 presented by Nabat et al. (2012) over Northern



654 Africa. Santese et al. (2010), for a similar domain, calculated higher daily averages of regional SW and
655 LW $DRE_{NETSURF}$ values by up to 8 and 3 Wm^{-2} , respectively, for two dust outbreaks that took place on
656 17th and 23rd July 2003. For the DRE_{SURF} , the ratio of the LW/SW effects does not exceed 15.2% (SDD)
657 while the corresponding ratios for the $DRE_{NETSURF}$ are minimum for the MSD (23.5%) and maximum
658 for the SDD (37.7%). From the above analysis it is clear that dust outbreaks' impact at short wavelengths
659 is more pronounced than in the longwave spectrum; however, the contribution of the LW DREs to the
660 NET ones is significant or even larger, particularly over the Sahara at midday.

661

662 5.3. *Impact on sensible and latent heat fluxes*

663

664 As it has been shown in previous section, dust outbreaks exert a strong perturbation of the surface
665 radiation budget by reducing and increasing the absorbed NET radiation at the ground during day and
666 night, respectively. As a response to these disturbances, the surface heat fluxes, both sensible (SH) and
667 latent (LE), associated with the transfer of energy (heat) and moisture between surface and atmosphere,
668 also change in such a way trying to balance the gain or the loss of energy at the ground (Miller and Tegen,
669 1998). Subsequently, variations of SH and LE have impact on the components of the hydrological cycle
670 (Miller et al., 2004b) as well as on the turbulent kinetic energy and momentum transfer which in turn
671 affect near surface winds and dust emission (Pérez et al., 2006). Moreover, Marcella and Eltahir (2014)
672 and Kumar et al. (2014) have shown that due to the presence of dust aerosols into the atmosphere, the
673 daytime surface sensible heat fluxes are reduced leading to a reduction of the planetary boundary layer
674 (PBL) height.

675 Here, we are investigating the impact of desert dust outbreaks on SH and LE over the simulation
676 domain. It must be clarified that our analysis is restricted only above land areas since we are looking at
677 short-term effects and also in the existing version of the NMMB-MONARCH model the atmospheric
678 driver is not coupled with an ocean model. The time series of the regional SH and LE values, over the
679 forecast period, based on the RADON (red curve) and RADOFF (blue curve) configurations of the model
680 are presented in Figures 6-i (for SH) and 6-ii (for LE). Each curve corresponds to the mean levels
681 calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks while the shaded areas represent the associated standard
682 deviations. According to our results, SH is characterized by a diurnal variation with maximum values (~
683 $350 Wm^{-2}$) at noon and minimum ones (~ $-30 Wm^{-2}$) during nighttime (Fig. 6-i). Nevertheless, during
684 sunlight hours, the surface sensible heat fluxes simulated in the RADON experiment are lower by up to
685 $45 Wm^{-2}$ in comparison to the RADOFF outputs. At night, an opposite tendency is recorded and the



686 RADON SH fluxes are higher by up to 2 Wm^{-2} than the corresponding fluxes based on the RADOFF
687 configuration of the model. The reverse effects on SH levels, over the western parts of the Sahara,
688 between daytime and nighttime as well as the diurnal variability of their magnitude have been pointed
689 out by Zhao et al. (2011). Based on the paired t-test, the differences between RADOFF and RADON SH
690 values are statistical significant at 95% confidence level throughout the forecast period. At local scale
691 (geographical distributions), among the studied cases, in areas where the desert dust outbreaks' intensity
692 is maximized, the SH fluxes are reduced by up to 150 Wm^{-2} during day and increased by up to 50 Wm^{-2}
693 during night. Our findings are consistent with those presented by Mallet et al. (2009) and Rémy et al.
694 (2015) who analyzed the impact of dust storms on sensible heat fluxes over W. Africa and Mediterranean,
695 respectively, and substantially higher than the instantaneous perturbations of SH calculated by Kumar et
696 al. (2014), who studied a dust outbreak that occurred in northern India (17-22 April 2010).

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

712

713 *5.4. Impact on temperature fields*

714

715 Through the perturbation of the radiation by the mineral particles it is expected that desert dust
716 outbreaks will affect also the temperature fields. In order to quantify these impacts, the temperature
717 differences between the RADON and RADOFF simulations, both at 2 meters and in vertical, are
718 analyzed. In Figure 7, are displayed the RADON-RADOFF anomaly maps of temperature at 2 meters at



719 12 (i), 24 (ii), 36 (iii) and 48 (iv) hours after the initialization of the forecast period on 2nd August 2012
720 at 00 UTC. At noon, the highest negative biases (down to -4 K) are observed over land areas where the
721 intensity of dust loads is high (see the first and third row in the first column in Fig. 4) due to the strong
722 reduction of the NET radiation reaching the ground by the mineral particles. Similar findings, under dust
723 episode conditions, have been also reported by previous studies conducted for the Mediterranean (Pérez
724 et al., 2006), across the Sahara (Helmert et al., 2007; Heinold et al., 2008; Stanelle et al., 2010) and in
725 East Asia (Kumar et al., 2014; Ling et al., 2014). Over dust-affected maritime areas, due to the higher
726 heat capacity of the sea, the temperature differences between the RADON and RADOFF experiments
727 are almost negligible at these time scales. During nighttime, dust aerosols emit radiation at thermal
728 wavelengths increasing thus the near surface temperature when the dust-radiation interactions are
729 included into the numerical simulations (RADON experiment). For this reason, the RADON-RADOFF
730 temperature differences at 2 meters become positive (up to 4 K) at 24 and 48 forecast hours over land
731 areas where the “core” of the dust plume is observed. The reduction and the increase of the near surface
732 temperature during daytime and nighttime, respectively, either solely or as a combined result indicate
733 that the temperature diurnal range is reduced due to desert dust outbreaks.

734 The vertical distribution of dust layers determines their impacts on radiation with altitude which in
735 turn modify the temperature profiles (Meloni et al., 2015) and subsequently affect convection (Ji et al.,
736 2015), cloud development (Yin and Chen, 2007), precipitation (Yin et al., 2002) and wind profiles
737 (Choobari et al., 2012). In order to investigate the impacts of desert dust outbreaks on temperature fields
738 into the atmosphere, we have reproduced the altitude-latitude cross sections (up to 8 km above mean sea
739 level, m.s.l.) of RADON-RADOFF temperature differences on 4 April 2003 at 12 UTC along the
740 meridional 30° E (Fig. 8 ii-a) and on 7 March 2009 at 00 UTC along the meridional 10° E (Fig. 8 ii-b).
741 In addition, the corresponding cross sections of dust concentration (in kg m⁻³) are shown in Figures 8 i-
742 a and 8 i-b, respectively. At midday, an elevated dust layer extends from 1.5 to 6 km m.s.l., between 23°
743 N and 33° N, with dust concentrations up to 0.8x10⁻⁶ kg m⁻³ while a low elevated dust layer extends from
744 the surface up to 1.5 km m.s.l., between 27° N and 31° N, with concentrations up to 10⁻⁶ kg m⁻³ (Fig 8 i-
745 a). Based on the cross section of temperature differences (Fig. 8 ii-a), dust aerosols via the absorption of
746 solar radiation warm the atmospheric layers by up to 0.8-0.9 K between altitudes where the high-elevated
747 dust layer is located. On the contrary, below the dust cloud, mineral particles cool the lowest tropospheric
748 levels (by up to 1.3 K) by attenuating (through scattering and absorption) the incoming solar radiation.
749 Note that between the parallels 31° N and 35° N, where dust loads are recorded at low altitudes (below
750 2 km), higher temperatures by up to 0.3 K are simulated in the RADON experiment with respect to



751 RADOFF, revealing thus an atmospheric warming near surface. Also, it must be considered that in this
752 area mineral particles are suspended over sea, where the impacts on sensible heat fluxes are negligible,
753 making therefore evident the dust warming effect at low atmospheric levels in contrast to land areas
754 (parallels between 27° N and 31° N), where the near surface temperature is reduced because of the
755 reduction of the sensible heat fluxes, as it has been shown also by Pérez et al. (2006, Fig. 10). Therefore,
756 the vertical distribution of dust loads plays a significant role regarding their impact on near surface
757 temperature which in turn may affect winds and subsequently dust emission (Stanele et al., 2010; Huang
758 et al., 2014). Above the high-elevated dust layer, negative RADON-RADOFF temperature differences
759 (down to -0.3 K) are found indicating an atmospheric cooling attributed to the dust albedo effect (Spyrou
760 et al., 2013).

761 In the second example, on 7th March 2009 at 00 UTC, a dust layer extends from the southern parts of
762 the NSD domain to the northern parts of Tunisia, between surface and 4 km m.s.l. (Fig. 8 i-b). Along the
763 dust plume, moderate concentrations (up to $0.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) are simulated between 15° N and 20° N,
764 low (less than $0.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) between 20° N and 25° N while the maximum ones (higher than 2×10^{-6}
765 kg m^{-3}) are recorded between 25° N and 35° N. Due to the emission of LW radiation by mineral particles,
766 dust aerosols cool the atmospheric layers (Otto et al., 2007) in which they reside, by up to 0.8 K, and
767 increase the temperature, by up to 0.4 K, just above the dust layer. Between the bottom of the dust layer
768 and surface, positive RADON-RADOFF temperature differences (i.e. warming) up to 1.2 K are
769 calculated as indicated by the red colors following the model topography (grey shaded). Mineral particles
770 emit LW radiation and trap the outgoing terrestrial radiation explaining thus the warming effect of dust
771 outbreaks close to the ground during nighttime. Nevertheless, this near surface warming is “interrupted”,
772 being null or even reverse (i.e. cooling), in areas where the dust layer abuts the ground.

773

774 *5.5. Feedbacks on dust emission and dust aerosol optical depth*

775

776 In the present section, focus is given on the investigation of the potential feedbacks on dust AOD (at
777 550 nm) and dust emissions attributed to dust radiative effects. To this aim, the timeseries of the regional
778 averages and the associated standard deviations, throughout the forecast period (84 hours), calculated
779 from the 20 desert dust outbreaks for both parameters, based on the RADON (red) and RADOFF (blue)
780 experiments, are analyzed and the obtained results are shown in Figure 9. Over the simulation period,
781 the RADOFF dust AOD_{550nm} gradually increases from 0.31 to 0.34 in contrast to the corresponding
782 outputs from RADON that are gradually decreasing down to 0.29 (Fig. 9-i). The positive RADOFF-
783 RADON differences of dust AOD, indicating a negative feedback when the dust-radiation interactions



784 are considered into the numerical simulations, are getting evident 12 hours (0.005 or 2%) after the
785 initialization of the forecast period and amplify with time (up to 0.036 or 12%), being also statistical
786 significant (paired t-test, confidence level at 95%) at each forecast step. The observed negative feedbacks
787 on dust AOD have been also pointed out in relevant studies carried out for specific desert dust outbreaks;
788 however, the reductions of mineral particles' loads were significantly higher compared to our
789 calculations corresponding to averages of the 20 studied desert dust outbreaks. More specifically, Pérez
790 et al. (2006) found a reduction of the regional dust AOD by up to 35-45 % and in Wang et al. (2010) the
791 corresponding reductions were ranging between 10 and 45%. Through the comparison of the mean dust
792 AOD levels, calculated over the 84-h simulation period, based on RADON (0.288) and RADOFF (0.308)
793 simulations, it is revealed a statistical significant reduction by 0.02 (6.9 %) attributed to the dust radiative
794 effects. Among the 20 desert dust outbreaks, these reductions vary from 1% (22 February 2004) to 12.5%
795 (27 January 2005) and are statistical significant at 95 % confidence level in all cases.

796 A similar analysis has been also made for the dust emissions (in kg m^{-2}) aggregated over the whole
797 simulation domain (NSD, outer domain in Figure 1). First, for each case and in each forecast step, the
798 dust emissions from all grid points within the NSD are aggregated. Then, the mean and the standard
799 deviation values are computed from the 20 desert dust outbreaks which are analyzed and the overall
800 results are given in Figure 9-ii. Moreover, the total dust emissions at each forecast step are added and the
801 obtained results, separately for the RADON and RADOFF configuration of the model, are provided into
802 the parentheses in the legend of Figure 9-ii. Dust emissions are maximized around midday (Cowie et al.,
803 2014) and are very weak during night. Based on the RADOFF simulation, the highest amounts of emitted
804 dust are increased from 2 to 2.5 kg m^{-2} throughout the hindcast period. This increasing tendency is
805 encountered also in the RADON experiment; however, the dust emission is lower compared to the
806 simulation in which the dust-radiation interactions are neglected (RADOFF). The positive RADOFF-
807 RADON anomalies during daytime range from 0.1 to 0.4 kg m^{-2} and are statistical significant at 95%
808 confidence level based on the paired t-test. Therefore, desert dust outbreaks exert a negative feedback on
809 dust emission explaining thus the reduction of dust AOD. The lower amounts of emitted dust, modelled
810 based on the RADON configuration, result from a chain of processes triggered by the surface cooling
811 which decreases the turbulent flux of sensible heat into the atmosphere, weakening the turbulent mixing
812 within the PBL and the downward transport of momentum to the surface and subsequently reduces
813 surface wind speed and dust emission (Miller et al., 2004a; Pérez et al., 2006).

814 During the simulation period, the total emitted amount of desert dust is equal to 18.279 and 21.849 kg
815 m^{-2} based on the RADON and RADOFF, respectively. Therefore, desert dust outbreaks cause a negative



816 feedback on dust emissions reducing them by 3.57 kg m^{-2} (-19.5%). This reduction (i.e. positive
817 RADOFF-RADON differences) is consistent in all the studied cases of our analysis varying from 0.6 kg
818 m^{-2} (~10%, 24 February 2006) to 6.6 kg m^{-2} (~34%, 2 August 2012). Negative feedbacks on dust AOD
819 and dust emissions have been also pointed out in previous studies based on short- (e.g. Ahn et al., 2007;
820 Rémy et al., 2015) and long-term (e.g. Perlwitz et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2009) simulations. Woodage
821 and Woodward (2014) relied on climatic simulations of the HiGEM model, found a positive feedback
822 on global dust emissions which is in contradiction with findings reported in the majority of the existing
823 studies. The authors claimed that this discrepancy could be explained by the absence of mineral particles
824 with a radius larger than $10 \mu\text{m}$ in the emitted dust size distribution leading thus to an underestimation
825 of the LW effects. It must be clarified that according to our results negative feedbacks on dust emission
826 are found at a regional scale. Stanelle et al. (2010) showed that the vertical distribution of dust aerosols
827 determines their impacts on atmospheric stability and wind patterns and subsequently the associated
828 feedbacks on dust emissions which can be even positive at a local scale. This highlights the importance
829 of studying the potential feedbacks on mineral particles' loads as well as on their emissions spatially by
830 analyzing all the contributor factors.

831

832 *5.6. Assessment of the radiation at the ground*

833

834 The performance of the NMMB-MONARCH model in terms of reproducing the downward SW and
835 LW radiation is assessed using as reference data ground measurements derived from the Baseline Surface
836 Radiation Network (BSRN, Ohmura et al., 1998), a project of the Data and Assessments Panel from the
837 Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment (GEWEX, <http://www.gewex.org/>) under the umbrella of
838 the World Climate Research Programme (WCRP, <https://www.wcrp-climate.org/>). Through this analysis
839 it is attempted to quantify objectively the potential improvements of the model's predictive skills
840 attributed to the inclusion of the dust radiative effects into the numerical simulations. Globally, 59 BSRN
841 stations are installed at different climatic zones providing radiation measurements (<http://bsrn.awi.de/>)
842 of high accuracy at very high temporal resolution (1 min) (Roesch et al., 2011). For the evaluation
843 analysis, we have used the global (direct and diffuse) shortwave and longwave downwelling radiation at
844 the ground measured at 6 stations (magenta star symbols in Figure 1) located in Spain (Izana, Cener),
845 France (Palaiseau, Carpentras), Algeria (Tamanrasset) and Israel (Sede Boker).

846 In Figure 10, are presented the timeseries of the measured (red curve) SW (i-) and LW (ii-) radiation
847 at Sede Boker and the corresponding model outputs based on the RADON (black curve) and the
848 RADOFF (blue curve) experiments, for the periods 22 February 2004 00 UTC – 25 February 2004 12



849 UTC (-a) and 21 April 2007 00 UTC – 24 April 2007 12 UTC (-b). In the bottom row of Fig. 10 are also
850 provided the temporal evolution of the model dust AOD_{550nm} and the Level 2 AERONET total AOD_{500nm}
851 (red x symbols) retrieved via the O' Neill algorithm (O' Neill et al., 2003). Moreover, the AERONET
852 Ångström exponent (alpha) retrievals (denoted with green x symbols) are used as an indicator of coarse
853 or fine particles predominance into the atmosphere. For the comparison between model and observations,
854 the nearest grid point (minimum Euclidean distance) to the stations' coordinates is utilized. In Sede
855 Boker, the model's grid point elevation is 465 m being slightly lower than the AERONET (480 m) and
856 BSRN (500 m) stations, and therefore these small altitude differences do not affect substantially the
857 intercomparison results. Likewise, the SW and LW radiation are measured from 0.295 to 2.8 μm and
858 from 4 to 50 μm, respectively, while the spectral intervals in the model's radiation transfer scheme span
859 from 0.2 to 12.2 μm and from 3.3 to 1000 μm in the shortwave and longwave spectrum, respectively.
860 These differences might contribute to the level of agreement between model and observations; however,
861 are not discussed in our evaluation analysis.

862 In both examples presented here, but also for the rest of our dataset, the model captures better the
863 temporal variation of the downwelling SW in contrast to the LW radiation at the ground with correlation
864 coefficients (R) higher than 0.96 and between 0.63 and 0.85, respectively. However, the model-BSRN
865 biases vary strongly in temporal terms because of the inability of the model to reproduce adequately the
866 amount of the suspended mineral particles. For the first desert dust outbreak (left column in Fig. 10),
867 during the first forecast day, the maximum measured SW radiation is higher by about 150 Wm⁻² than the
868 simulated RADON outputs and slightly lower than the corresponding RADOFF levels. The former is
869 explained by the facts that the model reproduces the dust peak earlier than actually recorded according
870 to AERONET observations (see Figure 10 iii-a) and it develops low-level clouds (cloud fractions
871 between 0.5 and 0.6) while the latter one is attributed to the absence of dust radiative effects. For the rest
872 of the simulation period, the model overestimates and underestimates the shortwave and longwave
873 radiation, respectively, due to its deficiency to reproduce (underestimation) the amount of dust aerosols.
874 More specifically, based on AERONET retrievals, AOD and alpha levels vary from 0.2 to 0.4 and from
875 0.2 to 0.7, respectively, indicating the existence of dust loads of moderate intensity. On the contrary, the
876 simulated dust AOD at 550 is less than 0.1 in both model configurations characterized by a “flat”
877 behavior in temporal terms. Over the simulation period (22 February 2004 00 UTC – 25 February 2004
878 12 UTC), the mean SW (LW) radiation based on BSRN, RADON and RADOFF is equal to 221.6 Wm⁻²
879 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
880 consideration of the dust radiative effects, the positive model-BSRN biases in the shortwave spectrum



881 are reduced from 51.1 Wm^{-2} (RADOFF-BSRN) to 33.9 Wm^{-2} (RADON-BSRN) while the negative
882 model-BSRN biases in the longwave spectrum are reduced from -25.3 Wm^{-2} (RADOFF-BSRN) to -23.6
883 Wm^{-2} (RADON-BSRN).

884 In the second case which is analyzed (right column in Fig. 10), two peaks are simulated with dust
885 $\text{AOD}_{550\text{nm}}$ values up to 0.9 (midday on 23rd April 2007) and 0.5 (afternoon on 21st April 2007). For the
886 major one, the model clearly overestimates aerosol optical depth with respect to AERONET retrievals in
887 which AOD (red x symbols) varies between 0.2 and 0.3 and alpha (green x symbols) ranges from 0.3 to
888 0.5 while the second one cannot be confirmed due to the lack of ground observations. Note, that between
889 09 UTC and 15 UTC on 23rd April 2007, the model underestimates the SW radiation by up to 200 Wm^{-2}
890 while overestimates the LW radiation by up to 150 Wm^{-2} (maximum overestimations throughout the
891 simulation period) due to the misrepresentation of the dust AODs. Even higher model overestimations
892 of the SW radiation are observed at 12 UTC on 22 April 2007 attributed mainly to the inability of the
893 model to reproduce satisfactorily clouds, since the negative model-AERONET differences of AOD
894 cannot explain these large discrepancies in radiation. Clouds play an important role in such comparisons,
895 particularly when their features are not well reproduced by the model, leading to large overestimations
896 or underestimations, by up to 600 Wm^{-2} in absolute terms among the studied cases of the present analysis,
897 as it has been pointed out in previous studies (e.g. Spyrou et al., 2013). Finally, the model (RADON)
898 overestimation of the SW radiation reaching the ground, by up to 200 Wm^{-2} at 09 UTC on 21 April 2007,
899 is probably associated with underestimation of the simulated dust AOD since fair weather conditions are
900 forecasted and confirmed by the true color MODIS-Terra images ([http://modis-
901 atmos.gsfc.nasa.gov/IMAGES/](http://modis-atmos.gsfc.nasa.gov/IMAGES/)). For the SW radiation, the positive NMMB-BSRN biases during the
902 simulation period (21 April 2007 00 UTC – 24 April 2007 12 UTC) are reduced from 69.0 Wm^{-2} to 40.9
903 Wm^{-2} when dust-radiation interactions are activated (RADON) while lower positive biases for the LW
904 radiation are calculated (0.7 Wm^{-2}) when dust-radiation interactions are deactivated (RADOFF).
905 Summarizing, in the majority of the studied desert dust outbreaks here, positive and negative model-
906 observations biases are found for the downwelling SW (Table S1) and LW (Table S2) radiation,
907 respectively, which are reduced when the dust-radiation interactions are activated. On the contrary,
908 similar improvements are not evident on the correlation coefficients since are not found remarkable
909 differences between RADON-BSRN and RADOFF-BSRN R values (results not shown).

910

911

912



913

914 *5.7. Assessment of the temperature fields versus analysis datasets*

915

916 The forecasting performance of the NMMB-MONARCH model, except for the radiation (Section
917 5.6), has been also assessed for the temperature fields, utilizing as reference final analyses (FNL) derived
918 from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction database (<http://rda.ucar.edu/>). The evaluation
919 of both model configurations (RADON and RADOFF) against FNL temperature at 2 meters and at 17
920 pressure levels into the atmosphere is made at a regional scale for the NSD. For the former
921 intercomparison, only land grid points are taken into account since the atmospheric driver is not coupled
922 with an ocean model, while for the latter one it is not applied any criterion regarding the surface type
923 (land or sea). The evaluation of the model is made by considering grid points where the dust AOD is
924 higher/equal than 0.1, 0.5 and 1.0 representing low, moderate and intense dust load conditions,
925 respectively. In order to overcome spatial inconsistencies between model and analyses, the model outputs
926 have been regridded from their raw spatial resolution ($0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ degrees) to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees to match
927 FNL. We note that analyses datasets are only “best” estimates of the observed states of the atmosphere
928 and the surface produced by combining a model (in this case GFS) and available observations through
929 data assimilation techniques. Analysis datasets are more poorly constrained by observations over certain
930 regions including the arid and dusty ones, and more dependent on the model’s behavior. This is even
931 more relevant for surface variables such as 2-m temperature which may heavily depend on the underlying
932 model’s soil scheme.

933 In Figure 11, are presented the regional biases (model - FNL) of temperature at 2 meters for the
934 RADON (red curve) and RADOFF (blue curve) experiments, averaged from the 20 desert dust outbreaks
935 every 6 hours of the hindcast period, considering only land grid points where the dust AOD is
936 higher/equal than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0. Regardless of the dust AOD threshold, cold biases are
937 found during night and early morning hours, warm biases are calculated in the afternoon while the
938 minimum biases in absolute terms appear at noon. According to our results, under low desert dust
939 conditions (Fig. 11-i), the agreement between model and FNL is better when the dust radiative effects
940 are neglected (RADOFF) during daytime, while slightly lower RADON-FNL biases compared to
941 RADOFF-FNL ones are found during night. At noon, the RADOFF-FNL biases are almost zero (less
942 than 0.1 K) whereas negative RADON-FNL biases (down to -0.27 K) are computed due to the surface
943 cooling induced by the mineral particles. For moderate dust AODs (Fig. 11-ii), during night, the model-
944 FNL temperature biases are lower for the RADON configuration (less than 1 K) in contrast to the
945 RADOFF simulation (less than 1.4 K) and these improvements are statistically significant at 95%



946 confidence level. Nevertheless, at midday, the RADOFF-FNL biases are similar to those found for the
947 lowest dust AOD threshold (Fig. 11-i), while the model cold biases, varying from -1.15 K (84 h) to -0.55
948 K (12 h), are amplified when the dust-radiation interactions are activated (RADON). The “corrections”
949 of the near surface temperature forecasts during nighttime become more evident and statistically
950 significant, when only land areas affected by intense dust loads (dust AOD ≥ 1.0) are considered in the
951 NMMB-FNL comparison. Under these high dust AODs, the increase of air temperature at 2 meters due
952 to the dust LW DREs reduces the existing cold biases. Therefore, the improvements on model’s
953 predictability of temperature at 2 meters when accounting for dust-radiation interactions, are more
954 evident when the intensity of dust loads increases.

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

962 Based on our findings, model warm biases are found between 950 and 700 hPa where most of the dust
963 is confined (brown curve). For the lowest dust AOD threshold, these positive model-FNL biases reach
964 up to 0.245 K and 0.313 K at 24 and 48 forecast hours, respectively, when mineral particles are not
965 treated as radiatively active substance (RADOFF). On the contrary, when dust-radiation interactions are
966 activated (RADON) the corresponding biases are reduced down to 0.155 K and 0.239 K, respectively,
967 indicating a better model performance which is further supported by the fact that these improvements are
968 statistical significant (95 % confidence level). Similar but more evident results are found when the dust
969 AOD threshold increases from 0.1 to 0.5 (middle row in Figure 12). More specifically, at 24 forecast
970 hours, the RADON-FNL temperature differences do not exceed 0.321 K in contrast to the corresponding
971 biases between RADOFF and FNL which can be as high as 0.512 K. At 48 forecast hours, between
972 altitudes where the dust concentrations are maximized, the red curve (RADON-FNL) is close to the blue
973 thick line which represents the ideal score (i.e. zero biases), while the RADOFF warm biases can reach
974 up to 0.443 K. As it has been shown in Section 5.4 (see Fig. 8 ii-b), due to the emission of longwave
975 radiation by the mineral particles there is a temperature reduction within the atmospheric layers in which
976 they are confined and a slight warming above the dust layer. The former effect explains the statistically
977 significant reduction of the model warm biases between 950 and 700 hPa whereas the latter one could



978 explain the slight statistically significant reduction of the model cold biases recorded between 600 and
979 500 hPa (see Fig. 12 ii-a). For the highest dust AOD threshold, at 24 forecast hours (Fig. 12 iii-a), the
980 agreement of temperature profiles between RADON and FNL is better compared to RADOFF-FNL
981 whereas at 48 forecast hours depends on altitude (Fig. 12 iii-b). Summarizing, thanks to the consideration
982 of the dust radiative effects the predictive skills of the NMMB-MONARCH model in terms of
983 reproducing temperature fields within the atmosphere are improved. Our findings are in agreement with
984 previous studies in which similar evaluations have been made either against analyses datasets (Pérez et
985 al., 2006) or weather station observations (Wang et al., 2010; Wang and Niu, 2013).

986

987 **6. Summary and conclusions**

988

989 In the present study, the direct radiative effects (DREs) induced by 20 intense and widespread
990 Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks, that took place during the period March 2000 – February 2013,
991 have been analyzed based on short-term (84 hours) regional simulations of the NMMB-MONARCH
992 model. The identification of desert dust outbreaks has been accomplished via an objective and dynamic
993 algorithm (Gkikas et al., 2013; 2016) utilizing as inputs daily satellite retrievals, available at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$
994 spatial resolution, providing information about aerosols' load (*AOD*), size (*FF*, α) and nature (*AI*). DREs
995 have been calculated at the top of the atmosphere (TOA), into the atmosphere (ATM), and at the surface,
996 for the downwelling (SURF) and the absorbed (NETSURF) radiation, for the shortwave (SW), longwave
997 (LW) and NET (SW+LW) radiation. The obtained results have been presented through geographical
998 distributions as well as at regional level by averaging the clear-sky DREs over the whole simulation
999 domain (NSD), the Sahara Desert (SDD) and the broader Mediterranean basin (MSD) sub-domains. At
1000 a further step, the impacts of desert dust outbreaks on sensible and latent heat fluxes as well as on
1001 temperature at 2 meters and into the atmosphere have been investigated. Moreover, the potential
1002 feedbacks on dust emission and dust AOD, attributed to dust-radiation interactions, have been assessed
1003 at regional scale representative for the simulation domain used in our experiments. In the last part of our
1004 study, focus was given on the potential improvements on model's predictive skills, attributed to the
1005 inclusion of dust radiative effects into the numerical simulations, in terms of reproducing the downward
1006 SW/LW radiation at the ground as well as the temperature fields. The main findings obtained from the
1007 present analysis are summarized below.

1008

1009

1010



1011 **Direct Radiative Effects**

1012

- 1013 ➤ DREs into the atmosphere and at the surface are driven by the dust outbreaks' spatial features
1014 whereas at TOA, the surface albedo plays a crucial role, particularly under clear sky conditions.
- 1015 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks induce a strong surface cooling with instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF} values
1016 down to -589 Wm⁻².
- 1017 ➤ Similar spatial patterns are revealed for the absorbed radiation at the ground; however, the
1018 magnitude of the NET DRE_{NETSURF} values is lower in comparison with the corresponding DREs
1019 for SURF.
- 1020 ➤ Through the absorption of the incoming solar radiation by the mineral particles, dust outbreaks
1021 can increase the atmospheric radiation budget (warming effect) by up to 319 Wm⁻² around
1022 midday.
- 1023 ➤ At TOA, positive DREs up to 85 Wm⁻² are found over highly reflective surfaces indicating a
1024 planetary warming while negative DREs down to -184 Wm⁻² are computed over dark surfaces
1025 indicating a strong planetary cooling.
- 1026 ➤ During nighttime, reverse effects of lower magnitude are found into the atmosphere and at the
1027 surface with maximum instantaneous NET DRE_{SURF}, DRE_{NETSURF} and DRE_{ATM} values equal to
1028 83 Wm⁻², 50 Wm⁻² and -61 Wm⁻² whereas at TOA due to the offset of the atmospheric cooling
1029 by the surface warming, the DRE_{TOA} values are almost negligible (less than 10 Wm⁻²).
- 1030 ➤ The regional NET clear-sky DREs for the NSD range from -13.9 to 2.6 Wm⁻², from -43.6 to 4
1031 Wm⁻², from -26.3 to 3.9 Wm⁻² and from -3.7 to 28 Wm⁻² for TOA, SURF, NETSURF and ATM,
1032 respectively.
- 1033 ➤ For the regional clear-sky NET DREs at TOA, the calculated positive DREs (7.1 Wm⁻²) in the
1034 SDD and the negative DREs (-15 Wm⁻²) in the MSD at noon indicate a planetary warming and
1035 cooling in the Sahara and in the Mediterranean, respectively.
- 1036 ➤ Over the 84 hours forecast period, the LW surface warming offsets by up to 37.7% the SW surface
1037 cooling whereas the LW atmospheric cooling offsets by 33.6% the SW atmospheric warming.
- 1038 ➤ At TOA, the corresponding LW/SW ratios vary from 15.4% (MSD) to 52.9% (SDD); however,
1039 the contribution of the LW DREs to the NET ones is comparable or even larger, particularly over
1040 the Sahara at midday.

1041

1042



1043 **Sensible and latent heat fluxes**

1044

- 1045 ➤ As a response to the surface radiation budget perturbations, desert dust outbreaks reduce the
1046 sensible heat fluxes (regional averages taking into account only land grid points) by up to 45 Wm^{-2}
1047 ² during daytime while reverse tendencies of lower magnitudes are found during night (2 Wm^{-2}).
1048 ➤ Locally, the aforementioned values can reach down to -150 Wm^{-2} and up to 50 Wm^{-2} .
1049 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks reduce also the surface latent heat fluxes by up to 4 Wm^{-2} and 100 Wm^{-2}
1050 ² at a regional and grid point level, respectively. At night, the regional and the instantaneous LE
1051 levels are increased by up to 0.5 Wm^{-2} and 30 Wm^{-2} , respectively.

1052

1053 **Impact on temperature fields**

1054

- 1055 ➤ Due to the attenuation of the incoming solar radiation and the emission of radiation at thermal
1056 wavelengths, both induced by dust aerosols, temperature at 2 meters reduces and increases during
1057 day and night, respectively, by up to 4 K in absolute terms in land areas where the dust loads are
1058 maximized (AODs higher than 2).
1059 ➤ At noon, dust outbreaks warm the atmosphere by up to 0.9 K between altitudes where elevated
1060 dust layers are located and cool the lowest tropospheric levels by up to 1.3 K, due to the reduced
1061 surface sensible heat fluxes.
1062 ➤ Due to the emission of LW radiation and the trapping of the outgoing terrestrial radiation by dust
1063 aerosols, the nocturnal temperature decreases by up to 0.8 K in atmospheric altitudes where
1064 mineral particles are confined, whereas between the bottom of the dust layer and the surface, the
1065 air-temperature increases by up to 1.2 K.

1066

1067 **Feedbacks on dust AOD and dust emission**

1068

- 1069 ➤ The total emitted amount of dust is reduced by 19.5% (statistically significant at 95% confidence
1070 level) over the forecast period when dust DREs are included into the numerical simulations,
1071 revealing thus a negative feedback on dust emissions.
1072 ➤ Among the studied cases, the corresponding percentages range from -34% (2 August 2012) to -
1073 10% (24 February 2006) and are statistical significant (95% confidence level) in all cases.



1074 ➤ As a consequence of the lower amount of mineral particles emitted in the atmosphere, negative
1075 feedbacks are also found on the mean regional dust AOD_{550nm} which is decreased by 0.02 (6.9%)
1076 with respect to the control experiment (RADOFF).

1077 ➤ Statistically significant reductions of the regional dust AOD_{550nm}, varying from 1% (22 February
1078 2004) to 12.5% (27 January 2005), are found in all the studied cases when dust-radiation
1079 interactions are activated (RADON).

1080

1081 **Assessment of model's predictive skills**

1082

1083 ➤ Through the evaluation of the model's forecast outputs of the downwelling SW and LW radiation
1084 at the ground against surface measurements derived by the BSRN network, it is revealed a
1085 reduction of the modelled positive and negative biases for the SW and LW radiation, respectively,
1086 attributed to the consideration of the dust radiative effects. However, model's accuracy is
1087 critically affected by its ability to represent satisfactorily clouds' spatiotemporal features
1088 highlighting thus the key role of other model errors when such comparisons are attempted.

1089 ➤ Under high dust load conditions (AODs higher/equal than 0.5), the nocturnal model-FNL
1090 negative regional biases of temperature at 2 meters are reduced by up to 0.5 K (95% statistically
1091 significant) in the RADON experiment. On the contrary, these temperature "corrections" are not
1092 evident during daytime revealing thus that other model errors (particularly those introduced by
1093 the soil model) can dominate over the expected improvements attributed to the consideration of
1094 dust-radiation interactions in the numerical simulations.

1095 ➤ The model regional warm biases found at 24 and 48 hours after the initialization of the forecast
1096 period, between pressure levels (950 and 700 hPa) where the dust concentration is maximized,
1097 are reduced by up to 0.4 K (95% statistically significant) in the RADON experiment.

1098

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1100

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1110

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1688 **Table 1:** List of the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks which have been identified based on the satellite algorithm. In
 1689 addition, the number of DD episodes (number of satellite grid cells at 1° x 1° spatial resolution where a DD episode has been
 1690 identified), the regional intensity (in terms of AOD_{550nm}) calculated from the DD episodes as well as the dust affected parts of
 1691 the Mediterranean domain are provided.

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

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1715 **Table 2:** Mean and standard deviation of clear-sky DRE_{TOA} , DRE_{SURF} , $DRE_{NETSURF}$ and DRE_{ATM} values, over the simulation
 1716 period (84 hours), calculated in the NSD, SDD and MSD domains for the SW, LW and NET radiation. Blue and red
 1717 background colors indicate negative (cooling effect) and positive (warming effect) DREs, respectively.

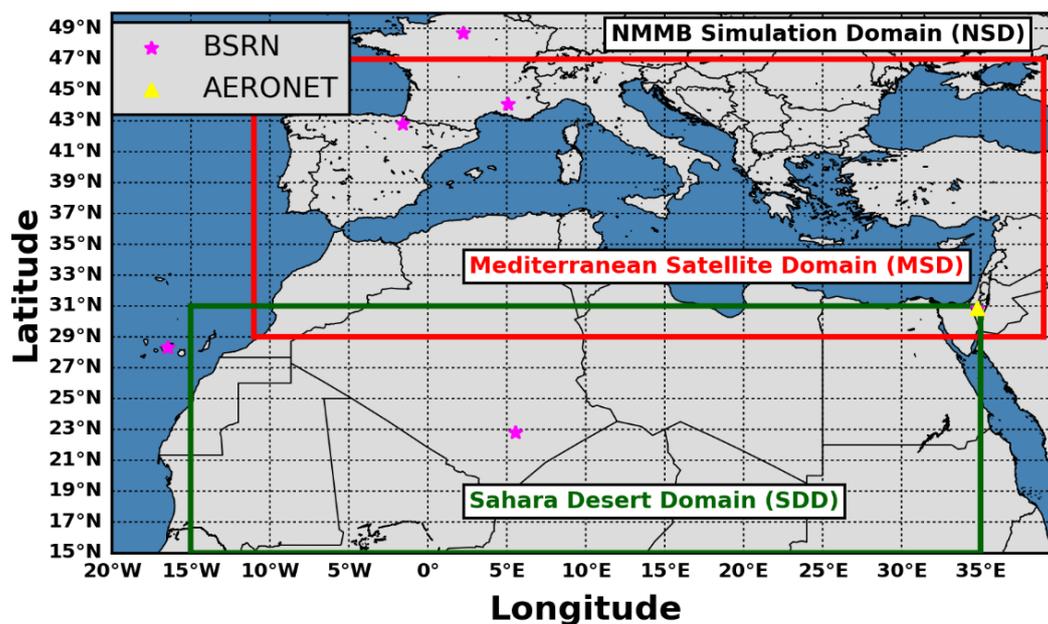
		DRE_{TOA}	DRE_{SURF}	$DRE_{NETSURF}$	DRE_{ATM}
NSD	SW	-5.1±5.9	-24±21.1	-17.1±15	12±12.6
	LW	1.7±1.3	3.3±0.7	5.5±1.8	-3.8±0.7
	NET	-3.4±5.6	-20.7±21.6	-11.6±13.4	8.2±12.2
SDD	SW	-3.4±6.1	-23.7±21.3	-15.9±14.3	12.5±13.4
	LW	1.8±1.5	3.6±0.8	6±2.2	-4.2±0.8
	NET	-1.6±6.1	-20.1±21.9	-9.9±12.4	8.3±13
MSD	SW	-9.7±8.8	-25.8±23.2	-20.4±18.5	10.6±11.2
	LW	1.5±0.8	3.1±0.8	4.8±1.2	-3.3±0.6
	NET	-8.2±8.2	-22.7±23.6	-15.6±17.5	7.3±11

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1723 **Figure 1:** Geographical limits of the: (i) NMMB Simulation Domain (*NSD*, outer domain), (ii) Mediterranean Satellite
1724 Domain (*MSD*, red rectangle) and (iii) Sahara Desert Domain (*SDD*, green rectangle). With the magenta star symbols are
1725 depicted the locations of the BSRN stations and with the yellow triangle is denoted the location of the AERONET Sede Boker
1726 station.

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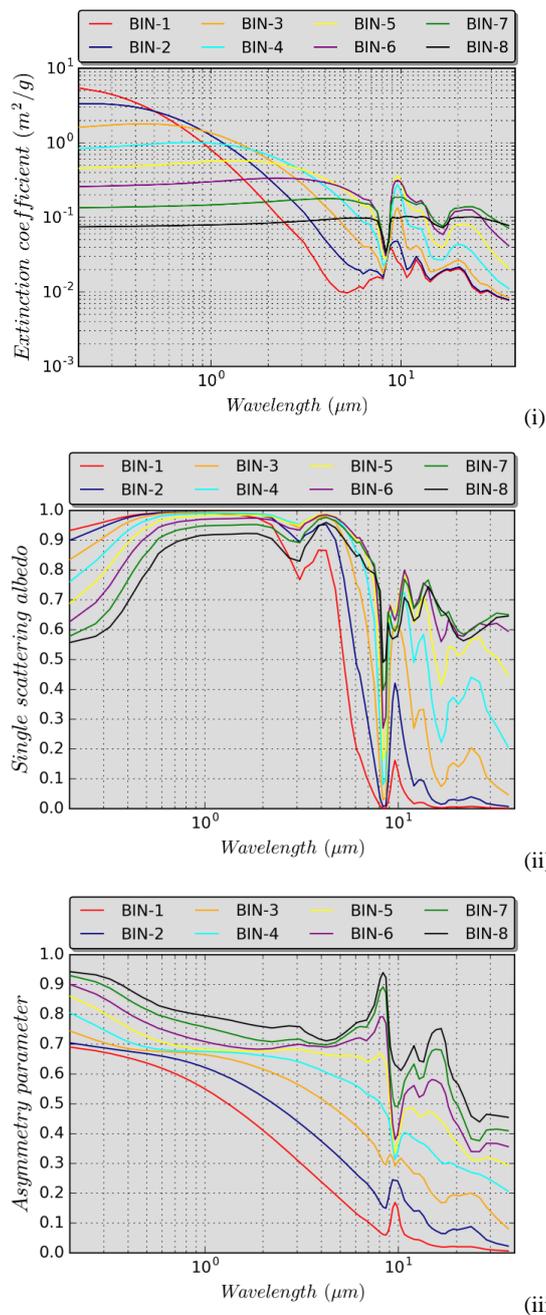
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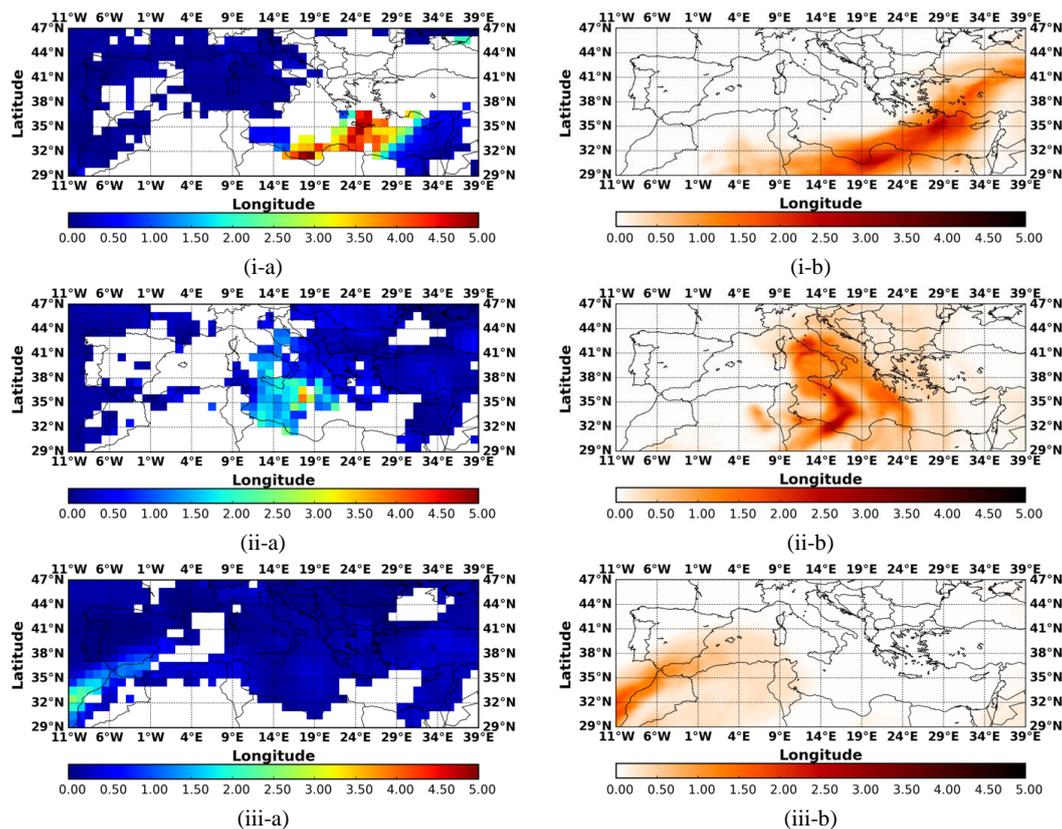
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1739 **Figure 2:** Spectral variation of the GOCART: (i) extinction coefficient (in m^2/g), (ii) single scattering albedo and
 1740 asymmetry parameter, for each one of the 8 dust bins which are considered in the dust module.

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1743 **Figure 3:** Geographical distributions of: (a) the daily averaged MODIS-Terra AOD at 550nm and (b) the simulated dust AOD
1744 at 550nm at 12:00 UTC for the Mediterranean desert dust outbreaks that took place on: (i) 2nd March 2005, (ii) 19th May 2008
1745 and (iii) 2nd August 2012.

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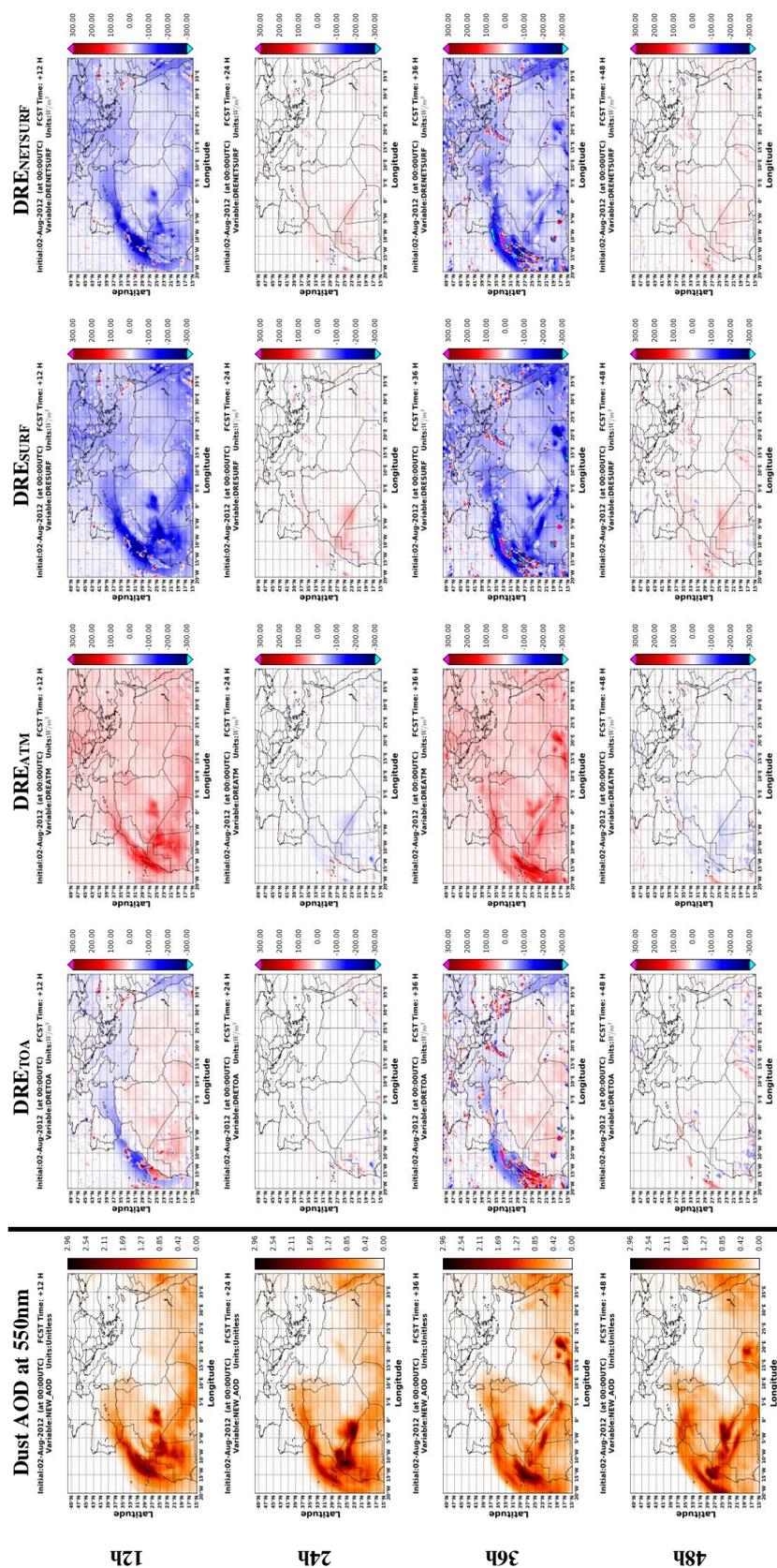


Figure 4: Spatial patterns of the simulated dust AOD_{500nm} and the instantaneous dust AOD_{500nm} and DRE_{TOA}, DRE_{ATM}, DRE_{SURF} and DRE_{NETSURF} values, expressed in Wm⁻², at 12, 24, 36 and 48 hours after the initialization of NMMB-MONARCH model at 00 UTC on 2nd August 2012.

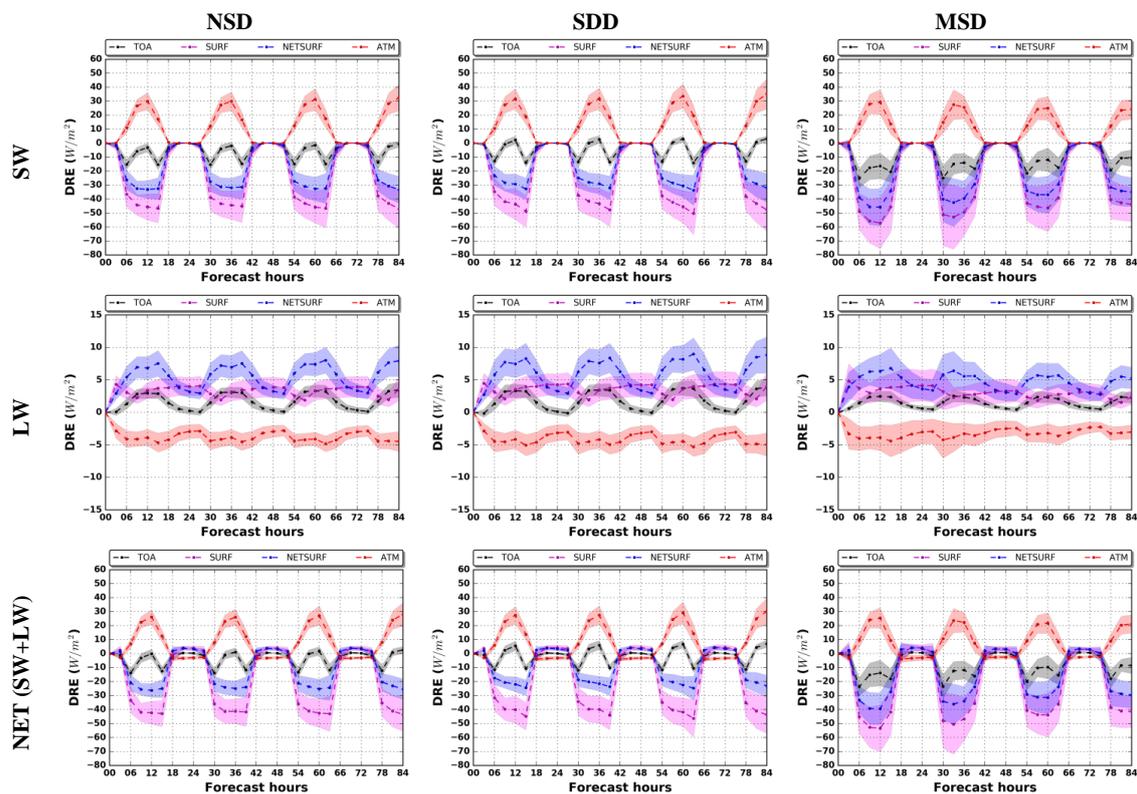


Figure 5: Regional clear-sky SW (upper row), LW (middle row) and NET (SW+LW) (bottom row) DREs at TOA (black), SURF (purple), NETSURF (blue) and ATM (red) averaged over the NSD (left column), SDD (central column) and MSD (right column) domains. The calculated DREs correspond to the mean values calculated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

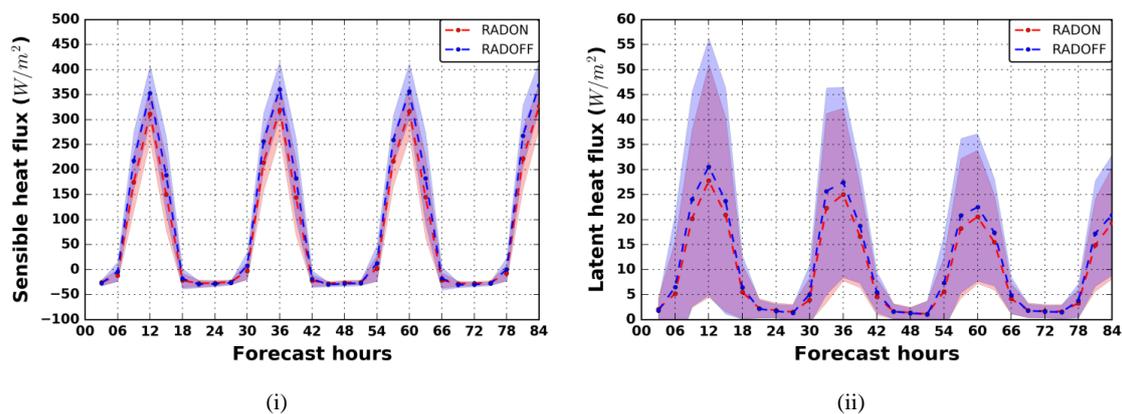


Figure 6: Regional averaged values, over land areas of the simulation domain affected by dust loads and under clear-sky conditions, of the: (i) sensible and (ii) latent heat fluxes, expressed in Wm^{-2} , based on the RADON (red) and the RADOFF (blue) configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model. The dashed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

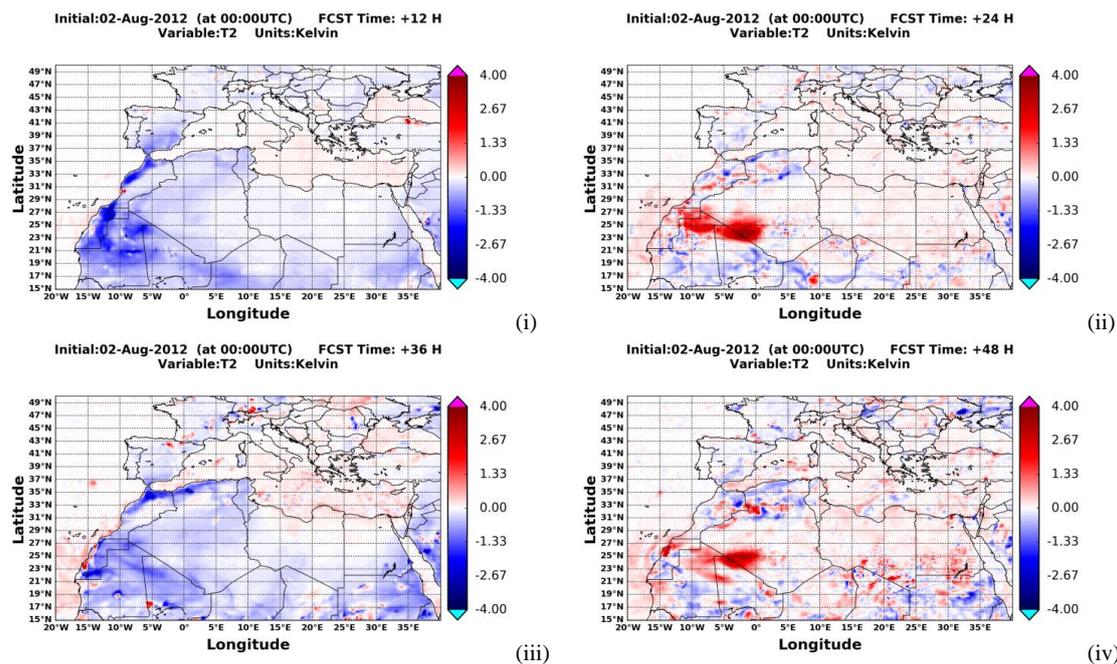


Figure 7: Spatial patterns of temperature differences at 2 meters, between the RADON and RADOFF configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model, for the: (i) 12, (ii) 24, (iii) 36 and (iv) 48 hours forecast of the 00 UTC cycle on 2nd August 2012.

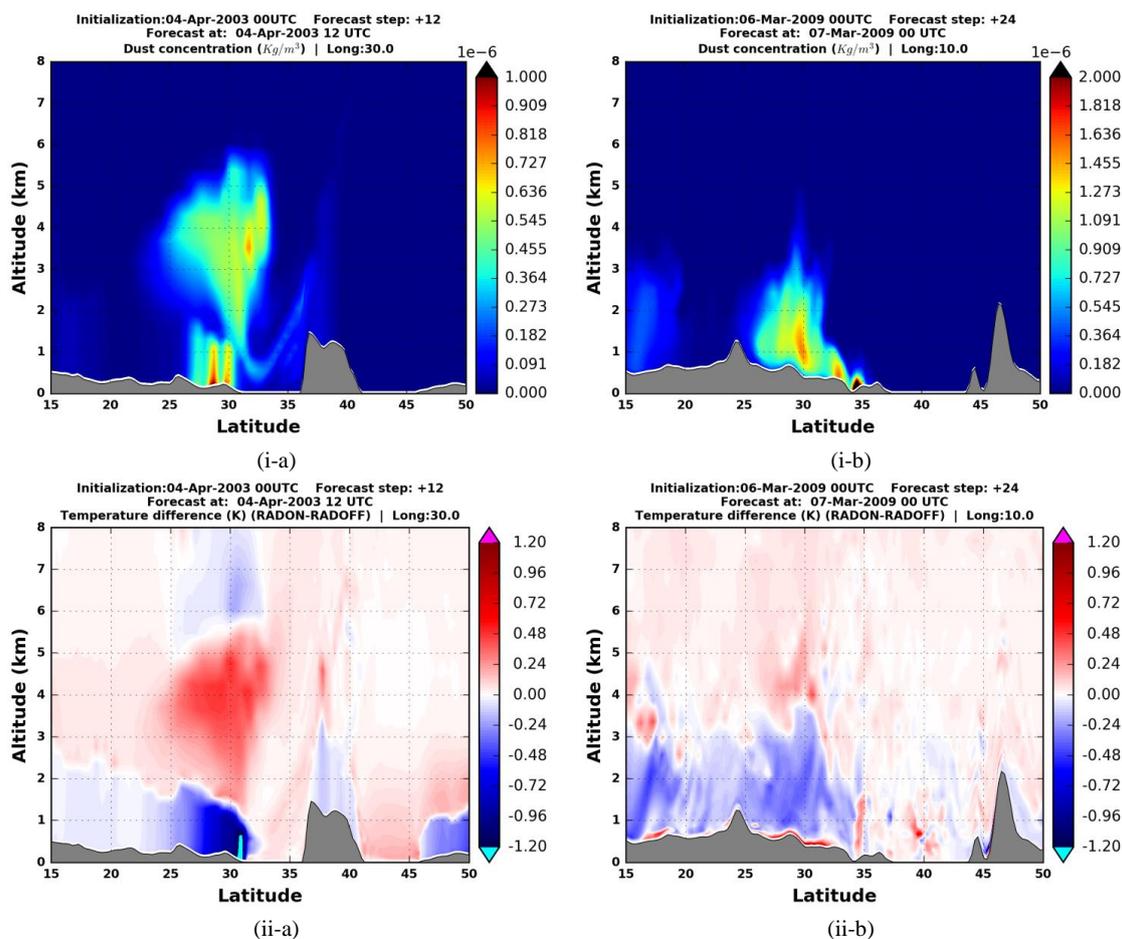


Figure 8: Altitude-latitude cross-sections (up to 8 km m.s.l.) simulated by the NMMB-MONARCH model of the: (i) dust concentration (in kg m^{-3}) and (ii) RADON-RADOFF temperature anomalies (in K) on: (a) 4 April 2003 at 12 UTC along the meridional 30° E and (b) 7 March 2009 00 UTC along the meridional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

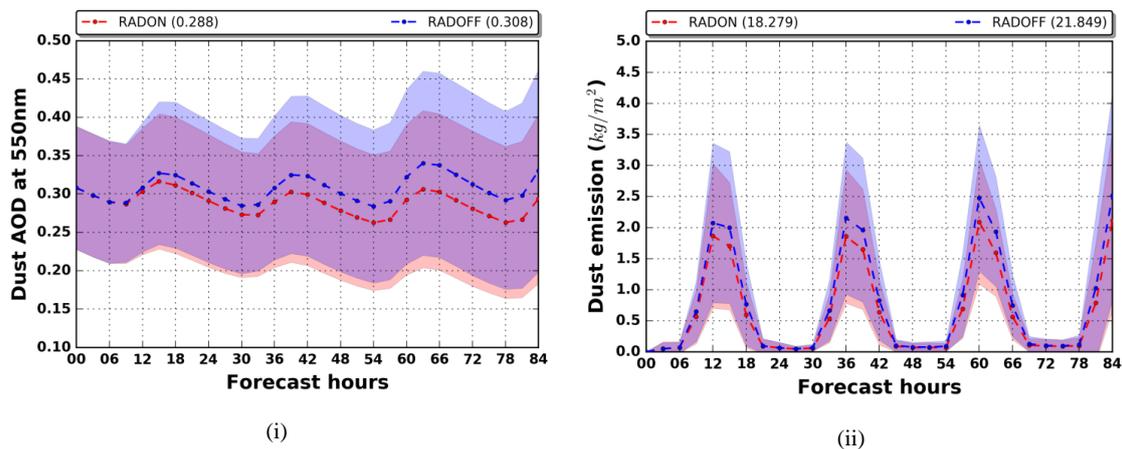


Figure 9: (i) Regional dust AOD at 550nm averaged over the simulation domain (NSD) and (ii) Regional dust emission (in kg m^{-2}) aggregated over the simulation domain (NSD). Blue and red curves correspond to the mean values, calculated from the 20 desert dust outbreaks, for the RADOFF and RADON simulations,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

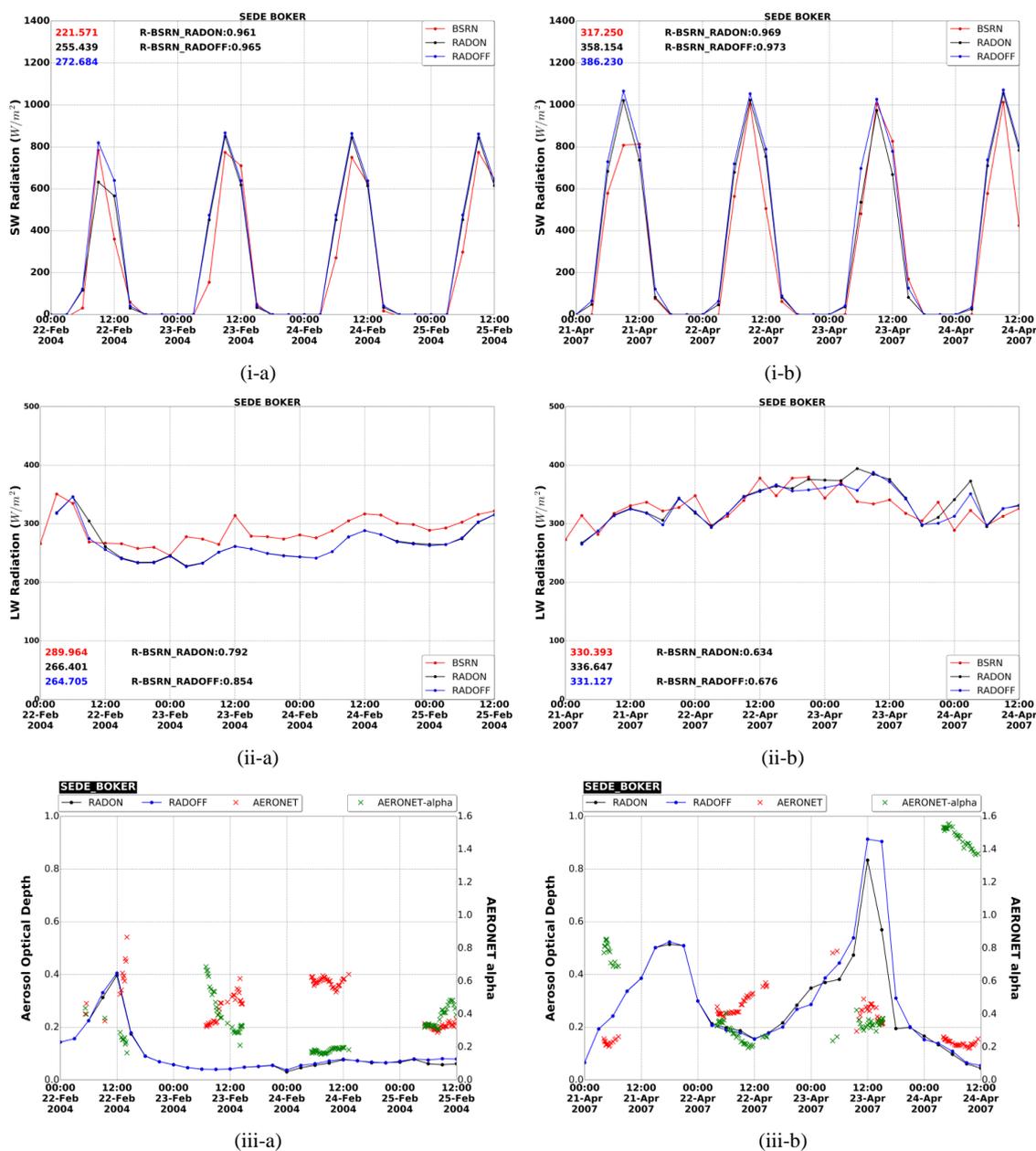


Figure 10: Timeseries of the downwelling: (i) SW and (ii) LW radiation measured at Sede Boker (red line) and simulated based on the RADON (black line) and RADOFF (blue line) configuration of the NMMB-MONARCH model during the periods: (a) 22 Feb. 2004 00UTC – 25 Feb. 2004 12UTC and (b) 21 Apr. 2007 00UTC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

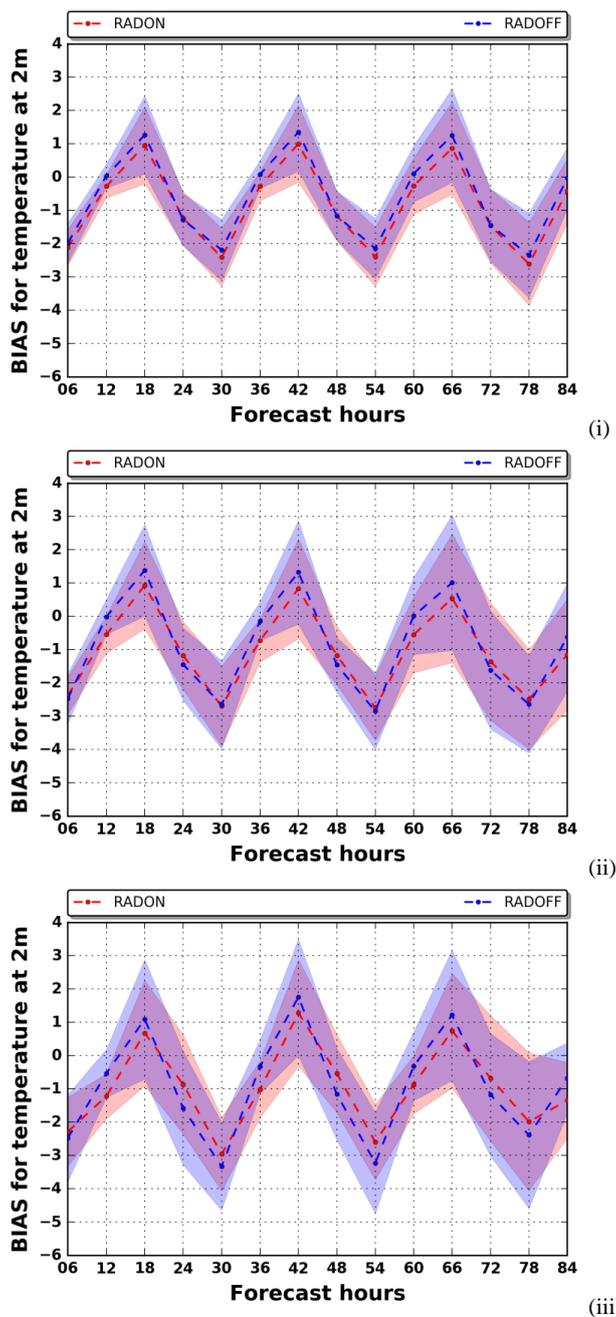


Figure 11: Regional biases of temperature at 2 meters between NMMB-MONARCH and FNL, at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees spatial resolution, calculated over land grid points of the simulation domain (NSD) in which dust AOD at 550 nm is higher/equal than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0.

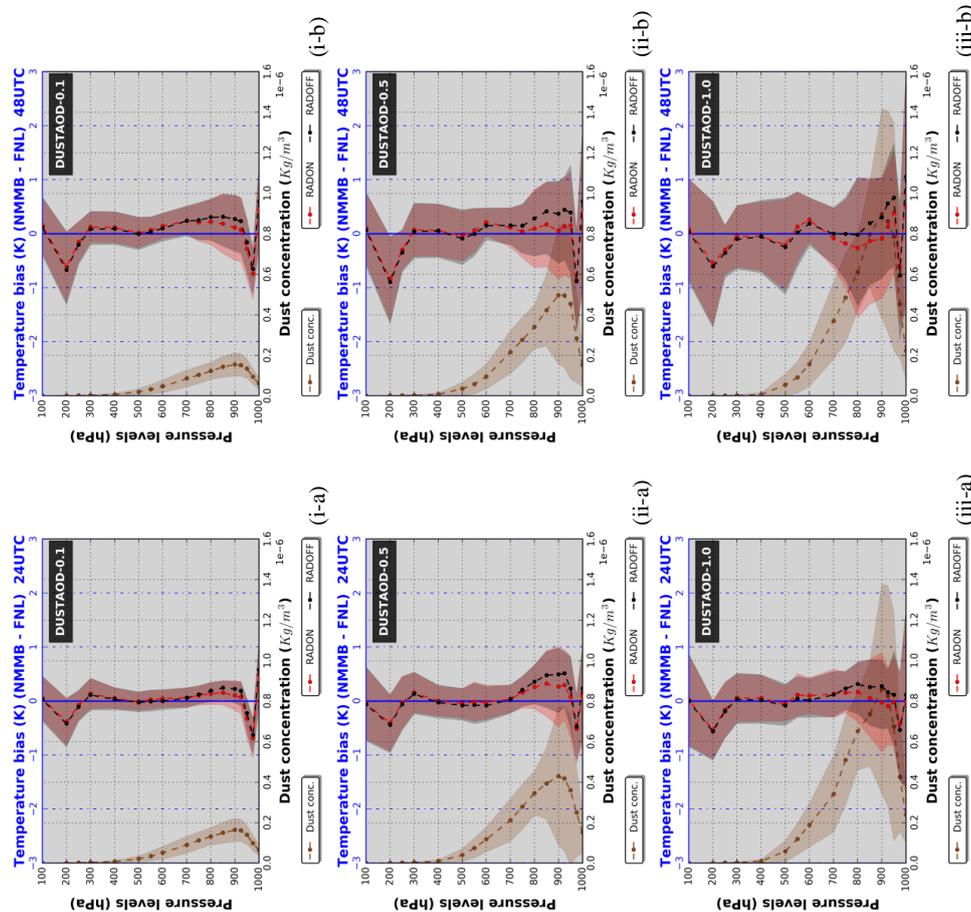


Figure 12: Vertical profiles of the regional temperature RADON-FNL (red curve) and RADOFF-FNL (black curve) biases calculated over grid points ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ degrees spatial resolution) where the dust AOD at 550 nm is higher/equal than: (i) 0.1, (ii) 0.5 and (iii) 1.0. In addition, the vertical profiles of the simulated dust concentration (in $\times 10^{-6} \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) 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.