

1 Role of surface wind and vegetation cover in multi-decadal variations of dust
2 emission in the Sahara and Sahel
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12

13 Abstract

14 North Africa, the world's largest dust source, is non-uniform, consisting of a permanently
15 arid region (Sahara), a semi-arid region (Sahel), and a relatively moist vegetated region
16 (Savanna), each with very different rainfall patterns and surface conditions. This study
17 aims to better understand the controlling factors that determine the variation of dust
18 emission in North Africa over a 27-year period from 1982 to 2008, using observational
19 data and model simulations. The results show that the model-derived Saharan dust
20 emission is only correlated with the 10-m winds (W10m) obtained from reanalysis data,
21 but the model-derived Sahel dust emission is correlated with both W10m and the
22 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) that is obtained from satellite. While
23 the Saharan dust accounts for 82 % of the continental North Africa dust emission (1340-
24 1570 Tg year⁻¹) in the 27-year average, the Sahel accounts for 17 % with a larger

25 seasonal and inter-annual variation (230-380 Tg year⁻¹), contributing about a quarter of
26 the transatlantic dust transported to the northern part of South America. The decreasing
27 dust emission trend over the 27-year period is highly correlated with W10m over the
28 Sahara (R=0.92). Over the Sahel, the dust emission is correlated with W10m (R=0.69)
29 but is also anti-correlated with the trend of NDVI (R=-0.65). W10m is decreasing over
30 both the Sahara and the Sahel between 1982 and 2008, and the trends are correlated
31 (R=0.53), suggesting that Saharan/Sahelian surface winds are a coupled system, driving
32 the inter-annual variation of dust emission.

33

34 1. Introduction

35 Dust plays an important role in global climate by interacting with solar and
36 terrestrial radiation, altering cloud amount and radiative properties (Haywood et al., 2003;
37 Forster et al., 2007; Evan et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2010). Dust is also important to
38 biogeochemical cycles by fertilizing land and ocean and modulating carbon uptake
39 (Jickells et al., 2005; Maher et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2015a). North Africa is the world's
40 largest dust source accounting for about one half of the global dust mass loading in the
41 atmosphere (Kinne et al., 2006; Chin et al., 2009), and its impact can go well beyond the
42 source region extending to hemispheric or even global scales (Carlson and Prospero,
43 1972; Kaufman et al., 2005; Prospero, 2014; Yu et al., 2015b). Mineral dust is also an air
44 pollutant that causes premature deaths by cardiopulmonary disease and lung cancer
45 (Giannadaki et al., 2014).

46 North Africa is known to be the largest dust source area in the world, but the dust
47 sources are not homogeneously distributed (Ginoux et al., 2001, 2012; Formenti et al.,

48 2011). For example, the Köppen-Geiger climate classifies North Africa into three regions
49 with the Sahara desert in the north, the Savanna in the south, and the Sahel, a semi-arid
50 transition zone, between the two (Kottek et al., 2006). Although the Saharan desert is
51 considered to be the major dust source in North Africa, a number of previous
52 observational and modeling studies have found that the dust sources in Sahel plays an
53 important role in the North African climate system (Charney, 1975; Tegen et al., 2004;
54 Yoshioka et al., 2007; Foltz and McPhaden, 2008; Mahowald et al., 2010; Klose et al.,
55 2010; Cowie et al., 2013).

56 Dust emission from bare soil is mainly driven by surface wind interacting with
57 dry soil particles. When the surface is vegetated, the vegetation protects underlying soils
58 and plays an important role in modulating the quantity of dust emitted. However, the
59 relationship between wind and vegetation as well as their roles in dust emission is not
60 fully understood. For example, there is a suggestion that decreasing surface wind speed
61 since the 1980s in North Africa can be explained by increased vegetation that enhances
62 surface roughness (Vautard et al., 2010; Bichet et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Cowie et
63 al., 2013). While some studies find that precipitation and vegetation together strongly
64 constrain dust over the Sahel and other semi-arid source regions (e.g., Prospero and Lamb,
65 2003; Zender and Kwon, 2005; Cowie et al., 2013), others do not find a direct link
66 between the dustiness of the Northern Atlantic and the land use or vegetation change over
67 the source region (e.g., Ridley et al., 2014).

68 Because the Sahara is mostly bare, experiencing no significant seasonal or
69 interannual variability in surface characteristics, we expect any variability in dust sources
70 from this area will be due to meteorology, specifically surface wind speed, and not due to

71 changes in vegetation. If there is variability in dust source strength in North Africa linked
72 to vegetation cover, that variability will be introduced by Sahel sources with their
73 seasonal and interannual vegetative cover variability. That is why characterizing dust
74 source processes in the Sahel is central towards better understanding the relative roles of
75 meteorology and land surface processes in dust emissions for the Sahel and the North
76 Africa. The goal of this study is to better understand the relationships between surface
77 wind, rainfall, surface vegetation, dust emission, and dust loading over the Sahara and
78 Sahel using wind and vegetation data sets and global dust model simulations in a multi-
79 decadal time span from 1982 to 2008.

80 In this paper, we first define in Section 2 the sub-Saharan semi-arid region (i.e.,
81 the Sahel) using the satellite observations of Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
82 (NDVI), and describe the NASA Goddard Chemistry Aerosol Radiation and Transport
83 (GOCART) model used in this study. In Section 3.1 we compare modeled dust optical
84 depth (DOD) with remotely sensed and in situ observations. In Section 3.2 we examine
85 the long-term climatological mean seasonal relationships between surface conditions and
86 meteorological parameters over the Sahara and Sahel. We then estimate the contribution
87 of the Sahelian dust transport to the dust loading over the North Atlantic in Section 3.3,
88 followed by a time-dependent analysis of model-derived dust emission with two
89 independent observationally-based trends of surface wind and surface vegetation over the
90 time span between 1982 and 2008 in Section 3.4. Discussion and summary are given in
91 Sections 4 and 5, respectively.

92

93 2. Methods

94 2.1 Sahel area determined by the AVHRR NDVI

95 We have utilized the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index observed from the
96 Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer satellite (AVHRR-NDVI) to build a Sahel
97 area map (Kim et al., 2013). The 8-km, half-monthly AVHRR NDVI composite data
98 (version NDVIg) is from the NASA Global Inventory Monitoring and Modeling Systems
99 (GIMMS) that spans the years August 1981 to December 2008 (Tucker et al., 2005;
100 Brown et al., 2006; Anyamba et al., 2014). Our method for Sahel area determination
101 relies on a condition that may characterize the behavior of NDVI in North Africa based
102 on an analysis of the NDVI throughout the period of NDVIg availability (January 1982 to
103 December 2008) to be consistent with the method developed in the previous study (i.e.,
104 Kim et al., 2013), even though a newer version (NDVI3g) has expanded to cover the
105 present time (Pinzon and Tucker, 2014; Anyamba et al., 2014).

106 The Sahara and Sahel exhibit different values and variability of NDVI throughout
107 the year. NDVI is always lower than 0.15 in the northern part of the domain and always
108 greater than 0.2 in the southern part of the domain (Figure 1a and 1b). In the transition
109 zone, the NDVI is below 0.15 during the dry season and it is greater than 0.20 during the
110 wet season. Thus, we define the annual semi-arid transition zone, or the Sahel, as the area
111 that complies with the following criteria:

112

$$113 \text{NDVI}_{\min} < 0.15 \text{ and } \text{NDVI}_{\max} > 0.20 \quad (1)$$

114

115 where NDVI_{\min} and NDVI_{\max} are the minimum and maximum monthly values of NDVI
116 in a particular latitude-longitude grid point in a given year. We have applied these

117 conditions to the area for 10°N-20°N and 17°W-40°E (Figure 1c). The shape and location
118 of the Sahel defined by equation (1) is quite similar to other studies using precipitation
119 amount (e.g., Herrmann et al., 2005; Kottek et al., 2006; Anyamba et al., 2014). The
120 semi-arid area defined here clearly excludes all permanent deserts from the Sahel similar
121 to the precipitation based map (e.g., the Bodélé depression at 17°N,18°E). There is some
122 year-to-year change in the southern Sahel border and in the total area of the semi-arid
123 region, but the northern Sahel border is generally the same. A climatological semi-arid
124 region calculated based on the AVHRR NDVI in this study, which can be considered as
125 the general Sahel area, is shown in Figure 1d at 1° latitude × 1.25° longitude resolution.
126 In the map, a grid point is determined as the Sahel when it satisfies the equation (1) for
127 more than 5 years out of the 27-year data base. The blue area is identified as the semi-arid
128 Sahel ($3.6 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$) and the red indicates the permanent Sahara desert ($1.1 \times 10^7 \text{ km}^2$).

129

130 2.2 GOCART model description and simulation setup

131 The Goddard Chemistry Aerosol Radiation and Transport (GOCART) model is
132 used to simulate key tropospheric aerosols including sulfate, dust, black carbon, organic
133 carbon, and sea-salt (Ginoux et al., 2001; Chin et al., 2002, 2009, 2014). The model is
134 driven by the meteorological reanalysis data from the Modern-Era Reanalysis for
135 Research and Applications (MERRA) (Rienecker et al., 2011) with the input of the
136 meteorological fields from MERRA every 3 hours, which were linearly interpolated to
137 the GOCART model dynamic time step (15 min, in this case). The model is run as an
138 offline chemistry transport model with no feedback between dust and meteorology. We
139 run the model simulation at a spatial resolution of 2° latitude × 2.5° longitude and 72

140 vertical layers up to 0.01 hPa. Aerosol advection is computed by a flux-form semi-
141 Lagrangian method that is a second-order closure scheme for the boundary layer
142 turbulent mixing, and the moist convection is based on the cloud mass flux fields (details
143 given in our previous publications, e.g., Chin et al., 2002, 2009).

144 The dust emission parameterization in GOCART requires the 10-m wind speed,
145 the threshold velocity of wind erosion, and the surface conditions (soil type, ground
146 wetness, topographic depression, and surface bareness) (Ginoux et al., 2001). Dust
147 emission flux E_p ($\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) for a size group p is expressed as:

148
149
$$E_p = C \times S \times s_p \times W_{10m}^2 \times (W_{10m} - W_t), \text{ if } W_{10m} > W_t \quad (2)$$

150
151 where C is a dimensional factor ($\mu\text{g s}^2 \text{m}^{-5}$), S is the dust source function described below,
152 s_p is the fraction of size group p within the soil (Tegen and Fung, 1994), W_{10m} is the 10m
153 wind speed (m s^{-1}), and W_t is the threshold velocity of wind erosion as a function of dust
154 density, particle diameter, and surface wetness to account for the bonding effect between
155 water and particles (Ginoux et al., 2001, 2004). Two soil types considered for erosion are
156 clay (particle radius less than $1 \mu\text{m}$) and silt (particle radius greater than $1 \mu\text{m}$ and less
157 than $10 \mu\text{m}$). S is the dust source function or probability of dust uplifting with a value
158 between 0 and 1. The dust source function S is a product of the degree of topographical
159 depression (H) and surface bareness (B), where H is calculated from the elevation of the
160 grid cell relative to the elevation of the surrounding areas (Ginoux et al., 2001), and B is
161 defined as the fraction of the NDVI pixels in a model grid cell that are below a threshold
162 value of 0.15 (Kim et al., 2013). Such defined surface bareness resolves the seasonal and
163 inter-annual variation of the dust source function in semi-arid area based on the time-

164 dependent variation of NDVI (Kim et al., 2013). Dust particle size distribution is
165 described by eight size bins in the size range from 0.1 to 10 μm in radius to take into
166 account size-dependent physical and optical processes (Chin et al., 2009). GOCART
167 explicitly calculates dust emission and deposition processes for 5 size bins in the range of
168 0.1 – 1.0 – 1.8 – 3.0 – 6.0 – 10.0 μm in diameter. The first mass size bin is further divided
169 into 4 sub-size bins for optical property calculations (Tegen and Fung, 1994; Ginoux et
170 al., 2001). The model does not include dust particles larger than 10 μm in diameter,
171 because they are removed from the atmosphere quickly (lifetime only a few hours) to
172 have small impact on transport and radiative effects (Tegen and Fung, 1994; Ginoux et al.,
173 2001). Physical processes include boundary layer mixing, advection, convective transport,
174 and dry and wet depositions. More complete description of the GOCART model and the
175 dynamic dust source function can be found in previous publications (see Kim et al., 2013
176 and references therein).

177 We performed two sets of simulations using GOCART for the three-decadal
178 period from 1982 to 2008 using the NDVIg data. First, in a base run dust is emitted from
179 all global source regions including Sahara, Sahel, Middle East, Central and East Asia,
180 and other source regions. In the second run dust emission is restricted to only the Sahel
181 domain described in section 2.2 (see Figure 1d) in order to quantify the Sahel
182 contributions. Our analysis in this study focuses on the domain covering North Africa and
183 North Atlantic between 90°W-40°E and 0°-35°N.

184

185 2.3. Observations

186 We compare the model-simulated dust optical depth (DOD) with several
187 observational data sets. Two satellite products for 2001-2007 are used: the Multiangle
188 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MISR) (Kahn et al., 2005) and the Moderate Resolution
189 Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS). The MODIS DOD over ocean is derived from the
190 AOD (dark-target product, Remer et al., 2005; Levy et al., 2010) and fine-mode fraction
191 (f) over ocean to empirically separate DOD from the anthropogenic and marine aerosols
192 using representative values of fine mode fractions of marine, dust, and anthropogenic
193 aerosols and marine aerosol optical depth (Kaufman et al., 2005; Yu et al., 2009). For
194 MISR, the non-spherical AOD is assumed to be equivalent to the DOD (Guo et al., 2013).
195 We also use the ground-based remote sensing data from the AErosol RObotic NETwork
196 (AERONET, Holben et al., 1998); the coarse-mode AOD derived from AERONET direct
197 sun measurements at the wavelength 550 nm is used as a proxy of DOD (Dubovik et al.,
198 2000, 2002, and 2006; Eck et al., 2010). There are eight AERONET stations located in
199 the study domain (Agoufou, Banizoumbou, Ouagadougou, Dahkla, Dakar, Cape Verde,
200 La Parguera, and Surinam; see Figure 2 for a map of the locations). Note that the DOD
201 from satellites and AERONET are derived based on the particle size or shape information
202 with several assumptions, they should be considered as proxies of dust rather than the
203 “true” DOD.

204

205 2.4 Modern-Era Reanalysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) products

206 Besides driving the GOCART model runs, MERRA reanalysis products of key
207 meteorological fields pertinent to dust are used in our analysis. Specifically we call upon
208 W10m and precipitation, for their determining roles in dust emission and removal. The

209 reanalysis system ingests data from a variety of sources including ground-based stations,
210 radiosondes and satellite products. The information content is then relaxed through a 4-
211 dimensional model grid to produce physically consistent fields of data that are easily
212 matched to gridded satellite data and other model output.

213 There have been attempts to validate Sahelian reanalysis products or test
214 consistency between different reanalysis data sets with mixed results. Cowie et al. (2013)
215 and Ridley et al. (2014) show consistency between different reanalysis systems' depiction
216 of the broad features of the W10m field. Specifically all surface wind products show a
217 downward trend during the time period of our interest. However, the same cannot be said
218 for the precipitation, which varies significantly between data sets based on the global
219 gauge-based NOAA Climate Prediction Center "Unified" (CPCU) precipitation product
220 (Reichle et al., 2011) and those based on the Global Precipitation Climatology Centre
221 (GPCP) system (Beck et al., 2005). The problem in North Africa is the sparse distribution
222 of surface stations and radiosondes and the high spatial variability of precipitation.
223 Unlike precipitation, surface winds are more strongly coupled to upper level winds, more
224 spatially coherent and easier to represent properly in the reanalysis system.

225 In the analysis presented below, we show both W10m and precipitation reanalysis
226 fields from MERRA. Because of the large uncertainty in the precipitation product,
227 especially its interannual variation and long-term trends, we use it mainly to show the
228 climatological seasonal variations averaged over the study time period (27 years).

229

230 3. Results

231 3.1. Comparisons of model results with satellite and AERONET data

232 Although dust emission is the major variable of interest, there is no known
233 validation data for dust emission for the study area and period. The variable that we can
234 compare with other measurements is the dust aerosol loading in the atmosphere, once the
235 dust is airborne. Already the GOCART model aerosol loading has been extensively
236 compared with various observations over global and regional scales, including our area of
237 interest (Chin et al., 2007, 2014; Yu et al., 2009, 2015b; Kim et al., 2013). In this section
238 we add to this growing body of GOCART validation by comparing the spatial and
239 temporal variations of the modeled DOD with the satellite and ground observations
240 averaged for 2001 to 2007 over the study domain. We show this comparison between the
241 satellite retrievals and the model to assess the model's ability in representing the seasonal
242 variation of DOD in the North Atlantic.

243 The dust optical depth from the model and observations are shown in Figure 2.
244 The maximum DOD from the model (Figure 2c) is greater than 0.5 and is located over
245 Western Africa near source regions. Modeled DOD values decrease westward from the
246 source regions, over the Atlantic Ocean, as particles are removed by dry and wet
247 deposition during transport by the prevailing easterlies. The oceanic averaged DOD from
248 the model (0.06) is lower than that from the satellite observations of coarse mode AOD or
249 non-spherical AOD (0.10-0.12). As shown in Figure 2a and 2b as well as in our previous
250 study (Kim et al., 2014), the east-to-west gradient across the North Atlantic is much
251 stronger in the model than in the satellite observations, and the latter agree better with the
252 AERONET measurements. Because of the seasonal changes in winds and precipitation
253 associated with movement of the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ), the dust
254 center located at 10°N-20°N over the ocean during summer shifts further south to around

255 0°-15°N in winter, seen in both satellite retrievals and the model. The model and
256 satellites also indicate that DOD over the ocean is higher in summer (0.08-0.16) than in
257 winter (0.06-0.11). The model shows that the magnitudes of the peak DOD vary by
258 locations and time over North Africa, with a peak over southern/central Sahel in winter
259 but over western Sahara in summer.

260 Figure 3 shows the seasonality of the monthly mean DOD over land from
261 GOCART (Figure 3a) and over ocean from GOCART and satellite retrievals (Figure 3b
262 and 3c). Monthly mean model-calculated and satellite-derived DOD over the Eastern-
263 and Western Atlantic Ocean, divided at 50°W, shows the seasonality of the dust loading
264 as the dust is transported across the Atlantic. Although DOD from MODIS is larger than
265 MISR by up to 0.05 in the western North Atlantic in spring, the two satellite data agree
266 within their standard deviations over the Eastern Atlantic and their seasonal patterns are
267 similar. The modeled DOD is about 0.01-0.05 lower than the satellite data over the
268 eastern North Atlantic, but it is a factor of 2-5 too low over the western North Atlantic,
269 most likely due to the strong removal processes in the model during transport, noted by a
270 previous study (i.e., Kim et al., 2014). Nonetheless, the model captures the seasonal
271 variations of DOD over both eastern and western North Atlantic, showing a maximum
272 value in July. The GOCART-Sahel result is discussed in section 3.3.

273 The column dust optical depth (DOD) of the model is compared with coarse mode
274 AOD (proxy of DOD) retrieved at the 6 AERONET sites over the Sahel for the period of
275 1999-2008 (Figure 4). DOD at the three inland AERONET sites (i.e., Banizoumbou,
276 Ouagadougou, and Agoufou) shows similar seasonality with maxima in spring and
277 summer (March-July) and minima in winter (November-February) with mean DOD

278 between 0.43 and 0.50. AERONET DOD at Cape Verde and Dakar (DOD = 0.35-0.41),
279 which is located on the west coast, is lower than the inland sites and exhibits large intra-
280 seasonal variations. At Dakar, the model captures the magnitude of AERONET coarse
281 mode AOD but shows different seasonal variations ($r = 0.01$); interestingly, the total
282 AOD calculated by the model agrees much better with the AERONET measured total
283 AOD at Dakar ($r=0.43$, not shown), reflecting the uncertainties in approximating DOD
284 with coarse mode AOD in Dakar. Overall, the scatter plots in Figure 4 indicate the degree
285 of similarities between model calculated DOD and AERONET retrieved coarse model
286 AOD at the 6 sites in Sahel, with mean bias between 0.91 and 1.66 and correlation
287 coefficients between 0.01 and 0.84.

288

289 3.2. Seasonal variation of dust emission and controlling factors

290 In this section we examine the relationships of atmospheric and surface conditions
291 with dust emission and dust mass loading over different sub-regions of North Africa.
292 NDVI, rainfall, and W10m are used to represent atmospheric and land conditions. Dust
293 related parameters are taken from the GOCART model including source function (S),
294 bareness, dust emission, and dust column loading (LOAD). Climatological monthly
295 values of these parameters are calculated during the time period from 1982 to 2008 for
296 the Sahara and Sahel (Figure 5). Note that emission and loading in Figure 5b are
297 normalized to their maximum values in North Africa of 1.22×10^7 g km⁻² mon⁻¹ and 10.1
298 g km⁻², respectively. All variation noted in this section is seasonal variation based on
299 long-term averages. Correlations in Table 1 refer to seasonal progressions and are each
300 calculated from data sets with $N = 12$.

301 First, small rainfall amounts over the Sahara, a permanent desert with average
302 rainfall less than 0.3 mm/day, result in low NDVI (~ 0.1) and high bareness (~ 0.9)
303 throughout year (Figure 5a, left panel). S , which is a product of surface bareness and
304 topographic depression, is almost constant throughout the year with a value around 0.25
305 (Figure 5a, left panel). In contrast, those variables (NDVI, S , bareness, and rainfall)
306 exhibit much stronger seasonal variations in the Sahel (Figure 5a, right panel). The wet
307 season in Sahel is between March and October with a peak rainfall of 3.3 mm day^{-1} in
308 July. The dry season is ranging from November to February. The effect of the seasonal
309 progression of the rainfall on the vegetation is clearly seen in the annual cycle of the
310 NDVI in the Sahel. The NDVI is positively correlated with rainfall ($R=0.61$) (Table 1),
311 with a peak in September (0.3) occurring about a month after the peak rainfall and a
312 minimum in June (0.15) occurring just before the heavy rains ($> 2 \text{ mm day}^{-1}$) begin.
313 Consequently the bareness over the Sahel shows a seasonal variation that is opposite to
314 the NDVI with a maximum in June (~ 0.7) and minimum in September (~ 0.4). S has the
315 same seasonality as the bareness with a peak in June (~ 0.25) and a minimum value in
316 September (~ 0.18). The 28 % reduction of S in September compared to June is caused by
317 the seasonal variation of surface vegetation.

318 Climatological monthly averaged W_{10m} from MERRA over the Sahara ranges
319 between 4.2 and 4.5 m s^{-1} , with the spring season (March to May) slightly higher than the
320 fall season (Figure 5b, left panel). Consequently dust emission is higher in spring than in
321 fall. The 0.3 m s^{-1} differences in W_{10m} cause about a 20% difference in dust emission
322 due to the third power relationship between wind speed and dust emission (see equation
323 2). Indeed we see how the emissions follow the same seasonal pattern as W_{10m} . Because

324 of the dryness and little vegetation cover, the change in winds over the Sahara provides
325 the best explanation for the seasonal cycle of emission. Over the Sahel (Figure 5b, right
326 panel), W10m shows a much stronger seasonal variation, ranging between 3 m s^{-1} in
327 September and 5 m s^{-1} during winter. The W10m seasonal variation over the Sahel is
328 anti-correlated with NDVI ($R=-0.64$) that peaks in September. The strong anti-correlation
329 between W10m and rainfall ($R=-0.82$) indicates that the wind speed during the rainy
330 season is weaker than the dry season. The dust emission shows the same seasonal
331 variation as W10m with a maximum in winter and a minimum in August-September. The
332 Sahel emission flux per unit area is 62% of the Sahara because of less bareness (average
333 of 0.51 compared to 0.88 for the Sahara), weaker W10m (average of 4.10 m s^{-1} compared
334 to 4.47 m s^{-1} over Sahara), and lower S (average of 0.20 compared to 0.25 for the Sahara).
335 The total emission from the Sahel (308 Tg year^{-1}) is only about 21 % of the Sahara (1476
336 Tg year^{-1}). This is because of the lower emission rates and smaller area of the Sahel
337 ($3.6 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$) compared to the Sahara ($1.1 \times 10^7 \text{ km}^2$).

338 Strong anti-correlations are found between NDVI and dust emission ($R=-0.87$)
339 and between NDVI and loading ($R=-0.63$) over the Sahel (Table 1). The strongest
340 correlation coefficients ($R>0.9$) are found between W10m and emission over both the
341 Sahara and the Sahel (Table 1). On the other hand, no significant correlation between
342 W10m and dust loading (mass per unit area) is found in either region ($R<0.1$). In the
343 Sahara, dust loading shows a peak season in spring and summer (April to August) and
344 minimum in winter (December and January). In the Sahel, the primary peak dust loading
345 occurs in April to June, similar to the Sahara, with the column loading per unit area over
346 the Sahel greater than over the Sahara. The larger loading over the Sahel than the Sahara

347 suggests the dominant source of dust loading over the Sahel is actually transported dust
348 from the North. Shao et al. (2010) estimate that 50% of Saharan dust emissions are
349 transported to the south. The remaining half are transported to West (30%), North (15%),
350 and East (5%). Klose et al. (2010) agree with this assessment and show that the synoptic
351 situation that favors northeasterly winds that transport dust from the Sahara to the Sahel
352 and beyond to over the Gulf of Guinea is most frequently seen in the Spring.

353 Overall, the variation of magnitude and seasonality of dust emission
354 predominantly responds to the change of wind speed over both the Sahara and Sahel.
355 Secondly, the correlation coefficient analysis suggests that over the Sahel, unlike the
356 Sahara, NDVI is also tied to dust emission for seasonal climatology ($R=-0.87$).

357

358 3.3. Contributions of the Sahel dust source to North Africa and Northern Atlantic dust
359 loading

360 In this section we estimate the 27-year averaged relative contribution of the Sahel
361 dust emission to North Africa and Northern Atlantic dust loading using the GOCART
362 model simulations from the base and Sahel source runs (described in Section 2.2). The
363 Sahel contributes about 17 % (308 Tg year^{-1}) of the North African dust emission (1805
364 Tg year^{-1}) ranging from 7 % in September to 22 % in January-February (Figure 6).
365 Saharan dust accounts for 82 % ($1497 \text{ Tg year}^{-1}$) of the North African dust (79 % in
366 winter and 86 % in summer). The Sahara and Sahel together account for 99% of the
367 North African dust emission while a miniscule fraction of dust is emitted from the south
368 of the Sahel. Unlike the relatively constant wind field throughout the year over the Sahara
369 (i.e., Figure 5b, left panel), the strong seasonal variation of wind and perhaps vegetation

370 over the Sahel (i.e., Figure 5b, right panel) results in a maximum emission in January-
371 March (33 Tg mon^{-1}), which is nearly a factor of four over the minimum dust emission
372 season of August-September (9 Tg mon^{-1}) in Sahel.

373 Using the two GOCART model runs (base and Sahel source only), we can
374 quantify the fraction of the Sahel sources that contribute to the dust loading in the study
375 domain. In the base run that includes all global sources of dust, DOD is highest over
376 North Africa, decreasing over the Northern Atlantic Ocean (Figure 7a). In the run with
377 only Sahel sources, the magnitude of the DOD is less and the distribution shifts to the
378 south (Figure 7b). The distribution of DOD fraction contributed by Sahel sources is
379 shown in Figure 7c. The fraction of DOD contributed by the Sahel never exceeds 50 %
380 any place in the domain. Over the Sahel itself, only 40 % of the DOD in winter and 30 %
381 of the DOD in summer originates from dust sources in the Sahel (Figure 7c). Simulations
382 show that most of the dust from Sahel sources is transported toward the southwest
383 throughout the year. This result implies that the Sahel is an important source of dust over
384 the tropical regions during the winter season, accounting for 30~40 % of the DOD there.
385 The longitudinal gradient of the Sahel DOD fraction indicates the non-linear
386 contributions of emission, deposition, and transport between source and long-range
387 transport. Also there is a strong latitudinal contrast of the Sahel DOD fraction centered at
388 20°N , i.e., the Sahel DOD fraction is less than 15 % to the north of 20°N but between
389 15% (summer) and 40% (winter) to the south of 20°N . These simulations are consistent
390 with observations (Prospero et al., 2014). The model suggests that the Sahel dust
391 contributes about a quarter (20-25 %) of the dust found over the northern part of South
392 America.

393 The model simulations show that the DOD seasonality of the Sahel dust does not
394 drive the seasonality of the dust found over the total domain, which has a peak in spring-
395 summer and minimum in winter (Figure 3a). Instead the DOD seasonality of the Sahel
396 dust peaks between December and May and exhibits a minimum in August and
397 September.

398

399 3.4. Inter-annual variability and long-term trends

400 Up to this point we have investigated dust emission and dust loading for a
401 climatological annual cycle. Now we further examine the Sahara and Sahel dust and
402 environmental controlling parameters for inter-annual variations and long-term trends.
403 Anomalies of annual W10m and emission are calculated for the Sahara and the Sahel
404 from 1982 to 2008 (Figure 8a and 8b). Since W10m is the driving force for dust emission
405 in the GOCART model (Eq. 2), a strong positive correlation between them is expected.
406 Indeed, over the Sahara the correlation coefficient between W10m and emission is high
407 ($R=0.92$). The annual mean and standard deviation of emission and W10m are 11.5 ± 0.42
408 ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{mon}^{-1}$) and 4.47 ± 0.05 (m s^{-1}), respectively, over the 27-year period. There is a
409 steady decreasing trend in both variables from the 1980s to the mid-2000s. W10m
410 decreases at a rate of -0.0042 m s^{-1} (0.09%) per year, while Saharan emissions decrease at
411 a rate of $-0.026 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$ (0.23% per year or 6.2% per 27-year time span). Over the
412 Sahel, the correlation between W10m and emissions is less strong ($R=0.69$), but here too,
413 both parameters show a long-term decreasing trend of -0.0052 m s^{-1} (0.13%) per year for
414 W10m and $-0.066 \text{ g m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$ (0.92%) per year for emission. Accumulated over the 27-
415 year time span, dust emission in Sahel has been reduced significantly by 25%.

416 NDVI, with a long-term annual mean and standard deviation of 0.18 ± 0.01 , is an
417 important dust emission controlling factor over the Sahel. There we see an increasing
418 trend in NDVI until the early 2000s (Figure 8b), after which there appears to vary from
419 year to year but no trend. The trend from 1982 to 2001 is 0.0014 (0.8%) per year, or a
420 change of 13% in NDVI over the two-decade period. This Sahelian NDVI pattern over
421 the 27 years is consistent with previous studies (Tucker et al., 1991; Tucker and
422 Nicholson, 1999; Herrmann et al, 2005; Anyamba et al., 2014). A negative correlation
423 coefficient is found between the changes of emission and NDVI over the Sahel ($R=-0.65$),
424 but it is negligible over the Sahara (Figure 8b) because the NDVI is almost always below
425 the threshold value of 0.15 there. In both regions, however, the correlation between
426 NDVI and W10m is poor (-0.08 and -0.17 over the Sahara and Sahel, respectively).

427 The trends of the key parameters are highly dependent on seasons (Figure 9). In
428 the Sahara, the downward trend in W10m and emission, seen in the anomaly of annual
429 mean time series is consistent across three seasons, with only MAM exhibiting no trend.
430 Over the Sahel, the downward trend of W10m and emission is strongest in winter and has
431 no trend in summer. While the correlation coefficient between W10m and emission are
432 high throughout all seasons over the Sahara ($R>0.9$), that over the Sahel is highly variable
433 depending on season ranging from 0.33 in summer to 0.73 in winter (Figure 9a-b). The
434 strong increasing trend of annual NDVI over the Sahel (i.e., Figure 8b) is found in all
435 seasons, but strongest in SON. Similar to the annual analysis ($R=-0.17$), we find no
436 significant correlation between NDVI and W10m in the seasonal analysis ($-0.37 < R < 0.24$).

437 There is little correlation between annual mean NDVI in the Sahara and the Sahel,
438 which is to be expected, given the small and almost invariant NDVI values of the Sahara

439 (Figure 10a). However, annual mean surface wind in the Sahara and Sahel are connected
440 ($R=0.53$, Figure 10b) and the emissions and DOD between the Sahara and the Sahel are
441 also positively correlated ($R=0.70$ for emission and $R=0.44$ for DOD, Figure 10c and
442 10d). The long-term average ratio of Sahel DOD to Sahara DOD is 1.3, but this factor has
443 been undergoing a decrease over the period of analysis, so that in recent years DOD over
444 the Sahel and Sahara have been becoming closer in magnitude (Figure 10d). These results
445 suggest that the inter-annual variation of surface wind and thus dust emission are in a
446 coupled system across Northern Africa regardless of NDVI.

447

448 4. Discussion

449 Estimates of dust emission from our area of interest vary widely, depending on
450 the source of information, the specific geographical area, dust particle size range, and
451 time period under investigation. For example, focusing on the Bodélé Depression in
452 northern Chad that falls within the region we define as ‘Sahara’ a satellite-based estimate
453 gives an emission value of $58 \pm 8 \text{ Tg year}^{-1}$ (Koren et al., 2006). This represents only 4-
454 5% of the total dust emission that we estimate for the total Sahara from GOCART. Other
455 studies that rely on satellites (Ginoux et al., 2001; Prospero et al., 2002; Ginoux et al.,
456 2012) provide global maps of dust emission, but tabulate the total annual and seasonal
457 estimates from North Africa without distinguishing between the Sahara and Sahel. These
458 estimates of the total North African dust emissions span the range $690\text{-}880 \text{ Tg year}^{-1}$,
459 about half of our GOCART estimate of $1340\text{-}1570 \text{ Tg year}^{-1}$. Other techniques to identify
460 dust sources and estimate emissions cause models to vary widely in their estimates. It
461 does not matter whether the comparison is specifically focused on the Bodélé Depression

462 (Todd et al. 2008) or a short observing period (Bou Karam et al., 2009) or covers the
463 entire North Africa region on an annual average (Engelstaederter et al. 2006, see their
464 Table 3.5, Huneus et al., 2011), or even globally (Textor et al., 2006), the range of
465 estimated dust emissions spans an order of magnitude. Our GOCART values for North
466 Africa fall within but at the upper range of this model diversity.

467 Most dust emission estimates of North Africa do not distinguish between Saharan
468 and Sahelian emission sources, and few attempt to link emissions to environmental
469 factors. An important exception is the previous work targeting dust and dust emission in
470 the Eastern Sahel (10°W-20°E and 10°N-15°N) by Zender and Kwon (2005). They
471 analyzed the annual cycle of dust loading, rainfall, NDVI and surface wind, using the
472 TOMS AOD as a proxy for dust loading, but do not explicitly model the emissions, and
473 they do not explore the long-term variability or trends of these parameters. From their
474 analysis they concluded that precipitation and vegetation together strongly constrain dust
475 and that there is no significant correlation between wind and dust loading over the Sahel.
476 There are two limitations in their analyses. First, given that the Sahel experiences a strong
477 biomass burning season, separating dust from smoke using the AOD involves significant
478 uncertainty. Their attempt to mitigate the contribution from biomass burning aerosol is to
479 limit the analysis to the eastern part of the Sahel during the burning season. This may
480 indeed reduce the uncertainty introduced by the smoke, but it introduces additional
481 uncertainty by excluding a large portion of potential dust sources. Second, dust loading
482 over the Sahel is affected by transport from sources outside of the region, while the
483 emissions that we analyze are not affected by transport. We find that only 40 % of the
484 DOD in winter and 30 % of the DOD in summer over the Sahel originates from dust

485 sources in the Sahel. Thus, using AOD over the Sahel is not the same as focusing on the
486 emissions themselves. In contrast to the Zender and Kwon (2005) conclusion, we find
487 that W10m plays a strong role in dust emission in the Sahel. By examining the full multi-
488 decadal time series, the strong connection between wind and emission, as well as NDVI
489 and emission becomes clear. We note that while both wind and vegetation are correlated
490 to dust emission in the Sahel, wind and vegetation are not correlated with each other
491 (Figure 8). Previous suggestions that vegetation modifies surface wind through roughness
492 considerations are not supported by our results, although our study is done at too coarse a
493 resolution to resolve local scale relationships.

494 Although our study focuses on the relationships between surface wind, NDVI,
495 and dust emission over the Sahara and the Sahel, the importance of the Northern Atlantic
496 sea surface temperature (SST) to the multi-decadal variation of the Sahel rainfall and the
497 wind circulation over the Northern Atlantic-North Africa is well established (Lamb
498 1978a,b, Giannini et al., 2003; Mohino et al., 2011; Martin et al., 2014; Chin et al., 2014).
499 In addition, a previous study has found that the warming trend of North Atlantic SST
500 since the 1980s is strongly tied to a decrease of DOD in the tropical North Atlantic as
501 well as dust concentration at Barbados and Miami (Chin et al., 2014). Although the
502 driving mechanism of the multi-decadal SST variation is still unsettled (Zhang et al.,
503 2013), Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (Delworth and Mann 2000; McCarthy
504 et al., 2015), mid-latitude atmospheric circulation with thermal coupling (Clement et al.,
505 2015), and/or aerosol (Booth et al., 2012) are considered to be associated with the multi-
506 decadal SST variation.

507 There are large differences in dust source locations, strength, and mobilization

508 schemes (Formenti et al., 2011) as well as wind fields (Menut, 2008) used in different
509 models. In this study, a single NDVI threshold value of 0.15 was chosen across northern
510 Africa to separate the bare desert from the vegetated area in the Sahelian transition zone,
511 following Kim et al. (2013). Kim et al. (2013) pointed out that a ± 0.045 change in the
512 current NDVI threshold (i.e., 0.105 or 0.195) will change the bareness area estimate by
513 $\pm 30\%$ and we found a similar sensitivity in the Sahel. Also a relatively coarse resolution
514 ($2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ resolution) for GOCART simulation may cause additional errors in quantitative
515 estimations of dust emissions. The coarse resolution in the global model has difficulties
516 in simulating meso-scale or micro-scale events such as haboobs or dust devils, which are
517 important processes for dust emission (Knippertz and Tood, 2012; Heinold et al., 2013;
518 Marsham et al., 2013; Pantillon et al., 2016). In the present study, the GOCART emission
519 is not sensitive to the change of soil moisture over the Sahara/Sahel region because soil
520 moisture (or surface wetness) enters the emission parameterization as a binary factor. Soil
521 is either dry enough to allow for emission, or it is not. Soil conditions in the MERRA
522 reanalysis over the Sahara/Sahel usually are dry enough to allow continuous dust
523 mobilization. This may contribute additional uncertainties in the model dust emission
524 than when the change of soil moisture is explicitly accounted for in dust emission (e.g.,
525 Pierre et al., 2012).

526 Finally, it should be noted that uncertainties in the MERRA and other reanalysis
527 data sets used for the trend analysis suffer from enhanced uncertainties in this region, due
528 to the lack of surface observations in this area (e.g., Largeron et al., 2015). Largeron et al.
529 (2015) has intensively evaluated surface wind of three global reanalyses (ERA-Interim,
530 NCEP-CFSR and MERRA) using high-frequency observations acquired across the Sahel.

531 Those reconstructed wind fields are important inputs for many dust emission models. The
532 study found several common challenging issues, but all three reanalyses exhibit
533 insufficient annual cycle, with important seasonally-dependent biases. They all
534 overestimate the surface wind during dry season nights and underestimate it during spring
535 and monsoon season days. The study also found that the reanalyses systematically
536 underestimate the strongest wind speeds, observed in the morning and during deep
537 convective events.

538 Although previous studies have found that surface observations and various
539 reanalysis data commonly show a decreasing trend of W10m over the Sahel between the
540 1980s and 2000s, the gradient of the reanalysis data are much weaker than the surface
541 observations (Cowie et al., 2013, Ridley et al., 2014) adding more uncertainties to the
542 reanalysis data.

543

544 5. Summary

545 In this study, we investigated the relationships between surface wind, rainfall, and
546 surface vegetation, all from independent data sets, with global dust model simulations, in
547 a multi-decadal time span from 1982 to 2008. For dust simulations we used the
548 GOCART model with an explicit Sahel area map determined from the AVHRR NDVI.

549 The magnitude and seasonality of the atmospheric and surface processes vary
550 significantly between the Sahara and the Sahel. The Sahel shows strong rainfall
551 seasonality with the wet season occurring from March to August. NDVI has a peak in
552 September (0.3) and a minimum in June (0.15). The model diagnostics of bareness and
553 source function over the Sahel corresponds with a strong seasonality with a peak in June

554 and minimum in September. A modulating effect of surface vegetation results in a 28 %
555 lower source function in the wet season than the dry season. Monthly mean W10m over
556 the Sahara shows small seasonality, ranging from 4.2 to 4.5 m s⁻¹. Over the Sahel,
557 monthly mean W10m shows much stronger seasonal variation ranging from 3 m s⁻¹ in
558 September to 5 m s⁻¹ in winter. Unlike the emission, the peak of the Sahel dust loading
559 occurs in April and July, which is similar to the Sahara. The larger loading (i.e., mass per
560 unit area) over the Sahel than the Sahara suggests the dominant source of dust loading
561 over the Sahel is actually transported dust from the North. There are strong regional
562 dependencies in NDVI, bareness, W10m, and emission. Highly positive correlations were
563 found between emission and W10m in both regions, and an anti-correlation between
564 emission and NDVI is found only in the Sahel.

565 The relative contribution of the Sahara and the Sahel to the North Africa and
566 Northern Atlantic dust was estimated from simulations made with the GOCART model
567 and observations. The Sahara is the most dominant dust source emitting 1497 Tg year⁻¹,
568 which accounts for 82 % of the North African dust, while the Sahel contributes the
569 remaining 17 %. Unlike the steady wind field throughout the year over the Sahara, over
570 the Sahel more dust is emitted in winter than in summer by a factor of two due to the
571 combined seasonality of wind and vegetation. The GOCART model simulations show
572 that most of the Sahel dust is transported towards the southwest throughout year. This
573 result implies that the Sahel is an important source of dust over the tropical regions
574 during the winter season accounting for 30~40 % of the total in that area. The GOCART
575 model shows a strong latitudinal contrast of the Sahel dust fraction centered at 20°N with

576 higher values to the south of 20°N, accounting for a quarter of the transatlantic dust
577 reaching South America.

578 The 27-year time series analysis was conducted for the Sahara and the Sahel from
579 1982 to 2008. The result showed that i) both W10m and emission exhibit a significant
580 decreasing trend over both regions since the 1980s; ii) NDVI has an increasing trend and
581 is anti-correlated with emission ($R=-0.65$) over the Sahel, even though NDVI is poorly
582 correlated with W10m ($R=-0.05$) in that region; iii) emission trends are most clearly
583 dependent on W10m in both the Sahara ($R=0.92$) and the Sahel ($R=0.69$); and iv) W10m
584 trends in the two regions are linked with a positive correlation ($R=0.53$). Although
585 vegetation plays a modulating role to the long-term trends and seasonal cycle of dust
586 emission over the Sahel, our results suggest that North African dust loading and its inter-
587 annual variation is governed by the coupled North African circulation system that
588 produces the surface wind.

589 The take home message from our analysis is that dust emission in the Sahara is
590 controlled completely by the wind, while dust emission in the Sahel is controlled by the
591 wind but modified by the vegetation coverage. Both regions have been declining in dust
592 emission over the past three decades, mostly due to the decrease in near surface wind
593 speed during this time period. The Sahel is an important dust source to the dust loading
594 over the tropical Atlantic and the shores of South America, but ironically most of the dust
595 loading directly above the Sahel is not of local origin but transported from the Sahara and
596 other locations.

597 The multi-decadal model simulations combined with reanalysis data and satellite
598 NDVI observations allows new insight into the long-term correlated trends of the wind,

599 surface vegetation, and dust emission over the Sahara and Sahel. Previous studies have
600 noted a decrease in dust loading across the northern Atlantic, including a decrease in
601 surface dust concentration at Barbados. Analysis of the parameters affecting dust loading
602 shows widespread changes in surface wind speed, vegetation, and subsequent emission at
603 the sources. This decrease originates over North Africa, affecting emission sources in
604 both the Sahara and Sahel, and is not a simple shifting of wind patterns or deposition
605 process over the ocean. Identifying the cause of these widespread changes lies beyond the
606 scope of the present study, but are key to understanding regional scale climate variability.

607

608

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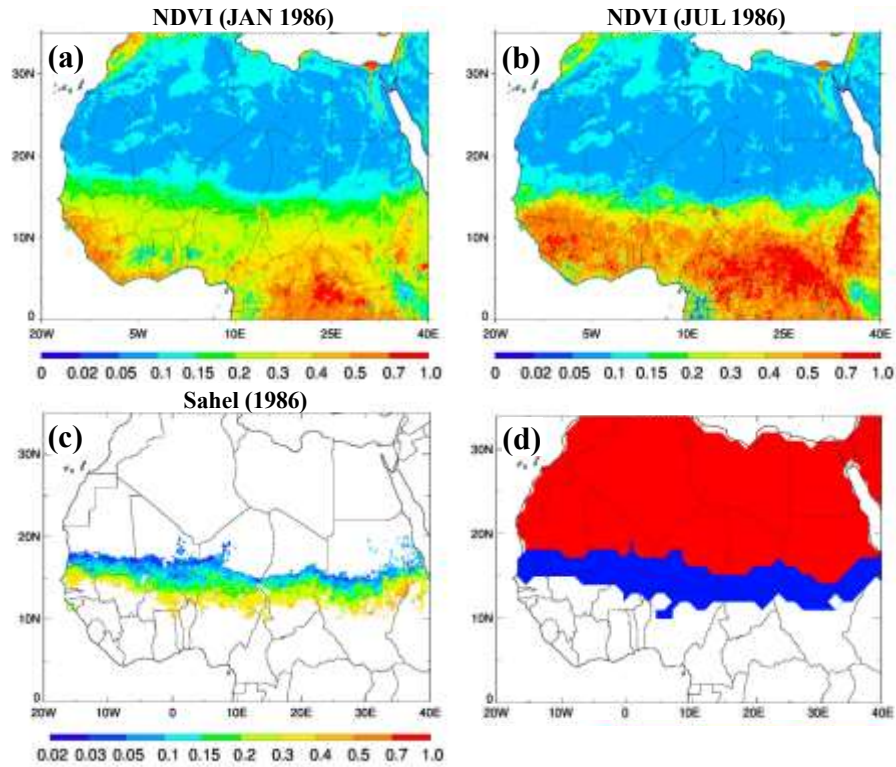


Figure 1. Distribution of (a) January and (b) July NDVI in 1986. The Bodélé depression is located at $17^{\circ}N, 18^{\circ}E$. (c) Distribution of the area where $NDVI_{min} < 0.15$ and $NDVI_{max} > 0.2$ between $10^{\circ}N-20^{\circ}N$. (d) Climatological map of Sahel in blue and Sahara in red determined from 1982-2008 NDVI data.

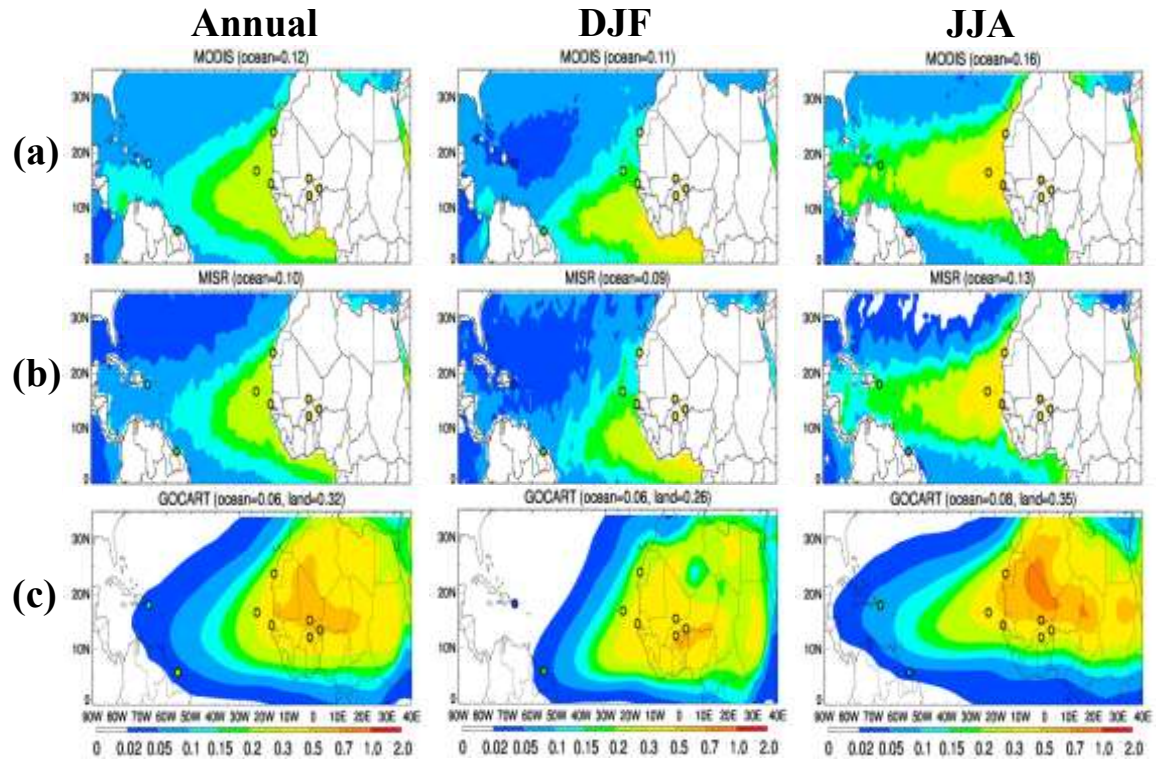


Figure 2. DOD from (a) MODIS and (b) MISR over ocean and (c) GOCART-base simulation over both land and ocean averaged for 2001-2007. DODs from 8 AERONET stations for 2001-2007 are shown in colored circles. Mean DOD values are indicated in the parenthesis.

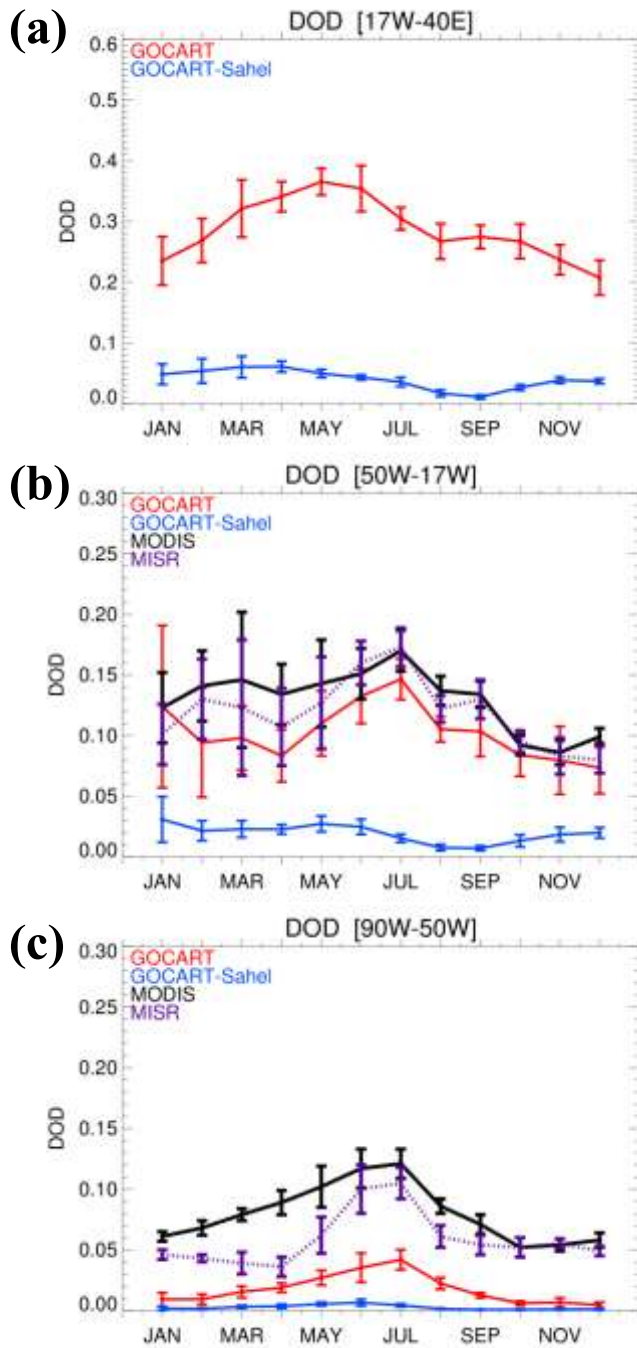


Figure 3. (a) Dust optical depth (DOD) from GOCART, averaged for 2001-2007 over the land portion of the entire domain (0° - 35° N, 17° W- 40° E). GOCART-Sahel is DOD emitted only from the Sahel with all other dust source locations turned off. (b, c) Same as (a), except for ocean only and divided into Eastern and Western sections of (50° W- 17° W) and (90° W- 50° W), respectively. Dust optical depth from MODIS and MISR averaged for 2001-2007 are also plotted over oceanic domains in (b, c). Error bars represent standard deviations of monthly DOD in 2001-2007.

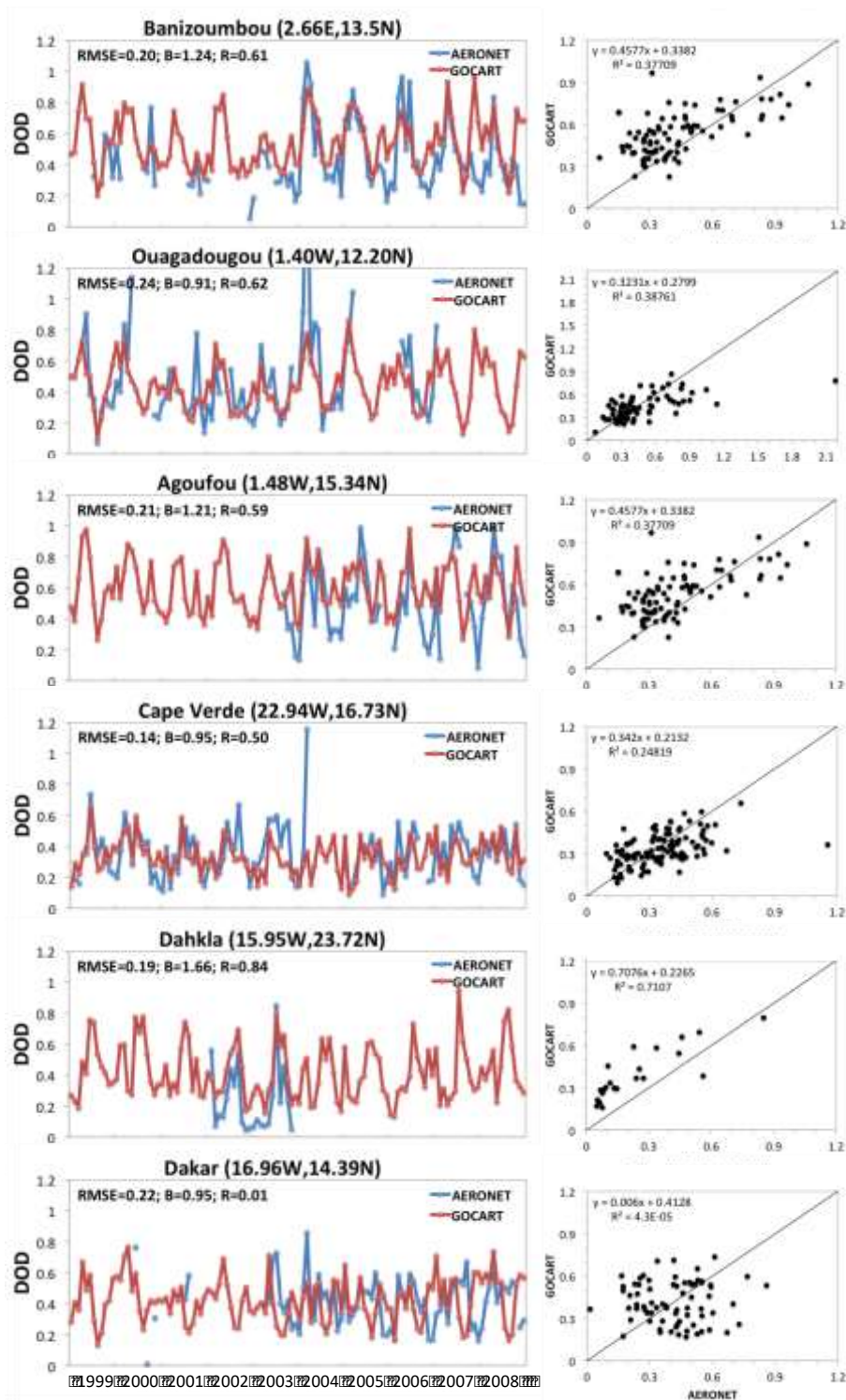


Figure 4. (left column) Monthly-mean time series of dust optical depth at the six stations over the Sahel for 1999-2008 and (right column) its scatter plot. The coarse-mode aerosol optical depth is used as a proxy of DOD for AERONET observation. Numbers in the figure include root mean square error (RMSE), mean bias (B), and correlation coefficient (R) between model and observations.

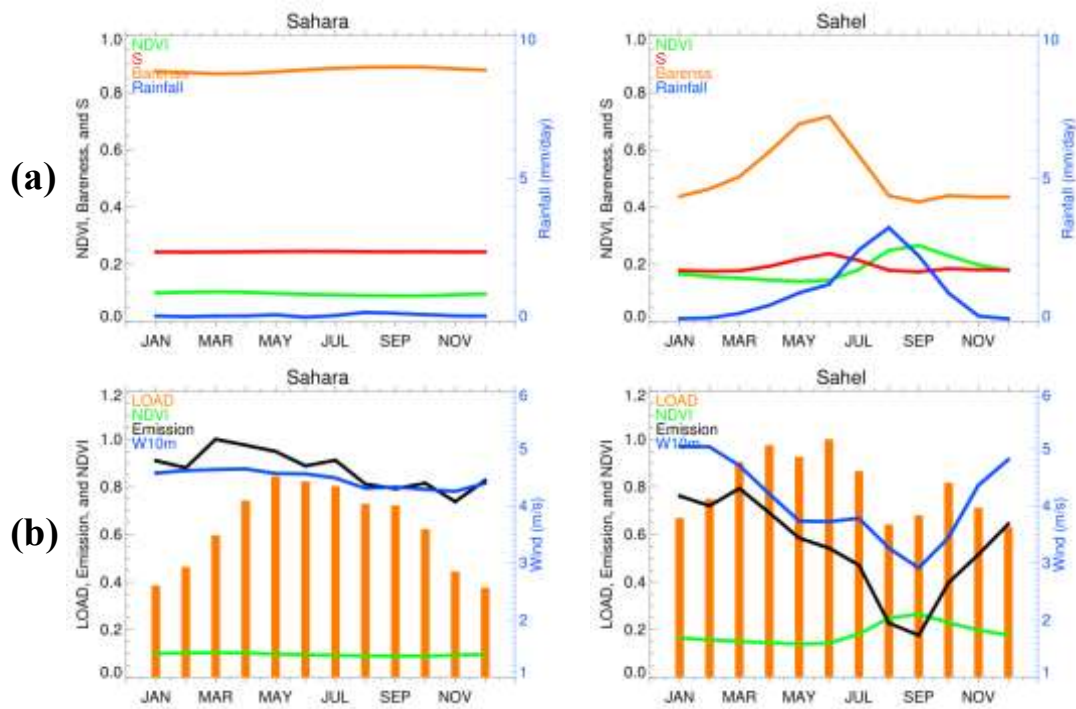


Figure 5. (a) Monthly values of rainfall, NDVI, bareness, and source function and (b) W10m, S, dust emission, and dust loading over the Sahara (left) and Sahel (right) averaged from 1982-2008. Emission and loading are normalized to their maximum values in North Africa of $1.22 \times 10^7 \text{ g km}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$ and 10.1 g km^{-2} , respectively.

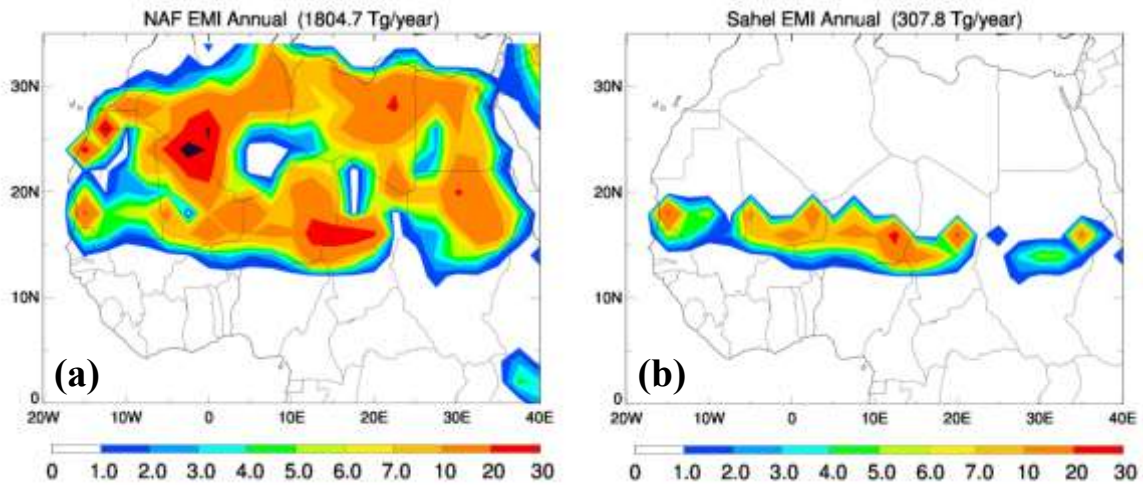


Figure 6. Distribution of modeled dust emission from (a) North Africa and (b) Sahel, averaged for 1982-2008. NAF refers to all of North Africa.

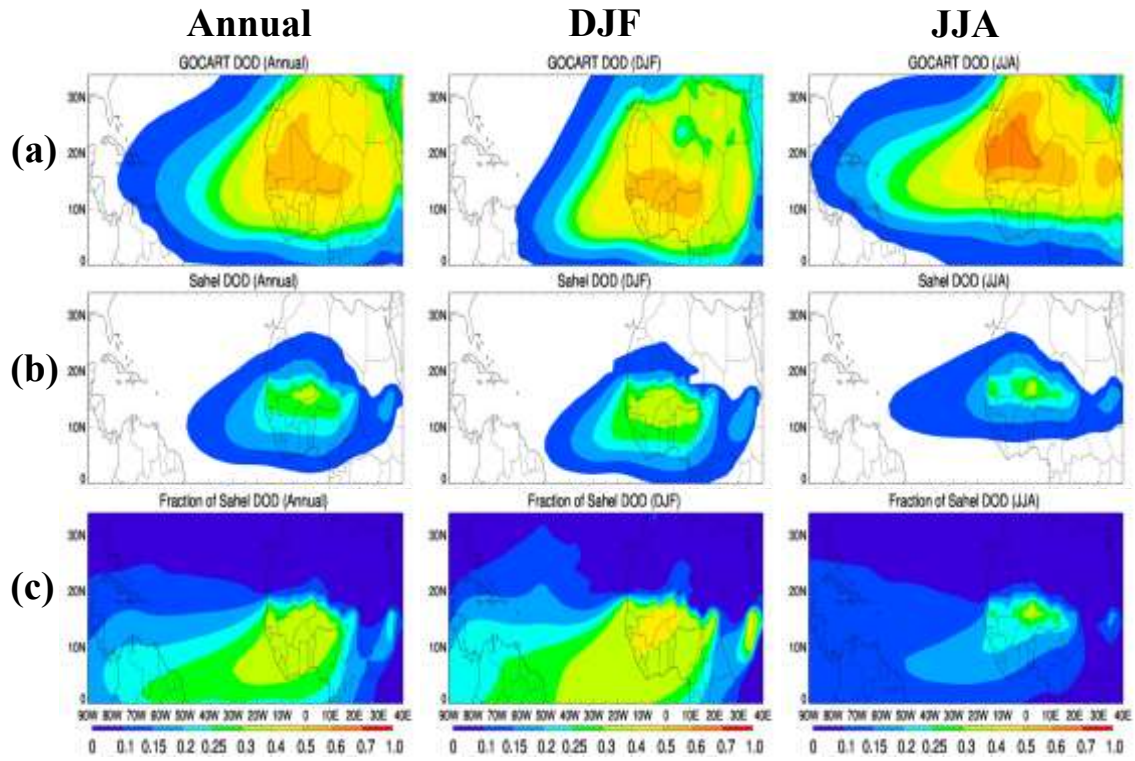


Figure 7. (a) Dust optical depth from GOCART base run averaged for 1982-2008, (b) dust optical depth from the Sahel, and (c) the ratio of the Sahel DOD to the base run for annual, winter, and summer.

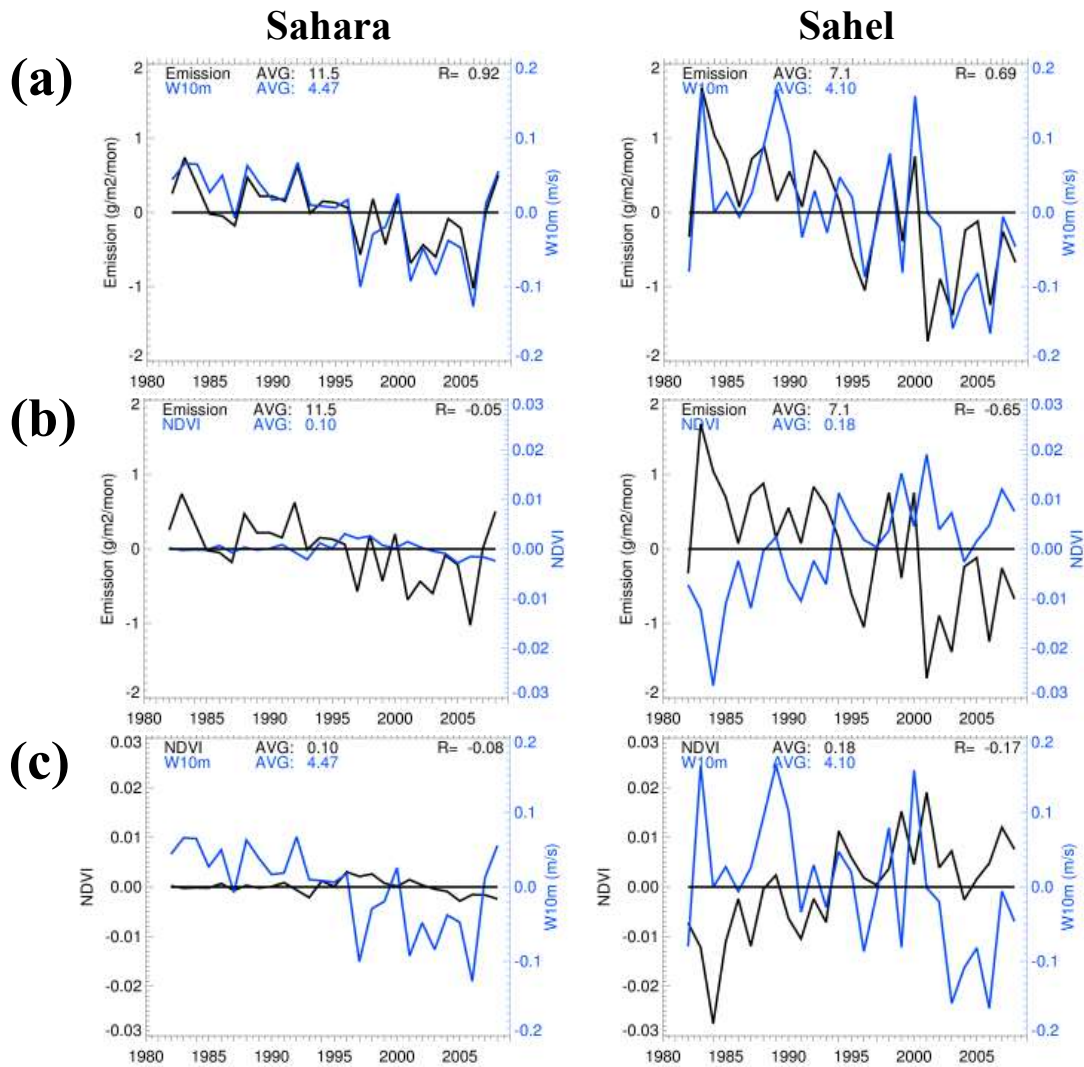


Figure 8. Time series of mean, anomalies, and correlation coefficients of (a) emission and W10m, (b) emission and NDVI, and (c) NDVI and W10m from 1982 to 2008 over the Sahara and Sahel.

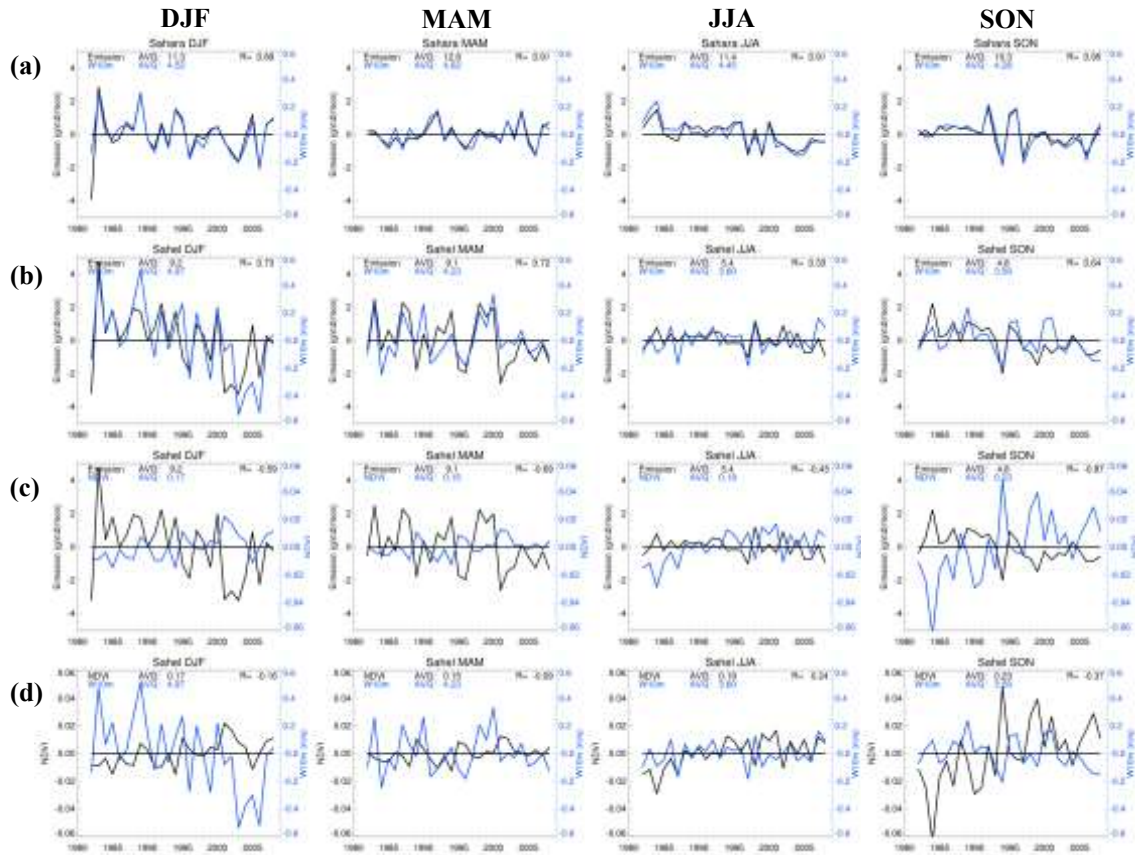


Figure 9. Time series of anomalies to seasonal mean over the Sahara (a) and Sahel (b-d) from 1982 to 2008 for each season: (a,b) emission and W10m, (c) emission and NDVI, and (d) NDVI and W10m. AVG and R refer to mean and correlation coefficient, respectively.

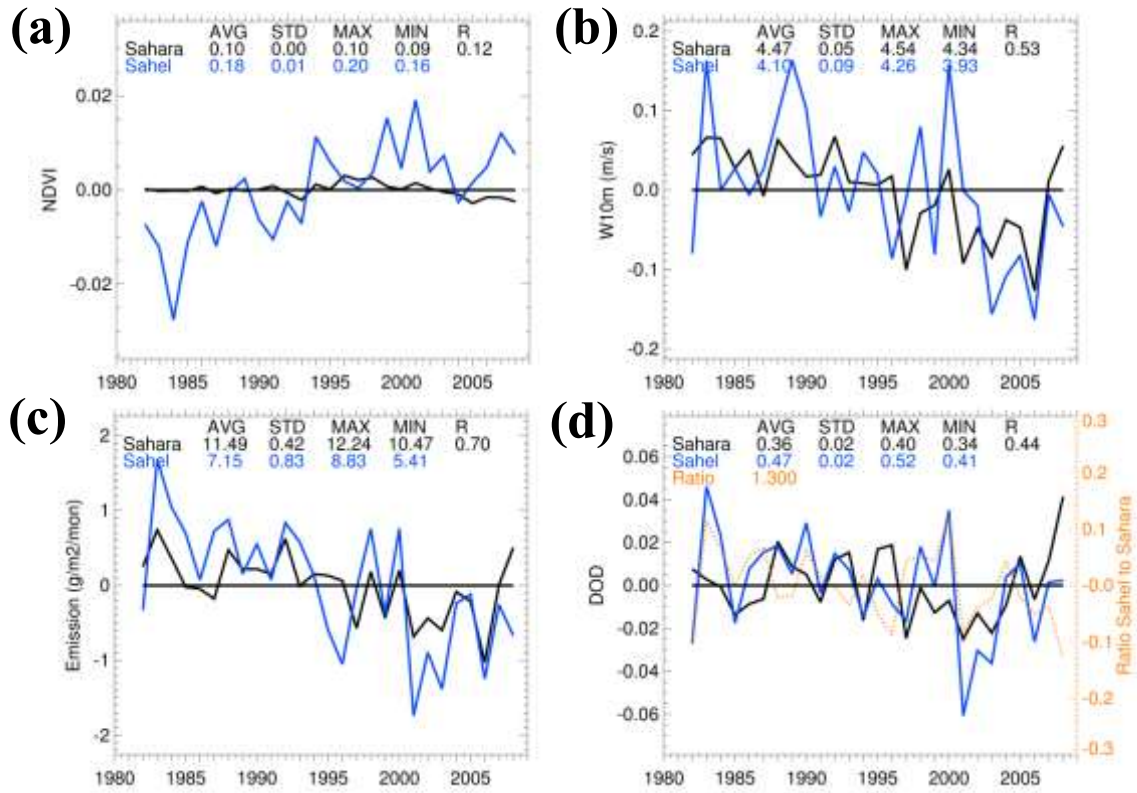


Figure 10. Time series of anomalies to mean over the Sahara and Sahel from 1982 to 2008 for (a) NDVI, (b) W10m, (c) emission, and (d) DOD. AVG, STD, MAX, MIN, and R refer to mean, standard deviation, maximum value, minimum value, and correlation coefficient between the Sahara and the Sahel, respectively.

Table 1. Correlation coefficients between variables over the Sahel averaged for 1982-2008. Parenthesis indicates the values over the Sahara. The asterisk symbol indicates that the values are insignificant at the 5% level.

	NDVI	W10m	Rainfall	EMI	LOAD
NDVI	1	-0.637	0.607	-0.872	-0.626
W10m	-	1	-0.823	0.897 (0.911)	-0.106* (0.132*)
Rainfall	-	-	1	-0.828	-0.075*
EMI	-	-	-	1	0.311* (0.308*)
LOAD	-	-	-	-	1