Assessing the Assimilation of Himawari-8 Observations on Aerosol Forecasts and Radiative Effects During Pollution Transport from South Asia to the Tibetan Plateau

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Abstract. Emissions from South Asia (SA) represent a critical source of aerosols on the Tibetan Plateau (TP), and aerosols can significantly reduce the surface solar energy. To enhance the precision of aerosol forecasting and its radiative effects in SA and the TP, we employed a four-dimensional local ensemble transform Kalman filter (4D-LETKF) aerosol data assimilation (DA) system. This system was utilized to assimilate Himawari-8 aerosol optical thickness (AOT) into the Weather Research and Forecasting-Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model to depict one SA air pollution outbreak event in spring 2018. Sensitivity tests for the assimilation system were conducted first to tune temporal localization lengths. Comparisons with independent Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and AErosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET) observations demonstrate that the AOT analysis and forecast fields have more reasonable diurnal variations by assimilating all the observations within a 12h window, which are both better than assimilating the hourly observations in the current assimilation timeslot. Assimilation of the entire window of observations with aerosol radiative effect activation significantly improves the prediction of downward solar radiation compared to the free-run experiment. The AOT assimilation with aerosol radiative effect activation led to a reduction in aerosol concentrations over SA, resulting in increased surface radiation, temperature, boundary layer height, and atmospheric instability. These changes facilitated air uplift, promoting aerosol transport from SA to the southeastern TP and leading to an increase in AOT in this region.

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1 Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols substantially impact radiative balance by absorbing and scattering solar radiation. Furthermore, aerosols act as cloud condensation nuclei, modifying the properties of clouds and ultimately impacting the hydrological

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cycle (Ramanathan et al., 2001). Aerosols tend to concentrate near their source regions, but they can also have a significant impact on clean areas through long-range transport. (Huang et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2008; Xia et al., 2008). This phenomenon has been observed in many regions worldwide, including the Tibetan Plateau (TP), which is the largest and highest plateau on Earth, covering an area of approximately 2,400,000 km^2 with an average elevation of more than 4,000 m above sea level (Li et al., 2020). The environment in the TP is highly sensitive to climate change and human activities, and the rate of warming in the TP over the past three decades has been twice the rate of global warming (Xu et al., 2009). Previous studies have demonstrated that aerosols (i.e., black carbon (BC) and dust) from South Asia (SA) can reach the TP, contributing to influencing radiative heat and further shrinking the local cryospheric system. Light-absorbing carbonaceous aerosol particles, such as BC or brown carbon (BrC), and mineral dust can both warm the atmosphere and reduce the surface albedo (Ming et al., 2013), resulting in accelerated glacier retreat (Jacobson 2001; Hansen and Nazarenko, 2004; Bond et al., 2013; Sarangi et al., 2020). The retreat of glaciers on the TP and the associated changes in surface heating may adversely affect the hydrological cycle and freshwater supply for most of Asia (Yao et al., 2012; 2015). The TP usually acts as a receptor of aerosols from the surrounding region, especially from heavily polluted SA (Lu et al., 2012; You et al., 2016). Although the high altitude of the Himalayas acts as a natural barrier to inhibit the transport of aerosols to the TP (Marinoni et al., 2010; Qiu, 2013; Xu et al., 2009a, 2014), the Yarlung Tsangpo River valley causes a 'leaking wall', forming a pollution channel that affects the southeastern TP (Cao et al., 2011). Furthermore, solar energy is an important clean energy source for local communities in the TP, given the challenges associated with long-distance energy supply (Yang et al., 2010). In fact, aerosols are also considered essential for solar power generation (Trenberth et al., 2009; Stephens et al., 2012). However, the limited availability of aerosol measurements in the TP region, which is mostly limited to a few surface locations (Gui et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2020), poses significant challenges in accurately assessing modeling techniques to simulate aerosol distribution and properties in this area. There is still a lack of research on AOT assimilation technology and application. When large amounts of aerosols are released into the atmosphere, they have significant short-term effects on local meteorological conditions (Koren et al., 2004; Wilcox, 2012). Numerous studies have pointed to significant impacts on the transport of aerosols to the TP associated with SA biomass burning (Yang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021). The optimization of the initial aerosol distribution in SA is crucial for accurate forecasting of aerosols in the TP. Geostationary satellites with intensive observations can be assimilated into numerical models to provide a valuable opportunity to study and improve aerosol forecasts over SA and TP.

Aerosol data assimilation is an effective statistical approach that combines model outputs with observations to reduce uncertainties in initial fields. Numerous studies have improved aerosol simulation by various data assimilation methods (Collins et al., 2001; Yu et al., 2003; Park et al., 2011; Generoso et al., 2007). The assimilation of satellite aerosol retrievals is one of the most popular approaches used to improve aerosol simulations (Zhang et al., 2008; 2011; Liu et al., 2011; Dai et al., 2014; 2019). In previous studies, researchers have assimilated aerosol retrievals from polar-orbiting satellites, including aerosol optical thickness (AOT) retrieved by the POLDER (Polarization and Directionality of the Earth Reflectances; Generoso et al., 2007; Tsikerdekis et al., 2021), MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer; Park et al., 2011;

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Yu et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2011; Benedetti et al., 2009; Yin et al., 2016), Fengyun-3A (Xia et al., 2018), and multiple satellite sensors (Cheng et al., 2019; 2021). Polar-orbiting satellites typically capture global images once per day, providing only a momentary glimpse of the spatial distribution of large-scale aerosols during the satellite's overpass. Geostationary satellites, in contrast, offer a higher temporal resolution of 10 minutes or more, allowing for more effective monitoring, tracking, and validation of regional aerosol events. Geostationary satellite-derived AOTs, obtained from satellites such as GOES-8 (Goddard Earth Observing System-8; Wang et al., 2004), GOCI (Geostationary Ocean Color Imager; Lee et al., 2020), Fengyun-4A (Xia et al., 2020), and Himawari-8 (Yumimoto et al. 2016; Dai et al., 2019), have been assimilated using various methods. These studies have demonstrated that assimilating geostationary AOTs has greatly improved dust forecasting and air quality predictions. Letu et al. (2022) have proposed an advanced surface radiation remote sensing algorithm based on AOTs and a new ice cloud scattering model. Moreover, they confirmed that not only the stational and temporal resolutions but also the accuracy of products produced by geostationary satellites are significantly better than the existing mainstream radiation products such as CERES (Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System) and ERA5, which has become a new benchmark for calculating surface radiation methods.

Aerosol data assimilation plays a crucial role in improving aerosol fields and solar forecasting fields, particularly for surface shortwave radiation. Aerosols are second only to clouds in regional surface solar energy simulations. Without considering the aerosol effect, the description of surface solar energy and meteorological fields cannot be accurate. The online model coupled with an assimilation system and simultaneous consideration of the aerosol modification of atmospheric radiative heating rate and surface radiation in the assimilation of aerosol is beneficial to the simulation of aerosol radiation effects. Wang et al. (2004) demonstrated that aerosol assimilation contributed to reducing the uncertainty of solar downward radiative fluxes in model simulations. They showed that the inclusion of aerosol-radiation interactions significantly reduces the prediction error of radiation under clear sky conditions. Yumimoto and Takemura (2011) applied a local ensemble transform Kalman filter (LETKF) to a global aerosol climate model and obtained the aerosol direct radiation effect under whole- and clear-sky conditions. An aerosol assimilation system based on GEOS-5 was developed to correct the initial conditions for subsequent 5-day forecasts and illustrated the impact of Saharan dust on the development of tropical cyclones in the Atlantic (Reale et al., 2009; 2014). The success of the 5-day forecast is attributed to the longer lifetime of the dust, i.e., approximately one week. The forecast skill strongly depends on the aerosol species, which depends on the period and region. Chen et al. (2014) studied the feedback of the direct and semi-direct radiative effects of aerosols in a wildfire event using the Weather Research and Forecasting-Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model and the Gridpoint Statistical Interpolation aerosol assimilation system. Their findings show that the assimilation of aerosols improved the simulation of aerosol radiative effects, resulting in more realistic outcomes. This assimilation system was also utilized to analyze the 2006 summer Saharan dust outbreak event, and tests for the presence or absence of dust radiative effects illustrated that the height of the dust caused different thermodynamic changes (Chen et al., 2017). All the aforementioned studies, particularly those utilizing an online model with an assimilation system, have demonstrated that the aerosol radiative effects after assimilation not only

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100 impact solar downward radiative fluxes but also have significant effects on the dynamic thermal conditions of the atmosphere.

Limited studies have been conducted to study the influence of aerosol radiation effects on the TP using data assimilation (Adhikary et al., 2008). This is attributed to some primary reasons: first, the number of aerosol satellite observations in the TP region is too sparse due to the heavy cloud cover and high surface albedo in this region; second, the source areas are

105 mainly considered in most studies on aerosol data assimilation; third, the simulation on the TP requires a high-resolution model, because steep mountains cannot be analyzed by usual models. Data assimilation techniques that assimilate aerosol information from satellite data can optimize aerosol fields, model outputs and facilitate the enhancement of AOTs and mass concentration forecasts (Ma et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2011; Tang et al., 2011). This will provide an important basis for fine-grained studies of the influence of source transport around the TP on the thermal and dynamical characteristics

110 of this region.

The scope of this paper is to first evaluate the analysis AOT field (Sect. 4.1) and the forecast AOT field (Sect. 4.2) and then examine the impact of aerosol–radiation interactions on solar radiation at the surface (Sect. 4.3). Finally, in Sect. 4.4, we focus on the effects of assimilated aerosols on aerosol transport in the presence of aerosol radiation interactions and analyze the differences in climate fields before and after assimilation with the aerosol radiation effect activated. We use the four-

115 dimensional LETKF (4D-LETKF) assimilation system based on the WRF v4.2 model, which is widely used for regional weather simulations, to study one air pollution process from SA to the TP in spring 2018. The assimilated observations are Himawari-8 AOT, and the main assimilated region is SA. This study presents evidence that data assimilation has significant potential for modulating spring atmospheric circulation patterns cross-TP aerosol transport. By studying aerosol assimilation with suitable assimilation parameters, we explore the impact of the aerosol radiation effect on aerosol transport from SA to

120 the southeastern TP after assimilation.

2 Model and assimilation system

2.1 Forecast model

WRF-Chem v4.2 (Skamarock et al., 2005; Grell et al., 2005) is a fully coupled meteorology-chemistry online model, that

125 used for the simulation and prediction of weather and air quality, accounting for the aerosol effect on radiation. The chemical and aerosol mechanism uses the Carbon Bond Mechanism-Z gas-phase chemical mechanism (Zaveri and Peters, 1999; Fast et al., 2006) coupled to the 8-bin Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions and Chemistry (MOSAIC) aerosol module (Zaveri et al., 2008), including sulfate, organic carbon, black carbon, nitrate, ammonium, sodium, chloride, and other inorganics in which dust is included. The physics mechanisms used in this study mainly include the Rapid Radiative

130 Transfer Model (RRTMG) for both longwave and shortwave radiation schemes (Iacono et al., 2008), the Yonsei University planetary boundary layer scheme (Hong et al., 2006), the Noah land surface scheme (Chen and Dudhia, 2001), the NSSL

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two-moment cloud microphysics (Mansell et al., 2010), the MM5 similarity surface layer scheme, and the Grell-Devenyi cumulus scheme (Grell and Dévényi, 2002). We apply the model to one domain (Fig. 1a), which covers the TP and most SA at a 25 km × 25 km horizontal resolution. We use 32 vertical model layers, defined on sigma coordinates, from the surface to 100 hPa.

For anthropogenic emissions, we use the MIX Asian inventory for March 2010 due to the need to include emission sources from South Asia. The emission inventory contains anthropogenic emissions from power, industry, agriculture, residential, and transportation, and the chemical species include 10 pollutants: BC, OC, fine particulate matter (PM$_{2.5}$), coarse particulate matter (PM$_{10}$), NMVOC (non-methane volatile organic compounds), SO$_2$, NO$_2$, NO, CO, and NH$_3$ (Li et al., 2017). The horizontal resolution of the original MIX Asian anthropogenic emission source is 0.25° × 0.25°, and this emission source is interpolated to WRF-Chem grid points to satisfy the use in WRF-Chem. The assignment proportions of the emission sections, vertical profiles, and diurnal variations are in reference to Dai et al. (2021). For biomass burning emissions, we use the Fire INventory from NCAR (FINN) in March 2018. The biogenic emissions are calculated online using the Model of Emissions of Gasses and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) module (Guenther et al., 2006). The dust emissions are calculated online using the Goddard Chemical Aerosol Radiation Transport (GOCART) dust emission scheme (Ginoux et al., 2001). The initial and boundary conditions are treated as follows. Meteorological fields are generated from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final (FNL) Analysis (http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/). Chemical fields are obtained from the CAM-Chem results, and the chemistry is the MOZART-T1(Model for Ozone and Related chemical Tracers, version T1) mechanism (Emmons et al., 2020).

2.2 Assimilation system

Data assimilation is essentially for solving the minimum value of the cost function. The method used in this study is based on LETKF, which is an efficient upgrade of the EnKF method. Hunt et al. (2007) described the implementation of this method in detail and noted out the advantages of its ease of use and computational speed. Here, we briefly describe how the LETKF algorithm optimizes the state variables through the following five formulas:

$$\bar{x}^a = \bar{x}^f + X^f \bar{w}^a, \tag{1}$$

$$\bar{w}^a = \widetilde{P}^a (Y^f)^T R^{-1} (y^o - \bar{y}^f), \tag{2}$$

$$\widetilde{P}^a = \left[(k-1)I + (Y^f)^T R^{-1} Y^f \right]^{-1}, \tag{3}$$

$$X^a = X^f W^a, \tag{4}$$

$$W^a = \left[(k-1)\widetilde{P}^a \right]^{1/2}, \tag{5}$$

160 where the state vectors $\bar{x}^f$ and $\bar{x}^a$ represent the ensemble mean of the forecast (background) and analysis of aerosol mass mixing ratios in this study; X^f represents the ensemble perturbation of the background field, also known as the ensemble perturbation matrix, calculated as $x(i) - \bar{x}^f, \{i = 1,2,\ldots,k\}$, where i represents each ensemble and k represents the total number of ensembles; $\bar{w}^a$ represents the weight matrix, which is the Kalman gain, and specifically represents the increment between the forecast and the analyzed fields; the vector $\bar{y}^f$ represents the observations of the ensemble mean background

165 field simulation; $\bar{y}^f$ is obtained by transforming the ensemble state variable $\bar{x}^f$ and the observation operator H through the formula $y^{f(i)} = \mathrm{H}(X^{f(i)})$; and y^o represents the observations used for assimilation. The matrix Y^f represents the ensemble background observation perturbation field, calculated with the formula $y^{f(i)} - \bar{y}^f$, $\{i = 1,2,\ldots,\mathrm{k}\}$. The matrix R represents the observation error covariance matrix, and I represents the unit matrix. The ensemble mean of the analysis field is added to X^a to form the optimal initial field for the ensemble forecast, and the initial field for the next forecast can be obtained by

170 optimizing the forecast field by assimilating the observations. Hunt et al. (2007) extended LETKF into 4D-LETKF, which can assimilate observations asynchronously within the assimilation window at each analysis moment and avoid switching between forecast and analysis variables within each hour. In this study, the assimilation window is set to 12 hours. The system first performs a 12-hour ensemble forecast and outputs the simulated background fields at each hour. According to different time localizations, the trajectory of the state variables within the assimilation window of N-hour is a combination of

175 the trajectories of the model background field changes in each ensemble, which forms the background observation mean and perturbation covariance matrix within the assimilation window. Then, it is substituted into Formula (2) to calculate the weight matrix $\bar{w}^a$.

Due to the aerosol simulations being particularly sensitive to emissions, we perturb the aerosol emission to create the model ensemble simulations. The emissions to be perturbed mainly include BC, OC, $PM_{2.5}$, and PM_{10}, as well as the gaseous

180 precursors, including SO_2, NO, and NO_2. In each member the emissions are perturbed with the perturbation coefficients $f_{i,j}(x,y)$, $\{i = 1,2,\ldots,\mathrm{k}; \mathrm{j} = \mathrm{BC}, \mathrm{OC}, \ldots, \mathrm{NO}_2\}$, following a lognormal distribution, where (x,y) is the latitude and longitude of the emission source, and j represents each species. The mean values of the perturbation coefficients $f_{i,j}(x,y)$ are all 1, and their variances represent the uncertainties of different emission sources, where the uncertainties of BC, OC, $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} emissions are set to 288%, 322%, 228%, and 230%, respectively. The uncertainties of the aerosol precursor SO_2, NO and

185 NO_2 emissions are set to 70%, 112%, and 112%, respectively (Li et al., 2017).

The 4D-LETKF allows flexible assimilation of observations to specific grid points by horizontal, vertical, and temporal observation localization (Miyoshi et al. 2007; Dai et al. 2019; Cheng et al. 2019). With respect to the horizontal and vertical localization, the observation localization gradually reduces the effectiveness of the observations as the distance from the analysis grid increases. A Gaussian function $\exp\left(-r^2/2\sigma^2\right)$ is used to calculate the horizontal and vertical localization

190 factors, where σ represents the physical length and r represents the physical distance between the center grid and the observation position. We cut the tail of the Gaussian function to simulate the fifth-order piecewise rational function and do not assimilate observations beyond the distance $r = 2 \cdot \sqrt{10/3} \cdot \sigma$ (Miyoshi et al., 2007; Dai et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2019).

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In this study, a length scale of 25 km is selected as the best assimilation performance, considering the model-level resolution setting and tuning based on the localization length σ. The impacts of the horizontal and vertical localization length scale on the assimilation system performance have been widely discussed in previous studies (Dai et al., 2019; Di Tomaso et al., 2017; Rubin et al., 2016; Schutgens et al., 2010; Yumimoto and Takemura, 2011), whereas temporal localization is worthy of attention. The MOSAIC model within WRF-Chem simulates the mixing ratios of 64 aerosol species, and there are eight species and eight particle size segments. All aerosol mass mixing ratios optimized during the assimilation window are determined from their relative fractions. The observation operators are used to map the model state vector to the aerosol extinction coefficient.

Sensitivity tests on this 4D-LETKF assimilation system with varying parameters (specifically, the ensemble members: 10, 20 and 40) were conducted in our previous studies (Dai et al., 2021). Since the finding from the ensemble size has only little effect on the assimilation performance (Dai et al., 2021), the impact of the ensemble size on the data assimilation performance is not a focus of this study. We use twenty ensemble members and a constant multiplicative covariance inflation factor of 1.1 in all our following assimilation experiments. As shown in Table 1, five experiments are conducted in this study. Two free-run (FR) experiments are performed as a reference, and the difference between the two experiments is whether the aerosol radiation effect is activated (FR_REON) or inactivated (FR_REOFF). In FR_REOFF, the aerosol mass is set to zero in the radiation code. Three data assimilation (DA) experiments are performed to study the improvement of the aerosol and radiation forecast fields by DA. The parameter time localization length can be used to determine the assimilated observations in the time space. When the time localization length is set to 12 hours, all observations in one assimilation window can be assimilated (DA_REON_12H). Whereas the time localization length is set to 1 hour, only the current observations can be assimilated (DA_REON_01H). One assimilation experiment with the aerosol radiation effect inactivated (DA_REOFF_12H) is performed to study the assimilation of the aerosol radiation effect as a reference. Notably, the meteorological initial conditions in all experiments come from the FNL analysis, and there is no regional meteorological nudging in all experiments. Two FR experiments started at 00:00 UTC on 5 March 2018 with a spin-up period of 5 days, and three DA experiments were performed for the period of 10-24 March 2018, when one relatively severe pollution process occurred in SA.

3 Observation data

3.1 AHI

The AHI (Advanced Himawari Imager), an outstanding high-performance imager that is carried on the Himawari-8 satellite, has 16 observation bands, including 3 visible channels, 3 near-infrared channels, and 10 infrared channels. The multispectral of the visible and near-infrared channels are optically sensitive to aerosols and can be used for AOT retrieval with much higher quality than that with single-spectrum visible or near-infrared channels. A distinct advantage of geostationary satellite Himawari-8 is its high temporal resolution, which can provide full-disk images of aerosol optical properties, including AOT

225 and Ångström exponent (AE), every 10 minutes at a cloud-free location (Yoshida et al., 2018; Fukuda et al., 2013; Higurashi and Nakajima, 1999, 2002). The Himawari-8 satellite aerosol optical properties product is freely available on the website of the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA) (http://www.eorc.jaxa.jp/ptree/index.html). We use the hourly AOT at 500 nm in the Himawari-8 satellite retrieval level 3 (L3) version 0.30 aerosol optical properties product for data assimilation. The dataset has been rigorously cloud filtered with a horizontal resolution of 0.05° × 0.05° and contains as much AOT inversion

230 information as possible (Kikuchi et al., 2018). The original 500 nm Himawari-8 AOT is extrapolated to 550 nm AOT using AE and re-gridded to the model grid using the inverse distance square weight interpolation method. We apply several quality-control methods to improve the observation reliability before using Himawari-8 AOT. The non-uniform grids are constructed identically to the WRF domain and we perform hourly horizontal aggregation using available observations. To avoid anomalies arising from grid features, the number of observations in each grid must be greater than 10. Each grid is

235 tested for standard deviation, and the variation of AOT (i.e., standard deviation and mean) within the grid cell must be less than 0.5, similar to Zhang and Reid (2006).

3.2 MODIS

The MODIS aboard the Terra and Aqua satellites is an important aerosol observational instrument (King et al., 1992; Salomonson et al., 1989). The MODIS Aqua level 2 (L2) AOT version 6.1 retrievals from the Dark Target (DT) and Deep

240 Blue (DB) merged products at 550 nm are used to validate the model simulations. The product has undergone quality control and cloud processing (Martins et al., 2002). Due to the L2 AOT products are orbital data, we utilize a tool dedicated to processing remote sensing and modal data, as Community Intercomparison Suite (CIS) (Watson-Parris et al., 2016) to process MODIS L2 AOT products with a temporal resolution of 10 min and a spatial resolution of 10 km into gridded data with a temporal resolution of 1 h and a spatial resolution of 25 km.

3.3 AERONET

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The AErosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET) is a ground-based aerosol remote sensing observation network covering the world. The AOT dataset of Level 2.0 of AERONET Version 3 is used in this study. The AERONET provides AOT with a temporal resolution of 15 minutes on average, and we average the instantaneous data to obtain hourly AOT data. The AOTs at 440 nm and 675 nm are logarithmically interpolated to obtain the AOT at 550 nm (Dai et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2021).

250 Five sites in Fig. 1a with at least 10 available hourly AOTs in March 2018 are used for the model validation. The model results are interpolated to the AERONET site using the bilinear interpolation method to match the observed information in space and time in the evaluation process.

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3.4 CERES

The CERES synoptic 1º (SYN1deg) Ed4.1 hourly data product are used to verify against the simulated downward shortwave

255 radiation of WRF-Chem (Kato et al., 2013), which can provide high accuracy in radiation products. Based on a radiative

transfer model of CERES, the CERES-SYN1deg product is obtained by using the more accurate aerosol and cloud dataset derived from the A-train satellite (MODIS, aboard the Aqua and Terra). The data from CERES-SYN1deg used in this work is from 10-24 March 2018.

4 Results

The AOT measurements at Kyanjin_Gompa and horizontal distributions of the simulated AOT during 10-24 March 2018 indicate that the air quality in the TP and SA is severely degraded by biomass burning and anthropogenic events (Figs. 1b and 1c). The spatial map of the average AOT over the domain reveals high aerosol loading over eastern SA during 10-15 March. The outbreak of the whole pollution process occurred in the period of 15-17 March, during which the southeastern TP was obviously affected by pollution from SA. The northward transport pathway extends from the SA region to southeastern TP, and large amounts of pollutants are carried into the TP along this pathway. Compared to the AERONET observations at the Kyanjin_Gompa site, the model tends to underestimate the AOTs during 10-15 and 17-24 March but overestimates that during 15-17 March. The differences between the model and observed AOTs can contribute to the uncertainties in emission inventories, aerosol processes in the model, the uncertainties in AERONET retrievals and so on. Data assimilation is an effective tool for better simulation of aerosol fields. The results in five experiments are compared with the assimilated Himawari-8 AOTs as self-verification and different observations (i.e., MODIS Aqua AOTs and AERONET AOTs) as independent verification. The statistical criteria, including mean bias (BIAS), root-mean-square error (RMSE) and correlation coefficient (CORR), are applied between the simulated results and observations.

4.1 AOT Analyses Verification

4.1.1 Self-check

The AOT analyses are verified with Himawari-8 data that are assimilated using a series of statistics. The benefit of this sort of evaluation is to determine if the assimilation of Himawari-8 retrievals improved the aerosol simulations. Fig. 2 shows the horizontal distributions of the BIASs and RMSEs between the AOT simulations or analyses in different experiments and Himawari-8 retrievals. There are important geographic differences regarding AOT simulation performance. The simulated AOTs in the FR_REON and FR_REOFF experiments are both overestimated in the eastern SA but underestimated in the western SA, which maybe due to the overestimation of combustion sources, the underestimation of anthropogenic sources, and other unresolved aerosol sources (Li et al., 2017). Overall, the average AOTs are weakly lower than those of Himawari-8, with biases of -0.002 and -0.008 in the FR_REON and FR_REOFF experiments, respectively. Fig. 2 shows that many available Himawari-8 data can be used to assimilate over SA. However, there are few available satellite data over the TP, which is due to the influence of the high surface albedo on satellite retrievals (Ming et al., 2013). The assimilated experiments perform very well regarding the AOT analyzed fields, which are more consistent with the Himawari-8 retrievals. The AOT analyses in the DA_REON_01H experiment improved dramatically, with the BIAS and

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RMSE virtually disappearing, which illustrates that the data assimilation system is capable of using the AOT provided by the Himawari-8 measurement. Based on the BIASs and RMSEs, the AOT analyses in DA_REON_01H are superior to those in DA_REON_12H, because the DA_REON_01H experiment only assimilates the observations at the current moment. The negligible difference in the AOT analyses between the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments is due to the system finding the best compromise when assimilating. Overall, the domain-averaged bias is decreases after DA; however, the AOT analyses all show weak underestimation, especially over western SA. This may be because smaller underestimations are always associated with smaller model error values, resulting in larger weights of simulated values and reduced sensitivity to assimilation effects.

The scatter plots of the assimilated Himawari-8 AOTs versus the simulated ones for all experiments are depicted in Figs. 3a-e, and Fig. 3f further shows the probability distribution functions (PDFs) of AOT simulations minus Himawari-8 observation deviations in two FR experiments and AOT analyses minus Himawari-8 observation deviations in three assimilation experiments. The average RMSE is reduced from approximately 0.3 in the two FR experiments to values of approximately 0.15 in the assimilation experiments. The CORR is increased from approximately 0.35 in the FR experiments to above 0.75 in the three assimilation experiments. In particular, the value of CORR value is 0.939 in the DA_REON_01H experiment. The AOT analyses in DA_REON_01H are most concentrated in the scatter plots, with weak BIAS and RMSE values of -0.048 and 0.086, respectively. The distribution of the AOT deviations shows that the assimilation experiments are more squeezed with higher peaks than the FR experiments. Only 14.36% (28.16%) of the AOT deviations are within ±0.05 (±0.1) in the FR_REON experiment, whereas 51.26% (77.90%) are within ±0.05 (±0.1) in the DA_REON_01H experiment. The performances of the AOT analyses in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are inferior to that in DA_REON_01H, which proves that the whole window asynchronous assimilation has a certain impact on the analysis.

4.1.2 Independent verification

Several metrics in Fig. 4, including BIASs, RMSEs, and CORRs, are employed to determine the performance of the AOT simulations in two FR experiments and AOT analyses in three assimilation experiments compared to MODIS observations. In general, the independent verification illustrates that the assimilation system can adjust the analysis fields over the domain. Although the negative BIASs are increased in the three assimilation experiments from approximately -0.115 to -0.145, the RMSEs are reduced from 0.266 to 0.247, and the CORRs are increased from approximately 0.36 to 0.52. The reason for this is that the assimilation of Himawari-8 measurements decreases the overestimation of AOT over eastern South Asia, which is attributed to the aggravation of the original negative BIAS. Meanwhile, high values with RMSEs greater than 0.5 in the FR experiments in the western regions of Myanmar are reduced in the assimilation experiments, especially in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments. In contrast to self-checking, the AOT analyses in DA_REON_12H are closer to MODIS than those in DA_REON_01H. The AOT analyses are interpolated to the MODIS, which is different in temporal and spatial distribution from Himawari-8. The AOT analyses in DA_REON_12H absorb the entire window of

observations, and this asynchronous assimilation corrects the AOT analysis field at all times in each window (Dai et al., 2019).

AERONET is the most important data source for evaluating AOTs given its high accuracy. The AOT analyses in all experiments are interpolated to the locations of four AERONET sites for verification. The locations of the four AERONET sites are shown as black dots in Fig. 1a. The time trends of the AOT simulations in the FR experiments and analyses in the assimilation experiments are shown in Fig. 5, and the statistical parameters of the total sites are given in Table 2. The BIASs in the two FR experiments with a value of approximately -0.45 indicate that the model tends to underestimate AOTs at the four sites. Three assimilation experiments decrease the bias to approximately -0.33. From the statistical indicators, the AOT analyses in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are slightly superior to that in the DA_REON_01H. Meanwhile, AOT analyses in DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are more reasonable in reflecting the time trend of AOT than that in the DA_REON_01H experiment because the AOT analyses in the DA_REON_01H experiment significantly change. The whole observations of AOTs in the assimilation windows are considered in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments, which illustrate the time change of the AOT analyses that are more in line with the changing characteristics of the AEROENT observations. In the Lumbini and Pokhara sites, the AOT analyses in the DA_REON_12H experiment effectively improved the underestimated values in the FR_REON experiment from March 10 to 16, 2018. At the Dibrugarh_Uni site near the southeastern TP, the AOT simulation also captures the AOT fluctuations well. Notably, there is no Himawari-8 observation assimilated at the Dibrugarh_Uni site during the period from 10-14 March 2018. The large decrease in AOT analyses in the DA_REON_12H experiment is the result of the horizontal localization of assimilating observations around this site. In terms of aerosol radiation feedback, some differences occur in the heavily polluted periods, for example, from March 15 to March 17 at the Dibrugarh_Uni site. In view of this phenomenon, a detailed analysis is carried out later.

4.2 AOT Forecast Verification

To further evaluate the Himawari-8 DA impact on AOT forecasting, we perform some independent validations with the MODIS and AERONET observations. Fig. 6 presents maps of BIASs, RMSEs, and CORRs between the AOTs simulated in various experiments and MODIS-observed AOTs over the whole domain. In general, the AOT 12-h forecast fields in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are significantly superior to that in the DA_REON_01H experiment. The AOT forecast fields in DA_REON_12H attenuate the overestimation of the AOT in the FR_REON experiment over eastern SA. Interestingly, the AOT forecast field in DA_REON_01H is almost unchanged compared with that in the FR_REON experiment, which is mainly because the available observations for assimilation are only present between 02:00 and 10:00 UTC, but every assimilation time starts at 00:00 and 12:00 UTC every day. The lack of data at 00 h and 12 h led to little change in the initial field in the DA_REON_01H experiment. However, AOT forecasts in DA_REON_12H reduce the high values of the RMSEs in the FR_REON experiment over the southern slope of the Himalayas and reduce the overestimated values during the 23-25°N latitude band. Specifically, the CORRs are increased in assimilation experiments

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from 0.369 (FR_REON) to 0.409 (DA_REON_12H) and from 0.358 (FR_REOFF) to 0.406 (DA_REOFF_12H). The relative differences in the CORRs in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are both less than 3%, although the mean biases in the DA_REON_12H experiment tend to be slightly smaller than those in the DA_REOFF_12H experiment. This illustrates that aerosol radiation feedback plays a small role, but still affects aerosol forecasts.

Fig. 7 shows the time series of AOT forecasts in various experiments and observed forecasts, and Table 2 also gives the statistical parameters of the total sites in the forecast results. The AOT forecasts in three assimilation experiments are obtained by providing the initial field every 12 hours of assimilation tests. Although with assimilation, the AOT forecasts in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are near the AERONET observations at the four sites, and the underestimations are improved in total. The forecasts are also underestimated, with a value of approximately -0.38. This may be caused by the uncertainty in the emissions inventory. Most likely due to the 12-hour forecast only, the forecast fields in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are very consistent with the analytical fields. The overall BIASs, RMSEs, and CORRs are -0.386, 0.479, and 0.447, respectively, in DA_REON_12H (Table 2). Compared to DA_REON_01H, the optimization of the initial field in DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H reduces the RMSEs and increases the CORRs at the four sites, indicating that assimilated observations over the whole window are beneficial for improving the forecast field.

The AERONET-observed AOTs over the Lumbini and Pokhara sites reveal that the aerosol is transported to Nepal from 10-15 March. The simulated AOTs in the FR experiments are significantly lower than the AEROENT observations during this period, whereas the magnitude and variation of the AOT forecasts in the DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments are generally reproduced. However, the AOT forecasts in the two assimilation experiments do not adequately capture the observed AOT peaks from 14-16 March at the Lumbini site, likely due to less coverage of the Himawari-8 data. It is worth noting that the improvement in the AOT forecast at the Lumbini site from 17-20 March is limited because the emission perturbation in that is weak.

A summary of the statistics of the simulated, analysis, forecast, and AEROENT observed AOT comparisons is shown in Table 2. In general, the results show good assimilation efficiency to improve the capability of the model to simulate the AOT over SA. As we expected, the analysis results in the assimilation experiments are more consistent with the ground-based values than the forecast results. The forecast results yield larger improvements when observations are assimilated over the whole window. Interestingly, the impact of aerosol radiation feedback is not significant under normal conditions without pollution, whereas some effects occur at the peak of pollution, which is worth further discussion.

4.3 Comparisons of the downward solar radiation

The atmosphere system responds to the aerosol radiation effect in multiple ways. First and most importantly, the impact on the surface solar radiation is of focus. Regardless of the effect of clouds, Fig. 8 shows the spatial distributions of the modeled downward solar radiation under clear-sky (DSRc) in five experiments and the comparisons of those and CERES-observed distributions. The high values of the DSRc are mainly located on the TP, which is an attribute of the high atmospheric

transparency. The low values are primarily in SA, which is associated with high aerosol loading. The DSRc distribution pattern is similar to that documented by Zhang et al. (2015). Compared to CERES observations, the underestimation occurs in eastern SA, and the overestimation occurs in western SA in FR_REON with a total domain mean bias of 10.69 W m^{-2}, which is due to the uncertainty in the aerosols and other factors such as the complex terrain processing in the model. Obviously, the overestimation in the FR_REON experiment is much smaller than that in FR_REOFF, which illustrates that the lack of consideration of aerosol radiation feedback leads to the enhancement of the DSRc, with a domain-mean bias of 31.8 W m^{-2} in FR_REOFF, in agreement with previous studies (Christopher et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2004). Notably, the DSRc in the FR_REOFF experiment is similar to that in the DA_REOFF_12H experiment, which explains why no aerosol radiation feedback is adverse to the DSRc forecasting.

The two assimilation experiments with the aerosol radiation effect activated significantly improve the DSRc simulation compared with the FR_REON experiment, especially effectively ameliorating the underestimation of the DSRc over eastern SA. The aerosol scatters the incident shortwave flux from the top of the atmosphere; thus, a reasonable aerosol forecast field is beneficial to the simulation of the DSRc. Taking into account the offset of high and low estimations of the DSRc in FR_REON, DA_REON_12H shows the least deviation from CERES in the whole region with a value of 13.34 W m^{-2}. The overestimation of the instantaneous flux in DA_REON_12H ranges from 0 up to 150 W m^{-2} depending on the magnitude of the AOTs and solar zenith angle at the time of day. The difference between the simulations and CERES also potentially contributes to the fact that the model covers the whole shortwave spectrum, whereas the satellite covers a section of the solar spectrum. It should also be noted that significant overestimation occurs at the latitude of 30°N in the western Himalayas in DA_REON_12H, which is partly due to the topography during the pattern interpolation process.

5 Discussions

5.1 Aerosol transport from South Asia to the southeastern TP

With the confidence provided by the good quality of the DA forecasts by assimilating all observations within the 12 h window, the analysis in this section is based on the hourly output from the first 12 h of all forecasts from 10 to 24 March. The forecast differences between FR and DA in the two cases where the aerosol radiative effect is activated (REON) or inactivated (REOFF) allow us to have a better understanding of the aerosol radiative effect on the aerosol transport from SA to the southeastern TP. The southeastern TP, indicated by the black rectangle in Figs. 9a and 9c, is highly susceptible to SA pollutants. Therefore, the time series of the AOT in the southern TP from the two cases are shown in Figs. 9b and 9d, and the differences between the DA and FR are also shown. Since the emission perturbations are invariant with the model grid and time, the AOTs in the DA and FR experiments show generally consistent temporal patterns. We find that the transport of AOTs produced in SA reached the AOT maximum in the southeastern TP on 16 March from all experiments. This is due to the surface flows on the southeastern TP being mostly from the polluted air masses 2 days before over the SA. Sensitivity tests illustrate that the increase in AOTs is greater from 15 to 17 March in the southeastern TP after assimilation with REON

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than that with REOFF. To emphasize the impact of aerosol changes at times of heavy pollution, the maps in Fig. 9a and 9c mainly focus on the averaged relative change in AOTs ((DA-FR)/FR) from 15 to 17 March in REON and REOFF, respectively. We find that the horizontal distributions of the relative change in AOTs with REON are more dispersed in the

420 southeastern TP than in the REOFF experiments. To validate the impact of aerosols on meteorological fields during aerosol assimilation, meteorological fields were not nudged. This is because assimilated aerosols further influence radiation and meteorological (Gao et al., 2022). As shown in Fig. 9c, in the absence of aerosol radiation effects, the impact of the assimilated SA aerosol field on the TP is caused only by transport through the wind field. In contrast, the average AOT differences between DA_REON_12H and FR_REON reach as high as 0.5 on 15-17 March, and the relative change is almost

425 20%.

To investigate how the meteorological fields are affected by the aerosol radiation effect after assimilation, Fig. 10 shows the averaged horizontal differences in the AOTs, shortwave downward radiation flux at the surface at the all-sky (DSR), planetary boundary layer height (PBLH), 2-m temperature (T2), and 2-m relative humidity (RH2) between the DA_REON_12H and FR_REON experiments. Significant positive (negative) DSR anomalies occur over the eastern SA

430 (southern Himalayas) due to the decrease (increase) in DA AOTs in eastern SA (southern Himalayas), corresponding to the significant increase (decrease) in PBLHs in eastern SA (southern Himalayas). The decreases in aerosols warm the surface of eastern SA by approximately 0.6 °C. The RH2 decreases following the T2 increases. This suggests that within the boundary layer, the aerosols are mainly scattered aerosols, and the decrease in the aerosols leads to an increase in the temperature within the boundary layer, raising the PBLH.

435 The physical blockage of the Himalayas causes aerosols to be difficult to transport over the high wall to the TP, while pollutants are relatively easily transported to the southeastern TP through the leaky wall of the Yarlung Tsangpo River Grand Canyon (Zhang et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2017). Therefore, Fig. 11 focuses on the averaged differences in the water vapor mixing ratio (q), temperature (T), and vertical velocity (w) in the vertical distribution from the eastern SA to the southeastern TP between the DA_REON_12H and FR_REON experiments. The latitudinal vertical cross section at 96°E, indicated by the

440 black line in Fig. 10d, is extracted from 22°N to 32°N. Remarkable dry and warm anomalies at the surface are present on the eastern SA from 22°N to 26°N. Meanwhile, a well-defined thermal dipole, represented by a warm anomaly below 850 hPa and a cool anomaly between 850 hPa and 650 hPa, can be seen in correspondence to the anomalies of q. This is mainly due to a scattered aerosol decrease after DA occurs at approximately 850 hPa, whereas absorbed aerosols decrease after DA between 850 hPa and 650 hPa, indicating upward transport of fire-emitted absorbing aerosols. Since the DA system with

445 aerosol radiative effect, it appears that warm and dry air intrudes on the surface in eastern SA. This intrusion plays a critical role in the increase in the vertical velocity from south to north at 95°E. The above analysis can be used to explain the more pronounced DA aerosol transport from eastern SA to the southeastern TP in the case of aerosol radiative feedback relative to the case of turning off the aerosol radiative effect.

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5.2 Effects of the different types of aerosols

The fire emissions are considered in this study because March is the season of biomass burning in SA. The inclusion of fire points significantly leads to high AOT simulations in eastern SA (Fig. 2). Data assimilation does lead to better simulation and forecasting of aerosols. After DA, the aerosol scattering and absorption of solar radiation by anthropogenic emissions or biomass burning can affect the atmospheric temperature profile. The feedback effects of aerosols in the online model are different for different types of aerosols. It is clear that the decrease in temperature within the boundary layer due to the reduction in the AOTs in eastern SA after assimilation is mainly because the fact that the total aerosols are mainly scattering aerosols. The mass concentrations of organic carbon and sulfate aerosols in this process are roughly three times higher than those of black carbon, and there were no dust aerosols during this pollution process on March 15-17 (not shown). It is worth considering that if the same transmission path is dominated by dust aerosols, the impact of aerosol radiative forcing may differ significantly, and this topic deserves further discussion in future studies.

5.3 The influence of clouds

Aerosols influence clouds, in terms of both scattering and absorption. Chen et al. (2014) found that a 0.2-0.4 increase in aerosol assimilation increased cloudiness in the boundary layer, suppressed mid-level water clouds and upper-level ice clouds, and ultimately led to a 2% decrease in precipitation. In this study, it is beyond the scope of this paper to consider cloud changes because there were no precipitation processes during this pollution. However, the influence of clouds is still very important. In Section 4.4, the assimilation experiment with aerosol radiative effect activation has significantly better forecast fields for surface solar radiation under clear sky conditions, but there is still a positive bias in terms of the deviation from CERES. This is most likely related to the amount of clouds simulated in the model, although it is under clear sky conditions. The difference in the appearance time of clouds in the model and the observed clouds can lead to the difference in solar shortwave radiation under clear sky conditions. For example, at the time of high solar radiation at noon, cloud-free conditions are simulated in the model, while cloudy conditions are observed. Thus, the surface solar radiation in the clear sky simulated by the model in the average condition significantly increase.

6 Conclusions

SA is an important emission source of TP aerosols, especially in spring. In this study, the WRF-Chem model coupled with an AOT DA system was used to investigate pollution transmission from SA to the TP during the spring period of 2018 (10–24 March). By assimilating AOT retrievals from Himawari-8, AOTs in the SA region were substantially improved compared to those when AOTs were not assimilated. Sensitivity tests for the assimilation system were conducted first to tune temporal localization lengths. The self-test comparison with the Himawari-8 AOT entering the system illustrated that the AOT analysis field obtained by assimilating hourly observations was closer to the Himawari-8 AOT, with a correlation coefficient of 0.917 for the whole region throughout the period. Independent validation with MODIS and AERONET AOT data found

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480 that the AOT analysis and forecast fields obtained by assimilating all the observations within the 12-h window showed more reasonable distributions in space and time, which were preferable to those obtained by assimilating hourly observations. Comparisons with CERES showed that the simulated shortwave downward radiation fluxes in assimilated experiments with aerosol radiation active significantly improved the negative biases of the unassimilated in the eastern SA. This can be interpreted as a reduced AOT due to DA scattering less shortwave radiation, leading to reasonable changes in solar energy.

485 On this basis, we analyzed the effect of the DA experiment with the aerosol radiation effect activated on aerosol transport. The DA experiment with the aerosol radiation effect activated had a wider and stronger impact on the southeastern TP than the DA experiment with the aerosol radiation effect inactivated during the period of 15 to 17 March, when the pollution was most severe. We found that the radiative effect of the decreased AOT was to increase the downward solar radiation, PBLH, and surface temperature and suppress the RH. This led to an increase in the vertical velocity from the eastern SA to the

490 southeastern TP, which facilitated the transport of pollution from SA to the TP. It is worth noting that the timing of this contamination is dominated by scattered aerosols and that individual cases may not be typical enough. More studies are needed to better understand these complex interactions to further evaluate our hypothesis.

Appendix A: The summary of the abbreviations and their corresponding full names in this study.

Abbreviation	Full name	Abbreviation	Full name
SA	South Asia	GOCART	the Goddard Chemical Aerosol Radiation Transport
TP	Tibetan Plateau	NCEP	the National Centers for Environmental Prediction
DA	data assimilation	AHI	Advanced Himawari Imager
AOT	aerosol optical thickness	AE	Ångström exponent
WRF-Chem	Weather Research and Forecasting-Chemistry	JAXA	the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency
MODIS	Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer	DT	the Dark Target
AERONET	AErosol RObotic NETwork	DB	the Deep Blue
BC	black carbon	SYN	synoptic
GOES-8	Goddard Earth Observing	BIAS	mean bias

	System-8		
GOCI	Geostationary Ocean Color Imager	RMSE	root-mean-square error
CERES	Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System	CORR	correlation coefficient
LETKF	local ensemble transform Kalman filter	PDFs	the probability distribution functions
MOSAIC	Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions and Chemistry	DSRc	downward solar radiation under clear-sky
RRTMG	Rapid Radiative Transfer Model	DSR	downward radiation flux at the surface at the all-sky
OC	Organic Carbon	PBLH	planetary boundary layer height
PM$_{2.5}$	Particulate matter with an aerodynamic equivalent diameter of less than or equal to 2.5 micrometers in ambient air	T2	2-m temperature
PM$_{10}$	Particulate matter with an aerodynamic equivalent diameter of less than or equal to 10 micrometers in ambient air	RH2	2-m relative humidity
NMVOC	non-methane volatile organic compounds	q	water vapor mixing ratio
FINN	the Fire INventory from NCAR	T	temperature
MEGAN	the Model of Emissions of Gasses and Aerosols from Nature		

Appendix B: Statistical criteria.

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Three primary statistical metrics were employed to assess the simulation performance of observed data on model aerosol fields. These metrics include the Bias (BIAS), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), and Correlation Coefficient (CORR). BIAS is defined as the average difference between simulated results and observed values. RMSE quantifies the standard deviation of the differences between simulated results and observed values. CORR measures the correlation between simulated results and observed values. The formulas for these three statistical metrics are as follows:

$$BIAS = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=0}^{N}(M_i - O_i) \tag{B1}$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=0}^{N}(M_i - O_i)^2} \tag{B2}$$

$$CORR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N}(O_i - \bar{O})(M_i - \bar{M})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N}(O_i - \bar{O})^2 \sum_{i=1}^{N}(M_i - \bar{M})^2}} \tag{B3}$$

Here, N represents the total number of data points, M_i and O_i are the simulated and observed values, respectively. The symbols $\bar{M}$ and $\bar{O}$ represent the means of simulated and observed values, respectively.

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**Table 1. Experimental design for the sensitivity tests in this study.**

Sensitivity experiment	Description
FR_REON	Free run experiment without assimilation with aerosol radiation effect activated
FR_REOFF	Same as FR_REON, except with aerosol radiation effect inactivated
DA_REON_01H	Assimilating Himawari-8 AOT and time localization is set 1-hour with aerosol radiation effect activated
DA_REON_12H	Same as DA_REON_01H, except with time localization is set 12-hour
DA_REOFF_12H	Same as DA_REON_12H, except with aerosol radiation effect inactivated

795   **Table 2. Comparison with observations of the AERONET AOTs in four sites from the free run experiments, the assimilation experiments, and the 12h forecast over all analysis times from 10 to 24 March 2014.**

	Experiment	BIAS	RMSE	CORR
Free Run	FR_REON	-0.443	0.541	0.351
	FR_REOFF	-0.452	0.550	0.327
Analysis	DA_REON_01H	-0.330	0.447	0.531
	DA_REON_12H	-0.350	0.449	0.538
	DA_REOFF_12H	-0.347	0.443	0.530
Forecast	DA_REON_01H	-0.435	0.534	0.361
	DA_REON_12H	-0.386	0.479	0.447
	DA_REOFF_12H	-0.389	0.477	0.431
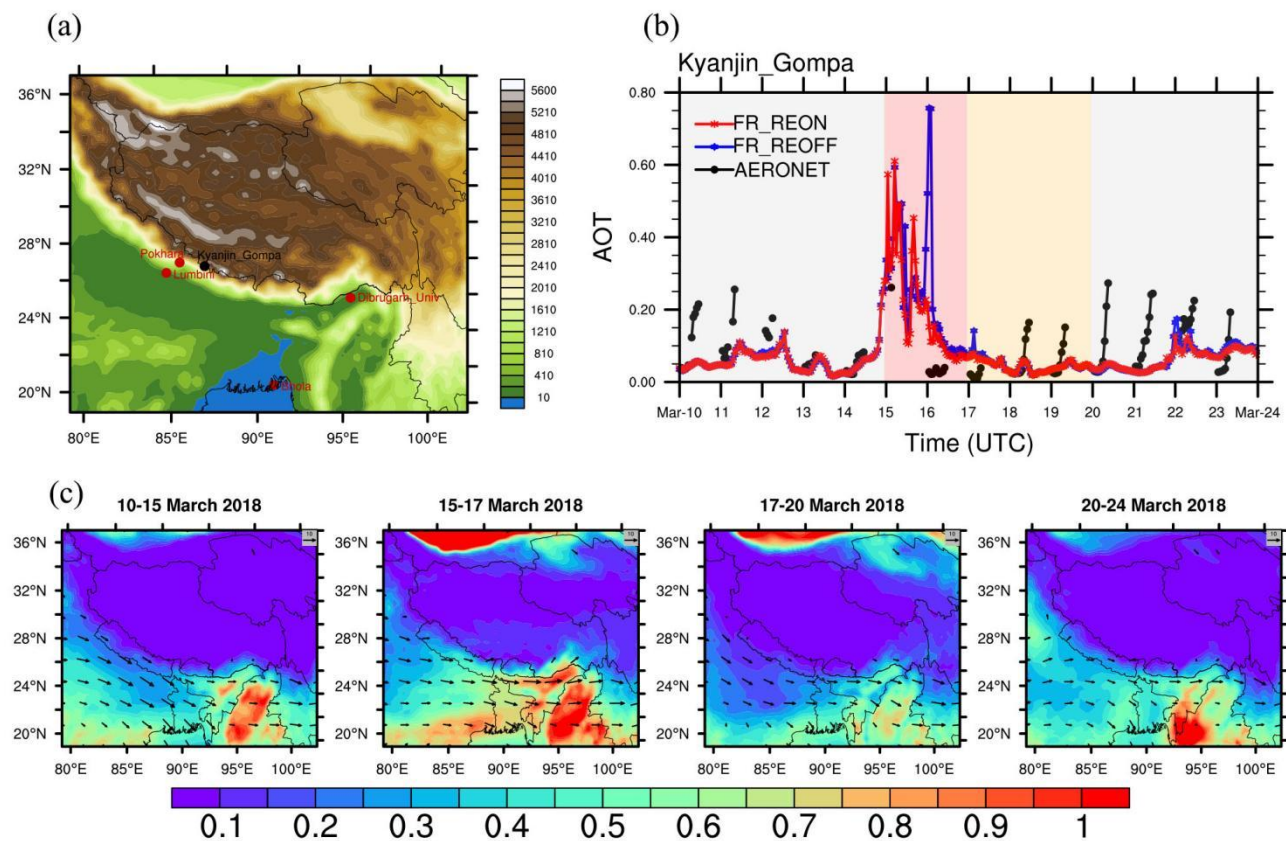
Figure 1: (a) Simulation domain with topography (m) and locations of observation sites (black and red dots). **(b)** Comparison between the simulated and observed hourly AOTs at Kyanjin_Gompa site. **(c)** Spatial distributions of simulated average AOT and wind fields at 700 hPa (m s^{-1}) over the TP and SA during four periods.
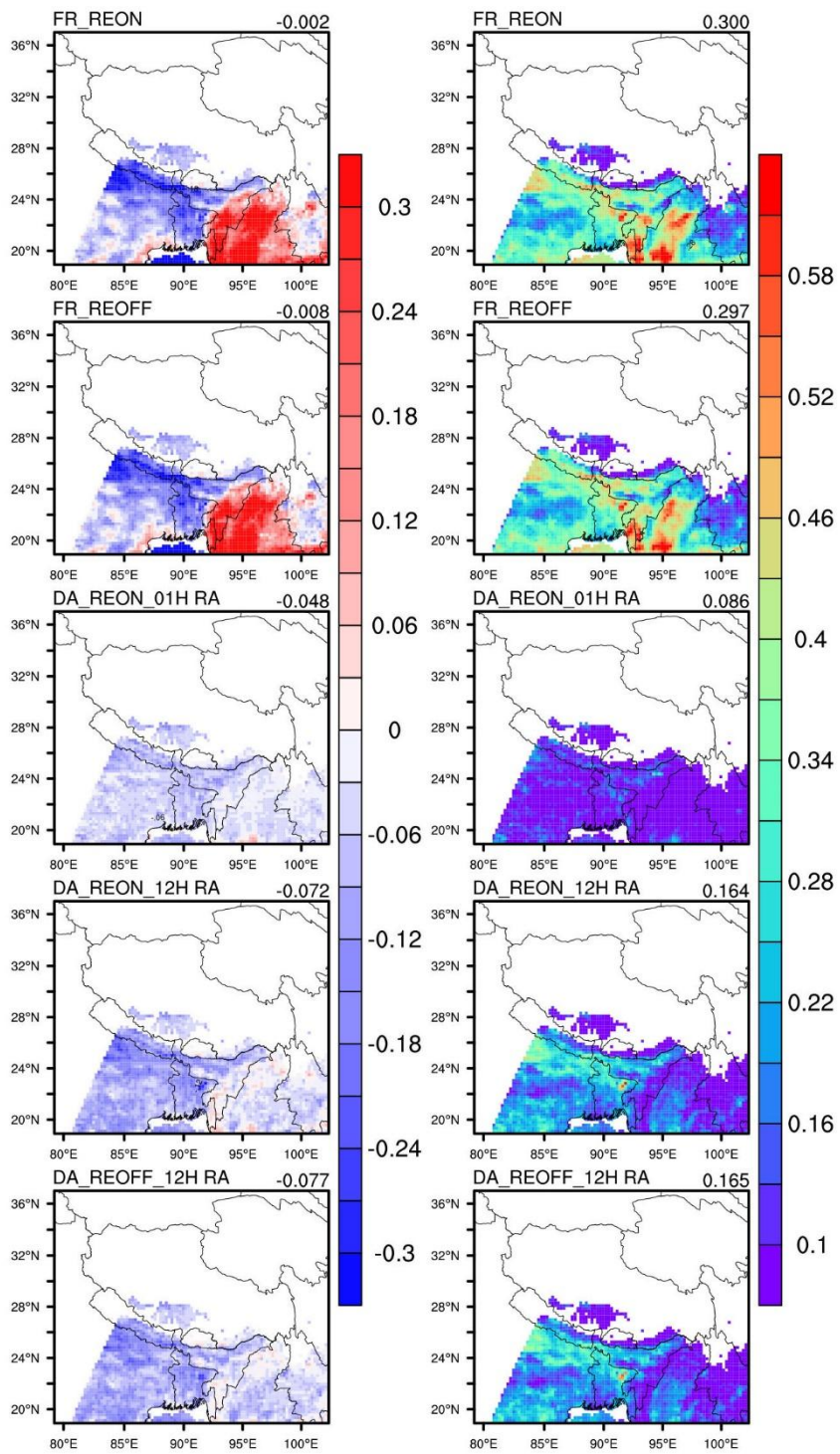
Figure 2: Spatial distributions of the BIASes (the simulated AOTs minus the observed ones; left column) and RMSEs (right column) between the simulated or analysis field and Himawari-8 AOTs during 10-24 March 2018 for the FR_REON, FR_REOFF,

DA_REON_01H, DA_REON_12H, DA_REOFF_12H experiments. The value in the top right corner represents the average value of the data in the figure, and the same applies to the figure below.
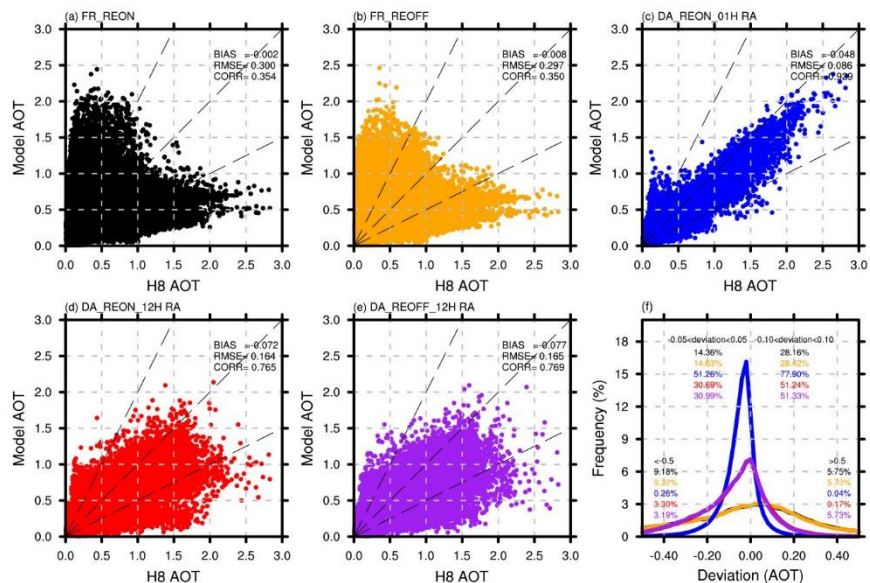
Figure 3: Scatter plot of the Himawari-8 observed AOTs and the simulated or analysis field AOTs with (a) FR_REON, (b) FR_REOFF, (c) DA_REON_01H, (d) DA_REON_12H and (e) DA_REOFF_12H. (f) Frequency distributions of deviations (the simulated AOTs minus the observed ones) from the Himawari-8 observations. The percent-ages of deviations between ±0.05, ±0.10, <-0.5, > 0.5 are also shown.
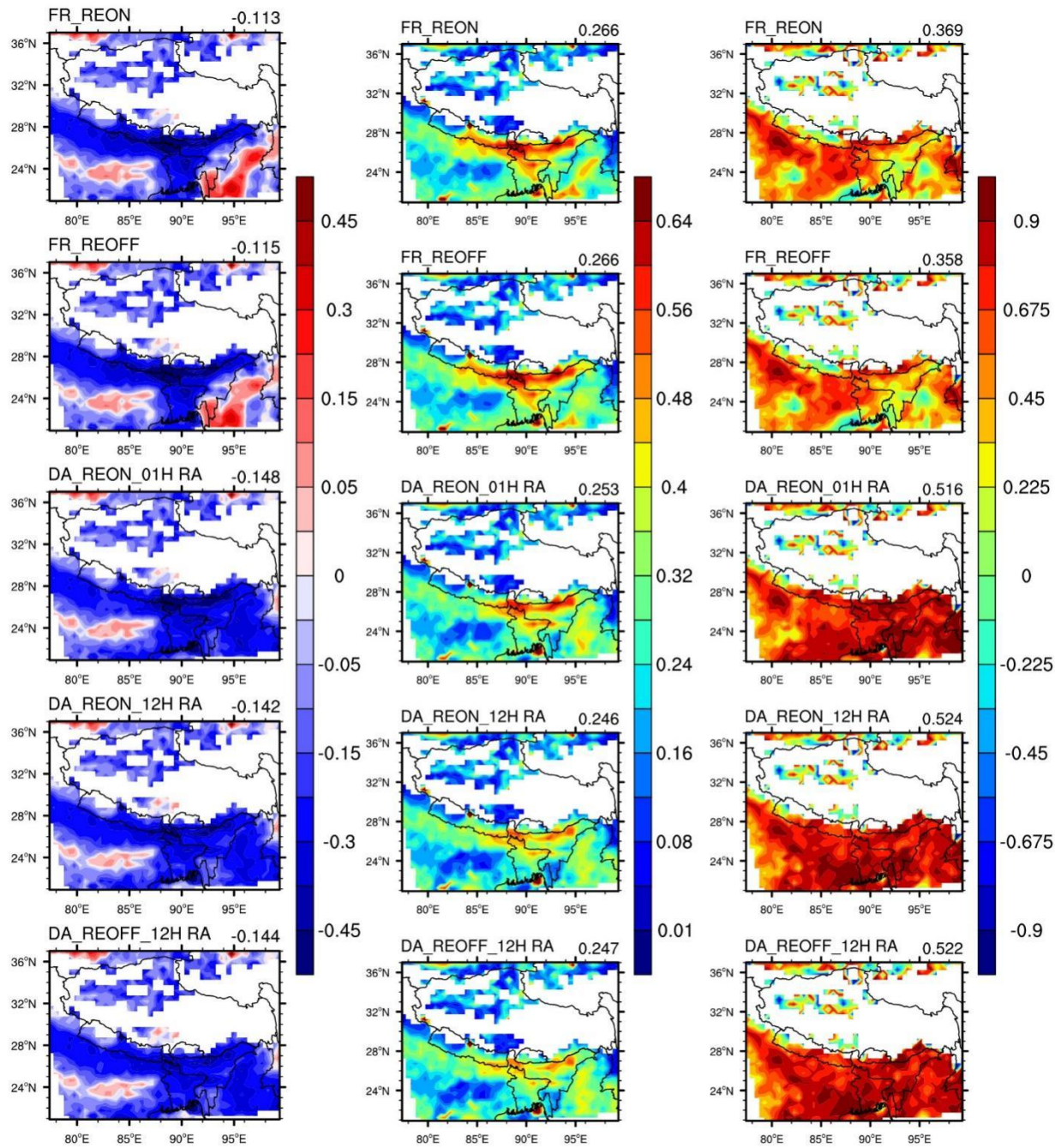
Figure 4: Spatial distributions of the BIASes (the left column), RMSEs (the center column), CORRs (the right column) between the simulated or analysis field and MODIS AOTs at 550 nm during 10-24 March 2018 for the FR_REON, FR_REOFF, DA_REON_01H, DA_REON_12H, DA_REOFF_12H experiments.
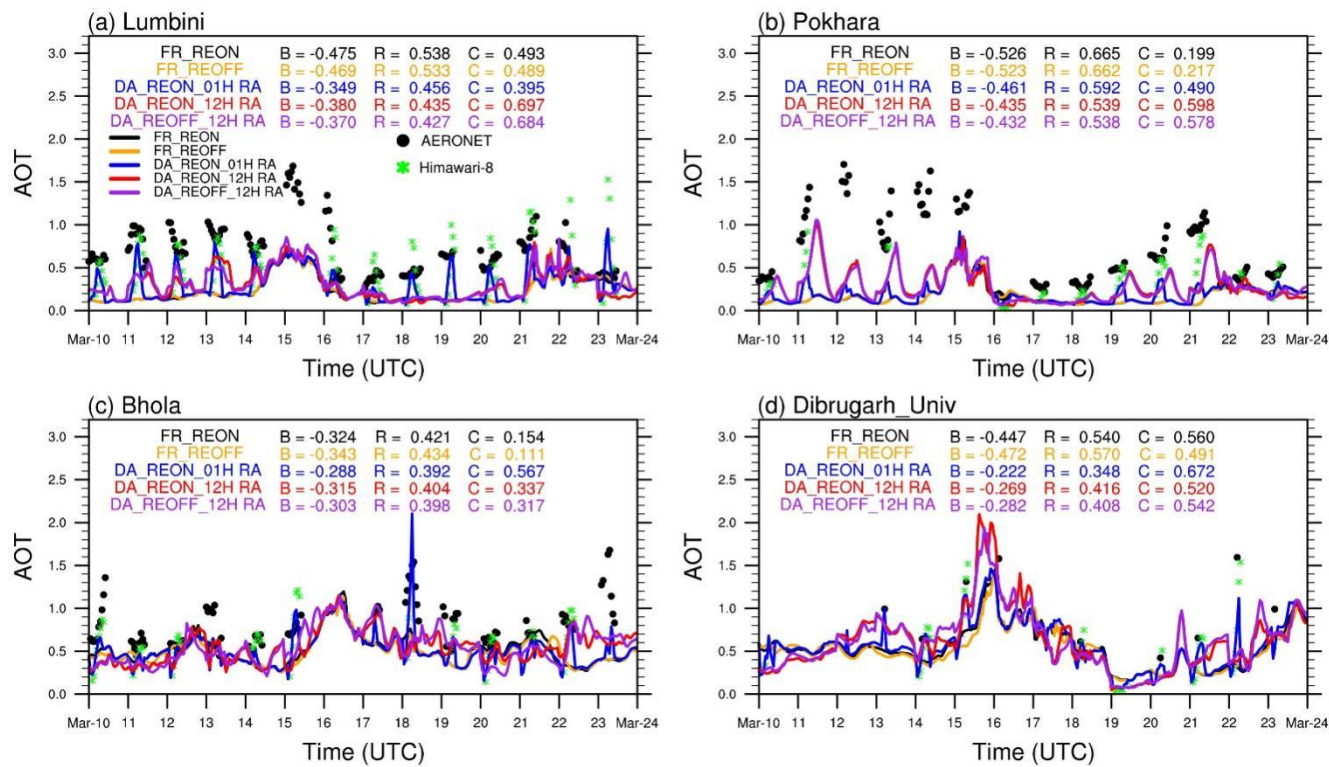
Figure 5: Hourly time series of the simulated AOTs for two FR experiments or analysis AOTs for three DA experiments and the observed AOTs from Himawari-8, and AERONET, over four AERONET sites. The BIAS (B), RMSE (R), and CORR (C) between the simulated AOTs for the five experiments and the AERONET observed AOTs are also shown.
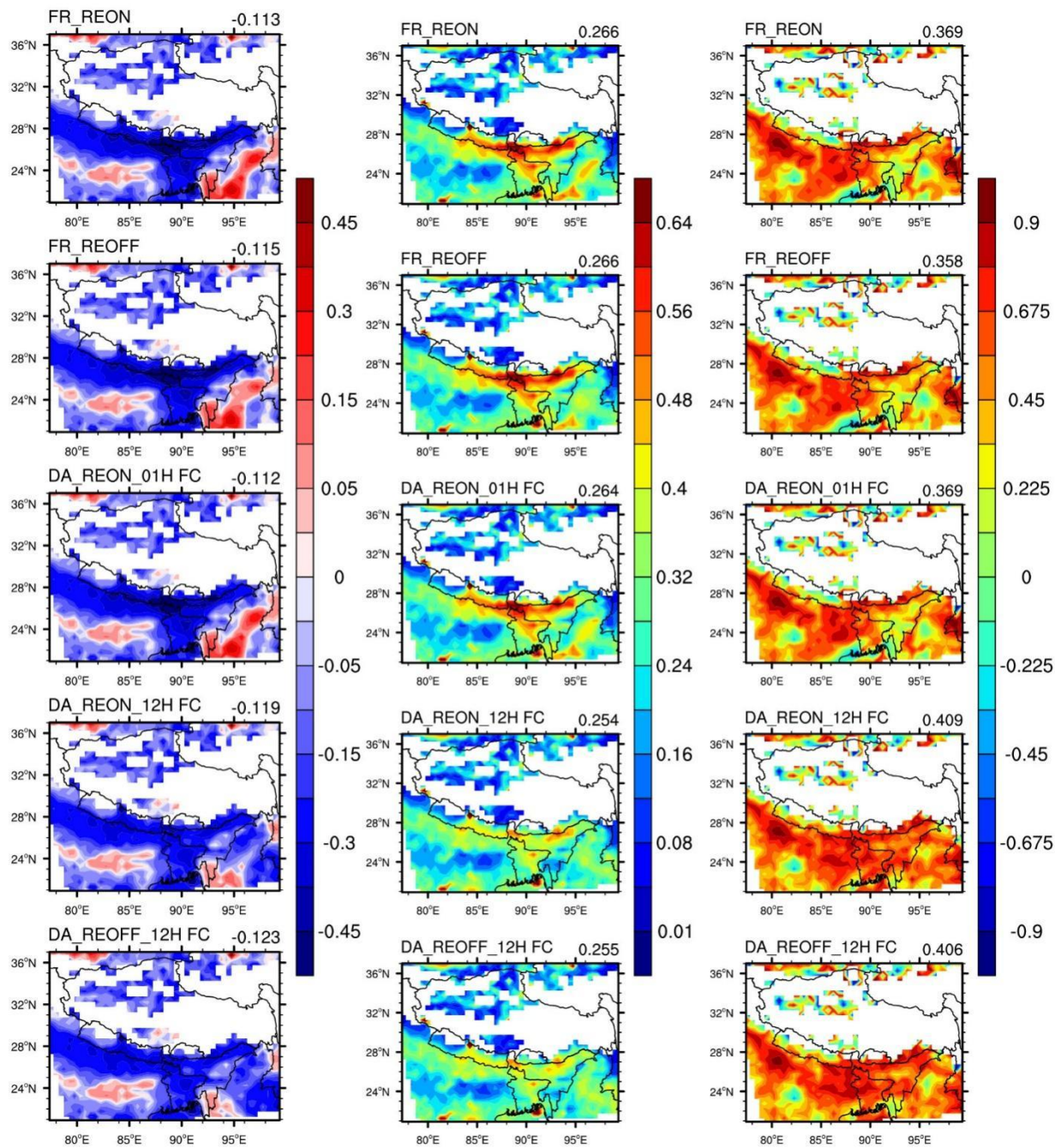
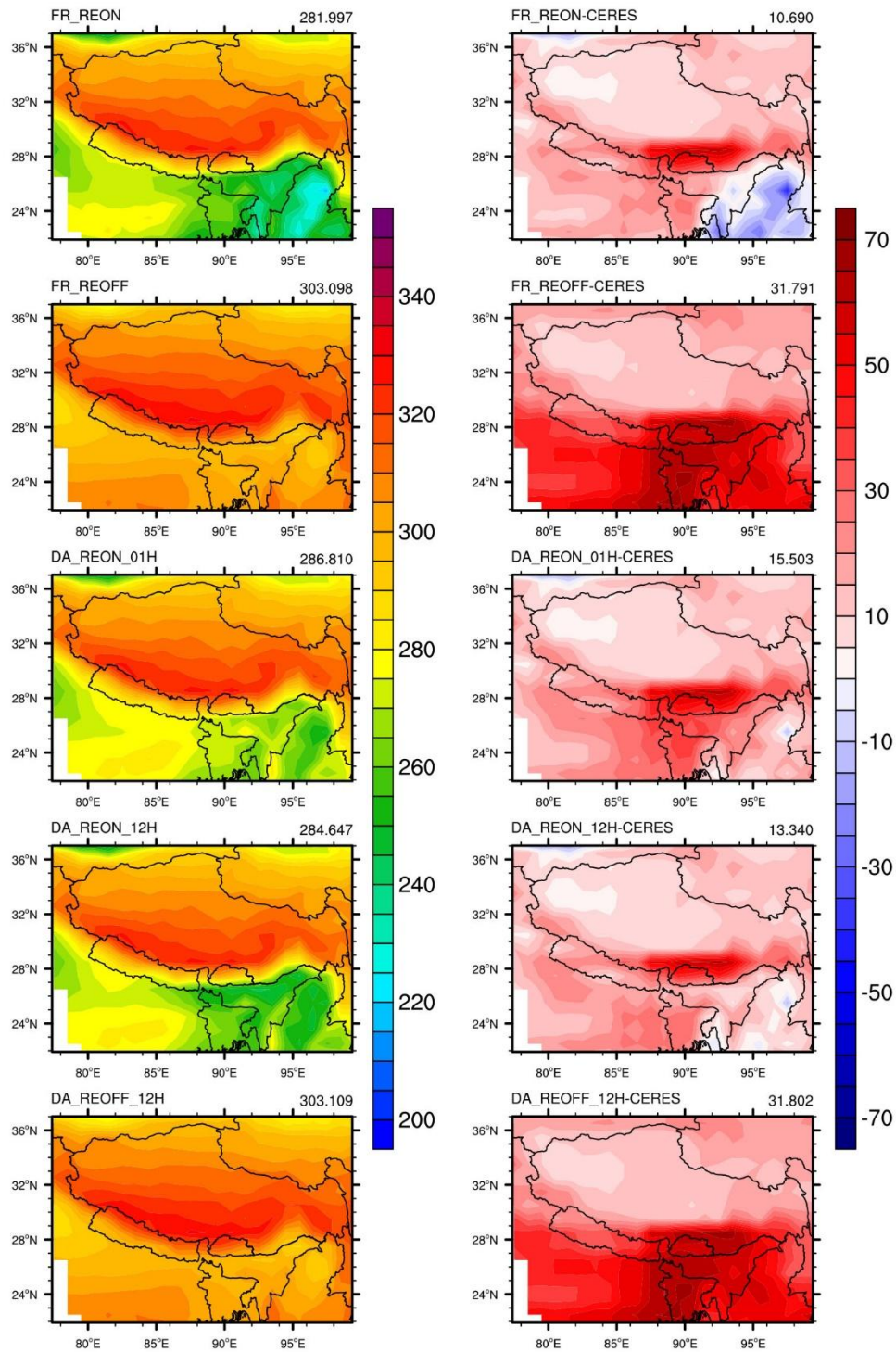**Figure 6: Same as Figure 4, expect for forecast filed AOT for DA_REON_01H, DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments.**
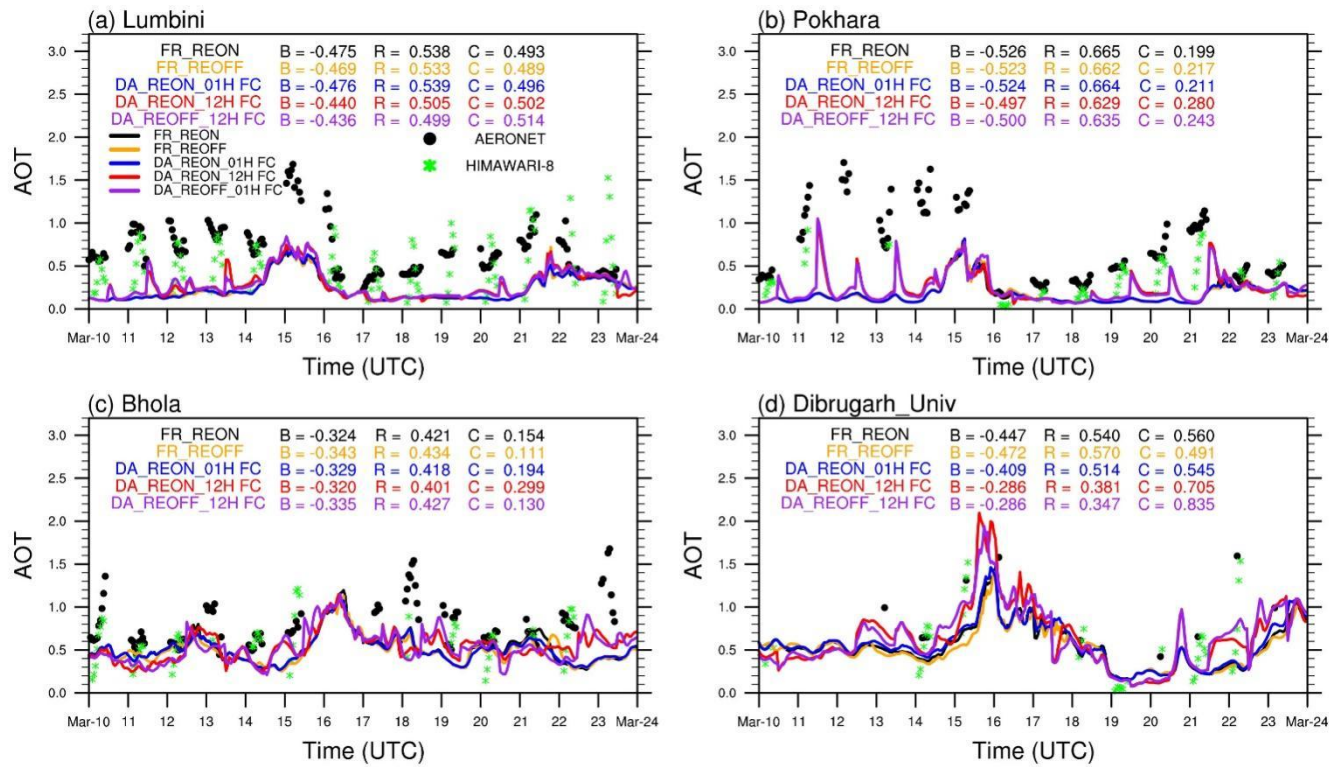
Figure 7: Same as Figure 5, expect for forecast filed AOT for DA_REON_01H, DA_REON_12H and DA_REOFF_12H experiments.
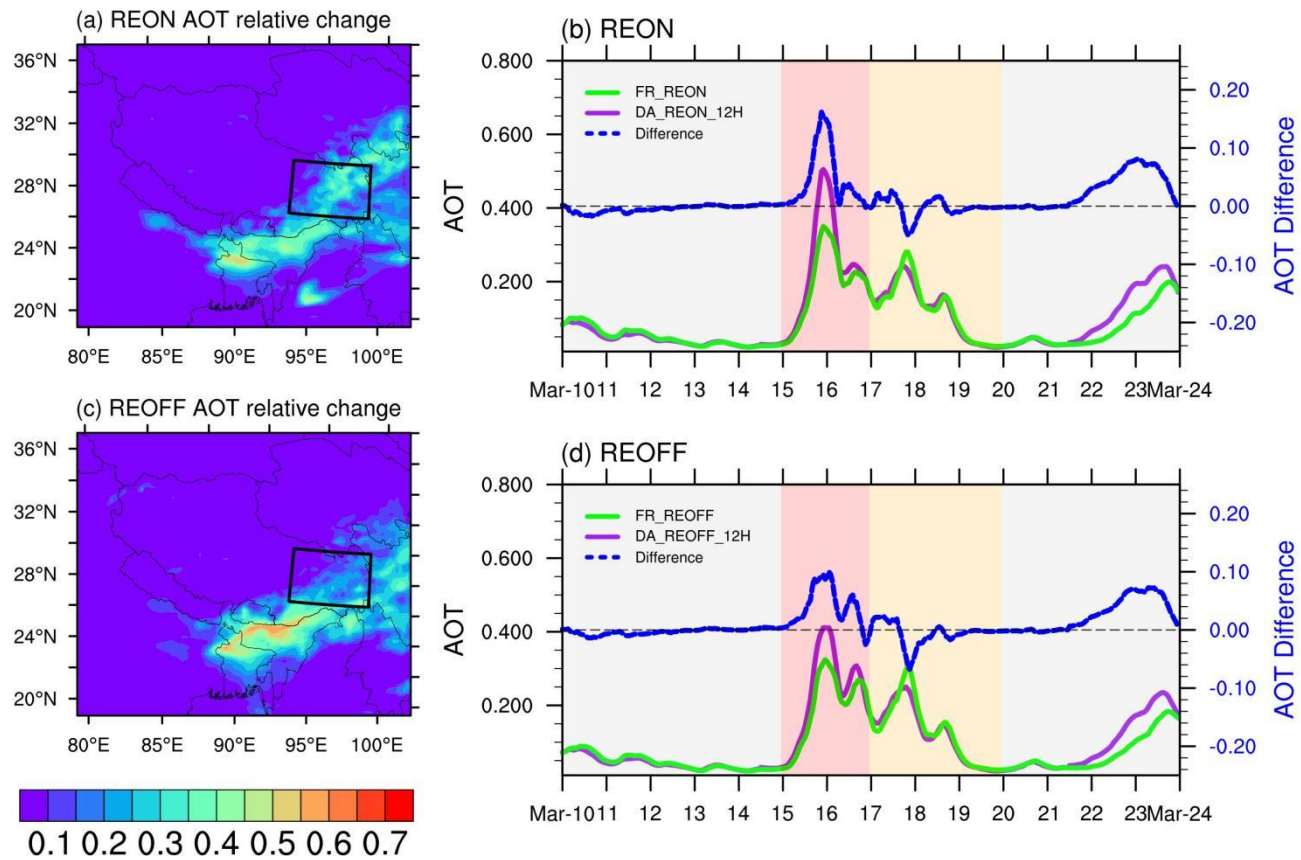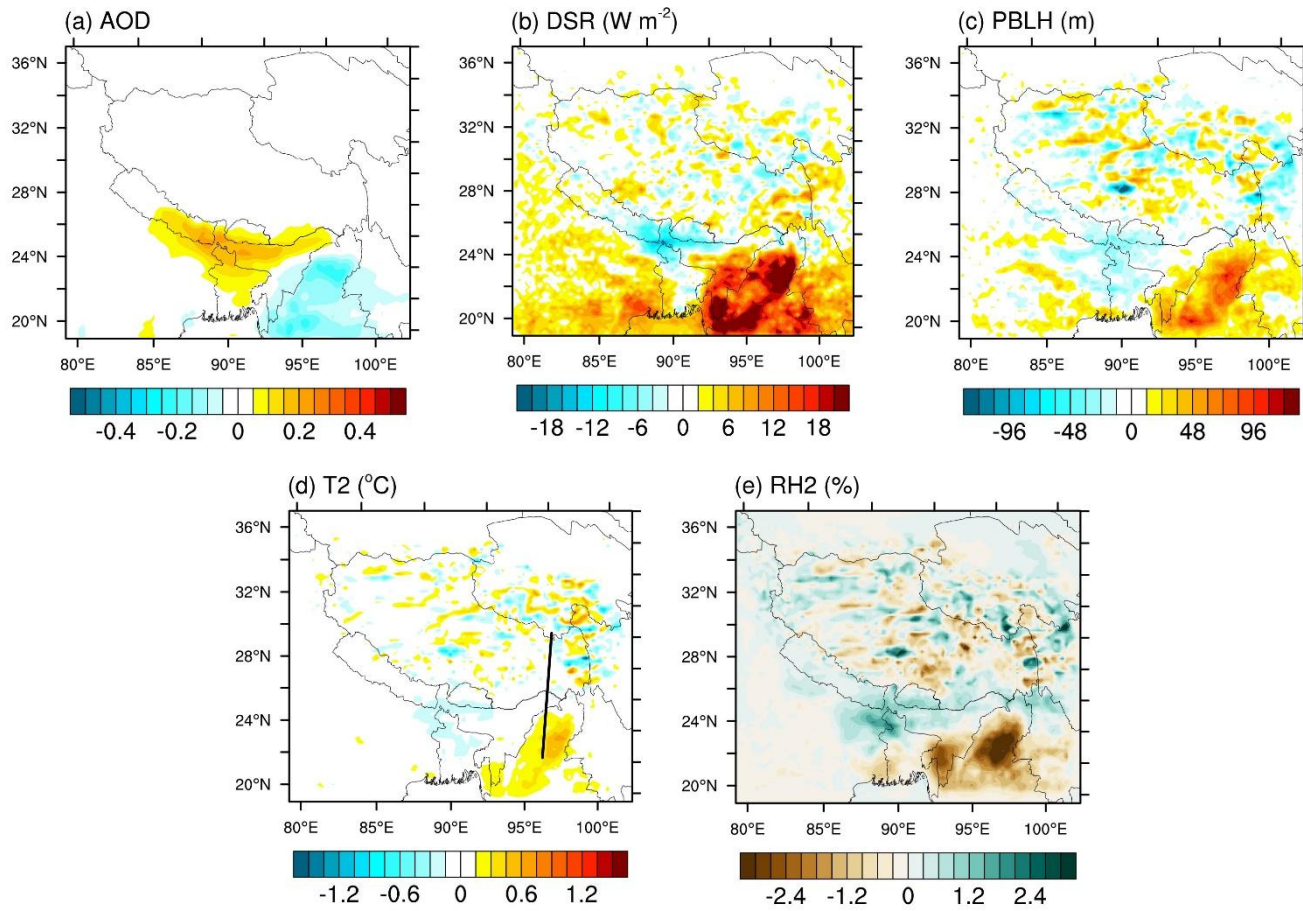
Figure 8: Spatial distributions of (the left column) the simulated averaged downward solar radiation under clear-sky (DSRc, unit: W m^{-2}) and the (the right column) BIAS between the forecasted and CERES-observed DSRc for the FR_REON, FR_REOFF, DA_REON_01H, DA_REON_12H, DA_REOFF_12H experiments.

Figure 9: Spatial distributions of the relative AOT change during 15-17 March 2018 for (a) REON and (c) REOFF. Hourly time series of the forecasted AOTs in FR and DA experiments, and their differences for (b) REON and (d) REOFF.

Figure 10: Spatial distributions of the difference of AOT, DSR (W m⁻²), PBLH (m), temperature at 2 meters (°C), and RH at 2 meters (%) between DA_REON_12H and FR_REON. The black line in (d) represents the position of the vertical profile in Figure 11.
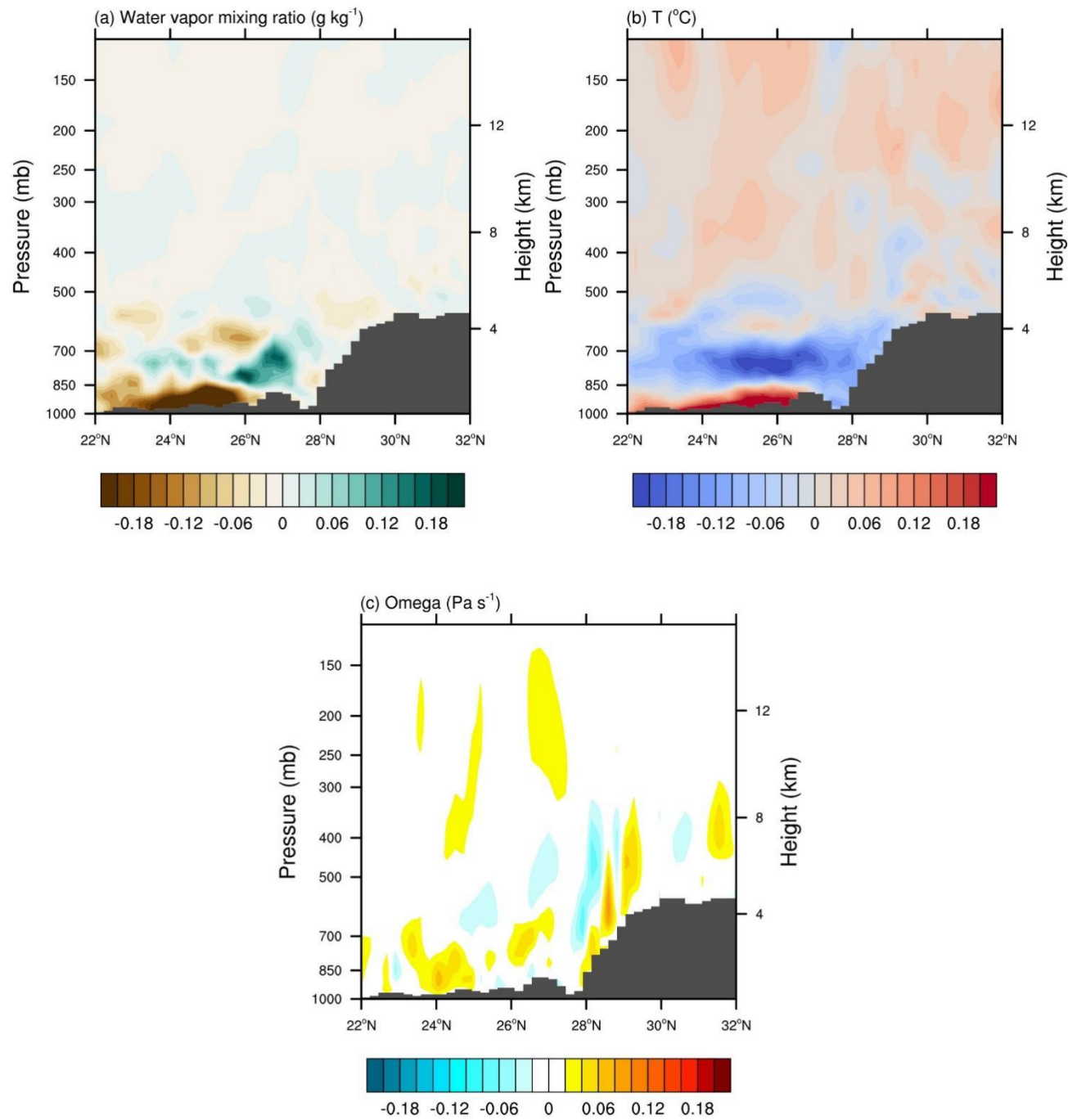
Figure 11: Vertical distributions of the difference of water vapor mixing ratio (g kg^{-1}), temperature (°C), and vertical velocity (Pa s^{-1}) between DA_REON_12H and FR_REON.