Apportionment of Air Pollution by Source at a French Urban Site

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The development of air quality control strategies is a wide preoccupation for human health. In order to achieve this purpose, air pollution sources have to be accurately identified and quantified. This case study is part of a scientific project initiated by the French ministry of Ecology and Sustainable Development. Measurements of chemical composition data for particles have been performed at a French urban site. The work presented in this paper splits into two main steps. In the first one, the identification of the source profiles is achieved by a Principal Component based Factor Analysis (FA), followed by a rotation technique. Then, in the second step, a receptor modeling approach (using Positive Matrix Factorization as an estimation method) allows us to evaluate the apportionment of particles by source. The results from these two statistical methods have enabled us to characterize and apportion fine particulate matter emissions by five sources. The exposition is accessible to readers with an intermediate knowledge of statistics; an exposure to factor and principal components analyses is useful but not strictly necessary.

1. Introduction

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Air pollution is a complex mixture of extremely small particles and liquid droplets suspended in the air we breathe. Various sources such as factory and utility smokestacks, vehicle exhausts, wood burning, mining, construction activity and agriculture are known to generate particle pollution, also called particulate matter (PM). High concentrations of particles have been found to present a serious danger to human health (Pope et al., 2002; Samet et al., 2000).

In this study, particles of special preoccupation to the protection of lung health are those known as fine particles, less than 2.5 microns in diameter and called PM2.5 in the rest of this paper. Thus, a wide preoccupation of environmental protection agencies concerns the development of PM2.5 control strategies. One of the main goals of these strategies is to improve ambient air quality. In consequence, this involves the reduction of emissions from primary sources. Therefore it is important to be able to identify these air pollution sources and evaluate the contributions of these sources.

A reliable way of providing information regarding source characteristics is often obtained from a receptor modeling approach, using measurements of chemical composition data for particles at a sample site; see Hopke (1991) for some details and useful references. Most of the multivariate receptor models are based on an analysis of the correlations between measured concentrations of chemical species, assuming that highly correlated compounds come from the same source. Factor Analysis (FA) is commonly used as a multivariate receptor model, and this multivariate method has been successfully applied to identifying sources in several studies. However, FA fails to quantify contributions from different sources. Specific methods are then needed to address this problem. One of them is Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF); see for instance Paatero and Tapper (1994).

The case study presented here corresponds to the statistical part of the scientific program PRIMEQUAL (Projet de Recherche Interorganisme pour une MEilleure QUalité de l'Air à l'échelle Locale), initiated by the French ministry of Ecology and Sustainable Development and the ADEME (Agence de l'Environnement et de la Maîtrise de l'Energie, that is French Environment and Energy Management Agency), about atmospheric pollution and its impacts. In this statistical work, a methodology for determining particulate emission sources and their concentrations at the urban site of Anglet located in the South-West of France was proposed and applied. This paper is based on a more extensive article (Chavent et al. 2007).

The following three-step process was implemented:

(i) Air pollution data (that is, PM2.5) were collected with sequential fine particle samplers on the receptor site and the chemical composition of each sample was measured with PIXE (Particle Induced X-ray Emission) method. A **data matrix of chemical compounds concentrations** in each sample was obtained after several pre-treatments.

(ii) To **identify possible air pollution sources,** we implemented a FA approach to this data matrix and we rotated the standardized factors in order to obtain more interpretable results.

(iii) For the **sources apportionment issue**, we applied PMF to the same data matrix and normalized the results so as to find components with physical interpretations (concentration of each source in each sample).

It is interesting to note that steps (ii) and (iii) are numerically and computationally independent. Because the PMF method can be used for both identifying and quantifying the pollution sources, case studies usually don't mix FA and PMF. But in practice, it can be difficult when using PMF to identify potential sources without some sort of profile to which to compare the final results. In this case study, we mix FA and PMF in the sense that we check that each source quantified with PMF is clearly correlated with a single source identified with FA. Sources which are difficult to identify with PMF are then clearly identified with the help of FA and the identity of other sources is validated with FA.

The rest of this case study is organized as follows. A description of the air pollution data set is given in Section 2. The sources identification step via FA and Varimax rotation is developed in Section 3. Section 4 is devoted to the sources apportionment step via PMF. Finally, Section 5 gives conclusions and summarizes the paper.

2. The data set

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PM2.5 samplers were collected by $AIRAQ$ ^{[1](#page-1-0)} during December 2005 and July 2006 at the French site of Anglet located in the South-West of France (see Figure 1). In this case study, we only exhibit the results corresponding to the winter data set.

This sampling site located at "Station fixe d'Anglet" (see the map given in Figure 1) was chosen because of its proximity with:

- a high traffic road in red on the map,

- three cities (Bayonne, Anglet, Biarritz) with a total of 170,000 inhabitants,

an industrial area with a steelworks and a refinery in the North-East, the Atlantic Ocean in the West.

This receptor site is thus subject to different pollution origins: traffic road, urban and industrial activities, and natural dust. The knowledge of potential origins was decisive in the choice of the site. Indeed, it allowed checking if the sources identified with the statistical methodology (without using any information about the sources) were coherent with the expected ones. The *n* = 61 samples of PM2.5 were collected every twelve hours: one for the day (7AM:7PM) and one for the night (7PM:7AM).

The mass, volume and concentration *C* in *ng*/*m*³ (nanograms per cubic meter) of each particle sampler

¹ Réseau de surveillance de la qualité de l'air en Aquitaine

Figure 1 : The French urban site

CENBG^{[2](#page-2-0)}, as well as the concentrations in $p = 15$ chemical elements (*Al*, *Si*, *P*, *S* , *Cl*, *K*, *Ca*, *Ti*, *Mn*, *Fe*, *Ni*, *Cu*, *Zn*, *Br*, *Pb*)*[3](#page-2-1)* . Table 1 gives a subset of the data in their initial form. We notice on this data table that the concentrations of the 15 elements measured with PIXE are very small compared to the total concentrations *C* in the samples. Obviously the 15 concentrations measured with PIXE do not add up to the total concentration of the samples. The lements (*H*, *C*, *N*, *O*)[4](#page-2-2) not measured with PIXE represent almost all the remaining concentration.

Elements *Ni* and *Ti* that were frequently present at concentrations below the detection limits (BDL) were excluded and only 13 elements were selected. The few BDL data remaining in this data set were then replaced with values corresponding to one-half the appropriate analytical detection limit. In nature, the elements *Al*, *Si*, *S* and *Fe* are usually found in the following oxidized forms: *Al2O3*, *Si02*, *S04*, *Fe203*. For this chemical reason, *Al*, *Si*, *S* and *Fe* were replaced by the compounds Al_2O_3 , $SiO₂$, $SO₄$, $Fe₂O₃$: we added the mass of the measured element to the mass of oxygen of its oxidized form. Then, the remaining concentration, called C_{org}, which was not measured by the previous compounds and elements was calculated for each particle sampler:

 $C_{\text{org}} = C (Al_2O_3 + SiO_2 + P + SO_4 + Cl + K + Ca + Mn)$ $+ Fe₂O₃ + Cu + Zn + Br + Pb$.

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The addition of the column C_{org} in the data matrix is a key point specific to this case study. We indeed noticed during the data pre-treatment that the remaining concentrations not measured by PIXE could be an important part of the samples concentrations. We can see on Figure 2 that the proportion of *Corg* in samples which have a concentration greater than 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ is at least 50% of the total concentration. *Corg* will then be used to distinguish among the sources identified, those mostly participating to the concentration in PM2.5. The other 15 columns will be used to identify the sources. For instance, it is known that the elements *Zn* and *Pb* can be found among in particulates emitted by industrial sources.

Table 2 displays the data set after having applied the transformations described above. The (*n*,*p*) concentration matrix $X = (x_{ij})$ used in the receptor model then has *n* $= 61$ rows and $p = 14$ columns (Al_2O_3 , SiO_2 , P , SO_4 , Cl , K , *Ca*, *Mn*, $Fe₂O₃$, *Cu*, *Zn*, *Br*, *Pb*, *C_{org}*). The coefficient x_{ij} is the concentration of the *j*th chemical compound in the *i*th sample.

Figure 2: The proportion of C_{org} in the sample according to the total concentration *C* of the sample

Table 2: The final data set

Date		Al.O	SiO,	K	Ca	Bτ	Рb	C_{or}
23-11-05 day	7264.2	250	160	163	35		10	4645.3
23-11-05 night	9633.0	365	193	211	23		77	6564.2
24-11-05 day	10952.4	475	292	241	69	8	19	7017.1
24-11-05 night	5333.3	96	66	94	44	9		2805.5
24-12-05 day	20978.3	3		266	0.5		18	16240.7
24-12-05 night	18130.8	49		307	0.5		19	15878.3
25-12-05 day	23297.9	101	46	311	12		14	20636.8
25-12-05 night	36105.3	3		277	0.5	10	19	30885.1

 2 Atelier Régional de Caractérisation par Analyse Nucléaire

Elémentaire – Centre d'Etudes Nucléaires de Bordeaux Gradignan 3 Aluminum (*Al*), Silicon (*Si*), Phosphorus (*P*), Sulphur (*S*),

Chlorine (*Cl*), Potassium (*K*), Calcium (*Ca*), Titanium (*Ti*)

Manganese (*Mn*), Iron (*Fe*), Nickel (*Ni*), Copper (*Cu*), Zinc (*Zn*), Bromine (*Br*), Lead (*Pb*). 4

Hydrogen (*H*), Carbon (*C*), Nitrogen (*N*), Oxygen (*O*).

A meteorological data set was also used to interpret and validate some results. Hourly temperatures and wind directions (in degrees) were collected during the sampling period at a meteorological station located 2.5 *km* away from the sampling site. Temperatures were averaged to match with the 12-hours samples. The 360-degree range of wind directions was split into 8 categorical wind directions (North, North-East, North-West, South….) and a wind direction data matrix of 61 rows (12-hours samples) and 8 columns (wind directions) were constructed. An element of this matrix is the percentage of hours during which the wind direction has been observed (Table 3).

Table 3: Wind direction data f_k .

Date	N.	N-E E		$S-E-S$		S-W	W	N-W
23-11-05 day				17% 0% 25% 8%	8%	0%	0%	42%
23-11-05 night 25% 17% 33% 25% 0%						0%	0%	0%
24-11-05 day	0%	0%		8% 17%	50%	25%	0%	0%
24-11-05 night	0%	0%	0%	0%	8%	9%	58%	25%

3. Factor Analysis and Varimax rotation for sources identification

In order to identify the sources of fine particulate emissions, we applied FA to the concentration matrix *X*. The idea was to find groups of correlated chemical compounds that are characteristics of air pollution sources. For instance, if the elements *Zn* and *Pb* are strongly correlated to the same factor, since these elements are known to have industrial origin, this factor will be associated to industrial pollution source. $\qquad \qquad$ Of course, depending on the correlations in the loading

In FA, we consider an (*n*,*p*) numerical data matrix *X* where *n* objects are described on $p < n$ variables x_1, \ldots, x_p . We note x_j a column of *X*. Let $\tilde{X} = \left(\tilde{x}_{ij}\right)_{n,p}$ be the standardized data matrix with $\tilde{x}_{ij} =$ $x_{ij} - \overline{x}_j$ where \bar{x}_j and s_j are the sample mean

sj and the sample standard deviation of *x j* . The basic idea

that the *p* observed standardized variables $\tilde{x}_1, \ldots, \tilde{x}_p$, can underlying Factor Analysis (using correlation matrix) is be expressed, except for an error term, as linear functions of $q < p$ unobserved variables or common factors f_1 ,..., f_q . Given the observed standardized matrix \tilde{X} , a Factor Analysis model can be expressed in its simplified form as:

where *F* is the (*n*,*q*) matrix of unobserved values of the factors, whereas the (*p*,*q*) matrix *A* is the unknown loading matrix which provides information that relates the factors f_1, \ldots, f_q to the original variables x_1, \ldots, x_p . Several approaches exist to estimate the model (principal components, maximum likelihood …) but the Principal Components approach to factor extraction is often used in practice. With this estimation method, the *q* columns of *F* are close to the first *q* standardized principal components (which are mutually orthogonal and of variance equal to 1) and each element a_{jk} of A is equal

to the correlation between the variable x_j and the factor

In this case study, we applied our PC-based FA to the concentration matrix *X* where the 61 samples (in rows) are described by 14 compounds (in columns). We see in Figure 3 that each kth column of F and kth row of A' obtained with FA will be associated to a source. The approach is the following: we search in the kth row of the loading matrix *A'* for compounds which are strongly correlated with the kth factor. If these compounds are known to be characteristic of a source, this source is associated to this factor. Because the *n* samples are chronologically ordered, the kth column of the factor score matrix *F* gives an idea of the evolution of the quantity of fine particulates emitted by the source associated with the *k*th factor.

matrix, it is not always possible to clearly associate a source to a factor. In this study, after several trials, we chose *q*=5. Indeed, it was not possible to clearly associate a source to each factor with decompositions into more than 5 factors. Moreover, with *q*=5, 90.93% of the total variance is explained by the factors.

Table 4 gives the loading matrix *A'* obtained with the following procedure FACTOR of SAS:

data=hiverorg method=prin nfactors=5 outstat=load; var Al2O3 SiO2 P SO4 Cl K Ca Mn Fe2O3 Cu Zn Br Pb Corg;

run; where:

- data=hiverorg is the SAS dataset constructed from the concentration data matrix (Table 2)
- method=prin because the factor extraction method is Principal Components
- outstat=load is the sas dataset with the loadings $\tilde{X} = FA' + E$, reported in Table 4

Figure 3: Decomposition of the standardized concentration matrix

Since most compounds are positively correlated with the first factor, it is difficult to detect groups of correlated elements. However the graphical representation of these compounds according to their correlations with f_1 and f_2 (see Figure 4) or according to their correlations with f_2 and f_3 (see Figure 5) shows groups of compounds that seem to be correlated with each other (*Zn* and *Pb* for instance or *P*, Al_2O_3 and SiO_2). Because it is known that *Zn* and *Pb* for instance come from fine particulates of industrial origin, we would like to see clear correlations between those two elements and a factor.

Table 4: Correlations between the chemical compounds and the 5 factors

	f,	f ₂	fз	f4	f5
Al_2O_3	0.672	-0.663	0.221	-0.193	0.023
SiO ₂	0.649	-0.669	0.254	-0.203	-0.058
\boldsymbol{P}	0.682	-0.629	0.223	-0.238	0.006
SO_4	0.589	0.449	-0.413	-0.220	0.175
Cl	-0.474	-0.281	0.192	0.681	0.344
K	0.888	-0.154	-0.209	0.004	0.284
Ca	0.638	-0.405	0.099	0.399	-0.195
Mn	0.384	0.776	0.183	0.093	-0.247
Fe_2O_3	0.793	0.319	0.038	0.269	-0.360
Cи	0.796	0.248	-0.098	0.232	-0.360
Zn	0.352	0.663	0.589	-0.072	0.246
Br	0.746	-0.182	-0.126	0.352	0.363
Pb	0.428	0.659	0.519	-0.088	0.296
$C_{\ensuremath{\textit{org}}\xspace}$	0.600	0.297	-0.613	-0.025	0.222

Figure 4: Factor 1-2 correlation circle

Figure 5: Factor 2-3 correlation circle

In order to identify more clearly groups of correlated compounds, a Varimax rotation was applied to the standardized factors. The idea of rotation in Factor Analysis is the following. Let *T* be an orthogonal transformation matrix, so that $TT' = T'T = I_a$, where *q I* is the *q*-dimensional identity matrix. The factor analysis model can then be expressed as:

$$
\tilde{X} = \underbrace{FT}_{\tilde{F}} T_{\tilde{A}}' A' + E
$$

where:

- $\tilde{F} = FT$ is the matrix of rotated factors, which remain mutually orthogonal and with variance equal to 1,
- $A = AT$ is the matrix of rotated loadings which are correlations between the variables and the rotated factors.

From a practical point of view, the orthogonal transformation matrix *T* is defined in order to construct a matrix *A* such that each variable x_j is clearly correlated to one of the rotated factors \tilde{f}_k (that is \tilde{a}_{jk} close to 1) and not to the other rotated factors (that is \tilde{a}_{jk}^* close to

0 for $k^* \neq k$). The most popular rotation technique is Varimax. It seeks rotated loadings that maximize the variance of the squared loadings in each column of \tilde{A} .

The matrix \tilde{A} of the loadings after rotation and the matrix F of the rotated factor scores are obtained with the procedure FACTOR of SAS:

PROC FACTOR		data=hiverorq			method=prin	
nfactors=5		outstat=load			out=fact	
$rotate = varima x;$						
					var Al2O3 SiO2 P SO4 Cl K Ca Mn Fe2O3 Cu Zn	
Br Pb Corg;						
run;						

where:

- outstat=load is the sas dataset containing the rotated loading
- $out=$ fact is the sas dataset containing the rotated factor scores

The loadings after rotation are reported in Table 5. These new loadings are correlations between the rotated factors and the compounds. We notice now that the five rotated factors \tilde{f}_1 , ..., \tilde{f}_5 are clearly correlated with some compounds (highlighted in grey in the table). Because some of these compounds are known to be characteristic from specific pollution sources, we it is now possible to associate five sources to the 5 rotated factors: \tilde{f}_5 is clearly correlated with *Cl*, which is known to have sea

salt origin. In the same way, the elements *Zn* and *Pb* correlated with \tilde{f}_3 have industrial origin and the compounds Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 correlated with \tilde{f}_3 are coming from soil dust. Factors \tilde{f}_1 , \tilde{f}_3 and \tilde{f}_5 can then be clearly associated to those three sources (see Table 6).

Table 5: Correlations between the chemical compounds and the 5 rotated factors

0.981 Al_2O_3 0.087 -0.042 0.070 -0.038 0.979 SiO ₂ 0.012 0.104 -0.055 -0.074 0.972 0.090 -0.017 0.071 -0.092 P 0.765 0.247 0.180 SO ₄ -0.028 -0.345 0.879 -0.274 -0.181 Cl -0.153 -0.136 0.597 K 0.716 0.111 0.233 0.031 Ca 0.608 0.091 -0.113 0.560 0.272 -0.238 -0.279 0.119 0.604 0.582 Мn 0.848 0.289 0.198 0.282 -0.112 Fe ₂ O ₃ 0.816 0.359 0.161 -0.149 Cи 0.213 0.977 0.053 0.129 -0.029 -0.044 Zп 0.097 0.281 0.490 0.615 0.392 Br 0.969 Pb 0.004 0.163 0.126 -0.054 0.893 -0.018 0.021 0.222 -0.160		\mathfrak{D}	I_3	$\overline{4}$	J٢	
	$C_{\textit{\scriptsize{org}}}$					

In the same way, \mathbb{SO}_4 correlated with \tilde{f}_2 is usually linked to combustion and $Fe₂O₃$ and *Cu* correlated with $\tilde{f}₄$ can be linked with road traffic. In order to confirm these two last associations, we confronted the rotated factors \tilde{f}_k with external information such as meteorological data (temperatures and wind directions) and the periodicity night/day of the sampling. The coefficients \tilde{f}_{ik} of the column for each factor represent here a "relative" contribution of source *k* to sample *i*.

Figure 6 gives the evolution of the relative contribution of the source associated with \tilde{f}_4 . The night samples are distinguished from the day ones, which enables us to notice that the contribution of this source is stronger during the day than at night. This confirms that this source corresponds to vehicle pollution.

Figure 6: Evolution of the rotated factor 4 associated to car pollution

Figure 7 displays the evolution of the relative contribution of the source associated with \tilde{f}_2 . We notice an increase in the contribution of this source at the middle of the sampling period, which corresponds to a decrease in the temperature measured on the sampling site, see Figure 8.

Finally, correlations between the rotated factor scores and the eight vectors of wind directions (see Table 3) were calculated. Figure 9 (resp Figure 10) is a graphical representation of the correlations between \tilde{f}_3 (resp \tilde{f}_5) and the wind directions.

Figure7: Evolution of the rotated factor 2 associated to heating source

Figure 8: Evolution of temperatures

Figure 9: Correlations between rotated factor 5 associated to the sea source and the 8 wind directions

Figure 10: Correlations between rotated factor 3 associated to the industrial source and the 8 wind direction

The correlation of \tilde{f}_3 with the East and North-East wind directions confirms that this source corresponds to industrial pollution. Indeed, the main industries are located North of the sampling site (see Figure 1). In the same way, the correlation of f_5 with the West and North-West wind directions is a confirmation that this source corresponds to the Atlantic Ocean located West of the sampling site, and therefore to sea pollution.

4. Sources apportionment via PMF

We have seen how fine particulate pollution sources can be identified by applying a FA to a concentration data matrix. But the identification is not sufficient. The danger for health is linked to the *quantity* of PM2.5 we breathe. The problem is then not only to identify the PM2.5 sources but also to determine in which proportion these sources contribute to global dust contamination. In order to quantify unknown sources of fine particulate emissions, we approximated a receptor model by first defining a Positive Matrix Factorization of the concentration matrix *X*, and then by normalizing the results to find components with physical interpretations.

The basic problem of receptor modeling is to estimate, from the data matrix *X* and the number *q* of sources, their compositions and their contributions. To address this problem, we consider the mass balance equation:

$$
x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^q g_{ik} b_{jk}
$$

where

- x_{ij} is the concentration of the *j*th chemical species in the *i*th sample,
- g_{ik} is the concentration in particles from source k in the sample *i*, and
- b_{ik} is the mass fraction (percentage) of species *j* in source *k*.

In the common parlance of receptor modeling, the b_{jk} 's are the sources compositions (or sources profiles) and the g_{ik} 's are the sources contributions. The product $g_{ik}b_{jk}$ is then an approximation to the concentration in sample *i* in particles from the *j*th species coming from source *k*. Let m_{ijk} be the mass, in sample *i*, of species *j* from source k , and let m_{ik} be the mass in sample i from

source *k*. Then *ik ijk m m* $b_{jk} = \frac{m_{ijk}}{j}$ is a mass fraction or, in other

words, it is the percentage of species *j* emitted by source *k* when sample i was collected. Since the mass fraction b_{jk} is assumed to be independent of *i*, it means that the sources profiles are assumed to be constant during the sampling period.

where *G* is a (*n,q*) matrix of sources contributions and *B* is a (*p,q*) matrix of sources compositions (see [Figure 11\)](#page-7-0).

In this case study, 5 sources were clearly identified with the FA. We then chose to approximate the matrices *G* and *B* for $q = 5$ in the receptor model. Two steps (PMF and normalization) were necessary to approximate *G* and *B*. Once these approximations \tilde{G} and \tilde{B} are calculated, the user has an approximation of the quantities of fine particulates emitted by the 5 sources in each sample. The user also has an approximation of the profiles of the sources. But no name is associated to each source. A supplementary step is thus necessary to clearly identify the sources quantified in \ddot{G} .

PMF step. The matrix *X* is factorized into a product *HC'* of rank *q* under constraints of positivity of the coefficients. This condition is required by the physical reality of non-negativity of source compositions and contributions: $g_{ik} \geq 0$ and $b_{ik} \geq 0$.

The PMF algorithm developed by Paatero and Tapper (1994) in the context of receptor modeling minimizes

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{q} h_{ik} c_{jk}}{\sigma_{ij}} \right)^2
$$

In matrix form, the mass balance equation can be written: subject to $h_{ik} \geq 0$ and $c_{ik} \geq 0$. The coefficient σ_{ij} is a $X = GB'$ measure of uncertainty of the observation x_{ij} . In this case study, we are dealing with variables measured on very different scales, which can cause problems when approximating *X* globally on all the variables (for

Figure 11: Decomposition of the concentration matrix

instance, minimizing an un-weighed quadratic error, corresponding to $\sigma_{ii} = 1$, will give better approximations for columns of *X* corresponding to variables with large dispersion). Hence we have opted for $\sigma_{ij} = s_j$, the sample standard deviation of the *j*th variable.

The numerical results were obtained with the PMF algorithm and program proposed by Jianhang et Laosheng (2004). This program takes as input:

the concentration matrix $X_{61 \times 14}$,

the matrix of the uncertainty measures $({\sigma_{ij}} = s_j)_{61 \times 14}$

the number of sources $q=5$

It gives in its output a matrix ${\hat{H}}_{6\text{ls}5}$ and a matrix ${\hat{C}}_{\text{14x5}}$, solutions of the above constrained minimization problem. Obviously, this solution is not unique and other physical constraints were used to calculate from these two matrices $\hat{H}_{61\times 5}$ and $\hat{C}_{14\times 5}$ the approximations \hat{G} and \hat{B} of the contribution matrix and of the profile matrix. This is the scaling step. Let $\hat{X} = \hat{H}\hat{C}$ ^{*c*} be the product calculated by PMF.

Scaling step. The columns of the approximations *H*ˆ and \hat{C} obtained in the previous step must be scaled in order to obtain the approximations \hat{G} and \hat{B} . The scaling coefficients are defined to fulfill other physical constraints of the sources compositions and contributions.

Let us first note that $\hat{x}_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{1} \hat{h}_{ik} \hat{c}_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^{1}$ *q k jk k* $\frac{\mu_k}{a}$ *q k* $\hat{x}_{ij} = \sum h_{ik}\hat{c}_{jk} = \sum h_{ik}\frac{\mu_{k}}{\rho}\hat{c}_{jk}$ $\hat{x}_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{q} \hat{h}_{ik} \hat{c}_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^{q} \hat{h}_{ik} \frac{\beta_{k}}{\beta_{k}} \hat{c}_{jk}$.

The matrix \hat{X} can then be written: $\hat{X} = \check{H}\check{C}$ with $\breve{h}_{ik} = \hat{h}_{ik} \beta_k$ and *k jk jk c c* β $\breve{c}_{ik} = \frac{\hat{c}_{jk}}{2}$. The objective of scaling is then to define the scaling constants β_k , $k = 1, ..., q$

such that \bar{H} and C satisfy the physical conditions of the matrices *G* and *B* imposed by the mass balance equation. In this study, we consider the two following conditions:

(a) The concentrations of the sources add up to the total concentration of the samples; that is for each sample*,* $\sum_{k=1}^{1} g_{ik}$ where = *q k* $g_i = \sum g_{ik}$ 1 $\gamma_i = \sum g_{ik}$ where γ_i is the total concentration in the *i*th sample.

(b) If the concentrations of the observed species add up to the total concentration of the samples, then the sum of all species in each source profile is equal to unity, that is:

$$
\sum_{j=1}^p b_{jk} = 1 \text{ if } \sum_{j=1}^p x_{ij} = \gamma_i.
$$

Note that the introduction in this case study of the 15th column *Corg* (the concentration in the samples not measured by PIXE) calculated for each particle sampler

yields
$$
\sum_{j=1}^{p} x_{ij} = \gamma_i.
$$

–

From the physical constraint (b), the scaling coefficients β_k can be directly calculated: from $\hat{X} = \hat{H}\hat{C}$ ', we get $=\sum_{j=1}^{N} \hat{c}_{jk}$. Details can be found in Chavent et al. (2007). *p j* $\hat{c}_{~jk}$ 1 $\hat{\beta}_k = \sum \hat{c}$

In practice, we imported into Excel the numerical values of the matrices ${\hat H}_{61\times5}$ and ${\hat C}_{14\times5}$ obtained in the output of the PMF program and calculated:

the 5 scaling coefficients (given [Table 7\)](#page-8-0) by summing the 5 columns of the matrix $\hat{C}_{14\times 5}$,

– the $(14,5)$ matrix \hat{B} of the approximated compositions (profiles) of the 5 sources on the 14 compounds, by dividing the five columns of $\hat{C}_{14\times5}$ by the corresponding scaling coefficient,

– the (61,5) matrix *G*ˆ of the approximated concentrations of the 5 sources in the 61 samples, by multiplying the five columns of $\hat{H}_{61\times5}$ by the corresponding scaling coefficient.

Quality of the model approximation. We can evaluate the quality of the approximation of X by $\hat{G}\hat{B}$ ': Figure 12 shows a good fitting of the γ_i 's by the $\hat{\gamma_i}$'s with

$$
\hat{\gamma}_i = \sum_{k=1}^q \hat{g}_{ik}.
$$

Approximation $\hat{\gamma}$

Figure 12: Adjustment of γ by $\hat{\gamma}$

Source identification. In practice, the knowledge of \hat{G} and \hat{B} gives no direct indications on the nature of the sources. To try to discover the nature of the five sources, we want to calculate their relative contribution to each of the 14 chemical compounds. To do that, we need to work with the masses instead of the concentrations. We then calculate from \hat{G} the approximation to the total mass of particulate emitted from source *k* in the 61 samples. This mass is multiplied by $\hat{b}_{jk}^{}$ and gives the percentages reported in [Table 8.](#page-9-0)

Table 8: Relative contributions of the sources to the chemical compounds

	$k=1$	$k=2$	$k = 3$	$k = 4$	$k=5$
Al_2O_3	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SiO ₂	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
P	81.5	0.5	3.9	8.2	6
SO ₄	4.5	9.5	10.7	67.9	7.5
Cl	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
K	38.8	0.0	4.4	56.7	0.2
Ca	42.0	39.6	0.0	0.0	18.4
Мn	0.0	54.9	33.1	8.5	3.5
Fe ₂ O ₃	19.0	59.2	14.4	7.4	0.0
Cи	18.5	56.8	9.1	15.6	0.0
Zп	9.0	0.5	87.5	0.0	3.1
Βr	19.4	12.1	5.7	33.4	29.4
Pb	10.7	0.0	81.4	7.9	0.0
\mathcal{C}_{or}	0.0	8.0	0.0	92.0	0.0

[Table 8](#page-9-0) is used to identify the nature of the sources. For instance, Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 are exclusively emitted by source 1. Because Al_2O_3 and SiO_2 are known to have natural origins, this source is associated to the soil dust pollution source. We proceed in the same way for the other sources. We thus obtain possible identifications of the five pollution sources, see [Table 9.](#page-9-1)

One can note that the sources identified in [Table 9](#page-9-1) are the same than those found with FA in Table 6. To verify the coherence of these sources identifications, we have calculated, in [Table 10](#page-9-2), the correlations between the factors obtained with FA and the sources obtained by receptor modeling (the columns of \hat{G}). We observe that the factors match well with the receptor model sources.

Source descriptions. The matrix \vec{B} of the sources profiles is reported in [Table 11](#page-9-3). We notice that, according to these profiles, *Corg* which represents almost the total concentration in PM2.5, is only emitted by the vehicle and combustion sources. It is also possible to describe the composition of the sources using [Table 11:](#page-9-3) for instance, sea pollution source is made of around 75% of Chlorine and 23% of *S04*.

Table 11: The sources profiles

	Soil dust	Vehicles	Industry	Combustion	Sea
Al_2O_3	41.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SiO ₂	18.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
P	6.2	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.6
SO ₄	10.1	15.3	59.6	12.2	22.6
Cl	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	74.5
K	12.9	0.0	3.6	1.5	0.1
Ca	2.4	1.6	0.0	0.0	1.4
Мn	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.0
Fe ₂ O ₃	6.7	15.0	12.7	0.2	0.0
Cи	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.0	0.0
Zп	0.7	0.0	16.3	0.0	0.3
Βr	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.5
Pb	0.3	0.0	6.2	0.0	0.0
C_{or}	0.0	67.1	0.0	85.9	0.0

Source apportionments. From the matrix \tilde{G} of the source contributions, we can derive some interesting comments. First we can focus on the relative contribution of each source in each particle sampler. For instance, Figure 13 represents the relative contributions of the combustion source in the 61 particle samplers. We can notice the increase in the part of this source in the second period of sampling, corresponding to a decrease in the temperature (see Figure 8).

Figure 13: Relative contribution of the source combustion to the samples

We can also focus on the contribution of the sources to PM2.5 dust contamination during the sampling period. [Figure 14](#page-10-0) shows the domination of the combustion source during this winter sampling period.

Figure 14: Global sources contributions to the PM2.5 dust contamination

5. Conclusion

We exhibited in this case study a methodology for determining the apportionment of air pollution by source in a French urban site. The data correspond to measurements of chemical composition data for particles. Our approach is divided into two parts: first we identify the sources profiles via a Factor Analysis followed by a Varimax rotation. Then, we evaluate the apportionment by source of the air pollution via a receptor modeling approach based on Positive Matrix Factorization as an estimation method. The corresponding numerical results allow us to characterize and apportion fine particulates emissions by five principal sources: soil dust, vehicles, industry, combustion and sea.

These results are hardly surprising, since they confirm environmental knowledge of the phenomenon of air pollution by fine particles. What is interesting here is the fact that we do not use any prior information in order to retrieve the usual five air pollution sources. This type of methodology can then be applied to any dataset and problems of identification and apportionment of sources. For mathematical details on the proposed methodology, the reader is referred to Chavent et al. (2007).

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