

Response to Reviewers

Dear Editors and Reviewers:

Thank you for your letter and the reviewers' comments regarding our manuscript entitled "Influence of boundary layer structure on air quality in Beijing: Long-term analysis based on self-organized maps" (ID: ACP-2017-1046). These comments have greatly improved the quality of our manuscript and are of important help to our future research. We have addressed the comments carefully and made changes accordingly which we hope satisfying the reviewers. The relevant changes are marked in red in the marked-up manuscript.

Responses to the reviewer's comments:

Reviewer #1:

This manuscript uses an unsupervised machine learning to understand the relationships between boundary layer structure and air quality. The analyses are based on four year measurements, and long-term analysis of measurement is quite limited in China. I would recommend it for publication after some improvements.

Thank you for the positive comments. They encouraged us very much.

Detailed comments are listed below:

1. The authors should carefully check the language and grammar. For example, 'feather' is used many times, but it should be 'feature'. Language problems are in other places as well.

Reply: Thanks for the comment. We checked the language and grammar and re-wrote some sentences in the revised manuscript.

2. Line 63-64: There is no evidence to support this point. Weak surface wind and stable boundary layer stratification do not necessarily mean regional transport cannot happen. Many studies have confirmed the roles of regional transport during haze.

Reply: Thanks for the useful comment. As you said, the transport can occur at any time in the presence of wind, regardless of wind speed. In our previous manuscript, the relative contributions of local accumulation and regional transport were discussed by comparing the ratio of CO/SO₂ under the different stability conditions. However, in the revised process, we found that the ratio of CO/SO₂ may be not an efficient indicator for long-term analysis because SO₂ can be reduced by chemical processes. The previous conclusions based on the ratio of CO/SO₂ were indefinite and therefore removed in the revised paper.

3. The title of 3.2 'Evaluation against meteorological data' is not appropriate. Fig. 3 shows the characteristics of meteorological variables for each classified type

Reply: Thank you for the excellent comments. We merged the meteorological analysis into one section and changed the title in the revised paper. Accordingly, we changed the other sections' title.

"3.1 Self-organized boundary layer meteorology" (Line 157).

"3.2 Implementing the SOM-based ABL classification scheme for urban air quality assessment" (Line 215).

"3.3 Quantifying the contribution of ABL anomaly to typical-month PM_{2.5} air quality" (Line 304).

4. Line 229-239: This explanation is not solid, at least not complete. It is more likely that the increasing stability promotes the accumulation of aerosols, and strong aerosol-radiation interactions inhibit photochemistry.

Reply: Thanks for the useful comment. We explained the response of O₃ to different near-surface stability from both physical and chemical perspectives in the revised paper.

"However, increasing atmospheric stability has the opposite effect on near-surface O₃ concentrations. Since aerosols can absorb and reflect solar radiation and thereby inhibit the photochemical production of O₃ (Gao et al., 2016;Kaufman et al., 2002), the lowest O₃ concentration is observed in Node 9. In addition, considering that ozone is mainly produced in the upper ABL, near-surface O₃ should be strongly modulated by down-mixing processes (Tang et al., 2017b;Tang et al., 2017a). In this light, the varying daytime O₃ peaks across the ABL types can be partly attributed to the various magnitudes of vertical mixing. This is supported by daytime BLH. As have shown in Fig. 4, the daytime BLH is highest in Node 1, followed by Node 7, Node 3 and the lowest in Node 9. Such ordering is generally consistent with the daytime O₃ peaks in these types. Due to the persistent down-mixing caused by strong wind shears, the near-surface O₃ remains a relatively high nocturnal concentration (e.g. about 45 µg/m³ in winter) in Node 1. In contrast, the stable nocturnal conditions (e.g., Nodes 9, 7 and 3) are commonly associated with low O₃ concentration (e.g. about 16 µg/m³ in winter) due to the lack of vertical mixing, as well as the strong chemical titration by NO emitted from vehicles." (Lines 271-282)

Reviewer #2:

General comments

The paper deals with the influence of boundary layer structure on air quality using 4-year observations. The article presented very interesting study between air pollutants and meteorology, and the study built on very good meteorological measurements data. The paper is certainly worth of publishing as the study itself is extremely interesting. However, some improvements/corrections are suggested.

Thank you very much for the positive comments. We have addressed each of the concerns you've brought up here through our responses below.

Specific comments

1. The title should be modified. Throughout the manuscript, I haven't found the description concerning the calculation of the BLH. Therefore, the title using boundary layer structure is not exactly correct. Maybe atmospheric stability or boundary layer meteorology are much better. In addition, 4-year is not long-term for the observation period. In section 3.4, the authors also discussed the impact of the aerosols on BLH. However, the title just represented the influence of boundary layer meteorology on air quality. I suggest removing section 3.4 or please revise the title correspondingly.

Reply: Thanks for the useful comments. We changed the title in the revised paper. In addition, according to your suggestion, we removed section 3.4 in the revised paper.

“Self-organized classification of boundary layer meteorology and associated characteristics of air quality in Beijing” (Lines 1-2)

2. The radiosondes the authors used mainly represent the stable condition of the boundary layer. However, the air pollutants were observed in the whole day. Especially, the AOD data were just observed during the daytime. As well known, the boundary layer height will develop rapidly during the daytime. Lacking of the daytime observations of boundary layer structures, how about the creditability of the relationship of air pollutants and boundary layer meteorology?

Reply: Thanks for the excellent comments. We estimated the daytime boundary layer height (BLH) with parcel method to detect the boundary layer development after sunrise in the revised manuscript. In general, the daytime boundary layer heights are relatively flat after an extremely stable night, reflecting an insufficient space for vertical mixing in the day. These BLH results together with the classified ABL types jointly supported the analysis on the relationship of air

pollutants and boundary layer meteorology.

“To detect the boundary layer development after sunrise, daytime boundary layer height (BLH) is estimated with parcel method (Holzworth, 1964, 1967), i.e., intersecting each day’s 08:00 radiosonde potential temperature (θ) profile at Beijing Observatory with each hour’s (from 09:00 to 15:00) surface θ values, which are calculated from surface air temperature observations. As shown in Fig. 4, the BLH on the days following a strong stable night (i.e., Node 1) is relatively flat, reflecting an inadequate development of daytime boundary layer. Similarity, Node 3 is also followed by a flat daytime BLH variation. The maximum BLH in these two types are lower than 900 m, indicating a limited space for vertical mixing in the day. In contrast, the afternoon BLH in Node 7 can reach up to 1100 m; this mixing depth is conducive to dilute the pollutants accumulated in the previous night. In Node 1, the convective boundary layer develops well, and its maximum height on average exceeds 1500 m, far higher than the values in other types.” (Lines 201-210)

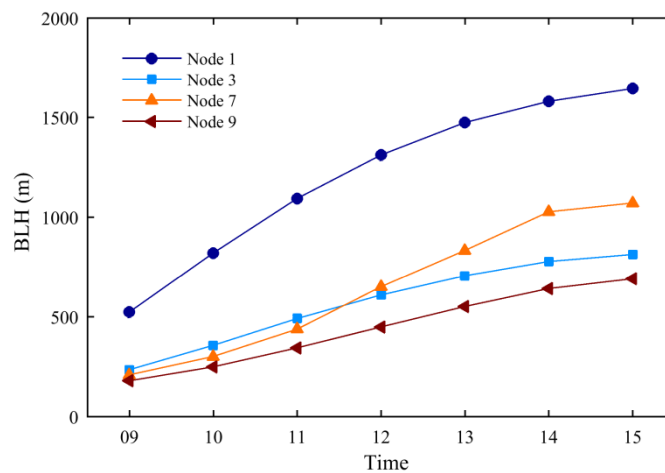


Figure 4. Daytime boundary layer height (BLH) estimated for the four typical ABL types (i.e., Nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9).

3. The instruments of US Embassy for PM are not the same as the MEP. Do you consider the differences?

Reply: Thanks for the comment. The PM_{2.5} values in the two different dataset showed high consistence. We clarified it in the revised paper.

“The mass concentrations of atmospheric pollutants (including PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂ and CO) over Beijing during the period from 2013 to 2017 are obtained from the Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People’s Republic of China (<http://datacenter.mep.gov.cn/>). In addition, hourly PM_{2.5} measured at the Beijing US Embassy (<http://www.stateair.net/>) are also used in this study. The

PM_{2.5} values in the two datasets show a well consistence with a mean correlation coefficient of 0.94. The mean hourly standard error of PM_{2.5} across sites changes little from 12.6 to 12.9 after the inclusion of US Embassy.” (Lines 112-117)

4. For the boundary layer meteorology, potential virtual temperature and Richardson number are much better indicators to do the SOM analysis. Why the authors using temperature to do the SOM analysis? I suggest using potential virtual temperature to do the classification of different nodes.

Reply: This excellent comment is highly appreciated. We used virtual potential temperature to perform the classification of boundary layer meteorology in the revised manuscript.

“We construct a 3×3 SOM matrix for daily virtual potential temperature deviation profiles, and the self-organized output shown in Fig. 1 represents nine ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes).” (Lines 159-160)

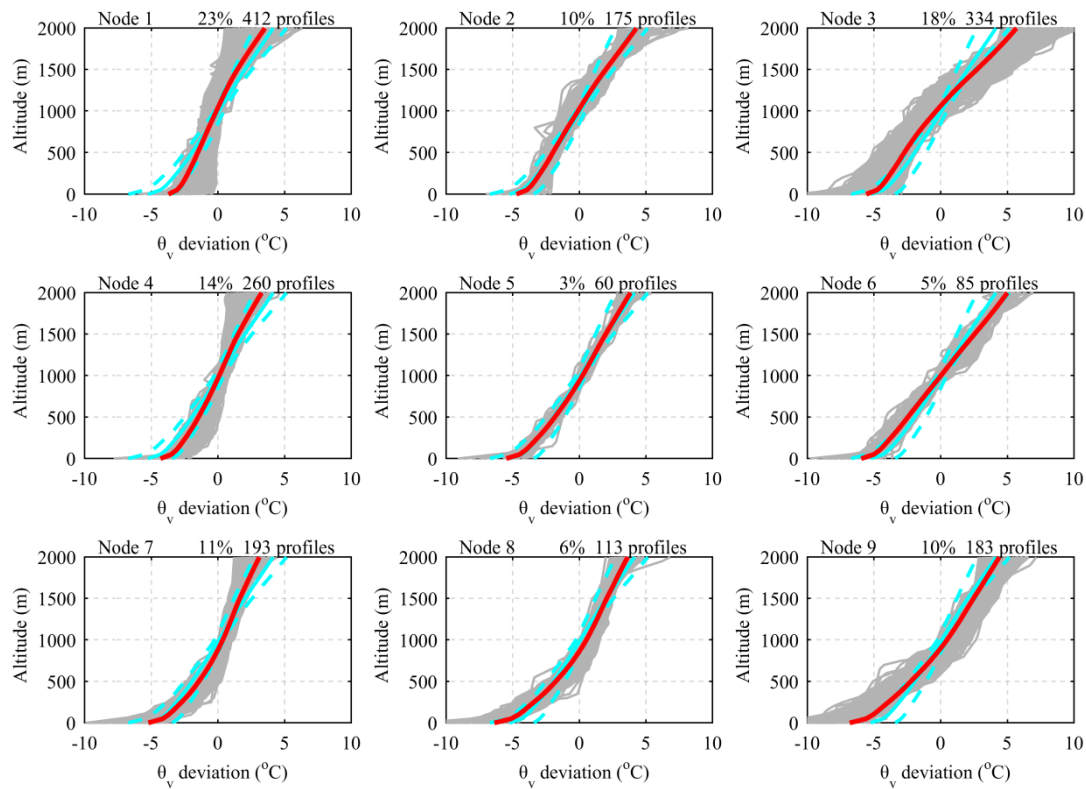


Figure 1. The 3×3 SOM output for radiosonde-based virtual potential temperature (θ_v) deviation profiles observed at the Beijing Observatory. SOM nodes are shown in red, with the corresponding individual profiles in grey. For reference, the overall average θ_v deviation profile and 25th and 75th percentile profiles are shown in cyan. The top-right shows the occurrence cases and frequency of each SOM node.

5. How to evaluate atmospheric stability? Do you have the quantitative basis? Node 3 represents slow wind, high humidity and more stable than node 7.

Reply: Thanks for the useful comment. We used the virtual potential temperature gradient profile to quantify the atmospheric stability at different heights (the larger gradient suggests the stronger stability) in the revised paper. We discussed the atmospheric stability throughout the ABL. For Node 3, it represents a strongest stability in the upper ABL compared to other nodes.

“Figure 3 displays the average profiles of wind speed, relative humidity, virtual potential temperature gradient according to the ABL types...” (Lines 181-194)

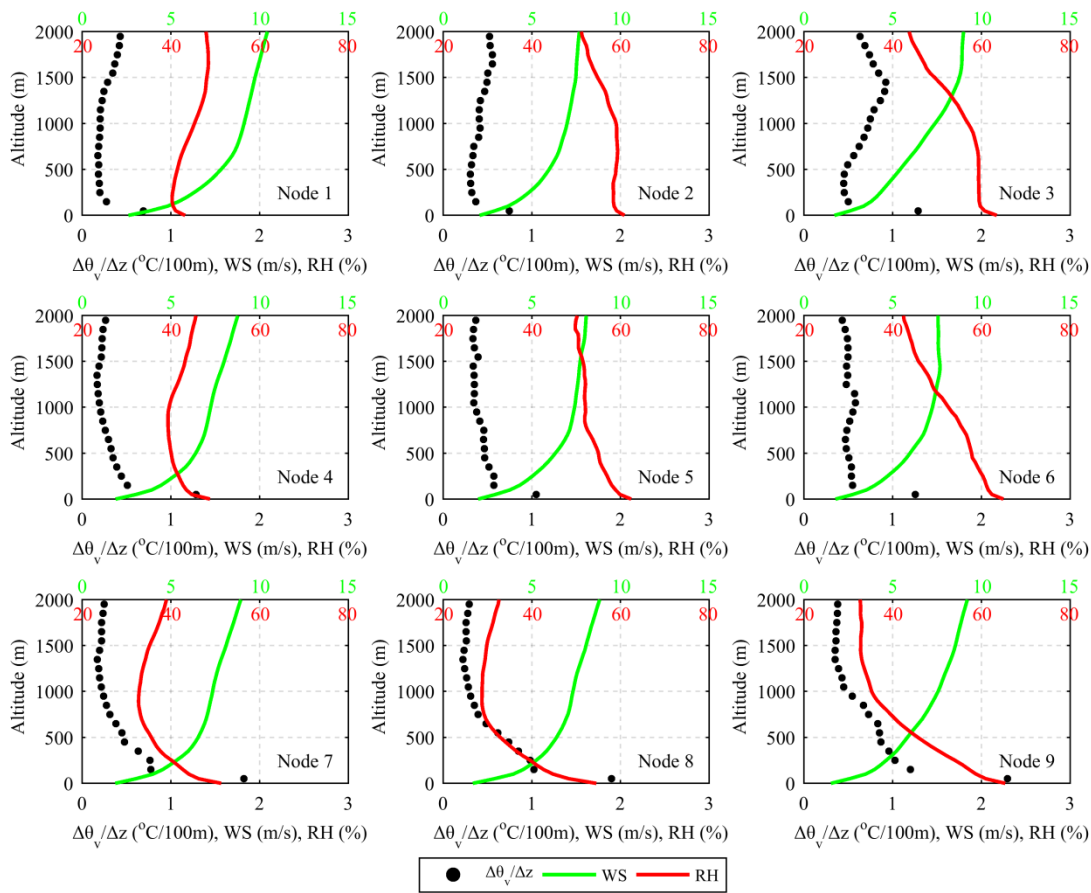


Figure 3. Profiles of average wind speed (WS), relative humidity (RH) and virtual potential temperature gradient ($\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z$) corresponding to individual ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes) at the Beijing Observatory. The black, green and red labels of the horizontal axis correspond to $\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z$, WS and RH, respectively.

6. Because emissions are different in different seasons, I suggest discussing the concentrations of air pollutants in different nodes for each season.

Reply: Thanks for the useful comments. We discussed the concentrations of air pollutants in different nodes separately by seasons, and therefore re-wrote the results in the section 3.2 of the revised paper. (Lines 215-302)

In addition, to increase the sample size, we included the observations in 2017 into analysis in the revised paper. (Lines 94-95 and Lines 112-115)

7. For the boundary layer ozone analysis, please refer Tang et al., 2017a, 2017b.

Reply: Thanks for the comments. We read the two papers carefully and referred them in our boundary layer ozone analysis.

“In addition, considering that ozone is mainly produced in the upper ABL, near-surface O₃ should be strongly modulated by down-mixing processes (Tang et al., 2017b; Tang et al., 2017a). In this light, the varying daytime O₃ peaks across the ABL types can be partly attributed to the various magnitudes of vertical mixing.” (Lines 273-276)

Technical comments

1. Line 48. Beijing has two directions adjacent to mountains. The west one is Tai hang Mountains and two north one is Yan Mountains.

Reply: We corrected it in the revised manuscript.

“Beijing, the capital of China, is geographically located at the northwestern border of the Great North China Plain. This city is surrounded by the Yan Mountains to the north and the Taihang Mountains to the west, with the Bohai Sea to the 160 km southeast (Fig. 1).” (Lines 48-50)

2. Line 56. Ground-based remote sensing.

Reply: We corrected it in the revised paper.

“In addition, numerous intensive ABL measures were conducted using other approaches such as mooring boats, airplane, and ground-based remote sensing (Tang et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2009; Hua et al., 2016).” (Lines 60-62)

3. The second paragraph in the introduction section is too long. Please separate it.

Reply: We separated the second paragraph in the revised paper. (Lines 48-68)

4. Section 3.3 is too long, please use subtitle to separate it into several small parts.

Reply: Thanks for the comments. We shorten this section in the revise process and therefore did not use subtitle in the revised paper. In this section, we removed the discussion about local contribution derived from ratio of CO/SO₂. Considering SO₂ are chemical reactive, the chemical process can disrupt the analysis of relative contribution of local accumulation and regional transport.

Other changes:

- 1、 To reflect more daytime concentration after the different stability nights, the daily concentration is performed afternoon-to-afternoon (15:00 h-15:00 h) in the revised paper. In the previous manuscript, the daily concentration was calculated from noon-to-noon (12:00 h-12:00 h).
- 2、 We included the observations in 2017 into analysis in the revised paper. Some according change occurred in the section 3.3 (Quantifying the contribution of ABL anomaly to typical-month PM_{2.5} air quality). Particularly, the results from the meteorology-to-environment method had some difference after the inclusion of observations in 2017. Given that, we updated the results in the revised manuscript.
- 3、 We excluded PM₁₀ in the revised paper because to a large extent its characteristics can be represented by PM_{2.5}.

~~Influence of boundary layer structure on air quality in Beijing: Long-term analysis based on self-organizing maps~~

Self-organized classification of boundary layer meteorology and associated characteristics of air quality in Beijing

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Abstract

Self-organizing maps (SOMs; a ~~feature~~feature-extracting technique based on an unsupervised machine learning algorithm) are used to classify ~~the~~ atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) ~~meteorology types~~meteorology types over Beijing ~~by~~through detecting topological relationships among the ~~45-year~~ (2013–~~2016~~2017) radiosonde-~~based~~virtual potential temperature-profiles. The ~~resulting-classified ABL types~~ABL types are then examined in relation to near-surface air quality, including surface pollutant concentrations and columnar aerosol properties, to understand the ~~regulating-modulation~~ effects of ~~the changing different ABL~~ABL-~~meteorology structures~~ on Beijing's air quality. ~~The SOM provides a~~Nine ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes) are obtained through SOM classification technique, and each ~~type is~~is characterized by~~with~~ distinct dynamic and thermodynamic conditions. In general, the self-organized ABL types are able to distinguish between high and low loadings of near-surface pollutants. The average concentrations of PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and CO dramatically increased from the near neutral (i.e., Node 1) to strong stable conditions (i.e., Node 9) during all seasons except summer. Since extremely strong stability can isolate the near-surface observations from the influence of elevated SO₂ pollution layers, the highest average SO₂ concentrations are typically observed in Node 3 (a layer with strong stability in the upper ABL) rather than Node 9. On average, SO₂, NO₂, CO, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} increase 120–220 % from a near neutral (i.e.,

node 1) to strong stable condition (i.e., node 9). In contrast, near-surface O_3 shows an opposite dependence on atmospheric stability, with the lowest average concentration in Node 9. The ABL controls on diurnal cycles of pollutants are as follows: (1) elevated inversion enhances the afternoon baseline; and (2) surface inversion improves the evening increment. Comparing the CO/SO_2 ratios for the different ABL types demonstrates that the local contribution increases with enhanced static stability near the ground, and it is the stable ABL stratification rather than weak surface wind that confines the regional contribution. Due to regional transport, node 3 (dominated by elevated inversion with high relative humidity) corresponds to the most severe columnar aerosol pollution, characterized by the highest optical depth (1.22) and volume concentration ($0.30 \mu m^3/\mu m^2$). The larger aerosol radiative forcing (ARF) within the atmosphere ($> 60 W/m^2$) in nodes 3, 6 and 9 is likely to strengthen the atmospheric stability and thus induce a positive feedback loop for causing high surface pollution. Analysis of three typical pollution period months (i.e., January 2013, December 2015 and December 2016) suggests that the ABL types are the primary drivers of day-to-day variations in Beijing's air quality. Assuming a fixed relationship between ABL type and $PM_{2.5}$ loading for different years, the relative (absolute) contributions of the ABL anomaly to elevated $PM_{2.5}$ levels are estimated to be 58.3 % ($44.4 \mu g/m^3$) in January 2013, 46.4 % ($22.2 \mu g/m^3$) in December 2015, and 73.3 % ($34.6 \mu g/m^3$) in December 2016. 65.8 % ($46.2 \mu g/m^3$) during January 2013, 46.7 % ($20.2 \mu g/m^3$) during December 2015, and 94.6 % ($35.3 \mu g/m^3$) during December 2016.

1 Introduction

The atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) is the section of atmosphere that responds directly to the flows of mass, energy and momentum from the earth's surface (Stull, 1988). Since most air pollutants are emitted or chemically produced within this layer, its evolution plays an important role in transport. The atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) is the section of atmosphere that responds directly to the flows of mass, energy and momentum from the earth's surface, characteristically at timescales of an hour or less (Stull, 1988), dispersion and deposition of air pollutants. Most air pollutants are emitted or chemically produced within this layer and its evolution plays an important role in determining the dispersive and chemical properties of pollutants (Chen et al., 2012; Fan et al., 2008; Whiteman et al., 2014; Platis et al., 2016; Wolf et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2013). The ABL structure is determined by complex interactions between atmosphere static stability and those mechanical processes (such as wind shear from synoptic or terrain-induced flows) (Stull, 1988; Chambers et al., 2015b). These processes can operate at a variety of different heights and temporal scales, and their dominance may vary considerably with height and time at any given location (Salmond and McKendry, 2005). This makes it very difficult to observe and predict the transport and diffusion of air pollutants within the ABL (Chambers et al., 2015b; Chambers et al., 2015a), particularly in

~~those complex-terrain regions such as Beijing (Stull, 1988). Therefore, characterizing typical ABL conditions associated with high pollution levels helps to better understand the role of ABL in governing the transport and distribution of pollutants in the atmosphere.~~

Beijing, the capital of China, ~~is suffering serious air pollution problems. This city is~~ geographically ~~geographically~~ located at the northwestern border of the Great North China Plain. ~~This city and has~~ is ~~surrounded by the Yan Mountains to the north and the Taihang Mountains to the west~~ three directions that are ~~adjacent to mountains, with~~ the Bohai Sea to the 160 km southeast (Fig. 1). Under favorable weather conditions (e.g., stagnant weather). The closest coast from the city of Beijing is the Bohai Sea, which is 160 km southeast of ~~the city. T~~errain-related circulations can ~~therefore~~ be well developed over Beijing and its surroundings ~~under favorable weather conditions~~, leading to a complex ABL-ABL thermodynamic structure, which is thought to substantially affect Beijing's ~~Beijing's~~ air quality (Hu et al., 2014; Miao et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2016; Gao et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2016). With high emissions of air pollutants from anthropogenic sources, Beijing is suffering serious air pollution problems and the pollution can be even more severe when southwesterly and southeasterly winds prevail within the ABL (Chen et al., 2008; Ye et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2012a).

Several studies ~~used tower-based observations to~~ investigated the interactions between ~~boundary layer~~ ABL meteorology ~~dynamics~~ and air pollution formation ~~quality in Beijing using tower-based observations~~ (Sun et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2015; Guinot et al., 2006; Guo et al., 2014). However, the results are not ideal because the tower-based observations ~~they~~ have a low observational height (325 m). In addition, n ~~N~~umerous intensive ABL measures were conducted using other approaches, such as mooring boats, airplane, and ground-based remote sensing (Tang et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2009; Hua et al., 2016). ~~However, s~~ Since these approaches are complex, expensive and labor intensive, they are often restricted to the duration of specific research campaigns and hence their results may be considered 'unrepresentative'. Overall, the existing knowledge of linkages between ABL ~~meteorology~~ structure and air quality in Beijing is drawn largely from either low observational height or short observational duration. ~~Due to the lack of long-term effective observations; therefore,~~ the common patterns of the influence ~~influence~~ of the changing ABL-ABL structures on Beijing's air quality remains relatively unclear ~~unclear~~ and need to be further studied (Quan et al., 2013; Miao et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2014). ~~For example, many case studies (Jia et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2015; Hua et al., 2016; Li et al., 2016) claimed that rapid growth of PM_{2.5} in Beijing is mainly attributable to the regional transport of the polluted air mass. This view is occasionally questionable, as it is known that the polluted episodes tend to occur with a weak surface wind and stable boundary~~

layer stratification, which are unfavorable for transport (Zhu et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2015). Given these uncertainties, there is an urgent need to investigate and determine the common patterns of ABL structure influence on Beijing's air quality.

On the other hand, Meanwhile, the long-term routine radiosondes are not being fully utilized to investigate urban pollution issues. The advantage of radiosondes over the other approaches seems to be their length, which usually spans several decades. For a long time, it was challenging to reduce the wealth of radiosonde datasets to characterize the ABL structure, and therefore, radiosondes remained in a very limited use in case studies (Ji et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013; Gao et al., 2016). Recently, self-organizing maps (SOMs; a feather-feature-extracting technique based on an unsupervised machine learning algorithm) (Kohonen, 2001) were introduced to investigate the ABL thermodynamic structure, indicating the capabilities of SOMs in feather-feature extraction from a large dataset of the ABL measurements (Katurji et al., 2015). In fact, the SOM has become an increasingly popular application in atmospheric and environmental sciences during the past several years (Jensen et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2017; Gibson et al., 2016; Pearce et al., 2014; Stauffer et al., 2016), including a radiosonde-based first application of routine radiosondes in South Africa (Dyson, 2015). However, there is thus far no SOM application in air pollution-related ABL structure research. It is expected that such a new analytical approach can tap the potential of routine radiosondes to better reveal understand urban the air pollution ABL mechanism of air pollution in Beijing.

In this study, a long-term analysis regarding This study investigates the influence of ABL structure meteorology on Beijing's air quality is performed based on the SOM application of SOMs to 4-5 years (2013-2016/2017) of routine meteorological radiosonde measurements. First, we use the SOM-is-first-used technique to classify the state of ABL through detecting topological relationships among the radiosonde-based virtual potential temperature profiles vertical temperature profiles for identifying predominant ABL types (see section 3.1). Then, A selection of climatological observations is then subdivided according to the SOM-based ABL classification (see section 3.2). Finally, we provide a visual insight into air quality near-surface pollutant variations (including surface pollutant concentrations and columnar aerosol properties) under various ABL conditions types and discuss the potential physical mechanisms behind their relationships (see section 3.3-3.5). It is expected that such an association between air quality and ABL type could provide local policy makers with useful information for improving the predictions of urban air quality.

125 2 Materials and methods

126 2.1 Data preparation and preprocessing

127 ~~The recent 5-year (2013–2017) r~~Radiosonde data observed at the Beijing Observatory (39.81°N, 116.48°E,
128 WMO station number 54511) were collected from the University of Wyoming (<http://weather.uwyo.edu/>). ~~The~~
129 ~~data cover the recent 4-year period from 2013 to 2016.~~The ~~radiosondes were Beijing Observatory~~ launched ~~s~~ a
130 ~~routine radiosonde~~ twice a day (08:00 and 20:00 ~~Beijing Local~~ Time (~~BJT~~), corresponding to the morning and
131 evening, respectively) and ~~provides~~ ~~provided~~ atmospheric sounding data (profiles of temperature, relative
132 humidity, wind speed, etc.) at the mandatory pressure levels (e.g., surface, 1000, 925, 850, 700 hPa) and
133 additional significant levels. In addition, the hourly near-surface meteorological parameters (including
134 temperature, wind speed and relative humidity, etc.) in 2013–2016 ~~are~~ were collected from the Beijing
135 Meteorological Bureau.

136 ~~(Li et al., 2012)~~~~In addition, the hourly near-surface meteorological parameters (including temperature, wind~~
137 ~~speed and relative humidity) are also collected from the Beijing Meteorological Bureau.~~

138

139 We chose the 2000 m above ground level (~~AGL~~) as the upper limit of the ABL based on a number studies
140 investigating the ABL height over Beijing or North China (Tang et al., 2016;Guo et al., 2016;Miao et al., 2017).
141 This height ~~exceeds~~ ~~exceeded~~ the top of the ~~ABL height~~ in most cases, and therefore, most ABL processes
142 influencing the near-surface air quality ~~are~~ ~~were~~ included in the analysis herein. In our study period, the average
143 number of data points in radiosonde profiles was 3.7 below 500 m and 10.1 below 2000 m. Despite the coarse
144 resolution, the profile shapes were enough for SOM technique to classify the state of ABL. Previous
145 radiosonde-based study indicated that surface temperature inversions occur frequently in the eastern China (Li et
146 al., 2012), suggesting that all of the two-time radiosondes mainly represent the nocturnal stable ABL. We classify
147 ~~the daily ABL types using the SOM algorithm.~~To keep a whole night, the daily ~~ABL vertical~~ profiles ~~are~~ ~~were~~
148 composited from the ~~radiosonde measurement~~radiosondes at 20:00 and 08:00 of the next day.~~In addition, the~~
149 ~~hourly near-surface meteorological parameters (including temperature, wind speed and relative humidity) are also~~
150 ~~collected from the Beijing Meteorological Bureau.~~

151

152 The mass concentrations of atmospheric pollutants (including ~~SO₂, NO₂, CO, O₃, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂~~
153 ~~and CO~~) over Beijing during the period from 2013 to ~~2016–2017~~ are obtained from the Ministry of Environmental
154 Protection of the People's Republic of China (<http://datacenter.mep.gov.cn/>). In addition, hourly PM_{2.5} measured at
155 the Beijing US Embassy (<http://www.stateair.net/>) are also used in this study. The PM_{2.5} values in the two datasets

show a well consistence with a mean correlation coefficient of 0.94. The mean hourly standard error of $PM_{2.5}$ across sites changes little from 12.6 to 12.9 after the inclusion of US Embassy. Hourly concentrations are calculated for the Beijing urban area by averaging concentrations from nine urban sites (including Dongsi, Guanyuan, Tiantan, Wanshouxigong, Aotizhongxin, Nongzhanguan, Gucheng, Haidianwanliu and US Embassy). ~~To maintain consistency with ABL classification,~~ the daily pollutant concentration is then performed ~~from afternoon-to-afternoon (152:00 h–152:00 h), in order to include one whole night in each 24-h period.~~

~~In addition to near surface observations, columnar aerosol parameters (including aerosol optical depth (AOD), Ångström exponent (AE), single scattering albedo (SSA), volume particle size distribution ($dV/d\ln R$), aerosol radiative forcing (ARF) and so on) are also collected from the AERONET Beijing (39.98°N, 116.38°E) and Beijing CAMS (39.93°N, 116.32°E) sites. The level 2.0 quality assured columnar aerosol data from 2013 to 2016 are downloaded from the AERONET data archive (<http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov>). The size distribution is retrieved in 22 logarithmically equidistant bins in a range of sizes from 0.05 to 15 μm through a combined spherical and spheroid particle model (Dubovik and King, 2000; Dubovik et al., 2006).~~

2.2 Self-organizing maps technique

The SOM is thought to be an ideal tool for ~~feature~~feature extraction because the input data are treated as a continuum without relying on correlation, cluster or eigenfunction analysis (Liu et al., 2006). Since Kohonen (1982) first proposed SOM, it has been widely used for data downscaling and visualization in various disciplines (Jensen et al., 2012; Katurji et al., 2015; Dyson, 2015; Stauffer et al., 2016; Pearce et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2017). In this study, the SOM is introduced to classify the ABL ~~structure~~types through detecting topological relationships among the 5-year (2013–2017) radiosonde-based virtual potential temperature profiles. Since the SOM is sensitive to the virtual potential temperature value, the deviation profiles, which are determined by subtracting the mean virtual potential temperature of each profile from each level, are used as the SOM input. ~~We use the code from the MATLAB SOM Toolbox, which is freely available from <http://www.cis.hut.fi/projects/somtoolbox/>.~~

The training of SOM is an unsupervised, iterative procedure, and the result is a matrix of nodes (i.e., types) that represent the input data. The following provides a simple introduction about the SOM algorithm, and the details can be found in Kohonen (2001). ~~SOM training is an unsupervised, iterative procedure, and the result is a matrix of nodes (i.e., types) that represent the input data.~~ To learn from the input data, every SOM node has a parametric reference vector with which it is associated, and these reference vectors are randomly generated. After

187 initialization of the reference vectors, a stochastic input vector is compared to every reference vector, and the
188 closest match, named the best-matching unit, is determined by the smallest Euclidean distance. Each reference
189 vector is then updated so that the best-matching unit and its neighbors become more like the input vector. Whether
190 or not a reference vector learns from the input vector is determined by the neighborhood function. Only reference
191 vectors that are topologically close enough to the best-matching unit will be updated according to the SOM
192 learning algorithm.

193

194 ~~To exclude the influence of actual temperature values, temperature deviation profiles, which are determined by~~
195 ~~subtracting the mean temperature of each profile from each level in the profile, are used as the SOM input in this~~
196 ~~study.~~ The first step of SOM training is to determine a matrix size of nodes for initializing the reference vectors.
197 This step is performed subjectively and depends on the degree of generation required (Lennard and Hegerl, 2015).
198 We test several SOM matrixes, and finally select a 3×3 matrix, because it captured unique profiles without the
199 profiles being too general as with a smaller matrix, or being too similar as with a larger matrix. ~~To exclude the~~
200 ~~influence of actual temperature values, temperature deviation profiles, which are determined by subtracting the~~
201 ~~mean temperature of each profile from each level in the profile, are used as the SOM input in this study. In~~
202 ~~addition~~ The batch mode is chosen to execute the SOM algorithm, the batch mode is chosen to execute the SOM
203 algorithm. This mode, because it is much more computationally efficient compared to the sequence mode. The
204 other user-defined settings in the SOM software are set at the default, such as the hexagon topology, Gaussian
205 neighborhood function, etc. The SOM code used in this study is sourced from the MATLAB SOM Toolbox, which
206 is freely available from <http://www.cis.hut.fi/projects/somtoolbox/>.

207

208 **2.3 Measuring the discriminative power of SOM technique for pollution assessment**

209 The Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance is used as a non-parametric method to test the difference of
210 pollutant concentrations among the various ABL types. A 1% significance level is used and hereafter denoted as
211 KW in Sect. 3.2. Furthermore, the coefficients of variation (CV) of pollutant means across the various ABL types
212 are also used to examine the discriminative power of the SOM technique for pollution assessment.

213

214 **3 Results and discussion**

215 **3.1 Self-organized ABL types boundary layer meteorology**

216 We constructed a 3×3 SOM matrix for daily ~~virtual potential temperature~~ temperature deviation profiles, and
217 the ~~SOM-self-organized~~ output shown in Fig. 4-1 represents nine ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes). ~~In Fig. 1, the SOM~~

nodes are plotted in red, and the individual profiles corresponding to the SOM node are plotted in blue. For comparison, the mean and 25th and 75th percentiles for the entire period are plotted in cyan. On the SOM plane, the most notable feature is adjacency of like types (e.g., nodes Nodes 1 and 2) and the separation of contrasting types (e.g., nodes Nodes 1 and 9). Although the SOM nodes appear to be sorted in a certain order, there is no physical significance associated with this order. Such ordering is a feature of the SOM algorithm (i.e., 'self-organized') (i.e., 'self-organized'). This, which allows us to visualize subtle differences between the neighboring clusters of profiles and distinguish the unique characteristics of nodes through the variation of specific features across the SOM plane. According to the ordering feature, the SOM nodes in the four corners (i.e., Nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9) can be thought of as the typical types and the others can be considered as transitional types. The four typical ABL types have a relatively higher occurrence frequency (> 10%), with the highest frequency associated to Node 1 (23%). Furthermore, the seasonal statistical results (Fig. 2) reveal that these self-organized ABL types exhibit a strong seasonality. For example, Node 3 occurs more frequently in winter and autumn, while Node 1 has a relatively higher occurrence in spring and summer.

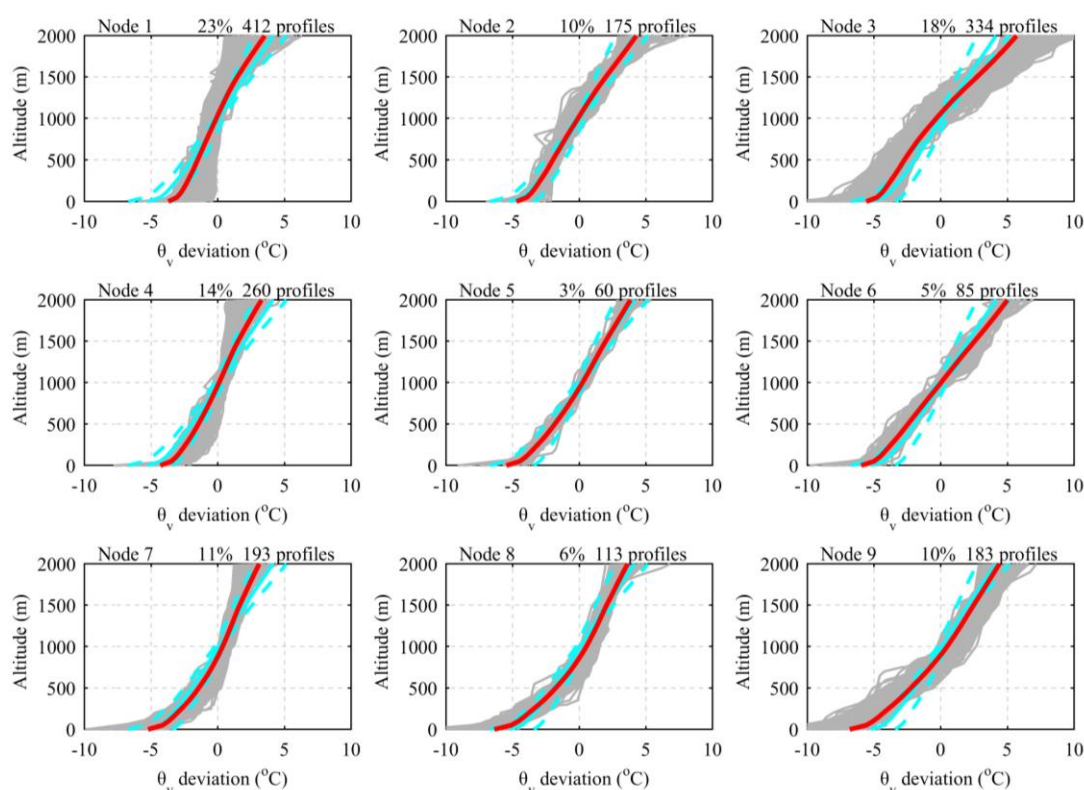


Figure 1. The 3 × 3 SOM output for radiosonde-based virtual potential temperature (θ_v) deviation profiles observed at the Beijing Observatory. SOM nodes are shown in red, with the corresponding individual profiles in dark bluegrey. For reference, the overall average θ_v temperature deviation profile and 25th and

75th percentile profiles are shown in cyan. The top-right shows the occurrence cases and frequency of each SOM node.

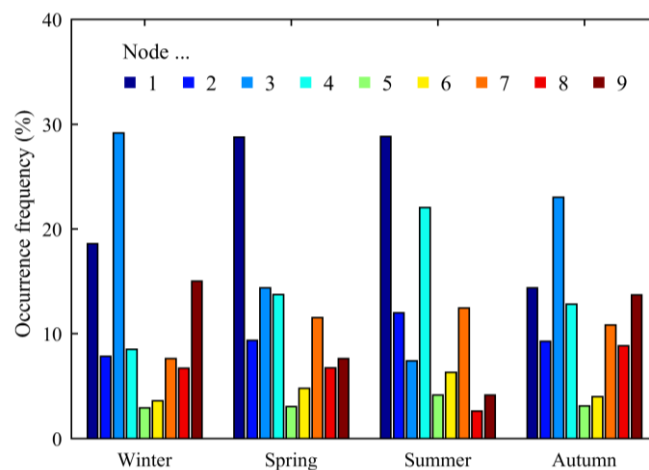


Figure 2. Seasonality of SOM nodes shown as the relative frequency of seasons within each SOM node. Relative frequency of individual ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes) in all four seasons. Winter (DJF); Spring (MAM); Summer (JJA); Autumn (SON).

The SOM classification reveals that for the whole study period, the ABL is dominated by near neutral to strong stable conditions, as none of the SOM nodes fall within the unstable category (i.e., super adiabatic condition). The results are reasonable, considering the daily temperature profile is composited from 20:00 and 08:00 measurements. According to the SOM ordering feather, the SOM nodes in four corners (i.e., nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9) can be thought of as the typical ABL types and the others can be considered transitional ABL types. It is clear from the individual profiles in Fig. 1 that node 1 represents the well-mixed (near neutral) condition with no temperature inversion, node 3 indicates the ABL type dominated by elevated inversion, node 7 indicates the ABL type dominated by surface inversion, and node 9 represents the ABL type associated with multiple inversions (i.e., including surface and elevated inversions).

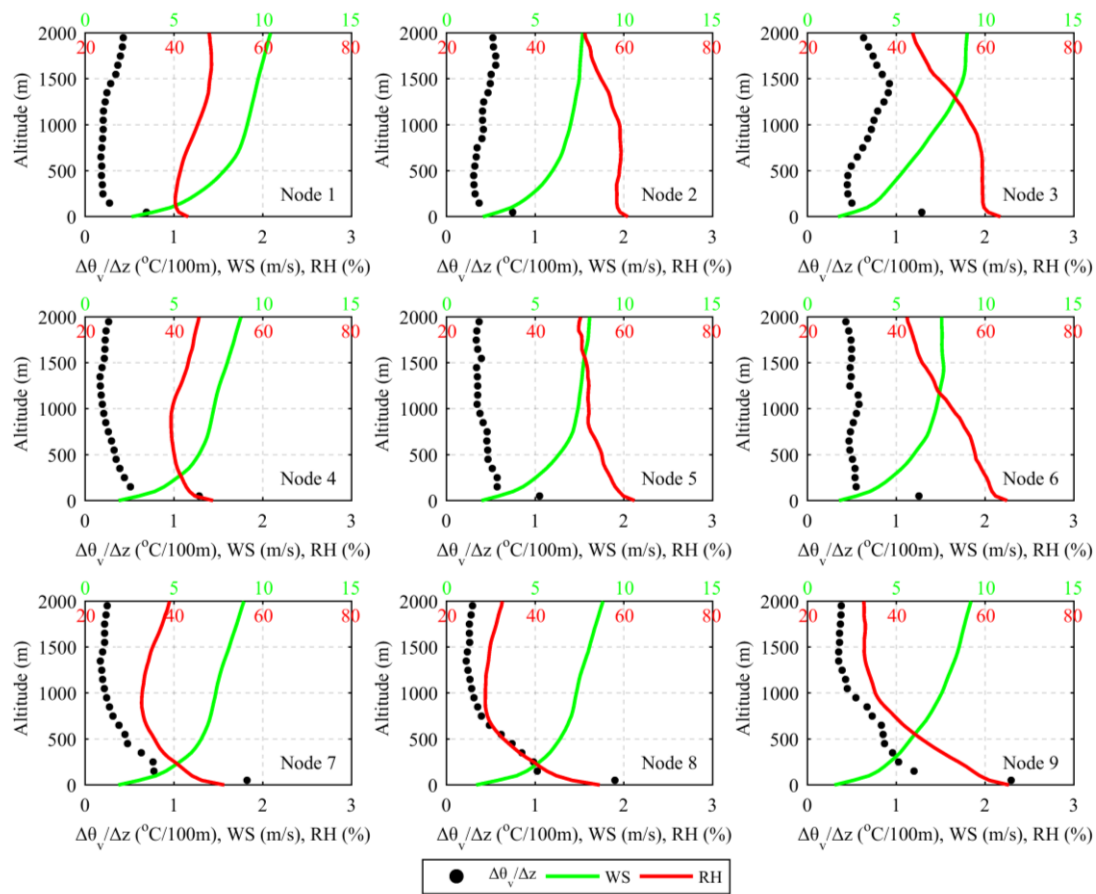
Frequency analysis of the nine ABL types indicates that the frequency distribution across the types is quite varied from the expected 11.1 %, with the occurrence frequency showing a 5:1 range from the most frequent type (node 1) to the least frequent type (node 5). The higher frequency types are presented on the outer portions of the SOM plane, while lesser frequency types are presented closer towards the center (top right in Fig. 1). The most dominant types are nodes 1 and 3, and their occurrence frequencies reach 22 % and 20 %, respectively. As

synoptic circulations change with the seasons over Beijing, the ABL types are expected to correspond to seasonality. The number of profiles from each season in each ABL type is expressed as a percentage and is shown in Fig. 2. All of the types exhibit strong seasonality. For example, node 1 has the highest occurrence in spring (29.4 %) and the lowest occurrence in autumn (13.7 %); node 9 presents the highest occurrence in winter (16.3 %) and the lowest occurrence in summer (4.9 %).

3.2 Evaluation against meteorological data

Figure 3 displays the average profiles of wind speed, relative humidity, virtual potential temperature gradient according to the ABL types. Fig. 3 shows the average vertical profiles of potential temperature, wind speed and relative humidity corresponding to each ABL type. As seen in Fig. Clearly, each of the self-organized ABL types is associated with features distinct dynamic and thermodynamic conditions within the ABL, suggesting the SOM technique is feasible to classify the boundary layer meteorologies. Since the classification is based on the twice-daily radiosondes, the resulting ABL types are dominated by near neutral to strong stable conditions, and none of the types fall within the unstable category (i.e., $\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z < 0$). While Node 3 features the strong static stability in the upper ABL (the large $\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z$ values), Node 1 represents a near neutral ABL condition with the lowest $\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z$ values and the highest wind shears in the lower ABL. In contrast, Node 7 corresponds to a moderate static stability in the lower ABL, and Node 9 relates to a strong static stability. Particularly, the virtual potential temperature gradient in Node 9 remains a high level ($> 0.7^\circ\text{C}/100\text{m}$) from surface to approximately 800 m, indicating a strong and deep surface temperature inversion developed in this type. In addition, due to the strong surface inversion, vertical mixing is suppressed, resulting in a strong decreasing gradient in humidity profiles. Overall, the SOM classification scheme reveals a significant coupling between dynamic and thermal effects in the ABL, which is expected to considerably impact the near-surface air quality. The potential temperature profiles vary from near neutral conditions to strong stable conditions, and this change is closely related to the variance in wind speed, suggesting a strong coupling between the dynamic and thermal effects. The two extreme types (nodes 1 and 9) provide a very useful example. Node 9 is a very strong stable profile, and the wind speeds are very low in the lower ABL. In contrast, node 1 is a well-mixed (near neutral) profile and it corresponds to significantly higher wind speeds throughout the ABL. In addition, when the stability of the atmosphere is strong, vertical mixing is suppressed and winds in the lower ABL become decoupled from the generally stronger wind aloft. This allows moisture, fogs, low clouds and other scalars to build up within the stable layer. As a result, the stable ABL types usually correspond to high RH in the lower ABL.

292 The near surface meteorological variables are also examined for each of the ABL types. Fig. 4 shows the
 293 diurnal composite plots of surface temperature, wind speed and relative humidity in the four typical ABL types.
 294 As expected, these near surface variables respond well to the changing ABL structure. Wind speeds are the highest
 295 on the days corresponding to near neutral conditions (i.e., node 1). High wind speeds result in a deep,
 296 mechanically mixed layer, and these days also exhibited the smallest diurnal amplitude in wind speed, temperature
 297 and relative humidity. Such characteristics are likely consistent with the passage of frontal systems. In contrast,
 298 the smallest wind speeds are observed on days related to strong stable conditions (i.e., node 9). The stable days
 299 also generally exhibit the greatest amplitude of the diurnal signals in temperature and relative humidity. This fact
 300 is an indication that stable conditions occur mostly on clear sky days.



302
 303 Figure 3. Profiles of average potential temperature (θ), wind speed (WS) and, relative humidity (RH) and
 304 virtual potential temperature gradient ($\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z$) corresponding to individual ABL types (i.e., SOM
 305 nodes) each SOM node at the Beijing Observatory. The black, green and red, green and black labels of the
 306 horizontal axis correspond to $\Delta\theta_v/\Delta z$, θ , WS and RH, respectively.

307
 308 To detect the boundary layer development after sunrise, daytime boundary layer height (BLH) is estimated with

parcel method (Holzworth, 1964, 1967), i.e., intersecting each day's 08:00 radiosonde potential temperature (θ) profile at Beijing Observatory with each hour's (from 09:00 to 15:00) surface θ values, which are calculated from surface air temperature observations. As shown in Fig. 4, the BLH on the days following a strong stable night (i.e., Node 1) is relatively flat, reflecting an inadequate development of daytime boundary layer. Similarity, Node 3 is also followed by a flat daytime BLH variation. The maximum BLH in these two types are lower than 900 m, indicating a limited space for vertical mixing in the day. In contrast, the afternoon BLH in Node 7 can reach up to 1100 m; this mixing depth is conducive to dilute the pollutants accumulated in the previous night. In Node 1, the convective boundary layer develops well, and its maximum height on average exceeds 1500 m, far higher than the values in other types.

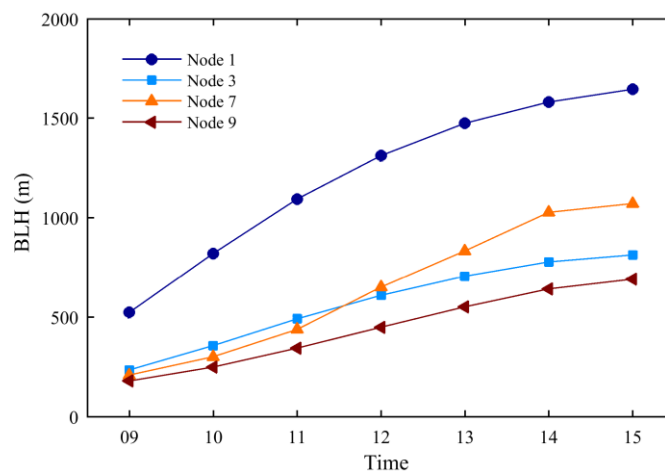


Figure 4. Daytime boundary layer height (BLH) estimated for the four typical ABL types (i.e., Nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9).

3.3 Evaluation against surface air quality

3.2 Implementing the SOM-based ABL classification scheme for urban air quality assessment

In the previous section, it was seen that the SOM classification scheme is an effective tool for delineation between various dynamic and thermodynamic structures within the ABL. As a further evaluation, we implement the new classification scheme to quantify changes in various urban pollutant concentrations as a function of ABL types. Since the pollutant emissions have a strong seasonality over Beijing and its surroundings, the analyses are performed for winter (December to February), spring (March to May), summer (June to August), and autumn (September to November), respectively. Figure 5 shows the statistical distributions of daily pollutant concentrations according to the nine ABL types, along with the results of Kruskal-Wallis test and the coefficients of variation of pollutant means across the various types. Figure 6 displays the type-average pollutant diurnal patterns composited for the four typical ABL types (i.e., Nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9).

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~~— The concentrations of gaseous and particulate pollutants in the atmosphere are governed by the rate at which they are emitted from their respective sources, lost by various sink mechanisms, and characteristics of the atmospheric volume into which they mix. While the mixing volume is determined primarily by the boundary layer structure, the chemical transformation also depends on boundary layer meteorology in some cases. In the previous section, it was seen that the SOM technique is an effective tool for classifying boundary layer structures. In this section, we used the classification technique to quantify the influence of the boundary layer structure on near surface air quality.~~

~~—~~
Fig. 5 examines the daily concentrations of gaseous and particulate pollutants in relation to various ABL types. The Kruskal-Wallis test demonstrates that the self-organized ABL types are able to distinguish between high and low loadings of air pollutants, with $KW < 1\%$ in all seasons (except for summertime SO_2 with a KW value of 1.5%). Furthermore, it is found that the SOM technique has a stronger discriminative power for SO_2 , $PM_{2.5}$ and CO assessments, which is supported by relatively higher CV values ($CV > 0.30$). According to the seasonal CV values, this discriminative power shows a following seasonal ordering: winter > autumn > spring > summer. Particularly, the wintertime CV value in $PM_{2.5}$ assessment reaches the maxima (0.56), indicating an extremely strong dependence of $PM_{2.5}$ air quality on the changing ABL meteorology in winter. In summer, the stable nocturnal ABL develops later due to the longer day (Li et al., 2012), and hence avoids the larger daytime pollutant emissions, particularly the traffic peak emissions. In the absence of larger sources, the nocturnal stable layers exert a limited influence on near-surface air quality; therefore, the classified ABL types have relatively weakened discriminative power for summertime pollution assessments. In addition, wet depositions (more precipitation in summer) play an important role in modulating summertime air quality, and to some degree disrupt the linkages between ABL type and air quality.

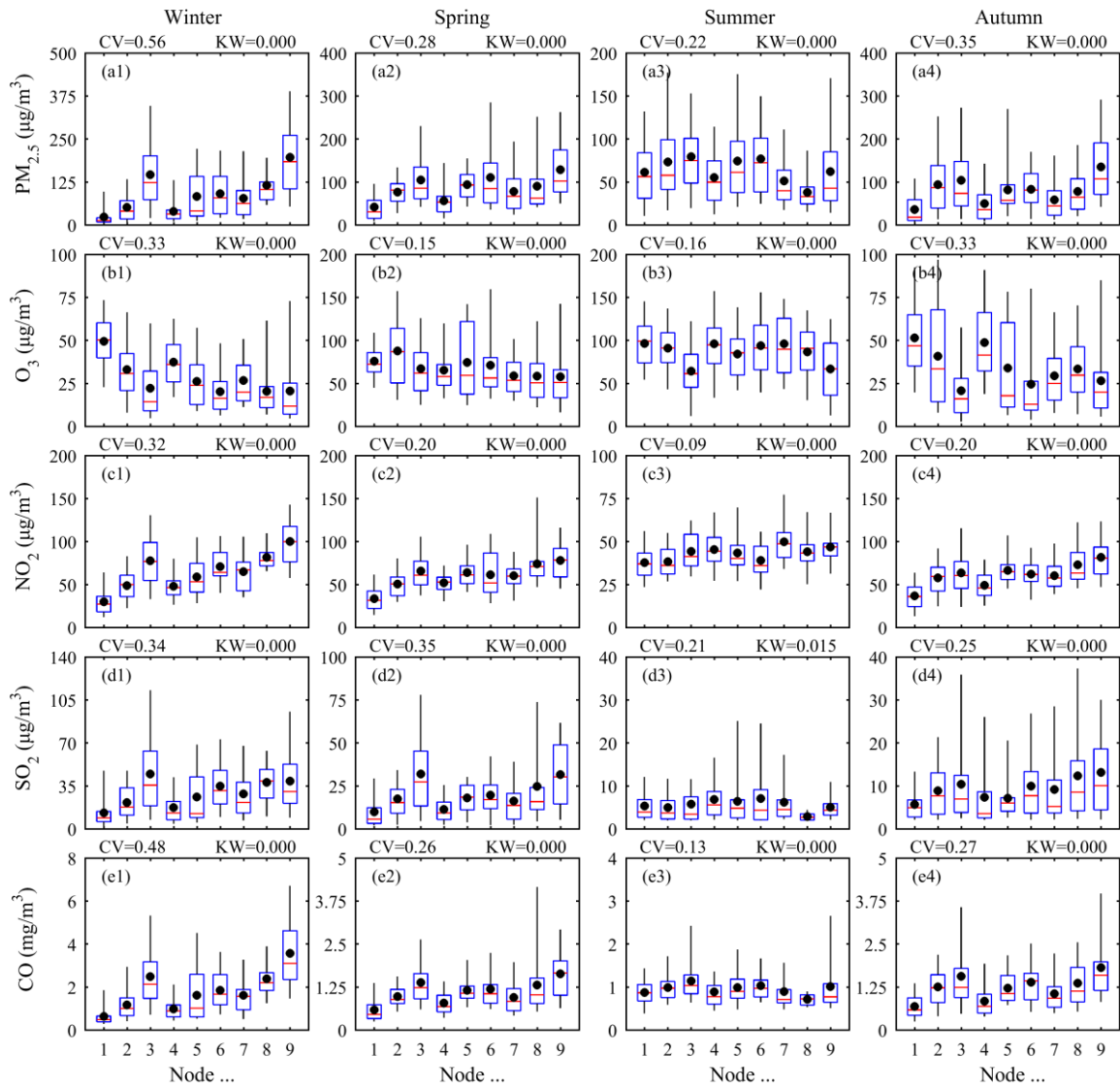


Figure 5. Daily concentrations of (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) O₃, (c) NO₂, (d) SO₂, and (e) CO in Beijing for all nine ABL types separately in (1) winter, (2) spring, (3) summer, and (4) autumn. The solid dots denote the mean. The box and whisker plot presents the median, the first and third quartiles, and the 5th and 95th percentiles, respectively. The upper numbers denote the results of Kruskal-Wallis test (KW) and the coefficients of variation (CV) of pollutant means across the various types.

In the case of PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and CO, the most stable atmospheric conditions (i.e., Node 9) are associated with dramatically increased near-surface pollutant concentrations in all seasons except summer. The wintertime average concentrations of PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and CO in Node 9 reach up to 197.2 μg/m³, 100.2 μg/m³ and 3.6 mg/m³, respectively. These values are 3–8 times higher than that in Node 1 (i.e., near neutral condition), with the highest increasing amplitude (a factor of 7.3) related to PM_{2.5}. As have known, Node 9 corresponds to the strongest nighttime stability in the lower ABL and the lowest daytime BLH. All of these ABL characteristics are extremely

370 conducive to the accumulation of air pollutants emitted near the ground. For Node 3, the concentrations of PM_{2.5},
371 NO₂ and CO are the second-highest compared to those of the other types. This ABL type features the strongest
372 stability in the upper ABL, suggesting that processes operating at the different heights throughout the ABL may
373 have a significant impact on near-surface pollutant concentrations.

374
375 The diurnal cycles of PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and CO are extremely pronounced under the strong stable conditions,
376 although very reduced on the days with near neutral night. On average, the wintertime diurnal range of PM_{2.5}
377 increases from 18.2 µg/m³ in Node 1 to 95.4 µg/m³ in Node 9. The corresponding diurnal range increase for NO₂
378 is 18.9 to 33.6 µg/m³, and for CO 0.2 to 1.7 mg/m³. In Node 1, the diurnal variations are characterized by a weak
379 two-peak pattern following the traffic rush hours, suggesting that traffic is the primary driver of these pollutants'
380 diurnal cycles in Beijing (Liu et al., 2012). However, the diurnal effects of traffic emissions are significantly
381 amplified by the ABL dynamics. It is clear that the more stable conditions near the ground, the higher peak
382 concentrations are observed. In winter, the stable ABL conditions exert a more important influence on the evening
383 traffic emissions, resulting in a broad evening peak. In contrast, the morning peak signature is much lower since
384 the morning emission is counteracted by the destabilization of the ABL. However, as human activities begin
385 earlier during the warm season, maximum concentrations in spring and summer are typically observed during the
386 morning rush hours (Pernigotti et al., 2007; Chambers et al., 2015b; Crawford et al., 2016; Chambers et al., 2015a)

387
388 However, increasing atmospheric stability has the opposite effect on near-surface O₃ concentrations. Since
389 aerosols can absorb and reflect solar radiation and thereby inhibit the photochemical production of O₃ (Gao et al.,
390 2016; Kaufman et al., 2002), the lowest average O₃ concentration is observed in Node 9. In addition, considering
391 that ozone is mainly produced in the upper ABL, near-surface O₃ should be strongly modulated by down-mixing
392 processes (Tang et al., 2017b; Tang et al., 2017a). In this light, the varying daytime O₃ peaks across the ABL types
393 can be partly attributed to the various magnitudes of vertical mixing. This is supported by daytime BLH. As have
394 shown in Fig. 4, the daytime BLH is highest in Node 1, followed by Node 7, Node 3 and the lowest in Node 9.
395 Such ordering is generally consistent with the daytime O₃ peaks in these types. Due to the persistent down-mixing
396 caused by strong wind shears, the near-surface O₃ remains a relatively high nocturnal concentration (e.g. about 45
397 µg/m³ in winter) in Node 1. In contrast, the stable nocturnal conditions (e.g., Nodes 9, 7 and 3) are commonly
398 associated with low O₃ concentration (e.g. about 16 µg/m³ in winter) due to the lack of vertical mixing, as well as
399 the strong chemical titration by NO emitted from vehicles.

400 As expected, the most stable conditions are associated with a dramatic increase in the mass concentrations of air

pollutants (except O_3). On average, SO_2 , NO_2 , CO , PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ increase by $15.7 \mu g/m^3$ (142 %), $44.3 \mu g/m^3$ (119 %), $1.5 mg/m^3$ (202 %), $91.6 \mu g/m^3$ (119 %) and $95.9 \mu g/m^3$ (218 %) from the near neutral ABL condition (i.e., node 1) to strong stable condition (i.e., node 9), respectively. The highest increasing amplitude is related to $PM_{2.5}$, suggesting fine particulate matters are likely accumulated from not only primary emissions but also secondary formation (Zhang and Cao, 2015). As we have shown, the more stable ABL conditions tend to correspond to high relative humidity in the lower ABL (Figs. 3 and 4). Additional enhancement in $PM_{2.5}$ can be expected under the humid condition, as it is known that the humidity-related physicochemical formation of particles (such as hygroscopic growth, liquid phase and heterogeneous reactions) can be intensified by high humidity values (Cheng et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2015).

Interestingly, increasing atmospheric stability has an opposite effect on near surface O_3 concentrations. Since O_3 is produced by photochemical interactions between NO_x ($NO + NO_2$) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006), the boundary layer structure alters the O_3 level through modulation of its precursors (NO_x and VOCs). The low O_3 level in the stable ABL can be explained by the strong titration reaction. Since O_3 is highly reactive, when trapped in a stable layer, surface titration by the NO emitted from vehicles can cause a rapid reduction in O_3 concentration. In previous studies, persistent low O_3 concentration were observed in the stable boundary layer condition in Beijing (Zhao et al., 2013). Conversely, when near surface wind speeds are higher (near neutral condition such as node 1), O_3 is mixed downward from the overlying air mass, resulting in higher concentrations. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that the extremely high O_3 values (not shown) were also detected on very stable days (i.e., node 9), suggesting the complexity of O_3 behavior in response to the boundary layer structure (Tong et al., 2011; Haman et al., 2014).

To obtain a more in-depth understanding of the physical mechanisms behind the relationship between air quality and ABL structure, diurnal composite hourly concentrations of atmospheric pollutants are formed for each ABL type.—

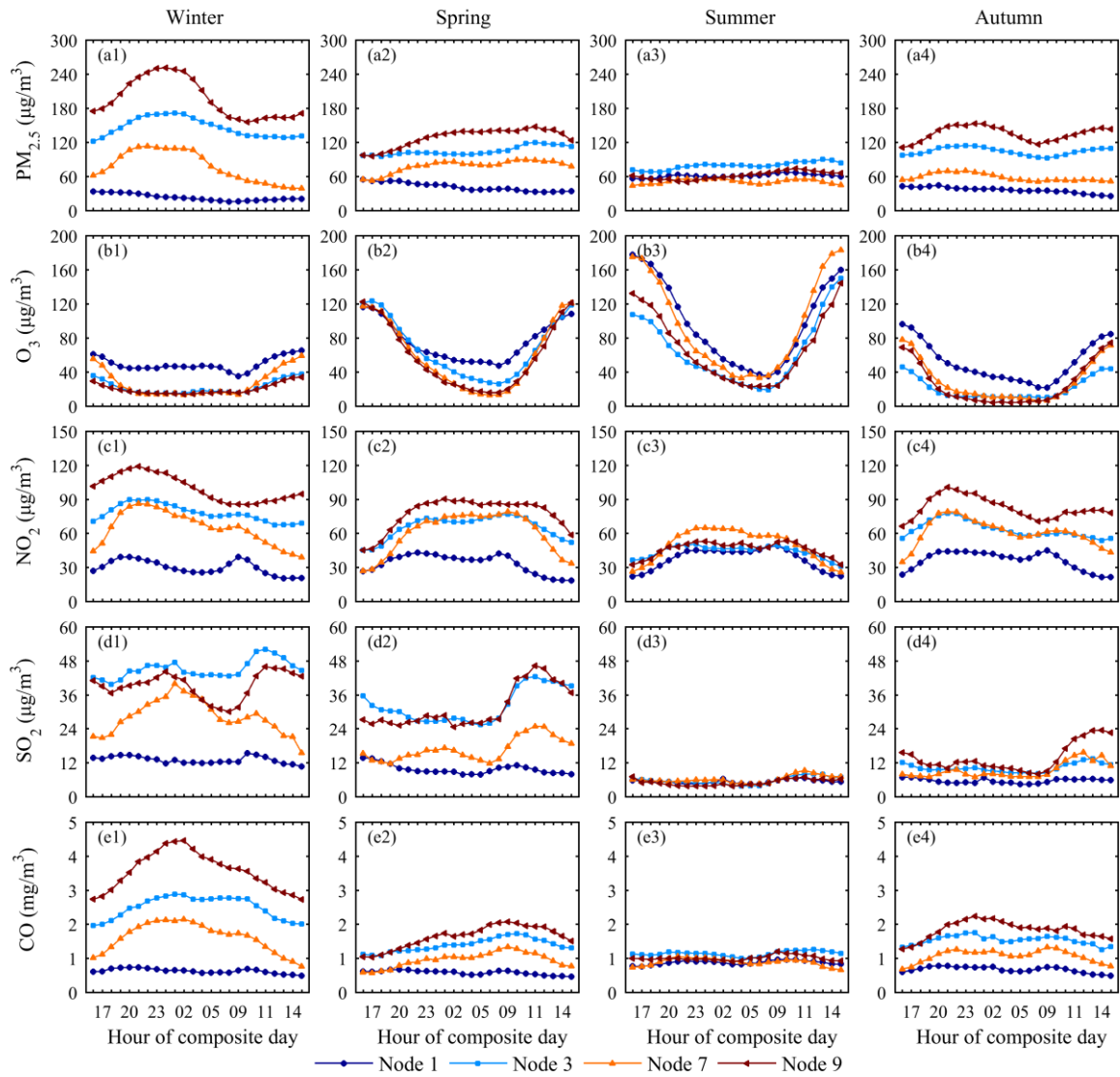


Figure 6. Mean hourly composites of (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) O₃, (c) NO₂, (d) SO₂, and (e) CO in Beijing for the four typical ABL types separately in (1) winter, (2) spring, (3) summer, and (4) autumn

The SOM-based ABL classification scheme provides a consistent, gradual distinction in the diurnal cycles of surface air pollutants from near neutral to strong stable conditions. The composite diurnal evolutions of air pollutants in the four typical ABL types (i.e., nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9) are illustrated in Fig. 6. (Tang et al., 2017b; Tang et al., 2017a)

The highest average SO₂ concentrations are typically observed in Node 3, but occasionally in Node 9. Over the North China Plain high stacks are emitting a significantly larger amount of SO₂ compared to small stacks (Zhao et al., 2012). The frequent surface temperature inversions together with the large SO₂ emissions from higher stacks favor the formation of elevated SO₂ pollution layers over Beijing (Chen et al., 2009). If sufficiently strong, the surface temperature inversion can even isolate near-surface observations from the influence of elevated pollution layers (Salmond and McKendry, 2005). This explains the commonly lower near-surface SO₂ concentration in

Node 9 than that in Node 3. However, after a stable night, the burst of turbulent activity in the morning coincides with a rapid increase in near-surface SO_2 concentration, resulting in a pre-noon peak. Since there is no significant increase in SO_2 emission at the surface at that time, the result strongly suggests that the SO_2 peaks are due to the downward mixing from the elevated SO_2 pollution layers. Regarding the physical mechanism of the noontime-peak SO_2 pattern, Xu et al. (2014) have made a detail explanation in a previous study. Nevertheless, the wintertime SO_2 concentration signature does not always show a distinct pre-noon peak (e.g., Node 7). This may attribute to the increased SO_2 emissions from household heating in winter (Liao et al., 2017). Like other primary pollutants, the local SO_2 emissions become trapped close to the surface under the stable nocturnal condition, resulting in a much higher nighttime peak compared to the pre-noon peak.

~~The diurnal cycles of SO_2 , NO_2 , CO , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are extremely pronounced under the strong stable condition (i.e., node 9), although very reduced under the near neutral condition (i.e., node 1). In contrast, the behavior of O_3 is completely different from other pollutants. The results suggest that the chemical species, which are mainly produced by surface emissions, are strongly modulated by the development of the ABL, while the chemical species, which are strongly controlled by the photochemical process, are weakly regulated by the development of the ABL (Crawford et al., 2016). Overall, the diurnal behavior of each pollutant species in each of the ABL types is generally consistent with the existing knowledge for urban areas (Chambers et al., 2015b; Chambers et al., 2015a; Zhang et al., 2012b; Jenner and Abiodun, 2013; Han et al., 2009).~~

~~Of particular interest in Fig. 6 is that (1) nodes 3 and 9 have similar magnitudes of concentrations in the afternoon, and (2) nodes 7 and 9 have similar increments in concentrations from afternoon to midnight, although there is a huge distinction in the afternoon concentrations (i.e., afternoon baselines). This sheds some light on the common patterns of the ABL controls on the near-surface air quality in Beijing. Considering the thermal inversion feather in each of ABL types (Fig. 1), the regulating effects of ABL on near-surface concentrations can be concluded as follows: (1) elevated inversion enhances the afternoon baseline; and (2) surface inversion improves the evening increment. Obviously, the high afternoon baselines in nodes 3 and 9 can be attributed to elevated inversion, while high evening increments in nodes 7 and 9 can be attributed to surface inversion. Since surface inversion usually develops shortly before sunset due to radiation cooling, the evening traffic emission peak is counteracted by a stabilizing boundary layer. Consequently, the air pollutants such as NO_2 , CO , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ often experience an explosive growth from afternoon to midnight. In contrast, elevated inversion usually forms due to synoptic forcing (such as synoptic advection) (Hu et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2016) and can persist for several days; as a result, the daytime mixing volume is also depressed, causing a relatively higher afternoon~~

concentration.

Beijing has relatively little industry but numerous automobiles, and the emissions of SO_2 are small while those of CO , NO_x and particles are much larger (Zhao et al., 2012). By comparison, the diurnal behaviors of SO_2 and other pollutants are completely different. For example, in node 9, SO_2 show a lower nighttime concentration but a sharp increase after sunrise, whereas NO_2 , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ show a higher nighttime concentration with a slight morning increase associated with the traffic emission. The results largely suggest that the changing ABL structure affects the near surface observations of locally and remotely sourced pollutants in very different ways. In the evening, since the stable boundary layer (SBL) and the residual layer (RL) are essentially decoupled with each other (Stull, 1988), locally sourced pollutants emitted into the surface layer (such as CO , NO_2 and particulate matters from vehicular emissions) become trapped close to the surface. In contrast, remotely sourced pollutants emitted from chimneystacks above the SBL (such as SO_2 from power plants in the Hebei Province) may be stored within the RL aloft and not penetrate into the SBL. As the daytime convective turbulent mixing developed in the morning, the rapid momentum transfer between the surface and aloft air transported the pollutants stored in RL downward and meanwhile upwardly mixed the pollutants trapped from the previous night in the surface layer (Salmond and McKendry, 2005). It is observed in Fig. 6 that after a stable night, the burst of turbulent activity in the morning coincides with a rapid increase in SO_2 concentration (Fig. 6). Since there is no significant increase in SO_2 emission at the surface at this time, this result strongly suggests that increased SO_2 in the morning resulted from the downward mixing of stored SO_2 in the RL aloft. In a previous case study, Li et al. (2017) reported that as a result of both turbulent mixing and the advection of high concentrations of air pollutants above the surface layer, the urban area of Beijing experienced a dramatic increase of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration in the morning on 30 November 2015.

—Given the importance of local vehicle emissions vs. more distance power plant and industrial emissions for Beijing's air quality, the ratio of CO/SO_2 can be considered as an indicator of the contribution of local emissions to air pollution, with higher ratios indicating higher local contributions (Tang et al., 2015). Fig. 7 shows the composite diurnal variations of CO/SO_2 ratios in the four typical ABL types (i.e., nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9). The contrasts between CO/SO_2 ratios for the various ABL types are noticeable during the nighttime, whereas differences during the daytime are minimal. During the daytime, when the ABL is well mixed, near surface pollutant concentrations represent a combination of local and remote sources. In the evening, however, the earth's surface begins to cool, and a stable boundary layer begins to form from the ground up. If sufficiently strong, the

nocturnal surface inversion can isolate near surface observations from the influence of distant sources (Crawford et al., 2016). Consequently, the more stable the nocturnal conditions near the ground, the higher the CO/SO₂ ratios that occur (Fig. 7). The results are consistent with previous studies (Tang et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2016), indicating local contribution increases with enhanced static stability in the surface layer over Beijing. According to the above analysis, high pollutant loadings in node 9 are mostly attributable to local contributions (the highest CO/SO₂ ratios in node 9); however, high pollutant loadings in node 3 are more likely due to regional contributions (the lowest CO/SO₂ ratios in node 3). Obviously, it is the stable stratification rather than the weak surface wind that confines the regional contribution.

3.4 Evaluation against columnar aerosol pollution

For many years, aerosol particles have been the primary pollution problem in Beijing. Atmospheric aerosols play an important role in radiation transfer due to absorption and/or scattering in the atmosphere, and thus could have a great influence on the evolution of the ABL. In recent years, the feedback effect of aerosols on the ABL has drawn much attention. To further our understanding of aerosol pollution in Beijing, we examine the optical and physical properties and the direct radiative forcing of columnar aerosols in the different ABL types in this section.

Aerosol optical properties can be characterized by three useful parameters: AOD, AE and SSA. Fig. 8 illustrates the AOD_{440nm}, AE_{440nm-870nm} and SSA_{440nm} over Beijing within the nine ABL types. The ABL type averages of AOD range from 0.52 and 1.22 (Fig. 8a). Comparing with near surface observations, the greatest difference is that the highest AOD value generally occurs in node 3, rather than in node 9 (the highest surface PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ concentrations occur in node 9). This may be attributed to the difference in aerosol vertical distribution in these two types. As we have demonstrated in Sect 3.3, node 3 is related to strong regional transport. Since the height of regional transport is usually above the surface layer, such as 200–700 m AGL detected by , more aerosol particles might be suspended above the surface layer in node 3, resulting in the highest AOD value in the atmospheric column. In addition, since high relative humidity also occurs in node 3, the highest AOD value in this ABL type could be partly attributed to the particle hygroscopic growth.

It is known that high AE values indicate a dominance of fine particles, while low values indicate a dominance of coarse particles. Unlike AOD, the AE shows a relatively low sensitivity to ABL types (Fig. 8b). All type averages of AE are higher than 1.0, suggesting that the proportion of fine particles is always larger than that of coarse particles over Beijing. The highest AE occurs in node 6 (1.20) and the lowest is 1.03 in node 1. Node 1

corresponds to the lowest AE value, indicating that under the near neutral ABL condition, the coarse particles contribute a relatively higher proportion of total particles. This could be due to the increasing wind speed with decreasing relative humidity (Figs. 3 and 4). Coarse particles could be from more natural and anthropogenic dust emission under high wind speed conditions. Particularly during the fast northwesterly wind period, dust storms occasionally contribute to the high coarse particle loadings in Beijing. The long distance transport of dust particles from northwest China may be the reason for the lowest AE value in node 1.

The SSA is defined as the ratio of the scattering coefficient and the total extinction coefficient. It is mostly dependent on the aerosol size, concentration of absorbing component and its mixture state with non-absorbing components. The daily SSA at 440 nm ranges from 0.82 to 0.98 during the study period, which suggests that there are quite different types of aerosols in the columnar atmosphere over Beijing (varying from strong absorbing aerosols to strong scattering aerosols). It is easy to see that the ABL types associated with a strong surface inversion (i.e., nodes 7, 8 and 9) have lower SSA values (Fig. 8c). The averaged SSA in these nodes is approximately 0.90, which is significantly lower than that in nodes 1, 2 and 3. The low SSA values mean enhancement in the absorbing particles, such as black carbon, which are released from industry, biomass/biofuel burning, diesel vehicle, and coal burning. In contrast, the highest SSA occurring in node 1 can be explained by dust particle transmission and soil aerosol emissions.

The volume particle size distribution retrieved in the sizes between 0.05 and 15 μm is one of the most important parameters for studying the behavior of aerosols. Fig. 9 expresses the mean volume particle size distribution ($dV/d\ln R$) over Beijing in the nine ABL types. Table 1 supplements Fig. 9 with the statistical parameters of aerosol particle size distribution. Clearly, the volume particle size agrees very well with the bimodal lognormal distributions. Both fine ($R < 0.6 \mu\text{m}$) and coarse ($R > 0.6 \mu\text{m}$) modes exhibit relative stability with two peaks at a radius of approximately 0.1–0.2 μm and 2.0–4.0 μm , which are similar to some previous studies. However, the size distribution shows a distinct difference in the changing amplitude for different ABL types. The fine and coarse mode particle volumes increase rapidly from left (nodes 1, 4 and 7) to right (nodes 3, 6 and 9) on the SOM plane. This suggests that with the stabilizing boundary layer processes, the atmosphere is more loaded with both fine and coarse mode particles over Beijing. In addition, the stabilizing processes are accompanied by the increase of the fine mode effective radius ($R_{\text{eff-F}}$) and fine mode volume fraction (V_f/V_t). These results strongly point to the important role of fine mode particle hygroscopic growth on the days associated with stable nocturnal ABL conditions.

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~~The type-averaged ARF at the surface (BOA), top of atmosphere (TOA), and within the atmosphere (ATM) over Beijing is shown in Fig. 10. The type averages of ARF at the surface range from 47.8 W/m² to 110.0 W/m², while at the TOA, they are found to be between 21.1 W/m² and 48.0 W/m². Likewise, the ABL type-averaged ARF within the atmosphere are between 26.7 W/m² and 63.1 W/m². The larger negative ARF at the surface (> 110 W/m²) and positive ARF within the atmosphere (> 60 W/m²) are found in ABL types 3, 6 and 9 over Beijing, implying strong cooling at the surface and warming in the atmosphere. These results are induced by relatively larger aerosol loadings under the stagnant meteorological conditions. The larger ARF within the atmosphere demonstrates that solar radiation is being absorbed within the atmosphere, and as a result, heats the atmosphere and reduces surface temperature. This can change the atmospheric vertical temperature gradient and improve the atmospheric stability. Finally, the enhanced stability hinders the vertical diffusion of aerosol particles, leading to the increase of aerosol concentrations and causing a further decrease in the solar radiation and ABL height, which induces a positive feedback loop for causing high surface aerosol concentrations.~~

3.5 Evaluation against heavy polluted episodes

3.3 Quantifying the contribution of ABL anomaly to typical-month PM_{2.5} air quality

To improve air quality, the Chinese government promulgated “Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan” in 2013. As a consequence, observed annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations decrease by about 37% over Beijing during 2013-2017. However, severe wintertime PM_{2.5} pollution events still frequently wreaked havoc across Beijing and its surroundings, which resulted in severe damages to the environment and human health (Gao et al., 2017;Gao et al., 2015). It is therefore pressing to understand the factors affecting the occurrence of such serious PM_{2.5} pollution. Previous studies highlighted potential importance of atmospheric conditions to the wintertime PM_{2.5} air quality (Cai et al., 2017). Since the fraction of time for which the different atmospheric conditions dominate can vary from year to year, elucidation of the meteorological roles in those serious pollution periods has a significant importance. In this section, we evaluate the contribution of ABL anomaly to elevated PM_{2.5} concentration in three typical pollution months, i.e., January of 2013, December of 2015 and December of 2016.

In 2013, the Chinese State Council released the “Atmospheric Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan” to implement a megacity cluster scale joint prevention and control strategy program. As a result, the PM_{2.5} in Beijing decreased from 89.5 µg/m³ in 2013 to 73.0 µg/m³ in 2016. However, these meteorology driven pollution episodes to some degree obscure the true impacts of the emission control strategies implemented by government. t.

594 ~~—In January of 2013, December of 2015, and December of 2016, H~~heavy PM_{2.5} aerosol pollution episodes
595 occurred frequently in January of 2013, December of 2015 and December of 2016 ~~wreaked havoc across Beijing,~~
596 resulting in anomalously high month-averaged PM_{2.5} concentrations in the Beijing urban area (180.1 µg/m³, 151.8
597 µg/m³ and 151.2 µg/m³, respectively) ~~and its surroundings, which resulted in severe damages to the environment~~
598 ~~and human health.~~ Fig-~~ure~~ 4-7 shows the hourly PM_{2.5} variations ~~ss~~ ~~of PM_{2.5} and AOD_{440nm}~~ ~~during~~ in the three
599 three heavily polluted ~~selected~~ months, along with daily ABL types. ~~It is observed that the PM_{2.5} concentrations~~
600 ~~were frequently elevated to above 200 µg/m³, and the AOD often exceeded 1.0 in Beijing.~~ In general ~~during these~~
601 ~~three months. The ABL types (shown at the top of each plot) reveal that, the pollution episodes~~ episodes ~~were~~
602 ~~generally associated with the control of nodes~~ Nodes 3 and 9, and the clean ~~episodes~~ episodes ~~were often~~
603 ~~associated with~~ corresponded to the control of node Node 1. For example, the severe pollution episode that
604 occurred from 9–14 January 2013 was due to the alternate ~~control~~ control of ~~nodes~~ Nodes 3 and 9, and the
605 pollution episode from 15–21 December 2016 was related to the persistent ~~control~~ control of ~~node~~ Node 9. ~~In~~
606 ~~contrast~~ Conversely, multiday control of ~~node~~ Node 1 caused a clean episode from 14–16 December 2015. The
607 linkages between PM_{2.5} air quality and ~~the boundary layer structure~~ ABL type ~~were~~ are consistent with the
608 ~~long-term~~ previous long-term analyses ~~described in Sects. 3.3 and 3.4~~, indicating that the changing ABL type ~~types~~
609 ~~is~~ are one of the primary drivers of day-to-day variations in wintertime PM_{2.5} air quality over Beijing.

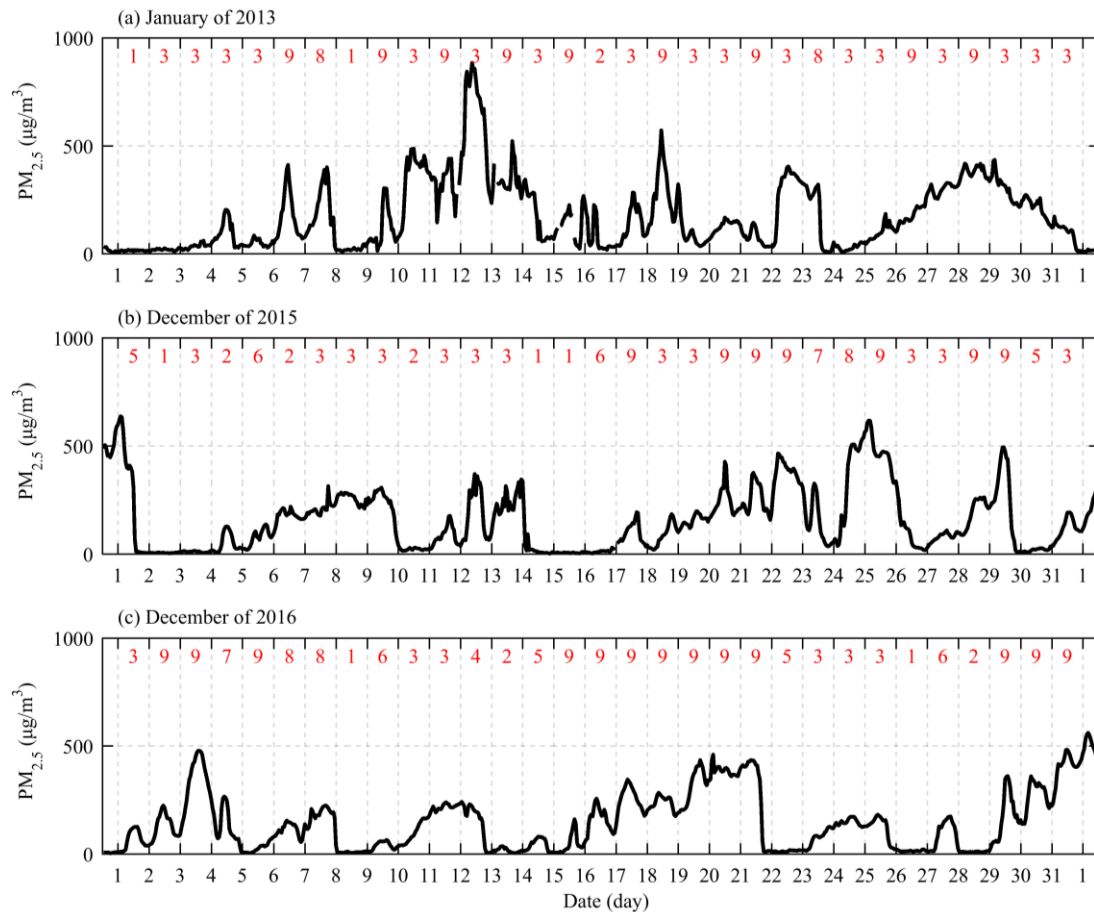


Figure 7. Time series of hourly $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in (a) January of 2013, (b) December of 2015, and (c) December of 2016. The daily ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes) are shown at the top of each plot (red numbers).

The monthly $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the Beijing urban area reached up to $180.8 \mu g/m^3$, $153.9 \mu g/m^3$ and $147.9 \mu g/m^3$ in January 2013, December 2015 and December 2016, respectively. All these values were far larger than the 4-yr winter mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentration ($110.6 \mu g/m^3$). Although the characteristics of $PM_{2.5}$ air quality depend on many complex elements, the major contributors are the pollutant emissions and meteorological conditions. In 2013, the Chinese State Council released the “Atmospheric Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan” to implement a megacity cluster scale joint prevention and control strategy program. As a result, the $PM_{2.5}$ in Beijing decreased from $89.5 \mu g/m^3$ in 2013 to $73.0 \mu g/m^3$ in 2016. However, these meteorology driven pollution episodes to some degree obscure the true impacts of the emission control strategies implemented by government. Figure 8-12 shows illustrates a comparison of the occurrence frequency of the nine ABL types between to the winter mean frequency (2013-2016) for the three-three selected polluted months and the whole 5-year winter period. Compared with the 4-yr winter mean-averaged frequency, the greatest-notable differences are that the occurrences of nodes stable ABL conditions 3 and 9 (the two most polluted types) increased and the node near neutral nights 1 (the clean

type) decreased during the three polluted months. For example, Node 9 occurrence was nearly trebled in December of 2016, and total occurrence of Nodes 3 and 9 doubled in January of 2013. These results highlighted potential contribution of ABL anomaly to the elevated $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in these polluted months. Obviously, the elevated $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the abovementioned months can be mostly attributable to the anomalous boundary layer structures.

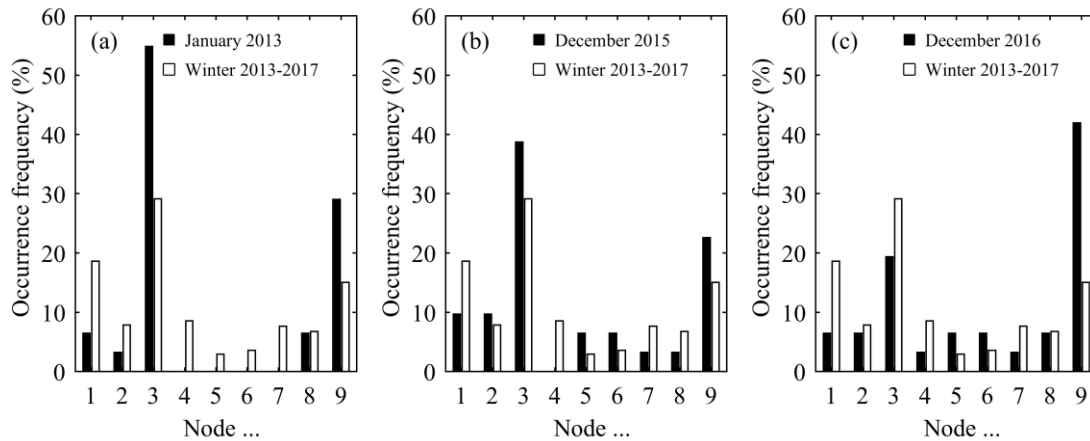


Figure 8. Occurrence frequency of the ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes) during (a) January 2013, (b) December 2015, and (c) December 2016. The winter-averaged frequency during the 5-year (2013–2017) period is repeated on each plot for comparison.

Assuming the linkages between ABL type and $PM_{2.5}$ loading are constant in different years, the contribution of the anomalous ABL meteorology to $PM_{2.5}$ air quality can be estimated through a meteorology-to-environment method, which is revised from the circulation-to-environment method proposed by Zhang et al. (2012). Quantitative analysis of the roles of the ABL anomaly in $PM_{2.5}$ variations during the pollution months is helpful for the assessment of air pollution prevention and control strategies. In this study, the ABL classification allows for the integrated evaluation of the effects of numerous interrelated ABL meteorological parameters on air quality. Here, a meteorology to environment method (revised from the circulation-to-environment method proposed by Zhang et al. (2012a)) is utilized to evaluate the influence of the ABL anomaly for enhanced $PM_{2.5}$ levels during the abovementioned months. We assume the linkages between ABL types and their $PM_{2.5}$ loadings in winter are constant in different years. For each polluted month, the total anomaly (C') is defined as the deviation in $PM_{2.5}$ from the 45-year winter-averaged mean concentration (C_{WIN}) as the total anomaly (C'). This total anomaly, which in each month is due to the combined effects of emission and meteorology and emission. The anomaly calculated from the mean $PM_{2.5}$ loadings for nine ABL types and their

occurrence frequencies during each month can be considered as the “ABL-driven” anomaly, which represents the PM_{2.5} change caused by the anomalous boundary layer ABL structure meteorology. We refer to this as the “ABL-driven” anomaly. The ABL-driven anomaly (C_{ABL}') is calculated through $-\sum_i F_i \cdot C_i - C_{WIN}$, where F_i is the occurrence frequency of type- i ABL during a specific month period and C_i is the corresponding PM_{2.5} loading featuring that type. The ratio of C_{ABL}' to C' (the difference of C_{ABL}' to \bar{C}) is then used to evaluate assess the relative (absolute) contribution of the ABL anomaly to the total anomaly enhanced PM_{2.5} level. The calculated results (Table 1) shows that the ABL-driven PM_{2.5} changes are 44.4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in January 2013, 22.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in December 2015, and 34.6 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in December 2016, which explain 58.3%, 46.4% and 73.3% of total anomaly in respective month. The results show that the contributions of the frequency anomaly of the ABL type to the increase in PM_{2.5} are 65.8 % (46.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) during January 2013, 46.7 % (20.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) during December 2015 and 94.6 % (35.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) during December 2016. These quantitative estimations suggest demonstrate that the ABL anomaly to a large extent explains the enhanced-elevated PM_{2.5} concentrations during these-the three polluted months can be largely attributed to anomalous ABL conditions.

Table 1. Estimated contribution of ABL anomaly to elevated PM_{2.5} concentration in January of 2013, December of 2015 and December of 2016.

Pollution month	Month-averaged PM _{2.5} concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Total anomaly C' ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	ABL-driven anomaly C_{ABL}' ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Contribution ratio of ABL-driven anomaly (%)
January 2013	180.1	76.1	44.4	58.3
December 2015	151.8	47.8	22.2	46.4
December 2016	151.2	47.2	34.6	73.3

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673 4. Summary

674 The influence of the ABL structure meteorology on Beijing’s air quality is still relatively unclear due to the
675 lack of long-term observations. On the other hand Meanwhile, the long years of routine radiosondes remain

underutilized as a tool for urban pollution studies. In this study, the SOM was applied to 45-year (2013-2017) radiosonde-based θ_v profiles to classify the state of ABL types over Beijing. The resulting classified ABL types were then evaluated in relation to meteorological and environmental near-surface air quality variables, with an attempt to understand the roles of the different changing ABL conditions structure in regulating the air quality variation in Beijing. The main findings are as follows:

- 1) The SOM provides a continuum of nine ABL types (i.e., SOM nodes), and each type is characterized with distinct boundary layer meteorological conditions (including dynamic and thermodynamic conditions) within the ABL. Node 1 represent a near neutral layer with the lowest θ_v gradient and the highest wind speed. Node 3 features a strong static stability in the upper ABL. In contrast, Node 9 and Node 7 respectively correspond to the moderate and strong static stability in the lower ABL.
- 2) The self-organized ABL types are capable of characterizing the influence of nocturnal mixing on near-surface pollutant loadings. From the near neutral (i.e., node Node 1) to strong stable ABL types conditions (i.e., node Node 9), the surface average concentrations of SO_2 , NO_2 , CO , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, NO_2 and CO on average increased dramatically during all seasons except summer, increase approximately 120-220 %. Meanwhile, the diurnal evolutions cycles of these pollutant species are strongly modulated by temperature inversions ABL dynamics. Although the modulation effect varies from season to season, the higher peak concentrations commonly occur under the more stable conditions. While an elevated inversion enhances the afternoon baseline concentration, the surface inversion improves the evening concentration increment. In contrast, O_3 show an opposite variation in response to the ABL types. However, increasing stability has opposite effect on O_3 , resulting in the lowest O_3 level in Node 9. For SO_2 , the highest average concentrations are typically observed in Node 3. The pre-noon SO_2 peaks are more significant after a strong stable night.
- 3) Boundary layer evolution affects the near-surface observations of locally and remotely sourced pollutants in very different ways, causing a distinct difference in the diurnal variations of SO_2 and other pollutants (e.g., NO_2 , CO , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$). Comparing the CO/SO_2 ratios in different ABL types reveals that the local contribution increases with enhanced static stability near the ground, and it is the stable boundary layer stratification rather than weak surface wind that confines the regional contribution.
- 4) With the stabilizing ABL processes, the atmosphere column is more loaded with both fine and coarse mode particles. Node 3 (dominated by elevated inversion and high relative humidity) corresponds to the most severe columnar aerosol pollution, characterized by the highest optical depth (1.22) and volume concentration ($0.30 \mu\text{m}^3/\mu\text{m}^2$). The larger negative ARF at the surface ($> 110 \text{ W/m}^2$) and positive ARF within the atmosphere ($> 60 \text{ W/m}^2$) are associated with the three stable ABL types (i.e., nodes 3, 6 and 9), suggesting the possible

~~influence of a positive feedback loop for causing high surface aerosol concentrations.~~

~~5) Analysis of three typical wintertime pollution months (i.e., January 2013, December 2015 and December 2016) suggests that the ABL types are one of the primary drivers of day-to-day PM_{2.5} variations in Beijing's air quality. During the three pollution months, the frequency of the stable ABL types (e.g., stable ABL typesodes 3 and 9) (i.e., Nodes 9 and 3) increases significantly compared with to the 45-year (2013-20162017) winter mean frequency. In contrast, the frequency of the well-mixed ABL type (i.e., node 1) is greatly reduced during these pollution months.~~

~~6)3) Using a meteorology-to-environment method, the relative (absolute) contributions of the ABL anomaly to enhanced-elevated PM_{2.5} level concentrations is-are estimated to be 6558.8-3 % (4644.2-4 µg/m³) during-in January 2013, 46.7-4 % (2022.2 µg/m³) during-in December 2015, and 9473.6-3 % (3534.3-6 µg/m³) during-in December 2016.~~

This work revealed the common pattern of the ABL influences ~~of different ABL structures~~ on Beijing' air quality. The established ~~correlations-linkages~~ between ABL type and air quality could be useful for developing an operational forecast and warning system. In addition, this work demonstrated that the SOM-based ABL classification scheme is a ~~powerful-helpful~~ tool for understanding urban air pollution. Since the SOM technique is good at ~~featurefeature~~ extraction, the coarse-resolution radiosonde ~~profile~~ can be taken as ~~the SOM input (as we have shown in this study)to classify the state of the ABL.~~ Therefore, ~~the SOM-based ABL classification schemeit~~ can take advantage of the long-term available radiosondes, ~~which ismaking it a~~ simple and economical ~~alternative to to implement in comparison to conventionalother techniquesapproaches to stability classification-(such as mooring boats, airplane, and ground remote sensing).~~ We believe that the pollution-related ABL research and the formulation of pollution control measures could benefit from application of the SOM analytical tool.

Data availability

The datasets used in this study are publicly available at the University of Wyoming (<http://weather.uwyo.edu/>), the Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China (<http://datacenter.mep.gov.cn/>), the U.S. Department of State Air Quality Monitoring Program (<http://www.stateair.net/>), ~~and the Aerosol Robotic Network (<https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/>).~~

Competing interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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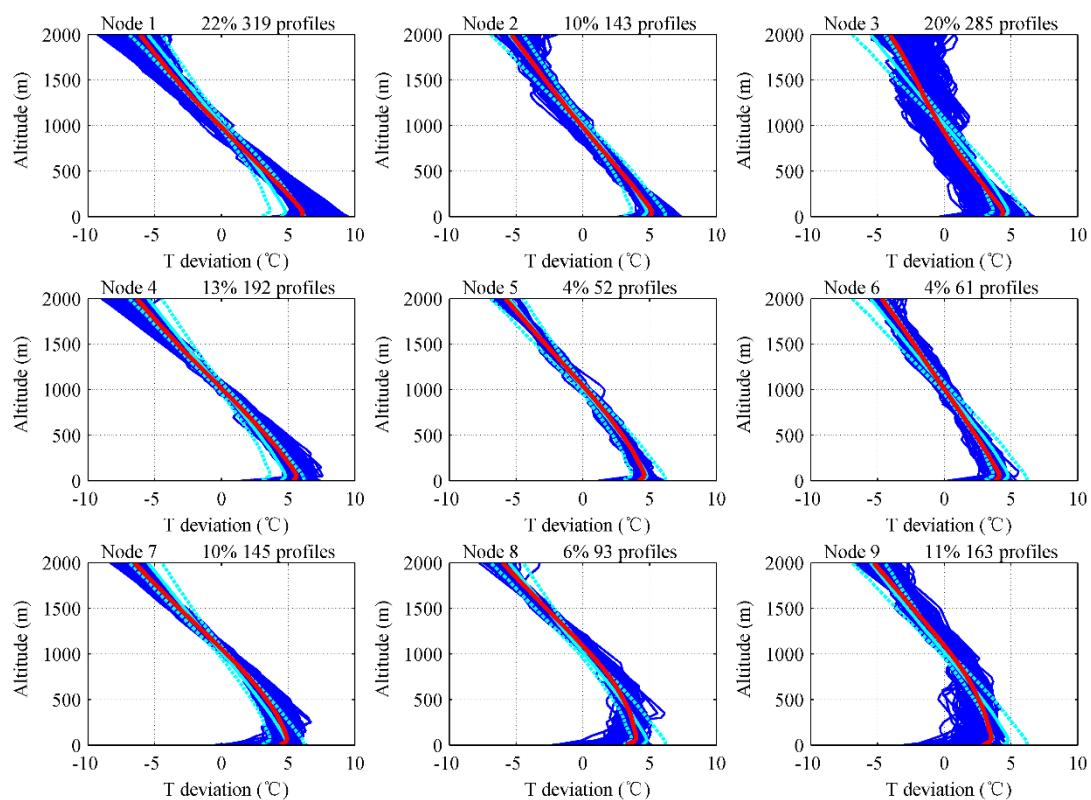
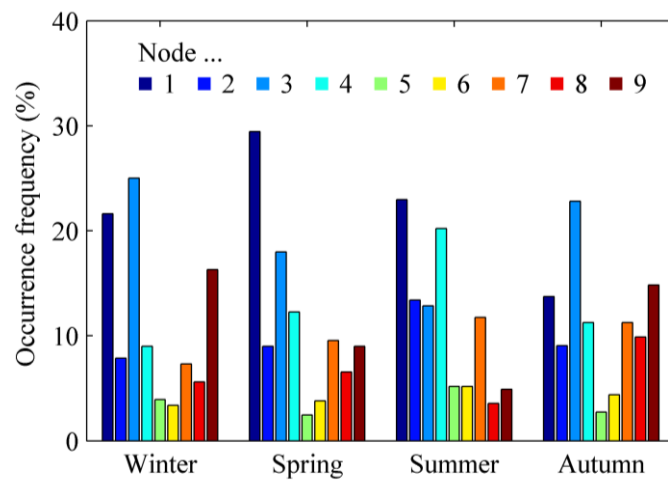


Figure 1. The 3×3 SOM output for radiosonde-based temperature (T) deviation profiles observed at the Beijing Observatory. SOM nodes are shown in red, with the corresponding individual profiles in dark blue. For reference, the overall average temperature profile and 25th and 75th percentile profiles are shown in cyan. The top-right shows the occurrence cases and frequency of each SOM node.



~~Figure 2. Seasonality of SOM nodes shown as the relative frequency of seasons within each SOM node. Winter (DJF); Spring (MAM); Summer (JJA); Autumn (SON).~~

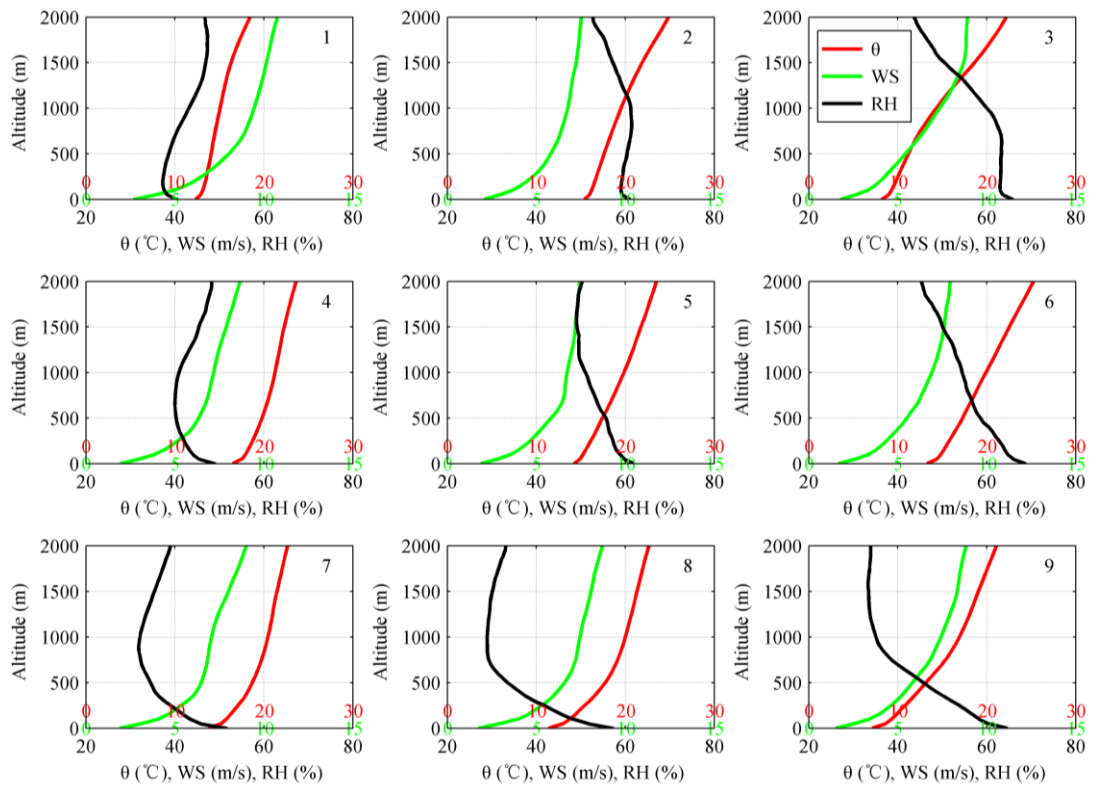


Figure 3. Profiles of average potential temperature (θ), wind speed (WS) and relative humidity (RH) corresponding to each SOM node at the Beijing Observatory. The red, green and black labels of the horizontal axis correspond to θ , WS and RH, respectively.

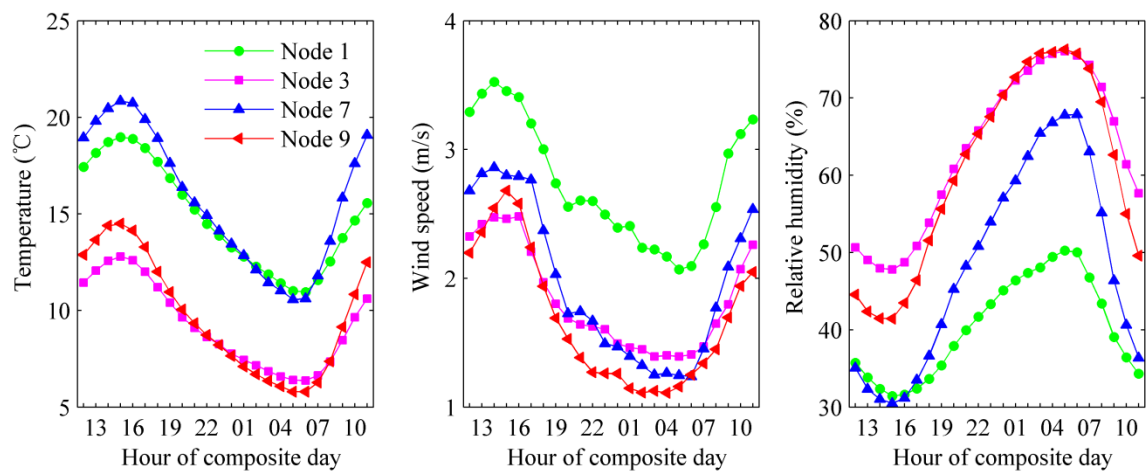


Figure 4. Hourly mean diurnal composites of temperature, wind speed and relative humidity in Beijing corresponding to SOM nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9.

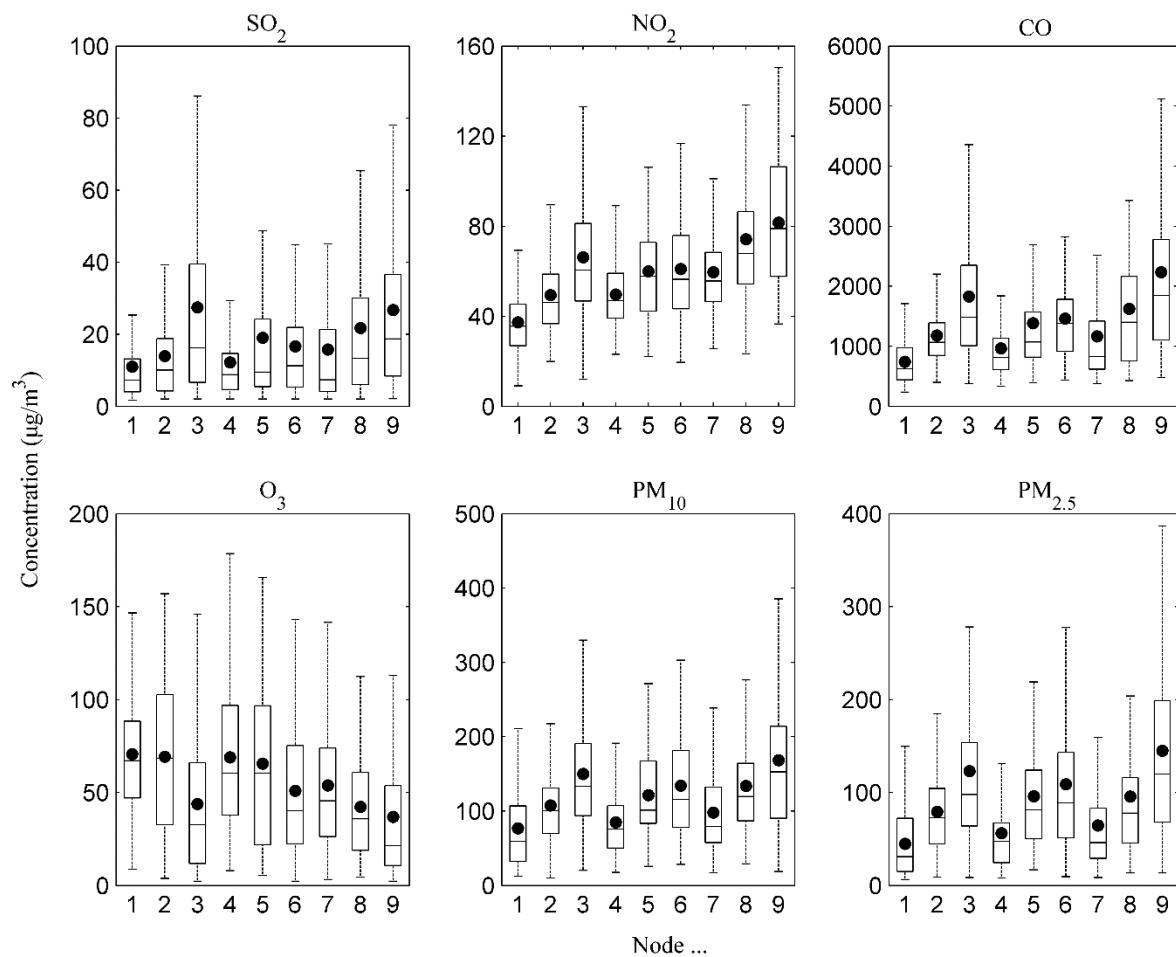


Figure 5. Daily pollutant concentrations in Beijing corresponding to each SOM node.

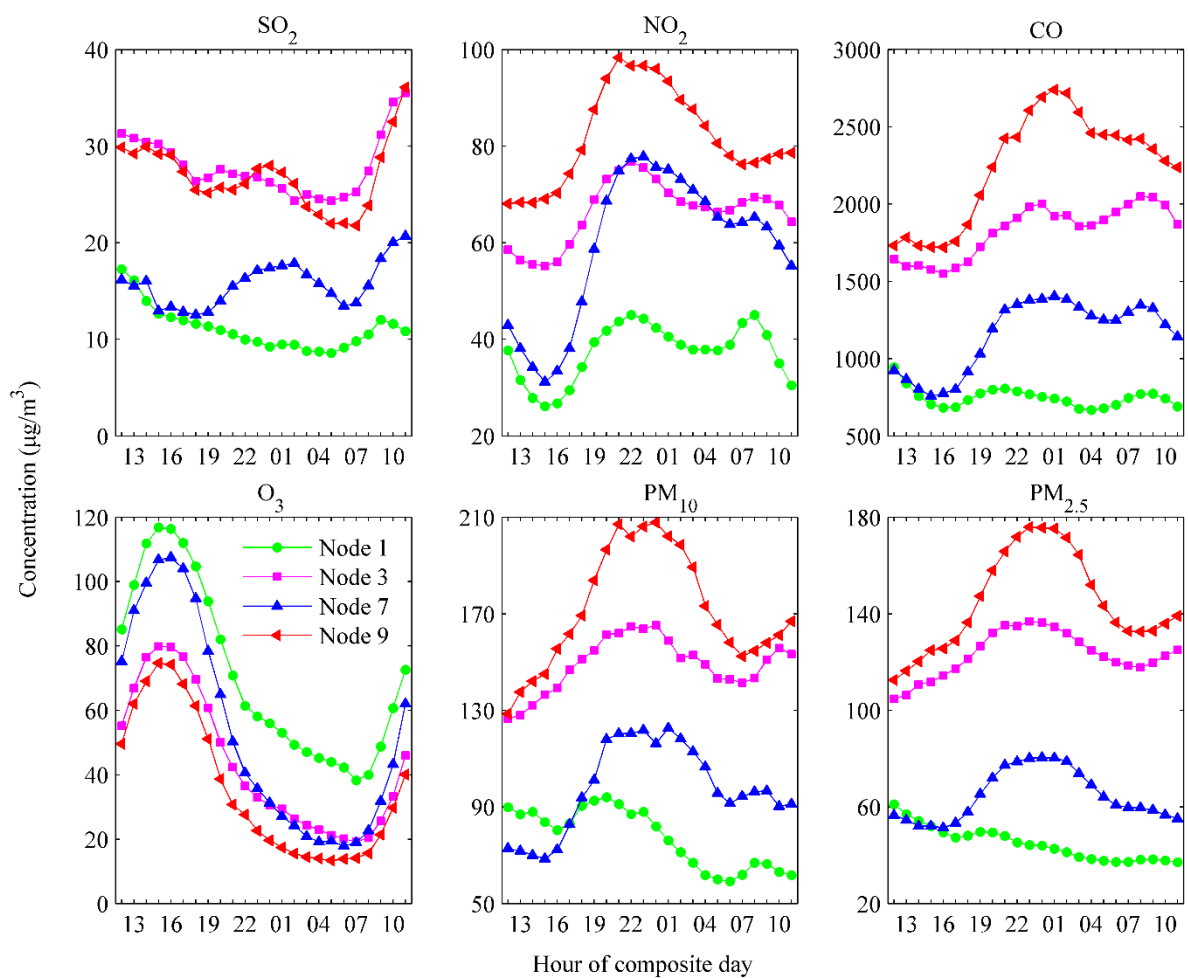


Figure 6. Composite diurnal variations of air pollutants in Beijing corresponding to SOM nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9.

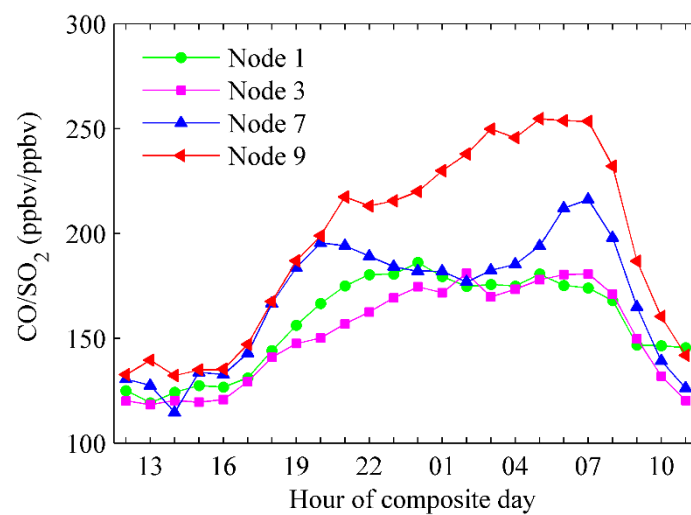


Figure 7. Composite diurnal variations of CO/SO₂ ratios in Beijing corresponding to SOM nodes 1, 3, 7 and 9.

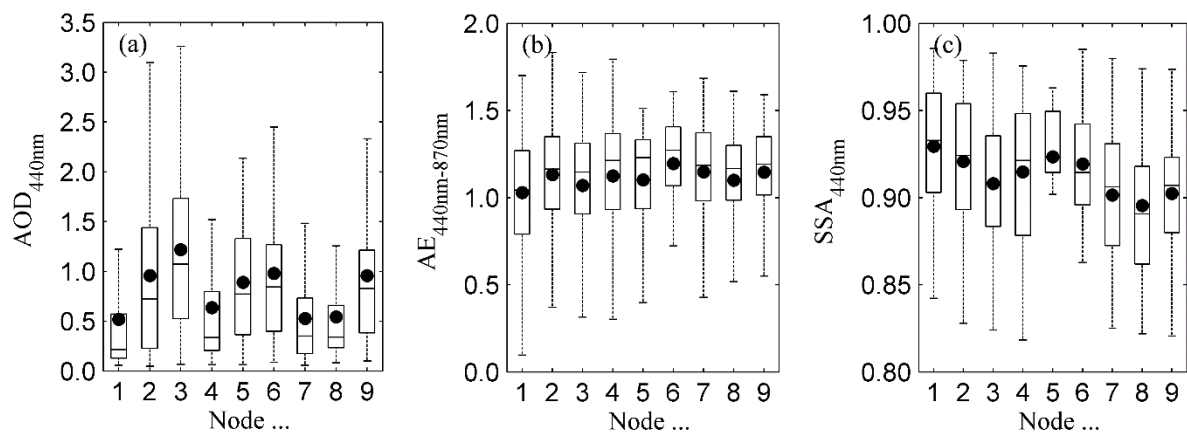


Figure 8. (a) Aerosol optical depth (AOD_{440nm}), (b) Ångström exponent ($AE_{440nm-870nm}$) and (c) single scattering albedo (SSA_{440nm}) over Beijing and corresponding to each SOM node. The solid dots denote the mean. The box and whisker plot presents the median, the first and third quartiles, and the 5th and 95th percentiles, respectively.

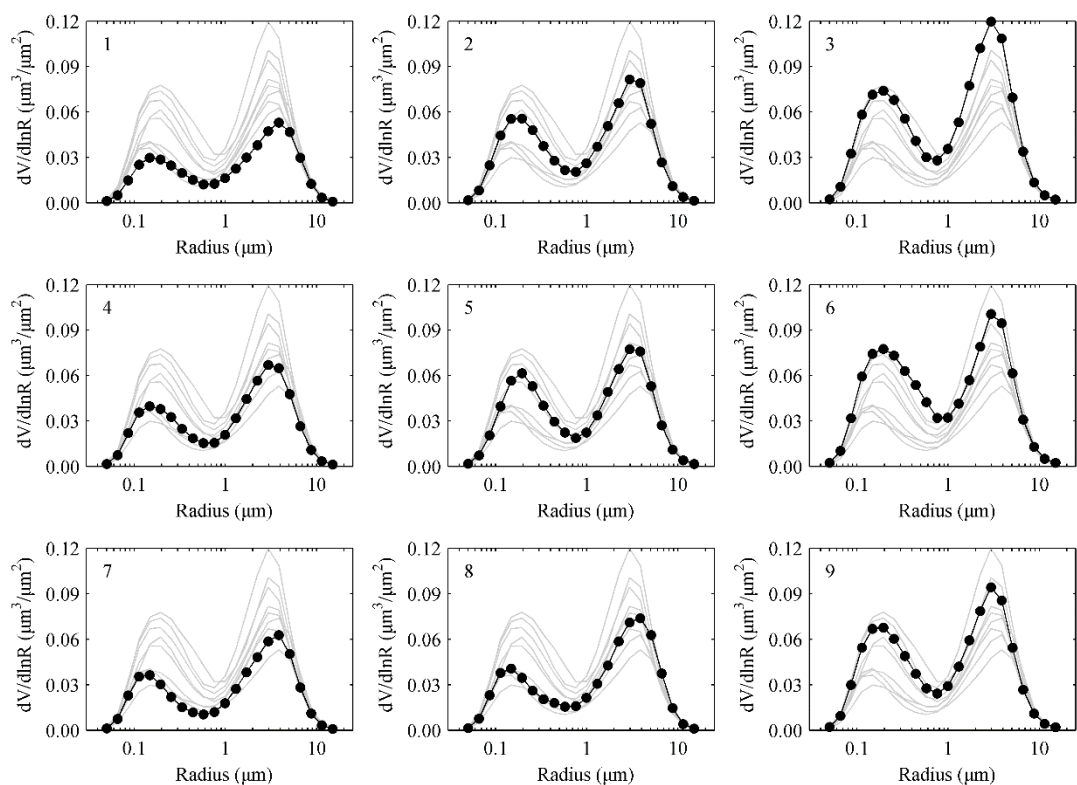


Figure 9. Mean volume particle size distribution over Beijing corresponding to each SOM node. The average volume particle size distribution for each node is shown by the gray line and is repeated on each plot for comparison. The size distribution for each type is highlighted in the black dotted line on the respective plot.

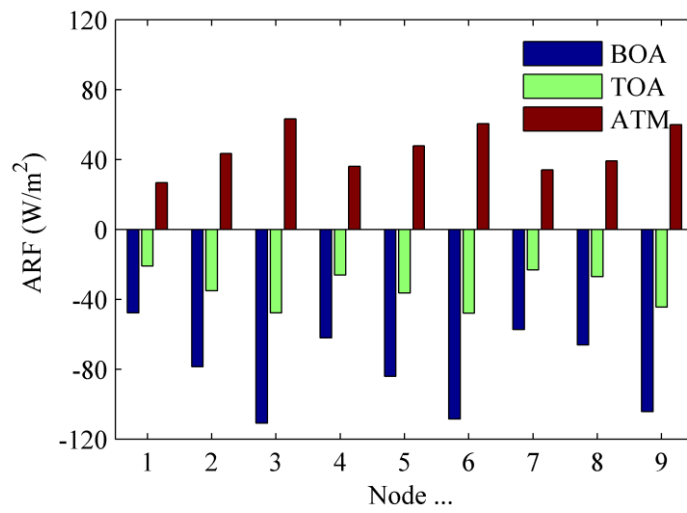


Figure 10. Aerosol radiative forcing (ARF) at the surface (BOA), top of atmosphere (TOA), and within the atmosphere (ATM) over Beijing and corresponding to each SOM node.

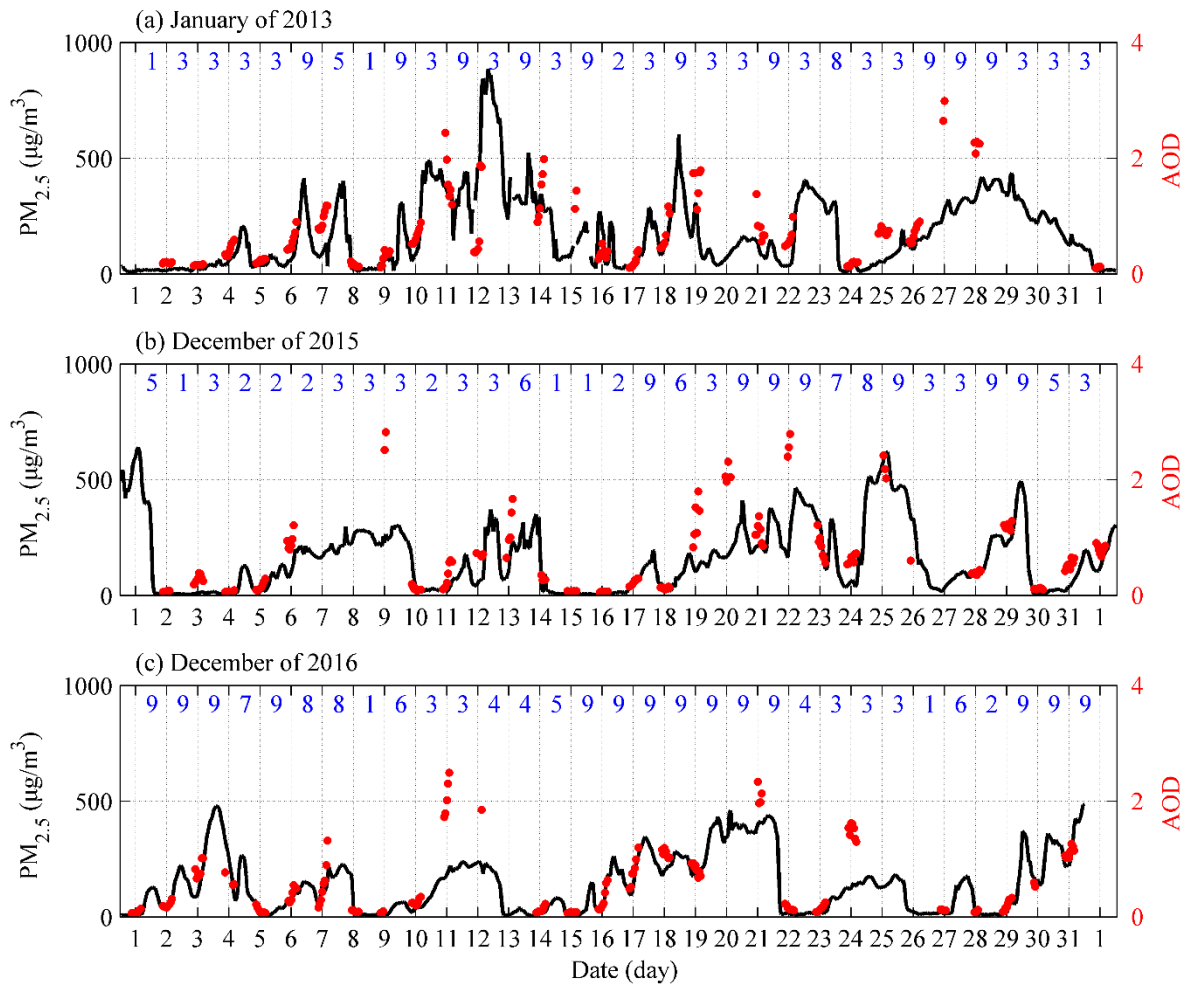


Figure 11. Time series of hourly $PM_{2.5}$ and AOD_{440nm} in (a) January of 2013, (b) December of 2015, and (c) December of 2016. The daily SOM nodes (i.e., ABL types) are shown at the top of each plot (blue numbers).

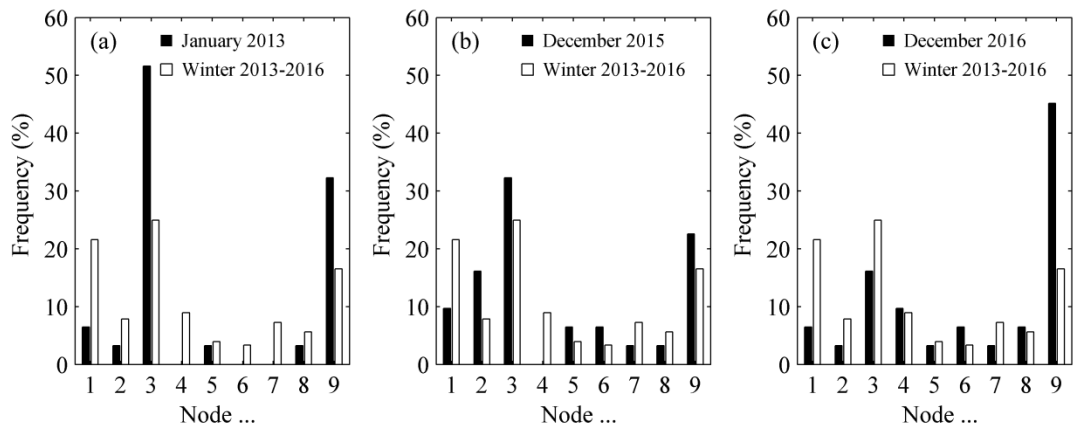


Figure 12. Occurrence frequency of the SOM nodes during (a) January 2013, (b) December 2015, and (c) December 2016.

Node ...	Effective radius (μm)			Volume concentration ($\mu\text{m}^3/\mu\text{m}^2$)			V_f/V_t
	$R_{\text{eff-T}}$	$R_{\text{eff-F}}$	$R_{\text{eff-C}}$	VolCon-T	VolCon-F	VolCon-C	
1	0.54	0.14	2.46	0.13	0.05	0.09	0.31
2	0.41	0.16	2.42	0.21	0.09	0.12	0.42
3	0.45	0.16	2.30	0.30	0.12	0.18	0.41
4	0.45	0.15	2.38	0.17	0.06	0.11	0.36
5	0.47	0.17	2.44	0.21	0.09	0.12	0.41
6	0.38	0.17	2.33	0.28	0.14	0.14	0.45
7	0.42	0.14	2.37	0.15	0.05	0.10	0.34
8	0.44	0.14	2.32	0.18	0.06	0.12	0.35
9	0.38	0.16	2.25	0.25	0.11	0.14	0.43

Table 1. Statistical parameters of aerosol particle size distribution corresponding to each SOM node. VolCon is the volume concentration; R_{eff} the effective radius; V_f/V_t denotes the fine mode volume fraction. T, F, and C represent the total, fine, and coarse mode particles.