Technical Note: Modeling the mineral dust aerosol cycle in ALADIN

Simulation of the March 7-13 West Africa dust storm

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Substantial impacts of dust aerosol on climate and environment have increased, that why there is a need to better understand and eventually predict the atmospheric dust cycle. Along these lines, several dust models have been developed [Tegen and Fung, 1994; Nickovic and Dobricic, 1996; Nickovic et al., 2001] and used for studying dust processes. The major phases of the atmospheric dust cycle consists on : emission, transport, wet and dry deposition. In this work, the atmospheric dust cycle has been integrated in ALADIN model. The emission processes are treated in SURFEX (SURFace EXternalisée) by the DEAD module (Dust Entrainment And Deposition) [Grini and al., 2006]. The first step consists of an improvement of the dust emission scheme (version SURFEX) by introducing the soil aggregate distribution and size-depending energy thresholds for particle release during sandblasting [Alfaro and Gomes, 2001]. The second step deals with the treatment of the transport and the removal processes of dust aerosols in ALADIN. The coupled ALADIN_SURFEX system is used to simulate the March 7-13 West Africa dust storm. To validate the results, we used the daily mean AOD (Aerosol Optical Depth) from AQUA-MODIS satellite data and the local AOD and concentration measurements available in the African Monsoon Multidisciplinary Analyses (AMMA) data base.

1. Introduction

Mineral dust aerosol has an important impact on the climate and the environment. It is involved in the direct radiative forcing processes [Tegen et al., 1996], nutrient transport [Martin, 1990; Swap et al., 1992], Land-use change [Nicholson et al., 2000] and ecosystem heath [Prospero, 1999; Shinn et al., 2000]. Therefore, it is important to include the description of dust aerosols processes in the atmospheric models. The first difficulty to evaluate the impact of the dust aerosols on climate and environment is to determine correctly their concentration in the atmosphere. To achieve this, it is necessary to be able to represent rigorously the quantities which are injected in the atmosphere and also we have to evaluate their intensity, extension and frequency.

The mineral dust emissions from the arid and semi-arid areas are strongly influenced by the surface characteristics. The surface features controls three major processes of dust production: the erosion threshold wind velocity, the wind shear-stress which acts on the erodible surface and the capability of the soil to release fine dust particles. Recently, many models of dust emission have been developed in order to provide an explicit representation of the mineral dust emission processes and the influence of the surface features. These models are often differentiated by their representation of mobilization. According to Zender et al. [2003], two categories of model are distinguished. The simpler class, named the bulk mobilization schemes, parameterize mobilization in terms of the third
or fourth power of the wind speed or wind friction speed include those of Tegen and Fung [1994], Mahowald and al. [1999], and Perlwitz and al. [2001]. The more complex class use complete microphysical specification of the erodible environment to predict the size-resolved saltation mass flux and resulting sandblasted dust emissions [Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995; Shao and al, 1996; Shao, 2001]. At regional simulation, these schemes have shown promising results [Shao and leslie, 1997; Marticorena and Al, 1997]. But, globally many of the input for these fully microphysical are not known.

DEAD is an intermediate scheme in term of complexity, between these two extremes. It is developed by Zender et al. [2003] and used in global simulations. This scheme is coupled with SURFEX [Grini and al 2006]. In SURFEX version, this scheme assumes that the soil textures is globally uniform and is replete with particles diameter of 75 µm [Zender et al., 2003]. The saltation flux calculated for this type of particle is weighted with the fraction of Sand available in the soil [Grini et al., 2006]. The transfer function between the horizontal saltation flux and the vertical mass flux (α) is calculated by Marticorena and Bergametti relationships [1995]. DEAD assume that a globally uniform value of \( M_{\text{clay}} = 0.2 \) is the right value to determine the sandblasting mass efficiency \( \alpha \) [Zender et al., 2003].

DEAD omits some important processes being able to influence the dust emission: geographic variation of surface size distribution [Marticorena et al., 1997], size-dependent energy thresholds for particle release during sandblasting [Alfaro et Gomes, 2001]. These limits could be performed in SURFEX scheme using ECOCLIMAP database providing information on the erodible fraction (represented by the COVER004 and COVER005 relating to the bare and rock soil) [Masson et al., 2003] and FAO databases containing information on the sand, silt and clay fraction allowing a classification of the soil textures.

In this work, we integrate the atmospheric aerosol dust cycle in ALADIN model. For the surface processes we propose to improve the mineral dust emission scheme by adding the soil aggregate distribution and to choose the most compatible parameterization with SURFEX databases. The advection, diffusion and removal processes are treated in ALADIN. To evaluate the performance of the coupled system ALADIN_SURFEX in the dust aerosol forecast, we simulate the March 7-13 west Africa dust storm. The results are compared with the daily mean AOD from MODIS/AQUA satellite and the local AOD and mass concentration measurements available in the AMMA database. This notice is organised as follows: section 2 describe the physical model. Section 3 describes the meteorological situation and we present the results. Section 4 presents our summary and concluding remarks.
2. Dust parameterization in ALADIN

2.1 The ALADIN model

ALADIN (Aire Limitée Adaptation Dynamique développement Initialisation) is a spectral hydrostatic model. It is developed in an international cooperation led by Météo France; it is operationally used for weather prediction. ALADIN is a fully three-dimensional baroclinic system of primitive equations using a two-time-level semi-Lagrangian semi-implicit numerical integration scheme and a digital filter initialisation. The main purpose of ALADIN is to perform a dynamical adaptation of forecasts of the global NWP (Numerical Weather Prediction) model ARPEGE to a high resolution [Huth et al., 2003]. For its complete scientific description, readers may refer to Bubnová et al. [1995], Radnóti [1995], Horányi et al. [1996], Geleyn [1998] and Váňa [1998]. The physical parameterization package comprises: gravity wave drag parameterization, Semi-Lagrangian horizontal diffusion (SLDH) computed in spectral space, vertical diffusion and planetary boundary layer parameterisation, Sub-grid scale deep convection and convective precipitations, The RRTM radiation scheme (Rapid Radiative Transfer Model) in long wave [Mlawer et al., 1997] and Fouquart Morcrette with 6 spectral bands in shortwave, Grid-scale (resolved) clouds and large-scale (stratiform) precipitations developed by Philippe Lopez [2002], And externalized surface scheme (SURFEX) for the surface processes: Interaction Soil Biosphere Atmosphere (ISBA) scheme [Noilhan et Planton 1989], sea (Ecume fluxes), Town Energy Balance (TEB) [Masson 2000] and lakes.

2.2 Modelling mineral dust emissions in SURFEX

The representation of dust emission processes is a key element in a dust model and depends on the wind conditions, soil characteristics and particle size. Here, the dust emission calculation is based on the parameterizations of soil aggregate saltation and sandblasting processes. The main steps in this calculation are: the specification of soil aggregate size distribution for each model grid cell, the calculation of a threshold friction velocity leading to erosion and saltation processes, the calculation of the horizontal saltating soil aggregate mass flux, and finally the calculation of the vertical transportable dust particle mass flux generated by the saltating aggregates.
2.2.1 Emitting area

The dust emitting areas are recognized in SURFEX by the cover COVER004 and COVER005 relative to bare soil and bare rock soil [Masson et al., 2003]. These two covers are represented in the figure 1 and 2.

![Figure 1: COVER004 relatives to bare soil](image)

![Figure 2: COVER005 relatives to bare rock soil](image)

2.2.2 Soil texture

The knowledge of the soil texture is necessary to determine the potential fine particles in the soil and to control the soil water contents. In order to characterize the erodible fraction of different types of soils, soil aggregate distributions are provided to the model. Basically, these distributions
rely upon the USDA (United States Department of Agriculture) textural classification (Table 1), for which different types of soil are classified according to an index referring to the classic sand/clay/silt triangle of texture composition [Buckley, 2001] figure 3.

*Table 1*: Soil textures classification following USDA (1998)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Soil texture</th>
<th>Soil texture</th>
<th>Soil texture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Sand</td>
<td>5 Loam</td>
<td>9 Sandy clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Loamy sand</td>
<td>6 Sandy clay loam</td>
<td>10 Silty clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Sandy loam</td>
<td>7 Silty clay loam</td>
<td>11 Clay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Silt loam</td>
<td>8 Clay loam</td>
<td>12 Silt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3*: sand/clay/silt triangle of texture composition according USDA (1998) [Buckley, 2001]

Figures 4, 5 and 6 illustrate the sand/clay/silt fractions from the FAO database used in SURFEX [Noilhan et al., 1996], with 10 km horizontal resolution
Figure 4: Sand fraction for North Africa

Figure 5: Clay/silt fraction for North Africa

Figure 6: Silt fraction for North Africa
The twelve soil textures are mapped for North Africa domain.

![Soil Texture Map](image)

*Figure 7: soil textures map elaborate for SURFEX for North Africa*

### 2.2.3 Soil aggregate distribution

Three-mode lognormal soil aggregate diameter distribution, $M(D_p)$, are associated to each texture class following Zobler [1986]: Table 2 reports the mass mean diameter ($M_{med}$), standard deviation ($\sigma$), and soil texture composition used to characterize each textural class [Zakey et al., 2006].

\[
\frac{dM(D_p)}{d\ln(D_p)} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{M_j}{\sqrt{2\pi\ln(\sigma_j)}} \cdot \exp\left(\ln(D_p) - \ln(D_{medj})\right)^2
\]

\[
= \frac{-2\ln^2\sigma_j}{-2\ln^2\sigma_j}
\]
Table 2: The 12 basic USDA soil texture indices and corresponding soil aggregate size distribution parameters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Soil Type</th>
<th>Mode 1</th>
<th>Mode 2</th>
<th>Mode 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>(D_{med})</td>
<td>(\sigma)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sand</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loamy sand</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandy loam</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silt loam</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loam</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandy clay loam</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silt clay loam</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clay loam</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandy clay</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silty clay</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clay</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silt</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where \(j\) referring to the mode, \(M_j\) is the relative weight of each mode \(j\), \(D_{med,j}\) the geometric mean diameter and \(\sigma_j\) the standard deviation in \(\mu\)m.

Following Marticorena [1995], the surface covered by each grain is assimilated to its basal surface. Thus a size distribution of the basal surface can be computed from the mass distribution, assuming spherical particles with the same density:
\[ ds(D_p) = \frac{dM(D_p)}{2/3 \cdot \rho_p \cdot D_p} \] (2)

The total basal surface is

\[ S_{total} = \int_{D_p} dS(D_p) dD_p \] (3)

The normalized continuous relative distribution of basal surfaces:

\[ dS_{rel} = \frac{ds(D_p)}{S_p} \] (4)

**Figure 9: normalised relative distribution of basal surfaces**

In our case, the potential of the fine particles in the soil is represented by the relative surface occupied by each particle. The figure 10 (a, b, c and d) illustrates the sum of relative surfaces of the particles divided into 4 populations: a) clay-size \( D_p < 2 \, \mu m \), b) small silt-size \( 2 \mu m < D_p < 5 \, \mu m \), c) large silt-size \( 5 \, \mu m < D_p < 60 \, \mu m \) and d) sand-size \( D_p>60\mu m \).
Figure 10: the sum of relative surface of soil particle with diameter comprise: a) $D_p < 2 \, \mu m$, b) $2 \mu m < D_p < 5 \mu m$, c) $5 \mu m < D_p < 60 \mu m$, and d) $D_p > 60 \mu m$

2.2.4 Thresholds friction velocity

The threshold friction velocity $u_*$ is the minimal speed necessary to start the dust mobilization. It depends on the diameter of the particles, the surface roughness and the soil moisture [Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995; Shao, 2001]. Many formulations of the threshold friction velocity are proposed: Bagnold [1941], Iversen and White [1982], Marticorena and Bergametti [1995] and recently Shao and Lu [2000]. The semi-empirical expressions proposed by Marticorena and Bergametti [1995] are easier to use and provides a very satisfying estimation of the threshold friction velocity as a function of the particle diameter for terrestrial conditions.

For $0.03 < \text{Re}_* < 10$

$$u_* (D_p) = \frac{0.129 \, K}{(1.928 \, \text{Re}_{*}^{0.092} - 1)^{0.5}}$$

(5)

For $\text{Re}_* > 10$

$$u_* (D_p) = 0.12 \, K \left[ 1 - 0.0858 \, \exp \left( -0.0617 \, (\text{Re}_* - 10) \right) \right]$$

(6)
\[ a = 1331 ; \quad b = 0.38 ; \quad x = 1.56 ; \]

\[ K = \left( \frac{\rho_p g D_p}{\rho_a} \right)^{0.5} \left( 1 + \frac{0.006}{\rho_p g D_p^{2.5}} \right)^{0.5} \]

Where

\[ \text{Re}_{*t} = aD_p^x + b \quad (7) \]

With \( \rho_p = 2.65 \text{ g/cm}^3 \) the particle density, \( \rho_a = 0.00123 \text{ g/cm}^3 \) the air density and the factor 0.006 in both equations is \( g \text{ cm}^{0.5} \text{ s}^{-2} \).

According to [Marticorena and Bergametti 1995], this relation shows its limits for particles with a diameter less than 10 \( \mu \text{m} \). To palliate to this problem concerning these particles, we assumed that their mobilization starts when the friction velocity exceeds 0.7 m/s. This value indicates the end of the rough regime and the beginning of the very rough regime in Dust REGional Atmospheric Modeling DREAM [Nickovic et al., 2001]. For the later, all types of the particles will be mobilized.

2.2.5 Drag partition

A drag partition affects the erosion threshold by two ways. On one hand, the roughness elements cover just a part of the surface and thus protect it from the aeolian erosion; on the other hand, they consume part of wind momentum that will not be available to initiate particle motion. This leads to a global decrease of wind shear stress acting on the erodible surface and then of the erosion efficiency [Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995]. A physical scheme of the drag partition between the roughness elements and the erodible surface was developed by Marticorena and Bergametti [1995]. The efficiency with which drag is partitioned between erodible and nonerodible soil is expressed as an increase \( f_{\text{eff}} \) in the threshold friction velocity \( u_r \) [Marticorena and Bergametti, 1995].

\[ f_{\text{eff}} \left( Z_0 , z_{0s} \right) = 1 - \frac{\log \left( \frac{Z_0}{z_{0s}} \right)}{\log \left( 0.35 \frac{0.1}{z_{0s}} \right)^{0.8}} \quad \text{(8)} \]

Where \( Z_0 \) is the roughness length for momentum and \( z_{0s} \) is the smooth roughness length.

\( Z_0 \) and \( z_{0s} \) are expressed in centimeter unit.
The roughness length of the erodible surface $z_{0s}$ is estimated from the size of the erodible particles. Following Greeley and Iversen [1985], this roughness length is proportional to approximately $1/30$ of the diameter of these particles.

$$z_{0s} = \frac{D_{\text{med}}}{30}$$

(9)

Where $D_{\text{med}}$ is the median diameter of the coarsest population calculated for twelve considered textures.

The threshold friction velocity in a rough situation is:

$$u_{*r}(D_p, Z_0, z_{0s}) = \frac{u_{*r}(D_p)}{f_{\text{eff}}(Z_0, z_{0s})}$$

(10)

### 2.2.6 Soil moisture effects

Soil water increases the threshold friction velocity $u_*$, therefore reducing the amount of dust injected into the atmosphere. The water resists in the soil, this is due to the capillary forces on the surfaces of the soil and also to molecular adsorption. In SURFEX model, the soil moisture effects on $u_*$ are included, following the method of Fecan et al., [1999]. The maximum amount of the adsorbed water $w'$ is an increasing function of the clay fraction in the soil. Fecan et al., [1999] proposed the calculation of $w'$ as a function of clay content in the soil:

$$w' = 0.0014 \left(\% \text{arg ile}\right)^2 + 0.17 \left(\% \text{arg ile}\right)$$

(11)

The suggested equation expresses the increase in the threshold friction velocity in wet conditions $u_*^w$ by reference to the threshold friction velocity in dry conditions $u_*^d$:

$$\begin{cases} 
\text{for } w_g < w': & \frac{u_*^w}{u_*^d} = 1 \\
\text{for } w_g > w': & \frac{u_*^w}{u_*^d} = \left[1 + 1.21 (w_g - w')^{0.68}\right]^{1/2}
\end{cases}$$

(12)

Here $w_g (\text{kg kg}^{-1})$ is the gravimetric water content.

Since the ISBA scheme uses the volumetric soil water content $w_s (\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3})$, it is necessary to convert the ISBA volumetric water content to the gravimetric water content. At saturation, the volumetric water content $w_s (\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3})$ is given:

$$w_s = 0.489 - 0.126 M_{\text{sand}}$$

(13)
The bulk density of dry surface soil $\rho_{b,d}$ kg m$^{-3}$ is:

$$\rho_{b,d} = \rho_p (1 - w_s) \quad (14)$$

$$w_g = w_v \frac{\rho_l}{\rho_{b,d}} \quad (15)$$

Where $M_{sand}$ kg kg$^{-1}$ is the mass fraction of sand in the soil, $\rho_p = 2650$ kg m$^{-3}$ is the mean soil particle density, and $\rho_l = 1000$ kg m$^{-3}$ is the liquid water density.

Figure 8 shows the $w'$ for the North Africa domain.

Figure 11: $w'$ map on North Africa

Figure 12 shows the threshold friction velocity for North Africa

Figure 12: Threshold friction velocity on North Africa
2.2.7 Owen effect

The increase of the friction velocity due to the Owen effect is calculated as follow [Zender et al. 2003]:

\[ u_{*s} = u_* + 0.003(U_{10} - U_{10,r})^2 \]  (16)

Where \( U_{10} \) et \( U_{10,r} \) are respectively the wind speed and the threshold wind speed at 10 m. The Owen effect is activated when the saltation processes starts.

2.2.8 Horizontal dust flux

The horizontal dust flux represents the mass of the particles passing the vertical surface area of infinity height and unit width per unit time. It substantially consists of particles moving in saltation. In order to take into account the soil aggregate distribution in the horizontal flux, the relation of Marticorena and Bergametti [1995] is used. This relation supposes that the contribution of each class of size on the total flux depends directly on the relative surface occupied by each class on the soil. The horizontal flux is then the sum of the relative contributions of the various classes of sizes in the domain of the considered particle.

\[ G = a.E.c. \frac{\rho}{g} u_*^3 \sum_{D_p} \left( 1 + \frac{u_{*t}}{u_*} \right) \left( 1 - \frac{u_{*t}^2}{u_*^2} \right) dS_{rel}(D_p) dD_p \]  (17)

Where \( E \) is the fraction of the erodible surface, \( dS_{rel}(D_p) \) is the relative surface and \( a=0.04 \) is the global mass flux tuning factor determined at posterior through of the experimental model.

2.2.9 Vertical flux

The vertical flux represents the mass of the fine particles passing through an horizontal unit area per unit time. Many parameterization of the ratio of vertical to horizontal flux \( \alpha \) were proposed. Marticorena and Bergametti [1995] proposes a relation according to the quantity of the fine particles available in the soil. They thus calculated this ratio according to the clay content for the soils having less than 20% clay. Shao and al., [1993] proposes a semi-empirical relation according to the potential energies necessary for the rupture of the cohesion forces; which maintain the fine particles and their setting in suspension. These energies are represented by the thresholds of erosion. In this notice the parameterization of Shao is used.

\[ \alpha = \frac{F}{G} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\rho_p}{\rho} \frac{\beta g}{[U_{*t}(D_d)]^2} \]  (19)

\( \gamma = 2.5 \) et
\[
\beta = \left[0.125 \times 10^{-4} \ln(D_s) + 0.328 \times 10^{-4}\right] \exp\left(-140.7D_d + 0.37\right)
\]

(20)

Where \(D_d\) et \(D_s\) in mm et \(\beta > 0\).

\(D_s\) : average diameter of the particles in saltation (~75µm) \(D_d\): average diameter of the suspended particles (~6.7µm).

Then the sandblasting mass efficiency \(\alpha\) is illustrates in figure 13.

![ALPHA * 2e4](image)

**Figure 13:** The sandblasting mass efficiency \(\alpha \times 2 \times 10^4\) for North Africa obtained by Shao 2003

The vertical dust flux is fractioned in 3 modes following the AMMA parameterization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mass fraction (M_i)</th>
<th>Mode 1</th>
<th>Mode 2</th>
<th>Mode 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(D_i) (µm)</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
<td>0.0092</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\sigma_i)</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.641</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.2.10 Dry deposition

Dry deposition and sedimentation of aerosols are driven by the Brownian diffusivity

\[
D_p = \left(\frac{kT}{6\pi\nu\rho_{air} r_p}\right) C_c
\]

(21)

and by the gravitational velocity

\[
V_{g,p} = \left(\frac{2g}{9\nu\left(\frac{\rho_p}{\rho_{air}}\right)r_p^2}\right) C_c
\]

(22)

where \(k\) is the Boltzmann constant, \(T\) the ambient temperature, \(\nu\) the air kinematic velocity, \(\rho_{air}\) the air density, \(g\) the gravitational acceleration, \(\rho_p\) the aerosol density and
The gliding coefficient and $\lambda_{\text{air}}$ is the mean free path of air molecules.

For details of the formulation refer to Tulet et al. [2005].

### 2.3 Transport, gravitational settling and wet removal of dust aerosols

In order to treat the dynamic and physic processes relating to dust aerosol in atmospheric model, we introduced 9 additional advectable variable of type GFL (Grid-point field) in ALADIN code. These variables are related to the three modes for the dust aerosol in its three states: dry aerosol, aerosol in rain and aerosol in cloud. Horizontal advection, vertical advection and lateral diffusion of the GFL variable are previously coded in ALADIN. For the vertical diffusion, the scheme used for temperature and moisture is applied for aerosol diffusion. Thus the same exchange coefficient is used. For the sedimentation, the parameterization used in ORILAM scheme [Tulet et al. 2005] is adopted. The wet removal dust aerosol is calculated in ALADIN model using the SCAVenging submodel [Tost et al. 2006] developed for MesoNH. Four physical processes (Figure 14) relating to the wet deposition are treated by this scheme:

- Impaction scavenging by cloud droplets, the main process is the Brownian motion of dry aerosols and cloud droplets [Pruppacher and Klett, 2000] and impaction scavenging by raindrops depends mainly on Brownian motion, interception, and inertial impaction [Slinn 1979].

- The in-cloud mass aerosol transfers into rain droplets by autoconversion and accretion processes.

- The aerosol mass sedimentation included in raindrops.

- The evaporation of rain releases the aerosols in atmosphere.

For details of formulation, refer to [Tulet et al. 2010], [Tost et al. 2006], and [Berthet, et al. 2010].
3. The 2006 March 7-13 West Africa dust storm simulation

The model version used in this study has an horizontal resolution of 24 km centred on North Africa, and 60 vertical levels. ALADIN is forced by the global model ARPEGE which provides lateral boundary conditions. In order to minimise the spinning up and establish reliable dust concentration conditions, we start the simulation from March 1st 2006 with 48 hour forecasts and the simulated dust concentration of the previous forecast was used as an update for the next-forecast model run.

3.1 Synoptic situation

The 2006, March 7-13 West African event simulated is characterized by an intense Harmattan wind at the surface. It was generated by a strong pressure gradient over West Africa between March 7th to 9th (Figure 15). The 850 hPa geopotential field from March, 8 at 12 UTC forecasted by ALADIN (Figure 16.a) shows a high pressure over Mauritania, whereas a deep low with a depression was located over Libya. This strong geopotential gradient which led to an intense Harmattan surface flux over the northern Niger and Chad (15 m.s−1), the northern Mali (12 m.s−1) and Mauritania (12 m.s−1) (Figure 15.a). The Inter-Tropical Discontinuity (ITD), which delineates the dynamic boundary between the Harmattan flux and the monsoon, can be observed at the surface on Figure 15.a, along a line extending from the north of Ivory Coast to the center of Nigeria. On March 10, 2006 (Figure 16.b), the high geopotential field centred over Mauritania decreased. As a consequence, the surface wind decreased over the Sahel region. The strong surface winds over the Sahel during the 7-13 March period led to a strong dust storm which was readily observed from the MSG-SEVIRI satellite images [Schmetz et al., 2006; Slingo et al., 2006] (Figures 17).
March 8, at 12 UTC (Figure 17.left), a high dust plume is observed spreading from the desert regions of Mali, Niger and Chad to the southwest part of the domain. The high dust concentration in the Sahelien African Layer (SAL) contrasts with the southerly cloudy monsoon air mass (in red). Over vegetation, the MSG-SEVIRI images cannot retrieve the dust signal which explains the strong limit observed between the dusty SAL and the more southern zone close to the Guinea Gulf (in blue). On March 12, at 12 UTC, the dust emission decreased in the desert region (white color in Figure 17.right), and the dust particles were then blown over the Guinea sea and north of Nigeria.

3.2 AOD during March 1st to 15th, 2006

The evolution of the AOD for Sahelian dust simulated by ALADIN is shown in the left part of Figure 18. A strong belt of high AOD appears from Chad to Senegal (Figure 18.a). Different AOD maxima have been simulated in the Chad (2.6), the southern part of Niger and the northern Nigeria (3.4) and Senegal (3). On March 10 (Figure 18.c), the plume of dust AOD spread to the South, reaching the Gulf of Guinea. In particular, three intense AOD maxima exceeding 3 have been simulated around Nigeria (from Benin to southern Chad and Cameroon). On March, 12, the intense dust plume continued its extension to the south over the Guinea Sea and the Atlantic Ocean but decreased on the whole domain (Figure 18.e). The evolution of the AOD has been observed by AQUA-MODIS satellite (right part of Figure 18). These data have been obtained from MODIS data collection 5 using MODIS on line visualization and Analysis System (MOVAS) developed at NASA (http://daac.gsfc.nasa.gov/techlab/giovanni/G3_manual/Chapter_8_MOVAS.shtml). It is interesting to note the quite good agreement between the ALADIN simulation and the satellite observations during the event. Particularly it can be observed on March, 8, (Figure 18.b) that the dust plumes does not reach the Guinea Gulf and is still located in the north of Benin and centre of Nigeria. Except over southeast Nigeria and northern Cameroon, the location and intensity of high AOD, are comparable to the ones of MODIS and ALADIN. On March, 10, it is interesting to make relevant that the AQUA-MODIS satellite also retrieved three AOD maxima exceeding 3 in the same location around Nigeria (Figure 18.d). Moreover, the dust plume observed over Guinea and over the Atlantic Ocean, was reproduced in the simulation. On March, 12, the AQUA-MODIS observes some high AOD over Benin, Nigeria and Cameroon exceeding 3 in the coastal areas.

The simulated AOD are compared to AERONET photometers measurements located at Banizoumbou (Niger), DMN_Maine_Soroa (Niger), Capo_Verde, Cairo_EMA (Egypt), IER_Cinzana (Mali), Djougou (Benin), Ilorin (Nigeria), M’bour (Senegal), and Tamanrasset (Algeria). The results are illustrated in figure 19. Before the dust storm event of March 1st, 8th the AOD simulated are in well agreement, compared with those observed for the considered 9 stations.
The increase of the AOD observed on March 8\textsuperscript{th} over the majority of the stations announces the beginning of the dust storm event. This increase is well envisaged by the ALADIN model. The Banizoumbou station is located in the Sahelian area of Niger. The strong winds observed in this area, generated a significant dust emission. AOD greater than 3 have been observed on March 7\textsuperscript{th} and they reached values up to 4.0 on March 8\textsuperscript{th}. At Banizoumbou, which is close to AERONET station (dust source zone), the simulated AOD estimates well the observed value but with one day of delay compared to the observed one. Over DMN_Maine_Soroa station the AOD simulated for the days March 8 to March 15 is in well agreement with the observed one, except for the peak observed for March 9\textsuperscript{th}. This peak is due to local uprisings which is difficult to predict by numerical models. Cape-Verde is a station located in the Atlantic Ocean; it is affected by the dust aerosols transport. For this station, we notice that the AOD simulated during the dust storm event are in well agreement compared to the observed values except for March 9\textsuperscript{th} when the AOD simulated are underestimated. The same remark can be made for Cairo_EMA station but for this station the AOD simulated for March 9\textsuperscript{th} are over-estimated. Over IER_Cinzana station the AOD simulated for days March 8 to 11 are underestimated compared with the observed values. Then beyond March 11\textsuperscript{th}, the simulated AOD are over-estimated. The AOD over the Ilorin station are underestimated; the maximum simulated AOD reached 3.1, whereas the photometers registered AODs above 4. At this stage, authors do not have concrete elements to understand if the origin of this underestimation is attributable to an underestimation of the simulated dust emission over Niger (surface winds) or to more local carbonaceous aerosols. Nevertheless, at Ilorin, the model was able to reproduce the delay in the increases of the AOD observed after March 9\textsuperscript{th}. Thus, a systematic underestimation of AOD (about 1) also appeared at Djougou when the station was in the monsoon flux. This bias can be attributable to carbonaceous aerosols (black and organic carbon fractions) which are not included in the simulation. The AOD simulated over Mbour represents a peak at the endof-day on March 8\textsuperscript{th} which exceeds 4 then to go down rapidly under 2 for the day after. Whereas, the values of AOD observed by this station are about 1.5 to 2.5 during the dust storm event to go down 1 from March 13\textsuperscript{th}. The AOD simulated over Tamanrasset are in good agreement with those observed. Indeed, this station was not affected by this dust storm event.

3.3 Surface concentration during March 1\textsuperscript{st} to 15\textsuperscript{th}, 2006

Figure 20 shows the evolution of the surface concentration of dust aerosols compared to the observations from three stations: Banizoumbou, IER_Cinzana, and M’bour. The surface concentrations simulated over Banizoumbou at the beginning of the dust storm event (March 7\textsuperscript{th}) are underestimated. Then the observed concentrations reached 2000 µg/m\textsuperscript{3} on March 7\textsuperscript{th} and 4000 µg/m\textsuperscript{3} on March 8\textsuperscript{th} while ALADIN predicted the concentration of 400 to 600 µg/m\textsuperscript{3}. The peak
observed on March 9\textsuperscript{th} at this station is well simulated by the model. Beyond March 9\textsuperscript{th} the model behaves very well compared to the observations. Over Cinzana, the evolution of the simulated concentrations during March 1\textsuperscript{st} to march 9\textsuperscript{th} are in oscillation with peaks exceeding the observed values during the period extending from March 3 to march 7. During the dust storm event the concentration simulated are underestimated. Then observed concentrations attain 3400 µg/m\textsuperscript{3} on March 8\textsuperscript{th} and 3000 µg/m\textsuperscript{3} on March 10\textsuperscript{th}. On the other hand, ALADIN predicted the values of 2400 µg/m3 for March 8\textsuperscript{th} and 1000\textsuperscript{th} µg/m3 for March 10\textsuperscript{th}. Beyond March 11\textsuperscript{th}, the model joined the observation. Over M’our, ALADIN reproduces with satisfaction the observed concentrations on March 9\textsuperscript{th} where ALADIN predicts the concentration of 1000 µg/m3; while the observed ones are around 2000µg/m\textsuperscript{3}.

4. Conclusion

Through this work, we have contributed to the development of the ALADIN model by introducing atmospheric dust as a prognostic tracer in the model. The production and emission phases are simulated in ISBA scheme which is integrated in SURFEX. By the way, we introduced in the dust emission scheme: the geographic variation of the surface size dust distribution, size-dependent on energy thresholds for particle release during sandblasting, the Marticorena and Bergametti (1995) relationship in the horizontal saltation flux and the Shao (2001) formulate in the calculation of the sandblasting efficiency which is more compatible with SURFEX. The coupled system ALADIN_SURFEX is tested for March 7-13 West Africa dust storm. We validated our modelled dust plume against measurements available in the AMMA data base and the daily mean AOD from AQUA-MODIS satellite. The main results exposed in this notice are, in our point of view, interesting and viable. In extension, ALADIN has reproduced well the extension of the dust plumes. But in intensity, it has underestimated the AOD for the zones far from dust sources. The most plausible cause of that underestimation is the non conservative advection scheme used in the model. It is interesting to notice that the desert dust radiative effect is introduced in ALADIN model. For this purpose, a study of aerosols and weather forecast interaction is recommended.

Acknowledgments: I thank, Laurent Gomes, Claude Fischer, Pierre Tulet and Bachir Hamadache for their remarks and assistances. I also thank all those which contributed by far or for loan to the realization of this note.

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Results

Figure 15: Mean sea level pressure (hpa) and wind speed at 10m on March 8th (a) and 10th (b) 2006.

Figure 16: The geopotential at 850 hPa (in meters) and wind speed on March 8th (a) and 10th (b) 2006.

Figure 17: MSG-SEVIRI satellite images over West Africa for March 8, 2006 at 12 UTC (left) and March 12, 2006 at 12 UTC (right), pink color represents for dust, black for cirrus, red for high level cloud, brown for the mid-level cloud, and white for desert surface.
Figure 18: AOD simulated by ALADIN on March 8 at 12 UTC (a), March 10 at 12 UTC (c) and March 12 at 12 UTC (e), 2006. The daily mean AOD from MODIS/AQUA satellite images on March 8 (b), March 10 (d) and March 12 (f), 2006.
Figure 19: The Evolution of the AOD simulated by ALADIN between 2006 March 1 and 15, 2006, at Banizoumbou, DMN Maine Soroa, Capo Verde, Cairo EMA, IER Cinzana, Ilorin, Djougou, M’bour and Tamanrasset. The Dots represent the photometer observed values.
Figure 20: The Evolution of the dust surface concentration simulated by ALADIN between 2006 March 1 and 15, 2006, at Banizoumbou, IER_Cinzana, and M’bour (red line) and surface dust concentration observed values (blue line).