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Global and regional performance of the aurora foundation model for surface PM_{2.5} predictionDelin Li^{1,2} , Zhiqiang Chen^{1,2,*}, Gang Huang^{3,4}  and Jianjun Xu^{1,2} ¹ College of Ocean and Meteorology, Guangdong Ocean University, Zhanjiang, People's Republic of China² Shenzhen Institute of Guangdong Ocean University, Shenzhen, People's Republic of China³ State Key Laboratory of Earth System Numerical Modeling and Application, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, People's Republic of China⁴ University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, People's Republic of China

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E-mail: czqiang@gdou.edu.cn**Keywords:** air quality forecasting, Aurora foundation model, surface PM_{2.5}, transfer learning, machine learningSupplementary material for this article is available [online](#)**Abstract**

Accurate global forecasts of surface fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) are important for environmental early warning, but operational atmospheric composition models remain computationally expensive. Although deep learning foundation models offer a potentially efficient alternative, their performance for PM_{2.5} prediction remains insufficiently explored. Here, we evaluate Aurora, an Earth system foundation model fine-tuned for air quality forecasting, through year-long retrospective forecasts of global surface PM_{2.5} for 2025. We assess its performance using Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) analysis and forecast products, independent surface observations from 3540 monitoring stations compiled from OpenAQ and the China National Environmental Monitoring Centre, and the Global Earth Observing System Composition Forecast analysis. We find that Aurora is highly competitive: it reproduces the broad annual evolution of global surface PM_{2.5} and agrees closely with the CAMS analysis. Relative to the operational CAMS forecast, Aurora shows smaller mean bias during the first 72 h and a slower increase in error with lead time. Against independent observations, Aurora captures regional and seasonal variability across North America, Europe, East Asia, and India. Over China, Aurora achieves skill comparable to, or locally even exceeding all the numerical products, exhibits low station-wise bias, and better represents the evolution of a persistent winter haze episode. These results show that transfer learning can adapt a weather foundation model to global air quality forecasting with competitive skill and high computational efficiency, supporting rapid early warning and future ensemble applications.

1. Introduction

Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) is a pervasive air pollutant that affects Earth's radiative balance (Heald *et al* 2014, Wang *et al* 2015, Dang and Liao 2019, Li *et al* 2022), reduces visibility (Chen *et al* 2014, Pui *et al* 2014, Luan *et al* 2018), and drives haze formation (Huang *et al* 2014, Wang *et al* 2016, An *et al* 2019). Exposure to PM_{2.5} is associated with adverse respiratory and cardiovascular outcomes (Chen and Hoek 2020, Manisalidis *et al* 2020, Thangavel *et al* 2022), emphasizing the need for timely and accurate forecasts to support public health responses and

environmental regulation (Jin *et al* 2016, Wei and Kao 2023). At present, global atmospheric composition prediction is dominated by numerical systems, such as the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) (Inness *et al* 2019, Peuch *et al* 2022), which couples the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Integrated Forecasting System (IFS) with an atmospheric composition component (Huijnen *et al* 2016). By assimilating satellite and *in situ* observations (Garrigues *et al* 2022, 2023), CAMS routinely provides global composition forecasts out to five days (Bozzo *et al* 2020). These systems explicitly simulate emissions, chemical



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transformation and transport, and wet and dry deposition (Manders *et al* 2017, Aleksankina *et al* 2018). However, these systems are computationally demanding, even exceeding the cost of global numerical weather prediction (NWP) (Zhang *et al* 2012, Stein *et al* 2015). This computational burden constrains operational choices in spatial resolution, ensemble size, and update frequency, all of which are critical for timely PM_{2.5} early warning applications (Sokhi *et al* 2022).

The advances in machine/deep learning (ML/DL) have enabled a new generation of data-driven global artificial intelligence (AI) weather models, including Pangu-Weather (Bi *et al* 2023), FuXi (Chen *et al* 2023a, 2024), and GraphCast (Lam *et al* 2023). Running four to five orders of magnitude faster than traditional NWP, these models have achieved forecast skill comparable to, or even exceeding the state-of-the-art global medium range systems (de Burghday and Leeuwenburg 2023, Chen *et al* 2023b). They have also shown strong capability in predicting high impact events such as tropical cyclones, heatwaves, and extreme precipitation and flooding (Chen *et al* 2020, Brunner *et al* 2021, Salcedo-Sanz *et al* 2024). Recently, the global aerosol forecasting system with machine learning (AI-GAMFS) has demonstrated strong predictive skill for air quality (Gui *et al* 2026). At present, major operational centers (e.g. ECMWF and NOAA) have increasingly incorporated their AI forecasts as a complement to physics-based models (Lang *et al* 2024, Pan *et al* 2025). However, a key limitation remains: most existing AI models are developed for specific targets and therefore lack the flexibility needed for cross domain applications. Adapting them to new tasks often requires training from scratch, making end-to-end retraining highly computationally demanding (Schultz *et al* 2021, Charlton-Perez *et al* 2024, Yu *et al* 2024). Consequently, repeating this process is inefficient and may hinder broader adoption and scalability of AI across the Earth system (Reichstein *et al* 2019, Gettelman *et al* 2022).

Recently, a growing direction in AI for Earth science is to support cross domain prediction within a single modeling framework (Irrgang *et al* 2021, Yu and Ma 2021). For example, Aurora, a deep learning foundation model explicitly developed for the Earth system (Bodnar *et al* 2025), is built on a three-dimensional (3D) Swin Transformer architecture and pretrained on more than one million hours of diverse weather and climate simulation data, enabling it to learn the governing dynamics of the atmosphere. Using a parameter efficient fine-tuning technique, the model can be rapidly adapted with task specific data for a range of downstream applications, including global air quality prediction, ocean surface wave forecasting, tropical cyclone tracking, and high-resolution forecasting (Bodnar *et al* 2025). Compared with training separate large models from scratch, this fine-tuning paradigm substantially reduces data

and compute requirements, accelerates transfer to new tasks, and enables comparisons across applications within a unified modeling framework (Pan and Yang 2010, Safonova *et al* 2023). This transition signals a broader shift in AI-driven modeling paradigms (Jakubik *et al* 2023). Although the pre-training and fine-tuning paradigm has been highly successful in other domains (e.g. large language models, LLMs), its potential in Earth science has not been fully explored (Ma *et al* 2024). In particular, it remains unclear to what extent a foundation model trained primarily for global weather prediction can be repurposed for atmospheric composition (Ma *et al* 2019, Méndez *et al* 2023).

Building on the fine-tuned Aurora foundation model for global air quality forecasting, we conduct year-long retrospective five-day forecasts of surface PM_{2.5} for 2025. Using the CAMS analysis as a consistent reference and the operational CAMS forecast as a benchmark, we quantify global forecast skill and its dependence on lead time. We further validate the predictions against 3540 independent surface monitoring stations compiled from OpenAQ and the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC), enabling a robust evaluation across regions and seasons. In addition, we assess model performance over China, including its representation of a high impact haze episode. Overall, this study assesses the potential of transferring weather foundation model to air quality forecasting and provides a useful reference for future data-driven model development.

2. Data, model and methods

2.1. Data collection

CAMS Products: Gridded surface PM_{2.5} fields were obtained from the CAMS. The CAMS analysis was used as the reference dataset baseline, and the CAMS forecast was used as a benchmark. The CAMS analysis for the full year of 2025 was downloaded at the two synoptic times each day (00:00 and 12:00 UTC). For the CAMS forecast, forecast cycles initialized at 12:00 UTC were selected every five days (starting from 31 December 2024 at 12:00 UTC), and forecast outputs were retained at 12 h intervals from 12 to 120 h lead time, corresponding to a five-day prediction horizon.

OpenAQ and CNEMC: OpenAQ and CNEMC. Surface PM_{2.5} observations were compiled from OpenAQ and the CNEMC. For OpenAQ, we used only measurements from government reference monitoring stations and applied quality control based on annual data completeness. Stations in North America, Europe, and East Asia were retained only when annual data coverage was at least 95%. For India, this criterion retained only one station. Therefore, a relaxed threshold of 80% was applied, which retained 204 of

306 stations with at least 292 valid observation days for 2025. For China, where OpenAQ coverage was absent, city-level PM_{2.5} observations were obtained from CNEMC, and stations with at least 95% annual coverage were retained. Overall, 3540 surface monitoring sites were included across the four analysis regions and used as the independent observational reference for surface PM_{2.5} evaluation.

ERA5: Meteorological fields were obtained from the ERA5 reanalysis, which provided a globally complete and physically consistent depiction of the atmosphere through data assimilation (Hersbach *et al* 2020). In our study, boundary layer height, 2 m temperature, total precipitation, 10 m winds and variables at 1000 hPa including: geopotential, temperature, zonal and meridional winds, specific humidity, were used on a 0.25° × 0.25° latitude–longitude grid for meteorological diagnosis.

GEOS-CF: Gridded surface PM_{2.5} fields were obtained from the NASA Global Earth Observing System Composition Forecast (GEOS-CF). GEOS-CF combines the GEOS weather analysis and forecasting system with the GEOS-Chem chemistry module and provides global atmospheric composition fields on a 0.25° × 0.25° latitude–longitude grid (Keller *et al* 2021). In this study, we used the GEOS-CF replay/analysis archive for the full year of 2025. Specifically, 15 min instantaneous surface PM_{2.5} fields at 00:00 and 12:00 UTC were used to match the CAMS output times used for comparison.

2.2. Model and setup

Aurora is a 1.3-billion-parameter AI foundation model for Earth system. It is first pretrained on more than one million hours of historical data spanning multiple sources and resolutions, including weather analysis/reanalysis products and numerical simulations from weather and climate models, to learn a transferable representation of global 3D atmospheric variability. This pretrained backbone is primarily aimed at global medium range weather prediction and can then be adapted to other Earth science forecasting tasks via parameter efficient fine-tuning (Low-rank adaptation; LoRA), such as global air quality prediction, ocean surface wave forecasting, tropical cyclone tracking, and higher resolution weather prediction.

Architecturally, Aurora follows an encoder-processor-decoder paradigm: a Perceiver-based encoder maps multi-variable inputs into a universal latent representation. A multiscale 3D Swin Transformer U-Net evolves this latent state forward in time, and a Perceiver-based decoder translates the updated representation back to physical fields on a latitude–longitude grid. Multi-lead forecasts are produced autoregressively by recursively feeding model predictions back as inputs. For atmospheric composition, Aurora was fine-tuned on CAMS analysis

fields (data are from 2015 to 2022) to emulate global air quality forecasting at 0.4° resolution, including key gaseous pollutants (CO, NO, NO₂, SO₂, and O₃) and particulate matter (PM₁, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀).

In our study, we used the publicly released Aurora air quality fine-tuned checkpoint and performed deterministic inference throughout 2025. Each forecast was initialized from the CAMS analysis and rolled out to 120 h, with outputs archived every 12 h on the global 0.4° × 0.4° latitude–longitude grid consistent with the CAMS products. Although Aurora produces a broad set of composition fields, we evaluate surface PM_{2.5} as the primary target variable in this work.

2.3. Metrics and data processing

Model performance was quantified using the root mean squared error (RMSE), normalized RMSE (NRMSE), percentage error (PE), and the Pearson correlation coefficient (*R*). For paired samples (reference, prediction) indexed by $i = 1, \dots, N$, RMSE was defined as

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2} \quad (1)$$

where y_i denotes the reference (e.g. CAMS analysis or observations) and $\hat{y}_i$ denotes the prediction (e.g. Aurora or CAMS forecast). NRMSE was computed by normalizing RMSE by the mean of the reference values,

$$\text{NRMSE} = \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\bar{y}}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i. \quad (2)$$

The percentage error (PE, %) was computed as the relative mean bias,

$$\text{PE} = 100 \times \frac{\bar{\hat{y}} - \bar{y}}{\bar{y}}, \quad \bar{\hat{y}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \hat{y}_i. \quad (3)$$

The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed as

$$R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}. \quad (4)$$

Gridded model and reanalysis fields were spatially collocated with surface monitoring sites before station-level statistics were calculated. For Aurora and CAMS on the 0.4° grid, and GEOS-CF and ERA5 on the 0.25° grid, values at each station were obtained by bilinear interpolation from the surrounding latitude–longitude grid cells. Before interpolation, latitude and longitude coordinates were consistently ordered, and station longitudes were converted to match the longitude convention of each model grid when necessary. The interpolated values were then paired with the corresponding surface observations at the same valid UTC time. Only valid paired samples were used to calculate RMSE, NRMSE, PE, and *R*.

3. Results

3.1. Global model skills

The global daily mean surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (figure 1(a)) shows broad agreement between Aurora and the CAMS analysis. The CAMS forecast is systematically lower than the analysis throughout the year, whereas Aurora exhibits a seasonally varying bias: it is higher than the analysis in winter and spring but drops sharply in summer (July–September) and becomes lower than the analysis. The global spatial variability, quantified by the spatial standard deviation (figure 1(b)), is consistently smaller in Aurora than in the CAMS products, with the largest discrepancy during mid-year. The difference then narrows toward late autumn and winter.

We further assess lead-time dependence over a 120 h horizon using 73 forecast initializations in 2025. The (PE; figure 1(c)) shows opposite systematic tendencies: Aurora overestimates the global mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (positive PE) with an increasing magnitude toward longer lead times, while the CAMS forecast underestimates it (negative PE). For lead times up to ~ 72 h, Aurora exhibits a smaller bias relative to CAMS. The normalized RMSE (NRMSE; figure 1(d)) increases approximately linearly with lead time for both systems. Although CAMS maintains lower NRMSE than Aurora across all lead times, Aurora shows a smaller fitted NRMSE growth rate (2.4×10^{-3}) than the CAMS forecast (3.3×10^{-3}), indicating a slower degradation of skill with increasing lead time.

$\text{PM}_{2.5}$ has large variations across different seasons and regions. To assess Aurora's performance across diverse environments, we validate surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ model predictions against observations from 3540 monitoring stations worldwide, compiled from OpenAQ and CNEMC. We focus on four regional domains: North America (NA), Europe (EU), East Asia (EA), and India (IN) (figure 2(a)).

Seasonal density scatterplots (figure 2(b)) show that Aurora broadly reproduces the observed variability, with pronounced regional and seasonal dependence. In North America, Aurora attains relatively modest errors (e.g. PE = 5.8% and NRMSE = 0.55 in October–December), whereas Europe exhibits strong seasonal contrasts in bias, with marked underestimation in winter (PE = −29.8% in January–March) and overestimation in summer (PE = 28.2% in July–September). Across regions, regression lines lie below the 1:1 line at higher concentrations, indicating a tendency to underpredict extremes. In East Asia, regression fits for Aurora and the CAMS products lie close to the 1:1 line across seasons. Aurora captures broad $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ variability particularly during the cold season ($R = 0.82$ and NRMSE = 0.55 in January–March), but performance degrades substantially in summer (PE = 54.4% and NRMSE = 0.94 in July–September). Over India, the number of observations is relatively small and the scatter points are widely distributed.

Nevertheless, Aurora generally shows regression fits closest to the 1:1 line among the three products, suggesting skill comparable to an operational system when evaluated against independent surface observations.

3.2. The overall performance over China

We next examine model performance over China, focusing on northern, central, and eastern China, where heavy haze episodes occur frequently. Because Aurora is fine-tuned on CAMS analysis, we include NASA GEOS-CF as an additional independent product for comparison. For annual evolution of surface mean, all four gridded products reproduce the broad seasonal cycle, with high concentrations in winter, a pronounced minimum in summer, and a renewed increase in late autumn and winter (figure 3(a)). CAMS analysis agrees best with the CNEMC mean time series (NRMSE = 0.24, $R = 0.90$). Aurora closely tracks the observed temporal variability and yields skill comparable to the CAMS products (NRMSE = 0.25, $R = 0.86$), slightly better than the CAMS forecast in NRMSE (0.26). Notably, GEOS-CF exhibits larger errors and weaker correlations, indicating systematic differences from the CAMS-based products and the observations. The station-wise distributions of mean bias and NRMSE (figure 3(b)) shows the smallest overall positive bias ($3.7 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$) for Aurora, lower than CAMS analysis ($4.2 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$), CAMS forecast ($5.0 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$), and GEOS-CF ($11.1 \mu\text{gm}^{-3}$), while its NRMSE distribution remains close to that of CAMS analysis and clearly lower than those of CAMS forecast and GEOS-CF.

The spatial distribution of station-level NRMSE (figure 3(c)) shows that CAMS analysis captures the broad regional pattern of skill, whereas GEOS-CF exhibits systematically larger errors across much of eastern China. Relative to CAMS analysis, the CAMS forecast shows mostly weak positive NRMSE differences, indicating modest degradation from the analyzed state. Aurora, in contrast, exhibits predominantly negative NRMSE differences, with reduced errors over many stations in central and eastern China, suggesting performance comparable to, and locally better than, the numerical products.

3.3. Performance during an extreme winter haze episode

Assessing model skill is important not only for overall performance, but also for the representation of extreme pollution episodes. We therefore further examine model behavior during a persistent winter haze episode over northern and eastern China. This event spans 13–21 December 2025 (Beijing local time) and affects northern China as well as adjacent central and eastern regions. Figure 4(a) summarizes the temporal evolution at 12 h intervals by comparing the CNEMC station mean (black line) and the

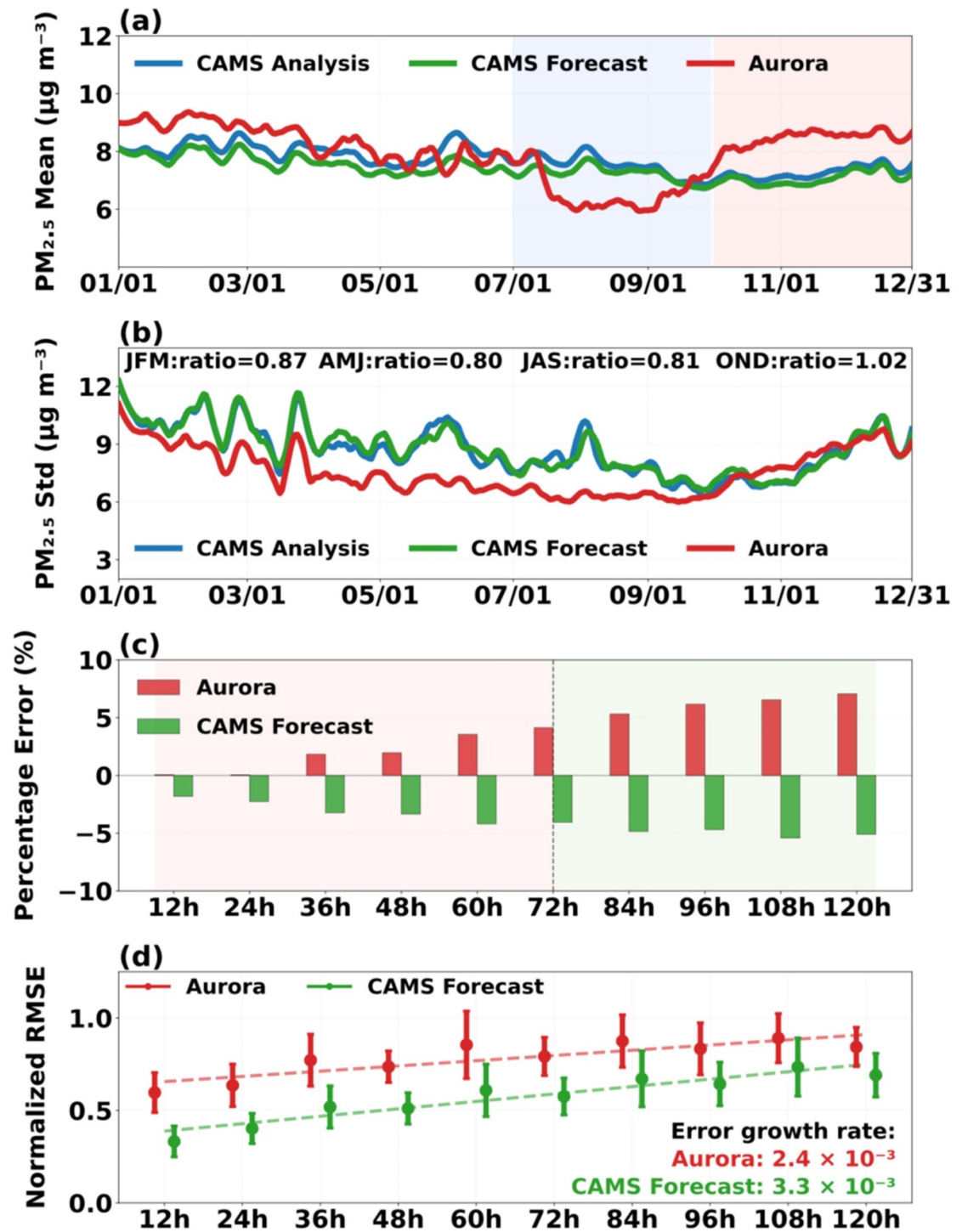
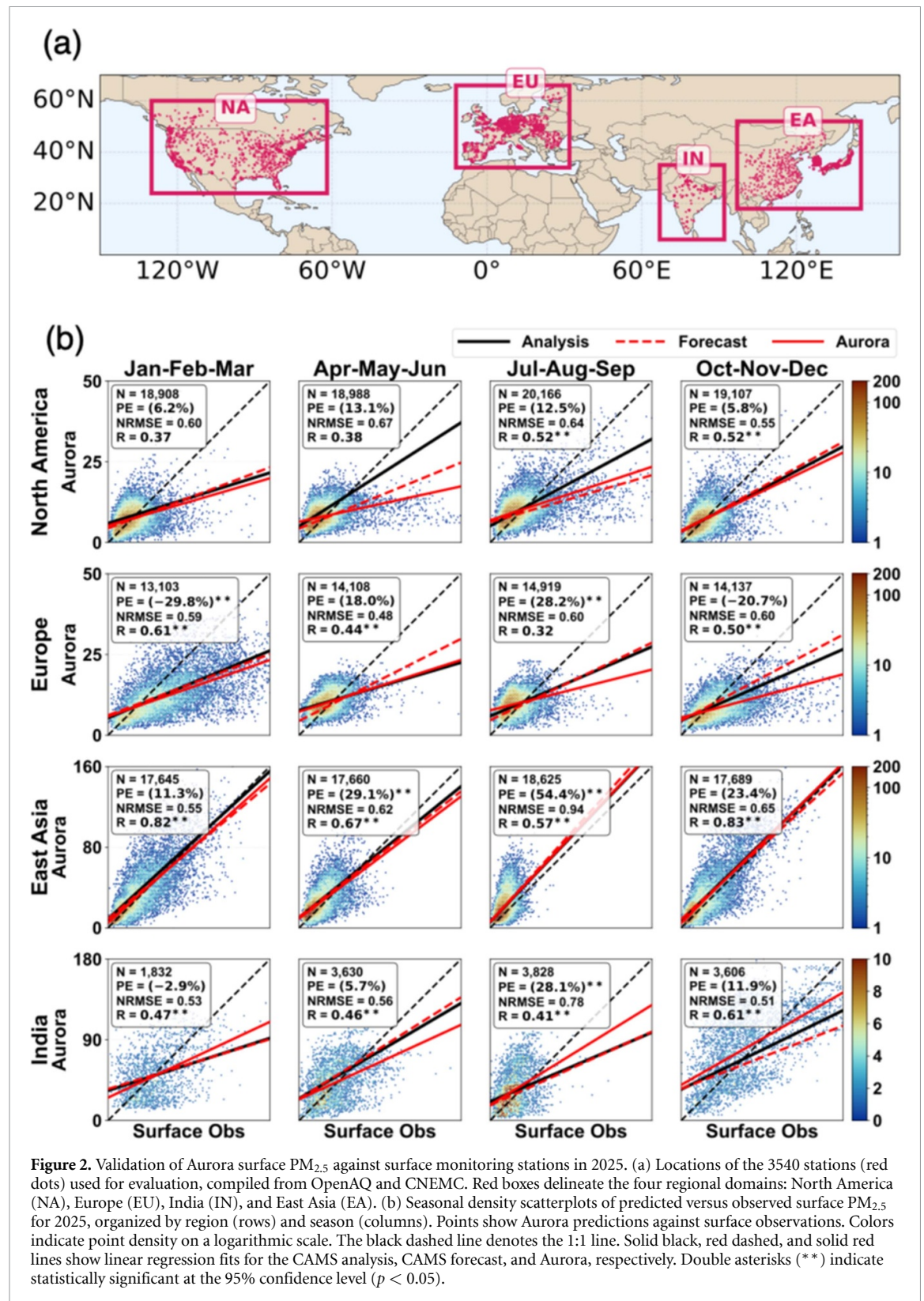


Figure 1. Temporal evolution and lead-time dependence of global surface PM_{2.5} predictions in 2025. (a) Daily global mean surface PM_{2.5} from the CAMS analysis, the CAMS forecast and Aurora. Shaded intervals highlight periods with distinct seasonal divergence between the predictions and the analysis. (b) Daily time series of the global spatial standard deviation of surface PM_{2.5}, the seasonal ratios between Aurora and CAMS Analysis are also shown. (c) Percentage error (PE, %) of the global mean PM_{2.5} relative to the CAMS analysis as a function of lead time (12–120 h). The dashed vertical line marks 72 h. (d) Normalized RMSE (NRMSE) relative to the CAMS analysis versus lead time (12–120 h). Error bars denote the standard deviation across 73 forecast initializations. Dashed lines show linear fits used to estimate error growth rates.

observed mean-to-maximum range across stations (shading) with Aurora, the CAMS analysis, and the CAMS forecast. For each time step, bars indicate the collocated model mean (bar base) and maximum (bar top), enabling a simultaneous assessment of background conditions and extremes. Across most time

steps, Aurora is closest to both the observed mean and the station-maximum, highlighting the best overall performance for this episode.

The spatial evolution at four representative times is broadly consistent with the temporal diagnostics (figure 4(b)). CNEMC observations show a



pronounced pollution core over the North China Plain that subsequently expands southeastward toward central and eastern China. Aurora broadly reproduces the location of the high pollution center and its downstream extension, indicating that it captures the main spatiotemporal structure of this

persistent haze episode. Although local discrepancies in intensity and fine scale structure remain, this case study further suggests that the fine-tuned Aurora model provides skill comparable to, and at some times better than, the operational numerical products during extreme haze conditions.

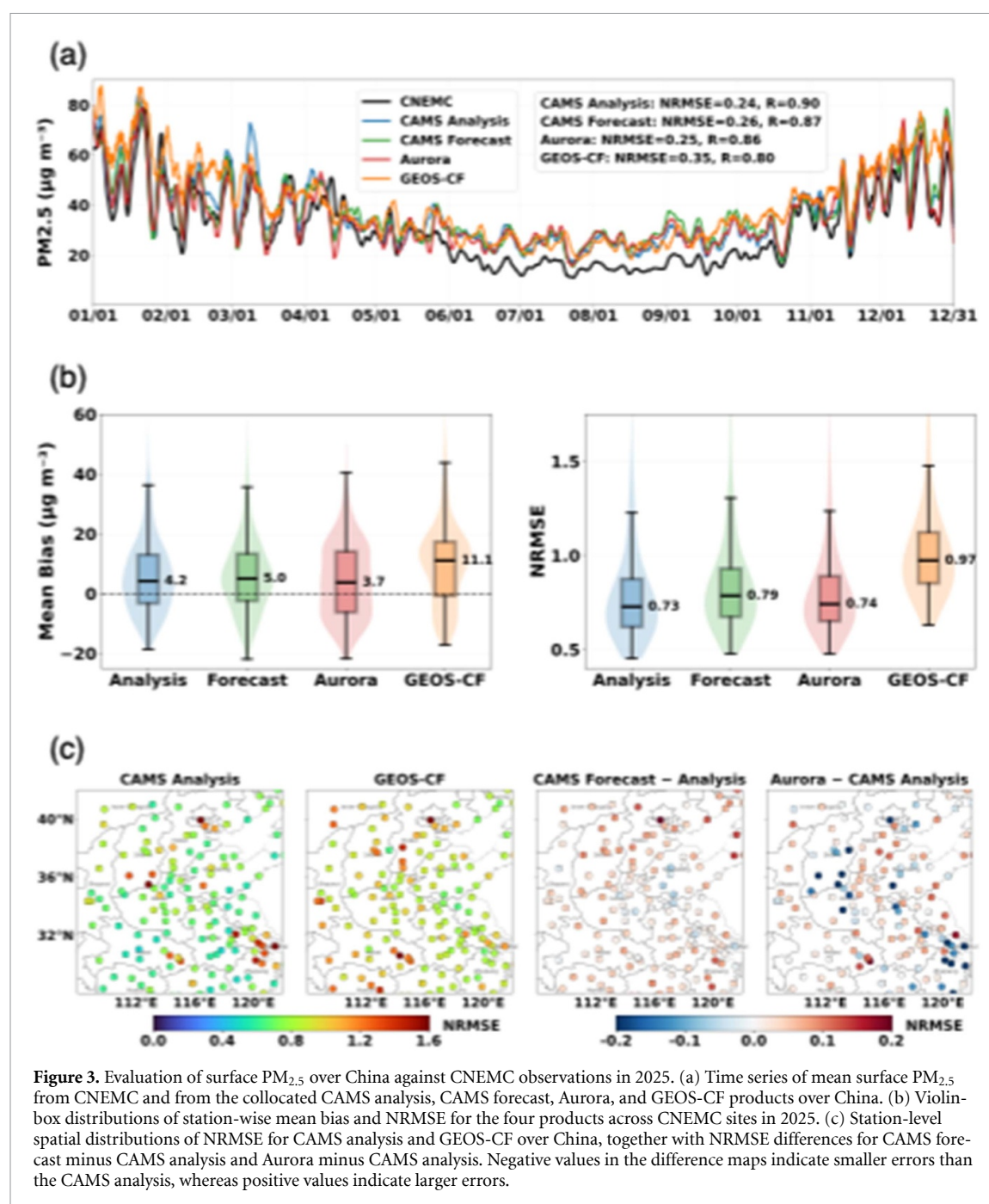


Figure 3. Evaluation of surface PM_{2.5} over China against CNEMC observations in 2025. (a) Time series of mean surface PM_{2.5} from CNEMC and from the collocated CAMS analysis, CAMS forecast, Aurora, and GEOS-CF products over China. (b) Violin-box distributions of station-wise mean bias and NRMSE for the four products across CNEMC sites in 2025. (c) Station-level spatial distributions of NRMSE for CAMS analysis and GEOS-CF over China, together with NRMSE differences for CAMS forecast minus CAMS analysis and Aurora minus CAMS analysis. Negative values in the difference maps indicate smaller errors than the CAMS analysis, whereas positive values indicate larger errors.

4. Discussion

The relatively large positive bias of Aurora over East Asia in summer is obvious (figure 2(b)). This bias is not unique to Aurora. A similar systematic overestimation is also evident in the CAMS analysis and forecast (figure S2), suggesting that part of the bias may originate from the underlying CAMS model. In addition, although the absolute bias of Aurora is moderate (6.79 μg m⁻³), the observed summer mean PM_{2.5} concentration is relatively low (only 12.49 μg m⁻³). This low observed baseline acts as the denominator in the PE calculation and therefore amplifies the PE. Notably, the widespread precipitation associated with the East Asian summer monsoon during its active

phase (June–September), can substantially enhance atmospheric cleaning through wet deposition (figures S2(g) and (h)). If the CAMS numerical system underrepresents wet deposition or aerosol removal with precipitation, such deficiencies may contribute to the systematic positive biases observed in both CAMS and Aurora.

Aurora shows a systematic wintertime underestimation over Europe (figure 2(b)). This bias also may be partly inherited from the CAMS Analysis used for fine-tuning, as CAMS Analysis exhibits a similar negative bias and its spatial pattern is broadly consistent with regions of higher heating degree days (HDD) in central and eastern Europe (figures S3(a) and (b)). In winter, residential heating, especially biomass and

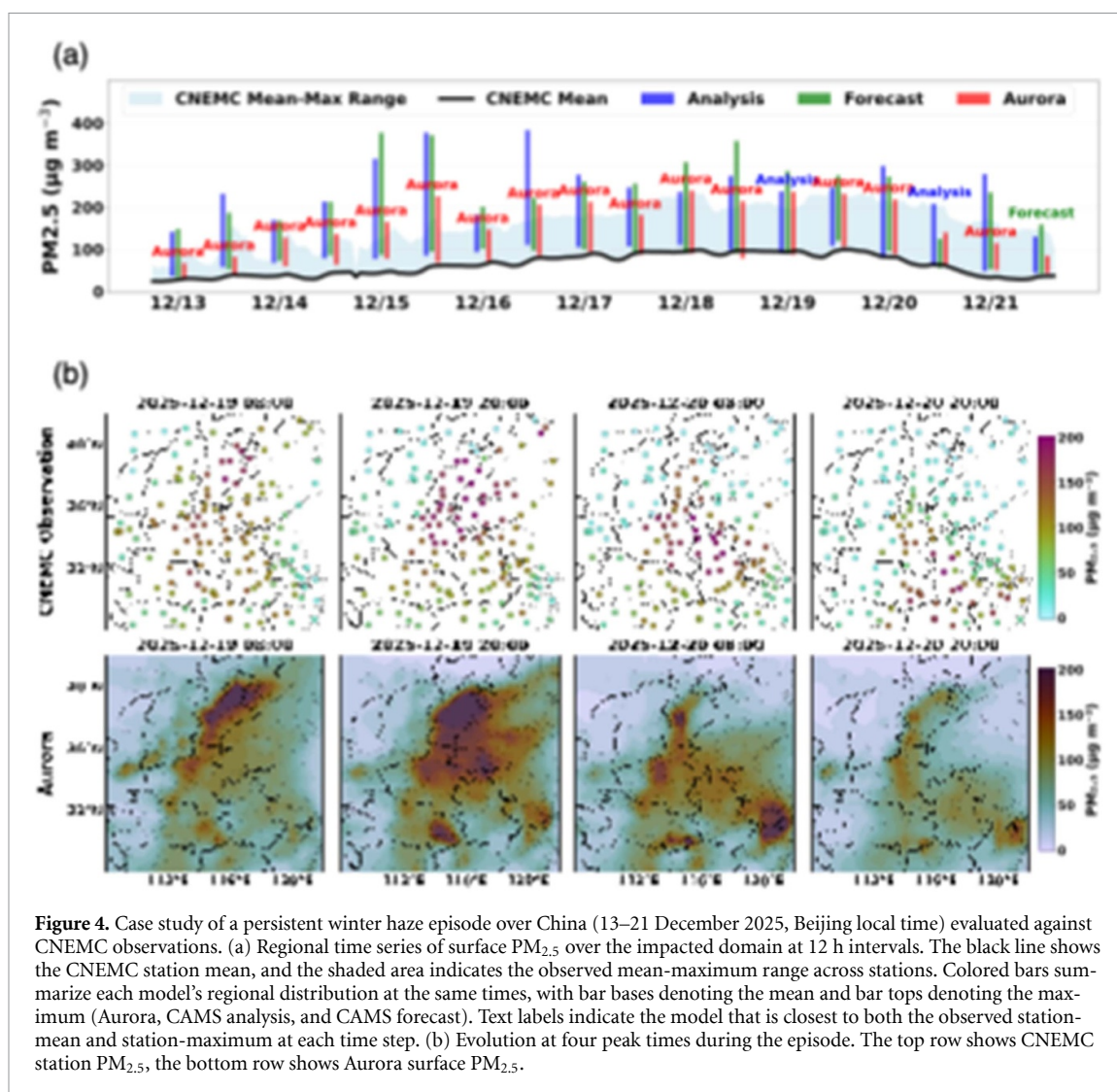


Figure 4. Case study of a persistent winter haze episode over China (13–21 December 2025, Beijing local time) evaluated against CNEMC observations. (a) Regional time series of surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ over the impacted domain at 12 h intervals. The black line shows the CNEMC station mean, and the shaded area indicates the observed mean-maximum range across stations. Colored bars summarize each model's regional distribution at the same times, with bar bases denoting the mean and bar tops denoting the maximum (Aurora, CAMS analysis, and CAMS forecast). Text labels indicate the model that is closest to both the observed station-mean and station-maximum at each time step. (b) Evolution at four peak times during the episode. The top row shows CNEMC station $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, the bottom row shows Aurora surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.

wood combustion, represents an important but spatially heterogeneous and uncertain source of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emissions, which can introduce errors into air quality models (Denier van der Gon *et al* 2015, Lacima *et al* 2023). In addition, CAMS Analysis is slightly warmer than ERA5 over Europe in January–March ($+0.34^\circ\text{C}$ on average), implying a possible underestimation of HDD demand (figure S3(c)). Shallow boundary layers and weak near surface winds in winter may further enhance $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ accumulation (figure S3(d)).

Aurora produces smoother $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ variations than CAMS, presenting a weaker ability to capture observed concentration peaks (figure 1(b)). We further examined this behavior across regions and seasons (table T1). Similar smoothing is evident at the regional scale, although its magnitude varies by region and season. The underestimation of variability is particularly pronounced in North America and Europe, which may be partly related to their lower regional mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ levels.

In the extreme haze case study, Aurora performed better than the CAMS products in capturing

both mean and peak $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations. The event developed over the North China Plain and then extended into central and eastern China, highlighting the important role of meteorological control in regional pollutant transport. During this episode, a shallow boundary layer and strong near surface temperature inversion favored pollutant accumulation (figure S1(a)). Under these conditions, Aurora showed better agreement with ERA5 in the 1000 hPa low-level meteorological fields (figure S1(b)), suggesting a more realistic representation of the meteorological environment. Nevertheless, Aurora still showed limited skill in reproducing extreme $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ peaks. We further analyzed the winter period from October 2023 to April 2024, Aurora generally agreed well with surface observations (figure S4), but it underestimated three high-pollution episodes to varying degrees over the North China Plain and eastern China (figure S5). This further emphasizes the need to improve the representation of localized extreme pollution peaks in future model development.

Computational efficiency should also be considered. In our inference setup, Aurora required approximately 120 s to complete a five-day global forecast on a single NVIDIA A6000 GPU. Harder *et al* (2026) reported that the newly developed data-driven model AIFS-COMPO generated a 3 hourly, five-day global atmospheric composition forecast in about 50 s on a single GPU, whereas the corresponding operational IFS-COMPO forecast required roughly 1000 s on about 8000 CPUs. In terms of hardware-time consumption, the IFS-COMPO estimate corresponds to approximately 2.2×10^3 CPU-h, whereas Aurora requires only about 0.03 GPU-h per five-day forecast. Although CPU-hours and GPU-hours are not directly interchangeable, this comparison indicates that Aurora has a substantially smaller operational hardware footprint.

5. Conclusion

This study evaluated the Aurora Earth system foundation model for five-day global surface PM_{2.5} prediction using retrospective forecasts for 2025. Aurora closely reproduced the large scale temporal evolution of surface PM_{2.5} and showed a smaller global mean bias than the operational CAMS forecast during the first 72 h, although CAMS retained lower normalized RMSE when evaluated against its own analysis. Comparisons with independent 3540 surface monitoring sites further showed that Aurora captured major regional and seasonal PM_{2.5} variability across North America, Europe, East Asia, India, and China. Over China, Aurora achieved skill comparable to CAMS products and better than GEOS-CF in annual station level statistics, and it reproduced the main spatiotemporal structure of a persistent winter haze episode over northern and eastern China. These results indicate that transfer learning from a weather foundation model can provide a computationally efficient route toward global air quality forecasting. Future work should focus on regional fine-tuning with dense surface observations and higher resolution emission and meteorological information, together with probabilistic or ensemble designs to better represent localized extremes and forecast uncertainty.

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Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available at the following URL/DOI: CAMS global atmospheric composition analysis and forecast fields were obtained from the Copernicus Atmosphere Data Store (ADS) (<https://ads.atmosphere.copernicus.eu/datasets/cams-global-atmospheric-composition-forecasts?tab=overview>) (CAMS 2021). Meteorological reanalysis fields were taken from the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS) ERA5 products on single levels (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-single-levels?tab=overview>) (CDS *et al* 2020) and pressure levels (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets/reanalysis-era5-pressure-levels?tab=overview>) (C3S 2018). Ground-based air quality observations were obtained from the OpenAQ platform (<https://openaq.org>) (OpenAQ 2015) and the China National Environmental Monitoring Centre (CNEMC) data service (www.cnemc.cn) (CNEMC 2026). NASA GEOS-CF model output data can be accessed at https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/gmao-products/geos-cf/data-access_geos-cf/ (GMAO 2019).

Supplementary Figures and Table available at: <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ae90c2/data1>.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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 Software (supporting), Supervision (supporting),
 Validation (supporting), Visualization (supporting),
 Writing – original draft (supporting), Writing –
 review & editing (supporting)

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