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**Impact of Multiple Radar Wind Profilers Data  
Assimilation on Convective Scale Short-Term Rainfall  
Forecasts: OSSE Studies over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei  
region**

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## Abstract

19

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 profings 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  
65 area of approximately 100 km × 100 km, while there are only 11 profilers in the whole Hebei province  
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).

96 To investigate the impact of a RWP network in complex terrain on heavy rainfall forecasts, we  
97 focus on southwest (SW)-type rainfall events associated with southwesterly flow, which constitutes  
98 approximately 40% of the total circulation patterns in the BTH region during early summer (Li et al.,  
99 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

128 parameterizations include the National Severe Storms Laboratory (NSSL) two-moment four-ice  
 129 category bulk microphysics scheme (Mansell et al., 2010; Mansell and Ziegler, 2013; Ziegler, 1985),  
 130 the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM) longwave radiation scheme (Mlawer et al., 1997), the  
 131 Dudhia shortwave radiation scheme (Dudhia, 1989), the Rapid Update Cycle (RUC) land surface  
 132 scheme (Benjamin et al., 2004), and the Yonsei University (YSU) planetary boundary layer scheme  
 133 (Hong et al., 2006).

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

$$139 \quad J = J_b + J_o + J_c = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b)^T \mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_b) + \frac{1}{2}(H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}_o)^T \mathbf{R}^{-1}(H(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{y}_o) + J_c, \quad (1)$$

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

148 The NSSL3DVAR system assimilates multi-sensor high-resolution observations like radar radial  
 149 velocity and reflectivity (Gao et al., 2013, 2016), sounding and surface data (Hu et al., 2021), and  
 150 multiple satellite-retrieved products, such as cloud water path (Pan et al., 2021), total precipitable water  
 151 (Jones et al., 2018; Pan et al., 2018), atmospheric motion vectors (Mallick and Jones, 2020; Zhao et al.,  
 152 2021b, 2022), and Geostationary Lightning Mapper (GLM)-derived water vapor (Fierro et al., 2019a; Hu  
 153 et al., 2020). To enhance the wind field analysis, particularly in the PBL, this study incorporates a RWP  
 154 assimilation module into the system. Since heavy rainfall and other severe weather events require fast  
 155 and timely delivery of forecasts and early warning to the public, computationally efficient 3DVAR is  
 156 quite suitable for the severe weather forecasts by providing highly efficient and rapid updating analysis

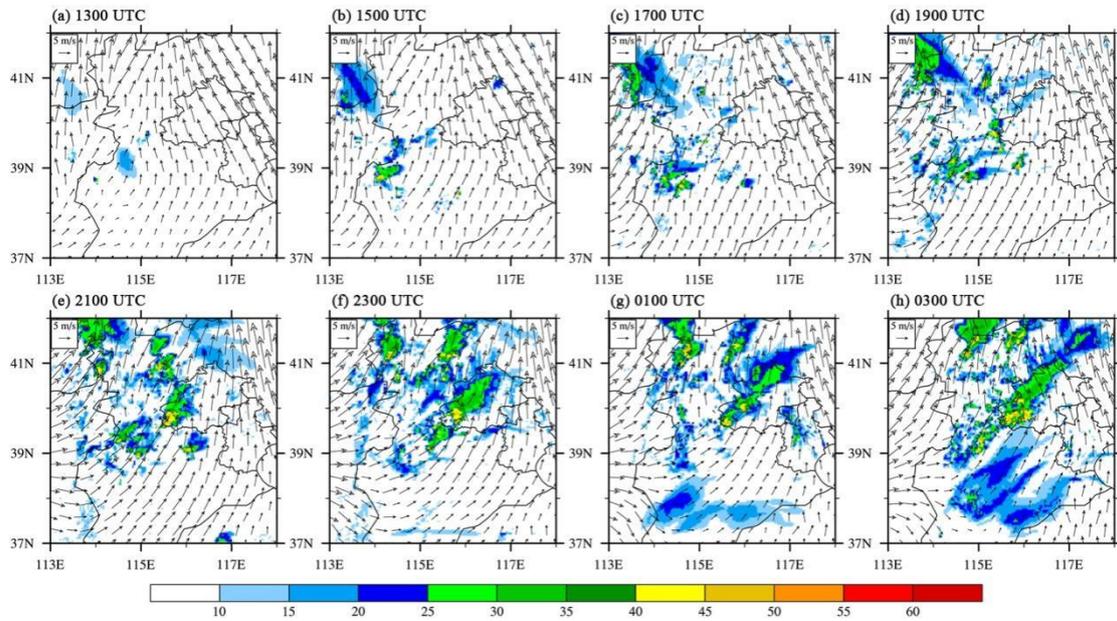
157 and forecast, such as 15-min cycle intervals. Our focus is to assess the potential impacts of RWP  
158 network enhancements on convective-scale analysis and short-term severe weather prediction with this  
159 efficient DA method, so we did not use the ensemble derived background error covariance, which is  
160 also incorporated in the variational framework (Gao et al., 2016; Gao & Stensrud, 2014; Wang et al.,  
161 2019). The background error covariance matrix used in this study is constructed as the product of a  
162 diagonal matrix representing the standard deviations of background errors and a spatial recursive filter  
163 (Gao et al., 2004, 2013). The standard deviations for the pressure, potential temperature, relative  
164 humidity, zonal and meridional wind components are derived from the statistics of the Rapid Update  
165 Cycle (RUC, Benjamin et al., 2004) 3-hour forecasts over several years (Fierro et al., 2019b; Pan et al.,  
166 2021). The background error correlations are modeled by the recursive filter described by Purser et al.  
167 (2003a, b). The recursive filter can be applied in multiple passes (or outer loops), using different  
168 correlation length scales tailored to the scale of the weather systems represented by the assimilated  
169 observations.

### 170 **3. Experimental design**

#### 171 **3.1 Truth run and background run for OSSE**

172 In the OSSE, synthetic RWP observations are generated by adding observation errors to the truth  
173 run. To obtain this truth run, the WRF model is initialized with the fifth-generation European Centre  
174 for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) atmospheric reanalysis of the global climate (ERA5;  
175 Hersbach et al., 2020; Hoffmann et al., 2019), based on the model configuration and parameterization  
176 schemes described in Sect. 2. Three SW-type heavy rainfall cases that occurred over the  
177 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region on 28 June, 12 July, and 21 July of 2023 are selected to construct OSSEs  
178 and assess the impact of RWP data observed from different spatial layout schemes on convective  
179 initiation and the development of storms. For each case, the model is initialized using the ERA5 data  
180 and integrated forward for 15 hours, with the boundary conditions also provided by the hourly ERA5  
181 data. An overview of composite reflectivity in the truth simulation from the case on 21 July 2023 is  
182 shown in Fig. 1 as an example. This case was characterized by the presence of an upper-level trough  
183 gradually moving eastward into the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, accompanied by a corresponding  
184 low-level vortex before the evening of 20 July. Meanwhile, southeasterly winds at the lower levels

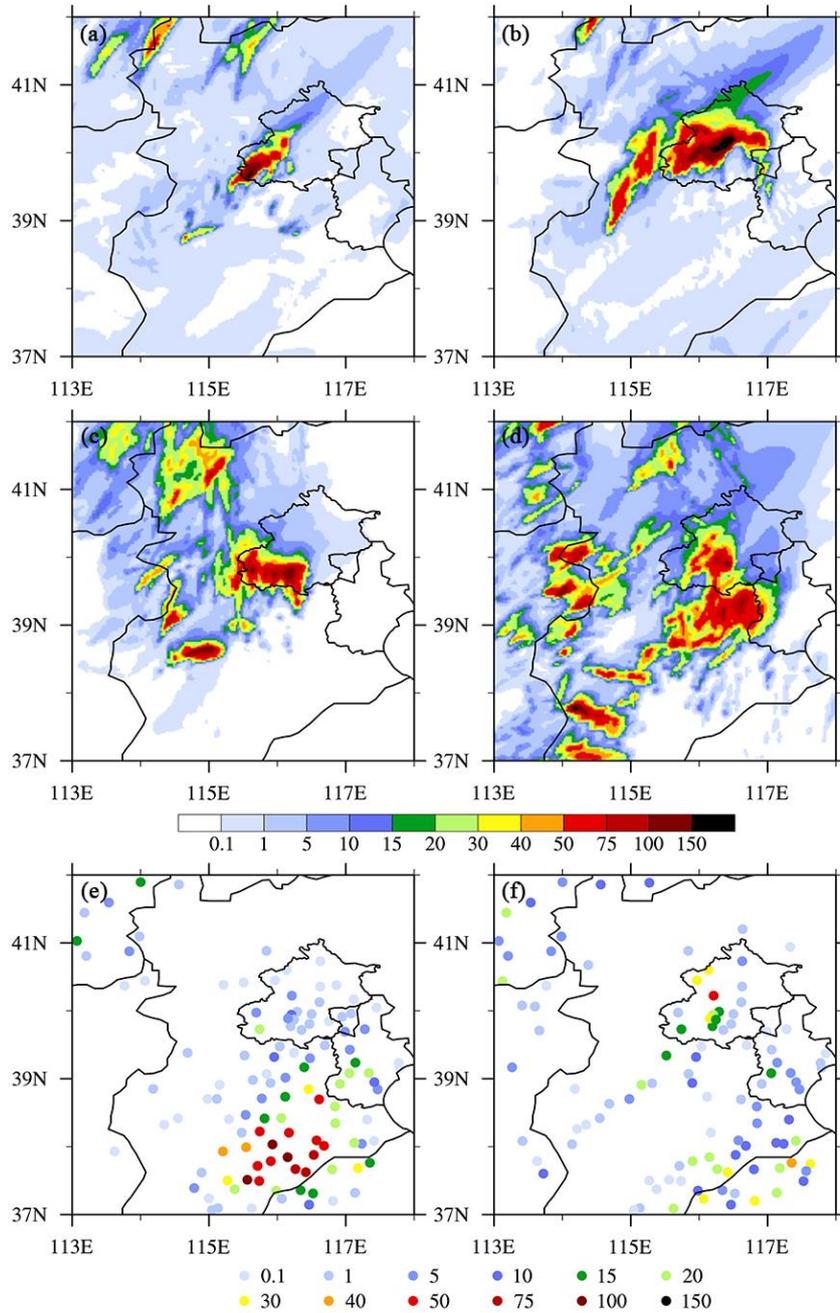
185 continuously transported moisture, leading to high instability in central Hebei, and in the western and  
 186 southern parts of Beijing. The combination of easterly winds and topographical effects created  
 187 favorable conditions for heavy precipitation. Several discrete storms initiated and developed in  
 188 west-central Hebei near the foothills of the Taihang Mountains (Fig. 1a-c). With the westerly trough  
 189 moving east and strong southerly airflow strengthening water vapor transport, scattered convective  
 190 cells formed in the vicinity of the boundary between Hebei and southwestern Beijing around 1900 UTC  
 191 on 20 July, then aggregated and developed into a mesoscale convective system in southwest Beijing  
 192 (Fig. 1d-f). Additionally, convective storms in west-central Hebei gradually moved northeastward and  
 193 merged with the mesoscale convective system (Fig. 1g). The convective system slowly moved  
 194 northeastward and elongated in the southwest–northeast direction (Fig. 1h), persisting across  
 195 west-central Beijing until 0900 UTC on 21 July 2023 (Fig. 2).



196  
 197 **Figure 1.** Simulated composite reflectivity (dBZ, shaded) and winds at 700 hPa ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ , vectors) for the  
 198 truth simulation from 1300 UTC 20 July to 0300 UTC 21 July, 2023.

199 This study utilizes an OSSE framework with an identical twin setup, where the same numerical  
 200 model is used for both the truth simulation and the forecast system. As noted by Hoffman and Atlas  
 201 (2016), OSSEs with identical twin setups can lead to overly optimistic assessments of data impacts.  
 202 Therefore, the results should be interpreted within that constraint. To mitigate unrealistic assumptions  
 203 about observational capabilities and overly optimistic OSSE results, the first-guess background run  
 204 (NoDA) uses the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global Forecast System (GFS)  
 205 forecasts for initial and boundary conditions, which differ from those of the truth run. The 6-h

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



216

217 **Figure 2.** The 6-h accumulated precipitation (APCP) forecasts (mm, shaded) from 2100 UTC 20 July

218 to 0300 UTC 21 July (left), and from 0300 UTC 21 July to 0900 UTC 21 July, 2023 (right) for (a)-(b)

219 Truth, (c)-(d) NoDA experiments, and (e)-(f) the rain gauge measurements at national weather stations.

220 The rain gauges that did not measure any precipitation are not included here.

### 221 3.2 Synthetic RWP observations

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

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

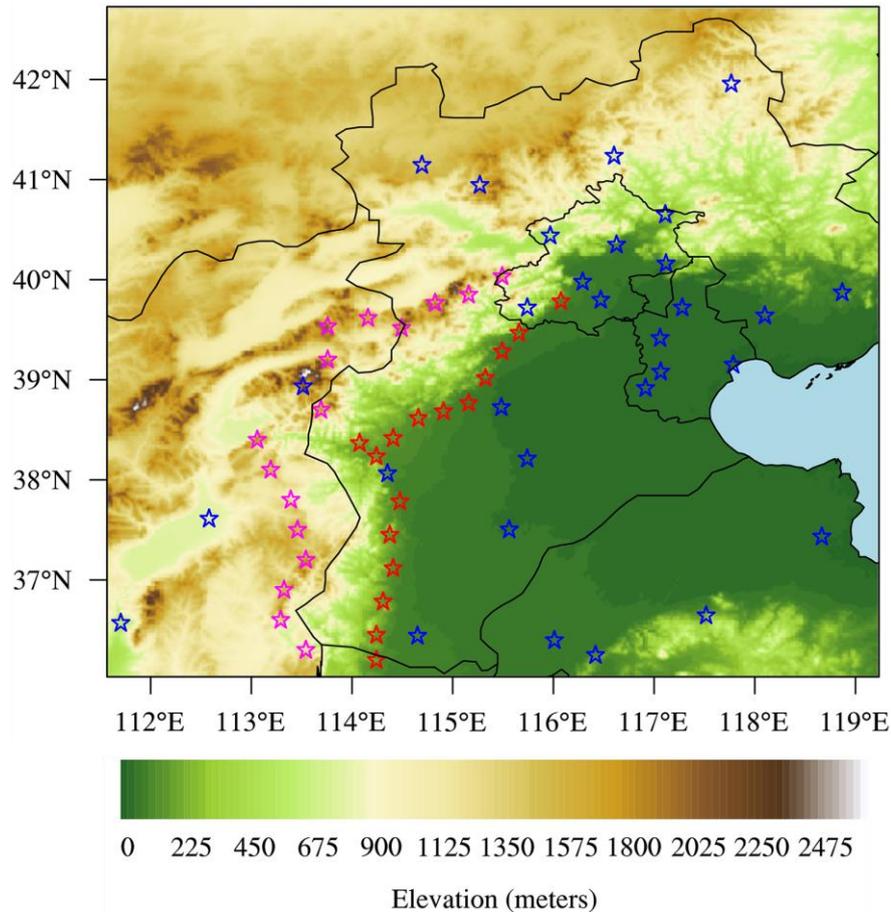
224 the operating frequency (Liu et al., 2020). The network comprises three RWP types: high-troposphere,

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 238 \quad H(1) &= H_{\text{elev}} + 500 \\
 H(k) &= H(1) + k \times H_{\text{inc}}, \quad \text{if } H(k) \leq H_{\text{max}}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

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

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

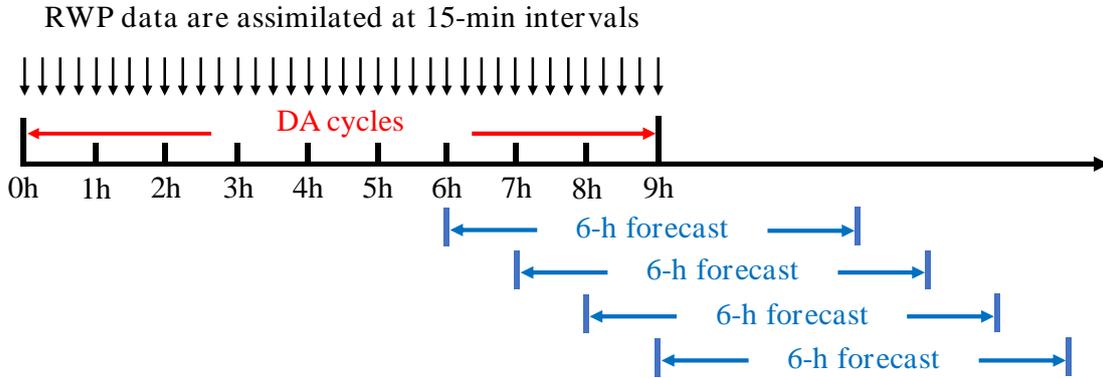


251  
 252 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of the operational RWP network (blue stars), and simulated RWP network  
 253 along the foothill (red stars) and ridge (magenta stars) of the Taihang Mountains within the simulation  
 254 domain. The terrain is represented by color shading, and the ocean is shown in light blue.

255 **3.3 Experimental Design**

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

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



268  
 269 **Figure 4.** Illustration of the data assimilation and forecast cycle workflow. A 6-h forecast is launched  
 270 every hour from the sixth hour to the end of the DA cycles (namely, four separate forecasts).

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

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

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

279 CTL: control DA experiment; FH: foothill; RD: ridge

280 The second and third types of experiments assimilate the simulated foothill and ridge RWPs,  
281 respectively, in conjunction with data from operational sites (referred to as FH and RD). The fourth type  
282 of experiment FH\_RD is performed by assimilating the operational, foothill, and ridge profilers with the  
283 same vertical resolution and maximum detection height as before. Additionally, three sensitivity  
284 experiments FH\_RD\_V120, FH\_RD\_H3, FH\_RD\_H12 are designed to assess the influence of  
285 assimilating RWP data with different vertical resolution (120 m) and maximum detection heights (3 km,  
286 12 km) on the analyses and forecasts, to address the potential usage of real-time data from RWPs  
287 operating at different frequencies.

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

### 297 **3.4 Evaluation metrics**

298 This study examines the impact of RWP DA on wind analyses and forecasts during a southwest  
299 (SW)-type heavy rainfall event on 21 July 2023. To obtain an overall insight into the impact of RWP  
300 DA on wind analyses and forecasts, time series and probability density distributions, as well as vertical  
301 profiles of root-mean-square errors (RMSEs) for wind components during the DA cycles and 6-h free  
302 forecasts are calculated for each type of assimilation experiment. Additionally, subjective diagnostic  
303 analyses of wind vectors improved by assimilation of RWPs are also discussed in more detail. To  
304 investigate the impact on short-term forecasts, both qualitative and quantitative assessments of radar  
305 reflectivity and accumulated precipitation forecasts are conducted against the truth run. To evaluate the  
306 performance quantitatively, the neighborhood-based equitable threat score (ETS, Clark et al., 2010) is  
307 calculated using a neighborhood radius of 12-km for different thresholds of composite reflectivity  
308 (CREF) and hourly precipitation (HPRCP). Using the same neighborhood radius and thresholds,

309 contingency-table based metrics including the probability of detection (POD), false alarm ratio (FAR),  
310 success ratio (SR), frequency bias (BIAS), and critical success index (CSI) are also calculated to  
311 quantify the CREF and HPRCP forecasts. To account for case-to-case variability, two additional  
312 SW-type heavy rainfall events (28 June and 12 July 2023) are examined. Finally, score metrics are  
313 aggregated from each initialization hour (sixth hour to end of the DA cycles) across three cases,  
314 ensuring a fair and consistent measure of forecast skill.

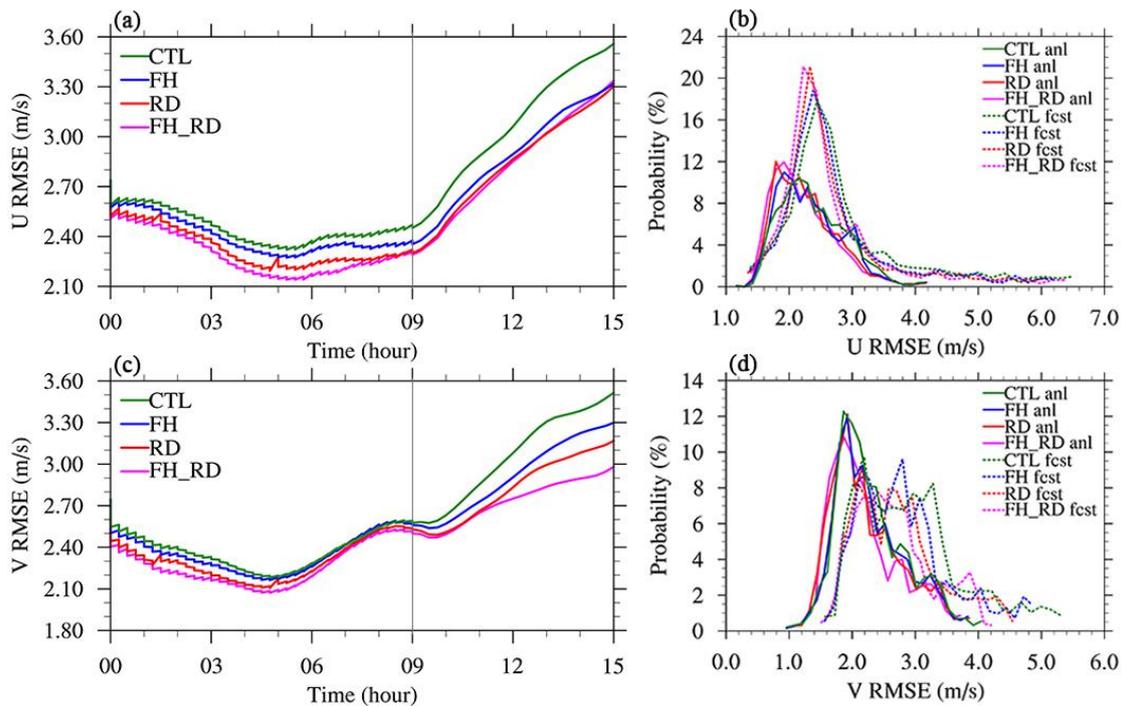
## 315 **4 Results and discussion**

### 316 **4.1 21 July 2023 case**

#### 317 **4.1.1 The impact on wind fields**

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

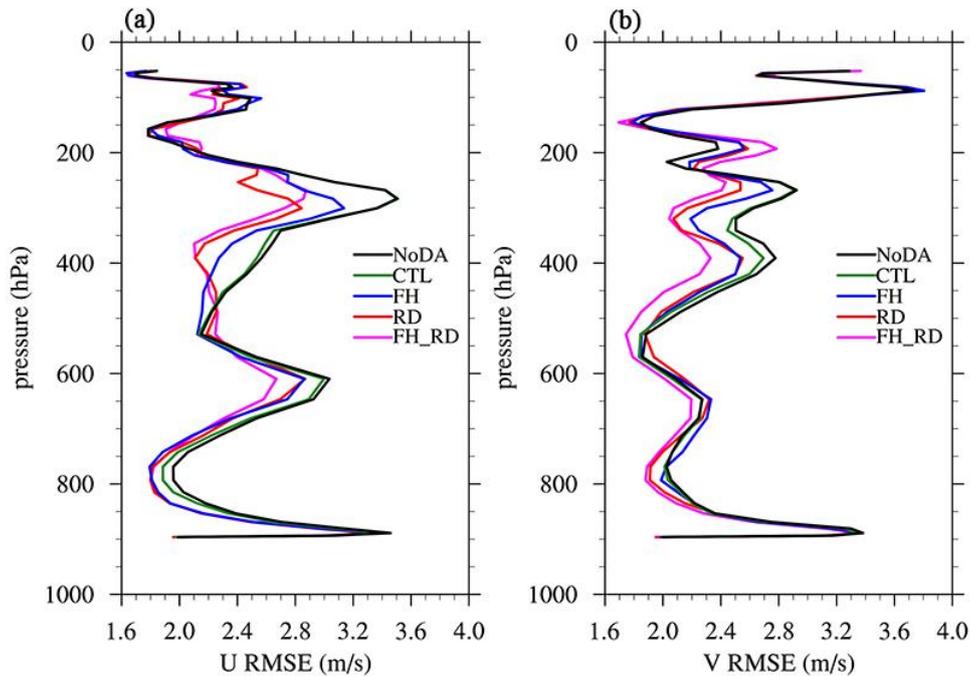
332 background field are larger in mountainous regions than flatlands (this issue will be discussed in detail  
 333 later in this section). The superiority of FH\_RD, RD, and FH over the CTL experiment persists during  
 334 the subsequent 6-h free forecasts, highlighting the impact of wind profile observations gathered from  
 335 ridge and foothill networks. It is also noted that the difference in the meridional wind among FH, RD,  
 336 and FH\_RD is more pronounced than that of the zonal wind, which can be related to the varying degree  
 337 of improvement in the southerly jet intensity. Generally, the PDF figures show that the distributions of  
 338 wind analyses are skewed towards smaller error values compared to those of forecasts, with the wind  
 339 forecasts exhibiting a heavy tail towards larger error values (Fig. 5b and d). For example, the analysis  
 340 errors for the  $v$  variable tend to cluster around 1.6–2.6 m/s, while the PDFs of forecast errors show  
 341 peaks near 2.0–3.4 m/s. The patterns in distributions from different assimilation experiments align with  
 342 the results observed in the time series analysis.



343  
 344 **Figure 5.** Time series of root-mean-square errors (RMSEs) for (a)  $u$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and (c)  $v$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) analyses  
 345 and forecasts from the CTL (green), FH (blue), RD (red), and FH\_RD (magenta) experiments. The thin  
 346 grey line separates analysis cycling and 6-h free forecasts. Probability density distribution (PDF) of

347 RMSEs for (b)  $u$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and (d)  $v$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) analyses (solid) and forecasts (dashed) from four  
 348 experiments.

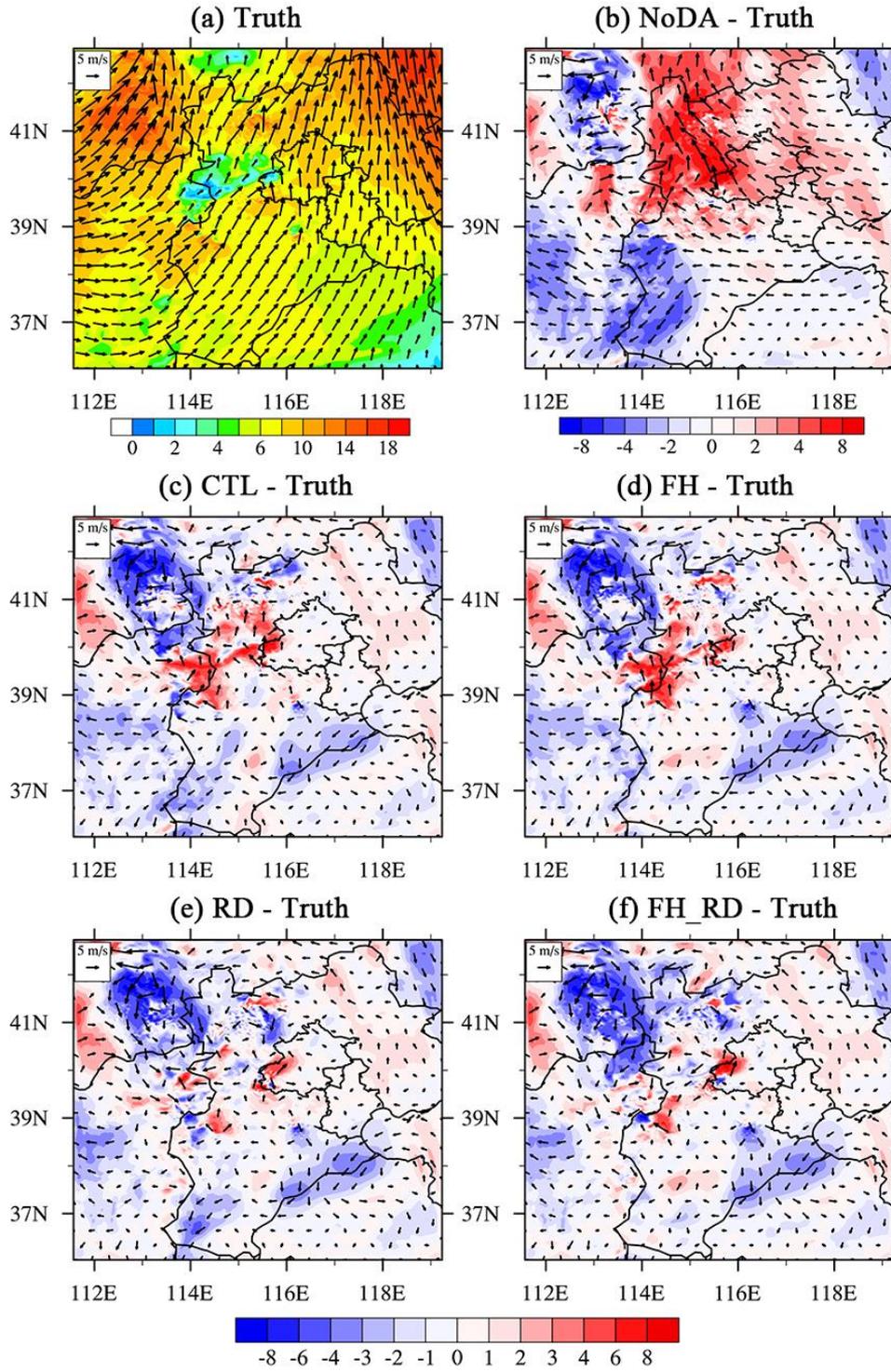
349 To assess the impact of the DA experiments at different altitudes, Fig. 6 presents the vertical  
 350 profiles of domain-averaged RMSEs of wind analyses at the end of the assimilation cycles. Compared  
 351 to the NoDA experiment, the assimilation of RWPs generally has a positive effect on the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



359  
 360 **Figure 6.** Vertical profiles of domain-averaged RMSEs for (a)  $u$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ), and (b)  $v$  ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) analyses at  
 361 2100 UTC 20 July 2023 (end of analysis cycling) from the NoDA (black), CTL (green), FH (blue), RD  
 362 (red), and FH\_RD (magenta) experiments.

363 To examine how the RWP DA adjusts the mesoscale airflow, we present the 700-hPa wind  
 364 vectors and wind speeds from all experiments as an illustration of the model's dynamic conditions (Fig.  
 365 7). For clarity, Fig. 7b-f compare the differences in wind vectors and wind speeds between the DA

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

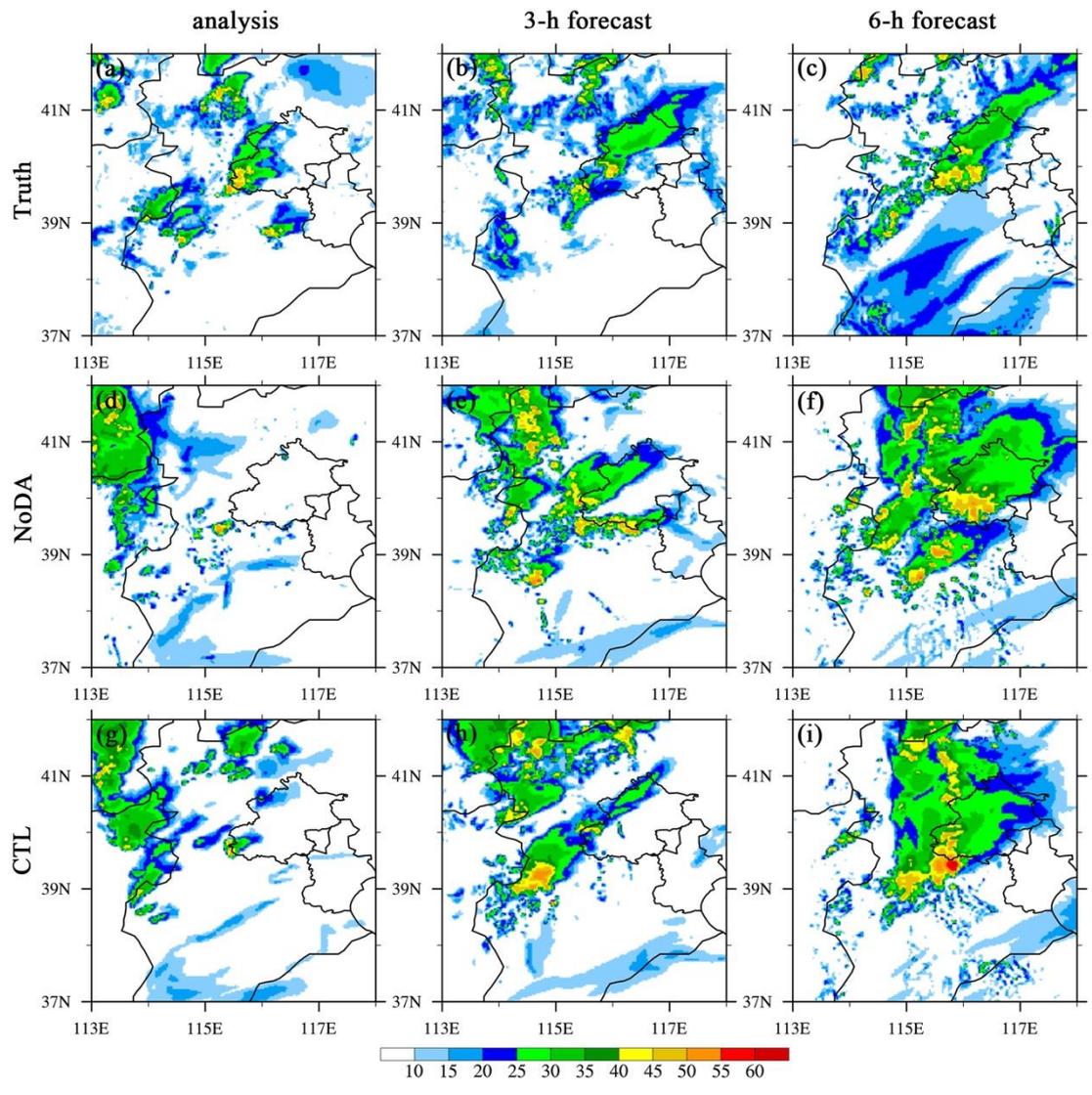


389

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

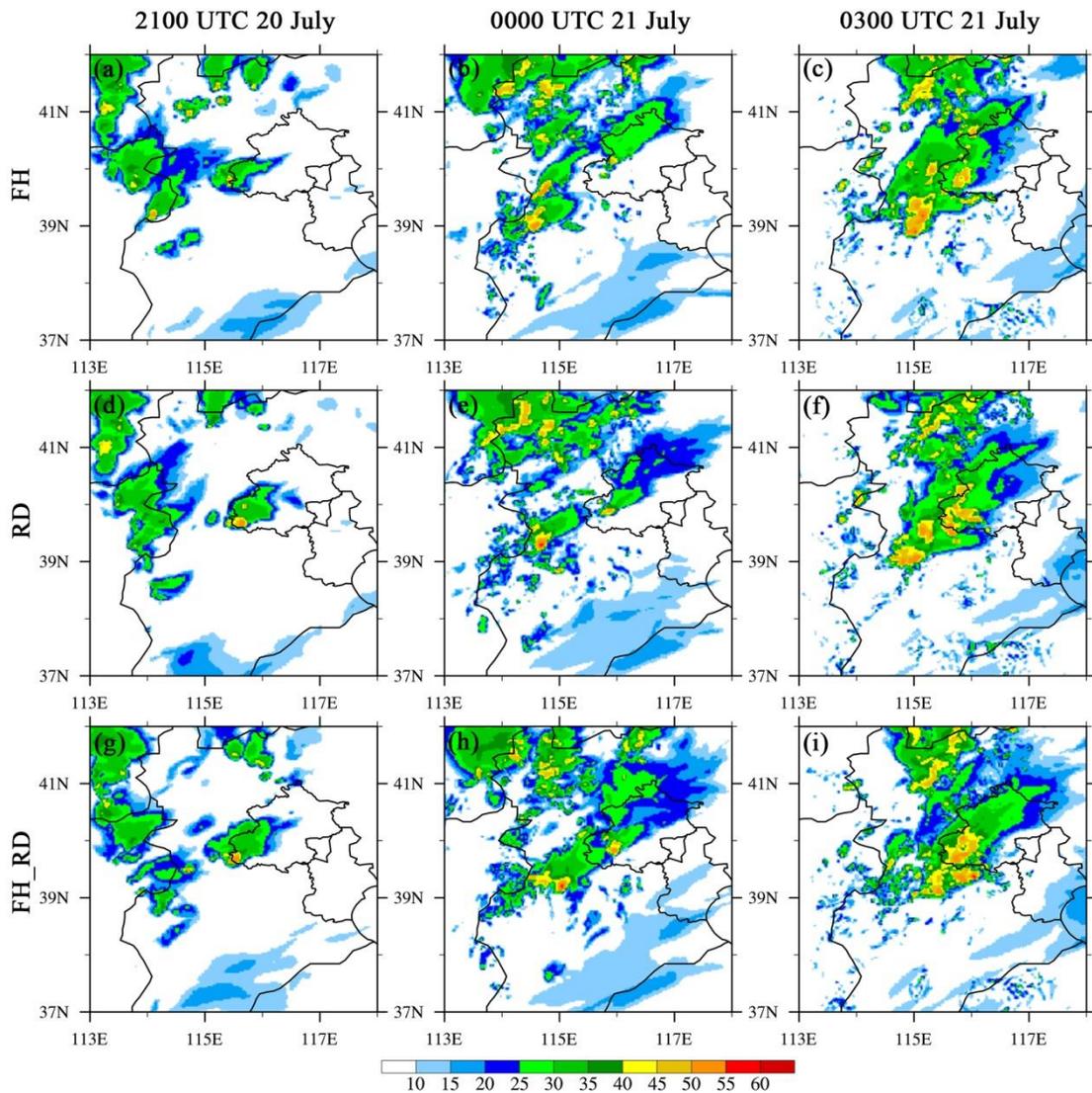
#### 394 **4.1.2 The impact on reflectivity and precipitation forecasts**

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



418

419 **Figure 8.** The composite reflectivity (dBZ, shaded) for (left) analysis, (middle) 3-h forecast, and (right)  
 420 6-h forecast from (a)–(c) truth simulation, (d)–(f) NoDA, and (g)–(i) CTL experiments initialized at  
 421 2100 UTC 20 July 2023.

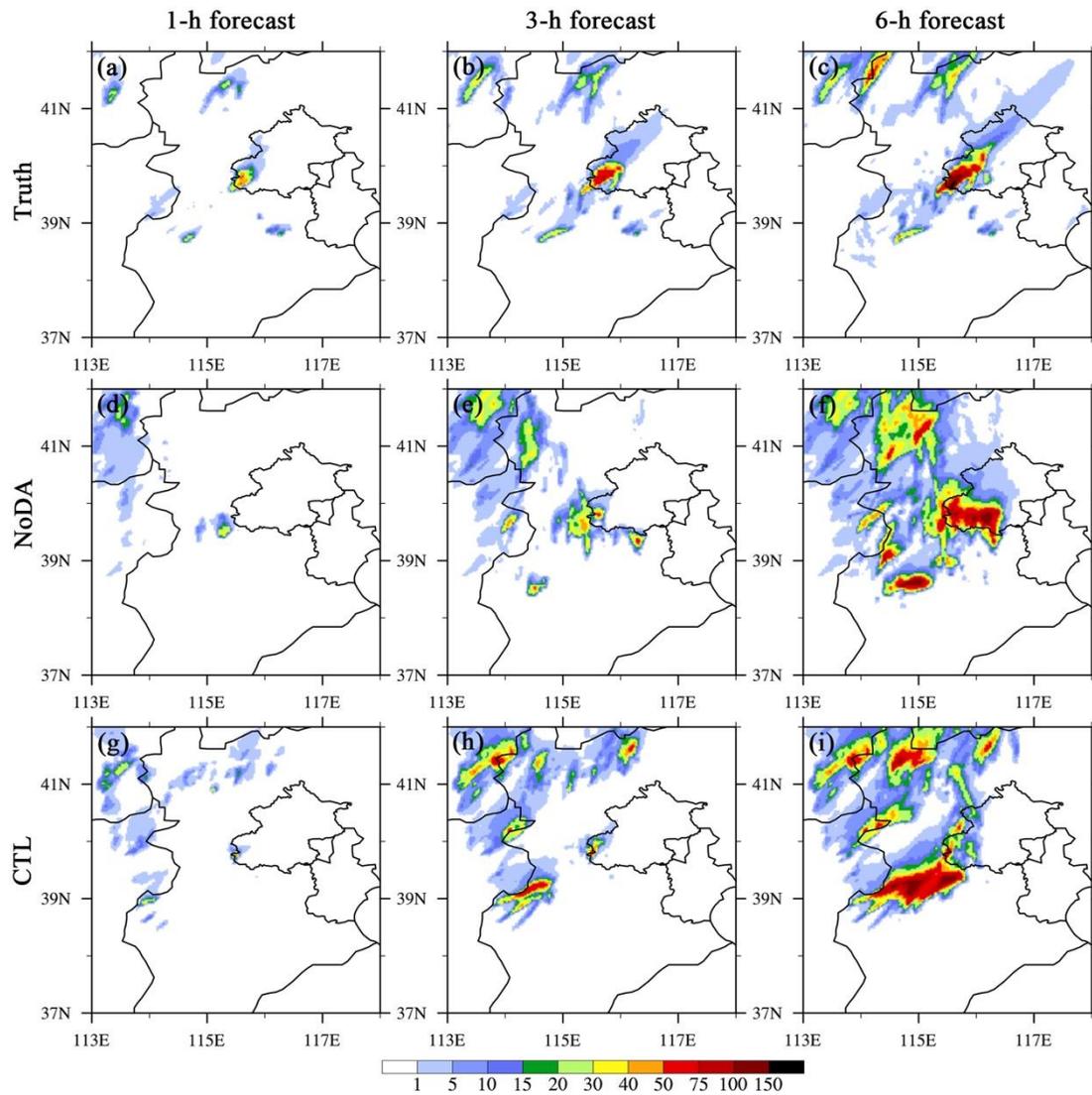


422

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

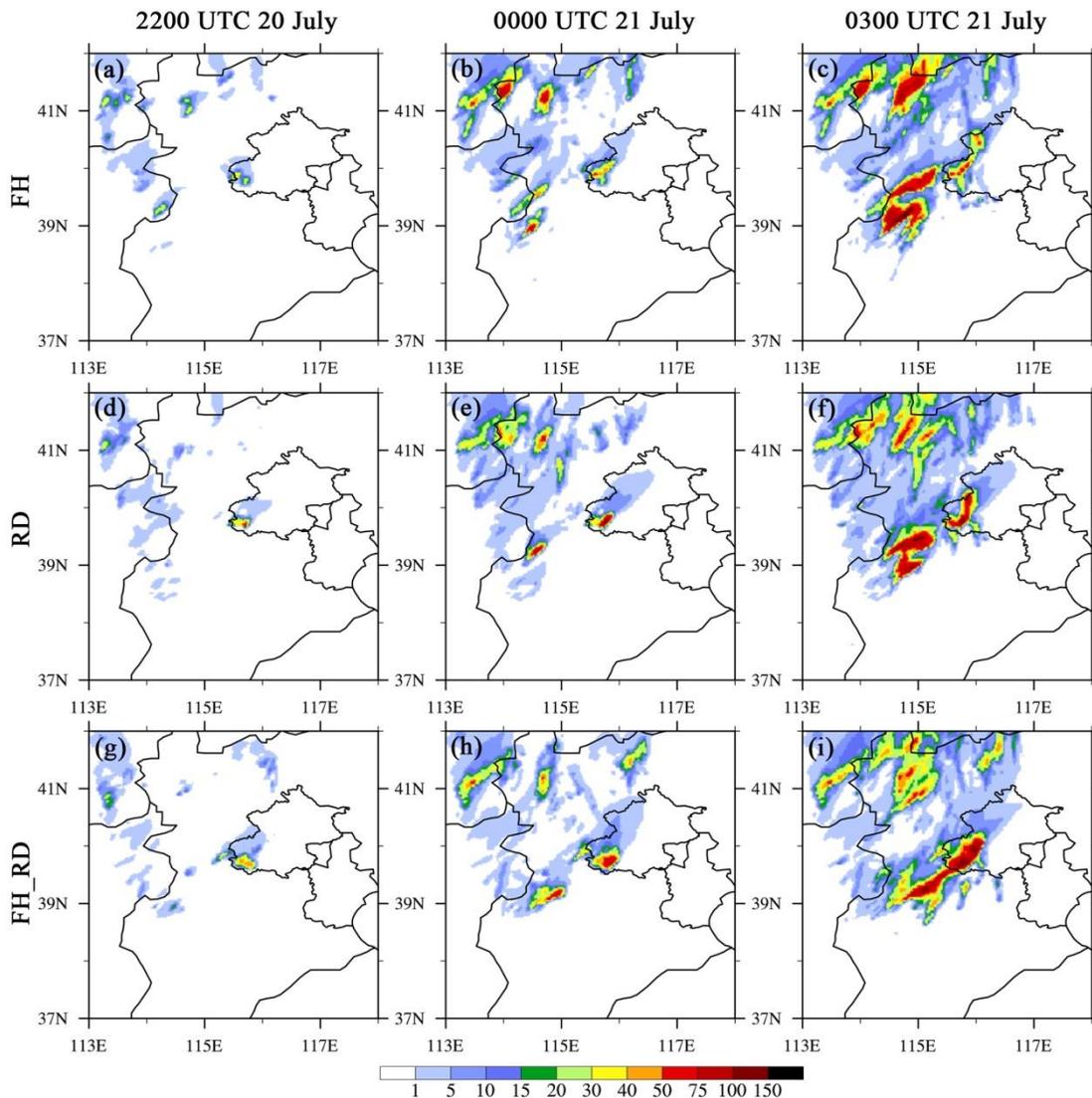
425 Concerning precipitation, the 1-, 3-, and 6-h accumulated precipitation (APCP) forecasts exhibit  
 426 similar behavior to the reflectivity results in terms of rainfall location, onset time, and amount (Fig. 10  
 427 and 11). As discussed above, all assimilation experiments predict the initial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

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



447

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

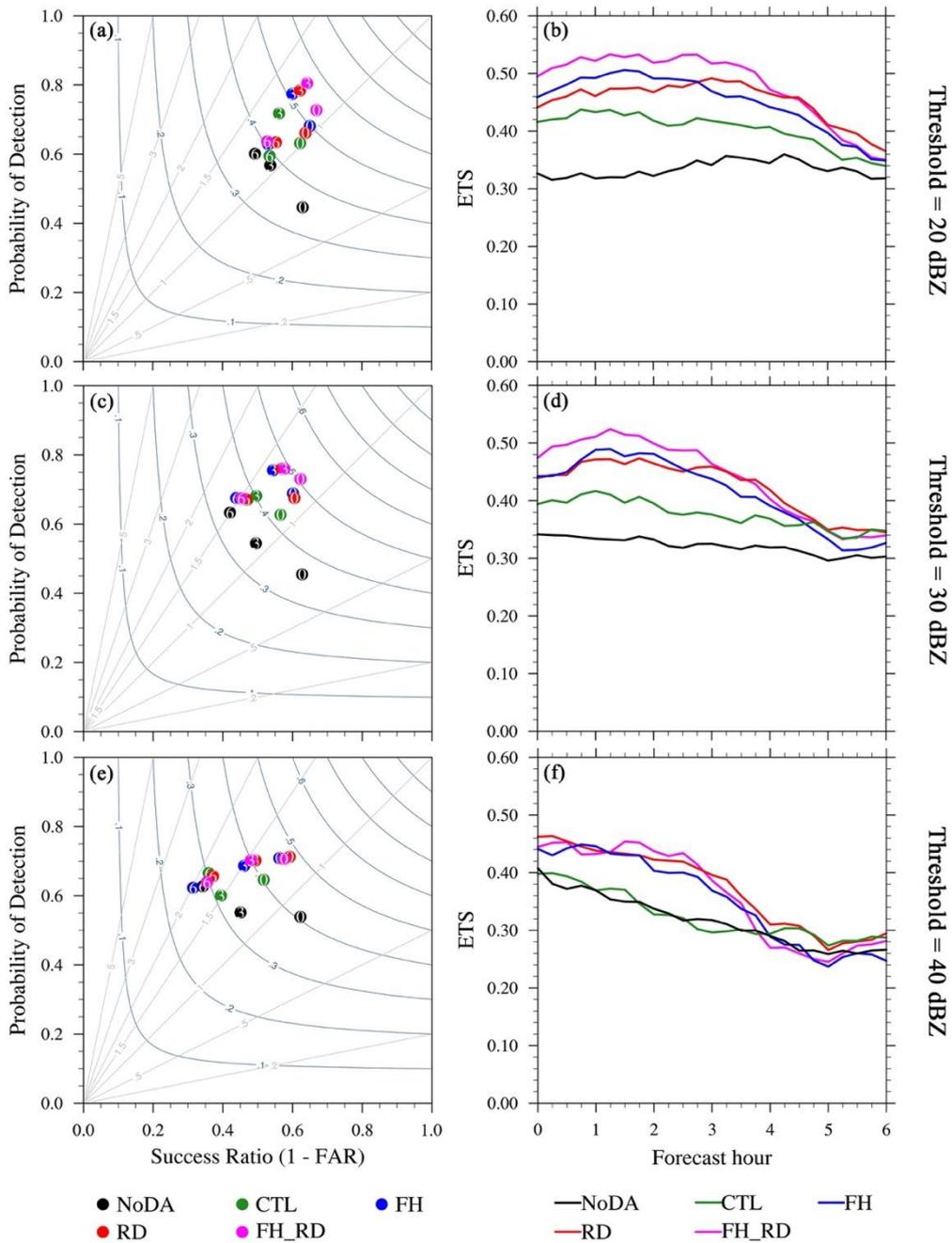


451

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

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

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



481

482 **Figure 12.** Aggregate score metrics of 0-6 h composite reflectivity (CREF) forecasts aggregated from

483 each initialization hour from the sixth hour to the end of the DA cycles for case 1 for the NoDA (black),

484 CTL (green), FH (blue), RD (red), and FH\_RD (magenta) experiments. (left) The performance

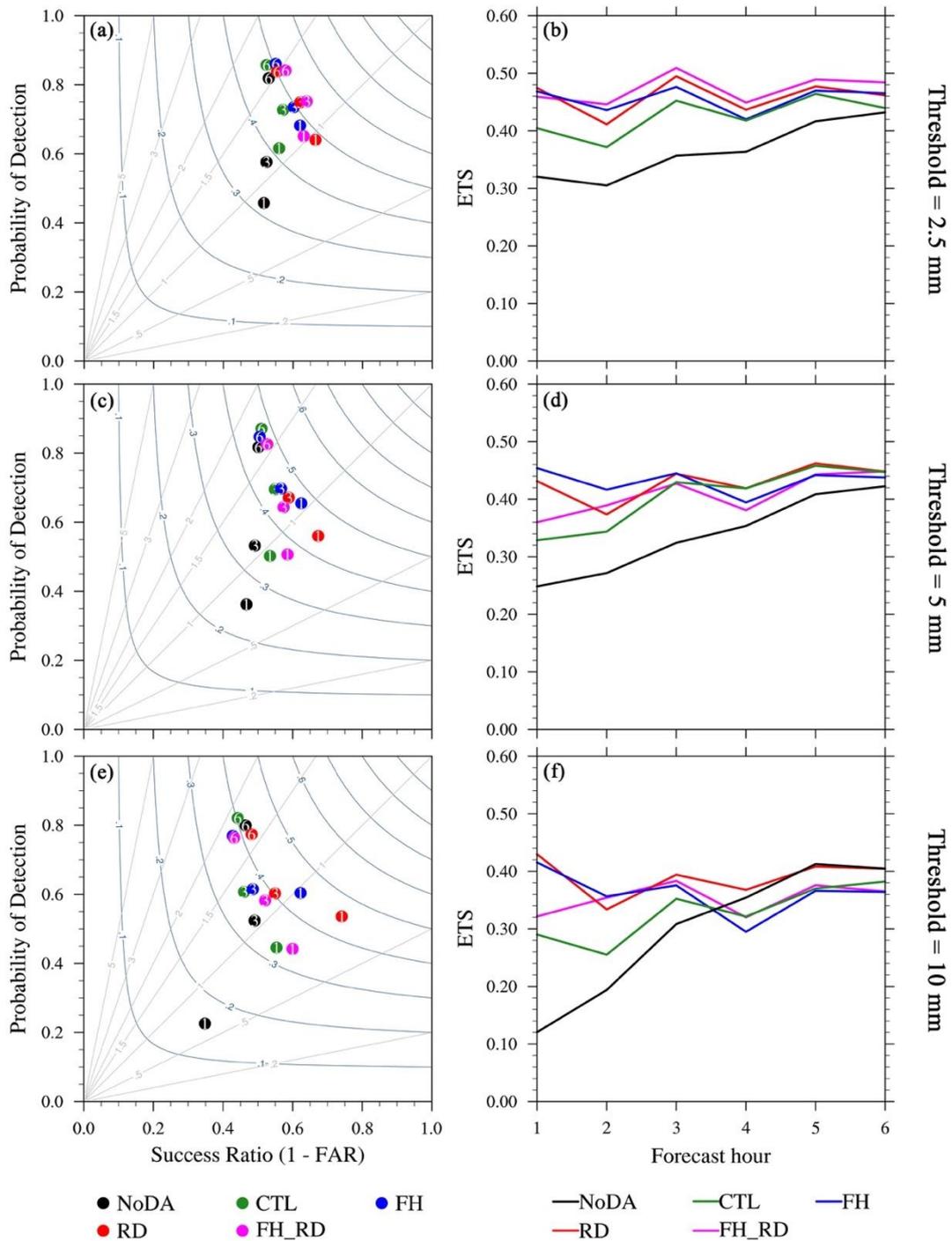
485 diagrams, and (right) the equitable threat score (ETS) for (a)–(b) 20 dBZ, (c)–(d) 30 dBZ, and (e)–(f)

486 40 dBZ thresholds, respectively. Results are shown for a neighborhood radius of 12-km. The numbers

487 within the colored dots in the performance diagrams denote the forecast hour (i.e. 0-, 3- and 6-h

488 forecasts).

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



504

505 **Figure 13.** Same as in Fig. 12, but for 1-6 h hourly precipitation amount (HPRCP) forecasts for case 1

506 at thresholds of 2.5 mm (1st row), 5 mm (2nd row), and 10 mm (3rd row), respectively.

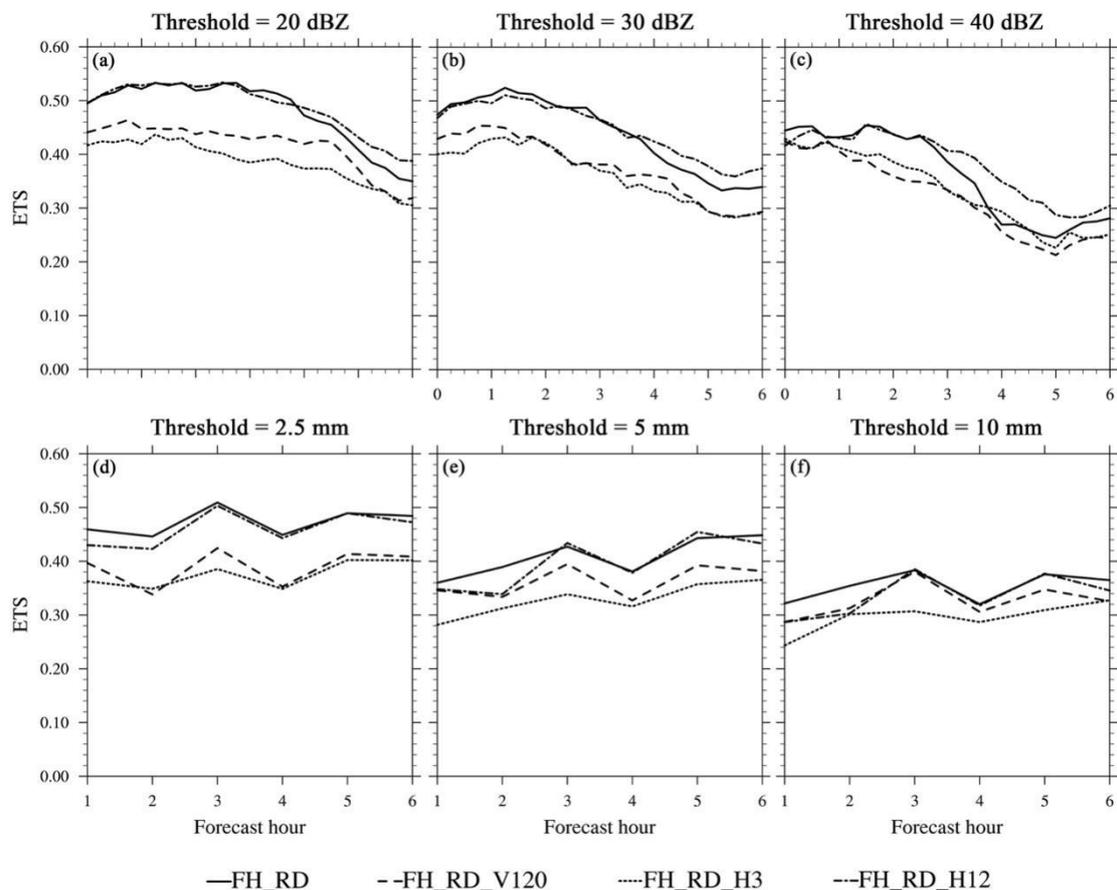
507 **4.1.3 Sensitivity to vertical resolution and detection height**

508 Given the encouraging preliminary results from the FH\_RD experiment, ETS figures of CREF

509 and HPRCP forecasts from three additional sensitivity experiment—FH\_RD\_V120, FH\_RD\_H3, and

510 FH\_RD\_H12—are compared to examine the relative impact of different vertical resolutions and

511 maximum detection heights on the analyses and forecasts (Fig. 14). For reflectivity forecasts at  
 512 thresholds of 20-40 dBZ, the 0-3 h ETSs of FH\_RD and FH\_RD\_H12 are comparable. However, the  
 513 FH\_RD\_H12 experiment achieves higher forecast scores after 3 hours, highlighting the benefit of a  
 514 higher detection height (Fig. 14a-c). Conversely, the FH\_RD\_H3 experiment (with the lowest detection  
 515 height of 3 km) shows the smallest ETS values at 20 and 30 dBZ, while FH\_RD\_V120 (with a lower  
 516 vertical resolution of 120 m) demonstrates the poorest forecast skill at 40 dBZ. Consistent with the  
 517 CREF forecast, both FH\_RD and FH\_RD\_H12 show more skillful HPRCP forecasts than  
 518 FH\_RD\_V120 and FH\_RD\_H3. However, the ETSs of FH\_RD are higher than those of FH\_RD\_H12  
 519 at most forecast lead times, which differs from the reflectivity results. Additionally, FH\_RD\_H3  
 520 produces the lowest ETS values throughout the 0–6 h forecasts at thresholds of 2.5–10 mm. Generally,  
 521 the higher the maximum detection height of RWPs and the denser the vertical distribution of  
 522 observations, the more significant the positive impact of RWP DA in terms of ETS. Moreover, a  
 523 maximum detection height of 8 km seems to be a reasonable and effective choice, while the reduction  
 524 of vertical resolution from 60 m to 120 m has less impact compared to the effect of decreasing the  
 525 detection altitude to 3 km.



526

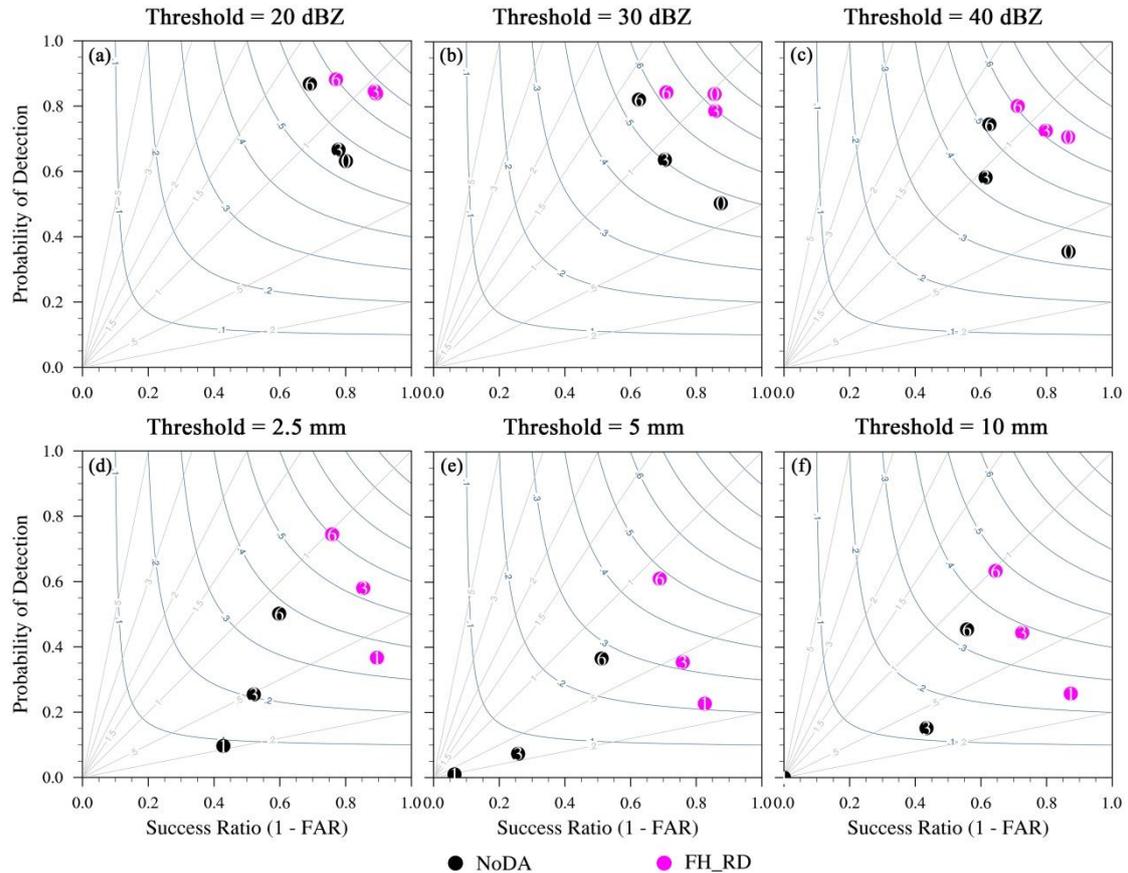
—FH\_RD    --FH\_RD\_V120    .....FH\_RD\_H3    ---FH\_RD\_H12

527 **Figure 14.** Equitable threat score (ETS) for 0-6 h CREF forecasts from the FH\_RD (solid),  
528 FH\_RD\_V120 (dashed), FH\_RD\_H3 (dotted), and FH\_RD\_H12 (dashdot) experiments for case 1 at  
529 thresholds of (a) 20, (b) 30, and (c) 40 dBZ, respectively. (d–f) Same as in (a–c), but for 1-6 h HPRCP  
530 forecasts from each experiment at thresholds of (d) 2.5, (e) 5, and (f) 10 mm, respectively.

#### 531 **4.2 Aggregate forecast performance**

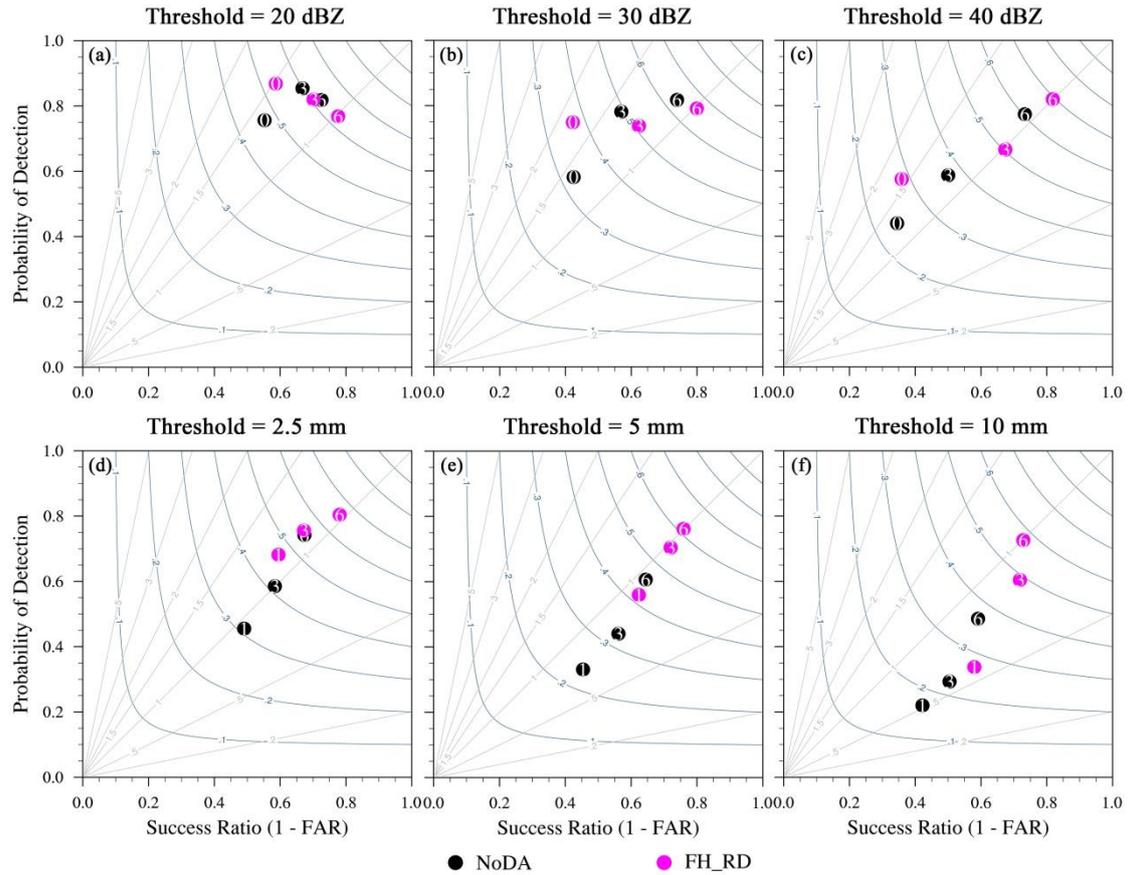
532         Considering the variations in weather scenarios and storm environments across cases, we also  
533 examined two additional SW-type heavy rainfall events that occurred over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei  
534 region on 28 June and 12 July 2023 to evaluate the impact of RWPs in different spatial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

556 to the difficulty in forecasting small-scale, short-lived, and relatively weak precipitation events. This  
 557 phenomenon is more pronounced in the NoDA experiment, manifested by extremely low POD and CSI  
 558 values.



559 ● NoDA      ● FH\_RD

560 **Figure 15.** Performance diagram for 0-6 h CREF forecasts from the NoDA (black) and FH\_RD  
 561 (magenta) experiments for the case 28 June 2023 at thresholds of (a) 20, (b) 30, and (c) 40 dBZ,  
 562 respectively. (d-f) Same as in (a-c), but for 1-6 h HPRCP forecasts at thresholds of (d) 2.5, (e) 5, and (f)  
 563 10 mm, respectively. The numbers within the colored dots in the performance diagrams denote the  
 564 forecast hour (i.e. 0-, 3- and 6-h forecasts). Results are shown for a neighborhood radius of 12-km.

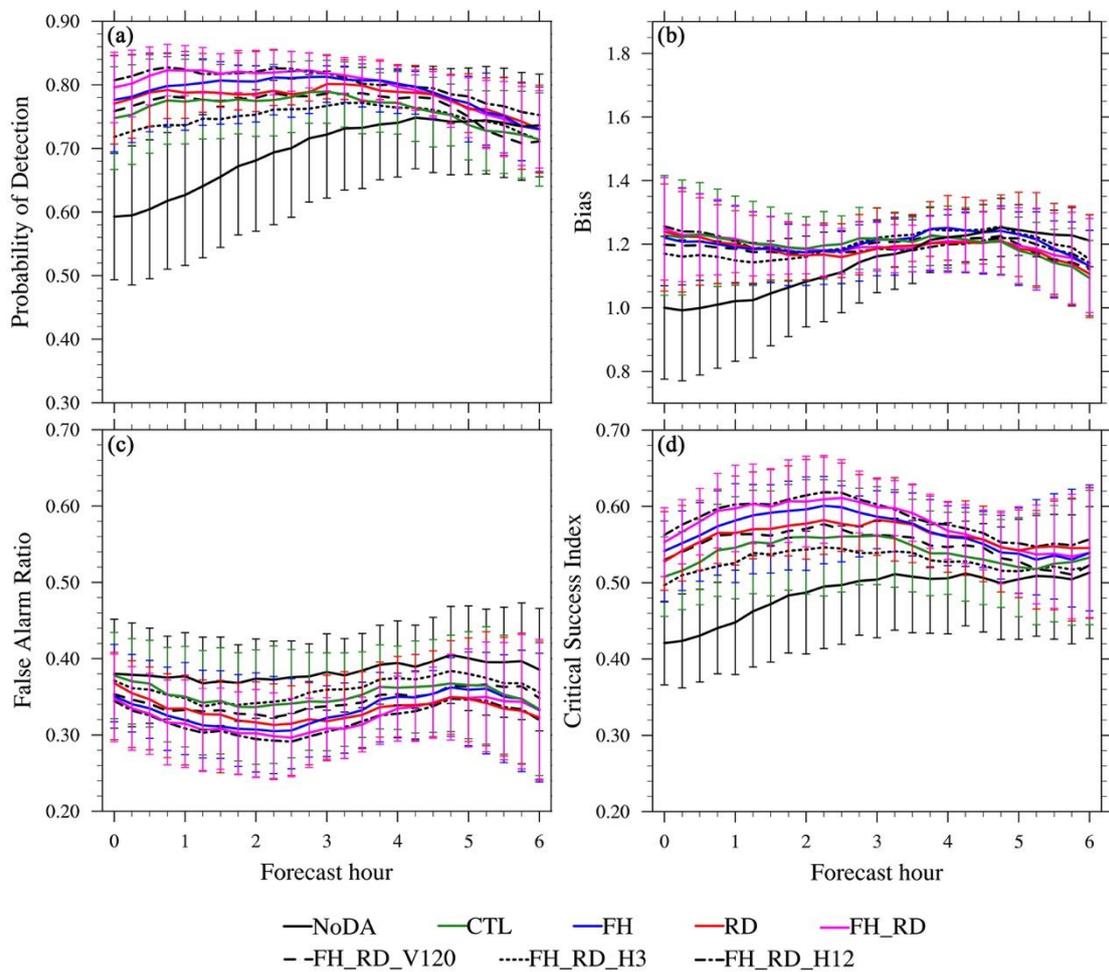


565

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

567 To gain a comprehensive view of assimilating RWPs from multiple networks, quantitative  
 568 verification parameters (POD, BIAS, FAR, and CSI) from each case are aggregated across all available  
 569 forecast times. Figures 17 and 18 display time series of aggregated metrics for CREF forecasts from  
 570 NoDA, CTL, FH, RD, FH\_RD, FH\_RD\_V120, FH\_RD\_H3, and FH\_RD\_H12 experiments at 20- and  
 571 40-dBZ thresholds, respectively. The error bars for NoDA, CTL, FH, RD, and FH\_RD in the graphs  
 572 represent a 95% confidence interval. Compared to NoDA, all DA experiments exhibit more skillful 0–  
 573 6h reflectivity forecasts, with higher POD and CSI, and smaller FAR. The BIAS values of the  
 574 assimilation experiments are higher than that of the NoDA experiment (close to unity) at the analysis  
 575 time, and then decreases slightly in the 1-6 h forecasts. However, the BIAS of NoDA increase  
 576 consistently during 1–6 hours, making it farther from unity. Among CTL, FH, RD, and FH\_RD,  
 577 FH\_RD consistently outperforms others, showing the highest POD values across all forecast hours (Fig.  
 578 17a). A slight overprediction bias (1.1–1.2) is observed for all DA experiments at all forecast times  
 579 (Fig. 17b). CTL exhibits the largest BIAS in the first 3 hours, while FH's BIAS increases to 1.2 over  
 580 time. FH\_RD shows the steepest decrease in FAR, indicating the most effective reduction in false

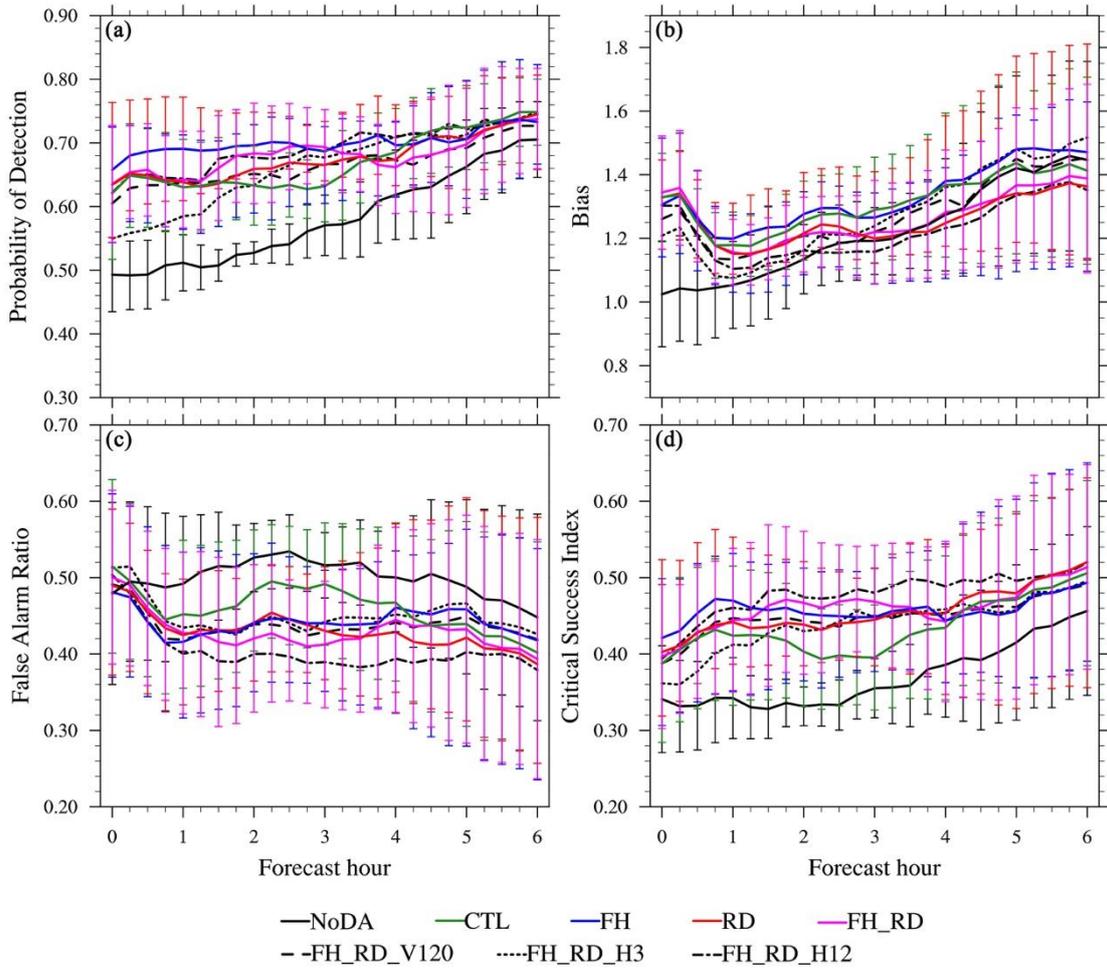
581 alarms (Fig. 17c). CTL remains relatively flat and maintains the highest FAR among the four DA  
 582 experiments throughout the 0–6h forecasts. The FARs for FH and RD forecasts fall between those of  
 583 FH\_RD and CTL. Specifically, FH has a lower FAR in the first 3 hours, whereas in the next 3 hours,  
 584 RD performs better. Similar trend is also evident in CSI values over time (Fig. 17d). In conclusion,  
 585 FH\_RD consistently performs best overall across all metrics, followed by RD and FH. CTL  
 586 underperforms, with less improvement in score metrics. Sensitivity tests show FH\_RD\_H12 performs  
 587 slightly better than FH\_RD, while FH\_RD\_H3 shows the least improvement. FH\_RD\_V120 falls  
 588 between FH\_RD\_H12 and FH\_RD\_H3, consistent with the single-case study in Sect. 4.1.3.



589 **Figure 17.** Time series of (a) Probability of detection (POD), (b) Bias, (c) false alarm ratio (FAR), and  
 590 (d) critical success index (CSI) for CREF forecasts aggregated from each initialization hour from the  
 591 sixth hour to the end of the DA cycles across three cases (June 28, July 12, July 21 of 2023) at the  
 592 threshold of 20 dBZ for the NoDA (black solid), CTL (green solid), FH (blue solid), RD (red solid),  
 593 FH\_RD (magenta solid), FH\_RD\_V120 (black dashed), FH\_RD\_H3 (black dotted), and FH\_RD\_H12  
 594 (black dashdot) experiments. Results are shown for a neighborhood radius of 12-km. Error bars for  
 595

596 NoDA, CTL, FH, RD, and FH\_RD experiments represent a 95% confidence interval.

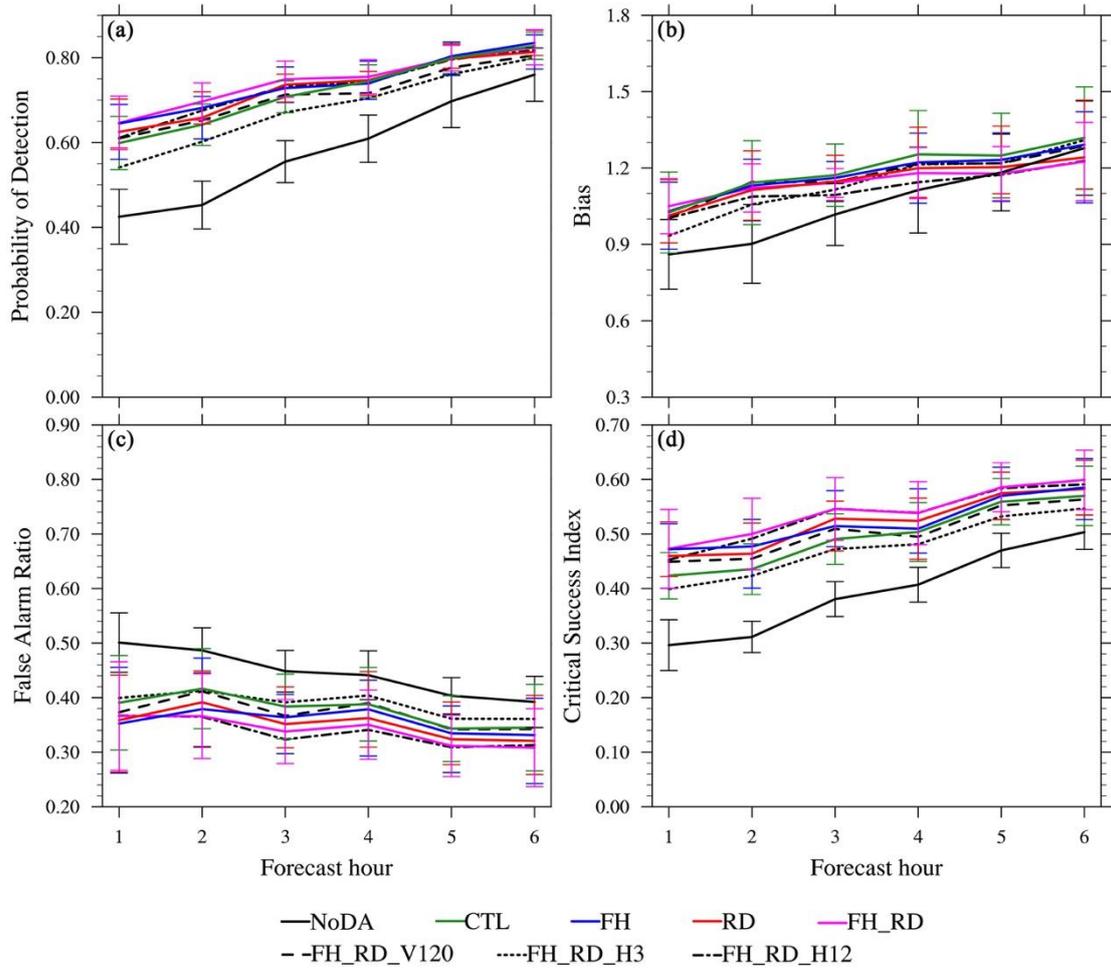
597         Similar to the 20-dBZ reflectivity forecast, RWP DA experiments outperform NoDA at 40-dBZ,  
598 although only the POD result in the first 3 hours is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level.  
599 All DA experiments exhibit an overprediction bias (1.1–1.5) throughout the 0–6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



614

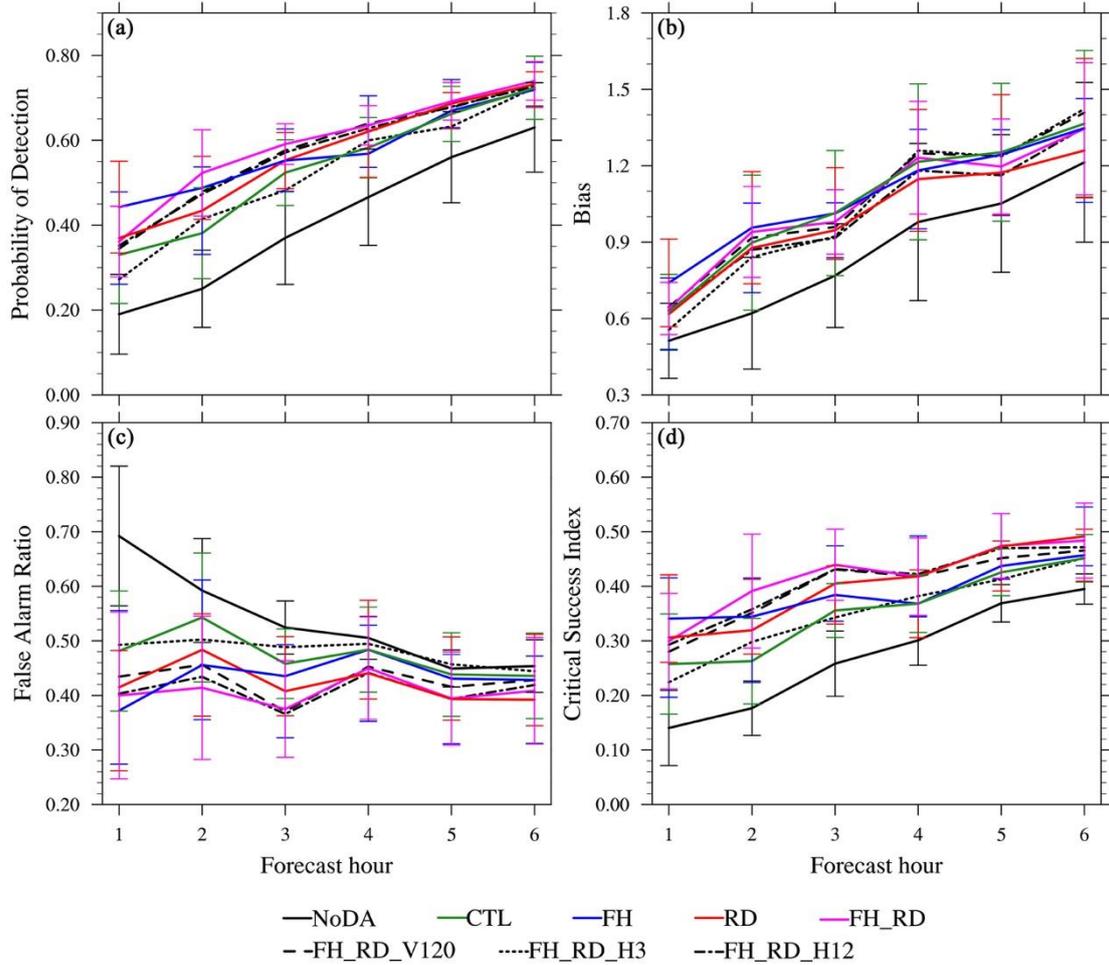
615 **Figure 18.** Same as in Figure 17, but for CREF forecasts at the threshold of 40 dBZ.

616 Consistent with the 20-dBZ reflectivity forecast, FH\_RD and FH\_RD\_H12 consistently achieve  
 617 the best performance across all score metrics in HPRCP forecasts, followed by RD and FH (Fig. 19 and  
 618 20). Although the improvements are not statistically significant at the 95% confidence level, FH\_RD  
 619 and FH\_RD\_H12 exhibit added forecast skill over the NoDA experiment. In contrast, CTL and  
 620 FH\_RD\_H3 show smaller improvement across all metrics. At 10-mm threshold, FH produces higher  
 621 forecast scores than the others in the first hour, while FH\_RD and RD show superiority in 2–4 h and 4–  
 622 6 h, respectively (Fig. 20).



623

624 **Figure 19.** Same as in Figure 17, but for 1-6 h HPRCP forecasts aggregated from three cases at the  
 625 thresholds of 2.5 mm.



626

627 **Figure 20.** Same as in Figure 19, but for precipitation forecasts at the threshold of 10 mm.

628 **5. Summary and conclusions**

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

639 FH\_RD experiment is conducted by assimilating combined RWP data from the operational, foothill,  
640 and ridge sites. Comparison of analyses and forecasts from these four types of experiments reveals  
641 improvements in model initial conditions and short-term severe weather forecasts by assimilating  
642 simulated RWP observations, as well as the added value of RWPs from the foothill and ridge networks  
643 over operational network data. Furthermore, three sensitivity DA experiments (FH\_RD\_V120,  
644 FH\_RD\_H3, and FH\_RD\_H12) are carried out to test the impact of vertical resolution and maximum  
645 detection heights. The purpose of these experiments is to investigate a potential optimal configuration  
646 for the vertical data availability of real-time RWPs to be assimilated in future convective scale NWP.  
647 For each DA experiment, the analysis is cycled for 9 hours at 15-min intervals, with a 6-h free forecast  
648 initiated every hour starting from the sixth hour of the analysis cycles. First of all, both subjective and  
649 objective verifications of the analysis and forecast were performed in detail for the 21 July 2023 case.  
650 Then statistical metrics, including neighborhood-based POD, FAR, BIAS, and CSI of reflectivity and  
651 precipitation forecasts, were aggregated from each initialization hour across the three cases. The main  
652 results are summarized as follows:

653         1) Comparison of wind analyses and forecasts among the CTL, FH, RD, and FH\_RD  
654 experiments reveals that the FH\_RD experiment yields the smallest wind errors, both in terms of  
655 the overall domain average and the vertical profile of RMSEs for wind components. Then, it is  
656 followed by RD, then FH, with CTL exhibiting the largest wind errors. A qualitative evaluation of  
657 the model's initial mesoscale dynamics indicates that the assimilation of RWP data successfully  
658 corrects the wind direction and speed biases in Beijing and its surrounding areas, enhancing the  
659 southwesterly jet. Moreover, both RD and FH\_RD (with the assimilation of RWP data from the  
660 ridge network) remarkably reduce large wind errors in the upstream of Beijing along the  
661 mountains, which is crucial for CI in the vicinity of the boundary between Hebei and southwestern  
662 Beijing.

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

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

679 3) Quantitative verification results aggregated across the three SW-type heavy rainfall  
680 cases in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region confirm that FH\_RD exhibits the best performance in  
681 reflectivity and precipitation forecasts, followed by RD and FH, while CTL shows minimal  
682 improvement. An exception is that at higher thresholds, FH achieves the best scores in the first 1 or  
683 2 hours despite stronger overprediction, while FH\_RD and RD are superior in subsequent hours.  
684 This is potentially attributed to the delayed effect of dynamic forcing from the terrain, as well as  
685 improvements in capturing the initial southwesterly flow and local convection by assimilating  
686 wind observations at the foothills. In addition, the results from sensitivity experiments on vertical  
687 resolution and maximum detection height indicate that FH\_RD\_H12 exhibits comparable or  
688 slightly better performance compared to FH\_RD, benefiting from its higher detection height.  
689 Conversely, the FH\_RD\_H3 experiment, with the lowest detection height, has the poorest forecast  
690 skills among all DA experiments, while FH\_RD\_V120 generally falls between FH\_RD\_H12 and  
691 FH\_RD\_H3.

692 The results consistently demonstrate that the FH\_RD experiment, combining data from ridge,  
693 foothill, and operational wind profiler networks, delivers the most accurate short-term forecasts.  
694 Specifically, the assimilation of RWP data from ridge network significantly reduces wind errors in  
695 complex terrain, such as the Taihang Mountains upstream of Beijing. These regions are critical for  
696 convective initiation in Beijing and its surroundings. The findings highlight the essential role of  
697 integrating both ridge and foothill data in improving overall reflectivity and precipitation forecasts over  
698 the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region. Sensitivity experiments on vertical resolution and detection height

699 further emphasize the importance of high vertical resolution and maximizing detection height in  
700 optimizing the RWP network for enhanced forecast accuracy.

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

724

725 **Code and data availability**

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

734

735 **Author contributions**

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

739

740 **Competing interests**

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

742

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748 language-generation model) was used to improve the writing style of this article.

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