



1 **Correcting Aerosol Extinction Coefficient Vertical Structure Biases in GEOS-**
2 **Chem via a Physics-Informed Transformer with Physical Mechanism Diagnosis**

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21

Abstract

22 We propose a physics-informed Transformer framework to correct biases in the
23 Aerosol Extinction Coefficient (AEC, km^{-1}) profiles simulated by GEOS-Chem. Unlike
24 standard Transformer, our framework features a dual-stream architecture with explicit
25 physical constraints. It employs Gated Feature Fusion to integrate vertical structures
26 (combining GEOS-Chem priors with MERRA-2 profiles) by dynamically identifying
27 height-dependent drivers, and leverages Cross-Attention to incorporate MERRA-2
28 surface environmental constraints for modulating AEC vertical reconstruction with
29 synoptic contexts. This approach effectively predicts systematic biases relative to
30 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization satellite observations and resolves
31 AEC profiles, surpassing methods retrieving only aerosol layer heights. "Leave-One-
32 Year-Out" validation over East Asia during 2017–2019 demonstrates significant AEC
33 fidelity improvements, increasing R from 0.49–0.53 in the GEOS-Chem simulations to
34 0.66–0.73 and reducing RMSE by approximately 25%. The model effectively mitigates
35 over-diffusion, significantly reducing AEC simulation biases in the critical near-surface
36 layer while restoring smoothed biomass burning and dust plumes. Additionally, it
37 exhibits robust cross-continental transferability, reproducing bias patterns over North
38 American domain ($R=0.70$) without retraining, confirming the internalization of
39 universal physicochemical relationships linking atmospheric states to simulation biases.
40 Furthermore, interpretability analysis establishes a feedback loop from data-driven
41 correction to physical model improvement. The model identifies temperature and
42 sensible heat flux as primary drivers to constrain boundary layer mixing, and uses
43 environmental proxies (e.g., vegetation indices) to diagnose deficiencies in dust uplift
44 and secondary aerosol formation. These insights provide a physical basis for refining
45 parameterization schemes in chemical transport models.



46 **Keywords:** Aerosol extinction coefficient profiles, Deep learning, Chemical transport
47 models, CALIOP, Model interpretability



48 **1. Introduction**

49 Atmospheric aerosols are key modulators of the Earth's climate radiative forcing
50 (Hayasaka et al., 2007; Stier et al., 2007; Koren et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2011; Wang et
51 al., 2023; Kahn et al., 2005; Dong et al., 2023) and environmental health (Chen et al.,
52 2022b; Song et al., 2025). As Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) serves as a fundamental
53 column-integrated parameter (Kaufman et al., 2002), it fails to reveal critical vertical
54 distribution information (Winker et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2025b; Zhu et al., 2024). In
55 reality, the vertical structure of aerosols—characterized by Aerosol Extinction
56 Coefficient (AEC) profiles (Xiong et al., 2025; Jiang et al., 2024; Zhen et al., 2024) and
57 layer heights (Fan et al., 2025; Kim et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2013; Christian et al., 2019;
58 Yorks et al., 2023)—is the core physical quantity determining their climatic and
59 environmental effects. Specifically, the vertical distribution governs the atmospheric
60 radiative energy budget and thermal structure; the altitude of absorbing aerosols
61 determines heating rate profile (Lu et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2016) and atmospheric
62 stability (Koch and Del Genio, 2010), and failure to resolve this vertical feature leads
63 to significant radiative forcing estimate biases (Zarzycki and Bond, 2010; Myhre et al.,
64 2013; Shi et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2014). Second, the vertical co-existence of aerosols
65 and clouds is a prerequisite for aerosol-cloud interactions (Zarzycki and Bond, 2010;
66 Ge et al., 2014), meaning that relying solely on column totals hinders the accurate
67 quantification of aerosol impacts on cloud microphysics (Lu et al., 2025b; Wilcox, 2012;
68 Christensen et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2019). Finally, vertical stratification bridges
69 regional pollution with global transport: aerosols uplifted into the free troposphere
70 undergo intercontinental transport (Val Martin et al., 2013; Weinzierl et al., 2017; Choi
71 et al., 2024), whereas those trapped within the Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL) directly
72 determine surface PM_{2.5} concentrations (Chen et al., 2022a; Handschuh et al., 2022)
73 and health outcomes (Diner et al., 2018). Therefore, precisely characterizing AEC
74 profiles is not only a vital supplement to traditional AOD analysis (Lv et al., 2016; Wei
75 et al., 2019) but also a cornerstone for reducing climate model uncertainties and



76 understanding transboundary pollutant transport.

77 Despite the recognized importance of aerosol vertical distribution, acquiring high-
78 precision, spatiotemporally continuous, and vertically resolved three-dimensional (3D)
79 aerosol information globally remains a formidable challenge. Current characterization
80 methods primarily follow two pathways: passive remote sensing retrieval and active
81 remote sensing observation. With extensive swath widths, passive satellite sensors,
82 such as the TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) and Himawari-8, have
83 made strides in retrieving Aerosol Layer Height (ALH) (Lu et al., 2025a; Nanda et al.,
84 2020). Utilizing differential absorption in oxygen bands (O_2 A/B) (Xu et al., 2017;
85 Sanders et al., 2015; Nanda et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2025; Xu et al., 2024; Xu et al.,
86 2019; Ding et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2021b; Chen et al., 2021a; Chen et al., 2025) or
87 multi-angle stereoscopic techniques (Kahn et al., 2005; Dubovik et al., 2011), these
88 algorithms estimate the effective ALH. However, the effective ALH merely represents
89 the optical centroid or a vertically weighted average of the aerosol column, rather than
90 a resolved vertical profile (Chimot et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2025b). While valuable for
91 tracking plumes (Huang et al., 2024), it fails to resolve complex multi-layer structures
92 (Winker et al., 2013) and cannot provide the vertical gradients of AEC necessary for
93 calculating radiative heating rates (Samset et al., 2013). In contrast, spaceborne active
94 lidars—specifically the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization
95 (CALIOP)—offer high-resolution Aerosol Extinction Profiles (AEPs) that resolve
96 aerosol stratification (Huang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2012; Qu et al., 2016; Ma et al.,
97 2013; Wang et al., 2021a). Nevertheless, constrained by narrow nadir-viewing
98 geometry (Winker et al., 2009; Hunt et al., 2009) and sparse sampling, active remote
99 sensing suffers from substantial observational gaps, producing a "curtain-like" dataset
100 rather than planar coverage (Koffi et al., 2012b; Colarco et al., 2014). To bridge these
101 gaps, Chemical Transport Models (CTMs, e.g., GEOS-Chem and WRF-Chem) are
102 indispensable for simulating continuous 3D aerosol fields (Xiong et al., 2025; Jiang et
103 al., 2024). However, these models are often hampered by uncertainties in emission



104 inventories (Bond et al., 2013; Hoesly et al., 2018; Liang et al., 2023) and simplified
105 physical parameterizations (e.g., wet scavenging, boundary layer turbulent mixing)
106 (Xiong et al., 2025; Du et al., 2020; Zeng et al., 2020), leading to systematic biases and
107 misalignment with lidar observations (Koffi et al., 2016; Koffi et al., 2012a; Kim et al.,
108 2015).

109 To bridge the gap between sparse observations and biased simulations, traditional
110 studies have employed Data Assimilation (DA) techniques, such as 3D-Var or Kalman
111 Filtering (Henze et al., 2007; Henze et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2020b;
112 Zhang et al., 2011; Sekiyama et al., 2010). However, operational DA schemes often
113 face prohibitive computational costs (Benedetti et al., 2018) and rely on Gaussian error
114 assumptions that may not match the complex, non-linear characteristics of aerosol
115 processes (Bocquet et al., 2010; Geer, 2021). Driven by the exponential growth of
116 atmospheric big data, Deep Learning (DL) has emerged as a transformative alternative
117 for bias correction and multi-source data fusion (Geer, 2021; Wang et al., 2022; Xing
118 et al., 2022; Fan et al., 2025). Early studies successfully applied Random Forests or
119 Deep Neural Networks to improve AOD retrieval (Sanders et al., 2015) or surface PM_{2.5}
120 estimation (Hu et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2019; Li et al., 2017). More recently,
121 Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have been utilized to estimate AEPs by
122 extracting spatial texture features from passive satellite imagery (Zhen et al., 2024).
123 However, these methods typically simplify profile estimation into a standard regression
124 problem (Pashayi et al., 2025; Li et al., 2020) or rely heavily on two-dimensional (2D)
125 spatial convolutions (Daoud et al., 2021). Consequently, they often neglect the inherent
126 sequential correlation and physical coupling of the aerosol vertical structure. In reality,
127 the aerosol state at a specific altitude is intimately linked to layers above and below
128 through turbulent mixing and sedimentation (Zeng et al., 2020; Xiong et al., 2025; Du
129 et al., 2020). Standard CNNs or pixel-wise models struggle to capture this long-range
130 dependency along the vertical axis (Wang et al., 2021b) and often overlook the
131 structural priors provided by CTMs (Reichstein et al., 2019; Geer, 2021). To overcome



132 these limitations, the Transformer architecture (Vaswani et al., 2017), originally
133 designed for sequence modeling, offers a superior solution. Its self-attention
134 mechanism dynamically weighs information from different altitude layers, effectively
135 capturing global vertical dependencies within the atmospheric column. This capability
136 makes it an ideal tool for fusing the physical consistency of GEOS-Chem simulations
137 with the vertical precision of CALIOP observations to reconstruct high-fidelity 3D AEC
138 fields.

139 To address the spatiotemporal sparsity of spaceborne lidar observations and the
140 inherent simulation biases of CTMs, this study proposes a physics-informed
141 Transformer DL framework aimed at reconstructing high-precision, spatially
142 continuous 3D AEC fields. Distinct from data-driven retrieval methods that rely solely
143 on passive remote sensing imagery, our approach explicitly embeds the vertical
144 structural priors provided by GEOS-Chem simulations and meteorological constraints
145 from Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and Applications, Version 2
146 (MERRA-2) reanalysis data. Leveraging the self-attention mechanism unique to the
147 Transformer architecture, the model effectively captures and corrects the complex, non-
148 linear bias patterns between simulated results and CALIOP "ground truth". Focusing
149 on East Asia (EA) from 2017 to 2019, we systematically evaluate the framework's
150 performance in 3D AEC field reconstruction and spatiotemporal generalization.
151 Crucially, to overcome the "black-box" limitations of DL, we integrate SHapley
152 Additive exPlanations (SHAP) (Lundberg and Lee, 2017) with attention weight
153 analysis to quantitatively parse the contributions of meteorological factors and aerosol
154 variables to the AEP reconstruction. This process not only enables an interpretable
155 diagnosis of CTM simulation biases—identifying the dominant drivers of bias within
156 specific altitudes or regions—but also provides a solid physical basis for refining
157 GEOS-Chem's physical parameterization schemes and emission inventories, thereby
158 establishing a feedback loop from "data-driven correction" to "physical mechanism
159 improvement." The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2



160 introduces the multi-source datasets and model configurations. Section 3 details the
161 physics-informed Transformer architecture and evaluation strategies. Section 4
162 evaluates the bias correction performance against observations and elucidates the
163 physical drivers of simulation biases through interpretability analysis. Finally, Section
164 5 summarizes the conclusions.

165

166 **2. Data and Model Configuration**

167 **2.1 Study Region**

168 This study focuses primarily on EA (0° - 60° N, 70° - 150° E, Fig. 1), a domain
169 characterized by complex aerosol sources and intense aerosol-meteorology interactions,
170 serving as the core region for training and evaluating the bias-correction model. Within
171 the EA domain, six Regions of Interest (ROIs) are selected to evaluate performance
172 across distinct aerosol regimes (Fig. 1): the anthropogenic-dominated North China
173 Plain (NCP) and Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP), the dust-active Taklamakan Desert, the
174 smoke-impacted Indochina Peninsula, and the cleaner Tibetan Plateau and Western
175 Pacific. To investigate vertical characteristics in the lower troposphere extending from
176 the surface to 6 km Above Ground Level (AGL), we establish three spatial diagnostics:
177 a 38° N transect (70° - 150° E) capturing the zonal source-to-sink continuum driven by
178 the Westerlies; a 40° N transect (120° - 150° E) targeting the dispersion of continental
179 outflow over marine surfaces; and a domain-wide zonal mean profile (0° - 60° N) to
180 reveal the macroscopic latitudinal dependence of aerosol loading and layer heights. To
181 rigorously assess the model's spatial generalization capability, we additionally define
182 an independent validation sub-region over North America (NA, 25° - 55° N, 70° - 130° W).

183 **2.2 CALIOP**

184 The CALIOP sensor onboard the Cloud-Aerosol Lidar and Infrared Pathfinder
185 Satellite Observations (CALIPSO) satellite serves as the observational benchmark for
186 characterizing aerosol vertical structure and quantifying simulation biases. We utilize
187 the Level 2 Version 4.51 Aerosol Profile product, which provides vertical profiles of



188 AEC at 532 nm and 1064 nm. The standard Level 2 product offers a uniform horizontal
189 resolution of 5 km and a vertical resolution of 60 m throughout the troposphere (−0.5
190 km to 20 km). Given that aerosol loading is predominantly confined to the PBL and
191 lower free troposphere (Xiong et al., 2025; Jiang et al., 2024), our analysis is restricted
192 to the altitude range of 0–6 km AGL.

193 To ensure data reliability, we implement a rigorous, tiered Quality Control (QC)
194 procedure to exclude profiles contaminated by clouds or compromised by retrieval
195 artifacts (details in Sect. S1). This stringent assessment framework substantially
196 enhances the fidelity of the CALIOP dataset for model training (Hong and Di Girolamo,
197 2022; Jiang et al., 2024; Xiong et al., 2025; Mehta et al., 2023; Winker et al., 2013). In
198 our physics-informed data-driven framework, the collocated CALIOP AEPs are treated
199 as the "ground truth". The training target for the Transformer model is explicitly defined
200 as the simulation bias, calculated as the deviation of the GEOS-Chem simulated AEC
201 from the corresponding CALIOP observations (details in Section 3.1). However, it is
202 essential to acknowledge the intrinsic uncertainties associated with satellite retrievals.
203 Validations against ground-based AERONET measurements indicate a mean relative
204 bias in CALIOP AOD of approximately $-5.1\% \pm 8.5\%$ (Kim et al., 2018).
205 Furthermore, the agreement between CALIOP 532 nm calibrated attenuated backscatter
206 and airborne High Spectral Resolution Lidar (HSRL) measurements is typically within
207 $1.0\% \pm 3.5\%$ (Getzewich et al., 2018). These inherent observational uncertainties
208 impose a theoretical upper limit on the precision of the bias correction method proposed
209 herein.

210 **2.3 AERONET**

211 To independently evaluate the model's capability in capturing high-frequency
212 temporal variations—bridging the observational gaps inherent to the sparse sampling
213 of polar-orbiting satellites—we utilize AOD data from the AERONET (Holben et al.,
214 1998). Specifically, the Version 3 Level 2.0 (cloud-screened and quality-assured) AOD
215 data are employed (Giles et al., 2019). Since AERONET instruments do not directly



216 measure AOD at 532 nm, data are interpolated to this wavelength using the Ångström
217 exponent derived from adjacent channels (details in Sect. S2). Two representative sites
218 are selected for detailed case studies, targeting distinct aerosol regimes during high-
219 loading episodes (Fig. 1): (1) Kanpur (26.5°N, 80.2°E): Located in the IGP, this site is
220 characterized by a complex mixture of anthropogenic pollution and transported dust.
221 We focus on a 7-day window centered on 30 April 2019, representing a typical pre-
222 monsoon scenario driven by regional dust and haze activity (Misra et al., 2014; Singh
223 et al., 2004; Chinnam et al., 2006); (2) Nong Khai (17.9°N, 102.7°E): Situated in the
224 Indochina Peninsula, this site is dominated by carbonaceous aerosols resulting from
225 intense agricultural biomass burning (Munroe et al., 2008; Nguyen et al., 2021). The
226 analysis window is centered on 22 February 2019, coinciding with the peak of the
227 regional active fire season (Tsay et al., 2013). Examining these high-loading cases
228 allows us to assess the robustness of the model in reproducing the dynamic evolution
229 of pollution accumulation and dissipation, providing a rigorous test of the temporal
230 consistency of our bias correction approach.

231 **2.4 GEOS-Chem and Meteorological Reanalysis**

232 We employ the GEOS-Chem (Bey et al., 2001) global CTM (version 13.4.0) to
233 simulate the 3D distribution of atmospheric composition, focusing on the EA domain
234 defined in Section 2.1. The simulation spans from 1 January 2017 to 31 December 2019.
235 The model is driven by the MERRA-2 assimilated meteorological fields provided by
236 the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) (Gelaro et al., 2017). To
237 accommodate the spatially sparse sampling inherent to CALIOP's nadir-viewing
238 geometry, the simulation is configured at a horizontal resolution of $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ (latitude
239 \times longitude) with 47 vertical hybrid sigma-pressure levels extending from the surface
240 to 0.01 hPa. Anthropogenic emissions are prescribed by the Community Emissions
241 Data System (CEDSV2) (McDuffie et al., 2020). Biogenic emissions of Volatile Organic
242 Compounds (BVOCs) are prescribed using the offline MEGAN inventory (Guenther et
243 al., 2012). Biomass burning emissions are derived from the Global Fire Emissions



244 Database version 4 (GFED4) (Giglio et al., 2013). GEOS-Chem is operated in the
245 "Standard Full Chemistry" mode, utilizing a fully coupled NO_x-O_x-hydrocarbon-
246 aerosol mechanism. The aerosol simulation encompasses sulfate, nitrate, ammonium,
247 carbonaceous aerosols, mineral dust, and sea salt. Both dry and wet deposition
248 processes are explicitly treated to characterize aerosol sinks. Vertical transport is
249 parameterized using a non-local PBL mixing scheme, which accounts for deep
250 convective updrafts and turbulent diffusion (Lin and McElroy, 2010). To facilitate direct
251 comparison with CALIOP observations, the model is configured to diagnose and
252 archive 3D AEC directly at 532 nm with a 1-hour temporal resolution.

253 MERRA-2 reanalysis data serve a dual purpose in this study: acting as the driving
254 meteorological field for the GEOS-Chem and constituting the key physical input
255 features for the physics-informed Transformer model. Integrating these meteorological
256 state variables into the DL framework aims to explicitly capture the non-linear
257 dependence of simulation biases on synoptic and micro-meteorological conditions.
258 Generated by the GEOS-5 atmospheric general circulation model combined with 3D
259 variational DA, MERRA-2 provides globally consistent physical fields. To maintain
260 consistency within our "physics-informed data-driven" framework, we extract
261 meteorological variables that are strictly consistent with those driving GEOS-Chem.
262 These variables are regridded to the 2° × 2.5° resolution to achieve strict spatial
263 alignment with the aerosol simulation outputs, jointly constructing the "meteorological
264 background" vector in the neural network's input layer.

265

266 **3. Method**

267 **3.1 Input Feature Construction and Target Definition**

268 To physically decouple the local vertical structure that determines the
269 instantaneous AEC magnitude from the macroscopic meteorological background that
270 controls pollutant accumulation and transport, we construct a comprehensive input
271 feature space utilizing a dual-stream architecture: the Vertical Profile Stream and the



272 Global Context Stream. A detailed inventory of all input variables, including physical
273 descriptions, units, and data sources, is provided in Sect. S3.

274 The Vertical Profile Stream encapsulates the explicit vertical structure of the
275 atmosphere. We integrate three sub-components to provide the necessary
276 physicochemical and spatiotemporal context for each layer. (1) Physicochemical State
277 Profiles: Core inputs include GEOS-Chem simulated aerosol component concentrations
278 and MERRA-2 meteorological profiles. Beyond basic mass concentrations, we
279 explicitly introduce microphysical and precursor variables—such as hygroscopic
280 growth factors, aerosol effective radii, and precursor gas concentrations (SO₂, NO_x,
281 NH₃)—to physically constrain chemical transformations and optical extinction
282 processes. (2) Vertical Coordinate Encoding: Since the self-attention mechanism is
283 permutation-invariant (i.e., it treats the input sequence as a bag of vectors without
284 inherent order), explicit height information is essential for resolving atmospheric
285 stratification. Without this embedding, the model cannot distinguish between surface
286 emissions and high-altitude transport layers, potentially confusing the distinct physical
287 processes governing aerosols at different levels. We embed vertical coordinates into
288 high-dimensional vectors and add them to the feature sequence, enabling the model to
289 distinguish between surface interactions and upper-level transport. (3) Spatiotemporal
290 Embeddings: Although geographical (latitude, longitude) and temporal indices (month,
291 day, night) are scalars, they are critical for characterizing regional emission patterns and
292 seasonal cycles. We project these scalars into high-dimensional vectors matching the
293 vertical dimensions of the profile data, ensuring the model captures location-dependent
294 and time-varying bias patterns.

295 The Global Context Stream incorporates 2D surface diagnostic variables to
296 capture synoptic-scale constraints affecting the atmospheric column. We select the
297 Planetary Boundary Layer Height (PBLH), surface pressure, and friction velocity to
298 constrain vertical mixing and turbulence intensity. Surface fluxes (latent/sensible heat),
299 soil moisture, and Leaf Area Index (LAI) are included to parameterize dry deposition



300 velocities and biogenic emissions. Additionally, total precipitation and evaporation
301 rates serve as proxies for wet scavenging efficiency. These variables aid the model in
302 distinguishing between local pollution accumulation and large-scale ventilation
303 conditions.

304 We define the learning target Δ_{AEC}^{target} as the systematic bias of GEOS-Chem
305 simulated AEC (AEC_{GC}) evaluated against CALIOP observation (AEC_{CAL}):

$$306 \quad \Delta_{AEC}^{target} = AEC_{GC} - AEC_{CAL} \quad (1)$$

307 By modeling the bias Δ_{AEC}^{target} , the framework preserves the physical patterns captured
308 by the CTM while specifically correcting systematic biases arising from input
309 uncertainties and simplified parameterizations.

310 **3.2 Physically-Informed Transformer Architecture**

311 The overall architecture of the proposed framework is illustrated in Figure 2. To
312 effectively bridge the gap between GEOS-Chem simulations and CALIOP satellite
313 observations, the model is structured into five physically distinct modules: a dual-
314 stream input layer for decoupling the Vertical Profile and Global Context Stream, a
315 Feature Embedding layer equipped with a Gated Feature Fusion mechanism,
316 Transformer encoder stack for capturing vertical dependencies, a Cross-Attention
317 module for incorporating synoptic constraints and a residual output generation layer.
318 Rather than treating all inputs uniformly, the model processes the two input streams
319 using embedding strategies specifically tailored to their physical nature (as detailed in
320 Sect. S4a, b), ensuring that the distinct structural characteristics of atmospheric vertical
321 profiles and global environmental contexts are preserved in the high-dimensional
322 feature representation.

323 **3.2.1 Dynamic Embedding and Gated Feature Fusion**

324 To explicitly capture the height-dependent variations in dominant physical drivers,
325 we design a Gated Feature Fusion mechanism within the Vertical Profile Stream. This
326 design is motivated by the physical consensus that the factors governing AEC vary



327 significantly with altitude: near-surface AEC is predominantly driven by local
328 emissions and chemical composition (Xiong et al., 2025; Jiang et al., 2024), whereas
329 AEC in the free troposphere is often dictated by long-range transport pathways and
330 regional background levels (Uno et al., 2009; Val Martin et al., 2013).

331 Instead of using a static concatenation which assumes fixed importance across the
332 entire column, this mechanism dynamically weighs the contributions of four feature
333 components: physicochemical profiles, vertical height information, spatial coordinates,
334 and temporal indices. For each vertical layer z , the unified local embedding $E_{local}^{(z)}$ is
335 computed as an adaptive weighted sum:

$$336 \quad E_{local}^{(z)} = \sum_{k=1}^4 \alpha_k^{(z)} \cdot \text{Norm}(h_k^{(z)}) \quad s.t. \quad \sum \alpha_k = 1 \quad (2)$$

337 where $h_k^{(z)}$ represents the embedding of the k -th feature group. The attention weights
338 $\alpha_k^{(z)}$ are generated by a learnable gating network, allowing the model to autonomously
339 identify and prioritize the most physically relevant information source for each specific
340 altitude layer.

341 For the Global Context Stream, we address the challenge of integrating diverse
342 environmental variables that possess distinct physical natures. Since different physical
343 variables may share similar numerical ranges but possess distinct physical meanings,
344 simple numerical projection inevitably leads to semantic ambiguity. We implement a
345 Variable Identity Embedding strategy (Eq. S4) to encode the unique "physical identity"
346 of each variable into the latent space. This ensures that the model explicitly
347 distinguishes between different physical variables, preserving their distinct physical
348 semantics during the cross-modal interaction.

349 **3.2.2 Transformer Encoder and Cross-Modal Interaction**

350 Following Gated Feature Fusion, the Vertical Profile Stream is processed by a
351 Transformer Encoder stack to explicitly model the vertical connectivity of the
352 atmosphere. Physically, aerosol layers are not isolated but are inherently coupled



353 through vertical exchange processes such as turbulent mixing, deep convection, and
354 gravitational sedimentation. Unlike CNNs which primarily focus on local spatial
355 neighborhoods, the Multi-Head Self-Attention (MSA, detailed in Sect. S4c) mechanism
356 enables the model to capture global vertical dependencies. This facilitates the necessary
357 information flow between near-surface accumulation layers and high-altitude transport
358 layers, ensuring that the reconstructed profile maintains physical continuity along the
359 vertical axis.

360 To physically constrain the vertical reconstruction using synoptic-scale conditions,
361 we introduce a Cross-Attention module. In this configuration, the encoded vertical
362 profiles serve as Queries (Q), while the Global Context Stream embeddings act as both
363 Keys (K) and Values (V). This mechanism enables the aerosol state at a specific layer
364 (Q) actively scans the prevailing synoptic conditions (K)—such as surface wind speed
365 or humidity—to retrieve the relevant environmental constraints (V) needed to correct
366 its bias. This design effectively mimics the physical reality where local microphysical
367 structures are conditioned by the macro-scale meteorological background, ensuring that
368 the corrected AEC profiles are dynamically consistent with the large-scale weather
369 patterns.

370 **3.2.3 Residual Output Generation with Long Skip Connection**

371 To generate the final bias prediction, we introduce a Long Skip Connection, adding
372 the initial projected physicochemical features (H_{phyche}) directly to the output of the
373 Cross-Attention module (H_{cross}) before the final projection:

$$374 \quad \Delta_{AEC}^{pred} = MLP(H_{cross} + H_{phyche}) \cdot s + b \quad (3)$$

375 Where Δ_{AEC}^{pred} denotes the predicted systematic bias of the AEC. The parameters s
376 and b are learnable scaling and bias terms, respectively, introduced to adaptively map
377 the normalized network outputs to the physical magnitude of extinction biases. This
378 design explicitly preserves physicochemical state information, allowing the regressor
379 to access the baseline atmospheric state while utilizing context-aware features (e.g.,
380 thermodynamic stability, turbulent mixing intensity, and surface emission conditions)



381 to disentangle complex bias sources.

382 **3.3 Magnitude-Weighted Loss Function with False Alarm Penalty**

383 The distribution of simulation biases exhibits significant heterogeneity. Standard
384 Mean Squared Error (MSE) loss is often dominated by the numerous samples with
385 small biases, causing the model to under-correct large systematic biases. To address this,
386 we propose a Magnitude-Weighted Loss (L_{MW}):

$$387 \quad L_{MW} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\Delta_{AEC}^{pred} - \Delta_{AEC}^{target})^2 \cdot \omega(\Delta_{AEC}^{target}) \quad (4)$$

$$388 \quad \omega(\Delta_{AEC}^{target}) = |\Delta_{AEC}^{target}|^p + \lambda \cdot e^{-\beta |\Delta_{AEC}^{target}|} + \epsilon \quad (5)$$

389 where Δ_{AEC}^{target} is the target bias and Δ_{AEC}^{pred} is the predicted bias. The weight function
390 $\omega(\Delta_{AEC}^{target})$ incorporates three hyperparameters determined through empirical
391 validation: (1) Large-Error Prioritization ($|\Delta_{AEC}^{target}|^p$): This term (p is a constant term.)
392 amplifies the penalty for samples with large simulation biases, forcing the model to
393 focus on instances where GEOS-Chem fails significantly. (2) False Alarm Penalty ($\lambda \cdot$
394 $e^{-\beta |\Delta_{AEC}^{target}|}$): This term imposes a penalty when the target bias is near zero but the
395 model predicts a non-zero correction, effectively suppressing "false alarms" in layers
396 where the CTM performance is already satisfactory. Both λ and β are constant terms.
397 (3) Base Stability Term (ϵ): A small constant ensures numerical stability.

398 **3.4 Model Evaluation Strategy**

399 To comprehensively assess the robustness and generalization capability of the
400 physics-informed Transformer model, we design a rigorous evaluation framework
401 covering four dimensions.

402 (1) Spatial Block Cross-Validation: To mitigate information leakage caused by
403 spatial autocorrelation (Geer, 2021), we implement a spatial block K-fold cross-
404 validation strategy (Sect. S5). The study region is divided into non-overlapping $4^\circ \times 5^\circ$
405 blocks (aggregating 2×2 model grids). In each iteration, the model is trained on four
406 folds and evaluated on the remaining spatially independent fold. This "checkerboard"



407 approach ensures performance metrics reflect the model's ability to extrapolate to
408 unseen geographic locations.

409 (2) Temporal Transferability: Given the interannual variability in emissions and
410 meteorology (Xiong et al., 2025), we adopt a "Leave-One-Year-Out" validation scheme
411 comprising three independent experiments (Table 1). This tests whether the model
412 learns generalizable physical rules rather than overfitting to specific temporal patterns.

413 (3) External Spatial Generalization: To rigorously stress-test the model's
414 transferability beyond its training distribution, we perform an out-of-domain evaluation
415 on the independent NA sub-region defined in Section 2.1. By directly applying the
416 model trained on EA data to this unseen continent—which possesses distinct aerosol
417 sources and meteorological backgrounds—we evaluate whether the learned bias-
418 correction mechanism captures universal physical laws rather than region-specific
419 correlations.

420 (4) Independent Ground-based Validation: We employ ground-based AERONET
421 observations as an independent physical benchmark. Predicted AEPs are vertically
422 integrated to derive column AODs, which are then compared with AERONET data to
423 assess the reproduction of high-frequency temporal evolution.

424 To quantify the model performance across these dimensions, we employ a
425 comprehensive set of statistical metrics including the Pearson correlation coefficient
426 (R), Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Root Mean Square Error (RMSE), and Normalized
427 Root Mean Square Error (NRMSE). Detailed mathematical definitions are provided in
428 Sect. S6. NRMSE is specifically used to enable fair comparisons across vertical layers
429 by normalizing biases against the exponentially decaying dynamic range of AEC.

430 **3.5 Model Interpretability Framework**

431 To elucidate the inference logic of the DL model and ensure physical consistency,
432 we establish a comprehensive interpretability framework examining internal
433 mechanisms and feature sensitivities to identify the physical drivers governing the bias
434 correction.



435 **3.5.1 Dual-Mechanism Attribution**

436 We employ distinct attribution methods for the hybrid inputs. First, for Vertical
437 Profile Stream, we apply Gradient-based Attribution (detailed in Sect. S7a), utilizing
438 the Input \times Gradient method (Shrikumar et al., 2017) to quantify the sensitivity of
439 bias correction to local variations in vertical structures. This identifies which specific
440 altitude layers and species dominate the AEC simulation bias. Second, we conduct
441 Attention-based Analysis (detailed in Sect. S7b) by extracting Cross-Attention weights
442 to map the interaction strength between the Global Context Stream and the Vertical
443 Profile Stream at specific vertical layers, revealing how macroscopic meteorology
444 modulates vertical reconstruction biases.

445 **3.5.2 Gated Information Fusion Analysis**

446 We analyze the scalar weights learned by the gated fusion mechanism to
447 understand information prioritization (detailed in Sect. S7c): ① Vertical Dependency
448 visualizes how reliance on different information sources varies with altitude. ②
449 Overall Contribution quantifies the holistic importance of each feature group (Profile,
450 Global, Spatiotemporal, Height) to the final reconstruction.

451 **3.5.3 Feature Sensitivity and Regional Drivers**

452 We assess robustness and diagnose drivers using two perturbation-based methods.
453 ① Permutation Feature Importance: Measures global sensitivity by randomly shuffling
454 feature groups. Importance is defined as the percentage increase in MSE relative to the
455 baseline, identifying fundamental predictors for domain-wide AEC bias correction
456 (detailed in Sect. S7d). ② SHAP Analysis: SHAP is used to dissect regional
457 heterogeneity. We employ a K-means clustering strategy to construct a representative
458 background dataset capturing diverse atmospheric states (detailed in Sect. S8). SHAP
459 values are computed for specific regions to reveal how dominant AEC bias drivers shift
460 under different environmental regimes.

461

462 **4. Results and Discussion**



463 **4.1 Evaluation of the Transformer Model**

464 **4.1.1 Overall Predictive Performance and Temporal Generalization**

465 To quantitatively assess the model's robustness in capturing the non-linear
466 mapping between GEOS-Chem simulation biases and atmospheric states, we execute a
467 "Leave-One-Year-Out" cross-validation strategy comprising three independent
468 experiments (Table 1). The Transformer achieves a high average R of 0.659 and a low
469 MAE of 0.014 km⁻¹ on the independent test years (Table 2). These metrics demonstrate
470 robust predictive skill, confirming that the model has successfully learned to reproduce
471 the systematic component of extinction biases from the input state variables. Notably,
472 a comparison with the internal validation results (Table S2) reveals that the model's
473 performance on the unseen test sets is comparable to—and in some metrics marginally
474 superior to—that on the validation sets. This consistency suggests that the Transformer
475 architecture has extracted time-invariant, physically meaningful representations of
476 aerosol bias mechanisms rather than overfitting to specific temporal anomalies in the
477 training data. The ability to generalize to years with distinct meteorological interactions
478 underscores the model's potential for operational bias correction.

479 **4.1.2 Seasonal Stability and Robustness**

480 We further examine the temporal stability of the model by analyzing monthly
481 variations in the predictive accuracy of the AEC simulation bias (Fig. 3). The model
482 exhibits a distinct seasonal pattern characterized by superior performance in winter and
483 a moderate decline in summer. During the winter months (December–February), R
484 consistently peaks above 0.7. This enhanced performance is attributed to the synergistic
485 effect of favorable meteorology and observational quality. Specifically, the lower solar
486 elevation angle in winter minimizes solar background noise, thereby enhancing the
487 Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR) of the CALIOP retrievals compared to the strong
488 background illumination present in summer (Zhen et al., 2024). Additionally, the stable
489 boundary layer in winter confines aerosols to lower altitudes (Xiong et al., 2025),
490 creating sharper vertical gradients that are physically more distinct for the network to



491 capture. In contrast, a discernible decline in performance occurs during the summer
492 (June–August) over EA. This reduction implies a compound mechanism driven by both
493 data scarcity and observational uncertainty. First, the decline coincides with a sharp
494 decrease in the effective sample size (Fig. 3a, gray bars). This is mechanically linked
495 to the Asian Summer Monsoon, where frequent cloud cover necessitates the exclusion
496 of a significant volume of cloud-contaminated CALIOP profiles (Winker et al., 2009;
497 Winker et al., 2013; Vernier et al., 2011), thereby reducing the representativeness of
498 training data for complex convective scenarios. Second, and more critically, the
499 inherently lower SNR in summer observations imposes a theoretical ceiling on point-
500 to-point correlation metrics. Since random noise in the validation target (CALIOP)
501 cannot be physically predicted, it naturally degrades the R, even if the model correctly
502 retrieves the underlying aerosol signal.

503 Crucially, despite the fluctuations in linear correlation driven by these external
504 sampling and observational constraints, the model demonstrates remarkable stability in
505 correcting systematic biases. Figure 3c illustrates that the monthly mean bias remains
506 tightly constrained within $\pm 0.01 \text{ km}^{-1}$ throughout the year, exhibiting negligible
507 seasonal drift even during the challenging summer months. This decoupling of metrics
508 implies that while random noise (reflected in lower R) increases in summer due to
509 complex meteorology and reduced SNR, the model does not introduce systematic
510 artifacts. This conclusion is further supported by internal validation results (Fig. S2),
511 which confirms that performance fluctuations are a response to data quality rather than
512 intrinsic model instability. Moreover, detailed monthly density scatter plots (Figs. S3–
513 S5) visually corroborate this robustness, revealing that the majority of predictions
514 remain tightly clustered around the 1:1 identity line, independent of the season.

515 **4.1.3 Vertical Profile Fidelity and Height-Dependent Performance**

516 Given the critical importance of vertical stratification in radiative forcing
517 calculations, we further scrutinize the model's performance as a function of altitude. A
518 distinct advantage of this study, unlike traditional bias correction methods limited to



519 column-integrated parameters, lies in its capability to finely resolve vertical aerosol
520 structures. As evidenced by the vertical profiles of evaluation metrics (Fig. 4a), the
521 model achieves peak performance within the bulk of the PBL (0.5–1.5 km), where R
522 consistently exceeds 0.7. This altitude range corresponds to the region with the heaviest
523 aerosol loading and the most complex chemical composition (Xiong et al., 2025; Jiang
524 et al., 2024). This superior skill suggests that the Transformer's self-attention
525 mechanism effectively captures the steep vertical gradients and pollutant accumulation
526 patterns driven by boundary layer dynamics. Furthermore, the NRMSE (Fig. 4b)
527 remains suppressed below 5% throughout the entire 0–6 km column. This low error
528 magnitude indicates that the model maintains consistent relative predictive accuracy
529 even in the cleaner free troposphere, avoiding the generation of spurious artifacts often
530 seen in DL applications on sparse data. Finally, the vertical profile of mean bias (Fig.
531 4c) fluctuates narrowly around zero at all altitude levels. This confirms the model's low
532 systematic bias in the vertical dimension, ensuring that the correction process mitigates
533 existing simulation errors without introducing new artificial biases.

534 **4.1.4 Spatial Generalization and Bias Reproduction**

535 Beyond capturing vertical structures, the capacity to resolve the spatial
536 heterogeneity of systematic biases is vital for correcting 3D aerosol fields. In the
537 primary study domain (EA), the Transformer demonstrates high fidelity in reproducing
538 the complex spatial bias modes of the original GEOS-Chem simulation (Fig. 5, columns
539 1–3). Specifically, the model accurately captures the systematic underestimation over
540 major anthropogenic and biomass burning source regions—including the NCP, IGP,
541 and Indochina Peninsula—as well as over natural dust sources like Taklamakan Desert.
542 Conversely, it correctly identifies regions of systematic overestimation, predominantly
543 located over the remote Western Pacific Ocean, the high-altitude Tibetan Plateau, and
544 high-latitude terrestrial regions (e.g., Siberia). These capabilities suggest that the model
545 effectively differentiates between bias regimes associated with distinct environments:
546 it mitigates the systematic overestimation in clean background regions while



547 concurrently compensating for the underestimation of source intensities in high-loading
548 regions.

549 However, a localized area of strong positive AEC simulation bias (GEOS-Chem
550 overestimation) appears in Central China in the 2019 target map (Fig. 5c), which is not
551 fully reproduced by the prediction (Fig. 5g). We attribute this discrepancy primarily to
552 observational sparsity and the episodic nature of the bias. Specifically, this region
553 corresponds to a significantly lower density of valid CALIOP samples compared to the
554 surrounding domain (Fig. S6), likely resulting from retrieval limitations associated with
555 complex terrain and frequent cloud cover. Furthermore, monthly decomposition reveals
556 that this elevated annual mean AEC simulation bias is predominantly driven by extreme
557 values in January (Fig. S7), representing a transient winter episode specific to the 2019
558 test year. In such data-sparse regimes, the physics-informed Transformer model yields
559 conservative predictions, suggesting that it prioritizes learning generalized physical
560 laws over overfitting to localized outliers or specific interannual anomalies under-
561 represented in the training distribution.

562 Crucially, the fourth column of Figure 5 (2018 NA) presents a rigorous "out-of-
563 domain" generalization test, where the model trained exclusively on EA data is directly
564 applied to NA. Despite distinct differences in emission inventories and meteorological
565 backgrounds between the two continents, the model exhibits remarkable spatial
566 transferability. It successfully predicts the systematic underestimation over the Eastern
567 United States and the overestimation over coastal areas (e.g., the Gulf of Mexico and
568 the Atlantic coast), mirroring the actual GEOS-Chem AEC bias patterns (Target). This
569 successful spatial extrapolation strongly suggests that the physics-informed
570 Transformer model has learned the universal physical mapping between comprehensive
571 atmospheric state variables (detailed in Table S1) and CTM simulation biases, rather
572 than merely overfitting to the geographical coordinates or specific emission patterns of
573 the EA training domain.

574 **4.2 Evaluation of Corrected GEOS-Chem Simulations**



575 **4.2.1 Correction of Systematic Biases in AEC Magnitude**

576 To quantify the efficacy of the GEOS-Chem corrected by Transformer (GC-TF)
577 model in correcting the magnitude of the AEC, we first compare the overall statistical
578 relationship between simulated values and CALIOP observations across three
579 independent test years from 2017 to 2019 (Fig. 6). The original GEOS-Chem simulation
580 AEC exhibits a dispersed distribution around the 1:1 identity line, with R ranging only
581 from 0.50 to 0.53 and RMSE remaining high at 0.052–0.055 km⁻¹. Notably, the low
582 linear regression slopes (0.46–0.51) of the original simulation indicate a tendency to
583 underestimate aerosol extinction intensity under high-loading conditions. In contrast,
584 after correction by the GC-TF model, the AEC data points converge significantly
585 toward the 1:1 line. The R for AEC improves to 0.66–0.73, the RMSE decreases by
586 approximately 25% (to 0.039–0.042 km⁻¹), and the regression slope recovers to 0.55–
587 0.60. These results demonstrate that the framework effectively reduces random biases
588 and realigns the dynamic range of simulated extinction with observations.

589 It is acknowledged that the high proportion of clean background samples (e.g., in
590 the upper troposphere) contributes to the overall correlation metrics. To rigorously
591 assess the model's capability in capturing effective aerosol signals—rather than merely
592 fitting the zero-value baseline—we conduct a threshold-based sensitivity analysis (Fig.
593 S8). As the extinction threshold increases from 0.00 to 0.20 km⁻¹, effectively filtering
594 out background noise and isolating optically thick aerosol layers, the GC-TF model
595 consistently outperforms the original GEOS-Chem simulation across all three
596 independent test years. Although the R values naturally decline as the sample size
597 shrinks to focus exclusively on extreme pollution events (indicated by the declining
598 gray dashed line in Fig. S8), the corrected results maintain a persistent performance
599 advantage over the original simulation. This confirms that the framework effectively
600 rectifies structural biases in high-AEC regimes and that its performance gains are not
601 merely artifacts of correctly predicting clean background states.

602 Further analysis of the vertical structure reveals more complex characteristics of



603 the model AEC bias. The annual mean vertical extinction profiles for the three test years
604 (Fig. 7) reveal a phenomenon: although the low slope in the scatter plots implies an
605 "underestimation" of strong signals, the annual mean profiles reveal that the original
606 GEOS-Chem exhibits a systematic "overestimation" relative to CALIOP observations
607 within the boundary layer (<2 km). This apparent contradiction between macroscopic
608 statistical metrics and the vertical mean state actually exposes the typical "excessive
609 diffusion" issue in CTM simulations: the model struggles to capture the peaks of
610 extreme pollution events (leading to regression slopes <1) while systematically
611 overestimating widespread background aerosol concentrations (resulting in higher
612 intercepts and a systematic overestimation of the mean profile). The GC-TF model
613 successfully addresses this by performing a bidirectional correction: mitigating the
614 systemic overestimation in background regions while recovering the high-loading
615 signals attenuated by model diffusion. In particular, the corrected results neither
616 introduce spurious artifacts nor result in over-smoothing, accurately preserving vertical
617 variation trends consistent with observations even in the free troposphere where aerosol
618 loading is low.

619 It is important to note that while the absolute magnitude of the residual error (i.e.,
620 the remaining bias of the corrected AEC relative to observations) remains highest in the
621 near-surface layer (0–1 km) due to the significantly higher aerosol base loading in the
622 PBL (Fig. 7), the GC-TF model demonstrates its most critical contribution in this 0–1
623 km layer. It effectively bridges the gap between original simulations and observations,
624 reducing the mean AEC simulation bias by 33%–95% across the independent test years
625 (Fig. 7). Seasonal analysis (Fig. S9) further confirms that the model robustly reduces
626 simulation biases in the near-surface layer, regardless of the season. This substantial
627 reduction in near-surface bias is particularly vital for accurately deriving surface $PM_{2.5}$
628 concentrations and assessing aerosol health impacts.

629 The model's capacity to capture spatial heterogeneity is further validated through
630 regional analysis (Figs. S10–12) and explicit vertical bias profiles (Fig. S13). Rather



631 than merely learning a globally uniform bias factor, the GC-TF model exhibits
632 significant state-dependent adaptability. In the anthropogenic-dominated NCP and IGP,
633 as well as the dust-dominated Taklamakan Desert, where the original model shows
634 significant underestimation (Figs. S10–12a, b, c), the GC-TF model successfully
635 enhances the AEC to match observations, effectively pulling the negative bias profiles
636 back toward the zero-reference line (Fig. S13a–c). Additionally, in the Indochina
637 Peninsula, GEOS-Chem exhibits a spurious extinction peak near 0.8 km (Fig. S10d)
638 likely due to mischaracterized injection heights of biomass burning smoke. The GC-TF
639 model significantly attenuates this spurious peak. Conversely, over the relatively clean
640 Western Pacific, the model effectively reduces simulated values to address
641 overestimation (Fig. S10f). This ability to adaptively adjust the correction direction—
642 enhancing in polluted regions while suppressing in clean marine environments—
643 confirms the model's sensitivity to diverse underlying surfaces and emission regimes.

644 **4.2.2 Restoration of Zonal Mean and Longitudinal Vertical Structures**

645 To further evaluate the model's fidelity in resolving the macroscopic spatial-
646 vertical structure of AEC, we analyze the zonal mean vertical distribution of AEC over
647 EA (70°E–150°E) for the 2019 test year (Fig. 8). CALIOP observations (Fig. 8a)
648 identify a prominent aerosol high-loading belt concentrated between 20°N and 30°N,
649 corresponding to major anthropogenic sources in South and East Asia. This aerosol
650 layer is predominantly confined to the lower troposphere below 2 km, with a high-
651 extinction core concentrated within the lowest 1 km. In contrast, the original GEOS-
652 Chem simulation (Fig. 8b) exhibits a characteristic "excessive diffusion" bias: the high-
653 extinction layer is vertically over-extended (reaching above 3 km) and meridionally
654 spread into the clean tropical regions south of 10°N, resulting in a southward
655 displacement of the pollution center. The GC-TF model successfully rectifies these
656 biases by re-centering the high-concentration core to the observed 25°N latitude and
657 effectively constraining the vertical extent of the aerosol layer. By constraining the
658 vertical extent of aerosols, the model reduces the spurious diffusion into the free



659 troposphere and restores the peak extinction intensity suppressed by model smoothing.

660 Figure 9 further illustrates the annual mean longitudinal vertical cross-sections of
661 AEC along two key latitudinal transects (38.0°N and 40.0°N). These transects capture
662 the transition from continental dust sources and anthropogenic centers to downwind
663 marine regions. (1) Along the 38.0°N transect: CALIOP data (Fig. 9a) reveal two
664 distinct high-extinction cores: the Taklamakan Desert (75°E–85°E) and the NCP
665 (115°E–120°E). The original GEOS-Chem model (Fig. 9c) almost completely fails to
666 capture the intense near-surface dust accumulation in the Taklamakan region—likely
667 due to uncertainties in dust emission schemes or terrain smoothing effects in the
668 CTM—and severely underestimates the core intensity over the NCP. The GC-TF model
669 (Fig. 9e) successfully recovers the missing dust signal and sharpens the anthropogenic
670 core over the NCP, restoring high extinction values ($>0.16 \text{ km}^{-1}$) within the 0–1 km
671 layer to match observations. (2) Along the 40.0°N transect: This profile highlights
672 model performance over Northeast Asia and the Sea of Japan. CALIOP detects a
673 concentrated high-extinction core over the North Korea ($\sim 127^\circ\text{E}$). While the original
674 model (Fig. 9d) significantly underestimates this peak, the GC-TF (Fig. 9f) accurately
675 reconstructs this local anthropogenic hotspot. Notably, the original GEOS-Chem
676 exhibits unphysical aerosol "blobs" over the Sea of Japan (135°E–138°E) and near
677 148°E, which are unsupported by observations. The GC-TF model effectively
678 suppresses these model artifacts, ensuring that the extinction distribution in the
679 downwind marine regions maintains physical consistency with CALIOP observations.

680 **4.2.3 Correction of AOD and Assessment of Spatial Generalization**

681 Figure 10 presents a comprehensive evaluation of the GC-TF model's performance
682 in correcting column-integrated AOD biases over both the primary study domain (EA)
683 and an independent generalization domain (NA). By comparing CALIOP observations,
684 original GEOS-Chem simulations, and the GC-TF model results, we elucidate the
685 model's efficacy in reproducing spatial heterogeneity and improving statistical
686 consistency.



687 Within the EA training domain, although the original GEOS-Chem simulation
688 (Figs. 10a2, b2, c2) captures the macroscopic features of aerosol distribution, it exhibits
689 significant systematic biases. Specifically, it tends to underestimate AOD intensity over
690 major anthropogenic source regions (the NCP and the IGP) and biomass burning
691 hotspots (the Indochina Peninsula), while simultaneously introducing spurious
692 background aerosols over the cleaner Tibetan Plateau and Western Pacific. In contrast,
693 the GC-TF model (Figs. 10a3, b3, c3) significantly sharpens spatial gradients. The
694 corrected AOD fields show high agreement with CALIOP observations (Figs. 10a1, b1,
695 c1), effectively recovering high-value centers in polluted regions while suppressing
696 false positives in clean areas. Statistical evaluation further confirms this improvement:
697 while the original simulation shows dispersed scatter plots with low slopes (0.65–0.74),
698 the GC-TF corrected data tightly converge onto the 1:1 identity line. The R improves
699 from 0.80–0.84 to 0.91–0.93, the RMSE decreases by approximately 26%–40%, and
700 the regression slope recovers to 0.82–0.99 (Figs. 10a5, b5, c5). The temporal
701 consistency observed from 2017 to 2019 indicates that the model has learned stable
702 physical mapping relationships rather than overfitting to specific meteorological years.

703 Crucially, the evaluation over the NA domain (Fig. 10d) provides compelling
704 evidence of the model's spatial generalization capability. Despite the significantly lower
705 AOD magnitude and distinct emission characteristics compared to EA, the GC-TF
706 model demonstrates robust transferability. The original GEOS-Chem simulation over
707 NA (Figs. 10d2, d4) shows poor agreement with observations ($R=0.31$, slope=0.18),
708 indicating severe deficiencies in capturing regional aerosol variability. Specifically, it
709 underestimates anthropogenic pollution sources in the Eastern US (Fig. 10d1) and
710 exhibits spurious high-AOD trails over the Gulf of Mexico and the East Coast, likely
711 due to excessive transport or overestimated sea salt. Applying the GC-TF model—
712 trained exclusively on EA data—to this unseen region (Figs. 10d3, d5) yields a
713 substantial performance leap: R more than doubles to 0.70, and the slope improves to
714 0.45. Spatially, the model successfully recovers the smoothed pollution peaks in the



715 Eastern US and corrects the oceanic regions to clean background levels, consistent with
716 CALIOP. This bidirectional correction capability—enhancing underestimated
717 terrestrial signals while suppressing overestimated oceanic backgrounds—strongly
718 suggests that the physics-informed Transformer framework has captured the universal
719 physical linkages between atmospheric states and simulation biases, rather than merely
720 memorizing the geographical features of the EA training domain.

721 **4.3 Mechanisms of Cross-Continental Transferability**

722 The robust generalization capability demonstrated in the NA domain is
723 fundamentally underpinned by the universality of atmospheric physical laws. While EA
724 and NA differ vastly in emission intensities and aerosol composition regimes, the
725 fundamental physicochemical processes governing aerosol lifecycles (e.g., hygroscopic
726 growth, turbulent mixing, and wet deposition) adhere to universal physical laws. The
727 robust performance in the NA domain ($R=0.70$) indicates that the systematic biases in
728 GEOS-Chem are predominantly state-dependent rather than location-dependent.
729 Specifically, CTMs tend to exhibit consistent "error signatures" under specific
730 meteorological conditions. When the GC-TF model encounters similar synoptic
731 patterns in NA, the self-attention mechanism identifies these familiar meteorological
732 contexts and applies the learned correction rules. In this sense, the meteorological
733 background acts as a bridge, facilitating the transfer of bias-correction capabilities
734 across continents.

735 The model's capability is further highlighted by its bidirectional correction
736 performance over distinct underlying surfaces. Over the Eastern United States, the
737 model successfully mitigates the "smearing effect" characteristic of Eulerian models
738 (Rastigejev et al., 2010; Eastham and Jacob, 2017), restoring the sharp spatial gradients
739 and high-intensity cores of anthropogenic pollution that were overly smoothed in the
740 original simulation. Conversely, over marine regions such as the Gulf of Mexico and
741 the Atlantic coast, the model effectively suppresses the spurious background aerosols
742 often caused by excessive transport or sea-salt overestimation. This adaptive



743 behavior—enhancing peaks over land while suppressing artifacts over oceans—
744 confirms that the model utilizes multi-dimensional atmospheric variables to constrain
745 the spatial distribution of aerosols physically, rather than applying a uniform bias
746 correction factor. It is noteworthy, however, that the correction performance in NA
747 ($R=0.70$) remains statistically lower than in the EA training domain ($R=0.93$). This
748 performance gap is likely attributable to the "domain shift" in aerosol composition. The
749 NA atmosphere is characterized by lower background concentrations and a higher
750 fraction of biogenic secondary organic aerosols (Goldstein et al., 2009), whose optical
751 properties and hygroscopicity differ from the sulfate-nitrate-dust dominated mixtures
752 in EA (Crawford et al., 2021). This suggests that while the physical laws of transport
753 are universal, chemical-specific optical relationships may require broader
754 representativeness in the training data for further refinement.

755 **4.4 Case Studies: Vertical Structure and Temporal Evolution During High Aerosol** 756 **Loading Periods**

757 To thoroughly evaluate the GC-TF model's capability in resolving complex
758 vertical AEC stratification and capturing high-frequency pollution dynamics, we
759 conduct a composite analysis of representative high-loading episodes identified by
760 CALIOP over three distinct aerosol regimes (details in Section 2.3).

761 In the Taklimakan Desert (Fig. 11a), the original GEOS-Chem simulation exhibits
762 a nearly vertical extinction profile with extremely low values, indicating that the CTM
763 fails to simulate the significant aerosol extinction layer observed by CALIOP. In
764 contrast, the GC-TF model effectively reconstructs the extinction signal in this region
765 by leveraging multidimensional input atmospheric state variables (including
766 meteorological fields and background chemical composition). Its profile shape shows
767 superior agreement with satellite observations, largely retrieving the "missing signal"
768 of the original simulation. In Kanpur, a region dominated by anthropogenic pollution
769 (Fig. 11b), the original model fails to accurately capture the magnitude and vertical
770 gradient of the pollution layer below 3.5 km. The GC-TF model, while correcting



771 baseline errors, reshapes the vertical distribution pattern, yielding a vertical decrement
772 trend that aligns closely with observational reality. Figure 11c reveals critical structural
773 biases during a biomass burning event in the Indochina Peninsula. The original GEOS-
774 Chem simulation presents an "inverted" vertical gradient, where the extinction peak
775 appears at a height of 2.5 km rather than near the surface. This bias is likely associated
776 with uncertainties in the parameterization of biomass burning Plume Injection Height
777 in the CTM, suggesting the model erroneously transports surface smoke into the free
778 troposphere (Paugam et al., 2016). The GC-TF model successfully identifies this
779 physical process bias; by significantly enhancing AEC below 2.0 km, it restores a near-
780 surface high-loading pattern consistent with observations, while maintaining
781 reasonable simulation magnitudes in the free troposphere.

782 In addition to the instantaneous vertical structure, verifying the temporal
783 continuity of the correction results is equally crucial. Given the spatiotemporal sparsity
784 of CALIOP observations, we utilize ground-based high-frequency AERONET AOD
785 data to further evaluate model performance. Figure 11d shows that during the study
786 period in Kanpur, the original GEOS-Chem simulation generally underestimates
787 aerosol loading, and the curve exhibits overly smooth characteristics, lacking response
788 to high-frequency fluctuations. The AOD time series output by the GC-TF model
789 demonstrates superior trend consistency with AERONET observations. Notably,
790 between May 1 and May 2, the original simulation shows significant overestimation,
791 whereas the GC-TF model successfully adjusts the predicted values back to levels
792 closer to observations. During the active fire period in Nong Khai (Fig. 11e), the
793 original model severely underestimates the AOD magnitude. The GC-TF model
794 significantly elevates the simulation baseline and captures the phase of diurnal variation
795 trends well (e.g., the fluctuations around 07:00 UTC during February 22–24). However,
796 its predicted peak amplitudes remain significantly lower than the extreme values
797 observed by AERONET. This dampening of extreme peaks likely stems from the spatial
798 scale mismatch between the gridded model ($2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$) and ground-based point



799 observations, which causes local extreme emissions to be averaged out within the grid.
800 Nonetheless, the GC-TF model demonstrates significant improvement over the original
801 CTM in reproducing meteorology-driven pollution accumulation and dispersion
802 processes.

803 **4.5 Interpretability Analysis**

804 To move beyond statistical performance and elucidate the internal decision-
805 making logic of the GC-TF model, we employ a multi-perspective interpretability
806 framework to quantify feature contributions and interaction mechanisms. This section
807 and the subsequent analysis are based entirely on the independent test dataset, ensuring
808 that the interpretations reflect the model's generalized physical representations on
809 unseen data.

810 **4.5.1 Macro-Physical Logic: Physicochemical Baseline and Contextual Correction**

811 To understand how the DL model reconstructs 3D aerosol fields, we first examine
812 the macroscopic contribution of different information sources. Global sensitivity tests
813 (Fig. S14) unambiguously establish the foundational role of physical priors: randomly
814 permuting the physicochemical profile features induces a dramatic 196.1% surge in
815 MSE. This confirms that while the Transformer architecture excels at extracting
816 spatiotemporal patterns, the physicochemical state features provided by the CTM
817 remain the indispensable physical foundation, essentially determining the "Base
818 Magnitude" of the AEC. In this framework, spatial, temporal, and height features
819 function as "Correction Factors," refining this baseline by integrating multidimensional
820 environmental contexts.

821 Further analysis of the gated fusion weights (Fig. 12) reveals that the model
822 effectively learns to differentiate its correction strategy based on the dominant physical
823 processes at different atmospheric stratifications: (1) In the near-surface layer (<0.5 km),
824 the model assigns the highest weight to profile features. This aligns with the physical
825 reality that extinction near the surface is predominantly controlled by local
826 instantaneous states—specifically emission intensities and hygroscopic growth (Jiang



827 et al., 2024; Xiong et al., 2025). The model accurately identifies that these
828 physicochemical variables are the most critical determinants of extinction magnitude
829 in the lowest layer. (2) As height increases to the boundary layer transition zone (0.5–
830 1.0 km), a strategic shift occurs. The reliance on raw simulation profiles diminishes,
831 while the weight of spatial features increases significantly. This region typically
832 corresponds to the entrainment zone or the top of the nocturnal boundary layer, where
833 CTMs are prone to vertical diffusion errors (Eastham and Jacob, 2017; Rastigejev et al.,
834 2010; Lin and Mcelroy, 2010). The model appears to mitigate these uncertainties by
835 leveraging spatial priors to constrain potential diffusion biases, effectively identifying
836 "regions of uncertainty" in the simulation. (3) In the mid-lower troposphere (1.0–3.5
837 km), the contribution of temporal features exhibits distinct peaks, particularly around
838 1.5 km and 2.8 km. The peak near 1.5 km corresponds to the typical maximum daytime
839 PBLH in EA (Guo et al., 2016; Kim, 2022), while the signal at 2.8 km aligns with the
840 active layer for long-range transport (Uno et al., 2009). This suggests the model utilizes
841 temporal cues to capture the diurnal evolution of the boundary layer and the seasonality
842 of trans-regional transport events. (4) Finally, in the free troposphere (>3.5 km), the
843 dependence on local profile features fades, and spatial features become the dominant
844 driving factor. In this region, aerosol variability is decoupled from local surface
845 processes and driven primarily by large-scale advection (Weinzierl et al., 2017; Val
846 Martin et al., 2013; Uno et al., 2009). The model successfully captures this mechanistic
847 decoupling, shifting its strategy to perform position-dependent background correction
848 using geographical coordinates. Throughout the entire column, explicit height encoding
849 maintains a consistently high contribution, serving as a critical vertical positioning
850 anchor.

851 **4.5.2 Micro-Drivers of Bias Correction: Vertical Attribution of State Variables**

852 Following the macroscopic establishment of feature importance, we utilize
853 Integrated Gradients analysis (Fig. 13) to dissect the specific physical variables driving
854 extinction bias correction across different altitudes. The analysis reveals that the model



855 has constructed a sophisticated decision-making logic that effectively decouples
856 thermodynamic constraints from compositional variables.

857 First, thermodynamic variables serve as the primary constraints for structural
858 correction. Temperature (T) consistently acts as the dominant driver within the PBL,
859 with attribution scores exceeding 0.20. This heavy reliance suggests that the model
860 implicitly diagnoses atmospheric stability and the vertical lapse rate—key factors often
861 mischaracterized in CTMs—to target biases associated with turbulent mixing
862 intensities (Lin and McElroy, 2010). Acting in concert with temperature, Relative
863 Humidity (RH) functions as a critical optical modulator. Although its absolute
864 attribution score is lower than that of temperature, its contribution is coupled with
865 explicit hygroscopic growth factors (e.g., `AerHygroscopicGrowth_SO42-`). This
866 enables the Transformer to fine-tune the optical AEC, effectively correcting biases
867 arising from non-linear hygroscopic parameterization errors (Burgos et al., 2020; Zhai
868 et al., 2021), particularly under high-humidity conditions.

869 Second, particulate mass concentrations act as the fundamental anchors for
870 pollution intensity. In the lower troposphere (<1.5 km), PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ consistently
871 rank among the top drivers, confirming their role in determining the baseline magnitude
872 of AEC. The model also demonstrates a physically stratified recognition of aerosol
873 types; for instance, the importance of sea salt aerosol (`AerMassSAL`) is confined strictly
874 to the marine boundary layer (<1.5 km) and decays rapidly aloft, accurately reflecting
875 the vertical distribution of coarse-mode marine aerosols (Bian et al., 2019; Murphy et
876 al., 2019).

877 Finally, dynamic variables exhibit a distinct "long-tail effect" in the vertical
878 dimension. Unlike precursor concentrations which decay sharply with height, the
879 importance of wind components (U, V) remains relatively stable in the free troposphere
880 (>2.0 km). This indicates that as height increases, the model shifts its focus from local
881 accumulation to large-scale advection, utilizing wind fields to identify and correct
882 background biases induced by long-range transport.



883 **4.5.3 Modulation by Environmental Context: Synoptic and Surface Constraints**

884 While vertical profiles determine the baseline extinction, the Cross-Attention
885 mechanism enables the model to utilize 2D global variables as "Environmental
886 Constraints" to modulate the vertical reconstruction (Fig. 14). This process operates
887 through two distinct physical pathways: dynamic ventilation and radiative-surface
888 forcing.

889 First, the model employs a sophisticated dynamic diagnosis mechanism to
890 constrain transport and mixing efficiency. The consistently high attention weights of 10
891 m wind components (U10M, V10M) throughout the column reflect the model's use of
892 near-surface wind speed as a proxy for synoptic flow patterns. Notably, the model
893 identifies the dominance of meridional transport in the EA monsoon region, assigning
894 slightly higher importance to meridional winds (V10M) to capture dominant pollutant
895 exchange pathways (Ding et al., 2009; Choi et al., 2024; Uno et al., 2009). By
896 identifying prevailing dynamic regimes, the model effectively addresses common CTM
897 biases related to pollutant accumulation under stagnant conditions (Kim et al., 2024;
898 An et al., 2019) and numerical diffusion under strong advection (Rastigejev et al., 2010;
899 Eastham and Jacob, 2017). More critically, the cross-attention weights reveal a deep
900 decoupling of boundary layer turbulence processes. Thermodynamic drivers (HFLUX,
901 LAI) exhibit a "surface-peak, upward-decay" pattern, suggesting the model uses them
902 to determine the initial buoyancy potential. In sharp contrast, mechanical drivers
903 (USTAR, Z0M) display an "increase-and-plateau" trend with height. This distinction
904 implies that the model successfully diagnoses the "vertical permeability" of the
905 atmosphere—assessing whether mechanical shear is sufficient to pump pollutants
906 through capping inversions into the free troposphere.

907 Second, radiative and surface boundary conditions are leveraged to correct biases
908 in chemical formation and stability parameterization. The high attention assigned to
909 photosynthetically active radiation—distinguishing between direct (PARDR) and
910 diffuse (PARDF) components—indicates the model's implicit capture of photochemical



911 variation. By sensing solar input, the model dynamically compensates for biases related
912 to secondary aerosol formation rates or biogenic emissions (Guenther et al., 2012).
913 Furthermore, snow mass (SNOMAS) emerges as a key predictor in the lowest layers.
914 The model identifies snow-covered surfaces as a proxy for "suppressed diffusion states",
915 characterizing conditions prone to deep near-surface inversions. This allows for the
916 targeted correction of the "over-dilution" bias often found in Eulerian models (Lin and
917 Mcelroy, 2010; Holtslag et al., 2013), effectively restoring high-concentration signals
918 in stable boundary layers that are typically smoothed out by minimal diffusion threshold
919 constraints.

920 **4.5.4 Regional Heterogeneity: Spatially Distinct Physical Fingerprints**

921 To reveal the model's decision-making logic under diverse environmental contexts,
922 we conducted a "physical fingerprint" analysis (Fig. 15) based on SHAP importance
923 rankings. The results demonstrate that the model autonomously establishes three
924 distinct physical response modes adapted to regional underlying surfaces and emission
925 characteristics.

926 In high-emission anthropogenic and biomass burning regions (NCP, IGP, and
927 Indochina), the model primarily leverages radiative components for optical
928 identification. A striking commonality across these regions is the high ranking of diffuse
929 photosynthetically active radiation (PARDF), often surpassing the direct component
930 (PARDR). This reflects the model's capability to capture the physical phenomenon
931 where high aerosol loading enhances scattering and increases the diffuse fraction of
932 solar radiation (Mercado et al., 2009; Che et al., 2018), utilizing it as a robust proxy for
933 optical turbidity. Furthermore, the model accurately differentiates surface energy
934 partitioning regimes: in the humid, vegetated IGP and Indochina, it prioritizes latent
935 heat flux (EFLUX) to gauge hygroscopic growth and wet removal potential; conversely,
936 in the urbanized NCP, it relies more heavily on sensible heat flux (HFLUX), consistent
937 with the high Bowen ratio of urban surfaces (Miao et al., 2009) where thermal
938 turbulence dominates vertical dispersion.



939 In the dust-dominated Taklamakan Desert, the model reconstructs a closed-loop
940 mechanism driven by "Thermodynamic Forcing and Dynamic Uplift". Incident
941 shortwave flux (SWGDN) and direct radiation (PARDR) play an overwhelmingly
942 dominant role, indicating that the model identifies clear-sky, high-solar-input
943 conditions as the prerequisite thermodynamic background for inducing thermal
944 instability. Crucially, this thermodynamic setup is coupled with dynamic and surface
945 descriptors: the model combines low vegetation indices (GRN, identifying erodible
946 bare soil), high 10m wind speeds (providing surface shear stress) (Shao et al., 2011),
947 and a preference for coarse-mode PM₁₀ over PM_{2.5}. This combination confirms that the
948 Transformer has successfully learned the physical process of wind-driven dust emission
949 in arid source regions.

950 Finally, over the marine environment of the Western Pacific, the model shifts to a
951 "Latent Heat-Driven" mode. Latent heat flux (EFLUX) contributes nearly half of the
952 total feature importance, defining the moisture supply at the air-sea interface that
953 controls marine aerosol hygroscopicity. Additionally, the model captures the mechanics
954 of sea spray generation by linking near-surface wind speeds (V10M) with land-sea
955 masking indicators (GRN). This suggests the model recognizes that under high-wind
956 conditions over water, mechanically generated sea salt aerosols (Grythe et al., 2014)—
957 and their subsequent hygroscopic evolution—are the primary drivers of AEC variability.

958 **4.6 Feedback from Data-Driven Correction to Physical Model Improvement**

959 The interpretability analysis in Section 4.5 demonstrates that the GC-TF model
960 does not merely fit statistical biases but successfully reconstructs a closed-loop physical
961 logic governing aerosol vertical structure. This "physics-informed" transparency offers
962 a unique opportunity to diagnose the root causes of CTM biases and establish a
963 feedback loop for model improvement.

964 **4.6.1 Diagnosing Thermodynamic Parameterization Deficiencies**

965 The model's dominant reliance on temperature and sensible heat flux (Sections
966 4.5.2, 4.5.4) to correct vertical profiles strongly implies that the original GEOS-Chem



967 simulation suffers from structural deficiencies in diagnosing PBLH and mixing
968 intensity. Specifically, the "excessive diffusion" biases observed in the lower
969 troposphere suggest that the CTM may misinterpret thermodynamic stability over
970 complex underlying surfaces. In highly urbanized regions like the NCP, the model's
971 high sensitivity to sensible heat flux indicates that the current scheme may not fully
972 resolve the distinct energy budget of urban canopies. This suggests that future
973 improvements should prioritize refining stability-dependent diffusion coefficients or
974 implementing more explicit parameterizations for urban surface energy balance to
975 better constrain vertical mixing.

976 **4.6.2 Refining Emission and Formation Schemes via Environmental Proxies**

977 The "context-aware" behavior of the Transformer reveals missing process-level
978 links in the current CTM emission and formation modules. In the Taklamakan Desert,
979 the model explicitly combines GRN (identifying bare soil) and Wind Speed to
980 reconstruct dust extinction. The fact that the DL model requires these specific inputs to
981 correct the simulation implies that the original dust emission scheme likely fails to
982 accurately capture the non-linear threshold between wind shear and erodible surfaces,
983 potentially miscalculating the threshold friction velocity or wind-erosion efficiency.
984 Similarly, in Indochina, the high sensitivity to diffuse radiation (PARDF) suggests that
985 secondary organic aerosol formation associated with biomass burning plumes is under-
986 represented. The model compensates for this by using radiation as a proxy for
987 photochemical aging rates, pointing to a need for optimizing secondary organic aerosol
988 formation mechanisms and injection height parameterizations in the CTM.

989 **4.6.3 The Role of Machine Learning in Earth System Modeling**

990 Beyond bias correction, this study exemplifies a paradigm shift from "black-box"
991 prediction to "glass-box" diagnosis. By decoupling the contributions of meteorology
992 and composition, the physics-informed Transformer serves as a diagnostic tool. It
993 verifies that while CTMs provide a solid physicochemical baseline, they struggle with
994 the non-linear modulation of local environmental contexts. The correction strategies



995 learned by the model—such as using GRN as a dynamic land mask or SNOMAS as a
996 stability indicator—provide traceable scientific evidence for incorporating these
997 neglected environmental constraints into future deterministic parameterization schemes.

998

999 **5. Conclusions**

1000 This study proposes a physics-informed Transformer DL framework that
1001 reconstructs high-precision 3D AEC fields by bridging the gap between CTM
1002 simulations and CALIOP satellite observations. Distinct from traditional bias
1003 correction methods that rely solely on passive remote sensing imagery or treat the
1004 model as a "black box," this framework explicitly integrates physicochemical vertical
1005 structural priors (e.g., AEPs and species concentrations) from GEOS-Chem and
1006 meteorological constraints from MERRA-2. By constructing a dual-stream architecture
1007 featuring Gated Feature Fusion and Cross-Attention mechanisms, the model effectively
1008 captures the complex, non-linear dependencies between atmospheric states and AEC
1009 simulation biases. The primary conclusions are as follows:

1010 First, the framework significantly improves the fidelity of AEC vertical profiles,
1011 systematically correcting the systematic biases inherent in Eulerian CTMs. Extensive
1012 "Leave-One-Year-Out" cross-validation over EA (2017–2019) demonstrates that the R
1013 for AEC evaluated against CALIOP observations increases from 0.49–0.53 in the
1014 original GEOS-Chem simulation to 0.66–0.73, while the RMSE is reduced by
1015 approximately 25%. Vertically, the model achieves optimal performance within the
1016 PBL (0.5–1.5 km), with R consistently exceeding 0.7 and NRMSE remaining below
1017 5%. The framework effectively mitigates the "excessive diffusion" issue common in
1018 CTMs, rectifying the spurious southward displacement of pollution centers, restoring
1019 smoothed high-intensity extinction signals in anthropogenic and dust source regions,
1020 and suppressing spurious overestimations in the clean free troposphere and over marine
1021 regions. Crucially, threshold-based sensitivity analysis confirms that these performance
1022 gains are robust even when focusing exclusively on optically thick aerosol layers.



1023 Consequently, this vertical rectification leads to a substantial improvement in column-
1024 integrated AOD, with the R relative to CALIOP increasing from 0.80–0.84 to 0.91–
1025 0.93 across the EA domain, ensuring consistency between resolved AEC vertical
1026 structures and the total aerosol load. Moreover, validation against high-frequency
1027 ground-based AERONET measurements confirms the framework's superiority over the
1028 original GEOS-Chem simulation in capturing the dynamic temporal evolution of
1029 pollution episodes, bridging the observational gaps inherent to the sparse sampling of
1030 polar-orbiting satellites.

1031 Second, the model exhibits robust cross-continental transferability, indicating that
1032 it has internalized universal physical laws rather than overfitting to regional training
1033 characteristics. When applied directly to the NA domain—a region with distinct
1034 emission structures and lower aerosol loading—without any retraining, the model
1035 successfully reproduces the spatial AEC simulation bias patterns of GEOS-Chem. The
1036 R for column-integrated AOD compared with CALIOP retrievals in this region
1037 improves significantly from 0.31 (original) to 0.70 (corrected), further verifying the
1038 physical consistency and transferability of the established mapping between
1039 atmospheric states and AEC simulation biases.

1040 Third, by integrating interpretable DL techniques, this study establishes a closed-
1041 loop feedback pathway from "data-driven correction" to "physical mechanism
1042 diagnosis." Attribution analysis reveals that the model autonomously identifies AEC
1043 simulation bias drivers with clear physical significance: (1) In the PBL, the model relies
1044 primarily on temperature and sensible heat flux to correct vertical mixing biases,
1045 pointing to deficiencies in stability-dependent diffusion schemes within the CTM; (2)
1046 The synergistic diagnosis of dust emission thresholds using vegetation indices and wind
1047 speed suggests potential biases in the non-linear response of existing dust
1048 parameterizations to wind erosion mechanisms; (3) In biomass burning regions, the
1049 sensitivity to diffuse radiation reveals missing links in secondary organic aerosol
1050 formation processes or plume injection height parameterizations; (4) In marine regions,



1051 the model utilizes latent heat flux and wind patterns to target and correct potential
1052 overestimation biases in sea salt aerosol generation functions or hygroscopic growth
1053 parameterizations.

1054 In summary, this study not only confirms the effectiveness of the physics-informed
1055 Transformer in reconstructing high-fidelity 3D aerosol fields to support radiative
1056 forcing assessments but also highlights its potential as a diagnostic tool for Earth system
1057 modeling. The interpretability analysis provides developers with actionable physical
1058 insights, highlighting a shift in the integration of deep learning with physical modeling.
1059 Rather than serving solely as a post-processing tool for bias correction, the framework
1060 functions as a diagnostic mechanism to identify structural model deficiencies and guide
1061 the refinement of parameterization schemes in Earth system models.

1062

1063 **Code and Data availability.** The GEOS-Chem model is available at [http://www.geos-](http://www.geos-chem.org)
1064 [chem.org](http://www.geos-chem.org). The CALIOP satellite data can be accessed via
1065 <https://subset.larc.nasa.gov/calipso>. The MERRA-2 data are available from the NASA
1066 Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center
1067 (<https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/>). AERONET data can be obtained from
1068 <https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>. The source code of the physics-informed Transformer
1069 model proposed in this study and the trained weights are available upon request from
1070 the corresponding author.

1071

1072 **Author contribution.** JX designed the research, developed the model methodology,
1073 conducted the simulations, performed the data analysis, and prepared the original draft.
1074 YW supervised the study, provided the computing resources, and revised the
1075 manuscript. JW revised the manuscript. YYW, MZ, MT, WD, JK, and LW provided
1076 technical support and reviewed the manuscript. All authors contributed to the
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1078



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1081

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1086

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1696



1697 Table 1. Experimental design based on the Leave-One-Year-Out cross-validation
1698 strategy.

| Experiment ID | Training & Validation Data | Test Data | Evaluation Objective |
|---------------|----------------------------|-----------|------------------------|
| Exp-2017 | Years 2018, 2019 | Year 2017 | Hindcasting |
| Exp-2018 | Years 2017, 2019 | Year 2018 | Temporal Interpolation |
| Exp-2019 | Years 2017, 2018 | Year 2019 | Forecasting |

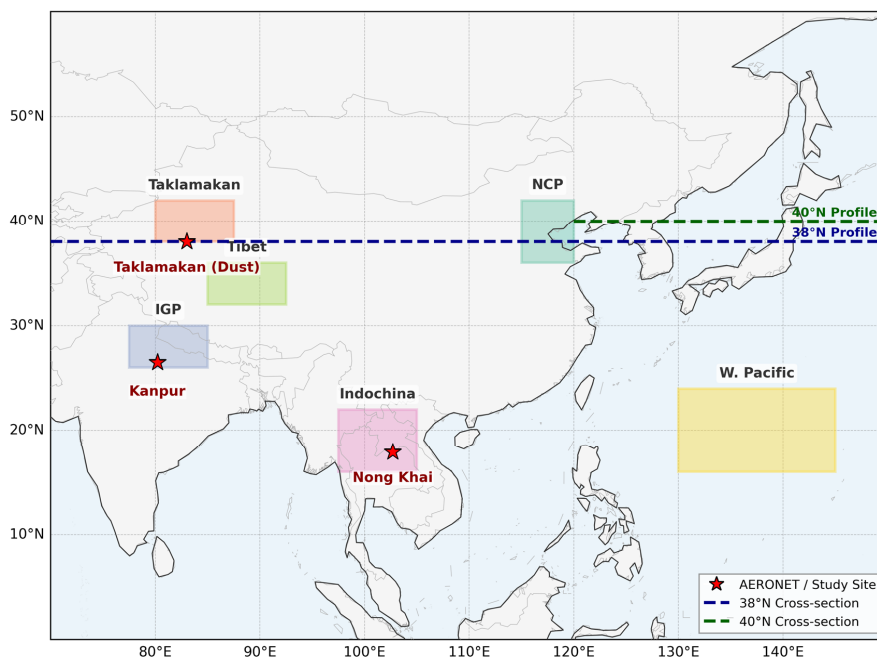
1699



1700 Table 2. Quantitative evaluation of the physics-informed Transformer model's
1701 predictive performance for AEC simulation biases over EA across independent test
1702 years based on the Leave-One-Year-Out strategy.

| Experiment ID | R (Test) | MAE (Test) | RMSE (Test) |
|---------------|----------|------------|-------------|
| Exp-2017 | 0.666 | 0.014 | 0.039 |
| Exp-2018 | 0.659 | 0.014 | 0.039 |
| Exp-2019 | 0.651 | 0.015 | 0.041 |
| Average | 0.659 | 0.014 | 0.040 |

1703



1704

1705 Figure 1. Map of the study domain covering East and South Asia (0°-60°N, 70°-150°E).

1706 The colored rectangles delimitate the six regions of interest selected for regional

1707 analysis. The dashed lines represent the latitudinal transects at 38°N (blue) and 40°N

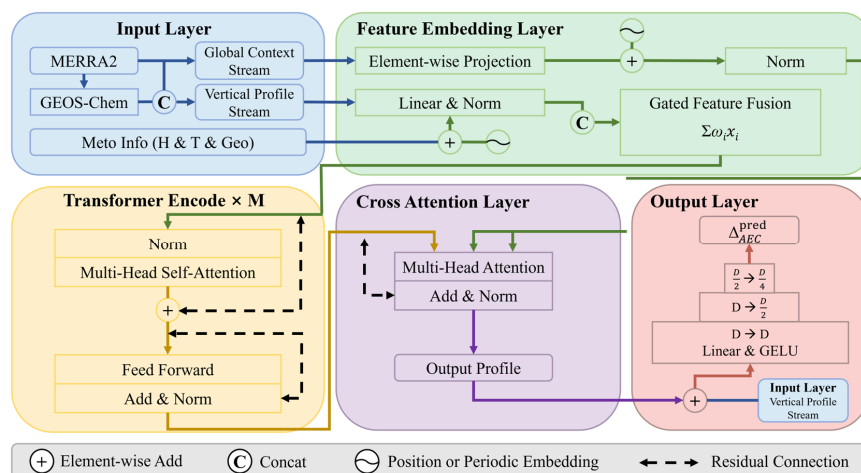
1708 (green) used for vertical profile cross-section analysis. Red stars indicate the specific

1709 study sites selected to represent distinct aerosol regimes: the Kanpur and Nong Khai

1710 sites are AERONET ground-based stations selected to represent regions dominated by

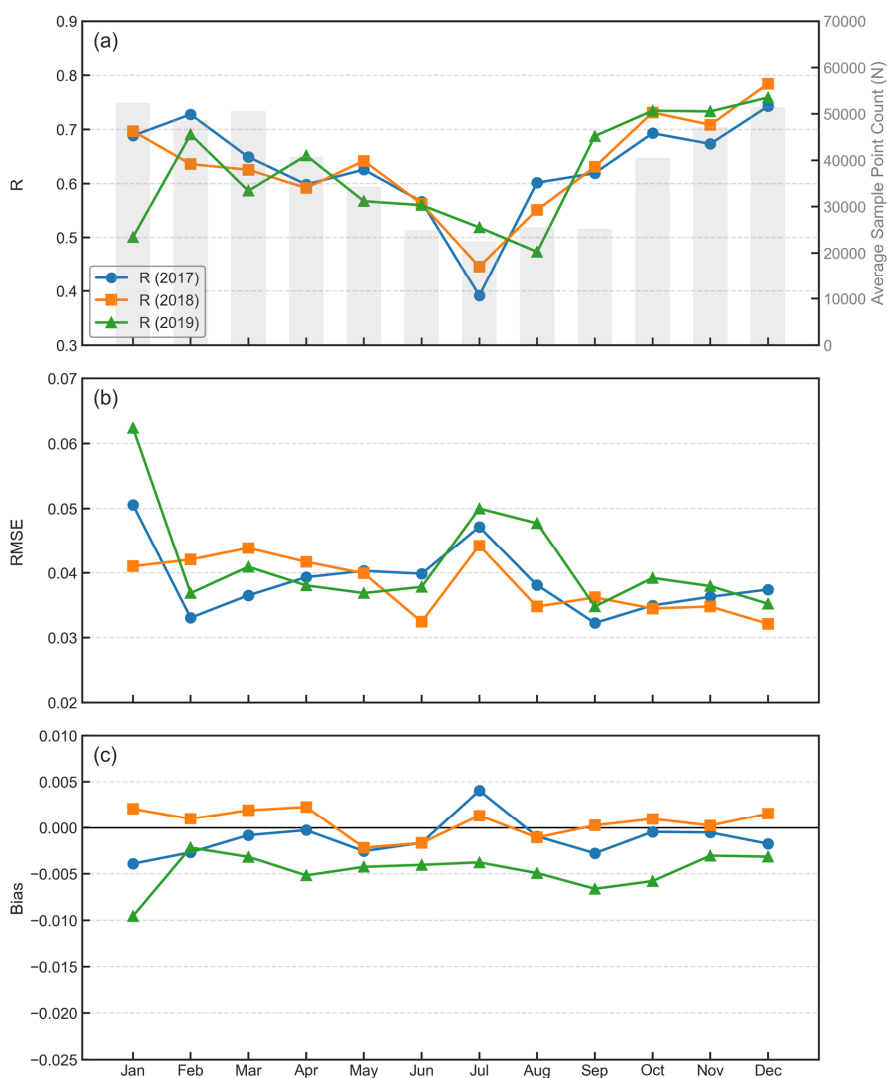
1711 anthropogenic pollution and biomass burning, respectively; the Taklamakan site marks

1712 a reference location selected to investigate the characteristics of natural mineral dust.



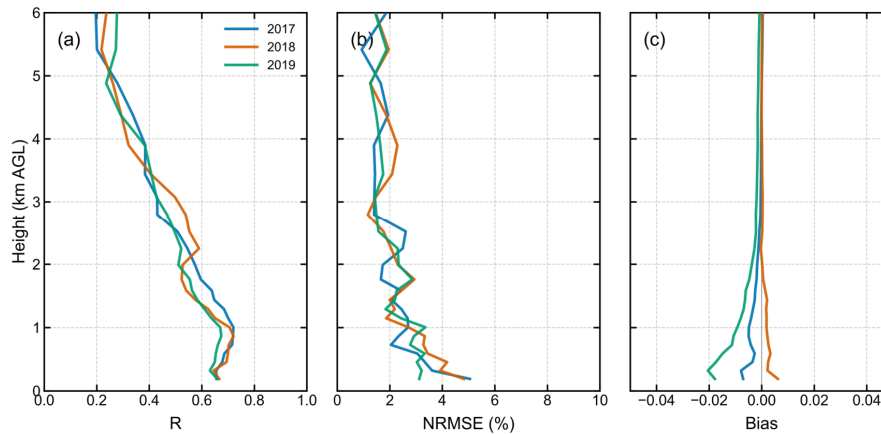
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1714 Figure 2. The overall architecture of the physics-informed Transformer model. The
 1715 network leverages Gated Feature Fusion and Cross-Attention mechanisms within a
 1716 residual learning framework to correct AEPs.



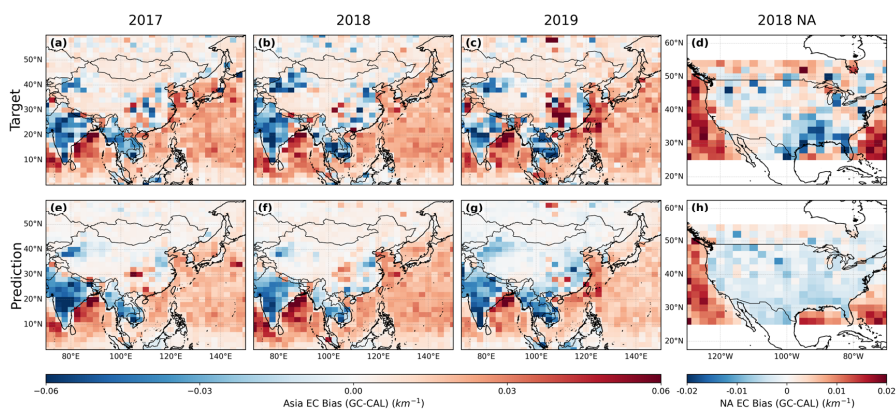
1717

1718 Figure 3. Monthly variations of statistical metrics evaluating the physics-informed
1719 Transformer model's predictive performance for the AEC simulation bias over EA
1720 across the three test years (2017, 2018, and 2019). The panels display the time series of
1721 R (a) with the multi-year average monthly sample size (N, gray bars), RMSE (b), and
1722 mean bias (c).



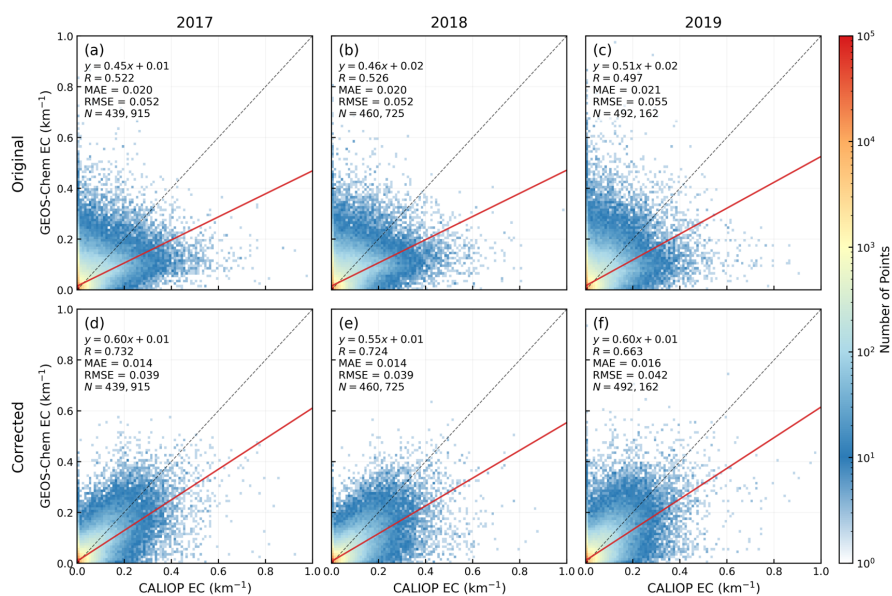
1723

1724 Figure 4. Vertical profiles of the physics-informed Transformer model's predictive
1725 performance for AEC simulation bias over EA across three independent test years (2017,
1726 2018, and 2019). The panels show the height-resolved R (a), NRMSE (b), and mean
1727 bias (c). The performance is evaluated against CALIOP observations from the surface
1728 up to 6 km AGL.



1729

1730 Figure 5. Spatial comparison of the vertically averaged (0–6 km AGL) AEC simulation
1731 bias over EA and NA. The top row (a–d) represents the Target systematic bias. The
1732 bottom row (e–h) displays the corresponding bias Predicted by the physics-informed
1733 Transformer model. Columns 1–3 show results for the independent test years (2017,
1734 2018, 2019) over the primary EA domain (a–c, e–g). Column 4 presents the
1735 generalization test over the NA domain for 2018 (d, h), where the model trained on EA
1736 data is directly applied to predict biases in an unseen continent.



1737

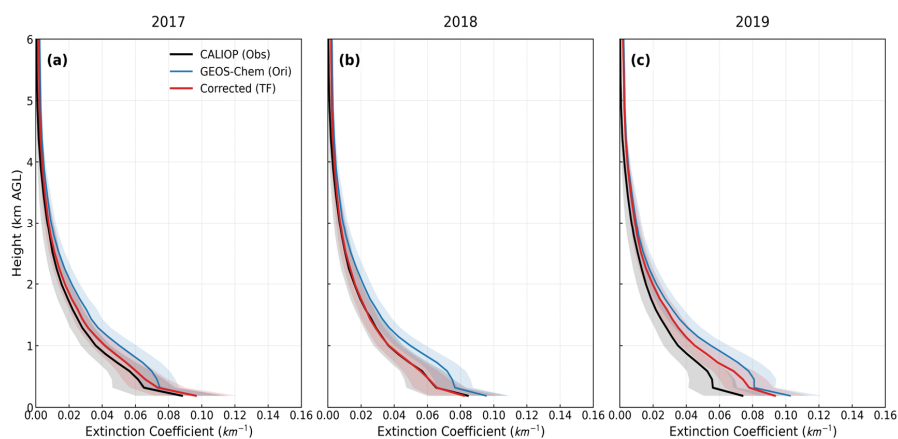
1738 Figure 6. Density scatter plots comparing the simulated AEC against CALIOP

1739 observations over EA for the three test years: 2017 (a, d), 2018 (b, e), and 2019 (c, f).

1740 The top row (a, b, c) displays the validation results for the original GEOS-Chem

1741 simulation, while the bottom row (d, e, f) shows the results after correction by the

1742 physics-informed Transformer model.



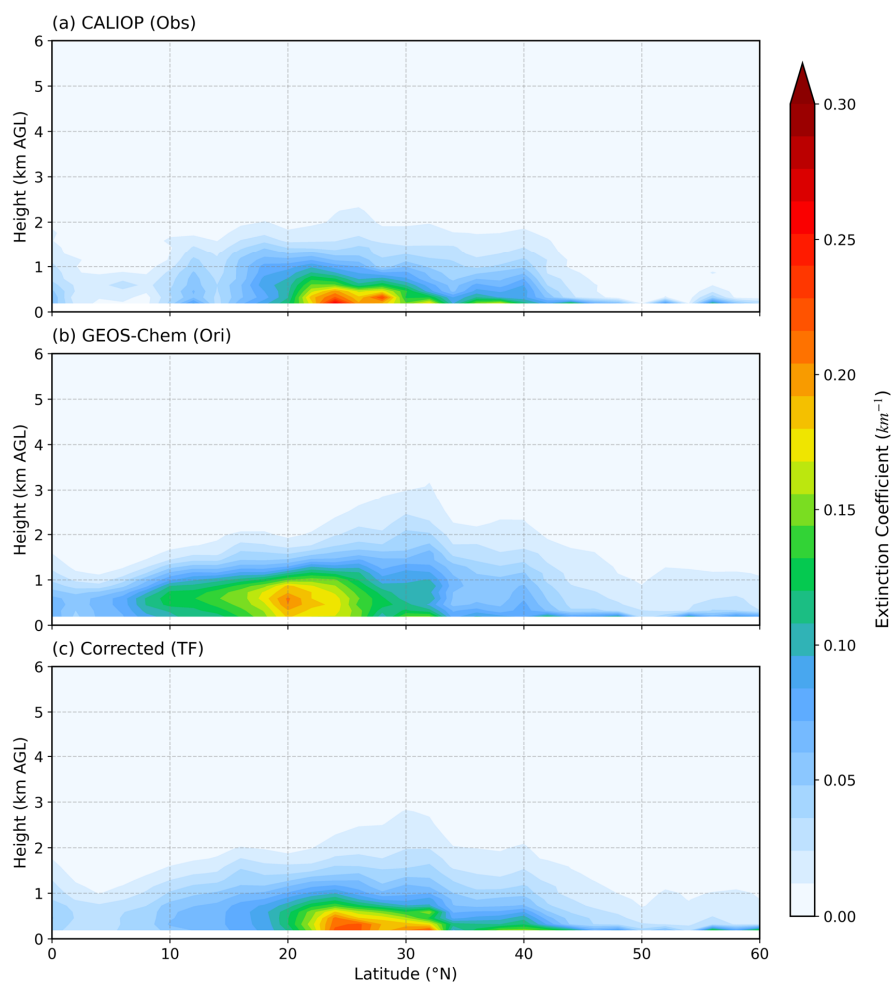
1743

1744 Figure 7. Annual mean vertical profiles of AEC for the three test years (2017–2019).

1745 The profiles are averaged over the entire study domain (EA). The shaded areas indicate

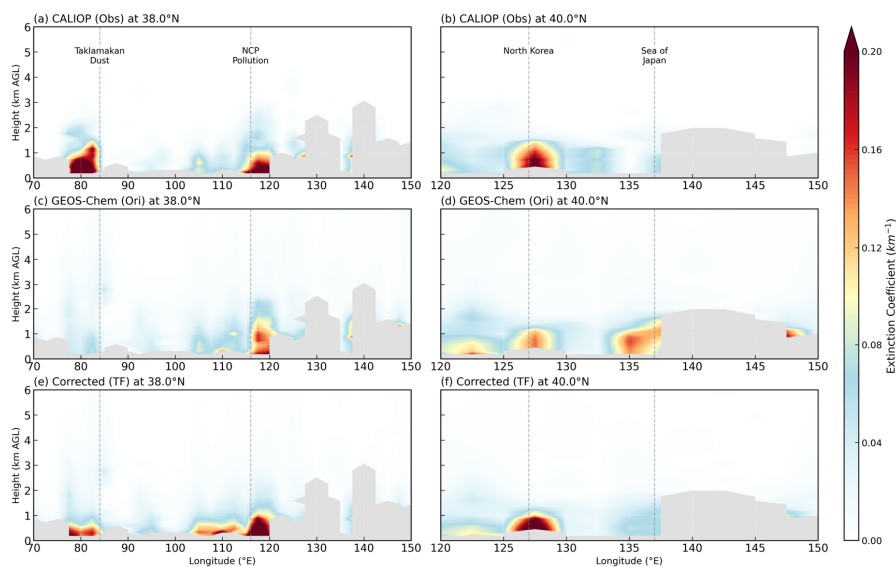
1746 the standard deviation ($\pm 0.5\sigma$) of the vertical distribution, representing the spatial and

1747 temporal variability.



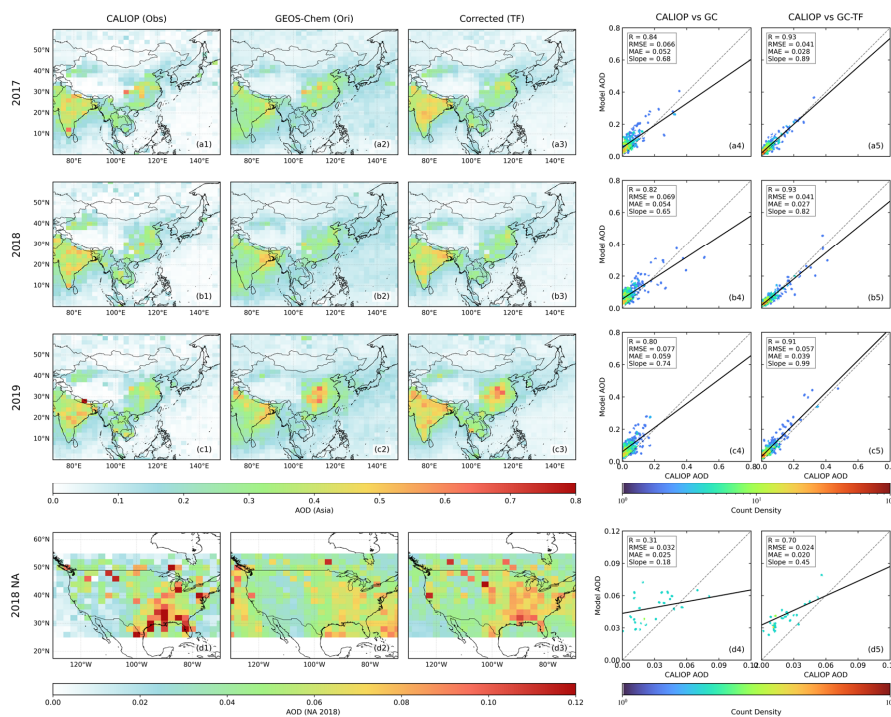
1748

1749 Figure 8. Zonal mean vertical distributions of AEC averaged over the longitude range
1750 (70°E – 150°E) for the test year 2019. The panels display the latitude-altitude cross-
1751 sections for CALIOP observations (a), original GEOS-Chem simulations (b), and the
1752 corrected GC-TF results (c).



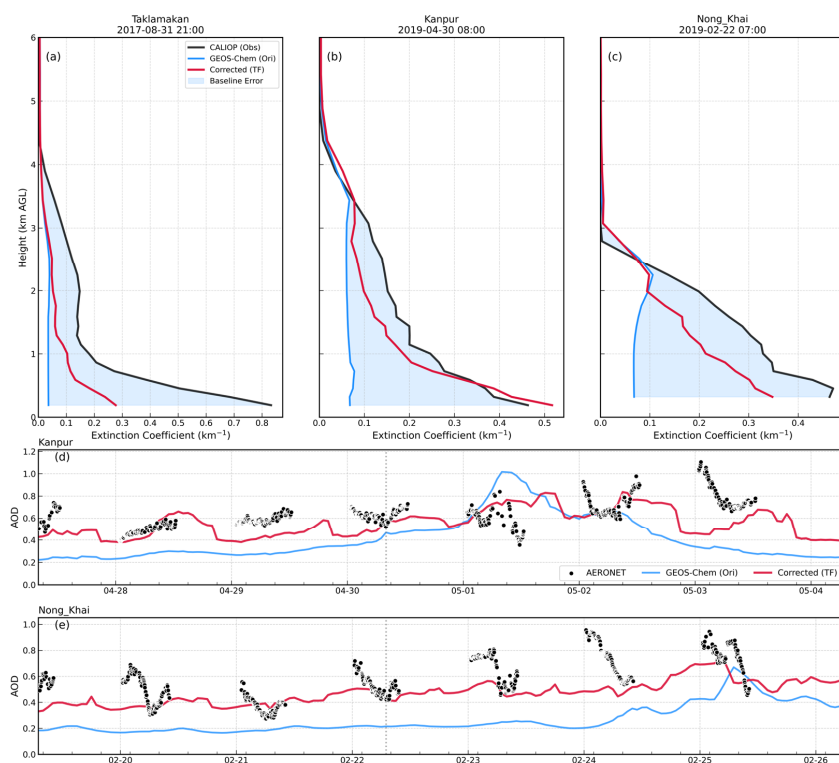
1753

1754 Figure 9. Longitudinal vertical cross-sections of annual mean AEC along two selected
1755 latitudes for the test year 2019. The left column displays the profiles at 38.0°N,
1756 highlighting the Taklamakan Desert and the NCP. The right column displays the profiles
1757 at 40.0°N, capturing the aerosol transport over the Korean Peninsula and the Sea of
1758 Japan. Panels show CALIOP observations (a, b), original GEOS-Chem simulations (c,
1759 d), and the corrected GC-TF results (e, f). The vertical dashed lines mark the
1760 approximate locations of key geographical features. Gray areas indicate missing data.

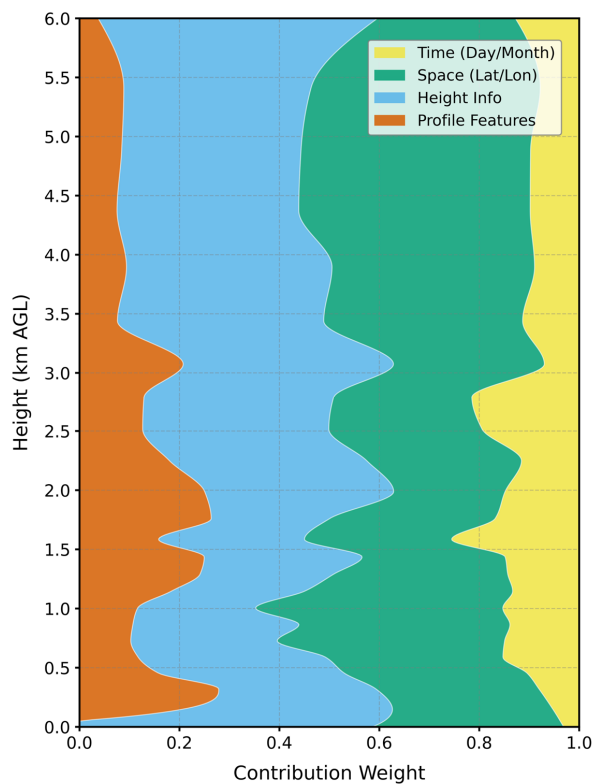


1761

1762 Figure 10. Spatial distributions and statistical evaluations of the annual mean AOD
 1763 derived from CALIOP observations, GEOS-Chem simulations, and the GC-TF model
 1764 corrections. Results for the EA domain during the test years 2017 (a), 2018 (b), and
 1765 2019 (c), respectively. Columns 1–3 display the spatial patterns of AOD from CALIOP,
 1766 the original GEOS-Chem (Ori), and the corrected GC-TF results (TF). Columns 4–5
 1767 show the corresponding density scatter plots comparing the model predictions (y-axis)
 1768 against CALIOP observations (x-axis). Generalization test over the NA domain for the
 1769 year 2018 (d).

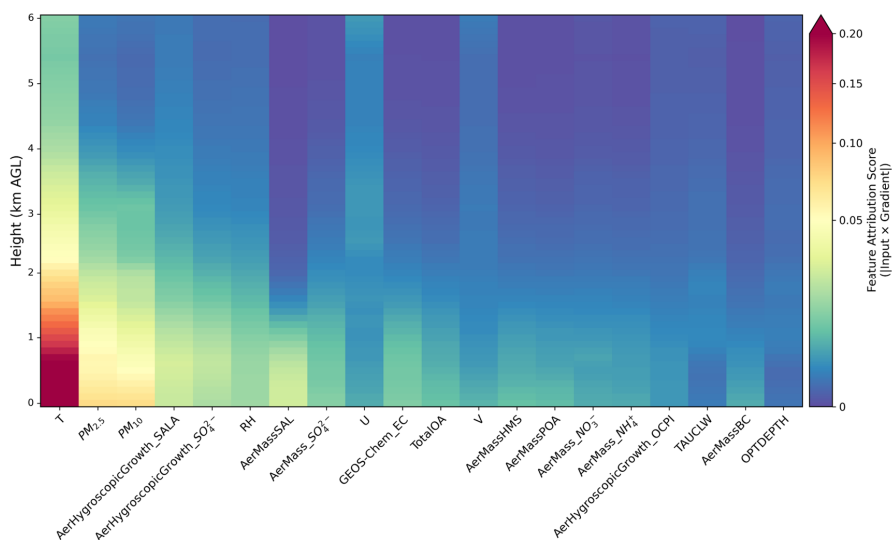


1770
1771 Figure 11. Composite analysis of aerosol vertical structures and temporal evolution
1772 during selected pollution episodes. Vertical profiles of AEC at three representative sites:
1773 Taklamakan (Dust, a), Kanpur (Anthropogenic Pollution, b), and Nong Khai (Biomass
1774 Burning, c). Time series of AOD at the Kanpur (d) and Nong Khai (e) AERONET sites
1775 during the corresponding pollution events. The vertical dotted lines mark the CALIOP
1776 overpass times (UTC) shown in the top panels.



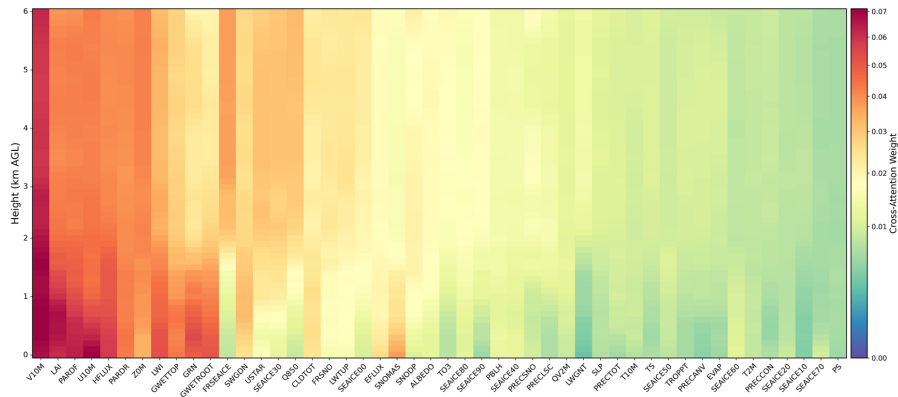
1777

1778 Figure 12. Vertically resolved feature importance analysis. The stacked plot displays
1779 the altitude-dependent contribution weights of the four input feature groups (Profile
1780 Features, Height Info, Space, and Time) learned by the model's Gated Fusion
1781 mechanism.



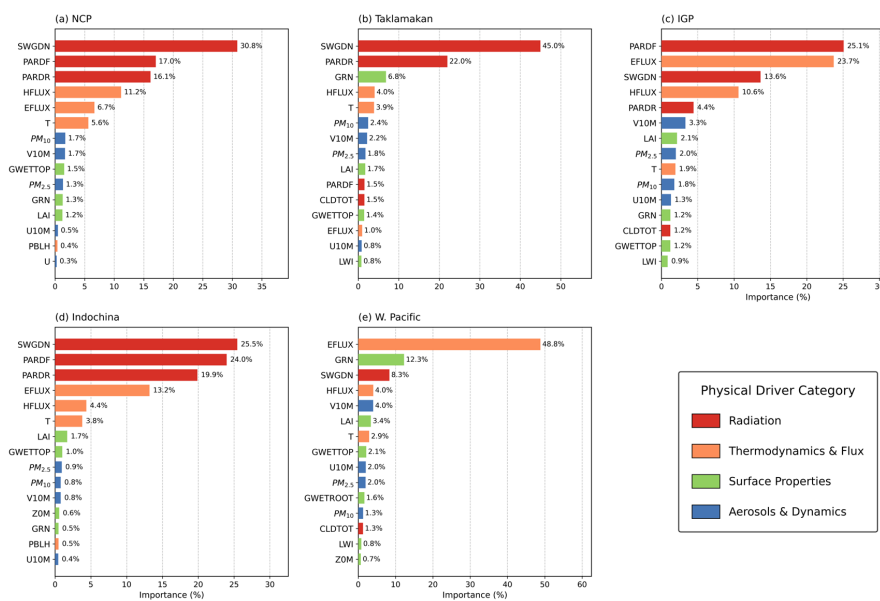
1782

1783 Figure 13. Vertical distribution of feature attribution scores for the top-20 profile
1784 variables, calculated using the Integrated Gradients method. The heatmap displays the
1785 contribution strength of each variable to the model's prediction at different altitude
1786 levels. The variables are sorted by their total contribution.



1787

1788 Figure 14. Vertical distribution of the attention weights for global variables learned by
1789 the Cross-Attention module. The heatmap displays the interaction strength between the
1790 Vertical Profile Stream and the Global Context Stream. The variables are sorted by their
1791 total contribution from left to right.



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Figure 15. Regional variability in feature importance drivers identified by SHAP analysis for the test year 2019. The panels display the top 15 most influential features for predicting AEC simulation biases in five representative regions: NCP (a), Taklamakan Desert (b), IGP (c), Indochina (d), and Western Pacific (e).