



1 **Full-coverage 250 m monthly aerosol optical depth dataset** 2 **(2000-2019) emended with environmental covariates by the** 3 **ensemble machine learning model over the arid and semi-arid** 4 **areas, NW China**

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13 **Abstract:**

14 Aerosols are a complex compound with a great effect on the global radiation
 15 balance and climate system even human health, and concurrently are a large uncertain
 16 source in the numerical simulation process. The arid and semi-arid area has a fragile
 17 ecosystem, with abundant dust, but lacks related aerosol data or data accuracy. To solve
 18 these problems, we use the bagging trees ensemble model, based on 1 km aerosol
 19 optical depth (AOD) data and multiple environmental covariates, to produce monthly
 20 advanced-performance, full-coverage, and high-resolution (250 m) AOD products
 21 (named FEC AOD, Fusing Environmental Covariates AOD) in the arid and semi-arid
 22 areas. Then, based on FEC AOD, we analyzed the spatiotemporal pattern of AOD and
 23 further discussed the interpretation of environmental covariates to AOD. The result
 24 shows that the bagging trees ensemble model has a good performance, with its
 25 verification R^2 always keeping at 0.90 and the R^2 being 0.79 for FEC AOD compared
 26 with AERONET. The high AOD areas are located in the Taklimakan Desert and the
 27 Loess Plateau, and the low AOD area is concentrated in the south of Qinghai province.
 28 The higher the AOD is, the stronger the interannual variability. Interestingly, the AOD
 29 indicates a dramatic decrease in Loess Plateau and an evident increase in the southeast



30 Taklimakan Desert, while the AOD in the southern Qinghai province almost shows no
 31 significant change between 2000 and 2019. The annual variation characteristics present
 32 that AOD is the largest in spring (0.267) and the smallest in autumn (0.147); the AOD
 33 pattern in Gansu province is bimodal, but unimodal in other provinces. The farmland
 34 and construction land are at high AOD levels compared with other land cover types.
 35 The meteorological factors demonstrate a maximum interpretation of AOD on all set
 36 temporal scales, followed by the terrain factors, and the surface properties are the
 37 smallest, i.e., 77.1%, 59.1%, and 50.4% respectively on average. The capability of the
 38 environmental covariates for explained AOD varies with season, with an sequence
 39 being winter (86.6%) > autumn (80.8%) > spring (79.9%) > summer (72.5%). In this
 40 research, we pathbreakingly provide high spatial resolution (250 m) and long time
 41 series (2000-2019) FEC AOD dataset in arid and semi-arid regions to support the
 42 atmosphere and related study in northwest China, with the full data available at
 43 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5727119>(Chen et al., 2021a).

44 **Keywords:** Aerosol optical depth, Spatial downscaling, Machine learning, Gap filling,
 45 Arid areas

46 1 Introduction

47 Aerosols are a type of complex substance dispersed in the atmosphere that can be
 48 natural or anthropogenic sources(Kaufman et al., 2002). Aerosols can affect the global
 49 radiation balance and climate system directly, indirectly, or semi-indirectly by
 50 absorbing or scattering solar radiation(Myhre et al., 2013). Concurrently, aerosols
 51 seriously endanger human health by mixing, reacting, and dispersing dangerous
 52 compounds(Chen et al., 2020; Lelieveld et al., 2019). As one of the most significant
 53 optical characteristics of aerosols, the aerosol optical depth (AOD) is the integral of
 54 aerosol extinction coefficient in the vertical direction and indicates the attenuation
 55 impact of aerosols on solar energy(Chen et al., 2021b). AOD is frequently adopted to
 56 depict air pollution and also indirectly calculate various atmospheric parameters, such
 57 as particulate matter 2.5/10, with an extensive application in atmospheric environment-



58 related research(Goldberg et al., 2019; He et al., 2020).

59 Generally, the capital AOD acquisition method is in-situ observation, which has
60 high precision. However, in-situ observation is restricted by the distribution of
61 observation stations, so the data lacks spatial continuity, which makes it difficult to
62 meet the objectives of growing regional atmospheric environmental studies(Zhang et
63 al., 2019). Remote sensing (RS) is an effective tool for collecting AOD information
64 over a wide range of spatial scales, significantly offsetting the deficiency of in-situ
65 observation. RS can tackle difficulties connected to insufficient data and an uneven
66 geographical distribution to a certain extent(Chen et al., 2020). Nonetheless, RS is not
67 a perfect method to acquire AOD, with some problems, such as low spatial resolution
68 and data missing in some particular situations(Li et al., 2020). Commonly utilized AOD
69 satellite products derived from different sensor sources have different emphases in use
70 (Tab.S1). Yet, the common point is that spatial resolution is coarse, and even has a large
71 number of pixel values missing(Chen et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2021b;
72 Wei et al., 2021). All these restrict the application of satellite AOD products on a
73 regional scale, especially on an urban scale. Furthermore, the AOD spatial resolution
74 scale often inevitably affects the following atmospheric pollutant prediction(Yang and
75 Hu, 2018). These issues not just affect AOD analysis, but also mislead numerous
76 pertinent uses of AOD data.

77 Although methods for resolving AOD RS data deficiency have been studied,
78 previous research has not addressed the problem completely(Li et al., 2020; Zhao et al.,
79 2019). The initial and most extensive method is interpolations, but the AOD has high
80 spatiotemporal variability, thus applying the approach to anticipating AOD missing data
81 isn't very suitable(Singh et al., 2017). Another widely used method is merging multiple
82 AOD products, which can often improve data quality but always not completely
83 eliminate pixel values missing phenomenon, even bringing offsetting
84 consequences(Bilal et al., 2017; Ali and Assiri, 2019). Some statistical models such as
85 linear regression and additive are also employed to fill the pixel values missing and
86 improve the spatial resolution of the AOD products. However, these models'



87 performance are always doubtful due to their simple structure(Xiao et al., 2017). Most
88 current methods for high-resolution AOD forecasts are focused on the individual model
89 technique, which relies on a set of assumptions that are not frequently met, leading to
90 inaccurate predictions(Li et al., 2017). As computing technology advances, ensemble
91 machine learning methods provide new considerations and ways, which are less
92 constrained by the hypothesis in a single model, with less over-fitting and outliers(Li et
93 al., 2018). The strong data mining ability of the ensemble machine learning methods is
94 good for fitting multisource data, and it can achieve higher precision at the same
95 time(Zhao et al., 2019). As a result, the present research attempts to adopt ensemble
96 machine learning methods to explore the production of advanced-performance, high-
97 resolution, full-coverage AOD dataset in arid and semi-arid areas.

98 Currently, many previous studies have focused on AOD research in various regions
99 and scales, which are concentrated on the eastern coastal areas and lack related
100 exploration in arid and semi-arid areas. Arid and semi-arid areas, as important
101 components of the earth's geography units, have extremely fragile bio-system and are
102 extremely sensitive to climate change and human activities(Huang et al., 2017). Since
103 the complex surface situation in arid and semi-arid areas, especially having huge deserts,
104 many AOD retrieval algorithms are not suitable there. Although a minority of
105 algorithms can acquire AOD in arid and semi-arid areas, such as the deep blue (DB)
106 algorithm and multiangle implementation of atmospheric correction (MAIAC)
107 algorithm, which still is limited by coarse resolution, high uncertainty, or a large no-
108 data phenomenon, so these AOD productions are hard to meet the needs of arid and
109 semi-arid areas atmosphere environmental research(Wei et al., 2021). However, arid
110 and semi-arid areas are crucial dust sources, with strong variability in the aspects of
111 aerosol loading and optical characteristics. As a typical dust source and AOD data-
112 scarce areas, the AOD variety in arid and semi-arid areas has significant influences on
113 global climate change and model simulation. Therefore, manufacturing a higher-quality
114 AOD dataset in arid and semi-arid areas is necessary for local and even global
115 atmosphere environment research.



116 To better solve the lack of AOD data in arid and semi-arid areas, this research aims
 117 to acquire advanced-performance, high-resolution, full-coverage AOD datasets that
 118 will serve as the foundation for future studies. To achieve this goal, the main work of
 119 this study includes: (1) based on MAIAC AOD, combined with multiple environmental
 120 covariates, utilized a machine learning method, FEC AOD is obtained for the periods
 121 2000–2019; (2) Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET) ground observation data and
 122 the MCD19A2 and MxD08 AOD satellite products were collected to verify the
 123 accuracy of FEC AOD; (3) the FEC AOD spatiotemporal change is analyzed; (4) the
 124 dominant environmental covariates of FEC AOD are explored.

125 **2 Materials and methods**

126 *2.1 Study area*

127 Fig.1 shows the arid and semi-arid areas in northwest China (E 73°25' - 110°55', N
 128 31°35' - 49°15'), a typical arid and semi-arid region on the globe, in terms of the spatial
 129 location, surface cover and the environmental problem (Ge et al., 2016). As a dust source
 130 and ecosystem fragile area, the regional difference in climate is significant, which is
 131 perennial in drought and less precipitation (< 400 mm) conditions (Ding and Xingming,
 132 2021). Furthermore, the area is extremely sensitive to climate change and human
 133 activities and has a large AOD variability, which brings great difficulty to the global
 134 climate simulation and radiation balance quantification. With the development of
 135 society and technology, the force of people to change nature is increasing. More and
 136 more unreasonable human activities (deforestation, soil salinization) and poor land
 137 management policies (reclamation, water resources utilization) bring about regional
 138 vegetation degradation, desertification, rapid glacier melting, and frequent dust weather,
 139 which eventually lead to the fast deterioration of the ecological environment in the
 140 whole arid and semi-arid areas.

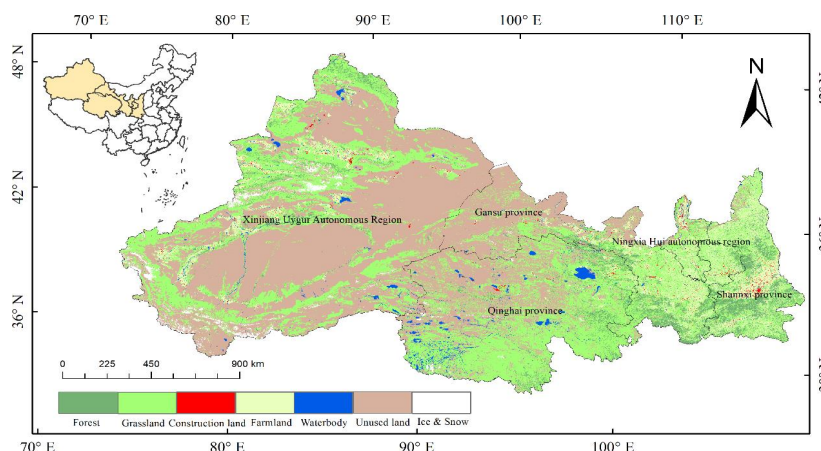


Figure 1 Study area. The figure shows typical arid and semi-arid areas, five provinces in northwest China.

2.2 MODIS MAIAC data

MAIAC AOD, which is named MCD19A2, is based on MODIS onboard Terra and Aqua, combined with the MAIAC algorithm produced. The MAIAC algorithm is an advanced AOD retrieval method, using time-series analysis and image-based spatial processing, which can acquire AOD data from densely vegetated areas as well as bright desert regions (Lyapustin et al., 2018; Lyapustin et al., 2011). The MAIAC AOD product's temporal and spatial resolutions are 1 day and $1 \text{ km} \times 1 \text{ km}$ respectively, which is the highest spatial resolution in existing AOD products. The MAIAC AOD product also offers a long time-series AOD collection, which has been intended for air quality research on regional and even global scales. Compared with former AOD products, the MAIAC AOD data performance on bright surfaces and heavy AOD loadings areas generally is considered to make a significant improvement (Li et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2021b). In this paper, we acquired MAIAC AOD for the entire study region from the NASA website (<https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/>) over 20 years, from March 2000 to February 2020. Based on the python tool, we preprocessed the data and computed the daily average AOD by combining the 550 nm AOD data from Terra and Aqua.



161 2.3 MODIS MxD08_M3 data

162 MYD08_M3 and MOD08_M3 are the level 3 atmosphere global products from
 163 Aqua and Terra respectively, where spatial and temporal resolutions are $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ and 1
 164 month respectively. Based on the MODIS Collection 6.1, we chose 550 nm combined
 165 land and ocean mean band AOD to validate FEC AOD. It is worth noting that the Aqua
 166 and Terra launch time is different, so we can acquire MOD08_M3 data from March
 167 2000 to February 2020, but as for MYD08_M3, we only acquire data from July 2002
 168 to February 2020. All processes are realized through the Google Earth Engine (GEE)
 169 cloud computing platform (Also, the data is available independently from
 170 <https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/>). GEE has a multi-petabyte database of an
 171 extensive and varied number of reanalysis and satellite imagery data collected over
 172 several decades, which allows for the quick and effective processing of numerous years
 173 of satellite data using an easy-to-use online cloud computing platform(Hu et al., 2021;
 174 Gorelick et al., 2017).

175 2.4 AERONET data

176 AERONET (Aerosol Robotic Network) is a network that monitors aerosols on the
 177 ground, providing 0.340-1.060 μ m aerosol optical characteristics at a high temporal
 178 resolution (15 min)(Holben et al., 1998). AERONET currently includes more than 500
 179 sites and covers major regions of the world with a long time series. AERONET AOD
 180 has low uncertainty (0.01–0.02), which is considered the highest accuracy AOD data
 181 and is widely used in RS AOD products validation as a reference(Almazroui, 2019).
 182 Satellite products mostly provide 550 nm wavelength AOD, so the AERONET AOD at
 183 550 nm is computed via the Ångström exponent algorithm to better match the AOD
 184 observed by satellite(Ångström, 1964). In the temporal dimension, we compute the
 185 average of AERONET AOD over Aqua and terra overpass period. In the spatial
 186 dimension, we match the satellite and in-situ observed AOD over a 3×3 pixels spatial
 187 window(Tao et al., 2017). The AERONET data and related information can be found at
 188 <https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov> (Tab.S2).



189 2.5 *Environmental covariates*

190 Environmental covariates selected in this study contain 12 covariates in three
 191 categories (meteorology, surface information, and topography). Covariates are selected
 192 based on two criteria: first, each variable is considered important to AOD and has a
 193 vital influence on AOD formation, accumulation and migration process, referring to
 194 existing research and expert experience (Zhao et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2020; Yan et al.,
 195 2022); the second, the data is released to the public for free, which means that the data
 196 set is freely available on the national or global scale (Li et al., 2020). The detailed
 197 information is listed in Tab.1. In this study, we compute two sets of spatial resolution
 198 of environment variable data (1 km and 250 m). The 1 km spatial resolution data aim
 199 to model with MAIAC 1 km AOD, and a 250 m spatial resolution data is the target
 200 resolution of FEC AOD. To normalize the covariables on this basis, we interpolated the
 201 geo-datasets to 1 km and 250 m in ArcGIS (the bilinear method is used for continuous
 202 covariates and the nearest neighbor method is used for classified covariates) and
 203 reprojected them onto the 1984 coordinate system of the World Geodetic System
 204 (WGS). The environmental covariates can be divided into static and dynamic
 205 variables. As for dynamic covariates, the monthly average method is adopted to obtain
 206 the multi-year average data. It is worth pointing out that the relevant operations are not
 207 limited to ArcGIS, and relevant open source software such as QGIS can also be
 208 implemented.

209 2.5.1 Meteorological parameters

210 The meteorological parameters include temperature, precipitation,
 211 evapotranspiration, and wind speed. The temperature and precipitation data are
 212 obtained from the national Tibet Plateau data center (TPDC), whose temporal and
 213 spatial resolution is 1 month and 1 km × 1 km respectively. The evapotranspiration (ET)
 214 data is from TPDC's terrestrial evapotranspiration dataset across China, whose
 215 temporal and spatial resolution is 1 month and 0.1° × 0.1° respectively (Szilagyi et al.,
 216 2019). To ET data, we use a downscaling algorithm proposed by Ma (2017) to transform



217 it into 1 km. The wind speed data is from National Earth System Science Data Center,
 218 whose temporal and spatial resolution is 1 month and $1 \text{ km} \times 1 \text{ km}$ respectively(Sun et
 219 al., 2015). As for the four meteorological parameters, we have calculated the monthly
 220 average state every year for the next research.

221 **2.5.2 Surface properties**

222 The surface properties mainly employ land use and land cover (LUCC), normalized
 223 difference vegetation index (NDVI), and temperature vegetation dryness index (TVDI)
 224 to describe. LUCC data selects in the median of the whole study time, 2010, which is
 225 from Resource and Environment Science and Data Center. The LUCC data set is
 226 obtained by manual visual interpretation of the Landsat Series data as the data source.
 227 It includes 6 categories (farmland, forest, grassland, waterbody, construction land, and
 228 unused land) and 25 subcategories, with a spatial resolution of 30 m. NDVI data is
 229 obtained from NASA Global Inventory, Monitoring, and Modelling Studies(GIMMS)
 230 NDVI3g v1, whose temporal and spatial resolution is 15 days and $0.083^\circ \times 0.083^\circ$
 231 respectively. NDVI, the same as ET, is downscaled to 1 km. TVDI is a soil moisture
 232 inversion method based on NDVI and surface temperature. It can better monitor
 233 drought and be used to study the spatial variation characteristics of drought degree.
 234 TVDI temporal and spatial resolution is 1 month and $1 \text{ km} \times 1 \text{ km}$ respectively.

235 **2.5.3 Terrain factor**

236 The elevation is from Shuttle Radar Topography Mission 90 m Digital Elevation
 237 Model (SRTM). Based on elevation, geomorphology is realized under Geographic
 238 Resource Analysis Support System extension named r.geomorphon modular(Jasiewicz
 239 and Stepinski, 2013). Using System for Automated Geoscientific Analyses soft
 240 (<https://sourceforge.net/projects/saga-gis/>), plan curvature, slope length and slope
 241 steepness, and topographic wetness index is computed.



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Table 1 Environmental covariates for AOD modeling

Type	Name	Abbreviation	Resolution	Sources
Dynamic covariate				
Meteorological parameters	Temperature	Tem	1 km × 1 km	http://data.tpdac.ac.cn/
	Precipitation	Pre	1 km × 1 km	http://data.tpdac.ac.cn/
	Wind speed	WS	1 km × 1 km	http://www.geodata.cn/
	Evapotranspiration	ET	0.1° × 0.1°	http://data.tpdac.ac.cn/
Surface properties	Normalized difference vegetation index	NDVI	0.083° × 0.083°	https://ecocast.arc.nasa.gov/data/pub/
	Temperature vegetation dryness index	TVDI	1 km × 1 km	http://www.geodata.cn/
Static covariate Surface properties	Land use and land cover	LUCC	30 m × 30 m	http://www.resdc.cn/
	Elevation	Elev	90 m × 90 m	http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org/srtmdata/
Terrain factor	Geomorphology	Geoms	90 m × 90 m	
	plan curvature	Curpln	90 m × 90 m	
	slope length and slope steepness	LS	90 m × 90 m	
	topographic wetness index	TWI	90 m × 90 m	

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244 2.6 Bagging trees ensemble

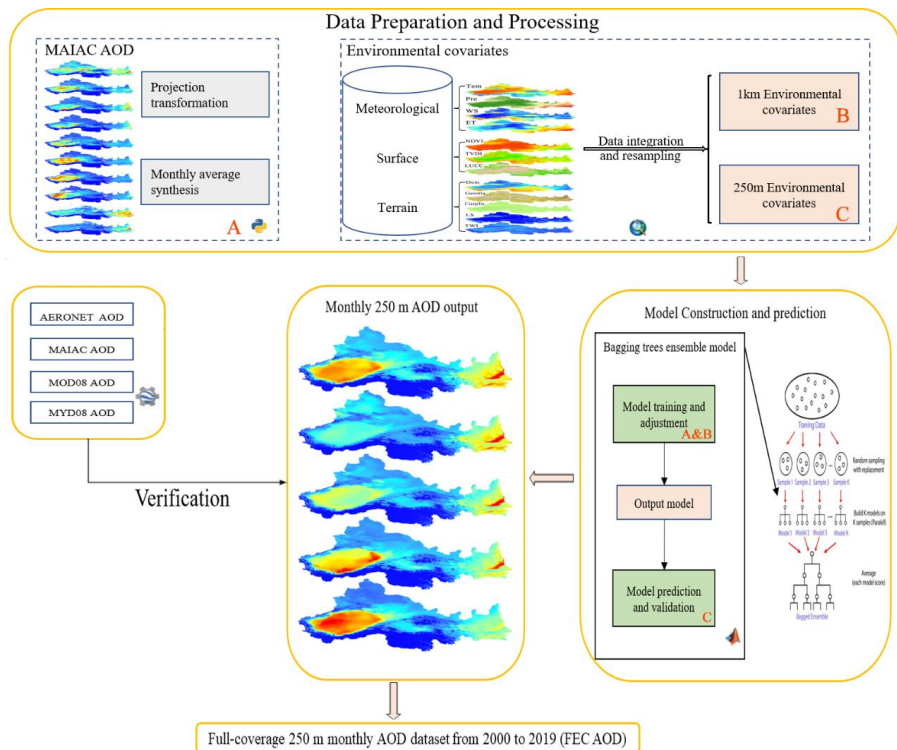
245 The ensemble machine learning methods according to whether there exists
 246 dependency relation between learners are mainly divided into two categories, Boosting
 247 and Bagging (Fig.S1)(González et al., 2020). If there is a strong dependency between
 248 individual weak learners and a series of individual weak learners needs to be generated
 249 serially (That means that the following weak learner is affected by the former weak
 250 learner), which is Boosting. In contrast, if there is no dependency between individual
 251 weak learners, and a series of individual learners can be generated in parallel (There is
 252 no constraint relationship between each learner), which is Bagging. The typical
 253 representative and extensive use algorithms of Boosting and Bagging are Gradient
 254 Boosting Decision Tree (GBDT) and Random Forest (RF) respectively(Zounemat-
 255 Kermani et al., 2021). Compared with Boosting, Bagging reduces the difficulty in
 256 training and has a strong generalization.

257 Bagging (namely bootstrap aggregating) as a simple but powerful ensemble
 258 algorithm to obtain an aggregated predictor is more accurate than any single
 259 model(Breiman, 1996). Bagging is through multiple base learners or individual learners
 260 (such as decision trees, neural networks, and other basic learning algorithms) to
 261 construct a robust learner under certain combined strategies(Li et al., 2018). Generally,
 262 the bagging algorithm includes bootstrap resampling, decision tree growing, and out-
 263 of-bag error estimate. The main steps of the Bagging are as follows: (1) Bootstrap
 264 resampling, a random sample (return sampling) under abundant individual weak
 265 learners. (2) Model training, based on the origin samples to training for abundant
 266 individual weak learners in accordance with the self-serving sample set. (3) Result
 267 output, based on the decision tree and calculates the average of all the regression results
 268 to obtain regression results. Therefore, bagging reduces the overfitting problem and
 269 prediction errors in decision trees and variance, thereby significantly improving the
 270 accuracy. Simultaneously, the influence of noise on the Bagging algorithm is
 271 comparatively less than the other available machine learning algorithms for AOD(Liang



272 et al., 2021).

273 In this study, we use 12 environmental covariates (1 km) as bagging trees ensemble
274 algorithms input to acquire AOD environmental covariates model in 1 km, and utilize
275 the model and 250 m environmental covariates to acquire FEC AOD. In case of the lack
276 of environmental covariates in some periods, we use the multi-year monthly average to
277 replace them. The reason why the 250 m target resolution is selected is that existing
278 studies show that aerosol RS research at the scale of 250 - 500 m spatial resolution is
279 appropriate, which can better capture aerosols feature(Wang et al., 2021; Chen et al.,
280 2020). Secondly, most high-resolution product data in the global are 250 m, especially
281 soil, which is more convenient for peer comparison and further research and
282 application(De Sousa et al., 2020; Hengl et al., 2017). The model was built monthly
283 from March 2000 to February 2020 to assure the model's accuracy in the inference
284 process, whose specific parameters set include the 10 cross-validation folds, the number
285 of learners ($N = 30$), and the minimum leaf size ($L_{\min} = 8$). Each base learner was
286 developed using a bootstrap sample generated individually from the input data. All
287 steps were implemented in Matlab R2021a (Fig.2). Definitely, all modeling and
288 application processes can also be implemented in R or Python.



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Figure 2 Flow chart of experiment and model calculation process.

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3 Results and analysis

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3.1 Accuracy validation based on in-situ and satellite

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To verify the performance of the FEC AOD over arid and semi-arid areas, based on AERONET AOD data as reference, some generalized parameters are chosen to assess the performance of FEC AOD, such as the decision coefficient (R^2), root mean square error (RMSE), expected error (EE), etc. (Levy et al., 2010; Ali et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2021). When R^2 is higher and RMSE is lower, the performance of the model is better. EE can evaluate the degree of overestimation and underestimation of FEC AOD via three situations (within EE, above EE, and below EE). To examine the high resolution and full coverage FEC AOD performance, we computed the month average AOD at each AERONET site in the whole study region. Specifically, we check data



time range and data usability at every site, as for the daily scale, we only compute the average AOD from local time 9:00 am to 2:00 pm as the daily mean (if the valid data number in a day is less than 18, daily mean is considered missing). As for the monthly scale, if the number of the effective daily mean is less than 20 days, the monthly mean is considered missing, so 180 effective matching samples were obtained. As shown in Fig.3, FEC AOD was highly correlated with AERONET monthly AOD ($R^2 = 0.787$), with MAE of 0.049 and RMSE of 0.061. Approximately 64.5% of monthly collections fell within the EE, with RMB of 1.018 and Bias of 0.005, which means the FEC AOD products almost overcome some problems of overestimation and underestimation. Compared with previous studies, the FEC AOD has better accuracy than MAIAC AOD and MxD08 AOD products (Chen et al., 2021b; Wei et al., 2019).

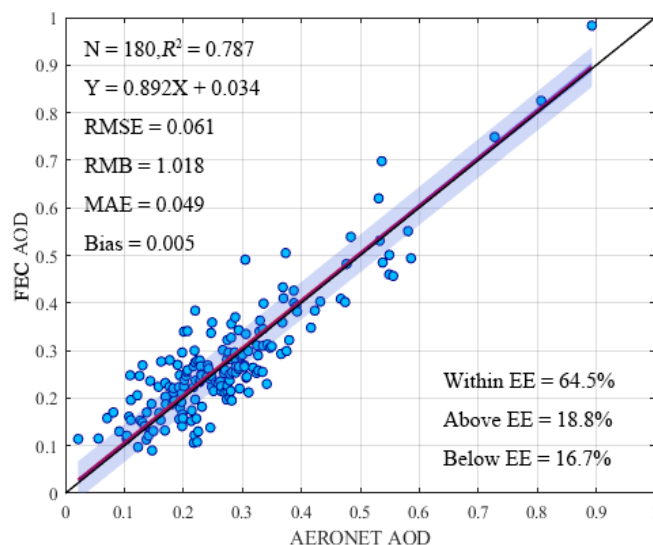


Figure 3 Comparison between the FEC AOD and AERONET AOD. The red line is the regression line, the black dashed line is the 1:1 line, and the blue area indicates the prediction interval.

The multi-year average AOD spatial distribution was calculated (Fig.4). The AOD spatial pattern has high consistency, and the high AOD is located in Taklimakan Desert and Loess Plateau, and the low AOD is distributed in high altitude areas (such as



mountain zone and Qinghai). As for MxD08 AOD, the direct feeling is coarse spatial
 resolution, with lots of missing data. To further explore the improvement of FEC AOD
 based on MAIAC AOD, two typical cities in arid and semi-arid areas are selected to
 analyze the use on an urban scale. From Fig. S2 and S3, we can easily find the difference
 in different AOD satellite products. Obviously, MOD08 and MYD08 AOD products are
 not suitable for urban air quality research. We randomly select Shaybak and Chengguan
 districts for magnification in Urumqi and Lanzhou cities respectively. Compared with
 MAIAC AOD, the FEC AOD has a strong potential to describe local AOD features or
 fine AOD distribution. Concurrently, the multi-year monthly average of four AOD
 products (FEC AOD, MAIAC AOD, MOD08 AOD, and MYD08 AOD) was counted
 (Fig.S4). From January to December, the four AOD products show a trend of increasing
 first and decreasing next, reaching the lowest value in November. Of course, there are
 some differences in the AOD magnitude and fluctuation range, which are mainly due
 to the difference in AOD retrieval algorithms.

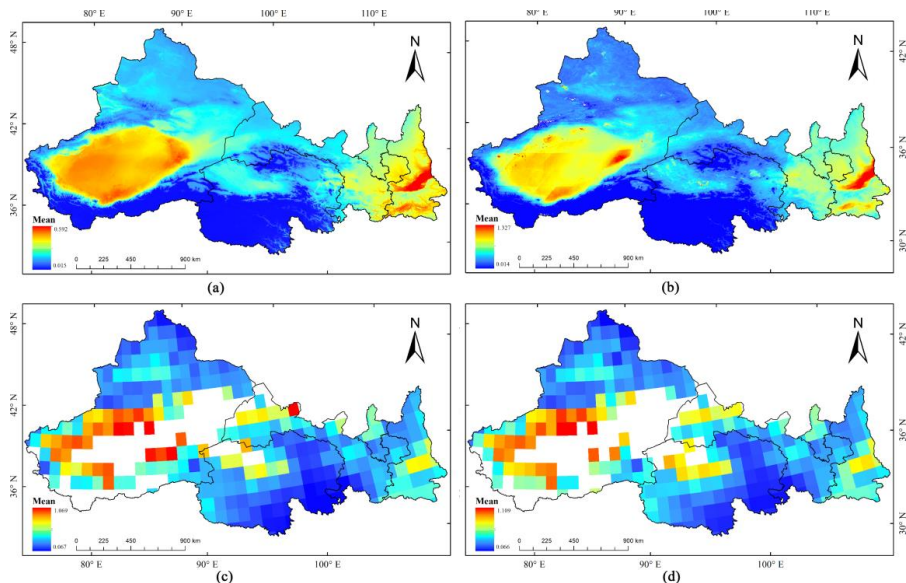
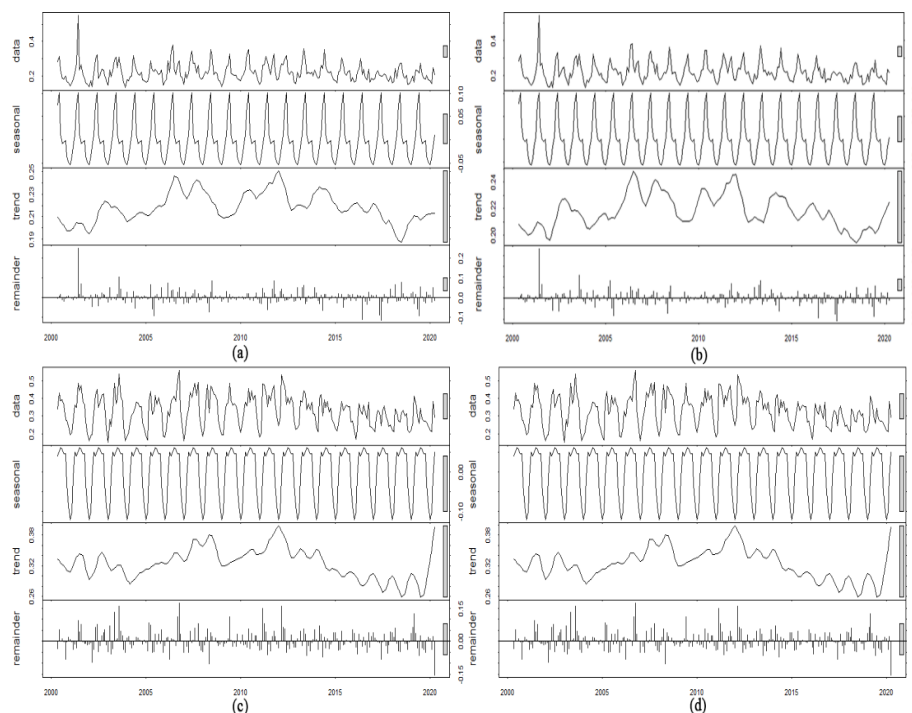


Figure 4 The multi-years spatial average AOD for (a) FEC AOD, (b) MAIAC AOD,
 (c) MOD08 AOD, and (d) MYD08 AOD.



341 The seasonal-trend decomposition procedure based on loess (STL) is used in time-
 342 series decomposition for four AOD products to further analyze the consistency and
 343 difference in time scale (Fig.5). STL decomposes the time series data into additive
 344 variation three components: trend, seasonal and remainder(Chen et al., 2021b). Firstly,
 345 the four AOD data change in a similar manner, fluctuating and slightly decreasing, and
 346 the MxD08 AOD fluctuation range is significantly higher than that of FEC AOD and
 347 MAIAC AOD. As for seasonal characteristics, the four AOD products feature
 348 significant seasonal cycle variation. The spring and summer AOD remain at a high level,
 349 and winter always is the lowest. Then, moving to the general trend after the season
 350 effect is removed, the four AOD products show a tortuous rise at first, beginning to
 351 decline around 2012, and rebounding about 2017. In summary, we can draw the
 352 decision that FEC AOD products demonstrate a reliable accuracy and ability to capture
 353 local information, even superior to MAIAC and MxD08 AOD products.

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356 Figure 5 Seasonal and trend decomposition using loess for (a) FEC AOD, (b) MAIAC
 357 AOD, (c) MOD08 AOD, and (d) MYD08 AOD.



3.2 Spatiotemporal pattern of FEC AOD from 2000 to 2019

Fig.6 shows annual mean FEC AOD maps for each year from 2000 to 2019 and multi-year mean AOD map. In general, spatial patterns are consistent over different years, where the highest AOD are found in the south of Xinjiang and the center of Shaanxi provinces, mainly due to special meteorological conditions, unique topography and surface coverages. AOD is low in other areas, especially in the south of Qinghai province. The multi-year mean AOD is 0.193 ± 0.124 for the whole of the study areas. Fig.7 illustrates the spatial distributions of seasonal mean AOD from 2000 to 2019. The spatial patterns of AOD greatly differ at the seasonal level. In autumn, AOD is the lightest, with an average AOD value of 0.147 ± 0.089 and most AOD values < 0.2 . By contrast, AOD is most severe in spring, with most AOD values > 0.2 (average = 0.267 ± 0.200). The summer and winter have similar spatial patterns and the former is higher than the latter, with AOD values being 0.198 ± 0.134 and 0.159 ± 0.103 respectively. The higher the AOD level is, the stronger the fluctuation of AOD.

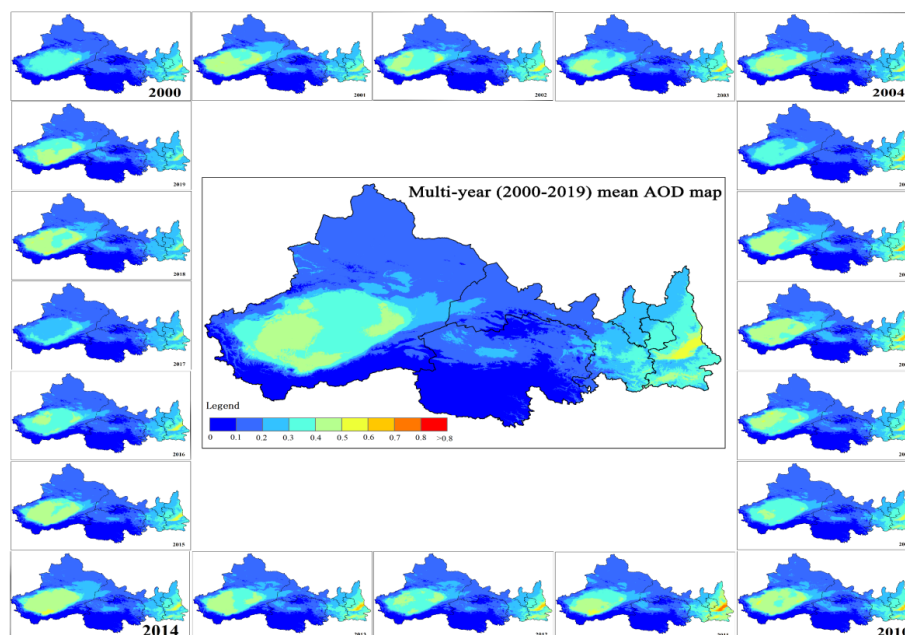


Figure 6 FEC AOD annual mean maps for each year from 2000 to 2019.

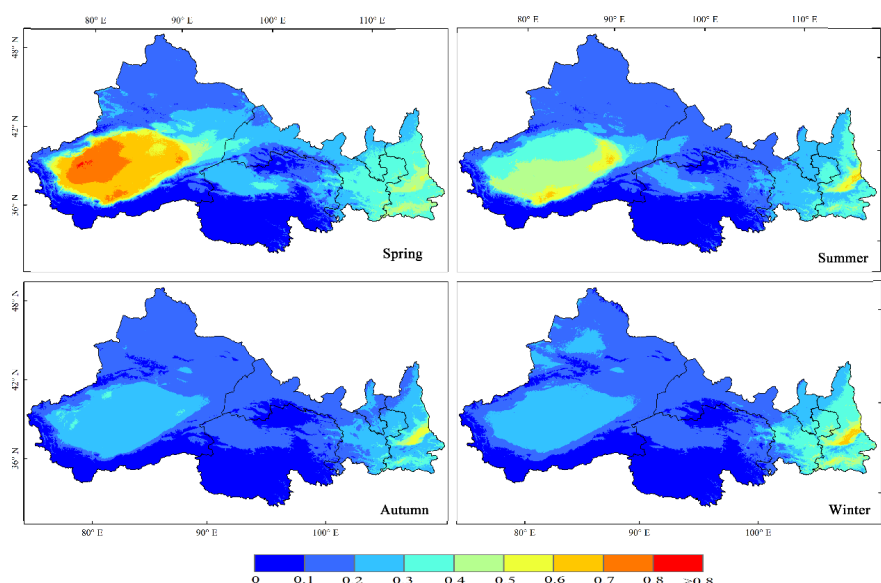


Figure 7 FEC AOD seasonal mean maps averaged over the period 2000-2019.

To further investigate the spatiotemporal variety feature of AOD, the concepts of information entropy are introduced, which are temporal information entropy (TIE) and time-series information entropy (TSIE) respectively (Ebrahimi et al., 2010). TIE and TSIE are time series indicators that can depict the changing intensity and trend information of AOD. Generally, the higher (lower) the TIE is, the stronger (weaker) the changing intensity of AOD in the temporal dimension. As for TSIE, if $TSIE > 0$, the shows AOD is increasing in this period, whereas $TSIE < 0$ denotes a downward trend. Furthermore, the bigger the absolute value of TSIE is, the more significant the increasing (decreasing) trend. Fig.8 depicts the TIE and TISE of AOD from 2000 to 2019 over the whole study area. We find that the overall change intensity of AOD over the past 19 years is large, especially in the south of Xinjiang (The Taklimakan Desert) and Shannxi province (The Loess Plateau). The areas with low variation intensity are mainly distributed in high elevations (mountainous areas and grassland areas). The characteristic of changing intensity is similar to the AOD change, which means the higher AOD is, the larger the multi-year change is. The AOD in Xinjiang is increasing,



with the most obvious increases occurring around the Taklimakan Desert and the north of Xinjiang, whereas that in the east is decreasing, mainly concentrated in Shannxi province and southeast of Gansu province. Considering TIE and TSIE together, we can find that AOD has strongly increased in southeastern Taklimakan Desert while slightly increasing in northern Xinjiang and the northwestern Qinghai province. The AOD in the south of Qinghai province shows almost no change. The dramatic decrease can be found in the east, mainly distributed in the Shannxi, Ningxia, and southeastern Gansu provinces. A possible reason for this finding is that the Loess Plateau is experiencing greening, and the vegetation keeps increasing under artificial intervention.

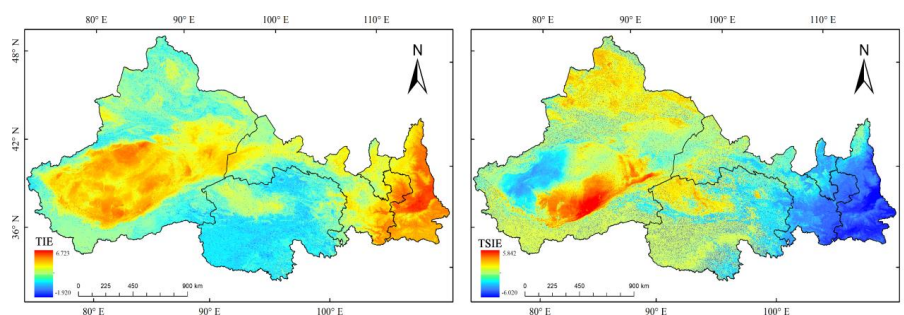


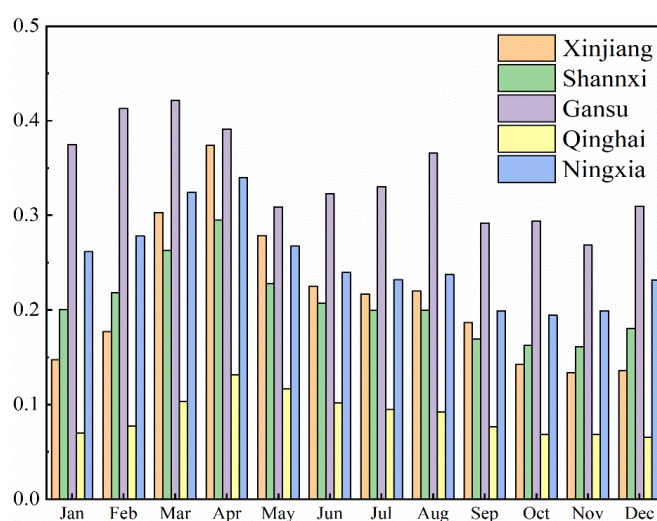
Figure 8 TIE and TSIE of AOD distribution.

The FEC AOD products with high spatial resolution and full coverage over arid and semi-arid areas provided new possible data sources to further research the air pollution in scarce data areas on fine scales. Based on the FEC AOD, we explore the regional distribution characteristics under different areas and surface coverage types. Fig.9 shows that AOD in Gansu province is the highest in all months, and AOD in Qinghai province is the lowest. From January to December, the AOD almost shows a trend of increasing at first and decreasing next, reaching a peak in March and April. It is worth noting that except for the Gansu province, where AOD is bimodal, other provinces are unimodal. Fig.10 describes the AOD season distribution under seven different land cover types (forest, grassland, waterbody, ice and snow, construction land, unused land, and farmland). The AOD over the ice and snow is the smallest and keeps



417 decreasing from spring to winter. AOD is at a high level over farmland and construction
 418 land, which is mainly related to human activities. Despite the land cover type, AOD in
 419 spring is still the highest. Except for ice and snow and unused land, else land cover type
 420 keeps a similar seasons distribution, with decrease and then increase, and autumn is the
 421 bottom.

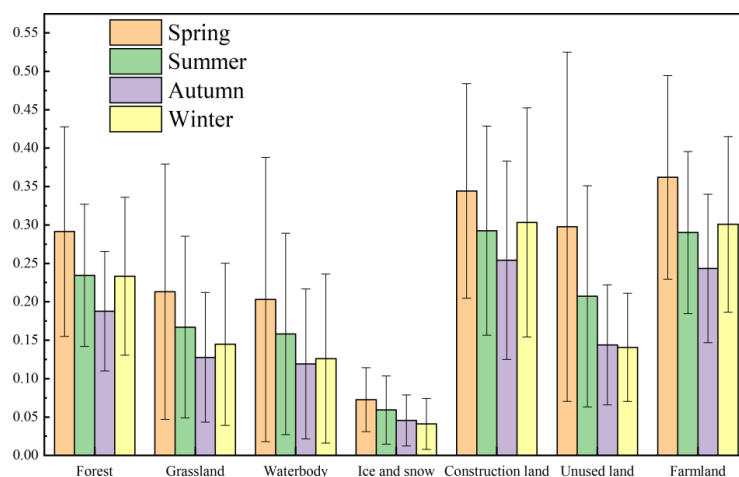
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424 Figure 9 The monthly distribution characteristics of AOD in different provinces.

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426

427 Figure 10 AOD season distribution under different land cover types.



428 *3.3 Variation partitioning of FEC AOD*

429 To examine the contribution of environmental covariates to the FEC AOD dynamic,
 430 the redundancy analysis (RDA) was used to explore the association between different
 431 seasons of FEC AOD and the environmental covariates. The twelve environmental
 432 covariates were divided into three groups, meteorology, surface properties, and terrain.
 433 The variance proportion driving the variation of FEC AOD on different temporal scales
 434 was tested from the environmental covariates groups. The variation of FEC AOD can
 435 be interpreted by every group of environmental covariates individually or the combined
 436 variation owing to two or more covariates set, and the residual represents the
 437 unexplained proportion. The variance partitioning results can be described as Venn's
 438 diagram makes by R language(Waits et al., 2018). From Tab.2 and Fig.11, the variation
 439 partitioning analysis reveals that the meteorological factors still explain a maximal
 440 proportion of variance of FEC AOD on different temporal scales, followed by terrain
 441 factor, and the surface properties are the smallest, i.e., 77.1%, 59.1%, and 50.4%
 442 respectively on average. In different seasons, the environmental covariates have
 443 different abilities to explain FEC AOD, with the sequence being winter (86.6%) >
 444 autumn (80.8%) > spring (79.9%) > summer (72.5%). Except for winter, the largest
 445 variance is explained by three groups' environmental covariates, with 40.7%, 38.9%,
 446 and 45.4% respectively. In winter, the largest variance is explained by meteorological
 447 and terrain factors (39.1%). From spring to winter, the explanatory ability of the three
 448 groups of covariates is always the highest in autumn, and meteorological parameters,
 449 surface properties, and terrain factors reach the lowest in summer, winter, and spring
 450 respectively.

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Table 2 Three groups of environmental covariates for AOD variation partitioning

Variance proportion	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter	Average
Meteorological parameters	78.8%	70.4%	80.5%	74.8%	77.1%
Surface properties	44.5%	37.9%	52.5%	31.4%	50.4%
Terrain factor	48.7%	49.5%	62.6%	62.8%	59.1%
Residual	20.1%	27.5%	19.2%	13.4%	21.8%

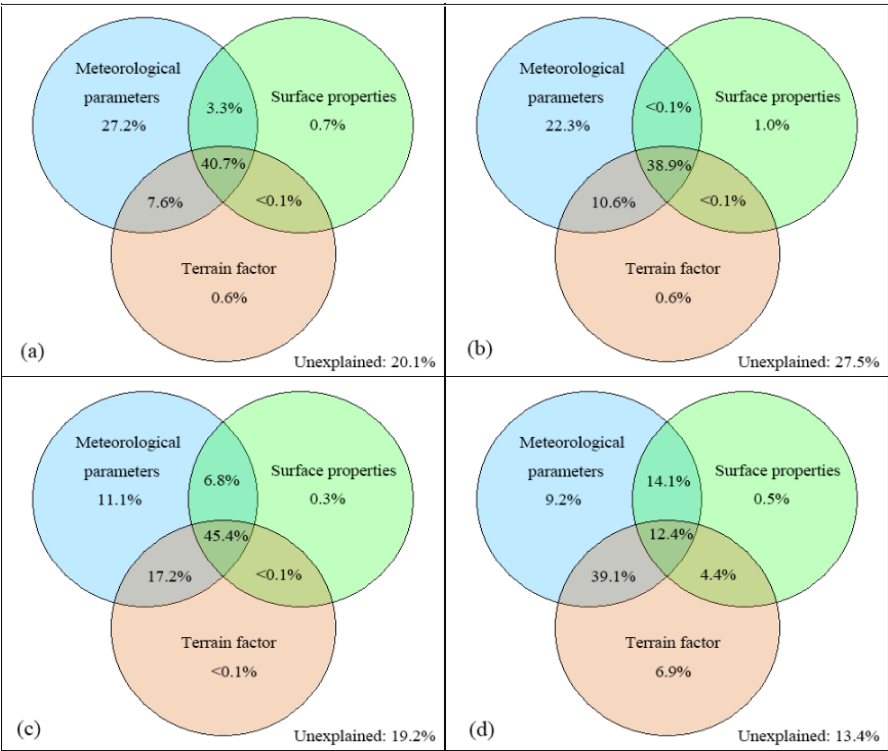


Figure 11 Variation partitioning for seasons and average AOD explained by (a) spring; (b) summer; (c) autumn. (d) winter.



466 **4 Discussion**

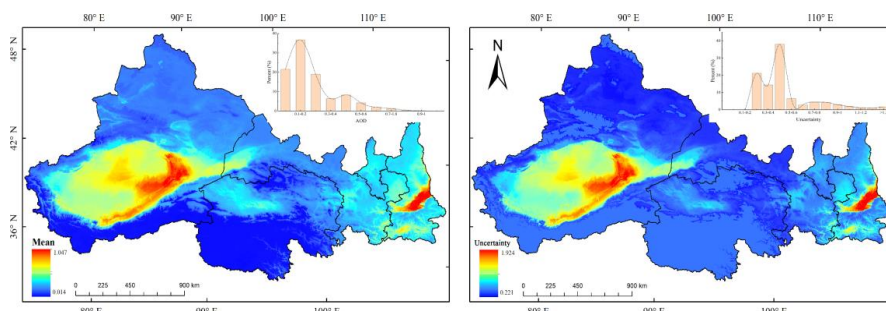
467 *4.1 Model uncertainty*

468 This study, based on MAIAC AOD and 12 environmental covariates data, adopting
 469 bagging trees ensemble approaches, produces monthly advanced-performance, full-
 470 coverage, and high-resolution FEC AOD in northwest China. The bagging trees
 471 ensemble approach has a strong advantage in characteristics modeling and prediction,
 472 but also there exists some problems, for example, most of the base learners are a black
 473 box, which means the explanation is limited(Zounemat-Kermani et al., 2021).
 474 Concurrently, the model uncertainty that is also an issue to be considered possibly arises
 475 from the setting of hyperparameters and base learner and sample number
 476 selection(Khaledian and Miller, 2020). Therefore, the model robustness is critical to
 477 modeling and predicting. Simultaneously, providing mapping uncertainty helps users
 478 better understand the quality of FEC AOD in different regions, which further promotes
 479 users' reasonable use of AOD products. To check the reliability and stability of the AOD
 480 simulated model and consider the computing efficiency simultaneously, one month's
 481 data were randomly selected (August 2010), and we conducted 100 times 10-fold cross-
 482 validation, that is, 100 times of prediction for each pixel, and the final prediction result
 483 is the average of 100 times(Rodriguez et al., 2010; Wei et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021;
 484 Ma et al., 2022). Then, we calculate model uncertainty, specifically, through the
 485 standard deviation, upper and lower limits 95% confidence interval to realize. From
 486 100 experiments, the validated R^2 still remains at 0.90, and the RMSE and MAE range
 487 in 0.058 - 0.057 and 0.0319 - 0.0317 respectively. Concurrently, the case average and
 488 uncertainty results are shown in Fig.12. The FEC AOD mainly concentrates on the
 489 range 0 - 0.6, accounting for 96.2%, and the maximum distribution is 0.1 - 0.2 (36.8%).
 490 The uncertainty mainly concentrates on the range 0.2 - 0.6, accounting for 80.0%, and
 491 the maximum distribution is 0.4 - 0.5 (38.1%). We also calculated the average
 492 uncertainty corresponding to different levels of FEC AOD (Fig.13). The uncertainty is
 493 lower than 0.5, accounting for 77.3% of the region, and the lowest uncertainty (0.3)



494 corresponds to the largest proportion of FEC AOD (0.1 - 0.2). With the AOD increasing,
 495 the uncertainty also remains on rise, that is to say, the high AOD areas often feature
 496 high uncertainty.

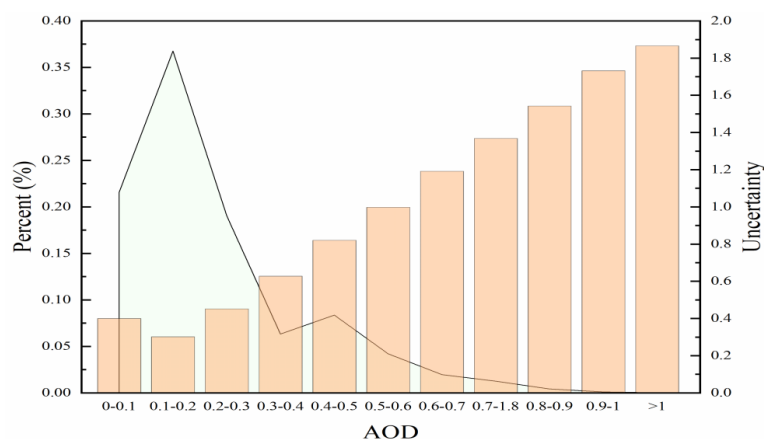
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499 Figure 12 Distribution of mean and uncertainty in the prediction model of AOD.

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502 Figure 13 The average uncertainty corresponding to different levels of AOD. The
 503 light-colored area surrounded by black lines is the AOD percentage, and the
 504 histogram is the uncertainty.

505

506 4.2 AOD as affected by environmental covariates

507 The bagging trees ensemble method performance generally is affected by the
 508 selection of environmental covariates (Khaledian and Miller, 2020). Despite our
 509 selection of 12 environmental covariates that can explain most AOD variation, there are



510 always about 13.4% - 27.5% that can not be well explained, and there are differences
511 in the interpretation of environmental covariates. Therefore, there is much space for
512 improvement in the optimization of environmental covariates. There is no doubt that
513 the meteorological parameter is the most significant contributor because of the
514 temperature, precipitation, evapotranspiration, and wind speed through direct or
515 indirect interaction to effectively influence AOD in the air(Chen et al., 2020). At the
516 same time, the effect of terrain factors can not be ignored, which affects the propagation,
517 diffusion, and settlement of AOD. The surface factors through the surface cover and
518 soil wetness affect dust generation and reduction. However, there are also some
519 questions that need further research, such as surface properties performance to explain
520 AOD in summer lower spring, and the terrain factors have a higher AOD variance
521 analytical power in autumn and winter compared with spring and summer. It is
522 preliminarily speculated that this may be related to multi-factor interaction, which
523 needs further analysis. In the following research, we consider introducing more related
524 environmental covariates to try to improve prediction accuracy. In addition, we plan to
525 further explore the internal correlation between various covariates and the relative
526 contribution of individual covariates to AOD. Of course, the high spatial resolution and
527 accuracy of environmental covariates are also necessary to take into consideration (add
528 or replace).

529 **5 Data availability**

530 This monthly advanced-performance, full-coverage, high-resolution AOD dataset
531 (FEC AOD) over northwest China is freely available via
532 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5727119>(Chen et al., 2021a).

533 **6 Conclusion**

534 In this paper, the monthly advanced-performance, full-coverage, high-resolution
535 AOD dataset, based on MAIAC AOD and multiple environmental covariates, and



utilizing a machine learning method, is produced from 2000 to 2019 in the northwest region of China. AERONET and MODIS AOD data were collected to verify the accuracy of FEC AOD. Then, the FEC AOD spatiotemporal change is analyzed and the interpretation of environmental covariates to FEC AOD is explored. The result shows that the FEC AOD effectively compensates for the deficiency and constraints of in-situ observation and satellite AOD products. Meanwhile, FEC AOD products demonstrate a reliable accuracy and ability to capture local information, even superior to MAIAC and MxD08 AOD products, which has also indicated the necessity of the high spatial resolution of AOD data. The spatial patterns are consistent among different years and greatly differ at the seasonal level. The higher the AOD is, the stronger the time variability. The AOD shows a dramatic decrease in Loess Plateau and an evident increase in the southeast Taklimakan Desert between 2000 and 2019. The farmland and construction land are at high AOD levels in comparison with other land cover types. The meteorological factors demonstrate a maximum interpretation of AOD on all set temporal scales, and the capability of the environmental covariates for the explained AOD varies with season.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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