

1 **Where does the dust deposited over the Sierra Nevada snow come from?**

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19 **Abstract**

20 Mineral dust contributes up to one-half of surface aerosol loading in spring over the southwestern U.S.,
21 posing an environmental challenge that threatens human health and the ecosystem. Using the self-
22 organizing map (SOM) analysis with dust deposition and fluxes data from WRF-Chem and Modern-Era
23 Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2), we identify four typical dust
24 transport patterns across the Sierra Nevada, associated with the mesoscale winds, Sierra-Barrier-Jets (SBJ),
25 North-Pacific-High (NPH), and long-range cross-Pacific westerlies, respectively. We find that dust emitted
26 from the Central Valley is persistently transported eastward, while dust from the Mojave Desert and Great
27 Basin influences the Sierra Nevada during mesoscale transport occurring mostly in winter and early spring.
28 Asian dust reaching the mountain range comes either from the west through straight isobars (cross-Pacific
29 transport) or from the north in the presence of the NPH. Extensive dust depositions are found on the west
30 slope of the mountain, contributed by Central Valley emissions and cross-Pacific remote transport.
31 Especially, the SBJ-related transport produces deposition through landfalling atmospheric rivers, whose
32 frequency might increase in a warming climate.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 The emission, transport, and deposition of mineral dust (hereafter dust) are processes
35 receiving increasing interest from the scientific community (Sarangi et al., 2020). Dust emission is an
36 integral part of aridification and mirrors the effects of climatic change and anthropogenic land use on global
37 drylands (Duniway et al., 2019). Airborne dust interacts with Earth's climate system by altering the
38 radiation budget and cloud lifetime and amount (Forster et al., 2007; Haywood et al., 2005; Huang et al.,
39 2019; Liu et al., 2022b). Research has indicated that exposure to dust particles can cause respiratory
40 infections, heart disease, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) (Laden et al., 2006; Lim et
41 al., 2012; Crooks et al., 2016). A significant association between dust exposure and increased mortality has
42 been reported, but there is no consensus in this regard to date (Giannadaki et al., 2014). The deposition of
43 dust on snow surface influences snow albedo, further contributing to anthropogenic climate change as early
44 as the 1970s (Qian et al., 2009; Qian et al., 2014; Skiles et al., 2018).

45 Dust over the southwestern U.S., particularly in California and Nevada states, is an important
46 aerosol type contributing to more than half of surface aerosol concentrations in spring (Kim et al., 2021).
47 Covered by dry soil with large gaps and sparse vegetation, the surrounding Mojave Desert, Sonoran Desert,
48 and Great basin are susceptible to wind erosion (Okin et al., 2006; Duniway et al., 2019). The dry or
49 ephemeral lakes in the deserts produce very fine dust containing toxic inorganic constituents (Goldstein et
50 al., 2017). In addition, anthropogenic land-use practices – e.g., agriculture and human settlement, have
51 greatly disturbed crustal biomass and produced windblown dust along the west coast (Pappagianis and
52 Einstein, 1978; Clausnitzer and Singer, 2000; Neff et al., 2008). Furthermore, cross-Pacific dust transported
53 from Asia and Africa to the Sierra Nevada range is widely reported (Ault et al., 2011; Creamean et al., 2014;
54 Creamean et al., 2013). The surface dust concentration has been found to increase in the past two decades
55 during spring at sites across the Southwest (Tong et al., 2017; Hand et al., 2017; Brahney et al., 2013), and
56 the onset of dust season is shifting earlier in response to climate change (Hand et al., 2016). The elevated
57 dust emission and earlier dust season are supposed to lead to a spectrum of environmental and societal

58 impacts in the most populated U.S. state. Especially, the resultant dust deposition on mountain snow
59 decreases snow albedo and produces a radiation forcing of $0\text{--}14.6\text{ W m}^{-2}$ during the melting season (Huang
60 et al., 2022a), shifting snowmelt timing to earlier dates and further increasing California's vulnerability to
61 water resource fluctuations (Wu et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2022b). With its complex terrains, frequently
62 varying microclimate, and coexisting sources from both local and remote regions, the Sierra Nevada area
63 is an interesting region for studying dust transport and its response to climate change.

64 Characterization of dust emission, transport, and deposition across the Sierra Nevada has been
65 investigated using various data. Isotopic analyses (i.e., concentrations of Pb, Nd) are widely used to
66 distinguish and quantify the respective contribution of dust emission from local (dried Owen Lakes),
67 regional (Central Valley and the Mojave Desert), and global sources (Asia and Africa) on the dust
68 deposition on the mountain (Muhs et al., 2007; Jardine et al., 2021; Aciego et al., 2017; Aarons et al., 2019).
69 Their source attribution has been generally confirmed by the analyses of dust particle size and composition
70 (Creamean et al., 2014; Creamean et al., 2013; Reheis and Kihl, 1995). The isotopic and composition
71 analyses have been commonly used with back-trajectory modeling to further identify the dust transport
72 pathway from the source to the deposition location (Vicars and Sickman, 2011; Creamean et al., 2014;
73 Creamean et al., 2013). Yet, these analyses generally retrieve dust sources in a short time and at a specific
74 location. Alternatively, ground-based measurement networks were established in the 1990s and provide
75 long-term trends of dust concentrations and the interannual variability across multiple sites (Hand et al.,
76 2017; Achakulwisut et al., 2017; Hand et al., 2016). However, they do not contain information on dust
77 origins and atmospheric conditions responsible for dust transport. Satellite retrievals were less commonly
78 used to study dust characteristics across the Sierra Nevada (Lei and Wang, 2014), mainly due to the poor
79 data coverage caused by cloud contamination in the region.

80 Global and regional climate-chemistry models have been widely used to understand the drives of
81 the variability of dust and quantify the role of regional and remote transport, filling the gaps in the
82 observations (Chin et al., 2002; Chin et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2017). While dust emissions
83 and transport have been generally studied, there lacks a connection between dust emissions from the source

84 region and the timing, location, and amount of dust deposition to the Sierra Nevada snow. The isotopic and
85 composition analyses attribute dust sources at a few sites. But to our knowledge, no regional
86 characterization has been conducted on how dust is transported to the Sierra Nevada after emissions from
87 adjacent drylands and remote continents and when, where, and how much depositions occur for dust
88 transported through different pathways. The connection between dust emissions, transport pathways, and
89 deposition to snow would facilitate the prediction of future changes in dust regimes and the corresponding
90 climate impact, enabling more efficient management practices. With a focus on the dust that influences the
91 Sierra Nevada, this study investigates 1) Where does the dust come from? 2) How is dust transported to the
92 mountain from the sources? 3) How is the dust deposited on the Sierra Nevada during spring, when the
93 dust-in-snow largely influences snow albedo and snowmelt? We integrate models and observations to
94 understand how the dust deposition is linked to a specific source both surrounding and far from the Sierra
95 Nevada.

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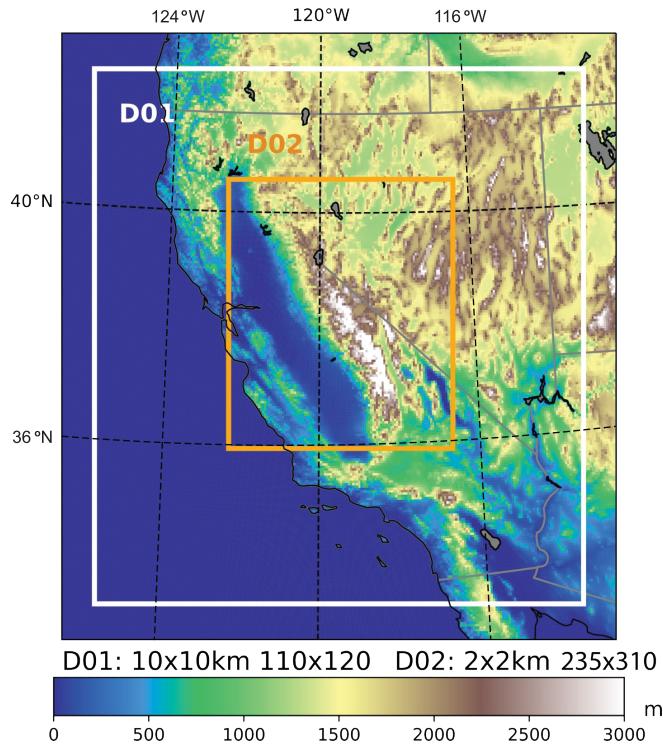
97 **2.1 Model and Reanalysis datasets**

98 **2.1.1 WRF-Chem configuration**

99 Table 1. Model configuration.

Atmospheric processes	WRF-Chem Configuration
Meteorological IC/LBCs	ERA5
Microphysics	Morrison double-moment
Radiation	RRTMG for both shortwave/longwave
Land surface	CLM4 with SNICAR
Surface layer	Revised MM5 Monin-Obukhov
Planetary boundary layer	YSU scheme
Cumulus	Grell-Freitas
Chemical driver	MOZART
Aerosol driver	MOSAIC 4-bin
Anthropogenic emission	NEI2017
Biogenic emission	MEGAN
Biomass burning emission	FINNv2.2

Dust emission	GOCART
Chemical IC/BC conditions	CAM-Chem
100	
101	We used the WRF-Chem version 3.9 to study dust emission and transport across the Sierra Nevada.
102	The model setups (Table 1), including the physical schemes and emission inventory, follow Huang et al.
103	(2022a), which showed that the model captures the distribution and variation in aerosols reasonably well in
104	the study domain (126.12-112.86°W, 32.3-43.0°N). The Model of Ozone and Related chemical Tracers
105	(MOZART) chemistry module (Emmons et al., 2020) and the Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions
106	and Chemistry with four bins (MOSAIC 4-bin) aerosol model (Zaveri and Peters, 1999) were applied, and
107	dust emissions were calculated “online” using the GOCART dust scheme (Ginoux et al., 2001). The
108	meteorological initial and lateral boundary conditions were derived from the ECMWF Reanalysis v5
109	(ERA5) at 0.25° horizontal resolution and 6 h temporal intervals (Hersbach et al., 2020). Spectral nudging
110	was employed with a timescale of 6 h above the PBL to reduce the drift between ERA5 reanalysis data and
111	WRF’s internal tendencies (Von Storch et al., 2000). The chemical initial and boundary conditions were
112	provided by CAM-Chem (Buchholz et al., 2019).
113	We applied the model to two nested domains (Fig. 1). Domain 1 (126.12-112.86°W, 32.3-43.0°N)
114	was configured to cover all of California, Nevada, and part of the surrounding states with 110×120 grid
115	cells at $10 \text{ km} \times 10 \text{ km}$ horizontal resolution; the nested domain 2 covered the Sierra Nevada and
116	surrounding regions with a $2 \text{ km} \times 2 \text{ km}$ resolution. The cumulus scheme is turned off in domain 2 with
117	convection-permitting resolution. We used 35 vertical model layers from the surface to 10 hPa with denser
118	layers at lower altitudes to resolve the PBL. The simulation period ranged from September 20, 2018, to
119	August 31, 2019 while we only used output from February to June in consideration of both dust emission
120	season and mountain snow existence (Hand et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2021; Achakulwisut et al., 2017).



121
122 **Figure 1** WRF-Chem simulation domain 1 (D01) and domain 2 (D02) used in this study
123

124 **2.1.2 MERRA-2 and ERA5 reanalysis**

125 The Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2) is
126 a widely used atmospheric reanalysis with a spatial resolution of $0.500^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ and 72 vertical layers
127 (Buchard et al., 2017). MERRA-2 aerosol products are produced by combining GEOS atmospheric model
128 version 5 (GEOS-5) with a 3D variational data assimilation algorithm to incorporate satellite observations,
129 including Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR), Moderate Resolution Imaging
130 Spectroradiometer (MODIS), and Multi-angle Imaging Spectro Radiometer (MISR), as well as ground-
131 based observations such as the AERonet RObotic NETwork (AERONET) (Gelaro et al., 2017). Although
132 the aerosol vertical profile, composition, and size distributions are not constrained by the assimilation of
133 aerosol optical depth (AOD), previous studies demonstrated that the aerosol assimilation system has
134 considerably improved the agreement with numerous observed aerosol properties (Buchard et al., 2016;
135 Buchard et al., 2017; Randles et al., 2017). The assimilation results in the imbalance of global dust mass
136 and produces a considerably larger deposition than the simulated dust emission (Buchard et al., 2017).

137 MERRA-2 simulates dust with diameter bins of 0.2–2.0 (DU001), 2.0–3.6 (DU002), 3.6–6.0 (DU003), 6.0–
138 12.0 (DU004), and 12.0–20.0 (DU005) μm , while the MOSAIC 4-bin in WRF-Chem simulates dust with
139 geometric size bins of 0.039–0.156, 0.156–0.625, 0.625–2.5, and 2.5–10.0 μm . We therefore use the dust
140 concentrations of the first 4 size bins in MERRA-2 (DU001 + DU002 + DU003 + 0.74 * DU004) to match
141 with dust with geometric size less than 10.0 μm in WRF-Chem
142 (<https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/reanalysis/MERRA-2/FAQ/>).

143 ERA5 provides assimilated wind fields at a $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ horizontal resolution at 137 hybrid
144 sigma/pressure levels from 1979 to near real time (Hersbach et al., 2020). This study obtained the 3-hourly
145 meridional and zonal wind field from February to June 2019 from 1000 to 500 hPa. The ERA5 wind
146 reanalyses were used with satellite-retrieved dust optical depth (DOD) to evaluate the classified dust
147 emission and transport patterns from the model.

148

149 **2.2 Satellite observations for validation**

150 The Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) onboarded European Meteorological
151 Operation (MetOp) satellite series measures infrared radiation in 8,461 spectral channels between 3.63 and
152 15.5 μm . The instrument has provided near-global coverage with a spatial resolution of 12 km at nadir
153 (Hilton et al., 2012) since 2007. IASI is primarily sensitive to coarse-—mode dust particles, and thus the
154 retrieved AOD at the wavelength of 10 μm can represent the DOD (Yu et al., 2019). Note that the thermal
155 infrared (IR) AOD reported by IASI is usually significantly smaller than the visible AOD in MODIS,
156 because of the spectral dependence of dust extinction (Zheng et al., 2022). We use the version 2.2 AOD
157 product developed at the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique Laboratoire de Météorologie
158 Dynamique from <https://iasi.aeris-data.fr/dust-aod/> (February 2022) (Capelle et al., 2014). The $0.3^\circ \times 0.3^\circ$
159 daily AOD data covering California were produced by aggregating day and night retrievals at the satellite
160 pixel resolution (Capelle et al., 2018), in consideration of both data completeness and fine features. The
161 $1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$ daily AOD was produced in a similar way to investigate dust transport from Asia across the North
162 Pacific.

163 The MIDAS (ModIs Dust AeroSol) dataset provides global fine-resolution ($0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$) daily DOD
164 between 2003 and 2017 using quality-filtered AOD from MODIS Aqua and DOD-to-AOD ratios from
165 MERRA-2 reanalyses (Gkikas et al., 2021). Despite the uncertainties in modeled DOD-to-AOD ratios, the
166 validations of the MIDAS dataset against the AERONET dust-like AOD and the LiDAR climatology of
167 Vertical Aerosol Structure for space-based lidar simulation (LIVAS) DOD reveal a high level of agreement
168 at both global and station level (Gkikas et al., 2022). Compared with other MODIS-derived DOD products
169 (Song et al., 2021; Voss and Evan, 2020; Ginoux et al., 2012; Pu and Ginoux, 2018), MIDAS has finer
170 spatial and temporal resolutions over both land and ocean, which is particularly applicable in this study
171 focusing on a small region and a few cases at daily scale. The dataset has been extended to near real-time
172 to match our study year.

173 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) is a two-wavelength (532 and 1064
174 nm) polarization lidar onboarded the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder Satellite Observation
175 (CALIPSO) satellite (Hunt et al., 2009). Since June 2006, the lidar has been collecting an almost continuous
176 record of high-resolution profiles of aerosol and clouds as fine as 30 m in the vertical, covering 82°N to
177 82°S (Winker et al., 2010; Winker et al., 2009). This study used clear-sky data from the CALIOP Version
178 4, level-2 aerosol profile product (Young et al., 2018) to investigate the vertical profile of elevated dust
179 layer, especially from remote transport. When there were large DOD shown in IASI and MIDAS, we
180 examined the vertical profiles of dust by identifying the “dust,” “polluted dust,” and “dusty marine” species
181 in the CALIOP data (Kim et al., 2018)

182

183 **2.3 SOM analysis**

184 We applied the self-organizing map (SOM), a clustering method developed in the field of artificial
185 neural networks, to recognize different weather features associated with dust transport and deposition..
186 SOM has been widely used in atmospheric sciences to recognize spatially organized sets of patterns in the
187 data (Reusch et al., 2007; Bao and Wallace, 2015; Liu et al., 2022a; Song et al., 2019). Before the machine-
188 learning process, ~~Before the machine learning process~~, we assign a few two-dimensional arrays of initial

189 nodes randomly or more efficiently from the leading empirical orthogonal functions (EOFs). During the
190 training phase, the Euclidean distance between each input pattern and the initiation nodes is calculated to
191 begin an iterative procedure. The best-matching node or the “winning” node is the one with the smallest
192 distance between the initiation nodes and the input vector. Then the winning node and the neighborhood
193 nodes around the winner are updated to adjust themselves toward the input vector. Since this process is
194 iterated and fine-tuned, the nodes are self-organizing. The final SOM nodes represent typical dust transport
195 and deposition patterns across the Sierra Nevada.

196 Here, we first used five variables from WRF-Chem inner domain (D02) in the SOM clustering,
197 including dust deposition flux at the Sierra Nevada, the low-level meridional and zonal dust transport fluxes,
198 and the mid-level meridional and zonal dust transport fluxes surrounding the Sierra Nevada. The original
199 fields were used without any no filtering methods to consider the extreme cases. The 3 hourly model outputs
200 during February-June 2019 are used to count for the spatial distribution and temporal evolution of dust
201 transport and deposition. For WRF-Chem, we averaged the zonal and meridional dust fluxes in model levels
202 3-5 (roughly 900-950 hPa over coastal California and 650-700 hPa over the Sierra Nevada) to acquire the
203 low-level transport features. We averaged 200-700 hPa fluxes to acquire the mid-level transport features.
204 Levels 3-5 were selected to focus on airborne particulate matter entrained above the planetary boundary
205 layer and transported on the regional scale. Remote transport of Asian and African dust is mostly found
206 around 600–200 hPa, which flows downward to the lower troposphere along the post-cold isentropic surface
207 into the atmospheric river (AR) environment (Voss et al., 2021). By selecting levels between 200-700 hPa,
208 we were able to include all cross-Pacific remote transport in the middle level.

209 We tested the number of clusters (k) that ranges in 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, and 16 to assess the distinctiveness
210 and robustness of different k . For each k , the robustness of the clusters was measured by a classifiability
211 index (CI) (Vigaud and Robertson, 2017; Vigaud et al., 2018; Hannachi, 2010) constructed using the
212 minimum spatial correlation coefficient between the clusters obtained from the full data and many random
213 halves of the data (100 halves used here) (Hannachi, 2010). Therefore, the CI measured the reproductivity
214 of the k clusters partitioning (Visbeck et al., 2001), with perfect partitioning leading to 1. Figure S1 shows

215 the CI as a function of the number of clusters using WRF-Chem output for 2019. With the highest CI, the
216 4-cluster partitioning well represents distinct dust transport and deposition patterns over the Sierra Nevada
217 and is used in this study.

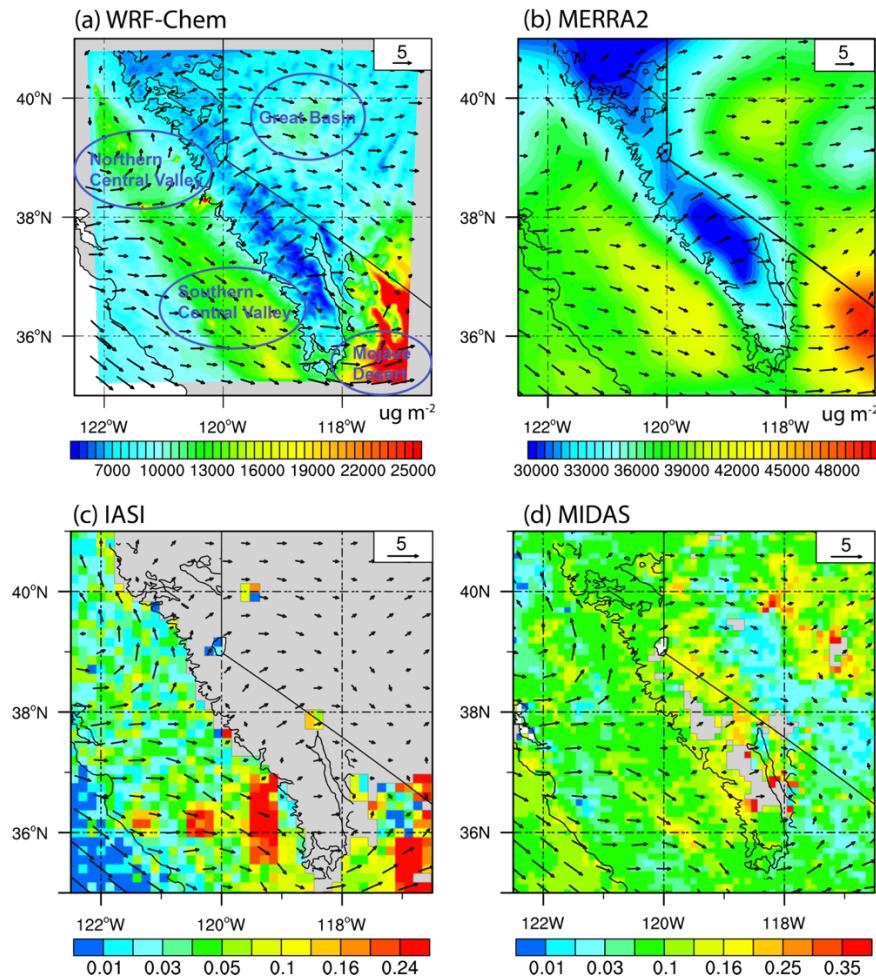
218 To verify the recognized transport patterns based on WRF-Chem, we conducted SOM analyses
219 using variables from MERRA-2. We first remapped the same five variables using bilinear interpolation
220 from $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ to 10 km, the resolution of the WRF-Chem outer domain, before clustering. The vertical
221 levels of low-level and mid-level dust transport fluxes were selected to approximately match the WRF-
222 Chem pressure level. Four nodes were identified and arranged to make a direct comparison with those from
223 WRF-Chem. To further investigate if transport patterns recognized from SOM vary significantly with years,
224 we applied SOM analyses over 2001-2021 using MERRA-2 extended records of dust fluxes and deposition.
225

226 **3. Results**

227 **3.1 Dust emission sources around the Sierra Nevada**

228 We find four emission source regions surrounding the Sierra Nevada where dust emissions could
229 potentially influence the mountain snow impurities between February and June (Fig. 2). The Mojave Desert,
230 located southeast of the Sierra Nevada, is characterized by low annual precipitation, sparse vegetation, and
231 dried fine soil. Airborne dust loading over the desert can reach 30000 ug m^{-2} averaged over our study period
232 (Fig. 2a). It is generally transported eastward but can also be transported westward, influencing the southern
233 part of the mountain (Neff et al., 2008). Dust produced in the northern (Sacramento Valley) and the southern
234 part (San Joaquin and Tulare Basins) of the Central Valley is often transported eastward to the mountains.
235 With high soil aridity and a higher fraction of dry sand (Duniway et al., 2019), the southern Central Valley
236 is more erodible and emits a higher amount of fine dust. The Great Basin dust is relatively weak in
237 magnitude but located at a higher altitude. Therefore, it can easily ride along wind currents upward along
238 the east slope of the mountain. The column dust loading in MERRA-2 confirms our results in WRF-Chem
239 (Fig. 2b), despite it showing a stronger dust emission in the Great Basin while a weaker one in the
240 Sacramento Valley. The IASI shows the strongest IR DOD in the Mojave Desert, followed by the southern

241 Central Valley, but smaller dust emissions from the Sacramento Valley as compared with model output
 242 (Fig. 2c). The smaller magnitude is largely due to the fact that IASI measures the radiation at IR
 243 wavelengths, which is more sensitive to coarse-mode dust particles (Yu et al., 2019), whereas the fine dust
 244 produced in the Central Valley has a negligible contribution to DOD at 10 μm . In contrast, MIDAS captures
 245 dust emissions from the Great Basin, the southern and northern Central Valley (Fig. 2d) but not the Mojave
 246 Desert. MIDAS is reported to underestimate DOD from the Mojave Desert compared to AERONET DOD,
 247 which might be caused by the lower dust amounts simulated in MERRA-2 (Gkikas et al., 2021) and the
 248 underestimation of MODIS AOD over the deserts as compared to ground observations (Tao et al., 2017).



249
 250 **Figure 2** The spatial distribution of dust in model and satellite observations averaged in 2019 February-
 251 June. Column dust loading (ug m^{-2}) and low-level winds (roughly 875-925 hPa; m s^{-1}) in (a) WRF-Chem
 252 and (b) MERRA-2. (c) Observed thermal infrared DOD at the wavelength of 10 μm from IASI (d) Observed
 253 visible DOD at the wavelength of 550 μm from MIDAS. The low-level winds (m s^{-1}) in (c) and (d) are from
 254 ERA5 reanalyses. Black contours indicate anthe elevation of 1500 m, which represents the Sierra Nevada
 255 range used in this study. The grey area in c-d are missing pixels in satellite observations

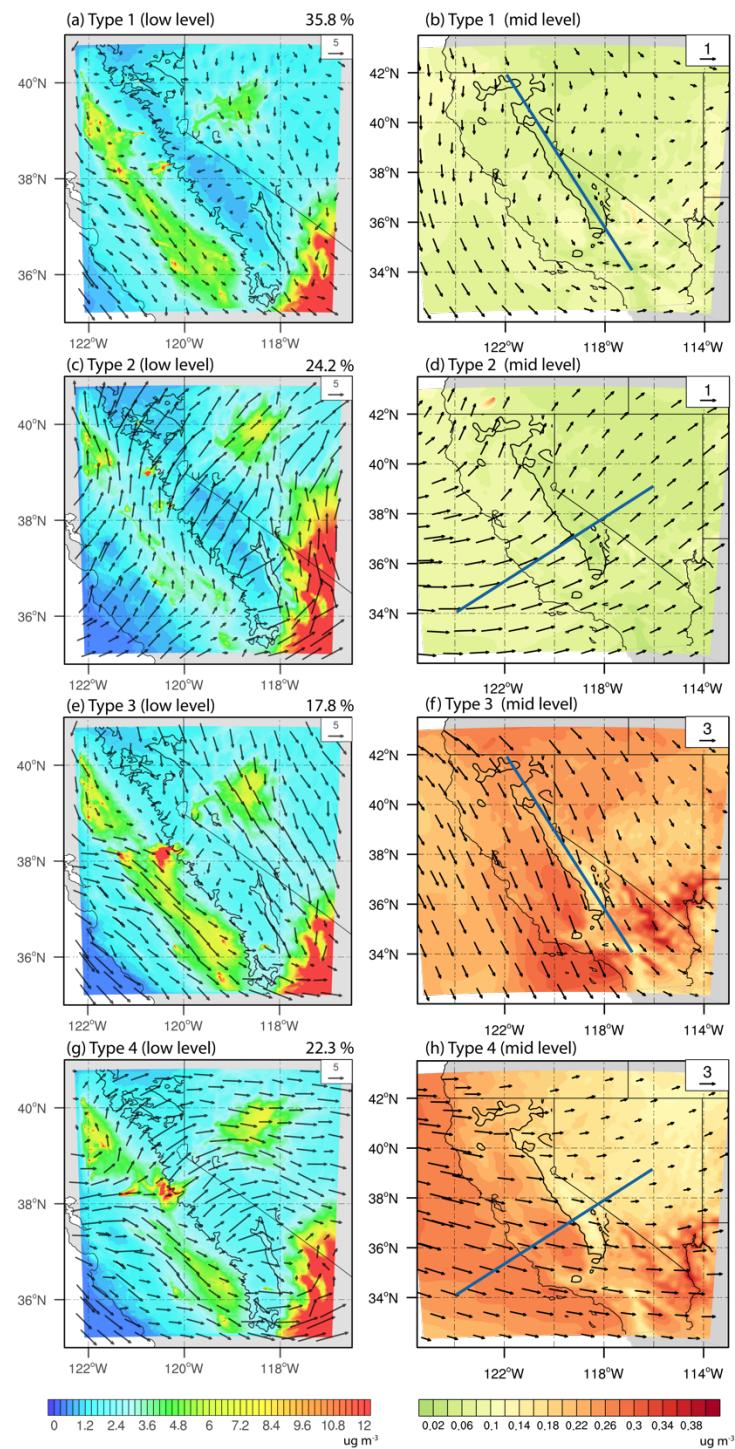
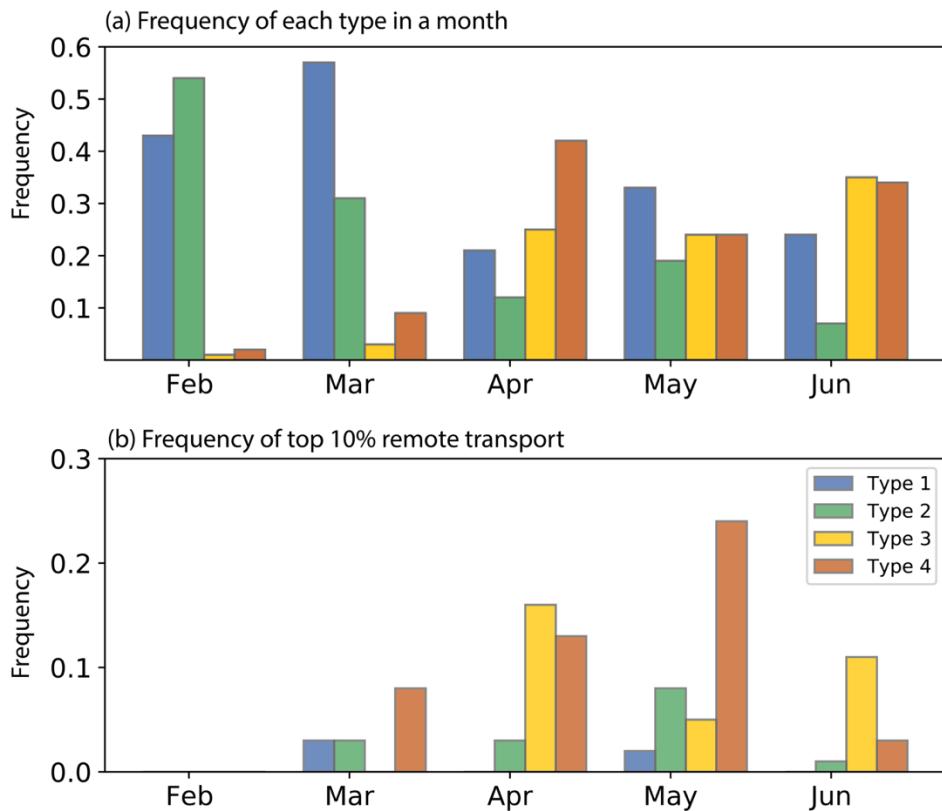
257 **3.2 Dust transport across the Sierra Nevada**

Figure 3 (a, c, e, g) Low-level (roughly 875-925 hPa) dust concentration (ug m^{-3}) and wind vectors (m s^{-1}) in each of the four SOM type in WRF-Chem; The numbers on the top right of subplots denote the frequency of each type. (b, d, f, h) Mid-level (200-700 hPa average) dust concentration (ug m^{-3}) and dust transport in types 1-4; The position of the cross-section used for Figure 5 is denoted in each plot.

263

264 This section introduces the features of dust transport patterns discerned from WRF-Chem and
 265 evaluates them against satellite observations over the period of February to June 2019. Figure 3 shows the
 266 WRF-Chem dust concentration and wind in the low levels and middle levels averaged for each of the four
 267 types acquired from the SOM analyses. The dust transport pattern represented in SOM type 1 accounts for
 268 35.8% of hours from February to June (Fig. 3a), especially in February (43%) and March (57%) (Fig. 4a).
 269 Type 2 occurs in 24.2% of the whole study period and contributes to more than 50% in February and then
 270 decreases with the month. In contrast, types 3 and 4 account for 17.8% and 22.3%, respectively, with the
 271 occurrence increasing with the month. The maximum occurrence is found in June for type 3 (40%) and
 272 April for type 4 (34%), respectively.

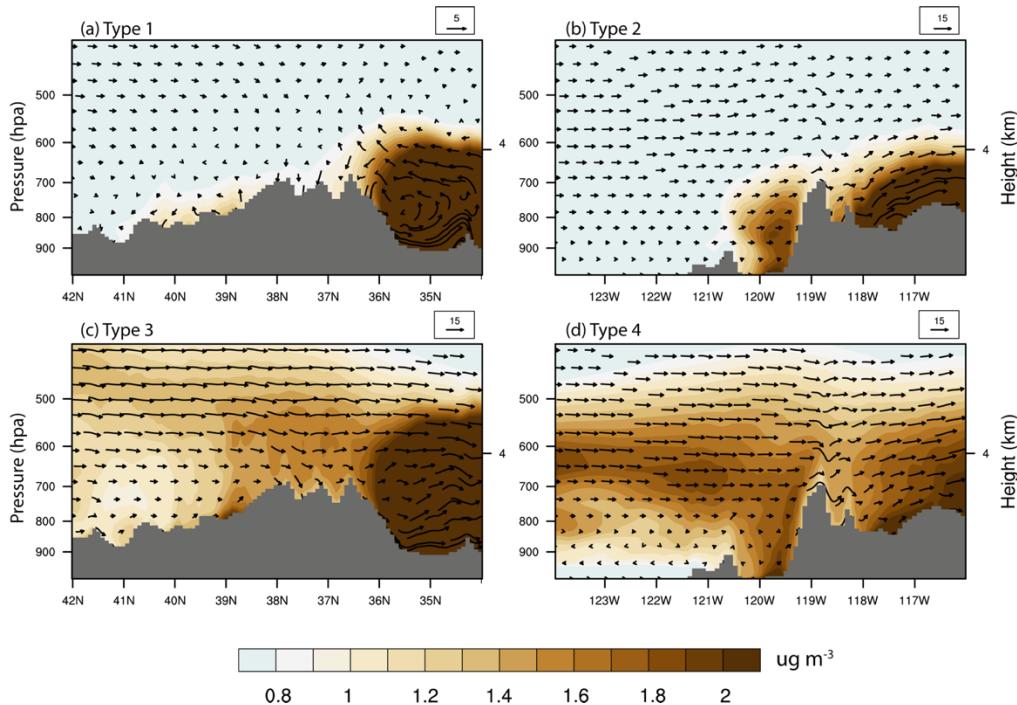
273 **3.2.1 Mesoscale regional (MSR) transport**



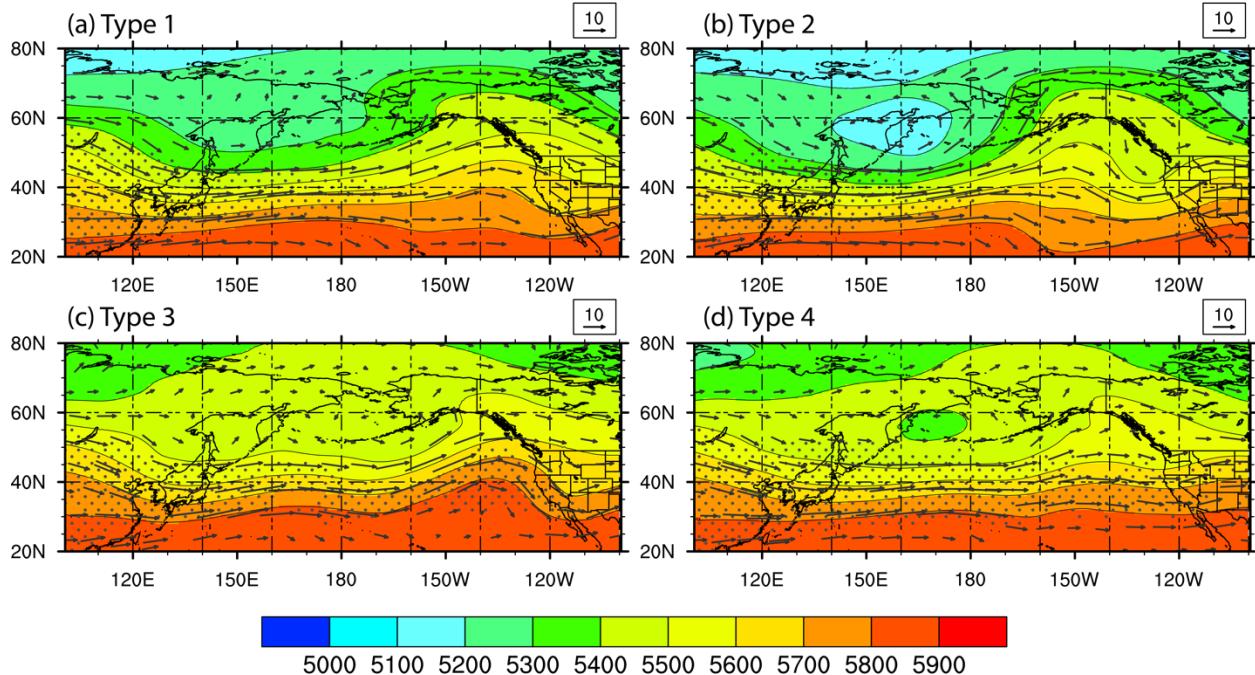
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Figure 4 (a) The frequency of each type (the time dominated by each type divided by total time in a month) that occurs in February, March, April, May, and June in WRF-Chem. (b) The frequency of each type in the top 10% remote transport (the time dominated by each type divided by the total time of the top 10% remote transport).

280 In type 1, dust is transported from northwest to southeast in the Central Valley in the low level
 281 (roughly 875-925 hPa over the California coast). A vortex (Schultz Eddy) was found in the northern Central
 282 Valley (Fig. 3a), circulating counter-clockwise and confining dust to the local environment (Bao et al.,
 283 2008). The air inflow from the ocean is relatively weak and obstructed by the terrain. The Great Basin is
 284 dominated by the northwesterlies. The emitted dust is transported southeastward and blocked by the
 285 mountain, depositing dust on the east slope. Dust emitted from the Mojave Desert can be elevated to the
 286 middle level (Fig. 3b). The cross-section further shows a vertical circulation where the Mojave Desert dust
 287 is blown away from the Sierra Nevada at the low level and towards the mountain at 600-700 hPa (Fig. 5a).
 288 A weaker mid-level cross-Pacific flow is found in type 1 than in other types (Fig. 6a), with no signals of
 289 remote transport reaching the Sierra Nevada (Fig. 3b). Type 1 generally corresponds to the dust transport
 290 in lack of prevailing large-scale weather systems. The high peaks of the Sierra Nevada produce mesoscale
 291 circulations and prevent the Central Valley and Great Basin dust from being transported to the other side
 292 of the mountain. It is referred to as the “mesoscale regional (MSR) transport” hereafter.



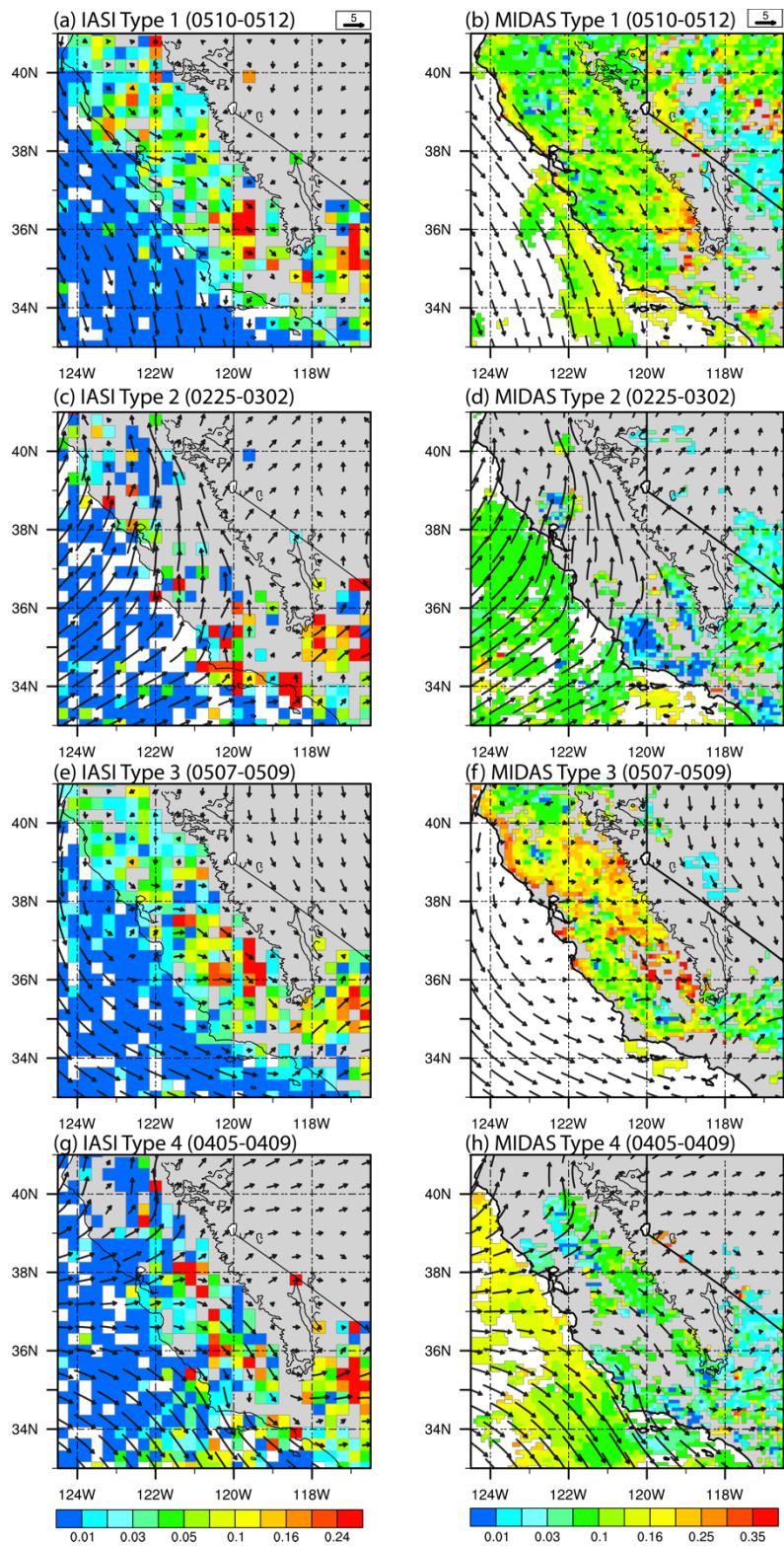
293
 294 **Figure 5** Cross-section of dust concentration (shaded; ug m^{-3}) and dust transport fluxes (vectors; $\text{ug m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)
 295 at 1000-400 hPa for each SOM type in WRF-Chem. The position of each cross-section is denoted in Fig.
 296 3 b (Type 1), d (Type 2), f (Type 3), and h (Type 4). The grey area indicates the topography of the Sierra
 297 Nevada.



298

299 **Figure 6** Geopotential height (gpm) and wind vectors (m s^{-1}) at 500 hPa in each of the four SOM types in
300 WRF-Chem. The dotted regions indicate DOD higher than 0.03 from MERRA-2
301

302 We validate the features of type 1 from WRF-Chem using satellite-retrieved DOD and wind
303 vectors from ERA5. The cloud contamination results in many missing satellite pixels in our study domain,
304 making the transport patterns hard to discern on a single day. DOD and winds belonging to the same SOM
305 type on consecutive days are averaged to maximize the data completeness. One typical example for each
306 type is presented based on their representativeness and the maximum spatial coverage. Figures 7a-b present
307 dust emission and transport patterns during May 10-12, a typical case for the MSR transport. In IASI, we
308 find peak IR DOD (> 0.2) over the Mojave Desert and the southern Central Valley and moderate values in
309 the Sacramento Basin related to the Schultz Eddy (Fig. 5a), resembling the relative magnitude of dust
310 concentrations in regional source regions in WRF-Chem (Fig. 3a). MIDAS shows another evidence of dust
311 transport pathways within the Central Valley with a higher resolution, although the maximum DOD shifts
312 slightly towards the mountain range (Fig. 7b). Dust emissions from the Great Basin are weaker than those
313 from the southern Central Valley.



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Figure 7 (a,c,e,g) IR DOD at the wavelength of 10 μm retrieved from IASI and (b,d,f,h) visible DOD at the wavelength of 550 μm from MIDAS for each type. The low-level winds (vectors; m s^{-1}) are obtained from the ERA5 reanalyses. The numbers in the parenthesis indicate the event time period for the year 2019.

3.2.2 Sierra-barrier-jets-related (SBJ-related) transport

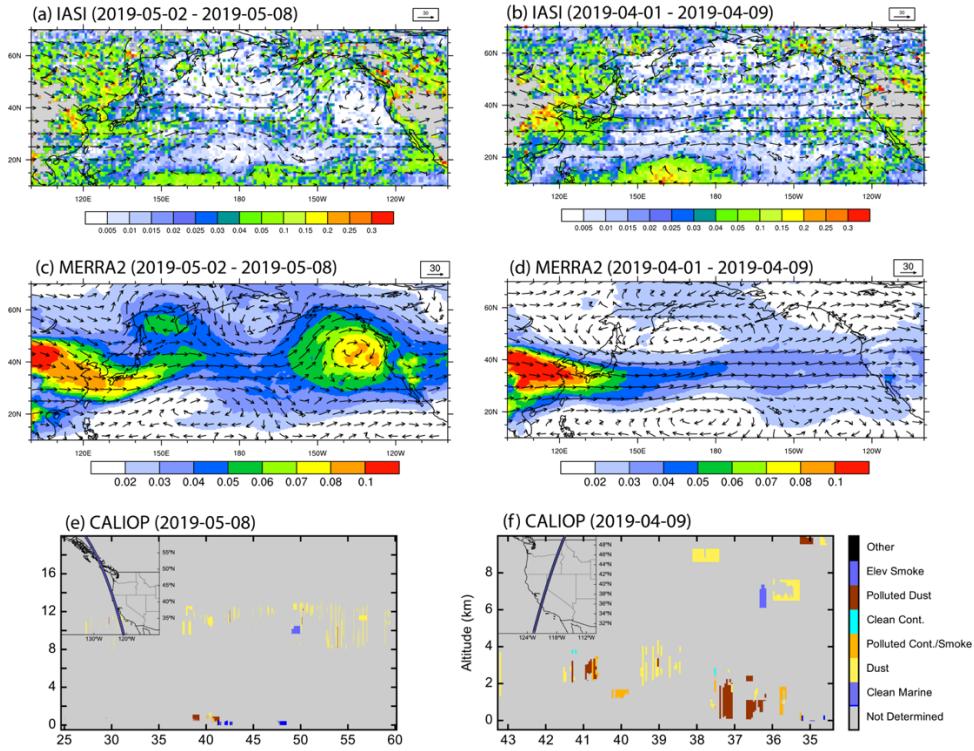
320 In type 2, the low-level winds turn to the north above the western slope of the Sierra Nevada (Fig.
321 3c), which resembles the terrain-locked Sierra barrier jets (SBJs) typically observed during the presence of
322 ARs (Neiman et al., 2013). The large-scale pattern consists of a low 500hPa geopotential height (GPH)
323 center in the north Pacific (Fig. 6b). The meridional gradient produces intense storm tracks from Kuroshio
324 Current towards Alaska (Rodionov et al., 2007). Indeed, we find extensive precipitations in type 2 (not
325 shown), which produce more wet deposition along the mountain's windward (west and south-facing) slopes
326 and result in cleaner air in the Central Valley (Fig. 3c). The dust layer at the Central Valley is found below
327 700 hPa, mostly blocked by the high mountain peaks and is hardly transported to the lee-side (east) slope
328 of the mountain (Fig. 5b), despite the cross-barrier westerlies found in the middle level. Dominated by SBJs,
329 dust generated in the Great Basin and the Mojave Desert is blown away from the mountain. No clear signal
330 of remote transport is found on the California coast (Fig. 3d). The dust transport from all sources is closely
331 connected to SBJ; therefore, type 2 is referred to as the "SBJ-related" transport. In both IASI and MIDAS,
332 we find more missing pixels for SBJ-related transport than any other type caused by cloud contamination
333 (Figs. 7c-d). The AR-related landfalling precipitations from February 25 to March 2 remove the airborne
334 dust particles. A cleaner atmosphere might be induced, but it is hard to confirm considering the missing
335 pixels over the continent.

336 **3.2.3 North-Pacific-High-related (NPH-related) transport**

337 Type 3 has northwestern winds in both Central Valley and the Great Basin (Fig. 3e), transporting
338 Central Valley dust to the southwest part of the Sierra Nevada in early summer. It is known as the "North-
339 Pacific-High-related (NPH-related)" transport, during which the North Pacific High (NPH) built up in the
340 north Pacific 130° W produces the northwest-southeast wind direction along the California coast (Fig. 6c),
341 influencing the transport patterns for dust emitted from the surrounding sources. At the middle level, we
342 observe a meridional mid-level dust transport pathway (Fig. 3f), which appears at 400-500 hPa in the
343 northern Sierra Nevada and descends to 700 hPa at $36-37^{\circ}$ N, the top of the southern Sierra Nevada (Fig.
344 5c). [✉]The MERRA-2 reanalysis DOD (Fig. 6c) further shows dust originating from Asia is transported

345 towards North America following the isobars and wind patterns (discussed further in section 3.2.3). The
346 dust emitted from the Great basin is transported by the southward winds to the east slope of the mountains,
347 while emissions from the Mojave Desert are transported away from the mountain range.

348 The simulated dust concentration and transport in the NPH-related transport are confirmed by DOD
349 observations during May 7-9, with the transport pathway parallel to the California coast (Figs. 7e-f). Studies
350 have shown two main pathways of Asian dust transport to North America during the spring months: (1)
351 meridional excursions north into Alaska and then south along the U.S. west coast, and (2) zonal transport
352 over the North Pacific Ocean (Creamean et al., 2014). With north-south dust transport at the middle level,
353 the NPH-related transport characterizes the first pathway. To examine this hypothesis, we averaged the IR
354 DOD and 500 hPa wind field over the North Pacific during May 2-9. We included a few days before the
355 event (Fig. 8a) as it takes 7-10 days for dust to be transported from Asia to North America (Ault et al., 2011;
356 Creamean et al., 2013). The dust transport pathway shows that after being emitted from East Asia and the
357 Gobi Desert, dust is transported zonally to 150 °W, excusing north into Alaska/Canada and then traveling
358 south along the U.S. west coast. Similar conclusions can be drawn with more evident pathways using DOD
359 from MERRA-2 reanalyses (Fig. 8e). An elevated dust belt from 8 km to 12 km is discerned over the North
360 American coast (27 °N to 60 °N) from the CALIOP data, denoting the north-south transport of a thin dust
361 layer through the middle level (Fig. 8c).



362
 363 Figure 8 (a) IR DOD from IASI and 500 hPa winds (m s^{-1}) from ERA5 over the North Pacific for a typical
 364 Type 3 case averaged between 2019-05-02 to 2019-05-08; (b) same as (a) but for a typical type 4 event
 365 averaged between 2019-04-01 to 2019-04-09; (c) DOD from MERRA-2 and 500 hPa winds (m s^{-1}) from
 366 ERA5 for a 3 event; (d) same as (c) but for a type 4 event; (e) latitude-height cross-section of aerosol species
 367 from CALIOP on 2019-05-08 (Type 3); (f) same as (e) but for a typical Type 4 case on 2019-04-09

368

369 3.2.4 Cross-Pacific zonal (CPZ) transport

370 Air inflows from the ocean enter California and diverge to the northern and southern branches in
 371 type 4, transporting dust eastward across the Sierra Nevada (Fig. 3g). At the middle level, the low-GPH
 372 center recedes in April, and the isobars become straighter than in boreal winter, which facilitates the zonal
 373 transport of dust emitted from middle Asia over the North Pacific Ocean (Fig. 6d). The cross-section further
 374 shows an elevated dust layer is transported from the ocean at around 700-500 hPa (Fig. 5d). The
 375 concentrations are much stronger, and the altitude also lower than the NPH-related transport (Fig. 5c). The
 376 remotely transported dust descends to low altitudes when reaching the California coast and converges with
 377 the dust from the Central Valley at around 800 hPa. A portion of dust is compacted to the windward slopes
 378 at higher elevations, and the remaining across the mountains affects the east slope. Dust emitted from the

379 Great Basin and the Mojave Desert is transported away from the mountains. Type 4 is denoted with “cross-
380 Pacific zonal (CPZ) transport” to reflect the strong cross-Pacific dust transport.

381 April 5-9, a typical case for the CPZ transport, clearly shows the north and south branches of dust
382 transport over the Central Valley (Figs. 7g-h). Different from the NPH-related transport pathway, the large-
383 scale DOD and winds at 500 hPa (averaged over April 1-9) show that dust emitted from East Asia is being
384 transported eastward, with a belt of IR DOD > 0.1 evident around 25-40 °N (Fig. 8b). The DOD from
385 MERRA-2 confirms the zonal pathways of dust transport with a smaller magnitude (Fig. 8d). The vertical
386 distribution shows an elevated dust layer at 2-4 km above ground level, reaching the higher elevation of the
387 mountain (Fig. 8f).

388 We calculated the mid-level dust remote transport, defined as the dust influxes from the north and
389 west boundaries of the 200-700 hPa of WRF-Chem modeling domain 1, and investigated how the top 10%
390 largest remote transport distribute in each SOM (Fig. 4b). Among all the large remote transport, CPZ
391 transport accounts for 48% while NPH-related accounts for 32%, indicating that the zonal pathway plays a
392 more important role in the cross-Pacific transport. Most remote transports are found in April and May, the
393 former dominated by the meridional transport in the existence of the NPH while the latter led by the CPZ
394 transport. The remaining two types contribute to a fairly small portion consistent with the clean atmosphere
395 in the middle levels (Figs. 3b, d).

396

397 **3.2.5 Dust emissions and transport in back trajectory analyses**

398 We discern four types of dust transport patterns across the Sierra Nevada using the SOM clustering
399 method. The MSR transport represents the local dust transport, which contributes to more than 20% of the
400 time each month during February-June (Fig. 4a) in the absence of prevailing weather systems. The SBJ-
401 related air inflows transport dust eastward and are closely related to the AR, during which the GPH and
402 storm tracks at 500 hPa feature a typical large-scale pattern during the boreal winter (Rodionov et al., 2007).
403 As time evolves, the GPH center recedes, and the isobars become more straight zonally in April, bringing
404 dust from Asia and Africa to the western U.S. coast (CPZ transport). In early summer, the buildup of NPH

405 in the east Pacific corresponds to north-south winds along the California coast, transporting dust along the
406 Sierra Nevada (NPH-related transport).

407 We further conducted air mass back trajectory (AMBT) simulations to evaluate the dust emission
408 sources and transport pathways identified using SOM analyses. The back trajectory simulation was
409 conducted using Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model with
410 meteorological forcings from North American Mesoscale Forecast System. We selected typical days for
411 the four SOM types as in Figure 7 and three sites located at the Central Sierra Nevada (38 °N, 120.3°W),
412 Southern Sierra Nevada (36.5 °N, 119 °W), and Eastern Sierra Nevada (37 °N, 117 °W), to represent dust
413 deposition at different subregions.

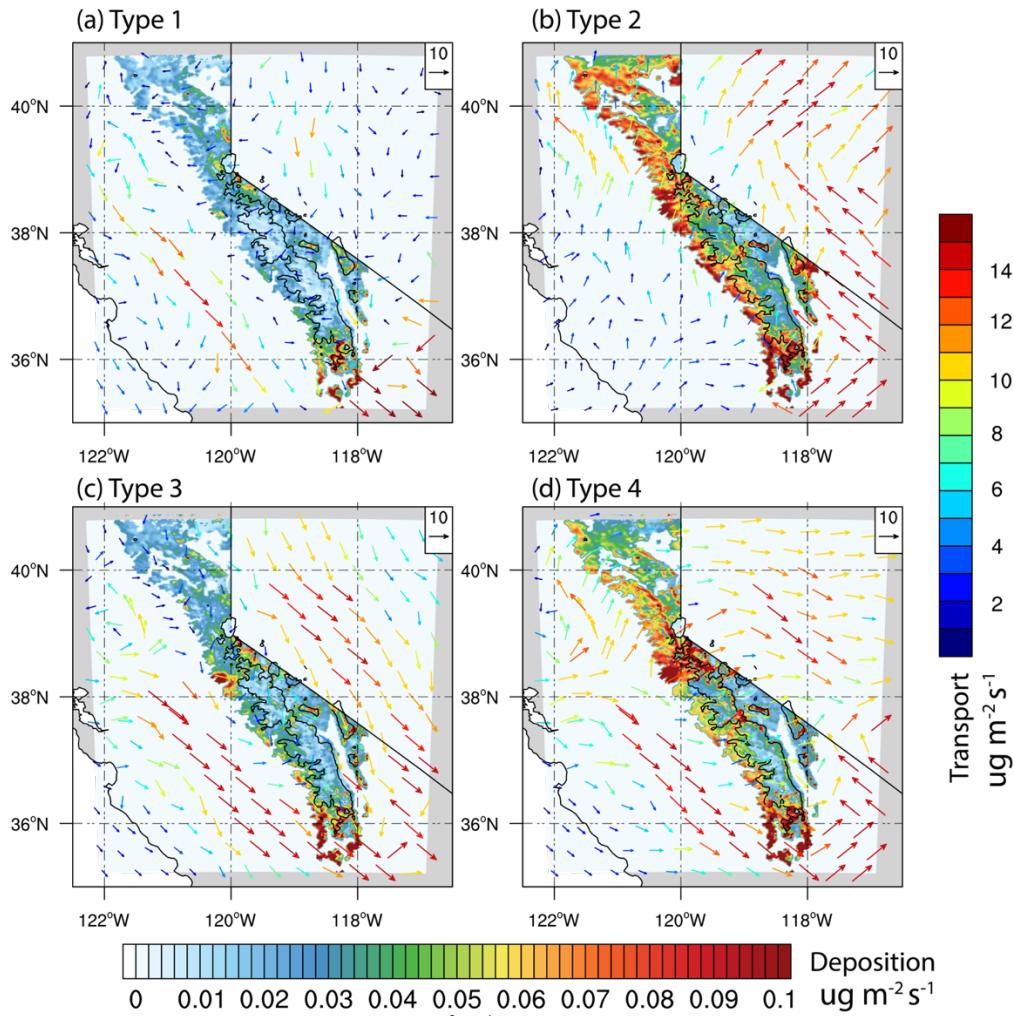
414 The results of 12-hour and 7-day AMBT results corroborate the identified local and long-range
415 transport pathways for each type. The transport pathways generally follow the wind directions shown in
416 Figure 7. Multiple emission source regions are found in type 1, including the Central Valley where dust is
417 transported eastward to the windward slopes and the Great Basin where dust is transported westward to the
418 lee-side slopes (Fig. S2). In type 2, dust deposited in all three sites comes from the Central Valley (Fig. S2),
419 and the transport corresponds to the direction of SBJ during AR (Fig. 7c). Types 3 and 4 are affected by
420 both local and remote transport. Locally, ~~dD~~ust mainly comes from ~~the~~ northern California and the Great
421 Basin in type 3, while it comes from the Central Valley in type 4. Remotely, in type 3, we find dust emitted
422 from Asia and North Africa excurses meridionally to Alaska at 135° W and then travels southward along
423 the U.S. West Coast (Fig. S3a). In contrast, dust emitted from east Asia is transported zonally across the
424 Pacific, reaching the Sierra Nevada from the west (Fig. S3b).

425 **3.3 Dust deposition over the Sierra Nevada**

426 The averaged dust deposition and low-level dust transport for each type are shown in Fig. 9, including
427 both dry and wet depositions. The dry depositions consider the diffusion and gravitational effects, while
428 wet depositions describe in-cloud removal (rainout) and below-cloud removal (washout) by grid-resolved
429 stratiform precipitation as well as the sub-grid wet scavenging (Chapman et al., 2009; Easter et al., 2004).

430 In all SOM types, extensive depositions are found on the west slope in all types, generally decreasing with
 431 elevation.

432 The MSR transport has the smallest deposition among the four types (Fig. 9a). Large depositions are
 433 found in the southern Sierra Nevada and Lake Tahoe. Dust contributing to the deposition origins mainly
 434 from the Mojave Desert and the Great Basin dryland. In contrast, large depositions found in the southern
 435 and eastern parts of the mountains in NPH-related transport may be produced in agricultural land from the
 436 southern Central Valley, as we find a persistent eastward transport pathway in the low level (Fig. 9c). The
 437 remote transported dust plays a minor role as it is located above 8 km in altitude.



438
 439 **Figure 9** (a-d) Dust deposition (shaded; $\text{ug m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) over the Sierra Nevada and low-level dust transport
 440 fluxes (colored vectors; $\text{ug m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) across the Sierra Nevada averaged over each of the four SOM types in
 441 WRF-Chem. Black contours indicate an elevation of 2500 m. The bottom color bar shows the magnitude
 442 of dust deposition over the Sierra Nevada while the right color bar shows the magnitude of dust transport
 443 flux vectors.

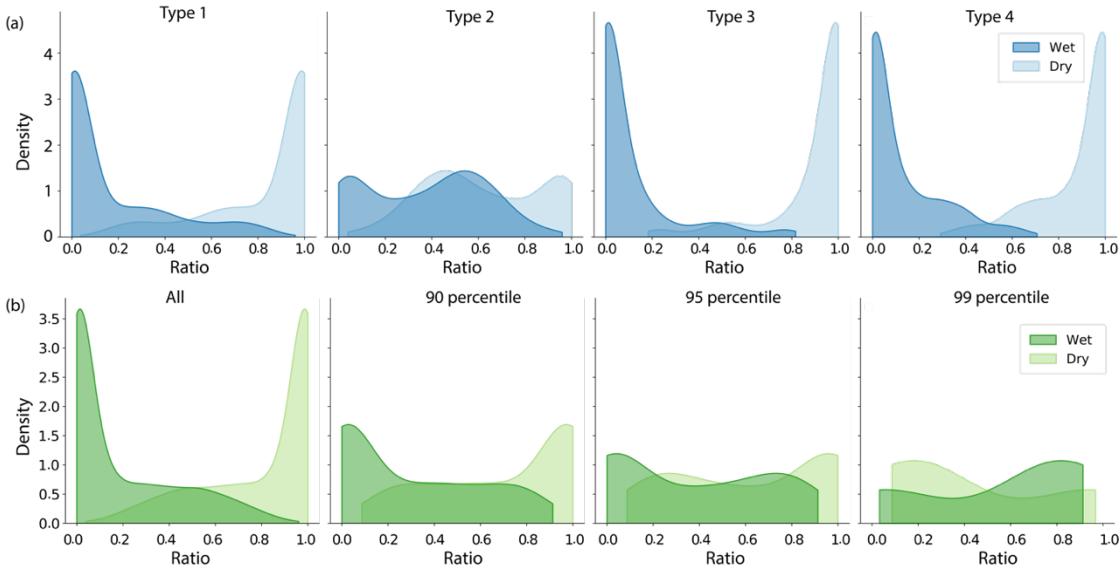
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445 While SBJ-related transport has the lowest low-level dust concentration over the Central Valley, it
446 produces the largest deposition along the west slope (Fig. 9b). Most eastward transport in the southern
447 Sierra Nevada is obstructed by the high mountain peaks, resulting in large depositions below 2900 m. The
448 SBJ turns eastward in the Sacramento Basins and climbs through the mountain north of 38 °N, producing
449 a relatively homogenous deposition in the northern part. The combination of dust transport and deposition
450 indicates that dust influencing the mountain snow impurities mostly comes from the Central Valley.
451 Compared with the other SOM types, SBJ-related transport has large depositions at elevations higher than
452 2500 m (discuss later). Large depositions are also found in the CPZ transport (Fig. 9d), with the largest
453 value occurring on the west slope of the central and southern Sierra Nevada, contributed by both Asian dust
454 and Central Valley dust. Compared to the MSR and NPH-related transport, the large-scale westerlies in the
455 Central Valley (SBJ-related and cross-Pacific transport) produce larger deposition, probably because of the
456 more efficient removal of particles by collision with terrestrial surfaces at higher elevations (Fig. 5d).

457 To quantify the relative importance of wet and dry depositions in each 3 hourly total deposition data,
458 we calculate the fraction of wet depositions to total depositions averaged over the Sierra Nevada:

459 $\frac{\text{Wet deposition}}{\text{Wet deposition} + \text{Dry deposition}}$. The contribution of dry deposition is defined in a similar way. We find the
460 wet deposition accounting for 40% in frequency in the SBJ-related type. The landfalling precipitation has
461 deposited large amounts of airborne dust on the snow surface, producing a cleaner atmosphere as we have
462 found in Fig. 3c. The frequent wet depositions also explain the larger depositions in high elevations (Fig.
463 9b): dust particles reaching the high mountains are small in size and difficult to deposit through gravitational
464 effects. Wet deposition is a more efficient way of depositing small particles as they collect dust in raindrops.
465 In contrast, ~~the~~ dry depositions play predominant roles (more than 80% in frequency) in all the other types
466 (Fig. 10a). Figure 10b further shows the contribution of wet deposition increases with deposition intensity.
467 The averaged contribution of wet depositions in magnitude increases from 19% in all events to 29% in the

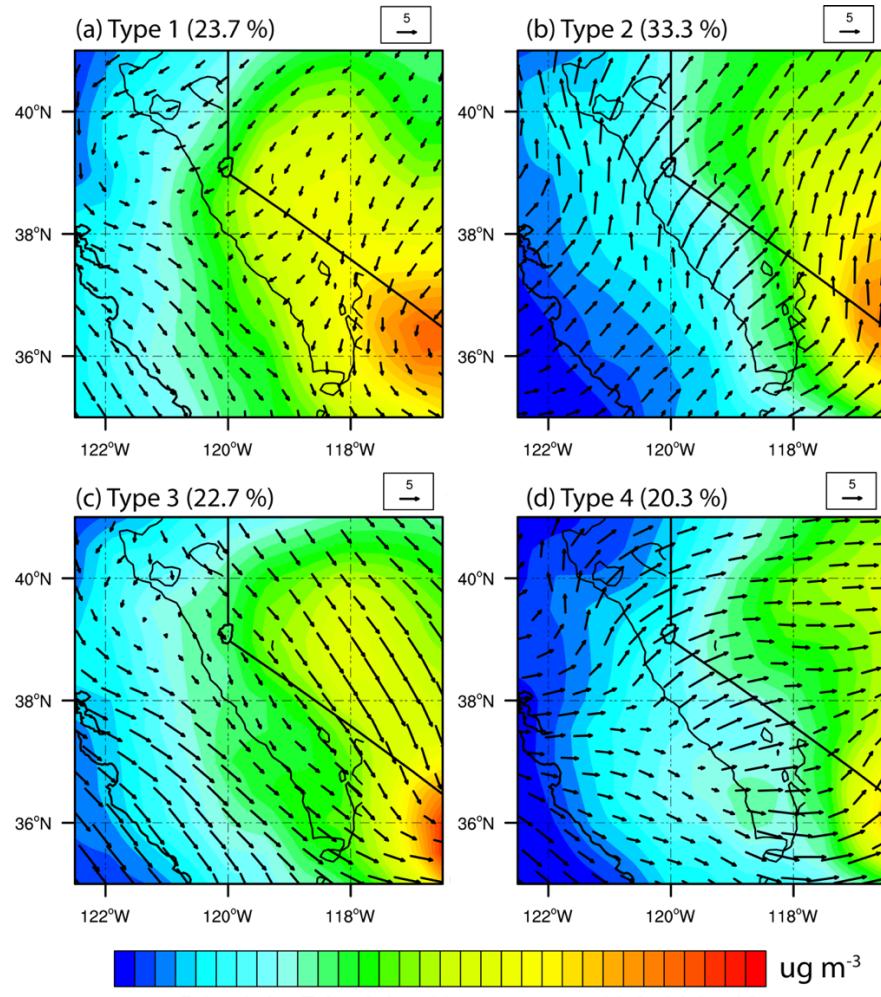
468 top 10 percentile, 36% in the top 5 percentile, and 56% in the top 1 percentile largest events, supporting
469 our conclusion that wet deposition is a more efficient way of dust deposition.



470
471 **Figure 10** (a) Distribution of contribution of wet and dry depositions to total deposition in each type in
472 WRF-Chem. (b) Distribution of contribution of wet and dry depositions to total deposition for all
473 depositions, depositions over 90th, 95th, and 99th percentile.
474

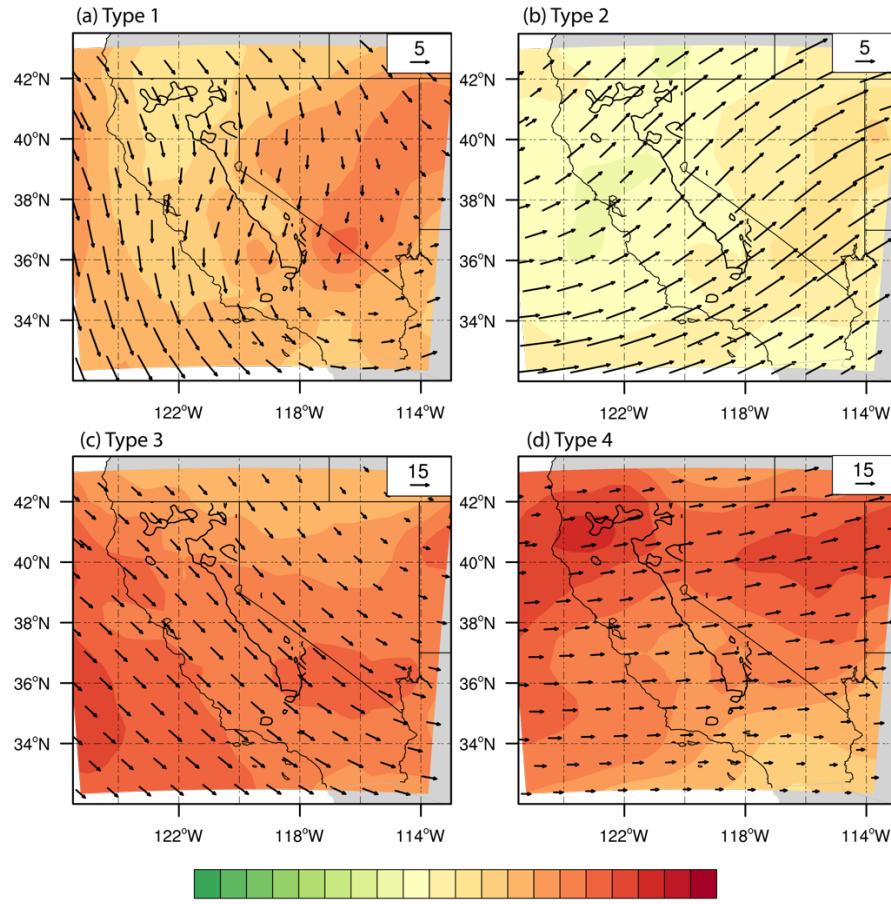
475 **3.4 Features of the dust transport in MERRA-2**

476 We repeated the SOM analyses using 2019 MERRA-2 data to examine the WRF-Chem model
477 performance and interannual variability. We conducted additional SOM analyses using 2001-2021
478 climatology MERRA-2 data to investigate the interannual variability of the transport patterns. The low-
479 level and mid-level dust transport features identified in MERRA-2 (Figs. 11-12) are similar to their
480 corresponding types in WRF-Chem (Fig. 3), with types 1, 2, 3, and 4 representing MSR, SBJ-related, NPH-
481 related and CPZ transport, respectively (Fig. 11). Additionally, north-south transport occurs in the middle
482 layer in type 3 and west-east transport in type 4, despite the slight difference in the peak region (Fig. 12).



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Figure 11 Low-level dust concentration (ug m^{-3}) and wind vectors (m s^{-1}) in each of the four SOM types from MERRA-2 for the year 2019. The numbers on the top of the subplots denote the frequency of each type.



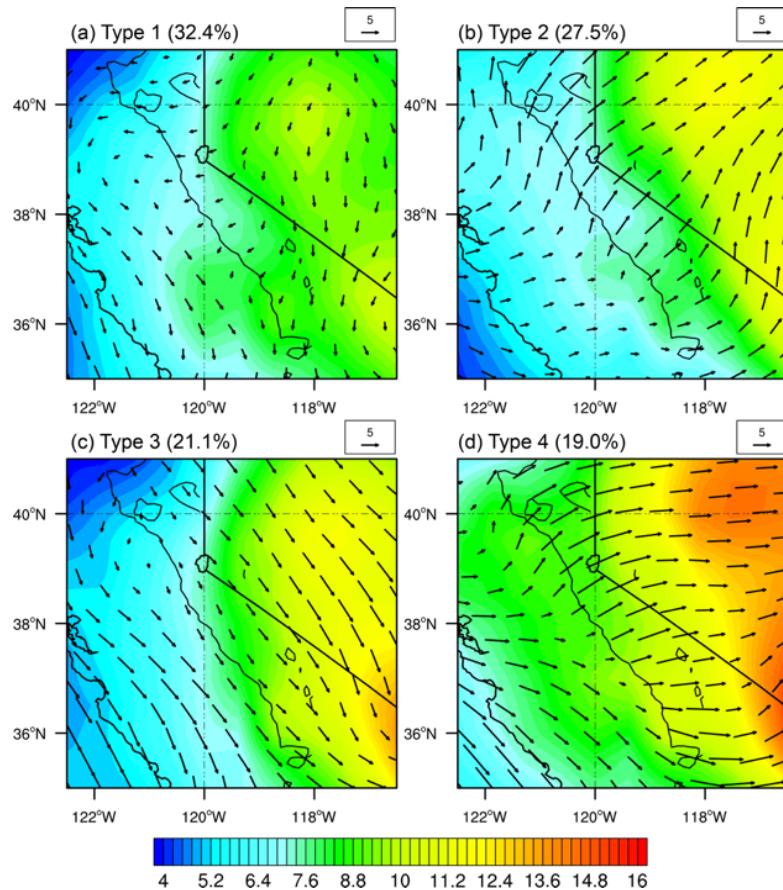
487
488 **Figure 12** Mid-level (200-700 hPa average) dust concentration (ug m^{-3}) and dust transport fluxes ($\text{ug m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)
489 in each of the four SOM types from MERRA-2 for the year 2019
490

491 The relative contribution of each transport type in MERRA-2 (SBJ-related > MSR > CPZ > NPH-
492 related) is generally consistent with the results in WRF-Chem (MSR > SBJ-related > CPZ > NPH-related),
493 except that the MSR transport occurs less frequently in MERRA-2. The difference is largely caused by the
494 spatial resolution of the two datasets. With a resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$, MERRA-2 has smooth topography
495 information and cannot resolve the high peaks of the Sierra Nevada which produce the MSR winds and
496 transport. Consequently, MSR transport contributes to a smaller fraction in the MERRA-2. The coarser
497 resolution MERRA-2 also produces a more homogeneous dust concentration at low levels than 2-km WRF-
498 Chem.

499 Similar dust concentrations and transport patterns are found in the 21-year SOM analysis (Fig. 13),
500 indicating that the four patterns identified in 2019 are representative of the climatological conditions. In

501 climatology, the SBJ is weaker and air inflows hit the California coast at a further north latitude (about
502 40 °N; Fig. 13b), which is reasonable as 2019 is an El Niño year with stronger AR reaching California
503 further south than usual.

504 The changes in the transport patterns reflect the interannual variations of large-scale forcings and
505 regional weather conditions, which is investigated using the frequency of each type in a year during 2001-
506 2021 (Fig. S4). Types 1 and 4 have a negative correlation coefficient ($R=-0.75$) in their frequency,
507 indicating the competing impact between remote transport and local emissions on dust concentrations over
508 the Sierra Nevada. Especially, type 4 tends to occur more frequently during La Niña years while less
509 frequently during El Niño years. An opposite conclusion can be drawn for type 1. We further examine the
510 dust transport pattern and the frequency of the four SOM types during three La Niña (2008, 2011, and 2021)
511 and three El Niño (2015, 2016, and 2019) years. We find that the La Niña years have larger dust
512 concentrations than El Niño years in both lower levels and middle levels (Figs. S5-S8), due to suppressed
513 precipitations and drier soil in the southwestern U.S. Meanwhile, the frequencies of types 3 and 4 are higher
514 in El Niño years, reflecting the increased contribution of cross-Pacific transport to dust loading over
515 California. The increase of remote transport weakens the relative importance of local emissions, decreasing
516 the frequency of type 1.



517

518 **Figure 13** Low level dust concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and wind vectors (m s^{-1}) in each of the four SOM types
 519 from MERRA-2 averaged over 2001-2021. The numbers on the top right of subplots denote the frequency
 520 of each type.

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522 **4. Conclusions and discussion**



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Figure 14 Schematic diagram of typical dust transport patterns across the Sierra Nevada. The “MSR” denotes mesoscale regional transport. The “SBJ” and “NPH” denotes dust transport dominated by Sierra-Barrier Jets (SBJ) and North Pacific High (NPH), respectively, while the “CPZ” denotes Cross-Pacific Zonal transport.

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With a focus on the dust that influences ~~the~~ mountain snow, we investigated the dust sources surrounding the Sierra Nevada and their typical transport patterns during the spring and early summer. Despite the strongest emissions from the Mojave Desert, dust is only transported northward to the mountain when the mesoscale weather pattern dominates the southwest U.S. (Fig. 14). During 64.25% of our study period, dust from the Mojave Desert is transported away from the mountains. Dust emitted from the Great Basin is transported to the central Sierra Nevada during MSR transport and to the eastern part when the NPH builds in the eastern Pacific. It is blown eastward by air inflows from the ocean during SBJ or cross-Pacific transport. In contrast, dust produced by the Central Valley is persistently transported to the west

537 mountain slope, playing an essential role in snow impurities there. Carried by intense air inflows, it can be
538 transported to the lee-side of the Sierra Nevada.

539 During April, Asia dust is transported zonally over the North Pacific through the straight zonal
540 isobars at the middle level. The dust layer descends to 800 hPa when it reaches the California coast. In the
541 presence of the NPH, dust emitted from Asia excuses north into Alaska/Canada and travels south along
542 the U.S. west coast. The dust travels at a higher altitude, and the concentrations are weaker than the zonal
543 transport.

544 Large amounts of depositions are found on the west slope, which generally decrease with elevations.
545 Dust particles transported to the higher altitude are small in size and difficult to deposit through gravitational
546 effects. The SBJ-produced AR collects dust in the rain and snow and deposits it on the high mountain.
547 Besides, considerable depositions occur when the elevated dust layer from the Pacific collides with the
548 mountain. We acknowledge that our characterization of dominant transport patterns might be limited by
549 model uncertainties. Besides, the coarse-resolution reanalyses data, MERRA-2, cannot accurately resolve
550 the topography effects and tends to underestimate mesoscale regional transport. Furthermore, both WRF-
551 Chem and MERRA-2 describe dust emissions from dryland by relating them to high wind speed, soil
552 moisture, and soil type (Ginoux et al., 2001), while dust emission from agricultural lands is not specifically
553 implemented. However, a comprehensive evaluation of airborne dust and PM2.5 concentration between
554 model simulation and site observations in our previous study shows a good agreement between both (Huang
555 et al., 2022a). In addition, the dust transport pathways have well-defined patterns associated with the
556 mesoscale and large-scale weather systems. The general consistency across different models (WRF-Chem
557 and MERRA-2) and observations (satellite analysis) and across different years also give us confidence that
558 the results are valid despite model uncertainties.

559 The analyses of dust emissions and transport can be used to understand dust transport in a changing
560 climate. Studies have shown that global warming continues to dry the soil, producing more dust emissions
561 over the western U.S. Nevertheless, the change in transport and deposition patterns has not been well
562 recognized. Our study highlighted the connection between dust transport and dominant weather patterns

563 across the Sierra Nevada; the latter might respond in a more predictable way to climate change. Future
564 projections show that global warming may increase the frequency of landfalling AR by 20-35% by the end
565 of the 21st century (Hagos et al., 2016; Rhoades et al., 2021). Besides, the widening of the Hadley Cell in
566 response to global warming might enhance the NPH and shift it poleward (Song et al., 2018; Choi et al.,
567 2016). Thus said, the SBJ- and NPH-related dust transport may occur more frequently while the MSR
568 transport may become less common. In this regard, changes in dust emissions from the Central Valley might
569 play a more critical role in mountain snow impurities than those from the Mojave Desert and the Great
570 Basin, producing more depositions on the west slope of the Sierra Nevada.

571

572 **Data availability:**

573 The IASI DOD data is acquired from <https://iasi.aeris-data.fr/dust-aod/>. The MIDAS DOD is acquired from
574 <https://zenodo.org/record/4244106#.YsJqe-zMIws>. MERRA-2 aerosol reanalyses are available from
575 <https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?keywords=MERRA2&page=1> and ERA5 wind reanalyses are available
576 from <https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds633.0/>. The WRF-Chem and MERRA-2 SOM clustering results have
577 been uploaded to <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6795994>.

578

579 **Author contributions:**

580 HH performed the analysis and drafted the manuscript. The methodology was developed by HH and YL.
581 JZ and AG provided the observational data used for model validation. YQ, CH, and ZZ helped with the
582 analysis and offered valuable comments. All authors contributed to writing and editing the manuscript.

583

584 **Competing interests:**

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

586

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