



1 **Impacts of mesh refinement on the simulation of a long-range**  
2 **transported extreme dust storm over East Asia in the global**  
3 **variable-resolution model (iAMAS v2.6.3)**

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19 **Abstract:** Long-range transported dust storms challenge regional high-resolution  
20 models because lateral boundary conditions constrain the consistent representation of  
21 dust emission, transport, and deposition. Here we use the integrated Atmospheric  
22 Model Across Scales (iAMAS v2.6.3), a global variable-resolution physics-chemistry  
23 coupled model, to simulate the extreme East Asian dust storm from 13 to 18 March  
24 2021. Three experiments adopt a globally quasi-uniform 50 km mesh (U50 km) and  
25 two source-refined meshes at 16-50 km (V16 km) and 4-50 km (V4 km). Evaluated  
26 against reanalysis and ground-based observations, the simulations reproduce the  
27 large-scale synoptic evolution, while mesh refinement captures more detailed  
28 near-surface dynamical features and terrain-channeled winds through improved  
29 topographic representation. The model reasonably represents 10-m wind speed,  
30 surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations, and aerosol optical depth. Relative to U50 km, total dust  
31 emissions over East Asia increase by 35.24% in V16 km and 54.98% in V4 km, as  
32 refined meshes resolve localized friction-velocity enhancement and nonlinear  
33 saltation-threshold exceedances. By altering emission evolution and its interaction  
34 with atmospheric circulation, mesh refinement also affects the spatial distribution of  
35 transported dust. The contrast between V16 km and V4 km reveals regional  
36 heterogeneity in downwind dust mass loading, with V4 km capturing localized  
37 wet-scavenging enhancement not evident in V16 km and reducing dust loading over  
38 the Yangtze River Delta by 30.49% relative to U50 km. This research emphasizes the  
39 importance of mesh refinement for representing long-range transported dust storms  
40 and provides a basis for future evaluations of multiple dust emission schemes in  
41 global variable-resolution models.

42



## 43 **1. Introduction**

44 Dust aerosols have significant impacts on the atmospheric environment and  
45 human health by altering the Earth's radiation balance, affecting cloud microphysical  
46 processes, and inducing respiratory diseases (Woodage et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2013;  
47 IPCC, 2023; Tobias et al., 2025). East Asia is one of the most active dust source  
48 regions globally, frequently experiencing severe dust storms that originate from the  
49 arid and semi-arid zones of northwest China and Mongolia. Driven by strong westerly  
50 circulation, these dust plumes can be transported over long distances and affect  
51 densely populated downwind areas (Idrissa et al., 2024). Dense dust aerosols  
52 substantially increase concentrations of inhalable particles, leading to reduced  
53 visibility and severe air quality deterioration (Xue et al., 2025). Moreover, dust  
54 deposition into the North Pacific supplies bioavailable nutrients that can enhance  
55 oceanic primary productivity (Jickells et al., 2005). Given the high socio-economic  
56 vulnerability of East Asia to dust storm disasters, improving the accuracy of dust  
57 forecasting remains an urgent scientific priority.

58 Numerical simulations have become an indispensable tool for elucidating the  
59 mechanisms, evolution, and climatic and environmental impacts of extreme dust  
60 events. Despite substantial improvements in dust models over recent decades,  
61 accurately predicting extreme dust processes remains challenging due to the inherent  
62 nonlinearity and multi-scale interactions in dust emission and transport. Previous  
63 studies have used global models to simulate dust emissions, transport, and  
64 spatiotemporal variations, including those over East Asia, and to assess their climatic  
65 and radiative implications (Grini et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2012; Kok et al., 2017; Wu et  
66 al., 2019). However, significant uncertainty remains in simulating extreme dust events.  
67 A main limitation is that many global models still use relatively coarse horizontal  
68 meshes. Enhancing model resolution has been shown to markedly improve  
69 simulations of severe dust events, as it enables a clearer depiction of land-atmosphere  
70 coupling and surface heterogeneity (Adebiyi et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2023; Chappell  
71 et al., 2024). Global high-resolution simulations can more accurately capture dust



72 emission and long-range transport (Gu et al., 2022; Idrissa et al., 2024), yet the high  
73 computational costs limit their widespread application. In contrast, regional models  
74 with relatively high spatial resolution have been widely employed to simulate dust  
75 emission, transport, and deposition and their subsequent environmental effects  
76 (Konaré et al., 2008; Marsham et al., 2011). However, regional models depend  
77 strongly on lateral boundary conditions provided by global models (Pérez et al., 2006;  
78 Feng et al., 2023). This dependence often leads to numerical inconsistencies,  
79 including discontinuities in meteorological fields, imbalances between dynamical and  
80 thermodynamic variables, and weakened feedback of regional processes to the  
81 large-scale atmospheric circulation.

82 The development of global variable-resolution atmospheric models provides  
83 more opportunities for improving simulations of extreme dust events. Compared with  
84 traditional regional models, these frameworks can reduce uncertainties associated  
85 with lateral boundary conditions, better capture interactions between regional  
86 processes and large-scale circulation, and achieve regional refinement at substantially  
87 lower computational cost than globally uniform high-resolution simulations (Rauscher  
88 et al., 2013; Zarzycki & Jablonowski, 2014; Huang et al., 2016; Gu et al., 2022; Feng  
89 et al., 2023). In recent years, global variable-resolution models have been increasingly  
90 applied to study multi-scale atmospheric processes, including extreme precipitation,  
91 regional circulation, and aerosol or dust transport (Rauscher et al., 2013; Huang et al.,  
92 2016; Feng et al., 2023, 2025; Xu et al., 2023, 2024; Gu et al., 2025; Li et al., 2024,  
93 2025). Rauscher et al. (2013) showed that regional mesh refinement in a  
94 multiresolution framework can improve simulations of regional climate patterns,  
95 while Huang et al. (2016) further demonstrated the capability of higher-resolution  
96 configurations in representing regional circulation and precipitation variability.  
97 Recent applications have also shown that variable-resolution frameworks can improve  
98 simulations of extreme rainfall events by better representing multi-scale interactions  
99 between regional processes and large-scale circulation (Xu et al., 2023, 2024; Gu et  
100 al., 2025). Li et al. (2024, 2025) further applied such frameworks to moisture



101 transport over the Tibetan Plateau and Indian summer monsoon rainfall,  
102 demonstrating their capability in representing regional water-vapor transport and  
103 monsoon-related precipitation processes. For dust-related applications, Feng et al.  
104 (2023, 2025) extended global variable-resolution modeling frameworks to dust  
105 simulations and dust-monsoon interactions, highlighting their potential for studying  
106 dust aerosols and their climatic impacts.

107 For extreme dust storms, kilometer-scale refinement is particularly important  
108 because dust emission and transport are strongly influenced by near-surface winds,  
109 land-surface heterogeneity, topography, and mesoscale circulation. However,  
110 relatively few studies have evaluated global variable-resolution models with  
111 kilometer-scale regional refinement for an individual extreme dust storm event. Feng  
112 et al. (2023) developed a global variable-resolution dust modeling framework with a  
113 sectionalized aerosol representation, which improved the simulation of dust particle  
114 size distribution and dust mass loading compared with traditional modal schemes.  
115 Nevertheless, the performance of this framework in reproducing the evolution of an  
116 individual severe dust storm, as well as its sensitivity to regional mesh refinement, has  
117 not been systematically assessed. In this study, we employed the integrated  
118 Atmospheric Model Across Scales (iAMAS, v2.6.3), a global variable-resolution  
119 atmospheric physics-chemistry coupled modeling framework, to simulate an intense  
120 East Asian dust storm and evaluate its ability to reproduce the event evolution. The  
121 sensitivity of model performance to mesh refinement is further investigated. The  
122 selected case is the severe dust storm that occurred over East Asia from 13 to 18  
123 March 2021, recognized as one of the strongest dust episodes in recent years. Using  
124 iAMAS, we compared a globally quasi-uniform mesh with two regionally refined  
125 high-resolution configurations. The main objective of this study is to examine whether  
126 high-resolution regional mesh refinement within a global variable-resolution  
127 framework can improve the representation of extreme dust processes relative to a  
128 globally quasi-uniform coarse-resolution configuration, and to clarify the underlying  
129 physical mechanisms. The simulations are evaluated using reanalysis data and



130 ground-based observations.

131 This article is structured as follows. Section 2.1 briefly introduces the iAMAS  
132 modeling framework. Sections 2.2–2.3 describe the parameterization schemes  
133 adopted in the dust modeling framework, followed by the experimental design and  
134 model configurations in Section 2.4 and the observational datasets used for model  
135 evaluation in Section 2.5. Section 3.1 presents the model evaluation results, while  
136 Section 3.2 investigates the effects of mesh refinement on dust storm simulations.  
137 Finally, Section 4 provides the main conclusions.

138

## 139 **2. Methodology**

### 140 **2.1. iAMAS**

141 The iAMAS is a global variable-resolution atmospheric physics-chemistry  
142 coupled modeling system developed on the Sunway heterogeneous high-performance  
143 computing architecture (Gu et al., 2022; Feng et al., 2023). It adopts the dynamical  
144 core of the Model for Prediction Across Scales–Atmosphere (MPAS-A; Skamarock et  
145 al., 2012) and employs a spherical centroidal Voronoi tessellation (SCVT) mesh with  
146 C-grid staggering (Thuburn et al., 2009; Ringler et al., 2010; Skamarock et al., 2012).  
147 The SCVT mesh discretizes the sphere into unstructured polygonal cells  
148 (predominantly hexagons), thereby avoiding the polar singularities inherent to  
149 latitude-longitude grids and enabling smoothly varying horizontal resolution (Ringler  
150 et al., 2008, 2010). By prescribing a spatially varying density function during mesh  
151 generation, iAMAS supports seamless regional refinement within a single global  
152 mesh without the need for nested domains (Ju et al., 2011; Ringler et al., 2010). As a  
153 global modeling system, iAMAS enables simulations across a wide range of spatial  
154 scales, from planetary circulation to convection-permitting resolutions, within a  
155 unified dynamical framework. This multiscale capability is advantageous for dust  
156 modeling because key processes controlling dust emission and long-range transport,  
157 including terrain-modulated winds, boundary-layer mixing, and mesoscale frontal  
158 dynamics, are highly sensitive to model resolution and the spatial scales represented



159 in the simulation (Heinold et al., 2013; Chappell et al., 2024). In addition, the  
160 variable-resolution global mesh allows refined simulations over major dust source  
161 regions while retaining a globally consistent representation of downwind transport  
162 and dust-related impacts.

163

## 164 **2.2. Dust emission scheme**

165 Feng et al. (2023) coupled a GOCART-based dust scheme into the iAMAS  
166 framework. Here, we implemented the Shao physically based dust scheme to better  
167 represent emission processes during severe dust storm events. The Shao-type schemes  
168 explicitly consider key wind-erosion processes, including saltation bombardment and  
169 aggregate disintegration, and thus provide a physically based description of the  
170 nonlinear dependence of dust emission on near-surface wind stress and soil properties  
171 (Shao, 2001, 2004; Shao et al., 2011; hereafter S01, S04, and S11, respectively).  
172 Previous studies have shown that Shao-type schemes improve dust storm simulations  
173 by better linking dust emission with wind forcing and soil conditions (Kang et al.,  
174 2011; Wu et al., 2016; Idrissa et al., 2024). We adopted the S04 formulation.  
175 Compared with S01, S04 simplifies the emission formulation while retaining  
176 physically based representations of saltation bombardment and aggregate  
177 disintegration. Unlike the more simplified S11 scheme, S04 preserves a more explicit  
178 representation of these key emission mechanisms for size-resolved dust emission  
179 simulations (Shao, 2001, 2004; Shao et al., 2011). **Fig. 1** shows the dust source  
180 function used in the model and the major regions analyzed in this study. The main  
181 dust sources include the Taklimakan Desert (TKD), the Mongolian Gobi Desert  
182 (MGD), the Hexi Corridor-Western Inner Mongolia (HC-WIM), and the Loess  
183 Plateau (LP), while the North China Plain (NCP) and the Yangtze River Delta (YRD)  
184 are major downwind regions.

185 Within the S04 framework, the vertical emission flux depends on surface friction  
186 velocity and streamwise saltation mass flux, reflecting the role of saltation  
187 bombardment in transferring kinetic energy to the soil surface and initiating dust  
188 release. Dust is released primarily through saltation bombardment and, under stronger



189 erosion conditions, through the disintegration of soil aggregates, which shifts the  
190 emitted size distribution from the minimally disturbed to the fully disturbed soil  
191 particle-size spectrum (Shao et al., 1993; Alfaro and Gomes, 2001; Shao, 2004).  
192 Emission occurs only after saltation is initiated. Once the wind stress exceeds the  
193 threshold required for saltation, the horizontal saltation flux increases rapidly and  
194 provides a sustained source of energy for continued dust release from the surface  
195 (Shao and Lu, 2000).

196 Following S04, two limiting soil particle-size distributions are defined for a  
197 given soil: the minimally disturbed distribution  $p_m(d)$  and the fully disturbed  
198 distribution  $p_f(d)$ . The aggregate-bound component is then defined as  $p_c(d) =$   
199  $p_f(d) - p_m(d)$ , representing the fraction of dust stored in aggregates that can be  
200 released only through mechanical destruction. Based on these distributions, the total  
201 dust fraction releasable from a unit soil mass and the aggregate-bound dust fraction  
202 are computed by integrating over the dust size range  $[0, d_d]$ :

$$203 \quad \eta_f = \int_0^{d_d} p_f(d) dd \quad (1)$$

$$204 \quad \eta_c = \eta_f - \eta_m = \int_0^{d_d} p_c(d) dd \quad (2)$$

205 where  $\eta_m$  denotes the free-dust fraction (i.e., dust not bound in aggregates).

206 For practical calculations in a sectional framework, the dust size range is  
207 discretized into  $I$  size bins, each characterized by a representative diameter  $d_i$  and a  
208 bin width  $\Delta d_i$ . The free-dust fraction in bin  $i$  is evaluated by integrating  $p_m(d)$   
209 across the bin bounds:

$$210 \quad \eta_{mi} = \int_{d_i - \Delta d_i/2}^{d_i + \Delta d_i/2} p_m(d) dd \quad (3)$$

211 The corresponding total dust fraction in bin  $i$  is partitioned as:

$$212 \quad \eta_{fi} = \eta_{mi} + \eta_{ci} \quad (4)$$

213 where  $\eta_{ci}$  is the aggregate-bound dust fraction in bin  $i$ .

214 Given these bin-resolved soil fractions, the spectral vertical dust emission flux  
215 for dust bin  $i$  generated by saltation of grains with diameter  $d_s$  is expressed as:



$$F(d_i, d_s) = c_y \eta_{fi} [(1 - \gamma) + \gamma \sigma_p] (1 + \sigma_m) \frac{gQ(d_s)}{u_*^2} \quad (5)$$

where  $c_y$  is a dimensionless coefficient,  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration,  $Q(d_s)$  is the streamwise saltation mass flux associated with saltators of size  $d_s$ , and  $u_*$  is the surface friction velocity. The transition factor  $\gamma$  is specified as:

$$\gamma = \exp[-(u_* - u_{*t})^3] \quad (6)$$

where  $u_{*t}$  is the threshold friction velocity for the initiation of saltation. Because  $Q$  is obtained from a saltation (sand-drift) formulation and is effectively nonzero only once saltation begins, the combined dependence on  $Q$  and  $u_* - u_{*t}$  ensures that the scheme is activated only under conditions where saltation is possible (Owen, 1964; Shao, 2004).

The parameter  $\sigma_m$  is the ratio between the mass ejected by bombardment and the mass of the impacting particle, and can be interpreted as the bombardment efficiency:

$$\sigma_m = \frac{m_\Omega}{m} \quad (7)$$

The ratio  $\sigma_p$ , representing the free-dust contribution relative to the fully disturbed dust content in bin  $i$ , is defined as:

$$\sigma_p = \frac{\eta_{mi}}{\eta_{fi}} = \frac{p_m(d_i)}{p_f(d_i)} \quad (8)$$

Separating the contributions of free dust and aggregate-related dust yields:

$$F(d_i, d_s) = c_y [\eta_{mi} + (1 - \gamma)\eta_{ci}] (1 + \sigma_m) \frac{gQ(d_s)}{u_*^2} \quad (9)$$

This form highlights that, under weak erosion conditions (large  $\gamma$ ), emission is dominated by free dust ( $\eta_{mi}$ ), whereas under strong erosion (small  $\gamma$ ) the aggregate-bound component ( $\eta_{ci}$ ) becomes increasingly important through the  $(1 - \gamma)\eta_{ci}$  term. If  $\eta_{mi} \ll \eta_{fi}$ , the expression can be further simplified to:

$$F(d_i, d_s) = c_y \eta_{fi} (1 - \gamma) (1 + \sigma_m) \frac{gQ(d_s)}{u_*^2} \quad (10)$$

which emphasizes the role of aggregate disintegration when free dust is scarce.

For practical implementation, S04 adopts the expression for  $\sigma_m$  derived from



242 the impact-removal formulation of Lu and Shao (1999):

$$243 \quad \sigma_m = 12u_*^2 \frac{\rho_b}{p} \left( 1 + 14u_* \sqrt{\frac{\rho_b}{p}} \right) \quad (11)$$

244 where  $\rho_b$  is soil bulk density and  $p$  is soil plastic pressure. This dependence implies  
245 that, for the same wind forcing, smaller  $p$  (looser and weaker soils) yields larger  $\sigma_m$   
246 and more efficient dust production, whereas larger  $p$  (harder or crusted soils)  
247 suppresses bombardment-driven release.

248 The emission rate for dust bin  $i$  is obtained by integrating over the saltating  
249 particle-size range:

$$250 \quad F(d_i) = \int_{d_1}^{d_2} F(d_i, d_s) p(d_s) dd_s \quad (12)$$

251 where  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  define the lower and upper size limits of saltating particles, and  
252  $p(d_s)$  denotes the saltator size distribution used for weighting. In this study,  $Q$  is  
253 computed using a saltation scheme following Owen (1964). The total dust emission  
254 over the target dust interval is then computed by summing over all dust bins.

255

### 256 **2.3. Dust size parameterization**

257 In this study, mineral dust is represented using a sectional (size-bin) formulation,  
258 in which the grid-box total emission is redistributed into a finite set of diameter  
259 intervals to account for size-dependent transport, deposition, and radiative effects  
260 (Zhao et al., 2010, 2011, 2013; Feng et al., 2023). Within each bin, particles are  
261 assumed to share identical prescribed physical properties, and sub-bin variability is  
262 not explicitly represented. Following common practice in global dust modeling, the  
263 emitted particle-number size spectrum is described in log-diameter space by a  
264 log-normal distribution:

$$265 \quad \frac{dN}{d(\ln d)} = \frac{N_{total}}{\sqrt{2\pi} \ln \sigma_n} \exp \left[ -\frac{(\ln d - \ln d_n)^2}{2(\ln \sigma_n)^2} \right] \quad (13)$$

266 where  $d$  is particle diameter,  $N_{total}$  is the total number concentration,  $d_n$  is the  
267 number-median diameter, and  $\sigma_n$  is the geometric standard deviation. Because the  
268 sectional module partitions emitted dust by volume (and equivalently by mass under  
269 fixed particle density) rather than by number, the number distribution is mapped to a



270 volume distribution using the spherical-particle relationship  $V_p = \frac{\pi d^3}{6}$ . This  
271 transformation preserves the log-normal form in  $\ln d$ , yielding a volume spectrum  
272 centered at a volume-median diameter  $d_v$ , related to  $d_n$  by:

$$273 \quad \ln d_v = \ln d_n + 3(\ln \sigma_n)^2 \quad (14)$$

274 To represent the fact that emitted dust often exhibits a broader spectrum than a  
275 single log-normal mode, many schemes approximate the emitted spectrum using a  
276 two-mode log-normal mixture with fixed weights assigned to fine and coarse modes  
277 (Zhao et al., 2013). Here, bulk emissions are redistributed using prescribed bin-wise  
278 emitted volume fractions (**Table 1**) following Feng et al. (2023), ensuring a consistent  
279 emitted size partition for the sectional dust module. Although **Table 1** reports the full  
280 10-bin partition spanning approximately 0.039-40  $\mu\text{m}$ , only bins 1-8 are explicitly  
281 represented in this study because super-coarse particles ( $>10 \mu\text{m}$ ) undergo rapid  
282 gravitational settling and near-source deposition, contributing little to long-range  
283 transport and to the evaluation metrics considered here (Feng et al., 2023).  
284 Accordingly, dust emission in this study refers to the emission integrated over the  
285 represented size range ( $\leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ ).

286 For the  $i$ -th size bin with lower and upper diameter bounds  $D_L$  and  $D_U$ , the  
287 emitted volume fraction can be obtained by analytically integrating the log-normal  
288 volume distribution over the bin interval:

$$289 \quad v_{bin} = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{\ln D_U - \ln d_v}{\sqrt{2} \ln \sigma_n} \right) - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erf} \left( \frac{\ln D_L - \ln d_v}{\sqrt{2} \ln \sigma_n} \right) \quad (15)$$

290 where  $v_{bin}$  denotes the dust volume fraction assigned to a given size bin, and  $\operatorname{erf}(\cdot)$   
291 is the Gaussian error function that arises from integrating a normal distribution. The  
292 bin boundaries and emitted volume fractions follow the prescribed configuration  
293 summarized in **Table 1**. For each bin, particles are treated as uniformly distributed  
294 and are represented by the geometric-mean diameter ( $D_G = \sqrt{D_L D_U}$ ) under the  
295 spherical-particle assumption.

296

## 297 **2.4. Numerical experiments**

298 To evaluate the influence of horizontal resolution on dust emission and transport



299 processes, three mesh configurations are designed: a globally quasi-uniform 50 km  
300 resolution mesh (U50 km) and two global variable-resolution meshes refined to 16–50  
301 km (V16 km) and 4–50 km (V4 km). In both variable-resolution simulations, the  
302 refinement region is centered near northwestern Gansu Province, China (41°N, 91°E)  
303 to cover the major dust source regions in East Asia and the main downwind transport  
304 pathways (**Fig. 2**). Meteorological initial conditions and surface boundary fields are  
305 obtained from the ERA5 reanalysis at 6-hourly intervals and interpolated onto the  
306 iAMAS mesh. All experiments cover 8–20 March 2021, with 00:00 UTC 8 March to  
307 00:00 UTC 12 March treated as a spin-up period to accumulate dust mass and allow  
308 the dynamical, thermodynamic, and chemical fields to adjust. Following the restart  
309 strategy used in variable-resolution global simulations (Feng et al., 2023), the  
310 meteorological fields are reinitialized at 00:00 UTC 12 March to reduce potential  
311 numerical drift and maintain a physically consistent large-scale atmospheric state,  
312 whereas chemical tracers, including dust, are retained from the end of the spin-up  
313 period. All chemical species are therefore continuous across the restart, which  
314 prevents artificial discontinuities in concentration fields and preserves the physical  
315 continuity of dust emission, transport, and deposition.

316 To isolate the effects of horizontal resolution, all experiments use the same set of  
317 physical and chemical schemes without additional tuning. The physical schemes  
318 include the Yonsei University (YSU) planetary boundary layer scheme (Hong et al.,  
319 2006), the Noah land surface model (Chen and Dudhia, 2001), the Rapid Radiative  
320 Transfer Model for General Circulation Models (RRTMG) for longwave and  
321 shortwave radiation (Mlawer et al., 1997; Iacono et al., 2008), and the Thompson  
322 microphysics scheme (Thompson et al., 2008). The Grell–Freitas cumulus convection  
323 scheme (Grell & Freitas, 2014) is used to represent subgrid convection. Because the  
324 variable-resolution mesh includes both fine and coarse cells, the Grell–Freitas  
325 cumulus scheme is retained to parameterize unresolved convection, especially in  
326 coarse-resolution regions. The V4 km experiment therefore approaches  
327 convection-permitting scales in the refined domain. Chemical process schemes for



328 simulating dust-cycle processes, including dust transport, wet removal, and dust  
329 optical properties, are represented following Feng et al. (2023). The contributions of  
330 parameterized convective and grid-scale resolved precipitation are distinguished when  
331 analyzing precipitation changes, wet scavenging, and dust evolution.

332

### 333 **2.5. Observation and reanalysis data**

334 To assess the ability of iAMAS to reproduce the dust storm episode during  
335 13–18 March 2021, large-scale meteorological conditions and near-surface and  
336 column aerosol indicators are evaluated using reanalysis products and ground-based  
337 observations. Synoptic-scale circulation is characterized using ERA5 daily mean  
338 sea-level pressure, geopotential height, and wind fields (Hersbach et al., 2020).  
339 Because direct dust measurements are sparse over East Asia, daily mean PM<sub>10</sub>  
340 concentrations from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC)  
341 are used as an observational proxy for near-surface dust concentrations. During this  
342 strong dust storm event, PM<sub>10</sub> increased substantially at many observational sites, and  
343 the elevated concentrations were dominated by mineral dust, making PM<sub>10</sub> an  
344 appropriate observational constraint for dust model evaluation. Daily mean surface  
345 wind speed is obtained from NOAA station observations compiled in the Global  
346 Surface Summary of the Day (GSOD) dataset. Column-integrated aerosol loading is  
347 evaluated using AERosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET) sun-photometer  
348 observations. The AERONET Version 3 Direct-Sun Level 2.0 daily mean aerosol  
349 optical depth (AOD) product is used, and missing days are supplemented with the  
350 corresponding Level 1.5 product (Giles et al., 2019). To preferentially retain  
351 dust-dominated observations, the daily mean Ångström exponent (500–870 nm) is  
352 further required to be below 0.8, indicating enhanced coarse-mode aerosol  
353 contributions typical of mineral dust (Shin et al., 2019). Because this screening  
354 substantially reduces the number of valid AERONET records during the event,  
355 event-mean AOD at 500 nm from 13 to 18 March 2021 is used, yielding 23 sites for  
356 comparison.



357 **3. Results**

358 **3.1. Evaluation of the simulations**

359 **3.1.1. Synoptic condition**

360 To characterize the synoptic-scale forcing associated with this dust event and to  
361 establish a dynamical reference for subsequent evaluation, we compared ERA5  
362 synoptic fields with those simulated by iAMAS using the U50 km, V16 km, and V4  
363 km mesh configurations during 13–16 March 2021 (**Fig. 3**). Overall, all three  
364 simulations capture the main synoptic features represented in ERA5. The position and  
365 orientation of the East Asian mid-tropospheric trough at 500 hPa are generally well  
366 reproduced. The associated trough–ridge pattern and its eastward progression are also  
367 reasonably represented. Mean sea level pressure shows similar agreement. In  
368 particular, the Siberian–Mongolian high-pressure system exhibits a comparable spatial  
369 pattern and coherent day-to-day evolution in ERA5 and in all simulations. These  
370 results indicate that the three mesh configurations share a broadly consistent  
371 large-scale circulation background, providing an appropriate context for assessing the  
372 impacts of mesh refinement.

373 The lower-tropospheric circulation at 850 hPa shows greater sensitivity to  
374 horizontal resolution (**Fig. 3**). Because the experiments differ mainly in resolution  
375 within the refined region, some differences outside that region may also be related to  
376 circulation adjustments associated with refinement, possibly through terrain–flow  
377 interactions (Laprise, 2008; Rauscher et al., 2013). In ERA5 and the U50 km  
378 simulation, the 850 hPa winds are relatively smooth and exhibit weak horizontal  
379 gradients. With mesh refinement, the flow becomes more spatially structured. Local  
380 contrasts in the wind field increase, and a narrower band of stronger winds emerges  
381 along major terrain transitions. This feature is especially evident near the Hexi  
382 Corridor and along the southern and eastern margins of the Mongolian Plateau. It  
383 extends toward North China, suggesting stronger terrain modulation of the low-level  
384 flow. Relative to the V16 km mesh, the V4 km simulation further reveals finer-scale  
385 directional turning and more localized wind features. These patterns are consistent



386 with stronger terrain-induced turning and channeling that are less evident at coarser  
387 resolution. Overall, these differences suggest that mesh refinement allows a clearer  
388 depiction of lower-tropospheric dynamical structures.

389 The 700 hPa geopotential height and wind fields (**Fig. S1**) evolve similarly in  
390 ERA5 and the three experiments, further indicating that the broader synoptic  
391 environment is well represented. Compared with the quasi-uniform U50 km  
392 simulation, the refined configurations show slightly sharper gradients at 700 hPa,  
393 although these differences are weaker than those at 850 hPa. Such sensitivity is  
394 potentially important for dust simulations because dust emission and initial transport  
395 are tightly linked to surface stress, boundary-layer turbulence, and mesoscale flow  
396 organization (Marsham et al., 2011; Klose & Shao, 2012). Higher resolution may also  
397 improve the representation of terrain–flow interactions and the downward transfer of  
398 momentum (Zhao et al., 2016), which can affect how variability in low-level winds is  
399 translated to the surface. As a result, resolution-dependent circulation variations may  
400 contribute to differences in friction velocity, dust emission fluxes, and subsequent  
401 transport pathways (Klose & Shao, 2012; Huo et al., 2025).

402

### 403 **3.1.2. Near-surface wind speed**

404 Daily mean 10-m wind speed ( $u_{10}$ ) provides an observational benchmark for  
405 assessing the realism of the modeled near-surface wind environment (Jiménez and  
406 Dudhia, 2012). Here we evaluated simulated daily mean  $u_{10}$  against collocated NOAA  
407 surface-station observations during 13–16 March 2021 (**Fig. 4**). Overall, all  
408 experiments capture the spatiotemporal evolution of strong near-surface winds over  
409 the study region. Enhanced winds are concentrated over the Mongolian Plateau and  
410 Inner Mongolia, exhibiting episodic strengthening as the cold-air outbreak progresses  
411 southeastward. The timing and broad spatial distribution of strong winds in the  
412 simulations are generally consistent with the observations, indicating that the  
413 synoptic-scale forcing and its near-surface manifestation are reasonably represented.  
414 Resolution-dependent differences mainly appear in the spatial organization and  
415 intensity contrasts of the strong-wind belt. The U50 km experiment produces



416 smoother and spatially broader high-wind regions, whereas V16 km and V4 km  
417 resolve sharper transitions and more confined wind corridors along major terrain  
418 boundaries. These differences suggest a stronger expression of terrain-modulated flow  
419 features, which can affect the spatial variability of surface stress and, ultimately, the  
420 distribution of wind friction velocity ( $u^*$ ) (Shao, 2001; Kok et al., 2014). It is worth  
421 noting that  $u_{10}$  is evaluated here as an observationally constrained indicator of the  
422 near-surface dynamical environment rather than as a direct driver of dust emission.  
423 Emission-relevant mechanisms are assessed explicitly using  $u^*$  in Section 3.2.2.

424 The station-based temporal correlation coefficients ( $r$ ), derived from daily mean  
425  $u_{10}$  time series at collocated NOAA surface stations and further averaged within each  
426 region, increase markedly with mesh refinement (**Table 2**). In the U50 km experiment,  
427 correlations are generally low ( $r = 0.05$ - $0.34$ ), with relatively weak correlation over  
428 the HC-WIM ( $r = 0.05$ ) and MGD ( $r = 0.15$ ). With mesh refinement to V16 km,  
429 correlations increase markedly in every region ( $r = 0.56$ - $0.87$ ) and remain high in V4  
430 km ( $r = 0.81$ - $0.92$ ), indicating that higher resolution better captures the day-to-day  
431 variability and spatial heterogeneity of near-surface winds. Normalized mean bias  
432 (NMB) also shows clear regional contrasts. Over the primary upwind source regions,  
433 the coarse-mesh simulation substantially underestimates near-surface winds, with  
434 large negative NMB in the MGD (NMB =  $-53.37\%$ ) and the HC-WIM (NMB =  
435  $-61.73\%$ ). Mesh refinement evidently alleviates these low biases, reducing NMB to  
436  $-14.43\%$  (MGD) and  $-13.92\%$  (HC-WIM) in V16 km and further to  $-11.46\%$  and  
437  $-10.17\%$  in V4 km, respectively. In contrast, several downwind regions exhibit  
438 persistent positive biases. In the U50 km experiment,  $u_{10}$  is overestimated over the LP,  
439 NCP, and YRD, with NMB values of  $+26.71\%$ ,  $+35.52\%$ , and  $+29.51\%$ , respectively.  
440 Relative to U50 km, mesh refinement substantially reduces these positive biases. The  
441 NMB decreases to  $+14.93\%$  (LP),  $+8.02\%$  (NCP), and  $+11.53\%$  (YRD) in V16 km,  
442 and to  $+12.83\%$  (LP),  $+7.93\%$  (NCP), and  $+9.56\%$  (YRD) in V4 km. These  
443 improvements suggest that refined meshes better capture the regional variability and  
444 magnitude of near-surface winds, likely because higher resolution provides a clearer



445 depiction of terrain-modulated flow and associated mesoscale post-frontal wind  
446 structures (Rauscher et al., 2013). In particular, better-resolved terrain may increase  
447 form drag and enhance effective surface resistance at the regional-mean scale  
448 (Jiménez and Dudhia, 2012; Feng et al., 2023). At the same time, complex topography  
449 can still permit localized channeling and localized acceleration in terrain corridors,  
450 contributing to spatially varying wind-speed biases (Zhao et al., 2019).

451

### 452 **3.1.3. Surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentration**

453 To evaluate iAMAS performance in simulating surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations  
454 during this strong dust event, daily mean PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations over eastern China  
455 from 14 to 18 March 2021 are compared with CNEMC measurements (**Fig. 5**).  
456 Observations indicate pronounced long-range transport, with elevated PM<sub>10</sub>  
457 concentrations extending southeastward under northerly to northwesterly flow,  
458 forming a coherent high-concentration band over the NCP, the YRD, and the  
459 Shandong Peninsula during 15–16 March. All three simulations reproduce the primary  
460 transport pathway of the dust plume, indicating that the transport pattern of this event  
461 is reasonably captured. Nevertheless, resolution sensitivity is evident in both the  
462 magnitude and spatial structure of the simulated dust plumes. In the U50 km  
463 experiment, elevated PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations are more spatially diffuse with muted local  
464 maxima, and the high-concentration band appears less continuous along the main  
465 transport corridor. This suggests an overly broadened plume and elevated background  
466 concentrations despite weaker local peaks, consistent with the positive mean bias  
467 presented in **Fig. 6**. The V16 km simulation better captures the spatial distribution of  
468 high PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations and maintains the band-like structure during southeastward  
469 transport, forming a more coherent dust-laden corridor over eastern China. With  
470 further mesh refinement to V4 km, both peak concentrations and fine-scale spatial  
471 variability are better captured, and the simulated high-concentration regions align  
472 more closely with the observations. These results indicate that mesh refinement  
473 influences not only the simulated PM<sub>10</sub> magnitude but also the spatial organization  
474 and dispersion of transported dust plumes.



475           The scatterplot provides a quantitative assessment of these simulation differences  
476 **(Fig. 6)**. All three experiments show positive correlations with the observed PM<sub>10</sub>  
477 concentrations, although their bias characteristics differ markedly. The U50 km  
478 simulation reveals a pronounced positive bias, with an NMB of +44.21%. The  
479 variable-resolution V16 km configuration increases the correlation coefficient ( $r =$   
480 0.65) but exhibits an even larger positive bias (NMB = +57.51%). This indicates that  
481 moderate refinement improves the spatial distribution and continuity of transported  
482 dust plumes, but may still amplify the overall positive bias. The V4 km experiment  
483 further increases the correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.85$ ) and reduces the NMB to below  
484 20%, indicating that the finest mesh provides the most balanced improvement in  
485 reproducing the observed spatial variability of surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations and  
486 downwind transport pathways. Overall, the qualitative comparison in **Fig. 5** and the  
487 quantitative statistics in **Fig. 6** consistently demonstrate the strong sensitivity of  
488 simulated surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations to horizontal resolution.

489           These resolution-dependent differences in the simulated spatial distribution of  
490 dust transport may result from the combined effects of the spatiotemporal evolution of  
491 dust emissions, circulation-related wind changes, and wet scavenging in downwind  
492 regions. Dust emitted at different times may encounter different stages of the evolving  
493 synoptic circulation and boundary-layer conditions, thereby affecting its subsequent  
494 transport direction and plume pathway. Changes in the spatial distribution of  
495 emissions can also modify where dust initially enters the transport flow, leading to  
496 different downstream concentration patterns even under broadly similar large-scale  
497 circulation. In addition, resolution-induced changes in low-level winds and wet  
498 scavenging may further influence plume dispersion, transport pathway, and removal  
499 during transport. Previous studies have shown that coarse-resolution models tend to  
500 smooth terrain undulations and surface roughness, which can weaken terrain-guided  
501 near-surface acceleration and localized strong-wind features near mountain foothills  
502 and basin edges (Kok et al., 2014; Mahowald et al., 2014). Such changes in  
503 near-surface winds may affect the occurrence, intensity, and spatial distribution of



504 friction-velocity exceedances above the emission threshold, thereby modulating  
505 where and when dust is emitted and how it enters the early-stage transport flow (Shao,  
506 2004). Regional mesh refinement can further improve the representation of  
507 terrain-modulated winds, boundary-layer structure, and associated transport pathways,  
508 allowing the same large-scale circulation to produce different downstream plume  
509 organization and dispersion characteristics (Hu et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2023). These  
510 specific influencing mechanisms will be examined in detail in Section 3.2.

511

#### 512 **3.1.4. AOD**

513 As a column-integrated measure of aerosol loading, AOD is widely used to  
514 characterize aerosol burden and diagnose regional transport during dust storms (Giles  
515 et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2019). Ground-based AERONET AOD at 500 nm is used as the  
516 primary observational benchmark for evaluating the simulated AOD. **Fig. 7a–c**  
517 compare the mean AOD from the U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km configurations with  
518 the observations. The available sites include stations in the main downwind region as  
519 well as several background locations. Owing to the limited spatial coverage and data  
520 gaps, the regional evaluation includes all sites with valid observations during 13–18  
521 March 2021. The three configurations capture the main dust-affected region and the  
522 associated downwind transport, but notable differences remain in the spatial  
523 distribution and magnitude of AOD. The U50 km simulation produces lower AOD  
524 than observed, with a smoother spatial pattern. With mesh refinement, the V16 km  
525 configuration exhibits a stronger AOD signal and improves the continuity of high  
526 AOD along the dust transport corridor. The V4 km configuration further enhances this  
527 continuity and better displays the spatial structure. These results indicate that mesh  
528 refinement affects not only the magnitude of AOD but also its spatial organization,  
529 with more pronounced changes in downwind regions. In particular, finer resolution  
530 enhances the spatial heterogeneity of AOD, producing sharper gradients and more  
531 distinct variations along the transport pathway. The smoother circulation and plume  
532 structures in the coarse-resolution simulation tend to broaden the transported dust  
533 layer and weaken AOD gradients along the transport pathway. With regional



534 refinement, improved representation of mesoscale flow variability and boundary-layer  
535 structure modifies the horizontal spreading and column-integrated distribution of dust,  
536 leading to sharper AOD gradients and a more organized downstream plume (Chen et  
537 al., 2013; Feng et al., 2023).

538 The scatterplot (**Fig. 7d**) provides a quantitative evaluation of the collocated  
539 observations and simulations. Correlations are high across the three configurations ( $r$   
540 = 0.85-0.91), indicating that the model reproduces the spatial variability of AOD,  
541 whereas systematic biases decrease substantially with mesh refinement. The U50 km  
542 configuration shows a correlation coefficient of 0.87 but exhibits a substantial  
543 negative bias (NMB = -70.64%). The bias decreases markedly in V16 km ( $r = 0.85$ ,  
544 NMB = -23.03%), and V4 km improves agreement with  $r = 0.91$  and NMB =  
545 -19.01%. Overall, mesh refinement substantially reduces the underestimation of AOD  
546 while maintaining high spatial correlations with observations, indicating that the  
547 refined iAMAS configurations better capture column aerosol loading during this  
548 extreme East Asian dust event, with performance comparable to previous dust-model  
549 simulations and transport studies (Grini et al., 2005; Huneeus et al., 2011; Wu et al.,  
550 2019). The limited number of valid AERONET sites, especially over dust source  
551 regions, suggests that additional in situ and ground-based observations would help  
552 further constrain dust transport processes and optical properties.

553

### 554 **3.2. Mechanisms driving the impacts of mesh refinement**

555 Section 3.1 shows that different mesh configurations produce clear differences in  
556 the simulated surface  $PM_{10}$  concentration and AOD, especially in the magnitude and  
557 spatial organization of downwind dust plumes. These differences likely reflect the  
558 combined effects of dust emission, transport, and removal processes rather than a  
559 simple adjustment of total dust emission amount. The specific influence mechanisms  
560 responsible for these differences are examined below.

561

#### 562 **3.2.1. Dust emission sensitivity to regional mesh refinement**

563 Dust emission is one of the main processes through which mesh refinement



564 influences the dust cycle, because it responds directly to resolution-dependent  
565 changes in surface wind stress (Kok et al., 2014). To quantify the sensitivity of dust  
566 emissions to horizontal resolution, we compared three simulations with different mesh  
567 configurations (**Table 3**). Total dust emissions over East Asia during 13–17 March  
568 2021 increase from 322.825 Tg in U50 km to 436.603 Tg in V16 km (+35.24%) and  
569 500.301 Tg in V4 km (+54.98%). However, the magnitude of this sensitivity differs  
570 markedly among the major source regions. The dominant contribution comes from the  
571 MGD, where dust emissions increase from 140.841 Tg (U50 km) to 194.115 Tg (V16  
572 km) and 232.920 Tg (V4 km), representing increases of 37.83% and 65.38%,  
573 respectively. Over the TKD, dust emissions rise from 72.401 Tg in U50 km to  
574 102.021 Tg in V16 km and 105.412 Tg in V4 km, with relative increases of 40.91%  
575 and 45.59%, respectively. Other dust source regions, including the HC–WIM and LP,  
576 also exhibit increased emissions with mesh refinement, although their contributions  
577 are smaller than those from the MGD and TKD. The spatial distribution of mean dust  
578 emission flux further reveals where these emission increases are concentrated (**Fig. 8**).  
579 The U50 km simulation produces broader and smoother dust emission belts, whereas  
580 V16 km and V4 km generate increasingly fragmented, filamentary, and band-shaped  
581 structures. Mesh refinement leads to greater local-scale heterogeneity in the HC–WIM  
582 and TKD, while the high-emission zones over the MGD become more pronounced  
583 and discontinuous. The difference maps further show that the strongest positive  
584 emission anomalies are concentrated along the southern Mongolian Plateau,  
585 indicating a consistent enhancement of emissions within the main dust source region.

586       These resolution-related changes in dust emission can influence the downstream  
587 distribution of transported dust by altering where and when dust is injected into the  
588 prevailing transport flows, rather than simply increasing the total emitted amount.  
589 Strong westerly and northwesterly flows during 13–16 March provided favorable  
590 pathways for eastward and southeastward dust transport from the major source  
591 regions to northern and eastern China (**Fig. 3**). Under these circulation conditions,  
592 stronger emissions in the refined simulations are concentrated over upstream source



593 regions, especially the MGD and parts of the TKD and HC–WIM, allowing more dust  
594 to be injected into air masses that are efficiently transported downstream. This  
595 spatially heterogeneous enhancement may contribute to changes in dust plume  
596 intensity and spatial structure. The daily evolution of dust emissions further supports  
597 this interpretation. In the refined simulations, stronger and more localized emissions  
598 occur in upstream source regions during periods favorable for eastward and  
599 southeastward transport. For example, on 14 March, East Asian dust emissions  
600 increase from 118.788 Tg in U50 km to 163.987 Tg in V4 km, mainly due to the  
601 increase over the MGD from 69.978 to 102.158 Tg (**Figs. 3 and S2; Table S1**). This  
602 coupling between the spatiotemporal evolution of emissions and the prevailing  
603 circulation helps explain how mesh refinement modifies the intensity and spatial  
604 organization of downstream dust transport through its influence on dust emissions.

605 The spatially heterogeneous enhancement and local intensification of emissions  
606 described above can be explained by the threshold-based and nonlinear response of  
607 the dust emission scheme to near-surface friction velocity. The S04 dust emission  
608 parameterization applied in this study triggers dust emission when the  $u^*$  exceeds a  
609 threshold value ( $u_t^*$ ), and the resulting emission flux depends nonlinearly on the  
610 magnitude of this exceedance. Under such formulations, dust emission is controlled  
611 primarily by the high-stress tail of the near-surface wind distribution rather than by  
612 mean wind conditions (Shao, 2004; Kok et al., 2014; Mahowald et al., 2014). Mesh  
613 refinement can strengthen this high-stress tail by improving the representation of  
614 terrain gradients and land–surface transitions and by resolving localized flow  
615 accelerations, such as channeling and lee-side jets. It can also increase the spatial  
616 intermittency of surface stress associated with finer-scale flow structures, thereby  
617 enhancing the likelihood and intensity of threshold exceedance for dust emission  
618 (Jiménez and Dudhia, 2012; Feng et al., 2023). As a result, total dust emission can  
619 increase and become more spatially concentrated even without a proportional increase  
620 in exceedance frequency. This nonlinearity is examined in Section 3.2.2 through an  
621 analysis linking refinement-induced terrain effects to changes in the structure of  $u^*$



622 and associated saltation exceedance metrics.

623

### 624 **3.2.2. Impacts of mesh refinement on topography representation and wind**

#### 625 **friction velocity**

626 Mesh refinement modifies dust emission and transport by altering terrain  
627 representation and the associated near-surface wind structure (Zender et al., 2003;  
628 Jiménez and Dudhia, 2012). **Fig. 9a–c** compares the terrain height simulated by the  
629 U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km configurations. With mesh refinement, the terrain  
630 exhibits enhanced elevation variability and sharper gradients, particularly along major  
631 mountain ranges, plateau margins, and basin boundaries. These changes are most  
632 evident over the Mongolian Plateau and across the complex topography of  
633 northwestern China. The corresponding difference maps (**Fig. 9d–f**) further show that  
634 mesh refinement modifies the resolved terrain structure. The difference between the  
635 V16 km and U50 km simulations (**Fig. 9d**) more clearly depicts steep terrain  
636 transitions and relief that are weakened by spatial averaging in the coarse-resolution  
637 mesh, especially along the margins of the Mongolian Plateau, the Tarim Basin, and  
638 the Tibetan Plateau. The difference between V4 km and U50 km (**Fig. 9e**) exhibits a  
639 similar but more pronounced pattern, reflecting a more detailed representation of local  
640 relief and finer-scale terrain variability. The comparison between V4 km and V16 km  
641 (**Fig. 9f**) indicates that further mesh refinement primarily sharpens existing terrain  
642 gradients and local relief, while the overall large-scale terrain configuration remains  
643 largely unchanged. To connect these terrain differences to low-level circulation linked  
644 to surface forcing, **Fig. S3** compares 850 hPa wind speed across the three meshes and  
645 their differences. The refined configurations show more spatially structured low-level  
646 wind-speed anomalies within the refinement region, consistent with the  
647 refinement-induced changes in  $u^*$  discussed below.

648 Consistent with these resolution-dependent differences in terrain and low-level  
649 winds,  $u^*$  also reveals systematic changes in its spatial structure (**Fig. 10**). Relative  
650 to the U50 km simulation, both the V16 km and V4 km configurations exhibit a finer  
651 spatial structure of  $u^*$ , with sharper gradients and more localized regions of elevated



652 values. At the V4 km resolution, these localized high- $u^*$  features are more clearly  
653 expressed, whereas they appear spatially smoothed and diffused at coarser resolution.  
654 This indicates that mesh refinement enhances the spatial variability of near-surface  
655 wind forcing, which is a key driver of dust emission. In our study, emission is more  
656 strongly influenced by episodic strong wind events than by mean wind conditions,  
657 reflecting the nonlinear dependence of emission flux on exceedances of friction  
658 velocity above the saltation threshold (Shao, 2004). To quantify this nonlinear  
659 response, we analyzed the saltation occurrence frequency ( $f_{saltation}$ ) and a diagnostic  
660 metric  $S_3$ , defined as the regional mean cubic exceedance of friction velocity above  
661 the saltation threshold. The cubic weighting emphasizes intense exceedances of  $u^*$ ,  
662 consistent with the nonlinear dependence of dust emission flux on friction velocity in  
663 threshold-based dust emission schemes, and therefore better captures the contribution  
664 of episodic strong-wind events than occurrence frequency alone (Zender et al., 2003;  
665 Shao, 2004; Klose & Shao, 2012; Kok et al., 2014). In **Fig. 11**, both  $f_{saltation}$  and  $S_3$   
666 are normalized by their U50 km values to show the relative changes caused by mesh  
667 refinement. Across the main dust source regions,  $f_{saltation}$  generally decreases with  
668 mesh refinement, with reductions of 2-22% in the V16 km simulation and 14-36% in  
669 the V4 km simulation relative to U50 km. In contrast,  $S_3$  increases consistently in the  
670 dust source regions, by 4-42% in V16 km and by 31-76% in V4 km. The largest  
671 increases occur over the MGD and HC–WIM in the V4 km simulation, reaching 57%  
672 and 76%, respectively, despite only moderate decreases in  $f_{saltation}$  (**Fig. 11**).

673 The opposite responses of  $f_{saltation}$  and  $S_3$  provide a reasonable explanation for  
674 the apparent contrast between increasing region-integrated dust emissions (**Table 3**)  
675 and decreasing saltation occurrence frequency in some regions (**Fig. 11**). Under mesh  
676 refinement,  $u^*$  exceedances above  $u_t^*$  become more spatially concentrated and  
677 higher in amplitude, leading to a stronger contribution from the upper tail of the  $u^*$   
678 distribution. Thus, total dust emission can increase even when saltation occurs less  
679 frequently in an area-averaged sense. Similar patterns have been widely documented  
680 in both observational and modeling studies of dust emission, highlighting the



681 dominant role of extreme wind events in threshold-controlled systems (Marsham et al.,  
682 2011; Kok, 2011; Klose & Shao, 2012).

683

### 684 **3.2.3. Impacts of regional refinement on dust mass loading**

685 Dust mass loading reflects the integrated effects of dust emission, transport, and  
686 removal processes, and therefore provides a useful measure of the net response of the  
687 dust burden to regional mesh refinement (Huneeus et al., 2011). The spatial  
688 distributions in **Fig. 12a–c** show that dust mass loading is primarily concentrated  
689 along the main west–east transport corridor downstream of the source regions, with  
690 broadly similar large-scale patterns across the three simulations. Differences among  
691 the simulations are mainly reflected in the spatial coverage and magnitude of  
692 enhanced dust loading. The daily evolution of dust mass loading in **Fig. S4** indicates  
693 that the timing and large-scale progression are generally consistent, while regional  
694 differences in intensity persist. The difference maps further reveal that both the V16  
695 km and V4 km simulations tend to produce higher dust loading than U50 km across  
696 several downwind regions (**Fig. 12d–e**). By contrast, the difference between V4 km  
697 and V16 km is characterized by localized positive and negative anomalies (**Fig. 12f**).  
698 Overall, these results indicate that the response of dust mass loading to mesh  
699 refinement is spatially heterogeneous.

700 To further quantify the impact of mesh refinement on atmospheric dust mass  
701 loading, we calculated region-integrated dust mass loading during 13–17 March 2021  
702 (**Table 4**). Across East Asia, region-integrated dust mass loading increases with  
703 resolution, from 75.094 Tg in U50 km to 85.394 Tg in V16 km (+13.72%) and 92.744  
704 Tg in V4 km (+23.50%) (**Table 4**). Despite the overall increase across East Asia, the  
705 regional response is not spatially uniform. At the regional scale, the largest relative  
706 increases occur over the NCP, where dust mass loading rises from 3.897 Tg in U50  
707 km to 5.592 Tg in V16 km (+43.49%) and 6.378 Tg in V4 km (+63.66%) (**Table 4**).  
708 In contrast, over the LP and YRD, V16 km produces slightly higher dust loading than  
709 U50 km, with increases of +7.62% and +7.69%, respectively, whereas V4 km yields  
710 lower values than U50 km, with decreases of –5.18% and –30.49%, respectively.



711 These regional contrasts indicate that mesh refinement does not simply produce a  
712 uniform increase in dust loading, but instead modifies its regional distribution. A  
713 similar pattern is also found in the regional mean surface  $PM_{10}$  concentration over the  
714 YRD (**Table S2**), where V16 km increases from  $18.667 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in U50 km to  $43.437$   
715  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (+132.70%), whereas V4 km decreases to  $13.481 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (-27.78%). The  
716 consistent decrease in both column dust mass loading and surface  $PM_{10}$  indicates that  
717 the reduced dust burden over the YRD in V4 km is also reflected near the surface.

718 Regional differences in dust mass loading reflect the combined effects of the  
719 spatiotemporal emission changes and transport structures discussed in Section 3.2.1.  
720 Mesh refinement enhances dust emissions over major upstream source regions,  
721 thereby changing when and where dust becomes available for subsequent transport.  
722 The circulation fields show a broadly similar synoptic evolution across the three  
723 simulations, with persistent westerly and northwesterly flows during 13–16 March  
724 providing favorable pathways for dust transport from the MGD, TKD, and HC–WIM  
725 toward northern and eastern China (**Figs. 3 and S1**). Within this circulation  
726 background, the 850 hPa wind-speed differences indicate that mesh refinement  
727 modifies the spatial structure and local intensity of the transport flow within the  
728 refinement region, especially along the pathway from the source regions to downwind  
729 areas (**Fig. S3**). This more spatially structured transport flow facilitates dust transport  
730 from upstream source regions and helps shape the eastward and southeastward  
731 extension of the dust plume. Consistently, the distribution of daily dust mass loading  
732 shows that the main dust plume develops over the source regions during 14–16 March  
733 and is subsequently transported eastward along the prevailing flow, with stronger and  
734 more spatially organized loading in the refined simulations (**Fig. S4**). Therefore, the  
735 enhanced dust loading over the NCP likely reflects the combined influence of stronger  
736 upstream emissions and more organized transport flow from the MGD, TKD, and  
737 HC–WIM. In contrast, the concurrent decreases in both dust mass loading and surface  
738  $PM_{10}$  concentration over the YRD in the V4 km simulation suggest that the reduced  
739 dust burden may not be explained by emission distribution and transport differences



740 alone, but may also involve enhanced removal processes. Thus, the role of wet  
741 scavenging in modulating downwind dust loading, particularly over the YRD, is  
742 further examined in Section 3.2.4.

743

#### 744 **3.2.4. Impacts of regional mesh refinement on dust wet scavenging**

745 Dust wet scavenging represents an important removal process that can alter  
746 downstream dust loading by removing transported dust, especially over eastern China.  
747 Here we focus on the contrast between U50 km and V4 km, because this comparison  
748 most clearly illustrates resolution-dependent differences in precipitation structure and  
749 associated wet scavenging. **Fig. 13** shows that the two simulations produce broadly  
750 similar total precipitation patterns, with the main precipitation band extending across  
751 southern and eastern China. However, the V4 km simulation exhibits stronger spatial  
752 variability and more localized precipitation anomalies. Compared with U50 km, the  
753 V4 km configuration produces increased precipitation over parts of southern and  
754 eastern China, including the YRD, while precipitation decreases over some regions of  
755 central and northern China (**Fig. 13c**). The spatial distribution of dust wet scavenging  
756 further illustrates how precipitation differences, together with the distribution of  
757 transported dust, modulate dust removal. The V4 km simulation produces stronger  
758 dust wet scavenging over the YRD than U50 km (**Fig. 13d–f**), indicating a localized  
759 enhancement of dust removal in this downwind region.

760 **Table 5** further quantifies the regional differences in wet scavenging rate and  
761 total dust wet scavenging across the analyzed regions. From U50 km to V4 km, the  
762 dust wet scavenging rate decreases from 158.554 to 77.663 mg m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> over the  
763 TKD and from 74.261 to 15.966 mg m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> over the HC–WIM, indicating weaker  
764 regional-mean wet removal over dust source regions. In these regions, the increased  
765 dust mass loading in V4 km is therefore more consistent with the dominant influence  
766 of enhanced emissions and circulation-driven transport, as discussed in Sects.  
767 3.2.1–3.2.3, rather than with wet scavenging. By contrast, over the downwind YRD,  
768 the wet scavenging rate increases from 11.117 to 25.041 mg m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, and the total  
769 dust wet scavenging increases from 0.014 to 0.033 Tg. This enhanced removal



770 coincides with the 30.49% reduction in dust mass loading over the YRD in V4 km  
771 relative to U50 km (**Table 4**). The V16 km simulation does not show such an  
772 enhancement over the YRD, with a wet scavenging rate of  $10.865 \text{ mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$  and  
773 total wet scavenging of 0.015 Tg, both close to the U50 km values (**Table S3**). The  
774 stronger wet scavenging over the YRD in V4 km than in V16 km suggests that the  
775 higher downstream resolution in the V4 km mesh configuration may exert a stronger  
776 influence on precipitation structure, thereby leading to a more pronounced effect on  
777 dust wet removal along the transport pathway. Wet scavenging therefore acts as a  
778 removal pathway superimposed on the emission- and transport-driven redistribution  
779 of dust. While enhanced emissions and modified circulation-influenced transport  
780 largely explain the increased dust loading over source and near-source regions,  
781 stronger wet scavenging over the YRD can locally offset the transported dust burden  
782 and contribute to the altered downstream dust distribution. This finding further  
783 implies that, when precipitation occurs along downwind transport pathways,  
784 extending the convection-permitting refinement region to cover these areas may help  
785 better represent dust–cloud–precipitation interactions, which warrants further  
786 investigation in future work.

787

#### 788 **4. Conclusions**

789 In this study, we applied the global variable-resolution modeling framework  
790 iAMAS (v2.6.3), coupled with a sectional dust module, to simulate the extreme East  
791 Asian dust storm during 13–18 March 2021 and assess the impacts of source-region  
792 mesh refinement. This is the first attempt to reproduce a strong East Asian dust  
793 outbreak using a global variable-resolution mesh model with convection-permitting  
794 scale refinement over the major source regions. Based on a globally quasi-uniform 50  
795 km configuration (U50 km) and two regionally refined meshes (V16 km and V4 km),  
796 iAMAS reproduces the reanalysis-constrained synoptic evolution of this dust event,  
797 including the large-scale trough-ridge pattern and the associated surface pressure  
798 distribution. Increasing mesh resolution allows a more detailed representation of



799 terrain and its dynamical influence on near-surface winds. As a result,  
800 terrain-modulated flow features, such as topographically confined wind corridors and  
801 sharpened wind gradients across key orographic transitions, are more clearly resolved.  
802 These resolution-dependent dynamical changes contribute to substantial differences in  
803 simulated dust emission and transport, with total dust emissions over East Asia  
804 increasing by 35.24% in V16 km and 54.98% in V4 km relative to U50 km.

805 Comparisons with NOAA 10-m wind observations indicate that the refined  
806 meshes better capture the spatial heterogeneity and temporal variability of daily mean  
807 wind speed, with regional correlations reaching 0.81-0.92 in V4 km and source-region  
808 wind-speed biases substantially reduced. Consistent with the improved near-surface  
809 dynamics, iAMAS also reproduces the observed PM<sub>10</sub> evolution over eastern China  
810 and the associated dust transport corridor. The refined meshes produce sharper  
811 concentration gradients and a clearer spatial distribution along the transport pathway,  
812 with the V4 km simulation showing the strongest agreement with PM<sub>10</sub> observations,  
813 including a correlation of 0.85 and an NMB below 20%. By contrast, the U50 km  
814 simulation generates smoother dust plumes and weaker peak concentrations. This  
815 likely reflects its coarser representation of terrain-flow interactions and friction  
816 velocity, which underestimates the nonlinear contribution from strong  
817 friction-velocity events above the emission threshold. Evaluation against AERONET  
818 AOD further shows that column aerosol loading is better represented under mesh  
819 refinement, with the V4 km simulation exhibiting improved agreement with  
820 observations in both magnitude and spatial distribution across stations.

821 Overall, the benefits of regional mesh refinement arise from three interacting  
822 effects: (i) improved representation of terrain-flow coupling, which intensifies  
823 localized extremes in friction velocity and strengthens threshold-controlled dust  
824 emission; (ii) modification of dust transport pathways due to the combined effects of  
825 spatiotemporal emission changes and resolution-dependent circulation changes,  
826 leading to spatial redistribution of dust loading rather than a uniform increase; and (iii)  
827 resolution dependence of precipitation structure, which can locally offset emission-



828 and transport-driven increases in dust mass loading through wet scavenging.  
829 Region-integrated dust mass loading over East Asia increases by 13.72 % in V16 km  
830 and 23.50 % in V4 km relative to U50 km. The response is stronger over the NCP,  
831 where dust loading increases by 43.49 % in V16 km and 63.66 % in V4 km. However,  
832 the response is not spatially uniform. In humid downstream regions such as the YRD,  
833 the V4 km simulation produces stronger localized wet scavenging and reduces dust  
834 loading by 30.49% relative to U50 km. This competition between dynamical forcing  
835 from emission and transport and wet scavenging suggests that the impact of mesh  
836 refinement on dust burden is strongly region dependent.

837       These findings motivate further assessment of how robust these resolution effects  
838 are across additional strong dust events and under alternative model settings. Because  
839 this study focuses on a single extreme dust event, the relative roles of terrain-induced  
840 wind variability, circulation-related transport pathways, and precipitation-related  
841 removal may depend on the prevailing synoptic conditions and regional  
842 hydrometeorological environment. In particular, future work is needed to examine the  
843 sensitivity to dust emission schemes and mesh refinement under different synoptic  
844 conditions, and to better quantify how these processes jointly affect regional dust  
845 emission and long-range transport. Such assessments will provide a stronger basis for  
846 applying global variable-resolution models to event-scale dust prediction and to the  
847 evaluation of multiple dust emission schemes.

848



849 **Code availability.**

850 The used version of the iAMAS model is openly available at Zenodo  
851 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20115846>).

852

853 **Data availability.**

854 ERA5 reanalysis data are available from the Copernicus Climate Data Store  
855 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>). Surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentration data can be accessed  
856 through the China National Environmental Monitoring Centre (CNEMC;  
857 <https://www.cnemc.cn/>). Surface wind speed observations were obtained from NOAA  
858 station observations compiled in the Global Surface Summary of the Day (GSOD)  
859 dataset (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/>). Column-integrated aerosol loading was  
860 evaluated using sun-photometer observations from the Aerosol Robotic Network  
861 (AERONET). The AERONET Version 3 Direct-Sun AOD products at Level 2.0 and  
862 Level 1.5 are available from the AERONET website (<https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>).

863

864 **Author contributions.**

865 YX, CZ, and JF designed the experiments and developed the methodology. YX,  
866 JF, XQ, and ZX contributed to software implementation. YX and CZ performed the  
867 analysis and data curation, with contributions from XZ. JZ, ZY, QY, GL, and ZZ  
868 contributed to the investigation. The manuscript draft was written by YX and CZ. CZ  
869 supervised the study. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

870

871 **Competing interests.**

872 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing  
873 interests.

874

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881

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1138 **Table 1.** Dust size-bin boundaries and emitted volume fractions.

| Bin | $D_L$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) | $D_U$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) | $D_G$ ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) | Volume fraction       |
|-----|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1   | 0.0390625               | 0.078125                | 0.05524                 | $7.70 \times 10^{-7}$ |
| 2   | 0.078125                | 0.15625                 | 0.11048                 | $1.50 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| 3   | 0.15625                 | 0.3125                  | 0.22097                 | $1.90 \times 10^{-4}$ |
| 4   | 0.3125                  | 0.625                   | 0.44194                 | $1.80 \times 10^{-3}$ |
| 5   | 0.625                   | 1.25                    | 0.88388                 | $1.19 \times 10^{-2}$ |
| 6   | 1.25                    | 2.5                     | 1.76776                 | $5.74 \times 10^{-2}$ |
| 7   | 2.5                     | 5                       | 3.53553                 | $2.02 \times 10^{-1}$ |
| 8   | 5                       | 10                      | 7.07106                 | $4.56 \times 10^{-1}$ |
| 9   | 10                      | 20                      | 14.1421                 | $2.70 \times 10^{-1}$ |
| 10  | 20                      | 40                      | 28.2843                 | $2.94 \times 10^{-4}$ |

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1140 **Table 2.** Regional evaluation of simulated daily mean 10-m wind speed against collocated  
 1141 NOAA surface-station observations during 13–16 March 2021 for three mesh configurations  
 1142 (U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km). The statistics include the temporal correlation coefficient ( $r$ )  
 1143 and normalized mean bias (NMB, %). Regional values of  $r$  are obtained by averaging  
 1144 station-based temporal correlations within each region.

| Regions* | U50 km |         | V16 km |         | V4 km |         |
|----------|--------|---------|--------|---------|-------|---------|
|          | $r$    | NMB (%) | $r$    | NMB (%) | $r$   | NMB (%) |
| TKD      | 0.23   | +8.14   | 0.56   | +2.67   | 0.81  | +2.81   |
| MGD      | 0.15   | -53.37  | 0.61   | -14.43  | 0.87  | -11.46  |
| HC-WIM   | 0.05   | -61.73  | 0.87   | -13.92  | 0.92  | -10.17  |
| LP       | 0.21   | +26.71  | 0.73   | +14.93  | 0.83  | +12.83  |
| NCP      | 0.18   | +35.52  | 0.78   | +8.02   | 0.84  | +7.93   |
| YRD      | 0.34   | +29.51  | 0.71   | +11.53  | 0.82  | +9.56   |

1145 \* The locations and spatial extents of the analyzed regions are shown in **Fig. 1.**

1146



1147 **Table 3.** Total dust emissions over different regions during 13–17 March 2021.

| Regions* | U50 km<br>(Tg) | V16 km<br>(Tg) | V4 km<br>(Tg) | V16 km Relative<br>Change (%)** | V4 km Relative<br>Change (%)** |
|----------|----------------|----------------|---------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| EA       | 322.825        | 436.603        | 500.301       | 35.24%                          | 54.98%                         |
| TKD      | 72.401         | 102.021        | 105.412       | 40.91%                          | 45.59%                         |
| MGD      | 140.841        | 194.115        | 232.920       | 37.83%                          | 65.38%                         |
| HC–WIM   | 33.760         | 44.497         | 52.172        | 31.80%                          | 54.54%                         |
| LP       | 1.625          | 1.911          | 2.642         | 17.60%                          | 62.58%                         |

1148 \* EA denotes East Asia (15–55°N, 70–140°E). The locations and spatial extents of the other  
1149 analyzed regions are shown in **Fig. 1**. \*\* Relative change (%) is calculated relative to the U50  
1150 km simulation.



1151 **Table 4.** Regional dust mass loading during 13–17 March 2021 for different mesh  
1152 configurations.

| Region | U50 km<br>(Tg) | V16 km<br>(Tg) | V4 km<br>(Tg) | V16 km Relative<br>Change (%)* | V4 km Relative<br>Change (%)* |
|--------|----------------|----------------|---------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| EA     | 75.094         | 85.394         | 92.744        | 13.72%                         | 23.50%                        |
| TKD    | 10.391         | 12.914         | 13.869        | 24.28%                         | 33.47%                        |
| MGD    | 13.893         | 16.766         | 19.751        | 20.68%                         | 42.17%                        |
| HC–WIM | 8.556          | 9.724          | 10.485        | 13.65%                         | 22.55%                        |
| LP     | 2.703          | 2.909          | 2.563         | 7.62%                          | –5.18%                        |
| NCP    | 3.897          | 5.592          | 6.378         | 43.49%                         | 63.66%                        |
| YRD    | 0.364          | 0.392          | 0.253         | 7.69%                          | –30.49%                       |

1153 \* Relative change (%) is calculated relative to the U50 km simulation.

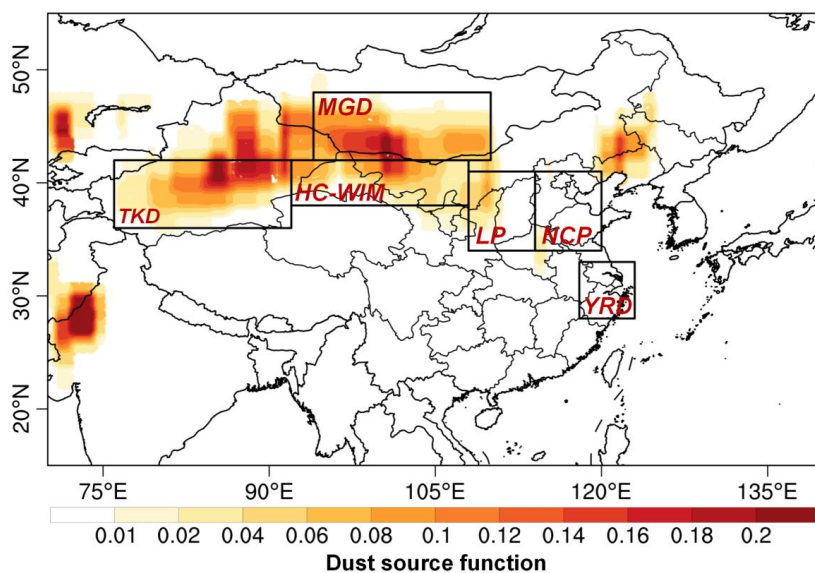
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1155 **Table 5.** Regional mean dust wet scavenging rate and total dust wet scavenging during 13–17  
1156 March 2021 in the U50 km and V4 km simulations.

| Region | U50 km dust wet  | V4 km dust wet   | U50 km total dust |                               | V4 km total dust                  |
|--------|--|--|-------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|        | scavenging rate<br>( $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) | scavenging rate<br>( $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ) | wet               | scavenging<br>( $\text{Tg}$ ) | wet scavenging<br>( $\text{Tg}$ ) |
| TKD    | 158.554  | 77.663   | 0.732             |                               | 0.358                             |
| MGD    | 3.545  | 1.480  | 0.014             |                               | 0.006                             |
| HC–WIM | 74.261   | 15.966   | 0.226             |                               | 0.048                             |
| LP     | 2.212  | 0.033  | 0.004             |                               | 0.001                             |
| NCP    | 6.733  | 1.109  | 0.013             |                               | 0.002                             |
| YRD    | 11.117   | 25.041   | 0.014             |                               | 0.033                             |

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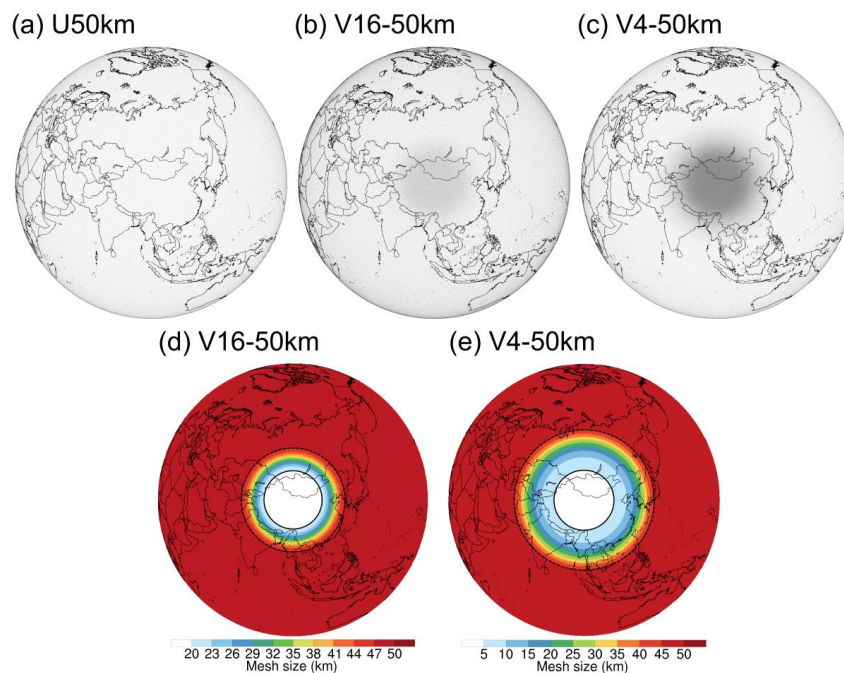


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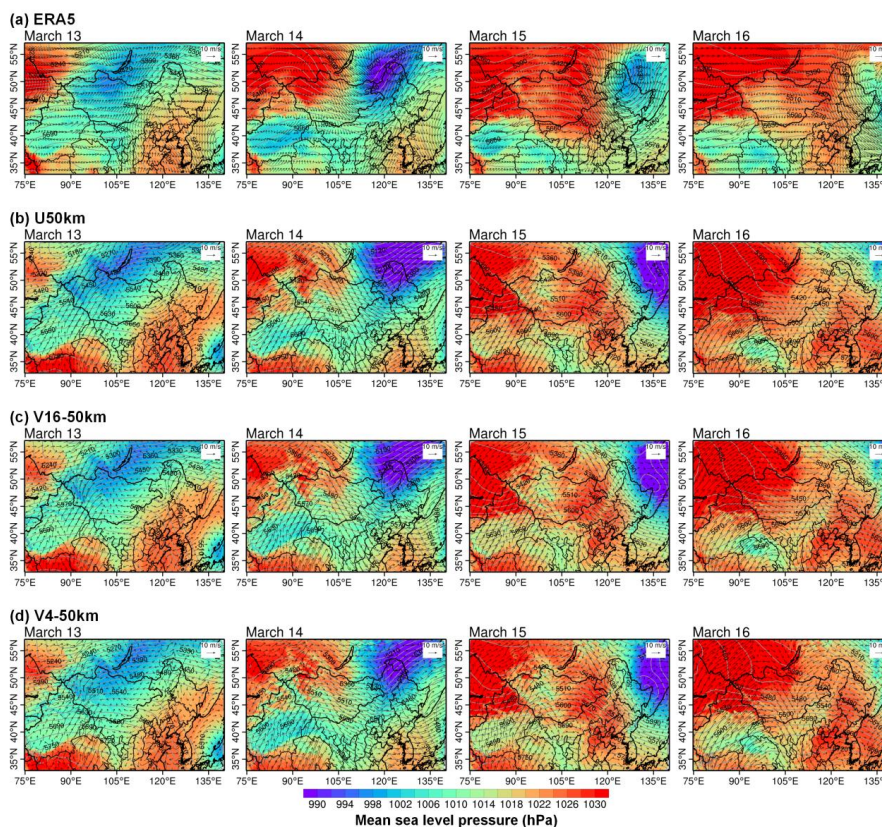
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**Fig. 1.** Spatial distribution of the dust source function for the dust emission scheme in the model, and the major source and downwind regions analyzed in this study.



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1162 **Fig. 2.** (a) Global quasi-uniform mesh of 50 km (U50 km); (b, c) Global variable-resolution  
1163 meshes of 16–50 km (V16 km) and 4–50 km (V4 km), refined over the major dust source  
1164 regions in East Asia; (d, e) Spatial distributions of mesh spacing (cell size) for V16 km and  
1165 V4 km. The black solid circles denote the refinement region, and the black dashed circles  
1166 indicate the outermost boundary of the refinement transition zone.



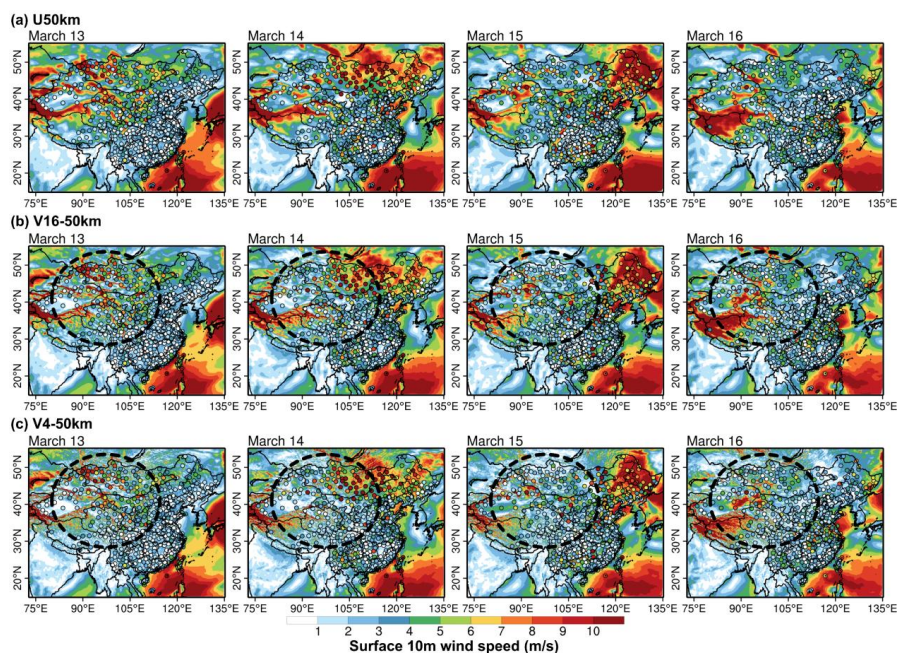
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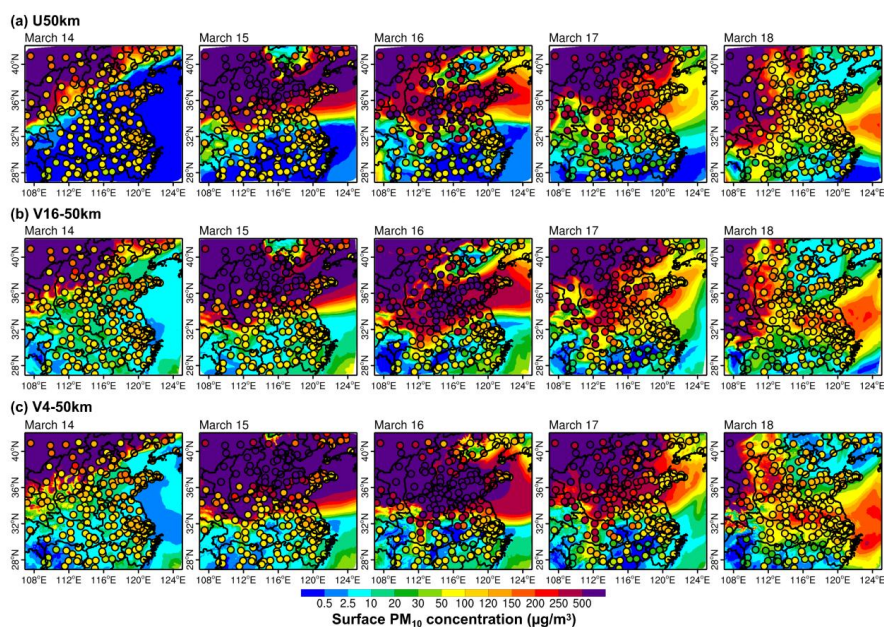
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**Fig. 3.** Daily mean sea level pressure (shading, hPa), 500 hPa geopotential height (contours, gpm), and 850 hPa wind vectors for ERA5 and iAMAS simulations (U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km) during 13–16 March 2021.



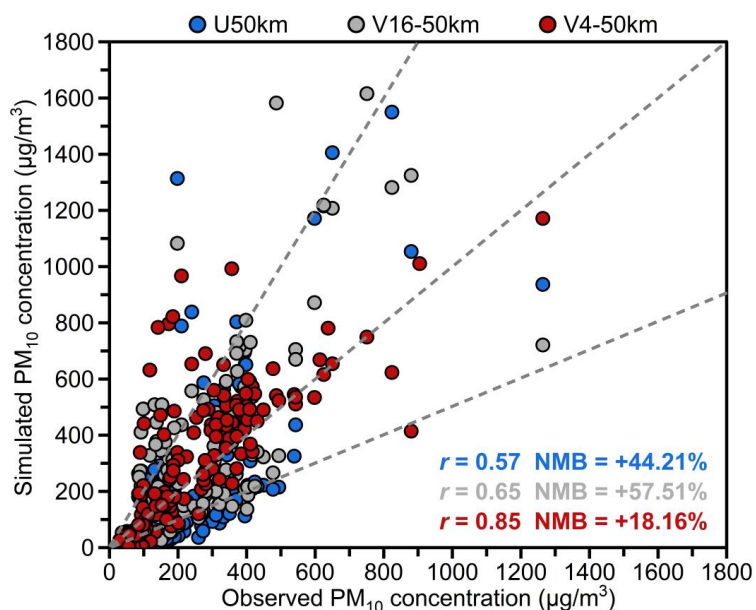
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1172 **Fig. 4.** Spatial distribution of daily mean 10-m wind speed (shading,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) from the iAMAS  
1173 simulations (U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km), with collocated NOAA surface-station  
1174 observations overlaid as colored markers, during 13–16 March 2021. The dashed outline  
1175 denotes the refinement region.



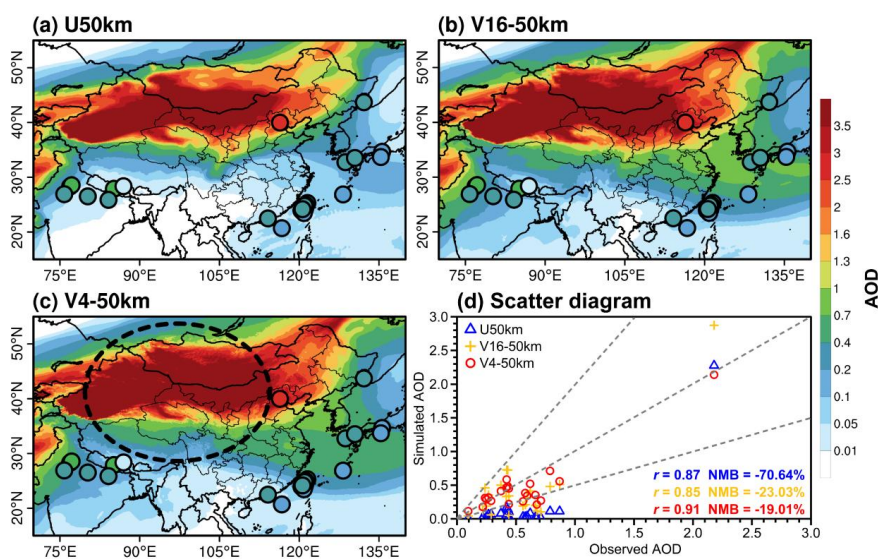
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1177 **Fig. 5.** Spatial distribution of daily mean surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations over eastern China  
1178 from the iAMAS simulations during 14–18 March 2021. Shading denotes simulated PM<sub>10</sub>  
1179 concentrations from the U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km configurations, and colored markers  
1180 denote CNEMC observations at 192 collocated monitoring stations.



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1182 **Fig. 6.** Scatterplot of simulated versus observed period-mean surface PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations  
1183 over 14–18 March 2021 for different mesh configurations. Each marker corresponds to one of  
1184 the 192 collocated CNEMC monitoring stations shown in **Fig. 5**. The correlation coefficient (r)  
1185 and normalized mean bias (NMB, %) are shown for each experiment.



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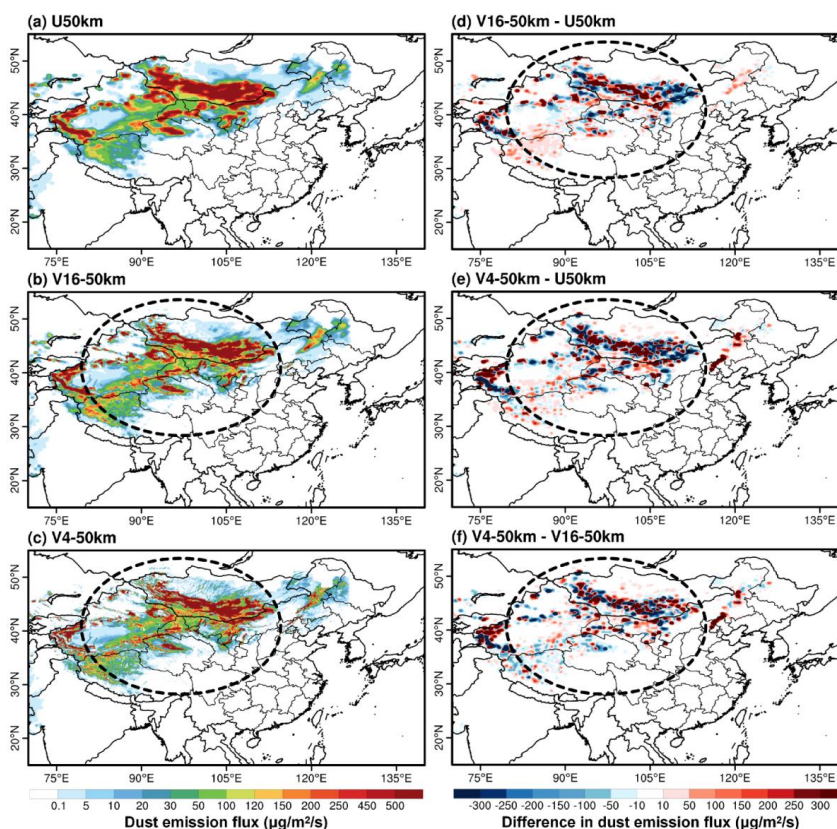
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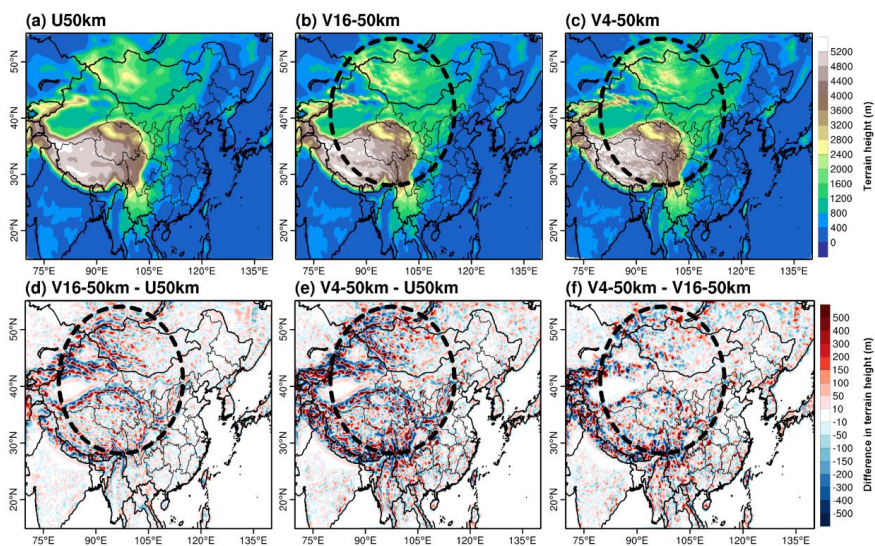
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**Fig. 7.** (a–c) Spatial distribution of mean AOD at 500 nm averaged over 13–18 March 2021 from the iAMAS simulations using the U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km mesh configurations, with collocated AERONET observations overlaid as markers. (d) Scatterplot of simulated versus observed period-mean AOD at 500 nm at the collocated AERONET sites, with the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) and normalized mean bias (NMB) reported for each configuration. The dashed outline denotes the refinement region.

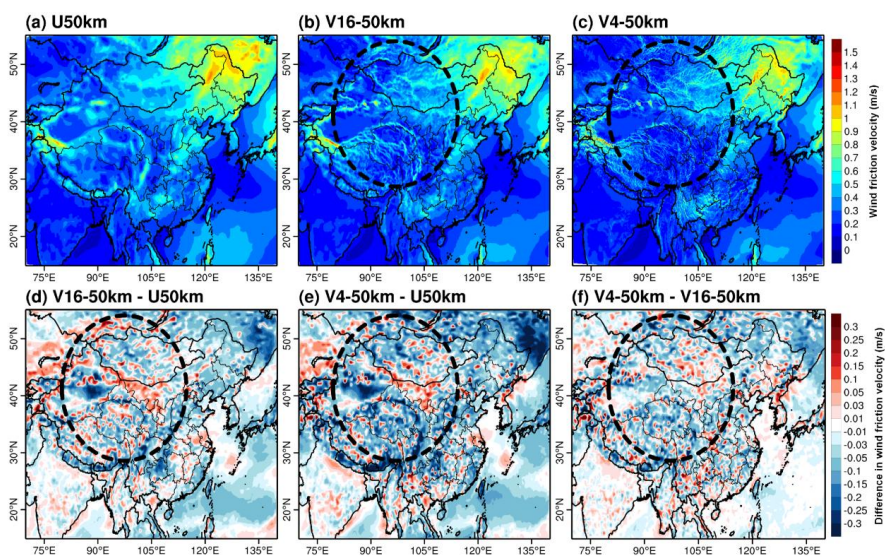


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1194 **Fig. 8.** (a–c) Spatial distribution of mean dust emission flux ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) simulated with the  
1195 U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km mesh configurations during 13–17 March 2021. (d) Differences  
1196 in dust emission flux between V16 km and U50 km. (e) Differences between V4 km and U50  
1197 km. (f) Differences between V4 km and V16 km. The dashed outline denotes the refinement  
1198 region.



1199

1200 **Fig. 9.** (a–c) Spatial distribution of terrain height (m) for the U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km. (d)  
1201 Differences in terrain height between V16 km and U50 km. (e) Differences between V4 km  
1202 and U50 km. (f) Differences between V4 km and V16 km. The dashed outline denotes the  
1203 refinement region.



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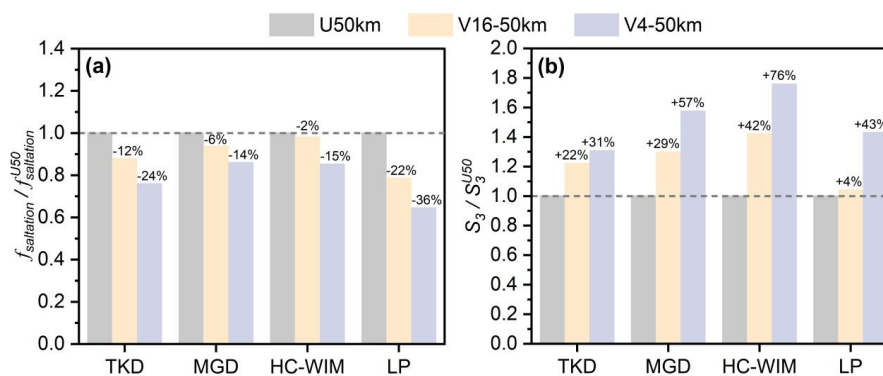
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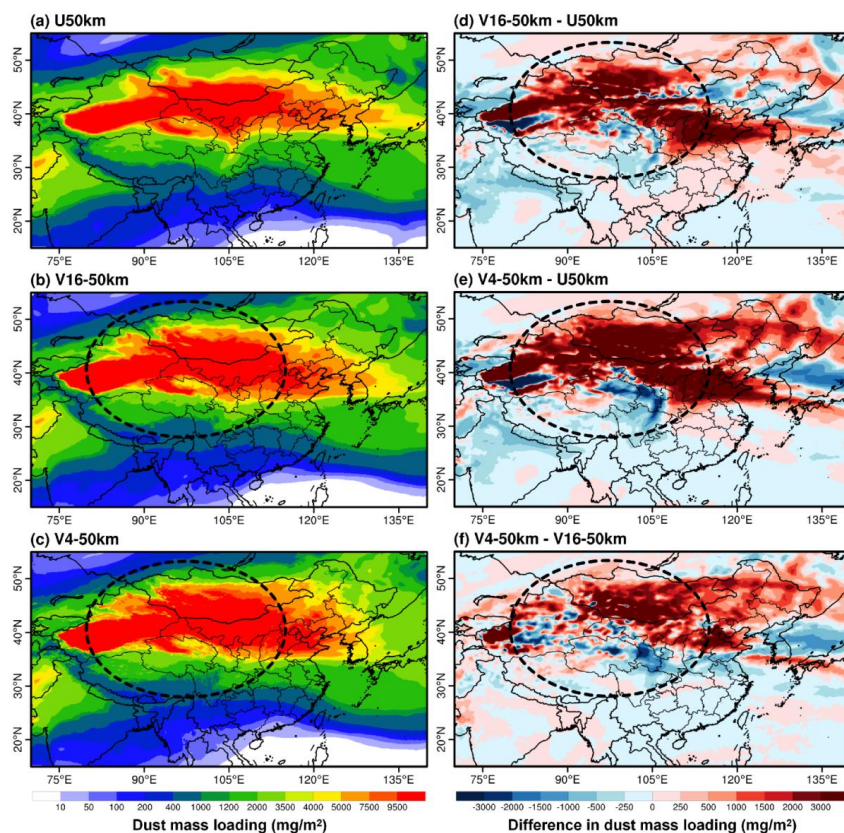
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**Fig. 10.** (a–c) Spatial distribution of wind friction velocity ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) for the U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km during 13–17 March 2021. (d) Differences in wind friction velocity between V16 km and U50 km. (e) Differences between V4 km and U50 km. (f) Differences between V4 km and V16 km. The dashed outline denotes the refinement region.



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1210 **Fig. 11.** Relative changes in saltation occurrence frequency ( $f_{saltation}$ ) and the nonlinear  
1211 amplification metric  $S_3$  under different mesh configurations relative to the U50 km simulation.



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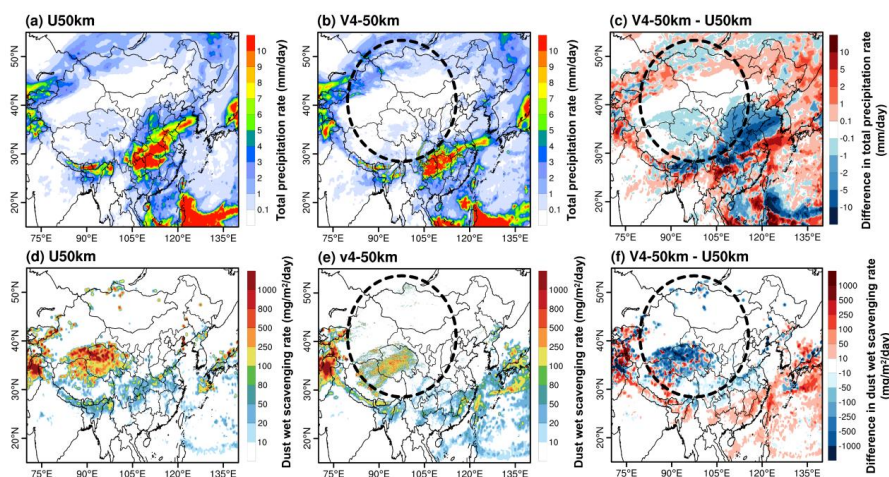
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**Fig. 12.** (a–c) Spatial distribution of dust mass loading ( $\text{mg m}^{-2}$ ) from the U50 km, V16 km, and V4 km simulations during 13–17 March 2021. (d) Differences in dust mass loading between V16 km and U50 km. (e) Differences between V4 km and U50 km. (f) Differences between V4 km and V16 km. The dashed outline denotes the refinement region.



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**Fig. 13.** (a–b) Spatial distributions of period-mean total precipitation rate ( $\text{mm day}^{-1}$ ) from the U50 km and V4 km simulations during 13–17 March 2021. (c) Difference in period-mean total precipitation rate between V4 km and U50 km. (d–e) Spatial distributions of period-mean dust wet scavenging rate ( $\text{mg m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$ ) from the U50 km and V4 km simulations during 13–17 March 2021. (f) Difference in period-mean dust wet scavenging rate between V4 km and U50 km. The dashed outline denotes the refinement region.