

Scaling laws in supply limited Aeolian sand transport

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Key Points:

- We introduce a particle-based model in investigating Aeolian (wind-blown) sand transport when the sand cover on the soil is sparse
- The scaling of the Aeolian transport rate with the wind shear velocity has a dependency on the sand cover thickness
- There is an anomaly in the functional dependence of the transport rate on the sand cover thickness, depending on the rigid ground roughness

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Abstract

Previous studies of wind-blown sand have considered either fully erodible or non-erodible soils, but the transport over sparsely sand-covered soils is still poorly understood. The quantitative modeling of this transport is important for the parametrization of Aeolian processes under limited sediment supply in climate models. Here we show, by means of particle-based numerical simulations, that the Aeolian sand transport rate Q scales with the wind shear velocity u_* as $Q \propto [1 + b \cdot (u_*/u_{*t} - 1)] \cdot \rho_f \cdot (u_*^2 - u_{*t}^2)$, where u_{*t} is the minimal threshold u_* for sustained transport, ρ_f is air density, and b is an empirical parameter which scales, approximately, with the inverse of the mobile sand cover thickness. Therefore, the scaling of Q with u_* increases from quadratic to cubic as soil conditions change from fully erodible to rigid. Furthermore, this scaling is affected by the roughness of the non-erodible ground, thus providing constraints for modeling supply limited soils.

Plain Language Summary

The transport of sand by wind shapes the Earth's surface and constitutes one major factor for the emission of dust aerosols. The accurate modeling of wind-blown sand transport is thus important to achieve reliable climate simulations and to make predictions about the propagation of desertification. Previous models of wind-blown sand were designed to compute sand transport rates over a thick sand layer, such as the surface of large, active sand dunes. However, natural soils encompass a broad range of limited sand supply conditions, such as crusted or bare soils. It has been a long-standing open question how wind-blown sand transport rates respond to wind velocity when the bare ground is covered by a thin layer of sand. Here we calculate the trajectories of wind-blown sand grains and find that sand transport rates increase faster with wind speed under supply limited conditions than over sand dunes. The reason for this behavior is elucidated in our simulations: The hopping sand grains fly higher the less sand is covering the hard surface. We obtain mathematical expressions for the sand transport rates as a function of the thickness of sand covering the bare soil, which will be important to improve climate models.

1 Introduction

Aeolian (wind-blown) sand transport produces ripples and dunes and plays a vital role in shaping the Earth's surface. This transport occurs mainly through sand grains hopping along the surface (saltation), thereby transferring to the ground momentum that may set new particles into hopping, rolling or sliding motion (Bagnold, 1941; Shao, 2008; Kok et al., 2012). Furthermore, the particle splash generated by saltating grains provides one main mechanism of dust aerosol emission (Gillette, 1981; Shao et al., 1993), which has major feedbacks with the biosphere, the hydrological cycle and various other components of the Earth system (Mahowald et al., 2014; Schepanski, 2018). The accurate modeling of wind-blown sand is, thus, important for the development of reliable geomorphodynamic, climate and Earth system models (Shao, 2008).

Indeed, previous models of Aeolian sediment transport focused mainly on the transport over either fully erodible beds, such as migrating dunes and ripples (Anderson & Haff, 1988; Shao & Li, 1999; Sauermann et al., 2001; Almeida et al., 2008; Kok & Renno, 2009; Lämmel et al., 2012; Pähtz et al., 2014; Comola et al., 2019), or rigid, fully non-erodible beds, such as consolidated dunes and bare soils (Ho et al., 2011). These studies have shown that wind-blown sand transport rates follow either a quadratic or a cubic scaling with the wind shear velocity u_* — which is proportional to the mean flow velocity gradient in turbulent boundary layer flow — depending upon the bed being fully erodible or fully non-erodible, respectively (Creyssels et al., 2009; Ho et al., 2011). Moreover, a quartic scaling of the sand flux with u_* , characterizing a collisional or intense transport regime where the saltation layer is connected to the granular bed through an intermediate granular layer of intense mid-air

62 collisions, has been reported for fully erodible bed conditions when u_* exceeds about $4u_{*t}$,
 63 where u_{*t} stands for the minimal threshold for sustained sand transport (Pächt & Durán,
 64 2020; Ralaiarisoa et al., 2020). However, natural Aeolian systems encompass a broad range
 65 of soil types subjected to limited sediment supply conditions, including bare and crusted soils
 66 sparsely covered with mobile sediments (Shao, 2008; Amir et al., 2014). The characteristics
 67 of Aeolian sand transport over such types of soil, i.e., when the thickness of the mobile sand
 68 layer on the rigid ground is comparable to a few grain diameters, are poorly understood.

69 The quantitative understanding of these characteristics is important for various fields, in
 70 particular to improving wind-blown sand and dust schemes in climate models. Once in the
 71 atmospheric circulation, dust substantially affects the planet’s climate and biosphere, at-
 72 mospheric geochemistry, the hydrological cycle, and various other components of the Earth
 73 system, yet estimates of vertical dust flux and atmospheric dust budget are counted amongst
 74 the largest uncertainty sources in climate simulations (Shao, 2008; Kok et al., 2012; Ma-
 75 howald et al., 2014; Schepanski, 2018). Since dust is rarely entrained directly by wind but is,
 76 instead, emitted mainly by the impacts of wind-blown sand grains onto the ground (Shao et
 77 al., 1993), an accurate model for the Aeolian sand transport rates over various types of soil,
 78 from fully erodible to fully non-erodible, is required. However, it is difficult to derive such a
 79 model from analytical computations alone, given the broad range of natural soil erodibility
 80 conditions associated with sparsely covered bare, gravel and crusted soils (Shao, 2008; Amir
 81 et al., 2014; Macpherson et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011).

82 Therefore, here we perform the direct computation of grain trajectories during Aeolian sand
 83 transport by means of particle-based simulations, or Discrete-Element-Method (DEM). This
 84 type of simulation has been applied previously to investigate Aeolian transport over fully
 85 erodible beds (Carneiro et al., 2011; Durán et al., 2012; Comola et al., 2019), thereby
 86 introducing a helpful means to elucidate processes that are difficult to assess in wind tunnel
 87 or field experiments, such as the mechanisms of sediment transport very close to the bed.
 88 Indeed, using DEM simulations, it is possible to resolve these mechanisms, as well as their
 89 impact on the resulting sand flux, without any need for assumptions about the splash
 90 process, the rebound dynamics or the modification of the wind profile in the transport
 91 layer – which are rather directly computed. As we discuss in the subsequent sections, our
 92 DEM simulations show that the scaling of the sand flux with u_* displays considerable and yet
 93 unreported dependence on the sediment supply, which is characterized in our model through
 94 the thickness of the mobile sediment layer covering the non-erodible surface underneath.

95 2 Numerical experiments

96 The Discrete-Element-Method consists of solving the Newton’s equations of motion for all
 97 particles in the system under consideration of the main forces acting on them (Cundall &
 98 Strack, 1979). In contrast to other types of numerical models of soil erosion (Anderson
 99 & Haff, 1988; Almeida et al., 2008; Kok & Renno, 2009), DEM models of Aeolian sand
 100 transport do not rely, thus, on a splash function to represent the ejection of particles from
 101 the soil owing to grain-bed collisions. Rather, the lift-off velocities of the rebound and ejected
 102 particles are obtained by directly solving their equations of motion under consideration of
 103 particle-particle interactions (Lämmel et al., 2017; Yin et al., 2021).

104 In this section we explain the main features of our simulations, while the details about
 105 the DEM method and the integration of the equations of motion are reviewed in the
 106 Supplemental Material. We start our simulations by pouring sand-sized spherical parti-
 107 cles of diameter d uniformly distributed in the range $160 \leq d/\mu\text{m} \leq 240$ onto a flat
 108 horizontal rigid bed at the bottom of the simulation domain — which has dimensions
 109 $(L_x \times L_y \times L_z)/d_m = (200 \times 8 \times 1000)$, with $d_m = 200 \mu\text{m}$ denoting the mean grain size
 110 (Fig. 1). In doing so, we generate a thin bed of N_p randomly poured particles on the ground,
 111 where the bed thickness $h_{\text{mob},0}$ is determined by N_p . For instance, $N_p = 30,000$ for the
 112 largest bed thickness investigated here, i.e., $h_{\text{mob},0} \approx 15 d_m$.

113 Furthermore, we adopt periodic boundary conditions in the along-wind (x) and cross-wind
 114 (y) directions and impose a reflective horizontal wall at the top of the simulation domain,
 115 to avoid that particles escape through crossing the upper boundary at $z = L_z$. However,
 116 we find that removing this reflective wall would allow only few particles for escaping, thus
 117 leading to a negligible change in the results of our simulations.

118 Once the particles come to rest and the bed has been formed, a few particles are injected
 119 into the simulation domain to impact on the ground; thus producing a splash and ejecting
 120 grains into air. The Aeolian drag force on the particles is computed with the expression,

$$121 \quad \mathbf{F}_i^d = -\frac{\pi d^2}{8} \rho_f C_d v_r \mathbf{v}_r, \quad (1)$$

122 where $\rho_f = 1.225 \text{ kg/m}^3$ is the air density, $\mathbf{v}_r = \mathbf{v}_p - \mathbf{u}$, with \mathbf{v}_p and \mathbf{u} denoting the
 123 velocities of the particle and the fluid, respectively. Furthermore, $v_r = |\mathbf{v}_r|$, and C_d is the
 124 drag coefficient, which is computed using the following model (Cheng, 1997),

$$125 \quad C_d = \left[\left(\frac{32}{\text{Re}} \right)^{2/3} + 1 \right]^{3/2}, \quad (2)$$

126 where the Reynolds number $\text{Re} = \rho_f v_r d_m / \mu$, with $\mu = 1.8702 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ denoting the
 127 dynamic viscosity of the air. The wind velocity profile is constant along x and y throughout
 128 the simulations, while the initial vertical profile of the horizontal (downstream) wind velocity,
 129 $u_x(z)$, is logarithmic, i.e.,

$$130 \quad u_x(z) = \frac{u_*}{\kappa} \ln \frac{z - h_0 + z_0}{z_0} \quad (3)$$

131 where u_* is the wind shear velocity, $\kappa = 0.4$ the von Kármán constant, $z_0 \approx d_m/30$ is
 132 the roughness of the quiescent bed, and h_0 is the bed height, which is set as the uppermost
 133 height within the granular surface where the particles move with velocity smaller than $0.1 u_*$
 134 (Carneiro et al., 2011). However, the acceleration of the particles owing to the action of
 135 the drag force extracts momentum from the air (Owen, 1964; Anderson & Haff, 1988),
 136 thus leading to a modification of the wind velocity profile. The modified velocity profile is
 137 obtained by numerical integration of (Carneiro et al., 2011)

$$138 \quad \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial z} = \frac{u_{\tau,x}(z)}{\kappa z}; \quad u_{\tau,x}(z) = u_* \left[1 - \frac{\tau_p(z)}{\rho_f u_*^2} \right]^{1/2}, \quad (4)$$

139 where $\tau_p(z)$ is the grain-borne shear stress and is given by

$$140 \quad \tau_p(z) \approx \sum_{i:z_j > z} \frac{F_{i,x}^d}{A}, \quad (5)$$

141 with $F_{i,x}^d$ denoting the horizontal component of the drag force on particle i and $A = L_x \cdot L_y$
 142 represents the cross section area parallel to the ground.

143 Furthermore, in order to obtain a rough rigid bed underneath the mobile sand cover, we
 144 deposit the mobile particles on top of a sheet of “frozen” immobile particles as displayed in
 145 Fig. 1 (see Suppl. Mat. for the set of DEM particle-particle contact force equations, including
 146 the presence of the frozen particles). In doing so, the rigid bed provides a model for a fully
 147 consolidated dune surface or bare granular surface, where the constituent immobile particles
 148 have the same diameter as the mobile grain size.

149 **3 Results and discussion**

150 Once transport begins, some of the grains composing the initial bed layer are entrained
 151 into flow, so that the bed layer thickness — which has initial value $h_{\text{mob},0}$ at time $t = 0$ —

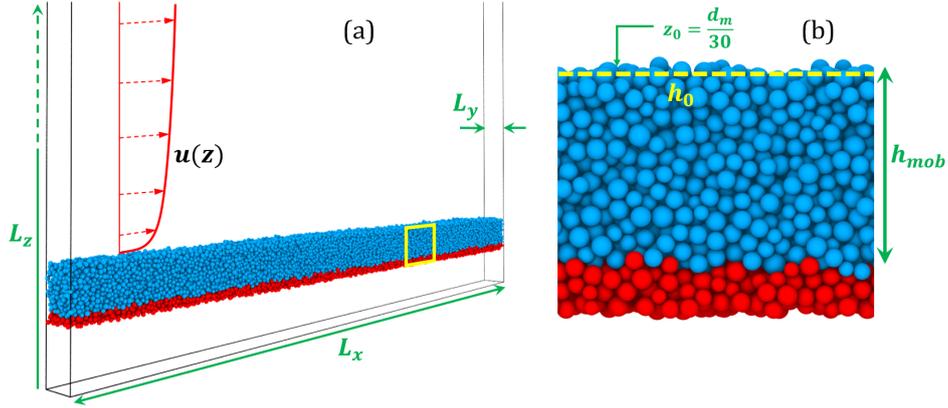


Figure 1: (a) Snapshot of the numerical experiment at $t = 0$, indicating the dimensions of the simulation domain and the undisturbed wind profile. (b) Side-view of an excerpt of the sediment bed, displaying a layer of mobile particles (blue) of thickness $h_{\text{mob},0}$ on top of the immobile particles constituting the rough ground.

152 decreases over time until transport eventually achieves steady state. At steady state, the bed
 153 layer thickness adopts then a slightly smaller value, denoted here $h_{\text{mob},s}$. The dependence
 154 of $h_{\text{mob},s}$ on $h_{\text{mob},0}$ is elucidated in Section 5 of the Supplemental Material.

155 We note that, in the type of numerical simulations considered in the present work, periodic
 156 boundary conditions are applied (see Section 2), so that the number of particles in the
 157 system is constant over time (Carneiro et al., 2011; Durán et al., 2012; Pärtz & Durán,
 158 2020). Indeed, the domain of our simulations may be interpreted as a small stretch of soil
 159 over which the sediment flux is in the steady state. Due to fluctuations associated with
 160 the transport dynamics, the difference between the particle mass outflux from and influx
 161 into this soil stretch varies over time, but on average, the total number of particles within
 162 the associated volume is constant over time. Here we use the initial mobile layer thickness
 163 $h_{\text{mob},0}$ to characterize the sediment supply in the model and focus on the role of this sediment
 164 supply for the scaling of the sediment flux with u_* . However, using the equations provided
 165 in Section 5 of the Supplemental Material, and in view of the considerations above, the
 166 results discussed next may be expressed in terms of $h_{\text{mob},s}$ too.

167 We begin our discussion by considering the largest initial mobile sediment layer thickness,
 168 $h_{\text{mob},0} = 15 d_m$. We find that, by starting with this value of $h_{\text{mob},0}$, transport conditions
 169 at steady state ($h_{\text{mob},s} \approx 14 d_m$; see Suppl. Mat.) correspond to the fully erodible bed
 170 scenario reported in previous studies. Specifically, our simulations reproduce quantitatively
 171 the value of the height-integrated, non-suspended mass flux of transported particles, Q , as
 172 a function of u_* , and the observation that, for moderate wind conditions ($u_*/u_{*t} \lesssim 4$),
 173 Q is approximately proportional to $\tau - \tau_t$, with $\tau = \rho_f u_*^2$ denoting the mean shear stress
 174 of the turbulent wind flow over the surface, and $\tau_t = \rho_f u_{*t}^2$ corresponding to the minimal
 175 threshold value of τ for sand transport (Fig. 2). Furthermore, our numerical predictions
 176 match the experimental observations of the nearly exponential decay of the vertical particle
 177 concentration profile above the ground and the minimal threshold wind shear velocity $u_{*t} \approx$
 178 0.165 m/s predicted for the mean particle size in our simulations (see Suppl. Mat., Fig. S1).

179 However, as we decrease the initial bed layer thickness $h_{\text{mob},0}$ substantially, we observe
 180 a change in the scaling of the steady-state sediment flux with u_* . More precisely, our

181 simulation results follow, approximately, the expression,

$$182 \quad Q = \left\{ a \cdot \left[1 + b \cdot \left(\frac{u_*}{u_{*t}} - 1 \right) \right] \right\} \cdot [\tau - \tau_t], \quad (6)$$

183 where $a \approx 0.1 \text{ s}$, and b can be approximately described as

$$184 \quad b \approx k_0 \left(\frac{h_{\text{mob},0}}{d_m} - c_0 \right)^{-1} \quad (7)$$

185 with $k_0 \approx 0.25$ and $c_0 \approx 0.15$ denoting empirical parameters.

186 Wind tunnel experiments (Ho et al., 2011) revealed a cubic scaling of Q with u_* on fully
 187 rigid beds. Here, we find that sediment transport rates over a soil that is not fully rigid but
 188 contains, instead, a thin layer of mobile sediment, further depends on this layer's thickness
 189 according to Eqs. (6) and (7). Specifically, our simulations reveal a fast decrease of the
 190 coefficient b in Eq. (7) with the bed layer thickness, such that transport conditions consistent
 191 with fully erodible bed scenarios are observed from values of this thickness comparable to
 192 the particle diameter. More precisely, as shown in Fig. 2, the quadratic scaling of Q with
 193 u_* characteristic of transport over dense sand beds is recovered already at very low values
 194 of the bed layer thickness in the range between $1 - 2 d_m$.

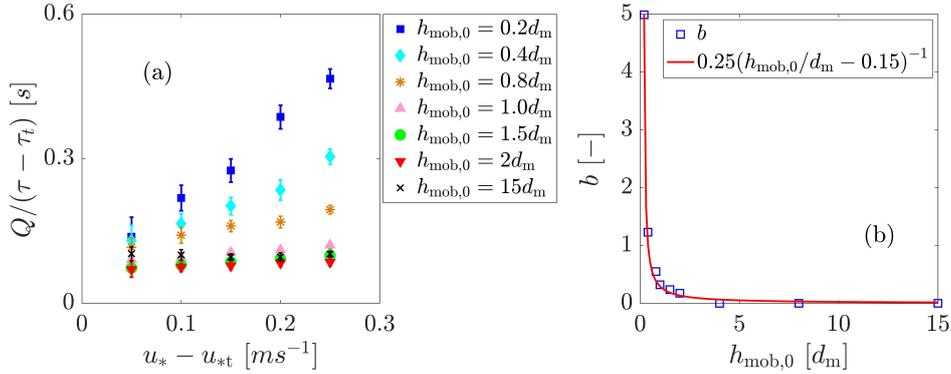


Figure 2: (a) Sand flux Q rescaled with the excess shear stress, $\tau - \tau_t$, plotted as a function of $(u_* - u_{*t})$ for different values of $h_{\text{mob},0}$. (b) The symbols denote the parameter b in Eq. (6), as obtained from the best fit to the data in (a), while the continuous line denotes the best fit using Eq. (7). Error bars denote the standard deviation from averaging over 5 s within the steady state.

195 To shed light on the microscopic origin of Eq. (6), we note that momentum conservation
 196 yields $Q = [\ell_{\text{hop}}/(u_{0\downarrow} - u_{0\uparrow})] \cdot [\tau - \tau_t]$ (Bagnold, 1941; Sørensen, 2004; Ho et al., 2011),
 197 where ℓ_{hop} denotes the mean hop length of the saltating particles, while $u_{0\downarrow}$ and $u_{0\uparrow}$ are
 198 their mean horizontal impact and lift-off velocities, respectively. Furthermore, ℓ_{hop} and
 199 $u_{0\downarrow} - u_{0\uparrow}$ (computed as explained in Section 4 of the Suppl. Mat.) are related to the mean
 200 horizontal grain velocity $u_0 = (u_{0\downarrow} + u_{0\uparrow})/2$ (or slip velocity) through the approximate
 201 scaling expressions $\ell_{\text{hop}} \propto u_0^2/g$ and $u_{0\downarrow} - u_{0\uparrow} \propto u_0$ (Ho et al., 2011), which leads to

$$202 \quad Q \approx C_u \cdot \frac{u_0}{g} \cdot [\tau - \tau_t] \quad (8)$$

203 where C_u is an empirical parameter. An increase in u_* over a fully erodible bed leads to
 204 an enhancement of the particle concentration in the transport layer, without significantly
 205 affecting u_0 (Ho et al., 2011). This independence between u_0 and u_* underlies the quadratic

206 scaling of the sand flux Q with u_* by virtue of Eq. (8). By contrast, the transport layer over
 207 the hard surface is, for a given saltation flux, much thicker than over an erodible bed because
 208 of the non-saturated feedback which keeps a larger wind velocity in the saltation layer (Ho
 209 et al., 2011). The weak coupling between the particles and the wind in the transport layer
 210 over a fully non-erodible surface results in a linear scaling of u_0 with u_* , thus yielding a
 211 cubic scaling of Q with u_* in view of Eq. (8) (Ho et al., 2011).

212 Here we find that, in the presence of a thin layer of mobile sand on the hard ground, the
 213 scaling of the grain slip velocity u_0 with the wind shear velocity u_* further depends on the
 214 mobile sand layer thickness, as elucidated through Fig. 3c. We find that

$$215 \quad C_u \cdot \frac{u_0}{g} \approx a \cdot \left[1 + b \cdot \left(\frac{u_*}{u_{*t}} - 1 \right) \right] \quad (9)$$

216 with $C_u \approx 1.8$, where the RHS of Eq. (9) is equal to the term inside the curly braces in
 217 Eq. (6), i.e., including the values of the parameters a and b estimated from Fig. 2. Therefore,
 218 Eqs. (8) and (9) elucidate the microscopic origin of the supply-dependent scaling of the sand
 219 flux with u_* obtained in our simulations, i.e., Eq. (6). We find that the grain slip velocity is
 220 nearly independent of u_* when steady-state transport conditions correspond to a bed layer
 221 thickness larger than about $1 - 2 d_m$.

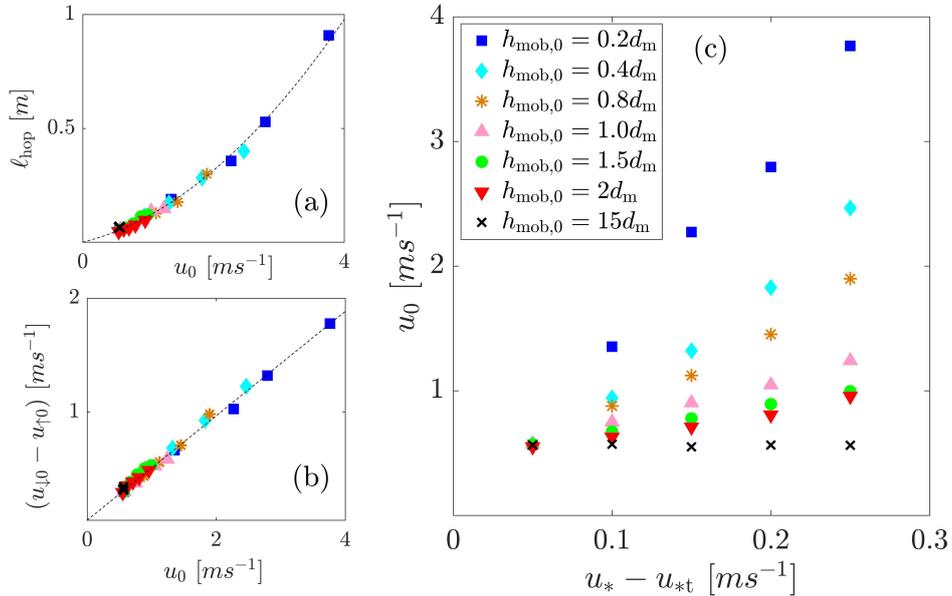


Figure 3: (a) Mean hop length, ℓ_{hop} , and (b) difference between the mean grain horizontal velocities at impact and lift-off, $u_{0\downarrow} - u_{0\uparrow}$, as a function of the slip velocity u_0 . The dashed lines in (a) and (b) denote the expressions $\ell_{\text{hop}} \approx 0.065 u_0^2$ and $u_{0\downarrow} - u_{0\uparrow} \approx 0.43 u_0$, respectively, obtained from the best fits to the simulation data. In (c), the slip velocity is shown as a function of $u_* - u_{*t}$ for different values of $h_{\text{mob},0}$. The legend in (c) applies as well to both (a) and (b).

222 To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first one to estimate sediment transport rates
 223 from direct numerical simulations of particle trajectories under intermediate soil erodibility
 224 conditions between fully erodible and fully non-erodible. We find that our results remain
 225 approximately valid when the rigid bed underneath the mobile sediment layer is a smooth
 226 flat surface. However, the immobile roughness elements on the hard ground have a crucial
 227 effect on the value of the Aeolian sand flux, which we discuss next.

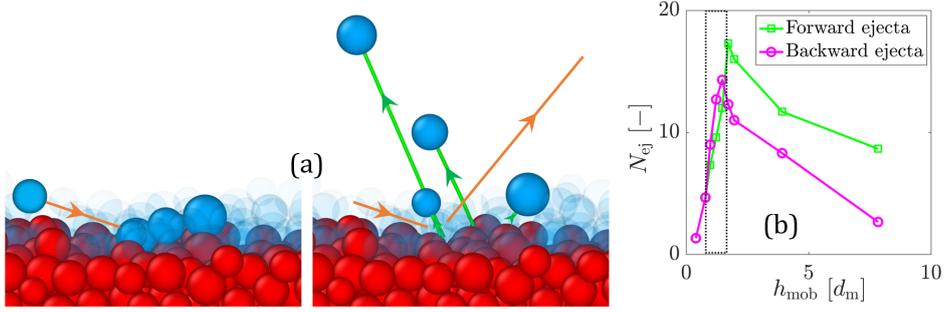


Figure 4: By means of granular splash numerical experiments with impact angles and velocities characteristic of wind-blown sand transport (a), we find that most ejected grains have negative horizontal lift-off velocity, when the value of the bed layer thickness is $\lesssim 2 d_m$, and positive otherwise (b). The snapshots correspond to a simulation using a bed layer thickness $\approx 2 d_m$. Most of the mobile (blue) particles lying on the rigid grains (red) have been rendered transparent for better visualization of the splashed particles.

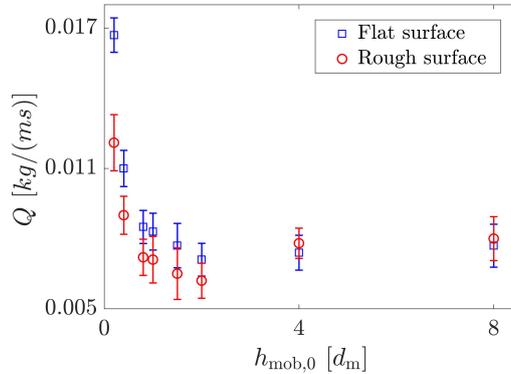


Figure 5: Sand flux Q as a function of $h_{mob,0}$, obtained with $u_* = 0.30$ m/s. We considered the non-erodible surface consisting of a smooth flat ground (blue) and immobile particles (red).

228 In the regime where saltating particles collide onto a sand bed of thickness $\lesssim 2 d_m$, and
 229 in the presence of roughness elements on the hard ground underneath, sand particles are
 230 ejected through splash events mainly *backwards*, i.e., the majority of ejecta displays nega-
 231 tive horizontal lift-off velocity component. This result can be understood by noting that,
 232 as downwind hopping grains impact obliquely upon the thin sand layer covering the rough
 233 ground, they mobilize soil grains forward, which, however, collide with the roughness el-
 234 ements located in their front. Upon such collisions, the trajectories of the bed particles
 235 mobilized by grain-bed impacts are reflected backwards, as elucidated through our granular
 236 splash experiments (Fig. 4, where N_{ej} is the number of ejected grains per impact), thus
 237 yielding a negative mean horizontal lift-off velocity. These dynamics lead to an anomaly in
 238 the dependence of the steady-state sand flux Q on the bed layer thickness, with the emer-
 239 gence of a minimum flux value around $h_{mob,0} \approx 2 d_m$ (or $h_{mob,s} \approx 1.8 d_m$), which is not
 240 observed when the ground is a smooth flat surface (Fig. 5). Furthermore the value of the
 241 bed layer thickness associated with the minimum flux is independent of u_* , thus indicating
 242 that the anomaly reported here is purely a signature of the soil erodibility conditions and
 243 is not affected by the flow properties.

244 We note that, notwithstanding the strong decrease of N_{ej} with the bed layer thickness in
 245 the fully erodible bed regime (as can be seen in Fig. 4b), the steady-state sand flux Q is
 246 only weakly affected by the amount of mobile grains on the ground when this thickness is
 247 larger than about $1 - 2 d_m$, as can be seen from Fig. 1. Therefore, our simulation results
 248 are providing evidence in support of the hypothesis that the magnitude of Q is controlled
 249 by the rebound dynamics of sand grains during transport — as assumed, for instance, in a
 250 recent purely rebound-based model (Pächtz et al., 2021) — rather than by the splash process.
 251 Our results further help to elucidate the observation that cohesion, which affects mainly the
 252 splash process by enhancing particle-particle attractive interaction forces within the bed, has
 253 little impact on the steady-state sediment mass flux and the threshold for Aeolian transport
 254 cessation, as these are mainly controlled by rebound dynamics (Comola et al., 2019).

255 Our model reproduces the different scaling laws of the Aeolian sand flux with the wind shear
 256 velocity observed experimentally, both over fully erodible and rigid beds (Figs. 2 and S1).
 257 However, various ingredients that are essential to improve the quantitative assessment of
 258 Aeolian sand flux, such as complex particle geometric shapes and aerodynamic entrainment
 259 (Li et al., 2020), should be incorporated in future work. Furthermore, we have employed
 260 sand-sized non-erodible roughness elements, but natural soils encompass much broader particle
 261 size distributions, including the presence of gravels, pebbles and rocks on the ground.
 262 Based on the results of our simulations, we expect that such coarser non-erodible elements
 263 have even larger impacts on the scaling laws of Aeolian sand transport rates.

264 Previous work developed continuum models for Aeolian flux that explicitly account for the ef-
 265 fect of low sediment supply and spatio-temporal variations in bed surface properties, includ-
 266 ing moisture, shells, non-erodible elements and vegetation (De Vries et al., 2014; Hoonhout &
 267 Vries, 2016). Furthermore, the particle-based simulations adopted in the present work pro-
 268 vide a means to improve our understanding of the (microscopic) particle-scale mechanisms
 269 controlling the response of Aeolian transport processes to different types of soil and particle-
 270 bed interactions. Future research combining insights from both types of model could thus
 271 help to achieve improved numerical simulations of Aeolian soil morphodynamic processes at
 272 different scales (Werner, 1995; Kroy et al., 2002; Durán et al., 2010), by incorporating the
 273 effect of sediment supply on sediment flux and erosion/deposition rates.

274 4 Conclusions

275 In conclusion, we have presented the first numerical model for wind-blown sand flux under
 276 supply limited conditions, by characterizing this flux as a function of the thickness of the
 277 mobile sediment layer available for transport on the ground. Specifically, we showed that the
 278 Aeolian sand flux scales with the excess shear stress multiplied by a coefficient that decreases
 279 with the mobile layer thickness covering the non-erodible ground, thereby yielding a model
 280 for Aeolian transport rates under intermediate bed erodibility conditions between the fully
 281 erodible and fully non-erodible scenarios. Our model elucidates how the scaling of the
 282 Aeolian sand flux Q with the wind shear velocity u_* changes from quadratic to cubic as bed
 283 conditions change from fully erodible to fully non-erodible, respectively (Ho et al., 2011).

284 We also found that the roughness elements on the rigid bed affect the sediment flux under low
 285 supply conditions by causing an anomaly in the behavior of Q with the bed layer thickness,
 286 with the occurrence of a minimum which is independent on the flow conditions. These
 287 findings will have an implication for the representation of non-erodible elements associated
 288 with different types of soil in future experimental and theoretical studies.

289 Acknowledgments

290 All data included in this work are generated from our numerical model and is available online
 291 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.17942519>). The data for validation with experiments

292 is available from (Creyssels et al., 2009). We thank the German Research Foundation (DFG)
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