

1 **TITLE: INVESTIGATING THE INFLUENCE OF SYNOPTIC-SCALE**
2 **METEOROLOGY ON AIR QUALITY USING SELF-ORGANIZING MAPS AND**
3 **GENERALIZED ADDITIVE MODELLING.**

4 John L. Pearce^{a*}, Jason Beringer^a, Neville Nicholls^a, Rob J. Hyndman^b, Petteri Uotila^a, and
5 Nigel J. Tapper^a

6 ^a School of Geography and Environmental Science, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

7 ^b Department of Econometrics and Business Statistics, Monash University, Melbourne,
8 Australia

9

10 Keywords: air pollution, generalized additive models, self-organizing maps, and synoptic
11 meteorology.

12

13 *Corresponding author: School of Geography and Environmental Science, Monash
14 University, Clayton, Victoria 3800. Tel: +61399054457. E-mail:
15 john.pearce@arts.monash.edu.au

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26 **INVESTIGATING THE INFLUENCE OF SYNOPTIC-SCALE CIRCULATION ON**
27 **AIR QUALITY USING SELF-ORGANIZING MAPS AND GENERALIZED**
28 **ADDITIVE MODELLING.**

29 **ABSTRACT**

30 The influence of synoptic-scale circulations on air quality is an area of increasing interest to
31 air quality management in regards to future climate change. This study presents an analysis
32 where the dominant synoptic ‘types’ over the region of Melbourne, Australia are determined
33 and linked to regional air quality. First, a self-organising map (SOM) is used to generate a
34 time series of synoptic charts that classify the annual daily circulation affecting Melbourne
35 into 20 different synoptic types. SOM results are then employed within the framework of a
36 generalized additive model (GAM) to identify links between synoptic-scale circulations and
37 observed changes air pollutant concentrations. The GAMs estimate shifts in pollutant
38 concentrations under each synoptic type after controlling for long-term trends, seasonality,
39 weekly emissions, spatial variation, and temporal persistence. Results showed the aggregate
40 impact of synoptic circulations in the models to be quite modest as only 5.1% of the daily
41 variance in O₃, 4.7% in PM₁₀, and 7.1% in NO₂ were explained by shifts in synoptic
42 circulations. Further analysis of the partial residual plots identified that despite a modest
43 response at the aggregate level, individual synoptic categories had differential effects on air
44 pollutants. In particular, increases of up to 40% in NO₂ and PM₁₀ and 30% in O₃ occur when
45 a synoptic conditions result in a north-easterly gradient wind over the Melbourne area.
46 Additionally, NO₂ and PM₁₀ levels also showed increases of up to 40% when a strong high
47 pressure system was centered directly over the Melbourne area. In sum, the unified approach
48 of SOM and GAM proved to be a complementary suite of tools capable of identifying the
49 entire range synoptic circulation patterns over a particular region and quantifying how they
50 influence local air quality.

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Increased air pollutant concentrations in the urban environment do not typically result
53 from sudden increases in emissions, but rather from meteorological conditions that impede
54 dispersion in the atmosphere or result in increased pollutant generation (Cheng, Campbell et
55 al. 2007). A combination of meteorological variables important to these conditions includes
56 temperature, winds, radiation, atmospheric moisture, and mixing depth (EPA 2009). Because
57 synoptic-scale circulations are the envelope that govern all the above meteorological features
58 synoptic weather typing has become a popular approach for evaluating impacts of
59 meteorological conditions on air pollution (Triantafyllou 2001; Chen, Cheng et al. 2008;
60 Beaver and Palazoglu 2009). This has led the air quality community to recognize synoptic-
61 scale circulations as an important driver of local air pollution (EPA 2009).

62 We wish to increase the understanding of the relationship between synoptic-scale
63 circulations and air pollution in Melbourne, Australia. The city of Melbourne, with a
64 population of approximately 3.9 million (ABS 2010), is situated on Port Phillip Bay at the
65 south-eastern edge of continental Australia in close proximity to the Southern Ocean at 37°
66 48' 49" S and 144° 57' 47" E (Figure 1). The climate of Melbourne can best be described as
67 moderate oceanic and the city is famous for its changeable weather conditions (BOM 2009).
68 This is due in part to the city's location at the pole-ward margin of a sub-tropical continent
69 that results in the passage of very differing air masses over the region. The mid-latitude
70 synoptic weather systems that affect the region produce persistent westerly winds between
71 the subtropical high pressures to the north and the Southern Ocean lows to the south. This
72 region is also dominated by fronts, which result from the interaction of subtropical and polar
73 air masses. Although Melbourne's air quality can be described as relatively good when
74 compared to other urban centres of similar size, recent periods of anomalous environmental
75 conditions present an interesting opportunity for analysis (Murphy and Timbal 2008). During

76 this time levels of ozone and particles have not always met air quality standards and events
77 such as bushfires, heatwaves, and dust storms have likely influenced regional air quality. The
78 overall objective of this research is to investigate how the dominant types of synoptic-scale
79 circulation over Melbourne influence local air quality. Moreover, a practical methodology is
80 presented in order to achieve these results.

81 **2. Data**

82 *a. Large Scale Meteorological Data*

83 The four-time daily gridded MSLP data from the ERA-Interim reanalysis (1989 to
84 2008) was used to develop the SOM for synoptic-scale circulations affecting Melbourne. This
85 reanalysis was produced by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
86 (ECMWF) and is discussed in more detail by Uppala et al. (2008). MSLP fields were
87 obtained for 10 a.m., 4 p.m., 10 p.m., and 4 a.m. local standard time (LST) for each day in the
88 reanalysis period at a spatial resolution of 0.72° over the spatial domain of $35\text{-}44^\circ$ S and 140-
89 150° E. It is important to note that ERA40 and NCEP/NCAR reanalysis products were also
90 trialled for this analysis. While these products produced climatologies of similar agreement
91 ERAI was chosen as the enhanced spatial resolution of the data produced synoptic types that
92 were more interpretable for the Melbourne region. MSLP was chosen as a proxy for
93 atmospheric circulation because it has been shown to relate well to the spatial pattern of these
94 processes.

95 *b. Local Meteorological Data*

96 Links between synoptic types and local weather conditions were made using daily
97 automatic weather station observations for site number 086282 (Melbourne International
98 Airport) for the period of 1999 to 2006. This site is located at $37^\circ 40' 12''$ S and $144^\circ 49' 48''$
99 E with an elevation of 113 m and was chosen because a comprehensive range of measures are

100 collected on a consistent basis. Variables provided by Climate Information Services, National
101 Climate Centre, Bureau of Meteorology Variables included:

- 102 • Maximum daily temperature (°C)
- 103 • Mean sea level pressure (hPa)
- 104 • Global radiation (MJ/m²)
- 105 • Water vapour pressure (hPa)
- 106 • Zonal (*u*) and meridional (*v*) wind components (km/hr)
- 107 • Precipitation (mm).

108 Additionally, boundary layer height (BLH) was taken from the ERA-Interim data using the
109 location of 37° 30' 0" S and 145° 30' 0" E for 4 p.m. LST - the approximate time of
110 maximum boundary layer depth.

111 *c. Air Pollutant Monitoring Data*

112 Local air pollution data was provided by the Environmental Protection Authority
113 Victoria (EPAV) taken from the Port Phillip Bay air monitoring network (Figure 1).
114 Pollutants included ozone (O₃), particulate matter ≤ 10 µg (PM₁₀), and nitrogen dioxide
115 (NO₂). O₃ and NO₂ concentrations are reported in parts per billion by volume (ppb) and were
116 measured using pulsed fluorescence chemiluminescence and ultra violet absorption
117 techniques. PM₁₀ concentrations were measured using photospectrometry and are reported in
118 micrograms per cubic meter (µg/m³). This analysis uses the daily maximum value for 8-hr O₃,
119 the 24-hr mean value of PM₁₀, and the daily maximum value for 1-hr NO₂ from all available
120 monitoring locations over the period of 1999 to 2006 (Table 1). These timeframes were
121 selected to parallel air quality objectives in the State Environment Protection Policy for
122 ambient air quality (SEPP 1999). Additionally, days on which significant air quality events
123 (bushfires, dust storms, factory emissions, etc.) were known to have occurred and data below
124 5 ppb for O₃ and NO₂ and 3 µg/m³ for PM₁₀ were removed.

125 **3. Methods**

126 *a. Self-organizing Maps*

127 Synoptic typing is an approach used in synoptic climatology where the atmospheric
128 state is partitioned into broad categories either in terms of the spatial patterns associated with
129 a proxy (ex. MSLP, 500 hPa height) or the multivariate characteristics of an air mass. These
130 synoptic categories or ‘types’ are then used to provide insight into the influence of large scale
131 processes on local environmental conditions (Hewitson and Crane 2002). The classification
132 of synoptic types used in this study was produced using a neural networking algorithm known
133 as self-organizing maps (SOM) (Kohonen 2001). This approach has been shown to be
134 effective means of classifying the expected synoptic circulation patterns over a particular
135 region (Hewitson and Crane 2002; Hope, Drosowsky et al. 2006). In short, SOMs can be
136 described as a data reduction technique used to visualize and interpret large high-dimensional
137 data sets onto a two dimensional array of representative nodes (Kohonen 2001). This two
138 dimensional array of nodes is commonly referred to as the self-organizing ‘map’. One feature
139 of the SOM that has been found particularly useful in synoptic climatology is the matching of
140 each period in the analysis to a particular synoptic type (Hope, Drosowsky et al. 2006). This
141 essentially results in a time series of synoptic charts that can be used to link environmental
142 responses to specific types of systems through time. For more information on SOM and their
143 application in synoptic climatology please see Hewitson and Crane (2002).

144 It is important to note that in practice the dimensions of the SOM are selected by the
145 user. This has direct implications for the number of synoptic states represented. We assessed
146 a multiple array of SOM dimensions in effort to identify a dimension that was adequate to
147 represent the expected range of synoptic patterns for the region and practical for use in our
148 statistical analysis. It was determined that a 4X5 array of circulation patterns met these

149 criteria. The software used to create the SOM is part of the SOM_PAK, available from
150 <http://www.cis.hut.fi/research/som-research>.

151 *b. Generalized Additive Models*

152 There are a multitude of techniques for analysing the effects of meteorology on air
153 pollution (Thompson, Reynolds et al. 2001). One approach that has been found particularly
154 effective at handling the complex non-linearity's associated with air pollution is Generalized
155 Additive Modelling (GAM) (Aldrin and Haff 2005; Carslaw, Beevers et al. 2007). The
156 additive model in the context of a concentration time series can be written in the form (Hastie
157 and Tibshirani 1990):

$$g[E(y_i)] = \beta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n s_j(x_{ij}) + \varepsilon_i$$

158 (2.1)

159 where $g[\]$ is a Gaussian distributed 'log-link' function, y_i is the i th air pollution concentration,
160 $E(\)$ is the expected concentration of y , β_0 is the overall mean of the response, $s_j(x_{ij})$ is the
161 smooth function of i th value of covariate j , n is the total number of covariates, and ε_i is the i th
162 residual with $\text{var}(\varepsilon_i) = \sigma^2$, which is assumed to be normally distributed. Smooth functions are
163 developed through an integration of model selection and automatic smoothing parameter
164 selection using penalised regression splines, which while optimizing the fit, make an effort to
165 minimize the number of dimensions in the model (Wood 2006). Interaction terms, e.g. $s(x_1,$
166 $x_2)$, can also be modelled as thin-plate regression splines or tensor product smooths. This is a
167 notable feature for air quality applications as interaction terms have used to effectively for
168 modelling complex responses to wind components and to account for spatial trends (Bivand
169 et al. 2008; Carslaw 2007). The choice of the smoothing parameters is made through
170 restricted maximum likelihood (REML) and confidence intervals are estimated using an

171 unconditional Bayesian method (Wood 2006). This analysis was conducted using the *gam*
172 modelling function in R environment for statistical computing (R Development Core Team
173 2009) with packages ‘mgcv’ (Wood 2006).

174 *c. Model Development*

175 The first step in the selection of individual models for O₃, PM₁₀, and NO₂ was to fit a
176 preliminary base model. This was fit to each pollutant in order to control for the seasonality,
177 persistence, spatial trend, and weekly emissions patterns that exist in these data. Following
178 model (2.1) the preliminary model can be written as:

$$\log(y_i) = \beta_0 + s(\text{time}) + s(\text{dow}) + s(\text{long}, \text{lat}) + s(y_{i-1}) + \varepsilon_i$$

(2.2)

181 where *time* is a numeric vector ranging from 1 to 2922 included to account for long-term
182 trends and seasonality, *dow* is a numeric vector ranging from 0 to 6 included to account for
183 day-of-the-week, *long* and *lat* are the spatial coordinates of each monitor location included to
184 account for spatial trend, and *y_{i-1}* is one day lag term included to account for short-term
185 temporal persistence. It is important to note that the residual spatial variation is controlled by
186 including a tensor product smooth , *s(long, lat)*, in the model and a smooth function of the
187 preceding day’s pollutant concentration, *s(y_{i-1})*, was included to control for autocorrelation in
188 residuals. Additionally, since air pollution data are inherently cyclic, a predetermined
189 smoothing parameter of *k=32* (one knot (*k*) for each change of season) was used for the
190 construction of the spline function for *time*. The motivation for this control is that function
191 should represent a relatively symmetric cyclic pattern in the data. To check the adequacy of
192 our methods for controlling for space-time effects, box-plots and time-series plots of

193 residuals by monitor location were examined. No violations of assumptions were obvious in
194 any pollutant.

195 Finally, the categorical predictor for synoptic-scale circulations (C) -- included to
196 represent synoptic-scale circulation types -- was added to the model. Following model (2.1)
197 final models can be written as:

$$\log(y_i) = \beta_0 + s(\text{time}) + s(\text{day}) + s(\text{dow}) + s(\text{long, lat}) + s(y_{i-1}) + C_p + \varepsilon, \quad (2.3)$$

200 where the term C_p represents the effect of the p th synoptic type and $p = 0, 1, \dots, 19$.

201 *d. Characterization of Synoptic Influence on Air Pollution*

202 The explanatory power of model (2.3) was measured using the R^2 statistic. The
203 aggregate impacts of synoptic circulations on each pollutant are assessed by taking the
204 difference in the R^2 of model (2.2) and model (2.3). Individual relationships between
205 particular synoptic types and each air pollutant are assessed using partial response plots.

206 Partial response plots are used to reveal the marginal effect of each synoptic type on
207 each air pollutant. A partial response plot shows the static effect (i.e. effects that are stable
208 over time) of a particular synoptic type on a particular pollutant after accounting (i.e.,
209 controlling) for the effects of all other explanatory variables in the model (Camalier, Cox et al.
210 2007). The y-axis of each plot, which has been centred to the mean value of the response,
211 shows the marginal effect of a covariate (Harrell 2001) on a percentage scale. Specifically,
212 the marginal effect is the average percentage change in pollutant concentration as the
213 covariate of interest is varied, while all other explanatory variables are kept fixed. Partial
214 response plots make it easy to compare the size of the marginal effects of different covariates
215 on the different pollutants.

216 Technically, the displayed marginal effects are given by $100 * (C_p / C_p^{\text{ref}})$, where p
217 is the synoptic type of interest, C_p is the corresponding coefficient in model (2.3), and C_p^{ref} is

218 the coefficient for the chosen reference value for p – in our case synoptic type 00. In sum,
219 the marginal effects are the estimated average effects of each synoptic type on the predicted
220 values produced by model (2.3).

221 **4. Results and Discussion**

222 *a. Self-Organizing Maps*

223 The SOM of MSLP provides a clear visualization of the range of circulation features
224 affecting Melbourne (Figure 2). Additionally, the method arranges the output grid so that
225 similar types are near each other while more distinct types are further apart. Individual maps
226 within the grid are referenced throughout the text using XY coordinates with category 00
227 being in the top left corner and category 43 being in the bottom right corner. Synoptic types
228 with strong regions of high pressure are located near the bottom right corner of the grid while
229 types with broad regions of low pressure are located near the top left. These pressure patterns
230 can be used to infer regional scale wind speeds and direction along with mixing. A secondary
231 feature of the SOM algorithm is the generation of a time series where each six hour period in
232 the analysis has been classified under a particular synoptic type represented in Figure 2.
233 Frequency analysis of these periodic classifications found that higher frequency nodes are
234 presented on the periphery of the SOM grid and that lower frequency nodes are presented
235 towards the center (Figure 3). This indicates that dominant circulations on are presented on
236 the periphery and transitional states are presented closer to the center of the grid. It is should
237 be noted that the transitions between synoptic features would be expected to reflect the
238 generally eastward movement of weather systems in this region.

239 Meteorological conditions associated with each synoptic type were determined by
240 matching the automatic weather station observations on any one day to the synoptic types
241 associated with the SOM classes 10 a.m. for that day (Table 2). Across group variability for

242 each meteorological variable indicates that each synoptic type has distinct local
243 meteorological conditions.

244 *b. Generalized Additive Models*

245 *b.1 Ozone (O₃)*

246 Results found significant differences ($F=122.6$, $d.f.=19$, $p<.0001$) in the impact of
247 individual synoptic-scale circulations under which marginal effects differ by up to 40%
248 (Figure 4). Category 31, with a frequency of 3% and an average duration of 8-hrs, was found
249 to have the largest marginal effect on ozone concentrations at 30%. This pressure pattern,
250 with a frequency of approximately 3.19% and an average duration of 8.28 hours, is associated
251 with a moderate strength high-pressure system being centred over Tasmania with increased
252 pressures extending well north of the Melbourne region and along the southern and eastern
253 coast of Victoria (Figure 2). The pressure gradients are suggestive of a light north-easterly
254 gradient wind over Melbourne which likely opposes the inland penetration of bay and sea
255 breezes resulting in a blocking that impedes the dispersion of local pollutants (Tory, Cope et
256 al. 2004). This synoptic type governed local meteorological conditions that can be
257 characterized as having relatively high temperatures, high levels of radiation, north-easterly
258 winds, low atmospheric moisture, and above average boundary layer height (Table 2).
259 Similar findings on the relationship between associated local meteorology and synoptic-scale
260 circulations that produced poor air quality were also noted in Sydney (Hart, De Dear et al.
261 2006). Category 03, with a frequency of 4%, displays the largest negative marginal effect at -
262 10%. This pattern is associated with high pressures to the north-west of Melbourne (Figure 2)
263 and governed local conditions that can be characterized as having low temperatures and
264 westerly winds (Table 2). The remaining circulations display some importance for ozone, but
265 the impact for these are less pronounced. Overall, model (2.3) explained 48.7% of the
266 variation of log transformed O₃ with the components of model (2.2) accounting for 43.6%

267 and the aggregate relative impact of synoptic-scale circulations accounting for a modest
268 5.1%.

269 *b.2 Particulate Matter (PM₁₀)*

270 Results found significant differences ($F=69.42$, $d.f.=19$, $p<.0001$) in the impact of
271 individual synoptic-scale circulations under which the marginal effects of individual types
272 can vary as much as 40% (Figure 5). The largest marginal effect was seen for category 21
273 followed closely by category 43. Category 21, with a frequency of 4% and an average
274 duration of 10-hrs, displays moderately increased pressure to the east Melbourne that is likely
275 associated with a light north-easterly gradient wind (Figure 2). Local meteorological
276 conditions under category 21 exhibited the high temperatures, strong northerly winds, and
277 low precipitation (Table 2). Category 43, which occurred approximately 10% of the time
278 with an average duration of 28-hrs, is associated with a strong high pressure system being
279 centred directly over the Melbourne region (Figure 2). Local conditions exhibited cooler
280 temperatures, light winds, and low boundary layer height which indicate stable conditions
281 (Table 2). Additionally, these circulation types are characteristic of synoptic weather patterns
282 that have high anti-cyclonicity – a factor that has been noted as important elsewhere
283 (Leighton and Spark 1997; Triantafyllou 2001; Jacob and Winner 2009). Synoptic type 00
284 was found to govern periods under which particle concentrations were at their lowest in
285 Melbourne (Figure 5). This synoptic type, with a frequency of 9% and an average duration
286 28-hrs, is associated with a strong low-pressure centre in the Southern Ocean with the
287 influence of low pressure extending north of the Melbourne region. The increased pressure
288 gradients are suggestive of an approaching cold front from the south that likely exhibits a
289 south-westerly gradient wind which often results in a cleansing of the Melbourne air shed
290 (Figure 2). Local conditions exhibited cool temperatures, strong westerlies, and low radiation
291 (Table 2). All remaining circulations display some increase for PM₁₀. Overall, model (2.3)

292 explained 41.4% of the variation of log transformed PM₁₀ with the components of model
293 (2.2) accounting for 36.7% and the aggregate relative impact of synoptic-scale circulations
294 accounted for a modest 4.7%.

295 *b.3 Nitrogen Dioxide (NO₂)*

296 Synoptic circulation patterns were also found to be significant (F= 133.4, d.f.=19,
297 $p<.0001$) for NO₂ in which the marginal effects of individual patterns varied by as much as
298 45% (Figure 6). The largest positive marginal effect was seen for category 31 at 40%. It is
299 important to note that this category also resulted in the largest effect on O₃. The mechanisms
300 under this type that are driving increases in O₃ are likely contributing to increases in NO₂.
301 Furthermore, type 21- the category under which the largest increases in PM₁₀ occurred *also*
302 resulted in the second highest marginal effect on NO₂. To a lesser extent increases are also
303 seen under types 42 and 43 (Figure 6). These findings indicate that the conditions associated
304 with increased in O₃ and PM₁₀ are also associated with increased NO₂. The largest negative
305 marginal effect for NO₂ was seen for category 02 at -5%. This synoptic type, with a
306 frequency of 5%, is associated with strong pressure gradients over the Melbourne area and is
307 suggestive of an approaching high pressure system from the northwest. The nature of the
308 pressure gradient suggests a south-westerly gradient wind which often results in a cleansing
309 of the Melbourne air shed (Figure 2). Local conditions exhibited cool temperatures, strong
310 westerlies, and low radiation (Table 2). Overall, model (3.2) explained approximately 36.7%
311 of the variation in log transformed NO₂ over the period of 1999 to 2006 with the components
312 of model (3.1) accounting for 29.6% of that variance. The aggregate relative impact of
313 synoptic-scale circulations in the model was 7.1%.

314 *c. Technical Approach*

315 The use of the SOM technique not only supplied critical information for the
316 development of the statistical models but also provided pertinent background information on

317 the synoptic climatology of the region. The most beneficial aspect of using SOMs was the
318 output provided. This included the classification of circulation features affecting Melbourne,
319 the visualization of those features, and a time series of corresponding synoptic charts. This
320 proved to be a robust and straightforward medium to examine the relationships between the
321 expected range of synoptic patterns for a region and local air pollution. The challenge with
322 using SOMs is finding the appropriate number of synoptic types. Further research is
323 suggested to make this a more objective process.

324 The use of GAM clearly expanded the capabilities of this research beyond traditional
325 studies of meteorological influences on air pollution. Historically, the majority of statistical
326 models for air quality data have either characterized relationships based on a single monitor
327 location or a derived univariate network summary. These approaches are limited by the
328 inability to account for the influence of the spatial effects within a monitoring network. This
329 is an important and often overlooked issue as networks are traditionally designed to find the
330 maximum of a random field (Thompson, Reynolds et al. 2001). This study's approach allows
331 the incorporation of regional-scale response information, which not only increases the
332 statistical power of the study, but also allows us to estimate the effect of meteorological
333 variables in isolation of network heterogeneity by including the bivariate smooth spatial trend
334 in the model. It is important to note that Generalized Additive Mixed Models (GAMMs) were
335 also tested in this study as they are explicitly designed to handle the grouping structure of the
336 data. Unfortunately, this approach was not practical for the size of our data sets (Wood 2006).
337 Additionally, comparisons between the GAM and GAMM using subsets of the data proved
338 that our model (2.2) effectively removed the spatial effect in the data as random effects
339 estimates were insignificant. More importantly, marginal effects estimates showed no
340 significant changes between the two approaches.

341 Using a categorical predictor to represent the impact of synoptic-scale circulations on
342 air pollutants is not without limitations. On reflection, using twenty synoptic categories
343 served well in this particular analysis as a balance between variability and interpretability was
344 needed, but other dimensions may have more accurately depicted the synoptic climatology of
345 the region. Limitations of the approach are due to the measures used as controlling factors in
346 the model, most particularly, the use of day of the week as a surrogate for emissions patterns
347 in the region. A more precise measure of emissions would likely improve models and
348 resulted in a more effective separation of the effect from the synoptic estimates.

349 **5. Conclusion**

350 These findings provide an observational foundation for diagnosing and understanding
351 the sensitivity of O₃, PM₁₀ and NO₂ in Melbourne to synoptic-scale circulations. Moreover, a
352 complementary suite of tools capable of identifying the entire range synoptic circulation
353 patterns over a particular region and quantifying how they influence local air quality was
354 presented. Using this approach we identified that NO₂ was the air pollutant most responsive
355 to changes in synoptic-scale circulations during the study period. This was followed by O₃
356 and then PM₁₀, respectively. Additionally, the largest increases in all pollutants were seen
357 under synoptic types associated with north-easterly gradient wind. Notable increases were
358 also seen for PM₁₀ and NO₂ when high pressure systems were centred directly over the
359 Melbourne region. The difference seen in air pollution under each synoptic type clearly
360 shows that regional concentrations respond positively to high pressure systems and
361 negatively to low pressure systems. These results provide strong evidence to the behaviour of
362 air pollution to atmospheric circulation process and general insight into the role of local
363 meteorology. Unfortunately, this is only part of the story for regional air quality as more
364 pronounced responses are expected to be driven by local meteorological variables. In light of
365 this knowledge gap, a study on focusing on how local meteorological conditions affect air

366 pollutant concentrations in Melbourne is planned. In sum, this analysis suggests that the
367 synoptic-scale circulations only influence regional pollutant concentrations to a moderate
368 degree. However, the range of the effects between each synoptic type clearly identifies the
369 important role synoptic systems have on the variability in air pollution. The unified approach
370 of SOM and GAM proved to be a complementary suite of tools capable of identifying the
371 entire range synoptic circulation patterns over a particular region and quantifying how they
372 influence local air quality. This combined methodology may prove useful to air quality
373 management in quantifying potential effect on future air quality if synoptic regimes were to
374 change.

375

376 *Acknowledgements.* The authors are grateful to Sean Walsh for important contributions to this
377 study. This study was supported through research funds provided by the Environmental
378 Protection Authority Victoria and Monash University. Neville Nicholls involvement was
379 supported by the Australian Research Council through Discovery Project DP0877417.

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

REFERENCES

- 390
391 ABS (2010). Regional Population Growth, Australia 2007-2008, Australian Bureau of
392 Statistics.
- 393 Aldrin, M. and I. H. Haff (2005). "Generalized additive modelling of air pollution, traffic
394 volume and meteorology." *Atmospheric Environment* **39**(11): 2145-2155.
- 395 Beaver, S. and A. Palazoglu (2009). "Influence of synoptic and mesoscale meteorology on
396 ozone pollution potential for San Joaquin Valley of California." *Atmospheric
397 Environment* **43**(10): 1779-1788.
- 398 Bivand, R. S., Edzer J. Pebesma, and Virgilio Gomez-Rubio (2008). *Applied Spatial data
399 Analysis with R*. New York. Springer.
- 400 BOM. (2009). "Climate Statistics for Australian Locations." Retrieved 5 August, 2009, from
401 http://www.bom.gov.au/climate/averages/tables/cw_086071.shtml.
- 402 Camalier, L., W. Cox, et al. (2007). "The effects of meteorology on ozone in urban areas and
403 their use in assessing ozone trends." *Atmospheric Environment* **41**(33): 7127-7137.
- 404 Carslaw, D. C., S. D. Beevers, et al. (2007). "Modelling and assessing trends in traffic-related
405 emissions using a generalized additive modelling approach." *Atmospheric
406 Environment* **41**(26): 5289-5299.
- 407 Chen, Z. H., S. Y. Cheng, et al. (2008). "Relationship between atmospheric pollution
408 processes and synoptic pressure patterns in northern China." *Atmospheric
409 Environment* **42**(24): 6078-6087.
- 410 Cheng, C. S. Q., M. Campbell, et al. (2007). "A synoptic climatological approach to assess
411 climatic impact on air quality in South-central Canada. Part I: Historical analysis."
412 *Water Air and Soil Pollution* **182**(1-4): 131-148.

413 EPA, U. S. (2009). Assessment of the Impacts of Global Change on Regional U.S. Air
414 Quality: A Synthesis of Climate Change Impacts on Ground-Level Ozone. U. S. E. P.
415 Agency. Washington, DC.

416 Harrell, F. E. (2001). Regression modelling strategies: with applications to linear models,
417 logistic regression, and survival analysis. New York; London, Springer.

418 Hart, M., R. De Dear, et al. (2006). "A synoptic climatology of tropospheric ozone episodes
419 in Sydney, Australia." *International Journal of Climatology* **26**(12): 1635-1649.

420 Hastie, T. J. and R. J. Tibshirani (1990). *Generalized Additive Models*. London, Chapman &
421 Hall.

422 Hewitson, B. C. and R. G. Crane (2002). "Self-organizing maps: applications to synoptic
423 climatology." *Climate Research* **22**(13-26): 14-26.

424 Hope, P. K., W. Drosowsky, et al. (2006). "Shifts in the synoptic systems influencing
425 southwest Western Australia." *Climate Dynamics* **26**(7-8): 751-764.

426 Jacob, D. J. and D. A. Winner (2009). "Effect of climate change on air quality." *Atmospheric*
427 *Environment* **43**(1): 51-63.

428 Kohonen, T. (2001). *Self-organizing maps*, Springer.

429 Leighton, R. M. and E. Spark (1997). "Relationship between synoptic climatology and
430 pollution events in Sydney." *International Journal of Biometeorology* **41**(2): 76-89.

431 Lynch, A., P. Uotila, et al. (2006). "Changes in synoptic weather patterns in the polar regions
432 in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries, part 2: Antarctic." *International Journal of*
433 *Climatology* **26**(9): 1181-1199.

434 Murphy, B. F. and B. Timbal (2008). "A review of recent climate variability and climate
435 change in southeastern Australia." *International Journal of Climatology* **28**(7): 859-
436 879.

437 R Development Core Team (2009). R: A language and environment for statistical computing.
438 Vienna, Austria, R Foundation for Statistical Computing

439 SEPP (1999). State Environment Protection Policy (Ambient Air Quality). S19. EPA.
440 Victoria, Australia, Victorian Government Gazette.

441 Spillane, K. T. (1978). "Atmospheric characteristics on high oxidant days in Melbourne."
442 Clean Air **12**: 50-56.

443 Thompson, M. L., J. Reynolds, et al. (2001). "A review of statistical methods for the
444 meteorological adjustment of tropospheric ozone." Atmospheric Environment **35**(3):
445 617-630.

446 Tory, K. J., M. E. Cope, et al. (2004). "The Australian Air Quality Forecasting System. Part
447 III: Case study of a Melbourne 4-day photochemical smog eventt." Journal of Applied
448 Meteorology **43**(5): 680-695.

449 Triantafyllou, A. G. (2001). "PM10 pollution episodes as a function of synoptic climatology
450 in a mountainous industrial area." Environmental Pollution **112**(3): 491-500.

451 Uppala, S., D. Dee, et al. (2008). Towards a climate data assimilation system: Status update
452 of ERAInterim. ECMWF Newsletter: 12-18.

453 Wood, S. (2006). Generalized Additive Models: An Introduction with R. London, Chapman
454 and Hall.

455

456

457

458

459

460

TABLE AND FIGURE HEADINGS

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of regional air monitoring data used in model development.

465 Table 2. Mean values and standard deviations of observed meteorology under each synoptic type.

Figure 1. Map of meteorologic and air quality monitoring locations used in this study.

470 Figure 2. Synoptic types of annual MSLP pressure patterns generated using a 4X5 self-organizing map on ERAI reanalysis fields from 1989 to 2008. Individual charts represent a classified synoptic type. Reference labels are provided above of each chart.

Figure 3. Corresponding circulation pattern frequencies (%) for synoptic types identified in Figure 2. Frequencies significantly different from the expected 5% at the 95% confidence level are in boldface*.

475 Figures 4. The estimated marginal effect (%) along with their standard errors for each synoptic type on O₃ concentrations.

Figures 5. The estimated marginal effect (%) along with their standard errors for each synoptic type on PM₁₀ concentrations.

480 Figures 6. The estimated marginal effect (%) along with their standard errors for each synoptic type on NO₂ concentrations.

Figure1

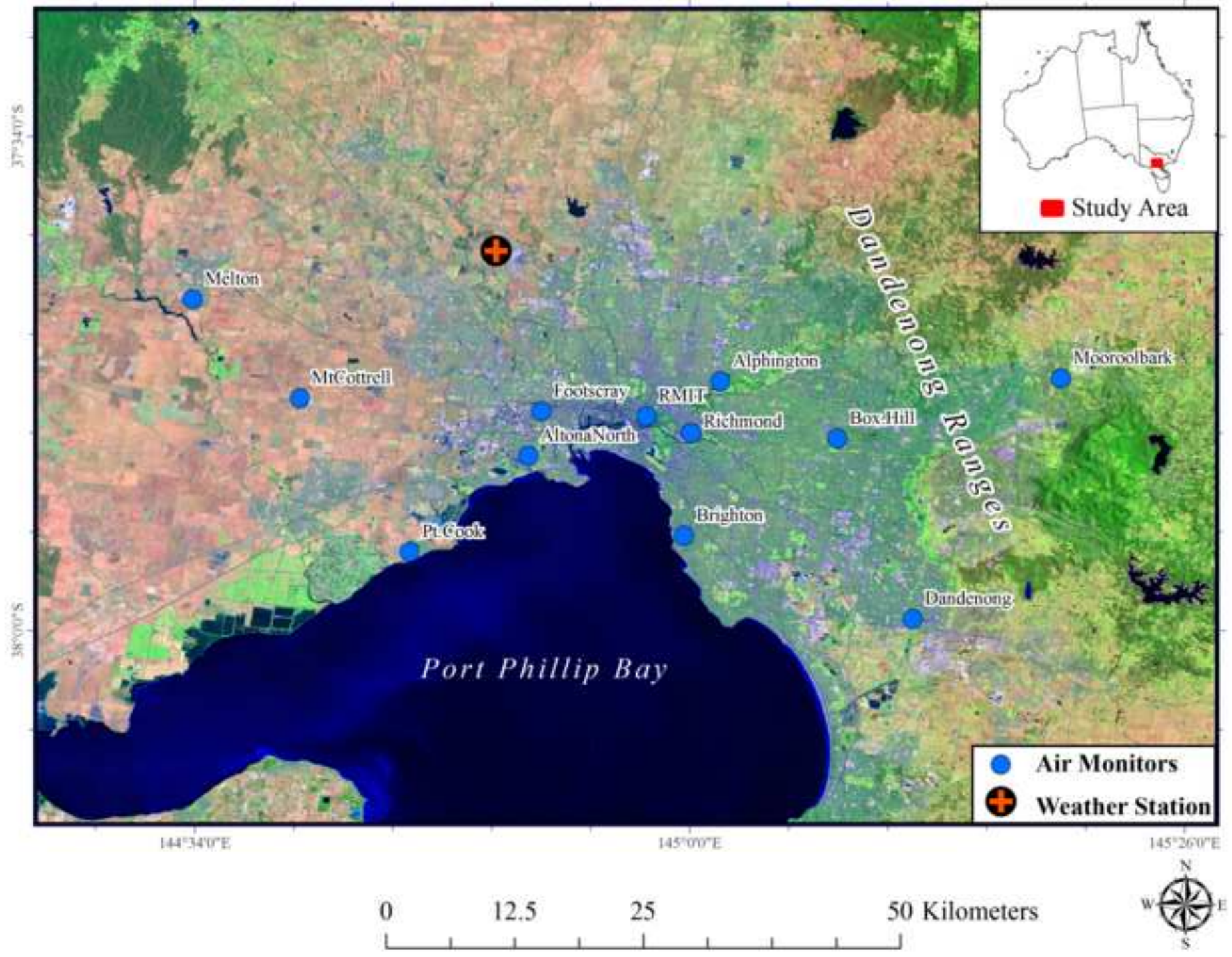


Figure2

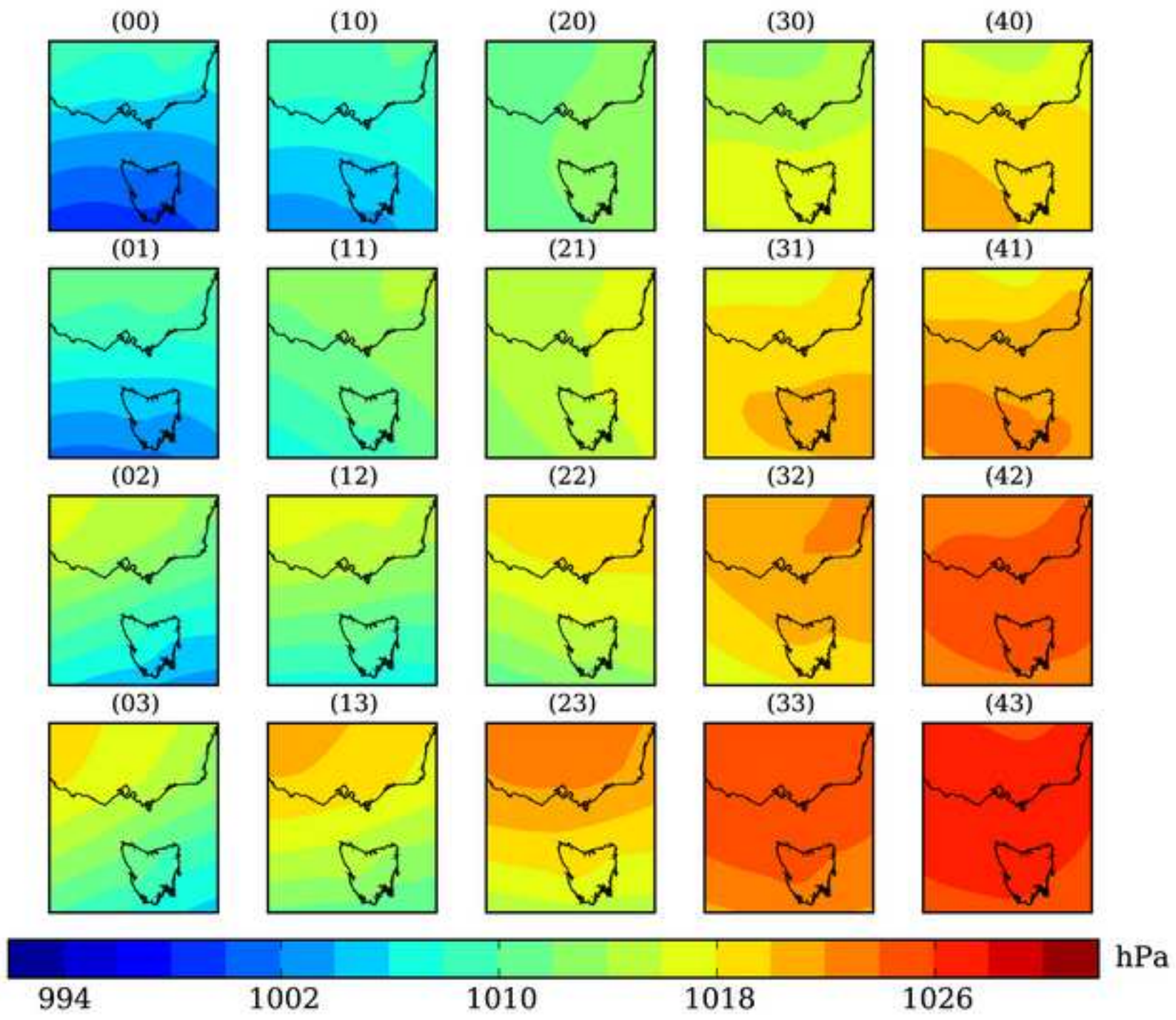


Figure3

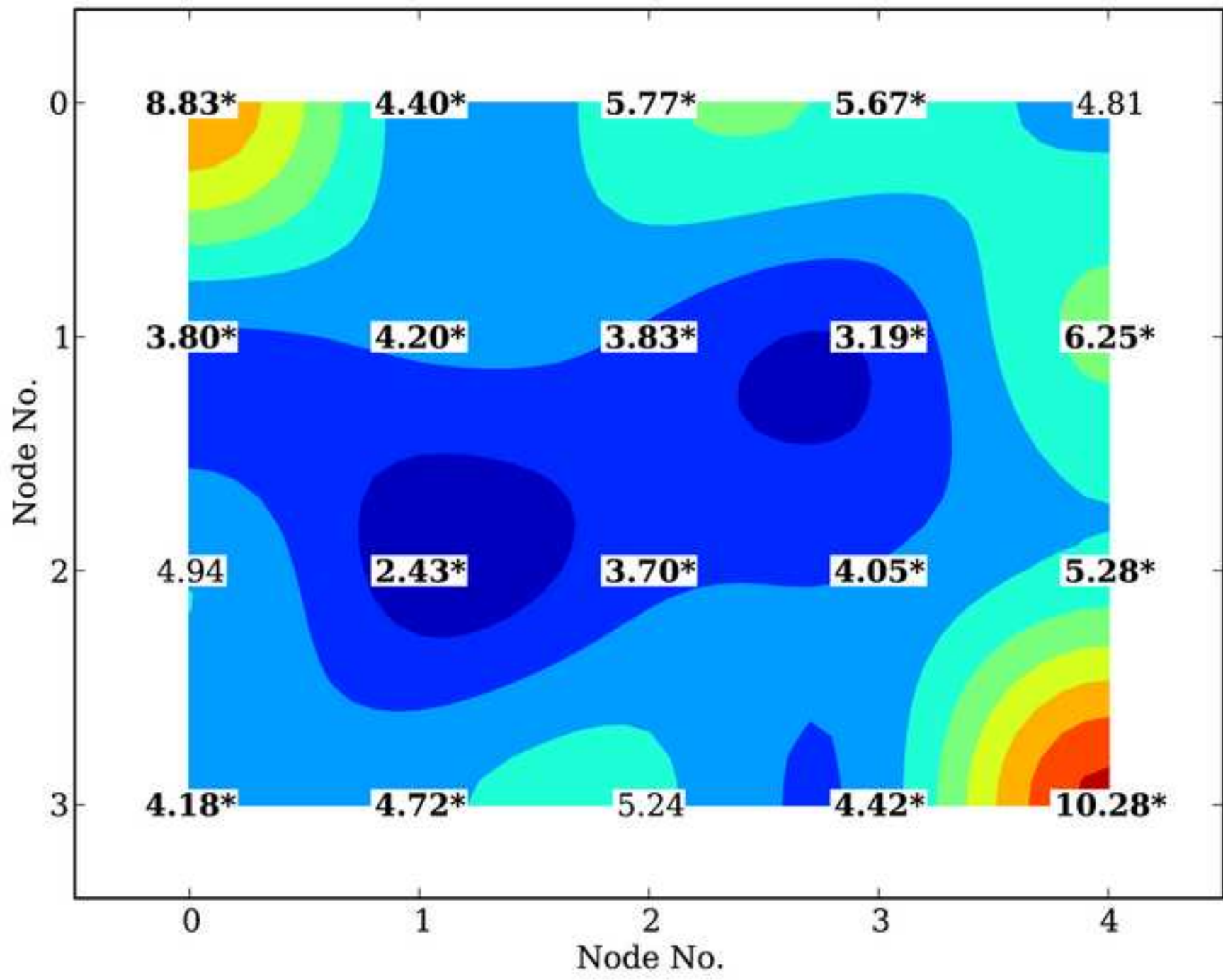


Figure4

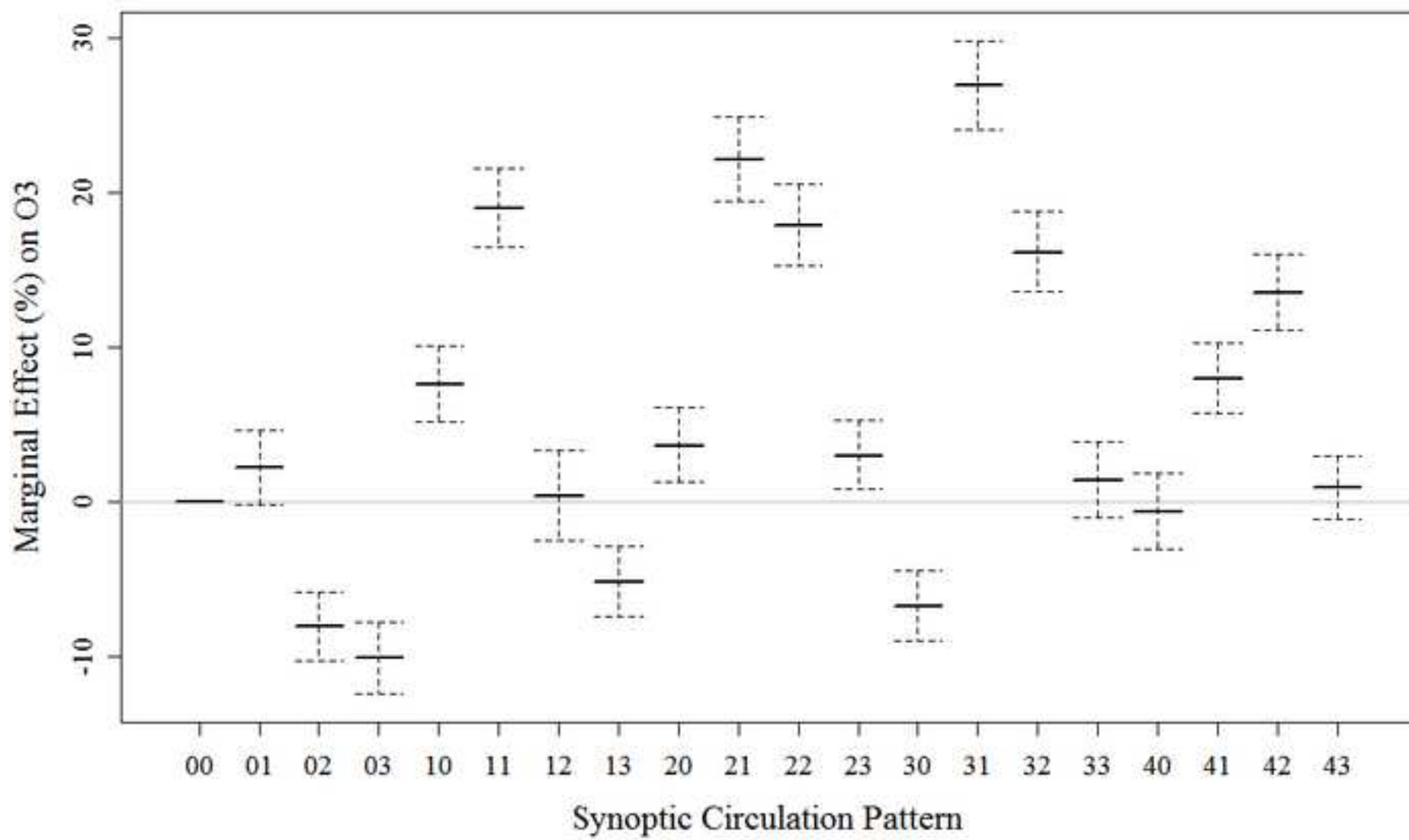


Figure5

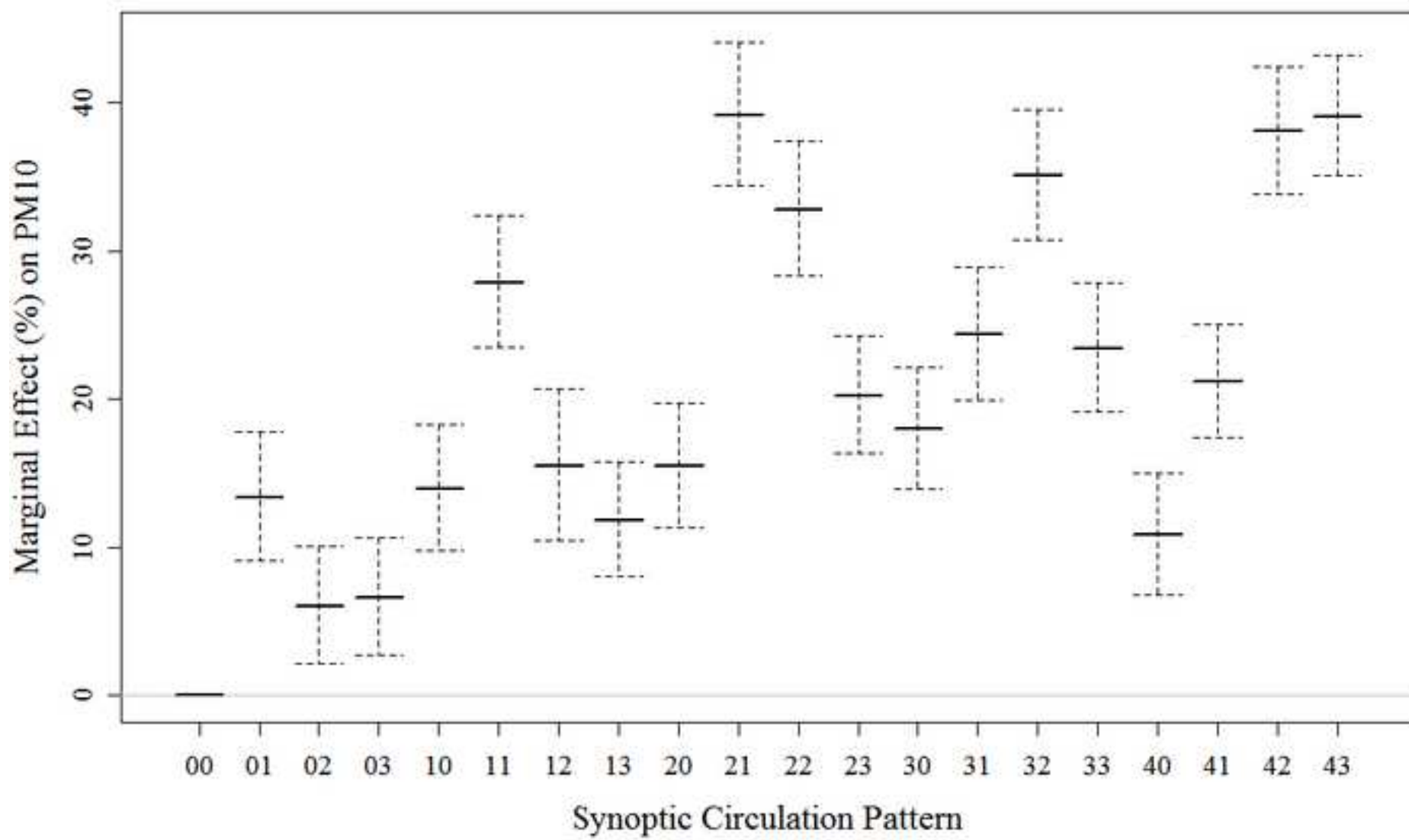
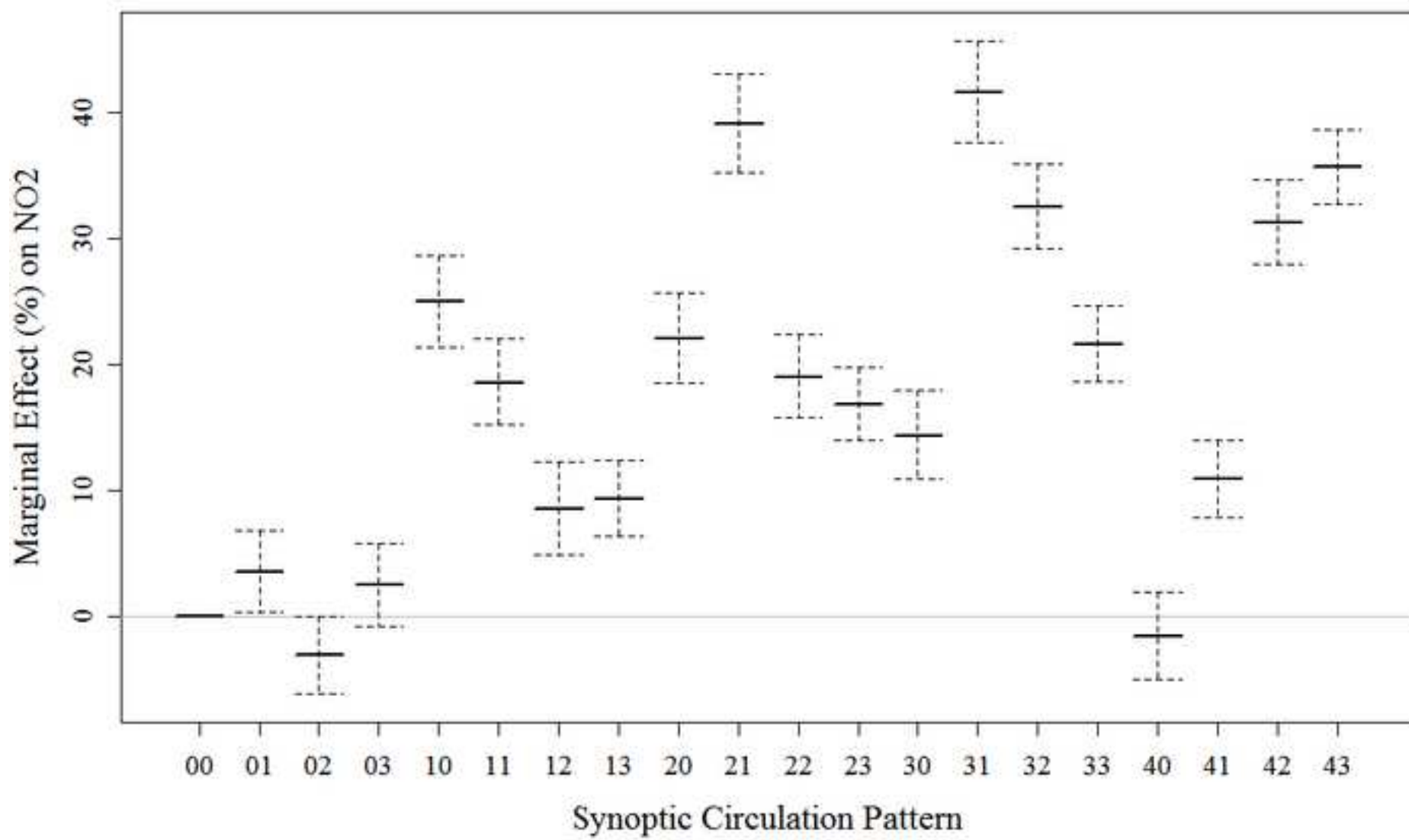


Figure6



1 Table 1. Descriptive statistics of regional air monitoring data used in model development.

Location	O ₃ (ppb)				PM ₁₀ (µg/m ³)				NO ₂ (ppb)			
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Alphington	20.2	8.8	5.0	63.0	17.3	6.8	3.7	76.7	23.9	8.1	5.0	69.0
AltonaNorth	21.5	9.4	5.0	87.0	--	--	0.0	0.0	23.3	10.2	5.0	79.0
BoxHill	20.7	9.3	5.0	64.0	15.2	7.4	3.6	75.3	22.0	7.7	5.0	64.0
Brighton	22.8	8.9	5.0	75.0	15.2	6.5	3.0	75.9	21.7	9.5	5.0	74.0
Dandenong	23.0	9.1	5.0	73.0	17.6	8.0	3.8	51.8	21.9	8.4	5.0	65.0
Footscray	21.7	8.2	5.0	63.0	18.0	8.0	3.6	74.5	23.6	9.7	5.0	81.0
Melton	28.1	8.7	8.0	102.0	--	--	0.0	0.0	--	--	--	--
Mooroolbark	24.5	9.0	5.0	63.0	19.3	9.2	3.2	102.8	18.1	6.6	5.0	39.0
MtCottrell	26.5	8.7	6.0	72.0	--	--	0.0	0.0	--	--	--	--
PtCook	24.2	8.6	5.0	85.0	--	--	0.0	0.0	17.1	8.9	5.0	66.0
Richmond	--	--	--	--	17.2	7.8	3.9	110.5	24.8	8.9	5.0	76.0
RMIT	16.7	7.8	5.0	61.0	18.8	7.5	4.4	82.2	26.2	9.7	5.0	90.0
Grand Total	22.2	9.2	14.0	37.0	17.1	7.7	6.6	43.2	22.5	9.3	9.0	56.0

Table 2. Mean values and standard deviations of observed meteorology under each synoptic type.

Synoptic Category	MaxTemp (°C)		WVP (hPa)		v wind (m/s)		u wind (m/s)		Rad (MJ/m ²)		Precip (mm)		MSP (hPa)		BLH (m)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
0	18.7	5.7	10.3	2.2	13.1	12.9	-10.9	8.9	12.8	7.5	3.3	10.2	1004	3	1616	614
1	19.4	5.6	9.9	2.2	11.4	14.3	-9.5	7.9	14.1	8.1	2.2	9.1	1010	2	1673	525
2	18.4	4.3	10.2	2.2	1.0	12.9	-12.2	6.7	14.9	7.8	1.6	2.9	1013	2	1524	373
3	17.8	4.3	10.3	2.3	-6.5	9.4	-11.6	6.7	15.3	8.0	2.1	4.5	1016	2	1455	345
10	23.9	7.8	13.1	3.1	7.7	15.1	-2.9	5.3	13.9	8.9	2.6	6.1	1006	2	1722	912
11	25.6	8.5	11.6	2.7	18.8	14.5	-0.4	3.2	16.7	10.4	0.6	1.9	1011	2	1904	921
12	20.7	6.1	10.3	2.1	12.2	15.2	-4.2	3.8	15.2	8.1	0.6	1.4	1015	2	1564	554
13	17.2	3.5	10.0	1.7	-0.5	12.6	-9.0	5.8	13.7	8.1	1.0	2.3	1019	2	1297	355
20	23.6	7.2	13.8	3.5	-0.6	13.3	-1.6	5.2	17.2	10.3	3.5	10.2	1010	2	1559	840
21	27.2	7.2	11.9	2.9	15.0	11.9	0.8	3.0	19.8	9.3	0.3	1.8	1014	1	2010	857
22	21.5	6.8	9.8	2.1	22.2	14.4	0.1	3.3	14.8	8.2	0.2	0.8	1017	1	1517	680
23	17.4	4.2	9.5	1.6	6.2	15.6	-5.2	5.8	13.1	7.6	0.9	1.8	1022	2	1205	336
30	22.0	5.8	13.5	3.2	-7.7	9.1	-2.6	4.6	17.6	9.9	1.7	4.6	1014	2	1381	643
31	25.9	6.8	12.3	2.8	4.0	12.0	0.4	3.3	22.0	8.9	0.3	1.4	1017	1	1848	759
32	21.2	6.2	10.3	2.2	12.4	14.8	0.0	3.2	16.2	9.1	0.6	2.4	1020	2	1370	645
33	15.9	3.2	9.3	1.5	5.1	13.6	-4.3	5.5	10.8	5.8	0.7	2.1	1026	2	1050	306
40	20.1	4.8	12.5	2.6	-13.6	7.8	-2.9	4.5	17.6	9.9	2.5	6.1	1017	2	1326	425
41	22.1	5.3	12.2	2.4	-10.0	9.8	-1.7	4.5	20.1	9.2	1.3	4.3	1019	2	1556	559
42	20.9	6.1	10.7	2.2	-1.7	12.4	-0.7	4.0	18.3	9.3	0.8	3.1	1022	1	1415	584
43	17.0	4.3	9.8	1.7	0.5	10.9	-1.9	3.7	12.3	6.8	0.4	1.2	1028	3	1064	401