Simultaneous factor analysis of organic particle and gas mass spectra: AMS and PTR-MS measurements at an urban site

J. G. Slowik¹,³, A. Vlasenko¹,³, M. McGuire²,³, G. J. Evans²,³, and J. P. D. Abbatt¹,³

¹Department of Chemistry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada
²Department of Chemical Engineering and Applied Chemistry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada
³Southern Ontario Centre for Atmospheric Aerosol Research, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

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Correspondence to: J. P. D. Abbatt (jabbatt@chem.utoronto.ca)
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Abstract

During the winter component of the SPORT (Seasonal Particle Observations in the Region of Toronto) field campaign, particulate non-refractory chemical composition and concentration of selected volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were measured by an Aerodyne time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) and a proton transfer reaction-mass spectrometer (PTR-MS), respectively. Sampling was performed in downtown Toronto ~15 m from a major road. The mass spectra from the AMS and PTR-MS were combined into a unified dataset, which was analyzed using positive matrix factorization (PMF). The two instruments were given equal weight in the PMF analysis by application of a scaling factor to the uncertainties of each instrument. A residual based metric, $\Delta \bar{e}_{sc}$, was used to evaluate the relative weight. The PMF analysis yielded a 5-factor solution that included factors characteristic of regional transport, local traffic emissions, charbroiling, and oxidative processing. The unified dataset provides information on particle and VOC sources and atmospheric processing that cannot be obtained from the datasets of the individual instruments, such as apportionment of oxygenated VOCs to direct emission sources vs. secondary reaction products, improved correlation of oxygenated aerosol factors with photochemical age, and increased detail regarding the composition of oxygenated organic aerosol factors. This analysis represents the first application of PMF to a unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset.

1 Introduction

Air pollutants have important effects on ecosystems, human health, atmospheric visibility, and climate change. Organic pollutants exist in both the gas and particle phases and vary in terms of their composition and source. Both particulate organic species and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) may enter the atmosphere either as a result of primary emissions such as fossil fuel combustion or through secondary processes such as gas-phase or heterogeneous chemical reactions. A quantitative understand-
ing of VOC and particulate organic sources and atmospheric processing is necessary to reduce uncertainties in global climate models and for the development of pollution mitigation strategies to improve air quality (Kanakidou et al., 2005).

One approach to estimating the effects of source contributions and atmospheric processing to particle and VOC composition and concentration is through the use of receptor modeling techniques such as positive matrix factorization (PMF) (Paatero, 1997; Paatero and Tapper, 1994) and UNMIX (Lewis et al., 2003). Multivariate statistical techniques are used to deconvolve a time series of simultaneous measurements into a set of factors and their time-dependent concentrations. These factors may then be related to emissions sources, chemical composition, and/or atmospheric processing, depending on their specific characteristics. Because receptor models require no a priori knowledge of meteorological conditions or emissions inventories, they are ideal for use in locations where emissions inventories are poorly characterized or highly complicated (e.g. urban areas), or where atmospheric processing plays a major role.

Factor analysis techniques have previously been applied to a range of VOC measurements (Buzcu and Frazier, 2006; Holzinger et al., 2007; Lanz et al., 2008b), yielding factors related to atmospheric processing and sources such as traffic and biogenic emissions. Although PMF has previously been applied to particle measurements (Owega et al., 2004), a detailed treatment of the organic component has only recently been attempted. Lanz et al. (2007) applied PMF to organic aerosol mass spectra obtained from an aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS), obtaining six distinct factors relating to aerosol composition, volatility, and specific sources such as charbroiling and wood burning emissions. Zhang et al. (2005) developed a technique for deconvolving AMS mass spectra into oxygenated organic aerosol (OOA) and hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA) using \( m/z \ 44 (\text{CO}_2^+) \) and \( m/z \ 57 (\text{C}_4\text{H}_8^+, \text{C}_3\text{H}_5\text{O}^+) \) as OOA and HOA tracers. Other studies have typically included selected AMS mass spectral fragments in receptor modeling (typically restricted to inorganic species, \( m/z \ 44 \), and \( m/z \ 57 \) (Buset et al., 2006; Quinn et al., 2006), classified organics based on their thermal properties (Zhao and Hopke, 2006), or treated the organics as a single species for analysis.
Recent studies indicate that the traditional binary treatments of atmospheric organics as either gases or particles may be inadequate (Robinson et al., 2007). A proposed alternative is the treatment of organic species through the use of a volatility basis set (Donahue et al., 2006), in which the partitioning behavior of organics is considered over a range of volatilities. Such issues highlight the need for analytical approaches capable of simultaneous, cohesive analysis of gas and particle data. One such approach is presented here, through the application of the PMF receptor modeling technique to coupled gas and particle data.

In this experiment, simultaneous measurements of the mass spectra of particulate organics and VOCs were obtained using an Aerodyne aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) and a proton transfer reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS). The measurements from these two instruments were combined into a single dataset and analyzed using PMF. This analysis yielded factors related to emission sources and chemical composition, specifically the degree of oxygenation. These factors were compared to the results obtained from PMF analysis conducted separately on the individual AMS and PTR-MS datasets. This is the first application of PMF analysis to a combined AMS/PTR-MS dataset.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Sampling and instrumentation

During the winter component of the SPORT (Seasonal Particle Observations in the Region of Toronto) field campaign (22 January 2007 to 5 February 2007), a time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (C-ToF-AMS) (Aerodyne Research, Inc., Billerica, MA, USA) and a proton transfer reaction-mass spectrometer (PTR-MS) (Ionicon Analytik, Innsbruck, Austria) were deployed in downtown Toronto (Wallberg Building, University of Toronto). The sampling inlet consisted of a 4 in diameter circular duct located ∼5 m above ground and ∼15 m from a major road. Ambient air was sampled contin-
Proton affinities greater than that of water. The AMS and PTR-MS recorded data on 1 min and 30 s time intervals, respectively, which was re-averaged into 15 min time intervals because of signal-to-noise considerations. For analysis of the both the individual and unified datasets, time periods containing mass spectra from only one instrument were excluded, yielding a total of 1148 analyzed mass spectra.

AMS data analysis was performed using the ToF-AMS Analysis Toolkit v.1.44 (D. Sueper, University of Colorado-Boulder, Boulder, CO, USA) for the Igor Pro software package (Wavemetrics, Inc., Portland, OR, USA). The organic components of \( m/z \)'s ≤300 were included in the PMF analysis. Mass fragments containing no organic signal were excluded, resulting in 270 analyzed \( m/z \)'s. At \( m/z \)'s that contain signal from both inorganic and organic ions, the organic contribution was determined through a fragmentation pattern-based analysis routine (Allan et al., 2004). The procedure for calculating AMS uncertainties is described in detail in the literature (Allan et al., 2003) and summarized briefly as follows. The distribution of ion signals recorded for a given ensemble are represented as a Poisson distribution and convolved with a detector-dependent Gaussian distribution representing the variation in signal obtained for a single ion. During operation, the particle beam is alternately blocked (yielding a background measurement) and unblocked. Uncertainties are calculated independently for each mode and summed in quadrature, yielding the expression

\[
\Delta I_d = \alpha \sqrt{I_o + I_b} \sqrt{t_s}
\]

Here \( I_o \) and \( I_b \) are the ion signals in the unblocked and blocked (background) positions, \( t_s \) is the sampling time, and \( \alpha \) is a factor accounting for the width of the Gaussian ion signal.
Due to signal-to-noise constraints imposed by the 30 s sampling intervals, the PTR-MS was not used to scan the entire mass spectrum and instead was set to measure specific masses. Ions at \( m/z \) 31 (formaldehyde), 43 (alkyl fragments, propylene, acetic acid, acetone, peroxycetyl nitrate (PAN)), 45 (acetaldehyde), 59 (acetone, propanal, glyoxal), 61 (acetic acid), 73 (methyl ethyl ketone (MEK), methylglyoxal, butanal), 79 (benzene), 93 (toluene), 107 (xylenes, ethyl benzene, benzaldehyde), and 121 (trimethyl benzene, ethyl toluene, propyl benzene) were included in the PMF analysis (de Gouw and Warneke, 2007), while \( m/z \) 33 (methanol), 37 (water dimer), 42 (acetonitrile), 69 (acetone), and 129 (naphthalene) were measured but excluded from the PMF due to poor signal-to-noise (\( m/z \) 42, 69, 129), signal exclusively due to the reagent ion (\( m/z \) 37), or problems with the measurement dynamic range due to persistent local sources (\( m/z \) 33 (methanol), from windshield washer fluid). Uncertainties for the PTR-MS were calculated from background levels and Poisson ion counting statistics as described in the literature and summarized below (de Gouw et al., 2003). Typical uncertainty values were in the range of 2 to 18% of signal, depending on the \( m/z \). Background levels were obtained by sampling through a charcoal denuder. The overall uncertainty is given by \( \Delta (I - I_c) = \sqrt{\frac{I}{\tau} + \frac{I_c}{\tau_c}} \), where \( I \) is the ion signal, \( \tau \) is the dwell time, and the “\( c \)” subscript denotes background measurements.

### 2.2 Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF)

The AMS and PTR-MS mass spectral time series and uncertainties obtained as described above were analyzed using the PMF2 software package (P. Paatero, U. of Helsinki, Finland), together with a modified version of the CU AMS PMF Tool (D. Sueper, I. Ulbrich, University of Colorado-Boulder, Boulder, CO, USA). Two methods of analysis were employed. In the first method, PMF was separately applied to the AMS and PTR-MS data. In the second method, the data from the two instruments was combined into a single dataset, and PMF was applied to this unified dataset.
The PMF model is described in detail in the literature (Paatero, 1997; Paatero and Tapper, 1994). Here we provide a brief summary and discuss the special considerations required to apply PMF to the unified dataset. PMF operates on the input data matrix $X$ and the corresponding uncertainty matrix $S$. In the present study, $X$ is the time series of mass spectra collected by the AMS and/or PTR-MS. The matrix $S$ therefore contains the uncertainty in the measurement of the signal of each $m/z$ at every point in time. The PMF model is described by the matrix equation:

$$X = GF + E \quad (1)$$

Here the columns of the $G$ matrix contain the factor time series and the rows of the $F$ matrix contain the factor mass spectra. The number of factors in a solution is determined by the user, through criteria discussed later. The $E$ matrix contains the residuals and is defined by Eq. (1). The PMF model solves Eq. (1) by using a weighted least-squares algorithm to minimize the sum of squares, $Q$, defined as:

$$Q = \sum_i \sum_j \left( \frac{e_{ij}}{s_{ij}} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

Here $e_{ij}$ are the elements of the residual matrix $E$, and $s_{ij}$ are the elements of the uncertainty matrix $S$. In an ideal solution, the PMF model reproduces the input data to the limit imposed by the measurement uncertainty; that is, $|e_{ij}|=s_{ij}$. The theoretical value of $Q$, denoted $Q_{expected}$, is therefore equal to the number of elements in the input matrix $X$. In practice, $Q$ is expected to be somewhat larger than $Q_{expected}$ for ambient data because the data cannot be perfectly represented by a finite number of factors.

In considering the solutions to the unified dataset, an important consideration is the relative weight given to each instrument. Because the AMS data contains 270 $m/z$'s, whose time trends are not totally independent, while the PTR-MS data contains only 10, the PMF model weights the AMS data more heavily than the PTR-MS. The relative weight of the two instruments may be determined by examining the scaled residuals, $e_{ij}/s_{ij}$, for each instrument. When the AMS and PTR-MS data are equally
weighted in the solution, the value of the scaled residuals is independent of the measuring instrument. To evaluate this requirement, we define the quantity $\Delta e_{sc}$ as:

$$\Delta e_{sc} = \left( \frac{|e_{ij}|}{s_{ij}} \right)_{AMS} - \left( \frac{|e_{ij}|}{s_{ij}} \right)_{PTR}$$  \hspace{0.5cm} (3)

If $\Delta e_{sc} = 0$, the AMS and PTR-MS data is balanced in the PMF solution. Values of $\Delta e_{sc} < 0$ indicate that the PTR-MS is underweighted (because the residuals for the PTR-MS are larger than for the AMS), while $\Delta e_{sc} > 0$ indicates that the AMS is underweighted.

The constraint applied to the fit of each $m/z$ is determined by the uncertainties. Here we have adopted the approach of weighting the PTR-MS by application of the factor $C_{PTR}$ to the uncertainties. That is, if the uncertainties for unweighted PTR-MS data as a function of $m/z$ and time ($t$) are given by $\Delta I(m/z, t)$ (where $I$ is the signal intensity), for weighted data the PTR-MS uncertainties are given by $\Delta I(m/z, t) \times C_{PTR}$. Note that the AMS uncertainties are always given by $\Delta I(m/z, t)$, regardless of $C_{PTR}$. As $C_{PTR}$ is increased, the PTR-MS is given more weight in the PMF solution, and $\Delta e_{sc}$ increases.

Note that $C_{PTR}$ is not used in calculating the $\Delta e_{sc}$ value in Eq. (3). Inclusion of $C_{PTR}$ in this calculation could affect the value of $\Delta e_{sc}$ without producing changes in the $F$ and $G$ matrices. For example, for very low or very high values of $C_{PTR}$, only one instrument is being significantly considered in the solution. In this scenario, a small change in $C_{PTR}$ would not affect the solution because the relative weight of data from the considered instrument would remain the same. However, the change in $C_{PTR}$ would still affect the $\Delta e_{sc}$ value. To prevent such an artifact, the $s_{ij}$ values from the unweighted solution are used in Eq. (3).

For the analysis of the unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset, the true mode of the PMF2 engine was utilized instead of the robust mode. The robust mode downweights data where the value of $e_{ij}/s_{ij}$ exceeds predefined limits. Because the $C_{PTR}$ weighting method artificially increases the residuals of the PTR-MS, the robust mode introduces bias by systematically preventing PTR-MS data from pulling with their full weight.
discussed later, this prevents balanced solutions (i.e. $\Delta e_{sc} = 0$) from being obtained. Analysis of the individual AMS and PTR-MS datasets was conducted using both the true and robust modes.

Matrix rotations were explored by varying the PMF2 $f$Peak parameter around zero. For values of $f$Peak that yielded convergent solutions with reasonable $Q$-values, it was found that the effect of matrix rotation on the solutions was significantly less than the effect of variations in $C_{PTR}$. For simplicity, we present here only solutions obtained using $f$Peak=0.

3 Results and discussion

We first present results obtained from PMF analysis of the individual AMS and PTR-MS datasets. We then discuss the PMF analysis of the unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset in terms of (1) selection and evaluation of solutions, (2) physical interpretation of the extracted factors, and (3) comparison of the information yielded by the individual and unified analyses.

3.1 AMS dataset

The application of PMF to a dataset of AMS organic mass spectra has been previously described in detail (Lanz et al., 2007; Ulbrich et al., 2008), and a similar approach was used in the present study. A crucial consideration is the number of factors used in the PMF model. This number is somewhat subjective because the PMF model can be run with an arbitrary number of factors and no foolproof method for determining the “correct” number of factors exists. As will be described, a 6-factor solution was chosen based on the effects of the number of factors on the residual time series and $Q$, correlations between the factor time series and external tracers, and physical interpretation of the factor mass spectra.

To facilitate comparison with the unified dataset, the AMS dataset was analyzed
utilizing both the “true” and “robust” modes of the PMF2 engine. (As explained in the Methods section, the unified dataset could only be analyzed meaningfully in the “true” mode.) For the 6-factor solution to the AMS dataset, the following factors were obtained for both modes: (1 and 2) oxygenated organic aerosol, split across 2 factors (“OOA-Ia” and “OOA-Ib”); (3) charbroiling; (4) hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA); (5) wood burning; and (6) an oxygenated factor of unknown origin associated exclusively with winds from the North/Northeast. The time series of the OOA-Ia and OOA-Ib factors are highly correlated, suggesting that this factor splitting is an artifact of the PMF solution (Ulbrich et al., 2008) and not two unique factors. However, increasing the number of factors beyond the point where the splitting is observed continues to yield meaningful factors. Therefore, the OOA-Ia and OOA-Ib factors are here combined into a single “OOA-I” factor. The “true” and “robust” modes yielded nearly identical results, with the only significant difference being the nature of the OOA-Ia/OOA-Ib split (with the recombined OOA-I again nearly identical) and the order in which new factors were resolved as the number of factors in the solution was increased. The results presented below were obtained using the “true” mode.

Figure 1 shows a plot of the scaled residual time series (that is, $\sum_j (e_{ij}/s_{ij})^2$ where $j$ denotes the m/z’s) for the 6-factor solution. The inset to Fig. 1 shows $Q/Q_{\text{expected}}$ as a function of the number of factors, where $Q_{\text{expected}}$ is estimated as the number of elements in the input matrix. Structure is evident in the residual time series, primarily in the form of short-duration, high-intensity periods. Although the AMS data was averaged to 15 min time intervals for the PMF analysis, examination of the organic time series at 1 min sampling intervals shows that these features are caused by intense concentration spikes of <1 min duration. These spikes are due to emissions from nearby point sources, particularly a roadside hot dog stand and passing vehicles. Their prevalence in the residuals suggests fluctuations in the emission signatures of these sources that are not fully represented by a single factor. During these periods, the scaled residuals are dominated by hydrocarbon peaks.
Figure 2 shows the effect of the number of selected factors on the residual time series. Here we plot the change in the scaled residual time series, $\Delta \left( \sum_j \left( \frac{e_{ij}}{s_{ij}} \right)^2 \right)$, between two solutions with different numbers of factors. That is, in Fig. 2a, we plot the residuals for the 4-factor solution minus those from the 5-factor solution. Thus the structure evident in Fig. 2a has been removed from the residuals by increasing the number of factors from 4 to 5. The key feature of this figure is that the structure present in Fig. 2a and b includes both the spikes described above and features covering longer time periods. However, when the number of factors is increased above 6 (Fig. 2c and d), the only significant changes are in the magnitude of the spikes. These spikes are also present in extracted factors (especially the charbroiling factor), suggesting that the 7 and 8-factor solutions are representing variations in source profiles as a linear combination of factors. At present, such splitting cannot be interpreted meaningfully, and the number of factors is capped at six.

The mass spectra and time series of the 6-factor AMS solution are shown in Fig. 3a and b, respectively. Figure 3b also contains the time series for correlated tracer species. The mass spectra are normalized such that the sum of each spectrum across all $m/z$'s is equal to 1. The time series are reported in terms of mass concentration ($\mu$g/m$^3$). We again note although 6 factors were obtained in this solution, only 5 are displayed because factor F1$_{AMS}$ (“OOA-I”) is a combination of two factors (OOA-Ia and OOA-Ib) believed to be a single factor split by the PMF algorithm. All AMS reference spectra described below and in Sect. 3.3.2 were obtained from the AMS Spectral Database (Ulbrich et al., 2007).

Factor F1$_{AMS}$ is similar to oxygenated organic aerosol (OOA) factors obtained from AMS data in previous field studies (Zhang et al., 2007) using either the two-component deconvolution technique (Zhang et al., 2005) or PMF analysis ($R^2=0.96$ vs. Zurich winter OOA, Lanz et al., 2008a, and $R^2=0.90$ vs. both Zurich summer OOA-I, Lanz et al., 2007, and Pittsburgh OOA, Zhang et al., 2005). It is characterized by strong signal at $m/z$ 18 ($H_2O^+$) and 44 ($CO_2^+$), and low signal at $m/z$'s resulting from hydrocarbon
fragmentation. The time series of this factor correlates with particulate sulfate (Fig. 3b, $R^2=0.71$) and back trajectories passing over industrial regions to the west/southwest of Toronto (trajectories were calculated using the NOAA HYSPLIT model). $F_{1_{\text{AMS}}}$ accounts for 41.9% of the total organic mass.

Factor $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$ is similar to hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA) factors previously observed in the field (Zhang et al., 2007) $R^2=0.97$ vs. Zurich winter HOA, Lanz et al. (2008a), $R^2=0.95$ vs. Pittsburgh HOA, Zhang et al. (2005), and $R^2=0.91$ vs. Zurich summer HOA-I, Lanz et al. (2007). Unlike $F_{1_{\text{AMS}}}$, $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$ has negligible signal at $m/z$ 44. The organic functionality can be investigated by analyzing the delta ($\Delta$) patterns (McLafferty, 1980), where $\Delta=m/z−14n+1$ ($n$ is an integer). $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$ is dominated by the $\Delta=0$ (i.e., $m/z$ 27, 41, 55, 69, ...) and $\Delta=2$ ($m/z$ 29, 43, 57, 71, ...) series, which are characteristic of alkenes and alkanes, respectively. The time series of this factor correlates with NO$_x$ (Fig. 3b) and is elevated overnight and during the morning rush hour. Factor $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$ accounts for 16.6% of the total organic mass.

Factor $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ is attributed to charbroiling emissions. The mass spectrum of $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ shows strong signals at many of the same $m/z$'s as $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$. The mass spectrum is correlated with reference spectra for charbroiling emissions ($R^2=0.90$) and HOA ($R^2=0.90$ vs. Zurich winter HOA, Lanz et al., 2008a, and Pittsburgh HOA, Zhang et al., 2005). A difference between $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$ and $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ is in the relative intensities of the $\Delta=0$ and $\Delta=2$ series. Whereas in $F_{2_{\text{AMS}}}$ (HOA) the $\Delta=0$ and $\Delta=2$ series each comprised 26% of the factor mass spectrum, in $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ they represent 37% and 16% of the spectrum, respectively. Additionally, the diurnal profiles of the two factors are distinct, with $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ exhibiting strong signal around noon. Most of the $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ signal is concentrated in intense spikes of <1 min duration, which occur exclusively during the operation of a roadside hot dog stand ~25 m from the sampling inlet. Day-to-day variation in $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ is determined by the number of detected particles, not particle size, suggesting that the variation is driven by street-level mixing dynamics. $F_{3_{\text{AMS}}}$ comprises 26.1% of the total organic mass.

Factors $F_{4_{\text{AMS}}}$ and $F_{5_{\text{AMS}}}$ are more difficult to validate due to their lower concen-
trations and the absence of satisfactory tracer species. Factor $F_{4_{\text{AMS}}}$ is tentatively attributed to biomass burning emissions. Some features of the $F_{4_{\text{AMS}}}$ time series are correlated with the AMS potassium measurement (see Fig. 3b). However, AMS potassium measurements are not quantitative because of multiple ionization processes and high instrument background. Further, during the study period, potassium signals could also be obtained from road salt. The $F_{4_{\text{AMS}}}$ mass spectrum correlates only moderately well with previously extracted wood-burning factors (Lanz et al., 2007, 2008a) ($R^2 \sim 0.5$). However, burning signatures vary significantly with fuel type and burn conditions (Weimer et al., 2008). $F_{4_{\text{AMS}}}$ is the only factor with a significant contribution from $m/z$ 60, which is frequently used as a tracer for levoglucosan and an indicator of biomass burning (1.8% of the factor spectrum vs. 0.7% for $F_{1_{\text{AMS}}}$, for which $m/z$ 60 has the next largest contribution). For the Lanz et al. (2007, 2008a) wood-burning factors, $m/z$ 60 is between 1.4% (winter) and 3.2% (summer) of the spectrum. Factor $F_{4_{\text{AMS}}}$ accounts for 7.6% of the organic mass.

A unique feature of the $F_{5_{\text{AMS}}}$ mass spectrum is the prominent signal at $m/z$ 56 (16% of total). The presence of $m/z$ 44 indicates oxygenation, suggesting that $m/z$ 56 may be influenced by $C_3H_4O^+$ fragment, obtained from alkylcycloalkanones. However, contributions from $C_4H_8^+$ (cycloalkanes and branched alkenes), or $C_3H_6N^+$ (cyclic amines) cannot be ruled out. The $F_{5_{\text{AMS}}}$ time series does not correlate with any available tracer species. However, it does depend strongly on wind direction and is observed only during north/northeast winds. This specificity suggests the factor is due to a specific point source of primary emissions. The factor comprises 7.7% of the organic mass.

### 3.2 PTR-MS dataset

A 5-factor solution was selected for the PTR-MS dataset, using similar criteria as described above for the AMS dataset. The dataset was analyzed using both the “true” and “robust” modes, and results were found to be very similar, with the only significant difference being the the order in which new factors were resolved as the number of factors in the solution was increased. The results presented below were obtained using
the “true” mode.

Figure 4 is a plot of the scaled residual time series, \( \sum_j (e_{ij}/s_{ij})^2 \), for the 5-factor solution. The inset to Fig. 4 shows \( Q/Q_{\text{expected}} \) as a function of the number of factors. As was the case for the AMS dataset, significant structure remains in the residuals. In Fig. 5, the effect of the number of resolved factors on the residual time series is shown by plotting the quantity \( \Delta \left( \sum_j (e_{ij}/s_{ij})^2 \right) \) as was previously done for the AMS dataset in Fig. 2. The structure in the time series evident in Fig. 5a, b, and c indicates improvement in the solution by increasing the number of resolved factors. A further increase to 6 factors has little additional effect (Fig. 5d), with the improvements existing mostly as small modifications to periods where much larger gains were made at lower numbers of factors (compare for example the structure on 2 January 2007 in Fig. 5a and d). Similar time series are obtained as the number of factors increases above 6, suggesting that these higher-order solutions represent variations in source profiles, rather than providing factors than can be meaningfully interpreted.

The mass spectra and time series for the 5-factor solution to the PTR-MS dataset are presented in Fig. 6a and b, respectively. The mass spectra are normalized such that the sum of each spectrum is equal to 1, while the time series are reported in units of ppb. An alternate picture of the factor mass spectra is provided in Fig. 7. Here we report the fraction of the signal at a given \( m/z \) apportioned to each factor. The differences between the value of each \( m/z \) stack and 1 is the signal at that \( m/z \) remaining in the residuals.

Factor F1\textsubscript{PTR} is identified with traffic emissions. As shown in Fig. 7, factor F1\textsubscript{PTR} contains 63–71% of the signal from aromatic compounds at or above \( m/z \) 93 and 42% of the benzene signal (\( m/z \) 79). The mass spectrum (Fig. 6a) shows a toluene/benzene ratio of 2.52, suggesting relatively fresh emissions. The toluene/benzene ratio can be used as a photochemical clock, because these two aromatics are typically emitted by the similar sources, but toluene has a shorter lifetime (Roberts et al., 1984). In the
present study, source emissions were estimated to have a toluene/benzene ratio of ∼4.0, and the ratio approaches zero with increasing photochemical age. The source emission ratio is consistent with previous measurements of fresh traffic emissions (de Gouw et al., 2005; Kristensson et al., 2004). The F1_{PTR} factor peaks during the morning and evening rush hours (3–5 times nighttime values) and is slightly elevated during the rest of the day. As shown in Fig. 6b, the factor correlates strongly with NOx ($R^2 = 0.64$).

The mass spectrum of F2_{PTR} is dominated by signal at m/z 61 (acetic acid), and includes 59% of the acetic acid signal. The factor time series (Fig. 6b) correlates well with AMS OOA (F1_{AMS}) for most of the study, suggesting a contribution from transported, well-processed air. However, this correlation breaks down during the period of 29–31 January, where strong spikes in the F2_{PTR} time series are not reflected in the OOA data. Such short-lived and intense features in the F2_{PTR} time series likely indicate a local source. Further, the factor mass spectrum (Fig. 6a) shows a toluene/benzene ratio of 2.78, which is consistent with fresh emissions, although the aromatics constitute only a small fraction of the factor mass spectrum and the factor contains only ∼10% of the aromatic signal. Acetic acid is a product of ambient photochemical reactions, but has also been observed in emissions from spark-ignition engines (Zervas et al., 2001). The information provided above suggests that F2_{PTR} is influenced by both local emissions and transported air, and that these contributions cannot be decoupled through PMF using only the PTR-MS dataset. As will be discussed later, the effects of these sources can be largely decoupled in the unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset.

Similar issues arise for factor F3_{PTR}. As was the case for F2_{PTR}, the F3_{PTR} time series correlates well with OOA for much of the study, but does not correlate during spikes in the F3_{PTR} intensity. The toluene/benzene ratio is 1.86, which although lower than either F1_{PTR} or F2_{PTR}, is still high enough to suggest some contributions from local emissions sources. The factor mass spectrum is dominated by acetone and includes 56% of the total acetone signal. F3_{PTR} also contains strong signals at m/z 45 (acetaldehyde) and m/z 73 (methyl ethyl ketone, methylglyoxal, butanal). Figure 7 shows
that while acetaldehyde is primarily found in other factors, most of the non-residual 
$m/z$ 73 is assigned to $F_{3_{\text{PTR}}}$. Several of the time series spikes during the 31 January– 
2 February period are attributed to known local painting activity. Both acetone and 
methyl ethyl ketone have primary emissions sources (including paint solvents), but are 
also generated as photochemical reaction products. Similar to $F_{2_{\text{PTR}}}$, $F_{3_{\text{PTR}}}$ is affected 
by both local emissions and transported air, and the two effects can be decoupled only 
in the unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset.

$F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$ contains 63% of the acetaldehyde signal ($m/z$ 45), a VOC oxidation product 
with a lifetime of less than a day. The signals at $m/z$ 31, 59, and 61 are attributed to 
formaldehyde, acetone (with potential minor contributions from propanal and glyoxal), 
and acetic acid, respectively, which are all produced from VOC oxidation. In contrast to 
the factors described above, $F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$ has a low toluene/benzene ratio (0.42), indicating 
that this factor is more photochemically aged than, for example, $F_{1_{\text{PTR}}}$. The relatively 
short lifetimes of formaldehyde and acetaldehyde suggest that $F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$ is the result of 
local oxidation. As discussed in Sect. 3.3.3 in connection with the unified dataset, the 
amount of formaldehyde apportioned to secondary oxidation is consistent with previous 
urban studies during winter. A difficulty in interpreting factor $F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$ is that no correlated 
tracer species were found. However, this is not surprising given that the available tracer 
species were expected to correlate with either direct emissions or transported, aged 
air. $F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$ is anticorrelated with temperature ($R^2=0.50$), as shown in Fig. 6b.

Like $F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$, factor $F_{5_{\text{PTR}}}$ consists primarily of long- and short-lived oxygenated com-

pounds, although acetaldehyde is proportionally lower. Given the oxygenated nature 
of the other constituents in $F_{5_{\text{PTR}}}$, the signal at $m/z$ 43 is probably from the $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}^+$ 
ion, which results from a variety of oxygenated compounds, including peroxyacetyl ni-

trate (PAN), acetone, and acetic acid (de Gouw and Warneke, 2007). As was the case 
for $F_{4_{\text{PTR}}}$, $F_{5_{\text{PTR}}}$ does not correlate with any available tracers. However, it exhibits no 
temperature dependence. The absence of distinct events in the time series and the 
low toluene/benzene ratio of 0.65 suggest that the factor is not being dominated by a 
local point source.
3.3 Unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset

3.3.1 Selection and evaluation of solution

As stated in the Methods section, the AMS and PTR-MS datasets were weighted equally in solutions to the unified dataset by applying the weighting factor $C_{\text{PTR}}$ to the instrument uncertainties. As a result, the solution space to be explored for the unified dataset has two dimensions: (1) the number of output factors and (2) the value of $C_{\text{PTR}}$. The Methods section (Eq. 3) also introduced the metric $\Delta \bar{e}_{\text{sc}}$, which is used to evaluate the relative weight of the AMS and PTR-MS datasets. We note again that the datasets are equally weighted when $\Delta \bar{e}_{\text{sc}}=0$.

Figure 8 shows the value of $\Delta \bar{e}_{\text{sc}}$ as a function of the number of output factors (x-axis) and $C_{\text{PTR}}$ (colored traces). The following values of $C_{\text{PTR}}$ were tested: 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, 200, 500, and 1000. For each value, the 1- to 10-factor solutions were analyzed. Points within this matrix that are absent from Fig. 8 correspond to non-convergent solutions.

Several features are evident in Fig. 8. First, we note that for most of the $C_{\text{PTR}}$ traces, $\Delta \bar{e}_{\text{sc}}$ becomes closer to zero as the number of resolved factors increases. This is the expected behavior, because the degrees of freedom in the solution is increasing. Second, it is evident that the set of solutions for $C_{\text{PTR}}=1$ is never balanced, with $\Delta \bar{e}_{\text{sc}}$ values ranging from $-6.2$ (2 factors) to $-1.5$ (10 factors). The figure shows that $C_{\text{PTR}}$ values between 10 and 20 lead to balanced solutions. The solution at $C_{\text{PTR}}=10$ is presented below. Solutions for $C_{\text{PTR}}=5$ and $C_{\text{PTR}}=20$ are presented in the Supplemental Information, see: http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/9/6739/2009/acpd-9-6739-2009-supplement.pdf.

As was done for the individual AMS and PTR-MS datasets, the number of factors in the solution to the unified dataset is selected through analysis of the residual time series, factor mass spectra, and factor profiles. As will be discussed, the 5-factor solution was selected as optimal and is presented below. In Fig. 9, we show the scaled residual...
time series, $\sum_j (e_{ij}/s_{ij})^2$, for the 5-factor solution. In the top panel, the residuals are plotted for the entire unified solution, while in the lower two panels they are segregated by instrument. The ratio $Q/Q_{\text{expected}}$ as a function of the number of factors is shown in the inset. Note that the difference in scale between the PTR-MS residuals in this figure vs. those in Fig. 5 (i.e. the PTR-MS dataset) is due to the inclusion of $C_{\text{PTR}}$ in the residual calculation for the unified dataset. The PTR-MS scaled residuals in the unified dataset are larger than those in the individual PTR-MS dataset by a factor of 600; of this a factor of 100 is due to the inclusion of $C_{\text{PTR}}=10$ in the calculation, while the remaining factor of 6 is due to changes in $e_{ij}$ between the two solutions. The AMS residuals are larger in the unified dataset by a factor of 17 relative to the individual dataset.

The PTR-MS scaled residual time series in Fig. 9 is qualitatively similar to that obtained from the individual PTR-MS dataset (Fig. 4). For both the individual and unified datasets, the AMS residuals include strong concentration spikes, which were identified with charbroiling emissions in the individual AMS dataset. A difference is the inclusion in the AMS unified residuals of longer-duration events on 28 January, which correspond to the unidentified northerly point source, F5$_{\text{AMS}}$.

In Fig. 10, we plot the change in the scaled residual time series, $\Delta \left( \sum_j (e_{ij}/s_{ij})^2 \right)$, as a function of the number of resolved factors. Here the AMS and PTR-MS residuals are plotted separately in the left and right-hand columns, respectively. Structure is evident in the AMS time series for increases up to 5 factors. Selecting a larger number of factors mostly causes changes in the magnitude of the concentration spikes. For the PTR-MS, there is no clear-cut point at which the changes in the residual structure decrease. However, for solutions containing at least 5 factors, $\Delta \left( \sum_j (e_{ij}/s_{ij})^2 \right)$ is consistently dominated by structure in the period of 29 to 31 January. Further, in-
increasing the number of factors beyond 5 leads to AMS factors with very similar mass spectra. As discussed previously, such splitting behavior has been associated with excessive numbers of factors (Ulbrich et al., 2008). The 6-factor solution also contains a split PTR-MS factor. The number of factors is therefore selected at 5, although the possibility of meaningful factors in higher-order solutions cannot be completely ruled out.

3.3.2 Physical interpretation of factors

The factors obtained from the 5-factor solution to the unified dataset at $C_{\text{PTR}}=10$ are discussed below in terms of the results shown in Figs. 11 and 12. Figure 11 contains the factor profiles and time series, plotted as follows. In Fig. 11a, the AMS spectra are shown as sticks (left and bottom axes) and the PTR-MS spectra as bars (top and right axes). Signal intensity is normalized such that each factor mass spectrum of the individual instrument sums to 1. In Fig. 11b, the time series are plotted (black traces, left axes) in terms of mass concentration ($\mu g/m^3$) for the AMS and mixing ratio (ppb) for the PTR-MS. Selected tracer species ($\text{NO}_x$, particulate $\text{NO}_3$) are also shown (gray traces, right axis). In Fig. 12, we plot the fraction of signal apportioned to the AMS and to each PTR-MS $m/z$. The factors are discussed individually below. As previously stated, all AMS reference spectra described below were obtained from the AMS Spectral Database (Ulbrich et al., 2007).

Factor $F_{1\text{UN}}$ is attributed mostly to charbroiling emissions, although it likely also contains traffic emissions, as discussed in the following section. The factor time series and AMS mass spectrum of factor $F_{1\text{UN}}$ are both very similar to that of the charbroiling factor $F_{3\text{AMS}}$ (time series $R^2=0.97$; mass spectrum $R^2=0.92$). The time trend of $F_{1\text{UN}}$ correlates with that of PTR-MS $m/z$ 69 ($R^2=0.53$), which was excluded from the PMF analysis due to low signal-to-noise. Several compounds contribute to $m/z$ 69, including furan, which is produced during meat cooking (Lee, 1999) and other combustion-related processes (Andreae and Merlet, 2001; Beychok, 1987). Previous discussions
of the F3_{AMS} factor hold for F1_{UN}, notably that the particle mass spectrum is characteristic of aliphatic hydrocarbons and that the time series is dominated by short-duration concentration spikes clustered in the early afternoon. F1_{UN} accounts for 47.2% of the AMS mass, compared to only 26.1% for F3_{AMS}. As shown in Fig. 12, F1_{UN} contains 18% to 29% of the PTR-MS aromatics, depending on the m/z. As discussed for F3_{AMS}, day-to-day variation in F1_{UN} is likely governed by local mixing dynamics.

Factor F2_{UN} is associated with traffic emissions. The factor time series is correlated with NOx (Fig. 11b), which was also the case for the HOA factor F2_{AMS} and traffic factor F1_{PTR}. The AMS mass spectrum is also similar to that of F2_{AMS} ($R^2=0.83$), indicating a hydrocarbon-dominated particle composition. The PTR-MS mass spectrum is somewhat different between F2_{UN} and F1_{PTR}. The mass spectrum has a larger fraction of acetone and acetaldehyde relative to the aromatics and other oxygenated species. The toluene/benzene ratio is 3.42, suggesting fresh emissions. Further, the spectrum contains 13% of the benzene, and 20% to 25% of the m/z’s corresponding to higher aromatics (Fig. 12).

The AMS mass spectrum of factor F3_{UN} closely resembles that of F1_{AMS} (OOA) ($R^2=0.995$) and previously reported OOA-I spectra (Lanz et al., 2007; Ulbrich et al., 2008). Similar to F1_{AMS}, the oxygenated species at m/z 18 and 44 are prominent, and the time trend correlates with AMS nitrate (Fig. 11b) and sulfate (not shown, but correlated with F1_{AMS} in Fig. 3b). The mass spectrum and correlations suggest that the factor is generated by secondary oxidation reactions. The PTR-MS mass spectrum is unique to the unified dataset and dominated by signals attributable to oxygenated species, with acetone (m/z 59) as the strongest signal. These species are consistent with secondary oxidation, though they also have direct emissions sources. The factor is attributed to regional transport of secondary organic aerosol. The apportionment of oxygenated VOCs such as acetone to this type of factor is an important feature of the unified dataset solution and is discussed further in the following section.

Factor F4_{UN} is consistent with local oxidation. The PTR-MS mass spectrum is similar to that of F4_{PTR}, and is dominated by acetaldehyde. As shown in Fig. 12, the other
contributing VOCs are oxygenated (most notably formaldehyde) and signal from the aromatics is negligible. Compared to F3_UN, F4_UN has a stronger contribution from oxygenated VOCs with shorter lifetimes. The dominant species in F4_UN, acetaldehyde and formaldehyde, have lifetimes of less than a day, while acetic acid and acetone, which are more prominent in F3_UN, have lifetimes on the order of a few weeks. The AMS mass spectrum somewhat resembles that of the OOA-like factors (F3_UN and F1_AMS), but has proportionally more signal at m/z 43, 55 and in the C_4-C_6 range, indicating less oxygenation. The spectrum is similar to the OOA-II factors observed in Zurich (Lanz et al., 2007) and Pittsburgh (Ulbrich et al., 2008), which have been attributed to oxygenated organics that are more volatile and/or result from more recent oxidation than the OOA-I in F3_UN and F1_AMS. The correlations in the present study with shorter-lived oxygenated VOCs and anticorrelation with temperature suggest that both the oxidation timescale and volatility contribute here to the factor time series. The particle spectrum of F4_UN is unique to the unified dataset.

As shown in Fig. 12, factor F5_UN contains almost 50% of the aromatic signal, indicating fresh, primary emissions. This is supported by the high toluene/benzene ratio (2.19). The oxygenated VOCs included in this factor have both primary and secondary sources. The AMS mass spectrum (Fig. 11a) is unique in containing a significant contribution from m/z 56, which can result from the fragmentation of cyclic ketones. However, this factor includes only ~5% of the AMS signal, which is sufficiently small to render the AMS component unreliable (Ulbrich et al., 2008). The factor time series does not correlate with any available tracer species. However, the dominant features in the time series are correlated with features in F2_PTR and F5_PTR, which were believed to result from a mixture of local sources and transported reaction products. Because of the large fraction of aromatics assigned to F5_UN (Fig. 12), it is likely that this factor contains the primary contribution to F2_PTR and F5_PTR, with the secondary contributions assigned to F3_UN (long-lived oxidation products/OOA-I) and F4_UN (short-lived oxidation products/OOA-II), respectively.
3.3.3 Comparison of unified and individual datasets

For the first time, PMF has been applied to a unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset. This analysis provides information on particle and VOC sources and atmospheric processing that cannot be obtained from the datasets of the individual instruments.

The unified dataset enables apportionment of the oxygenated VOCs as primary emissions or secondary reaction products, which was not possible with the individual PTR-MS dataset. Metrics that may be used to identify factors resulting from primary emissions are: (1) aromatic VOCs, which are exclusively primary emissions, (2) hydrocarbon-like particulate organics, (3) correlation between the factor time series and a primary tracer, and (4) diurnal patterns, where the primary source can be identified and has a distinct diurnal emission pattern. In the unified solution, factors F1_{UN} and F2_{UN} satisfy all four metrics, while F5_{UN} satisfies (1), (2) and (3) cannot be evaluated due to low signal in the AMS and lack of any correlated tracer, and (4) cannot be assessed due to the uncertain source identity. Further, the oxygenated character of the AMS and PTR-MS factor profiles for F3_{UN} and F4_{UN} suggest these factors are secondary reaction products, as does the time series correlation of F3_{UN} with nitrate and sulfate.

Use of these classifications provides an approach to estimating the fraction of each VOC resulting from primary emissions (F1_{UN}, F2_{UN}, F5_{UN}) vs. secondary reactions (F3_{UN}, F4_{UN}). For example, Fig. 12 indicates that 55% of formaldehyde (m/z 31) is directly emitted, compared to only 35% of acetaldehyde (m/z 45). The primary contribution of formaldehyde in this study (55%) is consistent with values reported for other urban locations. Best agreement is found with a winter study in Rome (Possanzini et al., 2002) (65–70%) and an April 2003 study in Mexico City (Garcia et al., 2006) (42 to 63%). Photochemical production makes a larger contribution during the summer, as evidenced by lower primary contributions during campaigns in Rome (Possanzini et al., 2002) (10–20%), Houston (Friedfeld et al., 2002) (22%), and a rural site near Vancouver (Li et al., 1997) (33%). Approximately 60% of both acetone and acetic acid
are attributed to primary emissions, which is slightly higher than the 52% reported for acetone at a site outside Vancouver during summer (Li et al., 1997). All of the \( m/z \)'s corresponding to non-benzene aromatics have >95% attributed to primary sources. Benzene is more complex, with only \( \sim \)70% attributed to direct emission factors. This may be because of interferences at \( m/z \) 79, or because the benzene lifetime is sufficiently long to persist into the time scale of the secondary factors. This consideration also holds for the longer-lived oxygenated species (i.e. acetone and acetic acid), meaning that the values presented above should be considered as lower limits for the direct emission contribution.

The primary/secondary VOC analysis presented above is only possible through the unified dataset. In the individual PTR-MS dataset, several factors were identified as having contributions from both primary and secondary sources. Inclusion of the AMS data, where the classification of hydrocarbon vs. OOA is more closely related to primary vs. secondary sources, directs the PMF deconvolution of the unified dataset along these lines. Similarly, the AMS primary/secondary classification is enhanced by the inclusion of PTR-MS data. This is shown in Fig. 13, where the aerosol mass fraction attributed to OOA factors is plotted as a function of the toluene-to-benzene ratio for the AMS and unified datasets. The figure shows a significantly tighter correlation between the OOA mass fraction and the toluene/benzene ratio for the unified dataset \( (R^2 = 0.53 \text{ vs. } R^2 = 0.06 \text{ for the AMS dataset}) \). Correlation between these two quantities is expected because the toluene/benzene ratio is inversely related to photochemical age (Roberts et al., 1984) and the oxygen content of organic aerosol is known to increase with photochemical age.

Through inclusion of the PTR-MS data in the unified dataset, the AMS OOA is resolved into OOA-I and OOA-II components. As noted in the previous section, both OOA-I and OOA-II have been extracted in several AMS datasets (Lanz et al., 2007; Ulbrich et al., 2008). However, the OOA-II could not be distinguished in the present dataset using only AMS data. The key factor in resolving OOA-II in the unified dataset is the distinction between short-lived photochemical reaction products (formaldehyde,
acetaldehyde) vs. long-lived products (acetone, acetic acid). The OOA-I/OOA-II distinction is important because it provides information about the relative age of the particulate organics: time periods with a higher ratio of OOA-I to OOA-II are generally more processed. Lanz et al. (2008a) encountered a similar situation with respect to a wood-burning factor that was not resolvable from PMF of AMS-only data, but was extracted by forcing the mass spectrum of one factor towards the desired profile. The present study indicates that inclusion of tracer species in the PMF analysis is useful in extracting hard-to-resolve factors in such cases.

Another important feature of the unified solution is the re-mixing or disappearance of several factors resolved in the individual datasets. For the PTR-MS factors, the prominent features in the time series are generally redistributed among factors in ways that enhance interpretation of the dataset, as described above in terms of primary vs. secondary species. However, different behavior is observed with respect to the distribution of mass between F1_{AMS} (charbroiling) vs. F2_{AMS} (HOA) into F1_{UN} and F2_{UN}, and the disappearance from the unified dataset solutions of F4_{AMS} (biomass burning) and F5_{AMS} (northeast point source).

The charbroiling and HOA factors have very similar mass spectra and cannot be reliably distinguished under some circumstances (Ulbrich et al., 2008). For the AMS dataset, the proximity of the sampling inlet to a major charbroiling source contributes to a distinctive time series for F1_{AMS}, aiding in the separation of the F1_{AMS} and F2_{AMS} factors. While the factors remain separated in the unified dataset, the mass fraction of each changes significantly. The charbroiling and HOA factors respectively contain 26.1% and 16.6% of the AMS signal in the individual dataset, vs. 47.3% and 5.8% in the unified dataset. This suggests that the charbroiling vs. HOA apportionment is not fully quantitative in either dataset.

Factors F4_{AMS} (biomass burning) and F5_{AMS} (northeast point source) do not resemble any of the factors resolved in the unified dataset. These factors contained relatively small mass fractions in the AMS (7.6% and 7.7%, respectively). This locates them very close to the ∼5% limit for AMS factor extraction observed in synthetic datasets.
(Ulbrich et al., 2008). While the analysis presented for the AMS dataset suggests that these factors are in fact real, they make only minor contributions to the AMS data and do not exert sufficient influence on $Q$ to be resolved. The major features of the $F_{5,AMS}$ time series (Fig. 3b) are contained in the AMS residuals for the unified dataset (Fig. 9). However, variations in the other factors exert a stronger influence on $Q$.

### 4 Conclusions

We present the first application of positive matrix factorization (PMF) to a unified AMS/PTR-MS dataset. The datasets are equally weighted through the use of a residual based metric, $\Delta e_{sc}$. This method can be directly applied to any dataset containing two mass spectrometers, and is readily generalized to account for three or more instruments. The unified dataset provides a complementary approach to analysis of the individual instrument datasets. In this study, the previously identified oxygenated aerosol factors OOA-I and OOA-II could be distinguished only within the unified dataset. Further, the unified dataset greatly enhanced interpretation of oxygenated VOC sources, apportioning them into primary sources vs. secondary reaction products. Minor factors in the individual dataset of one instrument lacking corresponding tracers in the other may not be resolvable in the unified dataset.

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Fig. 1. Residual time series for the 6-factor solution to the AMS dataset. The inset shows the ratio $Q/Q_{\text{expected}}$ as a function of the number of factors in the solution.
Fig. 2. Effect of the number of factors contained in a solution on the residual time series for the AMS dataset.
Fig. 3a. Mass spectra (a) and time series (b) for the PMF solution to the AMS dataset. (b) includes the time series both for the PMF factors (black traces, left axis) and selected tracer species (gray traces, right axis).
Fig. 3b. Continued.
Fig. 4. Residual time series for the 5-factor solution to the PTR-MS dataset. The inset shows the ratio $Q/Q_{\text{expected}}$ as a function of the number of factors in the solution.
Fig. 5. Effect of the number of factors contained in a solution on the residual time series for the PTR-MS dataset.
Fig. 6a. Mass spectra (a) and time series (b) for the PMF solution to the AMS dataset. (b) includes the time series both for the PMF factors (black traces, left axis) and selected tracer species (gray traces, right axis). Note that the temperature axis (vs. F4$_{\text{PTR}}$) is reversed.
Fig. 6b. Continued.
Fig. 7. Mass spectra for the 5-factor solution to the PTR-MS dataset represented as the fraction of signal at each m/z assigned to the specified factor. Differences between the stacked total and 1 are due to signal contained in the residuals.
Fig. 8. Change in the mean scaled residual between the AMS and PTR-MS ($\Delta\bar{e}_{sc}$) as a function of the number of factors in the solution (x-axis) and the PTR-MS weighting factor ($C_{PTR}$). Instruments carry their natural weight at $C_{PTR}=1$; the instruments are balanced at $\Delta\bar{e}_{sc}=0$. 
Fig. 9. Residual time series for the 5-factor solution to the unified dataset. The inset shows the ratio $Q/Q_{\text{expected}}$ as a function of the number of factors in the solution. Separate residual traces are shown for total, AMS, and PTR-MS residuals.
Fig. 10. Effect of the number of factors contained in a solution on the residual time series for the unified dataset. AMS and PTR-MS residuals are separately in the left and right-hand columns, respectively. Note the $2 \rightarrow 3$ factor plots are on a different vertical scale.
Fig. 11a. Mass spectra (a) and time series (b) for the PMF solution to the unified dataset. (b) includes the time series both for the PMF factors (black traces, left axis) and selected tracer species (gray traces, right axis). Note the temperature axis (vs. $F_{4\,\text{UN}}$) is reversed.
Fig. 11b. Continued.
Fig. 12. Mass spectra for the 5-factor solution to the unified dataset represented as the fraction of signal in the AMS and at each PTR-MS m/z assigned to the specified factor. Differences between the stacked total and 1 are due to signal contained in the residuals.
Fig. 13a. Mass fraction of oxygenated aerosol as a function of the toluene/benzene ratio. The toluene/benzene ratio is inversely related to photochemical age.
(OOA-I + OOA-II) / Total organics

(b) Unified Dataset

Toluene / Benzene

Fig. 13b. Continued.