

Performance of aerosol optical depth forecasts over the Middle East:

Multi-model analysis and validation

Jared A. Lee¹, Christian A. Gueymard², and Pedro A. Jiménez¹

¹ Research Applications Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, USA

² Solar Consulting Services, Colebrook, NH, USA

Key Points:

1. Accurate forecasts of aerosol optical depth are crucial for accurate solar irradiance and solar power forecasts in clear-sky conditions
2. Two years of aerosol optical depth forecasts from three global models are validated against ground-based observations in the Middle East
3. Forecast model performance during two significant dust storm events in the UAE and Kuwait is also examined

Keywords: Aerosol optical depth, AERONET, Middle East, dust forecasts, solar irradiance forecasting, solar power

Corresponding author: Dr. Jared A. Lee (jaredlee@ucar.edu), ORCID 0000-0002-8841-0738

Article submitted to *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres* on 10 March 2021

22 **Abstract**

23 A primary source of error for predictions of solar irradiance in clear-sky conditions is the
24 total aerosol optical depth (AOD). Dust aerosol loading can also be significant in arid regions
25 such as the Middle East, thus considerably decreasing the solar resource while increasing the
26 detrimental effects of soiling on collectors at solar power plants, particularly during dust
27 storms. Many photovoltaic (PV) and concentrated solar power (CSP) plants have been or will be
28 constructed in the Middle East, making AOD forecasting a pressing issue for plant and grid
29 operators. In this study we present a climatological analysis of 1–3-day AOD forecasts from a
30 two-year period (2018–2019) from three operational models: the NASA Goddard Earth
31 Observing System Model, Version 5 (GEOS-5), the NEMS GFS Aerosol Component (NGAC)
32 model, and the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) Near-Real-Time (NRT)
33 model. AOD predictions from these models are validated against daily-average observations
34 from 20 Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) stations across the Middle East. It is found that
35 GEOS-5 is the best model on average, with the smallest fractional gross error and near-zero
36 modified normalized mean bias. CAMS NRT is the next-best model, while NGAC, which has the
37 coarsest grid spacing of the three models examined here, generally performs poorly. In addition
38 to standard error metrics to characterize the overall performance of the models, a multi-site
39 time series analysis is performed to assess how well these models represent significant dust
40 storm events in the UAE in July 2018 and in Kuwait in April 2018.

41

42 **Plain Language Summary**

43 Dust, soot, sea salt, and other particles (aerosols) in the atmosphere absorb, reflect, and
44 scatter solar radiation. During clear, sunny conditions, the total amount of atmospheric
45 aerosols controls how much solar irradiance reaches the surface, and therefore the energy
46 generation at solar power plants. Therefore, accurate forecasts of aerosols are important,
47 especially in dusty, desert regions like the Middle East, where solar power is expected to see
48 major growth in the coming years.

49 In this study we compared total aerosol forecasts in the Middle East from three publicly
50 available models, from NASA and NOAA in the U.S. and from CAMS in Europe. We used
51 forecasts issued twice daily during all of 2018–2019. From each model run we validated the
52 total aerosol forecasts against observations made from 20 ground-based stations across the
53 region. We found that the NASA model performed the best overall in the Middle East, the
54 CAMS model was second-best, and the NOAA model generally performed poorly. Because dust
55 storms are a relatively common phenomenon in the Middle East and bring significant
56 disruptions both to solar power generation and to society in general, we also examined how
57 well the three forecast models performed during two dust storm events.

58

59 1. Introduction

60 Aerosols are important and very active constituents of the Earth's atmosphere. Both
61 their direct and indirect effects impact the planetary climate at regional and global scales
62 through radiative forcing (RF). The Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel
63 on Climate Change (IPCC, 2013) indicates that the net global aerosol RF is estimated at -0.27 W m^{-2} . Some aerosol species, such as black carbon, have a positive RF, whereas sulphates and
64 m^{-2} . Some aerosol species, such as black carbon, have a positive RF, whereas sulphates and
65 mineral dust have a negative RF. The overall dust RF is estimated at -0.77 W m^{-2} , which
66 indicates a global cooling effect. Stronger radiative effects (by two orders of magnitude or more
67 at the surface) are typically evaluated locally during powerful dust storms (Alam et al., 2014;
68 Arkian, 2017; Basha et al., 2015; Haywood et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2014; Rémy et al., 2015;
69 Saeed et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2012). However, it is still difficult to assess the total mass of
70 each aerosol species. According to (IPCC, 2013), mineral dust ($1000\text{--}4000 \text{ Tg y}^{-1}$) is globally the
71 second largest contributor to the total aerosol load after sea spray ($1400\text{--}6800 \text{ Tg y}^{-1}$).
72 Nevertheless, over some regions, such as large deserts in the sun belt, dust is by far the
73 dominant natural aerosol species.

74 Dust affects the regional or global climate in various ways, particularly by interacting
75 with the Earth's energy balance (in terms of both shortwave and longwave radiation), providing
76 cloud condensation nuclei, modifying the radiative properties of clouds, changing precipitation
77 patterns, and altering the wind field (Bangalath & Stenchikov, 2016; Choobari et al., 2014;
78 Huang et al., 2014; Jin et al., 2014; Levin et al., 2005; Osipov & Stenchikov, 2018; Ou et al.,
79 2009; Zhao et al., 2011). Dust storms can affect areas far away from the source regions through
80 long-range transport (Husar et al., 2001; Kaufman et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2014; Kuciauskas et

81 al., 2018; Middleton, 2017; Prospero et al., 2010; Uno et al., 2009; H. Yu et al., 2012), which
82 makes their precise forecasting important at regional and global scales, and also makes the
83 evaluation of their associated hazards more critical (Middleton, 2017). There is observational
84 evidence that the dust load follows a positive trend in aerosol optical depth (AOD) in various
85 regions, including the Middle East (Alizadeh-Choobari et al., 2016; Hsu et al., 2012; Klingmüller
86 et al., 2016; de Meij et al., 2012; Yoon et al., 2012b, 2012a), although (for this region at least)
87 local downward trends in dust loading can be observed, too (Kokkalis et al., 2018; Modarres &
88 Sadeghi, 2018). For all the considerations summarized above, the overall dust cycle is now
89 considered an important topic in Earth system science (Shao et al., 2011).

90 This contribution's specific interest for dust aerosols is motivated by three main
91 reasons: (i) their mass and optical properties are highly variable in both space and time, which
92 makes their forecasting challenging; (ii) over arid and desert regions, the incidence of dust
93 storms may have considerable impacts on weather, society, air quality, populations' health, as
94 well as terrestrial and air traffic, etc., which makes such events important to forecast so as to
95 provide the necessary warnings; (iii) in recent years, many countries of the sun belt, most
96 particularly in the Middle East, have begun implementing aggressive energy policies that favor
97 solar technologies to decrease their dependence on oil (Alnaser & Alnaser, 2019; Alsayegh et
98 al., 2018; Lude et al., 2015; Mas'ud et al., 2018; Munawwar & Ghedira, 2014; Poudineh et al.,
99 2018; Salam & Khan, 2017; Seznec, 2018). In this context of rapid transformation of the energy
100 sector, electric utilities now require good production forecasts for all variable sources of
101 renewable energy, particularly solar.

102 Dust aerosols impact the production of solar power in two different ways: (i) they tend
103 to decrease the solar resource in comparison with temperate areas; and (ii) they tend to
104 deposit on the active surface of solar generators, thus decreasing their output and creating the
105 need for regular cleaning. Because such impacts have serious consequences, the possibility of
106 forecasting them carries important societal and economic value. Over those regions, the
107 aerosol-induced variability in surface irradiance is the primary cause of temporal variability of
108 solar radiation because clouds are relatively infrequent there. Fluctuating cloudiness is
109 prevalent elsewhere and has prompted the development of specialized numerical weather
110 prediction (NWP) models aimed at forecasting the solar irradiance components at the
111 mesoscale (e.g., (Jiménez, Hacker, et al., 2016). Such NWP models are mostly used in temperate
112 climates to forecast the occurrence and intensity of cloudy periods over a relatively small
113 domain. They are now progressively being updated and improved to also take the variability of
114 the aerosol regime into account (Eissa et al., 2018; Thompson & Eidhammer, 2014). In parallel,
115 global weather or climate models need to incorporate detailed modeling of aerosol chemistry
116 and transport, since these modify the solar radiation field, and provide cloud condensation
117 nuclei that ultimately allow the formation of clouds. In recent years, specialized forecast models
118 have been developed and tailored to uniquely evaluate the quantitative evolution of dust
119 aerosols. For instance, (Huneeus et al., 2011) describes the efforts of the AeroCom consortium
120 (<https://aerocom.met.no>) to improve global dust models. Moreover, the World Meteorological
121 Organization (WMO) has recognized the importance and societal implications of dust storms,
122 which led to the creation of the WMO Sand and Dust Storm Project in 2004 and its Sand and

123 Dust Storm Warning Advisory and Assessment System (SDS-WAS) in 2007. Three SDS-WAS
124 regional centers now exist to provide dust aerosol forecasts over different continents.

125 The main objective here is to validate various aerosol forecasts over the Middle East and
126 better understand the causes for their differences. AOD is the essential variable considered
127 here because it can be directly used to predict the components of surface solar irradiance,
128 which in turn are needed to forecast the power production of any solar power plant. In general,
129 AOD is also viewed as useful to evaluate air quality at the surface through the determination of
130 customary indices (PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5}$, and PM_{10}), but their correlation with AOD (a columnar quantity)
131 is typically not strong (Filip & Stefan, 2011). In the case of dust storms, however, all dust
132 particles are of large dimension and concentrated in the bottom layers of the atmosphere,
133 making the AOD and PM_{10} better correlated over space (Beegum et al., 2018). Air quality
134 implications of dust storms are extremely important (Ahmady-Birgani et al., 2018; Al-Hemoud
135 et al., 2018, 2019; Middleton, 2017; Querol et al., 2019), but beyond the scope of the present
136 study. AOD can be uniquely determined at each visible wavelength, but is most commonly
137 reported at 550 nm, which is near the peak of the solar visible emission spectrum, and is
138 abbreviated as AOD₅₅₀ in what follows.

139 The current literature indicates a growing interest for the observation and prediction of
140 AOD over the Middle East. Most observations are made through remote sensing either from
141 ground-based sun photometers of, e.g., NASA's federated Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET)
142 (Holben et al., 1998) or from spaceborne radiometers such as MODIS or MISR (Klingmüller et
143 al., 2016; K. R. Kumar et al., 2018; Y. Yu et al., 2016). Ground-based observations have the
144 lowest uncertainty and are used to validate other products, such as spaceborne observations or

145 modeled values. A number of models now exist to forecast the life cycle and abundance of dust
146 aerosols (Basart et al., 2012; Beegum et al., 2018; Benedetti et al., 2014; Eissa et al., 2018;
147 Ginoux et al., 2001; Huneeus et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2016; Pérez et al., 2011). In the literature,
148 such chemistry transport models are typically used to *retrospectively* simulate the occurrence
149 of known dust storm and compare results (of AOD, PM₁₀, etc.) to observations (Basha et al.,
150 2015; Beegum et al., 2018; Calastrini et al., 2012; Hamidi et al., 2017; Haustein et al., 2012;
151 Huneeus et al., 2016; Karagulian et al., 2019; R. Kumar et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2003; Najafpour et
152 al., 2018; Pérez et al., 2006; Xu, 2018; Zhang et al., 2015). In contrast, the literature is relatively
153 limited with respect to the experimental or operational *forecasting* of AOD or PM₁₀ over dust-
154 impacted regions (Basart et al., 2012; Benedetti, Giuseppe, et al., 2019; Eissa et al., 2018; Li et
155 al., 2011; Lu et al., 2016; Mangold et al., 2011; Menut et al., 2015). For that reason, the present
156 contribution focuses on comparing and evaluating the AOD forecasting skill of a number of
157 models over the Middle East.

158 This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the aerosol forecast models that
159 are analyzed here. Section 3 describes the AERONET observations and stations that are used to
160 verify the model forecasts, as well as the evaluation metrics that are used. Results are
161 presented and discussed in Section 4, and Section 5 gives conclusions.

162

163 **2. Aerosol forecasting models**

164 In this study we analyze and compare AOD forecasts from three global models over the
165 Middle East: the NASA Goddard Earth Observing System Model, Version 5 (GEOS-5); the NOAA
166 Environmental Modeling System (NEMS) Global Forecasting System (GFS) Aerosol Component

167 (NGAC); and the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) Near-real time global
168 analysis and forecast model. These models are briefly described below. Preliminary analysis
169 shows that they produce wildly different spatial patterns in the AOD₅₅₀ forecasts, which is
170 concerning and justifies further analysis. These differences are investigated in detail below
171 (Section 4).

172 For each of the three forecast models, all available 0000 and 1200 UTC cycles initialized
173 from 1 January 2018–31 December 2019 are used to provide a full two years of forecasts for
174 analysis. Gridded AOD₅₅₀ values are bilinearly interpolated to the AERONET forecast sites in the
175 Middle East that were active at any point during that time period (see Section 3). Daytime
176 AOD₅₅₀ values are then averaged into day-1, day-2, and day-3 periods, defined as a 24-h period
177 centered at 1200 UTC (i.e., a full calendar day). By this averaging convention, day-1 forecasts
178 are deemed valid at 1200 UTC on the day the forecast was initialized, and day-2 forecasts are
179 valid at 1200 UTC on the day after the forecast was initialized, and so on for day-3. Thus, for
180 0000 UTC forecast cycles, day-1 forecasts are averaged from 0–24-h lead times (daylight only),
181 while day-2 forecasts are averaged from 24–48-h lead times and day-3 from 48–72-h lead
182 times. For 1200 UTC cycles, only day-2 and day-3 forecasts are defined by this averaging
183 convention, with forecasts averaged from 12–36-h lead times for day-2 and 36–60 h for day-3.

184

185 2.1 GEOS-5

186 GEOS-5 is a full Earth system model with multiple components, including atmospheric
187 chemistry, that is used for both weather and climate applications (Rienecker et al., 2008). The
188 current GEOS-5 atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) is described in (Molod et al.,

189 2015). Operationally, GEOS-5 is issued four times per day (0000, 0600, 1200, and 1800 UTC),
190 with AOD₅₅₀ output available hourly on a global 0.3125° x 0.25° grid. The 0000 UTC cycle
191 extends to 10 days, the 1200 UTC cycle to 5 days, and both the 0600 and 1800 UTC cycles
192 extend only to lead time 30 h. Because the 0600 and 1800 UTC cycles are so short, and because
193 GEOS-5 is the only model examined with cycles at those times, those two cycles are excluded
194 here. Considering that the assimilation of ground-based or spaceborne aerosol observations
195 has been shown to significantly help the skill of AOD forecasts (Rubin et al., 2017), GEOS-5,
196 which relies on such assimilations (Buchard et al., 2015), is used here as a benchmark. Most
197 relevant for this study, GEOS-5 assimilates AOD observations from the MODIS/Aqua and
198 MODIS/Terra satellite instruments, bias-corrected and calibrated against AERONET
199 observations (Buchard et al., 2015).

200 The NASA Goddard Chemistry, Aerosol, Radiation, and Transport (GOCART) model (Chin
201 et al., 2002) is implemented online in GEOS-5 (Colarco et al., 2010, 2014). GOCART simulates a
202 suite of five types of atmospheric aerosols: dust, sea salt, sulfates, black carbon, and organic
203 carbon. Because it is online, the aerosols are fully coupled with the atmospheric model
204 dynamics and thermodynamics. The dust sources and emissions in GEOS-5 are based on the
205 (Ginoux et al., 2001) topographic-based map activated by surface winds, with some
206 modifications based on land use changes and for various scaling constants (Colarco et al., 2010).
207 Eight size bins are used, and dust is removed by several processes, including sedimentation, dry
208 deposition, wet removal, and convective scavenging. The reader is referred to (Colarco et al.,
209 2010) for additional details about the dust optical properties in GEOS-5.

210

211 2.2 NGAC

212 NGAC version 2 (Wang et al., 2018) has been the operational aerosol model at the U.S.
213 National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) since 7 Mar 2017. NGACv2 forecasts are
214 issued twice daily at 0000 UTC and 1200 UTC out to 5 days, with output on a 1.0° x 1.0° global
215 grid at 3-hourly frequency. The underlying meteorological model is the GFS model that was
216 operational at NCEP in spring 2016, but with a different convection scheme. The meteorological
217 initial conditions are provided by the downscaled Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS)
218 analysis, while the dust and aerosol initial conditions are provided by the previous NGACv2
219 cycle's 12-h forecast. Except for biomass burning, NGACv2 also uses the GOCART aerosol
220 emissions, including following (Ginoux et al., 2001) for dust emissions, regridded to the NGAC
221 1.0° grid. The aerosol model in NGACv2 is the same GOCART aerosol module as in GEOS-5
222 (Colarco et al., 2010, 2014). Additional details about NGACv2 can be found in (Wang et al.,
223 2018).

224

225 2.3 CAMS NRT

226 The CAMS Near-real-time (NRT) global analysis and forecast system for concentrations
227 of aerosols and trace gases dates back to May 2012 (Copernicus, 2020), and is driven by the
228 European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasting (ECMWF) Integrated Forecast System
229 (IFS) atmospheric model (ECMWF, 2019). CAMS NRT is run twice daily (0000 UTC and 1200 UTC)
230 with 1-hourly output out to 5 days. (Real-time CAMS NRT data is available in 1-h output, but
231 archived CAMS NRT data is available only in 3-h output. In this study we linearly interpolate the
232 AOD₅₅₀ field from the 3-hourly archived files to 1-hourly frequency.) Since June 2016 the CAMS

233 NRT grid spacing has been ~40 km, and in July 2019 the number of vertical levels increased
234 from 60 to 137 levels with the upgrade to CAMS IFS cycle 46R1 (Copernicus, 2020; Engelen,
235 2019; Inness et al., 2019).

236 For reactive chemistry transport modeling, CAMS NRT employs the IFS(CB05) module
237 (Flemming et al., 2015), which is a modified form of the Carbon Bond 2005 chemistry scheme
238 (CB05) (Huijnen et al., 2010). Whereas the aerosol transport model in GEOS-5 and NGAC both
239 use GOCART, prior to 9 July 2019 tropospheric aerosol modeling in CAMS NRT followed
240 (Morcrette et al., 2009) for forecasts with aerosol data assimilation as described in (Benedetti
241 et al., 2009). This model also has prognostic mass mixing ratio variables for dust, sea salt,
242 sulfates, organic carbon, and black carbon species, and includes aerosol removal processes
243 including sedimentation, wet deposition, and dry deposition for all species. Sea salt and dust
244 aerosols represented by three size bins, and their source functions are driven by 10-m wind. As
245 in GEOS-5 and NGAC, the dust source production in CAMS NRT is based on (Ginoux et al., 2001)
246 modified to fit the three dust size bins in CAMS NRT, and accounts for soil type, soil moisture,
247 vegetation cover, snow cover, and surface wind, with source regions limited to areas with a
248 MODIS-derived climatological background albedo of 0.09–0.52 in a given month (Morcrette et
249 al., 2009; Rémy et al., 2019).

250 New with the CAMS NRT cycle 46R1 implementation on 9 July 2019 is an online dust
251 emission scheme that follows (Nabat et al., 2012), as well as new nitrate and ammonium
252 aerosol species and several other changes (Engelen, 2019). This dust emission scheme increases
253 total dust emissions and shifts them into larger-diameter bins than in the prior CAMS NRT
254 version. (Engelen, 2019) reports that this change slightly increases dust AOD globally, and more

so in North Africa. Note that the last few months of our evaluation period come after this change in CAMS NRT.

3. Observations

3.1 AERONET Sites

AERONET is a globally federated network of solar irradiance and aerosol observing sites operated by NASA (Holben et al., 1998) (<https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). Stations are irregularly spaced and provide long-term observation records of water vapor and optical, microphysical, and radiative properties of aerosols for the atmospheric science research and modeling communities, to serve as validation for both models and satellite retrieval algorithms. In the domain of interest for this study, there are 20 AERONET stations that had valid reports during at least portions of the two-year evaluation period. A list of those stations is provided in Table 1, and a photo of the AERONET sun photometer instrument at the Shagaya Park station in Kuwait is shown in Figure 1.

Table 1. Metadata for the AERONET stations used in this study.

Station	Country	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Data Levels and Date Ranges	Total Daily Obs
Tuz_Golu_3	Turkey	38.79247	33.46468	L2: 24 Jul 2018–13 Sep 2018	17
IMS-METU-ERDEMLI	Turkey	36.56500	34.25500	L2: 1 Jan 2018–10 Apr 2019 L1.5: 29 Apr 2019–09 May 2019	234
Nicosia	Cyprus	35.14063	33.38135	L2: 03 Feb 2019–1 Jan 2020	271
AgiaMarina_Xyliatou	Cyprus	35.03800	33.05770	L2: 1 Jan 2018–13 Jun 2019 L1.5: 3 Jul 2019–1 Jan 2020	438
CUT-TEPAK	Cyprus	34.67481	33.04275	L2: 1 Jan 2018–27 Jun 2019 L1.5: 7 Oct 2019–2 Jan 2020	485

Migal	Israel	33.23639	35.57828	L2: 17 Jun 2018–3 Oct 2019 L1.5: 4 Oct 2019–30 Dec 2019	476
Technion_Haifa_IL	Israel	32.77587	35.02490	L2: 6 Jan 2018–12 May 2019	157
Weizmann_Institute	Israel	31.90724	34.81053	L2: 4 Jan 2018–23 Jun 2019 L1.5: 24 Jun 2019–2 Jan 2020	502
SEDE_BOKER	Israel	30.85500	34.78222	L2: 2 Jan 2018–5 Apr 2019 L1.5: 29 Apr 2019–2 Jan 2020	592
Eilat	Israel	29.50250	34.91750	L2: 2 Jan 2018–14 Jul 2019 L1.5: 14 Nov 2019–2 Jan 2020	311
Cairo_EMA_2	Egypt	30.08077	31.29007	L2: 2 Jan 2018–30 Jul 2019	481
El_Farafra	Egypt	27.05800	27.99017	L2: 1 Jan 2018–30 Aug 2018	143
Qena_SVU	Egypt	26.19992	32.74703	L2: 21 Dec 2018–24 Oct 2019	270
KAUST_Campus	Saudi Arabia	22.30483	39.10283	L2: 2 Jun 2018–19 Oct 2019 L1.5: 22 Oct 2019–19 Dec 2019	173
IASBS	Iran	36.70500	48.50700	L2: 1 Jan 2018–3 May 2018 L1.5: 15 Mar 2019–2 Jan 2020	218
Shagaya_Park	Kuwait	29.20907	47.06053	L1.5: 1 Jan 2018–29 Oct 2019	519
Kuwait_University	Kuwait	29.32500	47.97100	L1.5: 1 Jan 2018–1 Jan 2020	365
Mezaira	UAE	23.10452	53.75466	L2: 1 Jan 2018–8 May 2018 L1.5: 9 May 2018–20 Apr 2019	427
Masdar_Institute	UAE	24.44160	54.61660	L2: 1 Jan 2018–11 Mar 2019	210
DEWA_ResearchCentre	UAE	24.76685	55.36912	L1.5: 29 Sep 2018–2 Jan 2020	371

271



272

273 *Figure 1. AERONET sun photometer at Shagaya Renewable Energy Park in western Kuwait.*
274 *Photo © 2018 by Jared A. Lee.*

275

276 3.2 AOD₅₅₀ measurements and quality control

277 AERONET stations are equipped with a sun photometer that senses the direct solar
278 spectrum through a set of interference filters, whose central wavelengths are appropriately
279 selected to retrieve aerosol and water vapor information. Typically, the spectral AOD is derived
280 at seven or eight wavelengths between 340 and 1640 nm. The retrieval algorithm has been
281 recently updated to version 3, and allows AOD to be retrieved with an accuracy of 0.01–0.02,
282 depending on wavelength (Giles et al., 2019). No AOD measurement is made at 550 nm,
283 however, so that AOD₅₅₀ needs to be retrieved indirectly. This is conventionally done by fitting
284 the spectral AOD retrievals to a linearized version of the empirical Ångström relationship, which
285 can be expressed as:

$$\ln(AOD_{550}) = \ln(AOD_{\lambda}) + \alpha \ln\left(\frac{\lambda}{550}\right) \quad (1)$$

286 where λ is wavelength (nm), AOD _{λ} represents all spectral AOD values between 440 and 870 nm,
287 and α is the corresponding Ångström exponent, as provided by AERONET.

288 Ideally, these observations occur every few minutes, but can be spaced hours apart in
289 case of cloud interference. AERONET products at both Level 1.5 (cloud screened) and Level 2
290 (cloud screened and quality assured) are considered here. Although Level-2 products may be of
291 slightly better quality than Level-1.5 products, they are typically not available at all stations or
292 until many months after the observation time. Relying only on the Level-2 product is desirable,
293 but doing this would have considerably reduced the number of stations and/or shortened the
294 validation period at each of them. Including Level-1.5 data is justified because their accuracy is

much better than that of any AOD forecast. This study focuses on daily-mean AOD₅₅₀ measurements because forecasts are not done at high frequency.

3.3 Evaluation metrics

To evaluate the N AOD₅₅₀ forecasts f_i from the GEOS-5, NGAC, and CAMS models against daily-mean AERONET observations o_i , we use standard metrics like mean bias error (MBE), mean absolute error (MAE), root mean squared error (RMSE), and correlation coefficient (R^2). R^2 is simply the square of the Pearson-r correlation coefficient, which is also reported in some figure headings.

$$R^2 = \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (f_i - \bar{f})(o_i - \bar{o})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (f_i - \bar{f})^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (o_i - \bar{o})^2}} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

We primarily use two additional metrics, the modified normalized mean bias (MNMB) and fractional gross error (FGE), which are commonly used in air quality and aerosol model validation (Benedetti, Di Giuseppe, et al., 2019; Rémy et al., 2019; Wagner et al., 2015; S. Yu et al., 2006). MNMB and FGE are employed to better capture model performance at low AOD values, and are essentially normalized versions of MBE and MAE, respectively. Both measures are bounded, symmetric with respect to overestimation and underestimation, and limit the impact of outliers, unlike RMSE. MNMB varies between -2 and $+2$ with 0 being best, while FGE is bounded by 0 (best) and $+2$ (worst).

$$MNMB = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f_i - o_i}{f_i + o_i} \quad (3)$$

$$FGE = \frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left| \frac{f_i - o_i}{f_i + o_i} \right| \quad (4)$$

For all these statistics, they are calculated as a function of AERONET station, model start date/time, forecast lead time, and model start time of day. For brevity, MBE, MAE, and RMSE results are not presented in this article.

4. Results and discussion

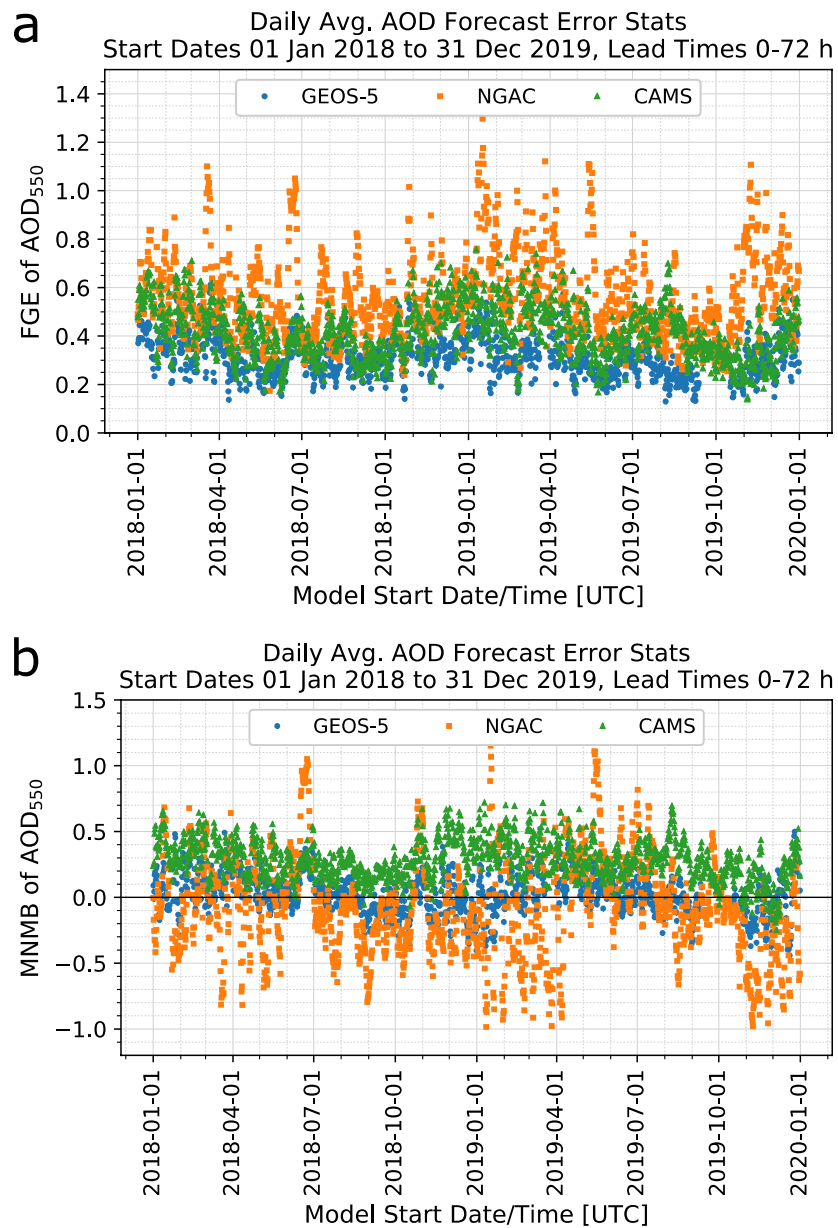
4.1 Domain average results

First, we examine the domain-average results of daily-average AOD₅₅₀ forecasts by calculating statistics for each forecast cycle, as a sort of time series. For 00 UTC cycles, these statistics combine the day-1 and day-2 lead times, while the other cycles only have valid day-2 forecasts, due to our averaging convention.

The domain-average FGE for each forecast cycle is shown in Figure 2a. For most forecast cycles, the FGE is lowest for GEOS-5, and highest for NGAC, with CAMS NRT forecasts in between. Domain-average FGE values range from 0.13–0.64 (median 0.31) for GEOS-5, 0.14–0.76 (median 0.40) for CAMS NRT, and 0.17–1.30 (median 0.53) for NGAC. In general, the forecast errors are lower in summer and higher in winter. One notable exception is in late June 2018, when all three forecast models had a concurrent jump in forecast errors, with NGAC performing worst. This episode is discussed further below.

Domain-average MNMB values are shown in Figure 2b for each forecast cycle. The best scores overall are for GEOS-5 (range -0.44–0.52), which had a near-zero median MNMB of 0.03. CAMS NRT (range -0.25–0.72) exhibits a generally positive MNMB, with a median of 0.28,

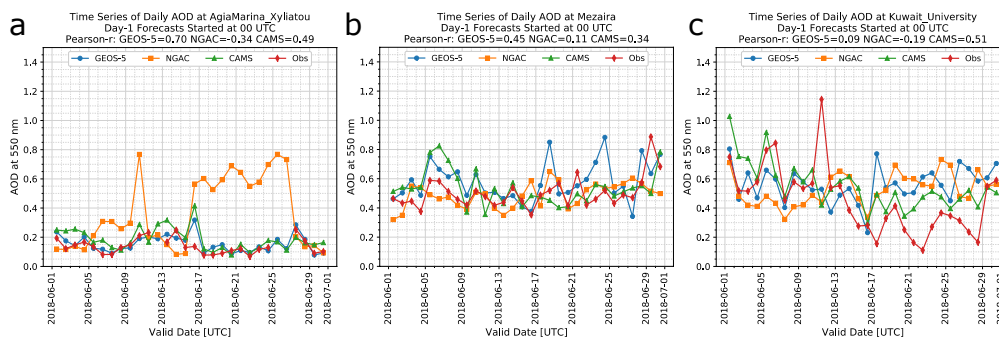
332 indicating that AOD, and thus aerosol concentrations, were generally higher than observed
333 during the two-year period. In contrast, the NGAC results are highly variable with large biases in
334 both directions at times (range -0.98–1.15), but with a generally negative MNMB, with a
335 median of -0.09. The negative MNMB values indicate that NGAC generally underpredicts AOD
336 compared to observations.



337

338 Figure 2. a) Fractional gross error, and b) modified normalized mean bias of daily average
 339 AOD₅₅₀ forecasts for each forecast cycle from 1 Jan 2018–31 Dec 2019 for the GEOS-5 (blue
 340 circles), NGAC (orange squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models.

341 The late June 2018 period mentioned above can be seen in Figure 2b with a
 342 substantially positive MNMB of around 1.0 during that time for NGAC, and smaller positive
 343 MNMB values for GEOS-5 and CAMS NRT, indicating that all the models over-predicted aerosol
 344 loading on average during that time period. Additional analysis of the AERONET AOD time
 345 series revealed that stations in the eastern Mediterranean (Cyprus, Egypt, and Israel) were
 346 primarily responsible for the large positive MNMB overall for NGAC (see Figure 3a for an
 347 example), while model-predicted AOD₅₅₀ generally agreed well with AERONET observations in
 348 the United Arab Emirates (UAE; e.g., Figure 3b). Moderate positive biases for all models during
 349 this time period were observed at AERONET stations in Kuwait (Figure 3c). The substantial
 350 differences in AOD₅₅₀ predictions between the three models on 21 June 2018 are displayed in
 351 Figure 4, with NGAC predicting a large plume of moderate AOD in the eastern Mediterranean
 352 and much of the Fertile Crescent that is completely absent from both GEOS-5 and CAMS NRT,
 353 as well as the AERONET observations (Figure 3).



354
 355 *Figure 3. Time series of day-1 daily average AOD₅₅₀ forecasts started at 00 UTC during June 2018*
 356 *from the GEOS-5 (blue circles), NGAC (orange squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models*
 357 *and observations (red diamonds) from the AERONET stations at a) AgiaMarina_Xyliatou in*
 358 *Cyprus, b) Mezaira in the UAE, and c) Kuwait_University in Kuwait. Pearson-r correlation*
 359 *coefficients for each model are given in the figure title for each panel.*

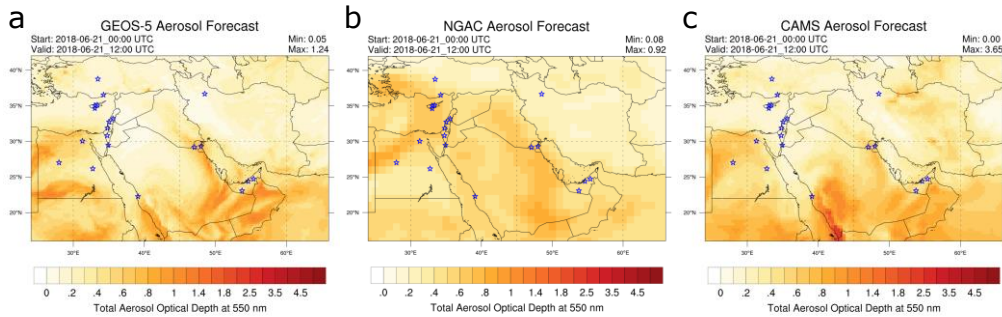
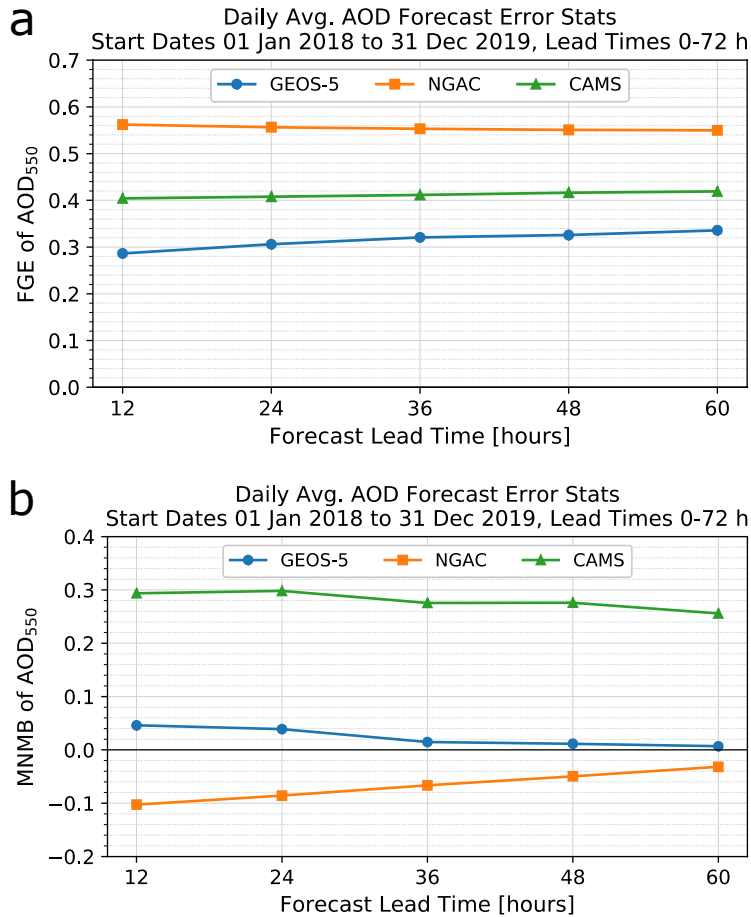


Figure 4. Snapshot of AOD_{550} forecasts issued at 0000 UTC on 21 Jun 2018 and valid at 1200 UTC on 21 Jun 2018 for a) GEOS-5, b) NGAC, and c) CAMS NRT. Blue stars denote AERONET stations.

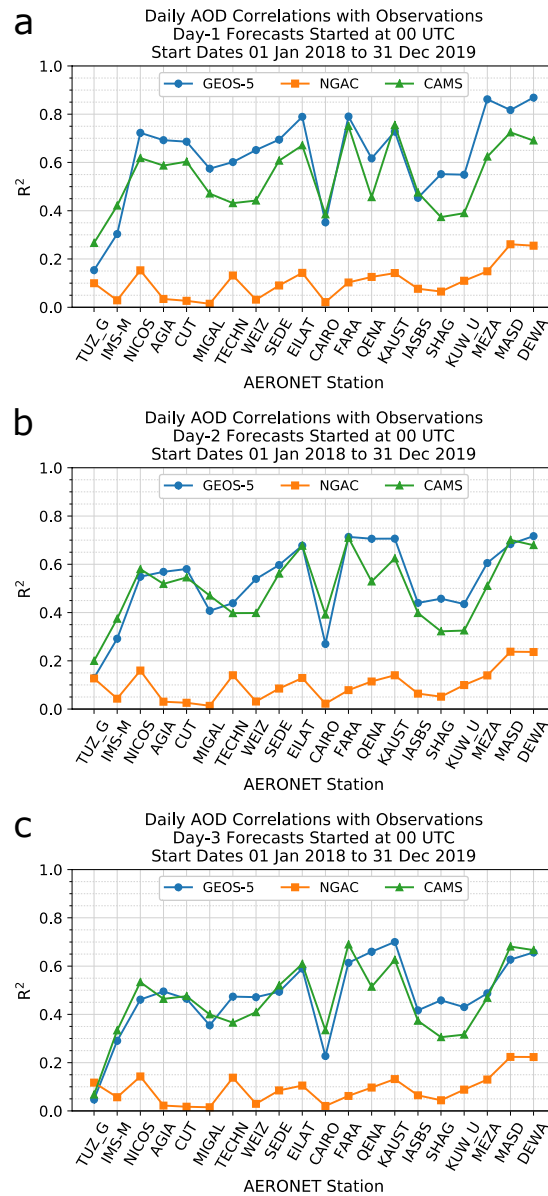
When aggregating the statistics by forecast lead time through the entire analysis period, GEOS-5 once again stands out as the best model of the three examined in this study, with the lowest FGE, ranging from 0.29–0.34 (Figure 5a) and near-zero MNMB of 0.01–0.05 (Figure 5b). CAMS was the next-best performing model, with an FGE of 0.40–0.42 and a clear positive bias (MNMB of 0.26–0.30). NGAC had the highest (worst) FGE of 0.55–0.56 for all five lead times, and a clear negative bias, with an MNMB ranging from -0.10 to -0.03 across the lead times. The general over-prediction of AOD_{550} by CAMS NRT and under-prediction by NGAC, paired with a neutral bias by GEOS-5, is consistent with results above. These results are also consistent with the statistics aggregated by model start hour, including for the 0600 and 1800 UTC cycles of GEOS-5 (not shown).



374
375 *Figure 5. a) Fractional gross error and b) modified normalized mean bias of daily average*
376 *AOD₅₅₀ forecasts issued between 1 Jan 2018 and 31 Dec 2019 by the GEOS-5 (blue circles), NGAC*
377 *(orange squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models, as a function of forecast lead time.*

378
379 In addition to the domain-average statistics examined so far, it is also useful to examine
380 model performance on a station-by-station basis. The correlation coefficients (R^2), for 00 UTC
381 day-1 forecasts (Figure 6a), day-2 forecasts (Figure 6b), and day-3 forecasts (Figure 6c) are
382 examined first. For all five start/lead time combinations (including the 1200 UTC day-2 and day-

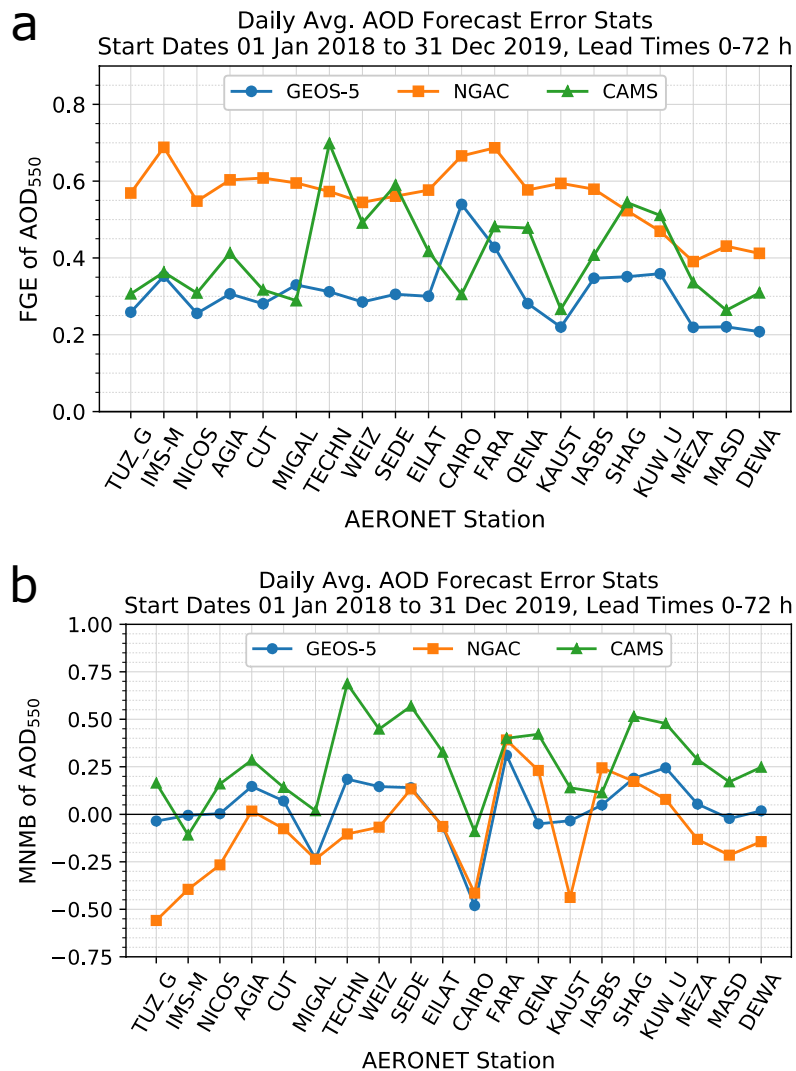
3 lead times that are not shown), GEOS-5 has the highest R^2 value for most sites, with CAMS having the highest R^2 for a few stations. NGAC has quite low R^2 values for all stations (all 0.26 or lower), and is nearly uncorrelated with AERONET AOD₅₅₀ observations at many stations. As expected, correlations either stay constant or decline with increasing lead time. The median R^2 for GEOS-5 declines from 0.67 for 0000 UTC day-1 forecasts to 0.47 for day-3 forecasts. For CAMS NRT the median R^2 declines from 0.53 to 0.47, while the NGAC median R^2 declines from 0.10 to 0.09 over the lead times examined here. From these plots and plots of FGE and MNMB as a function of lead time, it can also be observed that the performance advantage for GEOS-5 over CAMS generally decreases somewhat with increasing lead time. It is also worth noting that the very low R^2 values for the Tuz_Golu3 AERONET station at all lead times is largely due to the small sample size of only 17 observations.



394

395 *Figure 6. Correlations of a) day-1, b) day-2, and c) day-3 daily-average AOD₅₅₀ forecasts started*
 396 *at 0000 UTC daily from 1 Jan 2018–31 Dec 2019 for the GEOS-5 (blue circles), NGAC (orange*
 397 *squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models against observations from the listed AERONET*
 398 *stations.*

399 Looking at FGE and MNMB for each station individually in Figure 7a,b, once again, GEOS-
400 5 performs the best at nearly all stations, with a median FGE of 0.30 and median MNMB of
401 0.03. There are two stations (Cairo_EMA_2 in Egypt and Migal in Israel) where CAMS NRT
402 outperforms GEOS-5, but otherwise CAMS NRT is generally the second-best model, with a
403 median FGE of 0.38 and median MNMB of 0.27. NGAC is the worst-performing model at most
404 stations, with a median FGE of 0.57 and a median MNMB of -0.09. Once again, it is clear that
405 CAMS NRT has substantial over-prediction of AOD₅₅₀ in this region, while NGAC has consistent
406 under-prediction of AOD and the largest absolute errors.



407

408 *Figure 7. a) Fractional gross error and b) modified normalized mean bias for daily-average*
 409 *AOD₅₅₀ forecasts issued from 1 Jan 2018–31 Dec 2019 for the GEOS-5 (blue circles), NGAC*
 410 *(orange squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models against observations from the listed*
 411 *AERONET stations.*

412

413 4.2 Dust storm prediction: Intensity and accuracy

414 Having looked at bulk model performance over the two-year period, now we briefly
415 examine model forecasts of AOD₅₅₀ during two dust storm events in 2018 for which there are at
416 least partial AERONET observations.

417

418 4.2.1 UAE's July 2018 dust storm

419 During 28–31 July 2018 a severe, multi-day dust storm enveloped the southeastern
420 Arabian Peninsula, including the UAE, Oman, and portions of Saudi Arabia. The intense dust
421 storm, which was caused by cyclogenesis in the Empty Quarter Desert (also called Rub' al Khali,
422 in southeastern Saudi Arabia, bordering UAE and Oman), significantly impaired air quality
423 across the region, sharply curtailed solar irradiance, lofted dust to an altitude of 5 km, and
424 caused substantially warmer surface temperatures at night due to longwave emission of the
425 dust particles (Francis et al., 2021). Visible imagery from the MODIS instruments on NASA's
426 Terra and Aqua satellites from near mid-morning on 29 Jul 2018 and midday on 30 Jul 2018 in
427 Figure 8a,b, respectively, shows the large extent of the dust plume at the peak of the event,
428 with the center of circulation visible in the southeastern corner of Saudi Arabia, just south of
429 the UAE border.

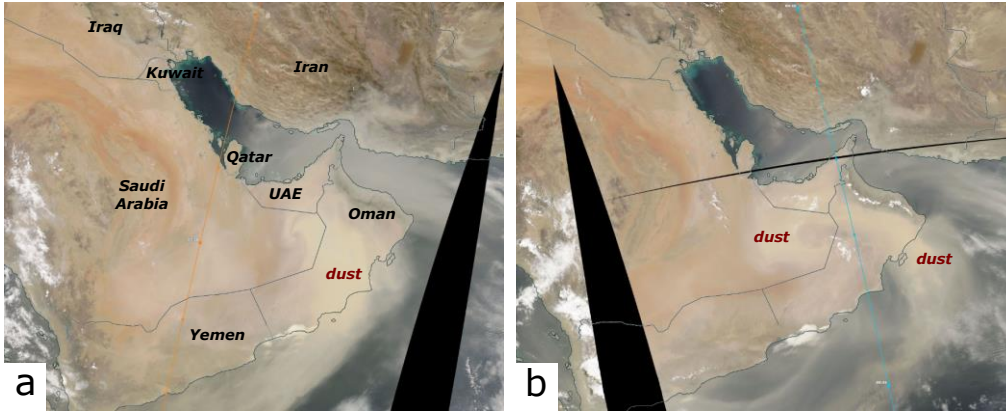


Figure 8. a) MODIS/Terra visible imagery on 29 Jul 2018 at 0725 UTC. The thin orange line is the Terra satellite overpass path (descending). b) MODIS/Aqua visible imagery on 30 Jul 2018 at 0938 UTC. The thin cyan line is the Aqua satellite overpass path (ascending). Images courtesy NASA Worldview.

Snapshots of the day-1 model forecasts of AOD₅₅₀ for the three models are shown in Figure 9 and Figure 10, for the times closest to the MODIS images in Figure 8. Both GEOS-5 and CAMS indicate a significant dust storm event in the southeastern Arabian Peninsula, with total AOD₅₅₀ values in the 3–5 range. The dust plume wrapped around the extratropical cyclone that is apparent in the MODIS imagery is present in the GEOS-5 and CAMS day-1 forecasts for 29 July 2018, and somewhat less so for forecasts on 30 July 2018, though the plume is still thick and expansive. Meanwhile, NGAC completely missed the event, even when initialized with the event already underway, with regional AOD₅₅₀ values mostly under 0.5. This finding underlines the important benefit brought by the assimilation of spaceborne AOD observations in GEOS-5 and CAMS.

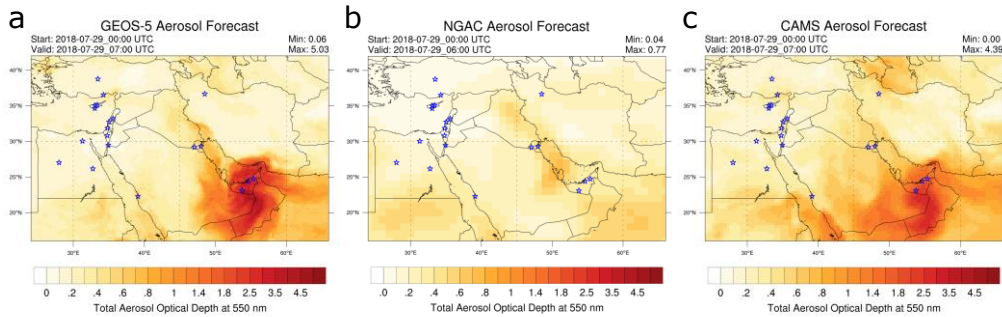


Figure 9. Snapshot of AOD_{550} forecasts issued at 0000 UTC on 29 Jul 2018 and valid at 0700 UTC on 29 Jul 2018 for a) GEOS-5, b) NGAC (valid time 0600 UTC), and c) CAMS NRT. Blue stars denote AERONET stations. Compare with MODIS image in Figure 8a.

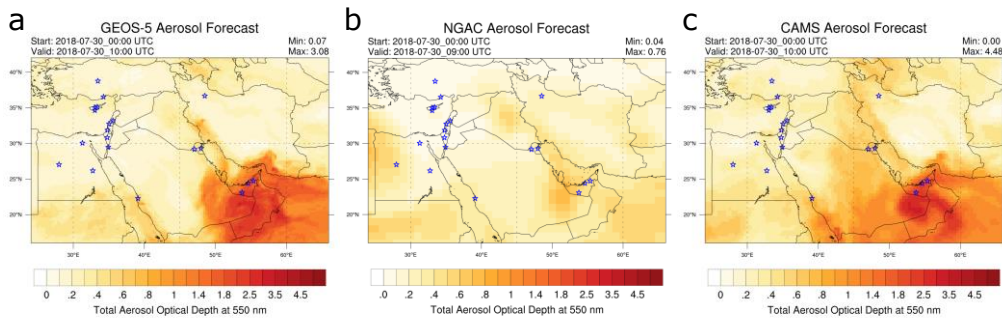
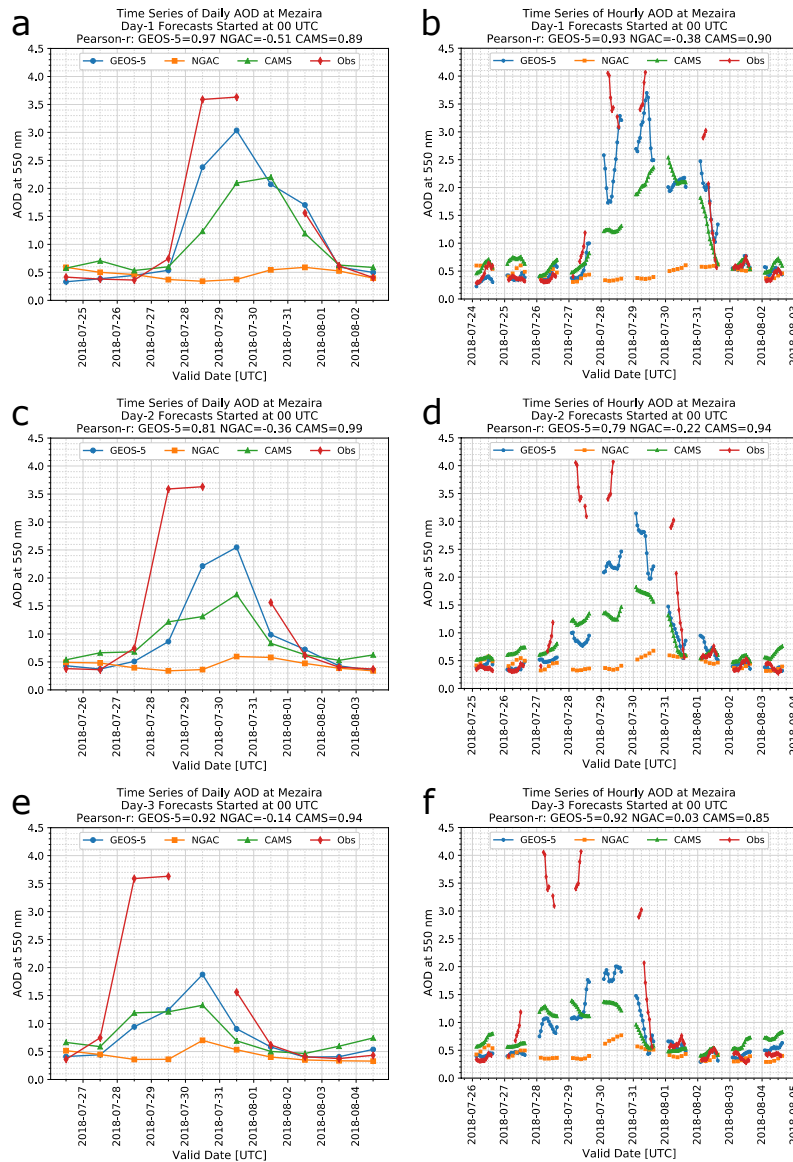


Figure 10. Snapshot of AOD_{550} forecasts issued at 0000 UTC on 30 Jul 2018 and valid at 1000 UTC on 30 Jul 2018 for a) GEOS-5, b) NGAC (valid time 0900 UTC), and c) CAMS NRT. Blue stars denote AERONET stations. Compare with MODIS image in Figure 8b.

Corresponding time series of day-1, day-2, and day-3 daily average and hourly average forecasts and observations at the Mezaira AERONET site in south-central UAE are presented in Figure 11. (Neither of the other two AERONET stations in the UAE reported valid observations during this event.) The Mezaira station did not report any valid observations on 30 July 2018 in the L1.5 data, but did report for the other days during and surrounding this event. It is possible that the AERONET cloud screening process (Giles et al., 2019; Smirnov et al., 2000) tends to

eliminate valid observations under dust-storm situations because their AOD is so high and temporarily variable that they appear similar to a cloud signature. In fact, (Giles et al., 2019) explicitly highlights potential problems with AERONET observations during dust storms: “The Version 3 smoothness procedure could be affected by extreme changes in AOD due to anomalous aerosol plumes (e.g., biomass burning or desert dust plumes).” Analysis of the Level 1 (raw, non-cloud filtered) data at Mezaira shows AOD₅₅₀ values near or above 5.0 around 1000 and 1100 UTC on 29 July 2018, and then peaked at a remarkable 7.31 on 30 July 2018 at 0819 UTC (the lone observation that day); the L1.5 data are screened out during these times of highest AOD in the L1 data (Table 2). If there were no clouds during this time period—and visible satellite imagery on 29–30 July 2018 in Figure 8 indicates largely cloud-free skies across the region—then the L1 AOD₅₅₀ observations are presumptively accurate and were improperly screened out. In any case, the proceeding analysis is with L1.5 data. Before and after the event, the total AOD₅₅₀ at Mezaira was typically in the 0.3–0.6 range. Through the day on 27 July, the observed AOD rose to about 1.25; day-1 forecasts from GEOS-5 and NGAC tracked this increase quite well. On both 28 and 29 July, all hourly-average observed AOD₅₅₀ measurements were above 3.0, and as high as 4.1. Over these two days, day-1 forecasts for GEOS-5 and CAMS were both too low at most hours, though with predicted AOD₅₅₀ ranging from 1.7–3.7 for GEOS-5 and from 1.2–2.4 for CAMS NRT on these days. Overall, these two models successfully predicted the existence of a severe dust storm, even if they underpredicted the severity. Unsurprisingly, day-1 forecasts had the highest magnitudes and smallest biases, while day-2 and day-3 predicted AOD₅₅₀ was lower, but still suggestive of a potential dust storm at Mezaira. The NGAC day-1 predicted AOD₅₅₀ consistently remained below 0.5 during 28–29 July, and below 0.6 on 30–31

483 July, totally missing the event at all lead times examined here. Such a severe forecast bust,
484 which is not an uncommon event with NGAC in the Middle East, could be due partially to the
485 coarse resolution of that model (1.0°x1.0°), or deficiencies in data assimilation or dust
486 emission/source models, though a thorough analysis of the reasons is beyond the scope of this
487 study.



488

489 *Figure 11. Time series of AOD₅₅₀ for forecasts started at 0000 UTC daily from 24 Jul–2 Aug 2018*
 490 *from the GEOS-5 (blue circles), NGAC (orange squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models,*
 491 *and from L1.5 observations (red diamonds) at the Mezaira AERONET site in southern UAE. a)*
 492 *Day-1 daily average AOD; b) Day-1 hourly average AOD; c) Day-2 daily average AOD; d) Day-2*
 493 *hourly average AOD; e) Day-3 daily average AOD; f) Day-3 hourly average AOD.*

494

495 *Table 2. Time-centered hourly-average AOD₅₅₀ observed values from the Mezaira AERONET*
 496 *station during the middle three days (28–30 Jul 2018) of the dust storm in the UAE. Level 1 (raw)*
 497 *and Level 1.5 (cloud-filtered) AOD₅₅₀ values and numbers of observations in the hour are*
 498 *included.*

Date/Time (UTC)	L1 AOD ₅₅₀	L1.5 AOD ₅₅₀	L1 n _{obs}	L1.5 n _{obs}
28 Jul 2018/0500	4.28	4.05	9	1
28 Jul 2018/0600	3.97	4.01	17	7
28 Jul 2018/0700	3.68	3.61	17	5
28 Jul 2018/0800	3.45	3.38	16	3
28 Jul 2018/0900	3.41	3.43	16	1
28 Jul 2018/1000	3.34	—	17	—
28 Jul 2018/1100	3.61	—	17	—
28 Jul 2018/1200	3.35	3.27	14	6
28 Jul 2018/1300	3.18	3.09	5	1
29 Jul 2018/0500	3.41	3.40	11	9
29 Jul 2018/0600	3.50	3.46	16	4
29 Jul 2018/0700	3.62	3.49	17	3
29 Jul 2018/0800	3.93	3.89	17	7
29 Jul 2018/0900	4.27	4.07	16	4
29 Jul 2018/1000	4.96	—	16	—
29 Jul 2018/1100	5.39	—	11	—
30 Jul 2018/0800	7.31	—	1	—

499

500 4.2.2 *Shagaya April 2018 dust storm*

501 On the afternoon of 26 April 2018, a dust storm was observed to move over the Shagaya
502 Renewable Energy Park (Al-Rasheedi et al., 2020) in western Kuwait. The haboob was
503 photographed moving over the Shagaya 50-MW concentrated solar power (CSP) plant at about
504 1130 UTC (1430 LST) that day (Figure 12). As the photograph shows, all the CSP collection
505 arrays were moved to a stowed position to protect the mirrors during the dust storm (the CSP
506 plant was also not yet operational at this time).



507

508 *Figure 12. Haboob moving over the Shagaya Renewable Energy Park in western Kuwait on 26*
509 *Apr 2018 at approximately 1130 UTC. Photo courtesy of EPC Company TSK. From Fig. 16 in (Al-*
510 *Rasheedi et al., 2020).*

511

512 Satellite imagery from MODIS/Aqua in Figure 13 indicates convection along a cold
513 frontal boundary attendant to a mature extratropical cyclone, with the line of convection still

514 about 100 km west of Kuwait at 1022 UTC, about four hours before the dust storm. The high
515 wind associated with this convective frontal boundary is likely the direct cause of the haboob
516 observed at Shagaya. Further evidence of a broad area of dust associated with frontal
517 boundaries moving through the entire Fertile Crescent south into central Saudi Arabia is seen in
518 the GEOS-5 and CAMS forecast AOD₅₅₀ valid at 1400 UTC (Figure 14a,c), with AOD₅₅₀ values
519 generally in the 1.0–2.0 range in the area near and just west of Shagaya. As with the 28–31 July
520 2018 dust storm described in the previous subsection, the NGAC model completely missed the
521 presence of the large-scale dust storm on this day, with AOD₅₅₀ values only around 0.6 in the
522 vicinity of western Kuwait (Figure 14b).



523
524 *Figure 13. MODIS/Aqua visible imagery on 26 Apr 2018 at 1022 UTC. The thin cyan line is the*
525 *Aqua satellite overpass path (ascending). Image courtesy NASA Worldview.*

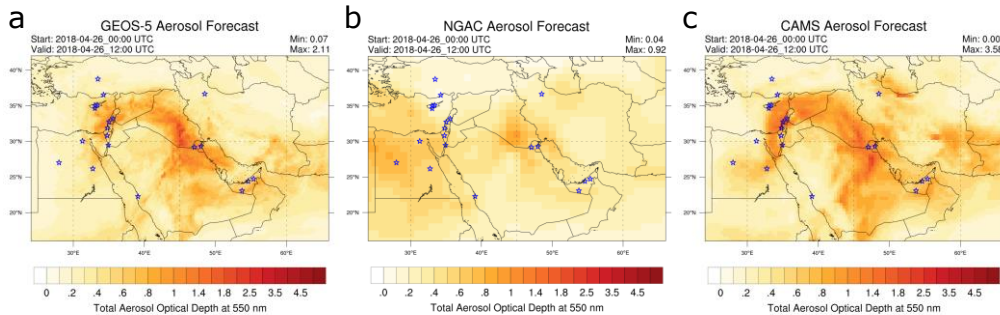
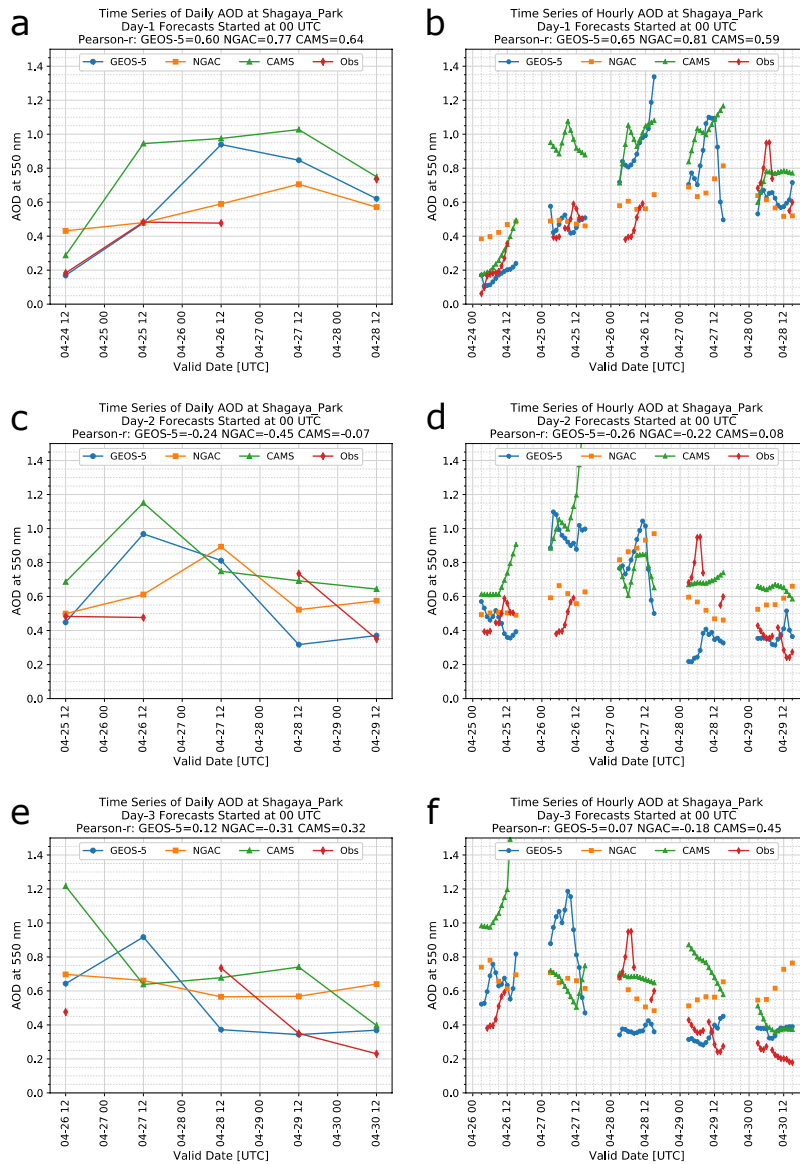


Figure 14. Snapshot of AOD_{550} forecasts issued at 0000 UTC on 26 Apr 2018 and valid at 1200 UTC on 26 Apr 2018 for a) GEOS-5, b) NGAC, and c) CAMS NRT. Blue stars denote AERONET stations. Compare with MODIS image in Figure 13.

Examining time series of day-1 and day-2 AOD_{550} forecasts and observations for the Shagaya_Park AERONET station (Figure 15), which is located just over 1 km away from the location of the photograph in Figure 12, both GEOS-5 and CAMS NRT predict a dust storm that day. Observed AOD_{550} increased from just below 0.4 in the morning to 0.6 at 1100 UTC, while GEOS-5 remained about 0.4 higher during that time, as did CAMS NRT. Unfortunately, there are no L1.5 AERONET hourly-average observations from Shagaya_Park after 1100 UTC this day. L1 (raw) AOD_{550} observations jumped from 0.84 to 3.29 to 3.82 from 1100 to 1200 to 1300 UTC, respectively (Table 3), which is consistent with an expected sudden increase with the passage of the haboob at about 1130 UTC. As mentioned above, it is possible that the observations that afternoon during the dust storm were incorrectly screened out by the cloud filtering algorithm of AERONET. (The Kuwait_University AERONET site in Kuwait City, about 100 km east of Shagaya, did not report any valid L1.5 observations on this day, either.) While the AERONET station did not record L1.5 measurements during the peak of the dust storm, we do see

evidence of the passage of the haboob from observations of global horizontal irradiance (GHI) at Shagaya initially dropping somewhat at 1055 UTC (coincident with L1 AOD₅₅₀ observations jumping from about 0.59 at 1050 UTC to 0.90 at 1102 UTC), and then sharply dropping at about 1130 UTC in Figure 16 (coincident with L1 AOD₅₅₀ observations markedly increasing from 1.13 at 1129 UTC to 1.75 at 1132 UTC, and then to 3.11 at 1141 UTC, before peaking at 4.36 at 1217 UTC). From both the 1200 UTC map and the forecast model time series of AOD₅₅₀, GEOS-5 predicted AOD somewhat too slow and too weak for this event, with AOD₅₅₀ rising only from 1.0 to 1.3 from 1200–1500 UTC. CAMS NRT brought two waves of dust through Shagaya before the photographed event, one in the morning (0500 UTC) and a second wave in early afternoon, around 1100 UTC, increasing AOD₅₅₀ to about 1.1 by 1500 UTC. Hence, it was still too weak compared to L1 observations at Shagaya, though the forecast map at 1200 UTC (Figure 14) indicates good timing for the event, but with a small displacement error, with the peak of the dust storm being just over the border into Saudi Arabia. Day-2 and day-3 forecasts valid on 26 April 2018 (Figure 15c-f) did show AOD₅₅₀ values near and above 1.0 for both GEOS-5 and CAMS NRT, with CAMS NRT indicating a potentially significant dust storm on day-2 and day-3, though still an underestimate of the L1 AOD₅₅₀ observations at the Shagaya_Park AERONET station.



560

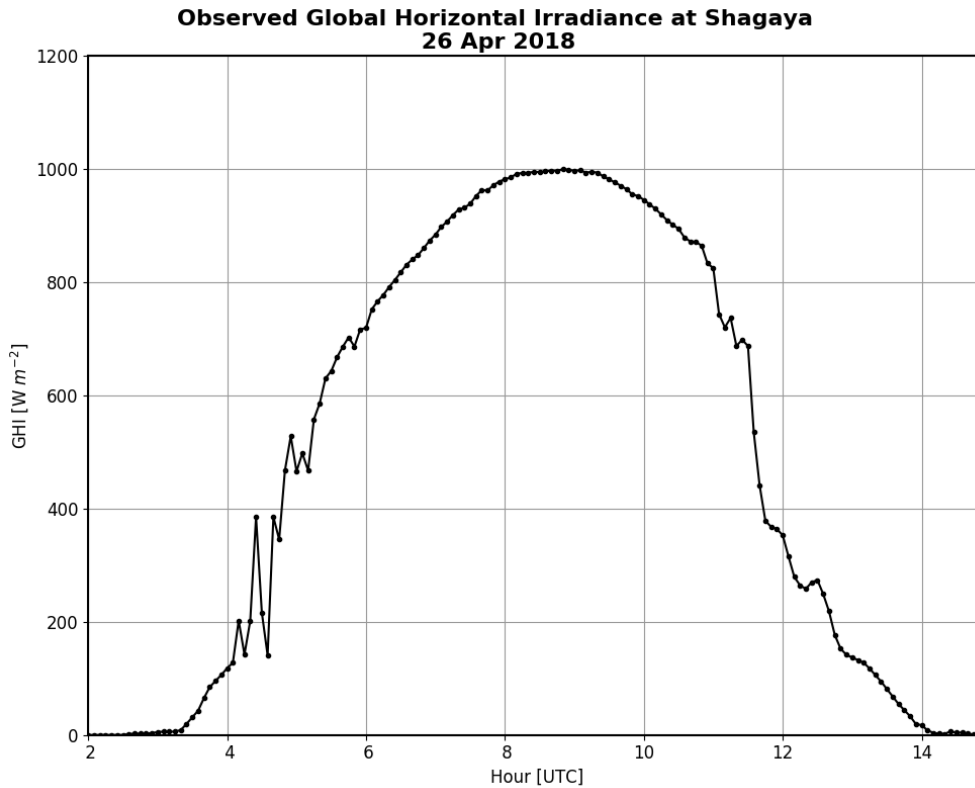
561 *Figure 15. Time series of AOD₅₅₀ for forecasts started at 0000 UTC daily from 24–28 Apr 2018*
 562 *from the GEOS-5 (blue circles), NGAC (orange squares), and CAMS NRT (green triangles) models,*
 563 *and from observations (red diamonds) at the Shagaya_Park AERONET site in western Kuwait. a)*
 564 *Day-1 daily average AOD; b) Day-1 hourly average AOD; c) Day-2 daily average AOD; d) Day-2*
 565 *hourly average AOD; e) Day-3 daily average AOD; and f) Day-3 hourly average AOD.*

566

567 *Table 3. Time-centered hourly-average AOD₅₅₀ observed values from the Shagaya_Park*
 568 *AERONET station on 26 Apr 2018, the day of the dust storm at Shagaya. Level 1 (raw) and Level*
 569 *1.5 (cloud-filtered) AOD₅₅₀ values and numbers of observations in the hour are included.*

Date/Time (UTC)	L1 AOD ₅₅₀	L1.5 AOD ₅₅₀	L1 n _{obs}	L1.5 n _{obs}
26 Apr 2018/0400	0.49	—	3	—
26 Apr 2018/0500	0.46	0.38	5	1
26 Apr 2018/0600	0.41	0.40	14	10
26 Apr 2018/0700	0.40	0.40	17	16
26 Apr 2018/0800	0.43	0.43	17	16
26 Apr 2018/0900	0.52	0.51	16	12
26 Apr 2018/1000	0.57	0.57	17	17
26 Apr 2018/1100	0.84	0.59	16	6
26 Apr 2018/1200	3.29	—	10	—
26 Apr 2018/1300	3.82	—	1	—

570



571

572 *Figure 16. Time series of GHI observations on 26 Apr 2018 from a pyranometer located at the*
 573 *Shagaya Renewable Energy Park, about 1 km from the Shagaya_Park AERONET station. The*
 574 *haboob was photographed moving over Shagaya at approximately 1130 UTC, coinciding with a*
 575 *steep drop in GHI. Plot courtesy of Julia Pearson (NCAR).*

576

577 4.3 Potential impacts on solar energy production

578 High-AOD events such as the two dust storms discussed above cause a substantial
 579 reduction in solar energy generation, by reducing the solar irradiance that reaches the
 580 collectors or panels and by creating intense soiling (Al-Rasheedi et al., 2020). This effect is much
 581 sharper for CSP plants, such as the one pictured at Shagaya in Figure 12, as they convert direct

582 normal irradiance (DNI) to power. Any scattering or absorption of radiation by dust particles,
583 other aerosols, or clouds, will noticeably or completely attenuate DNI at the surface. Dust
584 storms can also cause problems for CSP installations because their mirrors must be secured
585 ahead of time in a stowed position. Unfortunately, there were no DNI observations at Shagaya
586 during this event, as the CSP plant was still under construction and not yet operational.
587 Photovoltaic (PV) solar plants convert GHI to power. Because GHI includes contributions from
588 diffuse radiation, GHI is attenuated less than DNI is by the presence of aerosols, but PV power
589 production can still be noticeably reduced by heavy aerosol loading and soiling.

590 Accurate forecasting of GHI and DNI in cloudless conditions requires accurate
591 forecasting of total AOD₅₅₀ and dust storms. Particularly in desert or other arid regions where
592 clear skies predominate, such as the Middle East, good irradiance forecasts are a crucial
593 component for accurate solar power forecasts, which are necessary for effective grid
594 management and to optimize the cleaning cycle of collectors or mirrors (especially considering
595 the lack of water in the area).

596 The results presented in this paper, with GEOS-5 AOD₅₅₀ forecasts performing better
597 than those from CAMS NRT or NGAC in the Middle East over a two-year period, indicates that
598 coupling GEOS-5 AOD₅₅₀ forecasts with high-resolution forecast models, such as the Weather
599 Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (Powers et al., 2017) configured for solar forecasting
600 applications (WRF-Solar®) (Jiménez, Alessandrini, et al., 2016; Jiménez, Hacker, et al., 2016),
601 could yield improved GHI and DNI forecasts. This is an area of active ongoing research, including
602 for solar power forecasting in Kuwait (Haupt et al., 2020), and irradiance forecasting in Arizona,
603 where (Bunn et al., 2020) found that GEOS-5 AOD₅₅₀ forecasts coupled with WRF provided

604 significantly improved GHI forecasts compared to other methods. This finding builds off of
605 (Jiménez, Hacker, et al., 2016), which found that WRF-Solar with GEOS-5 AOD₅₅₀ forecasts
606 imposed results in reduced GHI and DNI errors during clear-sky conditions for a network of
607 high-quality irradiance sensors in the U.S., compared to either imposing no aerosol information
608 or imposing AOD from various aerosol climatologies. Furthermore, recent analysis of the 10-
609 MW wind plant at Shagaya also demonstrates the detrimental effects of dust accumulation on
610 wind power production in the summer (Al-Rasheedi et al. 2021a,b, manuscripts submitted to
611 *Sustainable Energy Technologies and Assessments*), indicating that good dust forecasting in this
612 region would be beneficial to wind plant operators in desert environments as well, not just
613 solar plant operators.

614

615 5. Conclusion

616 In this study we examined model forecasts of aerosol optical depth at 550 nm (AOD₅₅₀)
617 in the Middle East issued over a two-year time period, 2018–2019. The forecasts we compared
618 here are 1–3-day forecasts from 0000 and 1200 UTC cycles of operational models from three
619 major forecasting centers: GEOS-5 from NASA, NGAC from NOAA, and CAMS NRT from ECMWF.
620 We processed the AOD₅₅₀ forecasts to daily averages to match the standard AOD₅₅₀
621 observations produced by a network of 20 AERONET stations across the Middle East.

622 We validated forecasts using a suite of standard metrics, focusing on fractional gross
623 error (FGE), modified normalized mean bias (MNMB), and correlation (R^2). We stratified our
624 results by AERONET station, by forecast lead time, and by model start date/time. A few
625 consistent conclusions emerged:

- 626
- 627 1) GEOS-5 forecasts generally had the lowest (best) FGE and near-zero MNMB (an MNMB
- 628 of 0 is perfect), and the highest R^2 through most forecast start dates/times, lead times,
- 629 and for all but two of the 20 AERONET stations;
- 630 2) CAMS NRT forecasts had the second-best FGE and a generally positive MNMB, indicating
- 631 a general over-prediction of total AOD₅₅₀ (much of which in this region comes from
- 632 dust), and R^2 values only slightly lower than GEOS-5; at the two AERONET sites where
- 633 GEOS-5 was not the best-performing model, CAMS NRT was the best-performing model
- 634 on average;
- 635 3) NGAC forecasts had the worst FGE, and a generally negative MNMB, indicating a general
- 636 under-prediction of total AOD₅₅₀ throughout 2018–2019 in the Middle East, along with
- 637 very low R^2 values, indicating a general lack of forecast skill for even trends in AOD₅₅₀;
- 638 4) Forecast accuracy generally declined with increasing lead time, as expected.

639

640 It should perhaps not be surprising that GEOS-5 was found to be the best performing

641 model in this region, given that NASA assimilates aerosol measurements from satellites and

642 calibrates that data against AERONET stations globally. Similarly, it was not unexpected that

643 NGAC would perform worse than GEOS-5 or CAMS NRT, as NGAC runs on a significantly coarser

644 model grid. Furthermore, NGAC v2, while it uses the same aerosol module and emissions as

645 GEOS-5, does not assimilate satellite AOD retrievals or calibrate its AOD predictions against

646 AERONET, unlike GEOS-5. It can be concluded that such processes are likely essential to obtain

647 good AOD forecasts.

648 We also examined model forecast performance during two dust storm events—a four-
649 day severe dust storm in the UAE and Empty Quarter Desert during 28–31 July 2018, and a dust
650 storm in Kuwait on 26 April 2018. For these two events, we examined hourly-average forecasts
651 and L1.5 (cloud-screened) AERONET observations, and found similar conclusions to those
652 mentioned above, with GEOS-5 and CAMS NRT qualitatively performing reasonably well on
653 timing and magnitude, and NGAC completely missing these large-scale dust storms.
654 Unfortunately, the AERONET stations did not report L1.5 data during the peak of these dust
655 storm events, thus limiting the ability to fully validate the three forecast models. Fortunately, L1
656 (raw) AERONET data was available for some additional hours during these two events,
657 indicating peak instantaneous AOD₅₅₀ values of 7.31 in the UAE dust storm and 4.36 in the
658 Kuwait dust storm. Visible satellite imagery from MODIS indicates there was likely no cloud
659 cover obscuring the AERONET stations at these times, which strongly suggests that these raw
660 data were incorrectly filtered out by the current cloud-screening algorithms applied to process
661 AERONET data from L1 to L1.5. Additional research should be conducted to attempt to
662 ameliorate this complex issue of cloud filtering in AERONET observational data.

663 Forecasts of dust storms and overall aerosol loading are relevant for several fields, most
664 notably air quality forecasting, solar energy forecasting, and cloud microphysics. Future
665 research will seek to further refine and improve AOD₅₅₀ forecasting for these applications using
666 high-resolution modeling, such as with the WRF model.

667

668 **Acknowledgements**

669 Funding for this project was supplied by the Kuwait Institute for Scientific Research (KISR) under
670 contract number P-KISR-12, with Dr. Majed Al-Rasheedi of KISR serving as Project Monitor. This
671 material is based upon work performed by the National Center for Atmospheric Research,
672 which is a major facility sponsored by the National Science Foundation under Cooperative
673 Agreement No. 1852977. The Principal Investigator and staff of each of the 20 AERONET
674 stations used in this investigation are warmly thanked for establishing and maintaining this
675 invaluable source of data. This publication contains modified Copernicus Atmosphere
676 Monitoring Service Information [2018–2019], and neither the European Commission nor
677 ECMWF is responsible for any use that may be made of the information it contains. The authors
678 also thank Sue Ellen Haupt and Branko Kosović of NCAR for helpful comments on the
679 manuscript.

680

681 **Data Availability Statement**

682 All data supporting this research are stored in a public repository (Lee et al., 2021) at
683 https://dashrepo.ucar.edu/dataset/187_jaredlee.html for at least the next five years.

684

685 **References**

686 Al-Rasheedi, M., M. Al-Khayat, C. A. Gueymard, S. E. Haupt, B. Kosović, and J. A. Lee, 2021a:
687 Analysis of a 10-MW wind farm at the Shagaya Renewable Energy Park in the hot, dusty

environment of Kuwait. Part 1: Performance evaluation of the wind power to energy generation. *Sustain. Energy Tech. Assess.*, submitted.

Al-Rasheedi, M. M. Al-Khayat, C. A. Gueymard, S. E. Haupt, B. Kosović, and J. A. Lee, 2021b: Analysis of a 10-MW wind farm at the Shagaya Renewable Energy Park in the hot, dusty environment of Kuwait. Part 2: Combined dust and high-temperature effects on the performance of wind turbines. *Sustain. Energy Tech. Assess.*, submitted.

Ahmady-Birgani, H., McQueen, K. G., & Mirnejad, H. (2018). Characteristics of mineral dust impacting the Persian Gulf. *Aeolian Research*, 30, 11–19.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aeolia.2017.11.001>

Alam, K., Trautmann, T., Blaschke, T., & Subhan, F. (2014). Changes in aerosol optical properties due to dust storms in the Middle East and Southwest Asia. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 143, 216–227. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2013.12.021>

Al-Hemoud, A., Al-Dousari, A., Al-Shatti, A., Al-Khayat, A., Behbehani, W., & Malak, M. (2018). Health Impact Assessment Associated with Exposure to PM10 and Dust Storms in Kuwait. *Atmosphere*, 9(1), 6. <https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos9010006>

Al-Hemoud, A., Al-Dousari, A., Misak, R., Al-Sudairawi, M., Naseeb, A., Al-Dashti, H., & Al-Dousari, N. (2019). Economic Impact and Risk Assessment of Sand and Dust Storms (SDS) on the Oil and Gas Industry in Kuwait. *Sustainability*, 11(1), 200.
<https://doi.org/10.3390/su11010200>

Alizadeh-Choobari, O., Ghafarian, P., & Owlad, E. (2016). Temporal variations in the frequency and concentration of dust events over Iran based on surface observations. *International Journal of Climatology*, 36(4), 2050–2062. <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4479>

710 Alnaser, N. W., & Alnaser, W. E. (2019). The impact of the rise of using solar energy in GCC
 711 countries. *Renewable Energy and Environmental Sustainability*, 4, 7.
 712 <https://doi.org/10.1051/rees/2019004>
 713 Al-Rasheedi, M., Gueymard, C. A., Al-Khayat, M., Ismail, A., Lee, J. A., & Al-Duaj, H. (2020).
 714 Performance evaluation of a utility-scale dual-technology photovoltaic power plant at
 715 the Shagaya Renewable Energy Park in Kuwait. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy*
 716 *Reviews*, 133, 110139. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2020.110139>
 717 Alsayegh, O., Saker, N., & Alqattan, A. (2018). Integrating sustainable energy strategy with the
 718 second development plan of Kuwait. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 82,
 719 3430–3440. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2017.10.048>
 720 Arkian, F. (2017). Short-Term Variations of Aerosol Optical Depth during the Severe Dust Storm
 721 in 2015 over the Middle East and Long-term Variations of Aerosol Optical Properties.
 722 *Environment Pollution and Climate Change*, 1(3), 1–11. [https://doi.org/10.4172/2573-](https://doi.org/10.4172/2573-458X.1000127)
 723 [458X.1000127](https://doi.org/10.4172/2573-458X.1000127)
 724 Bangalath, H. K., & Stenchikov, G. (2016). Sensitivity of the Middle East–North African Tropical
 725 Rainbelt to Dust Shortwave Absorption: A High-Resolution AGCM Experiment. *Journal of*
 726 *Climate*, 29(19), 7103–7126. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0827.1>
 727 Basart, S., Pérez, C., Nickovic, S., Cuevas, E., & Baldasano, J. (2012). Development and
 728 evaluation of the BSC-DREAM8b dust regional model over Northern Africa, the
 729 Mediterranean and the Middle East. *Tellus B: Chemical and Physical Meteorology*, 64(1),
 730 18539. <https://doi.org/10.3402/tellusb.v64i0.18539>

731 Basha, G., Phanikumar, D. V., Kumar, K. N., Ouarda, T. B. M. J., & Marpu, P. R. (2015).
732 Investigation of aerosol optical, physical, and radiative characteristics of a severe dust
733 storm observed over UAE. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 169, 404–417.
734 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2015.08.033>

735 Beegum, S. N., Gherboudj, I., Chaouch, N., Temimi, M., & Ghedira, H. (2018). Simulation and
736 analysis of synoptic scale dust storms over the Arabian Peninsula. *Atmospheric*
737 *Research*, 199, 62–81. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2017.09.003>

738 Benedetti, A., Morcrette, J.-J., Boucher, O., Dethof, A., Engelen, R. J., Fisher, M., et al. (2009).
739 Aerosol analysis and forecast in the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
740 Forecasts Integrated Forecast System: 2. Data assimilation. *Journal of Geophysical*
741 *Research: Atmospheres*, 114(D13). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2008JD011115>

742 Benedetti, A., Baldasano, J. M., Basart, S., Benincasa, F., Boucher, O., Brooks, M. E., et al.
743 (2014). Operational Dust Prediction. In P. Knippertz & J.-B. W. Stuut (Eds.), *Mineral Dust:*
744 *A Key Player in the Earth System* (pp. 223–265). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.
745 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-8978-3_10

746 Benedetti, A., Giuseppe, F. D., Jones, L., Peuch, V.-H., Rémy, S., & Zhang, X. (2019). The value of
747 satellite observations in the analysis and short-range prediction of Asian dust.
748 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 19(2), 987–998. [https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-987-2019)
749 [987-2019](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-987-2019)

750 Benedetti, A., Di Giuseppe, F., Jones, L., Peuch, V.-H., Rémy, S., & Zhang, X. (2019). The value of
751 satellite observations in the analysis and short-range prediction of Asian dust.

752 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 19(2), 987–998. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19->
753 987-2019

754 Buchard, V., Silva, A. M. da, Colarco, P. R., Darmenov, A., Randles, C. A., Govindaraju, R., et al.
755 (2015). Using the OMI aerosol index and absorption aerosol optical depth to evaluate
756 the NASA MERRA Aerosol Reanalysis. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 15(10), 5743–
757 5760. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-5743-2015>

758 Bunn, P. T. W., Holmgren, W. F., Leuthold, M., & Castro, C. L. (2020). Using GEOS-5 forecast
759 products to represent aerosol optical depth in operational day-ahead solar irradiance
760 forecasts for the southwest United States. *Journal of Renewable and Sustainable Energy*,
761 12(5), 053702. <https://doi.org/10.1063/5.0020785>

762 Calastrini, F., Guarnieri, F., Becagli, S., Busillo, C., Chiari, M., Dayan, U., et al. (2012, September
763 16). Desert Dust Outbreaks over Mediterranean Basin: A Modeling, Observational, and
764 Synoptic Analysis Approach [Research Article]. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/246874>

765 Chin, M., Ginoux, P., Kinne, S., Torres, O., Holben, B. N., Duncan, B. N., et al. (2002).
766 Tropospheric Aerosol Optical Thickness from the GOCART Model and Comparisons with
767 Satellite and Sun Photometer Measurements. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*,
768 59(3), 461–483. [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469\(2002\)059<0461:TAOTFT>2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(2002)059<0461:TAOTFT>2.0.CO;2)

769 Choobari, O. A., Zawar-Reza, P., & Sturman, A. (2014). The global distribution of mineral dust
770 and its impacts on the climate system: A review. *Atmospheric Research*, 138, 152–165.
771 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2013.11.007>

772 Colarco, P. R., Silva, A. da, Chin, M., & Diehl, T. (2010). Online simulations of global aerosol
773 distributions in the NASA GEOS-4 model and comparisons to satellite and ground-based

774 aerosol optical depth. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 115(D14).
 775 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JD012820>
 776 Colarco, P. R., Nowottnick, E. P., Randles, C. A., Yi, B., Yang, P., Kim, K.-M., et al. (2014). Impact
 777 of radiatively interactive dust aerosols in the NASA GEOS-5 climate model: Sensitivity to
 778 dust particle shape and refractive index. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,
 779 119(2), 753–786. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2013JD020046>
 780 Copernicus. (2020, February 19). CAMS Near-real-time Global analysis and forecast daily data
 781 [Text]. Retrieved August 3, 2020, from
 782 [https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/cams-near-real-time-global-analysis-and-](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/cams-near-real-time-global-analysis-and-forecast-daily-data)
 783 [forecast-daily-data](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/cams-near-real-time-global-analysis-and-forecast-daily-data)
 784 ECMWF. (2019). Operational configurations of the ECMWF Integrated Forecasting System (IFS)
 785 [Text]. Retrieved August 3, 2020, from
 786 <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/documentation-and-support>
 787 Eissa, Y., Naseema Beegum, S., Gherboudj, I., Chaouch, N., Al Sudairi, J., Jones, R. K., et al.
 788 (2018). Prediction of the day-ahead clear-sky downwelling surface solar irradiances
 789 using the REST2 model and WRF-CHIMERE simulations over the Arabian Peninsula. *Solar*
 790 *Energy*, 162, 36–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.solener.2018.01.003>
 791 Engelen, R. (2019, July 5). Implementation of IFS cycle 46r1 - Copernicus Services. Retrieved
 792 August 3, 2020, from
 793 <https://confluence.ecmwf.int/display/COPSRV/Implementation+of+IFS+cycle+46r1>

794 Filip, L., & Stefan, S. (2011). Study of the correlation between the near-ground PM10 mass
 795 concentration and the aerosol optical depth. *Journal of Atmospheric and Solar-
 796 Terrestrial Physics*, 73(13), 1883–1889. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jastp.2011.04.027>
 797 Flemming, J., Huijnen, V., Arteta, J., Bechtold, P., Beljaars, A., Blechschmidt, A.-M., et al. (2015).
 798 Tropospheric chemistry in the Integrated Forecasting System of ECMWF. *Geoscientific
 799 Model Development*, 8(4), 975–1003. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-8-975-2015>
 800 Francis, D., Chaboureau, J.-P., Nelli, N., Cuesta, J., Alshamsi, N., Temimi, M., et al. (2021).
 801 Summertime dust storms over the Arabian Peninsula and impacts on radiation,
 802 circulation, cloud development and rain. *Atmospheric Research*, 250, 105364.
 803 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2020.105364>
 804 Giles, D. M., Sinyuk, A., Sorokin, M. G., Schafer, J. S., Smirnov, A., Slutsker, I., et al. (2019).
 805 Advancements in the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) Version 3 database –
 806 automated near-real-time quality control algorithm with improved cloud screening for
 807 Sun photometer aerosol optical depth (AOD) measurements. *Atmospheric Measurement
 808 Techniques*, 12(1), 169–209. <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-12-169-2019>
 809 Ginoux, P., Chin, M., Tegen, I., Prospero, J. M., Holben, B., Dubovik, O., & Lin, S.-J. (2001).
 810 Sources and distributions of dust aerosols simulated with the GOCART model. *Journal of
 811 Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 106(D17), 20255–20273.
 812 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JD000053>
 813 Hamidi, M., Kavianpour, M. R., & Shao, Y. (2017). A quantitative evaluation of the 3–8 July 2009
 814 Shamal dust storm. *Aeolian Research*, 24, 133–143.
 815 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aeolia.2016.12.004>

816 Haupt, S. E., McCandless, T. C., Dettling, S., Alessandrini, S., Lee, J. A., Linden, S., et al. (2020).
817 Combining Artificial Intelligence with Physics-based Methods for Probabilistic
818 Renewable Energy Forecasting. *Energies*, 13(8), 1979.
819 <https://doi.org/10.3390/en13081979>

820 Haustein, K., Pérez, C., Baldasano, J. M., Jorba, O., Basart, S., Miller, R. L., et al. (2012).
821 Atmospheric dust modeling from meso to global scales with the online NMMB/BSC-Dust
822 model – Part 2: Experimental campaigns in Northern Africa. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*
823 *Physics*, 12(6), 2933–2958. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-2933-2012>

824 Haywood, J., Francis, P., Osborne, S., Glew, M., Loeb, N., Highwood, E., et al. (2003). Radiative
825 properties and direct radiative effect of Saharan dust measured by the C-130 aircraft
826 during SHADE: 1. Solar spectrum. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,
827 108(D18). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002JD002687>

828 Holben, B. N., Eck, T. F., Slutsker, I., Tanré, D., Buis, J. P., Setzer, A., et al. (1998). AERONET—A
829 Federated Instrument Network and Data Archive for Aerosol Characterization. *Remote*
830 *Sensing of Environment*, 66(1), 1–16. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257\(98\)00031-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257(98)00031-5)

831 Hsu, N. C., Gautam, R., Sayer, A. M., Bettenhausen, C., Li, C., Jeong, M. J., et al. (2012). Global
832 and regional trends of aerosol optical depth over land and ocean using SeaWiFS
833 measurements from 1997 to 2010. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 12(17), 8037–
834 8053. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-8037-2012>

835 Huang, J., Wang, T., Wang, W., Li, Z., & Yan, H. (2014). Climate effects of dust aerosols over East
836 Asian arid and semiarid regions. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 119(19),
837 11,398–11,416. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2014JD021796>

838 Huijnen, V., Williams, J., Weele, M. van, Noije, T. van, Krol, M., Dentener, F., et al. (2010). The
 839 global chemistry transport model TM5: description and evaluation of the tropospheric
 840 chemistry version 3.0. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 3(2), 445–473.
 841 <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-3-445-2010>
 842 Huneus, N., Schulz, M., Balkanski, Y., Griesfeller, J., Prospero, J., Kinne, S., et al. (2011). Global
 843 dust model intercomparison in AeroCom phase I. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*,
 844 11(15), 7781–7816. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-11-7781-2011>
 845 Huneus, N., Basart, S., Fiedler, S., Morcrette, J.-J., Benedetti, A., Mulcahy, J., et al. (2016).
 846 Forecasting the northern African dust outbreak towards Europe in April 2011: a model
 847 intercomparison. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 16(8), 4967–4986.
 848 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-4967-2016>
 849 Husar, R. B., Tratt, D. M., Schichtel, B. A., Falke, S. R., Li, F., Jaffe, D., et al. (2001). Asian dust
 850 events of April 1998. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 106(D16), 18317–
 851 18330. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JD900788>
 852 Inness, A., Ades, M., Agustí-Panareda, A., Barré, J., Benedictow, A., Blechschmidt, A.-M., et al.
 853 (2019). The CAMS reanalysis of atmospheric composition. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*
 854 *Physics*, 19(6), 3515–3556. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-3515-2019>
 855 IPCC. (2013). *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I*
 856 *to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*
 857 *[Stocker, T.F., D. Qin, G.-K. Plattner, M. Tignor, S.K. Allen, J. Boschung, A. Nauels, Y. Xia,*
 858 *V. Bex and P.M. Midgley (eds.)]*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United

Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, 1585 pp. Retrieved from
<https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar5/wg1/>

Jiménez, P. A., Alessandrini, S., Haupt, S. E., Deng, A., Kosovic, B., Lee, J. A., & Delle Monache, L. (2016). The Role of Unresolved Clouds on Short-Range Global Horizontal Irradiance Predictability. *Monthly Weather Review*, 144(9), 3099–3107.
<https://doi.org/10.1175/MWR-D-16-0104.1>

Jiménez, P. A., Hacker, J. P., Dudhia, J., Haupt, S. E., Ruiz-Arias, J. A., Gueymard, C. A., et al. (2016). WRF-Solar: Description and Clear-Sky Assessment of an Augmented NWP Model for Solar Power Prediction. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 97(7), 1249–1264. <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-14-00279.1>

Jin, Q., Wei, J., & Yang, Z.-L. (2014). Positive response of Indian summer rainfall to Middle East dust. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 41(11), 4068–4074.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/2014GL059980>

Karagulian, F., Temimi, M., Ghebreyesus, D., Weston, M., Kondapalli, N. K., Valappil, V. K., et al. (2019). Analysis of a severe dust storm and its impact on air quality conditions using WRF-Chem modeling, satellite imagery, and ground observations. *Air Quality, Atmosphere & Health*, 12(4), 453–470. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11869-019-00674-z>

Kaufman, Y. J., Koren, I., Remer, L. A., Tanré, D., Ginoux, P., & Fan, S. (2005). Dust transport and deposition observed from the Terra-Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) spacecraft over the Atlantic Ocean. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 110(D10). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2003JD004436>

880 Kim, D., Chin, M., Yu, H., Diehl, T., Tan, Q., Kahn, R. A., et al. (2014). Sources, sinks, and
881 transatlantic transport of North African dust aerosol: A multimodel analysis and
882 comparison with remote sensing data. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,
883 119(10), 6259–6277. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2013JD021099>

884 Klingmüller, K., Pozzer, A., Metzger, S., Stenchikov, G. L., & Lelieveld, J. (2016). Aerosol optical
885 depth trend over the Middle East. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 16(8), 5063–
886 5073. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-5063-2016>

887 Kokkalis, P., K. Al Jassar, H., Solomos, S., Raptis, P.-I., Al Hendi, H., Amiridis, V., et al. (2018).
888 Long-Term Ground-Based Measurements of Aerosol Optical Depth over Kuwait City.
889 *Remote Sensing*, 10(11), 1807. <https://doi.org/10.3390/rs10111807>

890 Kuciauskas, A. P., Xian, P., Hyer, E. J., Oyola, M. I., & Campbell, J. R. (2018). Supporting Weather
891 Forecasters in Predicting and Monitoring Saharan Air Layer Dust Events as They Impact
892 the Greater Caribbean. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 99(2), 259–268.
893 <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-16-0212.1>

894 Kumar, K. R., Attada, R., Dasari, H. P., Vellore, R. K., Langodan, S., Abualnaja, Y. O., & Hoteit, I.
895 (2018). Aerosol Optical Depth variability over the Arabian Peninsula as inferred from
896 satellite measurements. *Atmospheric Environment*, 187, 346–357.
897 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.06.011>

898 Kumar, R., Barth, M. C., Pfister, G. G., Naja, M., & Brasseur, G. P. (2014). WRF-Chem simulations
899 of a typical pre-monsoon dust storm in northern India: influences on aerosol optical
900 properties and radiation budget. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 14(5), 2431–2446.
901 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14-2431-2014>

902 Lee, J. A., Jiménez, P. A., Gueymard, C. A., & Nguyen, N. (2021). Dataset: Middle East AOD550
 903 Forecasts & Observations, 2018–2019. Retrieved March 9, 2021, from
 904 https://dashrepo.ucar.edu/dataset/187_jaredlee.html
 905 Levin, Z., Teller, A., Ganor, E., & Yin, Y. (2005). On the interactions of mineral dust, sea-salt
 906 particles, and clouds: A measurement and modeling study from the Mediterranean
 907 Israeli Dust Experiment campaign. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,
 908 110(D20). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005JD005810>
 909 Li, C., Hsu, N. C., & Tsay, S.-C. (2011). A study on the potential applications of satellite data in air
 910 quality monitoring and forecasting. *Atmospheric Environment*, 45(22), 3663–3675.
 911 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.04.032>
 912 Liu, M., Westphal, D. L., Wang, S., Shimizu, A., Sugimoto, N., Zhou, J., & Chen, Y. (2003). A high-
 913 resolution numerical study of the Asian dust storms of April 2001. *Journal of Geophysical*
 914 *Research: Atmospheres*, 108(D23). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002JD003178>
 915 Lu, C.-H., Silva, A. da, Wang, J., Moorthi, S., Chin, M., Colarco, P., et al. (2016). The
 916 implementation of NEMS GFS Aerosol Component (NGAC) Version 1.0 for global dust
 917 forecasting at NOAA/NCEP. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 9(5), 1905–1919.
 918 <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-1905-2016>
 919 Lude, S., Fluri, T. P., Alhajraf, S., Jülch, V., Kühn, P., Marful, A., & Contreras, J. R. S. (2015).
 920 Optimization of the Technology Mix for the Shagaya 2 GW Renewable Energy Park in
 921 Kuwait. *Energy Procedia*, 69, 1633–1642. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2015.03.120>
 922 Mangold, A., Backer, H. D., Paepe, B. D., Dewitte, S., Chiapello, I., Derimian, Y., et al. (2011).
 923 Aerosol analysis and forecast in the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather

924 Forecasts Integrated Forecast System: 3. Evaluation by means of case studies. *Journal of*
925 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 116(D3). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010JD014864>

926 Mas'ud, A. A., Wirba, A. V., Alshammari, S. J., Muhammad-Sukki, F., Abdullahi, M. M.,
927 Albarracín, R., & Hoq, M. Z. (2018). Solar Energy Potentials and Benefits in the Gulf
928 Cooperation Council Countries: A Review of Substantial Issues. *Energies*, 11(2), 372.
929 <https://doi.org/10.3390/en11020372>

930 de Meij, A., Pozzer, A., & Lelieveld, J. (2012). Trend analysis in aerosol optical depths and
931 pollutant emission estimates between 2000 and 2009. *Atmospheric Environment*, 51,
932 75–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.01.059>

933 Menut, L., Rea, G., Mailler, S., Khvorostyanov, D., & Turquety, S. (2015). Aerosol forecast over
934 the Mediterranean area during July 2013 (ADRIED/CHARMEX). *Atmospheric Chemistry*
935 *and Physics*, 15(14), 7897–7911. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-7897-2015>

936 Middleton, N. J. (2017). Desert dust hazards: A global review. *Aeolian Research*, 24, 53–63.
937 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aeolia.2016.12.001>

938 Modarres, R., & Sadeghi, S. (2018). Spatial and temporal trends of dust storms across desert
939 regions of Iran. *Natural Hazards*, 90(1), 101–114. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-017-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11069-017-3035-8)
940 3035-8

941 Molod, A., Takacs, L., Suarez, M., & Bacmeister, J. (2015). Development of the GEOS-5
942 atmospheric general circulation model: evolution from MERRA to MERRA2. *Geoscientific*
943 *Model Development*, 8(5), 1339–1356. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-8-1339-2015>

944 Morcrette, J.-J., Boucher, O., Jones, L., Salmond, D., Bechtold, P., Beljaars, A., et al. (2009).
945 Aerosol analysis and forecast in the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather

946 Forecasts Integrated Forecast System: Forward modeling. *Journal of Geophysical*
947 *Research: Atmospheres*, 114(D6). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2008JD011235>

948 Munawwar, S., & Ghedira, H. (2014). A review of Renewable Energy and Solar Industry Growth
949 in the GCC Region. *Energy Procedia*, 57, 3191–3202.
950 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2015.06.069>

951 Nabat, P., Solmon, F., Mallet, M., Kok, J. F., & Somot, S. (2012). Dust emission size distribution
952 impact on aerosol budget and radiative forcing over the Mediterranean region: a
953 regional climate model approach. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 12(21), 10545–
954 10567. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-12-10545-2012>

955 Najafpour, N., Afshin, H., & Firoozabadi, B. (2018). The 20–22 February 2016 Mineral Dust Event
956 in Tehran, Iran: Numerical Modeling, Remote Sensing, and In Situ Measurements.
957 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 123(10), 5038–5058.
958 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2017JD027593>

959 Osipov, S., & Stenchikov, G. (2018). Simulating the Regional Impact of Dust on the Middle East
960 Climate and the Red Sea. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 123(2), 1032–1047.
961 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017JC013335>

962 Ou, S. S.-C., Liou, K.-N., Wang, X., Hansell, R., Lefevre, R., & Cocks, S. (2009). Satellite remote
963 sensing of dust aerosol indirect effects on ice cloud formation. *Applied Optics*, 48(3),
964 633–642. <https://doi.org/10.1364/AO.48.000633>

965 Pérez, C., Nickovic, S., Pejanovic, G., Baldasano, J. M., & Özsoy, E. (2006). Interactive dust-
966 radiation modeling: A step to improve weather forecasts. *Journal of Geophysical*
967 *Research: Atmospheres*, 111(D16). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005JD006717>

968 Pérez, C., Haustein, K., Janjic, Z., Jorba, O., Huneus, N., Baldasano, J. M., et al. (2011).
 969 Atmospheric dust modeling from meso to global scales with the online NMMB/BSC-Dust
 970 model – Part 1: Model description, annual simulations and evaluation.
 971 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 11(24), 13001–13027. [https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-11-13001-2011)
 972 11-13001-2011
 973 Poudineh, R., Sen, A., & Fattouh, B. (2018). Advancing renewable energy in resource-rich
 974 economies of the MENA. *Renewable Energy*, 123, 135–149.
 975 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2018.02.015>
 976 Powers, J. G., Klemp, J. B., Skamarock, W. C., Davis, C. A., Dudhia, J., Gill, D. O., et al. (2017). The
 977 Weather Research and Forecasting Model: Overview, System Efforts, and Future
 978 Directions. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 98(8), 1717–1737.
 979 <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-15-00308.1>
 980 Prospero, J. M., Landing, W. M., & Schulz, M. (2010). African dust deposition to Florida:
 981 Temporal and spatial variability and comparisons to models. *Journal of Geophysical*
 982 *Research: Atmospheres*, 115(D13). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2009JD012773>
 983 Querol, X., Tobías, A., Pérez, N., Karanasiou, A., Amato, F., Stafoggia, M., et al. (2019).
 984 Monitoring the impact of desert dust outbreaks for air quality for health studies.
 985 *Environment International*, 130, 104867. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2019.05.061>
 986 Rémy, S., Benedetti, A., Bozzo, A., Haiden, T., Jones, L., Razinger, M., et al. (2015). Feedbacks of
 987 dust and boundary layer meteorology during a dust storm in the eastern
 988 Mediterranean. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 15(22), 12909–12933.
 989 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-12909-2015>

990 Rémy, S., Kipling, Z., Flemming, J., Boucher, O., Nabat, P., Michou, M., et al. (2019). Description
 991 and evaluation of the tropospheric aerosol scheme in the European Centre for Medium-
 992 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Integrated Forecasting System (IFS-AER, cycle 45R1).
 993 *Geoscientific Model Development*, 12(11), 4627–4659. [https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-](https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-12-4627-2019)
 994 4627-2019
 995 Rienecker, M. M., Suarez, M. J., Todling, R., Bacmeister, J., Takacs, L., Liu, H.-C., et al. (2008).
 996 *The GEOS-5 Data Assimilation System-Documentation of Versions 5.0.1, 5.1.0, and 5.2.0*
 997 (Technical Report Series on Global Modeling and Data Assimilation, Volume 27 No.
 998 NASA/TM-2008-104606-VOL-27). NASA. Retrieved from
 999 <https://ntrs.nasa.gov/search.jsp?R=20120011955>
 1000 Rubin, J. I., Reid, J. S., Hansen, J. A., Anderson, J. L., Holben, B. N., Xian, P., et al. (2017).
 1001 Assimilation of AERONET and MODIS AOT observations using variational and ensemble
 1002 data assimilation methods and its impact on aerosol forecasting skill. *Journal of*
 1003 *Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 122(9), 4967–4992.
 1004 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JD026067>
 1005 Saeed, T. M., Al-Dashti, H., & Spyrou, C. (2014). Aerosol's optical and physical characteristics
 1006 and direct radiative forcing during a shamal dust storm, a case study. *Atmospheric*
 1007 *Chemistry and Physics*, 14(7), 3751–3769. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-14-3751-2014>
 1008 Salam, M. A., & Khan, S. A. (2017). Transition towards sustainable energy production – A review
 1009 of the progress for solar energy in Saudi Arabia: *Energy Exploration & Exploitation*.
 1010 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0144598717737442>

1011 Seznec, J.-F. (2018). *Renewable energy in the Middle East*. Washington, DC: Atlantic Council.

1012 Retrieved from [https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/in-depth-research-](https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/in-depth-research-reports/report/renewable-energy-in-the-middle-east/)

1013 [reports/report/renewable-energy-in-the-middle-east/](https://www.atlanticcouncil.org/in-depth-research-reports/report/renewable-energy-in-the-middle-east/)

1014 Shao, Y., Wyrwoll, K.-H., Chappell, A., Huang, J., Lin, Z., McTainsh, G. H., et al. (2011). Dust cycle:

1015 An emerging core theme in Earth system science. *Aeolian Research*, 2(4), 181–204.

1016 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aeolia.2011.02.001>

1017 Sharma, D., Singh, D., & Kaskaoutis, D. G. (2012). Impact of Two Intense Dust Storms on Aerosol

1018 Characteristics and Radiative Forcing over Patiala, Northwestern India. *Advances in*

1019 *Meteorology*, 2012, 956814. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/956814>

1020 Smirnov, A., Holben, B. N., Eck, T. F., Dubovik, O., & Slutsker, I. (2000). Cloud-Screening and

1021 Quality Control Algorithms for the AERONET Database. *Remote Sensing of Environment*,

1022 73(3), 337–349. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257\(00\)00109-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0034-4257(00)00109-7)

1023 Thompson, G., & Eidhammer, T. (2014). A Study of Aerosol Impacts on Clouds and Precipitation

1024 Development in a Large Winter Cyclone. *Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences*, 71(10),

1025 3636–3658. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JAS-D-13-0305.1>

1026 Uno, I., Eguchi, K., Yumimoto, K., Takemura, T., Shimizu, A., Uematsu, M., et al. (2009). Asian

1027 dust transported one full circuit around the globe. *Nature Geoscience*, 2(8), 557–560.

1028 <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo583>

1029 Wagner, A., Blechschmidt, A.-M., Bouarar, I., Brunke, E.-G., Clerbaux, C., Cupeiro, M., et al.

1030 (2015). Evaluation of the MACC operational forecast system – potential and challenges

1031 of global near-real-time modelling with respect to reactive gases in the troposphere.

1032 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 15(24), 14005–14030. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp->
1033 15-14005-2015

1034 Wang, J., Bhattacharjee, P. S., Tallapragada, V., Lu, C.-H., Kondragunta, S., Silva, A. da, et al.
1035 (2018). The implementation of NEMS GFS Aerosol Component (NGAC) Version 2.0 for
1036 global multispecies forecasting at NOAA/NCEP – Part 1: Model descriptions.
1037 *Geoscientific Model Development*, 11(6), 2315–2332. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-11->
1038 2315-2018

1039 Xu, Y. (2018). Evaluation of mineral dust aerosol optical depth and related components from
1040 the CHIMERE-DUST model using satellite remote sensing and ground-based
1041 observations. *Atmospheric Environment*, 191, 395–413.
1042 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.03.061>

1043 Yoon, J., Hoyningen-Huene, W. von, Kokhanovsky, A. A., Vountas, M., & Burrows, J. P. (2012a).
1044 Corrigendum to “Trend analysis of aerosol optical thickness and Ångström exponent
1045 derived from the global AERONET spectral observations” published in *Atmos. Meas.*
1046 *Tech.*, 5, 1271–1299, 2012. *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques*, 5(9), 2113–2113.
1047 <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-5-2113-2012>

1048 Yoon, J., Hoyningen-Huene, W. von, Kokhanovsky, A. A., Vountas, M., & Burrows, J. P. (2012b).
1049 Trend analysis of aerosol optical thickness and Ångström exponent derived from the
1050 global AERONET spectral observations. *Atmospheric Measurement Techniques*, 5(6),
1051 1271–1299. <https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-5-1271-2012>

1052 Yu, H., Remer, L. A., Chin, M., Bian, H., Tan, Q., Yuan, T., & Zhang, Y. (2012). Aerosols from
 1053 Overseas Rival Domestic Emissions over North America. *Science*, 337(6094), 566–569.
 1054 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1217576>
 1055 Yu, S., Eder, B., Dennis, R., Chu, S.-H., & Schwartz, S. E. (2006). New unbiased symmetric metrics
 1056 for evaluation of air quality models. *Atmospheric Science Letters*, 7(1), 26–34.
 1057 <https://doi.org/10.1002/asl.125>
 1058 Yu, Y., Notaro, M., Kalashnikova, O. V., & Garay, M. J. (2016). Climatology of summer Shamal
 1059 wind in the Middle East. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 121(1), 289–
 1060 305. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2015JD024063>
 1061 Zhang, Y., Liu, Y., Kucera, P. A., Alharbi, B. H., Pan, L., & Ghulam, A. (2015). Dust modeling over
 1062 Saudi Arabia using WRF-Chem: March 2009 severe dust case. *Atmospheric Environment*,
 1063 119, 118–130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2015.08.032>
 1064 Zhao, C., Liu, X., Ruby Leung, L., & Hagos, S. (2011). Radiative impact of mineral dust on
 1065 monsoon precipitation variability over West Africa. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*,
 1066 11(5), 1879–1893. <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-11-1879-2011>
 1067