1	Dust pollution in China affected by different spatial and
2	temporal types of El Niño
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27 Abstract

28 Dust is an important aerosol affecting air quality in China in winter and spring 29 thatseasons. Dust in China is potentially influenced by the interannual climate 30 variability associated with El Niño. Here, the impacts of El Niño with different temporal 31 and spatial types on dust pollution in <u>boreal</u> winter and spring in China and the potential 32 mechanisms are investigated using ana state-of-the-art earth system model (E3SMv1). 33 We find that the Eastern Pacific (EP) and Central Pacific (CP) El Niño both increase wintertime dust concentrations by 5-50 µg m⁻³ over central-eastern China. Due to a 34 stronger wind and lower relative humidity, which favor dust emissions near sources, 35 36 and a strengthened northwesterly and reduced precipitation, which are conducive to dust transport, dust concentrations during the CP El Niño are 5–20 µg m⁻³ higher in 37 38 northern China than during the EP El Niño-, although the changes are mostly 39 insignificant. El Niño with a short duration (SD) increases boreal winter dust 40 concentrations by 20–100 µg m⁻³ over northern China relative to the climatological mean, while there is a decrease of $5-50 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ during the long duration (LD) El Niño, 41 42 which are also related to the El Niño-induced changes in atmospheric circulation, 43 precipitation, and relative humidity. In the following spring season, all types of El Niño 44 events enhance dust over the northern China, but only the increase during the LD El 45 Niño is statistically significant, suggesting that the weaker intensity but longer duration of the LD El Niño events can significantly affect spring dust in China. Our results 46 47 contribute the current knowledge of the influence of El Niño on dust pollution, which 48 have profound implications for air pollution control and dust storm prediction.

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Dust, one of the most important types of natural aerosols, has significant impacts 51 on Earth's radiative balance (Seinfeld et al., 2004), regional and global climate (Kok et 52 al, 2018; Yang et al., 2017), the hydrological cycle (Huang et al., 2014), agricultural 53 production (Sivakumar, 2005), public health and transportation activities (Goudie, 54 2014). The Gobi Desert and the Taklamakan Desert in northwestern China are 55 important contributors to dust concentrations in East Asia and even globally, and about 56 30% of the dust from the sources in China can be transported to the downwind areas 57 over long distances (Chen et al., 2017). Despite China's vigorous efforts to combat 58 desertification since the beginning of 21st century, strong and widespread dust storms 59 still occurred in China in recent years (Yin et al., 2021). Therefore, a deeper and more 60 scientific comprehension of the factors affecting dust aerosols in China is urgently 61 needed for the early warning and mitigation of dust pollution.

62 In recent years, the influence of meteorological conditions on dust pollution in 63 China has attracted considerable attention (Guo et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Lou et al., 64 2016; Shi et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2008). Under global warming in 65 recent decades, dust emissions and the frequency of dust storms in northern China 66 decreased (Shi et al., 2021), which was attributed to the reduced frequency and intensity 67 of Mongolian cyclones, related to the weakened westerly jet stream and atmospheric 68 pressure in northern China and Mongolia, in a warming climate (Zhu et al., 2008). Due 69 to a combination of changes in disruptive temperature anomalies in the Mongolian dust 70 source region, the occurrence of super Mongolian cyclone, and the anomalies of sea ice 71 in the Barents and Kara Sea and sea surface temperature (SST) in the east Pacific and 72 northwest Atlantic, China experienced the strongest dust pollution in spring 2021(Yin 73 et al., 2021). Lou et al. (2016) pointed out that springtime dust concentrations exhibited 74 a significant negative correlation with the East Asian Monsoon Index over most of 75 China with a correlation coefficient of -0.64 in their model simulations, and they found 76 that anomalous northwesterly winds in weak East Asian monsoon years led to a strong 77 dust transport from Mongolia to China. Mao et al. (2011) illustrated that the negative 78 (positive) phase of Arctic Oscillation (AO) can lead to an increase (decrease) in the 79 frequency of dust storms in northern China due to the increase (decrease) in the 80 frequency of cold air outbreak over Mongolia.

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El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is a well-known mode of climate variability

82 generated by coupled ocean-atmosphere interactions that can exert a far-reaching 83 impact on global climate despite its origin in the tropical Pacific Ocean (Trenberth, 84 1997; Yang et al., 2016a, 2016b; Zeng et al., 2021). Numerous studies have 85 demonstrated that El Niño can affect dust emission, concentration and transport by 86 modulating large-scale atmospheric circulation, precipitation and temperature (Le and 87 Bae, 2022; Lee et al., 2015; Li et al., 2021). Using observational data over 1961–2002, 88 Lee et al. (2015) found that the under the negative AO phase, frequency of spring dust 89 events in northern China during El Niño was 30% higher than that during La Niña years. 90 Li et al. (2021) used dust surface concentration data (1982-2019) from MERRA-2 91 reanalysis to study the impacts of ENSO events on global atmospheric dust loading and 92 found that dust concentrations were positively correlated with Southern Oscillation 93 Index (SOI, a consistently negative SOI is El Niño and the opposite is La Niña) over 94 northwestern China, which suggests that El Niño was associated with a decrease in dust 95 concentrations. Modeling studies driven by reanalysis data also revealed a relatively 96 weak positive relationship between SOI and dust emissions over Gobi Desert, although 97 this correlation has a large spatiotemporal variation (Gong et al., 2006; Hara et al., 2006). 98 These numerical studies used regional models driven by or nudged to reanalysis 99 meteorological fields, which could be influenced by factors other than El Niño. Recent 100 studies have indicated that the El Niño impact on air pollutants can be better represented 101 by the superposed SST perturbation method (Yu et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2018; Zeng et 102 al., 2021), considering the influence of ENSO alone. To the best of our knowledge, no 103 study has yet used this approach to investigate the relationship between El Niño and 104 dust pollution in China.

105 Additionally, previous studies mainly focused on the influences of general El Niño 106 on dust over China, while El Niño can be classified into different temporal types (e.g., 107 short duration (SD) and long duration (LD) El Niño; Guo and Tan, 2018) and spatial 108 types (e.g., East Pacific (EP) and Central Pacific (CP) El Niño; Kao and Yu, 2009). 109 During different spatial and temporal types of El Niño, patterns of precipitation and 110 atmospheric circulation are also different in China (Yu et al., 2019; Zeng et al., 2021), 111 and they could have distinct effects on wintertime and springtime dust pollution in 112 China. Nevertheless, most of the existing studies have focused on the effects of various 113 spatial and temporal types of El Niño events on anthropogenic aerosols, while few 114 studies have examined their effects on natural aerosols, such as dust, and their associated mechanisms, which are crucial for predicting and combating dust pollution 115

116 in the near future.

117 In this work, the effects of different spatial and temporal types of El Niño on 118 wintertimeboreal winter and springtimespring dust pollution in China and the 119 mechanisms behind the impacts are examined using the Energy Exascale Earth System 120 Model version 1 (E3SMv1). The methods and model description are described in 121 Section 2. The quantitative impacts of various temporal and spatial types of El Niño 122 events on wintertime and springtime dust concentrations in China and the associated 123 mechanisms are elaborated in Section 3. Section 4 summarizes the key results and 124 conclusions of the study.

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126 **2. Data and Methods**

127 2.1 Data

128 Global SST patterns and SST anomalies during El Niño events of different 129 temporal and spatial types are constructed using the merged Hadley-NOAA/OI dataset 130 which has a horizontal resolution of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ from 1870 to 2017 (Hurrell et al., 2008). 131 The monthly ERA5 reanalysis data (Hersbach et al., 2020) are applied to evaluate the 132 simulated meteorological parameters during El Niño events.

133 Hourly observations of PM_{10} (particulate matter less than 10 μ m in diameter) 134 concentrations in China from 2015 to 2021 derived from the China National 135 Environmental onitoring Centre (CNEMC) and the Deep Blue aerosol products 136 (Platnick et al., 2015) from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) 137 on Terra satellite, including monthly Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) at 550 nm and the 138 Ångström exponent (α) from 2001–2020, are applied to evaluate the performance of 139 dust simulation in the model. The satellite dust optical depth (DOD) is calculated 140 following Yu et al. (2021).

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2.2 El Niño events identified as different spatial and temporal types

We first clarify the definition of different temporal and spatial types of El Niño events here. The notation of year⁰ is used to denote the first year of El Niño development, and Jan⁰, Feb⁰, ..., and Dec⁰ indicate the individual months of that year, while year^{1,2,...} and Jan^{1,2,...}, Feb^{1,2,...}, ..., and Dec^{1,2,...}, respectively, denote the following years and months therein. Niño 3.4 index is defined as the anomalyarea-mean anomalies of detrended SST in the Niño 3.4 region (170°W–120°W, 5°S–5°N). Niño 3/4 index (I_{Niño3}/I_{Niño4}) is same as Niño 3.4 index, but in the Niño 3/4 region (150°W– 149 90°W, 5°S–5°N; 160°E–150°W, 5°S–5°N).

 $I_{CP} = I_{Niño4} - \alpha \times I_{Niño3}$

For the classification of different temporal types, following Wu et al. (2019), El Niño events are firstly selected if any of 3-month running averaged Niño 3.4 index during Oct^0 –Feb¹ greater than $0.75^{\circ}C$. Then the LD El Niño event is identified once any of Niño 3.4 index during Oct^1 –Feb² is higher than $0.5^{\circ}C$; otherwise, it is a SD El Niño event.

Following Yu et al. (2019), the El Niño events, selected with 3-month running averaged Niño 3.4 indices higher than 0.5°C for five consecutive months, are classified into different spatial types based on the EP El Niño index (I_{EP}) and the CP El Niño index (I_{CP}). The definition of these indices is given below.

$$I_{EP} = I_{Ni\tilde{n}o3} - \alpha \times I_{Ni\tilde{n}o4} \tag{1}$$

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$$\alpha = \begin{cases} 0.4, & I_{Ni\tilde{n}o3} \times I_{Ni\tilde{n}o4} > 0\\ 0, & I_{Ni\tilde{n}o3} \times I_{Ni\tilde{n}o4} \le 0 \end{cases}$$
(3)

(2)

162If the mean I_{EP} is greater than the I_{CP} during Oct^0 -Feb¹ of an El Niño, then it is an163EP El Niño event; else, it is a CP El Niño event. Note that there also exist mixed El164Niño events that are not considered separately in this study.

165 The time series of Niño 3.4 index derived from Hadley-NOAA/OI 1870–2017 data 166 is shown in Figure S1. Using the definitions described above, for El Niño with different 167 temporal types, 22 SD El Niño events and 8 LD ones are extracted during this time 168 period; for El Niño with different spatial types, 26 EP El Niño events and 8 CP ones are 169 extracted. The mechanisms leading to different types of El Niño are given in Text S1.

170 **2.3 Model description and experimental design**

171 To investigate the impacts of El Niño of different spatial and temporal types on 172 dust aerosol in China, this study utilizes the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) 173 E3SMv1 (Golaz et al., 2019). As a model developed from the well-known CESM1 174 (Community Earth System Model version 1), E3SMv1 provides significant 175 improvements to the atmospheric component, including processes associated with 176 aerosol, cloud, turbulence, and chemistry (Rasch et al., 2019). We choose the horizontal 177 resolution of about 1° and 30 vertical layers. E3SMv1 predicts aerosols including 178 mineral dust, sea salt, sulfate, primary and secondary organic aerosols, and black carbon 179 in the four-mode Modal Aerosol Module (MAM4) (Wang et al., 2020). E3SMv1 180 represents dust-related processes in the atmosphere and land model components (Feng 181 et al., 2022). Dust emissions are calculated at each model time step according to the 182 wind erosion dust scheme proposed by Zender et al. (2003), which is related to 10-183 meter wind speed, surface soil moisture content, soil erodibility, vegetation cover and 184 threshold friction velocity.

185 The following simulations are performed. A "CLIM" experiment applying the 186 prescribed climatological mean of monthly SST during 1870–2017 is integrated for 30 years. Four sets of sensitivity simulations, "SD", "LD", "EP" and "CP", are driven by 187 188 the monthly SST representing the composite of SD, LD, EP and CP El Niño events, 189 respectively, which is generated through adding the mean monthly SST anomalies from 190 Jul⁰ to Jun¹ of the SD, LD, EP, and CP El Niño events (Fig. S1), respectively, to the 191 climatological SST between 60°S and 60°N. All the sensitivity experiments have 3 192 ensemble members with diverse initial conditions branched from different years of the 193 CLIM simulation- and the results are based on the ensemble mean. All sensitivity 194 experiments are run for 13 years with the first 3 years as model spin-up and the last 10 195 years used for analysis. The differences of model fields between the sensitivity 196 simulations and CLIM represent the influences of El Niño events with different spatial 197 and temporal types on dust aerosols. All other external factors such as greenhouse gas 198 concentrations, insolation, anthropogenic aerosols and their precursor emissions are 199 hold at present-day conditions (year 2014). The SST anomalies relative to the 1870-200 2017 climatology during SD, LD, EP and CP El Niño events are shown in Fig. 1.

201

2.34 Model evaluation

202 To evaluate the model performance in dust simulation, we compare the simulated 203 near-surface dust concentration and dust optical depth (DOD) over China with observed 204 PM₁₀ concentrations and satellite retrieved DOD, respectively. The model can 205 reproduce the spatial distribution of springtime dust in China, with high dust 206 concentrations in northwestern China and low in southern and northeastern China (Fig. 207 S2). The spatial correlation coefficient between the simulated dust concentrations in 208 E3SMv1 and observed near-surface PM₁₀ concentrations is +0.55. However, the model 209 strongly overestimates dust concentrations over the source regions, which were also 210 reported in many previous studies using the E3SMv1 and CESM (the predecessor of 211 E3SMv1) (Wang et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2019). The high model bias near the sources is 212 also confirmed by comparing DOD between model simulation and satellite retrieval. It 213 suggests that the dust emissions are overestimated in northwestern China in the model. 214 The high bias is partly related to the dust treatment in the model that dust is emitted 215 into a shallow model bottom layer in E3SMv1 for increased model vertical resolution

- 216 (Wang et al., 2020). In addition, stronger 10-m wind speed simulated by the model
- 217 <u>compared to the observation (Fig. S3) also contributes to the higher dust loading.</u>
- 218 However, we also note that the E3SMv1 underestimates the transport of dust from
- source regions (Wu et al., 2020; Feng et al, 2022), thus the dust over eastern China is
- comparable to observations.

3. Results

3.1 Impacts of different El Niño types on winter dust pollution

223 The simulated effects of the four types of El Niño with different spatial positions (EP and CP) and durations (SD and LD) on the DJF ground-level dust concentrations 224 225 are shown in Fig. 2. As for different spatial types of El Niño events, the effects on DJF dust concentrations in China are similar, with an increase in dust concentrations of 5-226 50 µg m⁻³ over central-eastern China during EP and CP El Niño compared to the 227 228 climatological means. The spatial pattern of dust changes is consistent with previous 229 modeling studies (Lee et al., 2015; Li et al., 2021). Although the influences of EP and 230 CP El Niño on the DJF dust concentrations resemble each other in the spatial patterns 231 over China, the magnitudes of the influences are different. During CP El Niño relative 232 to the climatological mean, dust concentrations increase more significantly over 233 central-eastern China, with the increases of 20–50 µg m⁻³, 5–20 µg m⁻³ higher than that 234 during EP El Niño- relative to the climatological mean. The large increase during CP El 235 Niño relative to the climatological mean is also more widespread than that during EP 236 El Niño relative to the climatological mean. Compared to CP El Niño, dust 237 concentration over central-eastern China decreased slightly during the EP El Niño, but 238 the changes are mostly insignificant.

239 As for different temporal types of El Niño events, their effects on DJF dust 240 concentrations over China are quite different. SD El Niño events cause an increase in DJF near-surface dust concentrations of 20–100 µg m⁻³ in northern China and about 5– 241 20 µg m⁻³ in southern China. Whereas during LD El Niño events, winter dust 242 concentrations have a decrease of about $5-50 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ in northern and northeastern China 243 244 relative to the climatology and no significant change is shown in southern China. In contrast to LD El Niño events, SD El Niño events have positive DJF dust concentration 245 anomalies of 5–20 μ g m⁻³ in southern China and a maximum over 100 μ g m⁻³ in 246 northern China and the Gobi Desert. Furthermore, DJF dust concentrations over the 247 248 Taklamakan Desert, one of the largest dust sources in China, have an increase during 249 LD El Niño events and an insignificant decrease during SD El Niño events.

250 Overall, these changes in dust concentrations indicate that CP El Niño events have 251 stronger and more widespread impacts on DJF dust concentrations than EP El Niño 252 relative to the climatological mean, and the SD and LD El Niño events exert opposite 253 impacts on DJF dust in China.

3.2 Mechanisms of the different El Niño impacts on winter dust

255 Meteorological factors such as 10-m wind speed, relative humidity and 256 atmospheric circulation play a dominant role in altering dust concentrations by altering 257 emissions, atmospheric transport, and wet scavenging of dust (Csavina et al., 2014). 258 Dust changes are also controlled by the El Niño-related changes in atmospheric 259 circulation and precipitation (Gong et al., 2006; Hara et al., 2006). The 10-m wind speed, 260 atmospheric circulation, relative humidity, precipitation anomalies, and related 261 processes during EP, CP, SD and LD El Niño are investigated here to reveal the 262 mechanisms of the influence of the four types of El Niño on dust over China.

263 During the CP, EP, and SD El Niño, DJF mean 10-m wind speed increases in the 264 Gobi Desert and northwestern China compared to the climatological mean (Fig. 3), 265 which favors the local dust emission over these regions. Whereas for the LD El Niño 266 event, the positive 10-m wind speed anomaly is greatly weakened, compared to the 267 other three types of El Niño events, and negative 10-m wind speed anomalies are 268 triggered in the Gobi Desert and northern China (Fig. 3e), which is not conducive to 269 dust emission during the LD El Niño events. The CP El Niño events trigger stronger 270 positive 10-m wind speed anomalies (0.1–0.3 m s⁻¹) than the EP El Niño events over 271 the Gobi Desert and northern China (Fig. 3c), which could lead to a greater local dust 272 emission. Compare to the LD El Niño, SD El Niño events produce significant positive 10-m wind speed anomalies of approximately 0.3 m s⁻¹ in the Gobi Desert and northern 273 274 China (Fig. 3f), which is consistent with the increase/decrease in local DJF dust 275 concentrations during the SD/LD El Niño (Fig. 2). This suggests the importance of 10-276 m wind speed in the dust changes during the El Niño events in China.

Figure 4 shows the atmospheric circulation anomalies for the four El Niño events. All types of El Niño have negative anomalies of sea level pressure (SLP) in centraleastern China, except the LD El Niño that shows a negligible SLP change in winter. Meanwhile, during the EP, CP, and SD El Niño events, anomalous Mongolian cyclone can strengthen the local ascending flow to lift more dust particles into the free atmosphere. The anomalous northwesterly during CP and SD El Niño (Figs. 3b and 3d) can transport these dust aerosols to central-eastern China, leading to the strong increases in dust concentrations there (Figs. 2b and 2d). While during the LD El Niño, the lower atmosphere in the Gobi Desert and northern China is controlled by a weak anomalous high pressure accompanied by anomalous southeasterly that weakens the prevailing northwesterly in winter and hinders the vertical lifting and southward transport of dust.

288 Our previous work has confirmed the ability of E3SM in reproducing the 289 atmospheric circulation in El Niño with different durations (Zeng et al, 2021). Here we 290 further evaluate the circulations in E3SM simulations during EP and CP El Niño events 291 by using ERA5 reanalysis data. The anomalous DJF mean 10-m wind speed and 850 292 hPa wind fields in the typical EP El Niño (2006/07) and CP El Niño (2014/15) relative 293 to the climatology (1950-2017) from ERA5 are presented in Fig. 5. Although the 294 increase in 10-m wind speed over northwestern China in the EP El Niño simulated in 295 the model is inconsistent with the ERA5 results, E3SM does capture the large increase 296 in wind speed over the Gobi Desert during the CP El Niño relative to the climatological 297 mean and EP El Niño. Moreover, the anomalies in wind fields during EP and CP El 298 Niño (i.e., anomalous southerly during EP El Niño and anomalous northwesterly during 299 CP El Niño) are well reproduced by E3SM. It suggests that the atmospheric circulation 300 features over central-eastern China during different types of El Niño are roughly 301 captured by the model. Also However, we note that the observational there are notably 302 differences in atmospheric circulation over many regions of East Asia. It can be partly 303 attributed to the model bias in reproducing the atmospheric responses to El Niño. The 304 observations can also be induced by other climate factors besides El Niño, leading to a 305 potential inconsistency in El Niño impact between model and observation.

306 The effect of relative humidity (RH) on dust concentration is also essential, 307 considering that a decrease in RH leads to a decrease in the threshold friction velocity 308 at high RHs (>40%), which further enhances dust emission flux and atmospheric 309 concentration (Csavina et al., 2014). Both EP and CP El Niño events have negative 310 anomalies in DJF RH in the Gobi Desert (Figs. 6a and 6b). The decrease in RH reduces 311 the dust threshold friction velocity and favors dust emission from the Gobi Desert. The 312 CP El Niño produces more pronounced and widespread negative RH anomalies in the 313 Gobi Desert and northwestern China than the EP El Niño. It gives approximately 3% 314 stronger negative RH anomalies (Fig. 6c), resulting in stronger and more widespread 315 increases in DJF dust concentrations during the CP El Niño event (Fig. 2c). As for El 316 Niño with different duration, the SD El Niño leads to significant decreases in DJF RH

317 of about 3% near the south part of the Gobi Desert, while increases in RH are located 318 over north part of the Gobi Desert during the LD El Niño (Figs. 6g and 6j), likely 319 resulting in the opposite changes in dust emissions. The ERA5 reanalysis data also 320 show the same RH variations during the different spatial and temporal types of El Niño 321 as the E3SM simulations described above (Fig. <u>\$3\$84</u>). Among all four types of El Niño 322 events, RH anomalies are consistent with the distribution of dust concentration 323 anomalies, which indicates that RH plays an important role in affecting variations in 324 dust emissions and concentrations in China during El Niño.

325 Fig. 7 shows the simulated changes in DJF dust emissions during different El Niño 326 events. During the EP and CP El Niño, DJF dust emissions are enhanced in the Gobi 327 Desert and northwestern China relative to the climatological average. The dust emission 328 increase is larger during the CP El Niño than the EP El Niño, which is consistent with 329 the higher positive DJF dust concentration anomalies during the CP El Niño. 330 Furthermore, the SD El Niño causes a significant increase in dust emissions of about 0.5 g m⁻² d⁻¹ in the Gobi Desert compared to CLIM, while the LD El Niño causes a 331 332 decrease in dust emissions. These suggest that different types of El Niño events alter 333 the DJF dust emissions in China by changing the 10-m wind speed and RH, which is 334 the important cause of the variation in DJF dust concentrations in China.

335 Furthermore, a reduced DJF precipitation during both EP and CP El Niño events 336 weakens(Fig. S5) should weaken the wet removal of dust from the atmosphere in 337 northern China (Fig. S4), further enhancing the. However, only insignificant decreases 338 in wet deposition appear in part of northern China and significant increases in DJF wet 339 deposition are located in central and southern China related to increases in dust loading 340 during EP and CP El Niño events (Fig. S6). It suggests that El Niño impact on dust 341 concentrations is mainly through changing the emission and transport of dust rather 342 than the scavenging in winter.

343 **3.3 Spring dust pollution affected by El Niño events**

The changes in near-surface dust concentrations over China in the following spring during the decaying phase for different spatial and temporal types of El Niño are also examined (Fig. 8). During the following spring, all El Niño events trigger large positive anomalies of March-April-May (MAM) dust concentrations in northern China. However, the increases in dust concentrations during the EP, CP and SD El Niño relative to the climatological average fail the 90% significance test, indicating that the effects of these types of El Niño events on the dust pollution in northern China in the following 351 spring are uncertain, likely related to the large internal variability of the climate system. 352 In contrast to the strong reduction in dust concentrations over the Gobi Desert and 353 northern China during the LD El Niño in DJF, the effect in MAM reverses to a 354 significant increase in dust concentrations over these regions by 50–100 μ g m⁻³ (Fig. 355 8e). It suggests that the weaker intensity but longer duration of LD El Niño than the SD 356 El Niño can significantly affect spring dust aerosols in China.

357 During LD El Niño events, MAM 10-m wind speed significantly increases over 358 the Gobi Desert (Fig. <u>\$5</u>\$7), which facilitates the local dust emissions, although RH 359 only shows an insignificant decrease over the dust source region (Fig. $\frac{5658}{100}$). It can be 360 confirmed by the significant increases in MAM dust emissions by about 0.5 g m⁻² d⁻¹ over the Gobi Desert and northwestern China during LD El Niño events (Fig. 9). Then 361 362 the strengthened northwesterly brings more dust to northern China during LD El Niño 363 events (Fig. S7S9). Along the transport pathway, the weakened precipitation (Fig. S10) 364 <u>partly</u> reduces the dust wet removal (Fig. <u>\$8\$11</u>), leading to the strong increase in 365 MAM dust concentration over northern China during the LD El Niño. However, this 366 effect is largely overwhelmed by the increased dust wet removal due to the emission-367 induced increase in dust concentrations.

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9 4. Conclusion and discussions

Dust, as an important air pollutant affecting air quality in China in winter and spring, can be modulated by the interannual variations in El Niño-induced atmospheric circulation and precipitation anomalies. In this study, the state-of-the-art E3SM model is used to simulate the effects of different temporal types of El Niño events with short (SD) and long duration (LD) and different spatial locations of El Niño events with sea surface temperature anomalies located in Central Pacific (CP) and Eastern Pacific (EP) on dust concentrations in China.

Both CP and EP El Niño events cause 5–50 μ g m⁻³ positive anomalies in winter (DJF months) surface dust concentrations in central-eastern China. Compared to the EP El Nino, the CP El Nino triggers a stronger wind and negative RH anomalies that lead to greater local dust emissions. Then the anomalous northwesterly transports the dust aerosols to central-eastern China during the CP El Nino, accompanied by a reduced precipitation and wet removal of dust from the atmosphere, resulting in 5–20 μ g m⁻³ higher and more widespread DJF dust concentration increases in northern China384 although the changes are mostly statistically insignificant. For the different temporal 385 types of El Niño events, wind speed significantly increases over the Gobi Desert and 386 northern China during the SD El Niño, favoring dust emissions. Meanwhile, the 387 anomalous northwesterly can increase the transport of dust aerosols to central-eastern 388 China, leading to an increase in DJF near-surface dust concentrations of 20-100 µg m⁻ 3 in northern China and 5–20 µg m⁻³ in southern China relative to the climatological 389 390 mean. On the contrary, the LD El Niño reduces wind speed over the Gobi Desert and 391 northern China, which weakens dust emissions, accompanied with the atmospheric 392 circulation anomalies unfavorable for dust transport, leading to the DJF dust 393 concentration decrease by $5-50 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ in northern and northeastern China relative to 394 the climatological mean.

395 In the following spring season, the four types of El Niño events with different 396 durations and spatial positions all cause positive dust concentration anomalies in 397 northern China. However, only the changes during the LD El Niño are statistically 398 significant. This is mainly due to an increase in 10-m wind speed over the Gobi Desert 399 during the LD El Niño, which enhances the local dust emissions, and then the 400 strengthened northwesterly brings more dust to the northern China. At the same time, 401 the weakened precipitation reduces the dust wet removal along the transport pathway. 402 It suggests that the weaker intensity but longer duration of LD El Niño events than SD 403 El Niño can significantly affect dust aerosols in China in spring.

404 In this study, the dust concentrations are evaluated by comparing modeled 405 concentrations with MAM PM₁₀ concentrations and the dust loading is also evaluated 406 by comparing modeled DOD with that derived from satellite data. However, the 407 anomalies of dust concentrations were not compared with observations. This is because 408 that dust is jointly influenced by many factors in the observation other than El Niño, 409 such as Mongolian cyclone, sea ice in the Barents Sea, sea surface temperature in 410 Atlantic Ocean, Arctic Oscillation, and human activities (Fan et al 2016, 2018; Mao et 411 al., 2011; Wang et al., 2021; Xiao et al., 2015; Yin et al., 2021), while this study presents 412 the "pure" effects of El Niño on dust using an Earth system model. In addition, PM10 is 413 strongly influenced by other anthropogenic aerosols over eastern China, especially in 414 hazy winter. The comprehensive understanding of the impacts from different types of 415 El Niño events on dust in China requires a longer-term observation with sufficient 416 spatial coverage.

⁴¹⁷ Our results contribute to the current knowledge of the vital influence of different

418 types of El Niño on dust pollution in winter and spring over China, which have 419 profound implications for air pollution control and dust storm prediction in China. Notwithstanding, we also note that the E3SMv1 overestimates dust emissions from the 420 421 source regions and underestimates the long-range transport of dust (Wu et al., 2020; 422 Feng et al, 2022), which may lead to biases in the estimate of El Nino impact on dust 423 concentrations in China.). This high bias of dust loading near the dust source regions 424 are related to the dust treatment in the model, dust parameterization and stronger winds 425 in model than observations. The low bias of long-range transport of dust is due to the 426 strong dust deposition considering that dust is emitted in the shallow model bottom 427 layer in the model. Therefore, the estimate of El Niño impact on dust emissions and 428 concentrations are likely to be overestimated near the source regions, but impact from 429 changes in large-scale circulation related to El Niño on dust transport is possibly 430 underestimated. Also, results from a single model with relative short simulations may not be representative and may not well remove the internal atmospheric variability, 431 432 which can be further investigated by conducting large ensemble and longer simulations 433 using multi-models. In future studies, the influences of different types of La Niña, the 434 cooling phase of ENSO, on dust pollution in China, warrants further investigation. 435 Besides, other natural aerosols, such as sea salt, are also influenced by El Niño events, 436 which is not taken into account in this study. In addition to natural sources, dust in 437 China can also be from anthropogenic emissions (Chen et al., 2019; Xia et al., 2022), 438 and their relations with El Niño require further study. 439

440	Code and data availability
441	The E3SMv1 model is available at https://github.com/E3SM-Project/E3SM (last access:
442	25 Mar 2022) (http://doi.org/10.11578/E3SM/dc.20180418.36, E3SM project, 2018).
443	Our results can be made available upon request.
444	
445	Author contributions
446	YY designed the research and analyzed the data. LZ performed the model simulations.
447	All the authors including HW, PW, and HL discussed the results and wrote the paper.
448	
449	Competing interests
450	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
451	
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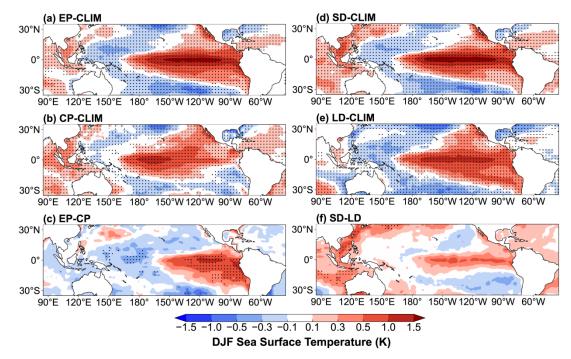
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658 Figure 1. Composite differences in DJF mean SST (°C) between (a) EP, (b) CP, (d) SD, (e) LD El

659 Niño events and climatological mean over 1870–2017, and (c) between EP and CP, and (f) between

SD and LD El Niño events. Statistically significant differences at <u>9899</u>% from a two-tailed T-test
 are stippled.

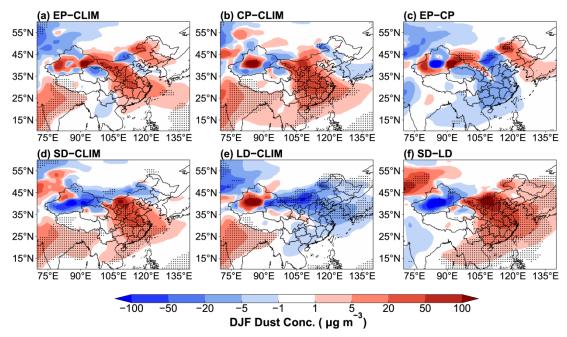
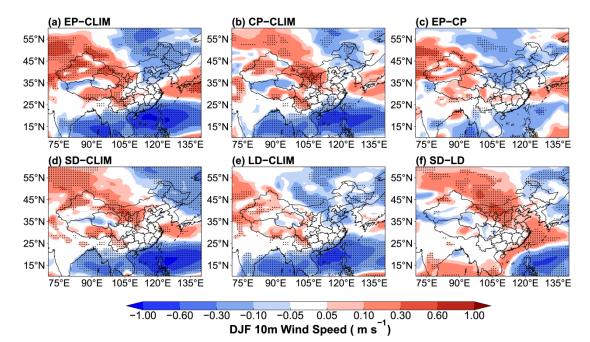


Figure 2. Composite differences in DJF mean near-surface dust concentrations (μ g m⁻³) between EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence

- from a two-tailed T-test.
- 668





670 Figure 3. Composite differences in DJF mean 10-m wind speed (m s⁻¹) between EP and CLIM in

- 671 (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and
- 672 LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-
- tailed T-test.
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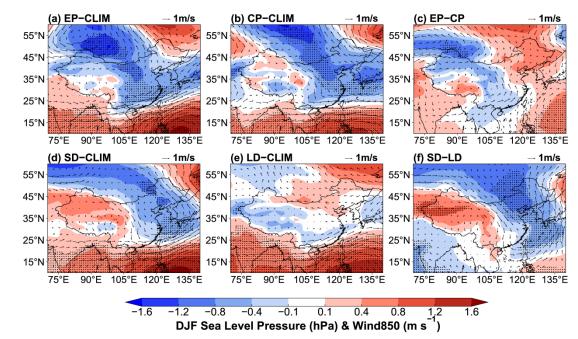


Figure 4. Composite differences in DJF mean sea level pressure (SLP, shaded; units: hPa) and winds
at 850 hPa (WIND850, vector; units: m s⁻¹) between EP and CLIM in (a,), CP and CLIM in (b), and
EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled
areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-tailed T-test.

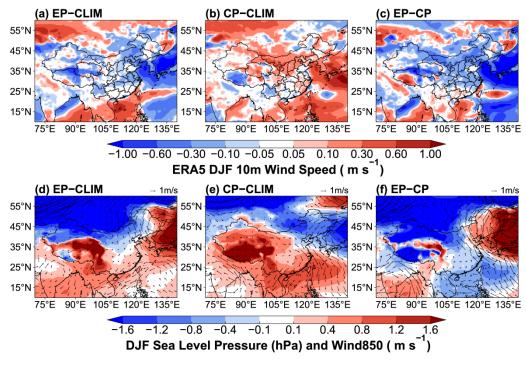


Figure 5. Composite differences in DJF mean 10-m wind speed (m s⁻¹) (top panels) and sea level
pressure (SLP, shaded; units: hPa) and wind at 850 hPa (WIND850, vector; units: m s⁻¹) (bottom
panels) between 2006/07 EP El Niño and climatological mean (1950–2017) in (a, d), 2014/15 CP
El Niño and climatological mean in (b, e), and 2006/07 EP El Niño and 2014/15 CP El Niño in (c,
f) from the EAR5 reanalysis data. The data were detrended over 1950–2017.

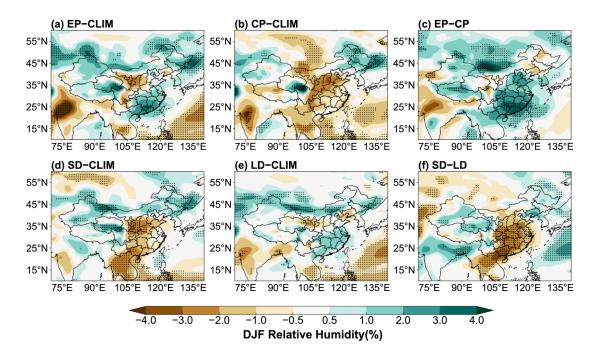




Figure 6. Composite differences in DJF mean relative humidity (units: %) between EP and CLIM
in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), and EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and

692 SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a

693 two-tailed T-test.

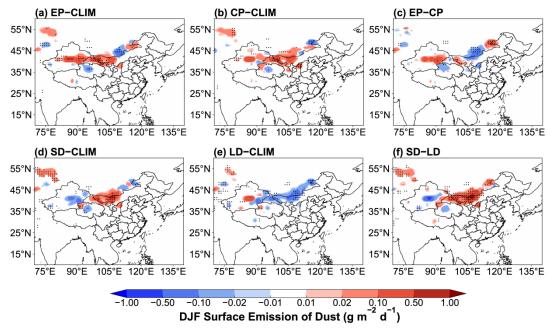
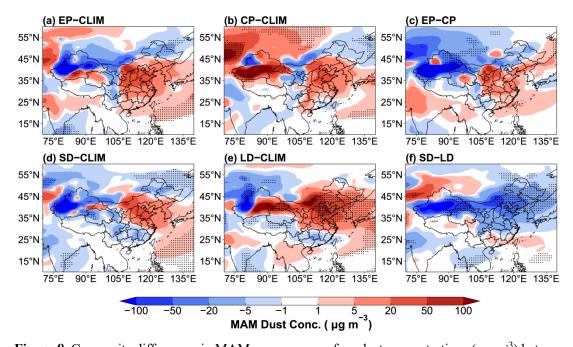


Figure 7. Composite differences in DJF mean dust emissions (g m⁻² d⁻¹) between EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-tailed T-test.



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Figure 8. Composite differences in MAM mean near-surface dust concentrations (µg m⁻³) between
 EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in

704 (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence

- from a two-tailed T-test.
- 706

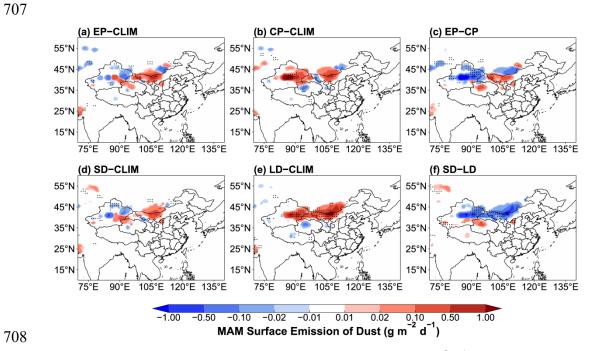




Figure 9. Composite differences in MAM mean dust emissions (g m⁻² d⁻¹) between EP and CLIM 709 710 in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD

711 and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-

- 712 tailed T-test.
- 713