

1 **Global dust cycle and uncertainty in CMIP5 models**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 Dust cycle is an important component of the Earth system and have been
10 implemented into climate models and Earth System Models (ESMs). An
11 assessment of the dust cycle in these models is vital to address their strengths and
12 weaknesses in simulating dust aerosol and its interactions with the Earth system
13 and enhance the future model developments. This study presents a comprehensive
14 evaluation of global dust cycle in fifteen models participating in the fifth phase of
15 the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5). The various models are
16 compared with each other and with an aerosol reanalysis as well as station
17 observations. The results show that the global dust emission in these models
18 ranges by a factor of 4-5 for the same size range. The models generally agree with
19 each other and observations in reproducing the “dust belt” that extends from North
20 Africa, Middle East, Central and South Asia, to East Asia, although they differ
21 largely in the spatial extent of this dust belt. The models also differ in other dust
22 source regions such as North America and Australia. We suggest that the coupling

23 of dust emission with dynamic vegetation can enlarge the range of simulated dust
24 emission.

25 For the removal process, all the models estimate that wet deposition is
26 smaller than dry deposition and wet deposition accounts for 12-39 % of total
27 deposition. The models also estimate that most (77-91 %) of dust particles are
28 deposited onto continents and 9-23 % of them are deposited into oceans.
29 Compared to the observations, most models reproduce the dust deposition and dust
30 concentrations within a factor of 10 at most stations, but larger biases by more
31 than a factor of 10 are also noted at specific regions and for certain models. These
32 results highlight the need for further improvements of dust cycle especially on dust
33 emission in climate models.

34

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Dust cycle is an important component of the Earth system as it has strong impacts
38 on the Earth environment and climate system (Shao et al., 2011). Dust aerosol in the
39 atmosphere significantly impacts the climate systems via various pathways, such as
40 scattering and absorbing the solar and terrestrial radiation, modifying cloud radiative
41 forcing by acting as cloud condensation nuclei and ice nucleating particles, and reducing
42 the snow albedo when depositing onto snow (Boucher et al., 2013; Forster et al., 2007;
43 Liu, et al., 2012a; Mahowald et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2018a; Rahimi et al., 2019). Dust
44 affects the biogeochemical cycle by delivering the nutrients (e.g., mineral, nitrogen, and
45 phosphorus) from dust sources to the oceans/other continents (Jickells et al., 2005;
46 Mahowald et al., 2011). Dust aerosol is also one of the main contributors to air pollution
47 that is hazardous to human health (Bell et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2012).

48 To quantify the dust impacts on Earth system, dust cycle including dust emission,
49 transport, and dry and wet deposition has been incorporated in climate models and Earth
50 System Models (ESMs) since 1990s. These models have the capability to reproduce the
51 general patterns of global dust distribution (e.g., Ginoux et al., 2001; Zender et al., 2003;
52 Yue et al., 2009; Huneeus et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012b). However, large uncertainties
53 still exist in the simulated global dust budgets in these models, as revealed by a wide
54 range of model results (e.g., Textor et al., 2006; Huneeus et al., 2011). A comparison of
55 14 different models from the Aerosol Comparison between Observations and Models
56 (AeroCom) Phase I showed the estimated global dust emission ranges from 514 to 4313
57 Tg yr⁻¹ and annual mean dust burden from 6.8 to 29.5 Tg (Huneeus et al., 2011).
58 Compared to the observations, these models from AeroCom Phase I produce the dust

59 deposition and surface concentration mostly within a factor of 10 (Huneeus et al., 2011).
60 Uncertainties of dust cycle have led to difficulty in the interpretation of climate impacts
61 of dust aerosol (Yue et al., 2010; Forster et al., 2007; Boucher et al., 2013).

62 The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) provides a
63 comprehensive dataset of meteorological variables and climate forcing agents such as
64 aerosols including dust during the period of 1850s to 2000s from a variety of climate
65 models and ESMs. Dust cycle is interactively calculated in some CMIP5 models for
66 historical climate simulations and future climate projections. Till now, only a few studies
67 have investigated dust simulations in CMIP5. Evan et al. (2014) evaluated African dust in
68 23 CMIP5 models and found the models underestimate dust emission, deposition, and
69 aerosol optical depth (AOD) and have low ability in reproducing the interannual
70 variations of dust burden. Pu and Ginoux (2018) compared the dust optical depth (DOD)
71 from 7 CMIP5 models with satellite observations from 2004 to 2016. They found that
72 these models can capture the global spatial patterns of DOD but with an underestimation
73 of DOD by 25.2% in the boreal spring, and some models cannot capture the seasonal
74 variations of DOD in several key regions such as Northern China and Australia. Wu et al.
75 (2018b) evaluated the dust emission in East Asia from 15 CMIP5 models and found that
76 none of the models can reproduce the observed decline trend of dust event frequency
77 from 1961 to 2005 over East Asia.

78 None of the above studies has investigated the global dust cycles including their
79 sources and sinks in the CMIP5 models. Therefore, this study is aimed at filling the gap
80 by presenting the strengths and weaknesses of CMIP5 models in simulating global dust
81 cycles. This study will also investigate the associated model uncertainties. As there are a

82 variety of complexities in the CMIP5 models (Flato et al., 2013), this study aims at
83 identifying the difference in simulated dust cycle as a result of these different
84 complexities. Of particular interest is that some models couple dust emission with
85 dynamic vegetation while the others calculate dust emission based on prescribed
86 vegetation conditions (Table 1), and thus the impacts of dynamic vegetation on dust
87 emission can be examined by comparing the results from these two types of models,
88 which has been rarely studied previously.

89 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the CMIP5 models,
90 including the dust emission parameterization. Section 3 describes the observation data
91 used for model validation. Section 4 presents the global dust budget and dust emission,
92 followed by evaluations of dust deposition flux and dust concentration with observations.
93 Discussion and conclusions are given in section 5.

94

95 **2. Model data**

96 Here we use the historical simulations from 15 CMIP5 models (Table 1). CMIP5
97 provides a well-coordinated framework for climate change experiments (Taylor et al.,
98 2012). The experiment design in CMIP5 is given in Taylor et al. (2009). The models in
99 CMIP5 were run with their own formulations and resolutions and CMIP5 represented a
100 variety of best-effort attempts to simulate the climate system at the time. CMIP5 results
101 have been included in the Fifth Assessment Report of Intergovernmental Panel on
102 Climate Change (Flato et al., 2013). For the historical experiment, the models were run
103 from 1850 to at least 2005 with same forcing data such as greenhouse gas, solar radiation,
104 and anthropogenic aerosol and precursor emissions (Taylor et al., 2009). All the 15

105 models used here are fully-coupled models. A brief description of these model is given in
106 Table 1 and more detailed information can be found in the references as listed.

107 An essential part of dust cycle is dust emission. The dust emission schemes used in
108 these models and the references are also listed in Table 1. Here we only provide a brief
109 summary of similarities and differences in these dust emission schemes. More details can
110 be found in the references (Cakmur et al., 2006; Ginoux et al., 2001, 2004; Marticorena
111 & Bergametti, 1995; Miller et al., 2006; Shao et al., 1996; Takemura et al., 2000, 2009;
112 Tanaka & Chiba, 2005, 2006; Woodward, 2001, 2011; Zender et al., 2003). In general,
113 these emission schemes similarly calculate dust emission based on near-surface wind
114 velocity (in terms of friction wind velocity or wind velocity at 10 m), soil wetness and
115 vegetation cover, and they mainly differ in how to account for these factors and
116 associated input parameters. In addition, to make the simulated dust patterns close to the
117 observations, the dust schemes in six models (ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-CC/ES, GFDL-
118 CM3, CESM1-CAM5, CSIRO-Mk3-6-0) further adopt a source erodibility (also called
119 source function) on dust emission. CESM1-CAM5 adopts a source erodibility from
120 Zender et al. (2003), and other five models use that of Ginoux et al. (2001). Land cover
121 data are crucial for dust modeling and they also varies in different models. Eleven models
122 use prescribed vegetation or roughness and these data are originated from different
123 studies (an example of this can be seen from the difference between MIROC4h and
124 MIROC5, shown in Section 4.2). In other four models (HadGEM2-CC, HadGEM2-ES,
125 MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM), dust emission scheme is coupled to dynamic
126 vegetation. These models use prognostic vegetation to determine the dust source regions.
127 This introduces additional degrees of freedom and thus increases the difficulty in

128 simulating dust emission in these models compared to other models with prescribed
129 vegetation that is constructed from the observation. This will be discussed in Section 4.

130 Another difference in dust emission scheme is the treatment of dust sizes including
131 the size range and mass partitioning in different sizes. 7 models (GFDL-CM3, MIROC4h,
132 MIROC5, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, MRI-CGCM3, MRI-ESM1) have the
133 same dust size range of 0.2-20 μm in diameter. 5 of the other eight models (CanESM2,
134 CESM1-CAM5, CSIRO-Mk3-6-0, GISS-E2-H, GISS-E2-R) have smaller size ranges
135 (listed in Table 1), while the remaining 3 models (ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-CC,
136 HadGEM2-ES) have the larger size range of 0.0632-63.2 μm in diameter. The impacts of
137 dust size distribution on the simulation of dust cycle will be discussed in later sections.
138 However, as only the total dust emission, deposition, and concentration for the whole size
139 range are provided, we are unable to investigate the difference in the mass partitioning
140 among different dust sizes and its evolution, which will be left for future studies.

141 Note that we select these models because they calculate dust emission interactively
142 by their dust emission schemes implemented, and meanwhile, model output of dust
143 emission flux and dust concentration are available from the CMIP5 archive. These
144 models have different horizontal resolutions (Table 1). To generate multi-model statistics
145 of dust emission intensity (Section 4.2), individual model results are interpolated to the
146 coarsest resolution among these models (i.e., $2.8^\circ \times 2.8^\circ$) using area conserve remapping
147 ([http://www.ncl.ucar.edu/Document/Functions/Contributed/area_conserve_remap_Wrap.](http://www.ncl.ucar.edu/Document/Functions/Contributed/area_conserve_remap_Wrap.shtml)
148 [shtml](http://www.ncl.ucar.edu/Document/Functions/Contributed/area_conserve_remap_Wrap.shtml), accessed on 6 June 2020).

149 Also note that not all the models have both dry and wet deposition archived and 8
150 models provide only dry (GFDL-CM3) or wet deposition flux (HadGEM2-CC,

151 HadGEM2-ES, MIROC4h, MIROC5, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, CSIRO-
152 Mk3-6-0). Therefore, for dust deposition, we derive the global total amount of dry (wet)
153 deposition by subtracting wet (dry) deposition from emission if only wet (dry) deposition
154 is available. For comparison with station observations, we will only use seven models
155 with both dry and wet deposition provided. If there are multiple ensemble simulations
156 available for a specific model, we will use the ensemble means from these simulations for
157 this model (Table 1). The historical simulations of CMIP5 cover the period of 1850-2005.
158 However, some model results prior to 1960 or 1950 are not provided in the CMIP5
159 archive (e.g., ensemble #2 and #3 from HadGEM2-CC prior to 1960 is not available;
160 MIROC4h prior to 1950 is not available). Therefore, we will focus on the period of 1960-
161 2005 to include as many models as possible and to include as many years as possible for
162 the analysis of present-day dust cycle.

163

164 **3. Reference data**

165 **3.1 Observations**

166 There are limited observational datasets that can be used for model evaluations.
167 There is no direct observation of dust emission flux, but satellite observations can provide
168 the locations of dust source regions where dust appears most frequently (e.g., Prospero et
169 al., 2002; Ginoux et al., 2012). Here we do not directly use these observations as they are
170 not available for our usage, but we will refer to the dust source map based on satellite
171 observations from previous studies (e.g., Prospero et al., 2002; Ginoux et al., 2012) and
172 qualitatively compare simulated dust emission regions with them.

173 Dust deposition is an important constraint on the global dust budget. Here we use
174 the dust deposition flux at 84 stations across the globe available from the AeroCom
175 project (Huneeus et al., 2011). The dataset is compiled from the Dust Indicators and
176 Records in Terrestrial and Marine Paleoenvironments (DIRTMAP) database (Kohfeld
177 and Harrison, 2001; Tegen et al., 2002) and the data of Ginoux et al., (2001) and
178 Mahowald et al. (1999, 2009). The observation periods varied for different stations. Dust
179 deposition from DIRTMAP is from sediment traps and following Tegen et al. (2002), we
180 only use those 41 stations with deployment period larger than 50 days. Original data of
181 Ginoux et al. (2001) contains both measurements and model estimates. We only use the
182 measurements from Ginoux et al. (2001) which consists of 10 stations and the
183 observation periods varied from 1 to 20 years (see sites # 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 14, 15, 16 in
184 Table 6 of Ginoux et al. (2001)). Data of Mahowald et al. (1999) was derived from ice
185 core data and consists of 6 stations. Except at one of station (i.e., Renland) where the
186 period was 5 years (i.e., 1813-1819 excluding 1816-1817), the exact observation periods
187 at other 5 stations were not provided and generally covered a time slice of tens of years or
188 more for current climate. In addition, Mahowald et al. (2009) further compiled 27 stations
189 from several campaigns and the observation periods mostly covered one to four years.

190 Dust concentration is a key variable that reflects both the dust emission and
191 transport. We use the monthly surface dust concentrations at 20 sites managed by the
192 Rosenstiel School of Marine and Atmospheric Science at the University of Miami
193 (Prospero, 1996). We also use the monthly surface dust concentrations measured at 2
194 other stations: Rukomechi, Zimbabwe (Maenhaut et al., 2000a; Nyanganyura et al., 2007)
195 and Jabiru, Australia (Maenhaut et al., 2000b; Vanderzalm et al., 2003). In total, there are

196 22 stations globally. These stations are generally located in the downwind of dust source
197 regions and some of them are located in the remote regions (Table 2; Figure 1).
198 Measurements at these stations are taken over a period of two to tens of years (Table 2).
199 This dataset has been widely used to evaluate global dust models (e.g., Ginoux et al.,
200 2001; Zender et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2012b) and also included in the AeroCom project
201 (Huneeus et al., 2011).

202 We consider the dataset above as a climatology although some of them did not cover
203 a long enough period such as tens of years. Therefore, for the stations with shorter period
204 of observations but large dust variability at interannual to decadal timescales, some
205 model discrepancies may be induced due to the inconsistency between these observations
206 and the model results that are averaged over a period of 45 years. We will discuss this in
207 next sections. The distribution of these stations (for dust deposition, fraction of wet
208 deposition, surface dust concentration) are shown in Figure 1. To compare model results
209 with station observations, bi-linear interpolation is used to generate the model results at
210 the stations.

211

212 **3.2 MERRA-2 reanalysis**

213 Because the station observations are limited in space coverage (Figure 1), we also
214 use the aerosol reanalysis from Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and
215 Applications, version 2 (MERRA-2) to evaluate the CMIP5 model results. MERRA-2 is
216 the latest atmospheric reanalysis produced by NASA's Global Modeling and
217 Assimilation Office (Gelaro et al., 2017). MERRA-2 assimilates more observation types
218 and have improved significantly compared to its processor, MERRA. A major

219 advancement of MERRA-2 is that it includes the assimilation of AOD (Randles et al.,
220 2017). The aerosol fields (including dust) in MERRA-2 are significantly improved
221 compared to an identical control simulation that does not include the AOD assimilation
222 (Randles et al., 2017; Buchard et al., 2017).

223 The MERRA-2 aerosol reanalysis uses increment analysis update procedure, which
224 derives 3-dimensional analysis increment for aerosol mixing ratio based on the aerosol
225 optical depth (AOD) analysis increment (Randles et al., 2017). The procedure further
226 affects the aerosol deposition flux. It should be noted that as only AOD is taken into
227 account in the aerosol assimilation, there may be discrepancies in the individual aerosol
228 components including dust concentration if the underlying aerosol model has a bias in
229 one aerosol component. This will also cause discrepancies in aerosol deposition flux that
230 depends on the aerosol concentration and deposition velocity. In addition, dust emission
231 is calculated directly from surface wind speed and soil wetness based on the dust
232 emission scheme of Ginoux et al. (2001), and there is no direct impact on emission from
233 aerosol assimilation. Therefore, there may be inconsistency between dust emission,
234 burden, and deposition. In fact, as shown in the Section 4, there is imbalance between
235 total dust emission and deposition globally and adjustment of dust emission to fit the dust
236 burden is still needed.

237 Despite the aforementioned limitations, MERRA-2 provides a well-constrained
238 global dust dataset, which is very useful for model evaluations. We will use MERRA-2 as
239 a referential data but with the knowledge of its limitation. We will use the long-term
240 means of dust-related variables during the whole period when data is available (i.e.,
241 1980-2018). Dust in MERRA-2 is treated by five size bins spanning from 0.2 to 20 μm ,

242 which are summed to provide the total values. MERRA-2 is provided at the resolution of
 243 $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$, which is similar to one CMIP5 model (MIROC4h) and finer than other
 244 CMIP5 models.

245

246 **4. Results**

247 **4.1 Global dust budget**

248 First, we present the global dust budgets in CMIP5 models. The key global budget
 249 terms include global dust emission (E ; kg s^{-1}), dust deposition (D ; kg s^{-1}), and dust burden
 250 (B ; kg), defined respectively as

$$251 \quad E = \int F_e dS \quad (1)$$

$$252 \quad D = \int F_d dS \quad (2)$$

$$253 \quad B = \int m_b dS \quad (3)$$

254 where F_e is emission flux ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$); F_d is deposition flux ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$); m_b is column dust
 255 concentration (kg m^{-2}); S is surface area (m^2). m_b is an integration of dust concentration
 256 (C ; kg m^{-3}) over the entire column:

$$257 \quad m_b = \int C dz \quad (4)$$

258 The mass equation for dust aerosols around the globe is:

$$259 \quad \int E dt = \int D dt + \Delta B \quad (5)$$

260 Or

$$261 \quad \bar{E} \Delta t = \bar{D} \Delta t + \Delta B \quad (6)$$

262 where ΔB is the change of dust burden between the start time and the end time; \bar{E} is mean
 263 global dust emission; \bar{D} is mean global dust deposition; and Δt is the cumulative time. For
 264 a long-term period, ΔB is relatively small (i.e., $\Delta B \approx 0$), then

265
$$\bar{E} = \bar{D} \quad (7)$$

266 Dust deposition can be separated into two terms: dry deposition and wet deposition.
267 According to Eq. (6), the mean dust lifetime (also called residence time; \bar{T}) can be
268 defined by assuming $\bar{E} = 0$ as:

269
$$\bar{T} = \frac{\bar{B}}{\bar{D}} \quad (8)$$

270 where \bar{B} is mean global dust burden.

271 Table 3 lists the global dust emission, wet deposition, burden, and lifetime in all the
272 15 models. Global dust emission and wet deposition is given in Tg yr⁻¹; burden is given
273 in Tg; lifetime is given in days. The area fraction of global dust emissions and ratio of
274 wet deposition to total deposition are also given. The dust size ranges considered in the
275 models are not exactly the same. Three models (ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-CC/ES)
276 consider dust particles with diameter from 0.06 to 63 μm, and estimated global dust
277 emissions range from 2218 to 8186 Tg yr⁻¹. Seven models (GFDL-CM3, four MIROC
278 models and two MRI models) consider dust particles in the diameter of 0.2-20 μm, and
279 they estimate global dust emission in the range of 735-3598 Tg yr⁻¹. The remaining five
280 models consider dust particles in diameter below 10-16 μm and they estimate global dust
281 emission of 1677-3698 Tg. If ACCESS1-0 and HadGEM2-CC/ES are excluded, these
282 estimation here are similar to those of AeroCom models in the similar size range, which
283 gave dust emissions in the range of 514-4313 Tg yr⁻¹ (Huneus et al., 2011). HadGEM2-
284 CC and HadGEM2-ES give more than twice of other CMIP5 model estimates. The larger
285 value in HadGEM2-CC and HadGEM2-ES is mainly due to the larger dust size range in
286 the models (0.06 to 63 μm). Indeed, they simulate 3300 Tg yr⁻¹ of dust emission for
287 particles smaller than 20 μm diameter (Bellouin et al, 2011), which falls between the

288 range of other estimations. However, ACCESS1.0 with the same size range as
289 HadGEM2-CC and HadGEM2-ES produces 3-4 times smaller dust mission. As shown in
290 the evaluation of surface dust concentrations in Section 4.4, HadGEM2-CC and
291 HadGEM2-ES simulate well the surface dust concentrations downwind of North Africa
292 and East Asia, but largely overestimate the surface dust concentrations in other regions
293 (by more than 5 times). This overestimation is related to the excessive bare soil area
294 simulated by the dynamic vegetation module in these models (Collins et al., 2011; Martin
295 et al., 2011), as will be shown in Section 4.2.

296 MIROC4h has the smallest global dust emission (735 Tg yr^{-1}), which is also much
297 smaller than other estimates ($1246\text{-}3598 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$) in the same size range ($0.2\text{-}20 \mu\text{m}$ in
298 diameter). MIROC4h estimate may be too low, as the MIROC4h model underestimates
299 the surface dust concentrations by more than 10 times (Section 4.4). If the estimations of
300 HadGEM2-CC, HadGEM2-ES, MIROC4h are not considered, global dust emissions in
301 CMIP5 models are in the range of $1246\text{-}3698 \text{ Tg yr}^{-1}$. The global dust emission in
302 MERRA-2 is 1620 Tg yr^{-1} , which is within the range of CMIP5 models.

303 For dust deposition, dust particles are deposited to the Earth's surface mainly by dry
304 deposition, and wet deposition accounts for 12-39% of total deposition in CMIP5 models.
305 Early model studies estimated the fraction of global wet deposition ranges from 10 %
306 (Ginoux et al., 2004) to 49 % (Luo et al., 2003). The 14 AeroCom models estimated the
307 fraction of global wet deposition in the range of 16-66 %. Therefore, this result of 12-39 %
308 lies at the middle to low end of previous estimates. The ratio of wet deposition to total
309 deposition depends on several factors, for example, dust size distribution, geographical
310 locations of dust emission regions, and climate states such as circulation and precipitation

311 (e.g., Wu and Lin, 2013). Overall, the models with largest dust size ranges (ACCESS1-0,
312 HadGEM2-CC/ES) simulate smaller fraction of wet deposition (12-19 %) than other
313 models (16-39 %). The estimated global dust burden ranges from 2.5 to 41.9 Tg, and
314 from 8.1 to 36.1 Tg when HadGEM2-CC/ES and MIROC4h are excluded. The lifetime
315 of global dust particles ranges from 1.3 to 4.4 days. The dust burden (lifetime) in
316 MERRA-2 is 20.3 Tg (4.1 days), which is larger (longer) than most CMIP5 models. The
317 fraction of wet deposition to total deposition in MERRA-2 is 38.6%, which is in the
318 upper end of CMIP5 results. There is a linear relationship (with the correlation coefficient
319 $R=0.67$, above the statistically significant level of 0.01) between global dust burden and
320 lifetime in CMIP5 models (excluding HadGEM2-CC/ES; Figure 2a), indicating a longer
321 lifetime of dust is generally associated with a larger dust burden. Linear relationship
322 ($R=0.46$, above the statistically significant level of 0.05) is also found between lifetime
323 and fraction of wet deposition (Figure 2b), which indicates that a longer lifetime
324 corresponds to a larger fraction of wet deposition in the total deposition.

325

326 **4.2 Global dust emissions**

327 **4.2.1 Spatial distributions**

328 Dust emission is the first and the foremost process in the dust cycle and determines
329 the amount of dust entrained into the atmosphere. Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution
330 of dust emission fluxes from 15 CMIP5 models and MERRA-2 reanalysis. In general, all
331 the models can reproduce the main dust sources, known as the “dust belt” that extends
332 from North Africa, Middle East, Central Asia, South Asia, to East Asia and that can be
333 seen from satellite observations (Prospero et al., 2002; Ginoux et al., 2012). This result is

334 consistent with Pu and Ginoux (2018) that investigated the global distribution of dust
335 optical depth in seven CMIP5 models. However, the models differ significantly in the
336 extent of this “dust belt”. Although a large group of CMIP5 models (GFDL-CM3,
337 MIROC5, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, MRI-CGCM3, MRI-ESM1, CSIRO-
338 Mk3-6-0, GISS-E2-H/S) simulate similarly the dust emission regions mostly over deserts
339 and adjacent arid/semi-arid regions, two of the models (MIROC4h and CESM1-CAM5)
340 simulate much smaller areas of dust emission and a few others (ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-
341 CC/ES, CanESM2) simulate more extended dust emission regions. CESM1-CAM5
342 simulates isolated dust emission regions with “hot spots” of dust emissions larger than
343 $500 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$, and dust emission in MIROC4h concentrates only over the centers of
344 deserts. In contrast, ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-CC/ES, and CanESM2 not only simulate
345 the dust emissions in deserts and adjacent regions, but also produce a considerable
346 amount of dust emissions over the East India and northern part of Indo China Peninsula,
347 which are rarely regarded as potential dust sources (Shao, 2008; Formenti et al., 2011;
348 Ginoux et al., 2012). The extent of “dust belt” can be more clearly seen when we zoom in
349 specific regions such as North Africa (Evan et al., 2014) and East Asia (Wu et al., 2018b).
350 For example, in East Asia, although the CMIP5 models can reproduce the dust emissions
351 in the deserts of northern China and southern Mongolia, they differ greatly in the edges of
352 these deserts, with three models (MIROC5, CanESM2, and CSIRO-MK3-6-0) simulating
353 dust emission over Tibetan Plateau and seven models (e.g., ACCESS1-0) simulating dust
354 emission in the southern part of North China (Wu et al., 2018b).

355 Dust sources also exist in Australia, North America, South America, and South
356 Africa, as evident from surface observations (e.g., Shao, 2008) and satellite observations

357 (Prospero et al., 2002; Ginoux et al., 2012), although the emission fluxes are smaller than
358 those in the aforementioned “dust belt”. In these regions, most models produce a
359 considerable amount of dust emissions ($>5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$), while a small group of models
360 simulate much less or even negligible dust emissions. The models differ greatly in these
361 regions. For example, in Australia, two models (MIROC-ESM and MIROC-ESM-CHEM)
362 produces little dust emissions, while seven models (ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-CC/ES,
363 CanESM2, CSIRO-Mk3-6-0, GISS-E2-H/R) produce much larger dust emissions with
364 emission fluxes higher than $10 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in a large part of the region. In North America
365 which also has some dust sources (Prospero et al., 2002; Ginoux et al., 2012; Wu et al.,
366 2018a), five models (MIROC4h, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, MRI-CGCM3,
367 MRI-ESM1) simulate little dust emissions, while four models (ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-
368 CC/ES, CanESM2) simulate dust emission fluxes exceeding $5 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ in a large part of
369 the region. Note that ACCESS1-0 and CanESM2 also produce dust emissions in the high
370 latitudes of Northern Hemisphere ($>60^\circ\text{N}$) and eastern part of South America. The
371 importance of high latitude dust is recognized recently (Bullard et al., 2016), but the
372 eastern part of South America has not been regarded as a potential dust source (Formenti
373 et al., 2011; Shao, 2008).

374

375 **4.2.2 Contributions from nine sources**

376 The contributions of dust emissions in nine different regions to global dust emission
377 is summarized in Table 4. The total amount of dust emission in North Africa and East
378 Asia have been presented in Evan et al. (2014) and Wu et al. (2018b), respectively. Here
379 we show the results for all the nine regions in the globe and their comparison. The

380 models consistently simulate the largest dust emission in North Africa, which accounts
381 for 36-79% of the global total dust emission. This is consistent with previous model
382 intercomparison of AeroCom (Huneus et al., 2011). The models also estimate large dust
383 emissions in Middle East and East Asia, which account for 7-20% and 4-19% of global
384 dust emission, respectively. The contributions from Central Asia and South Asia in
385 CMIP5 models range from 1-14% and 0.9-10%, respectively. The contributions from
386 other sources (North America, South Africa, Australia, South America) are much less
387 consistent among the models, and the largest difference is in North America (0.008-4.5%)
388 and Australia (0.02-28%) by three orders of magnitude. The large scatter of CMIP5
389 results in North America and Australia is also indicated by dust optical depth, as shown
390 in Pu and Ginoux (2018).

391 Particularly, HadGEM2-CC/ES simulate 25-28% of global dust emission from
392 Australia, which is comparable to that from sum of all Asian sources (Middle East,
393 Central Asia, South Asia, and East Asia). This estimate is unrealistically high, as will be
394 indicated by the comparison of surface dust concentrations in Section 4.4. The excessive
395 dust emission in Australia from HadGEM2-CC/ES is mainly ascribed to the excessive
396 bare soil fraction simulated by HadGEM2-CC/ES, as indicated by its comparison with
397 International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) data used in ACCESS1-0 (Figure
398 4a-4c). The overestimation of bare soil fraction in HadGEM2-ES is also illustrated in
399 Collins et al. (2011). In fact, the ACCESS1-0 model that uses the similar dust emission
400 parameterization but with the prescribed vegetation from IGBP simulates a much lower
401 dust emission than HadGEM2-CC/ES. Compared to ACCESS1.0, HadGEM2-CC/ES

402 simulate larger surface wind speed and slightly smaller soil moisture in Australia (Figures
403 4d-4i), which can also partly explain the larger dust emission in HadGEM2-CC/ES.

404 The lowest dust emission in Australia is simulated by MIROC-ESM and MIROC-
405 ESM-CHEM, which contribute only 0.02-0.03% (1 Tg yr^{-1} or less) to the total dust
406 emission. This estimate is unrealistically low as Australia is an important dust source
407 (e.g., Shao et al., 2007) and is also much smaller than previous studies (e.g., Huneus et
408 al., 2011). The low dust emission in Australia from MIROC-ESM and MIROC-ESM-
409 CHEM is related to the prognostic vegetation used for dust emission. As shown in Figure
410 5a-5d, MIROC-ESM and MIROC-ESM-CHEM simulate much larger leaf area index
411 compared to the two other MIROC family models (MIROC4h and MIROC5). With
412 smaller leaf area index, MIROC4h and MIROC5 simulate significantly higher dust
413 emissions ($\sim 1\%$ of total dust emission).

414 The contributions from nine source regions in MERRA-2 to the total dust emission
415 are within the range of CMIP5 models. MERRA-2 estimates are obtained through the
416 assimilation of meteorology in model integrations and therefore uncertainties are reduced.
417

418 **4.2.3 Normalized dust emission flux**

419 Since the amount of global dust emission differs substantially among different
420 models, the dust emission flux is further normalized by its global mean value in each
421 model for the comparison of dust emission area and intensity (Figure 6). Here the dust
422 emission area is defined as the region with normalized emission flux greater than 0.01. In
423 Figure 6, we also present the maximum normalized dust emission flux to illustrate the
424 spatial heterogeneity. Among the CMIP5 models, MIROC4h and CESM-CAM5 simulate

425 the smallest dust emission area, which are 2-3% of the global surface area, while
426 CanESM2 simulates the largest dust emission area (18% of the global surface area;
427 Figure 6 and Table 3). The maximum normalized dust emission flux is also the largest at
428 3635 and 2682 in MIROC4h and CESM1-CAM5, respectively, indicating the “hot spots”
429 with extremely high dust emission flux in the two models. The maximum normalized
430 dust emission flux is generally between 100 and 300 in other CMIP5 models and is
431 approximately 200 in MERRA-2 reanalysis.

432 The smallest dust emission area in CESM1-CAM5 is mainly because the model
433 adopts a geomorphic source erodibility with its threshold of 0.1 for the dust emission
434 occurrences (Zender et al., 2003; Wu et al., 2016). Small dust emission area in MIROC4h
435 may be mainly due to the weaker surface winds in MIROC4h compared to other three
436 MIROC family models (MIROC5, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM) (Figure 5e-5f).
437 In the dust source regions (normalized dust emission flux >0.01), the annual mean
438 surface wind speeds are 3.7, 4.4, 4.1, and 4.1 m s⁻¹, respectively in MIROC4h, MIROC5,
439 MIROC-ESM and MIROC-ESM-CHEM. MIROC4h differs much from other three
440 MIROC models in both dynamic core and physical parameterizations (Watanabe et al.,
441 2010, 2011; Sakamoto et al., 2011), which can explain the weakest surface winds in
442 MIROC4h. In North Hemisphere, MIROC4h adopts a larger leaf area index than
443 MIROC5, which can also lead to the smaller dust emission area in MIROC4h (Figure 5a-
444 5b). The largest dust emission area in CanESM2 may be due to its prescribed land cover
445 map, and/or adoption of gustiness adjustment for wind friction velocity (von Salzen et al.,
446 2013). MERRA-2 gives a value of 7.4% for the dust emission area, which is in the
447 median of all the CMIP5 model results. Note GFDL-CM3 and CSIRO-Mk3-6.0, which

448 adopt the same dust emission scheme and source erodibility (Section 2), show similar
449 dust emission regions.

450 As normalized dust emission flux is comparable among the CMIP5 models, a global
451 map of multi-model mean and standard deviation of normalized dust emission flux are
452 thus constructed and shown in Figure 7. The multi-model mean represents the general
453 consensus among the CMIP5 models while the standard deviation indicates the
454 variability among models. The relative standard deviation is calculated by the ratio of
455 standard deviation to the mean, which is shown to illustrate the uncertainty among the
456 models. Mean normalized dust emission flux is large (>10) in the desert regions in North
457 Africa, Middle East, Central Asia, South Asia, East Asia, and Australia (Figure 7a). It
458 ranges from 1-10 in the desert adjacent regions and in small regions of South America,
459 North America, and South Africa (Figure 7a). The patterns of standard deviation of
460 multi-model results are generally similar to those of mean normalized dust emission flux
461 (Figure 7b). However, the relative standard deviation is quite different from the mean
462 normalized dust emission flux, and its pattern is nearly opposite (Figure 7c). The relative
463 standard deviation is mostly below 1 in the aforementioned desert regions with larger
464 mean normalized dust emission (>10) and increases to 1-4 in other regions with relative
465 smaller dust emission, indicating the large uncertainty of estimated dust emission flux in
466 the CMIP5 models.

467 Difference of dust emission uncertainty in different regions can be explained by two
468 reasons. First, in the deserts, soil is extremely dry (below the criteria for dust emission)
469 and surface is covered with little vegetation. In these regions, the models agree with each
470 other more easily in simulating the occurrence of dust emission. In the regions adjacent to

471 the deserts or with localized sandy lands, where soil is wetter and there is more
472 vegetation cover at the surface, the models differ significantly in the parameterizations of
473 dust emission, treatment of land cover, and simulated meteorology, and thus climate
474 models differ in their estimation of dust emission more strongly. Second, there are a
475 larger variety of complexities in the CMIP5 models compared to the models participating
476 in the AeroCom intercomparison (Section 2). Some models use the dynamic vegetation
477 for dust emission (e.g., HadGEM2-CC/ES, MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM), and
478 deviate largely from other models over the regions with sparse vegetation cover such as
479 Australia. This further increases the differences in dust emission among the CMIP5
480 models.

481

482 **4.3 Dust deposition flux**

483 Dust deposition is a vital process in the dust cycle which removes dust particles
484 from the atmosphere and provides nutrients to the terrestrial and marine ecosystems.
485 Figure 8 shows the comparison of dust deposition flux at 84 selected stations between the
486 models and observations. Only seven CMIP5 models provide total dust deposition flux
487 (sum of dry and wet deposition), which are used here. The global dust emission in these
488 seven models ranges from 1600 to 3500 Tg yr⁻¹, which is at the medium level of all the
489 CMIP5 models. Observed annual mean dust deposition flux ranges from 10⁻⁴ to 10³ g m⁻²
490 yr⁻¹, indicating large spatial variabilities of dust deposition. In general, six of seven
491 CMIP5 models (excluding ACCESS1-0) reproduces the observed dust deposition flux
492 within a factor of 10 in most regions except over the Southern Ocean, Antarctica, and
493 Pacific. Over the Southern Ocean and in the Antarctica, all the models except CESM1-

494 CAM5 overestimate the dust deposition flux by more than a factor of 10 at two stations.
495 Over the Pacific Ocean, all the models except CanESM2 underestimate the dust
496 deposition flux by more than 10 times at several stations. In addition to the
497 overestimation over the Southern Ocean and Antarctica and the underestimation over the
498 Pacific Ocean, ACCESS1-0 mostly underestimate the dust deposition flux in other
499 regions with underestimation by more than a factor of 10 at several stations. Overall
500 ACCESS1-0 underestimates the dust deposition flux by approximately a factor of 2 on
501 average.

502 Similar to most of the CMIP5 models, MERRA-2 reproduces the observed dust
503 deposition flux within a factor of 10 at most stations except over the Southern Ocean and
504 Antarctica. Over the Southern Ocean and Antarctica, MERRA-2 tends to overestimate
505 the dust deposition flux by more than a factor of 10 at most stations. Compared to the
506 CMIP5 models, larger dust deposition over the Southern Ocean and Antarctica in
507 MERRA-2 may be related to the adoption of both meteorology and aerosol assimilation
508 in MERRA-2, which affects the dust transport and deposition. As mentioned in Section 2,
509 only AOD is taken into account in the aerosol assimilation for MERRA-2. Therefore the
510 large discrepancy of dust deposition at several stations in MERRA-2 may result from the
511 unrealistic representation of dust vertical profiles, size distribution, and deposition
512 process. Overall, the correlation coefficients between CMIP5 models and observations
513 (after taking the logarithms of both them; R_{\log}) range from 0.90 to 0.92 and are slightly
514 higher than that of MERRA-2 (0.87). The model biases may result from inaccurate
515 representation of underlying model processes such as dust emission, transport, and
516 deposition. The biases may also be partly explained by the consistency between the

517 observations and simulations, especially for those observation which were made at a
518 relatively short-term period (one to several years), as mentioned in Section 3.1.

519 Dust cycle can deliver nutrients from continents to oceans. Table 5 summarizes the
520 dust deposition and fraction of wet deposition onto the global surface, continents and
521 oceans, respectively in seven CMIP5 models and MERRA-2 reanalysis. Total deposition
522 in continents ranges from 1331 to 2850 Tg yr⁻¹ in seven CMIP5 models and accounts for
523 77-91 % of global total deposition. Total deposition in all the oceans ranges from 197 to
524 686 Tg yr⁻¹ and accounts for 9-23 % of global total deposition, indicating a considerable
525 uncertainty in dust deposition, which should be taken into account in modeling the
526 marine biogeochemistry with ESMs. It is interesting to mention that if ACCESS1-0 with
527 largest dust particle size range (0.06-63 μm in diameter) and largest fraction (91%) for
528 continental deposition is excluded, other six models simulate quite similar fraction of
529 continental deposition (78-83%). MERRA-2 estimates 71% (29%) of dust deposited in
530 continents (oceans), and this estimation is smaller (larger) than all seven CMIP5 models,
531 indicating MERRA-2 transport dust more efficiently to oceans. This is consistent with the
532 comparison of dust deposition flux shown in Figure 8 and may be related to the
533 assimilation of both meteorology and aerosols in MERRA-2. The fractions of wet
534 deposition (with respect to total deposition) in seven CMIP5 models are 8-33% and 49-71%
535 over continents and oceans, respectively. MERRA-2 estimates the fraction of wet
536 deposition (with respect to total deposition) 26% and 69% over the continents and oceans,
537 respectively, which lie within the range of CMIP5 models.

538

539 **4.4 Surface dust concentration**

540 Dust concentration is an important variable for its cycle. Figure 9 shows the
541 comparison of surface dust concentrations between models and observations at 22
542 selected stations. These stations are located in the downwind regions of dust sources, and
543 annual mean dust concentrations at these stations range from 10^{-1} to $10^2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. In
544 general, the models reproduce observed surface dust concentrations within a factor of 10,
545 with the exceptions of HadGEM2-CC/ES and MIROC4h. Although HadGEM2-CC/ES
546 simulate well observed surface dust concentrations at the stations over the Atlantic Ocean
547 (stations #1-4) and slightly underestimate the observations in East Asia (stations #7-8),
548 the two models significantly overestimate surface dust concentrations at most of other
549 stations especially at the station located in Australia and downwind regions (stations
550 #15-21). This is consistent with their much higher dust emission in Australia compared to
551 other models (Table 3; Section 4.2). This is also consistent with the overestimation of
552 dust optical depth in Australia by HadGEM2-CC/ES compared to satellite observations
553 (Pu and Ginoux, 2018). In contrast, MIROC4h largely underestimates surface dust
554 concentrations by 1-2 orders of magnitude at most stations. Although compared to
555 MIROC5, MIROC4h only simulates approximately 4 times lower global dust emission,
556 MIROC4h tends to concentrate all the dust emissions over smaller regions of global
557 surface (2.9% compared to 6.1%). Therefore, dust is less widely distributed in the
558 atmosphere and a smaller fraction of dust is transported to the downwind regions in
559 MIROC4h, as indicated by its almost 8 times smaller dust burden and only half the dust
560 lifetime compared to MIROC5. This difference can explain lower surface dust
561 concentrations in MIROC4h. Another reason may lie in the vertical diffusion of dust,
562 which also determines the distance of its horizontal transport.

563 Although the CMIP5 models (excluding HadGEM2-CC/ES and MIROC4h) can
564 roughly reproduce the observed magnitudes of surface dust concentrations at most
565 stations, considerable discrepancy between models and observations can be found at
566 certain regions. Most models except CanESM2 significantly underestimate dust
567 concentrations at stations in Antarctica (stations #21 and #22), with the largest
568 underestimation by more than 2 orders of magnitude in MIROC-ESM/MIROC-ESM-
569 CHEM which also simulate much lower dust emissions in Australia, South Africa, and
570 southeastern South America (Figure 3; Section 4.2). Eight models (ACCESS1-0, GFDL-
571 CM3, GISS-E2-H/R, MRI-CGCM3, MRI-ESM1, CESM-CAM5, CSIRO-Mk3-6-0)
572 largely underestimate dust concentrations by 1-2 orders of magnitude at station #6 in
573 South Africa. Three MIROC family models (MOROC5, MOROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-
574 CHEM) underestimate dust concentrations by 1-2 orders of magnitude at several stations
575 in the downwind regions of Australia (stations #14, 15, and 17). Other noticeable
576 discrepancies include underestimations in East Asia by ACCESS1-0/MIROC5,
577 underestimations over the Tropical Pacific Ocean by CESM-CAM5/GISS-H2-H/GISS-
578 E2-R, and overestimations in Australia by CanESM2.

579 Overall the correlation coefficients and mean biases between CMIP5 models and
580 observations (after taking the logarithms of both of them; R_{\log} and MB_{\log}) ranges from
581 0.55 to 0.88 and from -5.59 to 1.52 for all CMIP5 models, respectively. All the
582 correlation coefficients are statistically significant at the 0.005 level. If HadGEM2-
583 CC/ES and MIORC4h are excluded for the calculation, R_{\log} and MB_{\log} range from 0.60 to
584 0.88 and from -1.61 to 1.04, respectively. As a MB_{\log} of -0.7 (0.7) corresponds to a
585 general underestimation (overestimation) by a factor of 2, six models (MIROC5,

586 MIROC-ESM, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, CESM1-CAM5, GISS-E2-H/R) underestimate
587 surface dust concentrations by more than a factor of 2 on average, while CanESM2
588 overestimates surface dust concentrations by the similar magnitude.

589 Compared to observations, MERRA-2 simulates well the dust concentrations at all
590 stations except station #6 in South Africa. This improvement by MERRA-2 compared to
591 the CMIP5 models may be due to the inclusion of both meteorology and aerosol
592 assimilation in MERRA-2. The correlation coefficients (R_{\log}) between MERRA-2 and
593 observations is 0.91, which is larger than all the CMIP5 models, and mean bias (MB_{\log}) is
594 close to zero (0.01).

595

596 **5. Conclusions**

597 In this study we examine the present-day global dust cycle simulated by the 15
598 climate models participating in the CMIP5 project. The simulations are also compared
599 with a dataset MERRA-2 and observations of dust deposition and concentration. The
600 results show that the global dust emission in these models differs much: from 2218 to
601 8186 Tg yr⁻¹ (size range of 0.06-63 μm in diameter), from 735 to 3598 Tg yr⁻¹ (size range
602 of 0.06-20 μm in diameter), and from 1677 to 3698 Tg yr⁻¹ (size <16 μm in diameter).
603 The global dust emission ranges by a factor of 4-5 for dust particles in the same size
604 range.

605 The simulated dust emission regions also differ greatly accounting for a global
606 surface area of 2.9%-18%. The models agree most with each other in reproducing the
607 “dust belt” that extends from North Africa, Middle East, Central Asia, South Asia, to East
608 Asia, but there are large uncertainties in the extent of this “dust belt” and other source

609 regions including Australia, North America, South America, and South Africa.
610 Particularly, some models simulate little dust emissions (<0.1% of global dust emission)
611 in Australia and North America, while some other models simulate larger dust emissions
612 there which account for 10-30% and 3-4% of global dust emission in Australia and North
613 America, respectively. It is also revealed that the increasing complexity of ESMs
614 (HadGEM2-CC/ES, MIROC-ESM, and MIROC-ESM-CHEM) by coupling dust
615 emission with dynamic vegetation can amplify the uncertainty associated with dust
616 emissions.

617 Removal of dust particles in the CMIP5 models is mainly through dry deposition,
618 and wet deposition only accounts for 12-39% of total deposition. The associated dust life
619 time is about 1.3-4.4 days. A clear linear relationship between dust burden, dust lifetime,
620 and fraction of wet deposition to total deposition is present in the CMIP5 models,
621 suggesting a general consistency among these models. The models also estimate that 77-
622 91% of emitted dust are deposited back to continents and 9-23% of them are deposited to
623 the oceans. The fraction of wet deposition is smaller in most CMIP5 models and dust
624 lifetime is shorter compared to MERRA-2 reanalysis, indicating a shorter distance for
625 dust transport from its sources in most CMIP5 models. Compared to the observations, the
626 CMIP5 models (except MIRCO4h) reproduce dust deposition flux and surface dust
627 concentration by a factor of 10 at most stations. Larger discrepancies are found in the
628 remote regions such as Antarctica and Tropical Pacific Ocean. In Australia and
629 downwind regions, four MIROC family models (MIROC4h, MIROC5, MIROC-ESM,
630 MIROC-ESM-CHEM) which simulate little dust emission in Australia largely
631 underestimate the dust concentrations at stations in the remote regions. Contrarily

632 HadGEM2-CC/ES overestimate dust concentrations. MIROC4h shows the largest
633 discrepancy by underestimating the surface dust concentrations by more than a factor of
634 100 in Australia and downwind regions. Overall, although MIROC4h simulates 4-5 times
635 lower global dust emission than other three MIROC family models, MIROC4h simulates
636 on average more than 50 times smaller surface dust concentrations at 22 stations. This
637 can be ascribed to the fact that most dust emissions in MIROC4h are concentrated over
638 the desert centers, which limits the long-range transport of dust particles to the remote
639 regions.

640 These results show large uncertainties of global dust cycle in ESMs. In fact, these
641 models are fully-coupled atmosphere-land-ocean models and some of them also include
642 the dynamic vegetation. In several key regions such as Australia and North America,
643 uncertainties are larger compared to those in previous models participating in the
644 AeroCom intercomparison project where sea surface temperature is prescribed, and more
645 strictly, in some models, meteorological fields are prescribed from reanalysis (Huneeus et
646 al., 2011). Larger uncertainties in the CMIP5 models with dynamic vegetation is
647 expected, as a prognostic vegetation would depart from the observed or constructed
648 vegetation and may also lead to a large bias in soil moisture, which may thus lead to an
649 additional bias in dust emissions in these models. Uncertainties of dust simulations also
650 vary with regions, and a smaller uncertainty is found in the deserts over the “dust belt” in
651 the North Hemisphere, but a larger uncertainty exists in other regions including Australia
652 and North America. The large uncertainties of global dust cycle in the CMIP5 models
653 would cast a doubt on the reliability of dust radiative forcing estimated in these models.

654 Future work is therefore needed to identify the sources of these uncertainties and improve
655 global dust cycle in climate models.

656

657 **6. Future work**

658 Because the dust lifecycle involves various processes with the scales from
659 micrometers to tens of thousands of kilometers and consists of lots of parameters, the
660 representation of dust cycle in climate models is a big challenge for the model
661 community. Dust emission is the first and foremost process for model improvements of
662 dust cycle (Shao, 2008; Shao et al., 2011). Improving dust emission not only lies in the
663 development of dust emission scheme but also in its implementation into climate models
664 (e.g., Shao, 2008; Wu et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2019). For example, different dust emission
665 schemes with specific land cover datasets and criteria for the occurrence of dust emission
666 are adopted in the models (Table 1 and references therein). Therefore, different results of
667 dust emission among the CMIP5 models reflect the uncertainty in many aspects of the
668 model, including meteorology, soil moisture, land cover data, and dust emission
669 parameterizations, as in many previous intercomparison studies (e.g., Uno et al., 2006;
670 Textor et al., 2006; Todd et al., 2008; Huneeus et al., 2011). A close look at these factors
671 in each model will help to unravel reasons behind the biases in these models. In addition,
672 it is also helpful to setup more constrained experiments to separate the sensitivity of
673 model estimates to individual factors, by varying one single factor such as dust emission
674 scheme (e.g., Wu and Lin, 2013) and land surface scheme (e.g., Lin et al., 2012), or using
675 identical emissions (e.g., Textor et al., 2007).

676 In this study the models are only evaluated with observed dust deposition and
677 surface concentrations. Some of these observations, however, were made at a relatively
678 short period with one to several years and insufficient to represent current climatology,
679 which may partly contribute to model discrepancies (Section 4). It is desirable to collect a
680 long-term dataset. Moreover, it is also desirable to collect the observations of dust
681 emission flux and use them for model evaluation. Particularly, for dust deposition and
682 dust concentration, some biases come from dust emission and others from circulation and
683 deposition parameterizations. It is only possible to separate the contributions of different
684 processes to the biases in dust deposition and concentration, if observations of dust
685 emission are also included in model comparison. In addition, a dust aerosol reanalysis
686 could serve a benchmark data to evaluate model performance. However, the current
687 aerosol reanalysis is still not sufficient for a comprehensive evaluation of dust cycle
688 (Section 3.2). In particular, because of the limitation in dust emission, we are unable to
689 analyze the contribution of different factors such as meteorological fields and land
690 surface states to biases in dust emission. It is desirable that future aerosol reanalysis also
691 includes adjoint inversion of dust emissions using more specific observations such as
692 lidar observations as done in Yumimoto et al. (2007).

693 We have compared the global dust emission and burden among the models with the
694 same dust size range considered. It should be mentioned that dust size distribution is an
695 important parameter for dust cycle (e.g., Shao, 2008; Mahowald et al., 2014), and it is not
696 included in this study as the model data are not available. Evolution of dust size
697 distribution during dust transport and deposition is critical to our understanding of the
698 model bias in dust cycle. We suggest that the size-resolved dust emission, concentration,

699 and deposition should be outputted and provided in the latest CMIP6 project (Eyring et
700 al., 2016). Moreover, observations of size-resolved dust concentration and deposition is
701 urgently needed. A compile of available observations of dust size distribution (e.g.,
702 Mahowald et al., 2014; Ryder et al., 2018) are also required for model evaluation.

703

704 **Data availability**

705 CMIP5 results are available in <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip5/>. MERRA-2
706 is available in <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?project=MERRA-2>. Observations of
707 dust deposition and fraction of wet deposition is provided in the literature led by N.
708 Huneus (<https://www.atmos-chem-phys.net/11/7781/2011/>). Observations of surface
709 dust concentrations are provided by Joseph M. Prospero from the Rosenstiel School of
710 Marine and Atmospheric Science at the University of Miami.

711

712 **Author contributions**

713 CW and ZL designed the study. CW did the data analyses with advices from ZL and
714 XL. CW wrote the manuscript with contributions from ZL and XL.

715

716 **Competing interests**

717 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

718

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730

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1093

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1095 **Table 1.** CMIP5 model used in this study. For comparison with CMIP5 models, MERRA-2 reanalysis is also included.

No.	Models ^a	Resolution	Ensemble number	Dust size (in diameter)	Vegetation cover for dust emission	Dust emission scheme	Model reference
1	ACCESS1-0	1.3° × 1.9°	3	6 bins: 0.0632-0.2-0.632-2-6.32-20-63.2 μm	Prescribed	Woodward (2001, 2011)	Bi et al. (2013) Dix et al. (2013)
2	HadGEM2-CC	1.3° × 1.9°	3	6 bins: 0.0632-0.2-0.632-2-6.32-20-63.2 μm	Prognostic	Woodward (2001, 2011)	Collins et al. (2011) Martin et al. (2011)
3	HadGEM2-ES	1.3° × 1.9°	4	As HadGEM2-CC	Prognostic	Woodward (2001, 2011)	Collins et al. (2011) Martin et al. (2011)
4	GFDL-CM3	2° × 2.5°	5	5 bins: 0.2-2-3.6-6-12-20 μm	Prescribed	Ginoux et al. (2001)	Delworth et al. (2006) Donner et al. (2011)
5	MIROC4h	0.56° × 0.56°	1	10 bins: 0.2-0.32-0.5-0.8-1.26-2-3.16-5.02-7.96-12.62-20 μm	Prescribed	Takemura et al. (2000)	Sakamoto et al. (2012)
6	MIROC5	1.4° × 1.4°	5	6 bins: 0.2-0.43-0.93-2-4.3-9.3-20 μm	Prescribed	Takemura et al. (2000, 2009)	Watanabe et al. (2010)
7	MIROC-ESM	2.8° × 2.8°	1	As MIROC4h	Prognostic	Takemura et al. (2000, 2009)	Watanabe et al. (2011)
8	MIROC-ESM-CHEM	2.8° × 2.8°	3	As MIROC4h	Prognostic	Takemura et al. (2000, 2009)	Watanabe et al. (2011)
9	MRI-CGCM3	1.1° × 1.1°	5	6 bins: 0.2-0.43-0.93-2-4.3-9.3-20 μm	Prescribed	Shao et al. (1996) Tanaka and Chiba (2005, 2006)	Yukimoto et al. (2011, 2012)
10	MRI-ESM1	1.1° × 1.1°	1	6 bins: 0.2-0.43-0.93-2-4.3-9.3-20 μm	Prescribed	Shao et al. (1996) Tanaka and Chiba (2005, 2006)	Yukimoto et al. (2011, 2012) Adachi et al. (2013)
11	CanESM2	2.8° × 2.8°	5	2 modes: MMD= 0.78 μm (σ=2) and 3.8 μm (σ=2.15) ^b	Prescribed	Martcorena and Bergametti (1995)	Arora et al. (2011) von Salzen et al. (2013)

12	CESM1-CAM5	0.9° × 1.25°	2	2 modes: 0.1-1-10 μm ^c	Prescribed	Zender et al. (2003)	Hurrell et al. (2013)
13	CSIRO-Mk3-6-0	1.9° × 1.9°	10	4 bins: 0.2-2-4-6-12 μm	Prescribed	Ginoux et al. (2001, 2004)	Rotstayn et al. (2012)
14	GISS-E2-H	2° × 2.5°	12	4 bins: <2, 2-4-8-16 μm	Prescribed ^d	Cakmur et al. (2006) Miller et al. (2006)	Schmidt et al. (2014)
15	GISS-E2-R	2° × 2.5°	12	4 bins: <2, 2-4-8-16 μm	Prescribed ^d	Cakmur et al. (2006) Miller et al. (2006)	Schmidt et al. (2014)
16	MERRA-2	0.5° × 0.625°	1	5 bins: 0.2-2-3.6-6- 12-20 μm	Prescribed	Ginoux et al. (2001)	Randles et al. (2017) Buchard et al. (2017)

- 1096 ^a: Expansions of acronyms: ACCESS1-0, Australian Community Climate and Earth-System Simulator version 1.0; CanESM2, Second Generation Canadian Earth
1097 System Model; CESM1-CAM5, Community Earth System Model version 1-Community Atmosphere Model version 5; CSIRO-Mk3-6-0, Commonwealth Scientific
1098 and Industrial Research Organization Mark 3.6.0; GFDL-CM3, Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory Climate Model version 3; GISS-E2-H, Goddard Institute for
1099 Space Studies Model E2 coupled with HYCOM (Hybrid Coordinate Ocean Model); GISS-E2-R, Goddard Institute for Space Studies Model E2 coupled with the
1100 Russell ocean model; HadGEM2-CC, Hadley Centre Global Environment Model version 2 with Carbon Cycle configuration; HadGEM2-ES, Hadley Centre Global
1101 Environment Model version 2 with Earth System configuration; MIROC4h, Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate version 4 (high resolution); MIROC5,
1102 Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate version 5; MIROC-ESM, Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate-Earth System Model; MIROC-ESM-
1103 CHEM, Model for Interdisciplinary Research on Climate-Earth System Model with Chemistry Coupled; MRI-CGCM3, Meteorological Research Institute Coupled
1104 Atmosphere–Ocean General Circulation Model version 3; MRI-ESM1, Meteorological Research Institute Earth System Model version 1.
- 1105 ^b: MMD is the abbreviation of mass median diameter and σ is geometric standard deviation.
- 1106 ^c: Dust emission is calculated in the size range of 0.1-1 and 1-10 μm for accumulation and coarse modes, respectively.
- 1107 ^d: Surface roughness that is comparable to vegetation data is used for dust emission calculation (Miller et al., 2006).

1108 **Table 2.** The location of observational stations for surface dust concentration used in
 1109 this study.

No.	Name	Latitude	Longitude	Period
1	Miami	25.75°N	80.25°W	Jan 1989 – Aug 1998
2	Bermuda	32.27°N	64.87°W	Mar 1989 – Jan 1998
3	Barbados	13.17°N	59.43°W	May 1984 – Jul 1998
4	Izana Tenerife	28.3°N	16.5°W	Jul 1987 – Jul 1998
5	Mace Head	53.32°N	9.85°W	Aug 1988 – Aug 1994
6	Rukomechi	16°S	29.5°E	Sep 1994 – Jan 2000
7	Cheju	33.52°N	126.48°E	Sep 1991 – Oct 1995
8	Hedo	26.92°N	128.25°E	Sep 1991 – Mar 1994
9	Enewetak Atoll	11.33°N	162.33°E	Feb 1981 – Jun 1987
10	Nauru	0.53°N	166.95°E	Mar 1983 – Oct 1987
11	Midway Island	28.22°N	177.35°W	Jan 1981 – Jan 1997
12	Fanning Island	3.92°N	159.33°W	Apr 1981 – Aug 1986
13	Hawaii	21.33°N	157.7°W	Jan 1981 – Jul 1995
14	Jabirun	12.7°S	132.9°E	May 1995 – Dec 1996
15	Cape Grim	40.68°S	144.68°E	Jan 1983 – Nov 1996
16	New Caledonia	22.15°S	167°E	Aug 1983 – Oct 1985
17	Norfolk Island	29.08°S	167.98°E	May 1983 – Feb 1997
18	Funafuti	8.5°S	179.2°W	Apr 1983 – Jul 1987
19	American Samoa	14.25°S	170.58°W	Mar 1983 – Jan 1996
20	Cook Islands	21.25°S	159.75°W	Mar 1983 – Jun 1994
21	Palmer	64.77°S	64.05°W	Apr 1990 – Oct 1996
22	Mawson	67.6°S	62.5°E	Jeb 1987 – Jan 1996

1110

1111 **Table 3.** Global dust budgets in CMIP5 models. The models are classified into three
 1112 groups according to the dust size range considered. Also included for comparison is
 1113 MERRA-2 reanalysis.

Model	Size (diameter, μm)	Emission ^a (Tg/yr)	Wet deposition ^b (Tg/yr)	Burden (Tg)	Life time (day)
ACCESS1-0	0.06-63	2218 (13%)	261 (12%)	8.1	1.3
HadGEM2-CC		8186 (11%)	1521 (19%)	41.9	1.9
HadGEM2-ES		7972 (10%)	1429 (18%)	41.4	1.9
GFDL-CM3	0.2-20	1246 (10%)	210 (17%)	13.5	4.0
MIROC4h		735 (2.9%)	179 (24%)	2.5	1.4
MIROC5		2716 (6.1%)	668 (25%)	19.0	3.0
MIROC-ESM		3339 (5.2%)	540 (16%)	15.5	2.0
MIROC-ESM- CHEM		3598 (5.2%)	591 (16%)	16.7	2.0
MRI-CGCM3		2107 (5.9%)	819 (39%)	14.3	2.5
MRI-ESM1		2052 (6.1%)	801 (39%)	13.9	2.5
CanESM2 ^c	Median (0.78, 3.8)	2964 (18%)	882 (30%)	35.8	4.4
CESM1-CAM5	0.1 - 10	3454 (2.0%)	1243 (36%)	24.9	2.6
CSIRO-Mk3-6-0	0.2 - 12	3698 (8.9%)	1024 (28%)	36.1	3.6
GISS-E2-H	<2 to 16	1699 (8.2%)	641 (38%)	17.5	3.8
GISS-E2-R	<2 to 16	1677 (8.2%)	625 (37%)	16.9	3.7
MERRA-2 ^d	0.2-20	1620 (7.4%)	692 (38.6%)	20.3	4.1

1114 ^a: The global dust emission area fraction is given in parenthesis next to the global dust
 1115 emission. The dust emission area is defined as the region with the annual mean dust
 1116 emission flux larger than 1% of global mean annual dust emission flux.

1117 ^b: The ratio of wet deposition to total deposition is given in parenthesis next to wet
1118 deposition.

1119 ^c: Using two modes, CanESM2 represents more than 97% of dust mass for particles
1120 smaller than 16 μm (in diameter). Therefore, CanESM2 is put into the third group.

1121 ^d: The global dust deposition is 1692 Tg, which is larger than dust emission because
1122 of no adjustment done with dust emission after aerosol assimilation (Section 2).

1123 **Table 4.** Dust emission amount (Tg) in nine dust source regions. The contribution of each source region to global total dust emission is given in
 1124 the parenthesis next to dust emission amount.

No.	Models	Global	North Africa	Middle East	Central Asia	South Asia	East Asia	Australia	North America	South America	South Africa
1	ACCESS1-0	2218	1097 (49.5%)	356 (16.1%)	95 (4.3%)	159 (7.2%)	132 (6.0%)	254 (11.4%)	49 (2.2%)	46 (2.1%)	21 (1.0%)
2	HadGEM2-CC	8186	3124 (38.2%)	593 (7.2%)	403 (4.9%)	826 (10.1%)	359 (4.4%)	2278 (27.8%)	264 (3.2%)	196 (2.4%)	142 (1.7%)
3	HadGEM2-ES	7973	3221 (40.4%)	579 (7.3%)	418 (5.2%)	820 (10.3%)	321 (4.0%)	1988 (24.9%)	340 (4.3%)	144 (1.8%)	139 (1.7%)
4	GFDL-CM3	1246	749 (60.1%)	150 (12.1%)	68 (5.4%)	41 (3.3%)	113 (9.1%)	52 (4.2%)	5 (0.4%)	44 (3.6%)	19 (1.5%)
5	MIROC4h	735	437 (59.4%)	71 (9.7%)	81 (11.1%)	45 (6.1%)	64 (8.8%)	9 (1.2%)	0.1 (0.02%)	3 (0.5%)	24 (3.2%)
6	MIROC5	2716	1762 (64.9%)	269 (9.9%)	175 (6.5%)	96 (3.5%)	243 (8.9%)	26 (1.0%)	4 (0.2%)	79 (2.9%)	61 (2.2%)
7	MIROC-ESM	3339	2627 (78.7%)	244 (7.3%)	72 (2.2%)	30 (0.9%)	273 (8.2%)	0.6 (0.02%)	0.3 (0.008%)	89 (2.6%)	6 (0.2%)
8	MIROC-ESM-CHEM	3598	2719 (75.6%)	274 (7.6%)	84 (2.3%)	44 (1.2%)	362 (10.1%)	1 (0.03%)	0.4 (0.01%)	100 (2.8%)	13 (0.4%)
9	MRI-CGCM3	2107	1146 (54.4%)	258 (12.2%)	22 (1.1%)	174 (8.3%)	390 (18.5%)	55 (2.6%)	2 (0.09%)	49 (2.3%)	11 (0.5%)
10	MRI-ESM1	2052	1108 (54.0%)	246 (12.0%)	21 (1.0%)	167 (8.1%)	392 (19.1%)	57 (2.8%)	2 (0.09%)	48 (2.3%)	10 (0.5%)
11	CanESM2	2964	1053 (35.5%)	415 (14.0%)	323 (10.9%)	99 (3.3%)	151 (5.1%)	218 (7.3%)	133 (4.5%)	365 (12.3%)	96 (3.2%)
12	CESM1-CAM5	3454	1609 (46.6%)	698 (20.2%)	495 (14.3%)	122 (3.5%)	329 (9.5%)	38 (1.1%)	35 (1.0%)	26 (0.7%)	101 (2.9%)
13	CSIRO-Mk3-6-0	3698	1863 (50.4%)	555 (15.0%)	122 (3.3%)	160 (4.3%)	589 (15.9%)	143 (3.9%)	23 (0.6%)	138 (3.7%)	106 (2.9%)

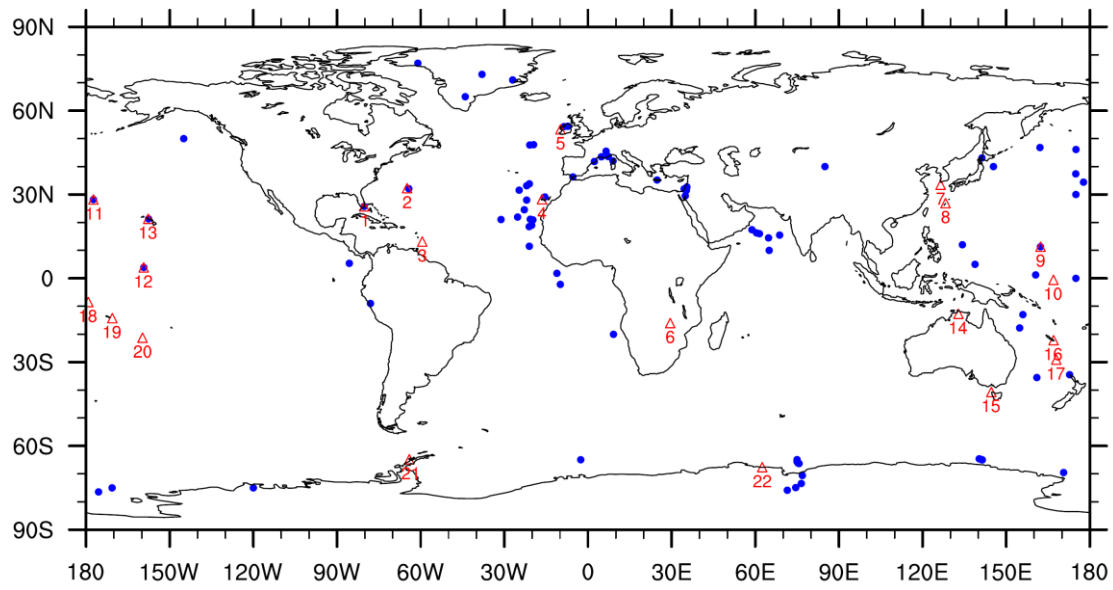
14	GISS-E2-H	1699	1045 (61.5%)	252 (14.8%)	109 (6.4%)	96 (5.7%)	94 (5.5%)	71 (4.2%)	4 (0.3%)	22 (1.3%)	5 (0.3%)
15	GISS-E2-R	1678	1035 (61.7%)	238 (14.2%)	92 (5.5%)	90 (5.4%)	103 (6.1%)	86 (5.1%)	4 (0.2%)	23 (1.4%)	5 (0.3%)
16	MERRA-2	1670	1104 (61.1%)	182 (16.2%)	56 (7.7%)	55 (3.1%)	162 (6.3%)	59 (2.6%)	8 (0.5%)	30 (1.7%)	15 (0.7%)

1125 **Table 5.** Total dust deposition and wet deposition in the global surface, continents,
 1126 and oceans, respectively from CMIP5 models and MERRA-2 reanalysis. Only the
 1127 seven CMIP5 models with both dry and wet depositions provided are used here.

Model	Global		Continent		Ocean	
	Total	Wet ^a	Total ^b	Wet ^a	Total ^b	Wet ^a
ACCESS1-0	2216	261 (12%)	2019 (91%)	159 (8%)	197 (9%)	102 (52%)
MRI-CGCM3	2109	819 (39%)	1649 (78%)	499 (30%)	460 (22%)	319 (69%)
MRI-ESM1	2054	801 (39%)	1609 (78%)	492 (30%)	445 (22%)	309 (69%)
CanESM2	2965	882 (30%)	2279 (77%)	513 (22%)	686 (23%)	369 (54%)
CESM1-CAM5	3454	1243 (36%)	2850 (83%)	945 (33%)	604 (17%)	298 (49%)
GISS-E2-H	1684	641 (38%)	1359 (81%)	410 (30%)	324 (19%)	231 (71%)
GISS-E2-R	1665	625 (37%)	1331 (80%)	392 (29%)	334 (20%)	232 (70%)
MERRA-2	1792	692 (38.6%)	1272 (71%)	335 (26%)	520 (29%)	356 (69%)

1128 ^a: The ratio of wet deposition to total deposition is given in parenthesis next to wet
 1129 deposition.
 1130 ^b: The fraction of continental (or oceanic) deposition to global deposition is given in
 1131 next to continental (or oceanic) deposition.
 1132

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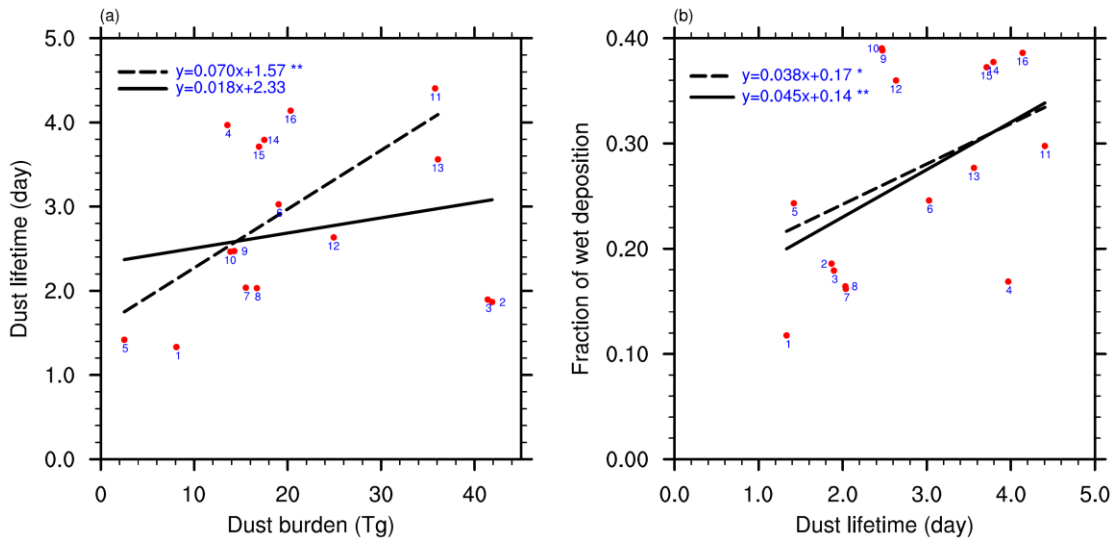


1134

1135 **Figure 1.** The distribution of observational stations used in this study: blue circles for
1136 dust deposition and red triangles for surface dust concentrations. The descriptions of
1137 all these stations can be found in Section 3.1.

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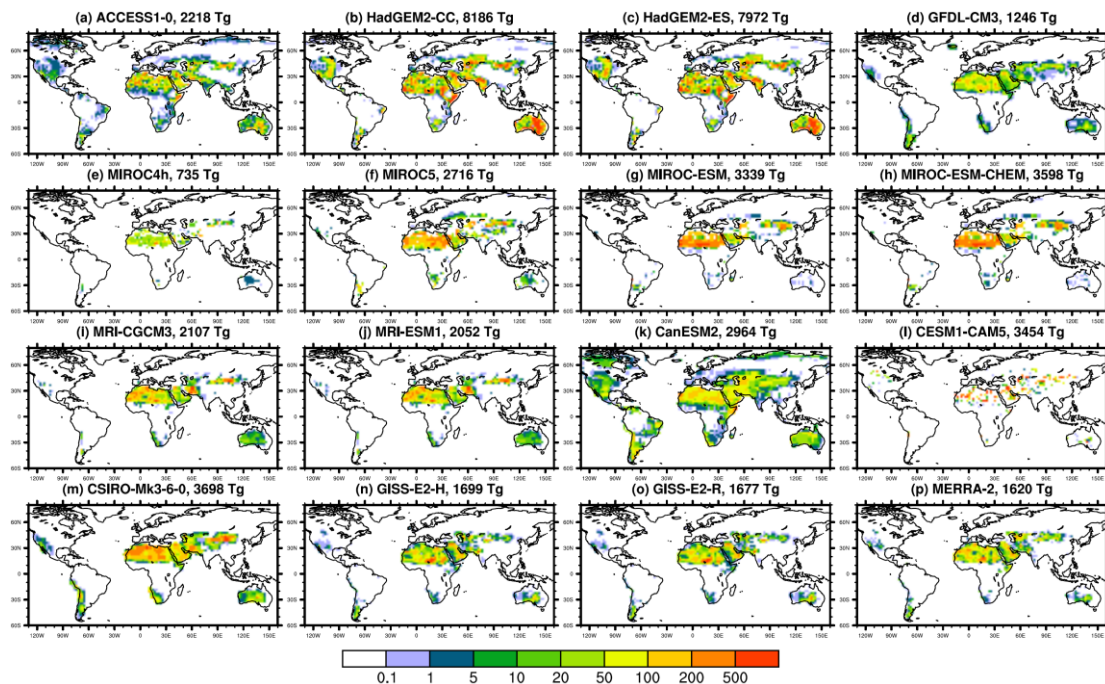
1140

1141 **Figure 2.** Scatter plot of (a) dust burden versus dust life time
1142 versus fraction of wet deposition to total deposition in 15 CMIP5 models and in
1143 MERRA-2 reanalysis. The models are indexed as Table 1. The regression lines from
1144 all the CMIP5 models (solid) and the CMIP5 models excluding HadGEM2-CC/ES
1145 models (dash) are also shown with the slopes and intercepts for the regression
1146 equation. Significant test for each regression is denoted by one asterisk (*; above
1147 significant level of 0.1) and two asterisks (**; above significant level of 0.05) after
1148 each regression equation.

1149

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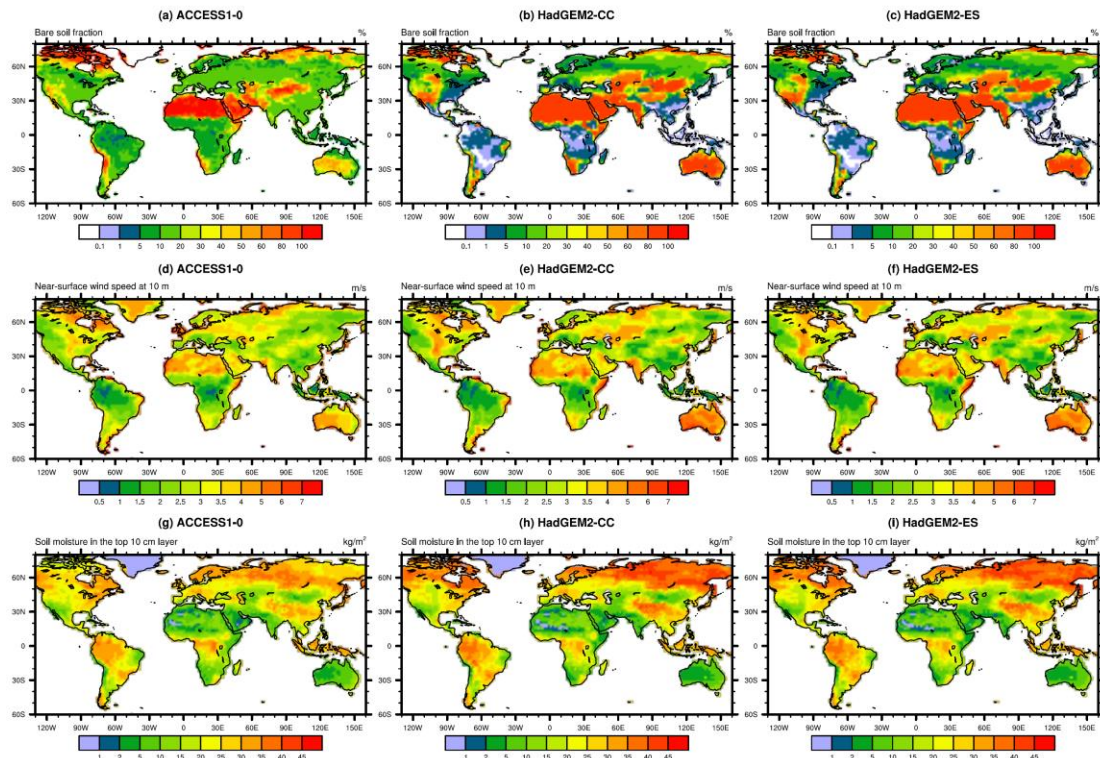
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1152

1153 **Figure 3.** (a-o) Annual mean dust emission flux ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) during 1960-2005 from
1154 15 CMIP5 models, and (p) annual mean dust emission ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{yr}^{-1}$) during 1980-2018
1155 from MERRA-2 reanalysis. The total annual global dust emission is included in the
1156 title of each panel.

1157



1158

1159 Figure 4. Bare soil fraction (%), near-surface wind speed at 10 m over land (m s^{-1}),

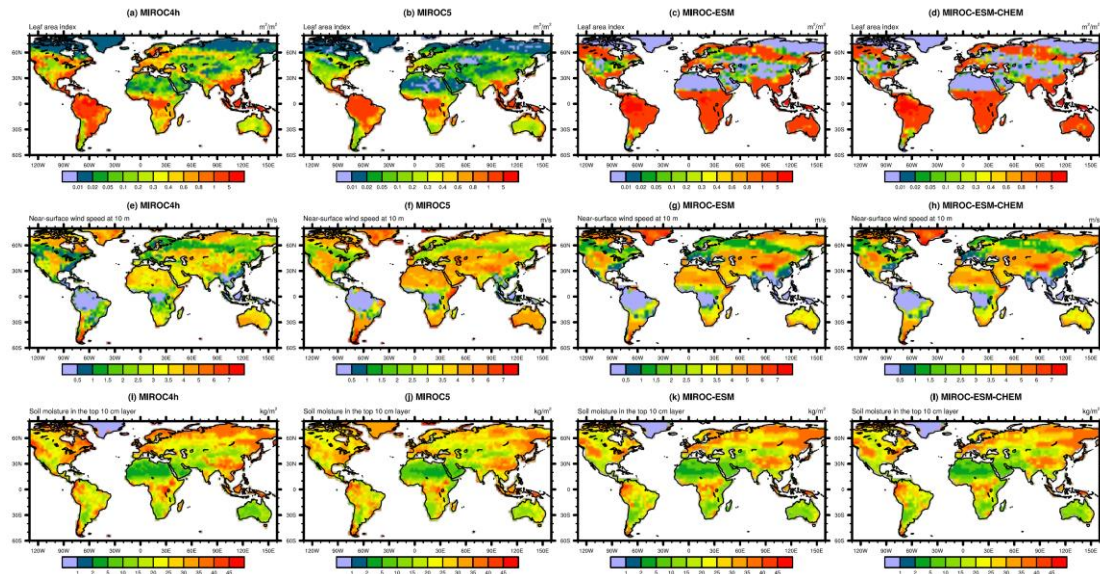
1160 soil moisture in the top 10 cm layer (kg m^{-2}) in ACCESS1-0, HadGEM2-CC, and

1161 HadGEM2-ES. Note that except bare soil fraction in ACCESS1-0 which is prescribed

1162 and set constant for each year, other results are all from model simulations during

1163 1960-2005.

1164

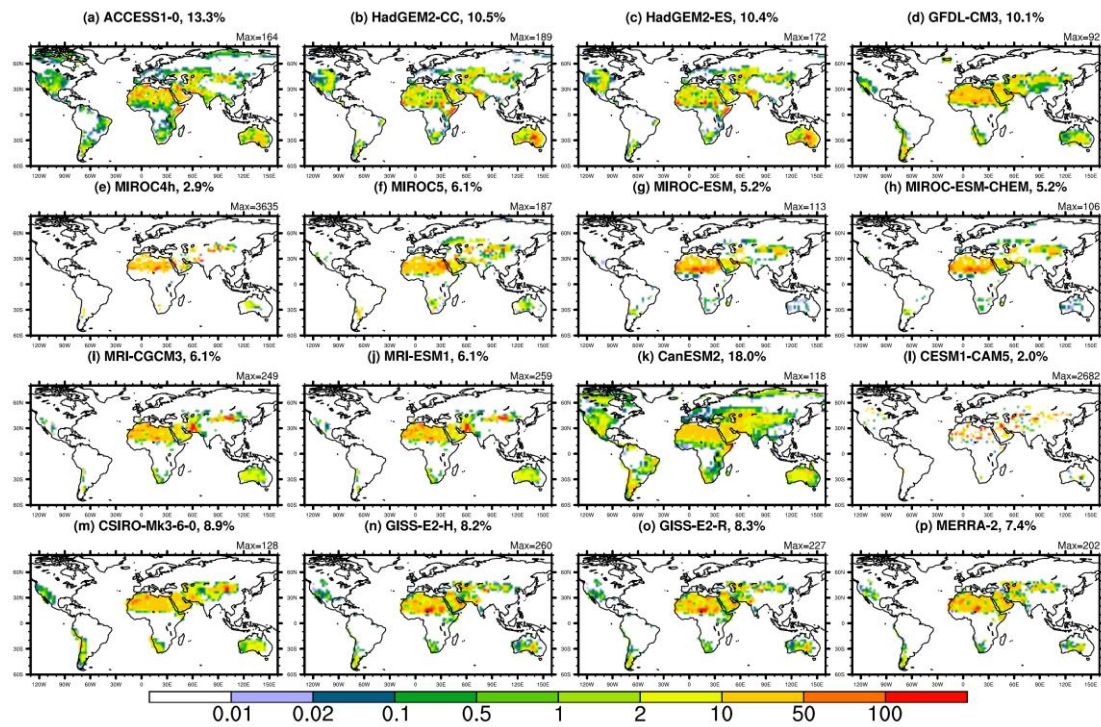


1165

1166 Figure 5. Minimum leaf area index of a calendar year ($m^2 m^{-2}$), annual mean surface
 1167 wind speed at 10m ($m s^{-1}$), and mean soil moisture in the top 10 cm layer ($kg m^{-2}$)
 1168 during 1960-2005 in four MIROC family models. For each grid box, monthly mean
 1169 leaf area index for each month of a calendar year is first derived based on the average
 1170 of 1960-2005, and then the minimum of leaf area index among these months (i.e.,
 1171 January to December) is plotted.

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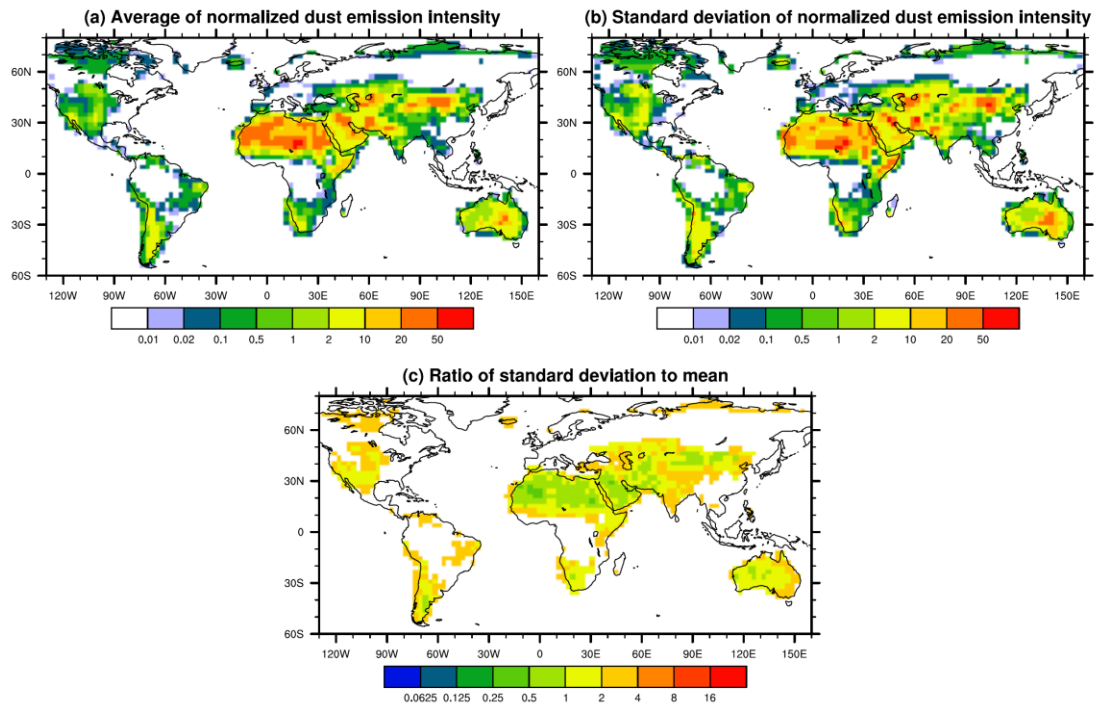
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Figure 6. Normalized dust emission flux in 15 CMIP5 models and MERRA-2 reanalysis. Normalized dust emission flux is calculated from dust emission flux divided by global mean for each model. The percentage of dust source area relative to global total surface area is given in the title of each panel. Dust source area is defined as the normalized dust emission flux greater than 0.01. The maximum normalized dust emission flux is also given in the top right corner of each panel.

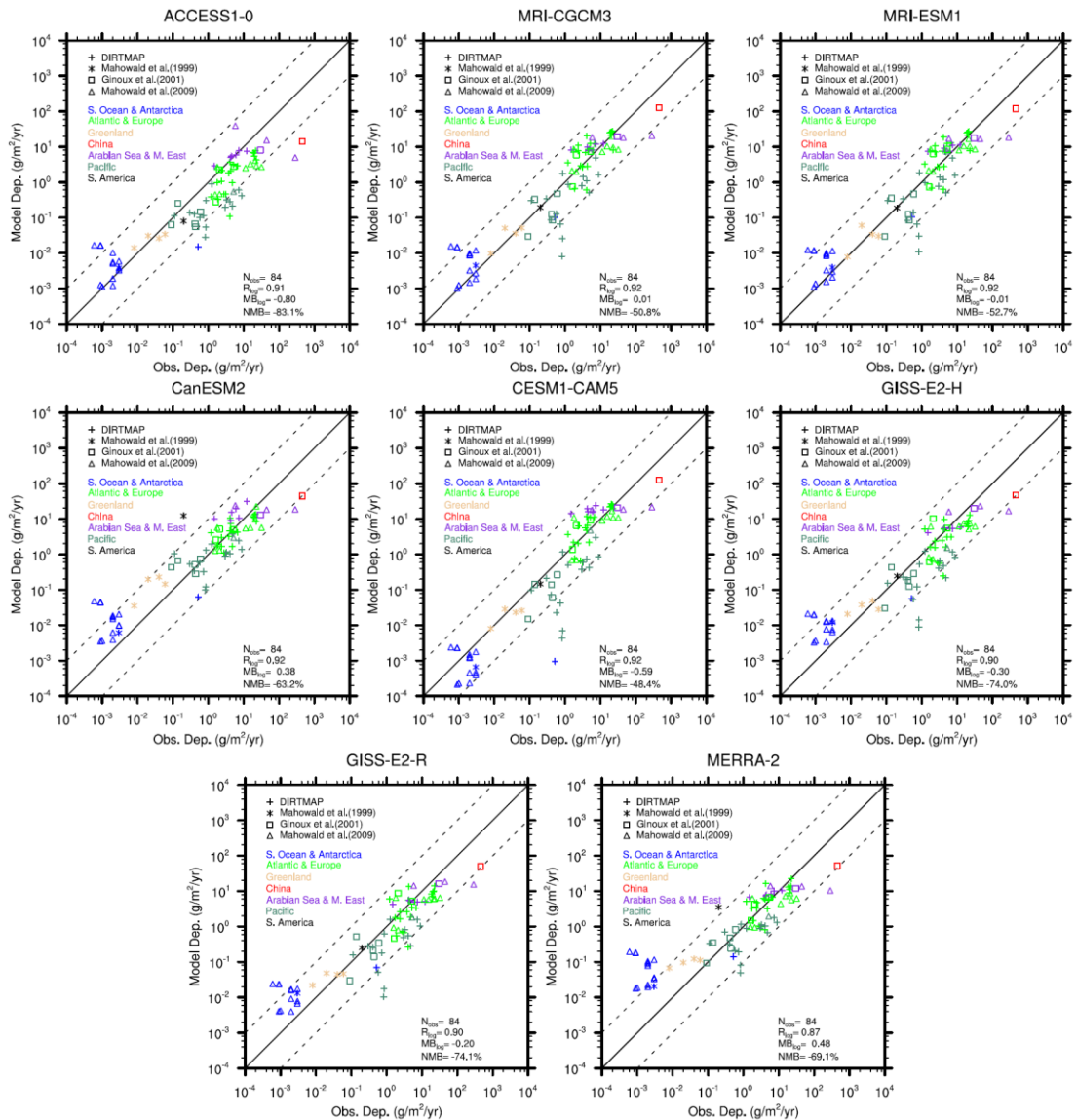


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1183 **Figure 7.** Mean, standard deviation, and relative standard deviation (also known as
 1184 coefficient of variation) of normalized dust emission flux from 15 CMIP5 models.

1185 Relative standard deviation is derived by calculating the ratio of standard deviation to
 1186 mean.

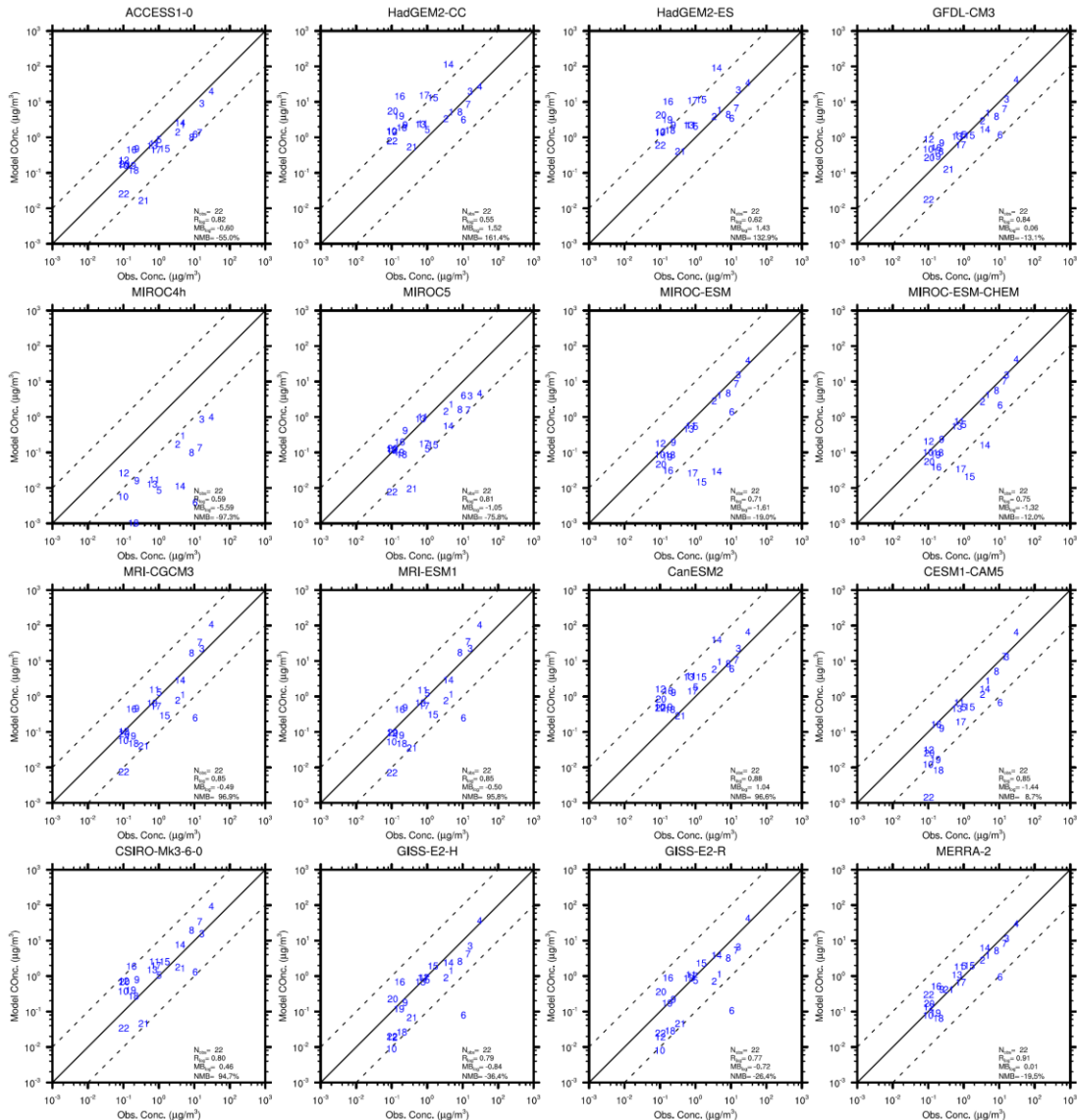
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1190 **Figure 8.** Scatterplot of dust deposition flux at 84 selected stations between models
 1191 and observations. The stations are marked with different styles according to the
 1192 sources of data and with different colors for different locations (Section 3). Also given
 1193 are the correlation coefficients and mean bias between models and observations (after
 1194 taking the logarithms; R_{log} and MB_{log} , respectively). The normalized mean bias (NMB)
 1195 that is calculated from the mean bias divided by mean observations is given as well.
 1196 The 1:1 (solid) and 1:10/10:1 (dash) lines are plotted for reference.

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1200 **Figure 9.** Scatterplot of surface dust concentration at 22 selected stations between
 1201 models and observations. The stations are indexed as Table 2 and their locations are
 1202 shown in Figure 1. Also given are the correlation coefficients and mean bias between
 1203 models and observations (after taking the logarithms; R_{log} and MB_{log} , respectively).
 1204 The normalized mean bias (NMB) that is calculated from the mean bias divided by
 1205 mean observations is given as well. The 1:1 (solid) and 1:10/10:1 (dash) lines are
 1206 plotted for reference. The comparison results for some stations (#15-17 and #19-22
 1207 for MIROC4h; #21 and #22 for MIROC-ESM and MIROC-ESM-CHEM) are not
 1208 shown as they are located too low and outside the frame.