



Trans-Pacific transport of Saharan dust to western North America: A case study

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[1] The first documented case of long-range transport of Saharan dust over a pathway spanning Asia and the Pacific to western North America is described. Crustal material generated by North African dust storms during the period 28 February to 3 March 2005 reached western Canada on 13–14 March 2005 and was observed by lidar and sunphotometer in the Vancouver region and by high-altitude aerosol instrumentation at Whistler Peak. Global chemical models (GEOS-Chem and NRL NAAPS) confirm the transport pathway and suggest source attribution was simplified in this case by the distinct, and somewhat unusual, lack of dust activity over Eurasia (Gobi and Takla Makan deserts) at this time. Over western North America the dust layer, although subsiding close to the boundary layer, did not appear to contribute to boundary layer particulate matter concentrations. Furthermore, sunphotometer observations (and associated inversion products) suggest that the dust layer had only subtle optical impact (aerosol optical thickness (τ_{a500}) and Ångström exponent ($\alpha_{440-870}$) were 0.1 and 1.2, respectively) and was dominated by fine particulate matter (modes in aerodynamic diameter at 0.3 and 2.5 μm). High-altitude observations at Whistler, British Columbia, confirm the crustal origin of the layer (rich in Ca^{++} ions) and the bimodal size distribution. Although a weak event compared to the Asian trans-Pacific dust events of 1998 and 2001, this novel case highlights the possibility that Saharan sources may contribute episodically to the aerosol burden in western North America.

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1. Introduction

[2] Mobilisation and transport of mineral dust from the arid regions of the world is of considerable scientific importance because of the role airborne crustal material plays in the global radiation balance (and hence climate forcing), cloud processes, atmospheric Chemistry, oceanic

biogeochemical processes (e.g., dust is a major source of iron), as vectors for microbes and as a factor influencing local air quality in both “source” and “sink” regions [Prospero *et al.*, 2002]. In light of this, considerable effort, including observation, major field experiments and modelling, has been directed at the quantification of the sources and sinks of mineral dust as well as the major pathways by which dust is transported in the atmosphere [e.g., Ginoux *et al.*, 2004].

[3] Globally, the deserts of North Africa and Asia represent the major sources of mineral dust with North Africa (including the Sahara and Sahel) contributing about 1400 Tg/year (65% of the global emission) while the deserts of Asia (including the Gobi and Takla Makan deserts) contribute around 25% [Ginoux *et al.*, 2004]. From North Africa, mineral dust is transported principally along three pathways: (1) westward across the Atlantic to the Americas, (2) northward across the Mediterranean to Europe, and (3) eastward across the eastern Mediterranean to the Middle East and Asia. The latter trajectory, which is of particular relevance to this study, is most prevalent during spring [Middleton and Goudie, 2001]. From Asia, the major transport pathway is eastward on the midlatitude

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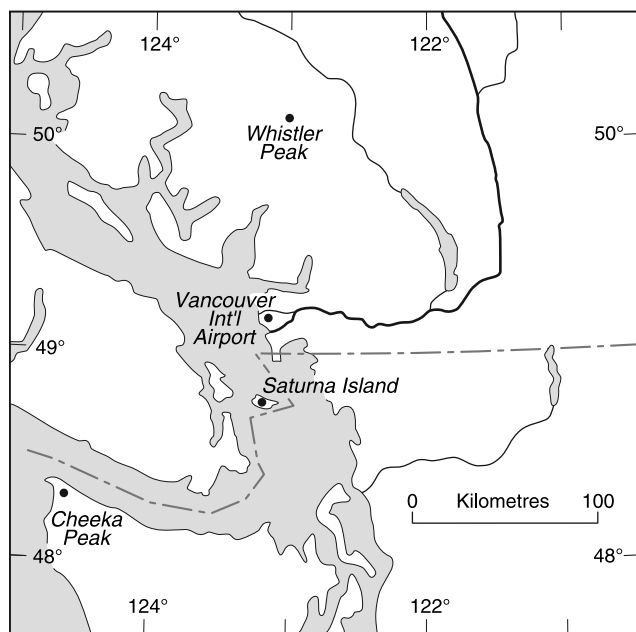


Figure 1. Western Canada showing observation sites mentioned in text.

westerlies to the North Pacific [Prospero *et al.*, 2002; Gong *et al.*, 2003; Stohl *et al.*, 2002; Holzer *et al.*, 2003, 2005]. The provenance of deposited dust demonstrates that the midlatitude westerlies episodically carry Asian dust as far afield as both the east and west coasts of North America [Husar *et al.*, 2001; McKendry *et al.*, 2001; Jaffe *et al.*, 2003] and the European Alps [Grousset *et al.*, 2003]. Ice cores from Greenland suggest that this pathway has been active for a long period of time [Biscaye *et al.*, 1997].

[4] Modeling studies [Ginoux *et al.*, 2004] indicate that North America is the only continent (Antarctica excluded) for which annual dust deposition exceeds emissions (by threefold). Hence long-range transport from other continents is the dominant factor controlling the magnitude and interannual variability of dust loading. The primary pathway for intercontinental transport to North America is trans-Atlantic transport of North African dust, primarily to the eastern and southeastern United States, including the Caribbean [Chiapello *et al.*, 2005]. Recently Asia has been identified as a source affecting primarily the western United States [Husar *et al.*, 2001; McKendry *et al.*, 2001] and occasionally the entire continent [Jaffe *et al.*, 2003; Thulasiraman *et al.*, 2002].

[5] In this study, we describe a previously undocumented pathway for long-range transport of mineral dust to North America; eastward transport of North African dust across Eurasia and the North Pacific to western North America. In so doing we draw extensively upon available surface observations and remote sensing data (including lidar observations and sunphotometer data), as well as global meteorological and chemical models. Data from nonroutine observations (AERONET site and High Altitude Chemistry site) permit examination of some physico-chemical characteristics of airborne dust

at a considerable distance from source. This paper extends the study of Park *et al.* [2005] that attributes lidar observed dust layers over Japan and China during the same time period (early March 2005) to dust storms in the Sahara region.

2. Methods

[6] Examination of this case was prompted by West Coast North America arrival of a mid tropospheric mineral dust layer around 13 March 2005 as forecast by the NAAPS (Navy Aerosol Analysis and Prediction System) Global Aerosol Model (available at <http://www.nrlmry.navy.mil/aerosol/>) and observed by a continuous upward pointing lidar at Vancouver, BC (lat 49°15'N, long 123°08'W) on 13–14 March 2005. As for the analysis of the 1998 Asian dust event [Husar *et al.*, 2001], detailed examination of this case exploits a wide range of data products, including routine observations and models, many of which are available online.

[7] The Environment Canada, Centre for Atmospheric Research Experiments (CARE) mobile lidar laboratory RASCAL (Rapid Acquisition Scanning Aerosol Lidar), was located at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver (Figure 1) in March 2005 in order to observe potential Asian dust transport events (see Strawbridge and Snyder [2004] for a detailed description of RASCAL). For this application, RASCAL was operated in upward pointing mode (i.e., vertically sampling the atmosphere directly above the vehicle) rather than scanning mode. The vehicle has an electronic leveling system to provide a stable, level environment for lidar operation. The technique of lidar is essentially a time-of-flight experiment that provides high spatial and temporal resolution imagery of the atmosphere. The basic components of a scanning lidar system consist of a laser, beam directing/collection optics and a telescope with a detection package to convert the signal for a data acquisition system that can process, display and save the data in real time. A pulsed laser emits a burst of photons into the atmosphere. A detection system measures the amount of light scattered back from the particles in the atmosphere. The analog signal from the detector is digitized along a set range (typically 12 km) providing a resolution of 3 m along the beam axis. The detector employed was a 35.6 cm Celestron Schmidt-Cassegrain telescope with an 8 mrad field-of-view that focused the captured light on a 3 mm RCA 30956E avalanche photodiode (APD). The APD was connected to a logarithmic amplifier made by Optech Inc. to increase the dynamic range. This is particularly important when operating the lidar where aerosol concentrations vary significantly within the scan range. The amplifier was calibrated prior to the experiment via a transfer function to convert the signal to a linear scale in addition to second-order corrections provided by Optech Inc. The signal was then sent to a Gage 14-bit, PCI card where the information was digitized at 50 MHz (3m resolution along the beam axis). The laser was a Continuum Powerlite 8020 Nd:YAG with a measured output energy of 850mJ and 400mJ at 1064nm and 532nm respectively. The a-scope display and false colour backscatter ratio plots are shown in real time with the ability to zoom in and out during data collection.

[8] The mineral dust simulation described here was conducted using the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model (CTM) [Bey *et al.*, 2001; Park *et al.*, 2004]. The model is driven by GEOS-4 assimilated meteorological fields provided by the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) which include wind, temperature, pressure, convective mass fluxes, precipitation fluxes, boundary layer height, and surface characteristics such as soil moisture, snow depth, and surface roughness. The meteorological fields used for the simulation have a horizontal resolution of 2.5° by 2° , and 30 vertical levels extending from the surface to approximately 0.01 mb.

[9] The mineral dust module in GEOS-Chem describes the mobilization (emission) of dust from the Earth's surface, large-scale transport by the wind, sub-grid-scale convective lofting, gravitational settling, and wet and dry deposition. For the simulation presented here, GEOS-Chem uses the Dust Entrainment and Deposition (DEAD) scheme [Zender *et al.*, 2003]. The mobilized mineral dust is distributed across four size bins for transport and deposition, with effective radii of 0.7, 1.4, 2.4 and $4.5 \mu\text{m}$, following the approach of Ginoux *et al.* [2001]. To compute optical properties, the smallest size bin is subdivided into four classes with effective radii of 0.15, 0.25, 0.4 and 0.8 μm . Dry deposition of dust is represented using a deposition velocity that accounts for gravitational settling [Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998] and turbulent dry transfer to the surface [Zhang *et al.*, 2001]. Wet deposition of mineral dust is represented using the parameterization for aerosol scavenging described by Liu *et al.* [2001], which includes scavenging in sub-grid-scale convective updrafts, and rainout and washout from large-scale precipitation and convective anvils. Fairlie *et al.* [2006] have used GEOS-Chem to study the impact of transpacific transport of Asian dust on the United States. The coupled GEOS-Chem ozone-aerosol model is run daily in near real time, and results are available online: http://coco.atmos.washington.edu/cgi-bin/ion-p?page=geos_nrt.ion.

[10] Independent corroboration of the GEOS-Chem results is provided by the Navy Aerosol Analysis and Prediction System (NAAPS), the U.S. Navy's global operational aerosol, air quality and visibility forecast model that generates real-time forecasts of aerosol conditions worldwide (<http://www.nrlmry.navy.mil/aerosol/>). At 00Z and 12Z each day, NAAPS produces global dust, sulphate, and smoke forecasts on a 1×1 degree grid and 27 vertical levels out to six days using meteorological fields from the Navy Operational Global Atmospheric Prediction System (NOGAPS, the Navy's global weather model.) Both NOGAPS and NAAPS are run operationally at the Fleet Numerical Meteorology and Oceanography Center.

[11] Back-trajectories from Vancouver were calculated using the HYSPLIT (HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory) model (<http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html>). The model is the newest version of a complete online system for computing simple air parcel trajectories to complex dispersion and deposition simulations for any location and date (depending on data availability) using a variety of standard data input products (e.g., the NCEP Reanalysis 1948 to present). Further details and

validation of the model can be found in the work of Draxler and Hess [1998].

[12] The AERONET (Aerosol Robotic Network) program is an inclusive federation of ground-based remote sensing aerosol networks whose objectives include the characterization of columnar aerosol optical properties as well as the validation aerosol optical parameters retrieved from the inversion of satellite radiances (<http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/index.html>). The network employs CIMEL sunphotometers/sky radiometers for the retrieval of information on aerosol optical properties. This type of information has been important in tracing the transport and characteristics of different types of aerosols and in particular has provided insight into the trans-Pacific transport of Asian dust. A CIMEL device on Saturna Island (Figure 1), a key site in a previous Asian dust study [Thulasiraman *et al.*, 2002] was employed for similar purposes in this study. This site, a member of AEROCAN (the Canadian subnetwork of AERONET), is located approximately 50 km southwest of Vancouver. The CIMEL instruments acquire solar radiances which are transformed into cloud screened (level 1.5) Aerosol Optical Thickness (AOT) across seven spectral channels (340, 380, 440, 500, 670, 870, and 1020 nm) and, in a separate mode, almucanter sky radiances across four channels (440, 670, 870, and 1020 nm). The sky radiances, along with AOT estimates at the same four channels, are used to perform inversions for particle size distribution and refractive index [Dubovik *et al.*, 2003]. In this paper we examine (1) AOT at 500 nm (τ_{a500} or τ_a for simplicity): the fundamental aerosol parameter which acts to reduce the optical transmission in the direction of the sun and increases the brightness of the sky away from the sun (as τ_a increases, the sky becomes hazier), (2) the partition of the AOT into its fine and coarse-mode optical depths at 500 nm (τ_f and τ_c), and (3) particulate matter size distributions obtained from the Dubovik inversions. It should be borne in mind that the fine-mode fraction (τ_f/τ_a) is proportional to the Angstrom exponent [O'Neill *et al.*, 2003]; we simply choose to represent this key spectral parameter in terms of the more physically relevant fine and coarse-mode contributions.

[13] Measurements of particles and trace gases are made by Environment Canada at a high-elevation site in Whistler, BC, approximately 100 km north of Vancouver (Figure 1). The site is located at the top of a ski hill, at Whistler Peak, 2182 m (above sea level). There are no continuous combustion sources at the peak and influences from snowmobiles have been identified and removed from the data set. During the period of interest, particle size distributions were measured both with a TSI Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) Model 3934 and a Grimm optical particle counter (OPC) (Model 1.108). The SMPS was used to measure mobility diameter in the $0.01 \mu\text{m}$ to $0.4 \mu\text{m}$ size range while the OPC provided optical diameter from $0.3 \mu\text{m}$ to $20 \mu\text{m}$. Particle chemistry is from bulk filter packs, collected every 48 hours and analyzed for inorganic ions by ion chromatography. All particle sampling takes place through a heated stainless steel manifold and filter packs are preceded by a cyclone operated at approximately a $2 \mu\text{m}$ size cut. Particle sampling is suspended in the presence of fog to ensure no contamination of samples by cloud and that the



Figure 2. Dust veils streaming off North Africa, 1 March 2005 (this image from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) on NASA's Terra satellite). (available online at the NASA Earth Observatory:<http://earthobservatory.nasa.gov/NaturalHazards/>)

sampling inlet remains dry and free of rime. Carbon monoxide is measured with a TECO 48C with zeros performed every two hours.

3. Results

3.1. Observed Dust Storms

[14] During late February and early March 2005 significant dust storm activity was observed across the northern Sahara and in particular in the vicinity of western Algeria (see <http://www.nrlmry.navy.mil/aerosol/> for archived maps showing surface observations). This activity was visible in satellite imagery showing prominent veils of dust transported northeastward across Libya and Egypt into the eastern Mediterranean and beyond (Figure 2). These events were entirely consistent with the sources, trajectories and seasonality of North African dust events as described in great detail in the work of *Middleton and Goudie* [2001]. At other times of year, particularly summer, the subtropical easterly jet and easterly waves predominate over the region and tend to carry dust on a pathway extending westward across the Atlantic [*Middleton and Goudie*, 2001].

[15] In contrast, during early March 2005, dust storm activity in the Asian Region was confined to slight to moderate activity in northwestern China over the period 6–10 March (see <http://www.nrlmry.navy.mil/aerosol/> for archived maps showing surface observations). Generally by March, dust storm activity in Asia reaches a maximum as spring cyclonic storms from Siberia bring frontal activity and strong winds to the region [*Prospero et al.*, 2002]. However, early March 2005 was influenced by a well developed ridge of high pressure over central Asia and a pronounced absence of cyclonic activity (GEOS-Chem simulations show transport over this ridge in the Asian region and absence of dust generated near the surface). It is this lack of activity over Asia which adds considerable weight to the view that dust arriving in North America on 13–14 March

originated from Africa and was “uncontaminated” by Asian sources.

3.2. Transport: Meteorology

[16] In this case, Saharan dust generation and eastward transport was associated with the passage of a relatively weak low-pressure center (~ 1000 hPa central pressure) eastward across North Africa accompanied by strong zonal midtropospheric westerlies (this transport can be seen in GEOS-Chem simulations shown in Figure 3). The shortwave trough accompanying this system moved eastward across the eastern Mediterranean by 3 March 2005. Meteosat imagery (not shown here) shows no indication of frontal cloud associated with this system and consequently, it appears that the system did not exhibit a well-developed warm conveyor belt (WCB), the main mechanism by which pollutants are lofted to the midtroposphere in midlatitudes [*Cooper et al.*, 2004]. Instead, it seems (on the basis of comparison of GEOS-Chem simulations and weather maps) that lofting of dust to midtropospheric levels occurred in the vicinity of the central core of the low-pressure center (and in advance of the developing shortwave trough) over Algeria and Libya as the system moved eastward on 28 February and 1 March 2005. In Figure 2 (top, center) dust is apparent above cloud confirming lofting of material into the mid-troposphere relatively near the source region.

[17] Long-range transport of the Saharan dust is shown in Figure 3 (on the basis of GEOS-Chem simulations) with meteorological fields superimposed. The hemispheric long waves during the event showed a broadly three wave pattern with ridges over western North America, central Asia and the central Atlantic. This zonal pattern facilitated relatively rapid midtropospheric eastward transport, firstly over the central Asian ridge by 5 March, across the central Pacific by 9–11 March and finally across the western North American ridge during 12–14 March 2005. Over this trajectory, three cyclonic systems affected transport: dust was first lofted in the low-pressure center over the Sahara, it then travelled around the southern portion of a midlatitude cyclone in the eastern Pacific (7–9 March) and then around the south side of low-pressure system in the eastern Pacific (11 March) before “pooling” north of Hawaii and then arching northward onto the North American continent. This pattern is consistent with research by *Cooper et al.* [2004] and *Holzer et al.* [2003] that suggests that several baroclinic systems need to “cooperate” in order to generate trans-Pacific transport events.

[18] During the long hemispheric trajectory described herein, significant precipitation and cloud was associated with only the eastern and western Pacific midlatitude cyclones with no significant precipitation associated with the Asian leg of the pathway. Comparison of the left and right panels in Figure 3 suggests that during transport across the Pacific, the core of the dust layer avoided regions of precipitation (and therefore significant wet deposition) associated with low-pressure centers in the northern Pacific.

3.3. Transport: GEOS-Chem Simulations of Dust Optical Depths

[19] Dust optical depths (computed at 400nm) in Figure 3 show both surface sources and dust storm activity as well as midtropospheric transport. Throughout the period, signifi-

cant surface dust mobilisation events were limited to 28 February to 7 March 2005 over North Africa with little or no activity of Asia. The most intense activity is evident over western Algeria on 28 February and is consistent with satellite imagery (Figure 2) and surface reports over the region.

[20] By 3 March, northeastward transport of North African dust is evident over the Middle East. This pathway follows the middle latitude westerlies across the ridge over central Asia and dips southward across east Asia and Japan into the Pacific by 7 March. Confirmation of the transport of mid tropospheric dust layers across China and Japan 7–9 March 2005 is provided by lidars in the region. *Park et al.* [2005] attribute these layers to North African dust storms (26 February to 2 March 2005) on the basis of results from five regional and global aerosol models. In their study, global models reproduced the dust layer qualitatively, but the regional model did not. Consequently, it was concluded that the source of the dust layers was located outside the regional model domain that included the Taklimakan and Gobi deserts. As with the GEOS-Chem model described herein, the global models (including NRL NAAPS) showed the plumes originating from the Sahara Desert, with models showing no major dust emission in the Taklimakan and Gobi deserts during the period.

[21] Across the Pacific, the GEOS-Chem simulation shows strongly zonal flow until the dust reaches a point northward of Hawaii around 9 March, at which time it arches northward over the strong ridge along the west of the Pacific coast of North America. The leading edge of the Saharan dust reaches Vancouver on 13 March and represents a total transport duration of ~ 14 days. Latitudinal cross sections (not shown here) along the transport pathway indicate that transport was midtropospheric for the entire event and suggests that on arrival in the Vancouver region on 13 March the center of the dust layer was at ~ 5 – 6 km altitude. Over Japan and China simulated heights of the dust layer are consistent with lidar observed layers described by *Park et al.* [2005].

3.4. Observations Over Western North America

[22] Continuous upward pointing lidar imagery from Vancouver, British Columbia on 13 March 2005 shows a layer of enhanced backscatter at approximately 5 km AGL in the morning (marked A in Figure 4, top) that is entirely consistent with the GEOS-Chem simulations. This aerosol layer progressively lowered throughout the remainder of 13 March and by early morning on 14 March it was located just above the planetary boundary layer at ~ 2 km AGL, where it persisted for the remainder of the day. During 14 March the lidar imagery shows little evidence of down-mixing (or fumigation) of this layer. This is confirmed by surface monitoring in the vicinity of Vancouver showing little evidence of crustal material within the boundary layer over the period 12–14 March. At Vancouver International Airport mean concentrations for PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ were 18 and $7 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$ respectively. This represents “clean air” in the Vancouver context and compares to values which were approximately five times greater during the 1998 Asian dust event [*McKendry et al.*, 2001; *McKendry*, 2000]. Peak values were evident overnight and corresponded to peaks in CO. This suggests an anthropogenic

local source for fine particles in the boundary layer over this period. Weather conditions on 13 March were mainly clear with temperatures reaching 14°C at Vancouver International Airport. On 14 March temperatures reached 13°C with altocumulus cloud present until early afternoon. This cloud is apparent in the lidar imagery (label B in Figure 4, top). The corresponding NAAPS forecast aerosol extinction for Saturna Island over the same period is shown in Figure 4, bottom (time and height scales are matched to allow direct comparison). The model forecast shows remarkable agreement with the observations, capturing not only the height and arrival time of the dust layer, but also the significant subsidence that occurred over the night of 13/14 March 2005.

[23] Hysplit back-trajectories (Figure 5) for multiple elevations suggest that the air mass passing over Vancouver during this episode had followed an arching northerly trajectory over the well developed ridge of high-pressure aligned westward of the West Coast. This is consistent with the trajectories shown in the GEOS-Chem simulations above (Figure 3). Interestingly, the trajectory starting at 1 km (in red) can be traced back to the mid troposphere (~ 5 km), the height at which dust was predicted to traverse the Pacific by the GEOS-Chem and NAAPS models. This is consistent with the notion that strong subsidence on the eastern limb of the upper level ridge was likely responsible for the lowering of the elevated layer apparent in the lidar imagery.

[24] The Saturna Island sunphotometer data appear to confirm the presence of enhanced aerosol over the region on 13–14 March 2005, however the optical effects of the mineral dust were subtle compared to the spectacular Asian Dust episodes of April 1998 [*Husar et al.*, 2001] and mid-April 2001 [*Jaffe et al.*, 2003; *Thulasiraman et al.*, 2002]. Figure 6a shows the variation of total aerosol optical depth (AOD) and predicted (NAAPS) dust AOD for AEROCAN/AERONET data acquired on Saturna Island (500 nm wavelength). Although the correlation between the model and data is not strong its interpretation as being indicative of the dust event is convincing given (for example) the sudden increase to smoothly varying measured optical depth on 13 March, low values of τ_f/τ_a (or equivalently, high values of τ_c/τ_a where one assumes that dust events always have a strong coarse-mode component) and circumstantial evidence such as the correspondence with lidar and microphysical data. Figure 6b shows the estimated values of τ_f and τ_c extracted from the spectral form of the total AOD. These curves enable one to better understand those variations in the measured optical depths which tend to lessen the correlation with the modelled dust optical depth. The blue vertical lines indicate probable thin cloud events or thin cloud events combined with dust intrusions where the cloud component likely escaped the AERONET cloud screening algorithm [*Smirnov et al.*, 2000]. If one roughly defines a high-frequency minimum for cloud optical depth variation as the maximum dust rate derived from the NAAPS data of Figure 6a, then a threshold temporal rate for thin cloud would be $d\tau_c/dt > \sim 0.02/\text{hour}$. While this frequency argument will have some sensitivity to the nominal sampling frequencies of the model, there are clearly fundamental differences between the temporal behavior of local (low altitude) cloud and well travelled dust. As opposed to the

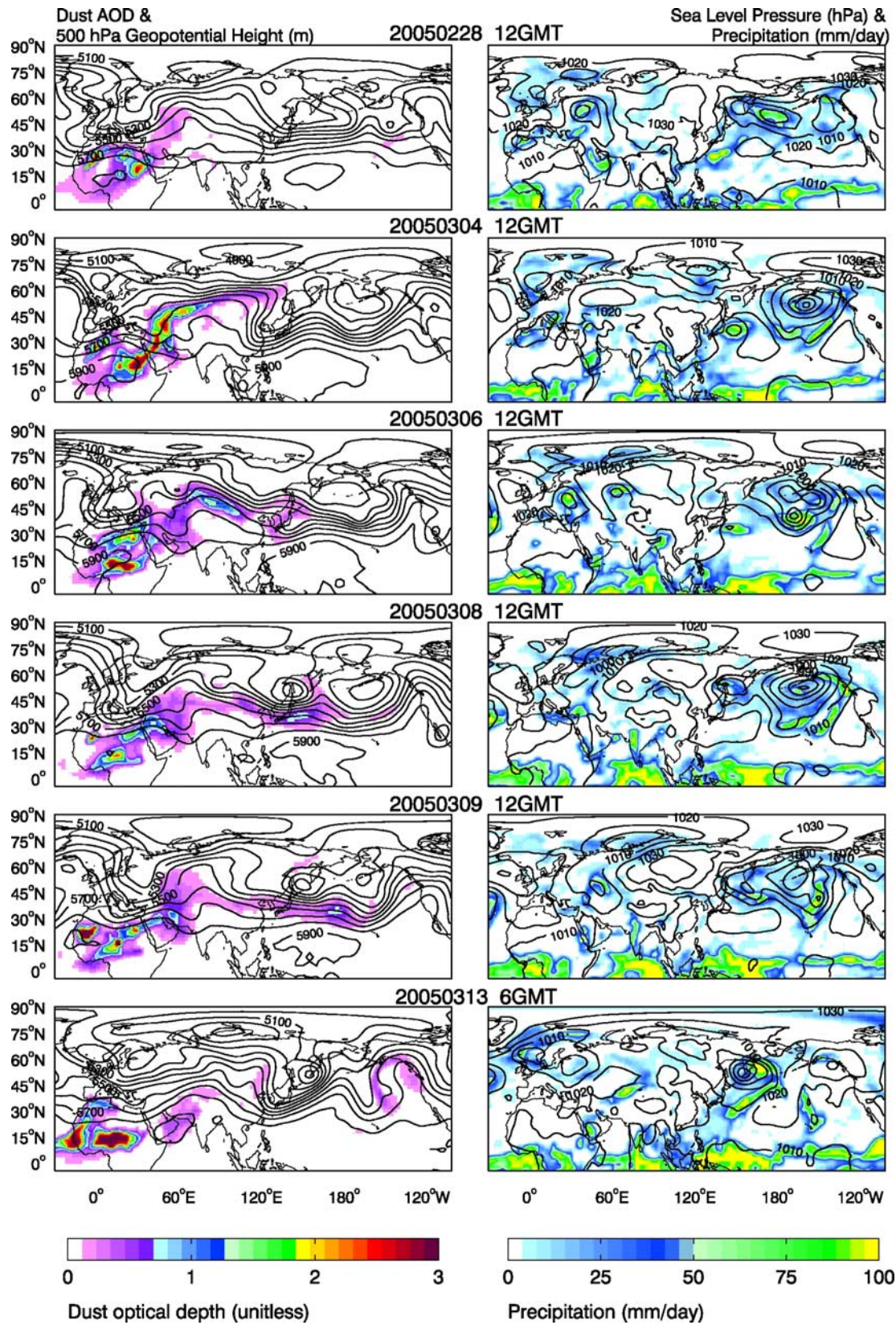


Figure 3. Paired GEOS-Chem output panels showing (left) dust optical depth with 500 hPa geopotential heights and (right) surface pressure with modeled precipitation per day for the period 28 February to 13 March 2005.

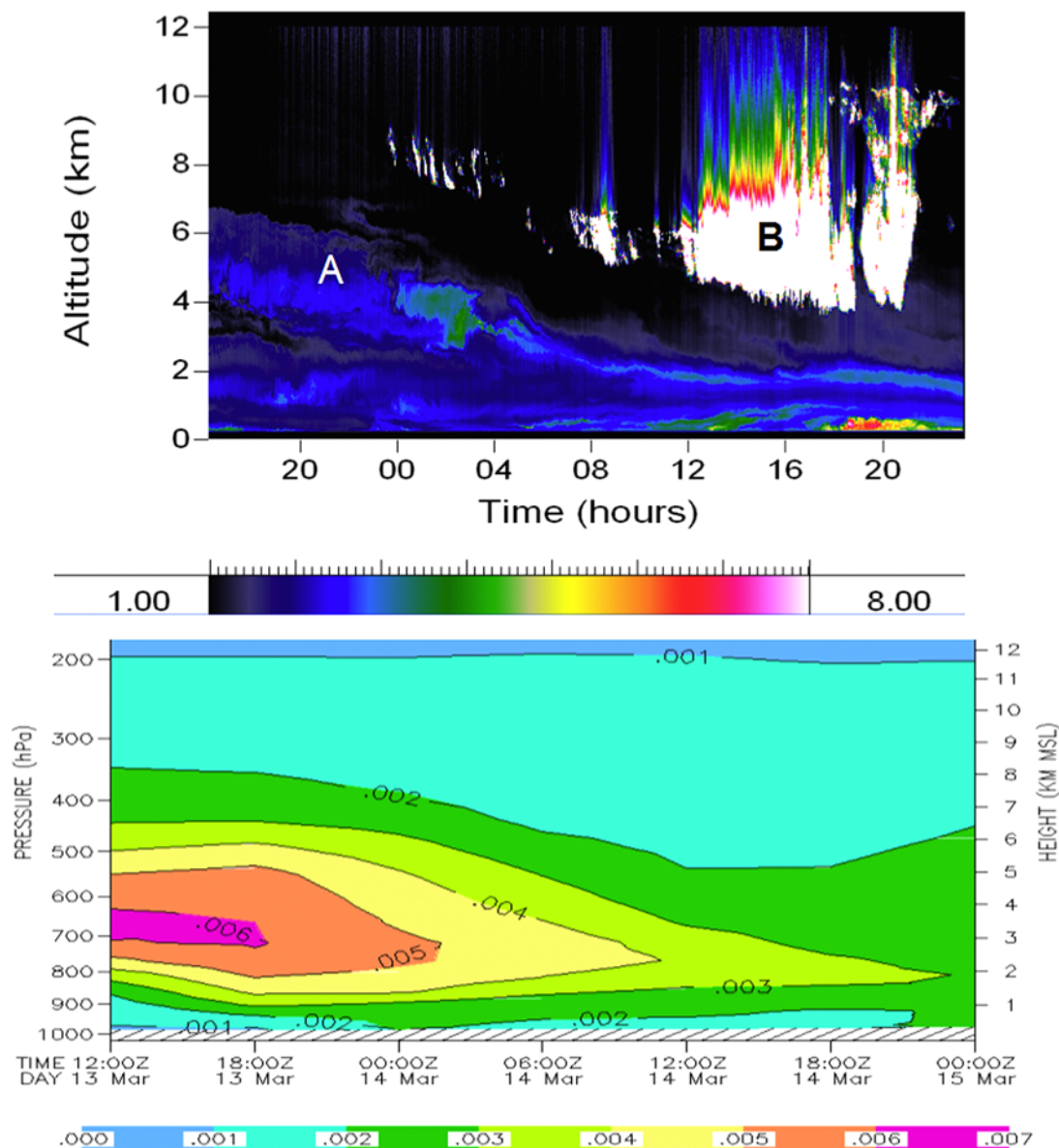


Figure 4. Time-height cross sections of (top) aerosol backscatter from lidar at Vancouver 13–14 March (times in GMT) and (bottom) Navy Aerosol Analysis and Prediction System (NAAPS) forecast aerosol extinction for Saturna Island for the same period (times in GMT). Both panels are aligned to be time and height consistent.

more obvious dust signal on 13 March, the variations of τ_c on 9 March and 14 March suggest a mixture of cloud and dust influences (38% of all the point pairs on 9 March and 28% of all the point pairs of 14 March respectively would be classified as cloud according to the temporal derivative criterion given above). The last pair of (red) vertical lines on 24 March and 25 show a fine-mode optical depth variation which is likely a local pollution event (c.f. the Whistler analysis below).

[25] The size distribution derived by inversion for the 12–14 March 2005 period (whose daily average is shown in Figure 7) suggests that arrival of dust on 13 March was associated with a significant increase in particle volume (and likely mass) at a mode of $0.3 \mu\text{m}$ aerodynamic diameter and a lesser increase in the coarse mode at around $2.5 \mu\text{m}$. It will be seen in the analysis of the Whistler data

below that the relative importance of the fine and coarse-mode peaks is somewhat at odds with the sampled particle size distributions (where the coarse-mode volume size distribution is significantly more important in the 13/14 March data of Figure 9 versus the 13/14 March data of Figure 7). Aside from the obvious sources of potential disparities (column integration versus local volumetric sampling and the distance between the Vancouver area sites and Saturna Island) one can easily demonstrate a significant variability of the fine-mode volume size distribution as a function of the retrieved value of refractive index as well as the assumption of nonsphericity versus sphericity of the dust particles (the fine-mode particle volume being significantly less, for example, in the case of a retrieval based on the assumption of nonspherical particles; [see Dubovik *et al.*, 2002b]). In contrast, the coarse-mode volume distribution is consider-

NOAA HYSPLIT MODEL
 Backward trajectories ending at 00 UTC 14 Mar 05
 CDC1 Meteorological Data

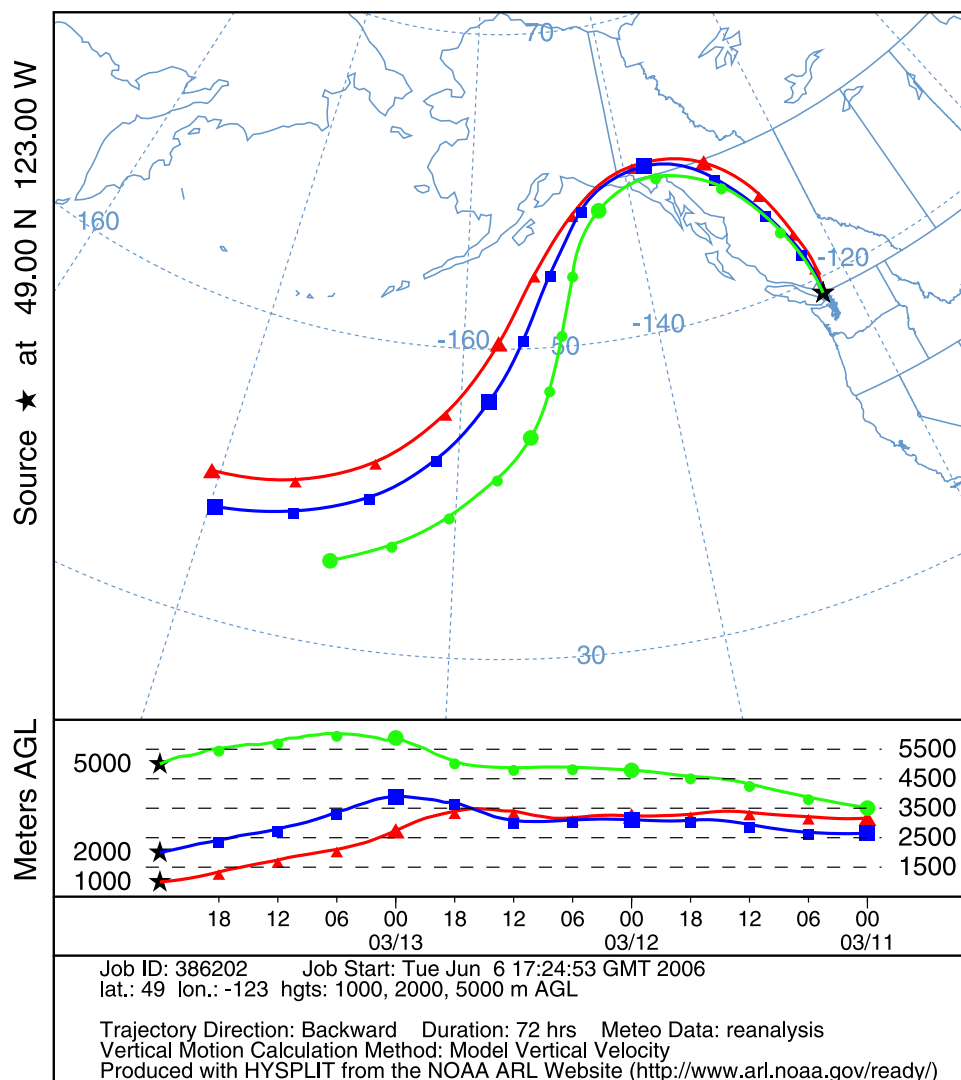


Figure 5. Hysplit 72 hour backward trajectories ending at Vancouver 14 March 2005 for three levels 1000, 2000, and 5000 m AGL.

ably less sensitive to these retrieval parameters. The refractive index is not, as a matter of fact, even returned by the AERONET inversion because the authors of the algorithm do not recommend its use below $\tau_a(440 \text{ nm}) < 0.5$ for dust particles (the refractive index remark above is based on our own Mie computations applied to the March 2005 dust data).

[26] The implied correlation between fine and coarse-mode dust content seen in Figure 7 is coherent with the moderate correlation which can be seen between the τ_f and τ_c curves of Figure 6b on 13 August when the influence of the dust intrusion was most evident. That this correlation is actually due to a dominance of dust in the fine mode as opposed to a dominance of anthropogenic local sources is not clear (see the Vancouver airport and Whistler analyses below). Nonetheless, the existence of both fine and coarse

dust modes is similar to previous sunphotometry-derived results for Asian dust over Alaska, British Columbia and coastal California (Stone *et al.* [2005]; Table 3 of Thulasiraman *et al.* [2002]; Tratt *et al.* [2000], respectively) as well as Saharan dust transported westward to Cape Verde [Dubovik *et al.*, 2002a; Tanré *et al.*, 2001] and was observed by McKendry *et al.* [2001] using volumetric sampling techniques in the Vancouver area during the strong 1998 dust event. It is noted that the correlation between dust volume concentrations of the fine and coarse mode (i.e., C_{vf} and C_{vc} retrieved from integrations of the Dubovik particle size distributions) with $\tau_a(1020 \text{ nm})$ as presented in Table 1 of Dubovik *et al.* [2002a] and Table 3 of Thulasiraman *et al.* [2002] depends on there being significant variations in dust abundance during a given event; a lack of strong varia-

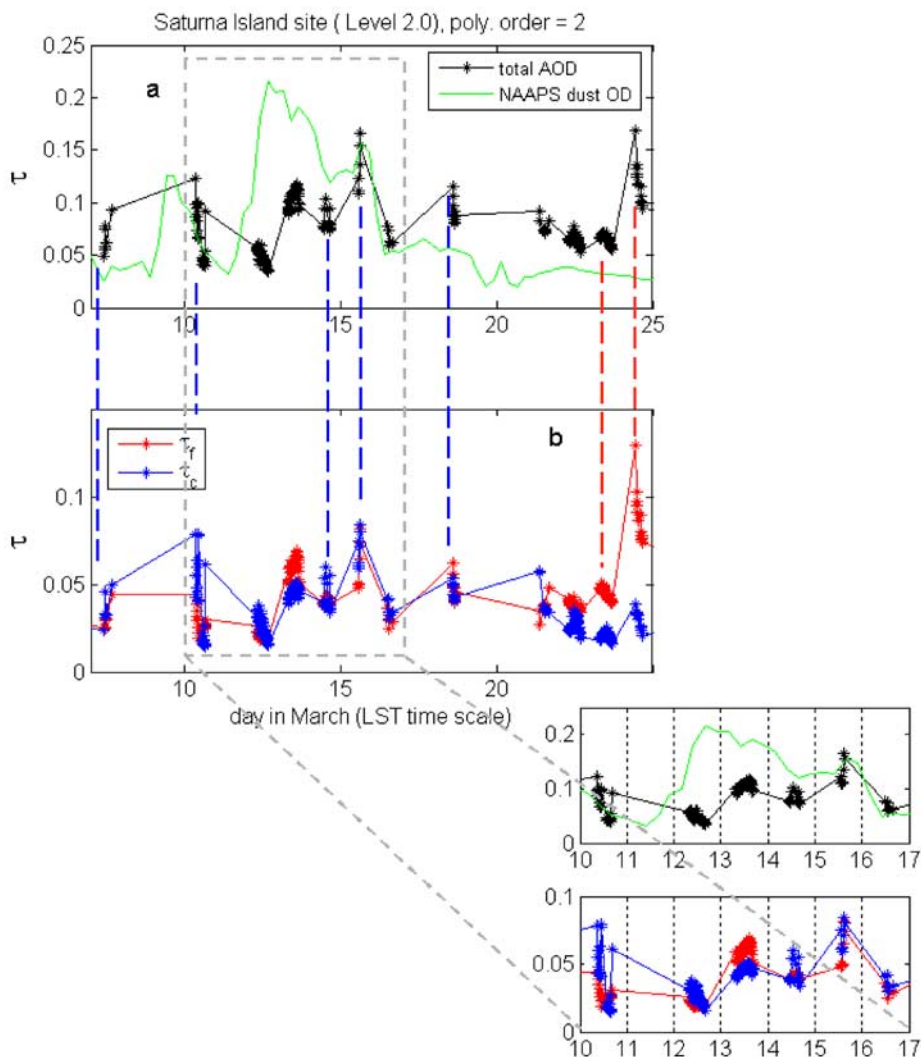


Figure 6. Aerosol optical depth (AOD) at Saturna Island (a) variation of total AOD and predicted (NAAPS) dust AOD for AEROCAN/Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) data and (b) estimated fine and coarse-mode optical depths extracted from the spectral form of the total AOD.

tion (as in the present case study) as well as ambiguity as to the nature of the fine-mode variation (dust versus local anthropogenic) becomes problematic in the case of C_{vf} which is much more sensitive, as indicated above, to the retrieval conditions.

[27] The position of the smaller coarse-mode peak in Figure 7 has been observed for Asian dust results over Hawaii and North America [Shaw, 1980; Stone et al., 2005; Thulasiraman et al., 2002; Tratt et al., 2000] as well as for Saharan dust over Cape Verde [Dubovik et al., 2002a; Tanré et al., 2001]. Shaw argued, as have subsequent authors [see, e.g., Tratt et al., 2000], that large ($r > 5 \mu\text{m}$) dust particles were depleted by the depositional effects of long-range transport. The average geometric volume mean radius (r_{vc}) for the 13 March measurements is a little larger than reported values ($\sim 1-2 \mu\text{m}$ radius) because it includes the second, larger-diameter coarse-mode peak seen in Figure 8. While it is unlikely that this second peak is of dust origin,

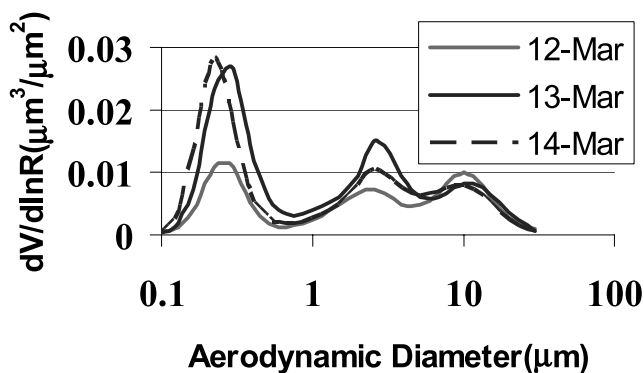


Figure 7. Aerosol size distributions derived by Saturna Sunphotometer inversion methods (daily averages) before (12 March) and during dust event.

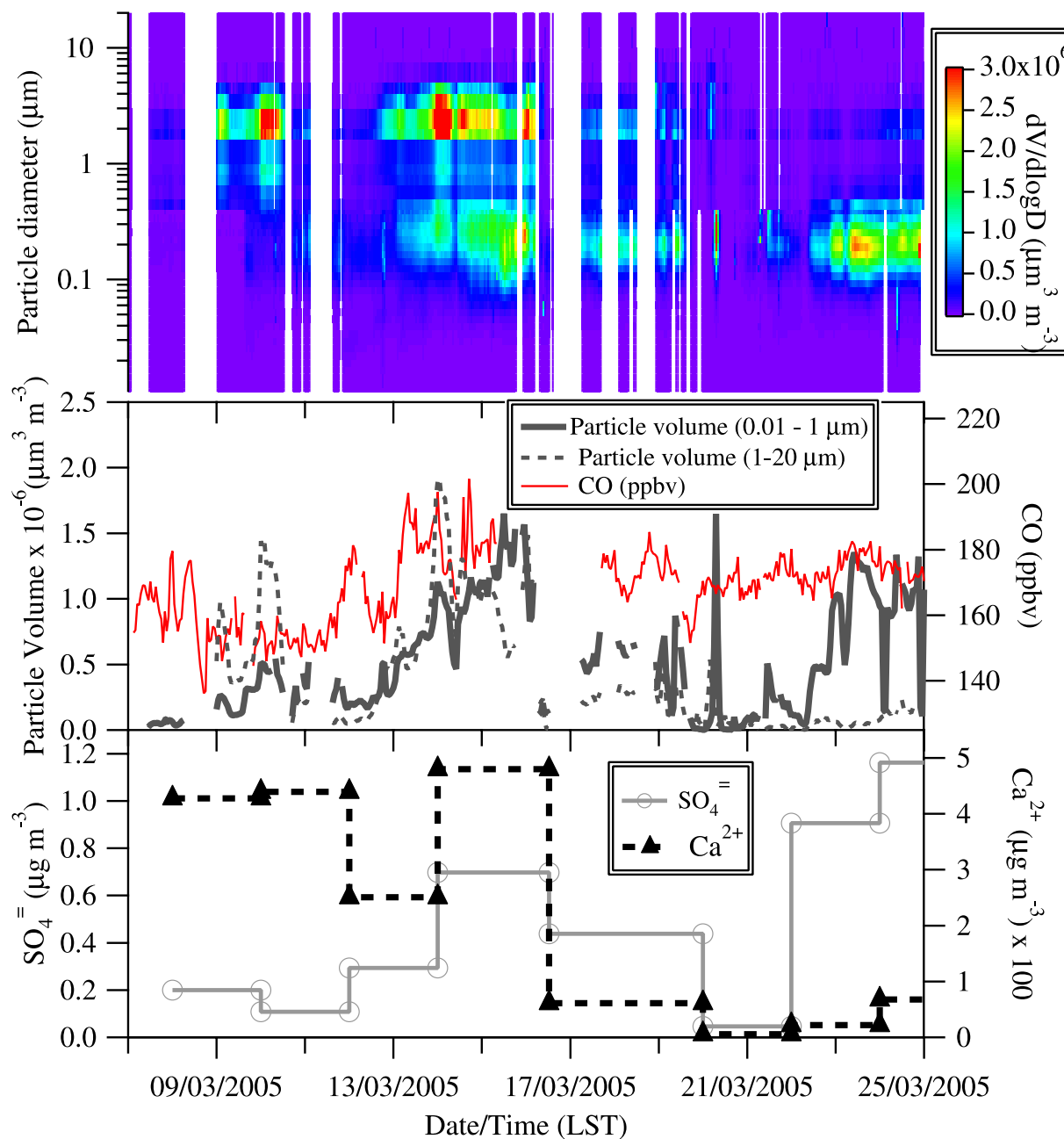


Figure 8. (top) Time series of particle volume distributions (0.01 to 20 μm diameter) at the Whistler high-elevation site, showing $dV/d\log D$ as a composite from the Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) and optical particle counter (OPC). White areas indicate missing data. (middle) Time series of submicron and supermicron total particle volume as determined from the SMPS and OPC. (bottom) Sulphate and calcium concentrations from filter packs for particles less than 2 μm diameter.

the marginal optical signals in the present analysis preclude any definitive conclusion (the two coarse-mode volume concentrations are in fact correlated on 13 March but an inversion artifact cannot be excluded).

[28] At the Whistler high-altitude station, particle measurements (Figure 8) for the period show a major peak 13–15 March, a slightly lesser peak 9–10 March and a third peak 23–25 March 2005. The different characteristics of these events are evident from the time series of particle volume distributions (Figure 8, top), which show

significant coarse-mode aerosol throughout the 9–10 March and 13–15 March events, yet not during 23–25 March. Also, while little particle volume is found in the accumulation mode 9–10 March, the 13–15 March and the 23–25 March events are completely dominated by accumulation-mode aerosol (an observation consistent with the τ_F time series in Figure 6b). The time series of total particle volume above and below 1 μm geometric diameter (Figure 8, middle) suggests that the major peak 13–15 March reached a maximum around 0100–0200 LST on 14 March. This is

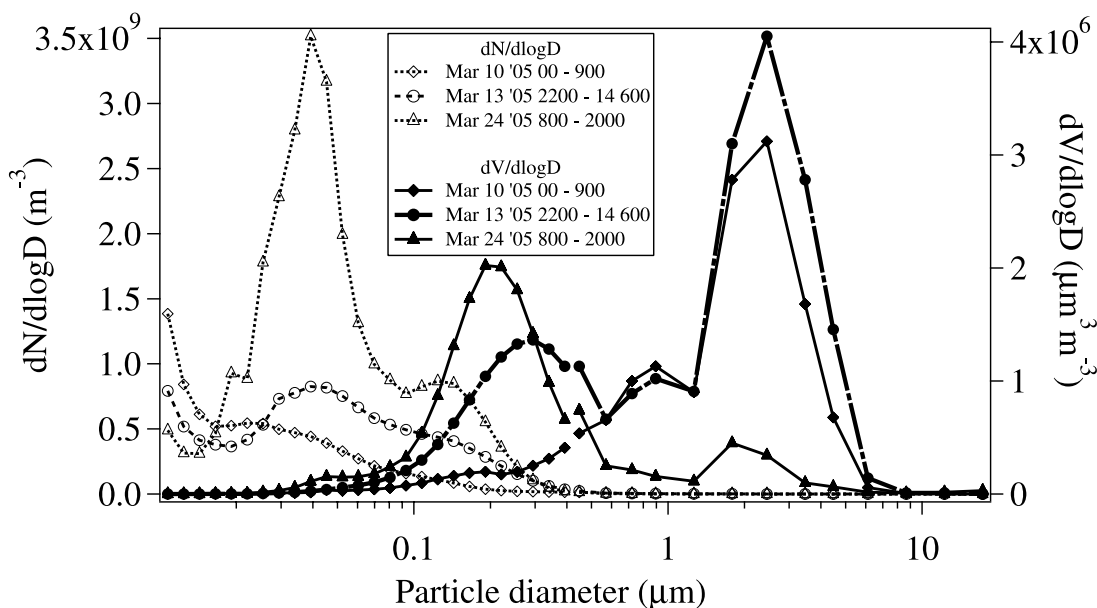


Figure 9. Number and volume distributions from the SMPS and OPC composites of Figure 8, top, averaged over selected periods (1) 10 March 00:00 to 09:00, (2) 13 March 22:00 to 14 March 06:00, and (3) 24 March 08:00 to 20:00 LST.

consistent with the layer subsidence shown in the lidar imagery (i.e., the layer would have reached Whistler elevation at approx. this time). Average volume distributions over the peak period (13 March 2200 to 14 March 0600 LST) (Figures 8, top, and 9) are bimodal with the smaller mode at $0.3 \mu\text{m}$ and a larger mode at $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ diameter. This bimodal aspect of the distribution is in agreement with the sunphotometer data described above. However, the SMPS/OPC measurements show the larger increase in volume occurs in the coarse mode rather than the accumulation mode. The volume distribution for 10 March (0000–0900 LST) is very similar to the 13–15 March period throughout the coarse mode, however there is no significant particle number or volume found in the accumulation mode. This is further illustrated by the particle sulphate (SO_4^-) and calcium (Ca^{++}) ions analyzed from the filter packs (Figure 8, bottom). The particle chemical composition provides an important indication of the origin of particulate matter contributing to the particle events occurring at the high-altitude station during March. Most notably, the increase in calcium during 9–10 March and 13–15 March is a strong indication of a crustal source. Low sulphate is observed during 9–10 March with an increase in particle sulphate during 13–15 March indicating some mixing of anthropogenic sources with the dust event. Carbon monoxide (Figure 8, middle) also increases by approximately 30 ppbv from the 9–10 March period to the 13–14 March period. The increase in this long-lived pollution tracer corresponds well with the increase in accumulation-mode aerosol throughout these two periods. The two earlier periods are in contrast with 23–25 March which is characterized by low calcium and higher sulphate. This composition suggests a noncrustal source and results from local or regional pollution. It is important to note that because the filter packs were operated with a cut size of approximately $2 \mu\text{m}$, they collected only a fraction of the coarse-mode aerosol as estimated from Figure 9. On the basis of the GEOS-Chem simulations it is

likely that the dust evident on 9–10 March was the forerunner of the event apparent on 13–15 March.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

[29] A combination of global aerosol modelling output, as well as lidar, sunphotometer and high-altitude surface monitoring observations confirm the presence of a dust layer over western North America on 13–14 March 2005. GEOS-Chem and NAAPS simulations, together with an analysis of surface and satellite observations of dust storm activity in North Africa and Eurasia strongly suggest that this layer originated from significant dust storm activity in northwestern Algeria approximately 14 days earlier. The mineral dust followed a mid tropospheric pathway that crossed Asia and the Pacific and then gradually subsided in a ridge along the West Coast of North America. This result is consistent with lidar observations and modelling studies for the same event as observed over Japan and China [Park *et al.*, 2005]. On the basis of sunphotometer data and surface observations in British Columbia it appears that this event had a weak but detectable impact on near surface PM concentrations and aerosol optical depths. However, the significance of the observations reported here rests on the fact that we have succeeded in identifying a case of very long range transport of dust ($\sim 19,000 \text{ km}$) over an intercontinental pathway not previously documented. As such, this transport is of a similar importance to the documented cases of very long range transport of Asian dust to Greenland and the European Alps [Grousset *et al.*, 2003; Biscaye *et al.*, 1997] and ~ 17 day hemispheric transport of southeast Russian forest fire plumes [Damoah *et al.*, 2004].

[30] Further research is required to establish the frequency and magnitude of long-range dust transport associated with this pathway. However, in this case, the occurrence and identification of the event arose because of a seemingly favourable combination of factors that included (1) signifi-

cant dust storms in Africa, (2) favourable midtropospheric meteorological conditions (rapid and direct transport in the midtroposphere with little impact of precipitation), and (3) the somewhat unusual lack of significant dust activity in Eurasia to confound interpretation of sources. On this basis, it seems likely that such episodes are relatively rare, and when they do occur, have little impact on the aerosol burden in North America.

[31] Finally, identification of this event would not have been possible without ready access to multiple data sources (model output, satellite imagery, surface monitoring observations and sunphotometer data) and the cooperation of scientists in several institutions. Consequently, this study again demonstrates that “ad hoc collaboration of scientists is a practical way to share observations and to collectively generate the explanatory knowledge about such unpredictable events” [Husar et al., 2001].

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