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Improving PM$_{2.5}$ forecast over China by the joint adjustment of

initial conditions and source emissions with an ensemble Kalman

filter

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Abstract. In an attempt to improve the forecasting of atmospheric aerosols, the

ensemble square root filter algorithm was extended to simultaneously optimize the

chemical initial conditions and emission input. The forecast model, which was

expanded by combining the Weather Research and Forecasting with Chemistry

(WRF-Chem) model and a forecast model of emission scaling factors, generated both

chemical concentration fields and emission scaling factors. The forecast model of

emission scaling factors was developed by associating the time smoothing operator

with WRF-Chem forecast chemical concentrations. Hourly surface fine particulate

matter (PM$_{2.5}$) observations were assimilated over China from 5 to 16 October 2014.

A series of 48-h forecasts were then carried out with the optimized initial conditions

and emissions on each day at 0000 UTC and a control experiment was performed

without data assimilation. The results showed that the forecasts with the optimized

initial conditions and emissions typically outperformed those from the control

experiment. In the Yangtze River delta and the Pearl River delta regions, large

reduction of the Root Mean Square Errors (RMSEs) was obtained for almost the

entire 48-h forecast range attributed to assimilation. Especially, the relative reduction

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24 in RMSE due to assimilation was about 40% at nighttime when WRF-Chem

25 performed comparatively worse. In the Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei region, relatively

26 smaller improvements were achieved in the first 24-h forecast.

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Aerosol prediction by regional air quality model in heavy polluted regions is

30 challenging due to many factors. In addition to the deficiency of chemistries, the

31 uncertainties of primary and precursor emissions and the initial conditions (ICs) also

32 limit the forecast accuracy. Data assimilation (DA), which is used to improve the ICs

33 of aerosols and to optimize data on aerosol emissions, has been shown to be one of

34 the most effective ways to improve the forecasting of aerosol pollution.

35 From the perspective of reducing the uncertainties in the ICs for aerosols, recent

36 efforts have focused on assimilating aerosol observations using optimal interpolation

37 (Collins et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2003; Adhikary et al., 2008; Tombette et al., 2009; Lee

38 et al., 2013) or variational (Kahnert, 2008; Zhang et al., 2008; Benedetti et al., 2009;

39 Pagowski et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011; Schwartz et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013; Jiang et

40 al., 2013; Saide et al., 2013) DA algorithms. Ensemble-based DA algorithms, such as

41 the ensemble Kalman filter (EnKF) (Pagowski and Grell, 2012) and the hybrid

42 variational-ensemble DA approach (Schwartz et al., 2014) have also been applied to

43 aerosol predictions. All these studies have shown that DA is one of the most effective

44 ways of improving aerosol forecasting through assimilating aerosol observations from

45 multiple sources (e.g. ground-based observations and satellite measurements) to

46 update the chemical ICs.

47 Numerous studies have used DA approaches to estimate or improve source

48 emissions. The EnKF is one of the most popular DA algorithms used to improve

49 estimates of aerosols and gas-phase emissions, such as NO_x, volatile organic

50 compounds, and SO_2 (van Loon et al., 2000; Heemink and Segers, 2002; Barbu et al.,

51 2009; Miyazaki et al., 2014). Variational DA algorithms have also been applied to

52 constrain emissions of air pollution, such as black carbon, organic carbon, dust, NH_3,

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53   SO_x and NO_x (Hakami et al., 2005; Elbern et al., 2007; Henze et al., 2007, 2009;

54   Yumimoto et al., 2007, 2008; Dubovik et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2012; Guerrette and

55   Henze, 2015). These studies have indicated that DA can efficiently reduce the

56   uncertainty in the emission inventories and lead to improvements in the forecasting of

57   air quality (Mijling and van der A, 2012).

58   The optimization of chemical ICs and pollution emissions can improve aerosol

59   forecasts and therefore further improvements are likely to be achieved by

60   simultaneously optimizing the chemical ICs and emissions. Tang et al. (2011)

61   reported that the simultaneous adjustment of the ICs of O_3, NO_x and volatile organic

62   compounds and the emissions of NO_x and volatile organic compounds produced

63   overall better performance in both the 1-h and 24-h ozone forecasts than the

64   adjustment of pure ICs or emissions. Miyazaki et al. (2012) reported that the

65   simultaneous adjustment of emissions and concentrations is a powerful approach to

66   correcting the tropospheric ozone budget and profile analyses.

67   We developed a system to adjust the chemical ICs and source emissions jointly

68   within an EnKF system coupled to the Weather Research and Forecasting with

69   Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model (Grell et al., 2005). We then applied this system to

70   assimilate hourly surface $PM_{2.5}$ measurements over China in early October 2014.

71   The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes this DA

72   system in detail. Then the experimental designs are introduced in Section 3. Finally,

73   the surface $PM_{2.5}$ observations assimilation results are presented in section 4 before

74   concluding in section 5.

75

76   **2. Methodology**

77   **2.1 Ensemble square root filter**

78   The ensemble square root filter (EnSRF) algorithm was introduced by Whitaker and

79   Hamill (2002) and its expansion to analyzing aerosol ICs was described by Schwartz

80   et al. (2014). Following the notation of Ide et al. (1997), given an m-dimensional

81   background model forecast vector $\mathbf{x}^b$, a p-dimensional observation vector $\mathbf{y}^o$ and an

82   operator $\mathbf{H}$ that converts the model state to the observation states, we expressed the

3

83   variables as an ensemble mean (denoted by an over-bar) and a deviation from the

84   mean (denoted by a prime). Thus, the ensemble mean $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^a$ of the analyzed state $\mathbf{x}^a$

85   and the deviations $\mathbf{x}'^a$ from the ensemble mean are updated separately by

86   $$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^a = \bar{\mathbf{x}}^b + \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{y}^o - \mathbf{H}\bar{\mathbf{x}}^b), \quad (1)$$

87   $$\mathbf{x}'^a = \mathbf{x}'^b + \widetilde{\mathbf{K}}(\mathbf{y}'^o - \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'^b), \quad (2)$$

88   where $\mathbf{K}$ is the traditional Kalman gain matrix and $\widetilde{\mathbf{K}}$ is the gain used to update the

89   deviations from the ensemble mean. These are given by

90   $$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})^{-1} \quad (3)$$

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T\left[\left(\sqrt{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R}}\right)^{-1}\right]^T \left(\sqrt{\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R}} + \sqrt{\mathbf{R}}\right)^{-1}$$

91   $$= \left(1 + \sqrt{\mathbf{R}/(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})}\right)^{-1}\mathbf{K}, \quad (4)$$

92   where $\mathbf{P}^b$ is the $m*m$-dimensional background error covariance matrix and $\mathbf{R}$ is

93   the $p*p$-dimensional diagonal observation error covariance matrix. In real

94   applications, $\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T$ and $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T$ can be approximated using the background

95   ensemble; namely,

96   $$\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{x}'^b(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'^b)^T \quad (5)$$

97   $$\mathbf{H}\mathbf{P}^b\mathbf{H}^T = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'^b(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}'^b)^T. \quad (6)$$

98   In equations (5) and (6), N is the ensemble size.

99   Note that for the joint analysis of ICs and emissions, the state vector $\mathbf{x}$ is the

100   joint vector of the mass concentration $\mathbf{C}$ and the emission scaling factor $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$, i.e.

101   $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{C}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}]^T$. After each ensemble analysis, the ensemble forecasts were performed

102   with the corresponding models to advance $\mathbf{C}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ to the next analysis time. The

103   forecast models are described in section 2.2.

104

105   **2.2 Forecast model**

106   A forecasting model, $\mathbf{M}$, was developed to forecast the emission scaling factors and

107   the aerosol control variables. This model combines the WRF-Chem model and the

108   forecast model of emission scaling factors.

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110   2.2.1 WRF-Chem model

111   Version 3.6.1 of the WRF-Chem model (Grell et al., 2005) was used to forecast the

112   aerosol and chemical species. WRF-Chem is an online model with the fully coupled

113   chemical and meteorological components.

114   Most of the WRF-Chem settings were the same as those reported in Liu et al.

115   (2011): the Goddard Chemistry Aerosol Radiation and Transport (GOCART) aerosol

116   scheme coupled with the Regional Atmospheric Chemistry Mechanism for gaseous

117   chemical mechanisms; the WRF single-moment five-class microphysics scheme; the

118   Rapid Radiative Transfer Model longwave and Goddard shortwave radiation schemes;

119   the Yonsei University (YSU) boundary layer scheme; the Noah land surface model;

120   and the Grell-3D cumulus parameterization.

121   With respect to the emissions, the hourly prior anthropogenic emissions were

122   based on the monthly regional emission inventory in Asia (Zhang et al., 2009) for the

123   year 2006 interpolated to the model grid (40.5 km) for the lowest eight vertical levels.

124   In order to keep objective for the prior anthropogenic emissions, no time variation

125   was added. Thus, the hourly prior anthropogenic emissions were constant. The

126   biogenic (Guenther et al., 1995), dust (Ginoux et al., 2001), dimethylsulfide and sea

127   salt emissions (Chin et al., 2000, 2002) were calculated online.

128
129   2.2.2 Forecast model of scaling factors

130   As no suitable dynamic model was available to forecast the emission scaling factors, a

131   persistence forecasting operator served as the forecast model for the scaling factors,

132   similar to the method used by Peng et al. (2015) for CO_2 emission inversion. Figure

133   1a shows the flowchart for the persistence forecasting operator $\mathbf{M}_{SF}$.

134   If the ensemble members of the updated chemical fields $\mathbf{C}_{i,t-1}^{a}$ and the forecast

135   emissions $\mathbf{E}_{i,t-2}^{f}$ in the previous assimilation cycle are known, then the chemical

136   fields $\mathbf{C}_{i,t}^{f}$ at time t can be generated via WRF-Chem (Figure 1b). The ensemble

137   concentration ratios $\kappa_{i,t}, (i = 1, \dots, N)$ were then calculated using

138 $$\kappa_{i,t} = \mathbf{C}_{i,t}^{f} / \overline{\mathbf{C}_{t}^{f}}, (i = 1, \dots, N) \quad (7)$$

139   where $\overline{\mathbf{C}_t^f} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\mathbf{C}_{i,t}^f$ is the ensemble mean of the forecast. $\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t}$ are random

140   variables with a mean values of 1.

141   The ensemble spreads of $\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t}, (i = 1, \dots, N)$ may be small and therefore

142   covariance inflation was used to maintain them at a certain level:

143                $(\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t})_{\text{inf}} = \beta\left(\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t} - \overline{\boldsymbol{\kappa}_t}\right) + \overline{\boldsymbol{\kappa}_t}, (i = 1, \dots, N)$ (8)

144    $\beta = 1.5$ was chosen in this study. $\overline{\boldsymbol{\kappa}_t}$ is the ensemble mean of $\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t}$, and is equal to 1.

145   As the concentrations were closely related to the emissions and there was no suitable

146   dynamic model available to forecast the emission scaling factors, the inflated

147   concentration ratios $(\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t})_{\text{inf}}$ served as the prior emission scaling factors $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}^p$:

148                $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}^p = (\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{i,t})_{\text{inf}}, (i = 1, \dots, N)$ (9)

149   To incorporate the useful information from the previous times, the previous DA

150   cycles' analysis scaling factors, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t-M+1}^a$, $\cdots$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t-2}^a$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t-1}^a$ and the prior scaling

151   factor $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}^p$ were used to estimate $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}^f$ by the time smooth operator; namely,

152    $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}^f = \frac{1}{M}\left(\sum_{j=t-M+1}^{t-1}\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,j}^a + \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}^p\right), (i = 1, \dots, N, j = t - M + 1, \dots, t - 1)$ (10)

153   Here, M is the time window of the smooth operator. In this study, a value of $M = 4$

154   (hours) was chosen.

155   The ensemble members of the emissions were calculated according to

156                $\mathbf{E}_{i,t} = \boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}\mathbf{E}_t^p, (i = 1, \dots, N),$ (11)

157   where $\mathbf{E}_{i,t}$ is the ith ensemble member of the emissions for each grid at time t, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{i,t}$

158   represents the scaling factors and $\mathbf{E}_t^p$ is the prescribed emission, which can be

159   obtained from the emission inventories.

160

161   **2.3 Data assimilation system**

162   2.3.1 State variables

163   The EnSRF algorithm was expanded to optimize the emissions of WRF-Chem.

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164   For the GOCART aerosol scheme, the aerosol species include unspecified P25 (P_{25}),

165   sulfate (S), hydrophobic and hydrophilic organic carbon (OC_1 and OC_2, respectively),

166   hydrophobic and hydrophilic black carbon (BC_1 and BC_2, respectively), dust in five

167   particle size bins (effective radii of 0.5, 1.4, 2.4, 4.5 and 8.0 μm; referred to as D_1,

168   D_2, D_3, D_4 and D_5, respectively) and sea salt in four particle size bins (effective

169   radii of 0.3, 1.0, 3.25 and 7.5 μm for dry air; referred to as S_1, S_2, S_3 and S_4,

170   respectively). The $PM_{2.5}$ observation operator was the same as that described by

171   Schwartz et al. (2012) and expressed as

$$\mathbf{y}^f = \boldsymbol{\rho}_d[\mathbf{P_{25}} + 1.375\mathbf{S} + 1.8(\mathbf{OC_1} + \mathbf{OC_2}) + \mathbf{BC_1} + \mathbf{BC_2}$$

172
$$+\mathbf{D_1} + 0.286\mathbf{D_2} + \mathbf{S_1} + 0.942\mathbf{S_2}], \quad (12)$$

173   where $\boldsymbol{\rho}_d$ represents the dry air density, which is multiplied by the mixing ratios of

174   aerosol species (in μg kg^{-1}) to convert the units to μg m^{-3} for consistency with the

175   observations. As reported by Schwartz et al. (2012), the state variables of the analysis

176   of the ICs were the 15 WRF-Chem/GOCART aerosol variables.

177   From the perspective of the optimization of emissions, atmospheric inorganic

178   aerosols are not only from the primary emissions, but also secondary process-

179   chemical and thermodynamic transformations from the gas-phase precursors.

180   Therefore, not only the primary sources of $PM_{2.5}$, but also the sources of the gas-phase

181   precursors, need to be optimized. In this study, the sources of SO_2, NO_x and NH_3

182   ($\mathbf{E}_{SO2}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{NH3}$), which have a large impact on the distribution of $PM_{2.5}$, were

183   also optimized in addition to the primary sources of $PM_{2.5}$. Therefore, the four species

184   of emission scaling factors ($\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{SO2}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NO}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NH3}$) were considered as the

185   state variables of the DA system in addition to the mass concentration of 15 aerosol

186   variables.

187   The direct sources of $PM_{2.5}$ include the unspeciated primary sources of $PM_{2.5}$

188    $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5}$, sulfate $\mathbf{E}_{SO4}$, nitrate $\mathbf{E}_{NO3}$, organic compounds E_{org} and elemental

189   compounds E_{BC}; all of them are given in two modes (the nuclei and accumulation

190   modes, represented as i and j in the subscripts respectively) The ratios between the

191   nuclei and accumulation modes were the same as in the suggested emission process

192   for National Emission Inventory in WRF-Chem (Freitas et al., 2011). The formula of

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193   sulfate and nitrate emissions in the model are as below:

194   $$\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i} : \mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j} = 1:4, \quad (13)$$

195   $$\mathbf{E}_{SO4i} : \mathbf{E}_{SO4j} = 1:4, \quad (14)$$

196   $$\mathbf{E}_{NO3i} : \mathbf{E}_{NO3j} = 1:4, \quad (15)$$

197   $$\mathbf{E}_{SO4i} + \mathbf{E}_{SO4j} = a * (\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i} + \mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j} - \mathbf{E}_{EC} - \mathbf{E}_{ORG}), \quad (16)$$

198   $$\mathbf{E}_{NO3i} + \mathbf{E}_{NO3j} = b * \left(\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i} + \mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j} - \mathbf{E}_{EC} - \mathbf{E}_{ORG}\right), \quad (17)$$

199   where $\mathbf{E}_{EC}$ represents elemental carbon and $\mathbf{E}_{ORG}$ organic compounds, and

200   $a = 0.074$ and $b = 0.038$ were chosen based on the internal emissions and

201   observational data. In the DA process, the first 6 species of direct sources of

202   emissions ($\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}$, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4i}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4j}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO3i}$, and $\mathbf{E}_{NO3j}$), which may have

203   larger uncertainties in heavy polluted events, were updated according to the variation

204   of $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}$. $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}$ were directly updated according to the variation in

205   $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}$. The emissions ($\mathbf{E}_{SO4i}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4j}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO3i}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{NO3j}$) were also updated according

206   to the variations in $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}$.

207

208   2.3.2 Procedure for the DA system

209   Figure 1 (b) shows the workflow of the DA system. The steps in this workflow are as

210   follows.

211   (1) The persistence forecasting operator $\mathbf{M}_{SF}$ is applied to forecast the

212   background fields of the emission scaling factors $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}^{f}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{SO2}^{f}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NO}^{f}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NH3}^{f}$. The

213   forecast chemical fields of P_{25}, SO_2, NO and NH_3 of the previous assimilation cycle

214   are used to create the prior emission scaling factors $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}^{p}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{SO2}^{p}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NO}^{p}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NH3}^{p}$.

215   The background scaling factors are then generated using equation (10).

216   (2) The ensemble members of the emissions, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO2}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO}^{f}$ and

217   $\mathbf{E}_{NH3}^{f}$, are prepared according to equation (11). The corresponding emissions of $\mathbf{E}_{SO4i}^{f}$,

218   $\mathbf{E}_{SO4j}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO3i}^{f}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{NO3j}^{f}$ are obtained based on equations (14−17).

219   (3) Forced by the changed emissions ($\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}$, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO2}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NH3}$,

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220　$\mathbf{E}_{SO4i}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4j}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO3i}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{NO3j}$ were substituted by $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO2}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO}^{f}$,

221　$\mathbf{E}_{NH3}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4i}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4j}^{f}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO3i}^{f}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{NO3j}^{f}$; the other emissions such as $\mathbf{E}_{EC}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{ORG}$

222　remained unchanged), WRF-Chem is run again to forecast the chemical fields $\boldsymbol{\rho}^{f}$

223　with the updated chemical fields of the previous assimilation cycle as the ICs. The

224　state variables, i.e., 15 aerosol species and four scaling factors, are then prepared.

225　　　(4) The model-simulated $PM_{2.5}$ concentration at the observation space is then

226　calculated via equation (12).

227　　　(5) In the assimilation step, the state variables, the concentrations of 14 defined

228　aerosol species and a 15th unspeciated aerosol, and the four species of emission

229　scaling factors $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}^{f}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{SO2}^{f}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NO}^{f}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NH3}^{f}$, were optimized through EnSRF.

230　　　(6) After the assimilation step, the optimized emissions ($\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5i}^{a}$, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5j}^{a}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO2}^{a}$,

231　$\mathbf{E}_{NO}^{a}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NH3}^{a}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4i}^{a}$, $\mathbf{E}_{SO4j}^{a}$, $\mathbf{E}_{NO3i}^{a}$ and $\mathbf{E}_{NO3j}^{a}$) were calculated according to equations

232　(11, 14–17) using the optimized scaling factors ($\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}^{a}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{SO2}^{a}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NO}^{a}$ and $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{NH3}^{a}$).

233

234　**3. $PM_{2.5}$ observation data and errors**

235　Hourly averaged surface $PM_{2.5}$ observations from the Ministry of Environmental

236　Protection of China were assimilated. Figure 2 shows the locations of 77

237　measurement sites used for the $PM_{2.5}$ assimilation experiment and forecast

238　verification. The observation sites spanned most of central and eastern China and

239　were primarily located in urban and suburban areas.

240　　　The observation error covariance matrix $\mathbf{R}$ in equation (3) includes

241　contributions from measurement and representation errors. Similar to the work of

242　Schwartz et al. (2012), who followed Elbern et al. (2007) and Pagowski et al. (2010),

243　the measurement error ε_0 is defined as $\varepsilon_0 = 1.5 + 0.0075 * \Pi_0$, where Π_0 denotes

244　the observational values for $PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu g\ m^{-3}$). Thus, higher $PM_{2.5}$ values were

245　associated with larger measurement errors. The representativeness error ε_r depends

246　on the resolution of the model and the characteristics of the observation locations and

247　is calculated as $\varepsilon_r = r\varepsilon_0\sqrt{\Delta x / L}$, where r is an adjustable parameter (here, $r = 0.5$),

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248   Δx is the grid spacing (here, 40.5 km), and L is the radius of influence of an

249   observation (here, L was set to 3 km). The total $PM_{2.5}$ error (ε_t) is defined as

250   $\varepsilon_t = \sqrt{\varepsilon_0^2 + \varepsilon_r^2}$. The observation errors are assumed to be uncorrelated so that **R** is

251   a diagonal matrix.

252   The $PM_{2.5}$ observations were subject to quality control to ensure data reliability

253   before DA. $PM_{2.5}$ values larger than 800 μg m^{-3} are classified as unrealistic and were

254   not assimilated; observations with a first guess departure exceeding 100 μg m^{-3} are

255   also omitted.

256

257   **4. Experimental design**

258   Two parallel experiments were performed to evaluate the impact of $PM_{2.5}$ DA on the

259   analyses and forecasts of aerosols over China: an assimilation experiment and a

260   control experiment. Both experiments used identical WRF-Chem settings and

261   physical parameterizations. The horizontal grid spacing was 40.5 km and there were

262   57 vertical levels with the model top at 10 hPa.

263

264   4.1 Spin-up ensemble forecast with perturbed Initial and boundary conditions

265   The initialization and spin-up procedures were identical to those reported by

266   Schwartz et al. (2014). The ICs and lateral boundary conditions (LBCs) for the

267   meteorological fields were provided by the National Centers for Environmental

268   Prediction Global Forecast System (GFS).

269   The initial meteorological fields were created at 0000 UTC 1 October 2014 by

270   interpolating the GFS analyses onto the model domain. The 50 ensemble members

271   were then generated by adding Gaussian random noise with a zero mean and static

272   background error covariances (Torn et al., 2006) to the temperature, water vapor,

273   velocity, geopotential height and dry surface pressure fields. The ICs of each member

274   were zero in the initial aerosol fields, representing clean conditions as described by

275   Liu et al. (2011).

276   The LBCs for the meteorological fields were then interpolated from the GFS

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277   analyses from 0000 UTC 1 October 2014 to 0000 UTC 16 October 2014 and

278   perturbed similarly to the initial fields at 0000 UTC 1 October 2014. The aerosol

279   LBCs of each member for all experiments represented clean oceanic conditions.

280   Fifty-member emissions were created by adding standard Gaussian random noise

281   to the anthropogenic emissions, as reported by Schwartz et al. (2014). A 50-member

282   ensemble of four-day WRF-Chem forecasts was then produced using the perturbed

283   ICs at 0000 UTC 1 October 2014, the corresponding perturbed LBCs and the

284   emissions.

285

286   4.2 Assimilation experiment

287   The assimilation experiment was conducted from 0000 UTC 5 October 2014 to 0000

288   UTC 16 October 2014. The assimilation cycle interval was 1 h. The first initial

289   chemical fields were drawn from the WRF-Chem ensemble forecasts valid at 0000

290   UTC 5 October 2014, as described in section 4.1. In the subsequent assimilation

291   cycles, the ICs for the chemical variables of each member were drawn from the

292   updated chemical fields of the previous cycle. The aerosol LBCs of each member

293   represented clean oceanic conditions. As for the meteorological ensemble fields, the

294   LBCs were prepared in advance as depicted in section 4.1; the ICs of each member of

295   the meteorological fields were drawn from the forecast meteorological fields of the

296   previous cycle before re-centering with the GFS analysis because we do not do

297   meteorological analysis:

298    $$\boldsymbol{\pi}_{i_{new}} = \boldsymbol{\pi}_i + (\boldsymbol{\pi}_{GFS} - \overline{\boldsymbol{\pi}}), \quad (18)$$

299   where $\boldsymbol{\pi}_i$ is the ith member of the forecast meteorological fields of the previous

300   cycle, $\overline{\boldsymbol{\pi}}$ is the ensemble mean of the forecast meteorological fields of the previous

301   cycle, $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{GFS}$ is the meteorological field interpolated from the GFS analyses and

302    $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{i_{new}}$ is the new meteorological field used as the IC in WRF-Chem in the next cycle.

303

304   4.3 Control experiment

305   The control experiment was conducted for the same period as the assimilation

306 experiment and the simulation cycle period was 1 h, as in the assimilation experiment.

307 The first initial chemical fields were extracted from the ensemble mean valid at 0000

308 UTC 5 October 2014. In the subsequent simulation process, the ICs for the chemical

309 fields were from the previous cycle's 1-h forecast. The LBCs and ICs for the

310 meteorological fields were updated by interpolating the GFS analyses. The emissions

311 were the prescribed emissions $\mathbf{E}_t^p$ without any perturbation.

312

313 **5. Results**

314 As the measurement coverage is an important factor that may determine the

315 performance in DA, we primarily focused our attention on the results from three

316 sub-regions with comparatively dense observational coverage (Figure 2): the Beijing–

317 Tianjin–Hebei region (JJJ, 12 stations); the Yangtze River delta (YRD, 24 stations);

318 and the Pearl River delta (PRD, 9 stations).

319

320 5.1 Ensemble performance

321 It is important to assess the ensemble performance for an ensemble-based DA system.

322 In a well-calibrated system, a comparison of the prior ensemble mean

323 root-mean-square error (RMSE) with respect to the observations should equal the

324 prior "total spread" (square root of the sum of ensemble variance and observation

325 error variance) (Houtekamer et al., 2005). Figure 3 shows the time series for the prior

326 ensemble mean RMSE and the total spread for $PM_{2.5}$ aggregated over all observations

327 in the three sub-regions. It indicates that the magnitudes of both the total spread and

328 the RMSE were influenced by the diurnal cycle and heavy air pollution. Almost all

329 the total spreads were smaller than the RMSE, showing an insufficient spread of

330 $PM_{2.5}$ ensemble forecasts, which is especially evident for heavy polluted period with

331 much larger RMSEs.

332

333 5.2 Impact on aerosol ICs

334 To evaluate quantitatively the impact of the ensemble assimilation system on the ICs,

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335   the mean errors (bias), RMSEs and correlation coefficient (CORR) of the assimilation

336   experiment and the control run were first analyzed. These statistics were calculated

337   against observations over all the analyses from 6 to 16 October 2014. Table 1 shows

338   that the bias magnitudes of the control run were 19.1 and 23.5 $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ for the YRD

339   and the PRD, respectively, suggesting a significant overestimation of the WRF-Chem

340   aerosol mass in these two sub-regions. However, a significant underestimation of the

341   aerosol mass occurred in the JJJ region, where the model bias was $-16.6\ \mu g\ m^{-3}$. The

342   RMSEs of the control run were 76.8, 32.2 and 34.5 $\mu g\ m^{-3}$ for the JJJ, YRD and PRD

343   regions, respectively. After assimilation, the statistics showed an apparent

344   improvement and the magnitude of the bias and the RMSE decreased. Both the

345   maximum bias and the RMSE were obtained in the JJJ region, and were -5.2 and 41.6

346    $\mu g\ m^{-3}$, respectively. The CORR increased from 0.79, 0.60, and 0.62 to 0.93, 0.93,

347   and 0.87 for the JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively. These results indicate that the initial

348    $PM_{2.5}$ fields can be adjusted efficiently by the EnSRF.

349   The spatial distribution of the time-averaged differences in $PM_{2.5}$ (assimilation

350   minus control) illustrated the impact on the aerosol ICs. Figure 4 shows that the

351   average difference in $PM_{2.5}$ at the lowest model level was negative in the YRD, the

352   PRD and in central China, indicating the reduction of the overestimation of the

353   WRF-Chem simulation over these regions with data assimilation. The smallest value

354   of $-40\ \mu g\ m^{-3}$ was seen around Guangzhou. Conversely, positive differences were

355   seen in the JJJ region and in northeast China. The largest value ($>40\ \mu g\ m^{-3}$) was seen

356   in South Hebei Province. These results indicate that DA greatly improved the ICs.

357

358   5.3 Impact on emissions

359   To determine the impact of assimilating $PM_{2.5}$ observations on the chemical emissions,

360   we analyzed the area-averaged time series extracted from the optimized emission

361   scaling factors and the optimized emissions. Figure 5 shows that although the prior

362   emissions had no diurnal variation when the experiments were designed, the

363   optimized $PM_{2.5}$ scaling factor, $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{PM2.5}^{a}$, showed an obvious variation with time, as did

364   the optimized unspeciated primary sources of $PM_{2.5}$, $\mathbf{E}_{PM2.5}^{a}$. Moreover, the values of

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365    $\lambda^a_{PM2.5}$ were <1 at almost all times in the YRD and PRD, which resulted that the

366   analyzed emission $\mathbf{E}^a_{PM2.5}$ were lower than the prior PM$_{2.5}$ emissions $\mathbf{E}^p_{PM2.5}$. In the

367   YRD, the prior $\mathbf{E}^p_{PM2.5}$ was about 0.127 µg m^{-2} s^{-1} over all hours. After assimilation,

368   the time-averaged optimized $\mathbf{E}^a_{PM2.5}$ decreased to 0.107 µg m^{-2} s^{-1}, about 15.6%

369   lower than the prior value. In the PRD, the prior $\mathbf{E}^p_{PM2.5}$ was about 0.10 µg m^{-2} s^{-1}.

370   The time-averaged optimized $\mathbf{E}^a_{PM2.5}$ decreased to 0.066 µg·m^{-2} s^{-1}, leading to a

371   decrease of 35.0%. However, larger values for the optimized $\mathbf{E}^a_{PM2.5}$ were obtained in

372   the JJJ region in three periods, from 1600 UTC 6 October to 0000 UTC 8 October,

373   from 1600 UTC 9 October to 0000 UTC 10 October, and from 1600 UTC 13 October

374   to 0000 UTC 15 October as a result of the increased optimized scaling factor $\lambda^a_{PM2.5}$.

375   This may have been caused by the burning of crop residues during harvesting in this

376   region (Li et al., 2016), which was not taken into account in the prior emissions.

377   Although the system is able to detect the emission changes caused by burning events,

378   the time that the system started to show increased scaling factors might be not

379   accurate enough (may shift a few hours later); as the system is optimized based on

380   ambient concentrations in which the transport and transformation processes are not

381   directly taken into account.

382   The NO, SO$_2$ and NH$_3$ emissions were all adjusted to some extent by our DA

383   approach. The NO emissions increased by 41.3, 43.7 and 20.3% in the JJJ, YRD and

384   PRD regions, respectively. The SO$_2$ emissions increased by 16.3, 10.0 and 18.3% and

385   the NH$_3$ emissions increased by 16.7, 7.8 and 7.5% in the JJJ, YRD and PRD regions,

386   respectively.

387   Figure 6 shows the spatial distribution of the time-averaged scaling factors

388    $\lambda^a_{PM2.5}$ at the lowest model level over all hours from 6 to 16 October 2014. Figure 7

389   shows the distribution of $\mathbf{E}^p_{PM2.5}$ and the time-averaged differences between the

390   ensemble mean of the assimilation and the prior values. These patterns are consistent

391   with those in Figure 5. Negative differences were obtained in most areas of the YRD

392   and PRD, indicating that the PM$_{2.5}$ DA primarily decreased the PM$_{2.5}$ emissions.

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393   Conversely, positive differences were obtained in South Hebei, North Henan and

394   Southeast Shanxi provinces, indicating that DA increased the $PM_{2.5}$ emissions.

395   As the economy in China has developed, the spatiotemporal distribution of

396   emissions has changed as a result of changes in energy consumption, the structure of

397   the energy market and advances in technology. Therefore although this inventory of

398   emissions may have correctly described anthropogenic emissions in 2006 when it was

399   constructed, it is not representative of the anthropogenic emissions in 2014.

400   Theoretically, the assimilated emissions should reduce the uncertainty in the prior

401   emissions as a result of the application of observations. The diurnal variation in the

402   assimilated emissions verified this statement to some extent. In addition, Liu et al.

403   (2015) reported that $PM_{2.5}$ and SO_2 emissions in China decreased from 2006 to 2010,

404   whereas NO_x emissions increased over the same time. Besides, Xia et al. (2016) also

405   reported that NO_x emissions increased from 2000 to 2011 then decreased slowly from

406   2012 to 2014. Our assimilated $PM_{2.5}$ and NO_x emissions were in good agreement with

407   this trend, but not the SO_2 emissions. One possible reason for this may be that only

408   surface $PM_{2.5}$ observations were applied in this work, which may have less constraint

409   on the sources of the secondary aerosol precursors, such as SO_2 emissions.

410   Nevertheless, although we had no direct emission observations to use as a reference,

411   we concluded that the assimilated $PM_{2.5}$ emissions were a better reflection of the

412   distribution of the spatiotemporal variations in the real discharge than the emissions

413   inventory. More observations are needed to obtain reliable emissions for the sources

414   of the gas-phase precursors.

415

416   5.4 Verification of aerosol forecasting

417   For the assimilation experiment, 48-h forecasts were performed at each 0000

418   UTC from 6 to 16 October 2014 with the hourly forecast output. The ensemble mean

419   of the analyzed ICs and emissions was used in this longer-range model forecast.

420   Time series of the hourly $PM_{2.5}$ extracted from the analysis (AN), the control run

421   (CT) and the hourly output of 48-h forecast (fc24 for the first day forecast and fc48

422   for the second day forecast) were compared with the observations (OBS) for three

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423   megacities Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou, respectively (Figure 8). As expected,

424   the time series of the analysis were consistent with the observations. The control run

425   showed large deviations from the observations, especially in Shanghai and

426   Guangzhou. Benefit from DA on both the first day and the second day forecasts can

427   be clearly seen.

428   The RMSE of the surface $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts as a function of forecast range was

429   then calculated against the observations for the three sub-regions (Figure 9). The

430   RMSEs of the control run were characterized by the diurnal cycle in the YRD and

431   PRD. The largest errors were seen at 2100 UTC in the YRD (about 43 $\mu g \cdot m^{-3}$) and at

432   2200 UTC in the PRD (about 46 $\mu g \cdot m^{-3}$), likely indicating significant systematic

433   forecast errors at these times. From 0300 to 0900 UTC, the RMSE values (about 15

434    $\mu g \cdot m^{-3}$) were much smaller than at other times in both the YRD and PRD, showing

435   that WRF-Chem performed well during this period. However, in the JJJ region, the

436   RMSEs (about 50 $\mu g \cdot m^{-3}$) were always large as a result of a heavy pollution event.

437   After assimilation, the RMSEs decreased sharply. They remained at about 10 $\mu g \cdot m^{-3}$

438   for all three sub-regions during the whole experimental period, further indicating that

439   DA greatly affected the ICs.

440   The improvements in the surface $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts by the joint adjustment of the

441   ICs and emissions were dramatic in the YRD and PRD. Large reduction of the

442   RMSEs due to assimilation can be seen for almost the entire 48-h forecast range.

443   From 10- to 23-h and from 34- to 47-h, in particular, the relative reduction in RMSE

444   was about 40%. However, the DA impact was much smaller for 3- to 9-h forecast

445   ranges, which are at daytime of the first day forecast. This may be because

446   WRF-Chem performed sufficiently well during this period and therefore the further

447   improvement was more difficult. From the perspective of the DA impact, the

448   differences between the optimized $PM_{2.5}$ emissions and the prior emissions from 0000

449   to 0700 UTC each day were always smaller than those for other periods. In addition,

450   the improvements were nearly negligible from 27- to 33-h, the daytime of the second

451   day forecast, suggesting that the benefit gained from adjusting the ICs decreased

452   progressively and eventually disappeared with model integration. Nevertheless,

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453 attributed greatly to the large adjustment of chemical emissions, substantial

454 improvements were still achieved from 34- to 47- h. These results revealed that joint

455 adjustment of the ICs and emissions can improve surface $PM_{2.5}$ forecasts up to 48 h in

456 the YRD and PRD.

457 The DA system did not perform as well in the JJJ region as in the YRD and RRD

458 and relatively smaller improvements were achieved in the first 24-h forecast. One

459 possible reason for this result may be systematic errors due to chemistry mechanism

460 in WRF-Chem. The sources of the aerosols are so complex that our knowledge of

461 their formation mechanisms is far from clear and large uncertainties still exist in the

462 model simulations. Chemical transport models have a tendency to underestimate PM

463 concentrations, especially during episodes of heavy pollution (Denby et al., 2007) due

464 to some missing reactions (Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015, Zheng et al., 2015;

465 Chen et al., 2016). As a result, a large bias may be obtained in forecasts of heavy

466 pollution given the ICs and emission inventories achieved from the joint assimilation.

467 Another reason may be the sparse coverage of measurements. There were only 12

468 sites in the JJJ region (Figure 2) and the measurement coverage was much sparser

469 than in the YRD or PRD. However, these results are still better than those obtained

470 with the pure adjustment of ICs that lead to improvements in the first 12-h forecasts

471 (Jiang et al., 2013; Schwartz et al., 2014).

472

473 **6. Summary**

474 The EnSRF algorithm was extended to adjust the chemical ICs and the primary

475 and precursor emissions to improve forecasts for surface $PM_{2.5}$. This system was

476 applied to assimilate hourly surface $PM_{2.5}$ measurements from 5 to 16 October 2014

477 over China. To evaluate the effectiveness of DA, 48-h forecasts were performed using

478 the optimized ICs and emissions, together with a control experiment without DA. The

479 results indicated that the forecasts with the optimized ICs and emissions performed

480 much better than the control simulations. Large improvements were achieved for

481 almost all the 48-h forecasts, particularly in the YRD and PRD. However, relatively

482 smaller improvements were achieved in the first 24-h forecast in the JJJ region, which

17

483   may be attributed to the sparse measurement coverage and the deficiencies in the

484   model system for forecasting heavy pollution.

485   This study represents the first step in the simultaneous optimization of chemical

486   ICs and emissions and only surface $PM_{2.5}$ measurements were assimilated. In future

487   work, gas-phase observations of SO_2, NO_2 and CO will be used to further improve the

488   performance of this DA system.

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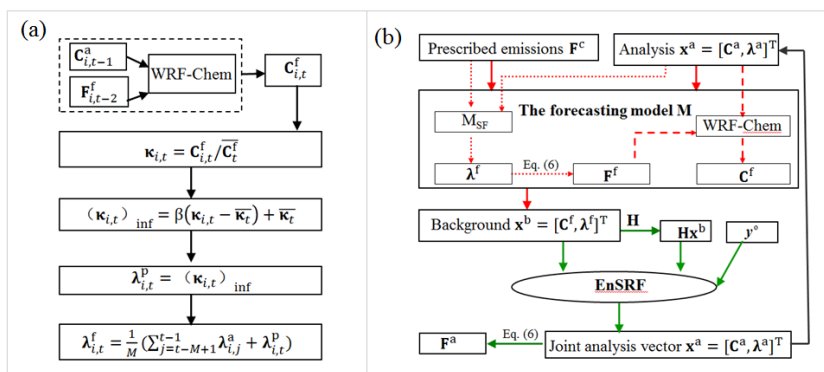706
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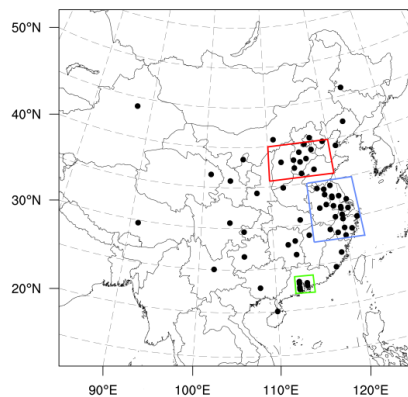710 divided by control).
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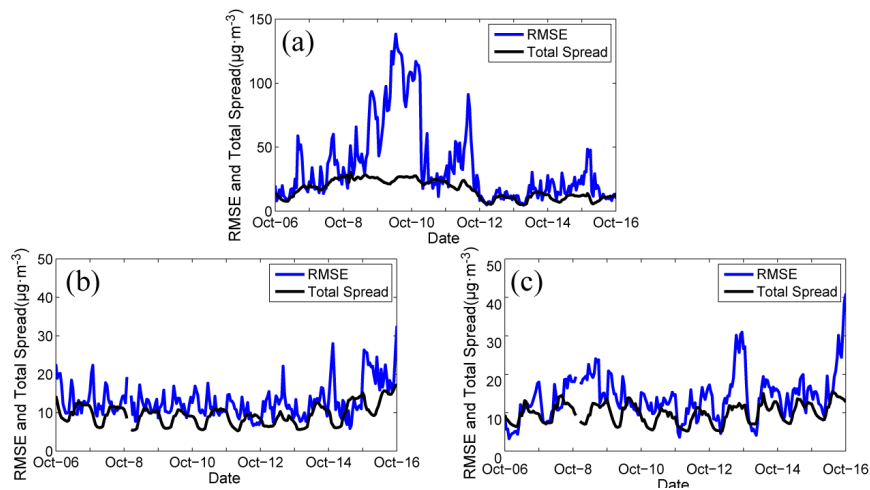
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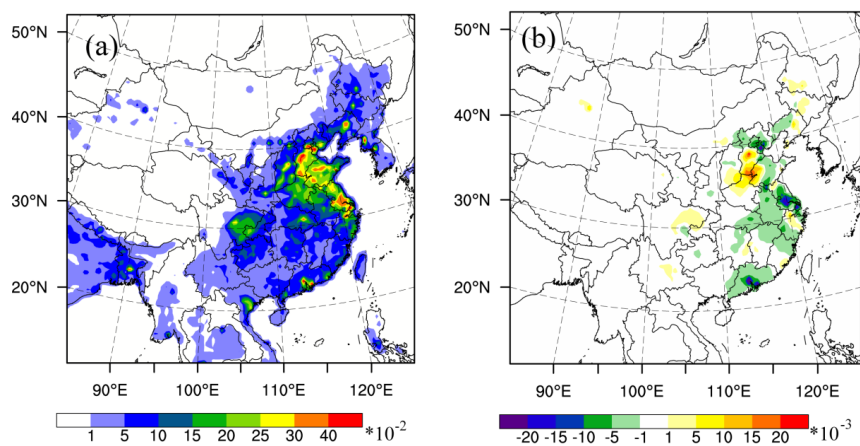732   Table 1. Comparison of the surface $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations from the control and

733   assimilation experiments to observations over all analysis times from 6 to 16 October

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Region	Experiment	Mean observed value	Mean simulated value	BIAS	RMSE	CORR
Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei	Control		101.1	−16.6	76.8	0.785
	Assimilation	117.7	112.5	−5.2	41.6	0.932
Yangtze River delta	Control		67.0	19.1	32.2	0.603
	Assimilation	47.9	49.0	1.1	10.5	0.928
Pearl River delta	Control		87.2	23.5	34.5	0.618
	Assimilation	63.7	66.1	2.4	12.9	0.866
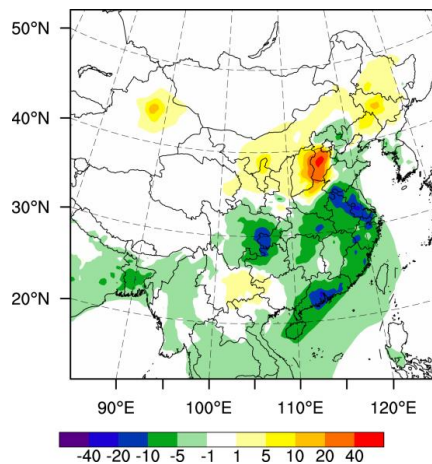
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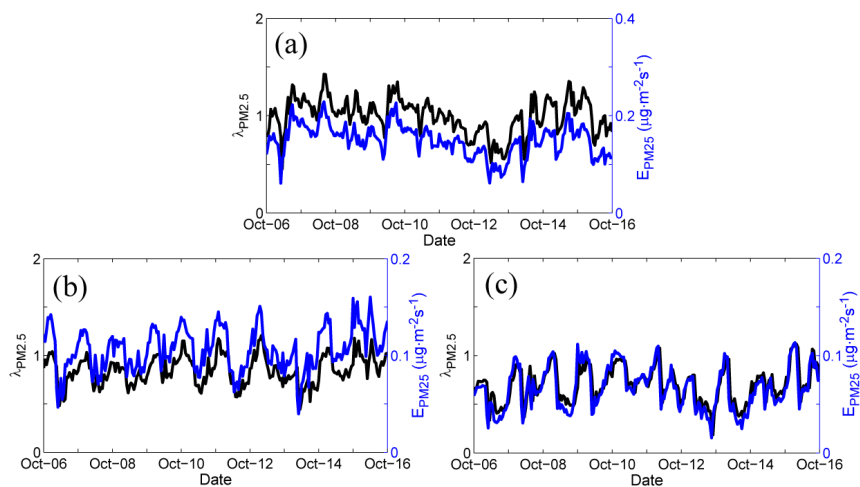
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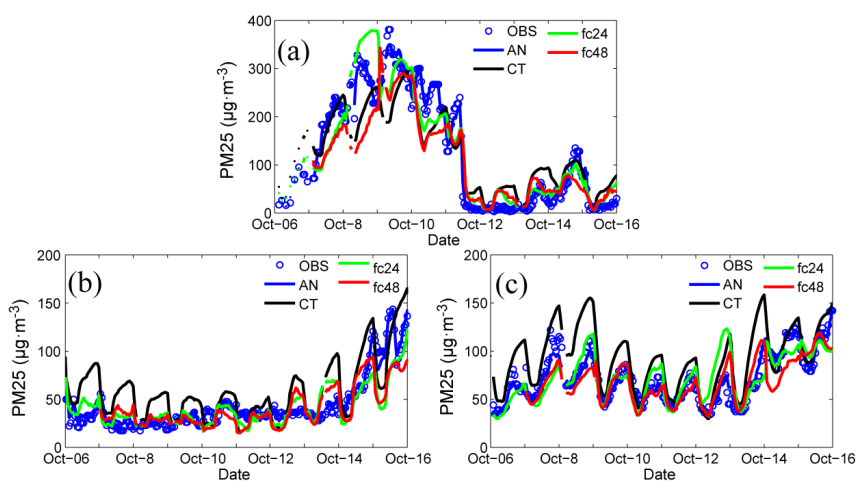
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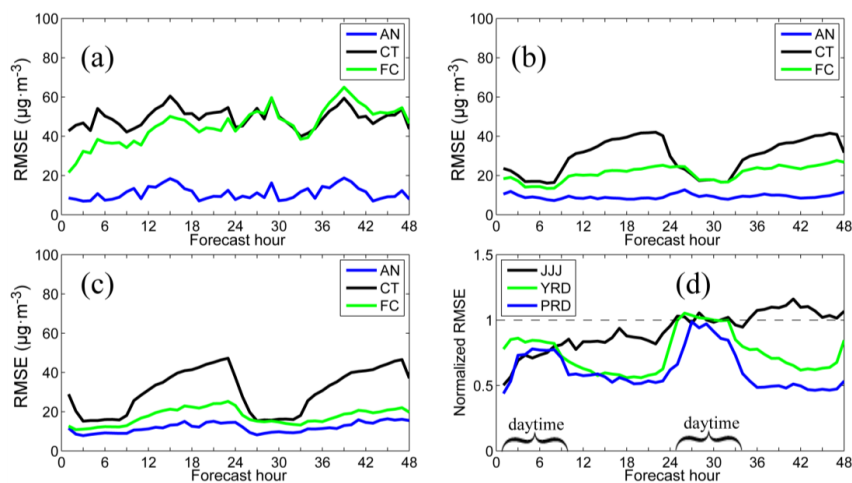
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