

22 **Abstract**

23 As a candidate for the next-generation National Air Quality Forecast Capability
24 (NAQFC), the meteorological forecast from Global Forecast System with the new Finite
25 Volume Cube-Sphere dynamical core (GFS-FV3) will be applied to drive the chemical
26 evolution of gases and particles described by the Community Multiscale Air Quality
27 modelling system. CMAQ v5.0.2, a historical version of CMAQ, has been coupled with
28 the North American Mesoscale Forecast System (NAM) model in the current operational
29 NAQFC. An experimental version of the NAQFC based on the offline-coupled GFS-FV3
30 version 15 with CMAQv5.0.2 modeling system (GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2), has been
31 developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) to provide
32 real-time air quality forecasts over the contiguous United States (CONUS) since 2018. In
33 this work, comprehensive region-specific, time-specific, and categorical evaluations are
34 conducted for meteorological and chemical forecasts from the offline-coupled
35 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 for the year 2019. The forecast system shows good overall
36 performance in forecasting meteorological variables with the annual mean biases of
37 $-0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for temperature at 2-m, 0.4% for relative humidity at 2-m, and 0.4 m s^{-1} for wind
38 speed at 10-m against the METEorological Aerodrome Reports (METAR) dataset. Larger
39 biases occur in seasonal and monthly mean forecasts, particularly in spring. Although the
40 monthly accumulated precipitation forecasts show generally consistent spatial
41 distributions with those from the remote sensing and ensemble datasets,

42 moderate-to-large biases exist in hourly precipitation forecasts against the Clean Air
43 Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) and METAR. While the forecast system
44 performs well in forecasting ozone (O₃) throughout the year and fine particles with a
45 diameter of 2.5 μm or less (PM_{2.5}) for warm months (May-September), it significantly
46 overpredicts annual-mean concentrations of PM_{2.5}. This is due mainly to the high
47 predicted concentrations of fine fugitive, and coarse-mode particle components.
48 Underpredictions in the southeastern U.S. and California during summer are attributed to
49 missing sources and mechanisms of secondary organic aerosol formation from biogenic
50 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and semi- or intermediate-VOCs. This work
51 demonstrates the ability of FV3-based GFS in driving the air quality forecasting. It
52 identifies possible underlying causes for systematic region- and time-specific model
53 biases, which will provide a scientific basis for further development of the
54 next-generation NAQFC.

55

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Three-dimensional air quality models (3-D AQMs) have been widely applied in
58 real time air quality forecasting (RT-AQF) since the 1990s in the U.S. (Stein et al., 2000;
59 McHenry et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2012a). The developments and applications of the
60 national air quality forecasting systems based on 3-D AQMs were conducted in the 2000s
61 (Kang et al., 2005; Otte et al., 2005; McKeen et al., 2005, 2007, 2009). Since then,

62 improvements and significant progress have been achieved in RT-AQF through the
63 further development of AQMs and the use of advanced techniques. For example, more air
64 pollutants in the products, more detailed gas-phase chemical mechanisms and aerosol
65 chemistry, and the implementation of chemical data assimilation were available (Zhang et
66 al., 2012b; Lee et al., 2017). Various AQMs, coupled with meteorological models in
67 either an online or offline manner, were developed and applied in RT-AQF (e.g., Chuang
68 et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Žabkar et al., 2015; Ryan, 2016). The early version of the
69 National Air Quality Forecast Capability (NAQFC) was jointly developed by the U.S.
70 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and the U.S. Environmental
71 Protection Agency (EPA) to provide forecasts of ozone (O_3) over the northeastern U.S.
72 (Eder et al., 2006). Since the first operational version over the contiguous United States
73 (CONUS) (Eder et al., 2009), the NAQFC has been continuously updated and developed
74 to provide more forecasting products (including O_3 , smoke, dust, and particulate matter
75 with a diameter of $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ or less ($PM_{2.5}$)) with increasing accuracy (Mathur et al., 2008;
76 Stajner et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2017).

77 The forecast skill of a historical NAQFC, which was based on the North
78 American Mesoscale Forecast System (NAM) model (Black, 1994) and the Community
79 Multiscale Air Quality Modeling System version 4.6 (CMAQ v4.6), over CONUS during
80 year 2008 was evaluated by Kang et al. (2010a) for operational O_3 and experimental
81 $PM_{2.5}$ products. Overall, maximum 8-h O_3 was slightly overpredicted over the CONUS

82 during the summer, with the mean bias (MB), normalized mean bias (NMB), and
83 correlation coefficient (Corr) of 3.2 ppb, 6.8 %, and 0.65, respectively. The performance
84 of predicted daily mean PM_{2.5} varied: with an underprediction during the warm season
85 and an overprediction in the cool season. The MBs and NMBs during warm/cool seasons
86 were -2.3/4.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and -19.6%/45.1%, respectively. The current version of the U.S.
87 NOAA's operational NAQFC has provided the air quality forecast to the public for O₃
88 and PM_{2.5} at a horizontal grid resolution of 12 km over CONUS since 2015. It is currently
89 based on the CMAQ v5.0.2 (released May 2014) (U.S. EPA, 2014) coupled offline with
90 the NAM model. Daily mean PM_{2.5} was underpredicted during warm months (May and
91 July 2014) and overpredicted during a cool month (January 2015) over CONUS still
92 persist (Lee et al., 2017).

93 Efforts have been made to reduce the seasonal and region-specific biases in the
94 historical and current NAQFC. Development and implementation of an analog ensemble
95 bias correction approach was applied to the operational NAQFC to improve forecast
96 performance in PM_{2.5} predictions (Huang et al., 2017). Kang et al. (2008, 2010)
97 investigated the Kalman Filter (KF) bias-adjustment technique for operational use in the
98 NAQFC system. The KF bias-adjusted forecasts showed significant improvement in both
99 O₃ and PM_{2.5} for discrete and categorical evaluations. However, limitations in the
100 underlying models and the bias correction/adjustment approaches need further
101 improvement. Characterizing the current NAQFC forecasting skill and identifying the

102 underlying causes for region- and time-specific biases can result in further development
103 of the NAQFC system and improved pollutant predictions.

104 As NOAA Environmental Modeling Center (EMC) has transitioned to devote its
105 full resources towards the development of an ensemble model based on the Finite
106 Volume Cube-Sphere Dynamical Core (FV3), the NAM has been no longer updated since
107 March 2017. The FV3 dynamic core will eventually replace all current NOAA National
108 Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) mesoscale models used for forecasting.
109 The FV3 dynamical core was implemented in the operational Global Forecast System as
110 version 15 (GFS v15) in July 2019.

111 The NOAA National Weather Service (NWS) is currently coordinating an effort
112 to inline a regional scale meteorological model basing on the same FV3 dynamic core as
113 that in GFS v15 to be coupled with an atmospheric chemistry model partially based on
114 CMAQ. The inline system is expected to be the next generation of NAQFC, and to be
115 implemented a few years in the future. An interim system, offline coupling the recent
116 CMAQ with FV3-based GFS, is considered as a candidate NAQFC to replace the current
117 NAM-CMAQ system before the inline system is applied in the operational air quality
118 forecasting. To support this new development of the interim NAQFC, a prototype of the
119 offline-coupled GFS v15 with CMAQv5.0.2 (GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2) has been developed
120 and applied by the NOAA for RT-AQF over CONUS since 2018 (Huang et al., 2018,
121 2019, 2020). In this work, the meteorological and air quality forecasts from the

122 offline-coupled GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system are comprehensively evaluated for the
123 year of 2019. The main objectives of this work are to: (1) evaluate the forecast skills of
124 the experimental prototype of the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system; (2) identify the major
125 model biases, in particular, systematic biases and persistent region- and time-specific
126 biases in major species; (3) investigate underlying causes for the biases to provide a
127 scientific basis for improving the model representations of chemical processes and
128 developing science-based bias correction methods for O₃ and PM_{2.5} forecasts. This work
129 will support NAQFC's further development and improvement through enhancing its
130 forecasting abilities and generating a benchmark for the interim NAQFC that is being
131 developed by NOAA based on the offline-coupled GFS-FV3 v16 with CMAQ v5.3
132 (NACC-CMAQ) (Campbell et al., 2020). Eventually, the latest version of CMAQ
133 (version 5.3), which has updates in gas-phase chemistry (Yarwood et al., 2010; Emery et
134 al., 2015; Luecken et al., 2019), lightning nitric oxide (LNO) production schemes (Kang
135 et al., 2019a, 2019b), and secondary aerosol formation (in particular, secondary organic
136 aerosol) (e.g., Pye et al., 2013, 2017; Murphy et al., 2017) among others, will be coupled
137 with GFS-FV3 v16 and be implemented into the interim operational NAQFC.

138

139 **2. Model system and evaluation protocols**

140 **2.1 Description and configuration of offline-coupled GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2**

141 FV3 is a dynamical core for atmospheric numerical models developed by the
142 Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) (Putman and Lin, 2007). It is a modern
143 and extended version of the original FV core with a cubed-sphere grid design and more
144 computationally efficient solvers. It was selected for implementation into the GFS as the
145 next generation dynamical core in 2016 (Zhang et al., 2019a). The GFS-FV3 v15 (GFS
146 v15) has been operational since June 2019. The GFS v15 uses the Rapid Radiative
147 Transfer Method for GCMs (RRTMG) scheme for shortwave/longwave radiation
148 (Mlawer et al., 1997; Iacono et al., 2000; Clough et al., 2005), the Hybrid
149 eddy-diffusivity mass-flux (EDMF) scheme for Planetary Boundary Layer (PBL)
150 (National Centers for Environmental Prediction, 2019a), the Noah Land Surface Model
151 (LSM) scheme for land surface option (Chen et al., 1997), the Simplified
152 Arakawa-Schubert (SAS) deep convection for cumulus parameterization (Arakawa et al.,
153 1974; Grell, 1993), and a more advanced GFDL microphysics scheme for microphysics
154 (National Centers for Environmental Prediction, 2019b). An interface preprocessor has
155 been developed by NOAA to interpolate data, transfer coordinates, and convert the GFS
156 v15 outputs into the data format required by CMAQv5.0.2 (Huang et al., 2018, 2019).
157 The original outputs from GFS v15, which have a horizontal grid with 13-km resolution
158 and a Lagrangian vertical coordinate with 64 layers in NEMSIO format, are processed to
159 Lambert-Conformal Conic projection by PREMAQ, a preprocessor, to recast the
160 meteorological fields for CMAQ into an Arakawa C-staggering grid (Arakawa and Lamb,

161 1977) with a 12-km horizontal resolution and 35 vertical layers (Table 1). The first 72
162 hours in 12:00 UTC forecast cycles from GFS v15 are used to drive the air quality
163 forecast by the offline-coupled GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system.

164 CMAQ has been continuously developed by the U.S. EPA since the 1990s (Byun
165 and Schere, 2006) and has been significantly updated in many atmospheric processes
166 since then. Chemical boundary conditions for the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system are
167 mainly from the global 3-D model of atmospheric chemistry driven by meteorological
168 input from the Goddard Earth Observing System (GEOS-Chem). The lateral boundary
169 condition for dust is from the outputs of NEMS GFS Aerosol Component (NGAC) (Lu et
170 al., 2016). The anthropogenic emissions from area, mobile, and point sources in National
171 Emissions Inventory of year 2014 version 2 (NEI 2014v2) are processed by the Sparse
172 Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) modeling system. The onroad mobile
173 sources include all emissions from motor vehicles that operate on roadways such as
174 passenger cars, motorcycles, minivans, sport-utility vehicles, light-duty trucks,
175 heavy-duty trucks, and buses. Onroad mobile source emissions were processed using
176 emission factors output from the Motor Vehicle Emissions Simulator (MOVES).
177 SMOKE uses a combination of vehicle activity data, emission factors from MOVES,
178 meteorology data, and temporal allocation information to estimate hourly, gridded onroad
179 emissions. The nonroad, agriculture, anthropogenic fugitive dust, non-elevated oil-gas,
180 residential wood combustion, and other sectors are included in the area sources. The

181 sectors of airports, commercial marine vessel (CMV), electric generating units (pt_egu),
182 point sources related to oil and gas production (pt_oilgas), point sources that are not
183 EGUs nor related to oil and gas (ptnonipm), and point sources outside US (pt_other) are
184 included in the point sources. The sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and nitrogen oxide (NO_x) from
185 point sources in NEI 2005 are projected to year 2019 following the methods used in Tang
186 et al., (2015, 2017). The biomass burning emission inventory from the Blended Global
187 Biomass Burning Emissions Product system (GBBEPx) (Zhang et al., 2019b) is
188 implemented for the forecast of forest fires. The GBBEPx fire emission is treated as one
189 type of point source. Its heat flux is derived from satellite retrieved fire radiative power
190 (FRP) to drive fire plume rise. The GBBEPx is a near real time fire dataset. The fire
191 emission implemented in the current forecast cycle comes from the historical fire
192 observation, typically 1-2 day behind. In this system, we use landuse information to
193 classify fires into forest fire and other burning such as agriculture burning. We assume
194 only forest fire can last longer than 24 hours. We assume the forest fire emission will
195 continue on day 2 and beyond. Other types of fires will be dropped. The plume rise of the
196 point source will be driven by the meteorology and allocated to the 35 elevated layers in
197 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system by the PREMAQ preprocessing system. Biogenic
198 emissions are calculated inline by Biogenic Emission Inventory System (BEIS) version
199 3.14 (Schwede et al., 2005). Sea-salt emission is parameterized within CMAQ v5.0.2.
200 While the deposition velocities are calculated inline, the fertilizer ammonia bi-directional

201 flux for in-line emissions and deposition velocities is turned off. Detailed configurations
202 of photolysis, gas-phase chemistry, aqueous chemistry, and aerosol chemistry for CMAQ
203 v5.0.2 are listed in Table 1.

204 2.2 Datasets and evaluation protocols

205 Comprehensive evaluation of the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 forecasting system is
206 conducted for both meteorological and chemical variables for year 2019, including
207 discrete, categorical, and region-specific evaluations. The products in the first 24-hour of
208 each 72-hour forecast cycle are extracted and combined as a continuous, annual forecast.
209 The evaluation of meteorological variables is carried out for those results from PREMAQ
210 in GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system. Detailed information for datasets used in this study is
211 listed in Table S1. Observed hourly temperature at 2-meters (T2), relative humidity at
212 2-meters (RH2), precipitation (Precip), wind direction at 10-meters (WD10), and wind
213 speed at 10-meters (WS10) are obtained from the Clean Air Status and Trends Network
214 (CASTNET) and the METeorological Aerodrome Reports (METAR) datasets. The
215 majority of CASTNET sites are suburban and rural sites. Approximately 1900 METAR
216 sites over CONUS are used in this study (Fig. S1). For evaluation of precipitation, a
217 threshold of $\geq 0.1 \text{ mm hr}^{-1}$ is used for valid records because the CASTNET and METAR
218 have different definitions of 0.0 mm hr^{-1} values. In CASTNET, the records without any
219 precipitation are filled as 0.0 mm hr^{-1} , the same as those records with negligible
220 precipitation. However, in METAR, the records without any precipitation are left as

221 blank, the same as an invalid record. The negligible precipitation is recorded as 0.0 mm
222 hr⁻¹.

223 The air quality forecasting products are evaluated include hourly O₃, hourly PM_{2.5},
224 maximum daily 8-hour average O₃ (MDA8 O₃), and daily average PM_{2.5} (24-h avg PM_{2.5})
225 for chemical forecast. The AIRNow dataset is used for observed hourly O₃ and PM_{2.5}. We
226 utilize the Quality Assurance/Quality Control (QA/QC) information from the AIRNow
227 dataset for to filtering the invalid records. Remote sensing data from the Global
228 Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP) and the Climatology-Calibrated Precipitation
229 Analysis (CCPA) (Hou et al., 2014; Zhu and Luo, 2015) datasets are also used for
230 evaluation of precipitation. GPCP is a global precipitation dataset with a spatial
231 resolution of 0.25 degree and a monthly temporal resolution. The CCPA uses linear
232 regression and downscaling techniques to generate analysis product of precipitation from
233 two datasets: the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) CPC Unified
234 Global Daily Gauge Analysis and the NCEP EMC Stage IV multi-sensor quantitative
235 precipitation estimations (QPEs). The CCPA product with a spatial resolution in 0.125
236 degree and temporal resolution of an hour is used in this study. Satellite-based Aerosol
237 Optical Depth (AOD) at 550 nm from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
238 (MODIS) Terra platform (Levy et al., 2015) is used for the evaluation of monthly AOD.
239 The statistic measures such as mean bias, the root mean square error (RMSE), the
240 normalized mean bias, the normalized mean error (NME), and the correlation coefficient

241 are used, more details about evaluation protocols are referring to Zhang et al. (2009,
242 2016). The Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001), which includes the correlations, NMBs, and
243 the normalized standard deviations (NSD), is used to present the overall performance
244 (Wang et al., 2015). The NMBs $\leq 15\%$ and NMEs $\leq 30\%$ by Zhang et al. (2006) and
245 NMBs ($\leq 15\%$ and $\leq 30\%$), NMEs ($\leq 25\%$ and $\leq 50\%$), and Corr (>0.5 and >0.4) for
246 MDA8 O₃ and 24-h PM_{2.5}, respectively, by Emery et al. (2017) are considered as
247 performance criteria. Monthly, seasonal, and annual statistics and analysis are included.
248 Seasonal analysis for O₃ is separated into O₃-season (May-September) and non-O₃ season
249 (January-April and October-December). Analysis for ten CONUS regions, defined by
250 U.S. EPA (www.epa.gov/aboutepa), are included and listed in Fig. S1c.

251 The metrics of False Alarm Ratio (FAR) and the Hit Rate (H) are used (Kang et
252 al., 2005; Barnes et al., 2009) for categorical evaluation. Observed and forecasted MDA8
253 O₃ and 24-h avg PM_{2.5} are divided into four classes based on whether the predicted and/or
254 observed data fall above or below the AQI thresholds: (a) observed values \leq thresholds
255 and predicted values $>$ thresholds; (b) observed and predicted values $>$ thresholds; (c)
256 observed and predicted values \leq thresholds; (d) observed values $>$ thresholds and
257 predicted values \leq thresholds. The FAR and H are defined in Eq. (1) and Eq. (2):

258
$$FAR = \frac{a}{a+b} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

259
$$H = \frac{b}{b+d} \times 100\% \quad (2).$$

260

261 **3. Evaluation of model forecast skills**

262 3.1 Evaluation of meteorological forecasts

263 Discrete performance evaluation is conducted for post-processed meteorological
264 fields from the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system (Table 2). The GFS v15 can predict well
265 the boundary layer meteorological variables. It has overall cold biases and wet biases for
266 annual T2 and RH2 in 2019, respectively. It also overpredicts WS10, and underpredicts
267 hourly precipitation. Despite CASTNET siting being slightly different from that of
268 METAR, the annual and most of the seasonal performance for the model show similar
269 pattern in terms of bias for both the CASTNET and METAR networks. Mean biases of
270 T2 are mostly within ± 0.5 degree Celsius except those in February and March against
271 CASTNET (Table S2). Underprediction is generally larger against CASTNET than
272 METAR. For spatial distribution of MB for seasonal T2 against METAR (Fig. S2), cold
273 biases are mainly found in the Midwest and West U.S. where most of the CASTNET sites
274 are located. GFS v15 usually underpredicts T2 in West Coast, the Mountain States, and
275 the Midwest. Overpredictions of T2 in the states of Kansas, Oklahoma, the areas near the
276 East Coast, and the Gulf Coast offset some underpredictions, resulting in smaller mean
277 biases but similar RMSE for the model against METAR compared to that against
278 CASTNET. The difference between observed T2 from the two datasets is larger in cooler
279 months than warmer months. The largest underpredictions occur in the spring (MAM)

280 season. In general, GFS v15 underpredicts T2 for both CASTNET and METAR,
281 consistent with cold biases found in other studies using GFS v15 (e.g., Yang, 2019). Such
282 underpredictions will affect chemical forecasts, especially the forecast of O₃. Consistent
283 with the overall underpredictions of T2, GFS v15 overpredicts RH2 in general. The
284 largest overprediction is found in spring (MBs of 3.4% and 2.7% with CASTNET and
285 METAR, respectively), corresponding to the largest underprediction of T2 in spring
286 (MBs of -0.5 °C and -0.4 °C with CASTNET and METAR, respectively). GFS v15
287 shows moderately good performance predicting wind. The annual MB and NMB of
288 WS10 against METAR are 0.4 m s⁻¹ and 10.7 %, respectively. A larger overprediction of
289 WS10 is found with CASTNET than other datasets (Zhang et al., 2016).
290 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 also gives higher overpredictions for CASTNET compared to
291 METAR. The largest biases in wind speed are found in summer. GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2
292 gives the largest cold biases, wet biases in spring, indicating the necessity of improving
293 model performance in such seasons in future GFS-FV3 development.

294 By adopting the threshold of ≥ 0.1 mm hr⁻¹, performance against the CASTNET
295 and METAR show similar results: a large underprediction in hourly precipitation.
296 Predicted monthly accumulated precipitation shows consistency in spatial distribution
297 with observations from CCPA and GPCP (Fig. S3). The high precipitation in the
298 Southeast are captured well in spring while the high precipitation in the Midwest and
299 South are captured well in other seasons. It indicates that GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 has good

300 performance in capturing the spatial distributions of accumulated precipitation but has
301 poor performance in predicting hourly precipitation. The precipitation from the original
302 FV3 outputs are recorded as 6-h accumulated precipitations. Artificial errors were
303 introduced to the forecast by an issue in precipitation preprocessing during the early stage
304 development of the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system. The precipitation at first hour of the
305 6-h cycle would be dropped occasionally. We corrected this issue and the hourly
306 precipitation still shows large underprediction against surface monitoring networks
307 (Figure S4). It indicates the difficulty for the forecast system in capturing the temporal
308 precipitation, especially during summer. During the summer season, the discrepancy in
309 capturing the short-term heavy rainfall worsens the model performance in predicting
310 hourly precipitation. Besides, we use the threshold of 0.1 mm hr^{-1} to filter the valid
311 records. If the model predicts precipitation that did not occur, the record will be excluded
312 into the statistics calculation. However, all the predicted precipitation is counted in the
313 spatial evaluation against the ensemble datasets of GPCP and CCPA. Therefore, the
314 spatial performance of monthly accumulated precipitation shows better agreement than
315 its of hourly statistics.

316 An overall comparison of performance with CASTNET and METAR datasets is
317 performed using a Taylor diagram (Fig. 1). The normalized standardized deviations
318 (NSDs), Corrs, and NMBs are considered. The NSDs are ratios of variance of predicted
319 values to variance of observed values, following the equations by Wang et al. (2015). The

320 NSDs represent the amplitude of variability. With the NSDs closer to 1, the predicted
321 values have closer variance as the observed values. Consistent with other analysis in this
322 section, larger biases and lower correlation in model wind speed and wind direction are
323 found for CASTNET compared to METAR. The amplitude of variability of WS10
324 against CASTNET is overpredicted (with the NSD larger than 1), while it is
325 underpredicted against METAR. Because of the post-processing smearing of hourly
326 precipitation, the variance of predicted precipitation is smaller than the observed one,
327 leading to very small NSDs for precipitation. The location of the T2 and RH2 points near
328 the REF marker in the Taylor diagram indicates that the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 is
329 capturing the magnitude and variability of these variables well.

330

331 3.2 Overall performance of chemical forecast over the CONUS

332 Performance of chemical forecasts (i.e. O_3 and $PM_{2.5}$) are evaluated on monthly,
333 seasonal, and annual timescales for the studied period of 2019. Performance of the
334 MDA8 O_3 and the 24-h average $PM_{2.5}$ (24-h avg $PM_{2.5}$) are considered as the primary
335 objectives. Categorical performance evaluations for MDA8 O_3 and 24-h avg $PM_{2.5}$ are
336 also conducted. Table 3 shows the discrete statistics of predicted MDA8 O_3 and 24-h avg
337 $PM_{2.5}$ against AIRNow.

338 The GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 has good performance for MDA8 O₃ on a seasonal
339 and annual basis with MBs $\leq \pm 1.0$ ppb, NMB ≤ 2.5 %, and NME ≤ 20 %. The monthly
340 NMBs/NMEs are within ± 15 %/25 %, respectively. Slight overpredictions and
341 underpredictions are found in both seasons with MB of 1.0 and -0.2 ppb, respectively.
342 The largest underprediction is found in spring months, especially in March.
343 Underprediction of MDA8 O₃ in spring months is consistent with the largest
344 underprediction of T2 in spring. It indicates biases in predicted T2 could be one of the
345 reasons for the corresponding biases in O₃ prediction. Predicted MDA8 O₃ is lower than
346 observed values in major parts of the Midwest and West regions during the O₃ season
347 (Fig. 2), which is consistent with underprediction of T2 in summer. But
348 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 gives very high O₃ in the southeastern U.S., especially in areas
349 near the Gulf Coast. Such overpredictions compensate for moderate underpredictions in
350 Midwest and West, causing an overall overprediction in overall CONUS. In the non-O₃
351 season, GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 can forecast well the spatial variations of MDA8 O₃ with
352 overall underpredictions in the Northeast.

353 Unlike the good performance for O₃, GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 gives significant
354 overpredictions for 24-h avg PM_{2.5} with annual MB, NMB, and NME of 2.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
355 29.0%, and 65.3%, respectively (Table 3). The MBs and NMBs range from -0.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to
356 5.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and -2.6 % to 59.7 % across the four seasons. With the exception of
357 California and the Southeast, predicted 24-h avg PM_{2.5} shows overprediction during most

358 of the year in spring, autumn, and winter (Fig. 3). Moderate underpredictions of $PM_{2.5}$ are
359 found in California during spring, autumn, and summer, and are found in the Southeast
360 during summer. Using the historical emission inventories from NEI 2005 and NEI 2014
361 instead of the latest version of NEI 2017 is one of the reasons for the overpredictions of
362 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in 2019. The significant overprediction mainly occur in the northern
363 regions during cooler months, indicating it is underlying with systematical biases. The
364 annual emission of primary $PM_{2.5}$ and coarse mode PM (PMC) are shown in Fig. S5. As
365 an important surrogate for the fugitive dust, the spatial distribution of large PMC
366 emission is associated with the regions which have the significant overprediction in
367 cooler months. In reality, the meteorological conditions could largely impact the amount
368 and characteristics of anthropogenic fugitive dust. For example, the snow cover and the
369 soil moisture are important factors in calculating the dust emissions in SMOKE. However,
370 the anthropogenic fugitive dust implemented in this GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system was
371 not adjusted by the precipitation and snow cover. It will lead to a significant
372 overestimation in the anthropogenic dust emission. The impact of the meteorological
373 factor on anthropogenic fugitive dust emission and the $PM_{2.5}$ prediction will be further
374 discussed in discussion section 4.

375 Murphy et al. (2017) found that secondary organic aerosols (SOA) generated from
376 anthropogenic combustion emissions were important missing PM sources in California
377 prior to CMAQ v5.2. The largest underpredictions of $PM_{2.5}$ occur in the Southeast in

378 summer. Biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) and biogenic SOA (BSOA) are
379 most active in Southeast region in summer. Many missing sources and mechanisms for
380 SOA formation from BVOCs have been identified in recent years (Pye et al., 2013, 2015,
381 2017; Xu et al., 2018) and have resulted in significant improvements in predicting SOA
382 in the Southeast using CMAQ v5.1 through v5.3. Anthropogenic emissions and aerosol
383 inorganic compounds were found to have impacts on BSOA (Carlton et al., 2018; Pye et
384 al., 2018, 2019). Such interactions and mechanisms are not represented sufficiently in
385 CMAQ v5.0.2, further enhancing the biases in predicted $PM_{2.5}$ in the Southeast.
386 Evaluation of predicted AOD against observations from MODIS is shown in Fig. 4. High
387 predicted AOD in the Midwest during cooler months show consistency with MODIS and
388 correspond to high surface $PM_{2.5}$ predictions. High predicted AOD are missing in
389 California, corresponding to underprediction of surface $PM_{2.5}$ in California. In summer
390 months, AOD is largely underpredicted in California and the Southeast, which may be
391 caused by the previously mentioned missing sources of SOA.

392

393 3.3 Categorical Evaluation

394 Categorical evaluation is conducted to quantify the accuracy of the
395 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system in predicting events in which the air pollutants exceed
396 moderate or unhealthy categories for the U.S. air quality index (AQI) (www.airnow.gov).
397 The scatter plots for predicted and observed MDA8 O_3 and 24-h avg $PM_{2.5}$ are shown in

398 Fig. 5a and Fig. 5b, respectively. Numbers of the scatters in the four areas (a) to (d) are
399 indicated in the Eqs. (1) and (2) in section 2.2. The higher the FAR is, the more
400 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 overpredicts the AQI leading to false air quality warnings. The
401 higher the H is, exceedances are more successfully captured by the
402 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system. In this study, the thresholds for two categories of
403 “Moderate” and “Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups” are considered. Since 2018, they are
404 defined as 55 ppb and 70 ppb for MDA8 O₃ and 12 μg m⁻³ and 35.5 μg m⁻³ for 24-h avg
405 PM_{2.5}. For comparison with previous studies, the historical thresholds are also included
406 into the evaluation: 60 ppb and 75 ppb for MDA8 O₃ and 15 μg m⁻³ and 35 μg m⁻³ for
407 24-h avg PM_{2.5}. The metrics in four categories, corresponding to four thresholds, are
408 shown in Fig. 5c. Categorical performance under stricter AQI standards is better than
409 under historical standards. For example, the FAR decreases from 48.4 % to 41.4 %, and
410 the H increases from 42.7 % to 45.8 % with the “Moderate” thresholds change from 60
411 ppb to 55 ppb. It could be due to the better performance of the forecast system for values
412 closer to the annual average level (~40 ppb). The scatters are more discrete for extreme
413 values. When the thresholds of MDA8 O₃ are closer to the average level, the categorical
414 performance increases. Similar improvement in the FAR and H for predicting categorical
415 24-h avg PM_{2.5} can be found when the threshold changes from 15 μg m⁻³ to 12 μg m⁻³:
416 the FAR decreases from 80.1 % to 70.3 %, and the H increases from 52.8 % to 57.6 %.
417 However, the FAR is high (over 90%) and the H is much lower under the threshold of

418 35.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. It is because most of the false alarms occur when observed 24-h avg $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
419 are lower than 20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and the predicted values are higher than 20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. It shows the
420 poorer performance in correctly capturing the category of “Unhealthy for Sensitive
421 Groups” due to the significant overprediction of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in cooler months.

422 Major RT-AQF systems over the world were comprehensively reviewed in
423 (Zhang et al., 2012a, 2012b). Here we include a comparison with the more recent air
424 quality forecasting studies The overview of assessment studies of the other air quality
425 forecasting studies from Canada (Moran et al., 2018; Russell et al., 2019), Europe
426 (Struzewska et al., 2016; D’Allura et al., 2018; Podrascanin, 2019; Stortini et al., 2020),
427 East Asia (Lyu et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2017; Peng et al., 2018; Ha et al., 2020), and
428 CONUS (Kang et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2017). Table S3 summarizes
429 air quality forecasting skills reported in the literature along with that from this work. For
430 those studies with data assimilation in air quality forecasting, the performance from the
431 raw results without data assimilation are presented. The performance in predicting O_3 and
432 PM vary largely between model systems. The discrete and categorical performance in O_3
433 prediction is not significantly better than that in PM prediction. O_3 tends to be slightly
434 overpredicted in an annual base or for the warmer months. The annual NMB and Corr for
435 O_3 over the North America are 1.4% and 0.76 for 2010 in Moran et al. (2018), while they
436 are 1.0% and 0.73 in this study. However, the performance in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ prediction varies
437 largely from our study. The $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ for warmer months were moderately overpredicted in

438 Russel et al. (2019), with the MBs ranging from 3.2 to 5.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The categorical
439 performance of GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 in predicting MDA8 O₃ is similar with that of the
440 previous NAQFC (Kang et al., 2010), in which the FAR and H are ~68 % and ~31% for
441 “Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups”, and the H is ~47% for “Moderate” category,
442 respectively. The H for PM_{2.5} also decreased largely from ~46% for “Moderate” to ~21%
443 for “Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups” category, and the FAR was over 90% for the
444 “Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups” category in Kang et al. (2010). The overpredicted
445 PM_{2.5} was also found when using the historical 2005 NEI in forecast for Jan 2015 (Lee et
446 al., 2017). The performance was improved by updates of 2011 NEI and real-time dust and
447 wild fire emissions. It indicates the needs of improving our emission inventory. As for the
448 categorical performance in regions other than CONUS, the air quality standards vary
449 (Oliveri Conti et al., 2017). For example, National Ambient Air Quality Standards
450 (NAAQSs), the Ambient Air Quality and Cleaner Air for Europe (CAFE) Directive
451 (2008/50/EC), and the national ambient air quality standard (GB 3095-2012) are set up
452 by U.S., Europe, and China, respectively. Metrics also vary between studies. The primary
453 forecasting products are O₃ and PM₁₀ from some forecasting systems instead of O₃ and
454 PM_{2.5} in this study. The threshold for categorical evaluation of O₃ used in D’Allura et al
455 (2018) was 83.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The applied metrics of the False Alarm Ratio and Probability of
456 Detection (POD) were defined the same as the FAR and H used in our study. The FAR
457 and POD were 36.14% and 71.16%, respectively. The categorical evaluation of PM_{2.5} in

458 Ha et al. (2020) was applied for four categories: (1) 0-15 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, (2) 16-50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, (3)
459 51-100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and (4) >100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The overall FAR and Detection Rate for four
460 categories are 59.0% and 36.1%, respectively. Although the metrics of FAR and
461 Detection Rate were defined for four categories, rather than every single category as for
462 this study, the categorical performance is comparable with our results. In general, the
463 discrete and categorical performance of O_3 forecast in this study is comparable that of the
464 air quality forecasting systems in many regions of the world. However, the PM forecasts
465 vary largely between studies. While our GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system shows consistent
466 performance with the systems covering CONUS, the high FAR and low H for “Unhealthy
467 for Sensitive Groups” category with higher thresholds indicate that the categorical
468 performance could be further improved by addressing the significant overprediction
469 during cooler months in this study.

470

471 3.4 Region-specific evaluation

472 As discussed in section 3.2, biases in predicted O_3 and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ vary from region to
473 region. To further analyze the region-specific performance of the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2
474 system, evaluation for 10 regions within CONUS is conducted. By identifying the
475 detailed characteristics of region-specific biases and indicating the underlying causes for
476 such biases, this section aims to help the NAQFC to improve its forecast ability for
477 specific regions.

478 Figure 6 shows the annual model performance for MDA8 O₃ and 24-h avg PM_{2.5}
479 in the 10 CONUS regions. In section 3.2, a slight underprediction of MDA8 O₃ on annual
480 basis was found over the CONUS. MDA8 O₃ is underpredicted in most of the regions
481 except regions 2, 4, and 6 (Fig. 6a). The overpredictions in regions 4 and 6 are mostly
482 from the large biases near the coast area during O₃ season. Correlations between
483 predictions and observations in most of the regions are higher than 0.6, except for 0.55 in
484 region 4 and 0.50 in region 7. Poor performance in regions 4 and 7 is illustrated by the
485 Taylor Diagram (Fig. 6b). Small Corr and NSD, result in the markers of regions 4 and 7
486 laying farthest from the reference point. The amplitude of variability of the predicted
487 MDA8 O₃ are smaller than observed values in all the regions, especially in regions 4 and
488 7. The performance in region 2 is the best, with smallest MB/NMB, highest Corr, and
489 similar variability in predictions and observations. The time series of the MDA8 O₃ for
490 the 10 regions during 2019 is shown in Fig. S6. Regions 1, 2, 4, and 6 show different
491 results for the O₃ season and non-O₃ season: GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 tends to overpredict
492 MDA8 O₃ during the O₃ season and underpredicts during the non-O₃ season. The
493 underprediction during spring months, which is indicated in section 3.2, can be also
494 found in most of the regions with obvious gaps between observed and predicted curves in
495 March and April. The lowest O₃ predictions occur at 5 am local standard time (LST) in
496 most of the regions (Fig. S7). For regions 4 and 6, significant overprediction occurs not
497 only during the O₃ season for MDA8 O₃ (which mainly occurs during the daytime) but

498 also during the nighttime. During the non-O₃ season, the biases in predicting MDA8 O₃
499 for regions 4 and 6 are small and consistent with good daytime predictions. However, O₃
500 is still overpredicted during the nighttime in these regions, associated with the collapse of
501 the boundary layer and difficulty in simulating its time and magnitude (Hu et al., 2013;
502 Cuchiara et al., 2014; Pleim et al., 2016).

503 Consistent with the analysis in section 3.2, PM_{2.5} is significantly overpredicted in
504 most of the regions except in regions 4, 6, and 9 (Fig. 6c). The underprediction during
505 warmer months, likely due to missing sources and mechanisms for BSOA, compensate
506 for the annual biases in regions 4 and 6, leading to smaller MBs/NMBs but low
507 correlations in these regions. The variability in predictions is much larger than in
508 observations, with the NSDs >1 for all regions (Fig. 6d). The forecast system has best
509 performance in region 9 with an NSD of 1.2, an NMB of -12.0 %, and a Corr of 0.40.
510 Figure S8 shows the time series of 24-h avg PM_{2.5} in the 10 CONUS regions. The gaps
511 between observed and predicted curves are large in cooler months, but the
512 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system has relatively good performance in warmer months for
513 most of the regions. Less overprediction is found in regions 6 and 9 during cooler months,
514 and those regions generally show the best performance (see Taylor Diagram). The
515 different biases across the regions further indicate that multiple factors likely contribute
516 to them.

517

518 4. Discussion

519 4.1 Meteorology-chemistry relationships

520 We further quantify the meteorology-chemistry relationships by conducting the
521 region-specific evaluation of the meteorological variables. The regional performance for
522 the major variables is shown in Fig. S9. The regional biases in T2 predictions show high
523 correlation with the regional biases in MDA8 O₃. It indicates that the cold biases in the
524 Midwest (including region 5) and the warm biases near the Gulf coast (including regions
525 of 4 and 6) are important factors for the O₃ underprediction and overprediction in those
526 regions, respectively. The O₃-temperature relationship was found (S. Sillman and Samson,
527 1995; Sillman, 1999). O₃ is expected to increase with increasing temperature within
528 specific range of temperature (Bloomer et al., 2009; Shen et al., 2016). The surface
529 MDA8 O₃-temperature relationship was found at approximately 3-6 ppb K⁻¹ in the
530 eastern US (Rasmussen et al., 2012). According to such relationships, the biases in T2
531 predictions could explain large portion of the O₃ biases. Heavy convective precipitation
532 and tropical cyclones have large impact in the southeastern US, which covers mainly
533 regions 4 and 6. Therefore, the performance in precipitation predictions is lower in those
534 two regions comparing to other regions as we discussed the model performance in
535 capturing short-term heavy rains during summer seasons in section 3.1. Meanwhile, the
536 performance in wind predictions in regions 4 and 6 is relatively poor. Such performance
537 in the meteorological predictions is consistent with the mixed performance in PM_{2.5}

538 prediction in regions 4 and 6. The between simulated and observed meteorological
539 variables, mainly in precipitations and wind, can be attributed to the poor temporal
540 agreement shown as correlations of predicted PM_{2.5} in those two regions.

541

542 4.2 Major biases in O₃ predictions

543 Prediction and simulation of O₃ in coastal or marine areas are impacted by
544 halogens chemistry and emissions (Adams and Cox, 2002; Sarwar et al., 2012; Liu et al.,
545 2018), including bromine and iodine chemistry (Foster et al., 2001; Sarwar et al., 2015;
546 Yang et al., 2020) and oceanic halogen emissions (Watanabe, 2005; Tegtmeier et al.,
547 2015; He et al., 2016). CMAQ v5.0.2 has only simple chlorine chemistry for CB05
548 mechanisms, and the reduction of O₃ by reaction with bromine and iodine is not included
549 in CMAQ v5.0.2. Iodide-mediated O₃ deposition over seawater and detailed marine
550 halogen chemistry has been found to reduce O₃ by 1-4 ppb near the coast (Gantt et al.,
551 2017), suggesting the missing halogen chemistry and O₃ deposition processes contribute
552 to overpredicted O₃ in coastal and marine areas seen here. Coastal and marine areas are
553 also impacted by air-sea interaction processes, which are simply represented in the
554 current meteorological models without coupling oceanic models (He et al., 2018; Zhang
555 et al., 2019c,d). For example, coastal O₃ mixing ratios are impacted by predicted sea
556 surface temperatures and land-sea breezes through their influence on chemical reaction
557 conditions and diffusion processes. As discussed in Section 3.1 and 4.1, the

558 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system has poorer performance in predicting the meteorological
559 variables in regions of 4 and 6, which could contribute to biases in O₃ predictions directly
560 or indicate missing land-sea breezes and thus missing transport effects in the
561 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 air quality forecasting system.

562 In addition to the impact of meteorological biases and missing halogen chemistry
563 on the O₃ overprediction near Gulf coast, the overestimated VOC emission could enhance
564 the O₃ biases. The anthropogenic VOCs emissions continuously decrease from historical
565 NEIs to 2016 NEI
566 (<http://views.cira.colostate.edu/wiki/wiki/10202/inventory-collaborative-2016v1-emissions-modeling-platform>). We compare the VOCs emissions between 2016 NEI and the
567 emissions used in this study. The difference in the elevated source of pt_oilgas are shown
568 in Fig. S10. The Gulf coast is impacted by the oil and gas sector due to the oil and gas
569 fields, and the exploration activity near it. By comparing the newer NEI to the current
570 NEI we used in the system, we found that the overestimation of the VOCs could be one
571 aspect to the O₃ overprediction near the Gulf Coast. Because we only project the SO₂ and
572 NO_x from 2005 NEI to 2019 but we do not project the VOCs for the elevated sources.
573 The monthly VOCs emissions from pt_oilgas sector for July in regions 4 and 6 are
574 2876.0 tons month⁻¹, while they are 2497.0 tons month⁻¹ in 2016 NEI. The reduction
575 mainly locates along the coastline, where the significant overprediction takes place. It
576

577 indicates the complicated effect of meteorological biases, missing gas-phase chemistry,
578 and the overestimation of emissions on the O₃ prediction in these regions.

579 The O₃ concentration is underpredicted for the Northeast, Mid-Atlantic, Midwest,
580 Mountainous states, and the Northwest (mainly corresponding to the regions 1, 3, 5, 8,
581 and 9) during non-O₃ season. Large difference in dry deposition algorithms between
582 CMAQ v5.0.2 and other common parameterizations was reported (Park et al., 2014; Wu
583 et al., 2018). Large discrepancy between modeled dry deposition velocity of O₃ by
584 CMAQ v5.0.2 and the observation during winter was shown and attributed to the
585 deposition to snow surface. Improvement was indicated in revising the treatment of
586 deposition to snow, vegetation, and bare ground in CMAQ v5.0.2. Lower deposition to
587 snow was found to improve the consistency between the O₃ deposition modeled by
588 CMAQ v5.0.2 and the observations. Therefore, the dry deposition module in v5.0.2 needs
589 to be updated and improved for more accurate representation of low-moderate O₃ mixing
590 ratios (Appel et al., 2020). For the cases in this study, the predicted snow cover for the
591 months of Jan and Apr in winter and spring are shown in Fig. 7a and 7b. The
592 underpredicted O₃ during non-O₃ season may be caused by the overestimated O₃
593 deposition to snow in the northern regions, corresponding to the previous regions 1, 3, 5,
594 8, and 9. The mixed effects of the temperature-O₃ relationship discussed above and the
595 large deposition to snow contribute to the moderate O₃ underpredictions.

596

597 4.3 Major biases in PM_{2.5} predictions

598 Major biases in PM_{2.5} prediction are distinguished for warmer and cooler months
599 in section 3. To further analyze the underlying causes for varied patterns and performance
600 on season- and region-specific basis, diurnal evaluations for PM_{2.5} and chemical
601 components of PM_{2.5} during O₃ season and non-O₃ season are shown in Fig. 8. The
602 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 has a large seasonal variation in diurnal PM_{2.5}, inconsistent with
603 the observation. While PM_{2.5} is underpredicted during daytime in regions 4, 6, 8, and 9
604 during O₃ season, PM_{2.5} is always overpredicted across the day during non-O₃ season
605 except for region 9. Increased OC, particulate nitrates, soil and unspecified coarse mode
606 components contribute to most of the increase in predicted total PM_{2.5}. The general cold
607 biases over CONUS, especially in region 5, could make the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2
608 system predict higher nitrate particulates, leading to larger increase in PM_{2.5} from O₃
609 season to non-O₃ season. Emissions vary from month to month in the year (Fig. S11a).
610 Larger emissions for NH₃, NO_x, VOC, primary coarse PM, and primary PM_{2.5} are in O₃
611 season compared to non-O₃ season. Primary organic carbons (POC) emissions are higher
612 in O₃ season. Changes in emissions are not fully consistent with the changes in PM_{2.5}
613 components, indicating other biases or uncertainty could also contribute to the significant
614 overprediction during non-O₃ season. For example, the implementation of bidirectional
615 flux of NH₃ and the boundary layer mixing processes under more stable condition (during
616 non-O₃ season) in GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system need to be further studied. Pleim et al.,

617 (2013, 2019) found that the NH_3 fluxes and concentrations could be better simulated and
618 the monthly variations of NH_3 concentrations were larger comparing to the raw model by
619 implementing the bidirectional flux of NH_3 . The absolute biases for diurnal $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are
620 generally larger during nighttime in most of the regions, except for region 9. It is
621 consistent with the analysis by Appel et al. (2013), which suggested that the efforts of
622 improving nighttime mixing in CMAQ v5.0 be further needed, further indicating the need
623 for improvements of CMAQ in predicting dispersion and mixing of air pollutants under
624 stable boundary layer conditions. The forecast system gives the highest PM predictions at
625 two peaks during the day: 6 am and 7 pm in O_3 season and 7 am and 8 pm in non- O_3
626 season at LST, respectively corresponding to the shifting between daylight saving time
627 and LST. The two diurnal peaks are caused by the diurnal pattern of emissions (Fig.
628 S11b). PM are mostly emitted during the daytime of 6 am to 6 pm. With the development
629 of boundary layer during the daytime, surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations will be reduced by
630 the diffusion. During the dawn and dusk, the boundary layer transits between stable and
631 well mixed conditions. The increased emission and secondary production of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ will be
632 accumulated within the boundary layer, causing the high peaks during dawn and dusk.

633 The variation in predicted $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ composition between cooler and warmer months
634 indicates that major seasonal biases are caused by multiple factors. We introduce the
635 AQS dataset for evaluation of daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ composition to provide additional insight into
636 the specific reasons. Figure 9 shows the biases of the key $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ composition for the

637 cooler month of Jan and warmer month of Jul. While the overall mean biases of PM_{2.5}
638 composition, including elemental carbon (EC), ammonium (NH₄⁺), and nitrate (NO₃⁻) are
639 within ±0.5 µg m⁻³ for all months of the year, the major biases in PM_{2.5} predictions are
640 mostly contributed by organic carbon (OC), soil components (SOIL), and sulfate (SO₄²⁻).
641 The soil components are estimated using the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual
642 Environments (IMPROVE) equation and specific constituents (Appel et al., 2013).
643 During a cooler month, the significant overprediction in PM_{2.5} is mainly attributed to the
644 overprediction in OC and SOIL. During warmer months, the overprediction of SOIL and
645 sulfate compensate for the overall underprediction in OC in v5.0.2, leading to the
646 moderate PM_{2.5} underprediction in the Southeast but slight overprediction in the Midwest,
647 Mid-Atlantic, and the Northeast. These high PM_{2.5} SOIL concentrations are consistent in
648 spatial characteristics with large emissions of anthropogenic primary PM_{2.5}, and primary
649 coarse PM in the Midwest, Northeast, and the Northwest. The underprediction in PM_{2.5}
650 OC during summer compensate the overestimation in dust during cooler months,
651 resulting in the overall biases with an annual NMB of 30.0%.

652 The large emissions of anthropogenic primary coarse PM, as well as the
653 wind-blown dust are the major sources for predicted PM_{2.5} SOIL components. Appel et al.
654 (2013) indicated CMAQ overpredicted soil components in the eastern United States
655 partially due to the anthropogenic fugitive dust and wind-blown dust emissions. The
656 overprediction in PM_{2.5} soil compositions by our forecast system could be mainly

657 attributed to the overestimation of the anthropogenic fugitive dust emission because the
658 meteorological conditions were not included in processing the anthropogenic fugitive
659 dust sector. The dust-related components of aluminum, calcium, iron, titanium, silicon,
660 and coarse mode particles are overestimated in the regions with snow and precipitation,
661 especially during winter, early spring, and late autumn with snow cover in the north,
662 which contributes to the PM_{2.5} overprediction, with more significant temporal-spatial
663 pattern in the north U.S. during cooler months.

664 An adjustment of precipitation and snow cover for fugitive dust was implemented
665 in the operational NAQFC. The dust-related PM emissions will be clean up using a factor
666 of 0.01 when the snow cover is higher than 25% or the hourly precipitation is higher than
667 0.1 mm hr⁻¹ before they are used as input for CMAQ v5.0.2 forecast. We conduct a
668 sensitivity simulation for Jan 2019 using the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system with the
669 adjustment implemented in the operational NAQFC. Figure 7c shows the PM_{2.5}
670 overprediction in the northern regions 1, 2, 5, and 10 during Jan is largely improved
671 corresponding to the spatial-temporal characteristics of snow cover. The monthly MB and
672 NMB for Jan improves from 5.5 μg m⁻³ and 66.9% to 2.1 μg m⁻³ and 24.0%, respectively.
673 The improvement is mainly attributed to the decrease in overpredictions in PM_{2.5} soil
674 components, with MBs decreased from 3.3 μg m⁻³ to 1.2 μg m⁻³ for Jan (Fig. 7d). The
675 overprediction in the Northeast and Northwest during spring is expected to be improved
676 by the suppression of the fugitive dust by the snow during early spring. This indicates the

677 importance of including the meteorological forecast in processing the emission of
678 anthropogenic fugitive dust. It should be calculated inline or be adjusted by the
679 meteorological forecast.

680 In CMAQ v5.0.2, the primary organic aerosol (POA) is processed as non-volatile.
681 The emissions of semivolatile and intermediate volatility organic compounds (S/IVOCs)
682 and their contributions to the secondary organic aerosol (SOA) are not accounted for in
683 the aerosol module. In the recent versions of CMAQ, two approaches linked to POA
684 sources have been implemented. One introduces semi-volatile partitioning and gas-phase
685 oxidation of POA emissions. The other one (called pcSOA) accounts for multiple missing
686 sources of anthropogenic SOA formation, including potential missing oxidation pathways
687 and emissions of IVOCs. These two improvements lead to increased organic carbon
688 concentration in summer but decreased level in winter. The changes vary by season as a
689 result of differences in volatility (as dictated by temperature and boundary layer height)
690 and reaction rate between winter and summer. Therefore, the missing S/IVOCs and
691 related SOA chemistry in v5.0.2 are key reasons for the OC overprediction and
692 underprediction during cooler and warmer months, respectively.

693

694 **5. Conclusion**

695 In this work, the air quality forecast for the year 2019 predicted by the
696 offline-coupled GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system is comprehensively evaluated. The
697 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system is found to perform well in predicting surface
698 meteorological variables (temperature, relative humidity, and wind) and O₃ but has mixed
699 performance for PM_{2.5}. Moderate cold biases and wet biases are found in spring season,
700 especially in March. While the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system can generally capture the
701 monthly accumulated precipitation compared to remote sensing and ensemble datasets,
702 temporal distributions of hourly precipitation show less consistency with in-situ
703 monitoring data.

704 MDA8 O₃ is slightly overpredicted and underpredicted in ozone and non-O₃
705 seasons, respectively. The significant overprediction near the Gulf Coast is associated
706 with the missing halogen chemistry, overestimated emission of precursors, and the poorer
707 performance in meteorological performance, which could be attributed to the missing of
708 model representation of the air-sea interaction processes. It compensates for
709 underprediction in the West and Midwest in O₃ season for nation-wide metrics. A slight
710 underprediction is found during non-O₃ season, indicating the impact of cold biases of T2
711 and the overestimated dry deposition to the snow surface. GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 has
712 poorer performance in predicting PM_{2.5}, comparing to the performance for O₃. Significant
713 overpredictions are found in cooler months, especially in winter. The largest
714 overprediction is shown in the Midwest, the states of Washington, and Oregon, due

715 mainly to high concentrations of predicted fine fugitive, coarse mode, and OC
716 compositions. The lacking suppression of snow cover on anthropogenic fugitive dust
717 emission and the non-volatile approach for POA emission contribute major portion of the
718 overprediction in winter. Meanwhile, the forecasting system may be improved through
719 updating the emissions inventory used (i.e., NEI 2014) to NEI 2016v2 or NEI 2017 which
720 are more presentative to the year of 2019 in the next development of next-generation
721 NAQFC.

722 Categorical evaluation indicates that the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 can capture well
723 the air quality classification of “Moderate” described by the AQI. However, the
724 categorical performance is poorer for PM_{2.5} at the “unhealthy for sensitive groups”
725 threshold due mainly to the significant overprediction during the cooler months.
726 Region-specific evaluation further discusses the biases and underlying causes in the 10
727 USEPA defined regions in CONUS. An update from CMAQ v5.0.2 to v5.3.1 is expected
728 to alleviate potential errors in missing sources and mechanisms for SOA formation. The
729 variations of performance in between O₃ and non-O₃ seasons, as well as during the
730 daytime and nighttime, indicate further studies need to be conducted to improve boundary
731 layer mixing processes within GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2. The varied region-specific
732 performance indicates that improvements, such as bias corrections, should be considered
733 individually from region to region in the following development of the next generation
734 NAQFC.

735 We have used bias analyses in this work to identify several areas of weakness in
736 GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system for further improvement and development of
737 next-generation NAQFC. The ability of FV3-based GFS in driving the real-time air
738 quality forecasting is demonstrated. Further studies are still needed for improving the
739 accuracy in meteorological forecast, the emissions, the aerosol chemistry, and the
740 boundary layer mixing for the future GFS-FV3-CMAQ system.

741

742 **Supplement**

743 The supplement related to this article is available in
744 [gmd-2020-272_supplement.pdf](#)

745

746 **Code and data availability**

747 The documentation and source code of CMAQ v5.0.2 are available at
748 [doi:10.5281/zenodo.1079898](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1079898). The GFS forecasts in grib2 format are available at
749 <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/data-access/model-data/model-datasets/global-forecast-system>
750 [-gfs](#). The GFS forecast inputs in binary (NEMSIO) format and the coupler used in this
751 study for the GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system are available upon request. The AIRNow
752 data is available for download through the AirNow-Tech website
753 (<http://www.airnowtech.org>). The CASTNET data is available for download from

754 <https://java.epa.gov/castnet/clearsession.do>. The METAR data is available for download
755 from <https://madis.ncep.noaa.gov>. The GPCP data is available through NOAA website
756 (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/data/global-precipitation-climatology-project-gpcp-monthly>).
757 The CCPA precipitation is available from
758 <https://www.nco.ncep.noaa.gov/pmb/products/gens>. The MODIS_MOD04 dataset is
759 available at dx.doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MOD04_L2.006. The data processing and
760 analysis scripts are available upon request.

761

762 **Author contribution**

763 YZ and DT defined the scope and focus of the manuscript and designed the model
764 simulations. XC and YZ developed the paper outline and structure. PL, JH, YT, and JM
765 performed the forecast simulations. YT generated the emissions and PC generated the
766 lateral boundary conditions for the model simulations. XC performed the model
767 evaluation and drafted the manuscript. XC and KW developed postprocessing and
768 statistical scripts. HP, BM, and DK assisted in analysis of region-specific biases. YZ, HP,
769 DK, BM, JH, PC, PL, DT, and KW reviewed the manuscript.

770

771 **Competing interests**

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

773

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781

782 **Disclaimer**

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Tables and Figures

Table 1. Configuration of GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 system

Attribute	Model Configuration
Forecast period	Jan.-Dec., 2019
Domain	Continental U.S.
Resolution	Horizontal: 12 km (442×265); Vertical: 35 layers
Physical Options	
Shortwave/longwave radiation	The Rapid Radiative Transfer Method for GCMs
Planetary boundary layer (PBL)	Hybrid eddy-diffusivity mass-flux (EDMF) PBL
Land surface	Noah Land Surface Model (LSM)
Microphysics	A more advanced GFDL microphysics scheme
Cumulus	The Simplified Arakawa-Schubert (SAS) deep convection
Chemical Options	
Photolysis	In-line method (Binkowski et al., 2007)
Gas-phase chemistry	The Carbon Bond mechanism version 5 with active chlorine chemistry and updated toluene mechanism (CB05tucl) (Yarwood et al., 2005; Sarwar et al., 2012)
Aqueous-phase chemistry	AQCHEM (Sarwar et al., 2011)
Aerosol module	AERO6 with nonvolatile POA (Carlton et al., 2010; Simon et al., 2012; Appel et al., 2013)

Table 2. Performance statistics of meteorological forecasts

Datasets		CASTNET							METAR						
Variable	Period	Mean Obs.	Mean Sim.	MB	RMSE	NMB, NME, %		Corr	Mean Obs.	Mean Sim.	MB	RMSE	NMB, NME, %		Corr
T2, °C	DJF	-0.1	-0.5	-0.4	2.6	-588	-2850	0.96	2.7	2.6	-0.1	2.5	-3.1	69.3	0.97
	MAM	9.9	9.4	-0.5	2.4	-5.2	18.2	0.97	12.3	11.9	-0.4	2.3	-3.0	14.0	0.97
	JJA	21.5	21.4	-0.2	2.4	-0.8	8.6	0.93	23.4	23.1	-0.3	2.3	-1.2	7.5	0.93
	SON	11.5	11.3	-0.2	2.6	-2.0	16.1	0.97	13.8	13.8	0.1	2.3	0.4	12.6	0.98
	Annual	10.9	10.6	-0.3	2.5	-3.0	17.0	0.98	13.2	13.0	-0.2	2.3	-1.3	13.1	0.98
RH2, %	DJF	69.1	71.9	2.8	14.3	4.0	15.1	0.74	74.1	74.4	0.4	13.3	0.5	13.4	0.76
	MAM	62.7	66.1	3.4	14.2	5.4	16.6	0.82	67.4	70.1	2.7	13.8	4.0	15.5	0.81
	JJA	55.0	53.3	-1.7	12.2	-3.2	16.4	0.89	67.0	67.3	0.3	13.1	0.5	14.8	0.84
	SON	59.0	57.6	-1.4	13.0	-2.4	16.1	0.87	68.7	67.0	-1.7	13.2	-2.5	14.5	0.83

WS10, m s ⁻¹	Annual	61.4	62.2	0.8	13.5	1.3	16.0	0.85	68.8	69.3	0.4	13.2	0.8	14.4	0.83
	DJF	2.5	3.0	0.5	2.0	18.7	56.7	0.59	3.3	3.7	0.4	2.0	10.8	43.5	0.71
	MAM	2.8	3.4	0.6	2.1	22.2	55.6	0.60	3.6	4.0	0.4	2.0	10.3	42.5	0.71
	JJA	2.4	3.0	0.6	1.9	24.5	60.9	0.51	2.8	3.3	0.5	1.9	17.0	52.6	0.62
	SON	2.6	3.1	0.5	2.0	20.4	58.6	0.57	4.0	4.1	0.2	1.8	4.2	33.1	0.69
WD10, degree	Annual	2.6	3.1	0.6	2.0	21.5	57.9	0.57	3.4	3.7	0.4	1.9	10.7	41.8	0.72
	DJF	187.2	189.4	2.2	69.4	1.2	26.4	0.81	158.0	164.3	6.4	60.7	4.0	25.5	0.90
	MAM	184.6	186.5	1.9	68.1	1.0	26.1	0.81	159.9	163.6	3.7	60.7	2.3	25.4	0.89
	JJA	186.7	188.8	2.1	73.0	1.1	28.5	0.77	146.8	147.8	1.0	69.9	0.7	33.9	0.86
	SON	181.8	183.9	2.1	71.3	1.1	28.1	0.79	190.9	196.6	5.7	42.1	3.0	14.5	0.92
Precip, mm hr ⁻¹	Annual	185.0	187.1	2.1	70.5	1.1	27.3	0.80	162.5	166.6	4.1	59.1	2.5	23.9	0.89
	DJF	1.0	0.6	-0.4	1.7	-42.5	86.1	0.26	1.3	0.7	-0.6	3.5	-44.4	77.4	0.15
	MAM	1.1	0.6	-0.6	2.0	-51.1	86.3	0.22	1.8	0.7	-1.0	7.5	-58.6	85.6	0.07
	JJA	2.2	0.5	-1.7	4.7	-77.8	93.9	0.11	2.6	0.7	-1.9	7.6	-74.5	91.6	0.04
	SON	1.3	0.6	-0.7	2.4	-54.4	86.2	0.24	1.8	0.8	-1.0	8.8	-56.4	83.8	0.07
Annual	1.3	0.6	-0.7	2.5	-55.4	87.9	0.18	1.8	0.7	-1.1	7.0	-59.1	85.0	0.07	

T2: temperature at 2-m; RH2: relative humidity at 2-m; WS10: wind speed at 10-m; WD10: wind direction

at 10-m; Precip: precipitation; DJF: winter; MAM: spring; JJA: summer; SON: autumn; MB: mean bias;

RMSE: root mean square error; NMB: normalized mean bias; NME: normalized mean error; Corr:

correlation coefficient; Obs.: Observation; Sim.: Prediction.

Table 3. Performance statistics of chemical variables against AIRNow dataset

Period	MDA8 O ₃ , ppb							24-h avg PM _{2.5} , µg m ⁻³							
	Mean Obs.	Mean Sim.	MB	RMSE	NMB,%	NME,%	Corr	Period	Mean Obs.	Mean Sim.	MB	RMSE	NMB,%	NME,%	Corr
Jan	32.1	32.0	-0.1	7.2	-0.4	17.2	0.58	Jan	8.2	13.8	5.5	11.5	66.9	92.3	0.35
Feb	36.4	35.5	-0.9	7.8	-2.5	16.7	0.58	Feb	7.9	12.5	4.6	10.0	58.0	81.5	0.53
Mar	44.9	40.4	-4.5	8.7	-10.0	15.8	0.56	Mar	7.8	11.0	3.2	9.2	41.2	69.0	0.40
Apr	46.4	43.1	-3.3	7.7	-7.1	13.3	0.62	Apr	6.3	8.0	1.7	6.3	27.9	61.6	0.33
May	44.1	42.7	-1.4	7.8	-3.3	13.9	0.67	May	6.7	6.9	0.2	4.7	3.3	49.3	0.26
Jun	45.7	43.9	-1.8	10.9	-4.0	18.3	0.59	Jun	7.1	6.8	-0.3	5.4	-4.2	47.1	0.22
Jul	44.3	46.6	2.3	9.5	5.2	16.6	0.72	Jul	8.4	8.5	0.1	11.8	1.0	59.8	0.28
Aug	43.7	46.9	3.2	9.4	7.3	16.4	0.74	Aug	7.2	6.9	-0.3	4.0	-4.7	40.2	0.33

Sept	42.5	45.6	3.1	8.0	7.2	14.4	0.79	Sept	7.0	7.6	0.6	4.7	8.5	44.2	0.48
Oct	37.0	40.4	3.4	7.8	9.3	15.8	0.80	Oct	6.6	9.6	3.0	9.0	44.7	73.2	0.36
Nov	34.2	35.9	1.8	7.6	5.2	16.5	0.72	Nov	8.9	13.2	4.2	9.8	47.2	72.1	0.48
Dec	31.7	33.5	1.8	7.8	5.6	18.6	0.68	Dec	8.8	13.9	5.1	10.8	57.9	82.5	0.51
O ₃ -seas on	44.1	45.1	1.0	9.2	2.5	16.0	0.69	DJF	8.3	13.4	5.1	10.8	61.0	85.5	0.46
Non								MAM	6.9	8.6	1.7	7.0	24.8	60.4	0.36
O ₃ -seas on	37.7	37.5	-0.2	7.8	-0.4	16.0	0.72	JJA	7.6	7.4	-0.2	7.8	-2.5	49.5	0.27
Annual	40.5	40.9	0.4	8.5	1.0	16.0	0.73	SON	7.5	10.1	2.6	8.1	34.4	63.8	0.46
								Annual	7.6	9.9	2.3	8.5	30.0	65.2	0.41

MDA8 O₃: maximum daily average 8-h ozone; 24-h avg PM_{2.5}: 24-hour average PM_{2.5}.

Figures

Figure 1. Taylor diagram with variance, Corr, and NMB for meteorological variables (T2, RH2, WS10, WD10, and Precip) against CASTNET and METAR dataset

Figure 2. Spatial distribution of forecasted MDA8, MB, and NMB during O₃ and winter season. Observation from AIRNow is shown as filled circles in the overlay plots of concentrations

Figure 3. Forecasted seasonal daily PM_{2.5} by GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 overlaid observations from AIRNow and MB against observations from AIRNow

Figure 4. Monthly AOD from MODIS (left), predicted AOD from GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 (middle), and predicted surface 24-h avg PM_{2.5} (right)

Figure 5. Categorical evaluation of MDA8 and 24-h avg PM_{2.5}

Figure 6. Annual performance of MDA8 in 10 CONUS regions (a); Taylor Diagram for annual performance of MDA8 (b); Annual performance of 24-h avg PM_{2.5} in 10 CONUS regions (c); Taylor Diagram for annual performance of 24-h avg PM_{2.5}. Outliers represent regions with NSDs >3.5 (d)

Figure 7. The predicted average snow cover for (a) Jan and (b) Apr. (c) The difference in NMBs by adjusting anthropogenic fugitive dust emission. Positive values stand for improvement in biases with NMBs closer to 0.

Figure 8. Diurnal PM_{2.5} in: (a) O₃ season for regions 1 to 5; (b) Non-O₃ season for regions 1 to 5; (c) O₃ season for regions 6 to 10; (d) Non-O₃ season for region 6 to 10. Solid curves are observed values and dash curves are predicted values. Average of predicted PM_{2.5} and components of PM_{2.5} within CONUS in: (e) O₃ season, and (f) Non-O₃ season

Figure 9. Mean biases in PM_{2.5} compositions: (a) OC for Jan, (b) OC for Jul, (c) SOIL for Jan, (d) SOIL for Jul, (e) sulfate for Jan, and (f) sulfate for Jul

Annual Performance of MET fields from GFSv15-CMAQv502

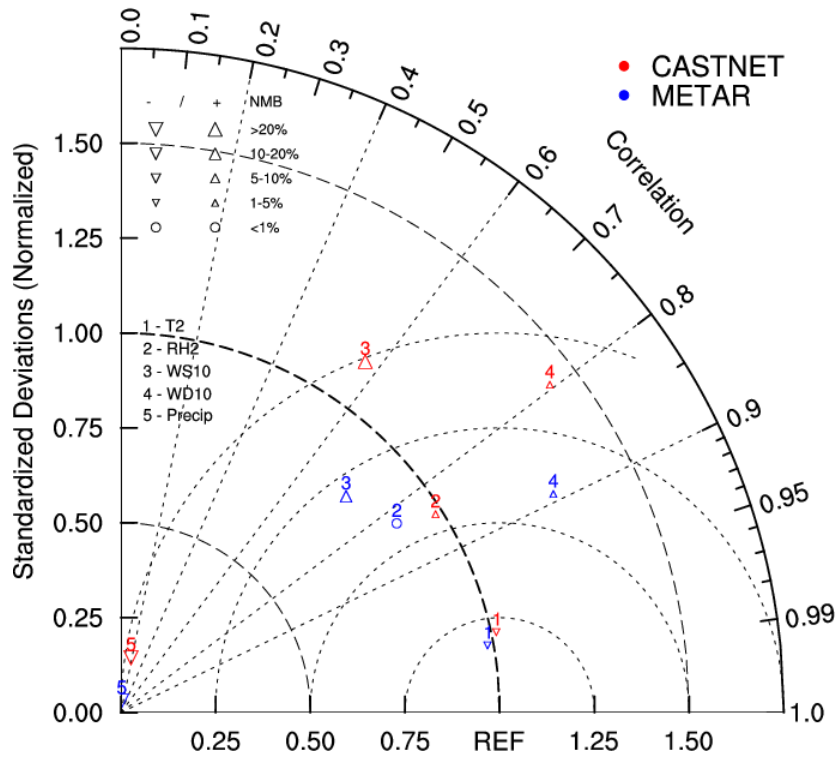


Figure 1. Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001) with Normalized Standardized Deviations (NSD), Corr, and NMB for meteorological variables (T2, RH2, WS10, WD10, and Precip) against CASTNET and METAR dataset. The REF marker at x-axis represents a referred perfect performance. The closer each variable is to the REF marker, the better performance the forecast system has for that variable

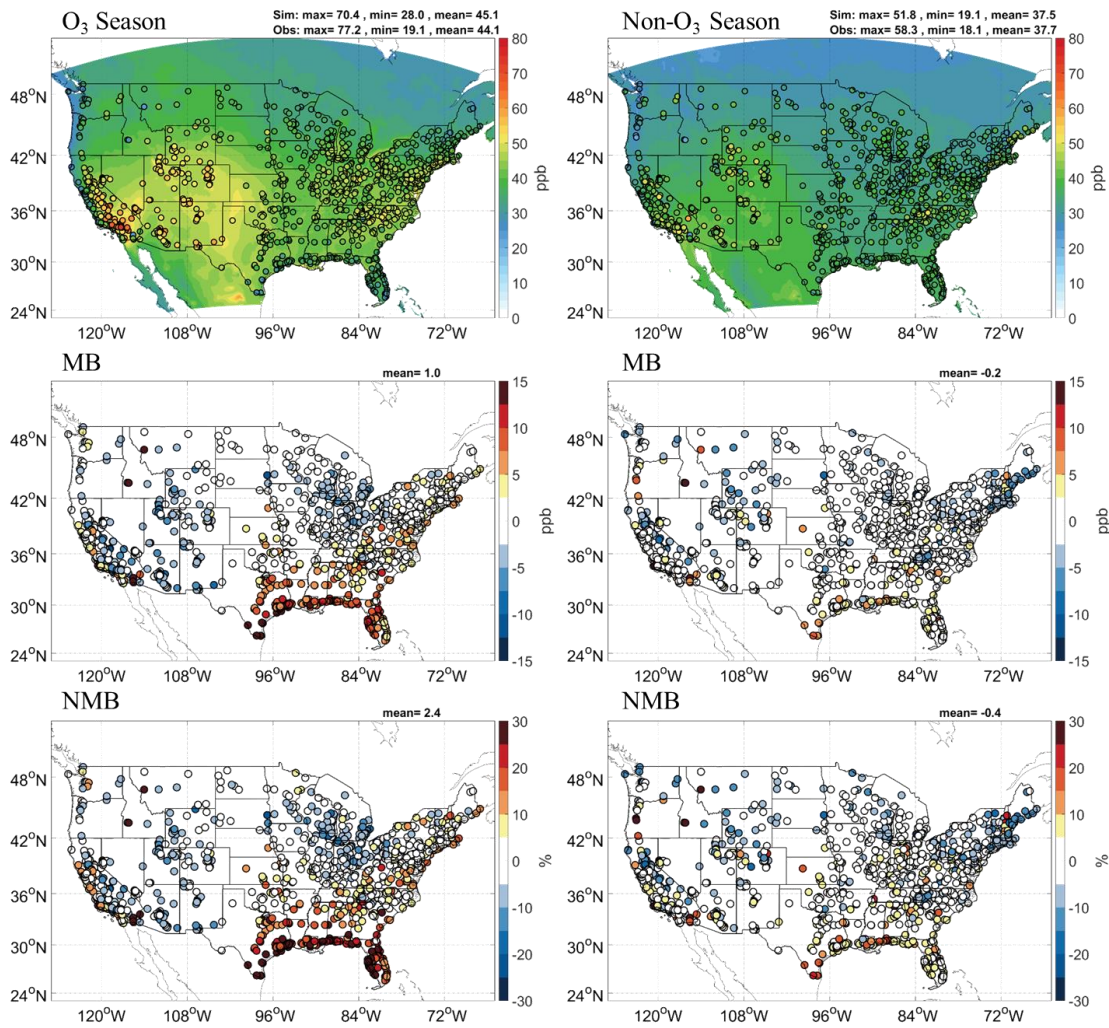


Figure 2. Spatial distribution of forecasted MDA8, MB, and NMB during O₃ and non-O₃ season. Observation from AIRNow is shown as filled circles in the overlay plots of concentrations

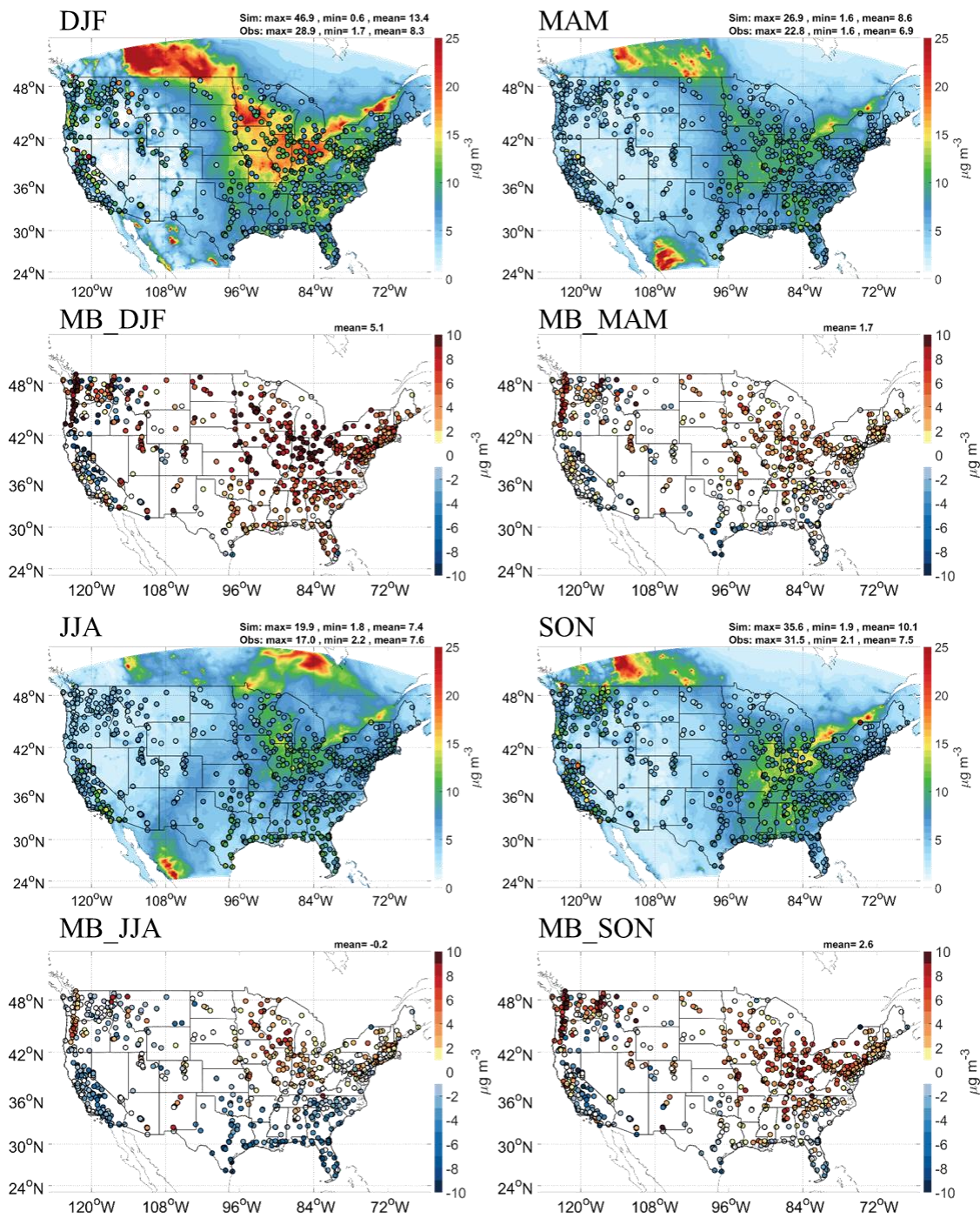


Figure 3. Forecasted seasonal daily PM_{2.5} by GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 overlaid observations from AIRNow and MB against observations from AIRNow

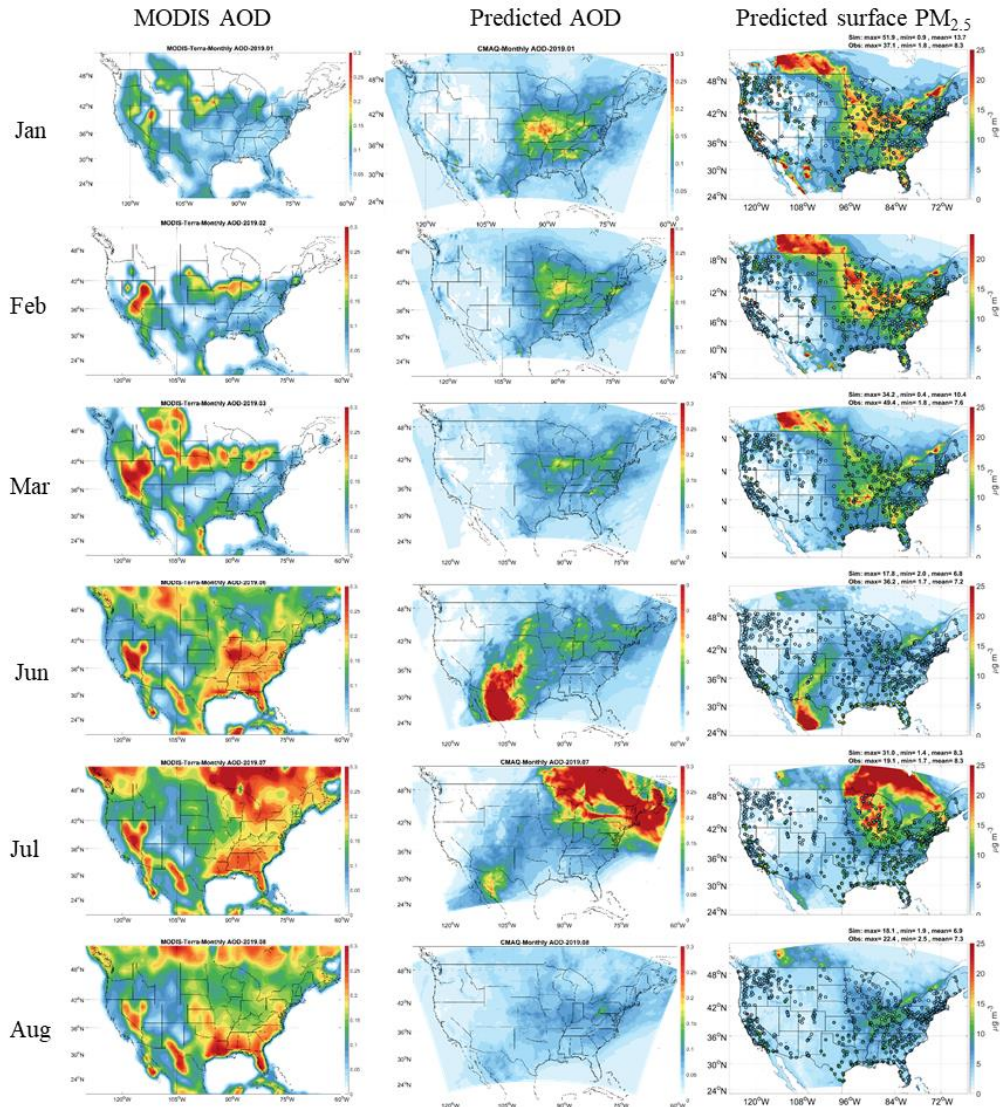


Figure 4. Monthly AOD from MODIS (left), predicted AOD from GFSv15-CMAQv5.0.2 (middle), and predicted surface 24-h avg PM_{2.5} (right)

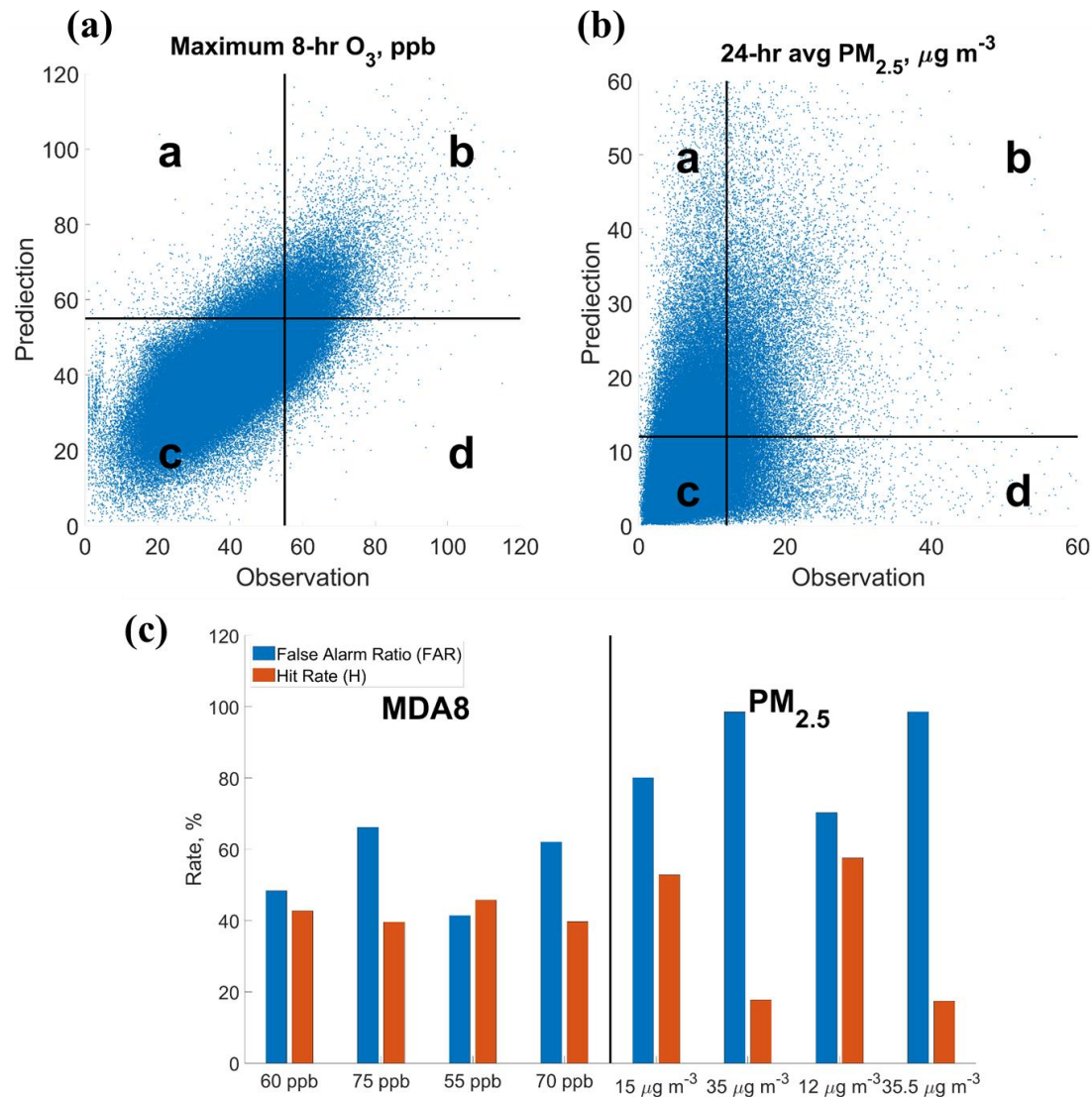


Figure 5. Categorical evaluation of MDA8 and 24-h avg PM_{2.5}: (a) scatter plot of predicted and observed MDA8. The scatters are categorized into 4 areas using the threshold of 55 ppb for both observation and prediction; (b) scatter plot of predicted and observed 24-h avg PM_{2.5}. The scatters are categorized into 4 areas using the threshold of 12 µg m⁻³ for both observation and prediction; (c) False Alarm Ratio (FAR) and Hit Rate (H) in 4 categories for forecasts of MDA8 and 24-h avg PM_{2.5}.

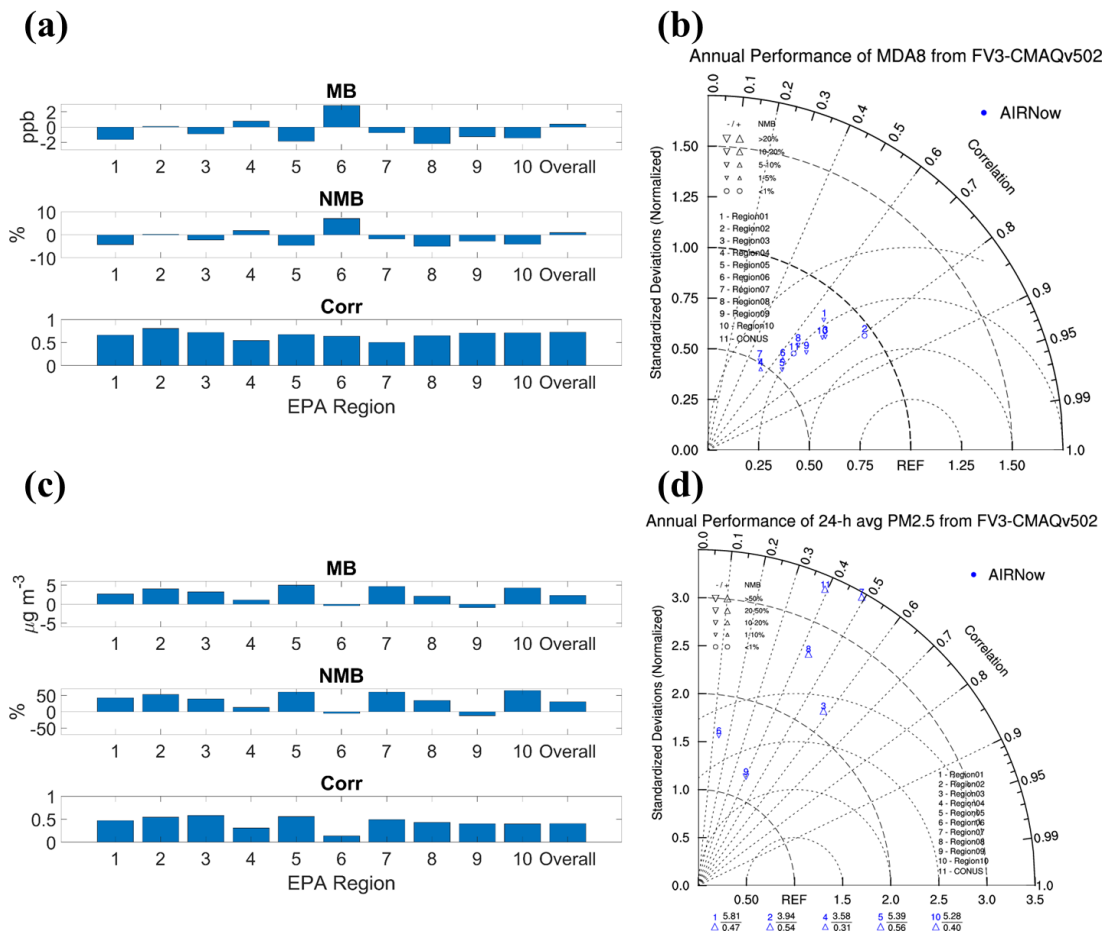


Figure 6. Annual performance of MDA8 in 10 CONUS regions (a); Taylor Diagram for annual performance of MDA8 (b); Annual performance of 24-h avg PM_{2.5} in 10 CONUS regions (c); Taylor Diagram for annual performance of 24-h avg PM_{2.5}. Outliers represent regions with NSDs >3.5 (d)

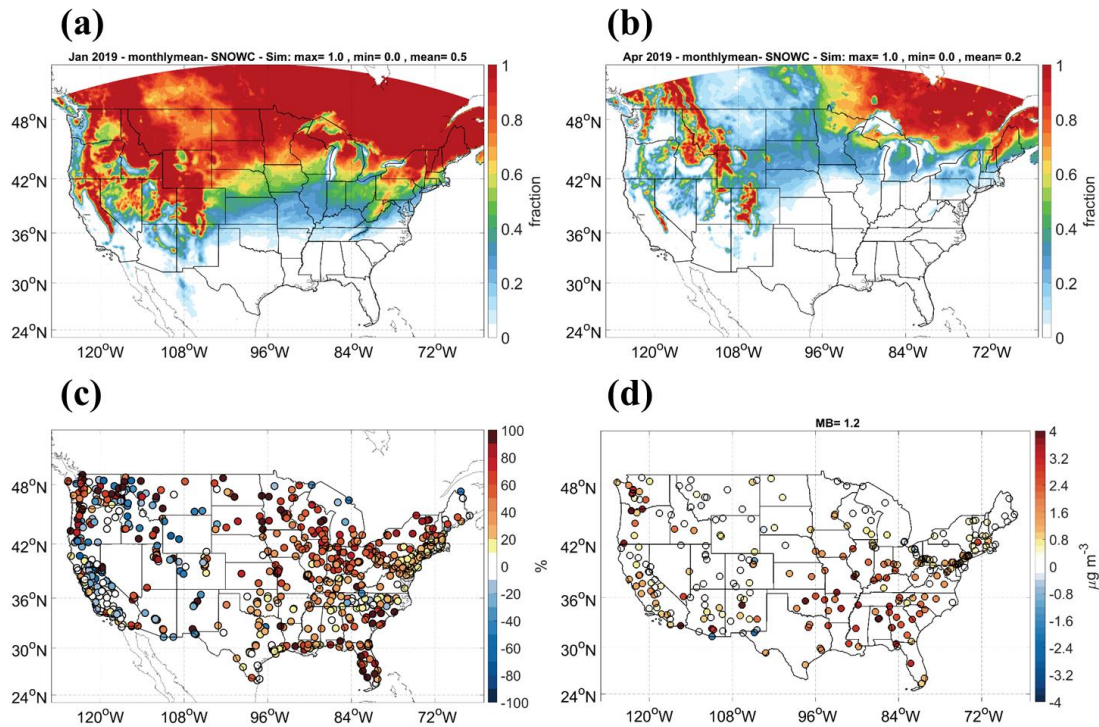


Figure 7. The predicted average snow cover for (a) Jan and (b) Apr. (c) The difference in NMBs of PM_{2.5} by adjusting PM emission for Jan. Positive values stand for improvement in biases with NMBs closer to 0. (d) MBs in PM_{2.5} soil composition with adjustment of PM emission for Jan.

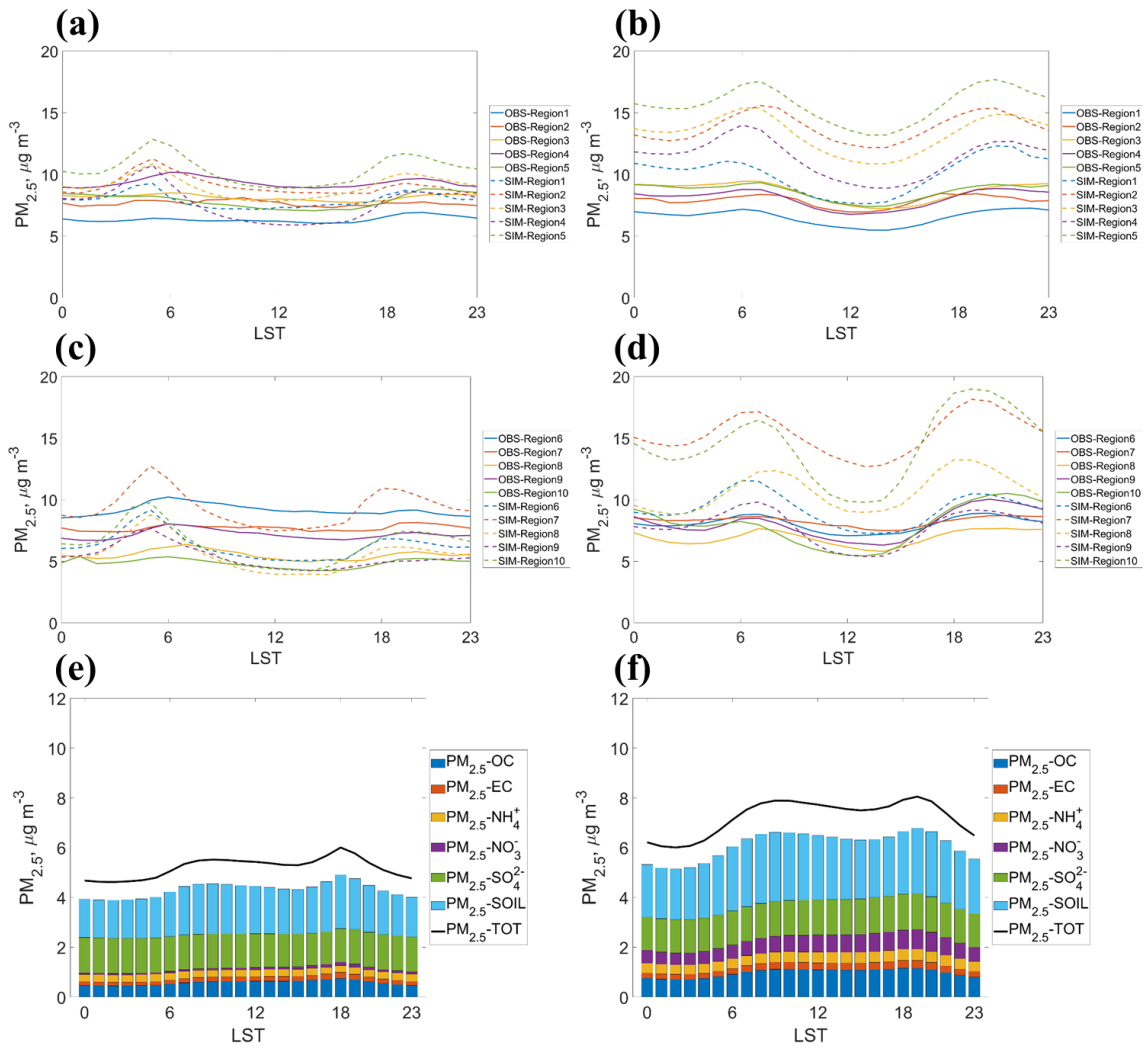


Figure 8. Diurnal PM_{2.5} in: (a) O₃ season for regions 1 to 5; (b) Non-O₃ season for regions 1 to 5; (c) O₃ season for regions 6 to 10; (d) Non-O₃ season for region 6 to 10.

Solid curves are observed values and dash curves are predicted values. Average of predicted PM_{2.5} and components of PM_{2.5} within CONUS in: (e) O₃ season, and (f)

Non-O₃ season.

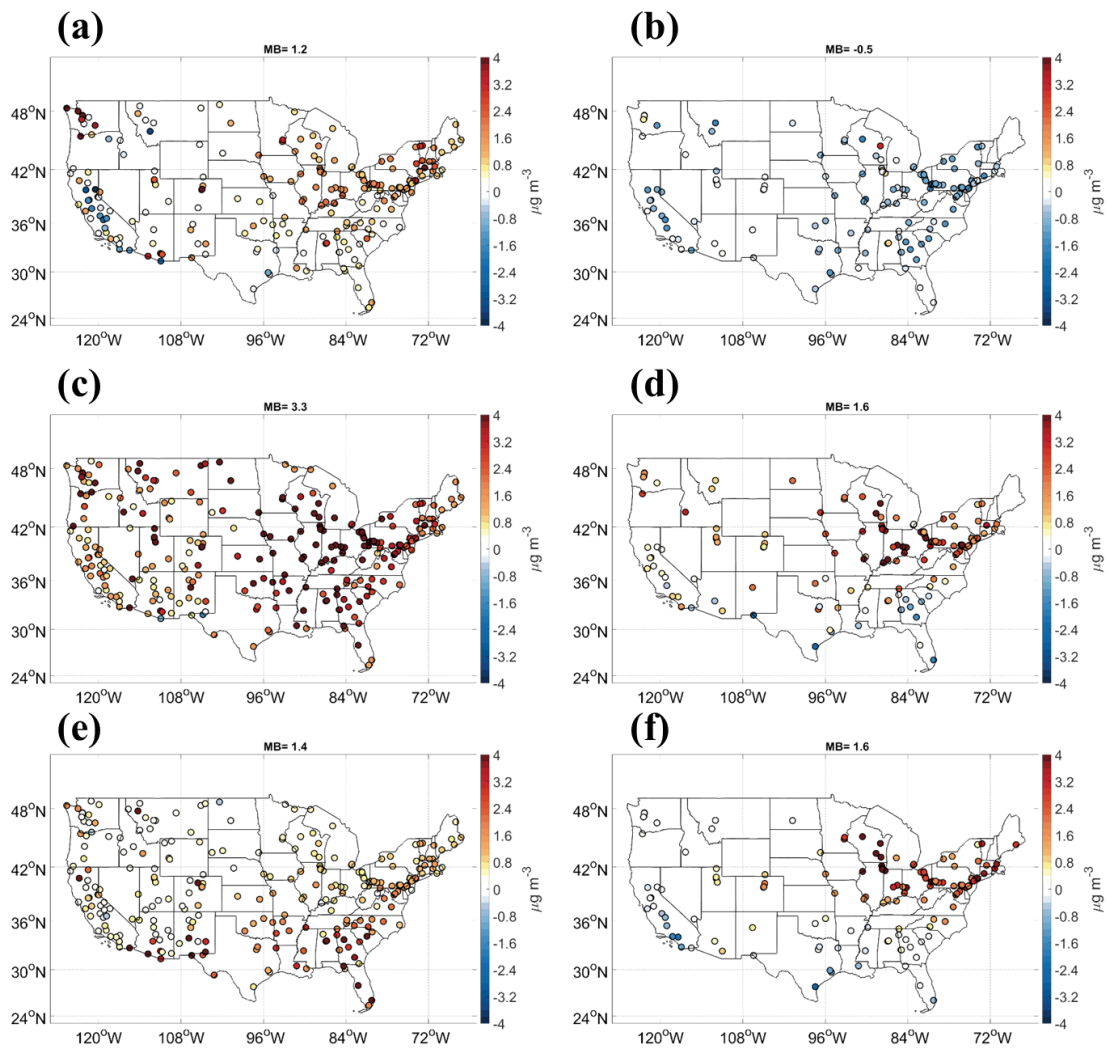


Figure 9. Mean biases in PM_{2.5} compositions: (a) OC for Jan, (b) OC for Jul, (c) SOIL for Jan, (d) SOIL for Jul, (e) sulfate for Jan, and (f) sulfate for Jul