



Dynamic and Thermal Analysis of Sandstorm Processes Based on Vertical Observation Data

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Abstract: The Taklamakan Desert (TD) is a key source of dust storms in East Asia, frequently impacting China and neighboring countries. Based on dual-gradient observational experiments in the central and peripheral regions of the TD, combined with ERA5 data and HYSPLIT analysis, eight dust storms from April to June 2024 were studied. The findings include: (1) Dust storm trajectories in the TD fall into three types: (a) east-to-west movement, (b) transport across the Tianshan and Pamir Mountains, and (c) west-to-east movement driven by thermal factors in summer. (2) Spring dust storms (March–April) are dominated by dynamic factors, while summer storms (May–June) are influenced by thermal factors. Significant pressure and temperature changes 12–6 hours before a storm provide a critical prediction window. (3) Horizontal dust flux (Q) at XiaoTang (peripheral region) follows a parabolic pattern, while at TaZhong (central region), terrain plays a key role. High Q values result in larger fluctuations, while low Q values show relative stability. Seasonal temperature differences, convective intensity, and flat terrain drive alternating wind speed trends at XiaoTang before storms, with stronger fluctuations observed in summer due to rising temperatures.

Keywords: Dust Storms, Backward Trajectory Analysis, Causation Analysis, Horizontal And Vertical Dust Flux Analysis

1 Introduction

Dust storms are one of East Asia's most severe natural disasters, occurring frequently in arid and semi-arid regions such as the Taklamakan Desert in China and the Gobi Desert bordering Mongolia. These events are widespread in spring, impacting millions (Bao & Fang, 2007; Shao & Dong, 2006). Dust storms are often accompanied by air pollution, strong winds, and significant reductions in visibility, severely affecting human life and production activities. These disasters disrupt agriculture, transportation, and infrastructure and pose threats to public health, particularly by significantly increasing the incidence of respiratory diseases (Achakulwisut et al., 2018; Manisalidis et al., 2020; Mohebbi et al., 2019; Tong et al., 2023; Wen et al., 2024). In addition, dust storms negatively impact ecosystems by causing soil degradation and water source



39 contamination, further exacerbating the ecological vulnerability of affected regions (Ma et al.,
40 2020; Perez et al., 2008).

41 Meanwhile, the frequent occurrence of dust storms may also intensify global climate change
42 and exacerbate challenges in cross-regional environmental governance(Prospero, 1999; Zong et al.,
43 2021). The Taklamakan Desert is in Asia's arid and semi-arid regions, characterized by scarce
44 precipitation, vast sandy terrain, and dry climatic conditions. Combined with the influence of
45 Mongolian cyclones, these factors make the region prone to frequent dust storms in spring,
46 establishing it as one of the primary dust sources in East Asia (Shao & Dong, 2006; Xu et al.,
47 2020).

48 The formation of dust storms is a complex physical process driven by interactions between
49 the atmosphere and surface soil, where dust source materials, dynamic conditions, and thermal
50 factors play critical roles in influencing their occurrence. The characteristics and quantity of dust
51 source materials determine the generation and intensity of dust. As the dynamic condition, wind is
52 the primary direct factor triggering dust storms, while thermal factors provide strong supportive
53 conditions for their occurrence(Iversen & White, 1982). The formation of dust storms is also
54 influenced by various factors related to surface dust source materials, including dust particle size,
55 soil moisture, and vegetation cover. When soil particle size exceeds 60–70 μm , the threshold for
56 dust emission increases gradually with particle size due to the gravitational influence of the
57 particles themselves. Conversely, when particle size is less than 60–70 μm , the increased cohesive
58 forces between particles significantly raise the dust emission threshold as particle size decreases
59 (Iversen & White, 1982; Marticorena & Bergametti, 1995).In addition, soil particle size affects
60 dust emission flux during dust storm events(Yang et al., 2016). Soil moisture is likewise a crucial
61 influencing factor. On one hand, higher moisture levels enhance the adhesive forces between
62 particles; conversely, they promote the aggregation of fine particles, thereby suppressing sand
63 mobilization and reducing dust fluxes(Iversen & White, 1982; Shao & Dong, 2006). The increase
64 in vegetation effectively suppresses the occurrence of dust storms or mitigates their intensity by
65 reducing the supply of sand sources and dissipating wind energy(MacKinnon et al., 2004;
66 Raupach, 1992).

67 In East Asia during spring, there is a significant positive correlation between strong winds
68 and the frequency of dust storms (Xu et al., 2020).In East Asia, Mongolian cyclones frequently
69 generate strong winds, which in turn lead to the formation of dust storms. These cyclones exhibit
70 pronounced seasonality (March to May) and are typically accompanied by weather conditions
71 such as strong winds, temperature drops, dust emissions, and significant reductions in
72 visibility.Their impact is not confined to Mongolia and northern China but can extend across the
73 entire East Asian region. Through upper-atmosphere circulation, these effects may even spread to
74 more distant areas, such as Korea, Japan, and the western Pacific coast(Liu et al., 2004; X. Wang
75 et al., 2009)

76 Horizontal and vertical dust fluxes jointly determine the spatial extent of dust dispersion,
77 which is critical in shaping global dust transport pathways. High vertical dust fluxes can transport
78 dust to more distant regions, thereby influencing atmospheric chemical composition, climate
79 systems, and ecological environments. Accurately understanding dust flux is crucial for improving
80 dust storm forecasting, particularly within climate models, as it aids in better predicting the
81 impacts of dust on air quality and ecosystems(S. Chen et al., 2023b). Recent studies have focused
82 on this field, revealing several significant findings. Research by (Kai & Huiwang, 2007) identified



83 three primary transport pathways for East Asian dust storms:1) Passing through China and
84 depositing in the Bohai Sea, Korea Strait, Sea of Japan, and Yellow Sea;2) Extending westward
85 into Central Asia;3) Reaching as far as the western Pacific under the influence of strong
86 northwesterly winds. Additionally, many researchers have utilized the WRF-Chem model to
87 analyze dust emissions from different regions, thereby improving the numerical prediction of dust
88 storms, particularly in terms of transport and deposition calculations(DeMeester & Johnson, 1975;
89 Hosseini Dehshiri & Firoozabadi, 2024; Rizza et al., 2017; Y. Zeng et al., 2020). For the
90 Taklamakan Desert, observational data from (Aili et al., 2023)indicate a significant decreasing
91 trend in deposition rates across different underlying surfaces in the northeastern desert-oasis
92 transitional zone. The order is as follows: mobile sand desert > semi-mobile sand desert > desert
93 vegetation > shelterbelt forest > farmland. This demonstrates the effectiveness of increased
94 vegetation in suppressing dust storms. Improved WRF-Chem simulation results by (Y. Chen et al.,
95 2023) indicate that in the Taklamakan Desert, the formation of summer dust storms is primarily
96 influenced by thermal factors. In contrast, spring dust storms are dominated by dynamic
97 factors.(Huo et al., 2022), based on dual-gradient observational experiments in the central and
98 peripheral regions of the desert, found that in flat areas, horizontal dust flux (Q) and vertical dust
99 flux (F) exhibit a linear relationship and an exponential variation with height. However, no
100 significant changes were observed over undulating terrain.(H. Wang et al., 2015), through field
101 observations, measured the horizontal wind erosion flux and dust emissions during windblown
102 sand/dust processes across arid and semi-arid regions in northern China. Their findings revealed
103 that the Taklamakan Desert exhibits significantly stronger horizontal dust flux than other studied
104 regions, thus identifying it as a significant source of dust emissions.

105 In summary, due to observational methods' limitations, most studies rely on remote sensing
106 data to calculate horizontal and vertical dust fluxes (Q and F) or analyze observational data. Few
107 studies have successfully integrated both approaches. Research that integrates multiple data
108 sources to comprehensively analyze the variations in Q and F and the underlying driving factors is
109 relatively scarce and remains an area for further exploration. In this context, the present study
110 conducted dual-point gradient synchronous dust storm observational experiments in the
111 Taklamakan Desert, obtaining multiple key parameters and their differences under various
112 topographical conditions. It also incorporated reanalysis data and backward trajectory analysis.
113 This approach further enhanced the ability to analyze the dynamic characteristics of dust storms.
114 Remote sensing data strongly supports the spatial distribution and diffusion of dust storms on a
115 large scale. At the same time, backward trajectory analysis effectively traces dust storms' origins
116 and transport pathways. Combining multiple data sources, this approach overcomes the limitations
117 of single observational methods and offers a more comprehensive analytical perspective.

118 Through the comprehensive analysis of these data, the study provides an in-depth
119 understanding of how different topographical features in the Taklamakan Desert influence key
120 parameters of dust storms. It also offers strong technical support for investigating, monitoring, and
121 predicting dust storm formation. This deepens the understanding of dust storm characteristics and
122 their evolution and enhances the recognition of the Taklamakan Desert's influence on dust
123 emissions and transport in Asia and globally. This provides valuable reference points for future
124 related research and lays a solid scientific foundation for preventing and managing dust storms.

125 Section 2 of this paper describes the study area, the data used, and the methodology. Section
126 3 analyzes dust trajectories, the meteorological background of dust storms, and their dynamic and



thermal factors. It also examines the horizontal and vertical fluxes and temperature and wind speed variations across different desert topographies based on observational data. The discussion and conclusions are presented in Sections 4 and 5, respectively.

2 Study Area, Data, and Methodology

2.1 Study Area

The Taklamakan Desert (TD) is located within the Tarim Basin in the southwestern part of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region in China. It is the second-largest shifting sand desert in the world. Surrounded by mountain ranges such as the Tianshan and Kunlun Mountains, the region experiences a highly arid climate. Key characteristics of the desert include its remoteness from the ocean, sparse vegetation, diverse dune types with high mobility, extensive and thick shifting sand areas, and fine sand particles. This region is subject to frequent dust storms year-round and is one of the significant sources of dust storms in East Asia (Sun & Liu, 2006).

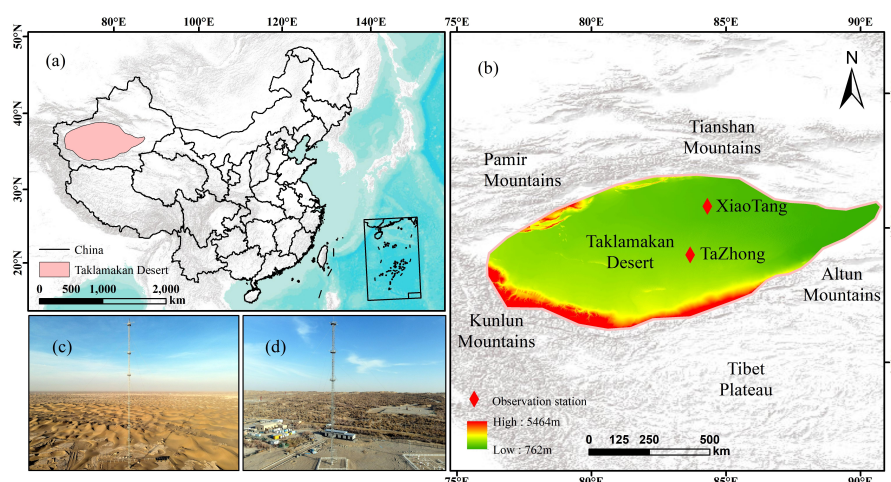


Fig. 1 Location and topography of the Taklamakan Desert, and the TZ and XT observation towers (maps and site photos)

2.2 Observational Data

The observational data were obtained from two stations: X Station, located on the northern edge of the Taklamakan Desert, representing flat terrain, and TZ Station, situated in the desert interior, representing undulating terrain. TZ Station is at an elevation of 80 meters, while X Station is at 100 meters. Both stations are equipped with gradient observation systems and collection systems. The gradient layers at TZ Station are at 1 m, 2 m, 5 m, 8 m, 16 m, 24 m, 32 m, 47 m, 63 m, and 80 m. At XT Station, they are at 1 m, 2 m, 5 m, 10 m, 24 m, 32 m, 47 m, 63 m, 80 m, and 100 m.

The gradient observation system records climate parameters at each layer, including hourly and minute-based measurements of temperature, humidity, wind speed, wind direction, and atmospheric pressure. The gradient collection system gathers dust samples during dust storms using BSNE (Big Spring Number Eight) dust collectors installed at each layer, which are used to determine the horizontal dust flux at different heights.



Nine dust storm events were observed between April 3 and July 10, 2024 (as detailed in Table 1). However, during the second observation, data from the TZ Station were missing, preventing a complete record. Therefore, the remaining eight observations became the primary samples for this study.

Tab. 1 Sample details

	Station Name	Start time of dust storm	Duration time(h)	Sample collection time
1	TZ	2024.3.31	22	2024.4.3
	XT	2024.3.31	17.3	2024.4.4
2	XT	2024.4.5	5	2024.4.6
3	TZ	2024.4.12	24	2024.4.16
	XT	2024.4.12	7.5	2024.4.15
4	TZ	2024.4.17	36	2024.4.20
	XT	2024.4.17	23	2024.4.21
5	TZ	2024.4.26	17.5	2024.5.12
	XT	2024.4.26	42.5	2024.5.12
6	TZ	2024.5.12	24	2024.5.16
	XT	2024.5.12	55	2024.5.17
7	TZ	2024.5.20	40	2024.6.3
	XT	2024.5.20	27.5	2024.5.30
8	TZ	2024.6.4	12	2024.6.10
	XT	2024.6.4	7	2024.6.10
9	TZ	2024.6.18	58	2024.7.9
	XT	2024.6.18	22	2024.7.10

2.3 Remote Sensing Data

To further investigate the causes of dust storms, the study analyzed relevant meteorological conditions using the ERA5 reanalysis dataset. ERA5, provided by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), is the fifth generation of global climate and weather reanalysis data. It has a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ and a temporal resolution of 1 hour.

The ERA5 reanalysis dataset has demonstrated high accuracy in East Asia and desert regions. (Y. Wang et al., 2023) compared observational meteorological parameters from the Gurbantünggüt Desert with ERA5, MERRA2, JRA-55, and NCEP-FNL data and found that ERA5 had the most minor error. To assess their reliability and accuracy, (Y. Wang et al., 2023) compared reanalysis data from NCEP/NCAR, NCEP/DOE, NCEP/CFSR, JRA-25, ERA-Interim, and MERRA (with observational data). The results showed that the mean values of geopotential height and temperature from these reanalysis datasets were generally consistent with the observational data. However, regarding specific humidity, the performance of NCEP/NCAR, NCEP/DOE, and NCEP/CFSR was inferior to that of the JRA-25, ERA-Interim, and MERRA products.

2.4 HYSPLIT model

The study used the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model to analyze the transport pathways of each dust storm event. This model utilizes grid data from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) dataset to compute backward trajectories (Stein et al., 2015). The method assumes that the trajectory of a particle moving within the wind



field is the integral of the particle's changes over time and space, with its vector velocity determined by linear interpolation in both space and time. The final position of the air mass is calculated using the following equation:

$$P_1(t + \Delta t) = P(t) + V(P, t)\Delta t$$
$$P(t + \Delta t) = P(t) + 0.5[V(P, t) + V(P_1, t + \Delta t)]\Delta t$$

In this equation, P represents the initial position, P_1 is the first guessed position, Δt is the time interval, and V is the velocity of the air mass or particle. The simulation can be conducted online at the following link: https://www.ready.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT_traj.php.

2.5 The calculation of horizontal dust flux (Q) and vertical dust flux (F)

There are two primary methods for obtaining Q : the first is direct measurement in the field using various dust collection instruments; the second involves wind tunnel simulation experiments, where empirical equations are established between Q and wind speed u or friction velocity u^* , and Q is then inferred based on observed u or u^* values. In this experiment, direct measurement was employed. Professional personnel were hired to check the BSNE dust collectors daily to ensure they were clean and dust-free. After each dust storm, dust samples were collected and weighed on-site.

Both domestic and international dust mobilization experiments commonly use the two-layer dust concentration gradient method to calculate F (Gillette & Passi, 1988; X. Zeng & Dickinson, 1998; Zhang et al., 2017). The formula is as follows:

$$F = ku_* \frac{(c_1 - c_2)}{\ln(z_2/z_1)}$$

In the formula, F represents the vertical dust flux ($\text{kg}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$); z_1 and z_2 are the measurement heights (m); u^* is the friction velocity (cm/s); c_1 and c_2 are the dust concentrations at the two heights (kg/m^3); and k is a constant (0.4). The dust concentration c can be obtained by converting the dust transport data measured by the dust collectors:

$$c = \frac{M}{utA}$$

In the formula, c represents the dust concentration at the measurement height ($\text{kg}/\text{m}^3/\text{s}$); M is the dust mass collected by the BSNE dust collector at the measurement height (kg); u is the average wind speed during the sampling period at the measurement height (m/s); t is the sampling time (s); and A is the inlet area of the BSNE dust collector (m^2).

The formula for calculating friction velocity is as follows:

$$u(z) = \frac{u_*}{k} \ln \frac{z}{z_0}$$

In the formula, u represents the wind speed at the observation height (cm/s); u^* is the friction velocity (cm/s); z is the observation height (cm); z_0 is the surface roughness length (cm); and k is a constant (0.4).

3 Results and Analysis

3.1 Dust Storm Trajectory Analysis

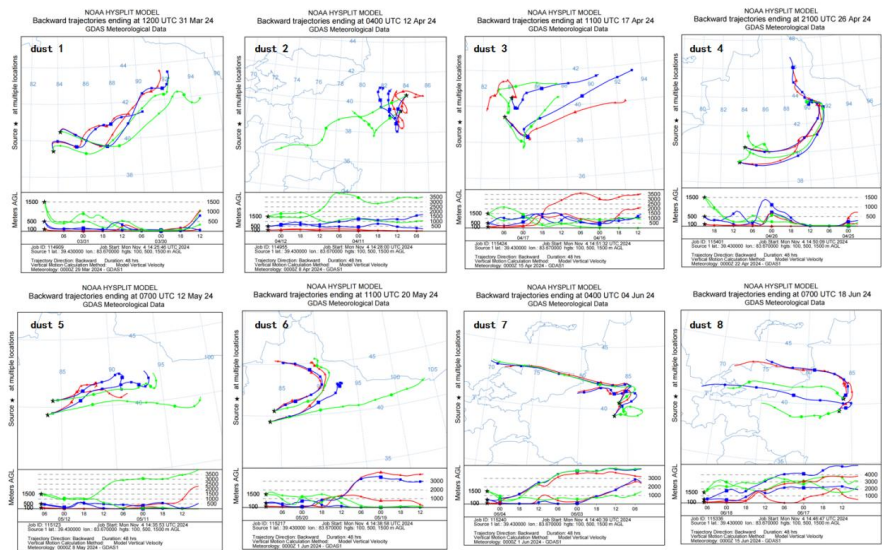


Fig. 2 Schematic diagram of the backward trajectory of these dust storms

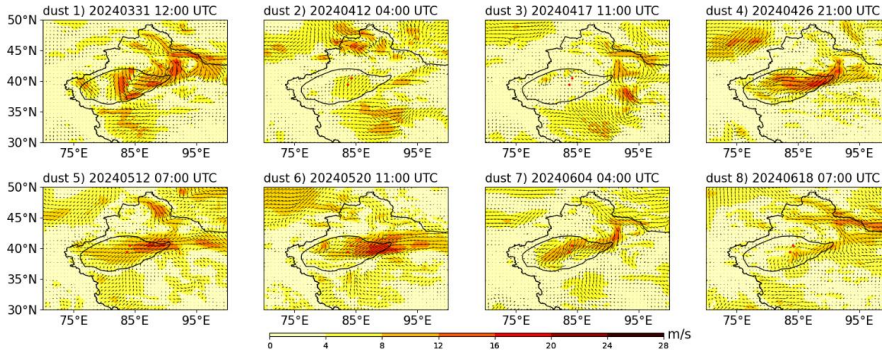


Fig. 3 10m wind vector plume field diagram

As shown in Figure 2, the eight dust storm events are labeled Dust1 through Dust8, and backward trajectory simulations were conducted using the HYSPLIT model. The results show that the dust trajectories can be classified into three types: Dust1, Dust3, Dust4, Dust5, and Dust6 move from east to west, passing through a gap in the northeastern Tarim Basin before entering the desert; Dust2 originates from the Indian subcontinent, crossing the Tibetan Plateau to enter the desert; Dust7 and Dust8 are from airflow originating in southern Russia and eastern Uzbekistan, and after long-distance transport, they cross the Tianshan Mountains before reaching the desert.

The TD covers the surface with loose materials such as gravel, and strong winds carry large dust particles. The anomalous variation in wind speed is closely related to the occurrence of dust storms. Therefore, wind speed anomaly trajectories can reflect the transport paths of dust storms. Using the 10m wind components u and v from ERA5's "single-level hourly data since 1940," wind field maps were generated (Fig. 3). The figure shows that for Dust1, Dust4, Dust5, Dust6, Dust7, and Dust8, strong winds primarily enter the desert through a gap on the eastern side of the Tarim Basin, with Dust1, Dust4, Dust5, and Dust6 experiencing powerful winds. Some strong winds in



Dust1, Dust3, Dust4, Dust6, Dust7, and Dust8 exhibit a north-to-south trend, crossing the Tianshan Mountains. In contrast, the strong winds, Dust2, blow from south to north from Tibet towards southern Xinjiang, consistent with the results from the backward trajectory model.

In summary, the backward trajectory analysis conducted using the HYSPLIT model based on the observation station coordinates effectively reveals the dust source trajectories passing through the stations before the occurrence of dust storms. However, it cannot fully reflect the direction of wind and its sources across the desert region. In contrast, ERA5 reanalysis data reveal the anomalous wind speeds corresponding to the HYSPLIT model and provide wind speed information for the Tarim Basin region, offering more comprehensive data for dust trajectory analysis. Based on the combined analysis of both datasets, the conclusion can be drawn that the dust storm trajectories in the TD are complex, with no single directional input, but rather a composite result of multiple directions. Most dust trajectories move from east to west, entering the desert through a gap on the eastern side of the Tarim Basin. The subsequent most common trajectories involve dust moving from north to south over the Tianshan Mountains. In contrast, fewer trajectories are observed moving from south to north across the Tibetan Plateau and over the Kunlun Mountains.

3.2 Dust Storm Dynamic and Thermal Meteorological Background

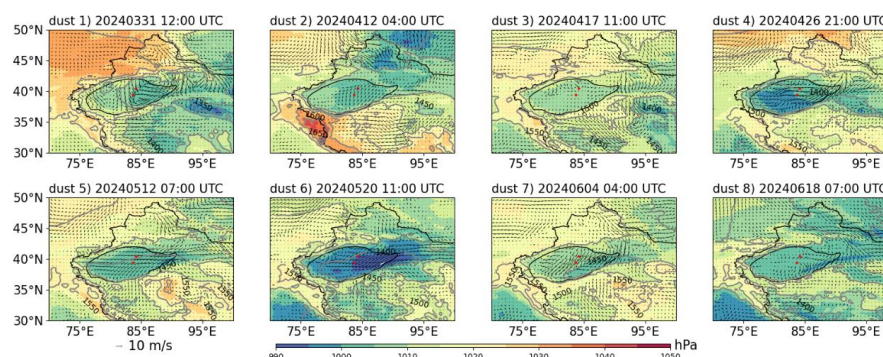


Fig.4 Mean sea level pressure, 10m wind vector, 850hPa altitude field

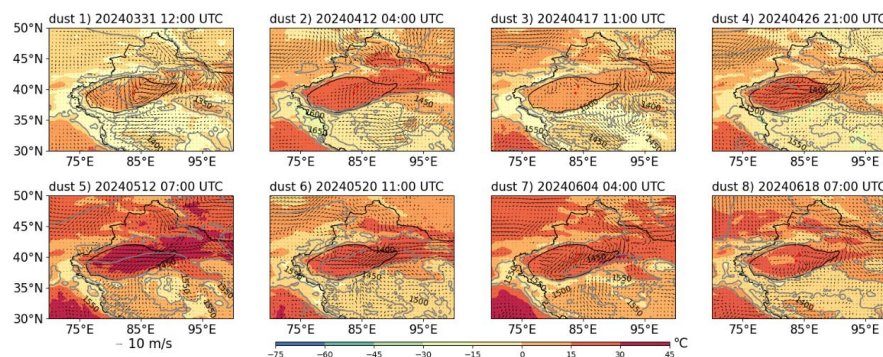


Fig.5 2m temperature, 10m wind vector, 850hPa altitude field

Figure 4 shows the average sea-level pressure (hPa), 850 hPa geopotential height (m), and 10 m horizontal wind ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) for the periods leading up to Dust1-8. In all eight events, the north, west, and southwest regions of the Taklamakan Desert (TD) exhibited higher-than-average sea-level



pressure and geopotential height than the TD area. In the cases of Dust1, Dust3, Dust4, Dust5, and Dust6, there was a significant pressure difference between eastern Kazakhstan, southern Russia, northern Xinjiang, and the Taklamakan Desert (TD) region. This pressure gradient caused most airflow trajectories to enter the TD through the gap in the eastern Tianshan Mountains. However, some airflows crossed the western and central Tianshan Mountains before reaching the desert. For Dust2, the average sea-level pressure in the southwestern region, near the northern border of Pakistan and northern India, was 1050 hPa, with a geopotential height of 1065 m. In contrast, the pressure in the Tarim Basin region was between 1000 and 1010 hPa, with a geopotential height of 1450 m. This climatic background led to strong upper-level winds crossing the Pamir and Kunlun Mountains, ultimately entering the Taklamakan Desert (TD). In the cases of Dust7 and Dust8, the pressure gradient in the TD region was not as significant as in the surrounding areas, and it was not easy to indicate the direction of the strong winds. Additionally, all three dust storms occurred around noon local time during the summer. It is hypothesized that the temperature difference between the land and the atmosphere caused warm air to rise, prompting the surrounding air to flow toward the TD, generating strong winds and triggering dust storms.

Fig.5 shows the 2m temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), 850 hPa geopotential height (m), and 10 m horizontal wind ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) during the 8 dust storm events. Dust1-8 shows that the surface temperature in the Taklamakan Desert (TD) consistently exhibits high and evenly distributed temperatures. However, for Dust5, Dust7, and Dust8, the temperature in the TD region is notably higher than in other events. This increase in temperature can be attributed to the onset of May, which led to higher surface temperatures. Additionally, these three events occurred around noon, when solar radiation is strongest. The desert surface's higher specific heat capacity than the air resulted in a temperature difference between the surface and the atmosphere, creating an unstable atmospheric condition. This instability led to atmospheric convection, which generated strong winds and triggered dust storms.

In summary, the pressure gradient before dust storms in March and April is significantly greater than in May and June, while the surface temperature shows a marked increase from April to May. Therefore, dust storms occurring from March to June were categorized into two periods for analysis: spring (March and April) and summer (May and June).

3.3 Analysis of Dynamic and Thermodynamic Factors

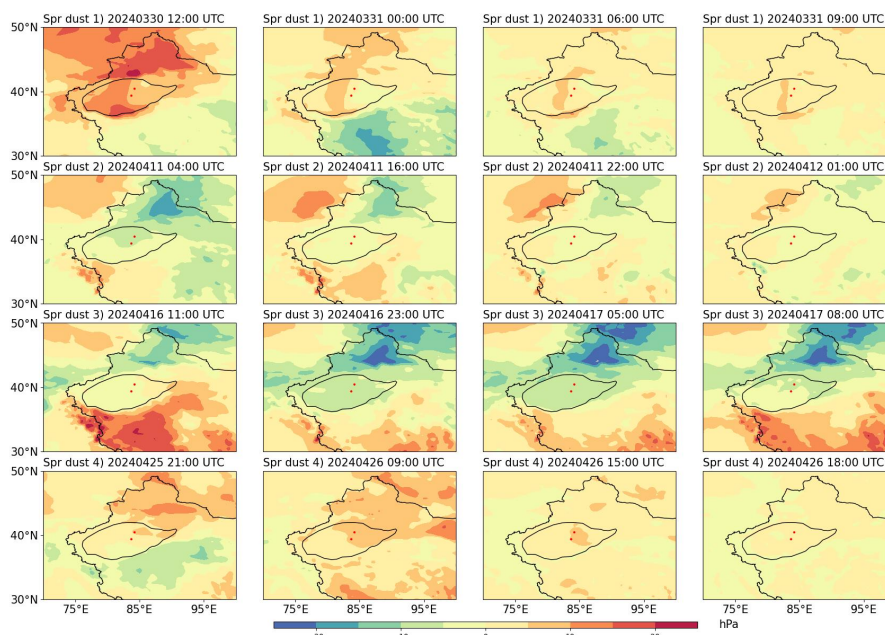


Fig.6 Spring sandstorm $\Delta 24h, \Delta 12h, \Delta 6h, \Delta 3h$ pressure difference

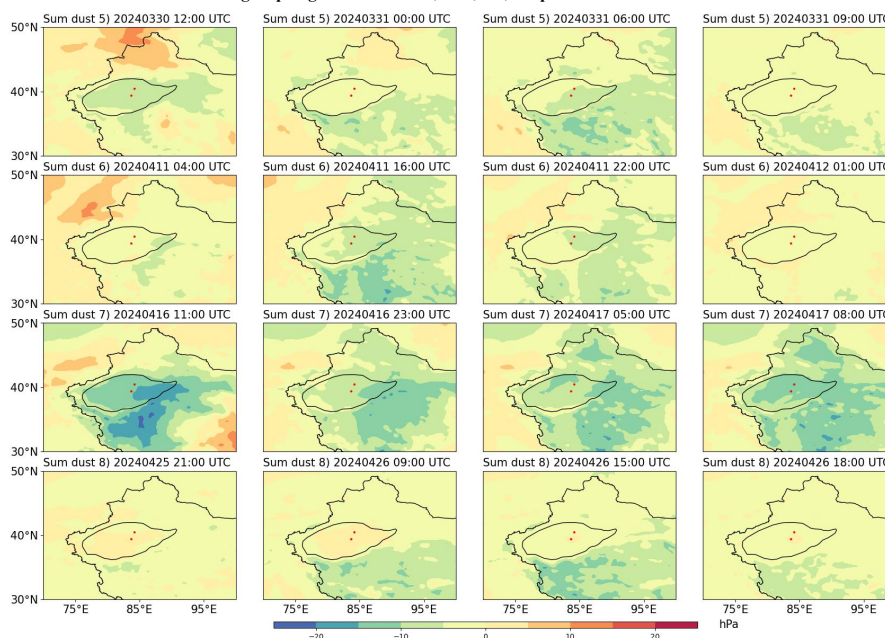


Fig.7 Summer sandstorm $\Delta P_{24h}, \Delta P_{12h}, \Delta P_{6h}, \Delta P_{3h}$ pressure difference

Fig.6 and Fig.7 show the changes in average sea-level pressure over the 3, 6, 12, and 24 hours preceding the dust storms in the spring and summer periods, respectively. The calculation method involves subtracting the sea-level pressure at the specified times (3, 6, 12, and 24 hours before the dust storm) from the average sea-level pressure at the time of the dust storm. In the



290 figures, higher values indicate a greater increase in pressure, while lower values reflect a larger
291 decrease in pressure.

292 In ΔP_{24h} , during Dust1-7, the average sea-level pressure in the northern part of the
293 Taklamakan Desert (TD) was lower than at the time of the dust storm. Additionally, for Dust2 and
294 Dust3, the southwestern region also showed a lower pressure than that at the time of the storm.
295 However, in ΔP_{12h} , during Dust1-4, the pressure in the northern and southwestern parts of the
296 Taklamakan Desert (TD) gradually increased but remained lower than the pressure at the time of
297 the dust storm. In contrast, for Dust5-8, the pressure approached that at the time of the storm, and
298 there were no significant changes in the subsequent ΔP_{6h} and ΔP_{3h} periods. For Dust1-4, there
299 was little change in pressure from ΔP_{6h} to ΔP_{3h} , but it still differed significantly from the
300 pressure at the time of the dust storm, especially for Dust3.

301 In summary, there is a clear difference in the pressure changes before dust storms in the
302 spring and summer in the Taklamakan Desert (TD). In the spring, the pressure changes in the
303 northern or southern parts of TD are significantly larger in ΔP_{24h} compared to the summer, with a
304 gradual increase in pressure in these areas leading up to the storm, forming a noticeable pressure
305 gradient. This is consistent with the pressure difference observed during the dust storm. In the
306 summer, the pressure at TD already approaches that at the time of the storm by ΔP_{12h} , with little
307 change afterward. Therefore, it can be inferred that pressure changes play a more direct and
308 important role in the formation and development of dust storms in spring, while in summer, other
309 factors may have a greater influence on dust storm occurrence.

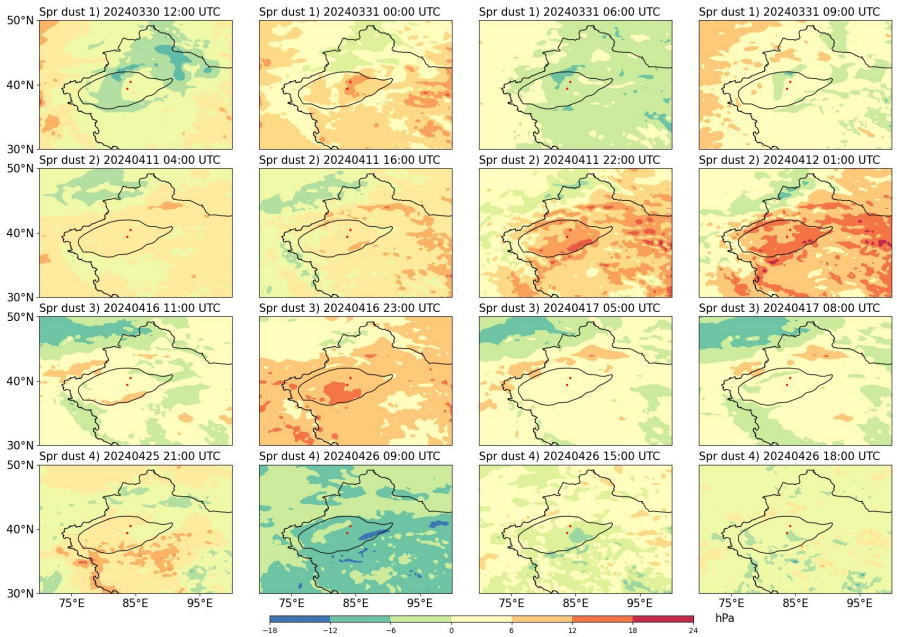
310 **Tab. 2 Variance and range ΔP_{24h} , ΔP_{12h} , ΔP_{6h} , ΔP_{3h} before the dust storm**

	Variance of ΔP_{24h}	Range of variation	Variance of ΔP_{12h}	Range of variation	Variance of ΔP_{6h}	Range of variation	Variance of ΔP_{3h}	Range of variation
dust1	49.91	(-10.66, 24.99)	35.37	(-17.82, 9.58)	11.55	(-11.37, 10.59)	3.76	(-5.75, 8.31)
dust2	34.9	(-19.23, 17.15)	28.06	(-14.77, 19.90)	16.01	(-14.64, 16.75)	7.27	(-15.91, 9.53)
dust3	71.14	(-17.23, 28.38)	59.21	(-25.17, 22.88)	67.81	(-25.47, 17.85)	83.14	(-24.15, 23.38)
dust4	26.18	(-14.89, 14.47)	12.95	(-6.59, 15.37)	4.24	(-4.99, 9.05)	1.24	(-2.84, 6.86)
dust5	19.22	(-10.14, 12.81)	10.29	(-12.25, 6.52)	11.73	(-16.05, 6.41)	3.36	(-8.55, 3.61)
dust6	11.47	(-8.78, 10.89)	19.8	(-16.58, 7.53)	8.25	(-11.44, 6.05)	2.66	(-6.79, 5.68)
dust7	45.82	(-21.66, 14.83)	21.26	(-16.02, 6.48)	21.45	(-17.80, 6.35)	23.27	(-19.91, 5.88)
dust8	2.82	(-7.51, 4.75)	10.48	(-13.80, 4.47)	11.32	(-17.07, 1.61)	3.26	(-9.90, 2.63)

311 Table 2 presents the variance and range of ΔP_{24h} , ΔP_{12h} , ΔP_{6h} , and ΔP_{3h} for the dust
312 storms. Since the pressure difference effectively characterizes pressure changes, its variance
313 reflects the intensity of pressure fluctuations. The analysis reveals that the range and variance in
314 the spring (Dust1-4) are generally larger than in the summer (Dust5-8), indicating that pressure
315 changes before dust storms in the spring are more intense. Notably, the pressure difference

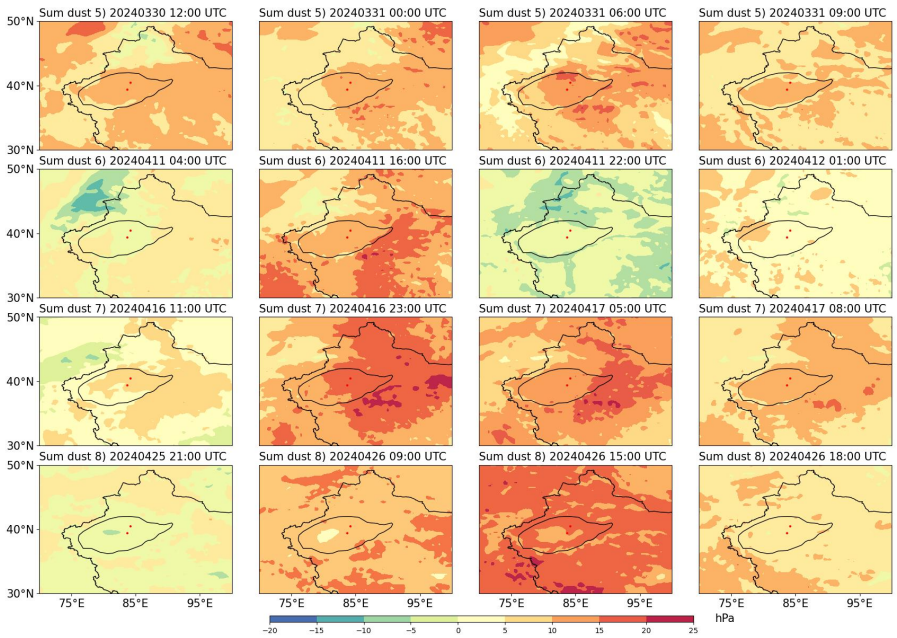


316 between ΔP_{12h} and ΔP_{6h} for Dust1-4 shows significant variation, suggesting that the 12-hour to
317 6-hour period is when pressure fluctuations are most pronounced. Therefore, ΔP_{12h} and ΔP_{6h}
318 could represent key windows for spring dust storm prediction. Closely monitoring pressure
319 fluctuations during this phase can help predict the occurrence of dust storms in advance.



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Fig.8 Spring sandstorm $\Delta 3, \Delta 6, \Delta 12, \Delta 24$ temperature difference



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Fig.9 Summer sandstorm $\Delta 3$, $\Delta 6$, $\Delta 12$, $\Delta 24$ temperature difference

In desert regions or inland plateaus, the surface temperature increases dramatically, causing the near-surface air to expand and rise, leading to the formation of upward air currents. Upward air currents can trigger convection in specific areas or create strong winds that stir up surface dust, leading to dust storms. Figures 8 and 9 show the temperature changes 3, 6, 12, and 24 hours before the dust storms in spring and summer. Similar to the calculation of the average sea-level pressure, the larger the value, the lower the current temperature compared to the time of the dust storm, indicating more intense upward movement.

Both in spring and summer, the temperature changes in the Taklamakan Desert (TD) and surrounding areas are influenced by multiple factors, such as time of day and climate conditions, making the temperature variation complex. In spring, there is no clear trend in temperature changes, whereas in summer, most of the time is characterized by warming, particularly in the final three hours. In spring, only Dust2 shows a warming trend, whereas in summer, all processes exhibit a warming trend. Therefore, it can be inferred that temperature changes have a more significant impact on summer dust storms.

Tab. 3 Variance and range 24h, 12h, 6h, and 3h before the dust storm

		Variance of ΔP_{24h}	Range of variation	Variance of ΔP_{12h}	Range of variation	Variance of ΔP_{6h}	Range of variation	Variance of ΔP_{3h}
dust1	14.75	(-14.72, 11.67)	16.53	(-7.04, 20.38)	8.23	(-11.52, 6.52)	3.7	(-9.70, 2.56)
dust2	10.23	(-11.71, 8.58)	16.8	(-12.25, 14.16)	14.79	(-7.21, 17.02)	11.9	(-7.03, 15.44)
dust3	21.84	(-21.57, 4.40)	18.35	(-12.53, 16.39)	22.47	(-21.32, 8.41)	25.81	(-23.38, 8.48)
dust4	11.57	(-12.32, 11.02)	11.68	(-20.77, 0.23)	5.12	(-14.30, 3.57)	1.44	(-11.28, 5.12)
dust5	12.75	(-14.40, 8.30)	21.95	(-3.87, 22.52)	13.07	(-0.63, 20.23)	1.74	(-2.08, 8.17)
dust6	11	(-13.92, 6.40)	16.46	(-5.59, 20.28)	4.76	(-7.99, 7.40)	1.8	(-7.30, 4.06)
dust7	19.82	(-11.55, 16.01)	29.84	(-10.43, 22.44)	22.69	(-4.06, 27.81)	21.14	(-3.78, 25.95)
dust8	3.71	(-9.98, 6.68)	5.36	(-3.26, 14.72)	5.32	(-2.25, 15.46)	1.99	(-4.24, 8.42)

Table 3 shows the variance and range of temperature differences (ΔT) 24h, 12h, 6h, and 3h before the dust storm. Similar to the variance in pressure differences, the variance rapidly decreases between ΔT_{12h} and ΔT_{6h} , indicating a swift transition from a stable temperature state to an unstable state right before the dust storm occurs. This suggests that the ΔT_{12h} - ΔT_{6h} period is crucial for predicting summer dust storms.

3.4 Dust Flux Analysis

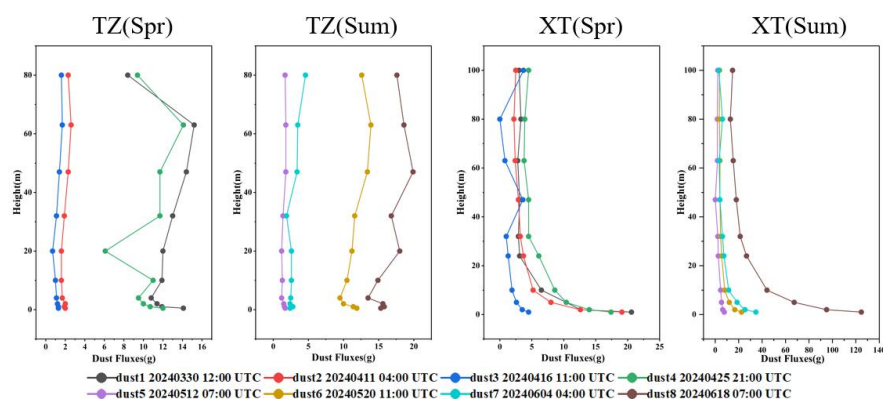


Fig.10 Schematic Diagram of Horizontal Dust Flux during Sandstorms (Left: TZ, Right: XT)

Fig.10 shows the horizontal dust flux (Q) at TZ and XT during spring and summer. The Q at TZ is mainly concentrated between 2g and 10-14g. When Q is low, the dust flux changes smoothly with height, showing no significant fluctuations. However, as Q increases, a noticeable upward trend appears between 47-63 cm, followed by a gradual decline, with a rapid increase in Q below 2m. According to Huo W (2022), the terrain at TZ is more undulating than XT and is influenced by natural dunes. As a result, the dust flux in this area shows an abnormal increase, highlighting the significant impact of topography on dust flux, especially in regions with strong winds or frequent dust activity. In such areas, topography plays a crucial role in dust transport.

The dust flux (Q) at XT exhibits a pattern similar to that of a parabolic function during spring and summer, gradually increasing as the height decreases. Q remains relatively stable between 100 and 24 meters, with slight fluctuation. However, once the height drops below 24 meters, the Q value rises significantly, especially in the near-surface layer (0 to 2 meters), where dust flux rapidly increases as the height decreases. This is due to the gravitational effect on dust particles, which tend to accumulate near the surface and are more easily lifted by the wind at lower altitudes.

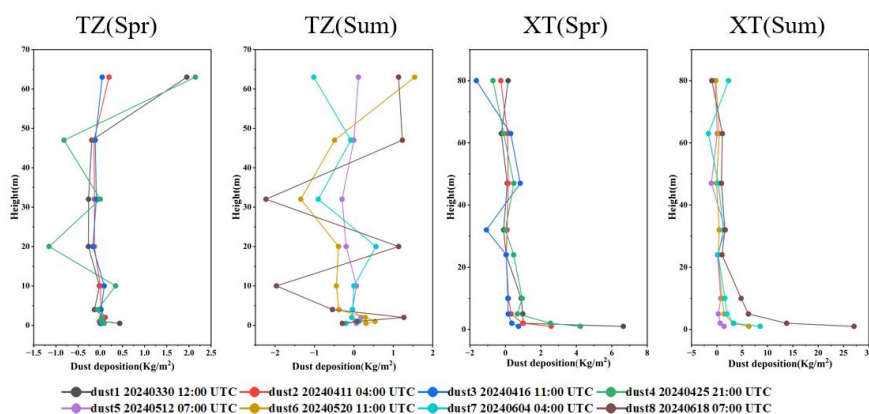


Fig.11 Schematic Diagram of Vertical Dust Flux during Sandstorms (Left: TZ, Right: XT)

Fig.11 illustrates the vertical dust flux (F) at TZ and XT during spring and summer. In



summer at TZ, the F values fluctuate more significantly. For example, in Dust 8, the F values oscillate between -2 and 1.5 kg/m², showing clear fluctuations. In contrast, the spring F values are more stable, with relatively minor changes; for Dust 1-3, the F values are mainly close to 0, indicating minimal vertical dust movement in the spring at TZ. On the other hand, during the summer, rapid surface temperature rise generates updrafts, causing more pronounced fluctuations in the F values. This suggests that temperature changes strongly influence dust storms at TZ in the summer.

The F curve at XT shows a similar trend to that of Q, exhibiting a pattern resembling a "bell-shaped curve," which suggests that the wind more easily lifts dust as height decreases. Additionally, the F values at XT show a similar trend in spring and summer, without the pronounced influence of temperature rise in TZ. This could be because TZ's more variable topography makes it more susceptible to temperature-induced updrafts. In contrast, XT's relatively flatter terrain may not experience such significant temperature effects, thus leading to more stable vertical dust flux behavior.

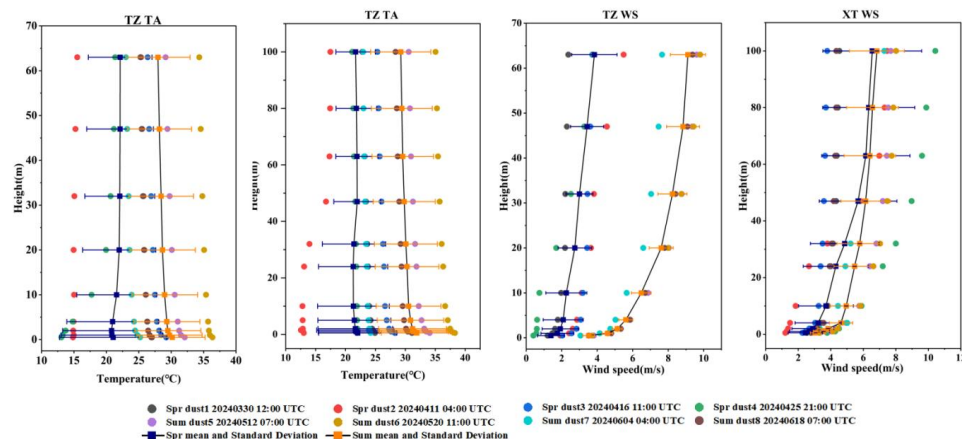


Fig.12 Schematic Diagram of Wind Speed and Temperature during Sandstorms (Left: TZ, Right: XT)

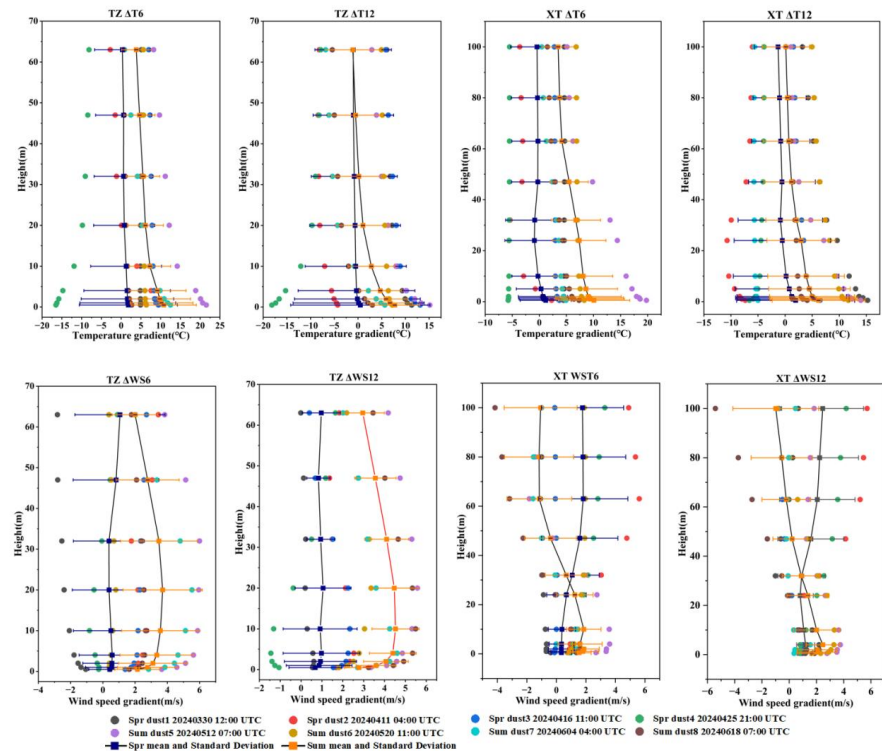
Fig.12 shows the temperature and wind speed variations during sandstorm events at the TZ and XT stations. The figure shows that the average temperature during summer sandstorms is 5-10°C higher than the normal summer temperature. Additionally, during summer sandstorms, the temperature at the lower levels of the stations is significantly higher than at higher levels. In contrast, lower temperatures are lower or comparable to those at higher levels during spring sandstorms.

At both TZ and XT, wind speed decreases with height. Comparing the wind speed variations between spring and summer, the amplitude of the wind speed change in spring is smaller than in summer. This phenomenon is likely related to the higher surface temperatures in summer, which increase the temperature difference between the surface and the atmosphere, making wind speed changes near the surface more intense. At TZ, the wind speed during summer sandstorms at higher levels is significantly higher than in spring, while the wind speed at lower levels is similar to that of spring. This is likely because spring sandstorms are dominated by horizontal winds, which are influenced by the undulating dunes, resulting in lower wind speeds at higher levels. In contrast, summer sandstorms are dominated by vertical winds and are less influenced by the terrain, thus



398 showing a larger wind speed difference at higher levels. The terrain near the XT station is
399 relatively flat, so the differences in wind speed variations between spring and summer are minor.

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Fig.13 Schematic Diagram of Wind Speed and Temperature Changes ($\Delta 6$, $\Delta 12$) during Sandstorms (Left: TZ, Right: XT)

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4 Discussion

4.1 Dust Trajectory Analysis

This study analyzes eight dust storm events in TD from March to June. Through trajectory analysis, it was found that the paths of dust storms entering the desert interior exhibit significant



diversity, but can be summarized into three main types.

The first type is the "East-Inflow" path, where most dust storms move from northeast to southwest. This path's formation is likely closely related to the topography surrounding TD: the northern and western parts of the desert are surrounded by high mountain ranges, while the eastern area has lower terrain, including the low-lying Lop Nur region. When a strong high-pressure system occurs in the northern regions, strong winds enter the desert through the lower terrain gaps, thus forming the East-Inflow path. The second type is the "Mountain-Crossing" path, where some strong winds enter the desert by crossing the western Tianshan Mountains or the Pamir Plateau. However, winds along this path are typically concentrated in the upper atmospheric layers, and their intensity is limited. The topographical barrier effect weakens the surface wind speed, with more of the driving force concentrated in the middle and upper levels of the atmosphere. The third type is the "Westward" path, primarily occurring during the two dust storms after June, with the trajectories moving from west to east. This path is likely related to the climatic characteristics of Central Asia. As summer arrives, the surface heating in the inland areas of Central Asia becomes more pronounced, leading to higher surface air temperatures around the desert. This temperature contrast affects the direction of air flow. When the dust storm approaches the desert, the larger surface-to-atmosphere temperature difference may cause a change in the direction of the airflow.

4.2 Discussion of Dynamic and Thermal Factors

This study further reveals the impact of dynamic and thermal mechanisms on dust storm processes. Analysis of the ERA5 data shows that from March to April, the TD region and its surroundings exhibit stronger pressure gradients, which favor the formation of strong winds. Additionally, within 24 hours before the dust storm event, spring sees significantly more dramatic pressure changes, aligning with the dynamic-dominated mechanism during this period. From May to June, the temperature at the desert surface rises significantly, increasing the temperature difference between the surface and the atmosphere. Furthermore, 24 hours before the dust storm, surface temperatures tend to increase in summer; in spring, temperatures either decrease or remain constant. This indicates that thermal factors dominate the formation of dust storms during the summer months.

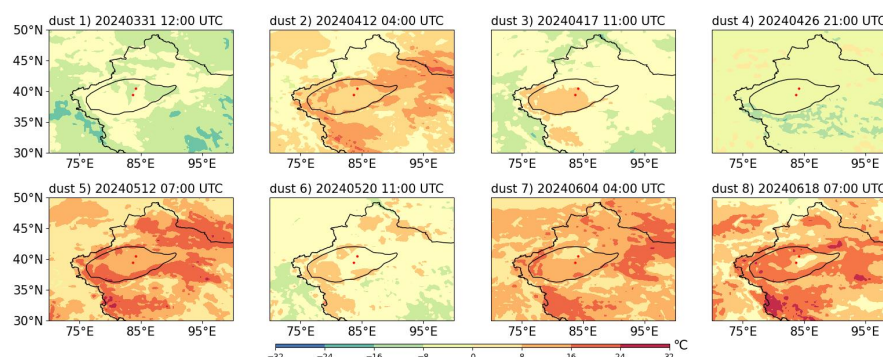


Fig.14 Temperature Difference in Dust Storms (Dust1-8)

To better explore the impact of temperature on dust storms, Figure 14 shows the surface-atmosphere temperature difference for Dust1-8. It can be observed that, except for Dust6, which occurred in the afternoon, the surface-atmosphere temperature difference in summer around TD and its surrounding areas is significantly higher than in spring. Additionally, from the



periphery to the interior of TD, the temperature difference gradually decreases, indicating a transition from an unstable to a stable atmosphere, which suggests that dust is moving from the periphery of TD toward the desert interior.

Analysis of observational data reveals that in summer, both TZ and XT experience higher temperatures than in spring, with the temperature rise before dust storms being significantly greater in summer. Moreover, as height decreases, the temperature change becomes more intense. In contrast, the temperature difference in spring remains roughly around 0°C with height changes. This suggests that in the TD region, the overall temperature is higher in summer. However, the temperature increase is also significantly larger than in spring, especially in the lower altitude areas. Therefore, it can be inferred that spring temperature has a relatively minor impact on dust storms, while temperature in summer has a significantly larger effect.

For XT, the wind speed difference between spring and summer shows two distinctly different patterns. In summer, the wind speed at higher levels decreases, while at lower levels, it increases. In spring, the wind speed at higher levels increases, while the wind speed at lower levels remains constant or slightly increases. This could be due to the higher surface temperatures in summer, which increase the temperature difference and lead to intense convection, promoting updrafts and intensifying low-level wind speeds. At higher levels, the wind speed slightly decreases due to air sinking and a more stable atmosphere. In spring, with lower surface temperatures and smaller temperature differences, convection is weakened, and high-level wind speeds increase due to enhanced vertical stability. In contrast, low-level wind speeds remain relatively unchanged.

A comprehensive analysis from point to area was conducted by combining reanalysis data and observational data, further proving the seasonal differences in dust storm formation in the TD region. In spring, the primary driving force of dust storms is the pressure gradient, where the significant horizontal pressure difference leads to strong wind processes, triggering dust storms. In contrast, dust storms are mainly influenced by the difference in surface-atmosphere temperature in summer. The significant temperature contrast between the surface and the atmosphere creates intense instability, promoting enhanced convective activity and thereby intensifying the occurrence of dust storms. This multi-angle verification, from localized observations to regional reanalysis, further clarifies the dominant roles of dynamic and thermal factors in different seasons.

4.3 Key parameters are influenced by the terrain.

At the XT station (representing flat terrain), the dust flux (Q) exhibits a clear power-law function characteristic. In contrast, at the TZ station (representing undulating terrain), the dust flux (Q) shows a phased variation pattern. When Q values are high, an initial upward trend is followed by a decline, and then another increase. This variation may be attributed to secondary dust sources from the surrounding dunes, particularly influencing the mid-layer observational data, which causes an increase in dust flux within a specific altitude range. F exhibits a pattern similar to that of Q, but with more significant terrain differences. At the XT station, F remains relatively stable, whereas at the TZ station, F stabilizes around 0 kg/m² in spring. However, the variation increases in summer, oscillating between -2 and 1.5 kg/m². This phenomenon is likely due to the dominant influence of summer temperatures on vertical air currents.

5 Conclusion



The study is based on a dual-gradient observational experiment conducted in the central and peripheral regions of the Taklamakan Desert (TD), with eight observational samples obtained from April to June. Combined with ERA5 reanalysis data and the HYSPLIT backward trajectory model, the following conclusions were drawn:

The dust storm trajectories in the Taklamakan Desert (TD) can be classified into three types: first, dust storms travel from east to west, passing through the gaps in the Tianshan Mountains; second, they traverse the western Tianshan and the Pamir Plateau; and finally, after the onset of summer in June, the dust storm trajectories are dominated by thermal factors, initially moving from west to east, and then shifting from the northeast to the southwest into the desert.

Dynamic factors primarily drive dust storms in the TD in March and April, where strong winds caused by pressure gradients lead to dust storms. In May and June, thermal factors dominate, with temperature differences between the surface and the atmosphere triggering convection that results in dust storms. Additionally, the period 12 to 6 hours before the dust storm is characterized by significant changes in atmospheric pressure and temperature, which can be used as a key time window for predicting the occurrence of dust storms.

At the XT station, representing flat terrain, Q and F rapidly increase near the surface, following a power-law function pattern. At the TZ station, representing undulating terrain, Q shows a similar power-law function-like curve when values are high. However, fluctuations in mid-level Q are caused by secondary dust sources from dunes. On the other hand, F is influenced by both terrain and thermal factors, with minor fluctuations in spring and larger fluctuations in summer. During summer, both stations experience significantly higher temperatures and more pronounced temperature changes compared to spring, highlighting the more decisive influence of summer temperatures on dust storms. Additionally, the variability in wind speed at the XT station during summer indicates that wind speed changes are primarily influenced by seasonal temperature differences, convective intensity, and the flat terrain of the area.

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Author Contributions

Y.W. : Conceptualization , Writing – original draft , Formal Analysis.

WH.:Methodology, Supervision, Writing - review. & editing.

YL.:Validation.

M.M : Investigation, Data Curation.

F.Y: Experimental Design, Supervision.

C.Z..X.Y.A.M.: Investigation , Data Curation.



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544 **Data availability**

545 The meteorological observational data used in this study are maintained and owned by the
546 Institute of Desert Meteorology, China Meteorological Administration, located in Urumqi,
547 Xinjiang, China, and are subject to institutional regulations and access restrictions. ERA5
548 reanalysis datasets were obtained from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
549 (ECMWF) through the Copernicus Climate Data Store (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu>).
550 Researchers or interested parties who wish to obtain access to the observational datasets may
551 submit a formal request to the Institute of Desert Meteorology, outlining the purpose and scope of
552 their intended use. Approval of such requests will be at the discretion of the institute, in
553 accordance with its data-sharing policies.

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555 **Competing Interests**

556 The authors declare no competing interests.

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