



Non-monotonic response of dust deposition kinetics to low wind speeds

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1 **Abstract**

2 Dry deposition is a major sink for mineral dust, yet its behavior under weak winds remains
3 poorly constrained and is often parameterized monotonically with wind speed. Here we quantify
4 size-resolved dust deposition kinetics in a large closed-circuit recirculating wind tunnel using a two-
5 stage protocol (brief high-wind loading followed by low-wind deposition at 0, 2, 4, and 6 m s⁻¹).
6 Cumulative deposition time series were measured with an array of collection trays, with the initial
7 suspended dust loading recorded by an online concentration monitor. Particle sizes were
8 characterized by laser diffraction and grouped into six diameter-threshold classes (PM_{2.5}–PM_{6.3}). A
9 first-order kinetic model captured the deposition evolution and yielded an asymptotic cumulative
10 deposition (a), rate coefficient (k), characteristic time scale ($\tau = 1/k$), and initial deposition flux
11 ($J_0 = ak$). Across the tested wind speeds, net deposition for fine-to-medium particles (PM_{2.5}–PM_{4.0})
12 is highest at 2 m s⁻¹ and becomes suppressed at higher speeds, with the strongest evidence for a
13 peaked response in the 30 μm class. Quadratic fits across the four wind-speed levels suggest a
14 potential maximum near 2–3 m s⁻¹. These measurements provide process-based constraints on low-
15 wind dust deposition and highlight a potential intermediate-wind window that can inform and
16 evaluate dry-deposition parameterizations.

17 Key words: dry deposition; low wind speed; wind tunnel; size-resolved kinetics

18

19 **1. Introduction**

20 Mineral dust plays a pivotal role in the climate system, terrestrial ecosystems, and human health.
21 It perturbs the atmospheric radiation balance and influences cloud–precipitation processes by
22 scattering and absorbing radiation and acting as cloud condensation nuclei (Kok et al., 2023).
23 Concurrently, it serves as a vital source of long-range nutrient fluxes to both terrestrial and marine
24 ecosystems (Jickells et al., 2005; Mahowald et al., 2010). The atmospheric lifetime and spatial
25 distribution of dust are predominantly governed by dry and wet deposition processes (Tegen & Fung,
26 2004; Wu et al., 2020). Under large-scale circulation, strong wind episodes produce brief bursts of
27 high dust emission, injecting large amounts of mineral particles into the lower atmosphere over short
28 time scales (Shao, 2008; Kok et al., 2014). As storms subside and near-surface winds transition to a
29 more typical low-speed background state, elevated dust concentrations can persist, making dry
30 deposition the dominant process controlling the final transport distance and atmospheric residence
31 time of particles (Wu et al., 2020; Kok et al., 2021; Mostamandi et al., 2023). Consequently,
32 accurately quantifying deposition efficiency during this post-storm, low-wind phase is crucial for
33 linking source-region emissions to downwind climatic and ecological impacts (Mahowald et al.,
34 2010; Kok et al., 2023).

35 Over recent decades, most models have simulated dry deposition using a framework that
36 conceptualizes the process as “gravitational settling plus two resistances in series”, in which an
37 aerodynamic resistance and a canopy/surface resistance describe stepwise transfer of particles from
38 the free atmosphere to the underlying surface, allowing for the computation of size-dependent
39 deposition velocities (Slinn, 1982; Wesely et al., 1989; Gallagher et al., 2002; Petroff & Zhang,
40 2010). Within this framework, particles in the 1–10 μm range are typically considered the least
41 efficiently deposited, associated with the longest transport distances and identified as a critically
42 sensitive size fraction in climate models (Petroff & Zhang, 2010; Zhang & Shao, 2014; Kok et al.,
43 2023). However, a growing body of size-resolved flux observations and model intercomparisons



44 reveals that predicted deposition rates for 0.1–10 μm particles can vary by more than an order of
45 magnitude across dry deposition schemes (Zhang & He, 2014; Bergametti et al., 2018; Emerson et
46 al., 2020), with discrepancies exceeding 200 % even under idealized, homogeneous conditions
47 (Goossens, 2006). These substantial uncertainties propagate directly into estimates of global dust
48 budgets and radiative forcing (Emerson et al., 2020; Kok et al., 2023). Recent systematic evaluations
49 of numerical weather prediction and chemical transport models further demonstrate that differences
50 in dry deposition parameterizations alone can induce systematic biases in simulated dust loads and
51 surface concentrations, even when using identical wind fields and emission sources (Saylor et al.,
52 2019; Zeng et al., 2020; Kong et al., 2025).

53 Model uncertainties are especially acute under low-wind, weakly turbulent conditions. Both
54 field measurements via eddy-covariance systems and controlled wind-tunnel experiments indicate
55 that for typical background winds (about 2–6 m s^{-1}), dry deposition fluxes do not exhibit a
56 straightforward, monotonic relationship with wind speed. Instead, fluxes appear more sensitive to
57 near-surface turbulence intensity and the particle size distribution (Bergametti et al., 2018; Waza et
58 al., 2019). Furthermore, different samplers and models frequently yield divergent deposition rates
59 at identical wind speeds, and existing schemes often fail to accurately replicate measured deposition
60 fluxes for coarse particles (Petroff & Zhang, 2010; Bergametti et al., 2018; Waza et al., 2019). This
61 evidence challenges the conventional simplification of dry deposition as a process that increases
62 monotonically with wind speed under weak turbulence. It underscores a lack of process-based
63 understanding of the size-selective near-surface transport and deposition of dust under such
64 conditions (Zhang & He, 2014; Emerson et al., 2020).

65 In contrast to the extensive research on emission and saltation mechanisms during strong winds,
66 the subsequent deposition phase following dust storms has received comparatively less attention.
67 Conventional models often assume that surface dust fluxes decay rapidly to zero once wind speeds
68 fall below the resuspension threshold. This assumption overlooks the potential for complex
69 interactions among aggregation, resuspension, and gravitational settling in weakly turbulent flows
70 (Shao, 2008; Kok et al., 2012). From an aeolian physics perspective, however, a low-wind
71 environment does not signify dynamical quiescence. The post-dust-storm period, characterized by
72 background winds modulated by large-scale circulation and boundary-layer friction, is a common
73 atmospheric state. During this phase, the near-surface turbulent structure remains a key controller
74 of momentum and scalar vertical exchange. Surface properties, such as roughness, soil moisture,
75 and vegetation structure, collectively set the thresholds for dust emission, rebound, and resuspension
76 (Fécan et al., 1999; Shao, 2008; Kok et al., 2012). As wind speed increases from calm conditions,
77 turbulent fluctuations play a dual role: they help maintain particle suspension, delaying settling,
78 while simultaneously enhancing near-surface transport and particle–surface contacts, which can
79 promote both deposition and rebound. At higher wind speeds exceeding the resuspension threshold,
80 saltation and splash processes begin to dominate surface fluxes, potentially inhibit settling or even
81 reversing net deposition (Shao et al., 1993; Shao, 2008; Kok et al., 2012; Zhang & Shao, 2014).
82 This mechanistic reasoning suggests the potential existence of a “low-wind window”, a specific
83 wind speed range where net deposition efficiency reaches a local maximum, outperforming both
84 calm and stronger wind conditions. Current dry deposition parameterizations, however, do not
85 explicitly capture such a non-monotonic response (Petroff & Zhang, 2010; Zhang & He, 2014).

86 Insights from two-phase flow and hydrodynamics provide further mechanistic support. In
87 suspensions with weak to moderate shear and relatively high particle concentrations, inter-particle



88 collisions and adhesion can induce aggregation, effectively altering the settling size spectrum
89 (Maggi, 2007; Mietta et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2022; Penlou et al., 2023).
90 Experiments and numerical simulations consistently show that for fine-particle systems, moderate
91 turbulent shear can significantly enhance bulk settling rates, whereas stronger shear suppresses
92 settling through aggregate breakup and flow dilution (Penlou et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2022). The mean
93 size of particle clusters often exhibits a non-monotonic dependence on shear intensity, peaking at
94 an intermediate level. Recent detailed simulations of cohesive sediment confirm that, within certain
95 parameter ranges, intermediate turbulence intensities can produce the largest flocs, directly
96 illustrating the competition between shear-enhanced aggregation and turbulence-induced breakup
97 (Maggi, 2007; Mietta et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2023). These findings imply that in the post-storm
98 atmosphere, where near-surface dust concentrations remain high and wind speeds are in low-to-
99 moderate, turbulence may assume a dual function: it maintains particle suspension and enhances
100 horizontal transport, while also facilitating dust–dust collisions and aggregation. This interplay
101 could lead to a peaked, nonlinear relationship between net deposition flux and wind speed (Penlou
102 et al., 2023).

103 To address this critical knowledge gap, we formulated the hypothesis that dust deposition
104 kinetics under low-wind conditions exhibit a pronounced, size-resolved non-monotonic dependence
105 on wind speed, governed by the competition between two opposing turbulent mechanisms-enhanced
106 particle aggregation and deposition at moderate shear versus suppressed net deposition from
107 incipient resuspension at higher shear. To test this hypothesis, we conducted a series of controlled
108 experiments in a closed-circuit wind tunnel, quantified size-resolved deposition fluxes and the
109 evolution of particle size distributions (PSDs) from an agricultural soil dust under calm air and
110 precisely regulated low-wind speeds (0, 2, 4, and 6 m s⁻¹). An exponential mass-accumulation model
111 was employed to extract key kinetics parameters (e.g. characteristic time constants and deposition
112 rate), which were then systematically correlated with wind speed, particle size, and shifts in PSDs.
113 Our specific objectives were: (1) to determine if an optimal low-wind speed exists for the net
114 deposition of fine and medium particles (e.g., PM_{2.5} – PM₃₀), (2) to identify whether this optimum
115 coincides with observable shifts in PSDs indicative of shear-enhanced aggregation, and (3) to
116 quantify the suppression of fine-particle deposition at higher low-end winds, potentially due to
117 enhanced rebound/resuspension or horizontal export. The findings aim to provide constraints for
118 improving the next generation of dry deposition parameterizations in dust budget and climate
119 models.

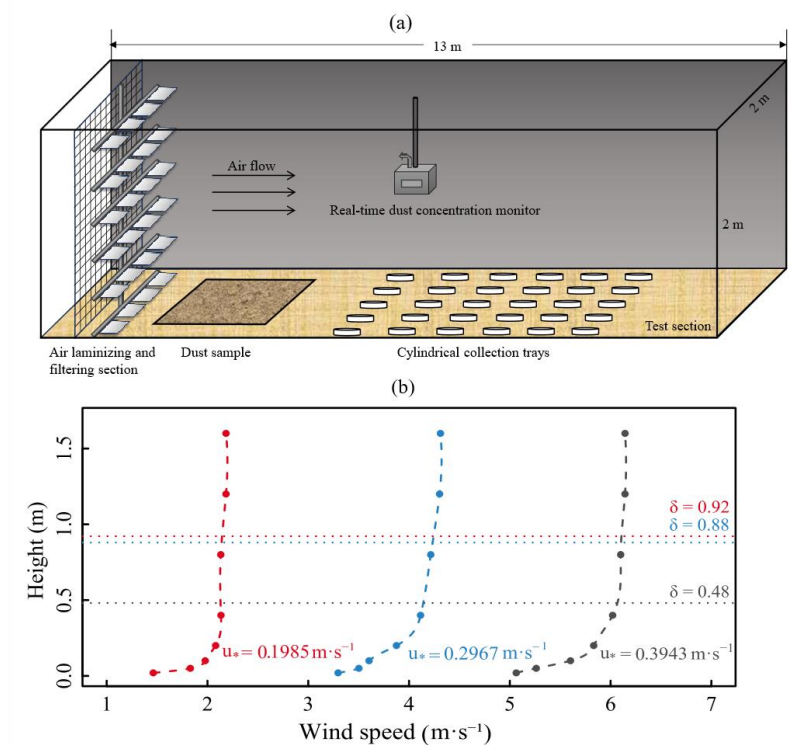
120 2. Materials and Methods

121 2.1 Wind-tunnel facility and dust preparation

122 Experiments were conducted in a vertical recirculating wind tunnel at the Desert and Forest
123 Research Station of the Chinese Academy of Forestry in Dengkou, Inner Mongolia, China (Fig. 1a).
124 This closed-loop facility, modified from a conventional open-circuit design, enables continuous
125 circulation of air and suspended dust, thereby facilitating long-duration observations of dust
126 deposition. The test section measures 13 m in length, with a cross section of 2 m (width) × 2 m
127 (height). Flow is driven by four axial fans positioned downstream of the test section, allowing for
128 continuous adjustment of the mean wind speed from 0 to 20 m·s⁻¹. Upstream of the test section,
129 the flow is conditioned by passing through a diffuser, turning vanes, and a settling chamber equipped
130 with honeycombs and screens, collectively ensuring a uniform approach flow with low turbulence



131 intensity and minimal swirl (Xin et al., 2024). The dust used was sourced from the upper 0–5 cm of
 132 local cropland soil, which was air-dried and dry-sieved to obtain particles smaller than 63 μm .



133
 134 **Figure 1.** Experimental setup and wind profiles in the closed-circuit wind tunnel.
 135 (a) Schematic layout of the vertical recirculating wind tunnel and sampling section.
 136 (b) Vertical wind-speed profiles measured along the centerline of the test section under nominal
 137 approach flows of 2, 4, and 6 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.

138 2.2 Experimental Procedure

139 The experimental protocol comprised two sequential stages. (i) Strong-wind loading phase: the
 140 wind speed was initially set to 14 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ for 5 min to erode the soil source, release dust, and achieve
 141 a well-mixed, approximately uniform suspension within the tunnel. (ii) Low-wind deposition phase:
 142 the wind speed was then reduced to a target value of 2, 4 or 6 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. Subsequently, 25 cylindrical
 143 collection trays (radius: 10 cm, height: 3 cm) were placed on the tunnel floor within the test section.
 144 For each wind speed, deposition was sampled at five time intervals (30, 60, 90, 120 and 180 min),
 145 with five replicate trays assigned to each interval. Trays were removed at their designated times to
 146 obtain the cumulative deposition sample for specific wind-speed–time combination. Additional
 147 experiments under quiescent conditions (0 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) were performed in the same test section with fans
 148 deactivated, following the same sampling timetable. A real-time dust concentration monitor (Fig.
 149 1a; TD2000A-CT, Zhonggong Tiandi Technology (Beijing) Co., Ltd., Beijing, China) was operated
 150 continuously during both the loading and deposition phases to track the bulk suspended dust mass
 151 concentration in the test section. The instrument has a measurement range of 0–10 000 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
 152 (RS485 output; DC 24 V). During the 14 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ loading phase, the monitor was used as a quality-
 153 control indicator of mixing and to ensure that experiments started from comparable initial suspended



154 dust loadings. Immediately after the wind speed was stepped down to the target low-wind value, the
155 monitor reading was recorded as the initial airborne concentration (C_0) for that run, which was used
156 to calibrate the initial-condition comparability across wind-speed treatments and to support
157 subsequent interpretation of the fitted kinetic parameters (Sect. 2.5). For consistency throughout this
158 study, we define particles of 1–10 μm as “fine”, 10–20 μm as “medium-sized”, and 20–63 μm as
159 “coarse”.

160 2.3 Flow characterization

161 Vertical wind speed profiles were measured along the tunnel centreline at $z = 0.02, 0.05, 0.10,$
162 $0.20, 0.40, 0.80, 1.20,$ and 1.60 m above the floor for nominal approach speeds of 2, 4, and 6 m s^{-1}
163 (Fig. 1b). Friction velocity u_* and aerodynamic roughness length z_0 were obtained by fitting the
164 measured profiles to the logarithmic law of the wall,

$$165 \quad U(z) = \frac{u_*}{\kappa} \ln\left(\frac{z-d}{z_0}\right),$$

166 with $\kappa = 0.4$. The displacement height d was set to zero for the nominally planar floor, and the
167 fit was restricted to the well-defined surface-layer portion of each profile (excluding the lowest 1–
168 2 measurement points where near-wall effects and probe interference may occur, and excluding
169 points above the boundary-layer thickness). The resulting fits yielded $z_0 \approx 1 \times 10^{-4}$ m, comparable to
170 values reported for bare sand. The boundary-layer thickness (δ) was estimated using the 99 % of
171 freestream velocity (U_∞) criterion, giving $\delta \approx 0.92, 0.88,$ and 0.48 m at 2, 4, and 6 m s^{-1} , respectively
172 (corresponding to δ/z_0 ratios of order 4.8×10^3 – 9.2×10^3). The top edge of the collection trays was
173 positioned at $z = 0.03$ m, placing the sampling surface within the surface layer (within 6.3% of δ).
174 No inflection point or abrupt velocity change was detected within 0–5 cm above the trays, indicating
175 minimal flow perturbation by the samplers. While the total tunnel height is 2 m (so that the boundary
176 layer does not fill the entire depth and the upper region is partly influenced by recirculation), the
177 roughness and shear structure within the relevant near-surface layer are reasonably analogous to
178 those of the natural atmospheric surface layer.

179 2.4 Sample analysis

180 The mass of deposited dust in each tray was determined using an analytical balance with a
181 resolution of 0.0001 g. Particle-size distributions (PSDs) of the deposited dust were analyzed using
182 a laser diffraction particle-size analyser (Eye Tech, Netherlands). To ensure accuracy and
183 repeatability, the instrument was calibrated before each run using certified reference microspheres
184 (20 μm and 100 nm), requiring agreement between measured and nominal diameters to be within
185 ± 1 %. Ultrapure water blanks were analyzed to confirm background noise levels were below 0.5 %.
186 A standard suspension was analysed every 4 h during the measurement; if key parameters like the
187 median diameter (D_{50}) deviated by more than ± 2 %, the instrument was recalibrated. All
188 measurements were performed at a circulation speed of 2000 rpm in a temperature-controlled
189 laboratory (23 ± 1 °C). Each tray sample was measured in triplicate, and the average value was used
190 for subsequent analysis.

191 2.5 Data processing and kinetic modeling

192 For each wind speed U and time t combination, the total deposited mass per tray was measured
193 and the particle-size distribution (PSD) was recorded. Six size classes (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, PM₂₀, PM₃₀,
194 PM₄₀, and PM₆₃) are defined by laser-diffraction volume-equivalent diameter thresholds ($D_v < 2.5,$
195 10, 20, 30, 40, and 63 μm , respectively); this notation is used for convenience and does not represent



196 aerodynamic PM. The mass of each size class was then calculated as the product of the total
 197 deposited mass and its corresponding volume fraction, and converted to an areal cumulative
 198 deposition $M(t)$ (mg cm^{-2}) using the known tray area. For each (U, size) combination, five trays
 199 were processed; results are summarized by the mean across replicates. The standard error of the
 200 mean (SEM, $n = 5$) at each time point was used as the measurement uncertainty for model fitting.

201 The temporal evolution of cumulative deposition was represented by a first-order approach to
 202 an asymptote,

$$203 \quad M(t) = a(1 - e^{-kt}),$$

204 where a (mg cm^{-2}) is the theoretical maximum deposition representing the system's saturated
 205 deposition capacity as $t \rightarrow \infty$. k (h^{-1}) is the deposition-rate coefficient, where larger values indicate
 206 a faster approach to saturation. The characteristic deposition time scale was defined as $\tau = 1/k$ (h),
 207 corresponding to the time required to reach approximately 63 % a . The initial deposition flux is
 208 defined as the initial slope of $M(t)$,

$$209 \quad J_0 = \left. \frac{dM}{dt} \right|_{t=0} = ak \text{ (mg} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}\text{)}.$$

210 For connection to deposition-velocity formulations used in atmospheric models, dry deposition may
 211 be expressed as a downward surface flux $J = V_d C$, where C is the near-surface airborne mass
 212 concentration and V_d is the deposition velocity. Under a bulk, vertically well-mixed layer of effective
 213 height H_{eff} , $\frac{dC}{dt} = -\left(\frac{V_d}{H_{eff}}\right)C$, implies a first-order form consistent with the expression for $M(t)$. An
 214 equivalent deposition velocity was therefore defined by

$$215 \quad V_{d,eq} = kH_{eff},$$

216 noting that $V_{d,eq}$ scales linearly with the assumed H_{eff} . In the present facility, a plausible range for
 217 H_{eff} spans the measured near-surface boundary-layer thickness ($\delta \approx 0.48\text{--}0.92$ m) and the 2 m tunnel
 218 height.

219 Model parameters (a, k) were estimated separately for each wind-speed-size combination by
 220 weighted non-linear least squares (NLS), with weights $w_i = 1/SEM_i^2$ applied to the mean at time
 221 point t_i . Positive constraints ($a > 0, k > 0$) were enforced. Wald 95% confidence intervals for a and
 222 k were obtained from the NLS covariance matrix. Uncertainty in the derived metric $J_0 = a \cdot k$ was
 223 propagated by the delta method to yield 95% CIs (used in Fig. 3b).

224 To quantify wind-speed dependence for each size class, J_0 was related to U using linear ($J_0 \sim U$)
 225 and quadratic ($J_0 \sim U + U^2$) models; likelihood-ratio tests (LRTs) and ΔAIC were used to evaluate
 226 evidence for non-monotonicity. The wind-speed giving the maximum efficiency was summarized
 227 by the quadratic vertex $U_{opt} = -\beta_1/(2\beta_2)$, with bootstrap 95% CIs (10,000 resamples of the four
 228 (U, J_0) pairs).

229 Many dry-deposition parameterizations assume that, for a given size and surface type,
 230 deposition efficiency (or deposition velocity) increases monotonically with wind speed (or friction
 231 velocity), or at most saturates, a strictly non-decreasing reference curve $J_{0,mono}(U)$ was constructed
 232 for each size class by isotonic regression fitted to the four (U, J_0) points. Deviations from the monotonic
 233 benchmark were summarized by

$$234 \quad R(U) = \frac{J_0(U)}{J_{0,mono}(U)},$$

235 where $R > 1$ indicates underprediction by a strictly monotonic scheme and $R < 1$ indicates
 236 overprediction at that wind speed.

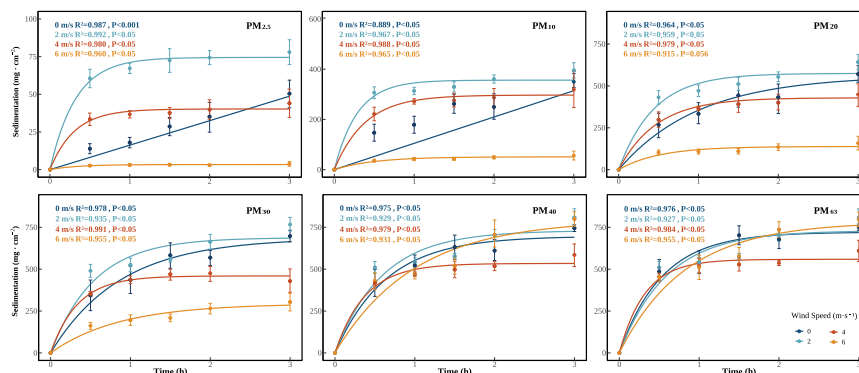


237 All analyses were performed in R (R Core Team, 2023) (base stats for NLS, boot for resampling,
238 ggplot2 for graphics).

239 3. Results

240 3.1 Exponential kinetics of cumulative dust deposition

241 The first-order exponential model provided an excellent description of the cumulative
242 deposition kinetics for all wind-speed–size combinations, with coefficients of determination (R^2)
243 exceeding 0.91 and approximately 80% of fits achieving $R^2 > 0.95$ (Fig. 2). This confirmed that a
244 single effective time scale adequately characterizes the temporal evolution of dust deposition under
245 experimental conditions.



246
247 **Figure 2.** Exponential fits of cumulative deposited mass for different particle-size classes under
248 varying wind speeds.
249 Each panel corresponds to one dust size class (PM_{2.5}–PM₆₃). Symbols represent the mean cumulative
250 deposited mass $M(t)$ (± 1 SEM, $n = 5$ trays) at four wind speeds (0, 2, 4 and 6 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). Solid curves
251 show non-linear least-squares fits of the first-order exponential model $M(t) = a \cdot (1 - e^{-kt})$. Legends
252 report the coefficient of determination (R^2) and P value for each fit.

253 Under quiescent conditions ($0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), fine particles (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀) settled slowly, as evidenced
254 by nearly linear cumulative curves, long characteristic times ($\tau \approx 4.2 \text{ h}$ for PM_{2.5}; 1.4 h for PM₁₀),
255 and small rate coefficients ($k = 0.24 \text{ h}^{-1}$ for PM_{2.5}; 0.71 h^{-1} for PM₁₀) (Table S1). In contrast, coarse
256 particles (PM₃₀–PM₆₃) approached saturation within about 1 h ($\tau < 1 \text{ h}$, $a \approx 600\text{--}750 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$),
257 exhibiting behavior dominated by gravitational settling.

258 Increasing wind speed from 0 to 2 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ markedly accelerated deposition across all size classes
259 (Tables S1–S2). τ for PM_{2.5} shortened from 4.2 h to 0.3 h (an order-of-magnitude faster approach to
260 saturation), while k increased from 0.24 to 3 h^{-1} . Similarly, for PM₁₀, τ decreased from 1.4 h to 0.3
261 h and k increased to $>3 \text{ h}^{-1}$. For medium and coarse particles, τ also decreased and k increased by
262 factors of roughly 2–4, whereas their asymptotic loads remained of the same order as under still
263 air (typically within $\sim 20\%$ of the $0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ values). In contrast, a for PM_{2.5} was reduced by roughly
264 one quarter. These changes indicate that a wind speed of 2 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ strongly enhances deposition
265 kinetics, particularly for fine particles, while maintaining substantial net deposition of medium and
266 coarse particles, representing a low-wind regime that effectively balances deposition rate and total
267 deposited mass.

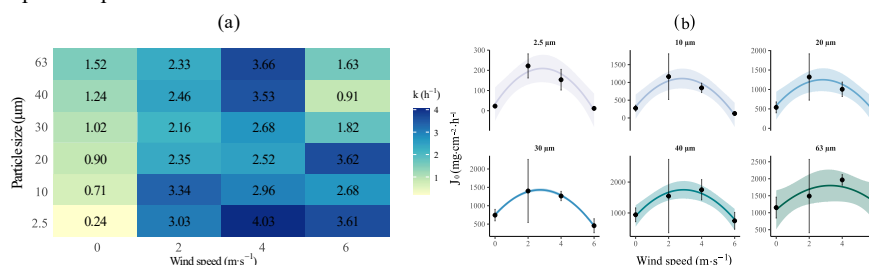
268 At 4 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, τ remained short for all size classes (often $< 0.5 \text{ h}$), and k stayed well above still-



269 air values, indicating sustained rapid approach to saturation (Table S1). However, the asymptotic
 270 deposition a for all sizes fell below their still-air values, decreasing by roughly 25–60%, especially
 271 for fine-to-medium particles. This suppression may reflect increasing competition from particle
 272 resuspension and horizontal export at higher shear; because resuspension was not directly measured,
 273 we treat this as a plausible interpretation rather than a confirmed mechanism.

274 At $6 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, the suppression of net deposition became most pronounced. For $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} , a
 275 was reduced by about one order of magnitude relative to still air, indicating near-complete inhibition
 276 of effective accumulation despite still-elevated rate coefficients. Deposition of PM_{20} and PM_{30} was
 277 also substantially suppressed. In contrast, a for the coarsest fractions (PM_{40} , PM_{63}) was similar to or
 278 slightly higher than under still air (within $\sim 10\%$), but their kinetics were less favorable than at $2\text{--}4$
 279 $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, with longer τ and lower k compared with the low-wind optimum. Collectively, these results
 280 show that high shear maintains large instantaneous settling rates yet strongly suppresses the effective
 281 accumulation of fine-to-medium particles, shifting net deposition toward a coarse-dominated regime.

282 Analysis of characteristic times (Table S1) further shows that for most wind-speed-size
 283 combinations, τ is less than 0.5 h, implying that the majority of total deposition occurs within the
 284 first 0.5 h. We therefore define 0–0.5 h as the rapid deposition phase and 0.5 – 3 h as the slow
 285 deposition phase.



286 **Figure 3.** Deposition kinetics and early-stage deposition as functions of wind speed and particle size.
 287 (a) Deposition-rate coefficient k (h^{-1}) for each wind-speed-size combination (cell values show k).
 288 (b) Initial deposition flux $J_0 = a \cdot k$ versus wind speed U . Points are estimates and error bars are 95%
 289 Wald confidence intervals propagated from the weighted NLS fit of $M(t) = a \cdot (1 - e^{-kt})$ with
 290 $M(0) = 0$, $n = 5$ trays per time point). The curve and shaded band show the quadratic fit $J_0 \sim U + U^2$
 291 and its 95% confidence band.
 292

293 Fig.3 compares deposition dynamics across the parameter space and during the initial stage.
 294 Fig.3(a) illustrates the distribution of the rate coefficient k . For fine-to-medium particles ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ –
 295 PM_{20}), k reached or approached its maximum at $2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. At $4\text{--}6 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, k for these sizes decreased
 296 slightly. In contrast, the largest k for the coarse fraction (PM_{40} – PM_{63}) occurred at $4 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. This
 297 pattern indicates that weak shear primarily accelerates the deposition of fine-to-medium particles,
 298 while moderately higher winds enhance the deposition rate mainly for coarser particles. Fig. 3b
 299 shows that J_0 is highest at $2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ among the tested wind speeds for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ – PM_{40} , and is strongly
 300 reduced at $6 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ for the fine size classes. Quadratic fits across the four wind-speed levels yield a
 301 model-implied peak wind speed (U_{opt}) around $\sim 2\text{--}3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ for several fine-to-medium size classes;
 302 bootstrap 95% confidence intervals typically span $\sim 2.3\text{--}3.3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (Table S2). The most pronounced
 303 peaked response is found for the $30 \mu\text{m}$ class, whereas PM_{63} shows weaker evidence for a peak
 304 (Table S2).

305 Synthesizing Fig.3(a) and Fig.3(b), a low-wind window centered near $2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (model-inferred
 306 optimum around $2\text{--}3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) simultaneously maximizes the deposition rate (panel a) and the early-
 307 stage efficiency (panel b) for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ – PM_{30} ; stronger winds progressively suppress early deposition



308 of these sizes and shift the net flux toward the coarse fraction.

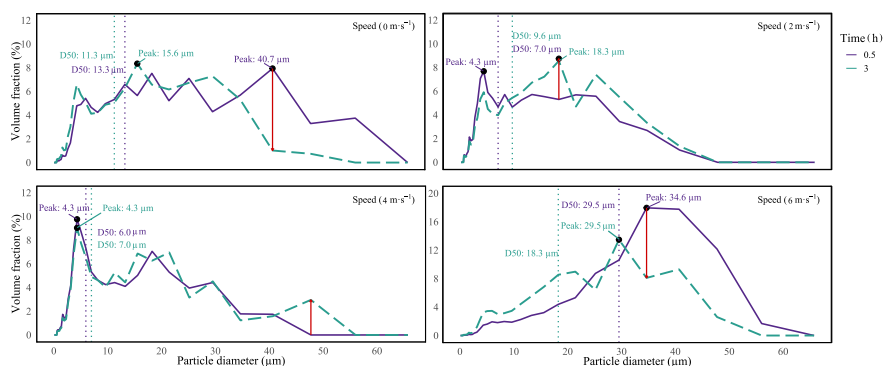
309 In summary, dust deposition exhibits a strongly size-selective response to wind speed:

310 Low wind ($2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, model-inferred optimum between $2\text{--}3 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$): maximizes the initial
311 deposition flux J_0 and early cumulative deposition for $\text{PM}_{2.5}\text{--PM}_{30}$.

312 Moderate wind ($4 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$): despite relatively high k , both S_0 and early cumulative mass for $\text{PM}_{2.5}\text{--}$
313 PM_{20} decline compared with $2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, consistent with enhanced resuspension; coarse particles $\text{PM}_{40}\text{--}$
314 PM_{63} approach their rate maximum.

315 High wind ($6 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$): markedly suppresses early deposition of $\text{PM}_{2.5}\text{--PM}_{20}$, and shifts net
316 deposition toward coarse particles, yielding a more coarse-dominated yet overall less efficient early
317 flux.

318 3.2 Size-selective evolution between rapid and slow deposition stages



319

320 **Figure 4.** Comparison of deposited particle size distributions (PSDs) between rapid (0–0.5 h) and slow
321 (0.5–3 h) deposition phases under different wind speeds. For each wind speed, the PSD for the two
322 phases are compared. The red vertical line (Δ_{max}) connects the size with the maximal volume fraction
323 difference. “Peak” indicates the modal diameter. Dashed lines mark the median diameter (D_{50}) for each
324 phase.

325 The particle-size distribution (PSD) of deposited dust evolved distinctly between the rapid (0–
326 0.5 h) and slow (0.5–3 h) deposition phases, reflecting wind-speed-dependent and size selection (Fig.
327 4).

328 Under quiescent conditions ($0 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), deposited particles at 0.5 h were concentrated around 40
329 μm ($D_{50} = 13.3 \mu\text{m}$, peak $\approx 40.7 \mu\text{m}$). By 3 h, particles $> 30 \mu\text{m}$ had largely settled, and the PSD
330 contracted into a unimodal distribution dominated by 10–20 μm particles ($D_{50} = 11.3 \mu\text{m}$, peak \approx
331 $15.6 \mu\text{m}$). This sequence confirms a gravity-dominated regime where coarse particles deposit first,
332 followed by medium-sized particles.

333 Under low wind ($2 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), the median diameter D_{50} increased from 7.0 μm (rapid phase) to 9.6
334 μm (slow phase), with a 37 % increase. This was accompanied by an increased volume fraction at
335 18 μm (from 6 % to 12 %), indicating a clearer enrichment of medium-sized particles compared to
336 still air. Weak shear thus enhances the deposition of fine particles initially and selectively enriches
337 medium-sized particles later.

338 Under moderate wind ($4 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), the PSDs for the rapid and slow phases were nearly identical,
339 both exhibiting a narrow, persistent peak at 4–5 μm , with D_{50} increasing only slightly from 6.0 to
340 7.0 μm . This indicates that a fine-particle-dominated size spectrum is established rapidly and



341 remains stable, with subsequent deposition accumulating materials of nearly identical composition.

342 Under strong wind (6 m s^{-1}), early deposition (0–0.5 h) was dominated by 30–40 μm particles
343 ($D_{50} = 29.5 \mu\text{m}$, peak $\approx 34.6 \mu\text{m}$). By the slow phase (0.5–3 h), the spectrum shifted towards smaller
344 sizes: the primary peak moved to $\sim 29.5 \mu\text{m}$, D_{50} decreased to 18.3 μm , a secondary peak emerged
345 in the 10–20 μm range. This demonstrates that under strong shear, coarse particles deposit
346 preferentially early on, with a limited contribution from finer particles later.

347 In summary, the evolution of deposited PSDs reveals distinct regimes: gravity-controlled
348 sequential settling in still air; shear-enhanced selective enrichment of fine-medium particles at 2
349 m s^{-1} ; rapid establishment of a stable, fine-dominated spectrum at 4 m s^{-1} ; and preferential coarse
350 deposition followed by a modest shift to finer sizes at 6 m s^{-1} .

351 4. Discussion

352 4.1 Non-monotonic response of dust deposition to low wind speeds

353 These large-scale closed-circuit wind tunnel experiments suggest a non-monotonic tendency
354 and size-selective response of near-surface dust deposition to low wind speeds (0–6 m s^{-1}). The first-
355 order exponential model $M(t) = a \cdot (1 - e^{-kt})$ captured the cumulative deposition for all size-wind
356 combinations, indicating that net dust deposition can be approximated as a first-order kinetic process
357 governed by a single effective time scale $\tau = 1/k$. The rate coefficient k and its reciprocal τ therefore
358 provide robust dynamical metrics for comparing deposition efficiencies across conditions.

359 Kinetic parameters show a consistent pattern. Deposition in still air is slow and largely
360 controlled by gravitational settling. The introduction of weak turbulence at 2 m s^{-1} significantly
361 accelerates the deposition of fine-to- medium particles without substantially reducing the maximum
362 deposition of medium-to-coarse particles, creating a distinct low-wind “window” for rapid and
363 efficient dust deposition. Quadratic fits of the initial deposition flux $J_0 = a/k$ indicate a low-wind
364 optimum at $\approx 2\text{--}3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, with the strongest response at the experimental level of 2 m s^{-1} . As wind
365 speed increases to 4–6 m s^{-1} , resuspension and horizontal transport may increasingly constrain the
366 mass budget of fine-to-medium particles, strongly suppressing their net deposition and shifting the
367 deposition flux towards a coarse-particle-dominated regime.

368 Size-resolved PSD evolution further elucidates the size-selective nature of this response. In
369 still air, the deposition spectrum evolves sequentially from coarse to finer particles. Under weak
370 shear (2 m s^{-1}), the median diameter (D_{50}) shifts towards the 10–20 μm range, suggesting that weak
371 turbulence not only accelerates fine-particle deposition but also facilitates their effective
372 “coarsening” during settling, likely through aggregation. In contrast, at higher wind speeds (4–6
373 m s^{-1}), the deposition spectrum is rapidly stabilized after an initial removal phase, entering a quasi-
374 steady state with minimal total deposition and a gradual spectral shift back toward finer sizes,
375 reflecting the strong suppression of net deposition for fine-to-medium particles.

376 Synthesizing kinetic parameters and PSD evolution, these lines of evidence show that
377 deposition efficiency is lowest in calm air, optimal around 2 m s^{-1} , and reduced at higher speeds.
378 This low-wind window primarily benefits fine-to-medium particles, whereas for coarse particles it
379 mainly maintains, rather than greatly enhances, their deposition capacity.

380 4.2 Potential mechanisms underlying the observed deposition patterns

381 For the respirable fine particles (1–10 μm) central to this study, gravitational settling velocities
382 (ω_s) are only on the order of mm s^{-1} . Their ability to penetrate the thin viscous sublayer adjacent to



383 the surface (thickness $z_v \approx 5\nu/u_* \sim 0.2\text{--}0.4$ mm) depends critically on the efficiency of turbulent
384 diffusion, expressed by the magnitude of the turbulent diffusive flux $\overline{\omega'c'}$, rather than on gravity
385 alone.

386 The relative importance of gravitational settling versus turbulent diffusion can be quantified
387 by the Rouse number, $P = \frac{\omega_s}{\kappa u_*}$. For particle diameters of 2-10 μm and the friction velocities (u_*)

388 measured in our study (0.198, 0.297, and 0.394 m s^{-1} at 2, 4, and 6 m s^{-1} , respectively), P falls in the
389 range $10^{-3}\text{--}10^{-1}$ and decreases with increasing wind speed. This confirms that turbulent diffusion
390 becomes increasingly dominant over settling for a given particle size as wind speed increases.

391 This framework explains the observed optimum: at 2 m s^{-1} , turbulence is sufficient to
392 efficiently transport fine particles from the core flow to the top of the viscous sublayer, maintaining
393 a finite downward flux, yet insufficient to induce substantial resuspension. This creates favorable
394 conditions for deposition. At higher wind speeds (4-6 m s^{-1}), although turbulence transport to the
395 surface remains vigorous, the increased shear stress at the top of the viscous sublayer may promote
396 resuspension and horizontal advection of particles that have reached the near-surface region. This
397 results in high initial deposition rates (large k) but a severely limited ultimate deposition capacity
398 (small a), as observed in this study.

399 4.2.2 Shear-induced aggregation and effective particle growth

400 The deposited PSD at 2 m s^{-1} is unique in exhibiting a pronounced shift towards the 10–20 μm
401 range. This “effective coarsening” cannot be explained by turbulent transport alone and points to
402 the role of shear-induced aggregation. The increase in the median diameter (D_{50}) of deposited
403 material from ~ 7.0 μm (0–0.5 h) to ~ 9.6 μm (0.5–3 h) corresponds to an effective volume increase
404 by a factor of approximately 2.6, which could be achieved if a fraction of the fine particles deposited
405 as small clusters of only 2–3 primary particles.

406 This behavior is qualitatively consistent with studies of two-phase turbulent flows and cohesive
407 particles, which often report a non-monotonic relationship between aggregate size and shear
408 intensity, with an optimum intermediate turbulence intensity. Moderate shear can enhance collision
409 frequencies and adhesion, forming transient cluster that increase the ensemble’s settling velocity,
410 while stronger shear leads to cluster breakup and reduced net settling (Tian & Ahmadi, 2007; Miatta
411 et al., 2009; Yu et al. 2022; Penlou et al. 2023; Zhao et al. 2023).

412 While our experimental setup did not allow for direct observation of aggregate morphology,
413 the concurrent evidence—markedly reduced τ , elevated k , and the distinct spectral shift at 2 m s^{-1} —
414 strongly suggests that the enhanced deposition of fine particles is at least partially assisted by shear-
415 related aggregation processes. We therefore posit this as a plausible working hypothesis. Future
416 studies employing microscopic imaging or in-situ cluster statistics are needed to directly quantify
417 this mechanism and its contribution to net deposition.

418 4.2.3 The possible roles of resuspension

419 When wind speed increases to 4–6 m s^{-1} , the fitted deposition kinetics exhibit characteristics
420 clearly distinct from those observed at 2 m s^{-1} . For fine particles (1–10 μm), cumulative mass curves
421 over the initial 0.5 h remain relatively steep, and the corresponding rate constants k are not small,
422 indicating that particles are still transported rapidly into the vicinity of the trays and that their contact
423 frequency with the sampling surface is not reduced. However, the asymptotic deposition a decreases



424 markedly with increasing wind speed over time. In contrast, for particles in the 10–20 μm range, a
425 at 6 m s^{-1} is slightly higher than under still air, but the characteristic time scale lengthens
426 substantially; these particles can still complete deposition, but over a longer duration. This pattern
427 is consistent with a regime in which enhanced near-surface shear and turbulence deliver particles to
428 the surface efficiently (large k) while simultaneously increasing the likelihood of rebound and/or
429 removal from the trays, thereby limiting net retained mass (small a). Because upward resuspension
430 fluxes were not directly measured, the relative contributions of resuspension versus horizontal
431 export cannot be separated here and should be tested in future work.

432 This wind speed feedback on net deposition aligns with previous observations of mineral dust
433 dry deposition and resuspension (Goossens and Rajot, 2008; Bergametti et al., 2018; Waza et al.,
434 2019). Field intercomparison of various passive samplers have demonstrated that dust deposition
435 flux does not always increase monotonically with wind speed; at certain sites and for specific
436 sampler types, apparent net deposition even decreases with increasing wind speed. This inverse
437 relationship is typically attributed to enhanced resuspension fluxes from the surface bed, coupled
438 with increased undercatch of coarse particles by some samplers under high wind conditions
439 (Goossens and Rajot, 2008; Waza et al., 2019). Similarly, wind-tunnel experiments and size-
440 resolved field measurements indicate that near the onset of active wind erosion, particle dry
441 deposition velocities become highly sensitive to friction velocity, surface roughness, and near-
442 surface turbulent structure (Zhang et al., 2014; Bergametti et al., 2018; Waza et al., 2019).

443 The friction velocities corresponding to 4–6 m s^{-1} in our experiments fall within ranges
444 typically associated with markedly enhanced wind erosion initiation in loess and agricultural soils
445 (Shao, 2008; Sweeney & Mason, 2013). Within this wind-speed interval, increasing near-surface
446 shear stress and turbulence intensity enhance particle delivery to the surface while simultaneously
447 intensifying rebound and resuspension. As a result, a substantial fraction of fine-to-medium particles
448 that have just deposited or are nearing deposition are lifted back into the flow and transported away
449 from the sampling area, leading to a pronounced suppression of net fine-particle deposition
450 efficiency (Goossens & Rajot, 2008; Zhang et al., 2014; Waza et al., 2019).

451 4.3 Implications for dry-deposition parameterizations and dust budget assessment

452 Conventional parameterizations of particle dry deposition frequently assume that for a given
453 particle size and surface type, deposition velocity increases monotonically with wind speed or
454 friction velocity, or at most saturates, while resuspension is either treated as an independent flux or
455 represented through simplified empirical coefficients (Zhang et al., 2003; Goossens & Rajot, 2008;
456 Petroff & Zhang, 2010; Kouznetsov & Sofiev, 2012; Zhang & Shao, 2014; Khan & Perlinger, 2017).
457 Although resistance frameworks (Slinn, 1982; Wesely, 1989) provide detailed descriptions of size
458 dependence and surface heterogeneity, they typically do not explicitly account for the “flux peak”
459 and “regime shift” phenomena observed in low-wind, weak-turbulence conditions.

460 Recent observational and re-parameterization studies (Petroff & Zhang, 2010; Adebisi & Kok,
461 2020; Emerson et al., 2020; Farmer et al., 2021) have demonstrated that insufficiently detailed
462 treatment of turbulence intensity and near-surface processes can cause models to overestimate dry-
463 deposition rates of accumulation-mode particles, while underestimating coarse particle deposition,
464 resulting in systematic biases in aerosol lifetime and radiative forcing.

465 To make the sign and magnitude of the implied bias explicit under a strictly monotonic wind-
466 speed dependence, the observed initial deposition flux J_0 was compared against a non-decreasing



467 benchmark $J_{0,mono}$. The resulting ratios $R(U) = J_0/J_{0,mono}$ (Table S3) indicate that, for PM_{2.5}–PM₄₀,
468 J_0 at $U = 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ exceeds the monotonic benchmark by about 15–72% ($R = 1.15 - 1.72 =$),
469 implying that strictly monotonic schemes would underpredict early-stage deposition at low wind
470 speeds. In contrast, at $U = 6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, J_0 falls 45–91% below the monotonic benchmark ($R = 0.09 -$
471 0.55), implying substantial overprediction of net deposition under stronger low-end winds (by
472 factors of ~ 1.8 – 11 for the affected size classes). Deviations are smaller for PM₆₃ ($R \approx 0.77$ at 6 m
473 s^{-1}), suggesting that the non-monotonic response is most pronounced for fine-to-medium particles
474 in the present setup.

475 This study yields several quantitative insights relevant to dry-deposition parameterizations in
476 the low-wind regime: (i) a distinct peak in the initial deposition flux J_0 occurs at approximately 2
477 m s^{-1} under a uniform surface conditions, whereas speeds of 4 – 6 m s^{-1} significantly suppress net
478 deposition of fine–medium particles; (ii) kinetic time scales vary non-monotonically, with the
479 characteristic time τ for fine particles reaching a minimum at 2 – 4 m s^{-1} while the ultimate maximum
480 deposition a declines sharply at 4 – 6 m s^{-1} , indicating that deposition rate and eventual deposited
481 fraction do not vary synchronously with wind speed; (iii) distinct temporal evolution of the PSD
482 emerges, with rapid progression toward the 10 – $20 \mu\text{m}$ range at 2 m s^{-1} contrasted against early
483 spectral stabilization at 4 – 6 m s^{-1} .

484 These findings complement multi-sampler comparison studies at the Izaña mountain station
485 and evaluations of deposition schemes over rough surfaces (Bergametti et al., 2018; Waza et al.,
486 2019). While previous studies highlighted flux-closure issues from an observation–parameterization
487 discrepancy standpoint, our controlled experiments provide process-level understanding of wind-
488 speed influences. Collectively, these studies demonstrate that representing dry deposition velocity
489 as a monotonic function of wind speed within the 0 – 6 m s^{-1} range is fundamentally inadequate.
490 Future parameterizations should incorporate size-dependent deposition maxima within weak-
491 turbulence windows and explicitly resolve regime transitions near the resuspension threshold.

492 From a global dust cycle perspective, this non-monotonicity implies that net dry deposition in
493 source regions under low post-dust wind conditions may be substantially higher than currently
494 modeled, resulting in more rapid atmospheric dust load reduction and shorter effective transport
495 distances. Conversely, under elevated background winds or complex topography, resuspension can
496 extend fine particle residence time and enhance long-range transport fractions. These interpretations
497 align with recent observationally constrained reassessments of dust size distributions and climatic
498 impacts (Kok et al., 2017; Adebisi & Kok, 2020; Emerson, 2020; Kok et al., 2021, 2023), which
499 consistently identify model tendencies to underestimate coarse dust and near-source deposition
500 while overestimating long-range transport and remote ocean dust burdens. Systematic
501 underestimation of accumulation-mode and coarse particle deposition under weak-to-moderate
502 turbulence would weaken near-source depositional sinks in models, likely resulting in overestimated
503 dust load and radiative effects in remote oceanic and high-latitude regions.

504 4.4 Uncertainties and future work

505 Despite controlled experimental conditions with wind speed as the primary variable, several
506 limitations should be acknowledged. First, the use of a single agricultural soil dust ($<63 \mu\text{m}$), though
507 mineralogically and adhesively representative of specific source regions-limits immediate
508 generalization to dust from other origins such as desert crusts, loess, or urban construction materials,
509 which may exhibit substantially different aggregation potential and resuspension thresholds. Future



510 investigations should incorporate diverse dust types to evaluate the universality of the identified
511 “optimal low-wind deposition” phenomenon.

512 Second, evidence for shear-induced aggregation remains indirect, derived from deposition
513 kinetics and PSD evolution rather than direct morphological, fractal, or structural characterization
514 of aggregates. Critical parameters including Kolmogorov scales and collision frequencies as
515 functions of wind speed were not explicitly quantified. While observed fine-particle deposition
516 enhancement under weak turbulence is qualitatively consistent with aggregation mechanisms, the
517 quantitative contribution of aggregation to effective settling velocities remains unconstrained.
518 Subsequent research should integrate microscopic imaging, light-scattering spectroscopy, and in situ
519 cluster statistics to characterize deposit structure across wind regimes, enabling direct comparison
520 between experimental cluster-size distributions and two-phase turbulence simulations.

521 5. Conclusions

522 This study quantified size-resolved mineral dust dry deposition in a closed-circuit recirculating
523 wind tunnel under calm air and low winds ($0\text{--}6\text{ m s}^{-1}$). Across all size–wind combinations, the
524 temporal evolution of cumulative deposited mass is well described by a first-order approach-to-
525 asymptote model ($R^2 > 0.91$), enabling extraction of an asymptotic cumulative deposition (a),
526 deposition-rate coefficient (k), characteristic time scale ($\tau = 1/k$), and initial deposition flux ($J_0 =$
527 ak). These kinetic descriptors provide a compact, process-oriented representation of deposition
528 dynamics that can be compared directly against dry-deposition schemes.

529 Within the tested wind-speed range, fine-to-medium size classes ($\text{PM}_{2.5}\text{--PM}_{40}$) show their
530 highest net deposition at 2 m s^{-1} and reduced net deposition at higher winds, with the strongest
531 evidence for a peaked response in the $\sim 30\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ class. The fitted parameters indicate that increasing
532 wind speed can enhance the early-time delivery of particles to the surface (larger k ; shorter τ), while
533 the ultimate retained mass on the collection surfaces (a) may decrease under higher low-end winds.
534 Quadratic fits across the four wind-speed levels suggest a potential maximum in net deposition near
535 $2\text{--}3\text{ m s}^{-1}$ for several size classes, but the inferred peak location remains tentative given the limited
536 number of wind-speed treatments.

537 A conceptual interpretation consistent with these patterns is that an intermediate low-wind
538 regime provides sufficient turbulent transport to promote deposition while shear-driven particle
539 rebound, re-entrainment, and horizontal export remain comparatively limited; at higher winds, these
540 competing processes may increasingly constrain the retained deposited mass, effectively decoupling
541 deposition rate from asymptotic loading. Because resuspension fluxes and near-surface particle
542 dynamics were not directly measured in this setup, the relative contributions of
543 rebound/resuspension versus horizontal export cannot be distinguished here and should be evaluated
544 in future experiments with concurrent concentration and flux measurements.

545 Overall, these measurements offer process-based constraints on dust deposition in the low-
546 wind regime and motivate refinement of dry-deposition parameterizations to represent the
547 possibility of non-monotonic behavior and size-dependent regime shifts. Extending this framework
548 to more realistic boundary-layer turbulence and surface heterogeneity will require targeted
549 observations and simulations that explicitly resolve near-surface transport, retention, and re-
550 entrainment processes.

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552



553 **Supplement**

554 The supplement related to this article is available online and includes Tables S1–S3.

555 **Data availability**

556 The data and analysis code supporting this study are archived on Zenodo
557 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.18264330>). The files are under embargo until 30 December 2026,
558 after which they will be made publicly available.

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565 **Author contribution**

566 Zhimin Liu, Zhigang Wang, Yuan Liu, and Zhiming Xin conceived the research idea and
567 contributed to the experimental design. Ruo Chen Jia led the experimental design and execution,
568 performed the data analysis, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. Chaoqun Ba contributed
569 substantially to the experiments, data processing, and manuscript preparation. Chao Zhang
570 contributed to data analysis and interpretation. Yuting Liu, Qun Ma, Wei Liang and Lu Zong assisted
571 with part of the experimental work. Wennong Kuang and Fang Liu provided critical revisions and
572 constructive comments that improved the manuscript. Jianqiang Qian and Zhimin Liu supervised
573 the study. All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

574 **Competing interests**

575 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

576



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