Journal: ACP MS No.: acp-2018-784 Title: Receptor modelling of both particle composition and size distribution from a background site in London, UK – the two step approach Author(s): David C. S. Beddows and Roy M. Harrison

RESPONSE TO REVIEWERS

REVIEWER #1

General comment: The paper regards the description of a two-step approach for performing source apportionment using the PMF receptor model and an input composed by variables having different measurement units. The approach has elements of originality and potentially several applications. The topic is interesting considering that source apportionment is a major topic in nowadays research and the possibility to use an approach that use input variables having heterogeneous measurement units is certainly appealing. I also believe that the topic is suitable for the Journal and the paper generally well written and understandable. However, I found that some aspects are not completely clear (see my specific comments) and the paper need a revision before publication.

RESPONSE: We thank the reviewer for these positive overall remarks.

Specific comments:

Lines 59-62. This sentence is not completely true and I would suggest to modify it. This happens only if number size distributions are mixed with chemical composition (in mass), however, there are examples in which size-segregated chemical composition is used in PMF analysis to obtain quantitative evaluation of size distribution of sources (see for example Contini et al., 2014 Science of the Total Environment 472, 248–261 and references therein).

RESPONSE: Text has been added to this effect, saying that by careful experimental design the issue of datasets with heterogeneous units can be avoided, for example using a Cascade Impactor to measure size-fractionated chemical PM mass composition rather than two measurements: one for particle number size and the other for total PM mass.

Lines 140-141. Better to write 16-604 nm (like in line 149) because two decimal digits for size is an illusory precision.

RESPONSE: Correction made.

Lines 159-161. The conversion of mass difference in PN0.6-10 is likely quite uncertain. Some details should be given because I believe that some assumptions have been done regarding size distribution in the range 0.6-10 micron and the result of the conversion would be strongly influenced by these assumptions. A comment on this aspect is needed.

RESPONSE: This section has been re-written to include more details and a statement added that a large uncertainty is applied to this measurement so as not to influence the final results.

Lines 312-314. This could happen because nanoparticles have a limited mass to influence significantly PM10 mass composition, however, it could be different if NSD are mixed with PM1 chemical composition for example. A comment on this aspect would be useful.

RESPONSE: Within the context of response to comments on lines 59-62, we have commented on this to say that with a different measurement, PM₁, the NSD data would give a better overlap. However, having said this, PN measurements have a sensitivity bias towards the smaller nucleation particles whereas PM measurements have a bias towards the more coarse particles.

There is a particular reason for using PMF2 and not the more advanced PMF5 that is becoming the standard version of source apportionment with PMF?

RESPONSE: PMF2 is not version 2 of the US EPA PMF. PMF2 is the ordinary 2-way factor analysis as opposed to the 3-way factor analysis PMF3 or ME-2 for solving arbitrary (quasi) multilinear models. This has been clarified in the Experimental part of the text.

Lines 215-216. How much is it the X value chosen? This should likely be reported for completeness. **RESPONSE:** We have added this information, which says that once fitted the NSD data have a relative uncertainty of 4-5%.

Line 259. I believe that the number of factors is six rather than seven. **RESPONSE:** Yes, the correction has been made.

Lines 358-360. Looking at figures 4 and S3, it seems that the marine source is dominated by nanoparticles. Considering that this is a source generally made of coarse particles, and also authors mention this aspect, this result appears unusual and some discussion and explanations are needed.

RESPONSE: This apparent contradiction has already been addressed in Beddows et al. (2015) in the five-factor solution from the combined composition–NSD data set. In this, a factor which can be clearly assigned on the basis of its chemical association is that described as aged marine. This explains a large proportion of the variation in Na, Mg and Cl but shows a NSD with many features similar to that of the traffic factor, with which it has rather little in common chemically. Since the aged marine mass mode is expected to be in the super-micrometre region and hence well beyond that measured in the NSD data set, it seems likely that the size distribution associated is simply a reflection of other sources influencing air masses rich in marine particles. The main point to take away is that we get the same solution using the 2-step approach.

Minor comments: Lines 148. "spherical" **RESPONSE:** Yes, the correction has been made.

Line 351. "there is..." The source "NET and crustal" is reported in the text but repeated in the figures as "NET and coarse". I would suggest to use "NET and crustal" in all the paper that is more understandable and appropriate.

RESPONSE: Yes, the correction has been made to be consistent with our original work in Beddows et al. (2015).

Title Section 3.4. Why hidden?

RESPONSE: The work hidden has been replaced by unresolved. It was not resolved until a 7 factor solution was chosen using an FKEY matrix (as specified in Figure 3 with 6 x 6 zero diagonal FKEY matrix augmented with an 7th column and 7th row of zero entries).

Moreover, this section is dedicated to several factors...what is the hidden one the nucleation? An explanation or a change of the title is needed. **RESPONSE:** Extra explanation is given.

What is the meaning of the "*" reported in figures 4 and 5? **RESPONSE:** These have been removed.

REVIEWER #3

The manuscript has several elements of originality (to my knowledge, no similar methods have been already published) and directly hits a very controversial and up-to-date topic in the atmospheric sciences. Nowadays, source apportionment by PMF is amply used in both routine monitoring and research studies. Although most of them use "one-kind" variables (mostly PM chemical speciation data), an increasingly high number of studies (just a few have been cited in the manuscript, but the list should be improved) use variables with multiple units. Since the large number of available air quality measurement techniques, the merging of dataset(s) with different units is a suitable (and proven) way to better resolve the PMF source

profiles and to detect unresolved sources. Essentially, additional variables may help in better detecting the edges.

RESPONSE: We thank the reviewer for this positive perspective on the work.

Under this view, a recent paper (Emami and Hopke, Chemometr. Intell. Lab. 162 (2017) 198–202, which findings are unfortunately not considered in this manuscript), showed the effect of adding variables with different units to decrease the rotational ambiguity of PMF solutions. **RESPONSE:** This paper has now been cited.

Thus, the topic is suitable for the journal ACP. However, the manuscript needs revisions before to be accepted for publication. Major points. Essentially, the rationale behind the whole manuscript is based on the statement reported in lines 59-62: "However, while combining, for example, particle chemical composition and size distribution data in a single PMF analysis may assist source resolution, it does not allow quantitative attribution of either particle mass or particle number to the source factors.". Later, the authors also presented a case study where they mixed variables with different units without giving quantitative results. Even if one can agree with this statement, the authors have not exhaustively explained it. Since this is a methodological manuscript, I strongly encourage the authors to better support these statements.

RESPONSE: The comment regarding the unapportioned factor analysis of data with heterogeneous units from the supporting output of Beddows et al. (2015), is referred to in Section 3.2 entitled 2-Step PMF-LR Analysis. We have expanded this section of text to report more clearly, what was carried out in the supporting study.

Another major weakness of this manuscript is the lack of sufficient details on the PMF analyses. This point can be easily solved by the authors, who have an extended experience with PMF analysis. This manuscript presents a new approach, so particular care should be given to details so that anyone can easily reproduce what the authors did (and test with their own data). However, details of the PMF are generally missing or they are reported in the companion paper (Beddows et al., 2015).

• For example, the authors should describe the method(s) used to compute the uncertainties in the 1st step (including PN0.6-10, see next point).

RESPONSE: This section has been rewritten to give more detail.

• Also, the authors should report how the raw data have been handled (if any correction was done) and the number of variables and cases inputted into the models. For example, they should report the outliers detection and how they managed the missing values (SMPS sampled every 15 min, what is the minimum number of 15 min records to have a valid 1-hour NSD value?).

RESPONSE: The details of the SMPS setup are now in Table S1 and a note is added to say that the raw data was quality assured by the National Physical Laboratory (NPL), and to see Beccaceci et al. (2013a,b) for an extensive report on how the data was collected. Furthermore, we addressed these points by carrying forward the descriptions in Beddows et al. (2015) of how the PM_{10} data was collected and prepared for this study.

In addition, since the Q values are used (lines 199-203 and 215-216), they should be reported as well. Furthermore, it is unknown if the authors dealt with the rotational ambiguity of the models. **RESPONSE:** This is addressed in the response to P. Paatero's comments.

The authors used R to "optimize" X to have Q/Qtheory \sim 1. More details should be reported. In particular, what does " \sim 1" mean? It can be every number, but having it from 0.5 to 1.5 or from 0.99 to 1.01 makes a big difference. Please explain.

RESPONSE: We have set a criterion of within 1 ± 0.02 .

Basic information on the PMF set-up is important to report. This information will allow the reader to completely understand what the authors did and (possibly) to reply the methods. It would be useful to

have a quick overview of such details in the main text with the deepest description in the supplementary information.

RESPONSE: This point has been addressed within the rewritten mathematical description of the PMF analysis.

Another unclear point is related to the "proxy-data" used to assess the PN0.6-10 variable. This is an artificial variable: it was not directly measured, but it was computed on the basis of two (three?) main assumptions: (i) particles are assumed to be spherical, and (ii) particles have fixed density. But it is not completely clear if the density is assumed constant over the time or over the whole (16-604 nm) size spectra (or both, as it should be). The authors used a density of 2 g/cm3 over all the study period, but they report a 1.8-2.5 g/cm3 range for an urban background aerosol. Consequently, the PN0.6-10 variable will be affected by a large uncertainty that cannot be well assessed. I suggest to add more details and provide an estimate of the uncertainty of this new variable.

RESPONSE: Clarification of this has been made by adding a fuller and more mathematical description to explain how the proxy variable is calculated and how the density value is used.

This latter point raises another question. Why the authors did not plan to also use an APS to complete the size range to 10 μ m? One can argue that the sampling campaign was not planned to have an APS included (or the merging of SMPS and APS was unreliable). However, my opinion is that this point should be at least mentioned in the text, so colleagues who want to pursue the same approach are advised on the possible use of wide range particle size spectra.

RESPONSE: We have added this point to a list of alternative approaches to using the proxy-data at the end of Section 2.2.

Minor comments: Line 103. Missing bracket ")" **RESPONSE:** Corrected.

Subsection 2.1: Please add more details on the SMPS set-up. For example, sheath and sample flows, the status of the CPC and electrostatic classifier (serviced, calibrated?), the type of neutralizer (X-ray, 85Kr?), software/algorithm used for the data inversion (or version of the AIM software), use of multiple charge and/or diffusion loss corrections, etc. These details need to be added as supplementary information. **RESPONSE:** This has been added in Table S1, although it does seem like too much information for what the referee correctly identifies as a PMF methodology paper; it is not a data collection paper.

Line 138: 1 4 hour -> 15 min

RESPONSE: Change made although this is considered to be a personal preference.

There are two equations numbered as (3), see pages 11 and 12. This should be fixed, as most of the discussion on the method refers to these equations. **RESPONSE:** Correction made.

Figure 3 can be easily moved to the supplementary material file. **RESPONSE:** Figure moved.

Figure 4. NET & coarse should be NET & crustal. **RESPONSE:** Correction made.

Figure 6. Once printed, the labels and axes of the single plots will be likely unreadable. Please increase the font size and (if possible) please uniform the font style and size among the figures. Also, it is advisable to use a color scale that is also easily readable when the paper is printed with a black and white printer. **RESPONSE:** We have increased the font size at the expense of the size of the plots which has improved the readability of the text in these plots. However, we have not found a palette which looks good in colour and preserves the information in black and white. All we can suggest is that a grey scale is used for the option of black and white printing.

Figure 6 shows polarplots and polarannuli. These "openair" analyses are commonly reported in air quality studies and are very helpful to better interpret the data. However, a quick overview of the information provided by these two plots should be briefly reported into the materials and methods section. **RESPONSE:** General descriptions of polarPlot and polarAnnulus have been added to the Methods Section.

REVIEWER #4

The paper by Beddows et al. described a two-step source apportionment methodology on a combined database of both PM mass and number size distribution measurements carried out in London. A previous source apportionment study using the same database had been reported by Beddows et al. (2015). Thus, the novelty of this study could be represented by the methodology development. The topic is interesting, and the methodology would be useful in deal with mixing data types as input in PMF, which provide a better defined source factor and better fit diagnostics compared to when non-combined data were used. However, I found that some aspects are not clear and improvements should be made before the work be published in ACP.

RESPONSE: We thank the referee, and we welcome the opportunity to provide greater clarity.

Major comments:

1. The motivation of this study is to clarify the source contribution when a combined database was used in PMF. As the authors state, the combined PM chemical composition and size distribution data in a single PMF analysis could not allow quantitative attribution of either particle mass or particle number to the source factors. However, one could calculate the source contributions either by PM mass or by NSD base on the output results of PMF. The following reference is an example described the source contribution using combined database in PMF. Please clarify this item. Sowlat et al., 2016. Source apportionment of ambient particle number concentrations in central Los Angeles using positive matrix factorization (PMF). Atmos. Chem. Phys., 16, 4849-4866,

RESPONSE: We do calculate the source contributions either by PM mass or by NSD based on the process of using output from the PMF results in Beddows et al. (2015). Those results are carried through into this work, so we are already carrying out a 1-step analysis resulting in an apportionment. To address this oversight of the referee, we have added a line to Figure 2 saying "[The PMF analyses of Beddows et al. (2015) are considered as Step 1]." We have also added a table of apportionment values from Beddows et al. (2015) into Figure 1 as an insert showing the apportionment of the factors, and the reference to Sowlat et al. (2016) which is very similar to Harrison et al. (2010), which reports PMF of merged SMPS-APS data and chemical and meteorological data.

2. The two-step PMF-PMF method is new but the results maybe questionable. The G1 time series from the PMF analysis of PM10 chemical composition (Step One) could be considered as a constraint in Step Two, which means that six factors identified by PM mass was also applied to NSD. I think this is why the results from two step PMF-PMF method was different from results using combined dataset of PM and NSD in PMF reported by Beddows et al. (2015).

RESPONSE: The reviewer is correct in this interpretation.

Thus, what about the results if using the G1 time series from the PMF analysis of NSD as step one? Please clarify this item.

RESPONSE: The aim here is to assign a NSD description to the PM₁₀ mass sources, so we are not sure why we would consider a 1-step PMF analysis of the combined G1 + NSD data set without applying an 'FKEY constraint'. When removing the FKEY constraint, there is no clear separation of the G1 scores and we can no longer match the NSD of the resulting factors to the original source. Instead we have to introduce new descriptions based on the 6 factor names: Diffuse Urban; Marine; Secondary; NET / Coarse; Fuel Oil and Traffic. Furthermore, a conclusion from Beddows et al. (2015) was that a better result was obtained when analysing the datasets

separately. This work continues with this recommendation by heavily biasing the analysis to the data analysed in Step 1.

Specific comments:

 Line 157-160. The particle number greater than 600nm is calculated from the difference between PM10 and PM0.6 estimated from SMPS. Except PM0.6-10, particle density, particle shape (spherical) and size distribution should be know when calculated the PN0.6-10. Please provide more description about the calculation process.

RESPONSE: This point has been address in line with the comment of Referee #1.

2. Line355-356. Why the secondary factor be expected to be strongest at night? 3. Line 362-363. These is not Fig.7 in the text.

RESPONSE: Typo: Figure 7 is Figure 6. This has been corrected. Furthermore, the secondary factor is expected to be stronger at night when compared to the secondary NSD factor derived in Beddows et al. (2015). In Beddows et al. (2015), both the secondary component derived from the PM₁₀ and NSD analysis are strongest at night, and in particular, the PM₁₀ secondary factor has a strong nitrate component which does grow to a maximum during the night due to reduced volatility of ammonium nitrate. Clarification has been given.

REFEREE: P. PAATERO pentti.paatero86@gmail.com

This manuscript deals with PMF analyses of "combined" data matrices such as [X Z] where X contains elemental composition profiles of aerosol samples and Z contains aerosol number size distributions measured simultaneously with composition profiles. This is an important problem that occurs often in modern aerosol research. There are specific problems in this task; these problems have not been studied in depth in literature so far. This manuscript studies one specific combined data matrix and reports a PMF model for this matrix. Thus the ms might deserve publication despite of certain serious problems. These problems are in part related to misunderstandings found in earlier papers that discuss this same topic. For this reason, the present review contains a lengthy general discussion of the task of modeling combined matrices. The specific questions regarding this ms are based on this general discussion. The ms might also be suitable for publication in the sister Journal AMT, tmospheric Measurement Techniques. My personal view is slightly in favour of AMT. However, both ACP and AMT seem possible, and this review considers publication in either Journal. The structure of this review is as follows:

RESPONSE: We recognise the immense contribution made by Professor Paatero to this field, and thank him for the critical insights which he provides.

Recommendations Notation used in this review Background Common mode errors Joint matrices containing different units Discussion of the manuscript Two-stage PMF model vs. customary PMF model The hidden factor, aka Nucleation factor Miscellaneous

Recommendations

There are very many problems of different kinds in this manuscript. For this reason, I hesitantly recommend that this ms should NOT be published by ACP or AMT. However, if it is desired to publish this ms because of the importance of the problem, then a thorough rewriting of the text and mathematical details must be undertaken. I recommend that the following enhancements be performed: There has apparently been lack of communication between the person(s) who did the actual computations and those who wrote the paper.

RESPONSE: This first author is responsible for both the computation and the manuscript and we have endeavoured to follow these recommendations to avoid the appearance that an unnamed contributor has been involved. The paper has been extensively revised in response to the comments of all four reviewers.

For this reason, the mathematical description is erratic, chaotic and impossible to understand or replicate. In order to create an accurate description, the person(s) who did the computations should be included in the group of authors. Without such help, it may not be possible to achieve a satisfactory mathematical description of what was done. The entire mathematical discussion about problems attributed to PMF analysis of joint matrices containing different units is erroneous, based on a widespread misunderstanding. This discussion must be rewritten according to suggestions given below. It might be good to include in the author group somebody familiar with the quantitative mathematical structure of the PMF model. **RESPONSE:** Thank you for highlighting this misunderstanding which we have addressed in the revised manuscript.

In particular, it seems that lines 79,80 are not based on quantitative understanding of the model. These lines, and other similar sentences, must be removed. Much of Conclusions must be rewritten so that the claims against using variables with different dimensions/units are replaced by opposite sentences stating e.g. that a joint analysis of matrices of variables with different dimensions/units is not harmed by these differences but unfortunately the opposite was believed to be true when the work was carried out. **RESPONSE:** This correction has been carried out.

The mathematical description of what was done must be totally rewritten so that systematic matrix-form notation is used. Equations must be corrected and written in correct notation, using correct terminology and correct numbering. Details of PMF modeling must be reported, such as dimensions of matrices, used parameters such as uncertainties of data values, robust/nonrobust, obtained Q values, numbers of observed outliers, unique or multiple minima, and so on.

RESPONSE: This has been corrected following the guidance of all the other referees.

Rotational questions are an ever-present problem in factor analytic modeling, independently of what programs are used. It is alarming that the word "rotation" does not occur in this manuscript. Pay attention to rotational questions. There are certain weaknesses in the plan of this work, such as assuming that the rotational status of the original PMF model of X was correct or best possible (see below). These weaknesses cannot be corrected in an enhanced ms but they should be briefly discussed. This is important because otherwise, colleagues following the example of this work will feel the need to replicate everything that was done here, being unaware that some details may not have been optimal. **RESPONSE:** Rotations are now briefly discussed.

Enhance figure captions so that readers do not need to guess what is shown. Have the enhanced ms proofread by colleagues. Check also the references. This ms illustrates, once again, how difficult it is to find ones own mistakes and typos.

RESPONSE: Enhancements of figure captions have been carried out.

Notation used in this review

The notation "[X Z]" indicates here attached or joined matrices, i.e. placing X and Z side by side so that they form one larger matrix. The notations G(X) and F(X) will indicate factor matrices (G and F) obtained from an individual PMF model of X only, and similarly G(Z) and F(Z) for Z only. The left and right parts of F, when modeling [X Z], are denoted by F[Xz] and F[xZ]. Q(X) and Q(Z) indicate Q values from separate analyzes of X and Z. Similarly, Q[Xz] and Q[xZ] denote Q sums computed over elements of X and over elements of Z in the joint analysis of [X Z]. Hence, Q[X Z] = Q[Xz] + Q[xZ]. Total weight of X means the sum of squares of X_ij/s_ij over X, where s_ij is the uncertainty assumed for X_ij. If both X and Z are equally important, and if X and Z are of different sizes, all s_ij reported for the larger matrix should be increased so that total weights of X and Z become approximately equal. This implies a deviation from the general principle of determining weights from std-dev of values.

RESPONSE: An amended notation as suggested has now been implemented.

Background

Before examining this manuscript in detail, it is necessary to discuss the model that it tries to solve and the problems that make this task difficult. It is known that PMF of combined matrices often leads to disappointing results, such that some factors only (or mainly) fit X while other factors only/mainly fit Z. Such result is worthless in cases where X and Z are caused by the same emission sources whose emission profiles should be determined for X and Z. It is important to realize what advantages may be expected from the joint analysis of X and Z. Three Cases are possible: PMF models computed separately for X and for Z may be valid and rotationally unique for (A) both X and Z, (B) one of them (for X, say), or (C) neither one of them.

Case A: If individually computed factors G(X) and G(Z) are practically identical, then a straight-forward joint model is successful for this case. Then $G_{XZ} = G(X) = G(Z)$. If G(X) and G(Z) are significantly different, however, then the joint model will fail, producing too large residual values and hence too large Q. Such result might be caused e.g. by "common-mode errors" (see below) in X and/or in Z.

Case B: Now a joint model should be specified so that total weight (see Notations, above) of betteranalyzed matrix X is significantly higher than total weight of Z. Then X will "drive the model", and G_[X Z] will be approximately equal to G(X). If a reasonable Q[xZ] is obtained, then it indicates that X and Z are compatible, i.e. a joint PMF model is meaningful. Larger Z residuals and larger Q[xZ] would be obtained e.g. if X and Z do not have common sources or if there are common-mode errors. Then the joint PMF model is not meaningful for the chosen number of factors.

Case C: individual PMF models of both X and Z contain rotational ambiguity and/or other problems such as unidentifiable factors or missing factors. In this case, the approach of Case B cannot be used because the obtained ambiguous rotation, based mostly on X, may not be the best rotation for fitting Z. Ideally, equal total weights should be applied on X and Z, hoping that the best rotation for fitting both will be obtained when rotational information from Z is combined with information from X. Experience shows that quite often, such modeling fails. Few, if any, studies have been made about the reasons of such failures. It must be stressed that these failures must not be ascribed to "different units used in X and Z" (see below). As a first remedy, one might inspect the residuals in order to see if common mode errors are visible. Such errors might be corrected by hand, or by using an enhanced PMF model that automatically corrects for common mode errors. One might also inspect individual variables in order to see

if only few variables are causing incompatibility of X and Z. Such variables might be downweighted in order to obtain a better overall model. Of course, one must also consider the possibility that in addition to their joint sources, X and Z may also have one or several unique sources. An enhanced PMF model may be developed for analysing such joint matrices containing common and non-common sources.

Summary of Case C: too little is known about reasons why this case fails. Well documented case studies are needed. Singular value decompositions of G matrices computed for X, Z, and [X Z] may be useful for demonstrating the root of the problem. Reliable remedies may only be suggested when more is known about the reasons for failures in joint PMF modeling.

RESPONSE: An account of cases B and C has been added to the paper.

Common mode errors

Certain problems in measurements will cause so-called "common mode" errors. E.g. an error in air volume control in an aerosol sampler, when measuring sample i, causes that all aerosol concentrations on row i of X will change by the same fractional amount. Such common mode deviation does not contribute to residuals in customary PMF analysis of such aerosol data. Instead, common mode disturbance of sample i will change all elements of row i of matrix G. In a combined matrix, the other part Z is often measured using another instrument. Then Z may have its own common mode errors, different than those of X. In a joint analysis of X and Z, two independent sets of common mode errors will cause increased residuals when factors are common to X and Z. It appears highly probable that such common mode errors are an important

reason for those PMF results where individual factors tend to fit either X or Z but not both. Joint matrices containing different units This ms claims that quantitative PMF modeling of a joint matrix [X Z] is not possible if variables in X and Z are measured in different units, such as mass concentration (expressed in mass/airvolume) and particle number concentration (expressed in particles/airvolume). These claims are based on a widespread misunderstanding, as explained in this section. Customary aerosol PMF models are often scaled so that the sum of all elements in each row of matrix F equals unity. Then factor element F_pj indicates the fraction of species j in profile of source p. With joint matrices containing different units, summation over a row of F is not meaningful. The following workflow should be used instead in order to preserve the quantitative nature of the model: In PMF (or after PMF), scale factors so that the average of each column of G is scaled ("normalized") to unity. Then elements of F have the following quantitative meaning: F pj indicates the average contribution of source p to observations in column j, both for species j in matrix X and for species j in Z. The average total amount of all aerosol species in source p is obtained by summing values F pj over all species j in F[Xz], i.e. in the part of F corresponding to aerosol matrix X. In this way, the customary interpretation of F_pj as fractions of total may be obtained "off-line" after PMF computations by dividing the F_pj values by their sums taken over F[Xz]. The ms also suggests that presence of other variables (Z) in PMF model somehow makes the model non-quantitative or unreliable: ms lines 79-80: there can be no confidence as to whether the sources are apportioned by units of number concentration (1/cm3) or any of the other units used in the auxiliary data. Units may be entirely ignored in PMF modeling if all variables are represented in same units. If different units are present in different columns of matrix X, then the following practice is followed: elements of factor matrix G are pure numbers. Elements in column j of factor matrix F carry the same dimension and unit as column j of data matrix X. In the present case, all elements of left part F[Xz] of factor matrix F will be in mass/airvolume (same as X) while all elements of the right part F[xZ] are in units of number concentration (1/cm3) (same as Z). There is no confusion regarding dimensions or units.

Disturbance of quantitative modeling of X by "other variables" in Z may only be present if Z variables make the fit of X extremely poor, so that Q[Xz] increases to unacceptable levels in comparison to the original Q(X). This can be seen from Eq. (1) which defines PMF model: all values in column j of X are fitted using F factor elements from column j of F only. The "other columns" in F, corresponding to "other variables" in Z, do not enter in the fit of any X variables. If Q[Xz] remains normal, model of X remains quantitative even when Z is introduced in modeling. However, if introduction of Z requires that number of factors must be increased, then the two models are different. Then rotational uniqueness and interpretatability of the joint model of [X Z] may well be better or worse in comparison to the original model of X only. On the other hand, G(X) and G[X Z] may appear significantly different even when all Q values are normal. In this sense, including Z may interfere with the fit of X although the new fit of X remains as quantitative (or better) than the original fit of X. Such effect depends on rotational ambiguity of the original PMF fit of X: when Z is introduced, it may "rotate" a rotationally ambiguous model of X so that Z obtains a better fit while Q[Xz] does not increase from Q(X) or increases a little. Such rotation may only occurr if the original model of X is rotationally ambiguous, "non-quantitative". If such ambiguity is not understood by the scientist, it might appear that introduction of other variables "harms" the original model. In contrast, however, modifying the original model of X by a rotation is what is desired when using the joint model: both X and Z should be fitted as well as possible. This effect does not harm the quantitative nature of the model, as long as Q value of X does not grow too much. Summary of this section: if Q computed over X elements increases significantly when modeling [X Z] instead of X, this indicates that X and Z are not compatible (when assuming this number of factors). Then analysis of [X Z] should be rejected. In all other cases, the joint model of X is equally good or better than the original model of X. If original model is rotationally ambiguous, then factors usually change: G[X Z] is different from G(X) and similarly F[Xz] is different from F(X). These new factors fit X as well as the original factors, thus they are as quantitative as the original factors. The rotation of these new factors takes into account information from matrix Z. In some cases, the new factors are rotationally unique, without any ambiguity. More often, the ambiguity of new factors is less than the original ambiguity.

RESPONSE: This fullsome explanation is very valuable, and aspects of this background relevant to our paper have been added to the manuscript.

Discussion of the manuscript

This manuscript suffers badly from almost complete avoidance of equations and mathematical symbols and mathematical notation in general. Also, there are serious problems in the few equations that are present. A more compact and easier to read presentation is obtained if mathematical notation is used as the primary means of communication. It is possible that part of my criticism in this review is simply based on misunderstanding unclear and/or ambiguous verbal explanations of mathematical concepts. **RESPONSE:** We have addressed this by a new, more mathematical description of our methods.

The ideal of scientific work is repeatability. This ms does not provide facts that might enable repeatability, even in principle. E.g., I could not find dimensions of data matrices or obtained Q values. **RESPONSE:** Dimensions have been added.

How were NSD data preprocessed before PMF computations? Using averages or medians? How were outliers handled? How many factors were used in each case? And so on. **RESPONSE:** This information has been added together with a reference to a report provided by the data provider, NPL.

The basic assumption of factor analytic modeling is that for each source, chemical profile and size distribution stay constant throughout the measurement campaign. On the other hand, it is well known that whenever nucleation happens, aerosol size distributions do vary. Also, largest particles tend to settle down more during longer transit times. In this work, constancy of size distributions was silently assumed. It might be good to discuss this fundamental question in future versions of this work.

RESPONSE: Point taken. This is something that we have mentioned in previous papers with reference to the assumption that the profile of the sources does not change between emission and arrival at the receptor site.

Two-stage PMF model vs. customary PMF model In the present ms, the goal was to determine the size distributions corresponding to the previously determined aerosol composition sources. It was assumed (on what grounds?) that the rotation of the original PMF result was correct, so that the originally obtained G matrix was deemed suitable for the PMF model of NSD matrix Z.

RESPONSE: We clarify the assumption that we were satisfied with the solution from the first analysis referring the reader to Beddows et al. (2015). This solution gave the best solution/rotation (agreed with all the authors during the work) to describe the urban atmosphere measured at the NK site. There are details in Beddows et al. (2015) justifying this.

In other words, it was desired that X "drive" the modeling of [X Z]. Essentially, this method corresponded to Case B, discussed above. Apparently, the authors were unaware of the one-stage method suggested for Case B.

RESPONSE: We were aware of this method but avoided it in view of having a united G factor which would not be possible with a joint matrix [X Z].

In hindsight, the best approach might have been to follow both Case B and Case C, especially if there was no positive information confirming that the original PMF model of X was rotationally unique and correct. An enhanced version of the ms should briefly discuss the one-stage possibilities of doing this work according to Case B and/or Case C.

RESPONSE: We have added two sections which describe Case B and case C.

The one-stage method, with suitably weighted X and Z, would be easier to explain and much easier to understand. However, it is not reasonable to expect that the work be redone using the one-stage approach. I understand step 2 so that the computed G factors from step 2 were forced to be practically identical to G factors from step 1. Is this right?

RESPONSE: Yes, this is correct.

If this is right, then step 2 appears to be equivalent to non-negative weighted regression (non-negative weighted linear least squares fit) of matrix Z by columns of matrix G. This should be mentioned. **RESPONSE:** We have now mentioned this.

There are easy-to-use computer programs for computing such LS fits. Although PMF may also be used for this fit, using simpler tools would make the process more transparent, so avoiding unnecessary complications. Equations for defining the hidden factor should be given. The verbal definition is hard to understand and I did not manage to understand it.

RESPONSE: We hope that the clarification of the description and mathematics will mean that this is now expressed clearly.

The hidden factor, aka Nucleation factor

It is a good idea to assume that due to its higher time resolution, the NSD matrix Z may contain factors that are not visible in matrix X of chemical profiles. Unfortunately, the method for defining the hidden factor(s) in Z is questionable. First of all, why did you assume that there is only one hidden factor? **RESPONSE:** The hidden factor was revealed as the intercept in the regression of the NSD values against the G1...G6 timeseries, after which, we then looked for it in the PMF analysis. Furthermore, from the results of Beddows et al. (2015) (for which optimum solutions were derived without factor splitting), we did not anticipate another factor to be present above 7 factors (see the Venn diagram shown in Figure 1) and this constrained our search to 7 factors, i.e. we had accounted for all of the factors in Beddows et al. (2015) and saw no need to go higher.

It seems that in stage 2, 6 factors were used. This is not defined (why not) but this is how I understand the ms. Why did you not use in 2nd stage PMF a 7th (and maybe an 8th) factor that may only fit the NSD part of the data matrix? This simple arrangement would determine hidden factor(s) avoiding the bias that non-negativity constraints may introduce in your method (see below). This alternative must be mentioned in a future version of the paper.

RESPONSE: We have clarified this. We initially used 6 and then 7 to find the nucleation factor and only went to 7 factors because of the response given to the previous point, i.e. we only looked for those factors in Beddows et al. (2015).

The second Equation (3) is incorrectly formulated. Symbol j is used as a summation index on the right side. Then it cannot appear on the left side. There is a symbol "x". It is not defined, what does it mean? The text says: "The Cran R package NonLinear Minimization (nlm) (R Core Team, 2018) was used to minimise equation 3." You must not say "minimize equation". You must specify the expression that is minimized, and also specify the free variable(s) that are varied in order to minimize. I cannot understand the expression to minimize nor the free variables. For this reason, I cannot comment more on determining the hidden factor. Maybe it is properly determined, maybe not. This part of the work is certainly not reproducible by others. **RESPONSE:** This equation has been correctly formulated and numbered.

Bias: It seems that the second Equation (3) is not applied to all data because of nonnegativity constraints (however, there seems to be an error in the constraints, it is impossible to guess what was really intended). When some data are excluded, this creates a bias. It is impossible to know from the outside if this bias was negligible or if it distorted the results. The bias question must be documented.

RESPONSE: No data has been excluded. All data was fitted with non-negative constraints.

Miscellaneous

Lines 415-417 in Conclusion: "This generates confidence that the NSD and PM10 factors ascribed to one source are in fact attributable to that same source." This is a very important statement, good! There are two equations numbered (3). This caused a LOT of trouble when trying to understand the discussion of the "hidden profile" a.k.a. "nucleation profile". The first Equation 3 does not appear correctly on my computer. Possibly, it uses a symbol font that is not present on my computer so that one symbol is not visible. There is also another problem in this equation: symbol "a" is used as summation index, and symbol "a" appears also on left side. A summation index cannot be present on left side. Please check your equations before

submitting new versions of the ms. Make sure that the .pdf file contains all non-standard fonts that are used e.g. in equations.

RESPONSE: Changes made to clarify this matter.

The presentation should be helpful for the reader. The symbols used in text and in equations should be defined. Example: in first Eq. (3), there is symbol j. What does it mean? Is it the index of size bin? Why not help the reader and say so? In second Eq. (3), there is again a symbol j. What is it now? Please update the ms so that symbols are used in a systematic way, in order to help the reader. The following method is recommended in order to avoid confusion with symbols: **RESPONSE:** Changes made to provide clarity.

For your own use, create a table where each symbol, however trivial, is entered. When needing more symbols, check first with the table if the symbol is already reserved for another use. When you are ready, include short definitions from the table into the ms, either in a table of notation or to the location of first use of each symbol. Use customary matrix element notation whenever possible. In this way, you could avoid using scalar "a" first as an index and then vector a_j as a vector of unknowns. **RESPONSE:** This system has been adopted in the interests of clarity.

Description of the linear regression model (section 2.4) is strange. I have never seen that the coefficients are called "gradients". Also, correlations should not be mentioned when discussing linear least squares. It would be best to simply show the equation. I recommend that explanation of regression be omitted, except that the equation, using matrix element notation, should be shown. **RESPONSE:** Changes made as recommended.

Figure 6 is unclear. What is illustrated by the bivariate plots? Figure caption only tells that they are bivariate plots, plotted using the Openair program. Instead of naming the plotting program, it would be more important to define what is plotted vs. what, and what are the dimensions in individual diagrams. After working with the ms for a long time, I tend to guess that the "bivariate plots" might represent NSD concentrations in polar plots of wind direction and wind speed. Why did you not say this? Saving one sentence from the ms may cost hours for your new readers.

RESPONSE: A description of the Bivariate plots is given as an added section and the details requested added in the figure legend.

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8	RECEPTOR MODELLING OF BOTH PARTICLE COMPOSITION
9	AND SIZE DISTRIBUTION FROM A BACKGROUND SITE IN
10	LONDON, UK – THE TWO STEP APPROACH
10	
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28 ABSTRACT

29 Some air pollution datasets contain multiple variables with a range of measurement units, 30 and combined analysis by Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) is can be- problematic, but 31 can offer benefits from the greater information content. In this work, a novel method is devised and the source apportionment of a mixed unit data set (PM10 mass and Number 32 33 Size Distribution NSD) is achieved using a novel two-step approach to PMF. In the first step the PM₁₀ data is PMF analysed using a source apportionment approach in order to provide 34 a solution which best describes the environment and conditions considered. The time series 35 G values (and errors) of the PM₁₀ solution are then taken forward into the second step where 36 they are combined with the NSD data and analysed in a second PMF analysis. This results 37 38 in apportioned NSD data associated with the apportioned PM₁₀ factors. We exemplify this 39 approach using data reported in the study of Beddows et al. (2015), producing one solution which unifies the two separate solutions for PM₁₀ and NSD data datasets together. We also 40 show how regression of the NSD size bins and the G time series can be used to elaborate 41 the solution by identifying NSD factors (such as nucleation) not influencing the PM₁₀ mass. 42

43 **Keywords:** PM₁₀; London; PMF; source apportionment; receptor modelling

44

45 **1. INTRODUCTION**

It is unquestionable that worldwide, the scientific vista of air quality is expanding; whether it is the increasing number of observatories or the refinement of information mined from the increasing sophistication of measurements often incorporated in campaign work. The number of metrics being measured has increased from simple measurements of PM mass and gas concentrations, and we can now probe the composition of the PM mass and the size distributions with mass spectrometers, mobility analysers and optical devices.

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53 Studies using PMF as a tool for source apportionment of particle mass using 54 multicomponent chemical analysis data are published almost dailyfrequently using datasets 55 from around the world. <u>However, they do not always provide consistent outcomes (Pant</u> 56 and Harrison, 2012), and one means by which source resolution and identification can be 57 improved is by inclusion of auxiliary data, such as gaseous pollutants (Thimmaiah et al., 58 2009), particle number count (Masiol et al., 2017) or particle size distribution (Beddows et 59 al., 2015; Ogulei et al., 2006; Leoni et al., 2018).

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Harrison et al. (2011), analysed NSD data (merged SMPS and APS data) with PMF using 61 62 auxiliary data (meteorology, gas concentration, traffic counts and speed). The study used 63 particle size distribution data collected at the Marylebone Road supersite in London in the 64 autumn of 2007 and put forward a 10 factor solution comprised of roadside and background particle source factors. Sowlat et al., 2016 carried out a similar analysis on number size 65 66 distribution (13nm - 10µm) data combined with several auxiliary variables collected in Los Angeles. These included BC, EC/OC, PM mass, gaseous pollutants, meteorological, and 67 traffic flow data. A six-factor solution was chosen comprising of: nucleation, 2 x traffic, an 68 urban background aerosol, a secondary aerosol and a soil factor. The two traffic sources 69 70 madecontributed up to above 60% of the total number concentrations combined. Nucleation

was also observed as a major factor (17%). Urban background aerosol, secondary aerosol, 71 72 and soil, with relative contributions of approximately 12, 2.1, and 1.1%, respectively, overall accounted for approximately 15% of PM number concentrations, although, these factors 73 74 dominated the PM volume and mass concentrations, due mainly to their larger mode 75 diameters. Chan et al. (2011) considered extracting more source information from an 76 aerosol composition dataset by including data on other air pollutants and wind data in the 77 analysis of a small but comprehensive dataset from a 24-hourly sampling programme 78 carried out during June 2001 in an industrial area in Brisbane. They chose multiple types of 79 composition data (aerosols, VOCs and major gaseous pollutants) and wind data in source 80 apportionment of air pollutants and found it to result in better defined source factors and 81 better fit diagnostics, compared to when non-combined data were used. Likewise, Wang et 82 al. (2017) report an improvement in source profiles when coupling the PMF model with ¹⁴C 83 data to constrain the PMF run as a priori information.

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85 However, while combining, for example, particle chemical composition and size distribution 86 data in a single PMF analysis may assist source resolution, it does not allow difficulties arise if the two datasets have different and/or ambiguous rotations (discussed in sSection 2). This 87 88 tends to result in factors with either mass contributions and small number contributions or 89 number contributions and small mass contributions and rarely a meaningful contribution 90 from both data types. quantitative attribution of either particle mass or particle number to the 91 source factors. Experimental design can of course circumnavigate this problem, for 92 instance, using -chemical data which is already size segregated, measured using a cascade 93 impactor (Contini et al., 2014). Such an approach is attractive by view of the fact that there 94 is no question as to whether both data-sets sufficiently overlap across the size bins. 95 However, impact cascaders impactors do not don't necessarily enjoyoffer the high time 96 resolution of particle counting instruments, with individual measurements lasting hours or 97 days. Even so, for the case where two or more instruments are available in a campaign to 98 measure two or more different metrics, e.g. PM mass and particle number and (PN), then 99 thea prescribed methodcombined data analysis is useful. Furthermore, Emami and Hopke 100 (2017) haves showned that the effect of adding variables as auxiliary data (with potentially 101 different units) to a NSD data set is to decrease the rotational ambiguity of a solution from a 102 <u>1-step PMF analysis.</u>

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104 Comero et al. (2009) alluded to the problem of including more than one metric with different 105 units when citing Hopke (1991). In order to obtain a physically realistic PMF solution some natural constraints must be satisfied, one being, "Only for chemical elements or compounds, 106 107 where the unit of measurement are the same, the sum of the predicted elemental mass 108 contributions for each source must be less than or equal to total measured mass for each 109 element; the whole is greater than or equal to the sum of its parts (only in the case of 110 chemical elements or compounds)". This underlies the necessity to have a consistency of 111 units throughout the input dataset in order to make a quantified apportionment. To exemplify 112 this point, in

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The potential for an improved factor solution obtained by mixing data types in PMF provides a motivation in the community to develop a methodology which can overcome the aforementioned difficulties. In this study, we present—such a method for analysing simultaneously collected PM₁₀ composition and NSD data. In the work of Beddows et al. (2015), both particle composition and number size distribution (NSD) data from a background site in London (2011 and 2012) was analysed using Positive Matrix Factorization. As part of the methodology development, it was concluded that it was

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preferable not to combine these two data types in the a single analysis but to conduct 121 separate PMF analyses for PM₁₀ mass and particle number. This yielded a 6 factor solution 122 for the PM₁₀ data (Diffuse Urban; Marine; Secondary; Non-Exhaust Traffic/Crustal 123 124 (NET/Crustal)); Fuel Oil; and Traffic. Factors described as Diffuse Urban; Secondary; and 125 Traffic were identified in the 4 factor solution for the NSD data, together with a. A further 126 factor was the Nucleation factor not seen in the PM₁₀ mass data analysis (see Figure 1). 127 When combining the PM₁₀ and NSD data in a single PMF analysis, Diffuse Urban; 128 Nucleation; Secondary; Aged Marine and Traffic Factors were identified but the factors were not as clearly separated from each other as the factors derived from the separate datasets. 129 130 For example, Fuel Oil was now mixed in with Marine and called Aged Marine. This is 131 summarized in Figure 1. However in the analysis, it would still be useful to obtain a number 132 size distribution for each of the 6 PM₁₀ factors and/or a chemical composition for the 4 NSD 133 factors. As a continuation of this work, we present an alternative method of for analysing 134 the combined dataset in a so called, two-step methodology. In the first step, we analyse the 135 mass data (PM₁₀; units: $\mu g/m^3$) according to the methodology of Beddows et al. (2015). This 136 results in a time series factor G which is carried forward into a second PMF analysis of a combined data-set consisting of the G time series and an auxillary data set (egi.e. NSD; 137 138 units: 1/cm³). The first step identifies sources and apportions the G factors to their 139 contribution to mass and in the second step, an FKEY matrix is chosen such that G 'drives' 140 the model and the NSD data 'follow'. This means that we have PM₁₀ factors each of which are is augmented by its number size distribution. Furthermore, we also consider linear 141 142 regression as a second step in a PMF-LR analysis to show that although the initial analysis 143 is biased toward mass by analysing PM₁₀₇ factors only, seen unseen factors influencing the 144 NSD data (e.g. nucleation) can be identified in the data.

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146 **2. EXPERIMENTAL**

With a population of 8.5 million in 2014 (ONS, 2017), the UK city of London is the focus of 147 study in this work where the London North Kensington (NK) Site (LAT = 51°: 31': 15.780" 148 149 N and $LONG = 0^\circ$: 12': 48.571" W) was considered. NK is part of both the London Air Quality Network and the national Automatic Urban and Rural Network and is owned and 150 151 part-funded by the Royal Borough of Kensington and Chelsea. The facility is located within 152 a self contained cabin within the grounds of Sion Manning School. The nearest road, St. 153 Charles Square, is a quiet residential street approximately 5 metres from the monitoring site and the surrounding area is mainly residential. The nearest heavily trafficked roads are the 154 155 B450 (~100 m East) and the very busy A40 (~400 m South). For a detailed overview of the air pollution climate at North Kensington, the reader is referred to Bigi and Harrison (2010). 156

157

158 **2.1 Data**

159 For this study As alluded to, this work is a continuation of the study carried out by Beddows et al (2015), which analysised chemical NSD and PM10 chemical composition data were 160 collected at the London NK receptor site. the same datasets considered, and PMF analysis 161 162 outputs generated, by Beddows et al. (2015) were used. For this, 24h air samples were taken daily over a two year period (2011 and 2012) using a Thermo Partisol 2025 sampler 163 fitted with a PM₁₀ size selective inlet, and alongside, _Number Size Distribution (NSD) data 164 165 were collected continuously every ^{1/4} hour15 min using a Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS) consisting of a CPC (TSI model 3775) combined with an electrostatic classifier (TSI 166 model 3080) and air dried according to the EUSAAR protocol (Wiedensohler et al., 2012). 167 168 The particle sizes covered were 51 size bins ranging from 16.55 nm to 604.3 nm and the 15 min distributions were aggregated up to hourly samples averages (where there were at least 169 170 3 x 15 min samples per hour) and all missing values were replaced using a value calculated using the method of Polissar et al. (1998). Further details of the SMPS settings are given in
 Table S1 and - Analysis of this data resulted in PMF source profiles F and source time series

173 G of the PM₁₀ and NSD data sets which were carried forward into this work. Further details

174 of the data, collection methods, coverage and first analysis are given in Beddows et al.

175 (2015) the reader is also referred to Becceaceci et al. (2013-a,b) for an extensive

176 <u>studyaccount of how the NSD data was collected and quality assured</u>.

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178 Accompanying the NSD data from the study of Beddows et al. (2015) was the PMF output 179 from the analysis of Analysis of this data resulted in PMF source profiles F and source time 180 series G of the PM₁₀ chemical PM₁₀ composition data. PM₁₀ and NSD data sets which were carried_forward into this work._ The latter data consisted of 24h air samples taken daily over 181 182 a 2-year period (2011 and 2012) using a Thermo Partisol 2025 sampler fitted with a PM₁₀ 183 size selective inlet. These filters were analysed for total metals PM_{metals} (Al, Ba, Ca, Cd, Cr, 184 Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mo, Na, Ni, Pb, Sn, Sb, Sr, V, and Zn), using a Perkin Elmer/Sciex ELAN 185 6100DRC following HF acid digestion of GN-4 Metricel membrane filters. Similarly, wWatersoluble ions PM_{ions} (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻) were measured using a 186 187 near-real-time URG-9000B (hereafter URG) ambient ion monitor (URG Corp). The data 188 capture over the 2 years ranged from 48 to 100% as different sampling instruments varied 189 in reliability. TheseData gaps were filled by measurements made on daily PM₁₀ filter 190 samples collected continuously at this site using a Partisol 2025; laboratory-based ion 191 chromatography measurements were made for anions on Tissuguartz ™2500 QAT-UP 192 filters) . No cation measurements were available from these filters, and this resulted in thea 193 lower data capture for the cations. But a Again, all missing data were replaced using a value 194 calculated using the method of Polissar et al. (1998). A woodsmoke metric, CWOD, was 195 also included. This was derived as PM Woodsmoke from the methodology of Sandradewi 196 et al. (2008) utilising Aethalometer and EC/OC data, as described in Fuller et al. (2014). 197 Samples were also collected using a Partisol 2025 with a PM₁₀ size selective inlet and 198 concentrations of elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC) were measured by 199 collection on quartz filters (Tissuquartz ™ 2500 QAT-UP) and analysis using a Sunset 200 Laboratory thermal-optical analyser according to the QUARTZ protocol (which gives results 201 very similar to EUSAAR 2: Cavalli et al., 2010) (NPL, 2013). We refer to CWOD, EC and 202 OC as PM_{carbon}. In addition, particle mass was determined on samples collected on Teflon-203 coated glass fibre filters (TX40HI20WW) with a Partisol sampler and PM₁₀ size-selective 204 inlet.

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206 This aforementioned PM₁₀ data was represented in this work as the PMF solution for PM₁₀-207 only data, derived in Beddows et al. (2015) and consisting of 6 sources, namely: Diffuse 208 Urban; Marine; Secondary; Non-Exhaust; Traffic/Crustal; Fuel Oil; and Traffic. The Diffuse 209 Urban factor had a chemical profile indicative of contributions mainly from both woodsmoke 210 (CWOD) and road traffic (Ba, Cu, Fe, Zn). The Marine factor explained much of the variation in the data for Na, Cl⁻ and Mg²⁺, and the sSecondary factor was identified from a strong 211 association with NH4⁺, NO3⁻, SO4²⁻ and organic carbon. For the **t**Traffic emissions, the PM 212 213 did not simply reflect tailpipe emissions, as it also included contributions from non-exhaust 214 sources, i.e. resuspension of road dust and primary PM emissions from brake, clutch and tyre wear. The nNon-eExhaust tTraffic/eCrustal factor explained a high proportion of the 215 variation in the AI, Ca²⁺ and Ti measurements consistent with particles derived from crustal 216 217 material, derived either from wind-blown or vehicle-induced resuspension. There was also 218 a significant explanation of the variation in elements such as Zn, Pb, Mn, Fe, Cu and Ba, 219 which had a strong association with non-exhaust traffic emissions. As there was a strong contribution of crustal material to particles resuspended from traffic this likely reflected the 220

 with significant SO₄². This output comprised the first-step solution in the 2-step analysis PM₁₀ and NSD data and in this study we concentrate on the analysis of the NSD data in the second PMF step with the aim of assigning a NSD to each of the 6 PM₁₀ factors. 2.2 Proxy Data As alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements conthe the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impact which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned ant aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PN₀₀) which is smaller than the rare covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀; Besides the The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and tThe PM₀₀ mass is calculated by equation 3 1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be deriving using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settinger 	221	presence of particulate matter from resuspension and traffic-polluted soils. The last factor
 PM₁₀ and NSD data and in this study we concentrate on the analysis of the NSD data in the second PMF step with the aim of assigning a NSD to each of the 6 PM₁₀ factors. 2.2 2.2 2.2 Proxy Data As alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements contract the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impact which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned and aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PN_{0.9}) which is smaller than the rance covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀. Besides the The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and tThe PM_{0.9} missing is calculated by equation 3.1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derivating the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be and was used estimate a PM_{0.96} value using equation 1_x.	222	was attributed to fFuel oOil, characterised by a strong association with V and Ni together
225 second PMF step with the aim of assigning a NSD to each of the 6 PM₁₀ factors. 226 2.2 Proxy Data 228 As alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements core 229 the the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impact 230 which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned and 231 aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PN₀.e) which is smaller than the rance 232 covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀. 233 234 235 Besides the The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and tThe PM₀.e mass 236 is calculated by equation 3 1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derived using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings 238 particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be <u>and was</u> used 239 estimate a PM₀.ge value using equation 1 _x .	223	with significant SO ₄ ²⁻ . This output comprised the first-step solution in the 2-step analysis of
226 227 2.2 — Proxy Data 228 Ac alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements condition the the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impact which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned and acrodynamic particle sizes 0.10 — 0.88 μm (i.e. PNo.0) which is smaller than the rand covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 μm, i.e. PMuor. 231 Besides the The value of PM10 is given by the measured PM10 mass, and tThe PM0.9 mm2 is calculated by equation 3 1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derived using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be <u>and was</u> used estimate a PM0.20 value using equation 1 _x .	224	PM ₁₀ and NSD data and in this study we concentrate on the analysis of the NSD data in the
 227 2.2 Proxy Data As alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements contribute the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impact which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned and aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PNo.s) which is smaller than the rane sovered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁os Besides the The value of PM₁o is given by the measured PM₁o mass, and tThe PMo.s may is calculated by equation 3 1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derived using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PMo.go value using equation 1_x. 	225	second PMF step with the aim of assigning a NSD to each of the 6 PM ₁₀ factors.
As alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements cor the the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impace which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned an aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PNo.9) which is smaller than the rar covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM ₁₀ ; Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and tThe PM_{0.9} me is calculated by equation 3 <u>1</u> from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be deriv using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PMo.<u>8</u> value using equation 1_x.</u>	l 226	
the the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impact which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned and aerodynamic particle sizes $0.10 - 0.88 \mu m$ (i.e. $PN_{0.9}$) which is smaller than the rank covered by the particulate mass, $\leq 10 \mu m$, i.e. PM_{10} .	227	2.2 Proxy Data
 which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned and aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PN_{0.9}) which is smaller than the rar covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀. Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and tThe PM_{0.9} mass is calculated by equation 3 1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derived using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PM_{0.90} value using equation 1 x⁻.</u> 	228	As alluded to in the introduction, experimental design can ensure that measurements cover
 aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 - 0.88 µm (i.e. PN₀.₀) which is smaller than the rar covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀. covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀. Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass</u>, and t<u>The PM₀.₀ mass</u> is calculated by equation 3 <u>1</u> from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be deriv using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PM₀.ge value using equation 1_{x¹} 	229	the the same particle size range by using a single instrument such as a cascade impactor
$\frac{1}{232} = \frac{1}{232} = \frac{1}$	230	which gives size and mass information. However for our case, the NSD spanned anthe
 Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and t<u>T</u>he PM_{0.9} mass</u> Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and t<u>T</u>he PM_{0.9} mass</u> is calculated by equation <u>3 1</u> from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derived using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PM_{0.96} value using equation 1_x. 	231	aerodynamic particle sizes 0.10 – 0.88 μ m (i.e. PN _{0.9}) which is smaller than the range
Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀-mass, and tThe PM_{0.9} mass is calculated by equation 3 <u>1</u> from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derive using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PM_{0.96} value using equation 1_x.</u>	232	<u>covered by the particulate mass, ≤10 µm, i.e. PM₁₀.</u>
Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and t<u>T</u>he PM_{0.9} mass is calculated by equation 3 <u>1</u> from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derive using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PM_{0.96} value using equation 1_{x}.</u>	233	
Besides the <u>The value of PM₁₀ is given by the measured PM₁₀ mass, and t<u>T</u>he PM_{0.9} mass is calculated by equation 3 <u>1</u> from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derive using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be<u>and was</u> used estimate a PM_{0.96} value using equation 1_{x}.</u>	234	
is calculated by equation $3 \underline{1}$ from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be deriv using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be <u>and was</u> used estimate a PM _{0.96} value using equation 1_{1} .	234	
using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be <u>and was</u> used estimate a $PM_{0.96}$ value using equation 1 ₁ .	235	Besides the The value of PM10 is given by the measured PM10 mass, and tThe PM0.9 mass
particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can be <u>and was</u> used estimate a PM _{0.96} value using equation 1_{1} .	236	is calculated by equation 3 1 from the NSD assuming estimates of PM mass can be derived
239 estimate a PM _{0.96} value using equation 1_{1} .	237	using the NSD assuming sphericial particles of a fixed density. For the SMPS settings, a
	238	particle size range between 16 and 604 nm is collected which can beand was used to
$PM_{0.96} = \rho_{eff \times} \frac{\pi}{6} \sum_{sizeBins} d^{\frac{3}{2}}$	239	estimate a PM _{0.26} value using equation 1_{1} .
		$PM_{0.96} = \rho_{eff} \times \frac{\pi}{6} \sum_{sizeBins} d^3 $ (3)

<u>wWhere ρ_{eff} is set to 2 g/cm³ (for the whole time series and across all size bins)</u> for a Diffuse
 Urban background (based <u>taken as the rounded midpoint of the range</u>upon 1.8-2.5 g/cm³

for an urban background aerosol; Beddows et al., 2010). <u>Due to the approximations used</u> in this proxy variable, a large uncertainty was applied to it in the PMF analysis so not to affect the result.

246

247	Figure S1 plots the total apportioned PM10 mass against the PM0.96 estimates and shows
l 248	that although the SMPS does not account for the whole mass, it does track with the total
249	PM, with a fitted gradient of 0.635, i.e. accounting for 635% of the mass. To account for the
250	particles greater than 600 nm in the PMF analysis, a proxy was used created by using the
251	difference between the total daily apportioned PM mass in the step 1 of the PMF analysis
252	and the mass estimated from the SMPS data. This difference was then converted back into
253	a number and added to the NSD matrix of counts as PN0.6-10 to improve the match of the
254	NSD matrix to the PM10. This was appended as a column in to the input matrix of the PMF
255	analysis with uncertainties taken as the 4 x $PN_{1.0-10i}$ so not overly influence the analysis.
256	With the considertation of future measurements where this method wasis to be applied, an
257	improved result might be possible if PM _{1.0} was used in preference to PM ₁₀ in order to give a
258	better match between the size ranges of the mass and number data, if only, to close any
259	uncertainty over the the issue. Another alternative is simply to include an APS in the
260	measurements and merge the APS data to the SMPS data as in Beddows et al. (2010).
261	This would provide a complete overlap between the NSD and PM ₁₀ data.

l 262

263 2.3-2 Methods

264 2.3<u>2</u>.1 PMF

Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) is a well-established multivariate data analysis method
used in the field of aerosol science. PMF can be described as a least-squares formulation

11

of factor analysis developed by Paatero (Paatero and Tapper, 1994). It assumes that the ambient aerosol concentration *X* (represented by $n \times m$ matrix of *n* observations and $m PM_{10}$ constituents or NSD size bins), measured at one or more sites, can be explained by the product of a source profile matrix *F* and source contribution matrix *G* whose elements are given by equation 41:

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} g_{ik} \cdot f_{kj} + e_{ij} \qquad i=1...n; \ j=1...m$$
(4)
(1)

where the j^{th} PM constituent (element, size bin, or auxiliary measurement) on the i^{th} observation (i.e. hour) is represented by x_{ij} . The term g_{ik} is the contribution of the k^{th} factor to the receptor on the i^{th} hour, f_{kj} is the fraction of the j^{th} PM constituent in the k^{th} factor, and e_{ij} is the residual for the j^{th} measurement on the i^{th} hour. The residuals (i.e. difference between measured and reconstructed concentrations) are accounted for in matrix *E* and the two matrices *G* and *F* are obtained by an iterative algorithm which minimises the object function Q (see equation 52).

279

Given, Using the data and uncertainty to-matrices for the model, equation 4-1 is optimised in
 the PMF2 algorithm by minimising the Q value (equation 22),

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left(\frac{e_{ij}}{s_{ij}} \right)^{2}$$
(5)

282

where s_{ij} is the uncertainty in the *j*th measurement for hour *i*. <u>All analyses were carried out</u>
 in Robust model which reduces the impact of outliers (Paatero, 2002).

286 It may be seen from equation (2) that PMF is a weighted technique; and the value of Q. and hence the model fit, is determined by the input variables with the lowest values of 287 288 uncertainty, $S_{s_{ij}}$, thus giving their variables a higher weighting in the analysis. Input 289 variables with low weight high uncertainty have little effect upon the value of Q, even when 290 their residuals are large. This can be used to the advantage of the operator, e.g. when -291 When apportioning total PM mass in a conventional one-stepstage PMF, the total PM 292 concentrations are normally input with artificially high uncertainty, so that they are essentially 293 passive in the PMF analysis and do not influence its outcome. By doing so, the chemical composition data determine the apportionment of PM mass to the source-related factors 294 295 identified by the PMF. A similar approach can be followed in the PMF analysis of a combined 296 data-set where higher weightings can be applied to the main data-set of interest such that it 297 "drives" the analysis and the auxillary data set "follows", i.e. the uncertainties are chosen 298 such that the balance of total weights from the two data sets is tipped towards the 299 measurement of interest and highest reliabilitivy in regards toof rotational unabiguity. In this 300 work, the primary aim was to define a particle size distribution associated with each factor 801 derived from the PMF of PM₁₀ composition. Consequently, in the second stage of the PMF, large uncertainties were input for the particle number data, combined with realistic 802 803 uncertainties for the PM G-values, so that the latter determine the outcome of ("drive") the PMF analysis. 304

305

To assess the PMF modael, the In this work, the Q value is outputted by PMF2 and compared to a theoretical value Q_{theory} which is approximately the difference between the product of the dimensions of X and the product of the number of factors and the sum of dimensions of X (i.e. n x m – p(n + m)) pk x m. For a given number of factors, the whole uncertainty matrix is scaled by a factor X_{scale} until the ratio between Q and Q_{theory} is $\beta 11$ approximately one (rQ value = Q/Q_{theory} = $\approx 1 \pm 0.02$).

- 312
- With regards to the final output from PMF, a scaling has to be applied in order to achieve quantitative results. This is done by scalining either G or F to unity such that the units from X are carried over to either F or G respectively to complete the apportionment. However, different routes have to be considered depending on whether X has homogenieous or heterogenieous units.
- 318
- 319 2.32.2 1-Step method using data from the same instrumentin the same units -320 <u>Hhomogeneous units</u> 321 Given a PMF input data matrix X, a solution GF + E can be computed where G represents 322 the time series of the source profiles F, with a residual matrix E. Often X comprises of 323 columns of PM₁₀ composition values component concentrations (e.g. ICPMS values measured from quartz filters acid-digested filters collected with a Partisol 2025) and it is 324 325 common practice to also include a Total \forall variable (e.g. column of PM₁₀, measured using a 326 TEOM) in the data matrix. The resulting PM₁₀ profile element value can then be used to 827 scale G and F such that G carries the units of X with F unit-less. Note that neither G or F is 328 scaled to unity in thies approach. Instead, scaling is done after the analysis using a constant a_k , determined by the time series of a Total \forall variable (e.g. PM₁₀), down weighted by a factor 329 830 of 4 applying a high uncertainty, within the input data. 831

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} (a_k g_{ik}) \left(\frac{f_{kj}}{a_{zk}}\right) \tag{63}$$

332

333	The resulting value for the PM ₁₀ contribution for each factor within the F matrix is then used
334	as a scaling constant ak in equation 63. Such scaling results in unit-less factors F which
335	describe the characteristics of the sources and time series G with units of µg/m ³ .
336	Apportionment can then be carried out by averaging the G values for each source
337	profilefactor, andor a fully quantified time series of each factor can be presented, e.g. in
338	Bivariate plots. Of course, the G and F can be normalized such that G is unitless and F
339	carries the units; an approach necessary when X contrain contains heterogeneous units.
340	This approach however, requires each column of G to be scaled to unity, by using the PMF
341	setting Mean IGI = 1.

342

845 If the analysis of X was to be enhanced by the inclusion of data from a second instrument 346 with different units, then a different approach to the 1-Step method with Hhomogeneous 847 <u>units would be required to analyse the joint data matrix [X,Z] = G[X,Z] F[X,Z] + E[X,Z]. If the</u> 348 previous method was applied where F was normalized, then it would not be clear what units 349 to assign to G, whether the units from X or Z. To get around this problem, G is scaled to 850 unity. This results in a unit-less time series G and a quantified F matrix. For each source 851 profile the sum of the species associated with either data type gives the average total 852 apportionment, e.g. of PM₁₀ or number concentration PN. Of course, this requires the 853 complete mass or number closure of the elements making up either PM₁₀ or PN respectively, 854 although inclusion of measurements of total PM₁₀ or PN can used instead, if available. 355

- In the ideal case, if the individually computed factors for both data sets result in G(X) and
- G(Z) being identical, then a straight-forward joint model [X,Z] is successful and G[X,Z] =

³⁴³ **2.32.3** 1-Step method using data from different instruments with different units -344 <u>Hh</u>eterogeneous units

358	G(X) = G(Z). However, if $G(X)$ and $G(Z)$ are significantly different then the joint model will
359	fail, identified by a too large Q value. A solution to this problem is to set the total weights of
360	the better dataset X significantly higher than the total weights of the auxiliary data set Z such
361	that X will "drive the model" and G[X,Z] will be approximately equal to G(X) and a reasonable
362	Q value is obtained for the Z. However, care is required to ensure that X or Z do not contain
363	rotational ambiguity because such rotation for X may not be suitable for Z. For such cases,
364	equal total weights for both X and Z are applied in the hope that the best rotation for both X
365	and Z can be found.
366	
367	2.32.4 2-Step method using data from different instruments with different units -
368	<u>Hheterogeneous units</u>
369	The method proposed in this work, separates the analysis of the two data sets X and Z into
370	two different PMF analyses. Dataset X is first analysed and an unambiguous rotation is
371	selected which gives computed factors G(X). These are then carried over into a second
372	PMF step in which G(X) are combined with Z to form a joint matrix for analysis. By using
373	FKEY (described below) factors, G(X,Z) are forced to be equal to G(X) from step 1. So for
374	example, if in the first step we analyse PM_{10} data and carry forward the output G(PM_{10}) into
375	a second step combined with the NSD data, i.e. [G(PM10),NSD] this results in profiles
376	F[G(PM ₁₀),NSD]. In other words, we force out of the NSD data source profiles which have
377	the same G factors as the PM ₁₀ data and extend the list of components of the sources
378	idendtified in the first step and thus improve identificationcharacterisation of the source.
379	Note that this is equivalent to non-negative weighted regression of matrix Z by columns of
380	matrix G for which other tools exist. Furthermore, by using a two step method, we can
381	continue to use the scaling method described in Section 2.32.2 to apportion the sources
382	using a quantified time series G(X) rather than normalising the G(X,Z) matrix sums to 1 and
I	

- relying on the summation of the elements in the rows of F(X,Z) to give the apportionment of
 X and Z.
- 385

886 **2.<u>3.22.5</u>. Application of PMF**

- 387 Positive Matrix Factoriszation was carried out in this work using the DOS based executable 388 file PMF2 v4.2 compiled by Pentti Paatero and released inon Feb 11, 2010 (downloaded from www.helsinki.fi/~paatero/PMF/). This is used by the author as ain preference to a GUI 389 **B90** version of PMF (e.g. US EPA PMF 5.0, Norris et al., 2014)) because of the ease with with it 391 can be encorported incorporated into an Cran R procedure script using shell commands, 392 thus facilitating automation of the analysis and any optimisation. R-script can be written to 393 manipulate and organise input data for PMF2, run PMF2, collect the output and produce the **B**94 necessary output for consideration as text, table or plot. The main strength for this approach 895 is to improve the repeatability and transferaence of a method between practitioners within 396 our group.
- 897

398 The two step method is shown schematically in Figure 2. Matrix X yields factrors ¹G and ¹F **B**99 in the first step. The timeseries ¹G matrix is carried through to the second step where it is 400 combined with an auxiliarity data set Z, to give the a step 2 input matrix [¹G Z]. This in 401 ternturn is analysed to produce factors ²G and ²F. In the current example, it uses the PMF. 402 output of the dataset of Beddows et al. (2015) is used as a starting point matrix X and 403 comprisesassumes that a PMF analysis of the PM₁₀ chemical composition dataset. This 404 yields timeseries ¹G and source profile ¹F and the reader is referred to Beddows et al. (2015) 405 for a description of the analysis and output. Figure 1 shows the output from the first step 406 which was found to be the optimimum solution after considering 3 to 8 factor solutions.

407 (Step One) has already been carried out and dealt with as in the previous study. The 408 normalised timeseries matrix ¹G from this analysis werewas combined with the NSD data -409 concurrently measured with the PM₁₀ data - to form the input matrix [¹GZ], for step 2. In this 410 current work, a second step which takes the output from the first step and uses it as an input 411 for the second step is developed. This is done by using the G1 time series from the PMF 412 analysis of PM₁₀ and combining this with secondary data, (i.e. NSD data). The uncertainties 413 of the 1 G1 matrix, 1 \triangle G are transferred from the output of the first step and entered as input 414 uncertainties for the second step. The hourly NSD data was aggregated into daily 415 samplesvalues to match the daily ¹G factors outputted from the PMF analysis of the daily 416 PM₁₀ data sampled. This reduced the data matrix down to 590 rows by 57 52 columns (1G1...1G6, NSD116nm...NSD51640nm) for which a we have a Qtheory value of 29748 30,916 for 417 418 a 6 factor solution. For the NSD data, the uncertainties are taken as X times the NSD values 419 multiplied by the value of an arbitrary parameter b_{scale} in order to be large and ensure that 420 the PMF is driven by the G1 matrix (see Figure 2). Initially, thisbscale was set to 4 to inorderto 421 ensure that the model was weighted such that it was driven by the PM₁₀ data. However, this 422 operation becomes somewhat redundant by the use of the FKEY matrix discussed in the 423 next section. However, in order to find the optimal NSD uncertainties the The value of X-the 424 <u>parameter b_{scale} (typically, 0.2)</u> was optimised in Cran R so that the ratio of Q/Q_{theory} = 1 ± 425 0.012~1, indicating an relative percentage uncertainty in the region of 20%. In retrospect – 426 by taking into account the decrease in reliability of the size bins counts towards the edges 427 of the size bin range - an improvement would be to gradually increase the uncertainties from 428 5-% in the middle range of sizes over the lower and upper size bins from 5 % uptoto a pre 429 defined larger value, e.g. 50-%,- over the lower and upper size bins. The uncertainties were 430 entered directly into the model using PMF matrix T with U and V redundant.

431

432 <u>Using equation 7 the uncertainies were entered directly into the model using via matrix T</u>
 433 with U and V redundant.

$$s_{ij} = t_{ij} + u_{ij} \sqrt{|x_{ij}|} + v_{ij} |x_{ij}|$$
⁽⁷⁾

434

435 2.3.32.6 FkeyPulling down with GKEY and FKEY

436 GKEY and FKEYkey areis a feature matrices with the same dimensions of as G and F 437 respectively, in for incorporating a priori information into a PMF analysis. They are and is 438 used in the second step of the PMF-PMF analysis. It is used to "pull" elements of the source 439 profiles to zero. This method uses a matrix that GKEY and FKEY indicates the location of 440 suspected zeros in source profiles $\frac{2F}{F}$ or contributions $\frac{2G}{F}$ (Figure S123). Since here it is we 441 are concerned with the profiles, this information is given in the form of integer values in an 442 FKEYkey. The greater the certainty that an element of a source profile is zero, the larger the 443 integer value that is specified. In this case, in the second step, for the input dataset [¹G 444 <u>NSD], -it is certain that only one-unique contribution will be strong for each row of the profile</u> 445 ²F, outputted from the second PMF analysis, <u>PM G score from one of the sources will be</u> 446 strong, e.g. only ¹G1 and not ¹G2.. ¹G6 will contribute the to (¹G1, ²F₁) position in output 447 factor ²F₁. e.g. the traffic source will be the only contributing to the PM G value in the Traffic 448 NSD profile, and likewise for the other sources: Diffuse Urban; Secondary; Marine; Fuel Oil; 449 and NET & Crustal (Figure S123). All 'non-zero' elements within the output of ²F take a 450 FKEY value of zero whereas all elements of ²F which are pulled to zero take an non-zero 451 value of fkey₁. This leads to a FKEY matrix which can be understood in two parts. The first 452 part is a square matrix of dimension equal to the number of columns of ¹G with all its entries 453 equal to $fkey_1$ except for the leading diagonal; this part ensures that ¹G is the same as ²G. The second part of the matrix consist of all the elements areas zero and represents the NSD 454

input data. An *fkey*¹ value of 7 to 9 is considered a medium to strong pull, and in this work, we used a value of 24 which in comparison is very aggressive ensuring only one rotational solution is available ensuring ${}^{1}G \approx {}^{2}G$.

458

459 To extend the analysis from 6 factors to 7 factors an extra row was added to FKEY. This 460 was done in order to investigate any factors missed in the NSD data for which the first 461 analysis using PM₁₀ would not be sensitive to. For example, a nucleation mode would be 462 detected in NSD data but not PM₁₀ data. In order to give the model freedom to factorise out a nucleation factor, the 7th row of of FKEY values consisted {*fkey*₁, *fkey*₂... *fkey*₆, *nsd*₁, *nsd*₂... 463 *nsd*₅₁}. This ensured that all the ²G contributions were allocted to the first 6 factors only 464 leaving the 7th factor to account for the <u>remaining unfactorised NSD data</u>. There is no reason 465 why more than 7 factors could not be used to investigate to see if there are more possible 466 467 un resolved unresolved NSD factors. However, we constrained the scope of our investigation to reidentifying those in Figure 12. 468

469

470 2.4-<u>3</u> Regression

471 The output of the regression of a dependent variable Y regressed against independent 472 variables X1, X2, X3, ... Xn is n gradients and one intercept. When n = 1 it yields a line, 473 when n = 2 it is a fitted plane. But when n > 2 or in this case n = 6, it is a multidimensional 474 fitted model. Each of the n gradients show how Y varies with the n X values given that the 475 other X values are fixed and the intercept provides a bias value. If Y is allowed to take on 476 each value of the NSD size bin and X variables are set to the 6 G time series from the first 477 step of PMF analysis, then it can be seen how the NSD are correlated to the 6 G time series 478 and infer an associated NSD for each of the factors derived in the first step of the PMF-LR 479 analysis.

480

As an alternative <u>to using PMF in the second step</u>, <u>a regression was carried out</u>. <u>E</u>each column <u>of data for each of the 51</u> size bin<u>s</u> *j* within the NSD was regressed agains<u>t</u> the six ${}^{1}G1$ time series using, Equation 834.

$$NSD_j = \alpha_{0,j} + \alpha_{1,j} \, {}^{1}G_1 + \alpha_{2,j} \, {}^{1}G_2 + \dots + \alpha_{6,j} \, {}^{1}G_6 \tag{8}$$

484

485 where α_0 is the population intercept and α_{1-6} are the populations slope coefficients. This 486 results in a 7 by 51 matrix of values. Each column represents a size bin of the NSD data and each row represents the slope coefficients associated with 6 of the factors (giving an 487 488 indication of how each size bin correlates scales with each of the 6 factors) and an intercept. 489 When $\alpha_{1-6,i}$ grad_{a,i}-is plotted against the size bin, 6 plots showing the dependence of each 490 size bin j on each of the 6 PM₁₀ factors are produced. It is also assumed that these (we refer to referred to here as NSD regression source profiles) will be comparable to the actual 491 492 NSD PMF source profile. Similarly, the $\alpha_{0,i}$ int values are expected to give a background value due to, possibly to noise; however, it is more likely to yield a source (such nucleation) 493 494 to which the PM₁₀ mass analysis is insensitive. However, this method can extract 495 information known as a remainder factor, shown later in this paper.

496

497 2.54 Peak Fitting

If it is assumed that the factors derived from the daily NSD data are the same as those present in the hourly data, i.e. the factors are conserved when averaging the data from hourly to daily data before PMF analysis, then daily NSD profiles can be fitted to the hourly NSD spectra to recover a diurnal cycle for the factors. <u>However, it is worth noting that the</u>

process of aggregating hourly data to daily NSD data may indeed cause loss of information implying that minor factors (e.g. due to event episodes) might well be averaged out of the data. Given the *i*th number size distribution, *NSD*_i, the difference *D*_{i,j,k} (equation 3), between the *k*th element and the linear superposition of the *k*th element of the seven factors $f_{j,k}$ is minimised. Given the *j*th size bin in the *i*_{th} number size distribution *NSD*_{i,j} (of dimensions M x N), the factors can be fitted using equation (95).

$$D_i = \sum_{i=1}^{M} d_i \tag{9}{5}$$

508 which is the i_{th} sum D_i of the difference (d_i give by equation 6) across the size bins of the i_{th} 509 <u>NSD</u>_i and the linear superpositionsum of the p factorsNSD source profiles (p = 7 in this case) 510 scaled by with respect to the scalar values c_{k} , representing the timeseries of each fitted NSD 511 source profileas shown by equation 10.

$$d_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \left\{ NSD_{ij} - \sum_{k=0}^{p} c_{ik} \times f_{kj} \right\}, \qquad c_{ik} \ge 0$$

$$1 \times 10^{10}, \qquad c_{ik} < 0$$
(106)

512

The Cran R package Non-Linear Minimization (nlm) (R Core Team, 2018) was used to minimise equation the value of D_i with respect to the scalar values c_{ik} 3. A-with a nonnegative constraint is on c_{ik} placed in the function. If a negative value is returned by any of the $a_{k-\underline{O_k}}$ values then D returns an excessively large value. Furthermore, in order to extract an apportionment to number concentration (1/cm³) the fitted values were scaled using a factor scalar β_{k} . Six Seven values were derived for β_{k} by regressing the total particle number (total hourly SMPS) against each of the fitted values $\underline{O_k}$ (using equation $\underline{119}$). 7.7.

$$PN = \beta_0 + \beta_1 c_1 + \beta_2 c_2 + \dots + \beta_7 c_7$$
(117)

520 <u>The resulting scaled-fitted values were then used to calculate the PN concentration for each</u> 521 <u>of the regression source profiles (equation 12.8)</u> and plotallowing subsequent plotting of the 522 7 diurnal cycles in Figure 5.

$$PN_k = \beta_k c_k \tag{128}$$

523

524 2.65 Bivariate Plot

525 Identification of the sources responsible for the factors outputted from PMF can be assisted 526 by meteorological data. Time series of the kth factor (or gk values) can be plotted against 527 wind direction and wind speed using either the polarPlot or polarAnnulus functions provided 528 in the Openair package. Polar Plots are simply used for plotting the factor contribution on a 529 polar coordinate plot with North, East, South and West axes. Mean concentrations are 530 calculated for wind speed-direction 'bins' (e.g. 0-1, 1-2 m/s,... and 0-10, 10-20 degrees etc.) 531 and smoothed using a generalized additive model. Each bin concentration is plotted as a 532 group of pixels (coloured according to a concentration-colour scale) and positioned a 533 distance away from the origin according to the magnitude of wind speed and along an angle 534 from the North axis according to the wind direction. Such plots are useful when identifying 535 the nature of the source. A backgrounddiffuse source will tend to have its highest 536 concentration yeildshowing as a hotspot at the origin of the polar plot, whereas a point 537 source will cause a hotspot both away from the origin and in the direction pointing towards 538 the source. On the other hand wind blown sources tend to be recognised by their 539 proportionalityrelation to wind speed and hence do not necessarily produce hotspots. 540 Instead, they produce a minimum to maximum gradual gradient of colour from the origin, 541 spreading radially out towards the edge of the plot in the direction of the source, e.g. for a 542 marine source. Likewise, Annulus Plots, plot the mean factor concentration on a colour 543 scale by wind direction and as a function of hour-of-the-day as an annulus, represented by

the distance of the coloured pixels from the origin. The function is good for visualising how
concentrations of pollutants vary by wind direction and hour of the day. For example, for
the North Kensington site – positioned West of the central-city centre – we might well expect
most of the anthropogenic sources (traffic, diffuse urban, etc) to haveshow an Easterly
direction with the appropriate diurnal cycle (e.g. yeilding-rush hour traffic patterns). Similarly,
we might expect cleaner air (Marine, Nucleation, etc) to occur from a Westerly direction and
duringat times of the day when the solar strength is highest.

551

552 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this work has been to show how, given a given PMF result, it can be 553 554 complemented with concurrently measured auxillary data. We exemplify this using PM₁₀ 555 and NSD data collected from the North Kensington receptor site in London and start with the premise that we are completely satisfied with the PM₁₀ analysis and are using a rotation 556 557 which gives guantified factors (guantified G and scaled F) which best representation of the 558 urban atmosphere sampled, i.e. the output from Beddows et al. (2015). And, fFor each PM₁₀ factor we wish to assign a NSD distribution. is to take the results from the first step of 559 560 a PMF analysis where a successful source apportionment study has been completed and 561 then complement the results with a second step to derive further information about the 562 sources. Rather than repeat the PMF analysis using a combined PM₁₀+NSD 563 analysisdataset which can be complicated if the rotations of the individual PMF analyses of PM₁₀ and NSD data are miss-matched or ambiguous, we can carry out a This can be done 564 using a second PMF analysis or a regression. 565

566

567 <u>Furthtermore, by the nature of any factor analysis, we also have to make the assumption</u> 568 <u>that each source chemical profile and size distribution not only remain unchanged between</u>

569 source and receptor but that it remains constant throughout the measurement campaign. 570 This of course limits our capacity to fully understand the aerosol within the atmosphere we 571 are considering. Chemical reactions during the transit of the air masses will of course modify 572 the chemical composition. We might well t might be assumed that a fully aged aerosol 573 remains unchanged and is identified as a background component, but for example we would 574 expect progressive chlorine depletion within a fresh marine aerosol passing over a city. 575 Likewise, we also have to appreciate that different particle sizes will indeed have different 576 atmospheric transit sizesefficiencies with large particles settling out of the air mass before smaller ones. Similarly, particles nucleate and grow from 1 nm up to 20-30 nm over a short 577 578 time period of time. It is these finer details which are missed when making an overall 579 assessment of the chemical and physical naturecomposition of thean air mass measured 580 over a long period (e.g. 2 years) dataset (eg 2 year) using PMF.

581

582 3.1 2-Step PMF-PMF Analysis

Figure 3 presents our results the profiles ${}^{1}F_{k}$ and ${}^{2}F_{k}$ from the first and second PMF analysis respectively of a combined dataset. The plots of ${}^{1}F_{k}$ were carried over from Beddows et al. (2015) to complete the assignment of the source profiles.

586

The G1 time series ${}^{1}G_{k}$ and uncertainties ${}^{1}\triangle G_{k}$ from the first PMF analysis of PM₁₀ data weare carried over into the second step where they are combined with the NSD data for PMF analysis (Figure 2). The uncertainties of the NSD data are taken as an optimised multiple of the NSD values themselves (~ 5 % uncertainty, yeiielding a Q value of 30,333 in the robust mode; see Table S2 for PMF settings). Also in order to maintain the solution from step 1 in step 2 the encourage ${}^{2}G_{k}$ to be proportional to ${}^{1}G_{k}$ for *k* = 1-6 (see Table S4), the 593 <u>FKEY</u>Fkey_matrix is applied to pull elements in the source matrix to zero as described in 594 <u>section 2.3.3</u>. This ensure<u>d</u>s that <u>the</u> PMF analysis of the NSD data <u>wa</u>is driven by the <u>1GG1</u> 595 time series<u>and</u>. This result<u>ed</u>s in a 6 factor <u>output</u>solution in which there_-weare unique 596 contributions from the k_{th} factor <u>1Gk</u> from the first analysis to the k_{th} factor from one of the 597 <u>G1-2Fk</u> scores and an in the second analysis. This is mainly due to the aggressive pulling 598 <u>of the factor element in ²F applied using FKEY.</u>

599

600 associated NSD source profile, and it is When inspecting Figure 3 it is notable that they the 601 source profiles are surprisingly similar to those calculated for the just-NSD and PM10+NSD 602 data in Beddows et al. (2015). The Diffuse Urban factor has a modal-diameter just below 603 0.1 µm which is comparable to the NSD same factor in the just-NSD analysis. Marine is 604 comparable to the Aged Marine factor derived from the PM₁₀+NSD analysis. The Secondary 605 factor is again the factor with the largest modal diameter (between 0.4 and 0.5 µm) and 606 traffic has as expected a modal diameter between 30 and 40 nm. The Fuel Oil factor is 607 interesting as it appears to be a combination of a nucleation factor and a mode comparable 608 to diesel exhaust seen in the Traffic factor.

609

610 3.2 2-Step PMF-LR Analysis

Figure S<u>23</u>² shows the results of the linear regression of the NSD data plotted against the PM₁₀ ${}^{1}G_{\underline{k}}4$ scores and again what is remarkable is the similarity between these <u>regression</u> <u>source profiles</u>correlation plots and both the factors derived in Beddows et al. (2015) and those from the 2-step PMF-PMF analysis.

615

616 617 information - and thus obtain the diurnal patterns (Figure S235) -, the resulting regression 618 source profiles correlation factors were re-fitted to the original NSD data. On inspection of 619 these source profiles and diurnal plots, the negative values make interpretation a struggle 620 reinforcing one of the 4 conditions (Hopke, 1991) in the analysis if it is to make sense. We 621 can however fit non-negative gradients using non-negative regression. However, the 622 surprising consequence of applying this constraint is that the same profiles are derived but 623 they are clipped so that all negative values are replaced by zero values - hence, information 624 is lost by doing this. One interpretation of the negative values is that these are particle sinks 625 but this contradicts the PMF-PMF findings and hence it is concluded that the PMF-LR analysis only serves as an indication of how the PM₁₀ factors are augmented by the NSD 626 data. If all profiles are shifted to above the zero line then comparisons to the PMF-PMF data 627 628 can be made. However, what is interesting to note in this result is the intercept NSD which 629 is comparable in profile and diurnal pattern to the nucleation mode identified in Beddows et 630 al. (2015). This is a seventh factor regression source profile, in addition to the 6 PM₁₀ factors and suggests that although the PMF analysis of the PM₁₀ data alone misses a Nucleation 631 factor, this can be recovered in a second analysis as a remainder or bias in the data. 632 633 Furthermore, this result indicates that the composition of the Nucleation NSD factor has no 634 link to the chemical PM₁₀ composition and cannot be used to infer a composition. This is 635 unsurprising given the very small mass contributed by the nucleation mode particles.

636

Returning to the PMF-PMF analysis and extending the analysis from 6 factors to 7 factors. and adding an extra row in the F<u>KEY key</u> matrix was added to which pulls all of the ${}^{1}G_{\underline{7}}$ scores contributions to ${}^{2}F_{7}$ to zero in the solution (Figure S12)., The same FKEY matrix of *fkey* and 0 values was used but this time it was augmented with a 7th row of *fkey* and zero 541 values. In this case, the *fkey*₂ values were set to a value of 20.

642

⁶⁴³ <u>T</u>the same 6 factor solution is obtained with the additional 7th factor (Figure 4 and Figure ⁶⁴⁴ S<u>334) and Aas</u> expected, this seventh factor <u>wasis</u> a Nucleation factor. It <u>wasis</u> suspected ⁶⁴⁵ that in the 6 factor solution, the <u>nN</u>ucleation factor was combined with the Fuel-Oil factor. ⁶⁴⁶ This does not suggest any link between the <u>nN</u>ucleation and Fuel-Oil factor other than there ⁶⁴⁷ <u>were was</u> an insufficient number of factors within the model for the two to factorise out of ⁶⁴⁸ the data giving the Fuel-Oil NSD profil<u>e</u> a more reasonable modal peak between 50 and 60 ⁶⁴⁹ nm rather than <u>20, 30</u>10 and 60 nm.

650

651 In the results of Beddows et al. (2015), applied a 1-step analysis to three different datasets: PM₁₀-only; NSD-only and PM₁₀+NSD. The analyses of the PM₁₀-only and NSD-only – both 652 653 with homogenieous units - produced quantitative timeseries G. This was unlike the analysis 654 of the PM10+NSD with heterogenieous units which could not apportion its 5 factors using G but was able to factorise out a the Nucleation factor from the data, seen also in the 4 sources 655 in the PMF solution for the NSD-only data. was only seen when applying PMF to the just-656 657 NSD and PM₁₀+NSD data, and in the PM₁₀+NSD results, Fuel Oil was not separated and 658 appeared to be smeared across all 5 factors. A PM₁₀-only seven factor solution to PMF of 659 the PM₁₀ chemical composition data did not reveal this factor <u>either</u>, presumably because 660 the mass associated with nucleation mode particles is too small to affect composition significantly. Furthermore, Fuel Oil was not factorised out of the PM₁₀+NSD data and was 661 662 more likely divided across all 5 factors.

663

Another interesting observation is that although only 4 factors were derived from the PMF

analysis of NSD-data alone (Diffuse Urban; Secondary; Traffic and Nucleation), when extra 665 information is included from the PMF analysis of the PM₁₀ data, more information can be 666 extracted from the PMF analysis of the NSD data in the form of the Marine; Fuel Oil and 667 668 NET & Crustal factors. The Nucleation factor is only revealed when performing a regression 669 between the NSD size bins and the G scores of the PM₁₀ PMF analysis which leads to 670 increasing the factor number from 6 to 7 which yields the Nucleation profile. It is also 671 reassuring that the bivariate plots for of the 7 factors (discussed in the next section) 672 correspond to the bivariate plots given in Beddows et al. (2015). Also note, that there is no 673 reason why any further investigation might not explore using more than 7 factors. In factor 674 the nNucleation factor appears at first glancesight to be multimodal. However, we restricted our analysis to 7 factors, considering it complete in terms of identifying the sources obtained 675 676 by Beddows et al. (2015).

677

678 **3.3 Diurnal and Bivariate Plots**

679 The original PMF was carried out on daily PM₁₀ data and in order to make diurnal and 680 bivariate plots, a higher time resolution is required desirable. It is assumed that the factors derived in the hourly NSD data are the same as those derived from the daily averaged data, 681 682 i.e. the factors are conserved when averaging the data from hourly to daily data before PMF analysis. Then the hourly NSD data can be fit with the PMF profiles derived from the daily 683 684 data (see Section 2.54). Figure 5 shows the resulting diurnal profiles. The diurnal trends of 685 the parameter c_k (equation 117), required fitted peaks show the values required in equation 686 3-to fit the 7 daily NSD factors to the hourly NSD data are shown. These have been scaled to PN (measured in 1/cm³) in these plots according to using the integral of the NSD (equation 687 688 128)factor measured in 1/cm³. The nNucleation factor diurnal trend behaves as expected rising to a maximum during the day and then falling back down to a minimum at night. This 689

690 corresponds to the intensity of the sun during the day and the increased likelihood of 691 nucleation on clean days when there is sufficient precursor material to form particles with a 692 low particle condensation sink. The Marine factor is also high during the day presumably due to higher wind speeds. Diffuse Urban, NET and & Crustal, and Traffic all follow a trend 693 694 which is synchronised to the daily cycle of anthropogenic activity and traffic as influenced by 695 greater atmospheric stability at night. The Secondary factor shows a small diurnal range. 696 also follows a similar anthropogenic cycle, however, although the polar plots are comparable 697 to the and would be expected to be strongest at night those of Beddows et al 2015, the 698 nighttime contributions is small. This results a contribution not being strong during the night 699 in the diurnal trend plot of Figure 5 as would be expected when compared to the NSD diurnal 700 trend of Beddows et al 2015. Fuel Oil is highest during the evening and night and may correspond to home heating rather than marine shipping emissions activity. The particle size 701 702 distributions associated with the Marine and NET and <u>&</u>Crustal sources are of limited value 703 as these sources are dominated by coarse particles, beyond the range of the SMPS data, 704 although there is a sharp increase in the volume of the particles above 0.5 µm in the Marine 705 factor. As pointed out in Beddows et al. (2015), the mMarine factor is interesting by way of the fact that we would indeed expect to see the wing of a coarse particle mode, whose modal 706 707 diameter is way above the upper size bin of the SMPS and in the coarse mode. Instead, the factor is identified by its chemical profile of sodium and chloiride and is accompanied by 708 709 an aged nucleation mode at around 30nm. This can be either viewed simply as clean marine air being 'polluted' by traffic emission and/or as the consequence of nucleation occuring over 710 711 at city forin a clean maritime air masses (Brines et al. 2015). The key point here is that the 712 factors derived in this work are comparable to those factorised in Beddows et al. (2015) 713 using the combined data-set and the advantage of the 2-step approach is that now we have 714 guantified hourly timeseries G.

716 The hourly contributions are aggregated into daily values and plotted as bivariate plots in 717 Figure 57 to assist comparison with the daily plots in Beddows et al. (2015). In that work, 718 the same PMF analysis of the NSD data yielded 4 factors which are represented here 719 againnamed identically to those in the bivariate plots. The similarity of both of the polar and annular plots for each of the 4 factors justifies supports our aformentioned previous factor-720 721 fitting assumption identification. The Secondary and Diffuse Urban are background sources 722 with strongest contributions in the evening and morning. Traffic is strongest for all wind speeds from the East which makes sense since North Kensington is to the West of the city 723 724 centre of London where traffic is expecting to be most dense. Nucleation is also seen to be 725 strongest for those wind direction from the West which are expected to be cleaner, and have a lower condensation sink. NET & Crustal and Fuel Oil are similar to Diffuse Urban 726 727 suggesting a similar predominant source location in the centre of London. Marine is observed to be strongest for elevated wind speeds for all wind directions which is consistent 728 with the expected strong contribution for all high wind speeds from the South West, as 729 730 observed in the daily polar plots in Beddows et al. (2015).

731

715

732 **3.4 Composition** <u>associated withof</u> <u>the Nucleation</u> <u>Hidden</u> Factor

The Nucleation factor was extracted from the two-step PMF-PMF analysis when which included pulling the ${}^{1}G_{1}$ - ${}^{1}G_{6}$ to zero of factor ${}^{2}F_{7}$. forcing the condition of no PM₁₀ contribution through G1 to G6. It might be reasonable to suggest that if the two-step PMF-PMF analysis is repeated and the order of analysis of PM₁₀ and NSD datasets reversed that it would be possible to derive the chemical conditions within the atmosphere which were conducive to nucleation. For this, the time series of the 4 NSD factors (${}^{1}G_{1}$ - ${}^{1}G_{4}$) reported in Beddows et al. (2015) were combined with the PM₁₀ data. We again assume that the first PMF step has

740 been carried out and that we are satisified with how the final solution represents the urban 741 environment of the receptor site and that there are no rotational ambitguities. We then carry 742 out the second step PMF analysis on the 34 x 591 input matrix ([1G1...1G4], 743 <u>PM₁₀[PM,PM_{carbon},PM_{ions},PM_{metals}]). The hourly output uncertainies from the first PMF</u> 744 analysis of the NSD data $^{1}\Delta$ G1... $^{1}\Delta$ G4 were carried forward into the second PMF analysis 745 by adding them *in quadrature* to give daily uncertainties. As with the analysis of the auxillary 746 data in the PM₁₀-NSD data, the measurement uncertainties for the PM₁₀ data (this time the 747 auxillary data) was naively taken as 4 times the PM₁₀ matrix. Extra care could have been 748 take in assigning the PM₁₀ uncertainties but since we force the output using FKEY a simpler 749 approach was taken. In fact, the FKEY consisted of a 4 x 4 diagonal matrix of zerso values 750 with an fkey1 of 20 for all the off-diagonal positions joined to a 4 x 30 matrix of zeros. 751 Furthermore, the uncertainty values of the PM_{10} were scaled until $Q/Q_{theory} = 0.99$ using 752 parameter *b*_{scale} = 0.35 (see Table S3 for more details).

753

754 Ideally, for this the chemical data would be more informed with regardslimited to the 755 composition of the particles below 100 nm (eg using PM0.1 or PM1.0) in the same size range as the SMPS data. However, when since we are using the PM₁₀ composition data we can 756 at best describe the composition of the aerosol which accompanied each factor (Figure 757 758 S45). For the NSD Secondary NSD factor with its strongest contribution (indicated by the 759 Expected Explained Variation) ~400 nm, we have a strong contribution to PM10 and PM2.5 760 contribution together with nitrate, sulphate and ammonium. Diffuse Urban, with its strongest 761 contribution at 100 nm is accompanied by contributions tofrom elemental carbon and wood 762 smoke indicative of traffic and recreational wood burning. There is are also contributions from 763 barium, chromium, iron, Mmolybdenum, Aantimony and Vanadium, all indicative of noneexhaust traffic emissions and the burning of fuel oil. Similarly, the tTraffic factor has a modal 764

<u>-diameter at roughly 30 nm which is indicative of exhaust emissions and this is accompanied</u>
 <u>by contributionsh</u> to aluminum, barium, calcium, copper, iron, manganese, titanium and
 <u>various other metals attributed to vehicles, albeit from tyre or brake wear or resuspension.</u>

768

769 For tThe Nucleation factor with its peak ~20 nm, this was associated with marine air withas 770 indicated by the strong contributions to Na, Cl and Mg (Figure <u>\$4\$4</u>). —There are also 771 traces of V, Cr, Ni and a high contribution to PM₁₀ level mass which are all associated with 772 marine air. This is explained by an association with the south-westerly wind sector which 773 brings strong winds and marine aerosol rather than reflecting the composition of the 774 nucleation particles themselves. Marine air is considered to provide the conditions required 775 of an air mass which is conducive to nucleation, i.e. cleaner air with particles with a low 776 condensation sink. As these air masses pass over the land and eventually into London, 777 anthropogenic precursor gases are added to this air which then nucleate particles seen at 778 the receptor site as a nucleation mode. This also goes some way to explain the earlier 779 observation of aged nucleation particles observed in the marine factor in Figure S34. There 780 are also strong contributisons to vanadium which is most likely from an un-resolved Fuel Oil 781 source being mixed into the mMarine and dDiffuse uUrban factors. Secondary shows a 782 strong association with ammonium, nitrate and sulphate but there are also traces of 783 organics, AI, Cd, Mn, Pb, Ti and Zn and high PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀. Diffuse Urban makes the 784 smallest contribution to PM but shows strong elemental carbon, wood smoke, Ba, Cr, Fe, Mo, Sb, V and Zn; indications of recreational wood burning and brake dust. Traffic has 785 786 strong associations with Ba, AI, Ca, Cu, Mn, Ti and Zn which have sources in tyre and brake 787 dust and resuspension.

788

789 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

14 is recommended when applying PMF to atmospheric PM data that only metrics with the same unit are input in order to make a meaningful quantitative apportionment. However, t A two-step PMF analysis method is presented whereby existing PMF profiles can be extend to incorporate auxillary data cond-currently measured and having different units. This is exemplified using PM₁₀ and NSD data.

795

796 When analysing PM₁₀ data, the inclusion of auxillary data such as meteorological, gas and 797 particle number data has proved to give a clearer separation of factors. However, for a 798 successful output, there must be no rotational ambibuity ambiguity in either the PM₁₀ data or 799 in the auxiliary data. In the ideal case, the individually computed factors G(X), G(Z) and 800 G(X,Z) need to be similar if the joint model is to be successful and not produce to large 801 residuals and hence a too large a Q value. In the best case, the total weight of the PM₁₀ 802 data can be set higher than the auxillary data so that the PM₁₀ data drives the analysis. In 803 this work, we present an alternative method called the 2-step PMF method. Mixed unit 804 datasets limit the PMF to a qualitative analysis and the quantitative step of apportioning the 805 sources to a mass or number concentration has to be omitted. This problem is overcome in this work by using a novel Two-Step PMF approach. In the first step the PM₁₀ data is PMF 806 807 analysed using the standard approach without the inclusion of additional data. An 808 appropriate solution is derived using the methods described in the literature in order to give an initial separation of source factors. The time series G (and errors) of the PM₁₀ solution 809 810 are then taken forward into the second step where they are combined with the NSD data. 811 The PMF analysis is then repeated using the combined and mixed unit G time series and NSD dataset. In order to ensure that unique factors are obtained for the G scores, Fkey 812 813 FKEY is used to pull off--diagonal values to zero thus driving the NSD data. This ensures 814 that the NSD factors are specific to the PM₁₀ solution and the PM₁₀ analysis is not affected

by any rotational ambiguity of the NSD data. For our demonstration using the Beddows et 815 al. (2015) analysis, It his results in 6 PM₁₀ factors which are not onlywhose time series are 816 817 not only apportioned in mass but the source profiles are augmented by identified for the NSD 818 data. Comparisons of both the factor profiles, diurnal trends and bivariate plots to those of 819 Beddows et al. (2015), show that this technique produces one solution linking the two 820 separated solutions for PM₁₀ and NSD data datasets together. This generates confidence 821 that the NSD and PM₁₀ factors ascribed to one source are in fact attributable to that same 822 source.

823

Hence, the process starts with a dataset which produces a solution which is sensitive to 824 mass but the factors more sensitive to number can be accessed using a second step. 825 826 Furthermore, by exploring a higher number of factors, NSD factors which are insensitive to PM₁₀ mass can be identified as in the case of the Nucleation factor. This information can 827 also be extracted using a linear regression PMF-LR where the size bins of the NSD data are 828 regressed against the PM₁₀ PMF time series. For this dataset, the Nucleation factor profile 829 830 is identified as an intercept within the fitted model leading to an increase in the number of 831 PMF factors from 6 to 7.

832

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965 **FIGURE LEGENDS**:

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Figure 1. Venn Diagram showing the summary of the findings of Beddows et al. (2015): applying PMF to PM₁₀-only, NSD-only and PM₁₀+NSD datasets. <u>Table shows the</u> apportionment of PM₁₀ and NSD taken from Beddows et al. (2015).

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Figure 2. Flow diagram showing the flow of data through the 2-step PMF-PMF analysis. The PMF analyses of single data set X are considered in step 1 and output indicated by factors/uncertainties ${}^{1}G$, ${}^{1}\triangle G$, ${}^{1}F$ and ${}^{1}\triangle F$. The second PMF analysis is carried out on the joint data set [${}^{1}GZ$] and yieilds factors/uncertainties i ${}^{2}G$, ${}^{2}\triangle G$, ${}^{2}F$ and ${}^{2}\triangle F$. In our analysis, X and ${}^{1}G$ are the PM₁₀ and resulting time series from the analysis of Beddows et al. (2015) and Z is the auxillary NSD data concurrently measured using a SMPS.

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Figure 3. Source profiles ¹F and ²F from both the first and second PMF step using 6
 factors. [Grey bars and black line indicates the values of F; red lines and dots indicated
 the explained variations; and grey dotted line indicates the dV/dlogDp.].

Figure 4. Nucleation and Fuel Oil factors derived when extending the second PMF analysis from the 6 factors (shown in Figure 3) to allow for a 7th factors. Source profiles ${}^{2}F_{1}$ to ${}^{2}F_{6}$ are given in Figure S34. Each plot is divided into 2 showing the output ${}^{1}F_{k}$ and ${}^{2}F_{k}$. [Grey bars and black line indicates the values of F; red lines and dots indicated the explained variations; and grey dotted line indicates the dV/dlogDp.]

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988 Figure 5. Diurnal cycles derived *PN*_k calculated by the fitting of the daily PMF factor profiles 989 to the hourly NSD data fitted (see equation <u>12-8</u> and <u>sSection 2.54</u>). [Left-left column – diurnal trends of PN_k ; left-middle column – bivariate plot of PN_k ; middle-right – annular plot 990 991 PN_k ; right-right – bivariate plot of PN_k , plotted using the Openair program. Polar plots show 992 a point coloured acording to the key, the number concentration at that point on the plot 993 whose distance from the origin represents wind speed and angle wind direction. Likewise for the angular plots the number concentration represent wind direction at an hour of the day 994 995 between 0 and 23 hrs.]. Note that the diurnal plots do not start at zero.

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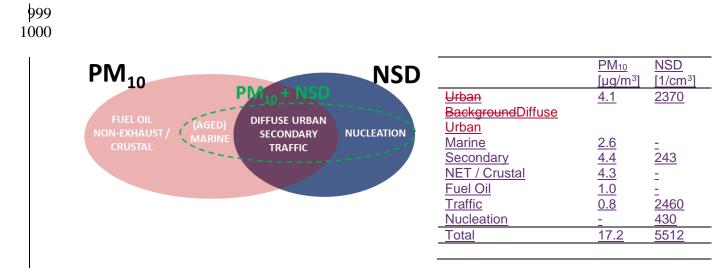


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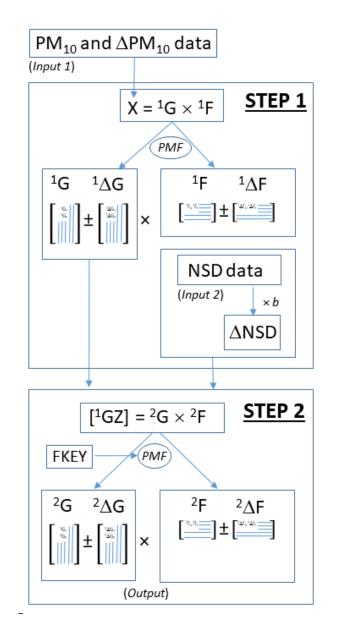
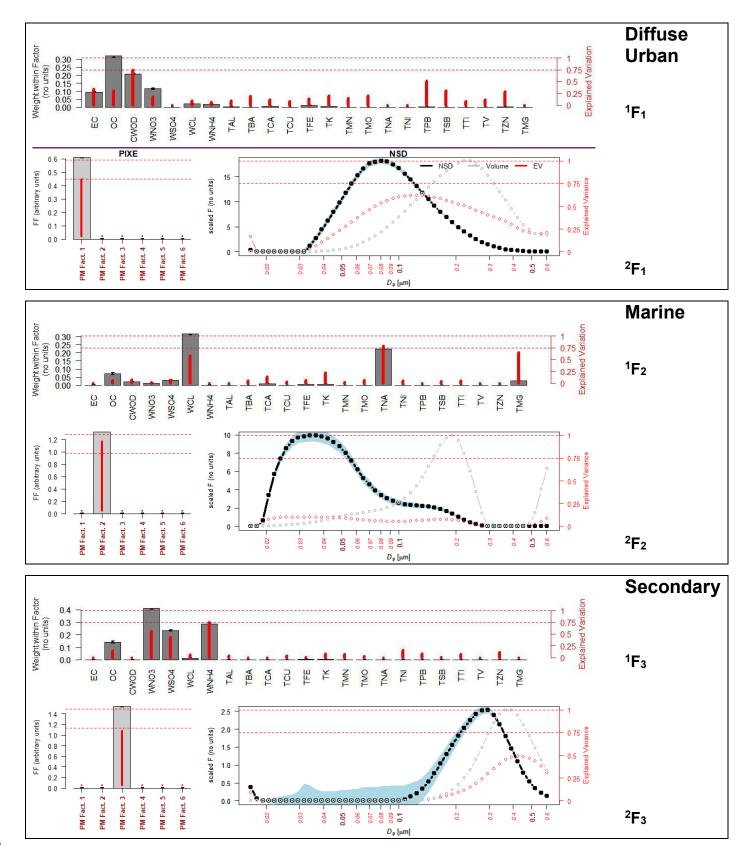


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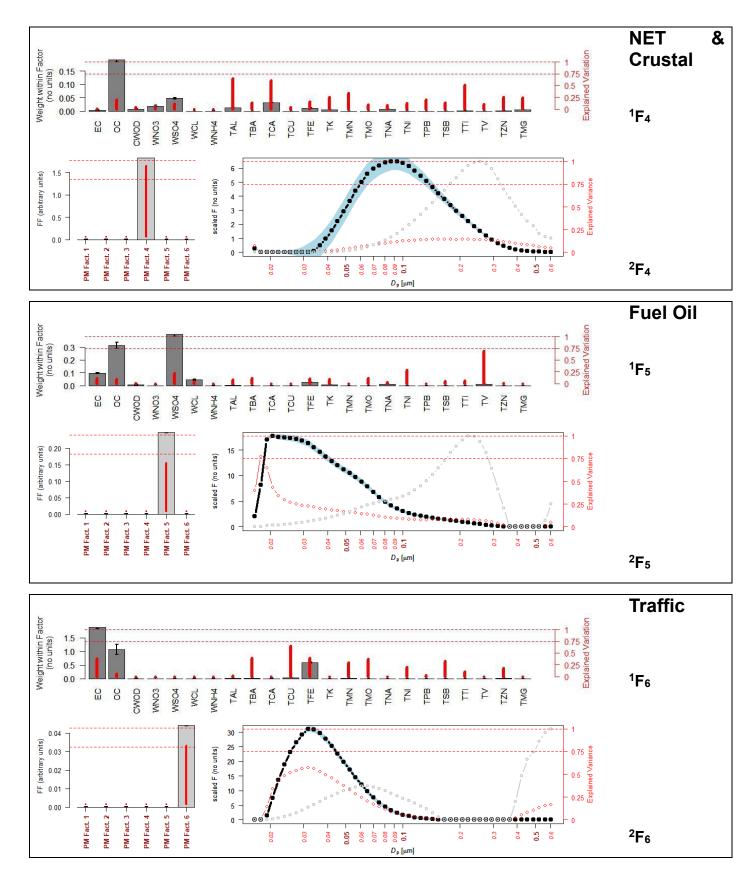


Figure 3. Source profiles ¹F and ²F from both the first and second PMF step using 6 factors.
 [Grey bars and black line indicates the values of F; red lines and dots indicated the explained variations; and grey dotted line indicates the dV/dlogDp.]

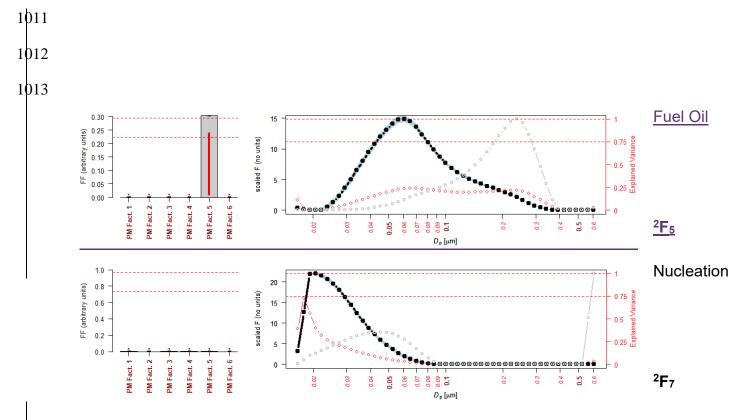


Figure 4. Nucleation and Fuel Oil factors derived when extending the second PMF analysis from the 6 factors (shown in Figure 3) to allow for a 7th factors. Source profiles ${}^{2}F_{1}$ to ${}^{2}F_{6}$ are given in Figure S34. Each plot is divided into 2 showing the output ${}^{1}F_{k}$ and ${}^{2}F_{k}$. [Grey bars and black line indicates the values of F; red lines and dots indicated the explained variations: and grey dotted line indicates the dV/dlogDp.]

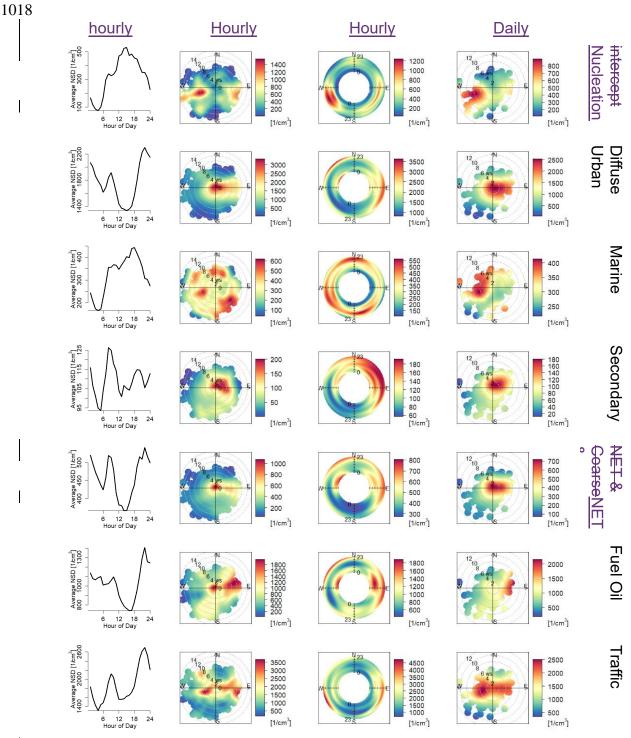


Figure 5. Diurnal cycles derived *PN*_k calculated by the fitting of the daily <u>PMF</u> factor profiles to the hou<u>r</u>ly NSD data fitted (see equation <u>12–8</u> and <u>sS</u>ection 2.5<u>4</u>). [Left-left column – diurnal trends of *PN*_k; left-middle column – bivariate plot of *PN*_k; middle-right – annular plot *PN*_k; right-right – bivariate plot of *PN*_k, plotted using the Openair program. <u>Polar plots show a point coloured acording</u> to the key, the number concentration at that point on the plot whose distance from the origin represents wind speed and angle wind direction. Likewise for the angular plots the number concentration represent wind direction at an hour of the day between 0 and 23 hrs.]. Note that the diurnal plots do not start at zero.

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3	SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION
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5 6 7 8	RECEPTOR MODELLING OF BOTH PARTICLE COMPOSITION AND SIZE DISTRIBUTION FROM A BACKGROUND SITE IN LONDON, UK – THE TWO STEP APPROACH
9 10	David C.S. Beddows and Roy M. Harrison
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Table S1. Setup of TSI SMPS.

EC 3080	
Neutraliser	Kr-85 radioactive source
Drier	✓ EUSAAR/ACTRIS Drier
DMA	TSI 3081 long DMA
Aerosol Flow	0.3 lpm
Sheath Flow	3.0 lpm
Impactor Type	0.0508 cm
HV Polarity	Neg
AIM version	9.0
Scans per Sample	6
Number of Samples	1
Total Sample Time	14 min 0 sec
Multiple charge	\checkmark
Diffusion loss correction	\checkmark
Particle Density	1.2 g/cc
Gas Density	0.0012 g/cc
Nano Aggregate Mobility Analysis	×
CPC3775	
CPC3775-linlet flow	0.3 lpm
Data Coverage	72.5 % over the 2 years 2011/2012
Service and Calibration Date	February 2011 and February/March 2012

- **Table S2.** Miscellaneous PMF-PMF details for the PM₁₀-NSD data set.

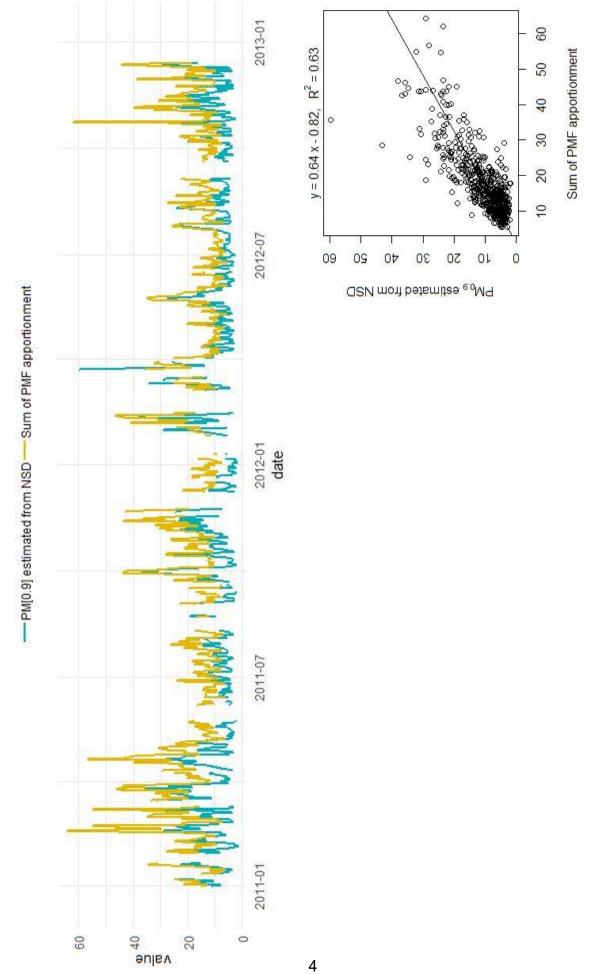
INPUT DATA	(¹ G1… ¹ G6, NSD ₁ ^{16nm} …NSD ₅₂ ^{640nm})
Input Settings	
PMF2 version number	4.2
Number of Factors	6
FPEAK	0.1
Input dimensions: Row x Columns	590 x 58
Number of Repeats	1
Outlier Distance	4
Robust Analysis	\checkmark
Error Model	-12
Seed	3
Initially Skipped	0
Uncertainty Matrices T/U/V	√/x/x
Normalization of factor vectors before output	None
Optional parameter lines	missingneg 10
Output values	
Q in the robust mode	30333
Q when not down weighting outliers	32568
POS-Outlier limit (4.0) exceeded by	221 positive residuals
NEG-Outlier limit (4.0) exceeded by	38 negative residuals

- - **Table S3.** Miscellaneous PMF-PMF details for the NSD-PM₁₀ data set.

INPUT DATA	([¹ G1 ¹ G4],PM ₁₀ [PM,PM _{carbon} ,PM _{ions} ,PM _{metals}]).
Input Settings	
PMF2 version number	4.2
Number of Factors	4
FPEAK	0.1
Input dimensions: Row x Columns	591 x 34
Number of Repeats	1
Outlier Distance	4
Robust Analysis	\checkmark
Error Model	-12
Seed	3
Initially Skipped	0
Uncertainty Matrices T/U/V	√/×/×
Normalization of factor vectors before output	None
Optional parameter lines	missingneg 10
Output values	
Q in the robust mode	17652
Q when not down weighting outliers	18089
POS-Outlier limit (4.0) exceeded by	19 positive residuals
NEG-Outlier limit (4.0) exceeded by	3 negative residuals

- **Table S4.** Summary of the regression results, comparing ${}^{1}Gk$ with ${}^{2}Gk$ for *k* in 1 to 6.

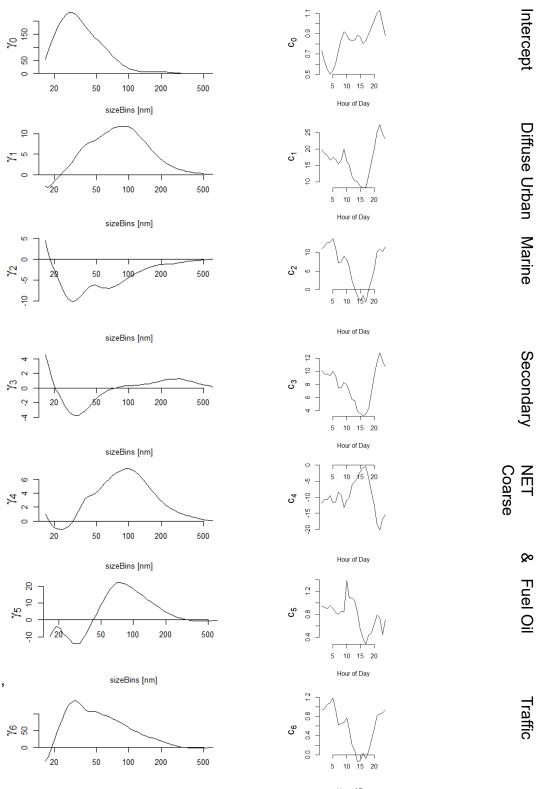
		<i>const</i> in ¹ Gk = <i>const</i> x ² Gk	R ²
Diffuse Urban	¹ G ₁ vs ² G ₁	1.2	0.72
Marine	¹ G ₂ vs ² G ₂	0.73	0.94
Secondary	¹ G ₃ vs ² G ₃	0.56	0.71
NET & Crustal	¹ G4 vs ² G4	0.54	0.96
Fuel Oil	¹ G ₅ vs ² G ₅	2.9	0.41
Traffic	${}^{1}G_{6}$ vs ${}^{2}G_{6}$	15.5	0.40





		G Time Series from Step 1						Number Size Distribution (nm)				
		191	¹ G2	1 <u>6</u> 3	¹ G4	¹ 65	1 <i>G</i> 6	16.6	17.8	19.2		604
	² F ₁	0	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0				
Factors from Step 2	² F ₂	fkey1	0	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
s mo	² F ₃	fkey1	fkey ₁	0	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
rs fro	${}^{2}F_{4}$	fkey1	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
acto	${}^{2}F_{5}$	fkey1	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
ш	²F ₆	fkey1	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0	0		0)
	G Time Series from Step 1						Number Size Distribution (nm)					
		191	¹ G2	1G3	¹ G4	¹ G5	$^{1}G6$	16.6	17.8	19.2		604
2	² F ₁	(O	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0				
Factors from Step 2	² F ₂	fkey ₁	0	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
om S	² F ₃	fkey ₁	fkey1	0	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
irs fr	² F ₄	fkey ₁	fkey1	fkey ₁	0	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
acto	² F ₅	fkey ₁	fkey1	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	fkey ₁	0	0	0		0
ш	²F ₆	fkey ₁	fkey1	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	fkey ₁	0	0	0	0		0
	${}^{2}F_{7}$	fkey ₂	fkey ₂	fkey ₂	fkey ₂	fkey ₂	fkey ₂	0	0	0		0

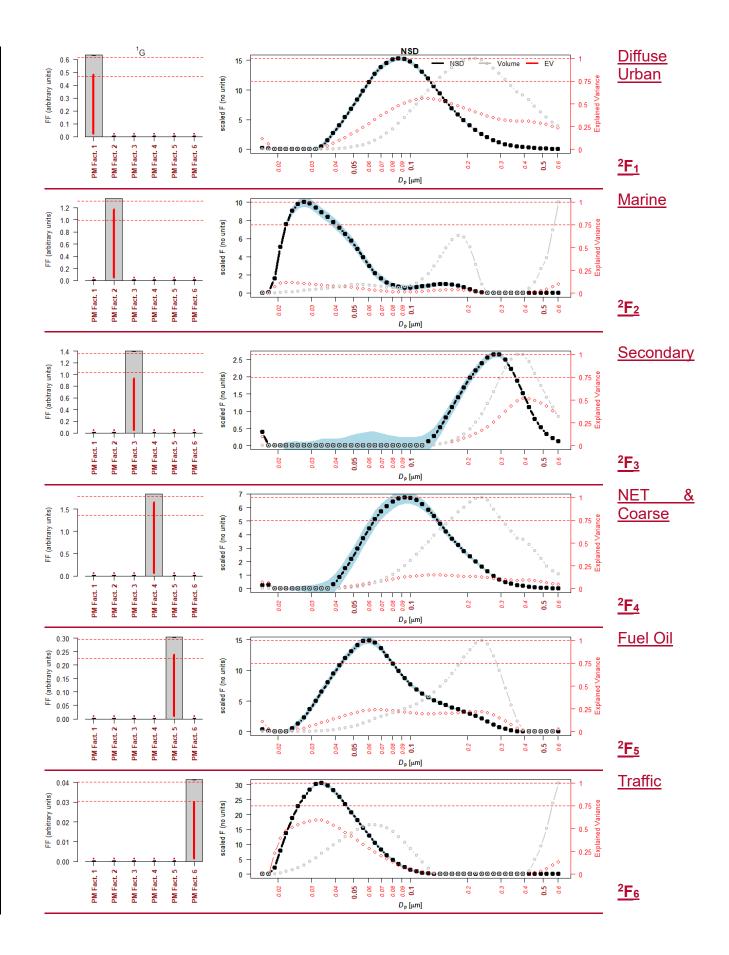
Figure S2S1. Entries in the FKEY matrix used in step 2 of the PMF-PMF analysis using (a) 6 factors and (b) 7 factors. An extremely strong value of 24 was chosen for *fkey*₁ and for *fkey*₂.

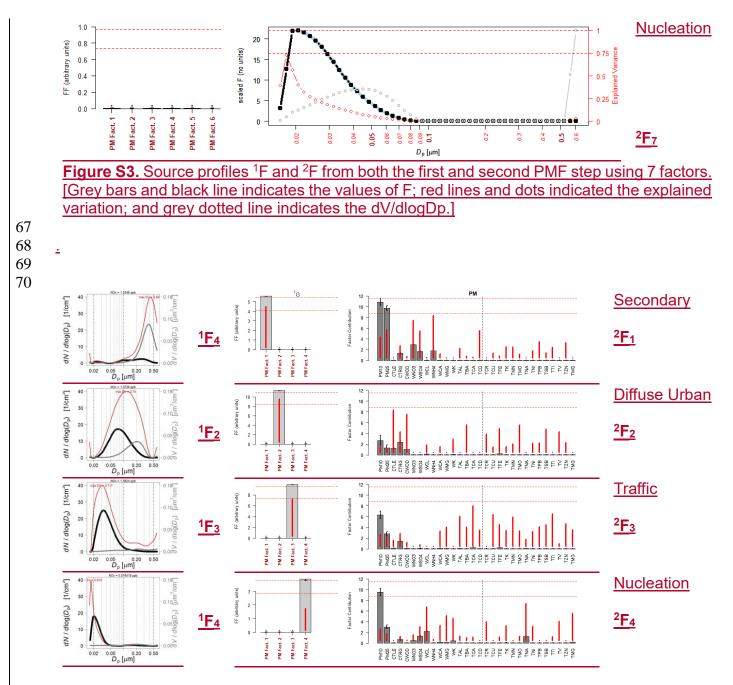


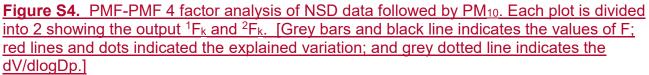
sizeBins [nm]

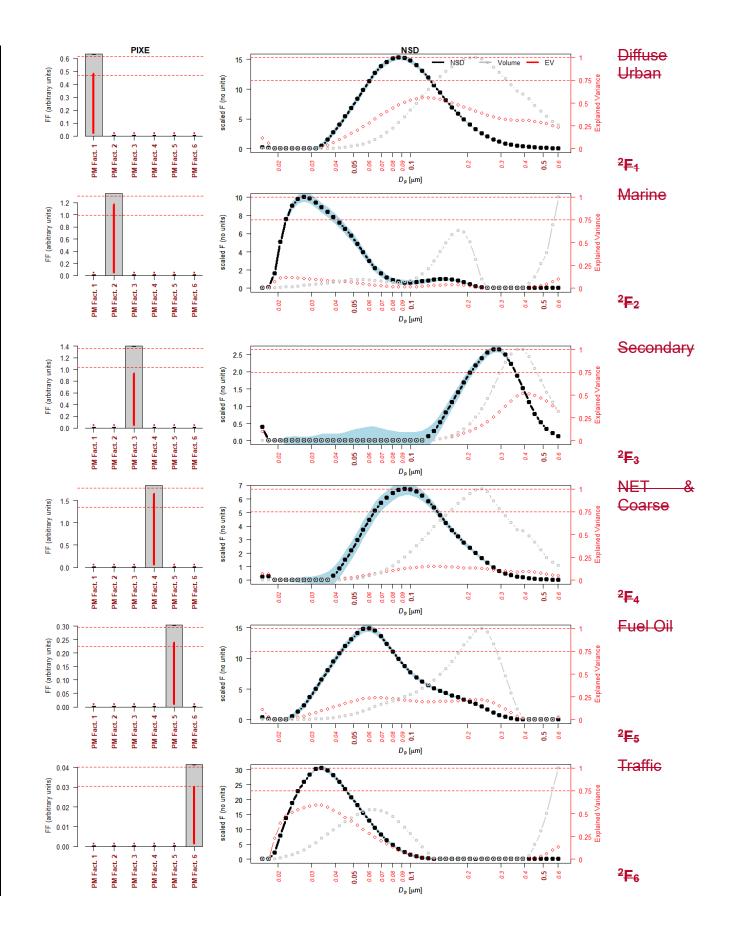
Hour of Day

Figure <u>S3S2</u>. Daily regression source profiles (γ_k vs d_p in equation 8) obtained from regressing the NSD data against ¹Gk (left hand panels) as in equation 4 and diurnal trends of the fit parameter ck resulting from the fit of the daily regression source profiles to the hourly NSD data (equations 10 & 11).









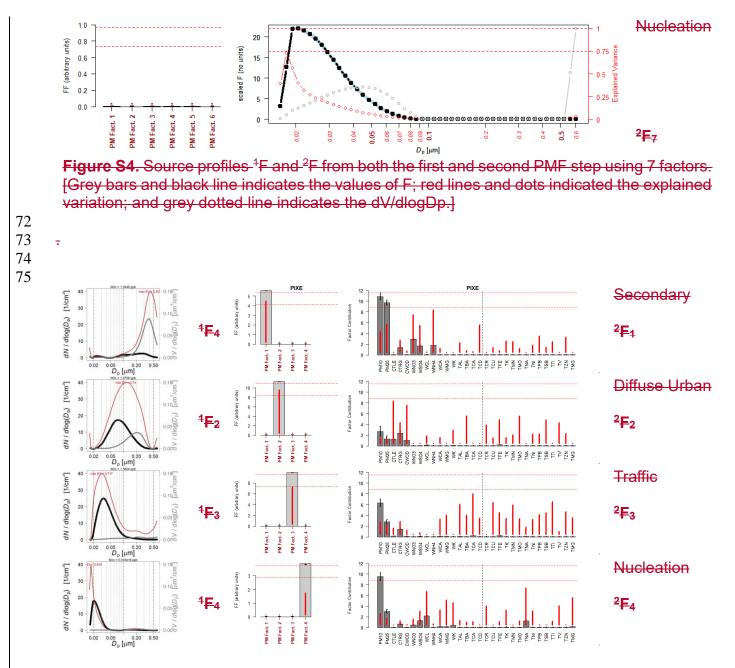


Figure S5. PMF-PMF 4 factor analysis of NSD data followed by PM₁₀. Each plot is divided into 2 showing the output ${}^{1}F_{k}$ and ${}^{2}F_{k}$. [Grey bars and black line indicates the values of F; red lines and dots indicated the explained variation; and grey dotted line indicates the dV/dlogDp.]