



- 1 Improving Fine Mineral Dust Representation from the Surface to the Column
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Abstract

Accurate representation of mineral dust remains a challenge for global air quality or climate models due to inadequate parametrization of the emission scheme, removal mechanisms, and size distribution. While various studies have constrained aspects of dust emission fluxes and/or dust optical depth, surface dust concentrations still vary by factors of 5-10 among models. In this study, we focus on improving the simulation of fine dust in the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model, leveraging recent mechanistic understanding of dust source and removal, and reconciling the size differences between models and ground-based measurements. Specifically, we conduct sensitivity simulations using GEOS-Chem in its high performance configuration (GCHP) version 14.4.1 to investigate the effects of mechanism or parameter updates. The results are evaluated by comparisons versus Deep Blue satellite-based aerosol optical depth (AOD) and AErosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET) ground-based AOD for total column abundance, and versus the Surface Particulate Matter Network (SPARTAN) for surface PM_{2.5} dust concentrations. Reconciling modelled geometric diameter versus measured aerodynamic diameter is important for consistent comparison. The two-fold overestimation of surface fine dust in the standard model is alleviated by 36% without degradation of total column abundance by implementing a new physics-based dust emission scheme with better spatial distribution. Further reduction by 16% of the overestimation of surface PM_{2.5} dust is achieved through reducing the mass fraction of emitted fine dust based on the brittle fragmentation theory, and explicit tracking of three additional fine mineral dust size bins with updated parametrization for below-cloud scavenging. Overall, these developments reduce the normalized mean difference against surface fine dust measurements from SPARTAN from 73% to 21%, while retaining comparable skill of total column abundance against satellite and groundbased AOD.

1 Introduction

Mineral dust exerts significant impacts on air quality as the most abundant aerosol component by mass globally (Kok et al., 2021), on ecosystem health through nutrient transport and deposition such as phosphorous (Bayon et al., 2024; Swap et al., 1992) and iron (Jickells et al., 2005), and on climate through its direct scattering and absorbing of radiation and indirect modifications of cloud properties (Kok et al., 2017; Liao and Seinfeld, 1998; Mahowald et al., 2014). Despite its importance, accurate representation of mineral dust remains a challenge for global air quality or





54 climate models due to inadequate parametrization of the emission scheme (Darmenova et al., 55 2009; Kok, 2011; Leung et al., 2023), removal mechanisms (Jones et al., 2022; Petroff and Zhang, 56 2010; Ryu and Min, 2022; Wang et al., 2014b; Zhang and Shao, 2014; Zhang et al., 2001), and size 57 distribution (Kok et al., 2017; Mahowald et al., 2014). Observational constraints from satellite have 58 been applied to reduce the large uncertainty of simulated mineral dust and its emissions (Mytilinaios et al., 2023; Ridley et al., 2016). However, intercomparison projects with various 59 60 models still suggest large variability within a factor of 2 for the total column abundance of mineral 61 dust, with even larger variability in surface concentrations and deposition by factors of 5-10 62 (Huneeus et al., 2011; Uno et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2020). 63 In addition to total column observations, ground-level measurements of mineral dust offer another promising opportunity to understand mechanisms affecting the accuracy of the surface 64 65 concentration simulation and the variable performance from the surface to the total column in 66 intercomparison projects. The Surface PARTiculate mAtter Network (SPARTAN, 67 https://www.spartan-network.org/, last access: 4 February 2025) is a globally distributed 68 monitoring network that measures the chemical components of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), 69 including in arid environments (Liu et al., 2024; Snider et al., 2015). These ground-based 70 measurements of mineral dust in PM_{2.5} offer new data to evaluate, understand, and improve fine 71 dust simulation in global models. 72 Dust emissions play a central role in controlling the surface and total column abundance of 73 mineral dust (Kok et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2021). The predicted spatial 74 distribution particularly affects the downwind dust concentrations through long-range transport 75 and deposition (Prospero, 1999). A new physics-based dust emission scheme (Leung et al., 2023) 76 includes recent developments in the parametrization of the threshold of friction velocity for dust 77 mobilization (Martin and Kok, 2018), combined drag partitioning effects due to rocks (Marticorena 78 and Bergametti, 1995) and vegetation (Pierre et al., 2014a) for a better representation of exerted 79 surface friction velocity (Leung et al., 2023), and intermittent dust mobilization due to high-80 frequency turbulence (Comola et al., 2019). This dust emission scheme has achieved better spatial 81 correlations of dust column abundance against ground-based and satellite-derived dust optical 82 depth in the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2) (Leung et al., 2023, 2024). 83 However, the effects of these new developments of dust emission scheme on the bias against 84 ground-based measurements of surface fine dust concentrations are less well known and require



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further investigation.

The source and removal of dust in the size bins used in dust parametrizations can vary by orders of magnitude across the broad size range of mineral dust (Kok, 2011; Wang et al., 2014b; Zhang et al., 2001). Accounting for this size heterogeneity among dust bins could enable better representation of the global dust cycle. Prior studies have found an underestimation of coarse dust emissions and an overestimation of fine dust (Kok, 2011; Kok et al., 2017). While various studies have focused on developing the representation of coarse or super coarse dust (Kok et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2022), investigation of the effects of different emission size distributions on ambient fine dust are needed through comparison with in situ fine dust measurements. In addition, the developments and improvements of parallel computing in air quality or climate models (Eastham et al., 2018; Harris et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2022) offer computational capabilities to extend dust size bins with explicit treatments that could enable better representation of dust, especially over size ranges with rapid variation in processes. While the parametrization of dry deposition has been revisited and evaluated against observations (Emerson et al., 2020), below-cloud or washout scavenging has been generally limited to lumped treatments for fine and coarse aerosols in the bulk models (Jones et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2011, 2014a). Developments of the size-resolved parametrization for below-cloud (washout) scavenging (Wang et al., 2014b) are promising to improve the wet deposition of fine dust, which is especially important in distant downwind regions due to long-range transport. In this study, we implement recent developments of a new dust emission scheme with further refinements including the clay content and wetness in the top soil layer; reducing the dust emissions over wet, snow and vegetation covered land surfaces; while constraining the global and regional source with satellite aerosol optical depth (AOD). We revisit the size distribution of emitted dust, explicitly track mineral dust with geometric diameter less than 2 µm in four size bins, and update the parametrization for size-resolved washout scavenging. We conduct sensitivity simulations using the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model in its high performance configuration (GCHP) to investigate the effects of these developments. We focus on improving the fine dust representation in GCHP for better agreement from the surface to the column, by comparisons against ground-level fine dust measurements, and against the ground-based and satellite-retrieved AOD over dusty regions of the Sahara, the Middle East and Asia.





2 Data sources and model description

116 2.1 Data sources 117 Ground-based AOD measurements are obtained from the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) 118 Version 3 Level 2 database with improved cloud screening (Giles et al., 2019). We use satellite 119 retrievals of AOD from the Deep Blue algorithm (Hsu et al., 2019) based on Collection 6.1 of the 120 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instrument aboard the satellite 121 platforms of Terra with local overpass around 10:30 and of Aqua around 13:30, and the Version 2.0 122 Deep Blue aerosol global product of the Visible Infrared Imaging Radiometer Suite (VIIRS) 123 instruments aboard the joint NASA/NOAA Suomi National Polar-orbiting Partnership (Suomi NPP) 124 and NOAA-20 satellites with local overpass around 13:30 (Cao et al., 2014). We choose the Deep 125 Blue aerosol product due to its optimization for the retrieval of aerosol properties over bright surfaces, which is typical over arid regions. We average all Deep Blue aerosol products for the year 126 127 2018 at a daily basis. Simulated AOD is coincidently sampled with available daily average Deep 128 Blue AOD. 129 We use the Version 4.2 Level 3 gridded cloud-free tropospheric aerosol extinction profile product during daytime and nighttime of the last 15 years (2007–2021) retrieved from the Cloud-Aerosol 130 Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP) on board the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar Infrared Pathfinder 131 132 Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) satellite for climatological aerosol profiles (Young et al., 2018). 133 We use global ground-based data from the Surface Particulate Matter Network (SPARTAN; 134 https://www.spartan-network.org/, last access: 4 February 2025) with filter-based PM_{2.5} chemical 135 composition data (Liu et al., 2024; Snider et al., 2015). Particles with aerodynamic diameter less 136 than 2.5 µm are collected on Teflon filters using AirPhoton SS5 sampling stations with a sharp-cut cyclone (SCC) 1.829 that operates at a target flow rate of 5 litter per minute (Lpm) and analyzed for 137 fine mineral dust concentrations using X-ray Fluorescence (XRF) and a global mineral dust 138 139 equation (Equation (A1); Liu et al., 2022) including correction of attenuation effects due to mass 140 loading. We use data from sites with at least 10 samples for the 5-year (2019–2023) period after the 141 network began using XRF. The 5-year averaged surface fine dust concentrations from all 26 142 SPARTAN sites are listed in Table A1.

2.2 GEOS-Chem chemical transport model



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144 We use the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model (https://geoschem.github.io/, last access: 4 February 2025) in its high-performance configuration (Eastham et al., 2018) version 14.4.1 ((The 145 146 International GEOS-Chem User Community, 2024)) with improved performance and usability 147 (Martin et al., 2022). The model is driven by meteorological inputs from GEOS Forward Processing 148 (GEOS-FP; https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/, last access: 4 February 2025) with resolution $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.3125^{\circ}$ (~25 km) and 72 hybrid sigma-pressure vertical levels up to 0.01 hPa. 149 GEOS-Chem simulates detailed oxidant-aerosol chemistry in the troposphere and stratosphere, 150 151 with gas-phase mechanism of HO_x-NO_x-BrO_x-VOC-O₃ chemistry (Bey et al., 2001; Wang et al., 152 2021), coupled to aerosol chemistry for sulfate-nitrate-ammonium (SNA) aerosol (Park et al., 2004), black carbon (BC) (Wang et al., 2014a), and primary and secondary organic aerosol (Pai et 153 154 al., 2020), sea salt (Jaeglé et al., 2011), and natural and anthropogenic dust (Fairlie et al., 2007; 155 Meng et al., 2021; Philip et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2013). The gas-aerosol partitioning for SNA is computed by the HETP v1.0 thermodynamic module (Miller et al., 2024). We use the simple, 156 157 irreversible, direct yield scheme for secondary organic aerosol production (Pai et al., 2020). The 158 effects of aerosol on photolysis rates are computed with relative humidity dependent aerosol size 159 distributions and optical properties with improved parametrization for the effective radii of 160 inorganic and organic aerosols (Latimer and Martin, 2019; Ridley et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2023) and 161 updated optical properties for aspherical mineral dust (Singh et al., 2024). 162 The standard dry deposition scheme in GEOS-Chem accounts for gravitational settling, 163 aerodynamic resistance with respect to turbulent transport within the surface layer, and surface 164 resistance to particle-surface contact due to Brownian diffusion, impaction, and interception with 165 an observation constrained parametrization (Emerson et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2001). The standard wet deposition scheme includes scavenging in convective updrafts, and in-cloud and 166 167 below-cloud scavenging from precipitation (Liu et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2011, 2014a). Emissions for GEOS-Chem are configured using the Harmonized Emissions Component (HEMCO) 168 169 module v3.9.1 (Lin et al., 2021). Global anthropogenic emissions are from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) v2 at $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ resolution (Feng et al., 2020). Offline emissions of 170 171 lightning NO_x (Murray et al., 2012), biogenic VOCs, soil NO_x, sea salt (Weng et al., 2020) and mineral 172 dust (Sections 2.3 and 4.2) at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.3125^{\circ}$ resolution are included to represent emission





- processes at the finest available resolution and to enable consistent emission fluxes across model resolutions. Open fire emissions are from the daily Global Fire Emissions Database (GFED) v4.1s (Giglio et al., 2013) at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ resolution. Other default emission inventories in GCHP v14.4.1 include volcanic SO₂ emissions (Fisher et al., 2011), marine emissions of dimethylsulfide (DMS) (Breider et al., 2017) at $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ resolution, and ammonia at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ resolution (Bouwman et al., 1997; Croft et al., 2016). We conduct GCHP simulations at C48 (~200 km) resolution for the full year of 2018 following a one-month spin-up.
- 180 2.3 Default dust emission scheme
- The default dust emission scheme in GEOS-Chem (hereafter GC Dust) originally implemented by
 Fairlie et al. (2007) is based on the semi-empirical Mineral Dust Entrainment and Deposition
 (DEAD) emission scheme (Zender et al., 2003) and the GOCART topographical source function
 (Ginoux et al., 2001) updated to a fine resolution of 0.25° × 0.25° (Meng et al., 2021). The total dust
 emission flux in kg m⁻² s⁻¹ is calculated based on Zender et al. (2003) and Fairlie et al. (2007):

$$F_d = f_{bare} S \varphi Q_s \tag{1}$$

where f_{bare} is the bare ground fraction as specified in Zender et al. (2003) to reduce dust emissions over wet, snow and vegetation covered surfaces:

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$$f_{bare} = (1 - A_l - A_{wl})(1 - A_{snow}) \left(1 - \frac{\text{LAI}}{\text{LAI}_{thr}}\right)$$
 (2)

- where A_l , A_{wl} , and A_{snow} is the fraction of land covered by lakes, wetlands, and snow, respectively.
- 191 LAI is the leaf area index, and LAI_{thr} is the threshold LAI to reduce the bare soil fraction due to
- 192 vegetation cover, which is set to 0.3 m² m⁻² by default.
- 193 S is the GOCART topographical source function (Ginoux et al., 2001) updated at fine resolution of
- $194 \quad 0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ and multiplied by the fraction of bare surface within each grid cell (Meng et al., 2021);
- 195 φ is the sandblasting efficiency to convert horizontal saltation flux to vertical dust flux (Marticorena
- 196 and Bergametti, 1995):

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$$\varphi = 10^{13.4 f_{clay} - 4} \tag{3}$$

where f_{clay} is the clay content in the top soil layer and a global constant value of 0.2 is used to





reduce excessive sensitivity of dust emission fluxes to f_{clay} (Zender et al., 2003). Q_s is the horizontal saltation flux as described in Section A2.

2.4 Size distribution of emitted dust

The default size distribution of emitted dust in GEOS-Chem implemented by Zhang et al. (2013) is based on the Brittle Fragmentation Theory (Kok, 2011) with parameter values optimized using dust observations from the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) ground-based monitoring network in the United States:

$$\frac{dV_d}{d \ln D_d} = \frac{D_d}{c_V} \left[1 + \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{\ln(D_d / \overline{D_s})}{\sqrt{2} \ln \sigma_s} \right) \right] \exp \left[-\left(\frac{D_d}{\lambda} \right)^3 \right]$$
(4)

where V_d is the normalized volume for emitted dust aerosols in diameter of D_d in μm ; c_V is the normalization constant to make the integration total of V_d of 1; $\overline{D_s}=3.4~\mu m$ is the median diameter of soil particles; $\sigma_s=3.0$ is the geometric standard deviation of soil particles; λ is the side crack propagation length, whose value is $8~\mu m$ in the default particle size distribution (PSD) used in the GEOS-Chem (GC PSD), and is $12~\mu m$ in the Kok PSD (Kok, 2011).

Table 1. The binning of mineral dust in 4-bin and 7-bin simulations using GEOS-Chem. The
 geometric diameter range is listed in the bracket adjacent to each size bin in unit of μm.

4-bin simulation	7-bin simulation
	DSTbin1 (0.2-0.36)
DST1 (0.2-2.0)	DSTbin2 (0.36-0.6)
	DSTbin3 (0.6-1.2)
	DSTbin4 (1.2-2.0)
DST2 (2.0-3.6)	DSTbin5 (2.0-3.6)
DST3 (3.6-6.0)	DSTbin6 (3.6-6.0)
DST4 (6.0-12.0)	DSTbin7 (6.0-12.0)

Dust aerosols are conventionally separated into several dust bins to compromise between accuracy and computational expense (Ginoux et al., 2001; Zender et al., 2003). Table 1 summarizes the binning of mineral dust in 4-bin and 7-bin simulations. In the GEOS-Chem standard bulk configuration used here, 4 dust size bins are used including DST1 to DST4 covering



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geometric diameter of 0.2–12.0 µm (Fairlie et al., 2007). For DST1, 4 sub-bins of 0.2–0.36 µm, 0.36–0.6 µm, 0.6–1.2 µm, and 1.2–2.0 µm are further separated for heterogeneous chemistry and AOD calculations, with shared emission, transport and deposition altogether as DST1 (Fairlie et al., 2007). To improve submicron dust representation, we implement full separation of the 7 dust bins for coupled physical and chemical processes in GEOS-Chem, as discussed in Section 4.3.2.

2.5 Reconciling geometric and aerodynamic diameter

A recent study has emphasized the importance of reconciling the geometric diameter used in models and the aerodynamic diameter used in ground-based measurements, especially for mineral dust with higher particle density of ~2500 kg m⁻³ than the standard density of 1000 kg m⁻³ and with aspherical shapes observed in the atmosphere (Huang et al., 2021). We harmonize the differences between geometric diameter and aerodynamic diameter based on Reid et al. (2003):

$$D_{aer} = D_{geo} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_d}{\chi \rho_0}}$$
 (5)

231 where D_{aer} is the aerodynamic diameter; D_{geo} is the geometric diameter; $\rho_d=2500~{\rm kg}~{\rm m}^{-3}$ is the 232 dust density; $ho_0=1000$ kg m⁻³ is the standard spherical particle density; χ is the dynamic shape factor calculated by $\chi=rac{1}{2}\Big(F_{_S}^{1/3}+rac{1}{F_{_S}^{1/3}}\Big)$ and $F_{_S}$ is Stokes form factor (Bagheri and Bonadonna, 233 2016; Huang et al., 2020) which can be calculated by $HWR(\frac{1}{\Delta R})^{1.3}$ where $AR = 1.70 \pm 0.03$ is the 234 235 particle length to width ratio, and $HWR = 0.40 \pm 0.07$ is the particle height to width ratio (Huang et 236 al., 2021). With this conversion, the aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 µm corresponds to the geometric 237 diameter of 1.7 µm. The mass fraction of each simulated dust size bin to the total fine dust mass 238 concentrations can be calculated by the integration of the dust size distribution of Equation (4) with 239 the λ value of 12 μ m of the default PSD used in the GEOS-Chem (GC PSD), which is 68% of DST1 240 with diameter of 0.2-2.0 µm. 241 In addition to harmonizing different size types used in models and measurements, prior studies 242 also suggested that the sharpness of size cut-off of different inlets used to collect PM_{2.5} samples

can affect the measured concentrations (Kenny et al., 2000; Peters et al., 2001). To evaluate the

effects, we obtain the dust size distributions of different inlets by multiplying their penetration

efficiencies (Peters et al., 2001) and GC PSD (Equation (4)).





Figure 1 shows the effects of the sharpness of size cut on the size distribution of collected dust $PM_{2.5}$ samples. All four inlets have a penetration efficiency of near unity for dust with geometric diameter less than 1.0 μ m, which diminishes to 0.5 at a geometric diameter of 1.7 μ m and further diminishes with increasing diameter. The Well Impactor Ninety-Six (WINS) referenced by the Federal Reference Method (FRM) exhibits the sharpest size cut. The corresponding dust PSD is sharply attenuated for geometric diameters greater than 1.7 μ m. The resultant effects on the mass fractions of the dust size bin to be included in dust $PM_{2.5}$ are small, with the mass fraction of DST1 ranging from 65–70%. The mass fraction based on SCC 1.829 as used by SPARTAN differs by only -0.4% from that based on the original GC PSD without inlet penetration correction. In our Base simulation using the standard version of GEOS-Chem, we calculate surface $PM_{2.5}$ dust as 67.6% of DST1 to account for both aerodynamic diameter and inlet collection efficiency. Neglect of these effects would have increased simulated $PM_{2.5}$ dust concentrations by a factor of 2.

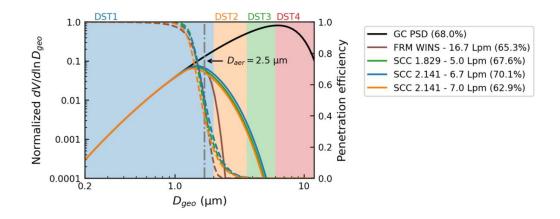


Figure 1. Normalized particle size distribution (PSD) used by default in GEOS-Chem (GC PSD) in solid black with left axis; penetration efficiencies for different types of $PM_{2.5}$ inlets shown in dashed colored lines with right axis, including the Well Impactor Ninety-Six (WINS), and three types of Sharp-Cut Cyclone (SCC) inlets; Solid colored lines show the adjusted GC PSD collected by different inlets. Grey dash-dotted line indicates the corresponding geometric diameter of 1.7 μ m for the aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 μ m. Filled rectangles indicate size ranges of 4 dust size bins. Percentages adjacent to GC PSD and different inlets are mass fractions of DST1 for the calculation of $PM_{2.5}$ dust concentrations.



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3 Strong overestimation of surface fine dust

Figure 2 shows the spatial distributions of the annual total column AOD and surface PM_{2.5} dust from AERONET, SPARTAN, and the Base simulation using the standard version of GEOS-Chem in the year of 2018. Mineral dust largely determines the AOD in AERONET and GEOS-Chem over and downwind of the main dust source regions including the Sahara, Middle East, and the Taklamakan and Gobi deserts in Asia. The simulated AOD over dusty regions (defined here as $\mathrm{AOD}_{\mathrm{Dust}}/\mathrm{AOD} >$ 0.5) exhibits a high degree of consistency versus the ground-based observations of AERONET AOD with the regression slope near unity and R^2 of 0.7. However, the simulated surface PM_{2.5} dust exhibits a pronounced overestimation by a factor of 2.2 compared to the ground-based measurements of SPARTAN. Simulated PM_{2.5} dust is overestimated at the dusty sites of Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates by 143%, Ilorin in Nigeria by 100%, and Kanpur in India by 75%. Figure 3 shows the vertical profile of the aerosol extinction normalized by AOD over main dust source regions and associated downwind regions, to understand the significant performance difference between the surface and the column. The simulated vertical profile shows excellent agreement against the 15-year (2007 to 2021) climatological mean extinction vertical profile from the CALIOP, indicating the vertical distribution of mineral dust is not the main driver of the performance discrepancy between the surface and the column.





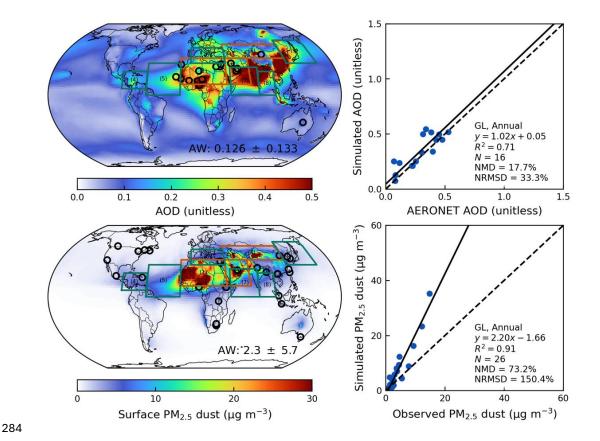


Figure 2. Annual simulated aerosol optical depth (AOD) and comparison against ground-based observations from AERONET over dusty regions ($AOD_{Dust}/AOD > 0.5$) (top); Annual simulated surface PM_{2.5} dust and comparison against ground-based measurements from SPARTAN (bottom) from the Base simulation in the year of 2018. Filled circles on the maps represent ground-based observations from SPARTAN and AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the maps are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the bottom right of the scatter plots. Major source regions over land are outlined in red including: 1) the Sahara – SA, 2) Middle East – ME, and 3) Asia – AS. Major dust outflow regions over ocean are outlined in green including: 4) the Caribbean Sea – CRB, 5) the tropical Atlantic Ocean – TAT, 6) the Mediterranean Sea – MED, 7) the Arabian Sean – ARB, 8) the tropical Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal – IND, and 9) the northwestern Pacific Ocean – NWP.



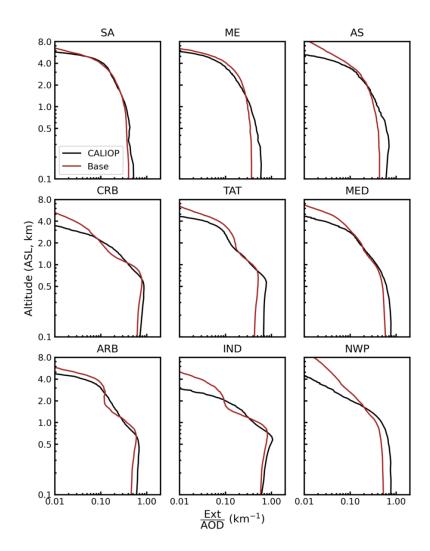


Figure 3. Comparisons of the annual extinction vertical profile normalized by total column aerosol optical depth from the Base simulation in the year of 2018 against the 15-year (2007 to 2021) climatological mean extinction vertical profile from the CALIOP over different regions including the major dust source regions over land of the Sahara – SA, Middle East – ME, and Asia – AS, and the major dust outflow regions over ocean of the Caribbean Sea – CRB, the tropical Atlantic Ocean – TAT, the Mediterranean Sea – MED, the Arabian Sea – ARB, the tropical Indian Ocean and the Bay of Bengal – IND, and the northwestern Pacific Ocean – NWP.



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4 Model revisions to reduce the overestimation of surface fine mineral dust

To reduce the overestimation of surface PM_{2.5} dust, we 1) implement a new dust emission scheme with further refinements for soil properties including the clay content and soil wetness in the top soil layer and the threshold of leaf area index, 2) revisit the size distribution of emitted dust, 3) explicitly track dust with geometric diameter less than 2 µm in four size bins, and 4) update the parametrization for size-resolved below-cloud scavenging.

4.1 Sensitivity simulation setup

Figure 4 summarizes the setup of sensitivity simulations to evaluate the effects of algorithmic modifications and their performance versus satellite-retrieved AOD and surface dust measurements. The default dust simulation (Base) in GEOS-Chem as implemented by Fairlie et al. (2007) uses the DEAD emission scheme (Zender et al., 2003) with a topographical source function (Ginoux et al., 2001; Meng et al., 2021) for natural dust (GC Dust) with 4 dust size bins for emission, transport and removal with 7 dust size bins for dust optical depth calculation and heterogeneous chemistry. To improve the spatial distributions of dust total column abundance, we implement a new dust emission scheme developed by Leung et al. (2023) (DustL23; Emis). Additional modifications on top of the original DustL23 emission scheme include 1) reducing the sensitivity of soil clay content by eliminating the multiplication of the factor of the capped soil clay content f'_{clay} (EmisClay); 2) halving the topmost soil wetness in the layer of 0-5 cm to approximate the soil wetness in the top 1-2 cm layer which is most pertinent to dust emissions (Darmenova et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2022) (EmisClayWet); and 3) reducing the threshold of LAI_{thr} from 1.0 m² m⁻² to 0.5 m² m⁻² ² (EmisClayWetLAI_{thr} or Emis*). To further improve the surface fine dust simulation, we update the GEOS-Chem particle size distribution (PSD) with the PSD developed by Kok et al. (2011) (Emis*PSD) with a larger value for the side crack propagation length of λ which reduced the mass fraction of emitted fine dust. The Kok PSD was shown to have excellent agreement versus various soil size measurements (Kok, 2011), especially for fine dust distributions (González-Flórez et al., 2023). Lastly, we allow for the four dust bins with geometric diameter less than 2 μm to have separate emission, transport, and dry and wet deposition while halving anthropogenic dust emissions from AFCID (Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD), and with updated below-cloud or washout scavenging parametrization (Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep). Each of these changes is examined below.





The total global annual source strength for each sensitivity simulation is scaled to achieve unity slope versus Deep Blue AOD (Figure A1) over major dust source regions. The surface PM_{2.5} dust concentrations are calculated by accounting for aerodynamic diameter and inlet penetration efficiency (Section 2.5) as 0.676 DST1 for 4-bin simulations, and DSTbin1 + DSTbin2 + DSTbin3 + 0.546 DSTbin4 for 7-bin simulations. We focus our evaluation on the skill in representing in situ PM_{2.5} dust concentrations measured by SPARTAN, and in representing the spatial variation in annual mean AOD. Regression equations are calculated using reduced-major-axis linear regression.

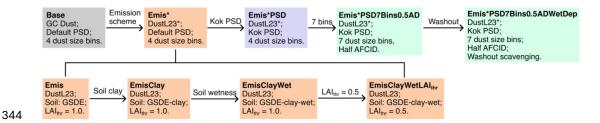


Figure 4. Sensitivity simulation setup. The grey box indicates default settings with the default dust emission scheme used in GEOS-Chem (GC Dust) with 4 dust size bins (Base). The orange box indicates the implementation of a modified dust scheme based on DustL23 (Emis*). Modifications based on the original DustL23 scheme with the soil texture dataset from the Global Soil Dataset for use in Earth System Models (GSDE) (Emis) include the soil clay content (EmisClay), soil wetness (EmisClayWet), and threshold leaf area index (EmisClayWetLAI_{thr}). The simulation setup for EmisClayWetLAI_{thr} is the same as that for Emis*. The blue box indicates the modification of size distribution of emitted dust (Emis*PSD). The green boxes indicate the improvements for fine dust including explicit tracking of dust with diameter less than 2 μm with a total of 7 dust size bins with halved anthropogenic fugitive, combustion, and industrial dust (AFCID) emissions (Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD), and updating below-cloud (washout) scavenging coefficients (Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep).

4.2 Improving the spatial distribution of mineral dust with updated emission scheme

We implement into GEOS-Chem a new physics-based dust emission scheme developed by Leung et al. (2023) (DustL23) to replace the default dust emission scheme (Section 2.3) used in GEOS-Chem (GC Dust). The spatial distributions of DustL23 in the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2) exhibited better correlation against dust optical depth datasets and AERONET





AOD than the DEAD scheme (Leung et al., 2024). We modify DustL23 for implementation into GEOS-Chem by 1) reducing dust emissions over wet, snow, and vegetation covered surface of semi-arid regions using Equation (7) below, 2) eliminating the multiplication of the capped clay content of the topsoil in Equation (8) below, 3) halving the soil wetness in the layer of 0-5 cm to represent the soil wetness in the top 1-2 cm layer which is most pertinent to dust emissions (Darmenova et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2022), 4) applying a regional scaling factor of 0.6 over the Sahara to reduce its emissions (Equation (8)), and 5) scaling the global total emission flux to achieve unity regression slope versus Deep Blue AOD over dusty regions.

We begin with the formulation for total dust emission flux F_d in kg m⁻² s⁻¹ following Leung et al. (2024):

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$$F_d = \eta C_{tune} C_d f_{bare} f'_{clay} \frac{\rho_a \left(u_{*S}^2 - u_{*it}^2 \right)}{u_{*st}} \left(\frac{u_{*S}}{u_{*it}} \right)^{\kappa} \text{ for } u_{*S} > u_{*it}$$
 (6)

where η is an intermittency factor, C_{tune} is a global tuning factor for the emission strength, C_d is the time-varying soil erodibility coefficient, f_{bare} is the bare ground fraction, f'_{clay} is the clay content in the topmost soil layer of f_{clay} capped at 0.2, ρ_a is the surface air density in kg m⁻³, u_{*s} is the soil surface friction velocity in m s⁻¹ corrected from the surface friction velocity of u_* by the drag partitioning effects of F_{eff} , u_{*it} is the dynamic or impact threshold friction velocity in m s⁻¹, u_{*st} is the standardized wet fluid threshold friction velocity in m s⁻¹, and κ is the fragmentation exponent. Note that we use u_{*st} in the denominator of Equation (6) following Kok et al. (2014) instead of u_{*it} following Leung et al. (2023) for tuning purpose. The parametrization details for these factors following Leung et al. (2023) can be found in Appendix Section A3.

We modify the DustL23 scheme (Leung et al., 2023) by adopting the equation for the bare ground fraction in Zender et al. (2003) to reduce dust emissions over wet, snow and vegetation covered surfaces with the dry erodible land fraction taken from satellite-based land cover:

$$f_{bare} = A_{erod}(1 - A_{snow}) \left(1 - \frac{\text{LAI}}{\text{LAI}_{thr}}\right) \tag{7}$$

where A_{erod} is the area fraction of erodible surfaces including barren and sparsely vegetated land cover taken from the MODIS Land Cover Climate Modeling Grid (CMG) (MCD12C1) Version 6.1 data product; A_{snow} is the area fraction of snow cover, LAI is the leaf area index (Yuan et al., 2011), and



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389 ${
m LAI}_{
m thr}$ is the threshold LAI to reduce the bare soil fraction due to vegetation cover. We set an 390 intermediate value of LAI_{thr} = 0.5 m² m⁻² instead of 1.0 m² m⁻² in Leung et al. (2023) to represent 391 the reduction in dust emissions from sparse vegetation over semi-arid regions, which is more 392 similar to the value of 0.3 used in prior work (Mahowald et al., 1999; Zender et al., 2003). 393 The enhancement factor $f_m \geq 1$ for the wet fluid threshold friction velocity due to soil wetness is 394 calculated using Equations (A8) and (A9), but with spatially varying clay content f_{clay} in the top soil 395 layer. The gridded f_{clay} dataset is taken from the Global Soil Dataset for use in Earth System 396 Models (GSDE) with various inputs from global and regional soil database (Shangguan et al., 2014), rather than the machine-learning trained Soil Grids v2.0 dataset with very few observations over 397 398 arid regions (Poggio et al., 2021) used in Leung et al. (2023). In addition, we reduce the sensitivity of 399 dust emissions to clay content by eliminating the multiplication of the capped clay content f'_{clay} . 400 Soil wetness is taken from the parent meteorological inputs of GEOS-FP, targeted at the top 5 cm 401 layer, and is reduced by half to approximate the soil wetness in the top 1-2 cm layer which is most 402 pertinent to dust emissions (Darmenova et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2022). 403 The global scaling factor C_{tune} is determined by the reduced-major-axis linear regression slope of simulated AOD versus satellite-retrieved AOD over dusty regions ($\frac{\text{AOD}_{Dust}}{\text{AOD}} > 0.5$) in this study to 404 405 constrain the intensity of dust emissions, whose values corresponding to different emission 406 schemes are listed in Table A2. Additionally, a regional scaling factor of 0.6 over the Sahara (C_{sah}) and unity elsewhere is applied to reduce regionally excessive dust emissions. 407

408 The final formulation for dust emission flux is:

$$F_{d} = \eta C_{sah} C_{tune} C_{d} f_{bare} \frac{\rho_{a} (u_{*s}^{2} - u_{*it}^{2})}{u_{*st}} \left(\frac{u_{*s}}{u_{*it}} \right)^{\kappa} \text{for } u_{*s} > u_{*it}$$
 (8)

The calculated offline dust emissions at $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.3125^{\circ}$ resolution using Equation (8) are then used to drive GCHP simulations at C48 resolution. The spatial distributions predicted from different emission schemes are evaluated against satellite-based Deep Blue AOD, ground-based AERONET AOD, and SPARTAN surface PM_{2.5} dust measurements. 414 Figure 5 shows the spatial distributions of annual dust emission fluxes and dust optical depth

predicted from different emission schemes, with Figure 6 showing the comparisons against Deep

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Blue satellite AOD globally and over major dust source regions. Comparison of the Base and Emis schemes reveals that the latter captures more secondary dust emission spots, especially over the Sahara, and inland dust sources in Saudi Arabia. However, the comparison against Deep Blue AOD over the Sahara is degraded versus the default scheme (Figure 6). As suggested by prior studies, soil clay content is an important factor affecting the threshold friction velocity (Fécan et al., 1999; Tian et al., 2021; Zender et al., 2003) and sandblasting efficiency (Zender et al., 2003), and is often tuned for the optimization of dust emissions (Leung et al., 2024; Tian et al., 2021). Eliminating the multiplication of the capped clay content of f'_{clay} reduces the dust emission sensitivity to the clay content, increasing emissions from the Bodélé Depression in Chad and El Djouf across the border of Mauritania and Mali over the Sahara, from the Rub' al Khali desert in the inland Saudi Arabi, and Taklamakan desert in the northwest China (Figure 5, EmisClay). Correspondingly, the R^2 from the linear regression against Deep Blue AOD is improved from 0.60 to 0.70 over the Sahara, from 0.68 to 0.77 over the Middle East, and from 0.35 to 0.56 over Asia (Figure 6). The other two modifications of halving soil wetness (EmisClayWet) and setting LAI_{thr} to 0.5 m² m⁻² (EmisClayWetLAI_{thr}) slightly improve the spatial distribution of dust emissions by reducing the underestimation in Asia while retaining the agreements in the Sahara and Middle East (Figure 6). Using the same dusty region of the EmisClayWetLAI_{thr} scheme for the comparisons of all dust emission schemes versus Deep Blue AOD confirms similarly slight improvements of regional dust emissions (Figure A2). Together these refinements exhibit comparable global performance as the Base simulation versus Deep Blue AOD with improvements to the relative regional magnitude of dust across the Sahara, Middle East and Asia. Figure 7 shows the evaluation of the Emis* (or EmisClayWetLAIthr) simulation with ground-based observations from AERONET and SPARTAN. The overestimation of surface PM_{2.5} dust against the ground-based measurements of SPARTAN is reduced from 73% (Figure 2) to 37% (Figure 7), reflecting regional improvements of the spatial distributions especially over the Middle East (Figure 6). The skill in representing AOD in the Emis* simulation remains comparable to that in the Base simulation shown in Figure 2.



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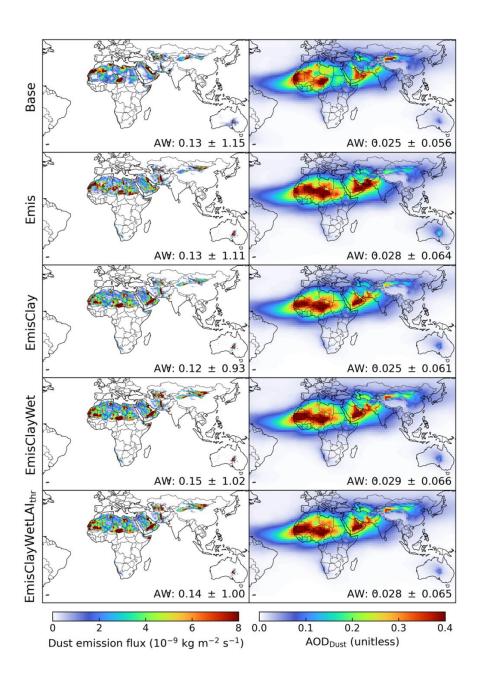


Figure 5. Annual dust emission flux (left) and simulated dust optical depth $(AOD_{Dust}; right)$ in the year of 2018 zoomed in over dusty regions of the Sahara, Middle East, and Asia from different emission schemes as described in Figure 4. Inset values are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation globally.



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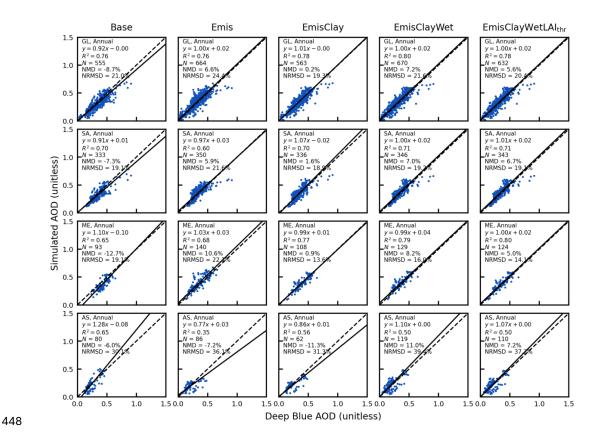


Figure 6. Comparisons of annual simulated aerosol optical depth (AOD) versus the Deep Blue satellite AOD globally (GL) and over main dust source regions of the Sahara – SA, Middle East – ME, and Asia (AS) with different emission schemes. Regression statistics including reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are in the top left.



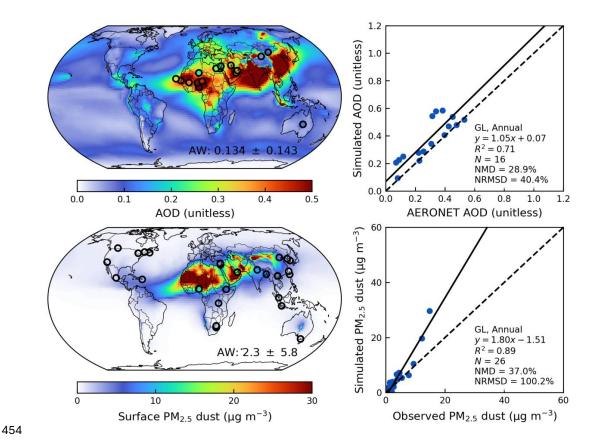


Figure 7. Annual simulated aerosol optical depth (AOD) and comparison against ground-based observations from the AERONET over dusty regions ($AOD_{Dust}/AOD > 0.5$) (top); Annual simulated surface PM_{2.5} dust and comparison against ground-based measurements from the SPARTAN from the Emis* simulation in the year of 2018 (bottom). Filled circles on the maps represent ground-based observations from SPARTAN and AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the maps are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the bottom right of the scatter plots.

4.3 Improving the representation of fine mineral dust

As the size distribution of mineral dust is particularly important for the performance discrepancy between simulated AOD over dusty regions and surface PM_{2.5} dust, we focus on improving its size-



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resolved source and sink.

Revisiting the size distribution of emitted mineral dust 4.3.1 Figure 8a shows different PSDs including the default PSD used in the GEOS-Chem (GC PSD) based on the brittle fragmentation theory with the side crack propagation length λ of 8 μ m (Zhang et al., 2013), the Kok PSD with λ of 12 μ m (Kok, 2011), and the Meng PSD focusing on the optimization for coarse to super coarse dust (Meng et al., 2022), in comparison with the observed PSD from the 2011 Fennec campaign (Ryder et al., 2013). While all modelled PSDs are within the wide range of PSD from the Fennec campaign, the fraction of emitted DST1 from the Kok PSD exhibits greater consistency with the Fennec observations than the other two PSDs. Larger discrepancy for the size distribution with diameter less than ~0.4 µm between the observed PSD from Fennec and parametrized PSDs is possibly due to anthropogenic aerosol influence (González-Flórez et al., 2023). In addition, a recent field study in the Moroccan Sahara (González-Flórez et al., 2023) indicated overall agreement of emitted dust size distributions against the Kok PSD especially at the fine diameter range. Therefore, we adopt the Kok PSD for the size distribution of emitted mineral dust in GEOS-Chem. Figure 8b shows the spatial distribution from the Emis*PSD simulation which remains similar to that from the Emis* simulation in Figure 7. Reduced emissions from DST1 by using the Kok PSD reduces the overestimation of surface PM_{2.5} dust from 37% to 17% compared to the ground-based measurements from SPARTAN (Figure 8c).



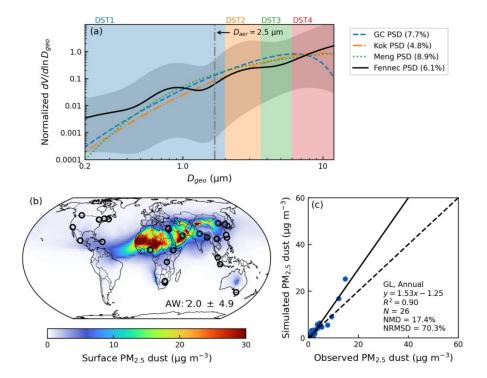


Figure 8. a) Normalized particle size distribution (PSD) of emitted dust based on default PSD used in GEOS-Chem (GC PSD) (Zhang et al., 2013), the Kok PSD (Kok, 2011), the Meng PSD (Meng et al., 2022), and the Fennec PSD (Ryder et al., 2013). All PSDs are normalized for a total volumetric integration of 1 within the diameter range of 0.2 μ m to 12 μ m used in GEOS-Chem. The grey shades show the minimum and maximum PSD curves from the Fennec 2011 campaign. Grey dash-dotted line indicates the corresponding geometric diameter of 1.7 μ m for the aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 μ m. Filled rectangles indicate size ranges of 4 dust size bins. Percentages adjacent to each PSD are mass fractions of emitted DST1 over total dust emission flux within diameter range of 0.2 μ m to 12 μ m. b) Simulated annual surface PM_{2.5} dust from the Emis*PSD simulation in the year of 2018. Filled circles on the map represent ground-based observations from SPARTAN and AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the maps are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. c) Comparison of simulated PM_{2.5} dust versus observed fine dust from SPARTAN. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the bottom right.





4.3.2 Improving the size-resolved dry and wet deposition of mineral dust

The default below-cloud (washout) scavenging of dust by rain and snow in GEOS-Chem is separated for fine (DST1) and coarse dust (DST2 to DST4) (Wang et al., 2011). However, washout scavenging coefficients strongly depend on aerosol size, varying by 3 orders of magnitude for diameter ranging from 1 to 10 μ m (Wang et al., 2014b). To improve the size-dependent washout treatment of dust, we update washout rates by rain and snow for 7 dust size bins by (Wang et al., 2014b):

$$\Lambda = A(D_d)(\frac{P_d}{f_r})^{B(D_d)} \tag{9}$$

where Λ is the washout scavenging coefficient in s⁻¹ by either rain or snow; P_d is the precipitation rate in mm h⁻¹ falling form upper layers; f_r is the area fraction of precipitation within each grid box; A and B are empirical constants dependent on dust size D_d . Using the same equations for A and B as Wang et al. (2014b), the updated values for different dust size bins are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Values of *A* and *B* for washout parametrizations by rain and snow for different dust size bins.

Diameter (µm)	Rain (<i>T</i> ≥	268 K)	Snow (248 K ≤	≤ <i>T</i> < 268 K)
Diameter (µm)	Α	В	А	В
Bin1 (0.2-0.36)	4.0×10^{-7}	0.71	7.3×10^{-6}	0.57
Bin2 (0.36-0.6)	4.1×10^{-7}	0.71	1.3×10^{-5}	0.56
Bin3 (0.6-1.2)	4.8×10^{-7}	0.72	2.7×10^{-5}	0.56
Bin4 (1.2-2.0)	8.4×10^{-7}	0.73	6.0×10^{-5}	0.55
Bin5 (2.0-3.6)	4.8×10^{-5}	0.88	4.2×10^{-4}	0.61
Bin6 (3.6-6.0)	2.2×10^{-4}	0.87	1.3×10^{-3}	0.67
Bin7 (6.0–12.0)	3.4×10^{-4}	0.84	2.4×10^{-3}	0.73

Figure 9 shows the size-dependent variations of mineral dust dry and wet deposition. The dry deposition velocity can vary by a factor of 4.9 among Bin1 to Bin4 with the minimum near the geometric diameter of 0.5 μ m. The washout scavenging coefficient can vary by a factor of 2.6 among Bin1 to Bin4 with the minimum near the geometric diameter of 0.4 μ m. Given the steep





520 increasing strength of emitted dust from Bin1 to Bin4 (Figure 8), there is need to explicitly track dust 521 within DST1. We evaluate these developments by examining their effects on the fractional 522 contributions of fine dust to total dust. 523 Figure 10 shows the fractional contributions of fine dust with geometric diameter less than 2 µm to 524 total dust (AOD_{FineDust}/AOD_{Dust}) from the simulations with a total of 7 dust bins for dry deposition 525 with updated washout scavenging parametrization and their differences. Due to the dominance of 526 dry deposition over arid dusty regions, the explicit tracking of fine dust dry deposition slightly 527 reduces AOD_{FineDust}/AOD_{Dust} over major dust source regions. However, the anthropogenic 528 contributions to fine dust are correspondingly enhanced over urban and industrial regions, leading 529 to degraded comparison against SPARTAN measurements (Figure A3). We thus scale the AFCID emissions by half to reduce the excessive contributions from this uncertain source 530 531 (Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD). In addition, accounting for the steep washout scavenging efficiency across 532 DSTbin5 to DSTbin7 (Figure 9) with updated washout parametrization would induce enhanced 533 fractional contributions especially for DSTbin5 (Figure A4) and thus relatively reduce fractional 534 contributions from fine dust with geometric diameter less than 2 μm to total dust $(AOD_{FineDust}/AOD_{Dust})$. Figure 11 shows the overall performance with all revisions from the 535 536 simulation of Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep. The reduced-major-axis linear regression slope is 537 further reduced from 1.53 (Figure 8) to 1.44 with comparable values of NMD against SPARTAN 538 measurements. 539 Comparisons against other surface dust datasets also show improved or comparable performance 540 compared to the Base simulation. Figure A5 shows the comparison against ground-observations 541 over North America. Using the refined new dust emission scheme with the replacement of the size 542 distribution from the Kok PSD, explicaitly tracking submicron bins for dry deposition, and updating 543 the washout scavenging parametrization contribute to a comparable extent to reduce the 544 overestimation over North America from 43% of the Base simulation to 15% of the 545 Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep simulation. Comparisons against surface concentrations and total 546 deposition of PM₁₀ dust (Li et al., 2022b) for the Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep simulation are also 547 comparable with the Base simulation (Figures A6 and A7). Consistent with prior studies (Leung et 548 al., 2023; Meng et al., 2021), fine-resolution meteorological fields are needed to capture dust emission hotspots. The simulated total column AOD would be underestimated by 14% compared 549 550 to AERONET, and the surface fine dust would be underestimated by 22% compared to SPARTAN if

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the dust emissions are calculated with meteorological fields at C48 resolution (Figure A8). Overall comparisons for the seasonal mean between the Base and the Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep simulations confirm largely reduced overestimation for the surface fine dust against SPARTAN, while retaining comparable skill for the total column AOD against AERONET (Figures A9 to A12). Table 3 summarizes the effects of different modifications on the model performance of total column AOD and surface fine mineral dust in this study. Strong overestimation of surface PM_{2.5} dust concentrations exist in the Base simulation by a factor of 2.2 versus SPARTAN measured dust. Updating the dust emission scheme with further refinements in the soil properties reduces the overestimation of surface PM_{2.5} dust by 36%. The surface overestimation by 37% is reduced to 21% by updating the size distribution of emitted dust, explicitly tracking dust with diameter less than 2 um in 4 bins, and updating the parametrization of below-cloud scavenging. The comparisons of simulated AOD versus AERONET and Deep Blue AOD are comparable for all simulations with the correlation coefficient of 0.8-0.9, and NMDs from -9% to 31%. The emissions between the Base and Emis* simulations are comparable with the global annual dust emission of ~2000 Tg yr⁻¹, which is within the range of 1000-5000 Tg yr1 from intercomparison projects (Huneeus et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2020). As the Kok PSD reduces the mass fraction of fine dust, the total emitted mass is enhanced to ~3000 Tg yr⁻¹ with larger contributions from coarse dust.



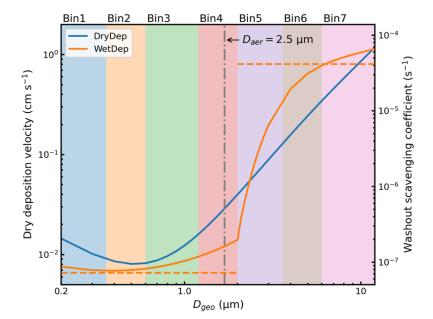


Figure 9. Size-resolved dry deposition velocity over desert (left y-axis) and washout scavenging coefficient by rain (right y-axis). Dry deposition velocity is calculated with the friction velocity of 0.4 m s⁻¹ and the particle density of 2500 kg m⁻³ with the default dry deposition scheme used in the GEOS-Chem. Washout scavenging coefficient is calculated with the precipitation rate of 0.1 mm h⁻¹ with the updated washout parametrization. Orange horizontal dash lines indicate the default washout scavenging coefficients by rain with the precipitation rate of 0.1 mm h⁻¹ for fine aerosol (Bin1 to Bin4) and coarse aerosol (Bin5 to Bin7). Grey dash-dotted line indicates the corresponding geometric diameter of 1.7 μ m for the aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 μ m. Filled rectangles indicate different simulated dust size bins.



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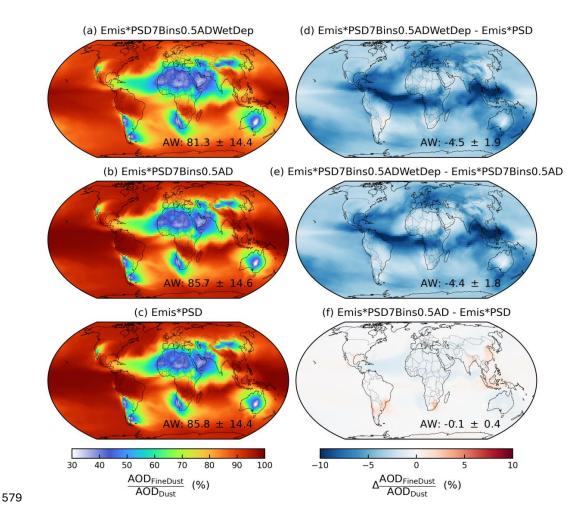


Figure 10. Fractional contributions of fine dust with geometric diameter less than 2 μ m to total dust column abundance (AOD_{FineDust}/AOD_{Dust}) from the a) Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep, b) Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD, c) Emis*PSD and their absolute differences. Inset values at the bottom right are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation.



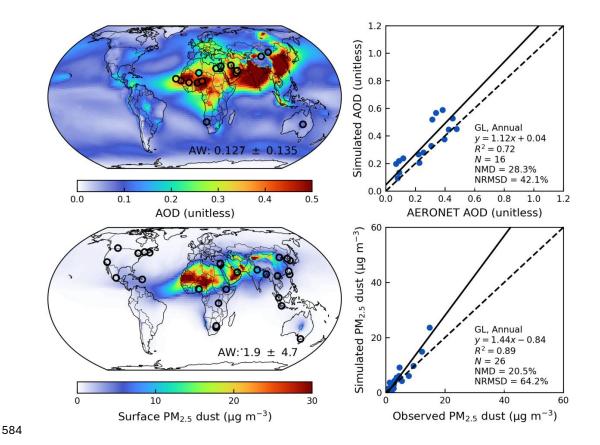


Figure 11. Annual simulated aerosol optical depth (AOD) and comparison against ground-based observations from AERONET over dusty regions ($\mathrm{AOD}_{\mathrm{Dust}}/\mathrm{AOD} > 0.5$) (top); Annual simulated surface PM_{2.5} dust and comparison against ground-based measurements from SPARTAN from the Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep simulation in the year of 2018 (bottom). Filled circles on the maps represent ground-based observations from SPARTAN and AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the maps are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, R^2 , total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the bottom right of the scatter plots.





simulated annual aerosol optical depth (AOD) versus AERONET AOD and Deep Blue satellite AOD in terms of the correlation coefficient Table 3. Effects of different modifications on the model performance of simulated annual surface PM_{2.5} dust versus SPARTAN, and (r), the reduced-major-axis linear regression slope, and the normalized mean difference (NMD), with associated total annual dust 596 597

emissions in the year of 2018.

	Sim	ulated sur	Simulated surface PM _{2.5}			Simulated AOD versus	OD vers	sns		
Simulation	snp	dust versus SPARTAN	SPARTAN	1	AERONET AOD	AOD		Deep Blue AOD	AOD	Emissions (Tg vr-1)
	ľ	edols	(%) QWN	ľ	edols	(%) QWN	ľ	edols	(%) QWN	(18)
Base	0.95	2.20	73.2	0.84	1.02	17.7	0.87	0.92	-8.7	2025
Emis*										
Emis	0.96	1.79	47.7	0.85	1.10	26.2	0.87	1.00	9.9	2128
EmisClay	0.95	1.69	18.1	98.0	1.05	23.7	0.88	1.01	0.2	1954
EmisClayWet	0.94	1.84	44.3	0.87	1.11	30.7	0.89	1.00	7.2	2376
EmisClayWetLAl_{thr}	0.95	1.80	37.0	0.85	1.05	28.9	0.88	1.00	5.6	2262
Emis*PSD	0.95	1.53	17.4	0.83	1.12	29.7	0.89	1.00	4.3	3069
Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD	0.94	1.48	25.3	0.85	1.12	28.3	0.89	1.00	3.2	2952
Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep	0.95	1.44	20.5	0.83	1.11	28.7	0.89	1.00	3.6	2943



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5 Conclusions

In summary, we evaluate and improve the mineral dust simulation in the GEOS-Chem model by building upon recent ground-based measurements from SPARTAN of mineral dust in PM_{2.5} over land, together with total column AOD from AERONET measurements and from MODIS and VIIRS Deep Blue satellite product. We devote attention to the representation of aerodynamic diameter when comparing with ground-based PM_{2.5} measurements, since representation as geometric diameter in models would introduce two-fold bias. We nonetheless find that the standard GEOS-Chem chemical transport model much better represents columnar AOD with a slope near unity than surface PM_{2.5} dust concentrations which are overestimated by a factor of two. Comparison of simulated extinction profile versus the 15-year climatological CALIOP extinction profile yields overall consistency in the vertical shape (Figure 3), indicating the importance of other dominant factors. We develop the mineral dust representation in GEOS-Chem with attention to its sources, size distribution, and sinks. We implement a new dust emission scheme based on Leung et al. (2023) with further refinements to the clay content and wetness in the topsoil layer, threshold leaf area index, and reducing dust emissions over snow and vegetation covered land surfaces. The NMD versus surface measurements is reduced by 36% while the simulated AOD better represents the spatial distribution of Deep Blue AOD over dusty regions. To further improve the fine dust representation in GEOS-Chem, we revisit the size distribution of emitted dust and find the Kok particle size distribution (PSD; Kok, 2011) better represents the mass fraction of fine dust measured during the Fennec field campaign over Northern Africa than the default PSD and that its implementation into GEOS-Chem reduces the surface overestimation of PM_{2.5} dust by 20%. We also enable explicit tracking of mineral dust with geometric diameter less than 2 µm in 4 size bins for emission, transport, and deposition with updated parametrization for below-cloud scavenging, which further reduces the overestimation of surface $PM_{2.5}$ dust concentrations to within 21%. These investigations indicate the importance of size type reconciliation in models versus measurements, the spatial distribution of dust emissions, the size distribution of emitted dust, and the explicit tracking of fine dust bins for more accurate simulation of fine dust abundance from the surface to the column.





- 629 Appendix A: Additional details about dust emission parametrizations, SPARTAN dust,
- 630 and complementary figures

631 A1. A global dust equation

- We follow a global dust equation for the calculation of surface PM_{2.5} dust concentrations from
- 633 SPARTAN (Liu et al., 2022):

634 Dust =
$$[1.89A] \times (1 + MAL) + 2.14Si + 1.40Ca + 1.36Fe + 1.67Ti] \times CF$$
 (A1)

- 635 where 1.89, 2.14, 1.40, 1.36, and 1.67 are the mass conversion ratios for corresponding mineral
- 636 oxides; MAL is the mineral-to-aluminum mass ratio of (K₂O + MgO + Na₂O)/Al₂O₃; CF is a correction
- factor (CF) to account for other missing compounds.

638 A2. Horizontal saltation flux in standard version of GEOS-Chem

- 639 The default horizontal saltation flux Q_s in GEOS-Chem is based on the parametrization of White
- 640 (1979):

641
$$Q_{s} = C_{z} \frac{\rho_{a}}{g} u_{*s}^{3} \left(1 - \frac{u_{*ft}}{u_{*s}} \right) \left(1 + \frac{u_{*ft}}{u_{*s}} \right)^{2} \text{ for } u_{*s} > u_{*ft}$$
 (A2)

- where $C_z=2.61$ is the saltation constant; ρ_a is the air density in kg m⁻³; g=9.81 m s⁻² is the
- gravitational acceleration; the drag partitioning effects are ignored by default and thus $u_{*s} = u_*$,
- where u_* is calculated from the wind speed at 10 m u_{10m} based on the logarithmic wind profile
- 645 within the boundary layer under adiabatic conditions (Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995):

646
$$u_* = \frac{ku_{10m}}{\ln(z_0/z_{0a})} \tag{A3}$$

- where k=0.4 is the von Kármán constant; u_{10m} is the wind speed at 10 m; $z_0=10$ m is the
- reference height; $z_{0a} = 10^{-4}$ m is the surface roughness height. The wet fluid threshold friction
- 649 velocity of u_{*ft} is the minimum surface friction velocity required to initiate the saltation from the
- 650 bare soil (Fécan et al., 1999):

$$u_{*ft} = u_{*ft0} \cdot f_m \tag{A4}$$





where u_{*ft0} is the dry fluid threshold friction velocity following Iversen and White (1982):

653
$$u_{*ft0} = \begin{cases} \frac{0.129K}{\sqrt{1.928Re^{0.092} - 1}}, & 0.03 < Re < 10\\ 0.12K[1 - 0.0858e^{-0.0617(Re - 10)}], & Re \ge 10 \end{cases}$$
 (A5)

654 where:

655
$$K = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_p g D_p}{\rho_a} \left(1 + \frac{0.006}{\rho_p g D_p^{2.5}} \right)}$$
 (A6)

$$Re = 1331D_p^{1.56} + 0.38 \tag{A7}$$

- Where $D_p = 75 \, \mu \text{m}$ is the diameter of soil particle which corresponds to the minimum dry fluid threshold velocity of u_{*ft0} (Iversen and White, 1982).
- The enhancement factor $f_m \ge 1$ is a function of soil wetness (Fécan et al., 1999):

660
$$f_m = \begin{cases} 1, & w \le w_t \\ \sqrt{1 + 1.21[100(w - w_t)]^{0.68}}, & w > w_t \end{cases}$$
 (A8)

- where w is the gravimetric soil moisture (kg kg⁻¹) in the shallowest soil layer; w_t is the threshold
- gravimetric water content above which u_{*ft} increases with soil wetness (Fécan et al., 1999):

663
$$w_t = 0.01a \left(17 f_{clay} + 14 f_{clay}^2 \right) \tag{A9}$$

where a is a tuning factor which is taken as $1/f_{clay} = 5$ by default.

A3. Additional details about the new dust emission scheme

- The variables used in the calculation for the total dust emission flux F_d (Equation (6)) can be
- 667 categorized into meteorological fields including η , ρ_a , and u_* , land surface properties including
- f_{bare} , f'_{clay} , F_{eff} , and u_{*it} , intrinsic soil erodibility properties including u_{*st} , C_d , and κ , and a global
- tuning factor of C_{tune} .

- 670 Intermittency effects due to the fluctuation of instantaneous soil friction velocity \tilde{u}_s are reflected in
- the intermittency factor of η , which is denoted by the temporal fraction of active dust emission





- ranging from 0 to 1 within a transport time step. The parametrization of η is based on Comola et al.
- 673 (2019):

674
$$\eta = 1 - P_{ft} + \alpha (P_{ft} - P_{it})$$
 (A10)

- where P_{ft} and P_{it} are the cumulative probability of instantaneous friction velocity larger than a wet
- 676 fluid threshold, and an impact threshold, respectively; α is the fraction of \tilde{u}_s crossing a wet fluid
- 677 threshold over the total fraction crossing a wet fluid threshold and an impact threshold.
- 678 The calculation of η is based on velocity at the saltation height of $z_{sal}=0.1$ m. Thus the surface
- friction velocity of u_{*s} , and threshold velocities of u_{*ft} and u_{*it} are first calculated at the saltation
- 680 height based on (Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995):

681
$$u_X(sal) = \frac{u_{*X}}{k} \ln \left(\frac{z_{sal}}{z_{0a}} \right)$$
 (A11)

- where the subscript X can be ft, it or s, $z_{0a} = 10^{-4}$ m, and k = 0.386 is the von Kármán constant.
- Assuming a normal distribution of instantaneous soil friction velocity $\tilde{u}_s \sim N(u_s, \sigma_{\tilde{u}_s}^2)$, a standard
- deviation of instantaneous friction velocity $\sigma_{\widetilde{u}_s}$ is a central parameter to calculate the fraction of
- active dust emissions within a time step for transportation. $\sigma_{\widetilde{u}_s}$ is calculated based on the similarity
- 686 theory (Panofsky et al., 1977):

687
$$\sigma_{\widetilde{u}_s} = u_{*s} \left(12 - 0.5 \frac{z_i}{L} \right)^{1/3} \tag{A12}$$

- where z_i is the planetary boundary layer height, and L is the Monin-bukhov length calculated by
- 689 (Panofsky et al., 1977):

$$L = -\frac{\rho_a c_p T u_*^3}{kgH} \tag{A13}$$

- where $c_p = 1005 \,\mathrm{J\,kg^{-1}K^{-1}}$ is the specific hear capacity of air under constant pressure; T is surface
- air temperature; u_* in m s⁻¹ is the original surface friction velocity without the drag partitioning
- correction; $g = 9.81 \text{ m s}^{-2}$ is the gravitational acceleration; H is the sensible heat flux from
- 694 turbulence in W m⁻².





- Given that a normal distribution is assumed, cumulative probabilities of P_{ft} and P_{it} can be
- calculated by $P_{ft}=0.5[1+\mathrm{erf}\,(\frac{u_{ft}-u_s}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_{\widetilde{u}s}})]$, and $P_{it}=0.5[1+\mathrm{erf}\,(\frac{u_{it}-u_s}{\sqrt{2}\sigma_{\widetilde{u}s}})]$. α is the number of crossing
- rate of \tilde{u}_s across the wet fluid threshold C_{ft} over the total number of crossing rate of \tilde{u}_s across the
- 698 wet fluid threshold C_{ft} and the impact threshold C_{it} (Comola et al., 2019):

$$\alpha = \frac{C_{ft}}{C_{ft} + C_{it}} \tag{A14}$$

- 700 The crossing fraction of α is approximated by $\alpha \approx \left[\exp\left(\frac{u_{ft}^2 u_{it}^2 2u_s(u_{ft} u_{it})}{2\sigma_{ic}^2}\right) + 1\right]^{-1}$ as suggested by
- 701 Comola et al. (2019).
- 702 The soil surface friction velocity of u_{*s} is calculated by (Leung et al., 2023; Marticorena and
- 703 Bergametti, 1995; Webb et al., 2020):

$$u_{*S} = u_* F_{eff} \tag{A15}$$

- 705 where u_* is the surface friction velocity taken directly from the parent meteorological fields; F_{eff} is
- 706 the drag partitioning effects due to the presence of non-erodible elements including rocks and
- 707 vegetation.
- 708 Drag partitioning effects are calculated following Leung et al. (2023):

709
$$F_{eff} = \left(A_r f_{eff,r}^3 + A_v f_{eff,v}^3 \right)^{1/3}$$
 (A16)

- 710 where A_r is the fraction of barren and sparsely vegetated land cover approximated by A_{erod} ; A_v is
- 711 the fraction of short vegetation land cover taken from the MCD12C1 Version 6.1 land cover
- product; $f_{eff,r}$ is the drag partitioning effects due to rocks (Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995):

713
$$f_{eff,r} = 1 - \frac{\ln\left(\frac{Z_{0a}}{Z_{0s}}\right)}{\ln\left[b_1\left(\frac{X}{Z_{0s}}\right)^{b_2}\right]}$$
(A17)

- 714 where z_{0a} is the aeolian roughness length which the surface roughness of overlaying nonerodable
- 715 elements and was taken as the minimum of monthly mean gridded aeolian roughness length
- 716 (Prigent et al., 2005); $z_{0s} = \frac{D_p}{15}$ is the smooth roughness length which quantifies the roughness of a





- bed of fine soil particles in the absence of roughness elements (Pierre et al., 2014b); $b_1 = 0.7$, $b_2 = 0.7$
- 718 0.8, and X = 10 m are empirical constants (Leung et al., 2023). $f_{eff,v}$ is the drag partitioning effects
- 719 due to vegetation (Pierre et al., 2014a):

720
$$f_{eff,v} = \frac{K + f_0 c}{K + c}$$
 (A18)

- where $f_0 = 0.32$ and c = 4.8 are empirical constants (Okin, 2008); K is calculated by $\frac{\pi}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\text{LAI/LAI_{thr}}} \frac{1}{\text{LAI/LAI_{thr}}} \right)$
- 722 1) (Leung et al., 2023; Okin, 2008).
- 723 The wet fluid threshold velocity u_{*ft} is calculated using Equation (A4), except the dry fluid threshold
- 724 velocity u_{*ft0} is calculated by (Shao and Lu, 2000):

725
$$u_{*ft0} = \sqrt{A(\rho_p g D_p + \gamma/D_p)/\rho_a}$$
 (A19)

- 726 where A = 0.0123 and $\gamma = 1.65 \times 10^{-4} \ kg \ s^{-2}$ are empirical constants (Darmenova et al., 2009;
- Leung et al., 2023); $D_p = 127 \pm 47 \, \mu \text{m}$ is the median diameter of soil particle as evaluated from
- 728 various field measurements in Leung et al. (2023).
- 729 Once the saltation is initialized, the threshold velocity required to maintain the saltation
- 730 diminishes, which is defined as the dynamic or impact threshold friction velocity u_{*it} in m s⁻¹
- 731 (Martin and Kok, 2018):

$$u_{*it} = B_{it} u_{*ft0} \tag{A20}$$

- 733 where $B_{it}=0.82$. A prior study suggested that the impact threshold primarily governed the
- 734 saltation flux (Martin and Kok, 2018) and thus u_{*it} is adopted as the governing threshold in Equation
- 735 (14).
- 736 The standardized wet fluid threshold friction velocity u_{*st} was proposed and argued as a central
- 737 factor to characterize soil aridity by a prior study (Kok et al., 2014):

$$u_{*st} = u_{*ft} \sqrt{\rho_a/\rho_{a0}} \tag{A21}$$

739 where $\rho_{a0}=1.225~{\rm kg~m^{-3}}$ is the standard surface air density.





- 740 The fragmentation exponent of κ quantifies the sensitivity of F_d to u_{*s} and is capped at 3 to prevent
- excessive sensitivity of the model to wind speeds according to (Kok et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2024):

742
$$\kappa = C_{\kappa} \frac{(u_{*st} - u_{*st0})}{u_{*st0}}$$
 (A22)

- 743 where $C_{\rm K}=2.7\pm1.0$ and $u_{*st0}=0.16~{\rm m~s^{-1}}$ are constants.
- The time-varying soil erodibility coefficient is a function of u_{*st} only (Kok et al., 2014):

$$C_d = C_{d0} \exp\left(-C_e \frac{u_{*st} - u_{*st0}}{u_{*st0}}\right)$$
 (A23)

746 where $C_{d0}=(4.4\pm0.5)\times10^{-5}$ and $C_e=2.0\pm0.3$ are empirical constants.





Table A1. The mean, median, and standard deviation of surface PM_{2.5} dust measured from 26
 SPARTAN sites with at least 10 samples in 5 years from 2019 to 2023 globally. Sites are sorted by
 the mean surface PM_{2.5} dust concentrations.

Site	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	# of samples	Mean (µg m ⁻³)	Median (µg m ⁻³)	Standard deviation (µg m ⁻³)
Abu Dhabi	24.4	54.6	136	14.8	14.1	7.4
Ilorin	8.5	4.7	58	12.2	7.1	17.1
Kanpur	26.5	80.2	18	9.3	6.2	8.2
Dhaka	23.7	90.4	53	7.7	7.4	4.1
Addis Ababa	9.0	38.8	113	5.4	5.0	1.7
Beijing	40.0	116.3	169	4.6	3.9	2.3
Rehovot	31.9	34.8	183	4.4	3.2	4.4
Hanoi	21.0	105.8	11	3.8	3.6	0.6
Haifa	32.8	35.0	141	3.6	2.5	3.7
Seoul	37.6	126.9	87	2.9	2.3	1.6
Fajardo	18.4	-65.6	55	2.6	1.8	2.5
Bujumbura	-3.4	29.4	15	2.6	1.9	1.4
Kaohsiung	22.6	120.3	111	2.2	2.2	0.9
Ulsan	35.6	129.2	86	2.2	1.8	1.5
Pretoria	-25.8	28.3	203	2.0	2.0	0.7
Bandung	-6.9	107.6	33	1.9	1.8	0.6
Johannesburg	-26.2	28.0	162	1.5	1.6	0.5
Singapore	1.3	103.8	15	1.5	1.6	0.3
Mexico City	19.3	-99.2	53	1.4	1.3	0.5
Taipei	25.0	121.5	204	1.3	1.0	0.9
Pasadena	34.2	-118.2	220	0.9	0.8	0.3
Lethbridge	49.7	-112.9	15	0.8	0.8	0.4
Melbourne	-37.8	145.0	39	0.8	0.4	1.0
Downsview	43.8	-79.5	22	0.6	0.6	0.2
Sherbrooke	45.4	-71.9	93	0.4	0.3	0.2
Halifax	44.6	-63.6	141	0.3	0.3	0.1





Table A2. The values of a global tuning factor C_{tune} used for different simulations.

Simulation	C_{tune}		
Emis*			
Emis	2.358×10^{-2}		
EmisClay	2.569×10^{-3}		
EmisClayWet	2.146×10^{-3}		
EmisClayWetLAI _{thr}	2.170×10^{-3}		
Emis*PSD	2.945×10^{-3}		
Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD	2.892×10^{-3}		
Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep	2.832×10^{-3}		



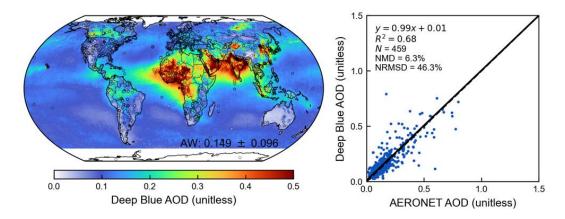


Figure A1. Annual aerosol optical depth (AOD) from the Deep Blue satellite retrieval and comparison against ground-based observations from AERONET in the year of 2018. Filled circles on the map represent ground-based observations from AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the map are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the top left of the scatter plot.





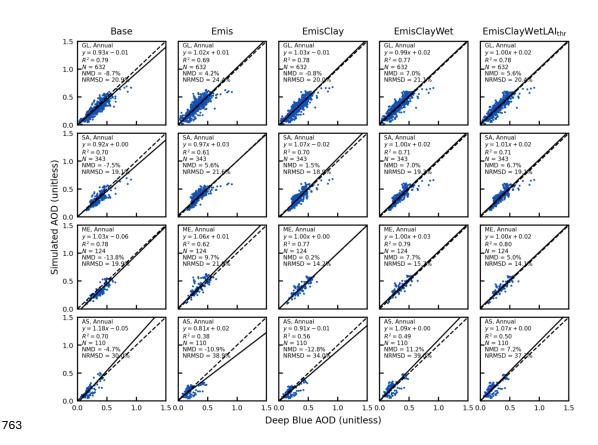


Figure A2. Same as Figure 6 but over the same dust source regions for the EmisClayWetLAI_{thr} scheme for all dust emission scheme comparisons versus Deep Blue AOD.

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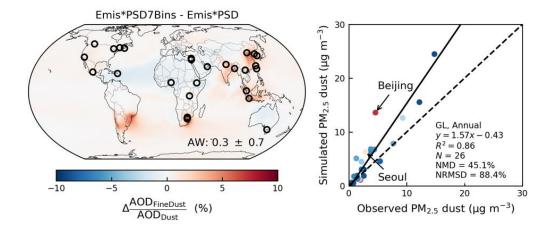


Figure A3. Differences of the fractional contributions of fine dust with geometric diameter less than 2 μ m to total dust column abundance (A0D_{FineDust}/A0D_{Dust}) between the Emis*PSD7Bins and Emis*PSD simulations (left); Comparison between simulated PM_{2.5} dust against SPARTAN measurements from the Emis*PSD7Bins simulation with color coded by the differences of A0D_{FineDust}/A0D_{Dust} between the Emis*PSD7Bins and Emis*PSD simulations over SPARTAN sites. Open circles in the map indicate SPARTAN sites. Inset values at the bottom right of the map are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the bottom right of the scatter plot.



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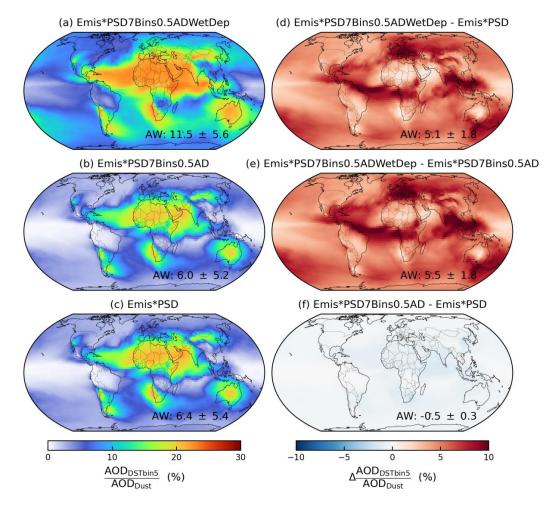


Figure A4. Fractional contributions of DSTbin5 to total dust column abundance $(AOD_{DSTbin5}/AOD_{Dust}) \ from \ the \ a) \ Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep, \ b) \ Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD, \ c)$ $Emis*PSD \ and \ their \ absolute \ differences. \ Inset \ values \ at \ the \ bottom \ right \ are \ area-weighted \ (AW)$ mean and standard deviation.



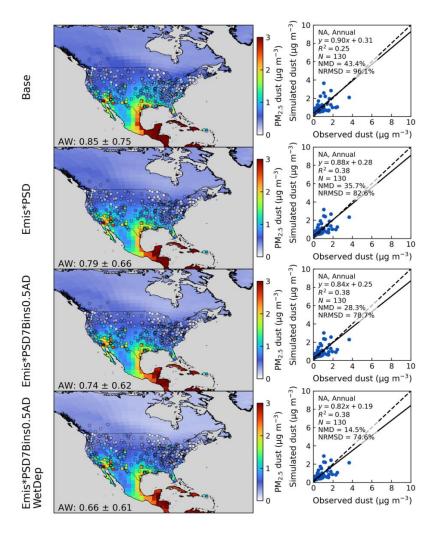


Figure A5. Comparisons of simulated annual surface $PM_{2.5}$ dust against ground-based observations in the year of 2018 over North America from the Base (top), Emis*PSD (second), Emis*PSD7Bins0.5AD (third), and Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep (bottom) simulations. Filled circles represent ground-based observations of surface $PM_{2.5}$ dust concentrations. Inset values at the bottom left are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including the reduced-major axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the top left of right panels.



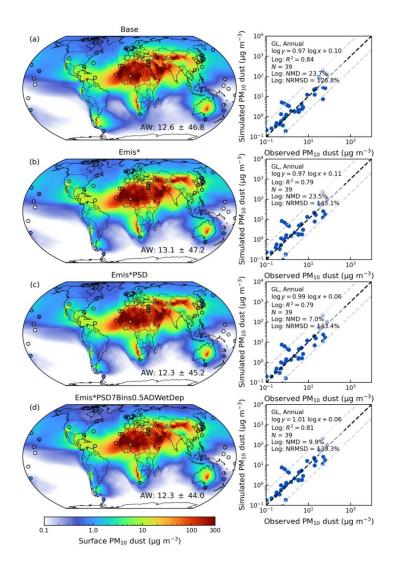


Figure A6. Annual simulated surface PM_{10} dust concentrations in the year of 2018 from the simulations of a) Base, b) Emis*, c) Emis*PSD, and d) Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep. Filled circles represent ground-based observations of surface PM_{10} dust concentrations. Inset values at the bottom right are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Dash lines in the scatter plots indicate variations within a factor of 5. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the top left of right panels.



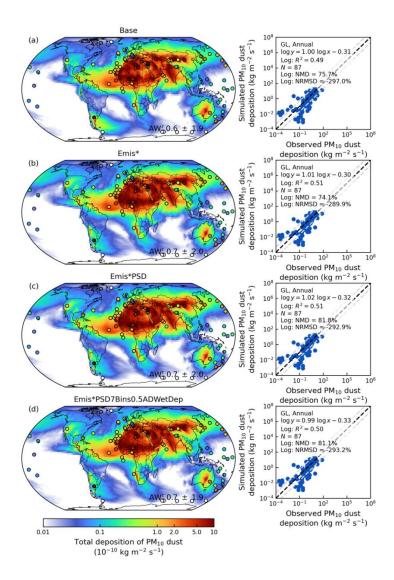


Figure A7. Annual simulated total deposition of PM_{10} dust within the troposphere in the year of 2018 from the simulations of a) Base, b) Emis*, c) Emis*PSD, and d) Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep. Filled circles represent ground-based observations of surface PM_{10} dust deposition. Inset values at the bottom right are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Dash lines in the scatter plots indicate variations within a factor of 5. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the top left of right panels.



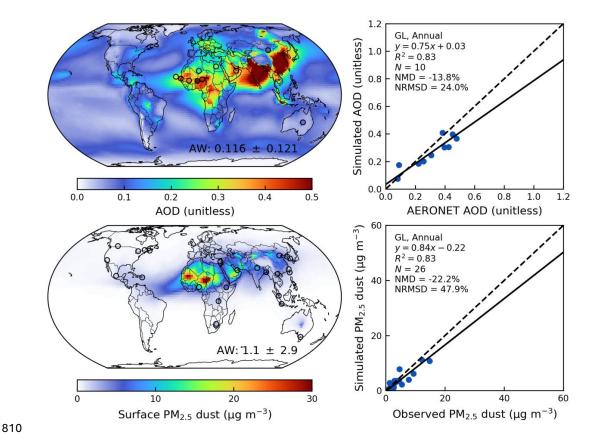


Figure A8. Annual simulated aerosol optical depth (AOD) and comparison against ground-based observations from AERONET over dusty regions ($AOD_{Dust}/AOD > 0.5$) (top); Annual simulated surface PM_{2.5} dust and comparison against ground-based measurements from SPARTAN from the Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep simulation with the dust emissions calculated at C48 resolution in the year of 2018 (bottom). Filled circles on the maps represent ground-based observations from SPARTAN and AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the maps are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the top left of the scatter plots.



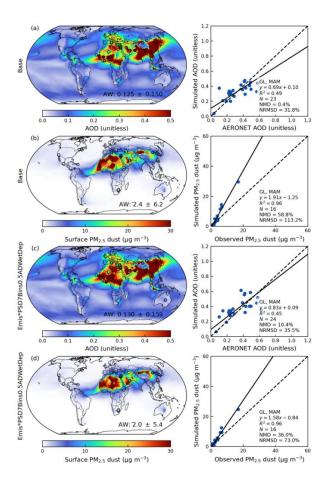


Figure A9. Simulated seasonal mean (March, April, and May or MAM) aerosol optical depth (AOD; a and c) and surface $PM_{2.5}$ dust (b and d) from the Base and Emis*PSD7Bins0.5ADWetDep simulations. Filled circles on the maps represent ground-based observations from SPARTAN and AERONET. Inset values at the bottom right of the maps are area-weighted (AW) mean and standard deviation. Comparisons of simulated AOD versus AERONET AOD over dusty sites $(AOD_{Dust}/AOD > 0.5)$, and simulated surface $PM_{2.5}$ dust versus SPARTAN observations are shown in the right panels. Regression statistics including the reduced-major-axis linear regression equation, coefficient of variation (R^2), total number of points (N), normalized mean difference (NMD), and normalized root-mean-square difference (NRMSD) are listed at the bottom right of the scatter plots.





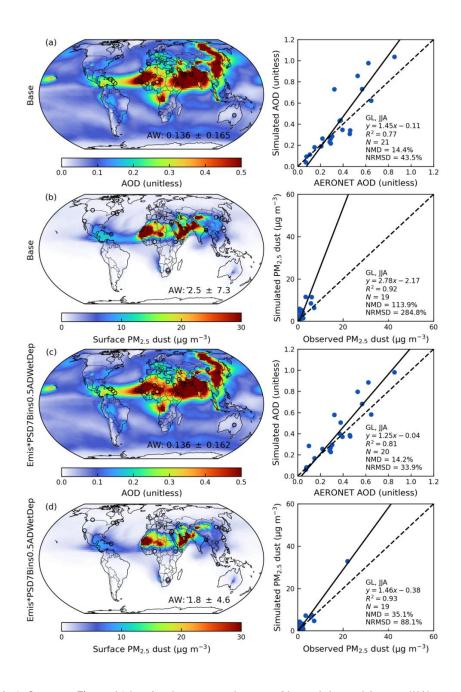


Figure A10. Same as Figure A9 but for the seasonal mean of June, July, and August (JJA).



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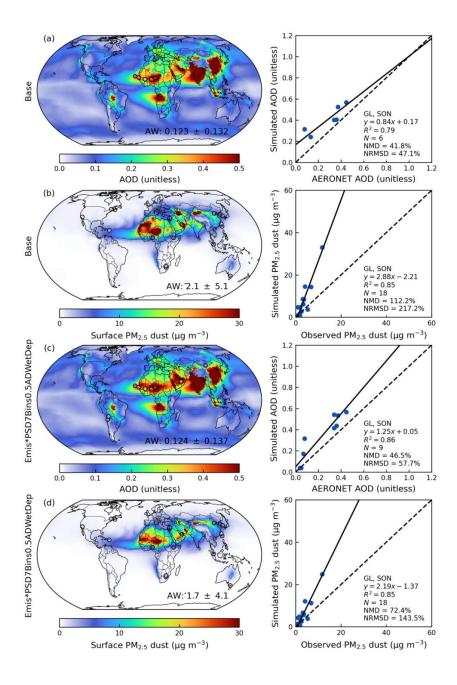


Figure A11. Same as Figure A9 but for the seasonal mean of September, October, and November (SON).



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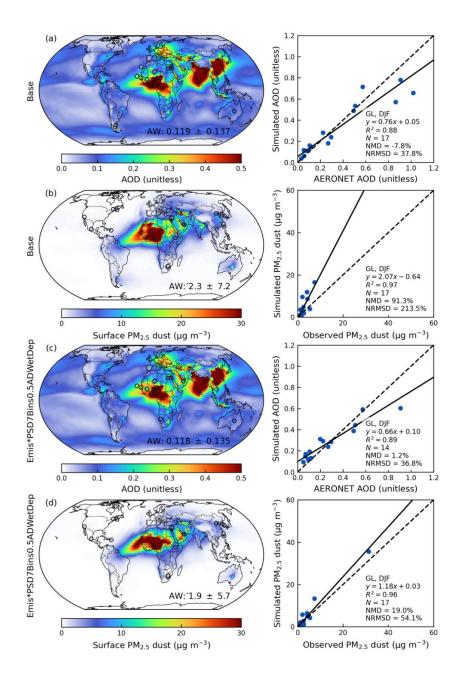


Figure A12. Same as Figure A9 but for the seasonal mean of December, January, and February (DJF).





840 can be downloaded at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12584305 (The International GEOS-Chem 841 User Community, 2024). The model source code, an example run directory, and the calculation 842 scripts for the hourly dust emission fluxes for the revised simulation can be downloaded at 843 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14510793 (Zhang, 2024). 844 Data availability. The surface PM_{2.5} dust measurements with the attenuation correction from 845 SPARTAN used in this study will be public available in future release at https://www.spartan-846 network.org/data (last access: 4 February 2025). The PM₁₀ dust and total deposition of dust are 847 available at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6989502 (Li et al., 2022a). The processed 848 meteorological fields from GEOS-FP are available at 849 http://geoschemdata.wustl.edu/ExtData/GEOS 0.25x0.3125/GEOS FP/ (last access: 4 February 850 2025) with the soil porosity downloaded from the constant land-surface parameter of MERRA2 851 M2C0NXLND collection (https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/datasets?project=MERRA-2, last access: 4 852 February 2025). The land cover dataset can be downloaded at 853 https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mcd12c1v061/ (last access: 4 February 2025). The monthly 854 mean leaf area index at 0.5 degree can be downloaded at 855 http://globalchange.bnu.edu.cn/research/laiv6 (last access: 4 February 2025). The satellite-856 derived aeolian roughness data are available upon contacting Catherine Prigent. The GSDE soil 857 dataset can be downloaded at http://globalchange.bnu.edu.cn/research/soilw (last access: 4 858 February 2025). 859 Author contribution. The manuscript was written by DZ and RVM with contributions from all 860 authors. DZ and RVM designed the study with developments of the methodology. DZ conducted 861 simulations and analyzed the results. XL developed the methodology for the mineral dust 862 concentration construction in SPARTAN. AvD compiled the Deep Blue AOD dataset and ground-863 based observation datasets of surface PM_{2.5} dust over NA and AERONET AOD for evaluation. XL, 864 CRO and EW contributed to SPARTAN measurements. YL contributed to the dry deposition analysis. JM offered valuable discussion for the emission scheme refinements. DML and JFK 865 866 contributed to the development of a new dust emission scheme. LL constructed the observational 867 data for PM₁₀ dust and deposition flux. HZ contributed to the generation of SPARTAN dust data. JRT 868 and YY contributed to the discussion of the evaluation of simulated dust. MB and YR contributed to 869 the establishment and maintenance of SPARTAN monitoring sites. All authors contributed to

Code availability. The standard GEOS-Chem in its high-performance configuration version 14.4.1





870 revising the manuscript. 871 **Competing interests.** The authors declare no competing financial interest. 872 Acknowledgements. This work was supported by the National Science Foundation grants 873 2244984 and 2151093, and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration grant 874 80NSSC22K0200. The GEOS-FP data used in this study have been provided by the Global Modeling 875 and Assimilation Office (GMAO) at the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center. We thank the AERONET, 876 CALIOP, MODIS, and VIIRS teams for the creation and public release of their data products. 877 References 878 Bagheri, G. and Bonadonna, C.: On the drag of freely falling non-spherical particles, Powder 879 Technology, 301, 526-544, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.powtec.2016.06.015, 2016. 880 Bayon, G., Garzanti, E., Dinis, P., Beaufort, D., Barrat, J.-A., Germain, Y., Trinquier, A., Barbarano, 881 M., Overare, B., Adeaga, O., and Braquet, N.: Contribution of Saharan dust to chemical weathering 882 fluxes and associated phosphate release in West Africa, Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 641, 883 118845, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.epsl.2024.118845, 2024. 884 Bey, I., Jacob, D. J., Yantosca, R. M., Logan, J. A., Field, B. D., Fiore, A. M., Li, Q., Liu, H. Y., Mickley, L. J., and Schultz, M. G.: Global modeling of tropospheric chemistry with assimilated meteorology: 885 886 Model description and evaluation, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 106, 23073-887 23095, https://doi.org/10.1029/2001JD000807, 2001. 888 Bouwman, A. F., Lee, D. S., Asman, W. A. H., Dentener, F. J., Van Der Hoek, K. W., and Olivier, J. G. 889 J.: A global high-resolution emission inventory for ammonia, Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 11, 890 561-587, https://doi.org/10.1029/97GB02266, 1997. 891 Breider, T. J., Mickley, L. J., Jacob, D. J., Ge, C., Wang, J., Payer Sulprizio, M., Croft, B., Ridley, D. A., 892 McConnell, J. R., Sharma, S., Husain, L., Dutkiewicz, V. A., Eleftheriadis, K., Skov, H., and Hopke, P. 893 K.: Multidecadal trends in aerosol radiative forcing over the Arctic: Contribution of changes in 894 anthropogenic aerosol to Arctic warming since 1980, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 122, 3573-3594, https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JD025321, 2017. 895

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