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3	Impact of Multiple Radar Wind Profilers Data
4	Assimilation on Convective Scale Short-Term Rainfall
5	Forecasts: OSSE Studies over the Beijing-Tianiin-Hebei
6 7	region
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9	Juan Zhao ¹ , Jianping Guo ^{2*} , and Xiaohui Zheng ¹
10 11	
12	¹ China Meteorological Administration Training Centre, Beijing, 100081, China
13	² State Key Laboratory of Severe Weather, Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences, Beijing,
14	100081, China
15	
16	To be submitted to EGU Geoscientific Model Development
17	
18	*Correspondence to: Jianping Guo (jpguo@cma.gov.cn; jpguocams@gmail.com)

19

Abstract

20 The optimal spatial layout of a radar wind profiler (RWP) network for rainfall forecasting, especially 21 over complex terrain, remains uncertain. This study explores the benefits of assimilating vertical wind 22 measurements from various RWP network layouts into convective-scale numerical weather prediction 23 (NWP) through observing system simulation experiments (OSSEs). Synthetic RWP data were 24 assimilated into the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model using the National Severe Storms 25 Laboratory three-dimensional variational data assimilation (DA) system for three southwest (SW)-type 26 heavy rainfall events in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region. Four types of DA experiments were 27 conducted and compared: a control experiment (CTL) that assimilates data solely from the operational 28 RWP network, and three additional experiments incorporating foothill (FH), ridge (RD), and combined 29 foothill-ridge (FH_RD) RWP network layouts. A detailed examination of the 21 July 2023 case reveals 30 that the FH RD experiment generally exhibits more skillful storm forecasts in terms of areal coverage, 31 storm mode, and orientation, benefiting from refined mesoscale wind analysis. Particularly, in the RD 32 experiment, RWP data assimilation notably reduces wind errors and improves the representation of 33 mesoscale atmospheric features near the Taihang Mountains upstream of Beijing, crucial for convective 34 initiation (CI). Aggregated score metrics across all cases also indicate that both FH and RD 35 experiments offer substantial added value over the operational network alone. Further sensitivity 36 experiments on vertical resolution and maximum detection height indicate that the RWP system 37 configuration with the highest detection height achieves the best performance, while lower detection 38 height degrades forecast quality. These findings highlight the importance of strategic RWP network 39 placement along the Taihang Mountains' ridge and foothill for short-term quantitative precipitation 40 forecast in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region.

41 1 Introduction

42 Radar wind profilers (RWPs) are state-of-the-art meteorological observation instruments that 43 provide wind profilings at 6-min intervals with a vertical resolution ranging from 60 to 240 meters, 44 enabling the detection of fine-scale atmospheric dynamic structures throughout the troposphere. 45 Researches have demonstrated the capability of RWP to observe the evolution of mesoscale cyclonic 46 circulations, shear lines, and low-level jets (LLJs), which are closely associated with the development 47 of heavy rainfall and convection (Dunn, 1986; Guo et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2023; 48 Zhong et al., 1996). The wind observations from RWPs are expected to improve initial conditions and 49 severe weather forecasts for convective-scale numerical weather prediction (NWP) through data 50 assimilation (DA). Significant progress has been made in RWP data assimilation, resulting in wind 51 analysis error reduction and short-term forecast skill enhancement (Benjamin et al., 2004; Bouttier, 52 2001; Ishihara et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2022; St-James & Laroche, 2005; Wang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 53 2016). Furthermore, efforts in developing quality control and observation operator schemes are also 54 critical to ensuring the reliability of the observations and enhancing assimilation effectiveness (Wang et 55 al., 2020; C. Wang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017).

56 In China, the deployment of a nationwide RWP network initiated in 2008, with over 260 sites 57 established by the end of 2024. These sites primarily utilize the 1290 MHz Doppler radar to monitor 58 the lower and middle atmosphere (Liu et al., 2020). Currently, the nationwide RWP network is 59 unevenly distributed: the spatial concentration of RWP sites over densely populated metropolitan 60 regions, such as the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, Yangtze River Delta, and Pearl River Delta, are 61 above the national average, while the other regions, especially in west-central China, are lagged behind. 62 Notably, in regions where observation data is relatively abundant, there is still an issue of uneven 63 spatial distribution of stations, mainly due to the terrain complexity. Taking the RWP network in the 64 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region as an example, seven RWPs are deployed in Beijing within an area of approximately 100 km × 100 km, while there are only 11 profilers in the whole Hebei province 65 66 (Wang et al., 2022; refer to blue stars in Fig. 3).

67 Accurate short-term forecasts of heavy rainfall are crucial for mitigating the risks posed by 68 severe weather events in the BTH region, one of China's most densely populated and economically 69 vital areas. The BTH region includes the cities of Beijing and Tianjin, and the Hebei Province, and is 70 bounded by the Taihang Mountains to the west and Bohai Bay to the east (Fig. 3). Its complex terrain 71 features with high elevations in the northwest and north, gradually transitioning into plains in the south 72 and east. The dominant weather circulations affecting heavy rainfall in the BTH region include the cold 73 vortex, the cold trough, and the trough-anticyclone patterns (Sheng et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2018; Zhou 74 et al., 2018). The complex underlying surface and the interaction with synoptic- and mesoscale weather 75 processes make the initiation and maintenance mechanisms of convective systems in the BTH region 76 highly unique. Convective initiation (CI) is especially difficult to predict due to local environmental 77 uncertainties and the rapid evolution of meteorological variables. The existing RWP network is mainly 78 located in urban and lowland areas (Fig. 3, blue stars), while the mountainous regions like the Taihang 79 Mountains, where significant terrain-induced convection occurs, are in shortage of sufficient wind 80 profile observations (Liu et al., 2020). These observational gaps can lead to suboptimal initial 81 conditions in NWP models, thereby reducing the accuracy of short-term precipitation forecasts. 82 Therefore, optimizing the distribution of the RWP network, particularly in the Taihang Mountains, 83 could strengthen the ability to monitor these critical regions and improve quantitative precipitation 84 forecasts.

85 Observation System Simulation Experiments (OSSEs) are widely used to assess the impact of 86 assimilating specific observational data into NWP models (Huang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2021a). 87 Previous studies by Zhang & Pu (2010) and Hu et al. (2017) have demonstrated the effectiveness of 88 OSSEs in evaluating the benefits of assimilating RWP data for improving forecasts. Recent research 89 (Bucci et al., 2021; Huo et al., 2023) has also highlighted the advantages of joint assimilation of 90 multiple observational platforms to enhance analysis of convective dynamics, underlining the 91 importance of an optimized RWP network. These OSSEs have provided valuable insights into the 92 strategic RWP site placement to maximize their impact on model performance. To our knowledge, 93 there are few peer-reviewed published research investigating the potential benefit of a RWP network in 94 complex terrain on mesoscale and convective scale weather forecasts (Bucci et al., 2021; Hu et al., 95 2017; Huo et al., 2023; Zhang and Pu, 2010).

To investigate the impact of a RWP network in complex terrain on heavy rainfall forecasts, we focus on southwest (SW)-type rainfall events associated with southwesterly flow, which constitutes approximately 40% of the total circulation patterns in the BTH region during early summer (Li et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2018). When warm, moist air from the south meets the cold air from the Taihang 100 Mountains, the terrain causes the air to rise, enhancing convective activity. Meanwhile, the topography 101 of the Taihang Mountains affects the distribution and intensity of the wind field, particularly during 102 severe convective weather events (Li et al., 2024; Sheng et al., 2020). For example, a prior study 103 showed that the quasi-linear convective systems with extreme heavy rainfall primarily occurred at the 104 foothills of the Taihang Mountains or in the plains close to the foothills (Sheng et al., 2020). To address 105 observational gaps, simulated RWP stations are strategically placed along the ridge and foothills, 106 reinforcing the existing operational network.

107 In this study, the following questions will be addressed. How does the assimilation of RWPs from 108 ridge and foothill sites combined with that from operational stations impact heavy rainfall forecast in the 109 BTH region? Do ridge and foothill networks offer added forecast skill over the operational RWP network 110 on short-term convective-scale NWP? Are the benefits of assimilating RWP observations sensitive to the 111 vertical resolution and maximum detection height of profilers? Ultimately, this research aims to 112 provide guidance on optimizing the RWP network to improve forecasting accuracy for heavy rainfall 113 events in the BTH region, thereby enhancing disaster preparedness and response strategies in the 114 region.

115 To address these questions, a series of OSSEs are conducted, assuming a perfect model, using 116 three representative southwest (SW)-type heavy rainfall cases. The remainder of this paper is organized 117 as follows: Section 2 provides an overview of the NWP model and data assimilation system. Truth and 118 background simulation configuration, synthetic observations, experiment design, and evaluation 119 methods are presented in Sect. 3. Section 4 presents the analysis and forecast results for the 21 July 120 2023 case, as well as the aggregated performance across all three cases. Section 5 summarizes the key 121 findings and conclusions.

122

2 Model and Data Assimilation System

123 The forecast model used in this study is the version 3.7.1 of the Weather Research and 124 Forecasting Model (WRF) with the Advanced Research WRF (ARW) dynamic solver (WRF-ARW; 125 Skamarock et al., 2008). All DA and forecast experiments are performed on a 1.5-km grid of 408×480 126 horizontal points and 51 vertical levels with a model top at 50-hPa. The domain is centered in the 127 northern part of China covering the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region (Fig. 3). The physical parameterizations include the National Severe Storms Laboratory (NSSL) two-moment four-ice
category bulk microphysics scheme (Mansell et al., 2010; Mansell and Ziegler, 2013; Ziegler, 1985),
the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM) longwave radiation scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997), the
Dudhia shortwave radiation scheme (Dudhia, 1989), the Rapid Update Cycle (RUC) land surface
scheme (Benjamin et al., 2004), and the Yonsei University (YSU) planetary boundary layer scheme
(Hong et al., 2006).

This research employs the NSSL Experimental Warn-on-Forecast (WoF) 3DVAR system (NSSL3DVAR) (Gao et al., 2013, 2016; Gao & Stensrud, 2014; Wang et al., 2019; Zhuang et al., 2016), specifically designed for convective-scale Numerical Weather Prediction (NWP) and thunderstorm forecasting (Gao et al., 2024; Heinselman et al., 2024). In the NSSL3DVAR system, the analysis is derived by minimizing the cost function defined as the background term J_b and the observation term J_o plus the constraint term J_c :

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$$J = J_b + J_o + J_c = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{B}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2} (H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}_o)^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{R}^{-1} (H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}_o) + J_c, \quad (1)$$

141 where x and x_b are the analysis and background state vectors, respectively; H is the observation 142 operator projecting analysis into the observational space; and y_0 is the observation vector. **B** is the 143 background error covariance matrix, and **R** is the observation error covariance matrix. J_c represents 144 weak constraints which include elastic mass continuity equation and diagnostic pressure equation 145 constraints suitable for convective-scale data assimilation (Gao et al., 2004; Ge et al., 2012). Analysis 146 variables include the three-dimensional wind fields, air pressure, potential temperature, water vapor 147 mixing ratio, and the hydrometeors containing the mass mixing ratios for cloud water, rainwater, ice, 148 snow, and graupel (Gao and Stensrud, 2012).

149 The NSSL3DVAR system assimilates multi-sensor high-resolution observations like radar radial 150 velocity and reflectivity (Gao et al., 2013, 2016), sounding and surface data (Hu et al., 2021), and 151 multiple satellite-retrieved products, such as cloud water path (Pan et al., 2021), total precipitable water 152 (Jones et al., 2018; Pan et al., 2018), atmospheric motion vectors (Mallick and Jones, 2020; Zhao et al., 153 2021b, 2022), and Geostationary Lightning Mapper (GLM)-derived water vapor (Fierro et al., 2019a; Hu 154 et al., 2020). To enhance the wind field analysis, particularly in the PBL, this study incorporates a RWP 155 assimilation module into the system. Since heavy rainfall and other severe weather events require fast 156 and timely delivery of forecasts and early warning to the public, computationally efficient 3DVAR is 157 quite suitable for the severe weather forecasts by providing highly efficient and rapid updating analysis 158 and forecast, such as 15-min cycle intervals. Our focus is to assess the potential impacts of RWP 159 network enhancements on convective-scale analysis and short-term severe weather prediction with this 160 efficient DA method, so we did not use the ensemble derived background error covariance, which is 161 also incorporated in the variational framework (Gao et al., 2016; Gao & Stensrud, 2014; Wang et al., 162 2019). The background error covariance matrix used in this study is constructed as the product of a 163 diagonal matrix representing the standard deviations of background errors and a spatial recursive filter 164 (Gao et al., 2004, 2013). The standard deviations for the pressure, potential temperature, relative 165 humidity, zonal and meridional wind components are derived from the statistics of the Rapid Update 166 Cvcle (RUC, Benjamin et al., 2004) 3-hour forecasts over several years (Fierro et al., 2019b; Pan et al., 167 2021). The background error correlations are modeled by the recursive filter described by Purser et al. 168 (2003a, b). The recursive filter can be applied in multiple passes (or outer loops), using different 169 correlation length scales tailored to the scale of the weather systems represented by the assimilated 170 observations.

171 **3. Experimental design**

172 **3.1 Truth run and background run for OSSE**

173 In the OSSE, synthetic RWP observations are generated by adding observation errors to the truth 174 run. To obtain this truth run, the WRF model is initialized with the fifth-generation European Centre 175 for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) atmospheric reanalysis of the global climate (ERA5; 176 Hersbach et al., 2020; Hoffmann et al., 2019), based on the model configuration and parameterization 177 schemes described in Sect. 2. Three SW-type heavy rainfall cases that occurred over the 178 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region on 28 June, 12 July, and 21 July of 2023 are selected to construct OSSEs 179 and assess the impact of RWP data observed from different spatial layout schemes on convective 180 initiation and the development of storms. For each case, the model is initialized using the ERA5 data 181 and integrated forward for 15 hours, with the boundary conditions also provided by the hourly ERA5 182 data. An overview of composite reflectivity in the truth simulation from the case on 21 July 2023 is 183 shown in Fig. 1 as an example. This case was characterized by the presence of an upper-level trough 184 gradually moving eastward into the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, accompanied by a corresponding 185 low-level vortex before the evening of 20 July. Meanwhile, southeasterly winds at the lower levels 186 continuously transported moisture, leading to high instability in central Hebei, and in the western and 187 southern parts of Beijing. The combination of easterly winds and topographical effects created 188 favorable conditions for heavy precipitation. Several discrete storms initiated and developed in 189 west-central Hebei near the foothills of the Taihang Mountains (Fig. 1a-c). With the westerly trough 190 moving east and strong southerly airflow strengthening water vapor transport, scattered convective 191 cells formed in the vicinity of the boundary between Hebei and southwestern Beijing around 1900 UTC 192 on 20 July, then aggregated and developed into a mesoscale convective system in southwest Beijing 193 (Fig. 1d-f). Additionally, convective storms in west-central Hebei gradually moved northeastward and 194 merged with the mesoscale convective system (Fig. 1g). The convective system slowly moved 195 northeastward and elongated in the southwest-northeast direction (Fig. 1h), persisting across 196 west-central Beijing until 0900 UTC on 21 July 2023 (Fig. 2).



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Figure 1. Simulated composite reflectivity (dBZ, shaded) and winds at 700 hPa (m s⁻¹, vectors) for the
truth simulation from 1300 UTC 20 July to 0300 UTC 21 July, 2023.

This study utilizes an OSSE framework with an identical twin setup, where the same numerical model is used for both the truth simulation and the forecast system. As noted by Hoffman and Atlas (2016), OSSEs with identical twin setups can lead to overly optimistic assessments of data impacts. Therefore, the results should be interpreted within <u>the-that</u> constraint. To mitigate unrealistic assumptions about observational capabilities and overly optimistic OSSE results, the first-guess background run (NoDA) uses the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global

206 Forecast System (GFS) forecasts for initial and boundary conditions, which differ from those of the 207 truth run. The 6-h accumulated precipitation (APCP) forecasts from the truth and background runs are 208 verified against the rain gauge measurements at national weather stations in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei 209 region (Fig. 2). Compared with the rainfall observations (color-filled dots in Fig. 2 e and f), the truth 210 simulation generally captured the southwest-to-northeast orientation and northeastward movement of 211 the observed precipitation in Beijing, although it underpredicted the precipitation in southeastern Hebei 212 (Fig. 2a and b). Conversely, NoDA produced a more west-east oriented rainfall pattern south of Beijing, 213 rather than a southwest-to-northeast band structure. NoDA missed the precipitation in southeastern 214 Hebei (Fig. 2c), whereas it overpredicted the rainfall in western Hebei and areas along Beijing's 215 southern border (Fig. 2d). Notably, the NoDA experiment failed to predict the convection in 216 southwestern Beijing during the CI stage (discussed later in Sect. 4.1.2).





Figure 2. The 6-h accumulated precipitation (APCP) forecasts (mm, shaded) from 2100 UTC 20 July to 0300 UTC 21 July (left), and from 0300 UTC 21 July to 0900 UTC 21 July, 2023 (right) for (a)-(b) Truth, (c)-(d) NoDA experiments, and (e)-(f) the rain gauge measurements at national weather stations. <u>The rain gauges that did not measure any precipitation are not included here.</u>

222 **3.2 Synthetic RWP observations**

223 The real-time Chinese RWP network provides horizontal wind direction, horizontal wind speed,

and vertical wind speed at 60-240 m intervals, from the ground surface up to 3-10 km, depending on

the operating frequency (Liu et al., 2020). The network comprises three RWP types: high-troposphere,

226 low-troposphere, and boundary layer RWPs, with the majority being boundary layer RWPs operating in 227 the L band. The China Meteorological Administration's data center provides wind profiling products at 228 6-, 30-, and 60-min intervals for each operational site. To generate synthetic profiles of zonal and 229 meridional wind (u and v) components at operational RWP sites within the simulation domain (30 sites 230 total), truth wind vectors from model grids are interpolated onto each site using the bilinear 231 interpolation method (Fig. 3, blue stars). Additionally, we assume more observations are available at 232 upstream sites near Beijing, specifically along the foothill and ridge of the Taihang Mountains (Fig. 3, 233 red and magenta stars). The spatial locations for the foothill and ridge sites, with a total of 16 sites each, 234 are determined based on the ETOPO1 Global Relief Model, a 1-arc-minute resolution topographic and 235 bathymetric dataset provided by NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information (Amante 236 and Eakins, 2009). In this study, maximum detection heights of 3, 8, and 12 km, and vertical 237 resolutions of 60 and 120 m have been chosen to mimic the vertical range and resolution of most real 238 RWP data. The heights where the winds are measured (H) at each simulated RWP site are as 239 followsSynthetic wind profile at each simulated RWP site is assumed to be at the height H, which is 240 defined as follows:

241
$$H(1) = H_{elev} + 500$$

$$H(k) = H(1) + k \times H_{inc}, \text{ if } H(k) \le H_{max}$$
(2)

where H_{elev} is the elevation of the observation site, *k* is the index number of the vertical level, H_{inc} and H_{max} are specified vertical resolution and maximum detection height, respectively. The units of all height variables are meters. Similar to Zhang et al. (2016), 500 m is selected as the first level of wind profile used for assimilation. The final observations are obtained by adding perturbations to the wind profiles extracted from the truth run. The perturbations are assumed to be normally distributed Gaussian random errors with a mean of zero and a standard deviation of 2 m/s (Hu et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021a).

As our focus is to assess the impacts of assimilating wind observations from various RWP network layouts on convective-scale analysis and short-term severe weather prediction, only synthetic RWP data are assimilated in this study, excluding conventional observations such as radiosondes, surface weather stations, and satellite observations. This exclusion simplifies the analysis by isolating the impact of RWPs but may inflate their relative importance (Hoffman and Atlas, 2016).



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Elevation (meters)

Figure 3. Spatial distribution of the operational RWP network (blue stars), and simulated RWP network along the foothill (red stars) and ridge (magenta stars) of the Taihang Mountains within the simulation domain. The terrain is represented by color shading, and the ocean is shown in light blue.

258 **3.3 Experimental Design**

259 To mimic real-world operations, this OSSE study employs a DA and forecast cycle workflow 260 similar to the Warn-on-Forecast System (WoFS) real-time Spring Forecast Experiment (SFE) runs, that 261 is cycling DA for 9 hours at 15-min intervals (Heinselman et al., 2024; Hu et al., 2020; Jones et al., 262 2018) (Fig. 4). To minimize data contamination from precipitation, DA cycles are performed before 263 widespread rainfall occurs in the simulation domain, as wind profile accuracy from RWPs can be 264 degraded by falling hydrometeors (Zhang et al., 2017). The model initial and boundary conditions for 265 all DA and forecast experiments are derived from the 12-h GFS forecasts. Unlike the SFE setup, a 6-h 266 free forecast in this study is launched every hour starting from the sixth hour of the analysis cycles, 267 rather than from the first hour (Fig. 4). This delayed forecast initiation allows convective systems to 268 develop, as they are typically not yet initiated or developed during the initial hours of assimilation

- 269 cycles. For comparison, a first-guess background run (NoDA) is conducted by advancing the model
- 270 forward without assimilating any observations.

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Figure 4. Illustration of the data assimilation and forecast cycle workflow. A 6-h forecast is launched every hour from the sixth hour to the end of the DA cycles (namely, four separate forecasts).

To investigate the impact of simulated foothill and ridge RWP networks on convective-scale NWP, four types of DA experiments are performed (Table 1). These experiments differ in their assimilation of synthetic profiler data from various RWP network spatial layouts. The baseline experiment, CTL, assimilates synthetic observations from the operational RWP network with a vertical resolution of 60 m (from 500 m to 8 km height), serving as a benchmark for comparison. This vertical resolution represents a best-case scenario for RWP capabilities.

Table 1. List of the DA sensitivity experiments based on various spatial layout schemes of <u>a</u> radar wind
 profiler (RWP) network over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region.

Fynariment	Operational	Foothill	Ridge	Maximum	Vertical
Experiment				height (km)	resolution (m)
CTL	\checkmark			8	60
FH	\checkmark	\checkmark		8	60
RD	\checkmark		\checkmark	8	60
FH_RD	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	8	60
FH_RD_V120	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	8	120
FH_RD_H3	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	3	60
FH_RD_H12	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	12	60

282 CTL: control DA experiment;

FH: foothill;

283 The second and third types of experiments assimilate the simulated foothill and ridge RWPs, 284 respectively, in conjunction with data from operational sites (referred to as FH and RD). The fourth type 285 of experiment FH RD is performed by assimilating the operational, foothill, and ridge profilers with the 286 same vertical resolution and maximum detection height as before. Additionally, three sensitivity 287 experiments FH_RD_V120, FH_RD_H3, FH_RD_H12 are designed to assess the influence of 288 assimilating RWP data with different vertical resolution (120 m) and maximum detection heights (3 km, 289 12 km) on the analyses and forecasts, to address the potential usage of real-time data from RWPs 290 operating at different frequencies.

291 In all DA experiments, the background errors for zonal and meridional wind components are 292 specified as 3-6 m/s, gradually increasing with altitude from the surface to 20 km above ground level 293 (AGL). The observation error is set to 3 m/s, based on sensitivity tests within the 2-6 m/s range and 294 consistent with previous studies (Hu et al., 2017; Huo et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 295 2016). In the minimization process two outer loops are adopted, each with a prescribed horizontal and 296 vertical correlation scale for the recursive filter used in the program (Gao et al., 2004; Purser et al., 297 2003). Following previous studies (Wang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022). The horizontal correlation 298 scale lengths are set to be 50 km in the first loop and 20 km in the second loop, while the corresponding 299 vertical correlation lengths are 5 and 2 grid points, respectively.

300 **3.4 Evaluation metrics**

301 This study examines the impact of RWP DA on wind analyses and forecasts during a southwest 302 (SW)-type heavy rainfall event on 21 July 2023. To obtain an overall insight into the impact of RWP 303 DA on wind analyses and forecasts, time series and probability density distributions, as well as vertical 304 profiles of root-mean-square errors (RMSEs) for wind components during the DA cycles and 6-h free 305 forecasts are calculated for each type of assimilation experiment. Additionally, subjective diagnostic 306 analyses of wind vectors improved by assimilation of RWPs are also discussed in more detail. To 307 investigate the impact on short-term forecasts, both qualitative and quantitative assessments of radar 308 reflectivity and accumulated precipitation forecasts are conducted against the truth run. To evaluate the 309 performance quantitatively, the neighborhood-based equitable threat score (ETS, Clark et al., 2010) is 310 calculated using a neighborhood radius of 12-km for different thresholds of composite reflectivity 311 (CREF) and hourly precipitation (HPRCP). Using the same neighborhood radius and thresholds, contingency-table based metrics including the probability of detection (POD), false alarm ratio (FAR), success ratio (SR), frequency bias (BIAS), and critical success index (CSI) are also calculated to quantify the CREF and HPRCP forecasts. To account for case-to-case variability, two additional SW-type heavy rainfall events (28 June and 12 July 2023) are examined. Finally, score metrics are aggregated from each initialization hour (sixth hour to end of the DA cycles) across three cases, ensuring a fair and consistent measure of forecast skill.

- 318 4 Results and discussion
- 319 **4.1 21 July 2023 case**
- 320 4.1.1 The impact on wind fields

321 The first question we attempt to answer is how the spatial distribution of RWP sites should be 322 planned to optimize the accuracy of short-range convection-allowing NWP system (Potvin and Flora, 323 2015). The influence of assimilating RWP data from different networks, as described in Sect. 3.3, on 324 wind analysis and forecast can be straightforwardly assessed by examining the RMSEs of wind 325 components during the 9-h assimilation cycles and 6-h free forecasts. For clarity, the time series and 326 probability density distribution (PDF) of the wind RMSEs from the CTL, FH, RD, and FH RD 327 experiments are compared in Fig. 5. The statistics are computed against the truth run at all model levels 328 within the simulation domain shown in Fig. 3. Overall, the RMSEs of wind analyses from all DA 329 experiments during the analysis cycling decrease over the first six hours and then gradually increase 330 afterward, exhibiting an evident staircase pattern (Fig. 5a and c), indicating that the wind field is 331 modified by the NSSL3DVAR system towards the truth in each analysis cycle. A comparison among 332 all DA experiments reveals that the FH RD experiment yields the smallest wind errors, followed by 333 RD, then FH, with CTL exhibiting the largest errors. This likely occurs because (a) FH RD assimilates the largest amount of wind observations, while CTL assimilates the fewest, and (b) the uncertainties of 334





Figure 5. Time series of root-mean-square errors (RMSEs) for (a) u (m s⁻¹), and (c) v (m s⁻¹) analyses and forecasts from the CTL (green), FH (blue), RD (red), and FH_RD (magenta) experiments. The thin grey line separates analysis cycling and 6-h free forecasts. Probability density distribution (PDF) of

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350 RMSEs for (b) u (m s⁻¹), and (d) v (m s⁻¹) analyses (solid) and forecasts (dashed) from four 351 experiments.

352 To assess the impact of the DA experiments at different altitudes, Fig. 6 presents the vertical 353 profiles of domain-averaged RMSEs of wind analyses at the end of the assimilation cycles. Compared 354 to the NoDA experiment, the assimilation of RWPs generally has a positive effect on the wind field 355 throughout the troposphere. The CTL experiment slightly reduces the wind errors, specifically in the 356 layer from 850 to 600 hPa for the u component and from 500 to 300 hPa for both components. It is seen 357 that the DA experiments assimilating ridge and foothill RWPs generally outperform CTL. For the u 358 wind component, the RD experiment has a comparable RMSE profile to FH below 550 hPa but results 359 in a much smaller error above (Fig. 6a). In the analysis of the v wind, RD consistently performs better 360 than FH, except for the layer from 260 to 160 hPa (Fig. 6b). Notably, FH RD results in the smallest 361 wind errors across most levels, aligning with the previously observed error trends over time.



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Figure 6. Vertical profiles of domain-averaged RMSEs for (a) u (m s⁻¹), and (b) v (m s⁻¹) analyses at
2100 UTC 20 July 2023 (end of analysis cycling) from the NoDA (black), CTL (green), FH (blue), RD
(red), and FH_RD (magenta) experiments.

To examine how the RWP DA adjusts the mesoscale airflow, we present the 700-hPa wind vectors and wind speeds from all experiments as an illustration of the model's dynamic conditions (Fig. 7). For clarity, Fig. 7b-f compare the differences in wind vectors and wind speeds between the DA 369 experiments and the corresponding field from the truth run. These differences, considered as wind 370 errors, help evaluate how assimilating RWPs from different observation networks adjusts the wind field. 371 The red (blue) color represents positive (negative) wind speed bias compared to the truth. In the NoDA 372 experiment, there is a notable southeasterly wind bias in Beijing and the mountainous regions to its 373 west, characterized by excessively high wind speeds. Conversely, the true simulation reveals a strong 374 southwesterly flow (Fig. 7b). Meanwhile, the southwest wind is remarkably weaker in southwestern 375 Hebei (at the foothills of the Taihang Mountains), and the westerly wind in the upstream Taihang 376 Mountains region is also underestimated. The CTL experiment significantly reduces the easterly wind 377 bias in Beijing and its surrounding areas while enhancing the southwesterly winds in Hebei (Fig. 7c). 378 However, unignorable wind errors persist upstream of Beijing, particularly along the mountainous 379 regions, due to the absence of operational wind profiler sites. The FH experiment produces wind 380 adjustments similar to those in CTL but further reduces wind errors in the plains of Hebei by 381 assimilating observations from foothill sites (Fig. 7d). Conversely, with the assimilation of RWP data 382 from the ridge network, both RD and FH RD significantly reduce positive wind speed errors upstream 383 of Beijing along the mountains, which is crucial for convection initiation (CI) near the boundary 384 between Hebei and southwestern Beijing (Fig. 7e and f). While the southwest winds in southwestern 385 Hebei remain slightly weaker in RD, FH RD addresses this by assimilating ridge RWPs alongside 386 foothill data. However, all DA experiments still show negative wind speed errors and 387 northwesterly/northeasterly wind direction errors near the border of Shanxi, Hebei, and Inner Mongolia, 388 with errors even larger than those in NoDA. This is mainly due to the lack of RWP observations in this 389 tri-provincial border area. As a result, the influence of ridge RWP data may propagate northward into 390 this region by the RD and FH RD experiments, significantly reducing positive errors upstream of 391 Beijing along the mountains but increasing negative errors in this area.



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Figure 7. (a) 700-hPa wind (vectors) with wind speed (m s⁻¹, color shaded) from the truth run, and differences between the 700-hPa winds from (b) NoDA, (c) CTL, (d) RD, (e) FH, and (f) FH_RD experiments and the truth run at 2100 UTC 20 July 2023 (end of analysis cycling). The red (blue) color represents positive (negative) wind speed bias compared to the truth.

397 4.1.2 The impact on reflectivity and precipitation forecasts

398 The analysis, along with the 3- and 6-h forecasts of composite reflectivity from all experiments, 399 is compared to the truth run in Fig. 8 and 9. In the southwest of Beijing, a convective system initiates 400 and develops. As it merges with scattered storms originating in western Hebei near the foothills of the 401 Taihang Mountains, the system intensifies rapidly. Eventually the convection becomes a 402 southwest-northeast oriented mesoscale system across the western and central parts of Beijing (Fig. 403 8a-c). At the initial stage, the NoDA experiment underestimates convection in Beijing and Hebei (Fig. 404 8d), but in the 6-h forecast, NoDA overpredicts the storm coverage and intensity in Beijing and 405 produces excessive spurious convection in western and northern Hebei (Fig. 8d-f). At analysis time, all 406 DA experiments show improvement in the location and shape of the convective system in southwestern 407 Beijing, and FH RD produces the strongest reflectivity analysis (Fig. 8g, 9a, 9d, and 9g). This implies 408 that the assimilation of RWP data can improve CI timing and location by capturing the mesoscale flow 409 features in the pre-storm environment (Fig. 7). The RWP DA also helps alleviate storm displacement 410 and intensity errors and suppresses spurious cells in subsequent forecasts, owing to a better 411 representation of the storm environment. Although CTL correctly analyzes the CI near the observed 412 location, its analysis and 3-h lead-time reflectivity forecast show that the storm intensity in Beijing is 413 still weaker than the truth simulation, especially over western and central Beijing (Fig. 8g-i). The FH 414 experiment produces stronger storms with a larger coverage area in Beijing compared to the CTL 415 experiment, although the storm intensity remains slightly underestimated; however, spurious echoes to 416 the west of Beijing remain evident in the 6-h forecast (Fig. 9a-c). With the assimilation of ridge RWP 417 data, the RD and FH RD experiments further strengthen the CI process and improve the storm pattern 418 and development. A comparison among all experiments reveals that FH RD demonstrates 419 overwhelming superiority over the other three DA experiments in terms of areal coverage, storm mode, 420 and storm orientation (Fig. 9g-i).



421

Figure 8. The composite reflectivity (dBZ, shaded) for (left) analysis, (middle) 3-h forecast, and (right)
6-h forecast from (a)–(c) truth simulation, (d)–(f) NoDA, and (g)–(i) CTL experiments initialized at

424 2100 UTC 20 July 2023.



425

Figure 9. Same as in Fig. 8, but for the composite reflectivity (dBZ, shaded) from (a)–(c) FH, (d)–(f)
RD, and (g)–(i) FH_RD experiments.

428 Concerning precipitation, the 1-, 3-, and 6-h accumulated precipitation (APCP) forecasts exhibit 429 similar behavior to the reflectivity results in terms of rainfall location, onset time, and amount (Fig. 10 430 and 11). As discussed above, all assimilation experiments predict the initial precipitation area and 431 intensity in the southwest of Beijing more accurately than NoDA, leading to improvements in 432 subsequent APCP forecasts in this area. For example, assimilating ridge and foothill RWPs corrects the 433 weaker biases associated with this storm in the 1- and 3-h forecasts (Fig. 11a-b, d-e, g-h). Meanwhile, 434 the more west-east oriented heavy rainfall occurring over the south of Beijing in the 6-h forecast of 435 NoDA is revised by the assimilation experiments, shifting to a southwest-northeast orientation that is 436 closer to the truth simulation. Although the areal coverage of rainfall in the 1-h forecast is better 437 captured by CTL compared to NoDA, CTL still tends to underpredict the precipitation amount in

438 southwestern Beijing, while overestimation is commonly observed in parts of the mountainous areas to 439 the southwest of Beijing (Fig. 10g-i). One potential factor contributing to the overpredicted rainfall in 440 the mountainous areas to the southwest of Beijing is the CTL experiment's reduction of positive wind 441 errors in Beijing, while higher wind speeds (compared to the truth) persist along the upstream 442 mountains. ThisIt is due to the absence of operational wind profiler sites. The stronger southwesterly 443 winds of the CTL experiment enhance moisture transport and convergence in the upstream mountains, 444 leading to overestimated rainfall in those areas and underpredicted precipitation over Beijing. Both RD 445 and FH RD experiments yield a smaller areal coverage of precipitation at the same region, and they 446 also better capture the southwest-northeast orientation of the rainband in southwestern Beijing (Fig. 447 11d-i), as the large wind errors in the upstream mountains are remarkably reduce by assimilating RWP 448 data from the ridge network (Fig. 7e and f). As expected, the APCP forecasts from FH_RD align well 449 with the true rainfall forecasts in terms of placement, orientation, and amount (Fig. 11g-i vs. 10a-c).



451 Figure 10. The accumulated precipitation (APCP) forecasts (mm, shaded) for (a)-(c) Truth, (d)-(f)
452 NoDA, and (g)-(i) CTL experiments initialized at 2100 UTC 20 July 2023. The (left) 1-, (middle) 3-,
453 and (right) 6-h forecasts are shown.



454

Figure 11. Same as in Fig. 10, but for the APCP forecasts (mm, shaded) from (a)–(c) FH, (d)–(f) RD,
and (g)–(i) FH_RD experiments.

457 To quantify the performance of the reflectivity and precipitation forecasts by assimilating RWP 458 data from different observation networks, categorical performance diagrams and neighborhood-based 459 ETS are calculated and aggregated over four 6-h free forecasts. These forecasts are launched hourly 460 from the sixth hour to the end of the analysis cycle. All score metrics are computed for a neighborhood 461 radius of 12 km. The ETS for composite reflectivity is calculated every 15 minutes, while for APCP, it is calculated hourly. In the performance diagrams, values of POD, SR (1-FAR), and CSI closer to 462 463 unity indicate higher forecast skill, with the perfect forecast located at the upper-right corner of the 464 diagram. A BIAS value greater (less) than unity indicates overprediction (underprediction). Because of 465 decreased PODs along with increased FARs, most experiments show a slight decline in forecast scores 466 when the composite reflectivity threshold increases from 20 to 40 dBZ (Fig. 12). Overall, all DA

467	experiments consistently outperform NoDA at all thresholds, exhibiting higher POD, SR, CSI, and ETS
468	values, except for the CTL (FH and FH_RD) experiment during the 0-4 h (4-5 h) forecast period at the
469	threshold of 40 dBZ. For most thresholds and forecast lead times, the assimilation experiments generate
470	higher POD, SR and CSI scores compared to the NoDA experiments (with the exception of a few
471	instances, primarily at the 40-dBZ threshold). Among them, the FH_RD, RD, and FH experiments
472	show overwhelming superiority over CTL for the 0-4 h reflectivity forecasts in terms of ETS, POD, SR
473	and CSI values at all thresholds. For the 20- and 30-dBZ thresholds, it is evident that FH_RD produces
474	the highest ETS, POD, SR, and CSI scores during the 0-3 h forecast period. However, the BIAS values
475	of the FH_RD experiment is comparable to that of other DA experiments and are sometimes slightly
476	worsethe improvement in BIAS values was minimal (Fig. 12a-d). However, for 40 dBZ, the RD
477	experiment achives slightly higher ETS, POD, SR, and CSI scores than FH_RD does at most forecast
478	lead times (Fig. 12e and f). It is also worth noting that, for 20- and 30-dBZ thresholds, FH produces
479	higher ETS, POD, and CSI scores than RD does before the 2-h forecast lead time, while RD exhibits
480	better forecast skill thereafter (Fig. 12a-d). This suggests that assimilating RWP data from the foothill
481	network is more effective in the first two hours, while ridge site observations have a more pronounced
482	positive impact between 2 and 6 hours. Additionally, the period during which FH outperforms RD
483	shortens when the threshold increases from 20 to 40 dBZ.



484

Figure 12. Aggregate score metrics of 0-6 h composite reflectivity (CREF) forecasts aggregated from each initialization hour from the sixth hour to the end of the DA cycles for case 1 for the NoDA (black), CTL (green), FH (blue), RD (red), and FH_RD (magenta) experiments. (left) The performance diagrams, and (right) the equitable threat score (ETS) for (a)–(b) 20 dBZ, (c)–(d) 30 dBZ, and (e)–(f) 40 dBZ thresholds, respectively. Results are shown for a neighborhood radius of 12-km. The numbers within the colored dots in the performance diagrams denote the forecast hour (i.e. 0-, 3- and 6-h forecasts).

492 A similar trend and behavior are observed in the performance diagrams and ETS figures for the 493 HPRCP forecast, highlighting the superior performance of the RD and FH RD experiments (Fig. 13). 494 In general, lower score metrics are obtained when a higher threshold for precipitation forecasts is 495 evaluated, likely resulting from a lower frequency of occurrence for heavy precipitation. As seen in the 496 CREF forecast, the FH_RD, RD, and FH experiments show more skillful precipitation forecasts than 497 CTL does. In terms of the 2.5-mm precipitation forecast, FH_RD generally achieves the highest POD, 498 SR, CSI, and ETS, along with the smallest BIAS, with RD exhibiting slightly inferior performance (Fig. 499 13a and b). For the 5-mm threshold, FH generates the highest POD and ETS in the first 3 hours, 500 whereas RD delivers the lowest FAR and largest ETS in the subsequent 3-h forecasts (Fig. 13c and d). The RD experiment outperforms all the other experiments in the 1-, 3-, and 4-h forecasts at the 501 502 threshold of 10 mm (Fig. 13e and f). One possible reason for the inferior superior performance of RD 503 compared to FH RD and FH compared to RD at higher thresholds is that, the heavy rainfall coverage 504 forecasted by the RD experiment is the closest to the truth, while FH RD exhibits a slight southward 505 displacement error, and FH shows a northward displacement errorFH_RD exhibits a slight southward 506 displacement error for the 1.3 h heavier precipitation (>10 mm) forecasts in southwestern Beijing 507 compared to the truth simulation, while the precipitation in the FH experiment is located further north 508 (Fig. 11a-b, 11g-h vs. Fig. 10a-bc). This may lead to larger penalties in the calculation of POD and 509 ETS, resulting in lower scores.



510

Figure 13. Same as in Fig. 12, but for 1-6 h hourly precipitation amount (HPRCP) forecasts for case 1
at thresholds of 2.5 mm (1st row), 5 mm (2nd row), and 10 mm (3rd row), respectively.

513 4.1.3 Sensitivity to vertical resolution and detection height

514 Given the encouraging preliminary results from the FH_RD experiment, ETS figures of CREF 515 and HPRCP forecasts from three additional sensitivity experiment—FH_RD_V120, FH_RD_H3, and 516 FH_RD_H12—are compared to examine the relative impact of different vertical resolutions and 517 maximum detection heights on the analyses and forecasts (Fig. 14). For reflectivity forecasts at 518 thresholds of 20-40 dBZ, the 0-3 h ETSs of FH RD and FH RD H12 are comparable. However, the 519 FH RD H12 experiment achieves higher forecast scores after 3 hours, highlighting the benefit of a 520 higher detection height (Fig. 14a-c). Conversely, the FH_RD_H3 experiment (with the lowest detection height of 3 km) shows the smallest ETS values at 20 and 30 dBZ, while FH_RD_V120 (with a lower 521 522 vertical resolution of 120 m) demonstrates the poorest forecast skill at 40 dBZ. Consistent with the 523 CREF forecast, both FH RD and FH RD H12 show more skillful HPRCP forecasts than 524 FH RD V120 and FH RD H3. However, the ETSs of FH RD are higher than those of FH RD H12 525 at most forecast lead times, which differs from the reflectivity results. Additionally, FH RD H3 526 produces the lowest ETS values throughout the 0-6 h forecasts at thresholds of 2.5-10 mm. Generally, 527 the higher the maximum detection height of RWPs and the denser the vertical distribution of 528 observations, the more significant the positive impact of RWP DA in terms of ETS. Moreover, a 529 maximum detection height of 8 km seems to be a reasonable and effective choice, while the reduction 530 of vertical resolution from 60 m to 120 m has less impact compared to the effect of decreasing the 531 detection altitude to 3 km.

532

Figure 14. Equitable threat score (ETS) for 0-6 h CREF forecasts from the FH_RD (solid),
FH_RD_V120 (dashed), FH_RD_H3 (dotted), and FH_RD_H12 (dashdot) experiments for case 1 at
thresholds of (a) 20, (b) 30, and (c) 40 dBZ, respectively. (d–f) Same as in (a–c), but for 1-6 h HPRCP

- 536 forecasts from each experiment at thresholds of (d) 2.5, (e) 5, and (f) 10 mm, respectively.
- 537

4.2 Aggregate forecast performance

538 Considering the variations in weather scenarios and storm environments across cases, we also 539 examined two additional SW-type heavy rainfall events that occurred over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei 540 region on 28 June and 12 July 2023 to evaluate the impact of RWPs observed from in different spatial 541 layouts on short-term forecasts. Despite the presence of a southwesterly jet stream in all three cases, 542 they produced distinct storm modes under different weather conditions. To delve deeper into the 543 verification metrics from the other twothree cases, we present performance diagrams of CREF and 544 HPRCP forecasts from the FH RD experiment as the best assimilation experiment (Fig. 15 and 16). 545 The results from the NoDA experiment are also shown to provide a clear picture of how RWP 546 observations improve the short-term forecasts across different cases. For both the NoDA and FH RD 547 experiments, the forecast skills generally exhibit lower score metrics and more variability at higher 548 thresholds. Overall, for different these two cases, the FH RD experiment shows higher POD, CSI, and 549 SAR values compared to the NoDA experiment, with more significant improvements observed in the 550 first 3 hours. Most of the BIAS values for FH RD are smaller than those for the NoDA experiment. 551 Except for the 1-3h precipitation forecasts from the case 28 June 2023, the BIAS values of FH RD fall 552 within a reasonable range of 0.8–1.7 for reflectivity and precipitation, indicating overall good forecast 553 performance. It is noted that some of the forecast scores do not decrease monotonically with increasing 554 forecast lead time. For example, in the case 12 July 2023, smaller BIAS and FAR values are obtained 555 for the 3- and 6-h reflectivity and precipitation forecasts, along with higher CSI. This occurs due to 556 several factors: (a) initial scattered convection develops into a larger-scale west-east oriented system 557 covering all of Beijing and central-northern Hebei at later times in this case, which models usually capture better; (b) errors in the timing and location of CI become less significant as convection evolves 558 559 and forms clearer structures; and (c) for the free forecasts initialized from the first few hours, 560 convection may not have started until the final forecast hour. CREF forecasts from FH RD for the case 561 28 June 2023 show the best performance in terms of high POD, SR, and CSI. Meanwhile, persistent underprediction throughout the 1–6 h precipitation forecasts at all thresholds from this case can mostly be traced back to the difficulty in forecasting small-scale, short-lived, and relatively weak precipitation events. This phenomenon is more pronounced in the NoDA experiment, manifested by extremely low POD and CSI values.

567 Figure 15. Performance diagram for 0-6 h CREF forecasts from the NoDA (cyan, dark cyan, and 568 blueblack) and FH RD (orange, red, and brownmagenta) experiments in each case for the case 28 June 569 2023 at thresholds of (a) 20, (b) 30, and (c) 40 dBZ, respectively. (d-f) Same as in (a-c), but for 1-6 h 570 HPRCP forecasts from each case at thresholds of (d) 2.5, (e) 5, and (f) 10 mm, respectively. The 571 numbers within the colored dots in the performance diagrams denote the forecast hour (i.e. 0-, 3- and 572 6-h forecasts). Cyan and orange represent the analysis (1 h forecast for precipitation), dark cyan and 573 red for 3-h forecasts, and blue and brown for 6-h forecasts. Results are shown for a neighborhood 574 radius of 12-km.

576 Figure 16. Same as in Fig. 15, but for the case 12 July 2023.

To gain a comprehensive view of assimilating RWPs from multiple networks, quantitative 577 578 verification parameters (POD, BIAS, FAR, and CSI) from each case are aggregated across all available 579 forecast times. Figures 16-17 and 17-18 display time series of aggregated metrics for CREF forecasts 580 from NoDA, CTL, FH, RD, FH_RD, FH_RD_V120, FH_RD_H3, and FH_RD_H12 experiments at 581 20- and 40-dBZ thresholds, respectively. The error bars for NoDA, CTL, FH, RD, and FH RD in the 582 graphs represent a 95% confidence interval. Compared to NoDA, all DA experiments exhibit more 583 skillful 0-6h reflectivity forecasts, with higher POD and CSI, and smaller FAR. The BIAS values of the assimilation experiments are higher than that of the NoDA experiment (close to unity) at the 584 585 analysis time, and then decreases slightly in the 1-6 h forecasts. However, the BIAS of NoDA increase 586 consistently during 1-6 hours, making it farther from unity. Among CTL, FH, RD, and FH_RD, 587 FH RD consistently outperforms others, showing the highest POD values across all forecast hours (Fig. 588 167a). A slight overprediction bias (1.1–1.2) is observed for all DA experiments at all forecast times 589 (Fig. 167b). CTL exhibits the largest BIAS in the first 3 hours, while FH's BIAS increases to 1.2 over 590 time. FH RD shows the steepest decrease in FAR, indicating the most effective reduction in false

591 alarms (Fig. 16e17c). CTL remains relatively flat and maintains the highest FAR among the four DA 592 experiments throughout the 0-6h forecasts. The FARs for FH and RD forecasts fall between those of 593 FH RD and CTL. Specifically, FH has a lower FAR in the first 3 hours, whereas in the next 3 hours, 594 RD performs better. Similar trend is also evident in CSI values over time (Fig. 16d17d). In conclusion, 595 FH RD consistently performs best overall across all metrics, followed by RD and FH. CTL 596 underperforms, with less improvement in score metrics. Sensitivity tests show FH RD_H12 performs 597 slightly better than FH RD, while FH RD H3 shows the least improvement. FH RD V120 falls 598 between FH RD H12 and FH RD H3, consistent with the single-case study in Sect. 4.1.3.

Figure 1617. Time series of (a) Probability of detection (POD), (b) Bias, (c) false alarm ratio (FAR), and (d) critical success index (CSI) for CREF forecasts aggregated from each initialization hour from the sixth hour to the end of the DA cycles across three cases (June 28, July 12, July 21 of 2023) at the threshold of 20 dBZ for the NoDA (black solid), CTL (green solid), FH (blue solid), RD (red solid), FH_RD (magenta solid), FH_RD_V120 (black dashed), FH_RD_H3 (black dotted), and FH_RD_H12 (black dashdot) experiments. Results are shown for a neighborhood radius of 12-km. Error bars for

599

606 NoDA, CTL, FH, RD, and FH RD experiments represent a 95% confidence interval.

607 Similar to the 20-dBZ reflectivity forecast, RWP DA experiments outperform NoDA at 40-dBZ, 608 although only the POD result in the first 3 hours is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. 609 All DA experiments exhibit an overprediction bias (1.1-1.5) throughout the 0-6 h forecasts (Fig. 610 17b18b). Notably, FH shows the highest bias. However, FH also exhibits the highest POD in the first 2 611 hours and highest CSI and lowest FAR in the first hour. Subsequently, FH RD and RD perform better, 612 with FH RD slightly outperforming RD in 1-3 h forecasts and RD performing better in 4-6 hours. 613 Some possible reasons why FH outperforms RD for shorter forecast lengths but RD outperforms FH 614 for longer forecast lengths are The different impacts of ridge and foothill networks may be attributed to: 615 a) For southwest-type rainfall events, the southwesterly wind propagates from upstream ridge stations 616 to downstream foothill sites (Li et al., 2024). b) Dynamic forcing of terrain, which has a delayed effect 617 on triggering and intensifying storms, leading to improved forecasts for later-occurring storms. c) 618 Assimilating wind observations at foothills, capturing local southwesterly flow characteristics, 619 enhances forecasts of initial moisture lifting and convection triggering. During the first 45 minutes, 620 strong overprediction leads to high FARs, which quickly decline as the forecast progresses (Fig. 17a 621 18a and c). This contributes to an increase in CSI (Fig. 17d18d). A possible reason is that the model 622 requires time (several minutes to an hour) to digest and adjust to assimilated wind information. The 623 impact of vertical resolution and detection height on 40-dBZ reflectivity forecasts is consistent with the 624 results observed at the 20-dBZ threshold.

Figure 1718. Same as in Figure 1617, but for CREF forecasts at the threshold of 40 dBZ.

627 Consistent with the 20-dBZ reflectivity forecast, FH_RD and FH_RD_H12 consistently achieve
628 the best performance across all score metrics in HPRCP forecasts, followed by RD and FH (Fig. <u>18-19</u>
629 and <u>1920</u>). Although the improvements are not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level,
630 FH_RD and FH_RD_H12 exhibit added forecast skill over the NoDA experiment. In contrast, CTL and
631 FH_RD_H3 show <u>minimal smaller</u> improvement across all metrics. At 10-mm threshold, FH produces
632 higher forecast scores than the others in the first hour, while FH_RD and RD show superiority in 2–4 h
633 and 4–6 h, respectively (Fig. <u>1920</u>).

Figure 1819. Same as in Figure 1617, but for 1-6 h HPRCP forecasts aggregated from three cases at the thresholds of 2.5 mm.

638 **Figure 1920.** Same as in Figure 1819, but for precipitation forecasts at the threshold of 10 mm.

639 5. Summary and conclusions

640 In this research, observing system simulation experiments are performed to study the benefits of 641 assimilating RWP observations for convective scale short-term heavy rainfall forecasts. Synthetic RWP observations are assimilated into the WRF model using the NSSL3DVAR DA system for three 642 643 SW-type heavy rainfall events that occurred over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region. To investigate the 644 impact of RWP data observed from multiple networks on convective scale short-term forecasts, the 645 background run (NoDA), which does not assimilate any observations, and four types of DA 646 experiments are carried out. A baseline experiment (CTL), which assimilates RWPs from the 647 operational network alone, is first performed and serves as a benchmark for comparison with 648 subsequent DA experiments. The FH and RD experiments assimilate simulated RWP observations from 649 the foothill and ridge networks of the Taihang Mountains in addition to the operational network. The

650 FH RD experiment is conducted by assimilating combined RWP data from the operational, foothill, 651 and ridge sites. Comparison of analyses and forecasts from these four types of experiments reveals improvements in model initial conditions and short-term severe weather forecasts by assimilating 652 653 simulated RWP observations, as well as the added value of RWPs from the foothill and ridge networks 654 over operational network data. Furthermore, three sensitivity DA experiments (FH RD V120, 655 FH RD H3, and FH RD H12) are carried out to test the impact of vertical resolution and maximum 656 detection heights. The purpose of these experiments is to investigate a potential optimal configuration 657 for the vertical data availability of real-time RWPs to be assimilated in future convective scale NWP. 658 For each DA experiment, the analysis is cycled for 9 hours at 15-min intervals, with a 6-h free forecast 659 initiated every hour starting from the sixth hour of the analysis cycles. First of all, both subjective and 660 objective verifications of the analysis and forecast were performed in detail for the 21 July 2023 case. 661 Then statistical metrics, including neighborhood-based POD, FAR, BIAS, and CSI of reflectivity and 662 precipitation forecasts, were aggregated from each initialization hour across the three cases. The main 663 results are summarized as follows:

664 1) Comparison of wind analyses and forecasts among the CTL, FH, RD, and FH RD 665 experiments reveals that the FH RD experiment yields the smallest wind errors, both in terms of 666 the overall domain average and the vertical profile of RMSEs for wind components. Then, it is 667 followed by RD, then FH, with CTL exhibiting the largest wind errors. A qualitative evaluation of 668 the model's initial mesoscale dynamics indicates that the assimilation of RWP data successfully 669 corrects the wind direction and speed biases in Beijing and its surrounding areas, enhancing the 670 southwesterly jet. Moreover, both RD and FH RD (with the assimilation of RWP data from the 671 ridge network) remarkably reduce large wind errors in the upstream of Beijing along the 672 mountains, which is crucial for CI in the vicinity of the boundary between Hebei and southwestern 673 Beijing.

674 2) For the 21 July 2023 event, qualitative verification focused on the convective system
675 initiated southwest of Beijing, which intensified after merging with storms from western Hebei,
676 forming a prominent southwest-northeast oriented system across Beijing. The NoDA experiment
677 initially underestimates convection in Beijing and Hebei but overpredicts storm coverage and
678 intensity in later forecasts, generating excessive spurious convection. All RWP DA experiments
679 enhance CI timing and location by capturing mesoscale flow features, subsequently reducing storm

680 displacement and intensity errors. Nevertheless, the CTL experiment underestimates storm 681 intensity, while FH still retains some spurious echoes in forecasts. Overall, the FH RD experiment 682 demonstrates significant superiority in areal coverage, storm mode, and orientation compared to 683 the other DA experiments. The accumulated precipitation forecasts show similar trends to the 684 reflectivity results regarding rainfall location, onset time, and amount. The forecast statistics 685 indicate that FH RD achieves the best performance in reflectivity and precipitation forecasts at 686 lower thresholds (i.e., 20- and 30-dBZ for CREF, and 2.5-mm for HPRCP), whereas the RD 687 experiment slightly surpasses FH RD at the 50-dBZ and 10-mm thresholds. The lower 688 performance of FH RD and FH at higher thresholds may be linked to slight displacement errors in 689 heavy precipitation forecasts, impacting their POD and ETS scores.

690 3) Quantitative verification results aggregated across the three SW-type heavy rainfall 691 cases in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region confirm that FH_RD exhibits the best performance in 692 reflectivity and precipitation forecasts, followed by RD and FH, while CTL shows minimal 693 improvement. An exception is that at higher thresholds, FH achieves the best scores in the first 1 or 694 2 hours despite stronger overprediction, while FH RD and RD are superior in subsequent hours. 695 This is potentially attributed to the delayed effect of dynamic forcing from the terrain, as well as 696 improvements in capturing the initial southwesterly flow and local convection by assimilating 697 wind observations at the foothills. In addition, the results from sensitivity experiments on vertical 698 resolution and maximum detection height indicate that FH RD H12 exhibits comparable or 699 slightly better performance compared to FH_RD, benefiting from its higher detection height. 700 Conversely, the FH RD H3 experiment, with the lowest detection height, has the poorest forecast 701 skills among all DA experiments, while FH RD V120 generally falls between FH RD H12 and 702 FH RD H3.

The results consistently demonstrate that the FH_RD experiment, combining data from ridge, foothill, and operational wind profiler networks, delivers the most accurate short-term forecasts. Specifically, the assimilation of RWP data from ridge network significantly reduces wind errors in complex terrain, such as the Taihang Mountains upstream of Beijing. These regions are critical for convective initiation in Beijing and its surroundings. The findings highlight the essential role of integrating both ridge and foothill data in improving overall reflectivity and precipitation forecasts over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region. Sensitivity experiments on vertical resolution and detection height further emphasize the importance of high vertical resolution and maximizing detection height inoptimizing the RWP network for enhanced forecast accuracy.

712 The insights gained from this OSSE study on the impacts of RWP observations on heavy rainfall 713 forecasting will inform the design of optimal RWP networks over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region. 714 This preliminary study lays the groundwork for further research to fully understand the complexities of 715 precipitation forecasting related to data assimilation. The current investigation focused on three 716 SW-type heavy rainfall cases occurring in summer over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, utilizing 717 model-simulated states and observational networks. As the same modeling system is used for the truth 718 run and forecast systemthe fraternal twin scheme is used in this study, it does not account for 719 model-related errors that occur in real-world applications. Consequently, the results might overestimate 720 the actual benefits of RWP assimilation in operational systems. Furthermore, this study focuses 721 exclusively on assimilating RWP data, without incorporating conventional observations or satellite data. 722 While this approach simplifies the analysis by isolating the impact of RWPs, it may inflate their 723 relative importance. Future research directions include: (1) Expanding the study to other precipitation 724 types and high-impact convective events under diverse weather scenarios. (2) Evaluating the impact of 725 RWP networks by assimilating RWPs together with more diverse observation types and incorporating 726 non-identical twin setups to enhance realism and provide broader operational insights. (3) Investigating 727 the benefits of assimilating real observational data on convective scale NWP once proposed RWP 728 networks become available. Moreover, future studies can address the limitations of static background 729 errors in 3DVAR by incorporating flow-dependent background error covariances estimated from 730 ensemble forecasts. As ensemble-based background error covariances can dynamically adapt to the 731 evolving state of the atmosphere, the DA system will better represent the spatial and temporal 732 variability of background errors, particularly in regions with complex topography or mesoscale features 733 like convective systems. By leveraging flow-dependent background errors, the analysis can more 734 accurately capture the initial atmospheric state, ultimately leading to more accurate precipitation 735 predictions.

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737 Code and data availability

The WRF model may be downloaded from https://github.com/wrf-model (WRF, 2023). The ERA5 738 739 reanalysis GFS and forecast data accessible from ECMWF are 740 (https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5/) and National Centers for 741 Environmental Prediction, National Weather Service, NOAA, U.S. Department of Commerce 742 (https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/d084003/dataaccess/), respectively. The source code for WRF model 743 version 3.7.1, and the input ERA5 and GFS data used in this study have been archived on Zenodo at 744 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14321805. The namelist files for WRF and the assimilation system used 745 in this study are accessible online (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14241597).

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747 Author contributions

- JZ and JG conceptualized the study. JZ executed the experiments, analyzed the results, and wrote the
- paper. JG supervised the project, provided critical feedback during the experiment implemention stage,
- and revised the paper. XZ assisted in the analysis and visualizations.

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752 Competing interests

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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