



Large synthesis of in situ field measurements of the size distribution of mineral dust aerosols across their lifecycle

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#### Abstract

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Mineral dust aerosol is an important contributor to the Earth climate system and the correct representation of its size distribution is fundamental for shaping the current state and the evolution of climate. Despite many observational dust size data are available in the literature, using this body of information to proper guide the development and validation of climate models and remote sensing retrievals remains challenging. This is due to the diverse nature of different data, both in terms of measurement methods, diameter definitions, sampled concentrations and data treatments, leading to inherent heterogeneities. In this study we collect, evaluate, harmonize, and synthetize 58 size distribution data from the past 50 years of in situ field observations with the aim of providing a consistent dataset to the community to use for constraining the representation of dust size across its lifecycle. Four levels (LEV) of data treatment are defined, going from original data (LEVO), data interpolated and normalized on a standardized diameter path (LEV1), and data in which original particle diameters are converted into a common geometrical definition under both spherical (LEV2a) and aspherical (LEV2b) assumptions. Size distributions are classified to be representative of emission/source (SOURCE, <1 day from emission; number of datasets in this category, N=12), mid-range transport (MRT, 1-4 days of transport; N=36) and long-range transport (LRT, >4 days of transport; N=10). The harmonized dataset shows consistent features in the shape of the dust size distribution suggesting the conservation of airborne particles with time: a main mode located at ~10 µm (in volume) is observed for SOURCE dust, decreasing to ~5 µm and ~2 µm for MRT and LRT conditions, respectively, for which an additional mode becomes evident below 0.4 μm. Data for the three levels (LEV1, LEV2a, LEV2b) and the three categories (SOURCE, MRT, LRT), together with statistical metrics (mean, median, 25% and 75% percentiles, and standard deviation) are made available as: SOURCE (https://doi.org/10.57932/58dbe908-9394-4504-9099-74a3e77140e9; Formenti and Di Biagio, 2023a); MRT (https://doi.org/10.57932/31f2adf7-74fb-48e8-a3ef-059f663c47f1; Formenti and Di Biagio, 2023b); LRT (https://doi.org/10.57932/17dc781c-3e9d-4908-85b5-5c99e68e8f79; Formenti and Di Biagio, 2023c).

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### Introduction

Airborne mineral dust aerosols emitted by the aeolian erosion of bare soils contribute in a major way to the Earth's radiative budget and environmental processes, including the human health. Because of their native mineralogical composition and size distribution, they scatter, absorb, and emit solar and infrared radiation, influence the formation and brightness of liquid and ice clouds, and affect the composition of the atmosphere and the ocean, while also transporting pollutants, viruses and bacteria across the continents and the oceans (Knippertz and Stuut, 2014, and the many references therein).

As a consequence, a large effort has started in the last decade to include the representation of those properties in climate and air quality models. Indeed, the complex mineralogy of mineral dust, depending on that of the parent soils (Claquin et al., 1999; Journet et al., 2014; Gonçalves Ageitos et al., 2023a), is now accounted for in models (Scanza et al., 2015; Perlwitz et al., 2015a; 2015b; Menut et al., 2020; Kok et al., 2017; Di Biagio et al., 2020; Gómez Maqueo Anaya et al., 2023) and starts to be retrieved by remote sensing (Green et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020; Di Biagio et al., 2023).





- 46 On the other hand, representing the span and the variability in time and space of the dust aerosol size 47 distribution remains a challenge.
- 48 The particle size distribution of mineral dust extends over several order of magnitudes. Iron-rich
- 49 particles as small as 14 nm in diameter have been observed in the laboratory from deflating soils by
- 50 Baddock et al. (2013). During sandstorm in Algeria, Gomes et al. (1990) measured an increase of the
- 51 mass concentration of particles between 100 nm and 1 µm, and attributed to clays disaggregated by
- 52 sandblasting. Measurements of the size-resolved vertical dust flux by Gillette et al. (1972; 1974a;
- 53 1974b) based on microscopy analyses of samples from Texas and Nebraska showed the presence of
- 54 particles up to several microns in dust emissions.
- 55 The representation of the accumulation and coarse modes in mineral dust has long being based on the
- 56 columnar measurements by the sun/sky photometers of the Aerosol Robotic Network (AERONET)
- 57 network, which provides with normalized size distributions of mineral dust considered as chemically
- 58 homogeneous particles the 0.1—30 µm optically-equivalent diameter (Dubovik et al., 2002; 2006;
- 59 Holben et al., 2011), and which, incidentally, serve also the look-up tables of the remote sensing
- 60 retrievals of dust from space (e.g., Cuesta et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2020).
- 61 Nevertheless, in situ observations at ground-based stations and on aircraft in more recent years have
- 62 shown that particles of several tenths, sometimes hundreds, of micron are airborne at emission, and
- 63 remain so after several days of transport (Reid et al., 2003; Formenti et al., 2003; Rajot et al., 2008;
- 64 Chou et al., 2008; Kandler et al., 2007; 2009; Wagner et al., 2009; Klaver et al., 2011; Ryder et al., 2013;
- 65 2015; Rosenberg et al., 2014; Denjean et al., 2016; Wienzerl et al., 2017; van der Does et al., 2018).
- 66 These observations have been instrumental to a number of advances. Using them as ensemble dataset,
- 67 to smooth spurious atmospheric variability, they have served as a basis to a new classification of the
- 68 dust size distribution in four modes, namely fine dust (diameter ≤ 2.5 µm), coarse dust (2.5 < diameter 69  $\leq$  10  $\mu$ m), super coarse dust (10 < diameter  $\leq$  62.5  $\mu$ m) and giant dust (diameter > 62.5  $\mu$ m), extending
- 70 above the size range retrieved by AERONET (Adeyemi et al., 2023). Additionally, they have also fostered
- 71 the revision of the numerical schemes of emissions and deposition, and identified the numerous
- 72 processes and properties (non-spherical shape of particles, electric forces, atmospheric turbulence),
- 73 that could counteract the size-selective removal by gravitational settling and keep particles airborne
- 74 longer than expected (Kok, 2011; Huneeus et al., 2011; Mahowald et al., 2011; Kok et al., 2017; Di Biagio
- 75 et al, 2020; Zhao et al., 2022; Adebiyi and Kok, 2020; Adebiyi et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2021; Meng et
- 76 al., 2022; Adeyemi et al., 2023).
- 77 In support of those activities, in this paper we present a large and standardized compilation of in situ
- 78 observations of the particle size distribution of mineral dust conducted during the past 50 years of
- 79 research. This dataset extends the currently published ensembles (Meng et al., 2022; Adeyemi et al.,
- 80 2020; 2023) to provide with a state-of-the art of the current knowledge in support to the development
- 81 of models, and ground-based and satellite remote sensing. Analysis of this dataset may provide with an
- 82 integrated view of the size distribution of dust particles across their life cycle to evaluate their impacts
- 83 in the Earth/human system.

### 2. Methods

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### 2.1 Constitution of the dataset

- 86 Data presented in this paper result from in situ ground-based and aircraft observations of airborne dust
- 87 conducted during field campaigns during the past 50 years of dust research. Data from deposition
- 88 samples (e.g., van der Does et al. 2018 or Varga 2021) are not considered in this analysis.
- 89 Only datasets being published and properly referenced in the open peer-reviewed literature were
- 90 retained. We also privileged datasets for which the methodology of acquisition, calibration and data



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treatment was well described so that the data quality can be assessed. Finally, we search for data as much as possible representative of different source and transport regions of the world.

The observations contributing to the dataset are listed in **Table S1** and the spelling of the acronyms of the field campaigns is reported in **Text S1** in the supporting material. Data are geo–localized in **Figure 1**, where they are classified with respect to their time after emission.

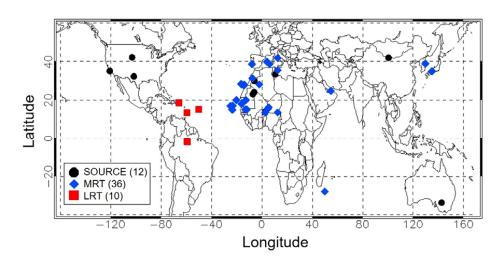


Figure 1. Geographical location of the datasets contributing to size distribution observations for the source, the mid-range transport (MRT) and the long-range transport (LRT) categories. The legend indicates the line style used in the plot. The number of data for each category is indicated in the parenthesis in the legend.

Observations obtained at the time of dust emission or within 1 day after emission are classified as SOURCE. Observations corresponding to 1 to 4 days after emission and/or geographically acquired near—source regions (for example, offshore North Africa) are classified as mid-range transport (MRT). Observations at times exceeding 4 days after emission or geographically distant from source regions (for example, observations in the Caribbean) are classified as long—range transport (LRT).

The SOURCE dataset (Fig 1, black points) consist in 12 observations in Northern Africa, North America, and Asia, and one data point in Australia. They include works by Gillette et al. (1972, 1974), Gillette (1974), Fratini et al. (2007), Rajot et al. (2008), Sow et al. (2009), Shao et al. (2011), Ryder et al. (2013a, 2013b), Rosenberg et al. (2014), Huang et al. (2019), and Khalfallah et al. (2020), a set of data recently used by Kok et al. (2017), Di Biagio et al. (2020) and Huang et al. (2021) to constrain the shape of dust size distribution at emission in model studies, and the most recent work by Gonzales-Florez et al. (2023). The MRT class (Fig. 1, blue points) is contributed by 36 datasets from field campaigns (ACE2, ACE-Asia, ADRIMED, AER-D, AMMA, DABEX, DARPO, DIAPASON, DODO1-2, FENNEC, GAMARF, GERBILS, INDOEX, NAMMA, RHaMBLe, SALTRACE, SAMUM1-2, TRACE-P, and UAE2) in Western Africa, Capo Verde, the Mediterranean basin, the eastern tropical Atlantic, Saudi Arabia, Japan, and Indian Ocean, downwind sources either over the ocean or over desert areas. Additional datasets from studies performed in the Sahara, the Atlantic Ocean, Canary Islands and Japan (Schutz, 1981; D'Almeida et al., 1987; Maring et al., 2000; Kobayashi et al., 2007) are added to the dataset. The LRT class (Fig. 1, red points) lays on 10 datasets of observations across the Atlantic Ocean and South America and is contributed by observations from Bacex, CLAIRE, Dust-Attack, Go-Amazon, PRIDE, and SALTRACE campaigns and intercontinental dust transport data from Schutz (1981).





### 2.2. Instrumentation contributing to the in situ dataset

- The natural dynamical range of the particle size and concentration of mineral dust can only be
- 128 represented by a combination of instruments based on different intrinsic particle properties such as
- density, electrical charge, shape and composition (e.g., Reid et al., 2003a; Formenti et al., 2011;
- 130 Wendisch and Brenguier, 2013; Mahowald et al., 2014, Adeyemi et al., 2023). As a consequence, the
- datasets considered in this paper are contributed by different in situ instruments, also described in **Text**
- 132 **S2** in the supporting material, namely:
- Optical particle counters (OPC) using the dependence of light scattering on particle size and providing with the particle concentration as a function of the optical equivalent diameter (e.g., Reid et al.,
- 2003b; Clarke et al., 2004; Osborne et al., 2008; Formenti et al., 2011; Ryder et al., 2013a, 2018;
- 136 Khalfallah et al., 2020).
- o Particle collection by filtration or impaction followed by individual particle characterization by transmission (TEM) and/or scanning electron microscopy (SEM) sizing particles as function of their equivalent projected–area diameter and coulter geometric sizing methods, (e.g., Gillette et al., 1972, 1974a, 1974b; Reid et al., 2003a; Khobayashi et al., 2007; Kandler et al., 2009; Chou et al., 2008).
- o Multi-stage filtration or impaction sampling coupled with gravimetric or chemical analysis providing with the mass size distribution as equivalent aerodynamic diameter (e.g., Formenti et al., 2001; Reid et al., 2003b).
- o Differential and Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (DMPS and SMPS) providing the size of particles in the submicron range as the electrical mobility equivalent diameter of a charged particle moving in a static electric field (e.g., Maring et al., 2000, 2003; Bates et al., 2002; Muller et al., 2010; Denjean et al., 2016a, 2016b).
- o Aerodynamic particle sizers (APS), measuring the equivalent aerodynamic diameter of a sphere of unit density having the same terminal velocity in an accelerated airflow as the irregularly shaped dust particles (e.g., Maring et al., 2003; Reid et al., 2003b; Struckmeier et al., 2016)
- 151 Each of those instrument types sizes particles on an equivalent diameter (optical, projected-area,
- 152 aerodynamic, mobility) that depends on their respective working principle. Converting those
- 153 operational size definitions into a homogenized one is part of the treatment applied in this work, which
- 154 follows the theory proposed and discussed in the literature and benefits of recent progresses in
- 155 characterizing/synthetizing dust properties relevant for these treatments (e.g., Hinds, 1999, De Carlo et
- 156 al., 2004; Mahowald et al., 2014; Di Biagio et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2020, 2021; Formenti et al., 2021).
- 157 Diameter definitions and formulas to convert each of them into a geometrical diameter, both under the
- assumption of spherical and aspherical dust, is provided in **Text S3** and summarized in **Table S2**.
- 159 **Text S4** presents relevant information on each dataset considered in the present analysis. This includes
- a brief description of the field operations, the experimental conditions, the type of original data
- 161 (number, volume or mass concentration size distribution, size-resolved emission fluxes), the
- instrumentation, and the data treatment applied to the measurements (averages, diameter corrections,
- etc.) in the original publication. Original data were obtained, as much as possible, through a personal
- 164 contact with the data providers or from the original publications based on a digitalization procedure
- using online tools (https://automeris.io/WebPlotDigitizer/). This is also indicated in Text S4.

## 2.3. Data treatment, harmonization, and synthesis

- The original observations were treated to provide with a harmonized dataset both in terms of the definition of particle diameter and differences in number concentrations. Four level of data treatment
- are defined as described below.

- 170 1/ Level-0 (LEVO): original data, taken at the native resolution or the resolution from digitalization
- 171 process and converted into volume distribution assuming spherical particles ( $\pi/6*D^3*dN/d\log D$ ), where



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- D is the particle diameter used in the publication and  $dN/d\log D$  is the particle number concentration.
- 173 For starting removing differences due to sampling concentration, and in absence of information on
- 174 original bin width in the majority of cases, LEVO data are normalized so that the maximum of the volume
- size distribution is equal to 1;
- 176 2/ Level-1 (LEV1): data from LEV0 are interpolated over a common size range of equi-logarithmically
- 177 spaced diameters (dlogD = 0.05) encompassing the original diameter range for each dataset and
- normalized so that the integral is equal to 1 over a common diameter range. The diameter range for
- integral normalization was set to be the largest as possible and to be covered by more than 90% of the
- 180 datasets in each category. For SOURCE data it resulted that the diameter range for common integral
- normalization is within 1.58 and 7.1  $\mu$ m, and for MRT and LRT it is between 0.71 and 8.9  $\mu$ m.
- 3/ Level-2a (LEV2a): based on LEV1, the LEV2a data treatment aims at harmonizing the size distributions
   by converting the operational original particle diameters, which depend on the physical principle of each
   instrument, into a common-defined sphere-equivalent geometric diameter. Data from LEV1 are
- treated as in the following with respect to their diameter corrections:
  - o data already provided as geometrical diameters (from coulter counters, i.e. one only dataset in our study) are left unchanged;
  - o data provided as projected-area diameters (i.e. from microscopy) are left unchanged;
  - o data provided as aerodynamic diameters (from APS or cascade impactors) are corrected assuming a shape factor ( $\chi$ ) of 1 (under spherical assumption), therefore a size–invariant conversion factor of 1.58 (see Eq. S2) is applied to the dataset assuming dust density of 2.5 g cm<sup>-3</sup> (D<sub>geom</sub>=D<sub>aerod</sub>/1.58). If original aerodynamic diameter data are already converted into geometrical diameter, we replace the original correction with the conversion factor of 1.58. Since the correction is a multiplicative factor the dlogD of the bins remain unchanged;
  - data provided as optical diameters (from OPCs) are converted into sphere-equivalent geometric diameters applying the optical to geometrical correction by assuming homogeneous spherical particles and a value of CRI of 1.53-0.003i. Data for applying the correction for the different model of OPCs considered were taken from Formenti et al. (2021) and conversion factors were recalculated at the dlogD path of 0.05 assumed in the interpolated sizes. For the GRIMM 1.108 for which calibration is not provided in Formenti et al. (2021) we used the data taken from Formenti et al. (2011) (P. Formenti, personal communication) interpolated at the 0.05 dlogD path of our diameters. In order to avoid discontinuities appearing and because of the new dlogD do not significantly differ on average from the value of 0.05 for  $D_{\text{geom}}$  calculated from D<sub>oot</sub> interpolated data, we do not update the dlogD, so that the conversion only imply a shift of the diameter. More details on the choices applied for corrections in different cases are provided in Text S4. Original datasets already converted into geometrical diameter, are left unchanged. However it is worth to note that the ensemble of data already applying an optical to geometrical correction uses a CRI varying between 1.53 and 1.55 for the real part and 0.001 and 0.004 for the imaginary part and work under the hypothesis of homogeneous spherical particles (Mie theory), therefore consistent with our treatment. Exceptions are Khalfallah et al. (2020) using a CRI of 1.43-0.00i as for quartz particles, and González-Flórez et al. (2023) using a CRI of 1.49-0.0015i and also applying calculations in ellipsoidal assumption instead of Mie theory. The only dataset not theoretically submitted to the optical to geometric correction is the one provided by Renard et al. (2018) using an OPC built with a specific geometry making the measurements very low sensitive to CRI calibration.

4/ Level-2b (LEV2b): based on LEV1, the LEV2b data treatment aims at harmonizing the size distributions by converting the operational original particle diameters into a common—defined geometrical diameter by taking into account that mineral dust is aspherical. Data from LEV1 are treated as in the following with respect to their diameter corrections:



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- o data already provided as geometrical diameters from coulter counters are left unchanged. This technique is in fact only slightly affected by shape effects, as discussed by Kobayashi et al. (2007);
  - o data provided as projected–area diameters are corrected using the size–invariant correction factor of 1.56 from Huang et al. (2021) (Dgeom=Darea/1.56) (see Eq. S1);
  - o data provided as aerodynamic diameter are corrected assuming a size–invariant conversion factor of 1.45 following Huang et al. (2021) (D<sub>geom</sub>=D<sub>aerod</sub>/1.45) (see Eq. S2);
  - data provided as optical diameters and already treated as for LEV2a data, are further corrected by applying a size–dependent aspherical to spherical ratio (ASR(D<sub>geom</sub>)) correction function, ASR(D<sub>geom</sub>)=(D<sub>geom</sub>)<sub>aspherical</sub>/(D<sub>geom</sub>)<sub>spherical</sub>, to take into account non–sphericity effects in optical to geometrical conversion. The ASR function (Fig. S1) is obtained by combining the optical to geometrical diameter conversion factors for different OPCs calculated by Formenti et al. (2021) and Huang et al. (2021) both in the assumption of spherical homogeneous particles (D<sub>geom</sub>)<sub>spherical</sub> and tri–ellipsoids dust (D<sub>geom</sub>)<sub>aspherical</sub>. More details are provided in Text S3. Original datasets derived from OPC measurements already provided as geometrical diameter but under assumption of sphericity are also corrected by applying the ASR(D<sub>geom</sub>) converting function. The only exception are González–Flórez et al. (2023), that already apply tri–axial ellipsoids calculations in their optical to geometric conversion, and Renard et al. (2018), not requiring optical to geometrical conversion.

As for LEV1, the LEV2a and LEV2b data, for which a known interpolation path is used, are normalized so that the integral of the volume size distribution is 1 over a common diameter range (1.58 – 7.1  $\mu$ m for SOURCE, 0.71 – 8.9  $\mu$ m for MRT, LRT).

For each category (SOURCE, MRT, LRT) and for each data level (LEV1, LEV2a, LEV2b), the mean, median, and standard deviation of the particle volume concentration per size class are calculated where at least 2 datasets are available in the diameter range. Additionally, the 25% and 75% percentiles are also calculated, despite keeping in mind their limited representativeness given the reduced number of samples in the datasets, especially for SOURCE and LRT classes.

## 2.4. Limitations of the proposed approach

248 Some precisions should be given when considering the LEV2a and LEV2b treatment reported in this 249 work. First, the implicit assumption when applying LEV2a and LEV2b dataset corrections is that dust is 250 the dominant aerosol species and possible effects due to internal or external mixing of dust with other 251 aerosol types are not taken into considerations (i.e., in the complex refractive index or shape factor 252 assumptions). Second, for those datasets that are obtained from the combination of different 253 techniques, namely DMPS+APS (Bates et al., 2002; Maring et al., 2000, 2003; Muller et al., 2010), 254 OPC+APS (Chen et al., 2011), SMPS + OPC (de Reus et al., 2000; Otto et al., 2007; Denjean et al., 2016a, 2016b), DMPS + APS + microscopy (Kandler et al., 2011), or multiple OPC instruments (Reid et al., 2003b; 255 256 McConnell et al., 2008; Johnson and Osborne, 2011; Ryder et al., 2013a, 2013b, 2018; Rosenberg et al., 257 2014; Weinzierl et al., 2009, 2011, 2017), the choice is that of applying artefact corrections for the 258 dominant instrument, often the one in the extended coarse mode range, and consider this correction 259 applicable to the whole diameter range. This is because when multiples instruments are used to build a 260 size distribution it is then not easy to reconstruct the steps of data analysis and merging from the original 261 work. It follows the subsequent considerations:

262 1/ the corrections applied for the aerodynamic and projected–area diameter apply a constant
263 size–invariant scaling factor to the ensemble of the size distribution data. In this approximation, if
264 the SMPS/DMPS is combined with aerodynamic or microscopy data, a correction factor between
265 1.45 and 1.58, depending on the level and the technique as detailed in the previous section, is
266 applied in place of the factor 1 (spherical assumption) or 1.19 (aspherical assumption) (see Eq. S3)
267 expected to convert the mobility diameter to geometrical diameter in LEV2a and LEV2b data. As a





- consequence, the submicron size is 20 to 58% finer than expected only due to mobility to geometrical conversion.
- 270 2/ A similar approach is used to correct datasets where OPC is the main used technique to size dust 271 particles together with the SMPS. For LEV2a data the Mie correction is applied to the full size 272 distribution, but being the size-dependent correction mostly inactive for submicron particles (i.e. 273 D<sub>geom</sub> ~ D<sub>opt</sub> for most OPCs), the approach is mostly equivalent at considering a mobility diameter 274 correction with a shape factor of 1. For LEV2b data, using OPC corrections induce a limited right 275 shifting of the size distribution compared to the one that would be obtained from mobility 276 conversion because of the magnitude of the ASR function (Fig. S1) compared to the shape factor of 277 1.19 assumed for aspherical dust.
- 3/ When datasets relying on multiple OPCs measurements, the assumption is that the "dominant" OPC that is the OPC covering the largest range and the coarsest sizes in particular, is considered. Given that optical to geometrical corrections are not relevant for submicron particles and that the magnitude of the correction typically increases for increasing sizes, this assumption is not expected to determine significant biases in the data. To mention additionally a general ambiguity of the optical to geometrical correction around the diameter of 1 µm where a plateau in the scattering calibration function for several OPCs models can be found (i.e. Formenti et al., 2021).
- 285 More details on the specific assumptions and choices done for each dataset are provided in **Text S4**.
- Further, for LEV2a and LEV2b data for which corrections are applied on the data, caution is take at the boundary of the size distribution and when the first and/or the last bin of the corrected size showed unrealistic divergence, these data are removed from the dataset.

### 3. Presentation and discussion of the dataset

Illustration of the data for different levels is provided in Figure 2. Figure 3 presents the synthesis of the LEV2b data and the comparison of SOURCE, MRT and LRT distributions. The contribution of different size classes to the total particle number, surface and volume is summarised in Table 1. Size classes have been defined according to the classification of Adeyemi et al. (2023) defining fine dust (D  $\leq$  2.5  $\mu m$ ), coarse dust (2.5 < D  $\leq$  10  $\mu m$ ), super coarse dust (10 < D  $\leq$  62.5  $\mu m$ ) and giant dust (D > 62.5  $\mu m$ ). Within the fine dust class, we further calculate the fractions of particles smaller than 0.4  $\mu m$ .

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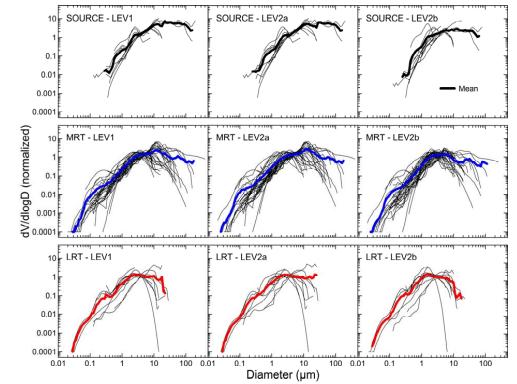


Figure 2. Data for SOURCE, MRT, and LRT dust at level 1, 2a, and 2b as described in Sect. 2.3 (labelled as LEV1, LEV2a, LEV2b, respectively). Single datasets, all normalized at the integral of 1, are plotted as black lines. The mean (thick black, blue, and red line for SOURCE, MRT, and LRT, respectively) are shown at all levels. Note that the mean is calculated only where at least 2 datasets are available in the diameter range.

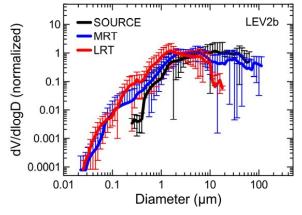


Figure 3. Comparison of normalized mean volume size distribution for the SOURCE, MRT, and LRT categories in our study reported as LEV2b data (mean ± standard deviation). For the sake of comparison, and differently from data in Fig. 2, the SOURCE, MRT, and LRT synthesis datasets reported here are normalized at the integral equal to 1 over a common diameter range corresponding to 0.35–17.8 μm. This is done to remove differences linked to different integration range for SOURCE data compared to MRT and LRT.





Dataset		D ≤ 2.5 μm (D ≤ 0.4 μm)	2.5 < D ≤ 10 μm	10 < D ≤ 62.5 μm	D > 62.5 μm
Number	SOURCE	95.4% (20.4%)	4.5%	0.1%	0.4%
	MRT	99.8% (96.1%)	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%
	LRT	99.9% (94.5%)	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Surface	SOURCE	45.0% (1.1%)	39.4%	15.5%	0.14%
	MRT	65.4% (16.8%)	30.7%	3.6%	0.29%
	LRT	84.6% (23.1%)	15.1%	0.2%	0.00%
Volume	SOURCE	10.8% (0.1%)	34.9%	52.7%	1.6%
	MRT	22.1% (1.1%)	44.3%	25.7%	8.0%
	LRT	53.4% (3.6%)	44.5%	2.0%	0.0%

**Table 1.** Percentages of number, surface and volume size distribution in the diameter ranges  $D \le 0.4~\mu m$ ,  $D \le 2.5~\mu m$ ,  $2.5 < D \le$  $10 \mu m$ ,  $10 < D ≤ 62.5 \mu m$ , and  $D > 62.5 \mu m$  for the mean of the size obtained for the SOURCE, MRT, and LRT LEV2b datasets.

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As shown in Fig. 2 and 3 the shape of the dust size distribution at emission and along transport shows main consistent features. A main mode located at  $\sim$ 10  $\mu$ m (in volume) is observed for dust at emission and close to sources. The main dust mode decreases to  $^{5}$   $\mu$ m and  $^{2}$   $\mu$ m for MRT and LRT conditions, respectively. Below 0.4 µm the dust volume size shows an additional mode, particularly visible for MRT and LRT. As a matter of fact, the sparse datasets measuring very fine particles at the SOURCE show that particles with diameters below 0.4 µm (however measured only down to 0.2 µm, as shown in Fig. 2) represent approximately 20% of the total particles' number, increasing to more than 90% in MRT and LRT. Instruments such as SMPS and DMPS used in MRT and LRT studies measure particles as small as 0.02 µm in diameter. Previous single-particle compositional observations showing that the particle number concentration in the size range between 0.1 and 0.4 µm is largely contributed by aluminosilicate dust particles at emission, while internal or external mixing with aerosols other than dust gains importance with time and altitude of transport (Chou et al., 2008; Kandler et al., 2007, 2009; Weinzierl et al., 2009; 2017; Klaver et al., 2011; Denjean et al., 2016a; 2016b).

The size distribution of dust particles between 0.4 and 10 µm is rather consistent and invariant along the dust cycle. This is true in particular when restricting to the 2.5 to 10 µm size range when differences are minimal and contribution to total volume is in between 34.9% and 44.5%. Below that range, which is between 0.4 and 2.5 μm, the contribution of particles for LRT is significantly higher (53.4% in volume) than for SOURCE (10.8%) and MRT (22.1%), likely as, because of the normalization, it compensates the decrease of particles larger than 10 µm.

334 The intensity of the particle volume above 10  $\mu m$  remains unchanged almost up to 100  $\mu m$  for both the 335 SOURCE and the MRT conditions, which also present similar particle volume. This mode decreases very 336 strongly for LRT conditions, when it represents only 2% of the total volume, compared to almost 55% 337 and 34% for SOURCE and MRT, respectively.

The dataset presented in this work, synthetizing available in situ observations, allows to evaluate the natural variability of dust size distribution along its lifecycle. To be emphasized, however, that while consistent differences in the mean size distribution curves are obtained going from SOURCE to LRT, as shown in Fig. 3, the inherent range of variability for each category, represented by the standard deviation of the data, is also non-negligible and reflects the large range of documented size distributions, together with the limited statistics available. This is particularly true for both super-coarse and giant dust at MRT and LRT. Lower variability is identified below 0.4 µm, but because of the restricted number of dataset available for MRT and LRT conditions, while we identify an absence of data for SOURCE dust below this size range.





### 4. Conclusive remark

- 348 In this paper we present the most possible comprehensive synthesis of in situ observations of the
- 349 particle size distribution of atmospheric dust aerosols. This compilation reflects the current state-of-
- 350 the-art and represents a standardized and synthetic benchmark to constrain and evaluate models and
- 351 satellite retrievals. We highlight differences and commonalities of the dust volume distribution as a
- 352 function of time in the atmosphere, both in terms of main identified modes and relative contribution of
- dust in different size ranges. A large statistics of data is available and permit to retrieve robust
- information between 0.4 and 10  $\mu m$  where most of observations exist, while above and below this size
- range, observations are rare. Dust particles below 0.4  $\mu m$  in diameter are seldom measured close to
- 356 source regions, but are found in observations at mid- and long-range transport conditions. Their
- 357 presence at emission, their size-segregated composition and state of mixing should be better
- 358 documented and understood. The dynamics of the coarse mode above 10 µm, its invariance from
- source to mid-range transport, and decline afterwards is reported, and can challenge models.
- 360 We acknowledge the evidence that the compilation of a reference dataset is, almost by definition, a
- 361 subjective and incomplete exercise which must revised continuously with the emergence of new
- datasets, new field campaigns, and the improvement of sampling techniques. We henceforth encourage
- 363 colleagues to provide us with new or revised datasets to feed and update the dataset in the future.

### 364 Data availability

- 365 The LEV1, LEV2a and LEV2b datasets discussed in this paper are available on the EaSy Data, the Earth
- 366 System Data repository (https://www.easydata.earth/#/public/home, last access: 14 November 2023)
- 367 maintained by the National French DATA TERRA research Infrastructure. Their respective DOIs are
- 368 summarized here below:
- 369 SOURCE LEV1.dat, SOURCE LEV2a.dat, SOURCE LEV2b.dat: https://doi.org/10.57932/58dbe908-9394-4504-
- 370 9099-74a3e77140e9 (Formenti and Di Biagio, 2023a);
- 371 MRT\_LEV1.dat, MRT\_LEV2a.dat, MRT\_LEV2b.dat: https://doi.org/10.57932/31f2adf7-74fb-48e8-a3ef-
- 372 <u>059f663c47f1</u> (Formenti and Di Biagio, 2023b);
- 373 LRT LEV1.dat, LRT LEV2a.dat, LRT LEV2b.dat: https://doi.org/10.57932/17dc781c-3e9d-4908-85b5-
- 374 5c99e68e8f79 (Formenti and Di Biagio, 2023c).
- Figures of the individual datasets (including LEVO) are provided upon request.
- 376 Author contributions. PF and CDB designed the research, compiled the dataset and analysed it, and
- 377 wrote the manuscript.
- 378 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
- 379 **Special issue statement.** The paper is not associated with a special issue.

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