

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 seasons. Dust in China is potentially influenced by the interannual climate variability  
30 associated with El Niño. Here, the impacts of El Niño with different temporal and  
31 spatial types on dust pollution in boreal winter and spring in China and the potential  
32 mechanisms are investigated using a state-of-the-art earth system model (E3SMv1). We  
33 find that the Eastern Pacific (EP) and Central Pacific (CP) El Niño both increase  
34 wintertime dust concentrations by 5–50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  over central-eastern China. Due to a  
35 stronger wind and lower relative humidity, which favor dust emissions near sources,  
36 and a strengthened northwesterly and reduced precipitation, which are conducive to  
37 dust transport, dust concentrations during the CP El Niño are 5–20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  higher in  
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  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  over northern China relative to the climatological  
41 mean, while there is a decrease of 5–50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during the long duration (LD) El Niño,  
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  
46 of the LD El Niño events can significantly affect spring dust in China. Our results  
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 21<sup>st</sup> 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.

81 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 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  
115 associated mechanisms, which are crucial for predicting and combating dust pollution

116 in the near future.

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

124

## 125 **2. Data and Methods**

### 126 **2.1 Data**

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

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

### 140 **2.2 El Niño events identified as different spatial and temporal types**

141 We first clarify the definition of different temporal and spatial types of El Niño  
142 events here. The notation of  $year^0$  is used to denote the first year of El Niño  
143 development, and  $Jan^0$ ,  $Feb^0$ , ..., and  $Dec^0$  indicate the individual months of that year,  
144 while  $year^{1,2,\dots}$  and  $Jan^{1,2,\dots}$ ,  $Feb^{1,2,\dots}$ , ..., and  $Dec^{1,2,\dots}$ , respectively, denote the  
145 following years and months therein. Niño 3.4 index is defined as area-mean anomalies  
146 of detrended SST in the Niño 3.4 region ( $170^\circ W$ – $120^\circ W$ ,  $5^\circ S$ – $5^\circ N$ ). Niño 3/4 index  
147 ( $I_{Ni\ddot{o}3}/I_{Ni\ddot{o}4}$ ) is same as Niño 3.4 index, but in the Niño 3/4 region ( $150^\circ W$ – $90^\circ W$ ,  $5^\circ S$ –  
148  $5^\circ N$ ;  $160^\circ E$ – $150^\circ W$ ,  $5^\circ S$ – $5^\circ N$ ).

149 For the classification of different temporal types, following Wu et al. (2019), El  
 150 Niño events are firstly selected if any of 3-month running averaged Niño 3.4 index  
 151 during Oct<sup>0</sup>–Feb<sup>1</sup> greater than 0.75°C. Then the LD El Niño event is identified once  
 152 any of Niño 3.4 index during Oct<sup>1</sup>–Feb<sup>2</sup> is higher than 0.5°C; otherwise, it is a SD El  
 153 Niño event.

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

$$158 \quad I_{EP} = I_{Niño3} - \alpha \times I_{Niño4} \quad (1)$$

$$159 \quad I_{CP} = I_{Niño4} - \alpha \times I_{Niño3} \quad (2)$$

$$160 \quad \alpha = \begin{cases} 0.4, & I_{Niño3} \times I_{Niño4} > 0 \\ 0, & I_{Niño3} \times I_{Niño4} \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

161 If the mean  $I_{EP}$  is greater than the  $I_{CP}$  during Oct<sup>0</sup>–Feb<sup>1</sup> of an El Niño, then it is an  
 162 EP El Niño event; else, it is a CP El Niño event. Note that there also exist mixed El  
 163 Niño events that are not considered separately in this study.

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

### 169 **2.3 Model description and experimental design**

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

182 meter wind speed, surface soil moisture content, soil erodibility, vegetation cover and  
183 threshold friction velocity.

184 The following simulations are performed. A “CLIM” experiment applying the  
185 prescribed climatological mean of monthly SST during 1870–2017 is integrated for 30  
186 years. Four sets of sensitivity simulations, “SD”, “LD”, “EP” and “CP”, are driven by  
187 the monthly SST representing the composite of SD, LD, EP and CP El Niño events,  
188 respectively, which is generated through adding the mean monthly SST anomalies from  
189 Jul<sup>0</sup> to Jun<sup>1</sup> of the SD, LD, EP, and CP El Niño events (Fig. S1), respectively, to the  
190 climatological SST between 60°S and 60°N. All the sensitivity experiments have 3  
191 ensemble members with diverse initial conditions branched from different years of the  
192 CLIM simulation and the results are based on the ensemble mean. All sensitivity  
193 experiments are run for 13 years with the first 3 years as model spin-up and the last 10  
194 years used for analysis. The differences of model fields between the sensitivity  
195 simulations and CLIM represent the influences of El Niño events with different spatial  
196 and temporal types on dust aerosols. All other external factors such as greenhouse gas  
197 concentrations, insolation, anthropogenic aerosols and their precursor emissions are  
198 hold at present-day conditions (year 2014). The SST anomalies relative to the 1870–  
199 2017 climatology during SD, LD, EP and CP El Niño events are shown in Fig. 1.

## 200 **2.4 Model evaluation**

201 To evaluate the model performance in dust simulation, we compare the simulated  
202 near-surface dust concentration and dust optical depth (DOD) over China with observed  
203 PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations and satellite retrieved DOD, respectively. The model can  
204 reproduce the spatial distribution of springtime dust in China, with high dust  
205 concentrations in northwestern China and low in southern and northeastern China (Fig.  
206 S2). The spatial correlation coefficient between the simulated dust concentrations in  
207 E3SMv1 and observed near-surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations is +0.55. However, the model  
208 strongly overestimates dust concentrations over the source regions, which were also  
209 reported in many previous studies using the E3SMv1 and CESM (the predecessor of  
210 E3SMv1) (Wang et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2019). The high model bias near the sources is  
211 also confirmed by comparing DOD between model simulation and satellite retrieval. It  
212 suggests that the dust emissions are overestimated in northwestern China in the model.  
213 The high bias is partly related to the dust treatment in the model that dust is emitted  
214 into a shallow model bottom layer in E3SMv1 for increased model vertical resolution  
215 (Wang et al., 2020). In addition, stronger 10-m wind speed simulated by the model

216 compared to the observation (Fig. S3) also contributes to the higher dust loading.  
217 However, we also note that the E3SMv1 underestimates the transport of dust from  
218 source regions (Wu et al., 2020; Feng et al, 2022), thus the dust over eastern China is  
219 comparable to observations.

## 220 **3. Results**

### 221 **3.1 Impacts of different El Niño types on winter dust pollution**

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

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



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

### 253 **3.2 Mechanisms of the different El Niño impacts on winter dust**

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

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

276 Figure 4 shows the atmospheric circulation anomalies for the four El Niño events.  
277 All types of El Niño have negative anomalies of sea level pressure (SLP) in central-  
278 eastern China, except the LD El Niño that shows a negligible SLP change in winter.  
279 Meanwhile, during the EP, CP, and SD El Niño events, anomalous Mongolian cyclone  
280 can strengthen the local ascending flow to lift more dust particles into the free  
281 atmosphere. The anomalous northwesterly during CP and SD El Niño (Figs. 3b and 3d)  
282 can transport these dust aerosols to central-eastern China, leading to the strong increases

283 in dust concentrations there (Figs. 2b and 2d). While during the LD El Niño, the lower  
284 atmosphere in the Gobi Desert and northern China is controlled by a weak anomalous  
285 high pressure accompanied by anomalous southeasterly that weakens the prevailing  
286 northwesterly in winter and hinders the vertical lifting and southward transport of dust.

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

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

317 over north part of the Gobi Desert during the LD El Niño (Figs. 6g and 6j), likely  
318 resulting in the opposite changes in dust emissions. The ERA5 reanalysis data also  
319 show the same RH variations during the different spatial and temporal types of El Niño  
320 as the E3SM simulations described above (Fig. S4). Among all four types of El Niño  
321 events, RH anomalies are consistent with the distribution of dust concentration  
322 anomalies, which indicates that RH plays an important role in affecting variations in  
323 dust emissions and concentrations in China during El Niño.

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

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

### 341 **3.3 Spring dust pollution affected by El Niño events**

342 The changes in near-surface dust concentrations over China in the following spring  
343 during the decaying phase for different spatial and temporal types of El Niño are also  
344 examined (Fig. 8). During the following spring, all El Niño events trigger large positive  
345 anomalies of March-April-May (MAM) dust concentrations in northern China.  
346 However, the increases in dust concentrations during the EP, CP and SD El Niño relative  
347 to the climatological average fail the 90% significance test, indicating that the effects  
348 of these types of El Niño events on the dust pollution in northern China in the following  
349 spring are uncertain, likely related to the large internal variability of the climate system.  
350 In contrast to the strong reduction in dust concentrations over the Gobi Desert and

351 northern China during the LD El Niño in DJF, the effect in MAM reverses to a  
352 significant increase in dust concentrations over these regions by 50–100  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Fig.  
353 8e). It suggests that the weaker intensity but longer duration of LD El Niño than the SD  
354 El Niño can significantly affect spring dust aerosols in China.

355 During LD El Niño events, MAM 10-m wind speed significantly increases over  
356 the Gobi Desert (Fig. S7), which facilitates the local dust emissions, although RH only  
357 shows an insignificant decrease over the dust source region (Fig. S8). It can be  
358 confirmed by the significant increases in MAM dust emissions by about 0.5  $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$   
359 over the Gobi Desert and northwestern China during LD El Niño events (Fig. 9). Then  
360 the strengthened northwesterly brings more dust to northern China during LD El Niño  
361 events (Fig. S9). Along the transport pathway, the weakened precipitation (Fig. S10)  
362 partly reduces the dust wet removal (Fig. S11), leading to the strong increase in MAM  
363 dust concentration over northern China during the LD El Niño. However, this effect is  
364 largely overwhelmed by the increased dust wet removal due to the emission-induced  
365 increase in dust concentrations.

366

#### 367 **4. Conclusion and discussions**

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

375 Both CP and EP El Niño events cause 5–50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  positive anomalies in winter  
376 (DJF months) surface dust concentrations in central-eastern China. Compared to the EP  
377 El Niño, the CP El Niño triggers a stronger wind and negative RH anomalies that lead  
378 to greater local dust emissions. Then the anomalous northwesterly transports the dust  
379 aerosols to central-eastern China during the CP El Niño, resulting in 5–20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  higher  
380 and more widespread DJF dust concentration increases in northern China, although the  
381 changes are mostly statistically insignificant. For the different temporal types of El  
382 Niño events, wind speed significantly increases over the Gobi Desert and northern  
383 China during the SD El Niño, favoring dust emissions. Meanwhile, the anomalous

384 northwesterly can increase the transport of dust aerosols to central-eastern China,  
385 leading to an increase in DJF near-surface dust concentrations of 20–100  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in  
386 northern China and 5–20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in southern China relative to the climatological mean.  
387 On the contrary, the LD El Niño reduces wind speed over the Gobi Desert and northern  
388 China, which weakens dust emissions, accompanied with the atmospheric circulation  
389 anomalies unfavorable for dust transport, leading to the DJF dust concentration  
390 decrease by 5–50  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in northern and northeastern China relative to the  
391 climatological mean.

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

400 In this study, the dust concentrations are evaluated by comparing modeled  
401 concentrations with MAM  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations and the dust loading is also evaluated  
402 by comparing modeled DOD with that derived from satellite data. However, the  
403 anomalies of dust concentrations were not compared with observations. This is because  
404 that dust is jointly influenced by many factors in the observation other than El Niño,  
405 such as Mongolian cyclone, sea ice in the Barents Sea, sea surface temperature in  
406 Atlantic Ocean, Arctic Oscillation, and human activities (Fan et al 2016, 2018; Mao et  
407 al., 2011; Wang et al., 2021; Xiao et al., 2015; Yin et al., 2021), while this study presents  
408 the “pure” effects of El Niño on dust using an Earth system model. In addition,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  is  
409 strongly influenced by other anthropogenic aerosols over eastern China, especially in  
410 hazy winter. The comprehensive understanding of the impacts from different types of  
411 El Niño events on dust in China requires a longer-term observation with sufficient  
412 spatial coverage.

413 Our results contribute to the current knowledge of the vital influence of different  
414 types of El Niño on dust pollution in winter and spring over China, which have  
415 profound implications for air pollution control and dust storm prediction in China.  
416 Notwithstanding, we also note that the E3SMv1 overestimates dust emissions from the  
417 source regions and underestimates the long-range transport of dust (Wu et al., 2020;

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

435 ***Code and data availability***

436 The E3SMv1 model is available at <https://github.com/E3SM-Project/E3SM> (last access:  
437 25 Mar 2022) (<http://doi.org/10.11578/E3SM/dc.20180418.36>, E3SM project, 2018).

438 Our results can be made available upon request.

439

440 ***Author contributions***

441 YY designed the research and analyzed the data. LZ performed the model simulations.

442 All the authors including HW, PW, and HL discussed the results and wrote the paper.

443

444 ***Competing interests***

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

446

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453

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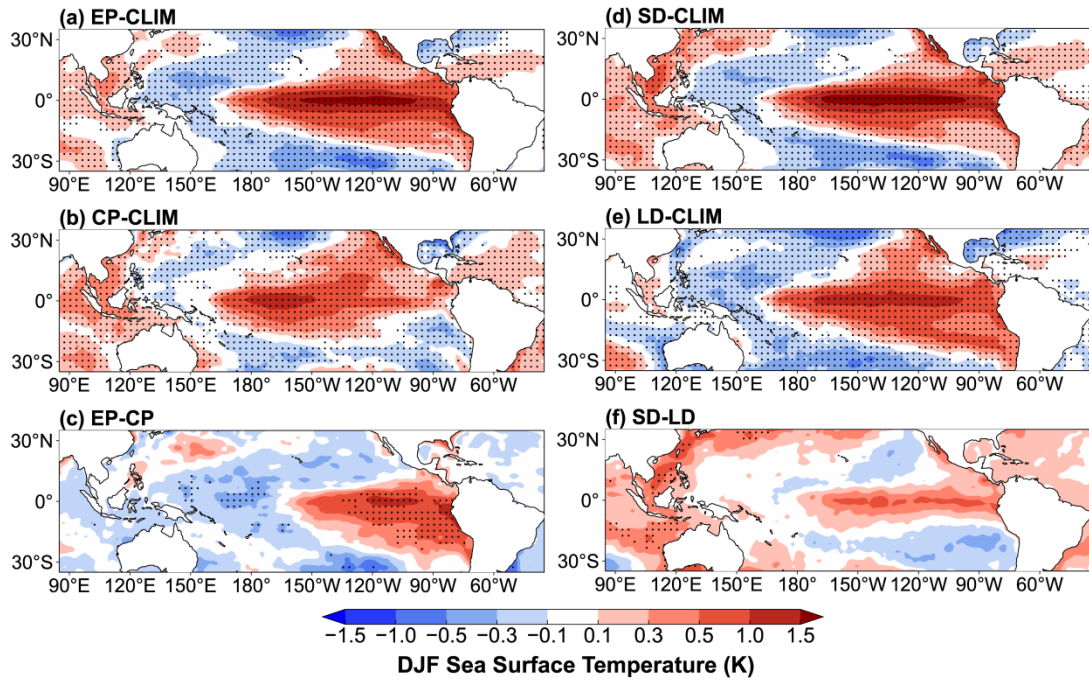
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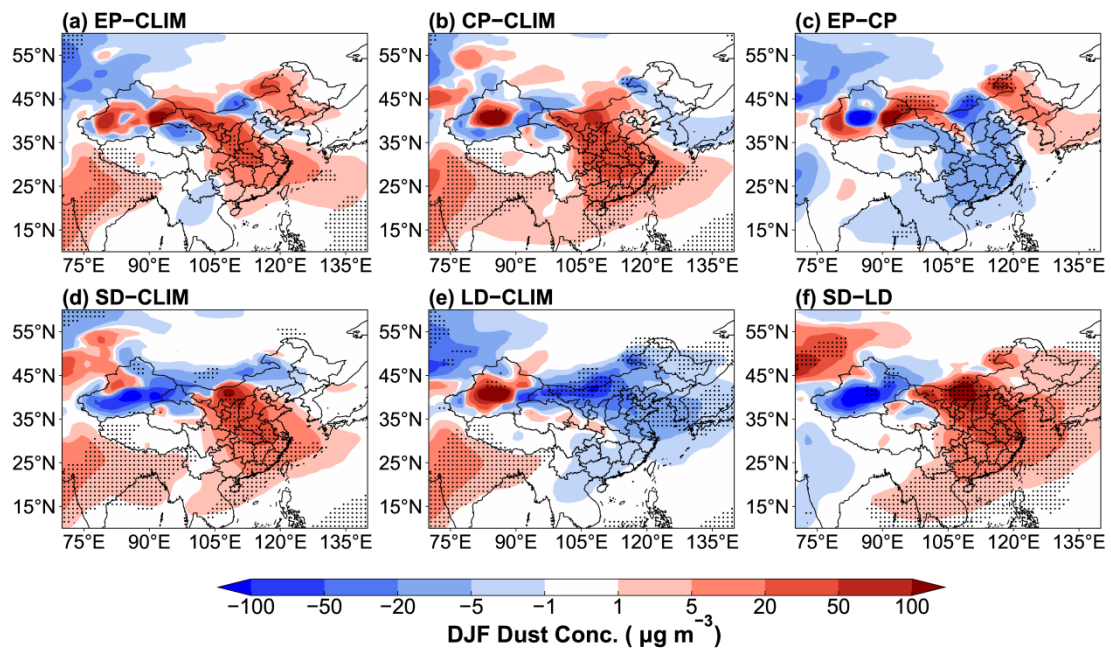
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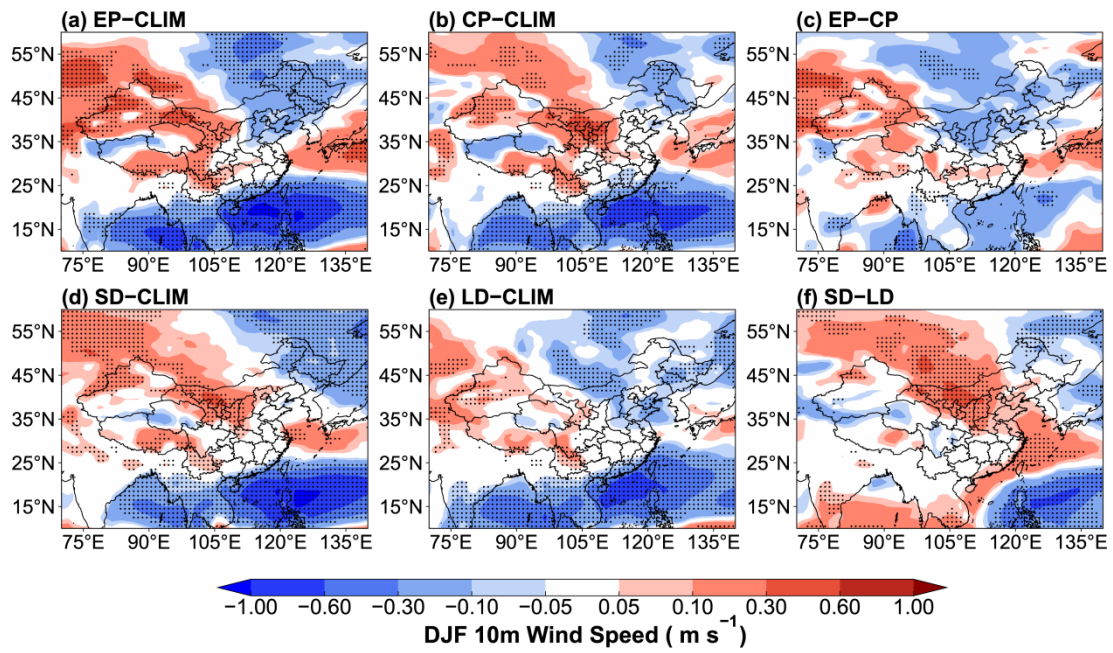
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**Figure 1.** Composite differences in DJF mean SST ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) between (a) EP, (b) CP, (d) SD, (e) LD El Niño events and climatological mean over 1870–2017, and (c) between EP and CP, and (f) between SD and LD El Niño events. Statistically significant differences at 99% from a two-tailed T-test are stippled.



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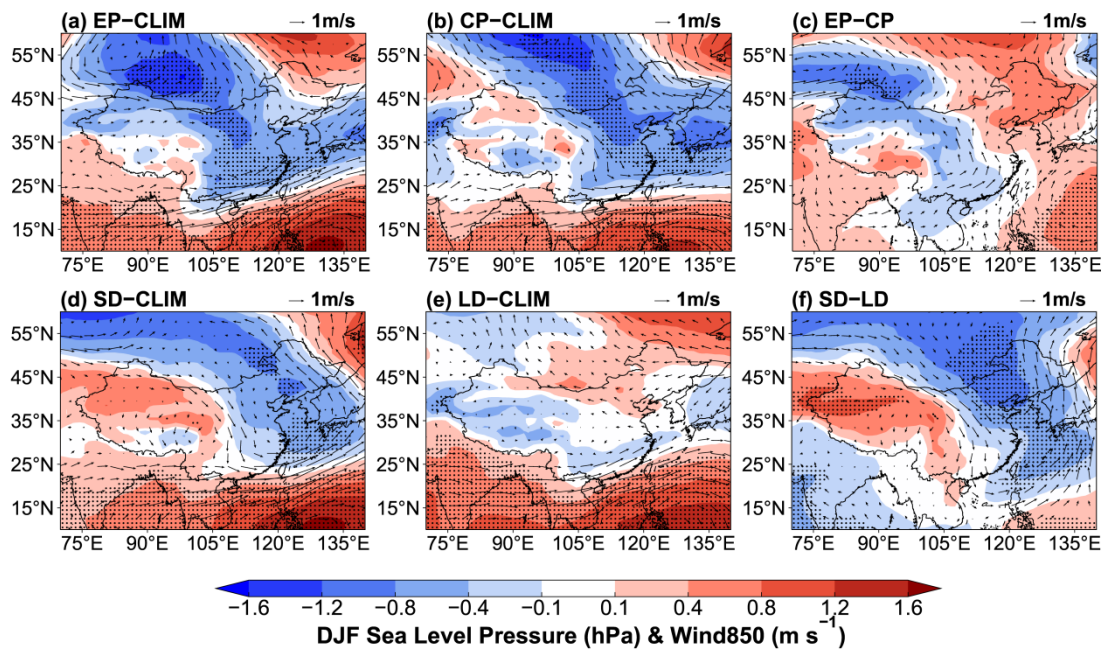
**Figure 2.** Composite differences in DJF mean near-surface dust concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) between EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-tailed T-test.



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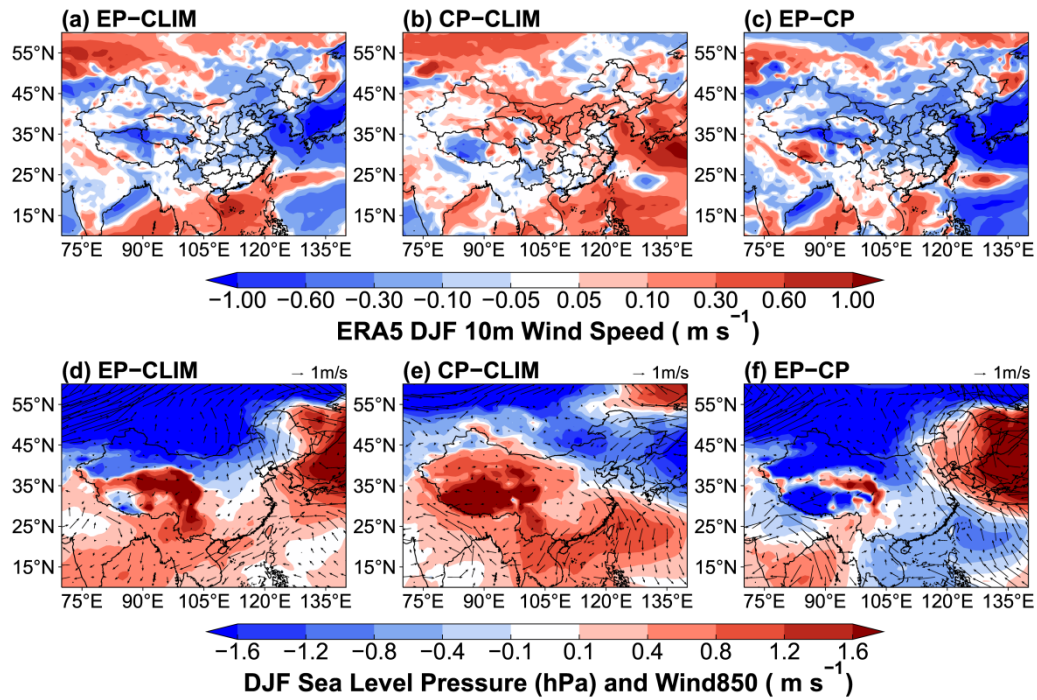
**Figure 3.** Composite differences in DJF mean 10-m wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) between EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-tailed T-test.





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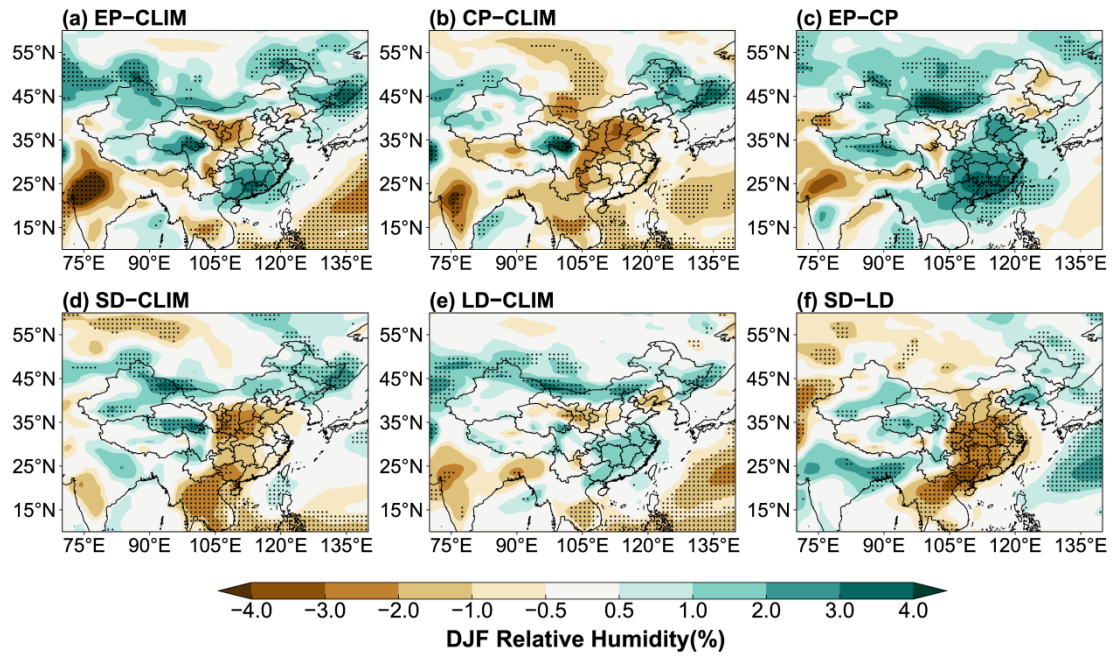
**Figure 4.** Composite differences in DJF mean sea level pressure (SLP, shaded; units: hPa) and winds at 850 hPa (WIND850, vector; units:  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) between EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), and EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled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



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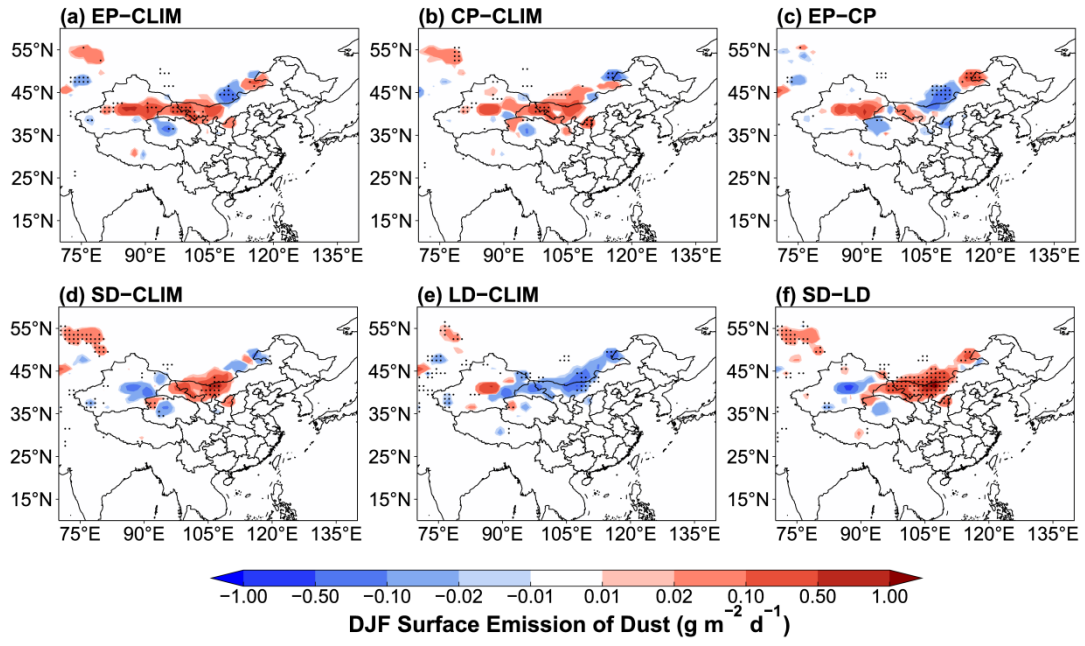
676 **Figure 5.** Composite differences in DJF mean 10-m wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) (top panels)  
 677 pressure (SLP, shaded; units: hPa) and wind at 850 hPa (WIND850, vector; units:  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) (bottom  
 678 panels) between 2006/07 EP El Niño and climatological mean (1950–2017) in (a, d), 2014/15 CP  
 679 El Niño and climatological mean in (b, e), and 2006/07 EP El Niño and 2014/15 CP El Niño in (c,  
 680 f) from the ERA5 reanalysis data. The data were detrended over 1950–2017.

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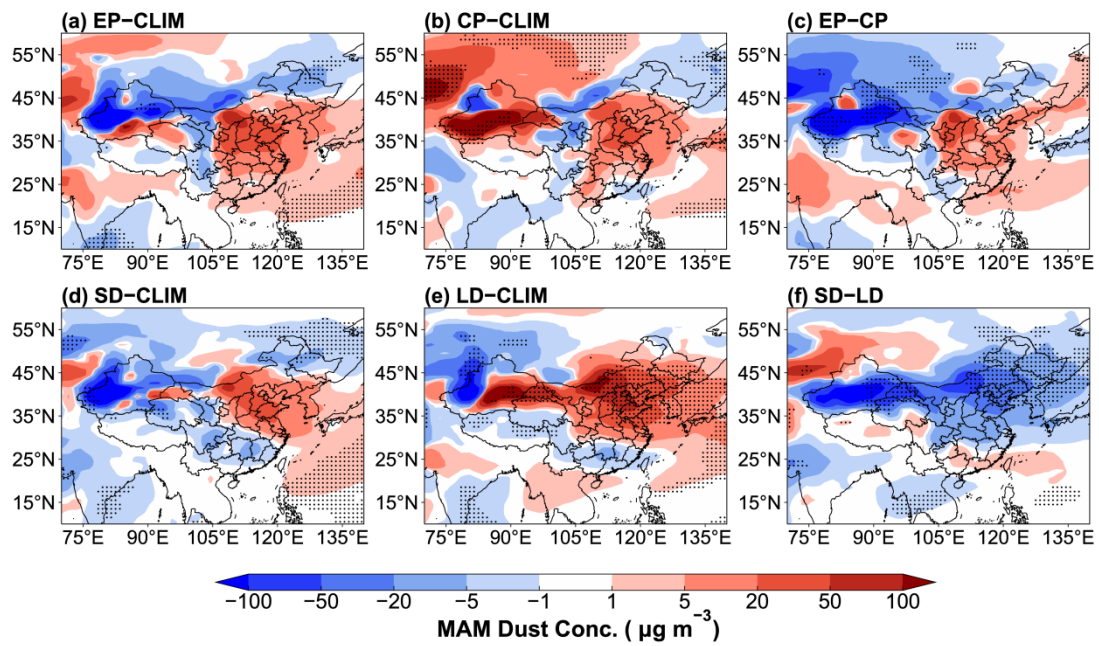
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683 **Figure 6.** Composite differences in DJF mean relative humidity (units: %) between EP and CLIM  
 684 in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), and EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and  
 685 SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a  
 686 two-tailed T-test.  
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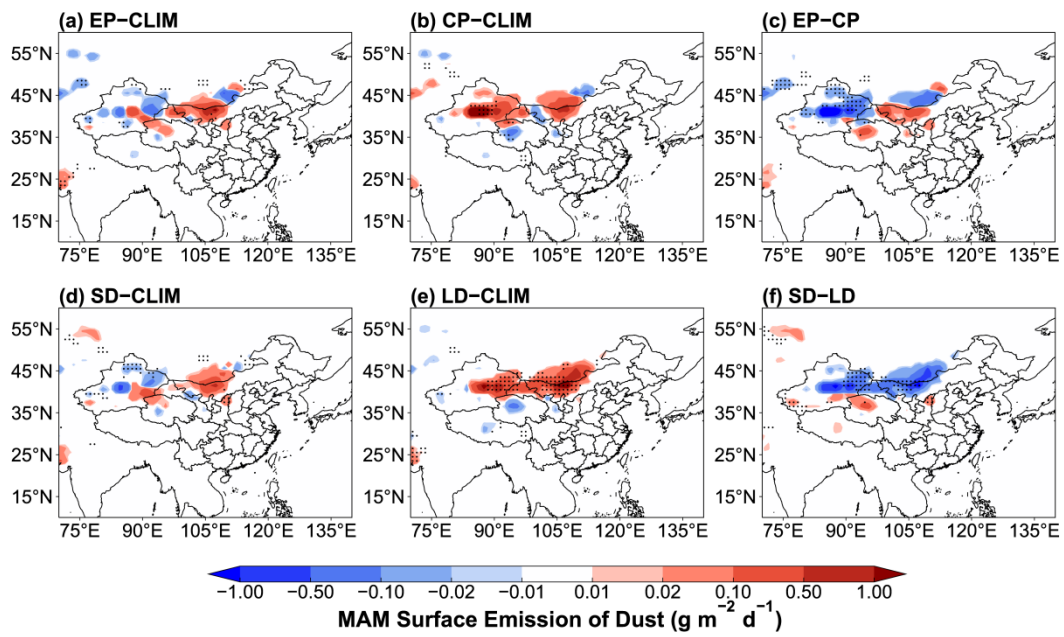
**Figure 7.** Composite differences in DJF mean dust emissions ( $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) between EP and CLIM in (a), CP and CLIM in (b), EP and CP in (c), SD and CLIM in (d), LD and CLIM in (e), and SD and LD in (f). The stippled areas indicate statistical significance with 90% confidence from a two-tailed T-test.



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**Figure 8.** Composite differences in MAM mean near-surface dust concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) 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.

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**Figure 9.** Composite differences in MAM mean dust emissions ( $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) 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.