

1 **Development and application of the WRFDA-Chem 3DVAR system:**
2 **aiming to improve air quality forecast and diagnose model deficiencies**

3

4 Wei Sun^{1,2}, Zhiquan Liu^{2*}, Dan Chen^{3*}, Pusheng Zhao³, and Min Chen³

5 ¹ National Space Science Center, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100190, China

6 ² National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, 80301, USA

7 ³ Institute of Urban Meteorology, China Meteorology Administration, Beijing, 100089, China

8

* *Corresponding author: Dr. Zhiquan Liu (liuz@ucar.edu) and Dr. Dan Chen (dchen@ium.cn)*

9 **Abstract**

10 To improve the operational air quality forecasting over China, a new aerosol/gas phase pollutants
11 assimilation capability is developed within the WRFDA system using 3DVAR algorithm. In this first
12 application, the interface for MOSAIC aerosol scheme is built with flexible extending potentials.
13 Based on the new WRFDA-Chem system, five experiments assimilating different surface observations,
14 including PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO are conducted for January 2017 along with a control
15 experiment without DA. Results exhibit that the WRFDA-Chem system evidently improves the air
16 quality forecasting. On the analysis aspect, the assimilation of surface observations reduces the bias
17 and RMSE in the initial condition (IC) remarkably; on the forecast aspect, better forecast performances
18 are acquired up to 24-h, in which the experiment assimilating the six pollutants simultaneously displays
19 the best forecast skill overall. With respect to the impact of DA cycling frequency, the responses
20 toward IC updating are found out to be different among the pollutants. For PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, and CO,
21 the forecast skills increase with the DA frequency. For O₃, although improvements are acquired at the
22 6-h cycling frequency, the advantage of more frequent DA could be consumed by the disadvantages
23 of the unbalanced photochemistry (due to inaccurate precursor NO_x/VOC ratios) or the changed
24 titration process (due to changed NO₂ concentrations but not NO) from assimilating the existing
25 observations (only O₃ and NO₂, but no VOC and NO); yet the finding is based on the 00 UTC forecast
26 for this winter season only and O₃ has strong diurnal and seasonal variations, more experiments should
27 be conducted to draw further conclusions. In addition, considering after one aspect (IC) in the model
28 is corrected by DA, the deficiencies from other aspects (e.g., chemical reactions) could be more evident,
29 this study explores the model deficiencies by investigating the effects of assimilating gaseous
30 precursors on the forecast of related aerosols. Results exhibit that the parameterization (uptake

31 coefficients) in the newly added Sulfate-Nitrate-Ammonium (SNA) relevant heterogeneous reactions
32 in the model are not fully appropriate although it best simulates observed SNA aerosols without DA;
33 since the uptake coefficients were originally tuned under the inaccurate gaseous precursor scenarios
34 without DA, the biases from the two aspects (SNA reactions and IC DA) were just compensated. In
35 the future chemistry development, parameterizations (such as uptake coefficients) for different gaseous
36 precursor scenarios should be adjusted and verified with the help of DA technique. According to these
37 results, DA ameliorates certain aspects by using observation as constraints, and thus provides an
38 opportunity to identify and diagnose the model deficiencies; it is useful especially when the
39 uncertainties of various aspects are mixed up and the reaction paths are not clearly revealed. In the
40 future, besides being used to improve the forecast through updating IC, DA could be treated as another
41 approach to explore necessary developments in the model.

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Air pollution is almost inevitable for all developed (historically) and developing (in present days)
44 countries. From acid rain, haze to smog etc., the air pollution significantly impacts atmospheric
45 visibility, human health, and climate. As one of the fastest-growing countries, China has been suffering
46 from the extreme haze with high particulate matter (PM) national-wide and increasing tropospheric
47 ozone (O₃) pollution in city clusters (Fu et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2019). To control the pollutions as well
48 as to improve the air quality forecast, Chinese governments had enforced stricter air quality standards
49 from 2012, and deployed monitoring network for six “criteria” air pollutants since 2013, which
50 includes PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ (aerosols/fine particulate matter with aerodynamic diameters less than 2.5 or
51 10 μm), SO₂ (sulfur dioxide), NO₂ (nitrogen dioxide), O₃ (ozone), and CO (carbon monoxide). Among

52 the six pollutants, the forecast on aerosols (especially PM_{2.5}) is of greatest research interest as the
53 severity of aerosol pollution and its negative effects on both health and climate. However, it's still
54 challenging to accurately simulate and forecast aerosols by pure air quality models due to some issues,
55 such as the large uncertainties in primary and precursor emissions processes, the incomplete
56 understanding and parameterization of secondary inorganic/organic reactions from precursors, and the
57 accumulation of meteorology simulation errors. In addition to aerosol forecast, the elevated O₃ levels
58 in city clusters over eastern China draw more and more attentions recently. Under this circumstance,
59 in the urban regions in China, where suffer from complex air pollution with both haze and smog, the
60 accurate forecast of air quality has been not only a challenge for operational centers, but also a common
61 concern for the scientific community.

62 To improve the forecast skill, data assimilation (DA), a combination of observations and numerical
63 model output, has been widely used in meteorology forecast since last century, and recently extended
64 to air pollutant forecasts. Based upon various techniques, DA is proven to be skillful at improving the
65 meteorology and aerosol forecasts (Bannister 2017; McHenry et al. 2015; Peng et al. 2018; Sandu and
66 Chai 2011; Schutgens et al. 2010; Sekiyama et al. 2010; Tang et al. 2011; Tang et al. 2013). Focusing
67 on aerosol assimilation, NCAR group had conducted a series of work. Using three-dimensional
68 variational (3DVAR) algorithm, Liu et al. (2011) implemented DA on aerosol optical depth estimates
69 within the Grid-point Statistical Interpolation (GSI) system. Schwartz et al. (2012), Jiang et al. (2013),
70 and Chen et al. (2019) further extended this system to assimilate surface PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀. It should be
71 noted that the aerosols are complicated not merely from primary emissions but also secondary
72 reactions with gaseous precursors in the atmosphere (Huang et al. 2014; Nie et al. 2014; Xie et al.
73 2015). However, the assimilation of aerosols along with gas phase pollutants are seldom investigated.

74 Recently, it is encouraging that an Ensemble Kalman Filter (EnKF) DA system is developed to
75 assimilate multi-species surface chemical observations (Peng et al. 2017), while the EnKF system may
76 not be the favorite choice in operational applications due to its massive computational cost. In addition,
77 at the Institute of Urban Meteorology (IUM), regional NWP system–RMAPS-ST (adapted from WRF)
78 and regional air quality model–RMAPS-Chem (adapted from WRF-Chem) are applied operationally
79 for the weather and air quality forecast over Northern China. RMAPS-ST provides the meteorology
80 drivers for RMAPS-Chem, and WRFDA is utilized for the meteorology DA in RMAPS-ST (Fan et al.
81 2016; Yu et al. 2018). In result, to implement the assimilations of aerosols along with gas phase
82 pollutants in the future air quality forecast operational system (e.g. the RMPAS-Chem), and to design
83 an efficient and unified DA platform that satisfies the operational needs in both meteorology and air
84 quality forecast, this study works on the WRFDA system with 3DVAR algorithm. To the authors’
85 knowledge, this is the first attempt to assimilate hourly ground-based aerosols simultaneously with gas
86 phase pollutants in the WRFDA system.

87 With regard to the aerosol data assimilation, the first and foremost challenge comes from the
88 complex components related to the aerosol scheme. With different emphasis and applications, the
89 chosen aerosol scheme in the model could be different, which will lead to various choices and
90 treatments for the analysis variables in the DA system. For example, in the existed DA developments,
91 many studies used the GOCART aerosol scheme to address the dust or the natural-source related events.
92 However, the GOCART aerosol scheme is well known to underestimate the PM concentrations due to
93 lack of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation, as well as aerosol species related to the
94 anthropogenic emission, such as nitrate and ammonium (McKeen et al. 2009; Pang et al. 2018).
95 Different from the GOCART scheme, the MOSAIC (Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions and

96 Chemistry) aerosol scheme uses a sectional approach to represent the aerosol size distribution with
97 different size bins, and it takes black carbon, organic carbon, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, sodium,
98 chloride, and other inorganic compounds that are related to anthropogenic emissions into consideration.
99 In result, the MOSAIC scheme exhibits a better performance in representing the complex PM_{2.5}
100 pollution over China (Chen et al. 2016; Chen et al. 2019). Therefore, to make the DA system suitable
101 for different emphasis and applications, a flexible aerosol assimilation capability is built within the
102 WRFDA system in this study, which will facilitate developments and applications for more chemistry
103 schemes in the future. Focusing on the air quality forecast over China, this study mainly analyses the
104 results of MOSAIC aerosol scheme.

105 It should be mentioned that the forecast performance with DA also relies on the air quality model
106 itself. Due to the limited observational information as constraint, the DA system uses large parts of
107 model mechanism and processes to derive the full analysis information (e.g. use total PM mass
108 observations to analyze all PM components). However, there are still potential deficiencies in the
109 model. For example, some reaction paths are missing in the heavily polluted events in China (e.g.
110 Wang et al., 2014), since the chemistry schemes are originally developed for relatively clean areas and
111 recently observed pathways haven't been timely reflected in the model. Moreover, the large
112 uncertainties of precursor and primary emissions could bring errors to the aerosol species partitioning
113 and size distribution in the model. Nevertheless, when it comes to DA, as one aspect (initial conditions
114 of aerosols and some precursors) in the model is corrected by using observation as constraints, the
115 deficiencies from other aspects, such as the above mentioned chemical reactions, could be more
116 evident. From this point of view, after investigating to what extent the DA technique can help to

117 improve the forecast of air quality, this study further explores the model deficiencies with the help of
118 DA, aiming to provide helpful indications for future model development.

119 In the rest of the paper, an overview of the model description, observations, and methodology is
120 presented in Section 2, followed by evaluations of the new WRFDA-Chem system in Section 3.
121 Section 4 analyzes the DA experiments in consideration of potential issues in the model, aiming to
122 provide beneficial references on further model development. Conclusions and discussions are given in
123 section 5.

124 **2. Model description, observations, and methodology**

125 In this study, the interfaced air quality model is WRF-Chem. The WRF-Chem settings are very
126 similar to those of Chen et al. (2016). Here, only a summary of the model configuration and
127 observations is provided below. Descriptions of the most important development of this study, the
128 WRFDA-Chem system, are presented in Section 2.3.

129 **2.1 WRF-Chem model and emissions**

130 As in Chen et al. (2016), version 3.6.1 of the WRF-Chem model is used in this study to simulate
131 the aerosols and gas-phase chemistry processes. A summary of the used physical parameterizations is
132 given in Table 1. Details of the WRF-Chem model have been described by Grell et al. (2005) and Fast
133 et al. (2006). The Carbon Bond Mechanism version Z (CBMZ) and Model for Simulating Aerosol
134 Interactions and Chemistry (MOSAIC) schemes are used as the gas-phase and aerosol chemical
135 mechanisms, respectively. The relative humidity (RH) dependent heterogeneous reactions added by
136 Chen et al. (2016) are also applied in the simulations. The model computational domain covers most

137 of China and its surrounding regions. Figure 1 presents the horizontal range of the domain, which
138 contains 121 x 121 horizontal grids at a 40.5-km resolution. Vertically, there are 57 levels extending
139 from the surface to 10 hPa.

140 As in Chen et al. (2019), the emission input is based on the 2010 Multi-resolution Emission
141 Inventory for China (MEIC) (He 2012; Lei et al. 2011; Li et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2009), which has
142 already been applied in many recent studies over China (Wang et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2013; Zheng
143 et al. 2015). The emission inventory has also been processed to match the model grid spacing (40.5
144 km) from an original grid spacing of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ (Chen et al. 2016). Admittedly, the difference
145 between the emission base year and our simulation year and the spatial-temporal allocations may arise
146 uncertainties in our simulation, this emission is the only publicly available emission inventory when
147 the study is conducted. Meanwhile, the inhomogeneous spatial changes and large uncertainties in
148 seasonal allocations of the emissions made it difficult to simply scale the original emission inventory
149 for our study period (Chen et al. 2019).

150 The dust emission is the GOCART dust emission and the biogenic emission is calculated online
151 by the Gunther scheme within the WRF-Chem model. Given the time period of this study (January) is
152 not the period with massive fires (crop/biomass burning), the fire emission is not used in this study.

153 **2.2 Observations**

154 For the future application in RMAPS-Chem operational air quality forecast system, the WRFDA-
155 Chem system is designed to assimilate the hourly surface observations of six major pollutants (PM_{2.5},
156 PM₁₀, SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO) from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC).
157 To verify the capability of the system, we use the data for the whole month of January 2017. As in

158 Chen et al. (2019), to perform statistical calculations, an observation dataset at 531 locations (Fig. 1)
159 is acquired by averaging all the original observations (1600+ sites) that fall into the same model grid.
160 Meanwhile, two steps of data quality control are conducted before DA. Firstly, observations larger than
161 a threshold are treated as unrealistic and are not assimilated. Secondly, observations leading to
162 innovations (observations minus the model-simulated values) higher than a maximum deviation are
163 omitted. For PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO, the threshold in the first step is 500 μg m⁻³, 700 μg
164 m⁻³, 200 μg m⁻³, 200 μg m⁻³, 200 μg m⁻³, and 20 mg m⁻³, respectively; the maximum deviation in the
165 second step is 120 μg m⁻³, 120 μg m⁻³, 60 μg m⁻³, 60 μg m⁻³, 60 μg m⁻³, and 6 mg m⁻³, respectively.

166 To verify sulfate-nitrate-ammonium partitioning, a site observation of different chemical species
167 is used in Section 4. The measurements were performed over January 14–20, 2017, and carried out on
168 the roof of IUM in Beijing (green dot in Fig. 1). A detailed description for the features of the
169 observation, including the quality assurance and quality control has been given by Su et al. (2018).
170 This study mainly uses the sulfate (SO₄²⁻) and nitrate (NO₃⁻) in this dataset.

171 **2.3 WRFDA-Chem system**

172 In this study, an aerosol/chemical assimilation capability is built within the version 4.0.3 of the
173 WRFDA system with 3DVAR algorithm. The WRFDA 3DVAR produces the analysis through the
174 minimization of a scalar objective function $J(x)$ given by

$$175 \quad J(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x - x_b)^T B^{-1}(x - x_b) + \frac{1}{2}[H(x) - y]^T R^{-1}[H(x) - y], \quad (1)$$

176 where x_b denotes the background vector, y is a vector of the observations, and B and R
177 represent the background and observation error covariance matrices, respectively. The covariance
178 matrices determine how close the analysis is weighted toward the background and observations. H is

179 the observation operator that interpolates model grid point values to observation space and converts
180 model-predicted variables to observed quantities.

181 Generally, the implementation of WRFDA-Chem 3DVAR includes several parts: WRF-Chem
182 model and surface air pollutants observation interface to WRFDA, the addition of aerosol/chemical
183 analysis variables, the surface air pollutants observation operators, the update of observation errors,
184 and the statistics of background error covariances for chemical analysis variables. Detailed
185 descriptions will be presented in the following parts. It's worth mentioning that the new WRFDA-
186 Chem system is designed with a flexible aerosol assimilation capability that can switch between
187 different aerosol schemes. Given the fact that WRF-Chem model predicts the PM concentrations in
188 the forms of different prognostic variables depending on the chosen aerosol scheme, the
189 aerosol/chemical prognostic variables are given in the registry file of the WRFDA-Chem, instead of
190 specifically defined in the code. With the help of the registry mechanism of WRF model, the prognostic
191 variables in the entire DA process can be easily adjusted by modifying the registry file. The WRFDA-
192 Chem system has been tested with GOCART and MOSAIC aerosol scheme, while this study focuses
193 on the MOSAIC scheme.

194 **2.3.1 Observation operators**

195 The WRFDA-Chem is designed to assimilate six types of surface aerosol/chemical observations,
196 including PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO. For aerosol assimilation, the aerosol species in the
197 MOSAIC scheme are defined as black carbon (BC), organic compounds (OCs), sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate
198 (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), sodium (NA), chloride (CL), and other inorganic compounds (OIN). To
199 represent the aerosol size distribution, MOSAIC uses a sectional approach with different bins. This

200 study uses four size bins with aerosol diameters ranging from 0.039–0.1, 0.1–1.0, 1.0–2.5, and 2.5–
 201 10 μm . The PM_{2.5} total is controlled by the 24 variables in the first three bins (8 species multiplied by
 202 3 bins), and the PM₁₀ total is controlled by the 32 variables in the four bins (8 species multiplied by 4
 203 bins). In result, the model-simulated PM_{2.5} is computed by summing the 24 variables as

$$204 \quad y_{PM_{2.5}}^f = \rho_d \sum_{i=1}^3 [BC_i + OC_i + SO_{4_i} + NO_{3_i} + NH_{4_i} + CL_i + NA_i + OIN_i]. \quad (2)$$

205 The model-simulated PM₁₀ observations are computed by summing the 32 variables as

$$206 \quad y_{PM_{10}}^f = \rho_d \sum_{i=1}^4 [BC_i + OC_i + SO_{4_i} + NO_{3_i} + NH_{4_i} + CL_i + NA_i + OIN_i]. \quad (3)$$

207 Correspondingly,

$$208 \quad y_{PM_{10-2.5}}^f = \rho_d \sum_{i=4}^4 [BC_i + OC_i + SO_{4_i} + NO_{3_i} + NH_{4_i} + CL_i + NA_i + OIN_i], \quad (4)$$

209 where ρ_d is the dry-air density, which is used to convert the unit of the analysis variable ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) to
 210 the observations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$); i denotes the bin number in the MOSAIC aerosol scheme. In the
 211 experiment assimilating PM_{2.5} alone, the PM_{2.5} observations are used to analyze the species in the first
 212 three bins (Eq. 2). In the experiment assimilating PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ simultaneously, the PM_{2.5}
 213 observations are used to analyze the species in the first three bins (Eq. 2), and the PM_{10-2.5} (PMcoarse,
 214 hereafter) in the observations is used to analyze the species in the 4th bin (Eq. 4). A similar approach
 215 has been adopted by Peng et al. (2018).

216 In the assimilation of the gas-phase pollutants, the model-simulated values are computed by

$$217 \quad y_x^f = \rho_d \cdot \frac{M_x}{M_{dair}} \cdot R_x \cdot 10^3, \quad (5)$$

218 where x denotes the four gas-phases pollutants as in SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO, ρ_d is the dry-air density,
 219 M_x is the relative molecular mass for the four gas-phases pollutants, M_{dair} is the relative molecular
 220 mass for dry-air, and R_x is the mixing ratio for the four gas-phases pollutants. Since the gas-phase

221 pollutants observations are mass concentrations in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and the analysis variables are mixing ratios
222 in ppmv, the Eq. 5 is used for the unit conversion.

223 2.3.2 Observation errors

224 Following Chen et al. (2019) and Peng et al. (2018), the observation error covariance matrix \mathbf{R} in
225 Eq. (1) is estimated from measurement error ε_0 and the representativeness error ε_r in this study. The
226 measurement error ε_0 is defined as $\varepsilon_0 = 1.0 + 0.0075 \cdot M_i$, where M_i denotes the observation of
227 the six major pollutants in unit $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; the representativeness error ε_r is defined as $\varepsilon_r = \gamma \varepsilon_0 \sqrt{\frac{\Delta x}{L}}$.
228 where γ is an adjustable parameter scaling (set as 0.5), Δx is the grid spacing (40.5 km in our case)
229 and L is the radius of influence of the observation (set to 2 km). These parameter settings are based
230 on the sensitivity tests by Chen et al. (2019). The total observation error (ε_x) is computed as $\varepsilon_x =$
231 $\sqrt{\varepsilon_{0x}^2 + \varepsilon_{rx}^2}$, where x denotes the six major pollutants as in PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO.

232 2.3.3 Background error covariance

233 To implement the aerosol/chemical DA with the MOSAIC-4Bin scheme, this study expands the
234 GEN_BE v2.0 (Descombes et al. 2015) to compute the \mathbf{B} matrix in Eq. (1) for the 32 chemical variables
235 as in Eq. 3 (BC, OC, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, NA, CL, and OIN in four bins), as well as the four gas-phase
236 variables as in Eq. 5 (SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO). Since it is both technically and scientifically challenging
237 to model the cross-correlations between different aerosol/chemical variables in a 3DVAR framework,
238 they are not considered in this study. We plan to introduce the cross-variable correlations with the
239 ensemble-variational approach in the future extension of the system. With the updated GEN_BE v2.0,

240 the statistics for background error covariance, such as standard deviation, vertical and horizontal length
241 scales, and vertical correlations, are computed for each of the aerosol/chemical variables. In this study,
242 the background error covariance is estimated using the National Meteorological Center (NMC) method
243 (Parrish and Derber, 1992) from one-month WRF-Chem forecasts over January 2017.

244 Following the analyses based on the GEN_BE v2.0 (Descombes et al. 2015), Figure 2 presents the
245 background error standard deviations of each species at different vertical levels. For the aerosols in the
246 first three size bins (Fig. 2a-2c), although the standard deviation errors vary across the species, the
247 errors of NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , OC, and OIN are generally larger than that of the others (BC, Cl and NA)
248 in the three size bins. These results are consistent with the finding in Chen et al. (2019), which allows
249 inorganic compounds (NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+), OC and OIN to be adjusted more in corresponding to their
250 larger background errors. For the aerosols in the 4th size bin (Fig. 2d), the errors are unreasonably
251 much smaller than that in the first three bins due to model deficiency. Under this circumstance, to get
252 a reasonable bigger adjustment for the aerosols in the 4th size bin, it might need to enlarge their
253 background errors in the DA procedure. As for the gaseous pollutants (Fig. 2e), CO has the biggest
254 background errors in the middle and lower layers, followed by O_3 , SO_2 and NO_2 .

255 For the background error horizontal correlation length scales, the results are similar as in Liu et al.
256 (2011) (figure omitted). The length scales of aerosols are comparable in most of the species, which
257 generally span from 1.5 to 2.5 times the grid spacing, while the aerosol species NA exhibits a smaller
258 horizontal length scale than all the other species. For the background error vertical correlations (figure
259 omitted), the results are similar as in Descombes et al. (2015), in which the vertical correlations are
260 bigger in the lower levels (where they are emitted) in most of the species. According to Descombes et

261 al. (2015), the reactions with species emitted near the surface might create these strong correlations in
262 the lower model levels.

263 **2.3.4 Experimental design**

264 To seek for the best forecast performance, six experiments were conducted for January 2017 in
265 this study, including NODA, PM1, PM2, ALL, ALL_3h, and ALL_1h (detailed in Table 2). NODA is
266 the control experiment without any data assimilation. The design of PM1, PM2, and ALL is to
267 investigate the assimilation impacts of PM_{2.5}, PM_{coarse}, and gas-phase pollutants (SO₂, NO₂, O₃, CO)
268 step-by-step.

269 The NODA experiment initialized a new WRF-Chem forecast every 6-h between 00:00 UTC, 20
270 December 2016 and 18:00 UTC 31 January 2017, in which the aerosol/chemical fields were simply
271 carried over from cycle to cycle, and the meteorological initial condition/boundary conditions were
272 updated from GFS data every 6-h. The first 10 days were treated as the spin up period, and only
273 simulations in January were used in the following analyses. The PM1, PM2, and ALL experiments
274 updated the chemical IC using the WRFDA-Chem system every 6-h starting from 00:00 UTC, 1
275 January. The background of the first cycle was obtained from the NODA experiment, and all
276 subsequent cycles were derived from the 6-h forecast of the previous cycle. The only difference
277 between PM1, PM2, and ALL experiments is that PM1 only assimilated PM_{2.5} observations; PM2
278 assimilated PM_{2.5} and PM_{coarse} (PM_{10-2.5}) simultaneously; ALL assimilated PM_{2.5}, PM_{10-2.5},
279 SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO together.

280 In view of the cycling frequency is an important aspect in the DA strategy, especially for 3DVAR,
281 two more experiments that assimilate all the six major pollutants with 3-h and 1-h cycling frequency
282 are conducted respectively (experiment ALL_3h and ALL_1h). To investigate the forecast
283 improvements, a 24-h forecast is initialized for all the experiments at 00:00 UTC of each day.

284 **3. Performance of the WRFDA-Chem system**

285 **3.1 Impact on analyses**

286 To evaluate the performance of the WRFDA-Chem system, the impact on analyses is firstly
287 investigated. Figure 3 presents the domain-averaged bias and root-mean-square-error (RMSE) of the
288 analysis at 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017. For PM_{2.5} (Fig. 3a), the NODA experiment displays a
289 general overestimation of 36.60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, along with a large RMSE of 70.41 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. After DA, in the
290 PM1, PM2, and ALL experiments, the bias of PM_{2.5} drops to 5.62 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 5.19 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and 5.98 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
291 respectively; the RMSE drops to 22.10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 22.84 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and 23.15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively.

292 In the analyses of PM₁₀, it is noted that the PM1 experiment has a larger bias than the NODA run
293 (Fig. 3b). To explain this phenomenon, Figure 4 presents the monthly mean difference between PM₁₀
294 and PM_{2.5} (PM₁₀ minus PM_{2.5}, PM_{coarse}) in the analysis. In the observation, the PM_{coarse} generally
295 increases from south to north, reaching above 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ over northern China (Fig. 4a). However, the
296 PM_{coarse} in the NODA experiment (with an average of 5.47 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) is much smaller than that in the
297 observation (with an average of 39.13 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). This result suggests that the WRF-Chem model failed
298 to reasonably represent the PM_{coarse}, which is actually the 4th bin of the aerosol species in the
299 MOSAIC scheme. Under this circumstance, when the assimilation of PM_{2.5} trying to reduce its evident
300 overestimation (Fig. 3a), components in the first three bins (within 2.5 μm) of PM₁₀ decrease

301 dramatically. Meanwhile, since the simulated PM_{coarse} is too small, the PM₁₀ variates are eventually
302 dominated by the adjustment of PM_{2.5}. In result, the assimilation of PM_{2.5} causes a large negative bias
303 in the PM₁₀ analysis (Fig. 3b). Correspondingly, compared to the NODA run, the PM_{coarse} in the PM₁₀
304 experiment exhibit no significant changes (only slightly decrease) in the analysis (Figs. 4b and 4c) and
305 also in the forecast (Fig 4f).

306 To overcome this issue, several adjustments have been adapted in the PM₁₀ assimilation: instead
307 of using the PM₁₀ observations directly, the PM_{coarse} is used to analyze the species in the 4th bin (Eq.
308 4); to reflect the large uncertainty of the simulated PM_{coarse} and to appropriately weighting the model
309 and observation errors, the background error covariance of the PM_{coarse} (species in the 4th bin) is
310 arbitrarily inflated (inflation factor 1 is normally used and 90 is selected after tuning). By this means,
311 after assimilating the PM₁₀ observations, the PM₂ and ALL experiments exhibit similar distributions
312 in the PM_{coarse} (Figs. 4d-e, with an average of 34.58 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and 34.68 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) as in the observation
313 (with an average of 39.13 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Correspondingly, compared to the NODA experiment, evident
314 improvements for PM₁₀ analysis appear in the PM₂ and ALL experiments, in which the bias and RMSE
315 drops evidently (Fig. 3b). Overall, the DA experiments exhibit strong contributions to the analyses of
316 PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, suggesting that the WRFDA-Chem system works effectively in updating the initial
317 conditions.

318 As for the analyses of gaseous pollutants (Figs. 3c-3f), large improvements can be seen in the ALL
319 experiment by further assimilating SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO. Compared to the PM₂ experiment, although
320 the bias and RMSE for PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ in the ALL experiment are slightly larger, the bias for the four
321 gaseous pollutants decrease from 4.74 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, -4.59 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 4.92 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and -8.31 mg/m^3 (PM₂
322 experiment) to -1.68 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, -1.25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, -0.31 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and -0.18 mg/m^3 (ALL experiment),

323 respectively, and the corresponding RMSE drops from $37.87 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $15.39 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $21.04 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and
324 $1.11 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ (PM2 experiment) to $23.85 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $9.70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $8.62 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and $0.43 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ (ALL
325 experiment). In general, by assimilating all the six major pollutants, the ALL experiment displays the
326 largest improvement in the analyses of gaseous pollutants among all the experiments, along with a
327 comparable improvement in the analyses of the aerosols.

328 Due to the lack of vertical information within the observations, the common mathematical solution
329 to use the surface total mass observations to analyze multiple 3-D fields variables is to utilize prior
330 information in the background. As shown in Fig. 5, based on vertical correlations specified in the
331 background error covariance, the observation impact spreads to a certain height, even though the
332 analysis variables used in the observation operator (Eq. 2-5) are only at the lowest model level. It is
333 also noted that observations contribute differently to the analysis variables. Corresponding to the
334 strong overestimation of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (Fig. 3a), all the three DA experiments (PM1, PM2 and ALL) tend to
335 reduce the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ below 6 km; corresponding to the distinct underestimation for CO (Fig. 3f), the
336 experiment assimilating CO (ALL experiment) increases the value below 9 km. Relative small analysis
337 increments are shown in the other three gas pollutants (SO_2 , NO_2 , and O_3).

338 **3.2 Forecast improvements**

339 After illustrating the effect of WRFDA-Chem on the analyses, this section further investigates the
340 forecast performances based on the new analyses. A 24-h forecast is performed at each 00 UTC from
341 1 to 31 January 2017. The forecast error statistics, including bias, RMSE, and correlation, are computed
342 by verifying against the surface observations at 531 stations over China.

343 As shown in Fig. 6, the model performs relative poorly in the forecast of aerosols without DA.
344 For PM_{2.5}, the average bias, RMSE, and correlation over 0-24 h are 31.17 μg/m³, 88.99 μg/m³, and
345 0.41, respectively (Tab. 3). As expected, all the DA experiments improve the forecasts evidently.
346 Along with the forecast range, distinct improvements on bias, RMSE and correlation last from 0 to 24
347 h. For example, in PM1 experiment, the average improvement percentages (over 0-24 h) for bias,
348 RMSE and correlation reach up to 71.8%, 39.4%, and 43.9%, respectively. It is also noted that PM_{2.5}
349 observation is the dominant data source in improving PM_{2.5} forecast. As for PM₁₀, distinct
350 improvements on RMSE and correlation can be seen from 0 to 24 h. Especially after assimilating the
351 PMcoarse (PM_{10-2.5} in PM2 and All experiments), the averaged improvement percentage for RMSE
352 and correlation reach up to about 27.0 % and 55.5%. For bias, since the statistics are averaged over the
353 531 stations, the offset of large positive and negative bias at different stations leads to the small
354 averaged bias in the NODA run (see the spatial distribution of bias at the individual site in Section 1
355 of the supplementary material). Considering the DA experiments exhibit distinct improvements on
356 RMSE and correlation, WRFDA-Chem still provides a generally positive contribution to the PM₁₀
357 forecast.

358 Figure 7 presents the averaged forecast error statistics for SO₂, NO₂, O₃, and CO with respect to
359 forecast range. In PM1 and PM2 experiments that do not assimilate the gas-phase observations, no
360 significant changes appear in the forecasts of the gaseous pollutants compared to the NODA run; after
361 assimilating the gas-phase observations, the ALL experiment shows evident improvements in all the
362 four gaseous pollutants, in which the improvements for SO₂, NO₂, and O₃ are more significant in 0-10
363 h, and the improvements for CO last up to 24 h. According to the numbers shown in Table 3, for SO₂,
364 NO₂, O₃, and CO, the average bias (RMSE) in the ALL experiment decreases by 43.3%, 42.2%, 73.9%,

365 and 74.0% (13.4%, 5.3%, 11.3%, and 33.7%), compared to the NODA run, and the average correlation
366 increases by 37.9%, 8.3%, 41.4%, and 103.5%, respectively. It is worth noting that the WRFDA-Chem
367 system has a positive impact on the forecast of NO₂ and O₃ by merely analyzing the IC. Since NO₂
368 and O₃ are related to complex photochemical reaction processes, the assimilation of NO₂ and O₃
369 usually does not work well as other gas-phase pollutants on the forecast aspect, even with both
370 emission and IC analyzed (Peng et al. 2018). In result, the aerosol/chemical assimilation based on
371 WRFDA-Chem could not only contribute to the conventional aerosol forecasts in operational
372 applications but also provide valuable help in the emerging study demands for gaseous pollutants,
373 especially O₃.

374 Air Quality Index (AQI), which is used for reporting daily air quality and issuing alarms, is one
375 of the service products of RMAPS-Chem operational air quality model over Northern China. Generally,
376 AQI is classified into six levels rating from good to hazardous: 0-50 (level 1), 51-100 (level 2), 101-
377 150 (level 3), 151-200 (level 4), 201-300 (level 5), and 300+ (Level 6). Similar to previous studies
378 (Kumar and Goyal 2011; Tao et al. 2015; Zheng et al. 2014), AQI is calculated for the six major
379 pollutants. The pollutant with the highest AQI level is deemed as the “main pollutant” and its AQI
380 determines the overall AQI level. Accordingly, the accurate forecast of AQI requires the overall good
381 performances of the six pollutants. To reflect the integrated DA effect of aerosols and gas-phase
382 pollutants, the threat score (TS), one of the most commonly used criteria in the verifications of
383 meteorology forecast, is used for AQI at each AQI level. The threat score (TS) for air quality index
384 (AQI) is calculated by

385

$$TS_i = \frac{H_i}{H_i + M_i + F_i} \quad (6)$$

386 where H, M, and F denotes the times of the hits, the misses, and the false alarms in the forecast of
387 AQI, and i denotes the AQI levels from 1 to 6. In result, the TS is acquired at each AQI level ranging
388 from 0 to 1, and the higher (lower) TS represents the better (worse) forecast performance.

389 As shown in Fig. 8, in the beginning of the forecast, DA experiments (PM1, PM2 and ALL)
390 increase the TS remarkably at all AQI levels, and then gradually decrease (quickly drop) with the
391 forecast range at AQI levels 2-6 (AQI level 1). Nevertheless, for the polluted situations with AQI levels
392 3-6, evident improvements can be seen from 0 to 24h in all the DA experiments, in which the average
393 TS increase from 0.19, 0.09, 0.16, and 0.19 (NODA experiment) to about 0.27, 0.16, 0.27, and 0.26
394 (DA experiments), respectively. For heavily polluted situations with AQI levels 5-6 (Figs. 8e-f),
395 compared to the PM1 case, TS experiences a further increase in the PM2 and ALL experiments after
396 assimilating the PMcoarse (PM_{10-2.5}). This result indicates that for heavily polluted events during this
397 period (January 2017), PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ could be the “main pollutant” that contributes the most to the
398 AQI.

399 In general, the new WRFDA-Chem evidently improves the aerosol/chemical forecasting. Based
400 on the assimilation of the six major pollutants, the chemical ICs are improved distinctly and a better
401 forecast performance is acquired up to 24 hours. Among different experiments, the ALL experiment
402 displays the best forecast error statistics for most of the major pollutants along with the highest TS for
403 AQI. In the following operational applications, it is recommended to assimilate the six major pollutants
404 simultaneously, which will help to get better analyses and forecast skills on the whole.

405 3.3 Response to DA cycling frequency

406 Cycling frequency is an important aspect in the DA strategy. However, the responses toward IC
407 updating could be different among the pollutants. To figure out this issue and to provide helpful
408 references for future applications, DA experiments with different cycling frequencies were analyzed
409 in this section.

410 Figure 9 shows the domain-averaged bias and RMSE of the analysis as in Fig. 3, but for
411 experiments with different DA frequencies (ALL_6h, ALL_3h, and ALL_1h; the ALL_6h is the ALL
412 experiment in Tab.2). Except for O₃, most of the variables display a gradual improvement with the
413 increase of cycling frequency. For example, from NODA run to the 6-h cycling experiment, and then
414 to the 3-h and 1-h cycling experiment, the bias (RMSE) for PM_{2.5} gradually decrease from 36.60 µg/m³
415 (70.41 µg/m³) to 5.98 µg/m³ (23.15 µg/m³), and then to 5.41 µg/m³ (21.32 µg/m³) and 4.30 µg/m³
416 (18.54 µg/m³). Similar results also exist in the bias for SO₂, NO₂, and CO, as well as the RMSE for
417 PM₁₀, SO₂, and CO. In accordance with the gradual improvements in the analyses, the forecast skills
418 increase with the cycling frequency in most of the variables except O₃ (Figs. 10-11). Especially for the
419 forecasts of aerosols, evident gradual improvements can be seen from 0 to 24 h. From the 6-h cycling
420 experiment to the 3-h and the 1-h cycling experiment, the averaged decrease percentage of RMSE for
421 PM_{2.5} (PM₁₀) enlarges from 38.76% to 41.27% and 44.21% (27.31% to 30.17% and 32.97%); the
422 averaged increase percentage of correlation for PM_{2.5} (PM₁₀) enlarges from 42.82% to 49.51% and
423 55.58% (57.71% to 66.39% and 74.89%). To further investigate the integrated DA effect of aerosols
424 and gas phase pollutants under different cycling frequency, the TS for AQI is shown in Fig. 12. The
425 forecast of air quality is improved step by step with the increase of cycling frequency. On AQI levels
426 2-6, the TS for the ALL_1h experiment situates above the ALL_3h experiment at most of the time,

427 and followed by the ALL_6h experiment. These results indicate that the frequent IC updating is helpful
428 to further improve the forecast for most of the pollutants.

429 However, the analysis and 24-hr forecast of O₃ become worse under higher cycling frequencies
430 for this winter season (Fig. 9e and 11c). Given the analysis is at 00 UTC, the worsen analysis in the
431 experiments with higher DA frequencies (1-h, 3-h) could be mainly due to the unfavorable changes in
432 the 1-h/3-h forecasts period (starting from 23 UTC, 21 UTC), which is different from the situation in
433 the 6-h cycling experiment. As for the forecasts, the 24-hr performances starting from 00 UTC show
434 complex changes along with the forecast range: compared to the 6-h cycling experiment, the biases in
435 the experiments with higher DA frequencies decrease at 09-14 UTC but increase for other hours; the
436 RMSE and correlations in the experiments with higher DA frequencies become worse in most of the
437 hours (Fig. 11c). It should be mentioned that O₃ is a relatively short-lived chemical reactive species,
438 and takes part in highly complex and photochemical reactions in association with NO_x and VOC (Peng
439 et al. 2018, Lu et al., 2019). From this perspective, the performances of O₃ could also rely on the
440 photochemistry and the NO_x titration, in addition to the IC. Although the winter month (January 2017)
441 is investigated here when ozone photochemistry is relatively weaker compared to other seasons, the
442 photochemistry and the NO_x titration still play their roles. Accordingly, when the assimilation of NO₂
443 changes the NO₂ concentration and leave the NO and VOC unadjusted due to the absence of NO and
444 VOC measurements, two results might occur: firstly, the NO₂/VOC ratio which determine the
445 photochemical reactions and even the regime might be changed (O₃ production/loss direction might
446 change); secondly, the NO_x titration process might be changed due to the NO₂ concentration updates
447 (but no change on NO). Considering the relevant NO_x-VOC-O₃ reactions take place quickly, changing
448 the O₃ concentration in a short period, the advantage of IC DA could compete with the disadvantages

449 of the disordered photochemistry (inaccurate NO₂/VOC ratios) or the changed titration (adjusted NO₂
450 concentrations but not NO) resulting from the DA. Under this circumstance, the more frequent the O₃
451 and NO₂ were assimilated, the more incompatibilities could be brought into the related
452 photochemical/titration reactions, resulting the model performs worse in the O₃ forecasts under higher
453 cycling frequencies. It is noted that these statistics were only for the analysis at 00UTC and the 24-hr
454 forecast starting from 00UTC for winter season. Since O₃ has strong diurnal and seasonal variations,
455 more experiments and statistics at different time of the day and different season of the year should be
456 conducted in the future.

457 According to the results above, it is better to assimilate PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, and CO every 1 h and
458 assimilate O₃ and NO₂ every 6 h in the future applications, given the fact that the 6-h cycling
459 experiment performs the best in the O₃ forecasting (Fig. 11c) and displays no significant differences
460 in the NO₂ forecasting with experiments under higher cycling frequencies (Fig. 11b). It could also be
461 helpful to assimilate the VOC along with O₃ and NO₂ after there are corresponding observations.

462 **4. Indications on further model development**

463 A higher forecast skill relies on not only better working of DA, but also better performance of the
464 forecast model. To further improve the forecast skill, a crucial task is to understand the deficiencies in
465 the model, while the challenge in chemistry model diagnostic is that uncertainties are from various
466 aspects and are mixed-up in the model simulations, and the situation becomes even more complex
467 when the reaction path is not yet revealed by laboratory. However, with the help of DA, as one aspect
468 (IC) in the model is corrected by using observation as constraints, the deficiencies from other aspects
469 (e.g. chemical reactions) could be more evident, and thus there could be a better chance to diagnose

470 the deficiencies in the model. Specifically, Sulfate-nitrate-ammonium (SNA) are the predominant
471 inorganic aerosol species that contribute up to 50% of total PM_{2.5} in heavily polluted events in northern
472 China (Wang et al. 2014). In addition to the normal pathways in the MOSAIC scheme, we added SO₂-
473 NO₂-NO₃ related heterogeneous reactions for high relative humidity case in WRF-Chem (Chen et al.
474 2016), which greatly improved the underestimated SNA simulations. Since the newly added reactions
475 are calculated on both the concentration of precursors (SO₂, NO₂-NO₃) and the uptake coefficients in
476 the model, after DA corrected the concentrations of the precursors (one aspect), the impacts of the
477 uptake coefficients could be more evident (the other aspect than the one corrected). Ideally, if the
478 newly added reactions depict the heterogeneous reaction processes properly, a forecast improvement
479 on the aerosols could be expected by assimilating their gaseous precursors. Based on this notion, this
480 section verifies the forecast of two specific aerosol species, sulfate (SO₄²⁻) and nitrate (NO₃⁻), against
481 a size-resolved particle observation over Beijing IUM station (in view of the assimilated SO₂ and NO₂
482 are the corresponding gaseous precursors of these aerosol species), aiming to explore the deficiencies
483 in the uptake coefficients in the newly added heterogeneous reactions, and to provide beneficial
484 indications for future model development.

485 Figure 13 presents the time series of sulfate and nitrate over Beijing IUM station. In the ALL
486 experiment, after assimilating both the PM concentrations and the gaseous precursors (SO₂, NO₂), the
487 forecasts of sulfate and nitrate become even worse than the PM₂ experiment which only assimilates
488 the PM concentrations. In the ALL experiment, sulfate experiences a decrease, accompanied by the
489 average RMSE grows from 4.32 to 4.88 μg/m³; nitrate exhibits an increase, accompanied by the
490 average RMSE grows from 8.74 to 10.12 μg/m³. However, compared to the PM₂ experiment, the
491 precursors (SO₂ and NO₂) are indeed improved. Figure 14 displays the analysis statistics of SO₂ and

492 NO₂ in the ALL experiment around Beijing area (red dots in Fig. 1) on January 16, the period with the
493 largest changes of sulfate and nitrate (Fig. 13). To correct the overestimated SO₂ (underestimated NO₂)
494 in the background, the DA in reduces (enhances) the model value in the ALL experiment, making it
495 closer to the observations.

496 It should be mentioned that the heterogeneous reactions are added by using the sulfate-nitrate-
497 ammonium observations as constraints to tune the “observation-best-matched” uptake coefficients
498 under the scenario without DA, in which the precursor concentrations are from pure model thus not
499 very accurate. To best match the observation, when gaseous precursors are overestimated
500 (underestimated) in the model, the uptake coefficient is tuned to low-biased (high-biased) value. In
501 result, such a coefficient may no longer be suited for the cases with DA. For instance, after DA
502 reducing the overestimated SO₂, the uptake coefficient is still relatively low and thus the reaction from
503 SO₂ to sulfate will stay at a low rate (with both low value of SO₂ and low reaction coefficient). A
504 similar result also exists for the reaction from NO₂ to nitrate. From this perspective, the negative effects
505 on sulfate and nitrate in the ALL experiment may not be hard to understand (Fig. 13). Therefore, in
506 the future chemistry development, it is necessary to develop more appropriate coefficients for different
507 gaseous precursor scenarios, in which more constraints, such as precursor and species concentrations,
508 should be provided with the help of DA technique. Accordingly, further improvements on aerosol
509 forecast could be expected by assimilating their gaseous precursors.

510 According to the results above, the DA technique provides an opportunity to identify and diagnose
511 the deficiencies in the model. By correcting the precursor concentrations through DA (one aspect), the
512 deficiency of the uptake coefficients for the SNA heterogeneous reactions (the other aspect than the
513 one corrected) is revealed. In the future, besides being used to improve the forecast skill through

514 updating the IC, DA could be used as another approach to reveal the necessary developments in the
515 model.

516 **5. Conclusions and discussions**

517 To improve the operational air quality forecasting over China, a flexible aerosol and gas phase
518 pollutants assimilation capability that can switch between different aerosol schemes is developed based
519 on the WRFDA system with 3DVAR algorithm. This flexibility is designed to address the complexity
520 of current aerosol schemes and to facilitate future chemistry developments. In this first application, the
521 assimilation capability of surface observations of six major pollutants, including PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂,
522 NO₂, O₃, and CO, is built with MOSAIC aerosol scheme.

523 Before application in the operational air quality model, capability of the WRFDA-Chem system is
524 verified in terms of analysis and forecast performances. Using the updated system, five DA
525 experiments (assimilate different combinations of pollutants in various frequencies) were conducted
526 for January 2017, along with a control experiment without DA. Results exhibit that the WRFDA-Chem
527 system evidently improves the forecast of aerosols and gas phase pollutants. On the aspect of analysis,
528 the assimilation of different atmospheric-composition observation reduces the bias and RMSE in the
529 IC remarkably (e.g. by about 68%, 61%, and 30-60% in the RMSE for PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and gas phase
530 pollutants); on the aspect of forecast skill, better performances are acquired up to 24 hours with about
531 10-40% (30-50%) improvements in the RMSE (correlation) for different pollutants. Among different
532 experiments, the one assimilating all the six pollutants displays the best forecast error statistics for
533 most of the pollutants along with the highest TS for AQI. In future applications, to get a better analysis
534 and forecast skill in general, it is recommended to assimilate the six major pollutants simultaneously.

535 As the cycling frequency is an important aspect in the DA strategy, DA experiments with various
536 cycling frequencies are also analyzed. Results exhibit that the responses toward IC updating are
537 different among the pollutants. For PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, and CO, the forecast skills increase with the DA
538 frequency; for O₃, compared to a better performance at the 6-h cycling frequency, its analysis at 00
539 UTC and the following 24-hr forecast become generally worse under higher cycling frequencies for
540 this winter season, although the biases did decrease at 09-14 UTC in the 24-hr forecast. Considering
541 the relevant NO_x-VOC-O₃ reaction system changes the NO₂/O₃ concentration in a short period, the
542 advantage of IC DA could compete with the disadvantages of the disordered photochemistry
543 (inaccurate NO₂/VOC ratios) or the changed titration (adjusted NO₂ concentrations but not NO)
544 resulting from the DA. In future applications, it is better to assimilate PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, and CO
545 every 1 h. For the frequency of O₃ and NO₂ assimilation, every 6 h is the best in this winter season in
546 our study. Since O₃ has strong diurnal and seasonal variations, more experiments and statistics at
547 different time of the day and different season of the year should be conducted in the future. Also, it
548 might be helpful to assimilate NO/VOC simultaneously with O₃ and NO₂ after there are corresponding
549 measurements.

550 By investigating the effect of assimilating gaseous precursors on the forecast of related aerosols,
551 the deficiencies in the WRF-Chem model are further revealed. The uptake coefficients for Sulfate-
552 Nitrate-Ammonium heterogeneous reactions in the model are found out to be not appropriate in the
553 applications with gaseous precursors (SO₂ and NO₂) assimilations, since they were originally tuned
554 under the gaseous precursor scenarios without DA and the biases from the two aspects (SNA reactions
555 and IC DA) were just compensated. In the future chemistry development, it is necessary to develop

556 appropriate coefficients for different gaseous precursor scenarios, in which more constraints, such as
557 precursor and species concentrations, should be provided with the help of DA technique.

558 As for the significantly underestimated PMcoarse in the model, the results might relate to the
559 missing emissions under current situations. Different from the United states or European countries that
560 national emission inventories are provided and updated frequently by the government (e.g. US
561 National Emission Inventory NEI 05-08-11-14-17), the publicly available emission inventories for
562 China are mainly established by several scientific research groups. In result, the uncertainties of the
563 publicly available emission inventories in China are relatively larger compared with others (US,
564 European countries), and it's a known problem that the fugitive dust emissions over the whole of China
565 is still lack, which might cause the underestimated PMcoarse simulation in the model.

566 Contributed by the flexible aerosol assimilation capability of the WRFDA-Chem system,
567 development for other aerosol schemes targeting different regions in Asia is undergoing. In the next
568 step, a study will focus on assimilating chemical observations from different observing platforms, such
569 as satellite AOD observations, which contain more information over the areas with sparse surface
570 observations. In addition, more advanced DA techniques, such as 4DVAR and Hybrid DA, could be
571 taken into consideration in further developing the aerosol/chemical DA system.

572 **Code and data availability**

573 The data used in the figures and the developed WRFDA-Chem codes are available from WS upon
574 request.

575 **Author contributions**

576 WS and ZL conducted development of DA system. ZL, DC, WS, and MC designed research, WS
577 performed experiments and analyzed results, PZ provided PM species observations, and WS and DC
578 wrote the paper with contributions from all co-authors.

579 **Acknowledgement**

580 This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program on Monitoring, Early Warning and
581 Prevention of Major Natural Disasters under grant (2017YFC1501406), and Basic R&D special fund
582 for central level, scientific research institutes (IUMKYSZHJ201701, IUMKY201807) of China.
583 NCAR is sponsored by the US National Science Foundation.

584 **Competing interests**

585 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

586 **References**

- 587 Bannister, R., 2017: A review of operational methods of variational and ensemble-variational data
588 assimilation. *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, **143**, 607-633.
- 589 Chen, D., Z. Liu, J. Fast, and J. Ban, 2016: Simulations of sulfate–nitrate–ammonium (SNA) aerosols
590 during the extreme haze events over northern China in October 2014. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*
591 *Physics*, **16**, 10707-10724.

592 Chen, D., Z. Liu, J. Ban, P. Zhao, and M. Chen, 2019: Retrospective analysis of 2015–2017 wintertime
593 PM 2.5 in China: response to emission regulations and the role of meteorology. *Atmospheric*
594 *Chemistry and Physics*, **19**, 7409-7427.

595 Chen, F., and J. Dudhia, 2001: Coupling an advanced land surface–hydrology model with the Penn
596 State–NCAR MM5 modeling system. Part I: Model implementation and sensitivity. *Monthly*
597 *Weather Review*, **129**, 569-585.

598 Chou, M.-D., and M. J. Suarez, 1994: An efficient thermal infrared radiation parameterization for use
599 in general circulation models.

600 Descombes, G., T. Auligné, F. Vandenberghe, D. Barker, and J. Barre, 2015: Generalized background
601 error covariance matrix model (GEN_BE v2. 0). *Geoscientific Model Development*, **8**, 669-696.

602 Fan, S., and Coauthors, 2016: Introduction of Rapid-refresh Multi-scale Analysis and Prediction
603 System - short time (RMAP-ST) over Northern China (in Chinese). *33th Annual Meeting of*
604 *Chinese Meteorological Society*.

605 Fast, J. D., and Coauthors, 2006: Evolution of ozone, particulates, and aerosol direct radiative forcing
606 in the vicinity of Houston using a fully coupled meteorology-chemistry-aerosol model. *Journal*
607 *of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **111**.

608 Fu, Y., H. Liao, and Y. Yang, 2019: Interannual and decadal changes in tropospheric ozone in China
609 and the associated chemistry-climate interactions: A review. *Advances in Atmospheric Sciences*,
610 **36**, 975-993.

611 Grell, G. A., and D. Dévényi, 2002: A generalized approach to parameterizing convection combining
612 ensemble and data assimilation techniques. *Geophysical Research Letters*, **29**, 38-31-38-34.

613 Grell, G. A., S. E. Peckham, R. Schmitz, S. A. McKeen, G. Frost, W. C. Skamarock, and B. Eder,
614 2005: Fully coupled “online” chemistry within the WRF model. *Atmospheric Environment*, **39**,
615 6957-6975.

616 He, K., 2012: Multi-resolution emission Inventory for China (MEIC): model framework and 1990–
617 2010 anthropogenic emissions, presented on the international Global Atmospheric Chemistry
618 Conference, 17–21 September 2012, Beijing, China.

619 Hong, S.-Y., Y. Noh, and J. Dudhia, 2006: A new vertical diffusion package with an explicit treatment
620 of entrainment processes. *Monthly weather review*, **134**, 2318-2341.

621 Huang, X., Y. Song, C. Zhao, M. Li, T. Zhu, Q. Zhang, and X. Zhang, 2014: Pathways of sulfate
622 enhancement by natural and anthropogenic mineral aerosols in China. *Journal of Geophysical*
623 *Research: Atmospheres*, **119**, 14,165-114,179.

624 Jiang, Z., Z. Liu, T. Wang, C. S. Schwartz, H. C. Lin, and F. Jiang, 2013: Probing into the impact of
625 3DVAR assimilation of surface PM10 observations over China using process analysis. *Journal*
626 *of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **118**, 6738-6749.

627 Kumar, A., and P. Goyal, 2011: Forecasting of daily air quality index in Delhi. *Science of the Total*
628 *Environment*, **409**, 5517-5523.

629 Lei, Y., Q. Zhang, K. He, and D. Streets, 2011: Primary anthropogenic aerosol emission trends for
630 China, 1990–2005. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **11**, 931-954.

631 Li, M., and Coauthors, 2014: Mapping Asian anthropogenic emissions of non-methane volatile organic
632 compounds to multiple chemical mechanisms. *Atmos. Chem. Phys*, **14**, 5617-5638.

633 Liu, Z., Q. Liu, H. C. Lin, C. S. Schwartz, Y. H. Lee, and T. Wang, 2011: Three-dimensional
634 variational assimilation of MODIS aerosol optical depth: Implementation and application to a
635 dust storm over East Asia. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 116 (D23).

636 Lu, X., and Coauthors, 2019: Exploring 2016–2017 surface ozone pollution over China: source
637 contributions and meteorological influences. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **19**, 8339-8361.

638 McHenry, J. N., J. M. Vukovich, and N. C. Hsu, 2015: Development and implementation of a remote-
639 sensing and in situ data-assimilating version of CMAQ for operational PM_{2.5} forecasting. Part
640 1: MODIS aerosol optical depth (AOD) data-assimilation design and testing. *Journal of the Air
641 & Waste Management Association*, **65**, 1395-1412.

642 McKeen, S., and Coauthors, 2009: An evaluation of real-time air quality forecasts and their urban
643 emissions over eastern Texas during the summer of 2006 Second Texas Air Quality Study field
644 study. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **114**.

645 Mlawer, E. J., S. J. Taubman, P. D. Brown, M. J. Iacono, and S. A. Clough, 1997: Radiative transfer
646 for inhomogeneous atmospheres: RRTM, a validated correlated-k model for the longwave.
647 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **102**, 16663-16682.

648 Nie, W., and Coauthors, 2014: Polluted dust promotes new particle formation and growth. *Scientific
649 reports*, **4**, 6634.

650 Pang, J., Z. Liu, X. Wang, J. Bresch, J. Ban, D. Chen, and J. Kim, 2018: Assimilating AOD retrievals
651 from GOCI and VIIRS to forecast surface PM_{2.5} episodes over Eastern China. *Atmospheric
652 environment*, **179**, 288-304.

653 Peng, Z., Z. Liu, D. Chen, and J. Ban, 2017: Improving PM 2.5 forecast over China by the joint
654 adjustment of initial conditions and source emissions with an ensemble Kalman filter.
655 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **17**, 4837-4855.

656 Peng, Z., and Coauthors, 2018: The impact of multi-species surface chemical observation assimilation
657 on air quality forecasts in China. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **18**, 17387-17404.

658 Sandu, A., and T. Chai, 2011: Chemical data assimilation—An overview. *Atmosphere*, **2**, 426-463.

659 Schutgens, N., T. Miyoshi, T. Takemura, and T. Nakajima, 2010: Applying an ensemble Kalman filter
660 to the assimilation of AERONET observations in a global aerosol transport model. *Atmospheric*
661 *Chemistry and Physics*, **10**, 2561-2576.

662 Schwartz, C. S., Z. Liu, H. C. Lin, and S. A. McKeen, 2012: Simultaneous three-dimensional
663 variational assimilation of surface fine particulate matter and MODIS aerosol optical depth.
664 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **117**.

665 Sekiyama, T., T. Tanaka, A. Shimizu, and T. Miyoshi, 2010: Data assimilation of CALIPSO aerosol
666 observations. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **10**, 39-49.

667 Su, J., P. Zhao, and Q. Dong, 2018: Chemical compositions and liquid water content of size-resolved
668 aerosol in Beijing. *Aerosol Air Qual. Res*, **18**, 680-692.

669 Tang, X., J. Zhu, Z. Wang, and A. Gbaguidi, 2011: Improvement of ozone forecast over Beijing based
670 on ensemble Kalman filter with simultaneous adjustment of initial conditions and emissions.
671 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **11**, 12901-12916.

672 Tang, X., and Coauthors, 2013: Inversion of CO emissions over Beijing and its surrounding areas with
673 ensemble Kalman filter. *Atmospheric environment*, **81**, 676-686.

674 Tao, J., L. Zhang, J. Gao, H. Wang, F. Chai, and S. Wang, 2015: Aerosol chemical composition and
675 light scattering during a winter season in Beijing. *Atmospheric Environment*, **110**, 36-44.

676 Wang, G., and Coauthors, 2016: Persistent sulfate formation from London Fog to Chinese haze.
677 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, **113**, 13630-13635.

678 Wang, L., and Coauthors, 2013: The 2013 severe haze over the southern Hebei, China: model
679 evaluation, source apportionment, and policy implications. *Atmospheric Chemistry & Physics*
680 *Discussions*, **13**.

681 Wang, Y., and Coauthors, 2014: Enhanced sulfate formation during China's severe winter haze episode
682 in January 2013 missing from current models. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,
683 **119**, 10,425-10,440.

684 Wild, O., X. Zhu, and M. J. Prather, 2000: Fast-J: Accurate simulation of in-and below-cloud
685 photolysis in tropospheric chemical models. *Journal of Atmospheric Chemistry*, **37**, 245-282.

686 Xie, Y., and Coauthors, 2015: Enhanced sulfate formation by nitrogen dioxide: Implications from in
687 situ observations at the SORPES station. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **120**,
688 12679-12694.

689 Yu, M., S. Miao, and H. Zhang, 2018: Uncertainties in the Impact of Urbanization on Heavy Rainfall:
690 Case Study of a Rainfall Event in Beijing on 7 August 2015. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
691 *Atmospheres*, **123**, 6005-6021.

692 Zaveri, R. A., and L. K. Peters, 1999: A new lumped structure photochemical mechanism for large-
693 scale applications. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **104**, 30387-30415.

694 Zaveri, R. A., R. C. Easter, J. D. Fast, and L. K. Peters, 2008: Model for simulating aerosol interactions
695 and chemistry (MOSAIC). *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, **113**.

696 Zhang, Q., and Coauthors, 2009: Asian emissions in 2006 for the NASA INTEX-B mission.
697 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, **9**, 5131-5153.

698 Zheng, B., and Coauthors, 2015: Heterogeneous chemistry: a mechanism missing in current models to
699 explain secondary inorganic aerosol formation during the January 2013 haze episode in North
700 China. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics (Online)*, **15**.

701 Zheng, S., C.-X. Cao, and R. P. Singh, 2014: Comparison of ground based indices (API and AQI) with
702 satellite based aerosol products. *Science of the Total Environment*, **488**, 398-412.

703 **Tables and Figures**

704 **Table 1.** WRF-Chem model configurations.

705 **Table 2.** The detail setting of six experiments and the purposes.

706 **Table 3.** Averaged bias (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), RMSE (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and correlation over forecast hour 0-24
707 h for different variables and different experiments. The statistics for gas phase pollutants in PM1 and
708 PM2 experiments are highly close to the results in NODA experiment, and thus leave with blank in
709 the table.

710 **Figure 1.** Computation domain. Dots depict surface observations with 531 stations spreading over
711 China. The red dots indicate the observations around Beijing. The green dot indicates the IUM station.

712 **Figure 2.** Background error standard deviations of aerosol species in the (a) 1st size bin, (b) 2nd size
713 bin, (c) 3rd size bin, (d) 4th size bin, and of (e) gas pollutants. The units for the x-axis are $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for
714 (a)-(d) and ppm for (e). The left y-axis denotes the model level, and the right y-axis denotes the vertical
715 height (units: km).

716 **Figure 3.** Averaged bias (color bar, left y-axis) and RMSE (hallow bar, right y-axis) of the analysis at
717 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017 for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) PM₁₀, (c) SO₂, (d) NO₂, (e) O₃ and (f) CO in different
718 experiments, verified against the surface observations of 531 stations in China. The blue, red, green
719 and gray shaded bars denote the bias of the experiment NODA, PM1, PM2, ALL, respectively; the
720 corresponding hallow bars denote the RMSE of these experiments. Units of the y-axis are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in
721 Figs. 3a-e and mg/m^3 in Fig. 3f.

722 **Figure 4.** Averaged PM_{coarse} (PM_{10-2.5}, units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017 in (a)
723 observation and four experiments (b) NODA, (c) PM1, (d) PM2, (e) ALL, and (f) averaged bias (units:
724 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for PM_{coarse} in different experiments as a function of forecast range (the blue, red, green and
725 gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA, PM1, PM2, ALL, respectively), verified against
726 the surface observations of 531 stations in China. The numbers on the top of each panel denote the
727 average PM_{coarse} concentrations over 531 stations (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

728 **Figure 5.** Vertical profile of the analysis at 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017 for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) PM₁₀,
729 (c) SO₂, (d) NO₂, (e) O₃, and (f) CO in different experiments, averaged over the 531 surface stations
730 in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA, PM1, PM2, and
731 ALL, respectively. Units of the y-axis are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in Figs. 5a-e and mg/m^3 in Fig. 5f.

732 **Figure 6.** Averaged bias (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), RMSE (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and correlation for (a) PM_{2.5} and (b)
733 PM₁₀ in different experiments as a function of forecast range, verified against the surface observations
734 of 531 stations in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA,
735 PM1, PM2, ALL, respectively.

736 **Figure 7.** Same as Fig. 6, but for the forecast of (a) SO₂, (b) NO₂, (c) O₃ (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and (d) CO
737 (units: mg/m^3).

738 **Figure 8.** Averaged threat score (TS) for Air Quality Index (AQI) from AQI level 1 to level 6 (a-f) in
739 different experiments as a function of forecast range, verified against the surface observations of 531
740 stations in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA, PM1,
741 PM2, and ALL, respectively. The numbers on the right of each panel denote the averaged TS from 0
742 to 24 h for different experiments.

743 **Figure 9.** Same as Fig. 3, but for the experiments of NODA, ALL_6h, ALL_3h, ALL_1h, respectively.
744 Units of the y-axis are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in Figs. 9a-e and mg/m^3 in Fig. 9f.

745 **Figure 10.** Averaged bias (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), RMSE (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and correlation for (a) $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and (b)
746 PM_{10} in different experiments as a function of forecast range, verified against the surface observations
747 of 531 stations in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA,
748 ALL_6h, ALL_3h, and ALL_1h, respectively.

749 **Figure 11.** Same as Fig. 10, but for the forecast of (a) SO_2 , (b) NO_2 , (c) O_3 (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and (d) CO
750 (units: mg/m^3).

751 **Figure 12.** Same as Fig. 8, but for the experiments of NODA, ALL_6h, ALL_3h, ALL_1h, respectively.

752 **Figure 13.** Time series of (a) sulfate, (b) nitrate over January 14-20, verified against the size-resolved
753 particle observation at IUM station (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The gray, blue and red lines denote the observation
754 and the results of experiment PM2 and ALL, respectively. The numbers on the right of each panel
755 denote the averaged RMSE over January 14-20 for different experiments.

756 **Figure 14.** Averaged scatter plot of (a, c) observation versus background and (b, d) observation versus
757 analysis for (a, b) SO_2 and (c, d) NO_2 around Beijing area (red dots in Fig. 1) on January 16. The
758 numbers on the title denote the accumulated numbers of the used observations around Beijing area
759 during January 16 (1600 UTC, 1606 UTC, 1612 UTC, and 1618 UTC).

Table 1. WRF-Chem model configurations.

Aerosol scheme	MOSAIC (four bins, Zaveri et al. (2008))
Photolysis scheme	Fast-J (Wild et al. 2000)
Gas-phase chemistry	CBM-Z (Zaveri and Peters 1999)
Cumulus parameterization	Grell 3-D scheme
Short-wave radiation	Goddard Space Flight Center short-wave radiation scheme (Chou and Suarez 1994)
Long-wave radiation	RRTM (Mlawer et al. 1997)
Microphysics	Single-moment 6-class scheme (Grell and Dévényi 2002)
Land-surface model (LSM)	NOAH LSM (Chen and Dudhia 2001)
Boundary-layer scheme	YSU (Hong et al. 2006)
Meteorology initial and boundary conditions	GFS analysis and forecast every 6 h
Initial condition for chemical species	11-day spin-up
Boundary conditions for chemical species	Averages of mid-latitude aircraft profiles
Dust and sea salt emissions	GOCART

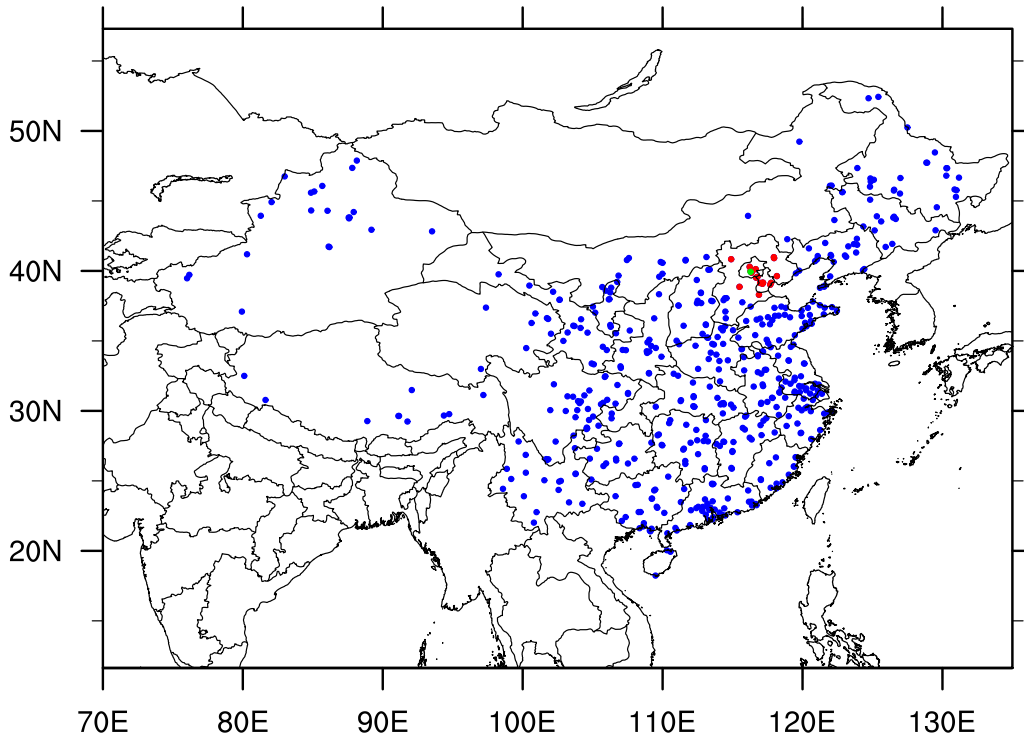
Table 2. The detail setting of six experiments and the purposes

Experiments	PM _{2.5} assimilation	PM _{10-2.5} assimilation	Gas phase (SO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₃ , CO) assimilation	Assimilated time (UTC)	Purposes for forecast performances
NODA	No	No	No	--	Control simulation
PM1	Yes	No	No	00, 06, 12, 18	Basic PM _{2.5} assimilation
PM2	Yes	Yes	No	00, 06, 12, 18	PM _{2.5} and PM _{10-2.5} assimilation
ALL	Yes	Yes	Yes	00, 06, 12, 18	Aerosol and precursor simultaneously assimilation
ALL_3h	Yes	Yes	Yes	00, 03, 06, 09, 12, 15, 18, 21	Different assimilation frequencies on forecast performances
ALL_1h	Yes	Yes	Yes	0-23, every hour	

764 **Table 3.** Averaged bias (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), RMSE (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and correlation over forecast hour 0-24
 765 h for different variables and different experiments. The statistics for gas phase pollutants in PM1 and
 766 PM2 experiments are highly close to the results in NODA experiment, and thus leave with blank in
 767 the table.

		NODA	PM1	PM2	ALL
PM _{2.5}	Bias	31.17	8.78	8.39	9.36
	RMSE	88.99	53.93	54.35	54.49
	Correlation	0.41	0.59	0.58	0.59
PM ₁₀	Bias	-1.13	-22.73	-15.43	-14.41
	RMSE	98.5	74.41	71.9	71.6
	Correlation	0.36	0.54	0.56	0.56
SO ₂	Bias	6.67	-	-	3.78
	RMSE	44.11	-	-	38.18
	Correlation	0.29	-	-	0.4
NO ₂	Bias	-2.87	-	-	-1.66
	RMSE	25.61	-	-	24.26
	Correlation	0.48	-	-	0.52
O ₃	Bias	-3.22	-	-	-0.84
	RMSE	31.96	-	-	28.36
	Correlation	0.29	-	-	0.41
CO	Bias	-0.73	-	-	-0.19
	RMSE	1.13	-	-	0.75
	Correlation	0.28	-	-	0.57

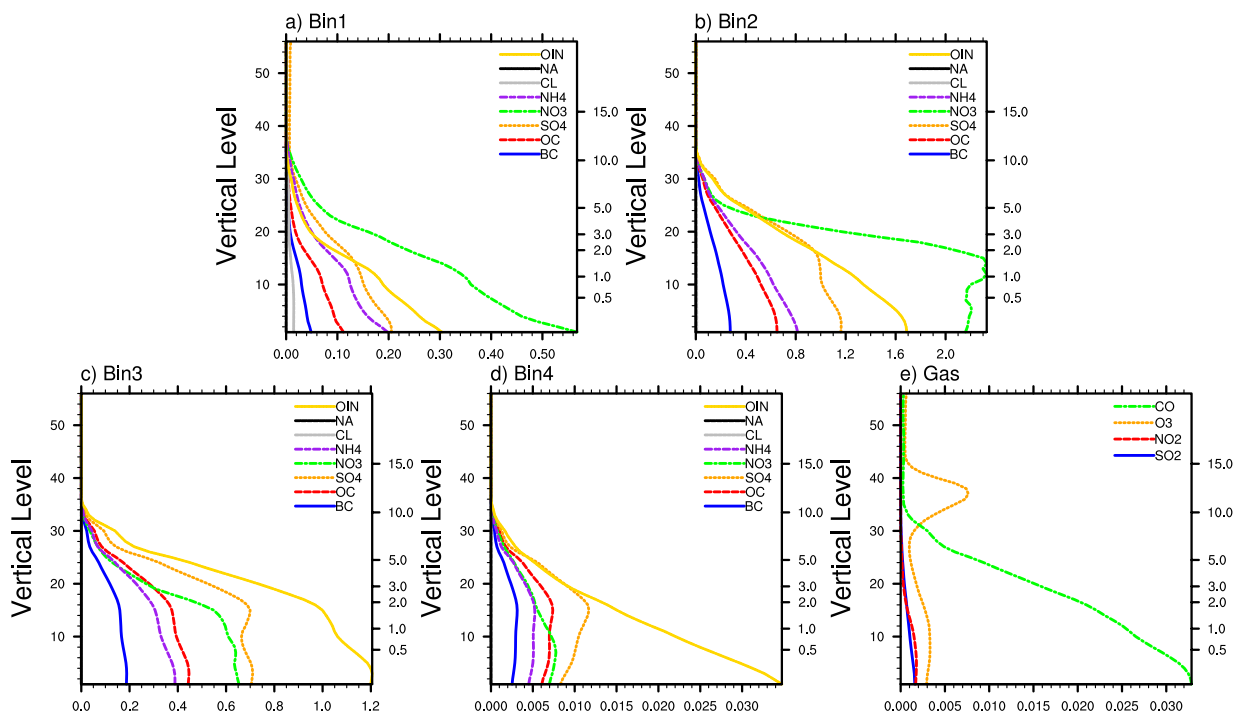
768



769

770 **Figure 1.** Computation domain. Dots depict surface observations with 531 stations spreading over
771 China. The red dots indicate the observations around Beijing. The green dot indicates the IUM station.

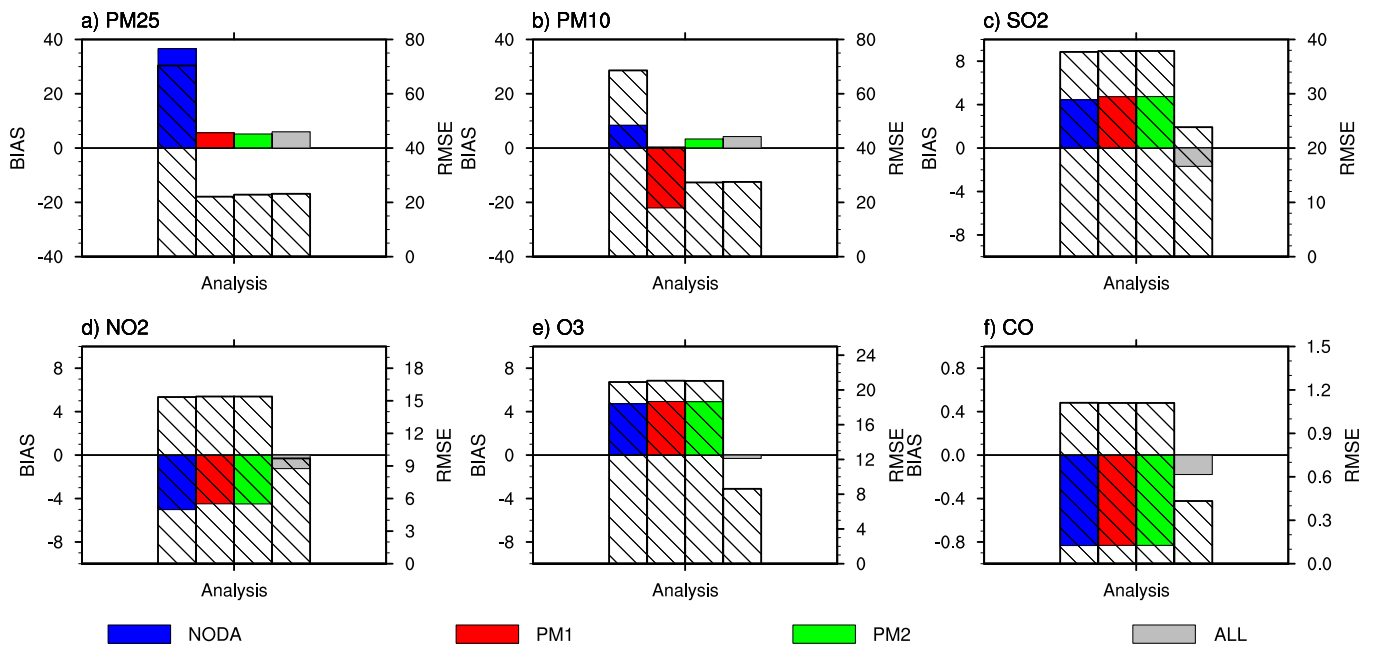
772



773

774 **Figure 2.** Background error standard deviations of aerosol species in the (a) 1st size bin, (b) 2nd size
 775 bin, (c) 3rd size bin, (d) 4th size bin, and of (e) gas pollutants. The units for the x-axis are $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for
 776 (a)-(d) and ppm for (e). The left y-axis denotes the model level, and the right y-axis denotes the vertical
 777 height (units: km).

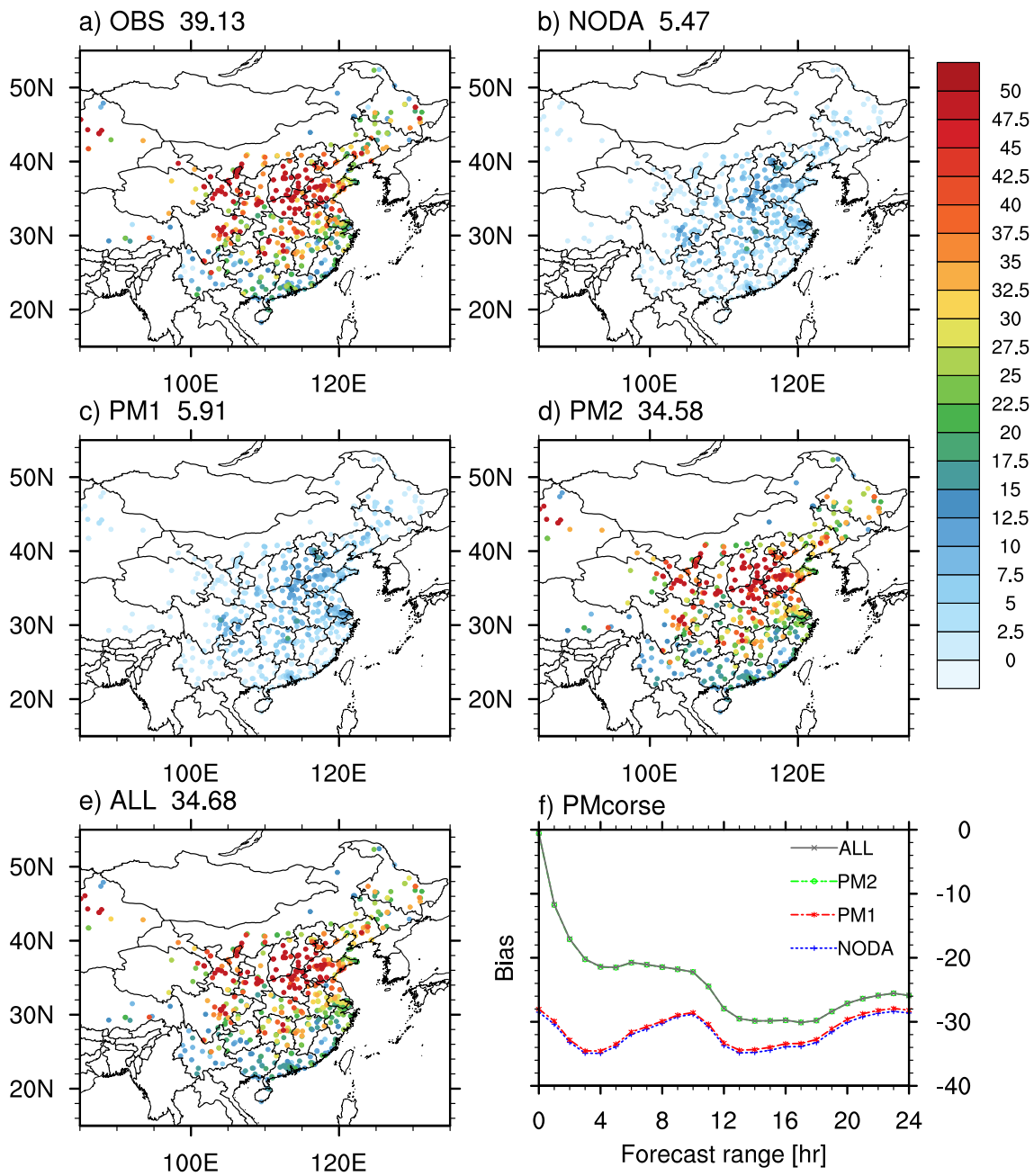
778



779

780 **Figure 3.** Averaged bias (color bar, left y-axis) and RMSE (hallow bar, right y-axis) of the analysis at
 781 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017 for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) PM₁₀, (c) SO₂, (d) NO₂, (e) O₃ and (f) CO in different
 782 experiments, verified against the surface observations of 531 stations in China. The blue, red, green
 783 and gray shaded bars denote the bias of the experiment NODA, PM1, PM2, ALL, respectively; the
 784 corresponding hallow bars denote the RMSE of these experiments. Units of the y-axis are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in
 785 Figs. 3a-e and mg/m^3 in Fig. 3f.

786



787

788 **Figure 4.** Averaged PMcoarse ($PM_{10-2.5}$, units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017 in (a)

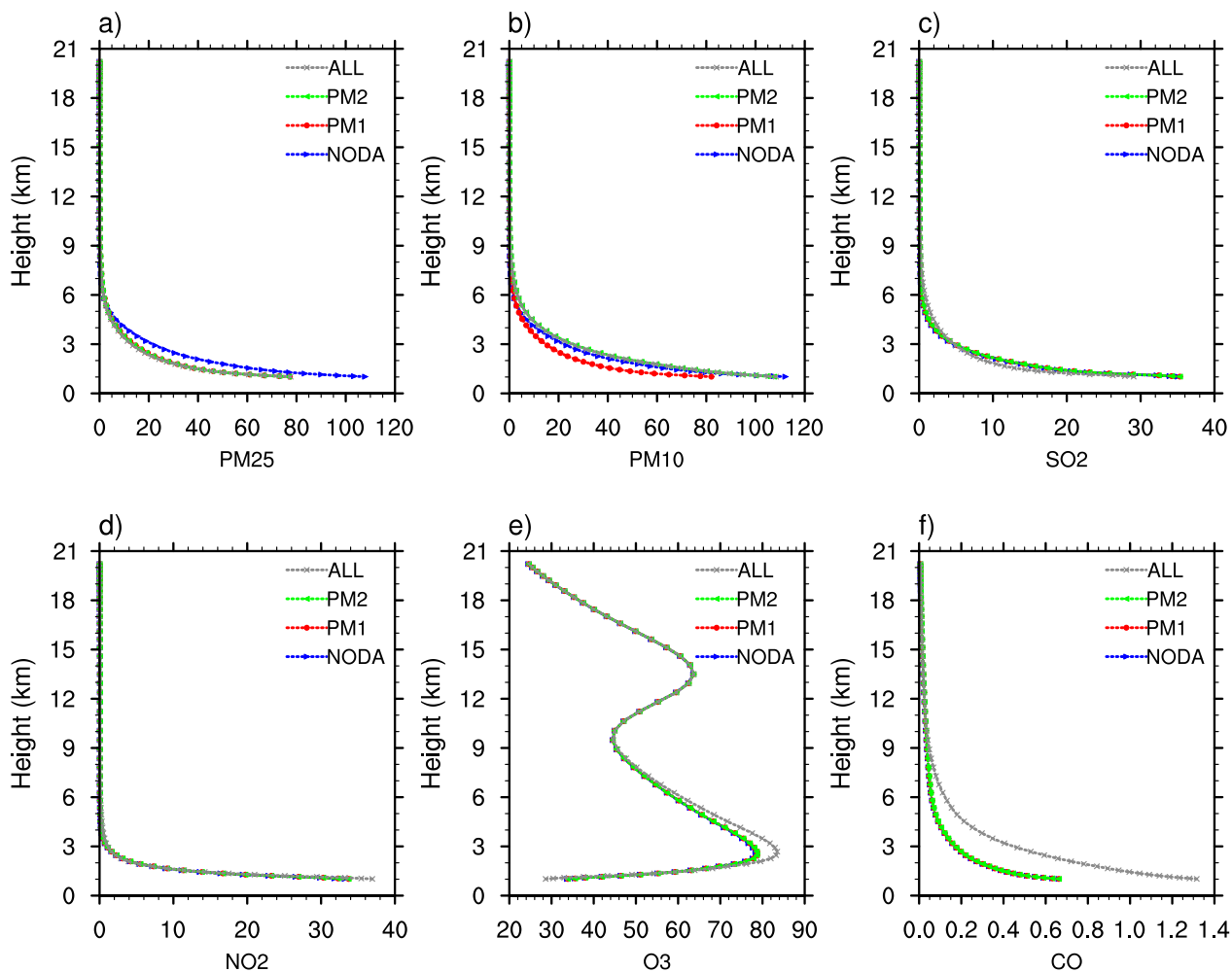
789 observation and four experiments (b) NODA, (c) PM1, (d) PM2, (e) ALL, and (f) averaged bias (units:

790 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for PMcoarse in different experiments as a function of forecast range (the blue, red, green and

791 gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA, PM1, PM2, ALL, respectively), verified against

792 the surface observations of 531 stations in China. The numbers on the top of each panel denote the

793 average PMcoarse concentrations over 531 stations (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).



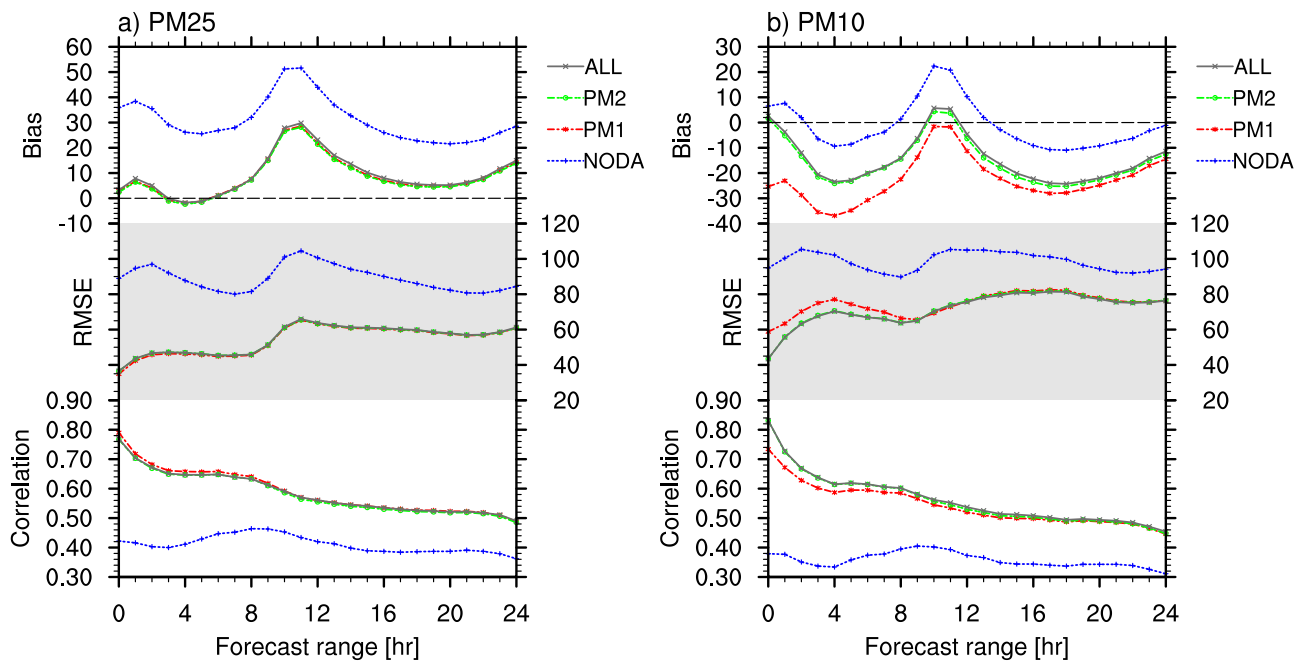
794

795 **Figure 5.** Vertical profile of the analysis at 00 UTC over January 1-31, 2017 for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) PM₁₀,

796 (c) SO₂, (d) NO₂, (e) O₃, and (f) CO in different experiments, averaged over the 531 surface stations

797 in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA, PM1, PM2, and

798 ALL, respectively. Units of the y-axis are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in Figs. 5a-e and mg/m^3 in Fig. 5f.



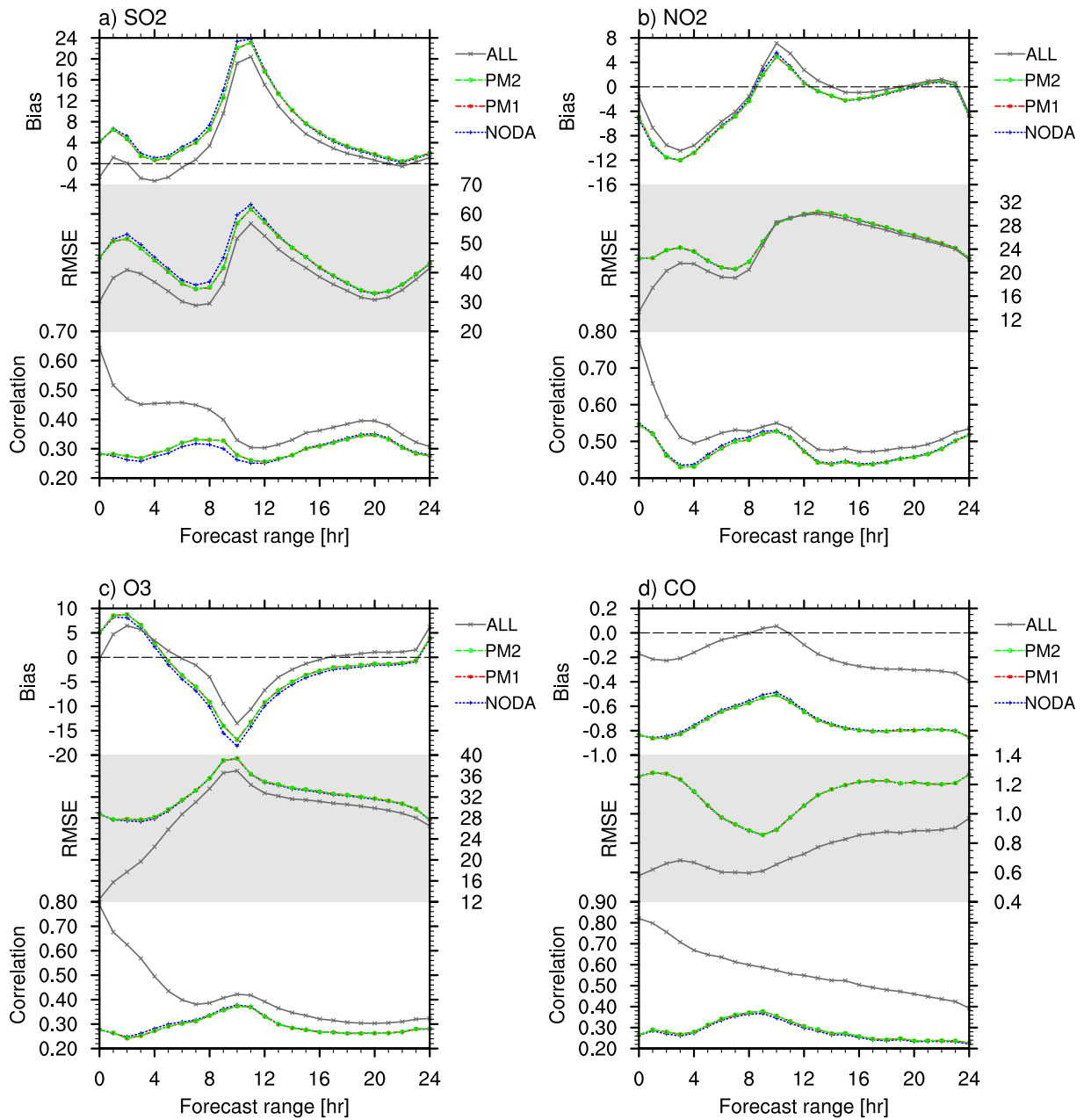
799

800 **Figure 6.** Averaged bias (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), RMSE (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and correlation for (a) PM_{2.5} and (b)

801 PM₁₀ in different experiments as a function of forecast range, verified against the surface observations

802 of 531 stations in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA,

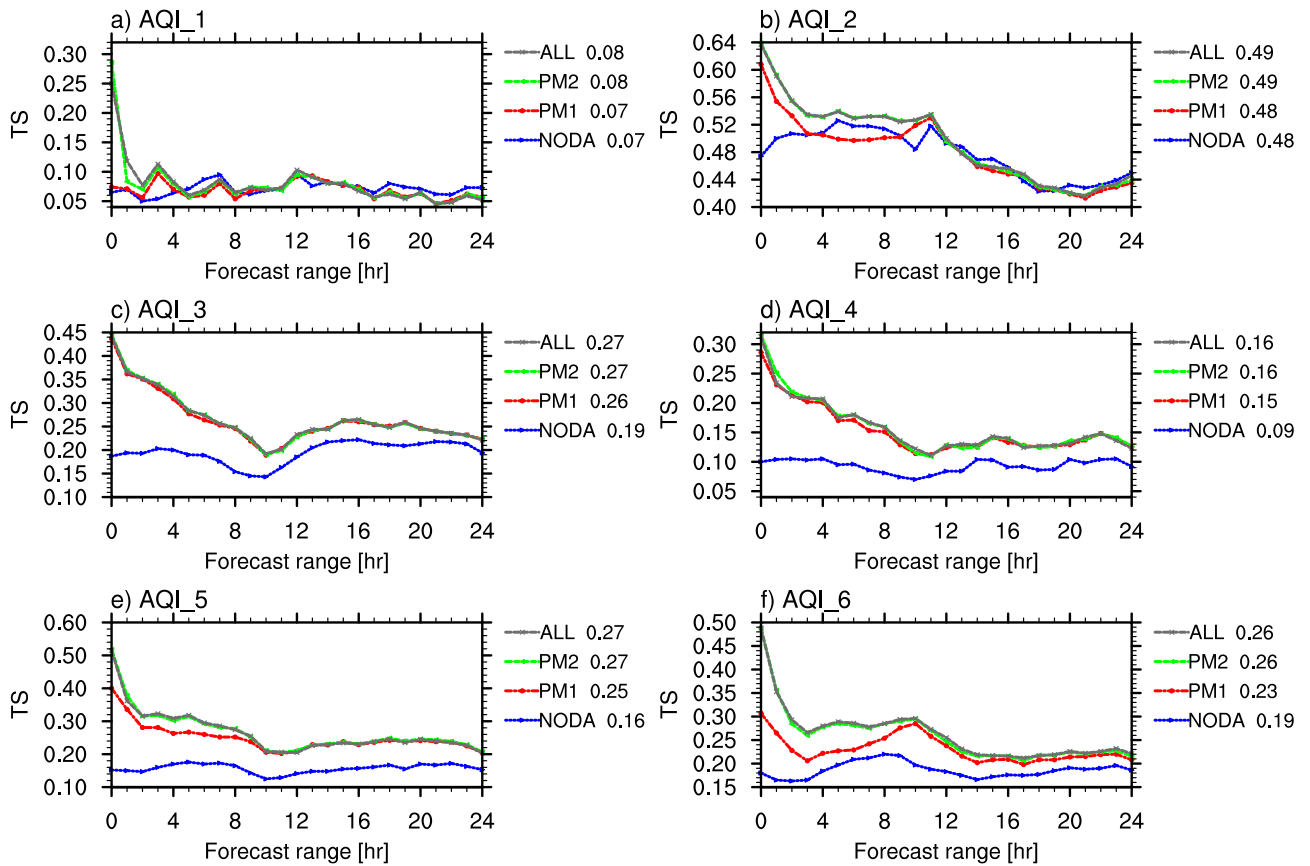
803 PM1, PM2, ALL, respectively.



804

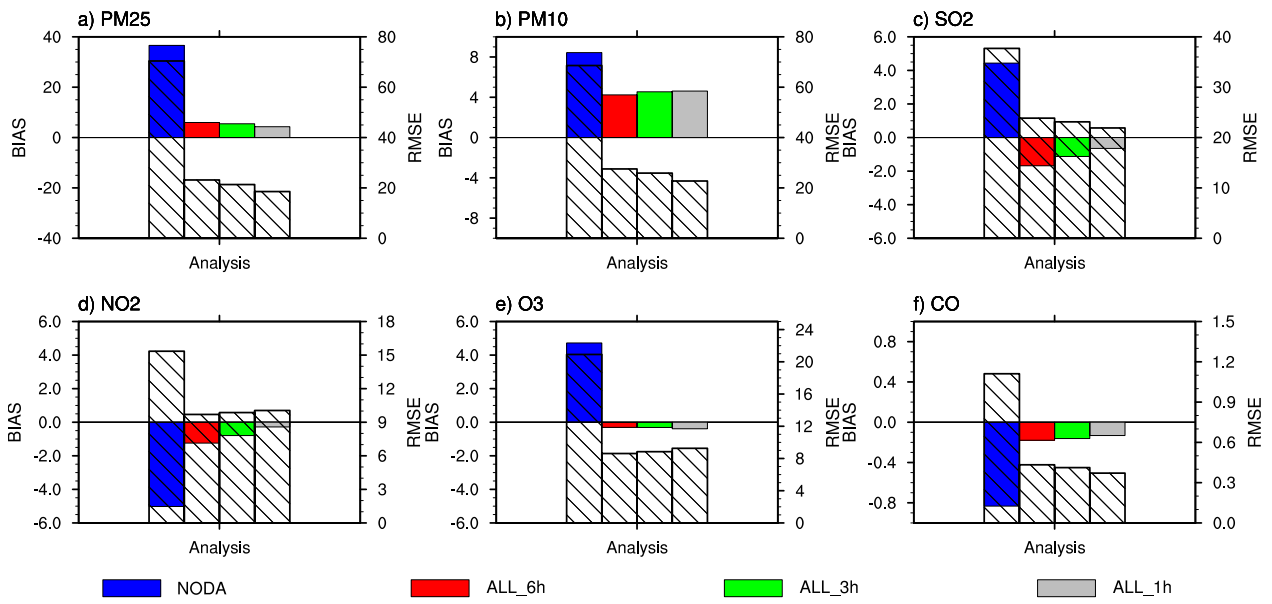
805 **Figure 7.** Same as Fig. 6, but for the forecast of (a) SO₂, (b) NO₂, (c) O₃ (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and (d) CO

806 (units: mg/m^3).



807

808 **Figure 8.** Averaged threat score (TS) for Air Quality Index (AQI) from AQI level 1 to level 6 (a-f) in
 809 different experiments as a function of forecast range, verified against the surface observations of 531
 810 stations in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA, PM1,
 811 PM2, and ALL, respectively. The numbers on the right of each panel denote the averaged TS from 0
 812 to 24 h for different experiments.

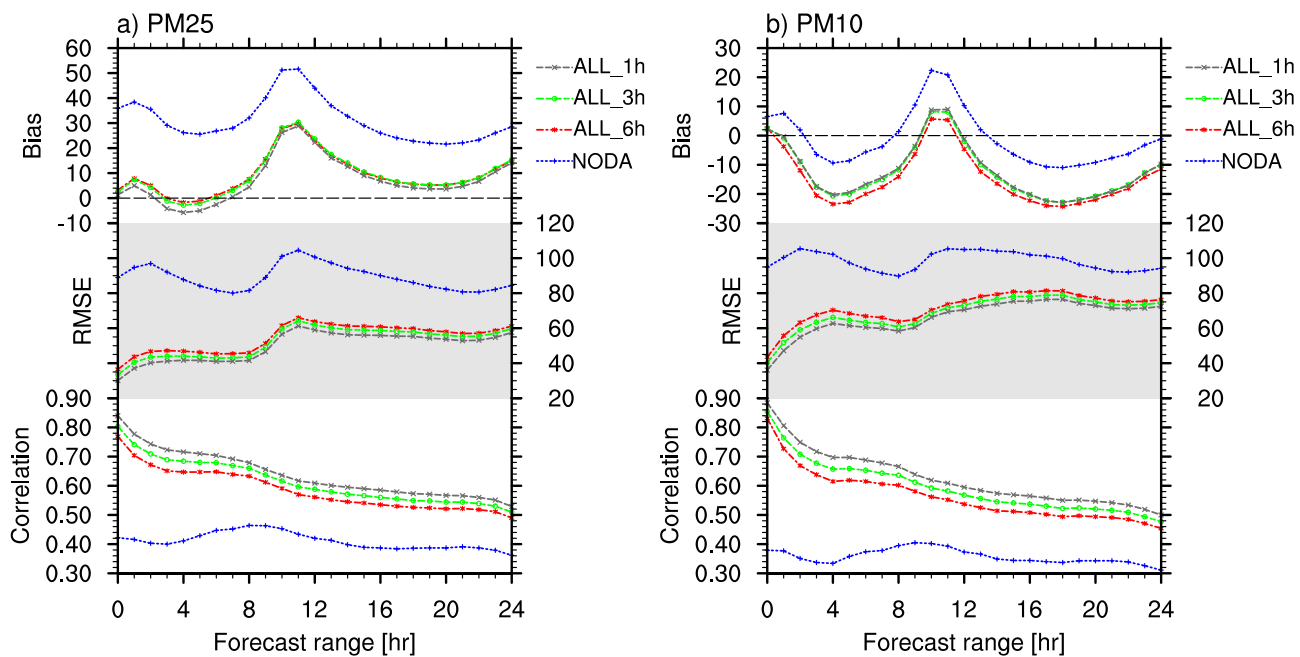


813

814 **Figure 9.** Same as Fig. 3, but for the experiments of NODA, ALL_6h, ALL_3h, ALL_1h, respectively.

815 Units of the y-axis are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in Figs. 9a-e and mg/m^3 in Fig. 9f.

816



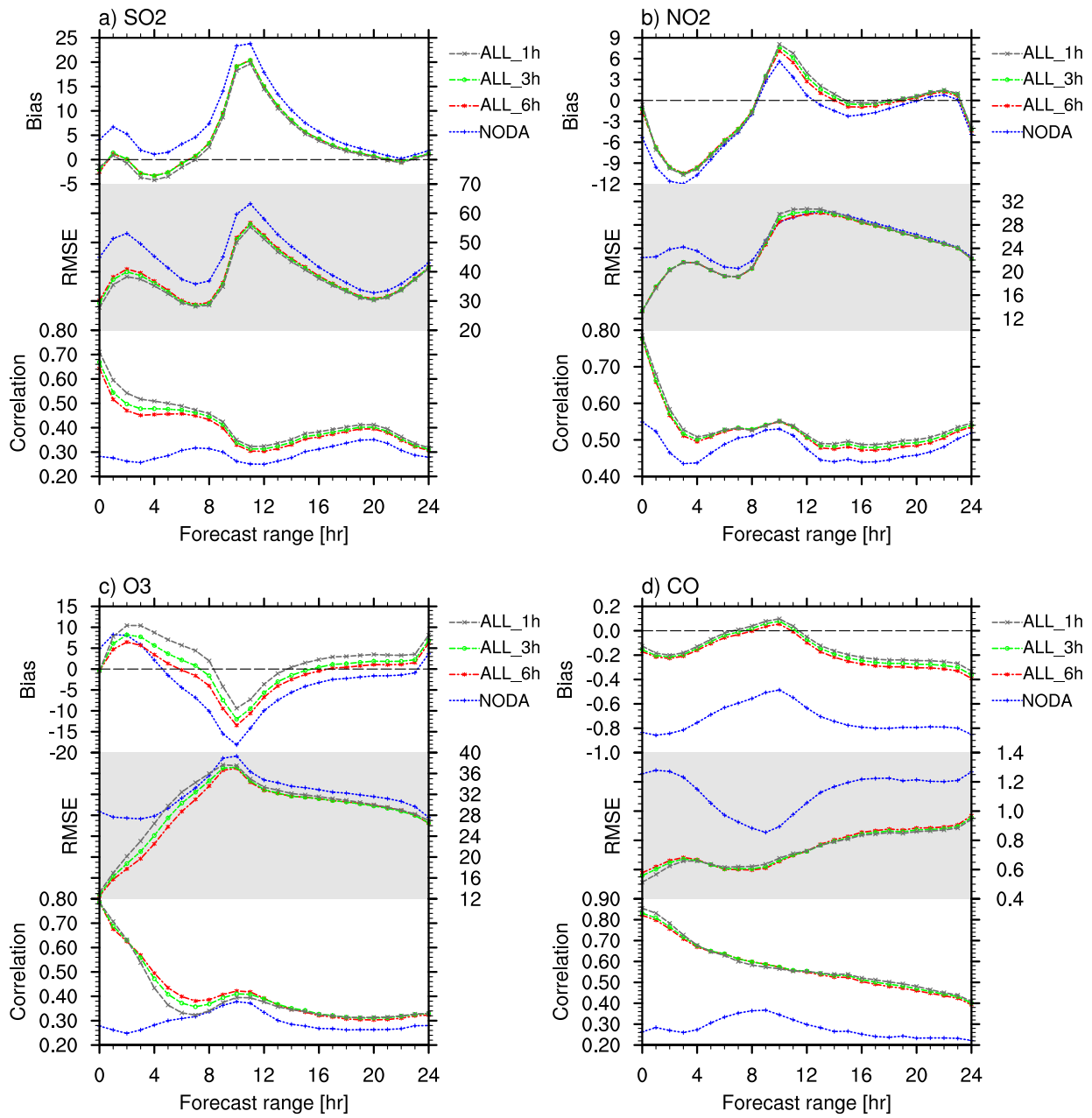
817

818 **Figure 10.** Averaged bias (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), RMSE (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and correlation for (a) PM_{2.5} and (b)

819 PM₁₀ in different experiments as a function of forecast range, verified against the surface observations

820 of 531 stations in China. The blue, red, green and gray lines denote the results of experiment NODA,

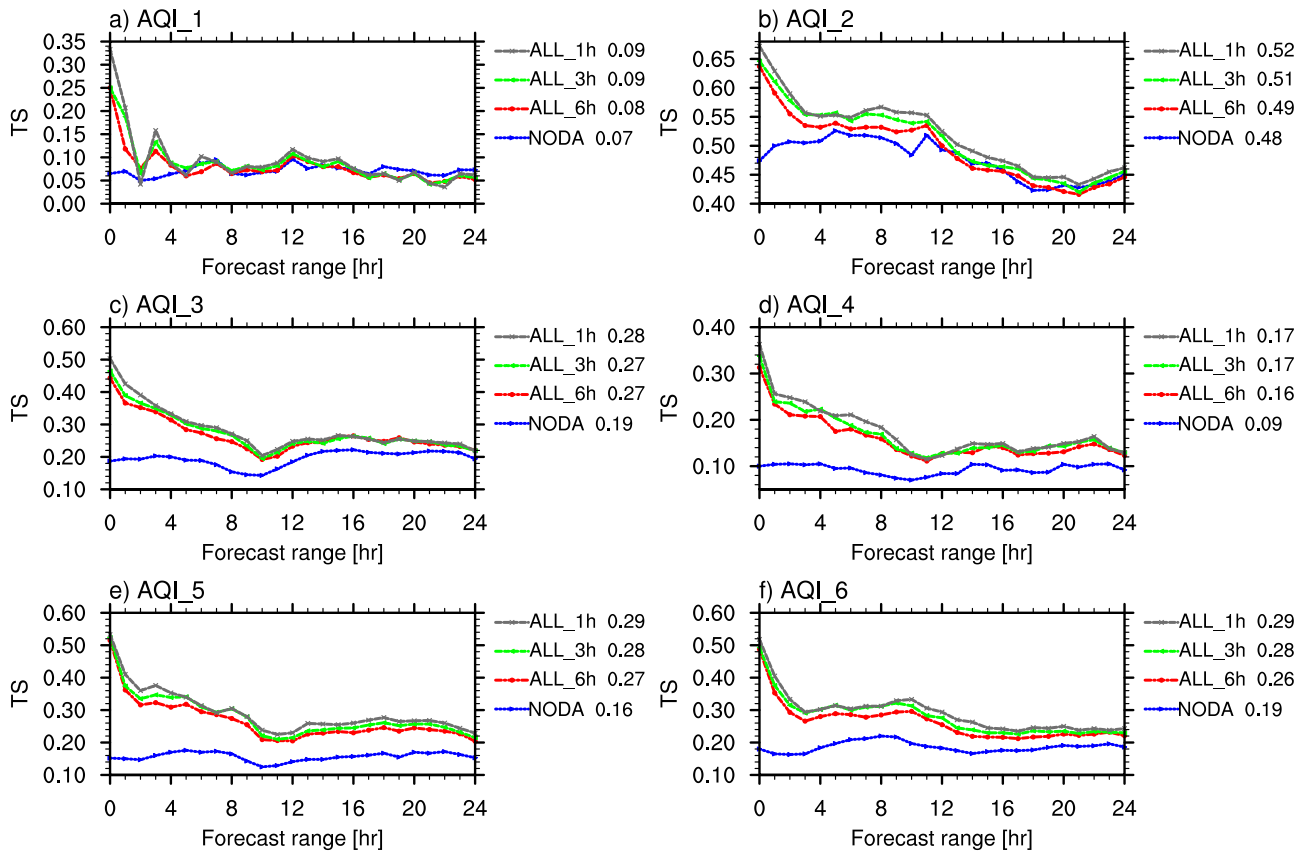
821 ALL_6h, ALL_3h, and ALL_1h, respectively.



822

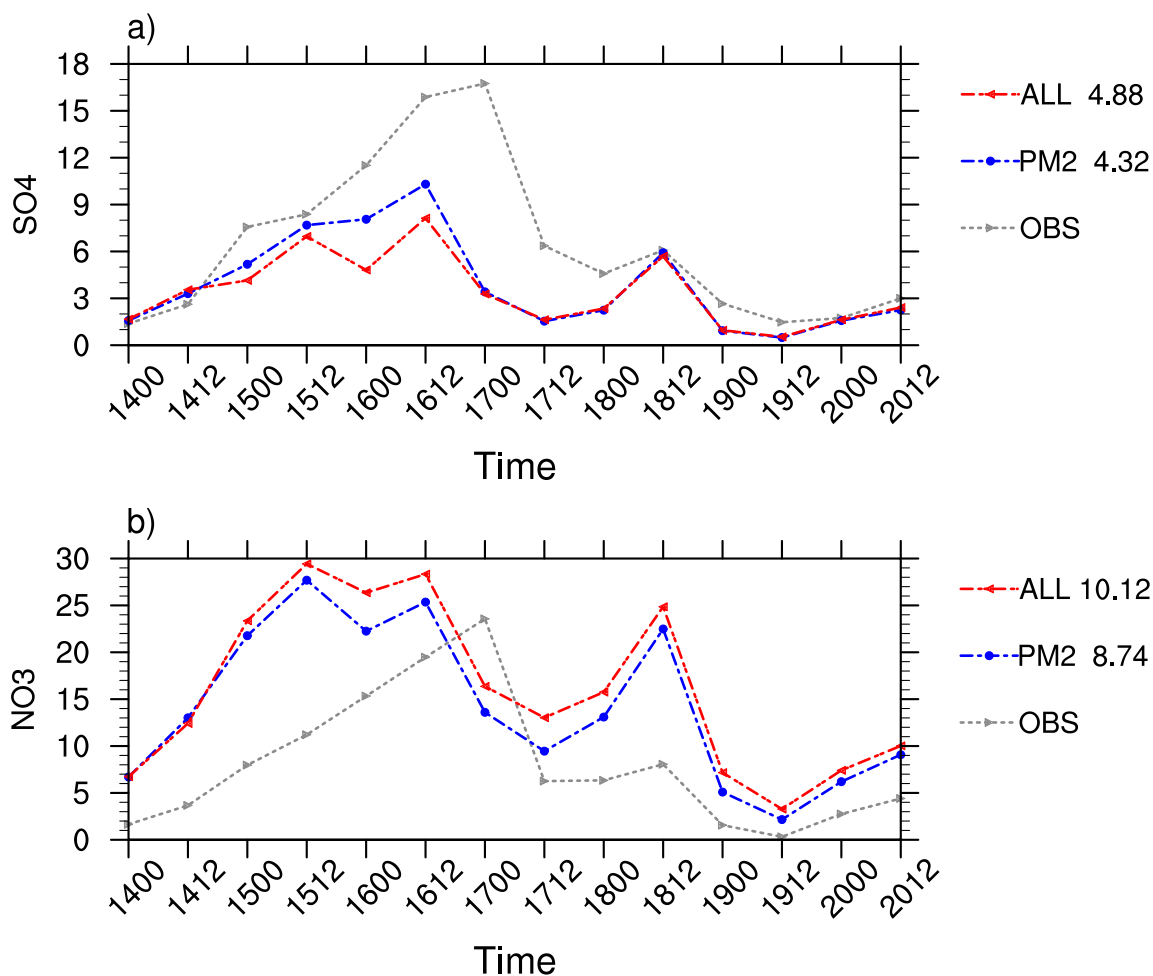
823 **Figure 11.** Same as Fig. 10, but for the forecast of (a) SO₂, (b) NO₂, (c) O₃ (units: μg/m³), and (d) CO

824 (units: mg/m³).



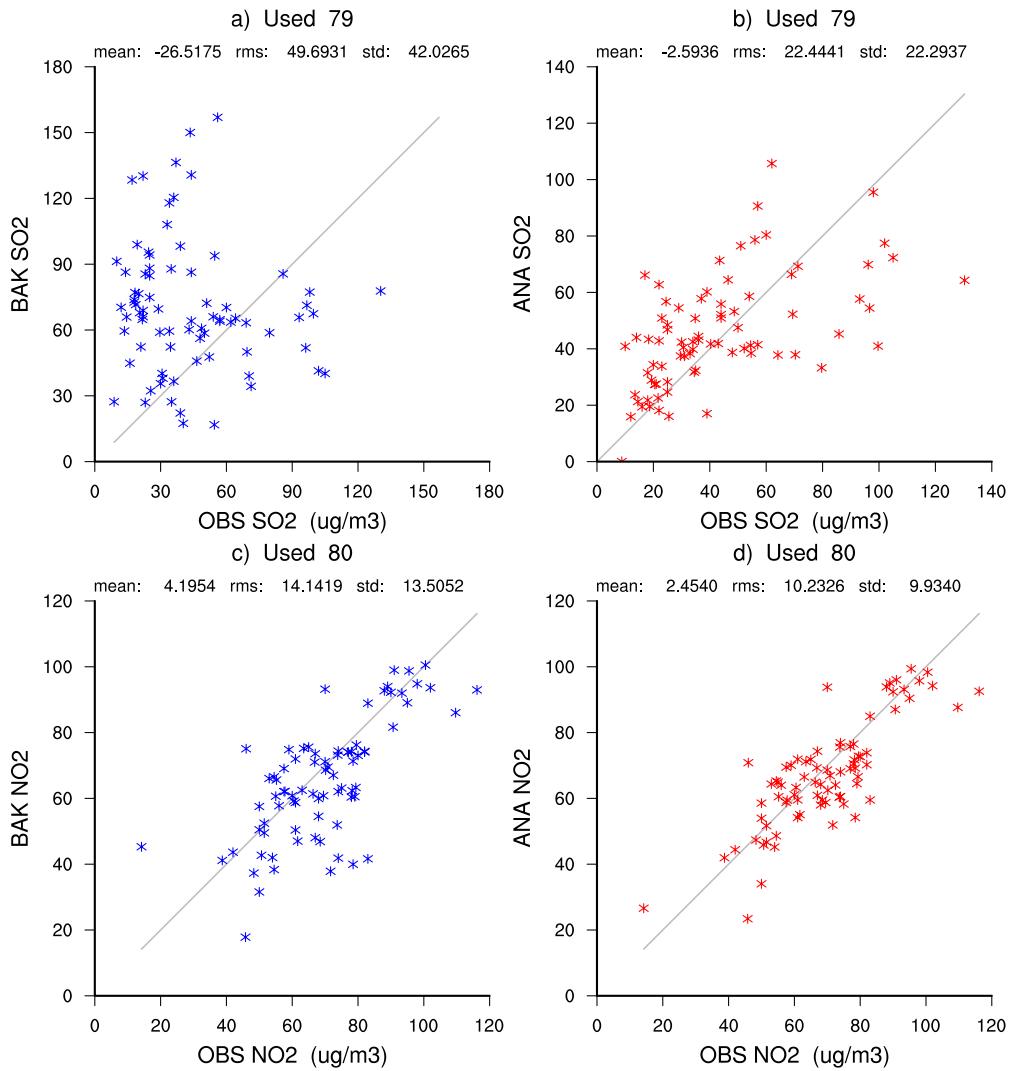
825

826 **Figure 12.** Same as Fig. 8, but for the experiments of NODA, ALL_6h, ALL-3h, ALL_1h, respectively.



827

828 **Figure 13.** Time series of (a) sulfate, (b) nitrate over January 14-20, verified against the size-resolved
 829 particle observation at IUM station (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The gray, blue and red lines denote the observation
 830 and the results of experiment PM2 and ALL, respectively. The numbers on the right of each panel
 831 denote the averaged RMSE over January 14-20 for different experiments.



832

833 **Figure 14.** Averaged scatter plot of (a, c) observation versus background and (b, d) observation versus
 834 analysis for (a, b) SO₂ and (c, d) NO₂ around Beijing area (red dots in Fig. 1) on January 16. The
 835 numbers on the title denote the accumulated numbers of the used observations around Beijing area
 836 during January 16 (1600 UTC, 1606 UTC, 1612 UTC, and 1618 UTC).