



1           **Modeling the Inhibition Effect of Straw Checkerboard**  
2                           **Barriers on Wind-blown Sand**

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10  
11       **Abstract**

12 Straw checkerboard barriers (SCBs) are usually laid to prevent or delay the process of  
13 desertification caused by aeolian sand erosion in arid and semi-arid regions.  
14 Understanding the impact of SCBs and its laying length on aeolian sand erosion is of  
15 great significance to reduce the damage and the laying costs. In this study, a  
16 three-dimensional wind-blown sand model in presence of SCBs was established by  
17 introducing the splash process and equivalent sand barriers into a large-eddy  
18 simulation airflow. From this model, the inhibition effect of SCBs on wind-blown  
19 sand was studied qualitatively, and the sensitivity of aeolian sand erosion to the laying  
20 length was investigated. The results showed that the wind speed in the SCBs area  
21 decreases oscillatively along the flow direction. Moreover, the longer the laying  
22 lengths, the lower the wind speed in the stable stage behind SCBs, and the lower the



23 sand transport rate. We further found that the concentration of sand particles near the  
24 side of SCBs is higher than that in its central region, which is qualitatively consistent  
25 with the previous research. Our results also indicated that whether the wind speed will  
26 decrease below the impact threshold or the fluid threshold is the key factor affecting  
27 whether sand particles can penetrate the SCBs and form stable wind-blown sand  
28 behind the SCBs under the same conditions. Our research can provide theoretical  
29 support for the minimum laying length of SCBs in anti-desertification projects.

30

## 31 **1. Introduction**

32 In arid and semi-arid areas, aeolian sand erosion is becoming more and more  
33 serious. How to prevent or delay the process of desertification is a major challenge for  
34 all over the world, especially in the transitional areas between desert and oasis. At  
35 present, shelterbelt (Wang et al., 2010), sand fences (Bitog et al., 2009; Hatanaka and  
36 Hotta, 1997; Li and Sherman (2015); Lima et al., 2017; Pye and Tsoar, 2008; Wilson,  
37 2004), wind-break walls (Bouvet et al., 2006; Santiago et al., 2007), hole plate-type  
38 sand barriers (Chen et al., 2019) and straw checkerboard sand barriers (Bo et al., 2015;  
39 Huang et al., 2013; Wang and Zheng, 2002; Xu et al., 2018) are the main techniques  
40 to prevent the process of desertification. Among these techniques, straw checkerboard  
41 barriers (SCBs) are the most common used in the anti-desertification projects because  
42 of their advantages of easy to obtain and relatively cheap (Zheng, 2009). Laying  
43 SCBs could play an important role in the ecological restoration of sandy land  
44 ecosystems (Zhang et al., 2018) and vegetation restoration. Some research showed  
45 that the SCBs can effectively reduce the surface wind speed (Qu et al., 2007), increase



46 the surface roughness (Zhang et al., 2016), weaken the sand transport rate (Bo et al.,  
47 2015), change the distribution of aeolian sandy soil particles and soil organic carbon  
48 (Dai et al., 2019), thus protecting the survival of the vegetation and achieving  
49 sustainable development of oasis and ecological environment.

50 In recent decades, SCBs have been widely used in northwest of China, which is  
51 seriously damaged by aeolian sand erosion. For example, the SCBs have been laid on  
52 the sides of the roadbed along the railways such as Baotou-Lanzhou Railway,  
53 Wuda-Jilantai Railway (Wang, 1996), Gantang-Wuwei Railway (Yang, 1995),  
54 Lanzhou-Xinjiang Railway (Binwen et al., 1998; Cheng et al., 2016), Qinghai-Tibet  
55 Railway (Cheng and Xue, 2014; Zhang et al., 2010), as well as the windy sand area  
56 beside the desert roads such as Taklamakan Desert Highway (Li et al., 2006; Qu et al.,  
57 2007), Tarim Desert Highway (Xu et al., 1998) and MinQin Desert Highway. In  
58 addition, SCBs are adopted by some countries that are also affected by aeolian sand  
59 erosion, such as Ghana, Egypt, and Iran (Zheng, 2009). Although the SCBs have been  
60 widely used, its design size and laying methods are mainly determined by practical  
61 experience or repeated tests. For example, for the sand fence which has the similar  
62 effect to the SCB, Li and Sherman (2015) combined experimental and field data to  
63 conclude that the optimal design of sand fence is closely related to its aerodynamics  
64 and morphodynamics. The effect of sand fences with different porosity, spacing and  
65 height on the wind field is significant (Lima et al., 2017; Lima et al., 2020). However,  
66 the complexity of the flow field around the SCBs and the movement of sand particles,  
67 as well as the coupling of particles and flow field, which makes this problem more



68 difficult. Therefore, it is necessary to study the characteristics of turbulence inside and  
69 behind the SCBs as well as the influence mechanism of the laying length on wind  
70 speed and erosion.

71 Wang and Zheng (2002) proposed a single-row ideally uniformly distributed  
72 vortex model to simplify the flow field of the wind-blown sand. Based on their model,  
73 the corresponding relationship between the side length and the height of a single SCB  
74 was analyzed. Their theoretical results are similar to the size of the SCBs which laid  
75 in the Tarim Desert Highway (1 m in side length and 15-20 cm in height). Qiu et al.  
76 (2004) pointed out that since the concentration of wind-blown sand below 10 cm near  
77 the surface is relatively high, the height of the SCBs should be designed as 10-20cm  
78 thus to effectively prevent aeolian sand erosion. The experimental results of Zhang et  
79 al. (2018) indicated that the SCB has the best protective effect when its side length is  
80 1 m. These works are of great help to the design of a single SCB. Based on these  
81 empirical sizes of the SCBs, researchers tried to analyze the effect of SCBs on the  
82 flow field and particles from the perspective of turbulence. Huang et al. (2013) used  
83 two-dimensional large eddy simulation and discrete particle tracking methods to  
84 simulate the wind-blown sand movement inside the simplified two-dimensional SCBs.  
85 The effect of SCBs on surface wind speed was analyzed. They found that sand  
86 particles could be aggregated at the inner walls of the SCBs due to the influence of the  
87 vortex or the backflow. And then a v-shaped sand trough was formed, which is similar  
88 to the actual situation. Bo et al. (2015) equated the SCBs to the source term of the  
89 standard  $k-\varepsilon$  turbulence model, and analyzed the influence of SCBs on the wind speed



90 profile in two-dimensional flow field without sand particles. They divided the  
91 streamwise velocity profile in flow field containing SCBs into three different  
92 log-linear functions approximately, and obtained the relationship between them and  
93 friction wind speeds. Although these two-dimensional models can reflect the effect of  
94 the SCBs on the flow field to some extent, they are far from the real turbulence.  
95 Moreover, since the actual three-dimensional SCB is simplified into two-dimensional  
96 plane with only streamwise direction and vertical direction. And the impact of this  
97 simplification is uncertain. For this reason, Xu et al. (2018) simulated the wind-blown  
98 sand movement on the SCBs surface under three-dimensional flow field with  
99 OpenFOAM, and mainly analyzed the influence of the flow field inside the SCBs on  
100 the movement of sand particles. They concluded that the wind vortex is the main  
101 cause of internal morphology of the straw checkerboard. They found that the vortex  
102 will drive particles inside the SCBs move towards the front and side walls, making the  
103 erosional form in SCB cells become low in the middle and high near all sides.  
104 However, the SCBs are completely equivalent to the solid as the bottom boundary  
105 condition in their model. As a non-solid material, the SCBs can be penetrated by the  
106 wind in practice. It only weakens the wind speed thus not equivalent to a solid. For  
107 example, Dupont et al. (2014) equated the surface vegetation to a resistance force  
108 through the resistance coefficient and leaf area coefficient, that is, the wind will be  
109 resisted as it passes through these equivalent regions.

110 In order to reasonably introduce the SCBs and consider the coupling among  
111 turbulence, SCBs and surface splash process, the development of three-dimensional



112 model is required. In this paper, three-dimensional numerical coupled model of  
113 wind-blown sand in presence of SCBs was carried out to study the inhibition effect of  
114 the laying length on aeolian sand erosion. The large eddy simulation approach was  
115 used to simulate the clean air flow with the saltation process was considered.  
116 Furthermore, we added a volume drag force into the Navier-Stokes equations by using  
117 the drag source method to realize the coupling between the SCBs and the wind-blown  
118 sand movement. Section 2 and Section 3 gave the three-dimensional numerical  
119 coupled model and its validation, respectively. In Section 4, the effects of the SCBs'  
120 laying length on clean air flow and sand-laden flow under different friction wind  
121 speeds were studied. Finally, Section 5 was a summary of the main conclusions.

## 122 **2. Models**

123 The Advanced Regional Prediction System (ARPS) has been widely used to  
124 simulate turbulent boundary-layer particle-laden flow, such as: wind-blown sand  
125 (Dupont et al., 2013; Huang, 2020), wind-blown snow (Huang and Wang, 2016; Li et  
126 al., 2018). The standard version of the program is described in the ARPS User's  
127 Manual (Xue et al., 1995) and its validation cases are referred to Xue et al. (2000) and  
128 Xue et al. (2001). For this study, some suitable models were added in order to  
129 simulate turbulent boundary-layer flow in presence of SCBs with saltating sand  
130 particles. A detailed description of these modifications is shown in the following  
131 subsections.

### 132 **2.1 Turbulent boundary-layer flow**



133 Basic flow fields in our numerical simulation are established on the basis of the  
 134 ARPS (version 5.3.4). And the filtered continuity and momentum equations including  
 135 viscous drag force terms of sand particles as well as SCBs are shown as follows  
 136 (Dupont et al., 2013; Vinkovic et al., 2006):

$$137 \quad \frac{\partial \tilde{u}_i}{\partial t} + \tilde{u}_j \frac{\partial \tilde{u}_i}{\partial x_j} = -\frac{1}{\bar{\rho}_f} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (\tilde{p} - \nu \frac{\partial \bar{\rho}_f \tilde{u}_j}{\partial x_j}) - \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_j} - \delta_{i3} g \left( \frac{\tilde{\theta}}{\bar{\theta}} - \frac{c_p}{c_v} \frac{\tilde{p}}{\bar{p}} \right) + \frac{F_i}{\bar{\rho}_f}, \quad (1)$$

138 where,  $i = 1, 2$  and  $3$  correspond to the streamwise, spanwise and wall-normal  
 139 directions (i.e.,  $x_1 = x, x_2 = y, x_3 = z, u_1 = u, u_2 = v, u_3 = w$ ), respectively;  $\tilde{u}_i, \tilde{p}$  and  
 140  $\tilde{\theta}$  represent the filtered wind speed, pressure and potential temperature, respectively;  $\nu$   
 141 is a damping coefficient of the attenuate acoustic waves;  $\rho_f$  is the air density;  $g$  is the  
 142 acceleration of gravity;  $F_i$  is the feedback force of sand particles and SCBs;  $\delta_{ij} = 1$  if  
 143  $i = j$ , otherwise  $\delta_{ij} = 0$ ;  $\tau_{ij} = \widetilde{u_i u_j} - \tilde{u}_i \tilde{u}_j$  are the SGS (sub-grid-scale) stresses  
 144 (Smagorinsky, 1963);  $c_p$  and  $c_v$  are the specific heat of air at constant pressure and  
 145 volume, respectively.

146 In order to solve above equations, the SGS stresses can be closed as follows:

$$147 \quad \tau_{ij} - \frac{1}{3} \tau_{kk} \delta_{ij} = -(C_{sgs} \Delta)^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left| \frac{\partial \tilde{u}_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \tilde{u}_j}{\partial x_i} \right| \left( \frac{\partial \tilde{u}_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \tilde{u}_j}{\partial x_i} \right), \quad (2)$$

148 where  $\Delta$  is the grid scale;  $C_{sgs}$  depends on the Germano subgrid-scale closure  
 149 method (Germano et al., 1991).

150 For the governing equations mentioned above, periodic boundary conditions are  
 151 applied for spanwise direction. The upper and lower boundaries are set as a stress-free  
 152 condition and a rigid ground condition, respectively. The outlet boundary is used as an



153 open radiation condition in this paper. The inlet boundary is a given logarithmic  
154 profile:

$$155 \quad \tilde{u}(0, y, z) = \left(\frac{u_*}{\kappa}\right) \ln\left(\frac{z}{z_0}\right). \quad (3)$$

156 Here  $k=0.41$  is von Kármán constant;  $z_0=D/30$  is the aerodynamic surface roughness  
157 (Kok et al., 2012);  $u_*$  is the friction speed of inflow. Additionally, the simulation is  
158 driven by a constant flow corresponding to the given logarithmic wind profile. In  
159 order to accelerate the development of boundary layer flow, LWS method (Lund et al.,  
160 1998) are applied to the inlet condition and the recycling plane at  $x_{ref}=5\text{m}$   
161 ( $x_{ref}/Lx=12.5\%$  (Inoue and Pullin, 2011), see Fig. 1). The specific method is to  
162 re-assign the calculated mean velocity and fluctuation at the recycling plane to the  
163 inlet at each fluid time step. There is a similar application in the paper of Xu et al.  
164 (2018).

## 165 **2.2 Movement of sand particles**

166 Saltating particles are moved by the drag force, gravity, electric field force,  
167 Magnus force, Saffman force and so on (Murphy and Hooshiari, 1982). In our model,  
168 the drag force and gravity are considered, ignoring other minor factors (Kok et al.,  
169 2012; Zou et al., 2007). We employ the Lagrangian point-particle method to describe  
170 particle motions, and the equations of particles with different sizes in three directions  
171 can be expressed as

$$172 \quad m_p \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = \frac{C_D \pi D^2 \rho_f}{8} \left(\tilde{u} - \frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + F_{nx} + F_{sx}, \quad (4)$$





$$173 \quad m_p \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = \frac{C_D \pi D^2 \rho_f}{8} (\tilde{v} - \frac{dy}{dt})^2 + F_{ny} + F_{sy}, \quad (5)$$

$$174 \quad m_p \frac{d^2 z}{dt^2} = -\frac{\pi g \rho_p D^3}{6} + \frac{C_D \pi D^2 \rho_f}{8} (\tilde{w} - \frac{dz}{dt})^2 + F_{nz} + F_{sz}, \quad (6)$$

175 where  $m_p$  is the mass of sand particles;  $C_D$  is the drag coefficient of sand particles  
 176 (Cheng, 1997). The particle Reynolds number can be expressed as

$$177 \quad \text{Re}_p = (V_f \rho_p D / \mu) [(\tilde{u} - dx/dt)^2 + (\tilde{v} - dy/dt)^2 + (\tilde{w} - dz/dt)^2]^{1/2}. \quad (7)$$

178  $\rho_p$  and  $\rho_f$  are the density of sand particles and air, respectively;  $D$  is the diameter of  
 179 sand particles;  $V_f = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^{k=n} V_p / \Delta V$  is the bulk fraction which is the total sand volumes  
 180 within grid to the bulk of unit grid;  $\Delta V$  is the bulk of unit grid;  $\mu$  is the kinetic  
 181 viscosity coefficient of air;  $F_{nx}$ ,  $F_{sx}$ ,  $F_{ny}$ ,  $F_{sy}$ ,  $F_{nz}$  and  $F_{sz}$  are the normal and tangential  
 182 force of contact in three directions.

### 183 2.3 Particle collision

184 The collision process in the air among the ejection particles is focused in  
 185 previous models (Carneiro et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2007). In this paper, the  
 186 "spring-damping" model is used to calculate the contact force when particles collide  
 187 in the air. And the contact force can be described as follows (Huang et al., 2017):

188 The normal force of contact is

$$189 \quad \vec{F}_{n,ij} = \begin{cases} -k_n \zeta_{n,ij} \vec{n}_{ij} - d_n \vec{v}_{n,ij} & , \quad \zeta = |\mathbf{R}_i + \mathbf{R}_j - \vec{r}_{ij}| \\ 0 & , \quad \zeta < 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

190 Where,  $k_n = 2 \times 10^6$  is the normal stiffness coefficient;  $\zeta$  is the amount of overlap  
 191 between particles during contact;  $R_i$  and  $R_j$  are the radius of particle  $i$  and  $j$ ;  $\vec{r}_{ij}$  is



192 distance vector between particles;  $\vec{v}_{n,ij}$  is the normal relative velocity vector. The  
 193 normal damping coefficient can be expressed as

$$194 \quad d_n = \sqrt{\frac{4k_n \frac{m_i m_j}{m_i + m_j} (\ln \varepsilon)^2}{\pi^2 + (\ln \varepsilon)^2}}. \quad (9)$$

195 Where,  $m_i$  and  $m_j$  are the mass of particle  $i$  and  $j$ , and  $\varepsilon=0.7$  is restitution coefficient.

196 The tangential force of contact is

$$197 \quad \vec{F}_{t,ij} = \begin{cases} -k_t \zeta_{t,ij} \vec{\tau}_{ij} - d_t \vec{v}_{t,ij} & \left| \vec{F}_{t,ij} \right| \leq \frac{R_i}{R_j} \left| \vec{F}_{n,ij} \right| \\ -\mu_i \left| \vec{F}_{n,ij} \right| \vec{\tau}_{ij} & \left| \vec{F}_{t,ij} \right| > \frac{R_i}{R_j} \left| \vec{F}_{n,ij} \right| \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

198 Where,  $k_t = 2 \times 10^6$  is the tangential stiffness coefficient;  $\zeta_{t,ij}$  is the tangential  
 199 displacement;  $\vec{v}_{t,ij}$  is the tangential relative velocity vector. The tangential damping  
 200 coefficient can be expressed as

$$201 \quad d_t = 2 \sqrt{\frac{m_i m_j}{m_i + m_j}} k_t. \quad (11)$$

## 202 2.4 Splash process

203 Splash processes not only serve as an indispensable part of the near-surface  
 204 particle motions, but also relate to the accuracy of emissions during particles upward  
 205 transport. There are a large number of collisions between particles and the ground.  
 206 Meanwhile, other particles will be blown up when particles hit the ground, which is  
 207 referred to as the splash process. If energy-based collision analysis is performed on a  
 208 single particle, lots of time will be consumed. Therefore, researchers parameterized  
 209 some key variables in accordance with the characteristics of splash, thereby



210 simplifying the problem. We assume that there are enough sand and dust particles on  
211 the ground to splash when the particles impact the surface. If the particle collides with  
212 the bed, we assume the rebound probability as

$$213 \quad p_{reb} = 0.95(1 - e^{-\lambda v_{imp}}), \quad (12)$$

214 where  $v_{imp}$  is the impact speed, and  $\lambda$  is an empirical parameter in the order of 2 s/m  
215 according to the previous study (Anderson et al., 1991). The rebound sand speed is  
216 0.55 times of the impact sand speed, and the rebound angle  $\theta_{reb}$  is  $40^\circ$  (Zhou et al.,  
217 2006). Of course, at a certain speed, some new sand particles will be splashed. The  
218 ejection number is

$$219 \quad \overline{N_{ej}} = n_0 \left( 1 - (A - B \sin \theta_{imp})^2 \right) \left( \frac{v_{imp}}{\zeta \sqrt{g d_{mean}}} - 1 \right) (e^{\mu_{imp}/C} - D). \quad (13)$$

220 Where,  $n_0=0.4$ ,  $A=0.68$ ,  $B=0.39$ ,  $\zeta=5$ ,  $C=0.92$ ,  $D=1.39$  (Huang et al., 2017).  $\theta_{imp}$  is the  
221 impact angle,  $\mu_{imp}$  is the ratio of impact grain size to the mean size of the bed, and  
222  $d_{mean}$  is the mean diameter of the sand particles. The ejection angle  $\theta_{ej}$  distributes  
223 randomly between  $50^\circ \sim 60^\circ$  (Rice et al., 1995). The probability density distribution of  
224 the initial lifting speed follows

$$225 \quad p(v_{ej}) = \exp(-v_{ej} / \overline{v_{ej}}) / \overline{v_{ej}}. \quad (14)$$

226 Where,  $v_{ej}$  is the ejection speed and the overbar represents a mean value (Anderson et  
227 al., 1991; Werner, 1990). The mean ejection speed can be expressed as (Kok and  
228 Renno, 2009)

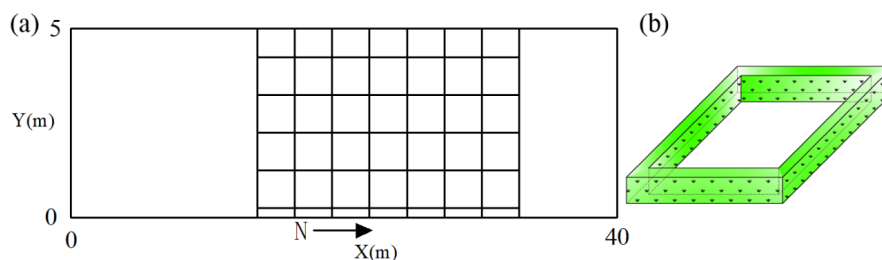


229 
$$\bar{v}_{ej} = \sqrt{gD_{mean}} \frac{\alpha_{ej}}{a} (1 - \exp(-\frac{v_{imp}}{40\sqrt{gD_{mean}}})) \quad (15)$$

230 Moreover, the sand particles satisfy the periodic boundary condition in the direction  
231 of streamwise and spanwise, respectively. Following the idea of Dupont et al. (2013),  
232 aerodynamic entrainment did not consider in our model. 10000 initial particles are  
233 randomly released in the flow field (Huang, 2020), and the release height should be  
234 lower than 0.3 m (Shao and Raupach, 1992). The results of Dupont et al. (2013)  
235 showed that the number of released particles does not affect the final results, but only  
236 the speed of wind-blown sand development.

### 237 2.5 Parameters and equivalent method of SCBs

238 According to the experience of laying SCBs in practical engineering (Chang et  
239 al., 2000) and the theoretical results of Wang and Zheng (2002), in this paper, the  
240 height of SCB ( $S_h$ ) is set to 10 cm, the side length of a single SCB ( $S_l$ ) is  $100 \times 100$  cm,  
241 and the side thickness of the SCB ( $S_n$ ) is set to 10 cm. The diagram of a single SCB is  
242 shown in Fig. 1b. Moreover, in order to study the inhibition effect of the laying length  
243 of SCBs (represented by N) on aeolian sand erosion, we set  $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$   
244 m in the simulation cases. The diagram of the laying SCBs is shown in Fig. 1a and the  
245 main parameters of the SCBs are listed in Table 1.



246



247 **Figure 1.** (a) The diagram of the laying SCBs. (b) The diagram of a single SCB.

248 The SCBs are equivalent to a volume resistance force through the resistance  
249 coefficient and leaf area coefficient, that is, the flow in these regions will be subject to  
250 additional resistance force, which can be expressed as

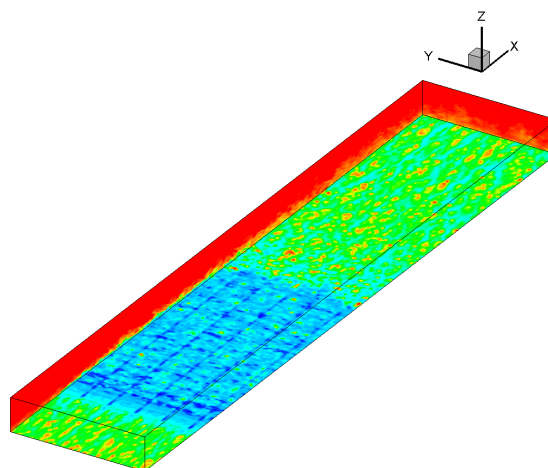
$$251 \quad F_d = -C_d a |U| u_t. \quad (16)$$

252 Where,  $C_d$  is the drag coefficient,  $a$  is the leaf area coefficient, and  $U$  is the inflow  
253 wind speed. In the simulation, the value of  $C_d$  is 0.2 according to the parameters of  
254 Dupont et al. (2013). Nepf (2012) concluded that when the diameter of vegetation is  
255 4-9 cm, the value of the leaf area coefficient  $a$  can reach  $20 \text{ m}^{-1}$ . Therefore, according  
256 to the side thickness of the SCB in this paper, the leaf area coefficient is set as  $40 \text{ m}^{-1}$ .

257 **Table 1** SCB Parameters

Name	Symbol	Value	Unit
SCB height	$S_h$	10	cm
SCB side length	$S_l$	100	cm
SCB side thickness	$S_n$	10	cm
laying length of SCBs	N	5~10, 5~20, 5~30	m
drag coefficient	$C_d$	0.2	
leaf area coefficient	$a$	40	$\text{m}^{-1}$

## 258 **2.6 Calculation parameters**



259

260 **Figure 2.** Schematic diagram of three-dimensional wind-blown sand in presence of SCBs.

261 Wind tunnel experiments conducted by Shao and Raupach (1992) indicated that  
262 a complete “overshoot” had more than 10 m in streamwise (Huang et al., 2014; Ma  
263 and Zheng, 2011). In Fig. 2, the computational domains are  $L_x=40$  m,  $L_y=5$  m,  $L_z=2$   
264 m in streamwise, spanwise and wall-normal directions, respectively. Field  
265 experiments conducted by Baas and Sherman (2005) showed that the mean lateral size  
266 of sand streamers is about 0.2 m. In order to capture this structure, the mesh spacing is  
267 0.1 m and 0.1 m in streamwise and spanwise, respectively. Besides, in the near wall  
268 region, the logarithmic stretching has been adopted to ensure the precision. The mean  
269 and minimum mesh spacing in the vertical direction is 0.025 and 0.005 m,  
270 respectively. Therefore, the grids of streamwise, spanwise and vertical directions are  
271  $400 \times 100 \times 80$ , respectively. The sand diameter satisfies the normal distribution: mean  
272 diameter equals to 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and the variance is  $\ln(1.2)$ . We first simulate the clean air  
273 flow in presence of SCBs for 30 seconds to get fully developed. Then we add the sand



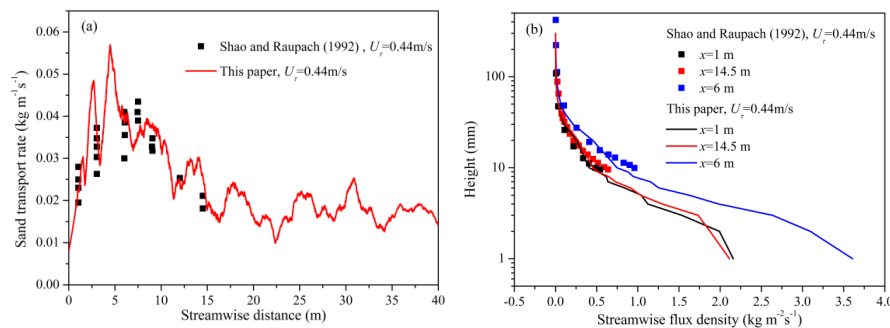
274 particles in the simulations to develop the sand-laden flow. After the wind-blown sand  
 275 flow becomes saturated, the simulations last another 20 seconds to do the statistics.  
 276 The fluid time step  $\Delta t_s=0.0002$  s, and the particle time step  $\Delta t_p=0.00005$  s. The density  
 277 of sand grain is  $2650 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , and the density of air  $1.225 \text{ kg/m}^3$ . The main calculation  
 278 parameters are listed in Table 2.

279 **Table 2** Main Simulation Parameters

Name	Symbol	Value	Unit
streamwise computational domain	$L_x$	40	m
spanwise computational domain	$L_y$	5	m
wall-normal computational domain	$L_z$	2	m
fluid time step	$\Delta t_s$	0.0002	s
friction wind speed	$u_*$	0.3, 0.44, 0.6	m/s
particle time step	$\Delta t_p$	0.00005	s
sand density	$\rho_a$	2650	$\text{kg/m}^3$
air density	$\rho_f$	1.225	$\text{kg/m}^3$
gravity	$g$	9.81	$\text{m/s}^2$

280

### 281 3. Model validations



282

283 **Figure 3.** (a) The spatial variation of the streamwise sand transport rate in the sand-laden flow. (b)

284 The streamwise sand transport rate density with the height at the three flow direction positions.

285 The verification of the flow field part of the program is covered in great detail in

286 our previous works (Huang, 2020). In this section, we will verify the validity of the



287 model from the following three aspects. Sand transport rate is an important physical  
288 quantity in the wind-blown sand, which is the embodiment of the sediment carrying  
289 capacity of the flow field (Zheng, 2009). Therefore, without considering the SCBs, we  
290 first compare the spatial variation of the sand transport rate in the sand-laden flow  
291 with the experimental results of Shao and Raupach (1992). The sand transport rate is  
292 calculated according to the formula

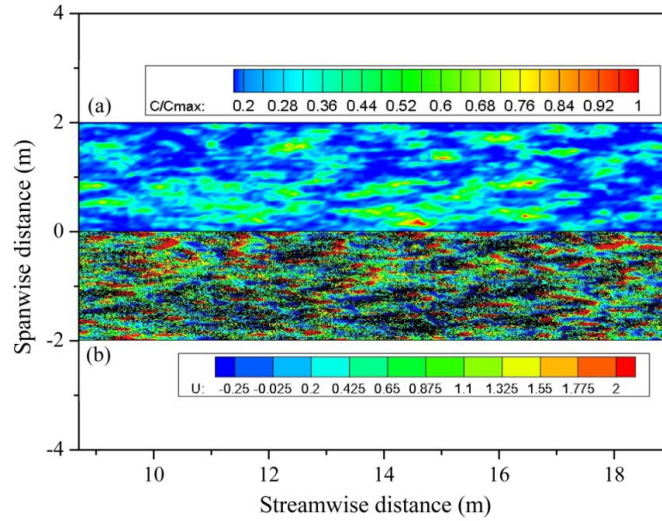
$$293 \quad q = \sum_{z=0}^{z=H} \sum_{y=0}^{y=M} m(x) / \Delta x / \Delta t_s. \quad (17)$$

294  $m(x)$  represents the sand mass in the range of flow direction  $x$  to  $x+\Delta x$ , and  $\Delta x$  is the  
295 grid size in the flow direction. And judge whether the wind-blown sand flow is  
296 saturated by the change of the sediment transport at a certain streamwise position. The  
297 condition for judging saturation is given by Ma and Zheng (2010). The wind tunnel  
298 experimental results of Shao and Raupach (1992) showed that the streamwise sand  
299 transport rate increased first, then decreased until it was stable, which is called the  
300 "overshoot" phenomenon (Anderson and Haff, 1991; McEwan and Willetts, 1991).  
301 Fig. 3a shows the comparison between the simulation results of the sand transport rate  
302 along the flow direction with the experimental results of Shao and Raupach (1992)  
303 under the same friction wind speed. As can be seen from Fig. 3a, our simulation  
304 results also show this phenomenon. However, unlike the other numerical simulation  
305 results (Huang et al., 2014; Ma and Zheng, 2011), our sediment transport rate results  
306 have an obvious fluctuation characteristic that are not smooth curves, which may be  
307 caused by the turbulence intermittency unique to the three-dimensional wind-blown





308 sand model. What's more, we give the distribution results of the streamwise sand  
309 transport rate density with the height at the three flow direction positions, which are  
310 compared with the experimental results. From Fig. 3b, we can see that the distribution  
311 of the streamwise sand transport rate density with the height follows the trend of  
312 exponential decline, and the sand transport rate density at  $x = 6$  m is significantly  
313 higher than that at  $x = 1$  m and  $x = 14.5$  m, which is consistent with the experimental  
314 results of Shao and Raupach (1992). This is because the flow direction of  $x = 6$  m is in  
315 the peak region of the "overshoot" phenomenon, while the flow direction of  $x = 1$  m  
316 and  $x = 14.5$  m is in the rising region and stable region, respectively. Due to the  
317 massive accumulation of sand particles exist near the surface (0-20 mm), thus the  
318 concentrations cannot be measured easily. In Fig. 3b, our simulation results can also  
319 show that the distribution of the streamwise sand transport rate density with the height  
320 below 10 mm still satisfies the trend of exponential decline. However, at a height of  
321 2~3 mm, there is a slight change in this trend, that is, the rate of increase in the sand  
322 transport rate density has slowed down, which is not revealed in the experimental  
323 results. Due to the limitations of the large eddy simulation, the simulation results near  
324 the wall may be distorted, so this part needs to be further verified by the experiments.



325

326 **Figure 4.** (a) The top view of the sand streamer concentrations, where  $C$  represents the particle  
 327 concentrations,  $C_{\max}$  represents the maximum particle concentrations. (b) The top view of the  
 328 whole particle positions and the streamwise velocity diagram of flow field with the height of 0.005  
 329 m, and the  $y$  coordinates are correspondingly shifted down by 2, where the black dots represent  
 330 the sand particles,  $U$  represents the streamwise wind speed of the sand-laden flow ( $u_r=0.3$  m/s).

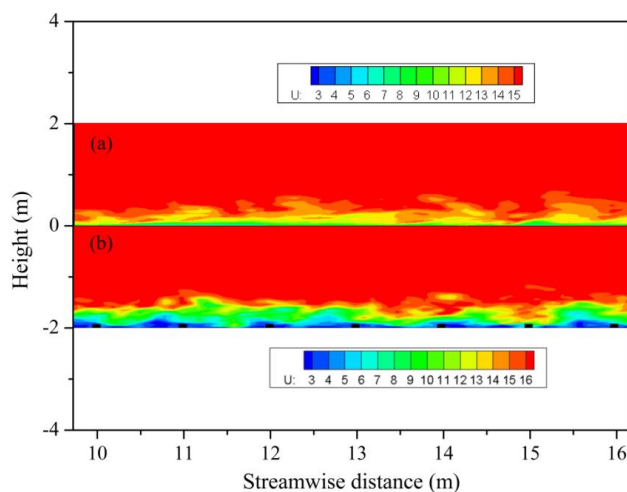
331 Sand streamer, as a natural phenomenon in wind-blown sand, has been widely  
 332 concerned. Therefore, without considering the SCBs, we then analyze the morphology  
 333 of sand streamer and its relationship with the flow field. In the meantime, the  
 334 air-borne particle concentration within a certain area can be calculated as

$$335 \quad C = \sum_{z=0}^{z=H} \sum_{y=0}^{y=M} \sum_{x=0}^{x=L} m(x) / Lx / Ly / Lz. \quad (18)$$

336 Fig. 4a is the top view of particle-aggregation morphology in the stable stage of  
 337 sand-laden flow. It can be seen from Fig. 4a that the concentration of sand particles is  
 338 intermittent in both streamwise and spanwise directions. Moreover, we can see clearly



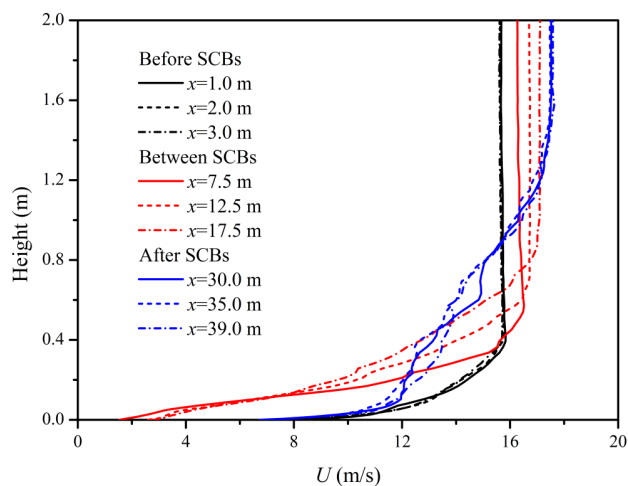
339 that the morphological characteristics of sand streamer are consistent with the  
340 observations of Baas and Sherman (2005), that is, it is up to a few meters in the  
341 streamwise direction and about 0.2 meters in the spanwise direction. Our model can  
342 reproduce the “sand streamer” phenomenon in wind-blown sand well. Here, we need  
343 to point out that the intermittence of turbulence complicates the particle movement,  
344 especially when multiple streamers are connected end to end as well as the  
345 concentration is close enough, there will existing the super sand streamers up to tens  
346 of meters long. Whether in the sand-laden flow or the other two-phase flows,  
347 researchers are generally concerned about the aggregation of particles. We plot the  
348 position of particles and the streamwise velocity of flow field in Fig. 4b, and notice  
349 that most particles are assembled in the low-speed streaks, which is consistent with  
350 the conclusion of the other particle-laden flows (Lee and Lee, 2015; Richter, 2015).



351  
352 **Figure 5.** The side view of X-Z plane streamwise velocity before (a) and after (b) containing the  
353 SCBs ( $u_r=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m,  $y=0$  m). The y coordinates are correspondingly shifted down by 2



354 in the case (b).



355

356 **Figure 6.** The wind speed profiles of different streamwise positions in the clean air flow  
357 containing the SCBs ( $u_r=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m).

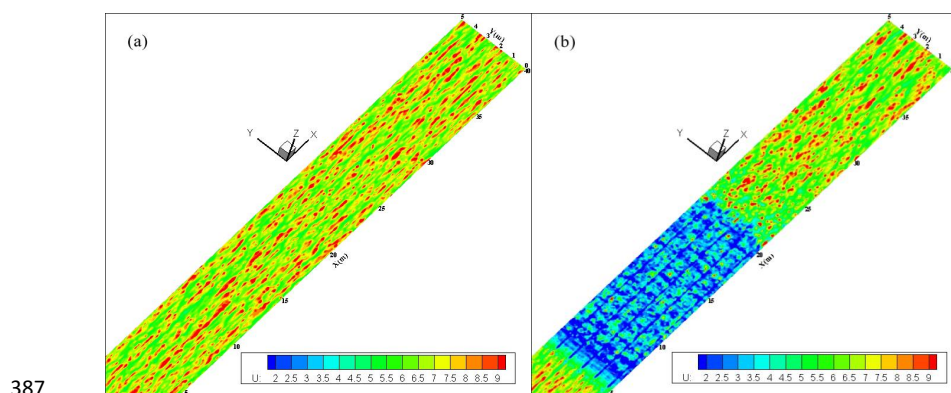
358 Finally, we verify the difference of the velocity profile as well as the surface  
359 roughness in the clean air flow with and without the SCBs. In the previous studies, the  
360 wind speed and surface roughness near the SCBs were studied well (Dong et al., 2000;  
361 Qu et al., 2007; Wang et al., 1999). These works all pointed out that laying the SCBs  
362 can effectively increase the surface roughness and reduce the wind speed near the  
363 surface, so as to play a role in inhibiting the wind-blown sand and fixing the sand  
364 particles. Fig. 5a and 5b are the tangent plane (X-Z plane) of the streamwise wind  
365 velocity without and with the SCBs, respectively. It can be seen intuitively that the  
366 existence of the SCBs reduces significantly the surface wind speed, and increases the  
367 boundary layer thickness of the flow field. In order to reveal the difference  
368 quantitatively, we plot the wind speed profiles of different streamwise positions in the



369 clean air flow containing the SCBs in Fig. 6. The selected positions are  $x = 1, 2, 3$  m  
370 in front of the SCBs,  $x = 7.5, 12.5, 17.5$  m in the area containing the SCBs, and  $x = 30,$   
371  $35, 39$  m behind the SCBs. We can see that the wind speed profiles at the three  
372 positions in front of the SCBs are basically the same. In the area containing the SCBs,  
373 the existence of the SCBs reduces the surface wind speed and increases the thickness  
374 of the boundary layer (equivalent to increasing the surface roughness) as well as the  
375 incoming wind speed outside the boundary layer. Moreover, the longer the SCBs are,  
376 the thicker the boundary layer will be, and the incoming wind speed outside the  
377 boundary layer will also increase more. The flow field behind the SCBs may be  
378 complicated by the influence of the attached vortex generated by the SCBs, but the  
379 overall trend is the same and the boundary layer thickness remains consistent. These  
380 results are qualitatively consistent with the existing conclusions (Dong et al., 2000;  
381 Qu et al., 2007; Wang et al., 1999), which indicates that our model has effectively  
382 introduced the SCBs module. In the following section, we will reveal more about the  
383 influence of the laying length on the wind field and its inhibition effect on the  
384 wind-blown sand.

## 385 **4. Results and Discussion**

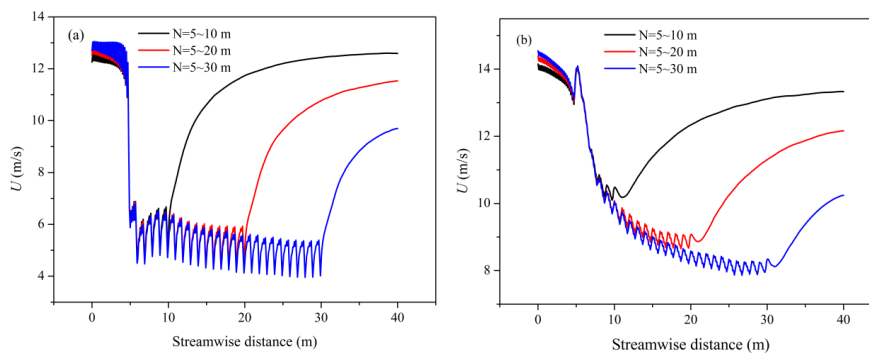
### 386 **4.1 The influence of the SCBs on the clean air flow**



387

388 **Figure 7.** The top view of X-Y plane streamwise velocity without (a) and with (b) the SCBs

389 ( $z=0.005$  m,  $u_t=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m).



390

391 **Figure 8.** The streamwise wind speed in the clean air flow containing the SCBs at the height of

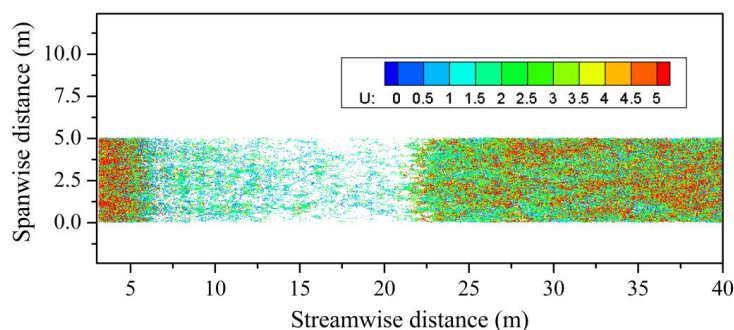
392 0.1 m (a) and the height of 0.2 m (b),  $u_t=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$  m.

393 Fig. 7a and 7b show the presence of the SCBs destroys the original streaks of the  
394 clean air flow and decreases the wind speed. The wind speed in the central area of a  
395 single SCB is significantly higher than that in the surrounding area, showing a block  
396 of velocity distribution characteristics. Although the wind speed behind the SCBs will  
397 recover rapidly, there is a significant difference between the newly formed streaks and  
398 the original streaks of the flow field, that is, the streamwise scale of the streaks behind



399 the SCBs is significantly shorter than before. The variation of streamwise wind speed  
400 at the different laying length cases ( $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$  m) under the same  
401 friction wind speed ( $u_\tau=0.6$  m/s) was plotted in Fig. 8, where Fig. 8a corresponds to  
402 the wind speed at the height of 0.1 m, and Fig. 8b corresponds to the wind speed at  
403 the height of 0.2 m. It can be seen from Fig. 8 that the wind speed in the SCBs  
404 decreases in a process of oscillation. And behind the SCBs, the wind speed gradually  
405 increases and returns to stability. The trend of wind speed reduction in the SCBs is  
406 consistent with the existing experimental results (Xu et al., 1982). The difference is  
407 that the reduction process of the wind speed around the SCBs was oscillatory  
408 attenuation instead of continuous decrease, which is not revealed in the previous  
409 simulation results (Bo et al., 2015). Moreover, when the incoming wind speed is  
410 stable, the longer the laying lengths, the lower the wind speed in the stable stage  
411 behind SCBs. This is very useful information. On this basis, we can obtain the  
412 relationship between the laying length of the SCBs and the wind speed in the stable  
413 stage according to an actual situation. For example, reduce the wind speed in the  
414 stable stage to the impact threshold or the aerodynamic threshold on both sides of the  
415 desert highway, so as to determine the minimum laying length of the SCBs and save  
416 the laying cost. This is a potential application of our model and needs to be further  
417 verified by the experiments.

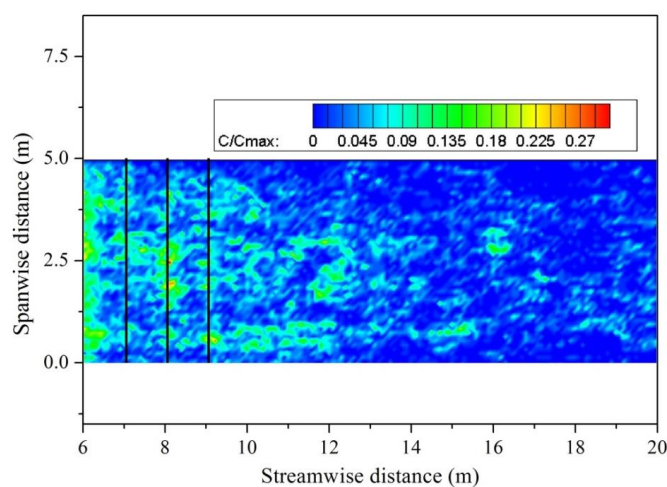
#### 418 **4.2 Effect of sand particles on the flow field and its aggregation location**



419

420 **Figure 9.** The top view of the particle positions of the wind-blown sand in presence of SCBs,

421 where U represents the speed of the particles ( $u_t=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m).



422

423 **Figure 10.** The top view of the sand concentrations in the regions of the SCBs, where C represents

424 the particle concentrations,  $C_{\max}$  represents the maximum particle concentrations ( $u_t=0.6$  m/s,

425  $N=5\sim 20$  m). The black lines represent the schematic diagram of the side of SCBs.

426 Then, sand particles were added to the clean air flow field in presence of SCBs

427 to fully develop and reach stability. The top view of the particle positions of the

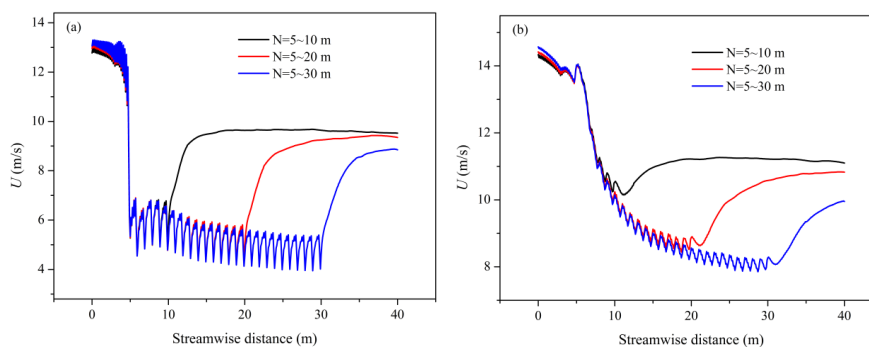
428 wind-blown sand after reaching a stable state is shown in Fig. 9. From Fig. 9, we can

429 see that when the wind-blown sand pass through the SCBs, the particle number

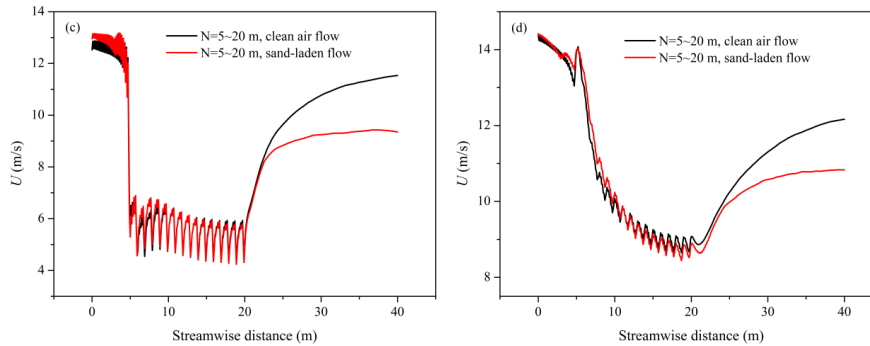




430 obviously decreases gradually, and the inhibition effect of the SCBs on the  
431 wind-blown sand can be visualized. Moreover, the motion of sand particles behind the  
432 SCBs returns to a complete wind-blown sand movement. We then plot the sand  
433 concentrations of the region in presence of SCBs in Fig. 10. Combining the laying  
434 position of the SCBs as well as the corresponding sand concentrations, we can clearly  
435 see that the concentration of sand particles near the side of SCBs is higher than that in  
436 its central region, which is consistent with the conclusion of Xu et al. (2018). On the  
437 one hand, the wind speed near the side of SCBs is low, and the drag force of the sand  
438 particles in these areas will be significantly reduced, so that the sand particles will  
439 accumulate or deposit in these regions. On the other hand, the wind speed in the  
440 central area of every single SCB is significantly higher than that in the surrounding  
441 area, so that the sand particles are not easy to gather or fall in these regions. This  
442 explains why the side of the SCBs tends to be buried in the sandy land and loses its  
443 effect after long working hours.



444



445

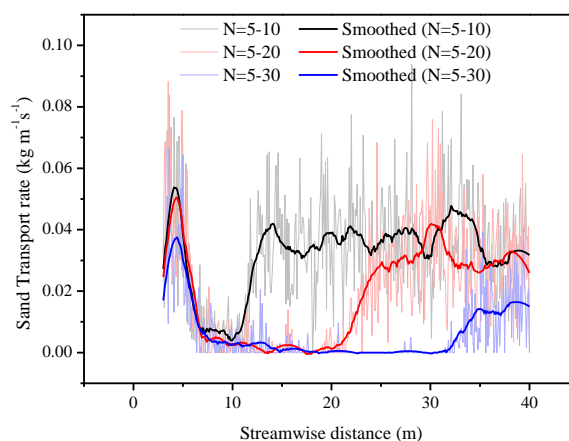
446 **Figure 11.** The streamwise wind speed in the sand-laden flow containing the SCBs at the height of  
447 0.1 m (a) and the height of 0.2 m (b),  $u_{\tau}=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$  m. The comparison of  
448 the streamwise wind speed between the clean air flow and the sand-laden flow at the height of 0.1  
449 m (c) and the height of 0.2 m (d),  $u_{\tau}=0.6$  m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m.

450 Furthermore, we analyze the effect of sand particles on the wind speed in the  
451 sand-laden flow. The streamwise wind speed of the sand-laden flow at the different  
452 laying length cases ( $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$  m) under the same friction wind speed  
453 was plotted in Fig. 11a and 11b. Meanwhile, for the convenience of comparison, the  
454 streamwise wind speed under the same laying length ( $N=5\sim 20$  m) in the sand-laden  
455 flow and the clean air flow were plotted in Fig. 11c and 11d. Fig. 11a and 11c  
456 correspond to the wind speed at a height of 0.1 m, while Fig. 11b and 11d correspond  
457 to the wind speed at a height of 0.2 m. From Fig. 11a-d, we can see that the wind  
458 speed in the SCBs of the sand-laden flow still decreases in a process of oscillation.  
459 The streamwise wind speed behind the SCBs in the sand-laden flow is significantly  
460 lower than that in the clean air flow. Obviously, the presence of sand particles indeed  
461 reduces the wind speed. However, the change of wind speed in the SCBs between the



462 sand-laden flow and the clean air flow is not obvious, because there are fewer sand  
463 particles in the SCBs than behind the SCBs, which has less effect on the overall wind  
464 speed.

#### 465 4.3 Effect of laying length on the sand transport rate



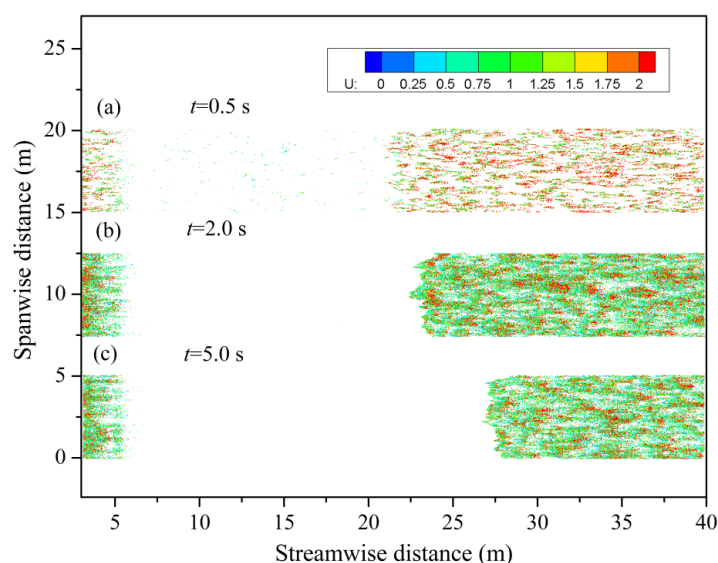
466  
467 **Figure 12.** The streamwise sand transport rate in the different laying length cases ( $u_{\tau}=0.6$  m/s,  
468  $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$  m). Dark lines are the result of smoothing.

469 Here, the effect of the different laying length cases ( $N=5\sim 10$  m,  $5\sim 20$  m,  $5\sim 30$  m)  
470 on the sand transport rate under the same friction wind speed was plotted in Fig. 12. It  
471 can be seen from Fig. 12 that the sand transport rate in the SCBs is very low, and with  
472 the increase of the laying length, the sand transport rate in the SCBs will be lower and  
473 lower. In the case of  $N=5\sim 30$  m, we can even see that the sand transport rate in some  
474 regions has been reduced to zero. Therefore, this result once again shows that the  
475 laying length of the SCBs can be optimized, and we can reduce the laying cost while  
476 keep the effect of the SCBs unchanged. Especially on both sides of the desert highway,



477 our model can give the minimum laying length according to the actual parameters. At  
478 the same time, we notice that the sand transport rate will increase rapidly and then  
479 reach to stable state behind the SCBs. And it is obvious that when  $N=5\sim 30$  m, the  
480 value of sand transport rate at the stable stage behind the SCBs is significantly lower  
481 than the other results of  $N=5\sim 10$  m and  $N=5\sim 20$  m. We also notice that the longer the  
482 laying lengths, the lower the sand transport rate in the stable stage behind the SCBs.  
483 This result is corresponding to the result of Fig. 8. Our results indicate that when the  
484 sandy land is wide, the discontinuous laying method can be considered. That is,  
485 determine the minimum laying length first, and then determine the distance between  
486 each minimum laying length as required. In this way, the sand transport rate can be  
487 reduced in sections. This is another potential application of our model.

#### 488 4.4 Particle positions under different friction wind speeds

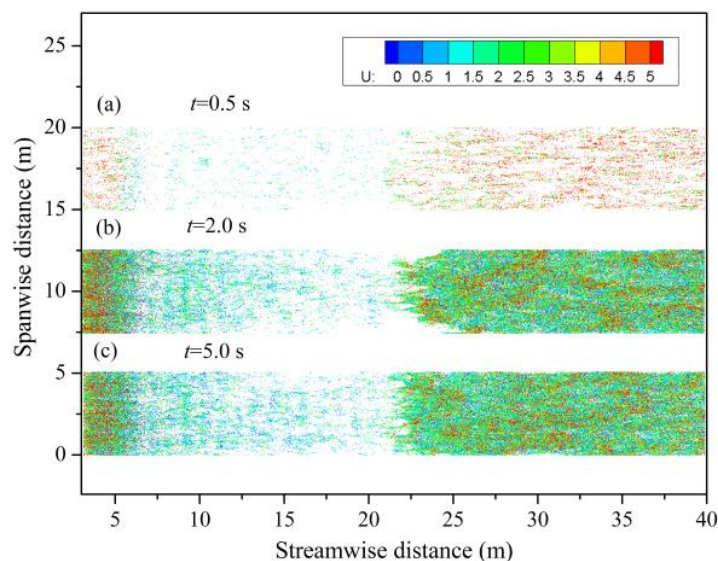


489

490 **Figure 13.** The top view of the particle positions of the wind-blown sand in presence of SCBs at



491 the time  $t=0.5$  s (a),  $t=2.0$  s (b),  $t=5.0$  s (c), where  $U$  represents the speed of the particles ( $u_r=0.3$   
492 m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m). The  $y$  coordinates are correspondingly shifted up by 7.5 per case.



493  
494 **Figure 14.** The top view of the particle positions of the wind-blown sand in presence of SCBs at  
495 the time  $t=0.5$  s (a),  $t=2.0$  s (b),  $t=5.0$  s (c), where  $U$  represents the speed of the particles ( $u_r=0.6$   
496 m/s,  $N=5\sim 20$  m). The  $y$  coordinates are correspondingly shifted up by 7.5 per case.

497 The above analysis is based on the calculation case when the friction wind speed  
498 is 0.6 m/s, and the sand particles can easily penetrate the SCBs when the wind speed  
499 is large. When the friction wind speed is small, the inhibition effect of the SCBs on  
500 wind-blown sand will become more obvious, and the movement behavior of sand  
501 particles will become different. We plot the top view of the particle positions at  
502 different moments ( $t=0.5$  s, 2 s, 5 s) when the friction wind speed is 0.3m/s and  
503 0.6m/s in Fig. 13 and Fig. 14, respectively. The time  $t$  in Fig. 13 and Fig. 14 counts  
504 from the moment sand particles are added. The results show that when the wind speed



505 is small, the sand particles cannot penetrate the SCBs. There is no obvious sand  
506 movement in the SCBs, and the stable wind-blown sand cannot be formed behind the  
507 SCBs. With the passage of time, the wind-blown sand behind the SCBs will gradually  
508 disappear. It is worth pointing out that aerodynamic entrainment is not considered in  
509 our model. This is a strong limitation of our model to simulate wind erosion in  
510 presence of SCBs. Therefore, a more reasonable situation is that when the wind speed  
511 behind the SCBs returns to the fluid threshold, this part of the wind-blown sand  
512 should still develop. When the wind speed is relatively small, on the one hand, the  
513 sand particles cannot completely penetrate the regions of the SCBs, and then cannot  
514 continuously provide the impact particles to form the wind-blown sand behind the  
515 SCBs. On the other hand, the SCBs affect the surface wind speed behind it, thus also  
516 affecting the continuous formation of the wind-blown sand. When the wind speed is  
517 relatively large, the sand particles can penetrate the SCBs. And with the increase of  
518 the laying length, although the inhibition effect on wind-blown sand is more obvious,  
519 the stable wind-blown sand will still be formed behind the SCBs. We think that when  
520 the laying length of the SCBs is fixed, whether the wind speed will decrease below  
521 the impact threshold or the fluid threshold is the key to determine whether the sand  
522 particles can penetrate the SCBs and form stable wind-blown sand behind the SCBs.  
523 In order to present this phenomenon more clearly, we have animated this process, as  
524 shown in the supplementary materials (Video 1 and Video 2). In the actual  
525 anti-desertification projects, the minimum laying length of the SCBs can be  
526 determined by our model according to the local maximum friction wind speed, which



527 is very meaningful.

## 528 **5. Conclusions and outlook**

529 In this paper, a three-dimensional wind-blown sand coupling model in presence  
530 of SCBs was established. The model was verified from the following aspects: (1)  
531 spatial distribution of sand transport rate; (2) morphological characteristics of sand  
532 streamer from the instantaneous fields; (3) changes in the thickness of the boundary  
533 layer before and after the SCBs. From this model, the inhibition effect of SCBs on  
534 wind-blown sand was studied qualitatively, and the sensitivity of aeolian sand erosion  
535 to the laying length was investigated. The results showed that the wind speed in the  
536 SCBs of the clean air flow or the sand-laden flow both decreases in a process of  
537 oscillation, which has not been revealed by the previous researches. Moreover, the  
538 longer the laying lengths of the SCBs, the lower the wind speed in the stable stage  
539 behind SCBs, and the lower the sand transport rate, which may provide the theoretical  
540 support for the minimum laying length of SCBs in anti-desertification projects. More  
541 importantly, we found that the concentration of sand particles near the side of SCBs is  
542 higher than that in its central region, which is consistent with the previous research.  
543 This explains why the boundary of the SCBs tends to be buried in the sandy land and  
544 loses its effect after long working hours. Our results also indicated that whether the  
545 wind speed will decrease below the impact threshold or the fluid threshold is the key  
546 factor affecting whether sand particles can penetrate the SCBs and form stable  
547 wind-blown sand behind the SCBs under the same conditions. Although our model  
548 has been able to reveal the inhibition effect of the SCBs on wind-blown sand, there



549 are still some aspects to be improved in the future, such as the aerodynamic  
550 entrainment, particle deposition on the SCB, and the collision between the sand  
551 particles and the SCBs. And the size of the SCB used in our model is fixed. In the  
552 future work, we plan to analyze the effect of different height and width of the SCB on  
553 the aeolian sand erosion and discuss the reasons for the difference in heights between  
554 SCB and other obstacles, such as sand fence. Another aspect worth noting is that some  
555 additional factors such as terrain, surface roughness will affect the effect of the SCBs  
556 in the anti-desertification project, so the influence of these factors should be  
557 considered in the future. The significance of our work is to analyze some results  
558 which seemingly simple but lack of theoretical basis from the perspective of  
559 turbulence through this model.

560

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568

569 **Code and Data availability.** All relevant code and data used to generate the





570 figures in this paper can be accessed using the following email: [hjhuang@usst.edu.cn](mailto:hjhuang@usst.edu.cn).

571

572 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that there are no competing interests

573

574 **Author contributions.** HJ performed the programming, analyzed the results, and  
575 wrote the paper.

576

577 **Video supplement.** Video 1 and Video 2 can be downloaded at the following link:

578 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6937805>

579

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