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1 **Source apportionment and sensitivity**  
2 **analysis: two methodologies with two**  
3 **different purposes.**

4  
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10

11 **Abstract**

12 In this work are reviewed the existing methodologies for source  
13 apportionment and sensitivity analysis to identify key differences  
14 and stress their implicit limitations. The emphasis is laid on the  
15 differences between source “impacts” (sensitivity analysis) and  
16 “contributions” (source apportionment) obtained by using four  
17 different methodologies: brute force top-down, brute force bottom-  
18 up, tagged species and DDM. A simple theoretical example to  
19 compare these approaches is used highlighting differences and  
20 potential implications for policy. When the relationships between  
21 concentration and emissions are linear, impacts and contributions are  
22 equivalent concepts. In this case, source apportionment may be used  
23 for air quality planning purposes and vice versa, sensitivity analysis  
24 may be used for quantifying sources contributions.

25 However, this study demonstrates that when the relationship  
26 between emissions and concentrations is non-linear, sensitivity  
27 approaches are not suitable to retrieve source contributions and  
28 source apportionment methods are not appropriate to evaluate the  
29 impact of abatement strategies. Moreover, when using sensitivity  
30 analysis for planning, it is important to note that, under non-linear  
31 circumstances, the calculated impacts will only provide information  
32 for the exact conditions (e.g. emission reduction share) that are  
33 simulated.  
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36 **Keywords:** source apportionment, sensitivity analysis, abatement strategies,  
37 air quality planning  
38

## 39 1. Introduction

40  
41 The concentration of a pollutant at a given location generally results  
42 from direct emissions and from interactions in the atmosphere  
43 among different emission precursors, emitted by a variety of  
44 sources. For example, particulate matter (denoted here as PM)  
45 results from the interaction and combination of 5 precursors (PPM,  
46 NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and VOC) which can be emitted by different  
47 activity macro-sectors (e.g. residential, transport, industrial and  
48 agriculture).

49  
50 Abatement strategies aim at reducing the precursor's emission of the  
51 different activity sector to reduce pollutant concentrations but these  
52 strategies are challenging to design because of the complex  
53 relationships that link precursors and pollutants.

54 Two different approaches are currently used to support air quality  
55 decision makers: source apportionment and sensitivity analysis.

- 56
- 57 • Source apportionment quantifies the **contribution** of an  
58 emission source (or precursor) to the concentration of one  
59 pollutant at one given location.
  - 60 • Sensitivity analysis estimates the **impact** on pollutant  
61 concentration that results from a change of one or more emission  
62 sources.

63  
64 The main objective of this work is to review the existing  
65 methodologies, identify key differences and stress their implicit  
66 limitations. We will particularly focus on the differences between  
67 concentration “impacts” (sensitivity) and “contributions” (source  
68 apportionment) obtained with different methodologies. We make use  
69 of a simple theoretical example to compare the approaches, highlight  
70 differences and potential implications in terms of policy. In the  
71 following sections, we analyze first how these methodologies work



72 in a simple linear case before generalizing it to more complex non-  
73 linear situations.  
74

## 75 **2. Linear simplification and implications**

76  
77 Let's consider  $C$  a pollutant concentration at one location that is a  
78 function of three variables ( $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$ ), i.e. the emissions of three  
79 precursors or sources within a given domain:  $C = C(E_1, E_2, E_3)$ . For  
80 a linear relationship between the function  $C$  and the three variables  
81  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$ , we can write:  
82

$$83 \quad C(E_1, E_2, E_3) = C(0, 0, 0) + P_1 E_1 + P_2 E_2 + P_3 E_3 \quad (1)$$

84 where  $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  and  $P_3$  are three constant coefficients.  
85

86 On the other hand, the sensitivity of the concentration to a change of  
87 a given emission source can be quantified via partial derivatives. For  
88 expression (1) this gives:  
89

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial E_1} = P_1 ; \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_2} = P_2 ; \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_3} = P_3$$

90  
91 In Clappier et al. (2017) the coefficients ( $P_1$ ,  $P_2$  and  $P_3$ ) are referred  
92 to "potencies". The Authors used this concept of "potencies" to  
93 analyze the model response to emission changes in different  
94 European countries.  
95

96 The consequences of a linear relationship between concentration and  
97 emission sources are twofold:

98 1) all higher order derivatives (order 2 and beyond) are null,  
99 including those involving two or more emission sources (crossed  
100 derivatives) as the impact of a change in one emission source is  
101 independent from all others.

102 2) the first-order partial derivatives are constant and can therefore be  
103 calculated with finite differencing, between any couple of emission



104 levels, for example a base case (denoted BC) and a background  
105 (denoted as 0).

106 The potency equations then read as:

107

$$P_1 = \frac{\Delta C_0^{BC_1}}{E_1^{BC}} ; P_2 = \frac{\Delta C_0^{BC_2}}{E_2^{BC}} ; P_3 = \frac{\Delta C_0^{BC_3}}{E_3^{BC}}$$

108

109 with  $\Delta C_0^{BC_1} = C(E_1^{BC}, 0, 0) - C(0, 0, 0)$ ,

110  $\Delta C_0^{BC_2} = C(0, E_2^{BC}, 0) - C(0, 0, 0)$

111  $\Delta C_0^{BC_3} = C(0, 0, E_3^{BC}) - C(0, 0, 0)$

112

113 Together with "potencies", Clappier et al. also introduce the concept  
114 of "potential", defined as the concentration change resulting from a  
115 total reduction of the emissions (from BC to 0). The "potential" can  
116 be calculated via relation (1) applied between the base-case and  
117 background levels as:

118

$$\Delta C_0^{BC} = \Delta C_0^{BC_1} + \Delta C_0^{BC_2} + \Delta C_0^{BC_3} \quad (2)$$

119

120 where  $\Delta C_0^{BC} = C(E_1^{BC}, E_2^{BC}, E_3^{BC}) - C(0, 0, 0)$

121

122 Equation (2) can directly be used for source apportionment purpose,  
123 with  $\Delta C_0^{BC_1}$  the concentration change resulting from a total reduction  
124 of the emission source (or precursor)  $E_1$ , reflecting the contribution  
125 of  $E_1$  to the base case concentration. Similarly  $\Delta C_0^{BC_2}$  and  $\Delta C_0^{BC_3}$  are  
126 the contributions of  $E_2$  and  $E_3$ . Equation (2) shows that, in the  
127 linear case, the concentration change resulting from a simultaneous  
128 reduction of all emission sources ( $\Delta C_0^{BC}$ ) is equal to the sum of the  
129 emission sources contributions.

130

131 In the next sections, we will explore how this simple conclusion  
132 changes when non-linear relationships are considered. In particular,  
133 we will assess which implications (and limitations) these non-  
134 linearities have in terms of source apportionment and sensitivity  
135 analysis.

136



### 137 3. Brute Force method

138

139 The “brute force” method consists in estimating the concentration  
140 change by performing and subtracting two simulations, one with and  
141 the second without a specific emission source to be analysed  
142 (Blanchard, 1999; Yarwood et al., 2004).

143 In non-linear situations, the concentration change resulting from a  
144 set of emission sources is not anymore equivalent to the sum of the  
145 concentration changes resulting from emission sources changed  
146 individually. In the following, we will refer to the work of Stein and  
147 Alpert (1993) who proposed an approach to decompose an overall  
148 impact into single (one emission source only) and combined  
149 (multiple emission sources) impacts.

150

151

#### 152 3.1. Bottom-up formulation

153

154

155 We consider here three emission precursors  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$  that are  
156 changing from a low (denoted as “L”) to a high level (denoted as  
157 “H”). In a bottom-up approach, the low emission level is chosen as  
158 the reference. With these definitions and notations, the impact on  
159 concentration resulting from a change of one only of the three  
160 precursor’s emissions can be written as follows:

161

$$\Delta C_L^{H_1} = C(E_1^H, E_2^L, E_3^L) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

$$\Delta C_L^{H_2} = C(E_1^L, E_2^H, E_3^L) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

$$\Delta C_L^{H_3} = C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^H) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

162

163 While the impact on concentration resulting from the simultaneous  
164 changes of two or three precursor’s emissions would be written as:

165

$$\Delta C_L^{H_1, H_2} = C(E_1^H, E_2^H, E_3^L) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

$$\Delta C_L^{H_1, H_3} = C(E_1^H, E_2^L, E_3^H) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

$$\Delta C_L^{H_2, H_3} = C(E_1^L, E_2^H, E_3^H) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

$$\Delta C_L^H = C(E_1^H, E_2^H, E_3^H) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$



166 Using a similar notation, the decomposition of Stein and Alpert  
 167 applied to 2 variables ( $E_1$  and  $E_2$ ) would read as:  
 168

$$\Delta C_L^{H_1, H_2} = \Delta C_L^{H_1} + \Delta C_L^{H_2} + \hat{C}^{int} \quad (3)$$

169  
 170

171 where  $\Delta C_L^{H_1}$  and  $\Delta C_L^{H_2}$  are the impacts induced by the change in  
 172 emission sources  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  taken independently and  $\Delta C_L^{H_1, H_2}$  the  
 173 impact induced from  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  taken simultaneously.  
 174

175 It is clear from (3) that the impact of a simultaneous change of two  
 176 emission sources is not equivalent to the sum of the individual  
 177 impacts, as highlighted by the additional term  $\hat{C}^{int}$ . This term that  
 178 quantifies the interaction between the two emission sources can be  
 179 calculated using (3) as:  
 180

$$\hat{C}^{int} = \hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2} = \Delta C_L^{H_1, H_2} - \Delta C_L^{H_1} - \Delta C_L^{H_2} \quad (4)$$

181

182 The Stein and Alpert formulation can similarly be applied with 3  
 183 emission sources:  
 184

$$\Delta C_L^{\bar{H}} = \Delta C_L^{H_1} + \Delta C_L^{H_2} + \Delta C_L^{H_3} + \hat{C}^{int} \quad (5)$$

185

186 Where  $\Delta C_L^{H_1}$ ,  $\Delta C_L^{H_2}$  and  $\Delta C_L^{H_3}$  are the impact on concentration  
 187 resulting from single emission changes in the sources and  
 188

$$\hat{C}^{int} = \hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2} + \hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_3} + \hat{C}_L^{H_2, H_3} + \hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2, H_3} \quad (6)$$

189

190 where  $\hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2}$ ,  $\hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_3}$  and  $\hat{C}_L^{H_2, H_3}$  are the double interaction terms that  
 191 can be further decomposed via equation (4).  $\hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2, H_3}$  is the triple  
 192 interaction term (between  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$ ,  $E_3$ ) which can be decomposed by  
 193 combining (5) and (6) as:  
 194



7

$$\hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2, H_3} = \Delta C_L^{\bar{H}} - \Delta C_L^{H_1} - \Delta C_L^{H_2} - \Delta C_L^{H_3}$$

$$\Delta C_L^{H_1, H_2} - \Delta C_L^{H_1, H_3} - \Delta C_L^{H_2, H_3}$$

195

196 3.2. Top-down formulation

197

198 In a top-down formulation, the highest emission level is chosen as  
 199 reference. The Stein Alpert formulation for three precursors can then  
 200 be expressed similarly to the bottom-up formulation as:

201

$$\Delta C_L^{\bar{H}} = \Delta C_{L_1}^H + \Delta C_{L_2}^H + \Delta C_{L_3}^H + \hat{C}^{int} \quad (7)$$

202

203 where  $\Delta C_{L_1}^{\bar{H}}$ ,  $\Delta C_{L_2}^{\bar{H}}$  and  $\Delta C_{L_3}^{\bar{H}}$  are the impacts on concentration induced  
 204 by reducing  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$  independently whereas  $\hat{C}^{int}$  is the  
 205 interaction term which itself can be decomposed into a series of  
 206 double interactions and a triple interaction terms:

207

$$\hat{C}^{int} = \hat{C}_{L_1, L_2}^{\bar{H}} + \hat{C}_{L_1, L_3}^{\bar{H}} + \hat{C}_{L_2, L_3}^{\bar{H}} + \hat{C}_{L_1, L_2, L_3}^{\bar{H}} \quad (8)$$

208

209 It is important to stress that the top-down single impacts are not  
 210 equivalent to their bottom-up counterparts. The relation between  
 211 these bottom-up and top-down impacts can be expressed as (here for  
 212 the case of  $E_3$ ):

213

$$\Delta C_{L_3}^{\bar{H}} = C(E_1^H, E_2^H, E_3^H) - C(E_1^H, E_2^H, E_3^L)$$

214

215

$$\Delta C_{L_3}^H = C(E_1^H, E_2^H, E_3^H) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)$$

$$- [C(E_1^H, E_2^H, E_3^L) - C(E_1^L, E_2^L, E_3^L)]$$

216

$$\Delta C_{L_3}^{\bar{H}} = \Delta C_{L_3}^H - \Delta C_{L_3}^{H_1 H_2} \quad (9)$$

217

218 Using equations (3), (4), (5) and (6), equation (9) can be re-  
 219 expressed as:

220



$$\Delta C_{L_3}^{\bar{H}} = \Delta C_L^{H_3} + \hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_3} + \hat{C}_L^{H_2, H_3} + \hat{C}_L^{H_1, H_2, H_3} \quad (10)$$

221

222 In other words, the top-down impact on concentration of an emission  
 223 source (obtained by switching off the emission source while all  
 224 others remain unchanged) is not equivalent to its bottom-up  
 225 counterpart, (obtained by switching on the emission source while all  
 226 others are switched off). Relation (10) indeed clearly shows that  
 227 additional interaction terms need to be considered. The implications  
 228 resulting from these differences are highlighted in Section 5 in  
 229 which some theoretical examples are described.

230

## 231 4. Source apportionment and sensitivity analysis

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### 4.1. Tagged species techniques

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Equation (2) shows that, when the relationship between concentration and several emission sources is linear, the contribution of a specific source (source apportionment) can be computed as the impact on concentration obtained by a full reduction of this source (sensitivity). Moreover, the sum of the impacts on concentration obtained by reduction of the single sources ( $\Delta C_0^{BC_1} + \Delta C_0^{BC_2} + \Delta C_0^{BC_3}$ ) is equivalent to the impact on concentration resulting from a simultaneous abatement of all sources ( $\Delta C_0^{BC}$ ). In such a case, the concentration impacts are equal to source contributions and source apportionment and sensitivity analysis lead to similar results. This is not the case, however, when the relationship between concentrations and emissions is nonlinear. In their approach, Stein and Alpert express the difference between the impact caused by a simultaneous abatement and the sum of the impacts caused by individual abatement as interactions among the different sources. The Stein and Alpert formulation applied between the base-case and background levels is very close to equation (2) but with an additional term that accounts for interactions:

$$\Delta C_0^{BC} = \Delta C_0^{BC_1} + \Delta C_0^{BC_2} + \Delta C_0^{BC_3} + \hat{C}^{int}$$





255  
256 Because the interaction terms cannot not be attributed to a single  
257 emission source as they represent the interaction between two and  
258 more emission sources, the Stein and Alpert methodology does not  
259 allow identifying the full contribution of each individual source. It  
260 cannot therefore be used for source apportionment purpose, unless  
261 the interaction terms are negligible as in the linear case.

262 Unlike the Stein and Alpert methodology, the tagged species  
263 methodology is designed for source apportionment purposes. This  
264 methodology tags each precursor and quantifies its contribution (in  
265 terms of mass) to the pollutant concentration.

266 Tagged algorithms are implemented in several chemical transport  
267 model systems (Yarwood et al., 2004; Wagstrom et al., 2008,  
268 ENVIRON, 2014; Bhave et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2009;  
269 Kranenburg et al., 2013).

270  
271 In tagging approaches, the effect of the full reduction of all sources  
272 is directly expressed as the sum of the source contributions:

273

$$\Delta C_0^{BC} = \delta C_1 + \delta C_2 + \delta C_3$$

274

275 where  $\delta C_1$ ,  $\delta C_2$ ,  $\delta C_3$  are the contributions of sources  $E_1$ ,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$   
276 resulting from the tagged species approach resolution.

277

278 Tagging methodologies split the interaction terms into fractions and  
279 attribute these fractions to the source contributions, on the basis of  
280 mass weighting factors.

281

$$\delta C_1 = \Delta C_0^{BC_1} + \alpha \hat{C}^{int}$$

282

283

284 Because the tagged species approach mixes interaction terms and  
285 single concentration impacts into sources contributions, it is not  
286 suitable to estimate the effect of emission reduction when non-  
287 linearities are present (Burr and Zhang 2011a, 2011b). Indeed these  
288 two types of terms may react in very different ways to emission  
289 reductions. This fact is detailed in the examples provided below.



10

290 On the other hand, the strength of this method is that it allows for a  
291 direct comparison of the source contributions with measurements (or  
292 measurement based methods like receptor models).

293

294

295 4.2. DDM

296

297 The decoupled direct method (DDM) is designed to estimate  
298 sensitivities to emission changes (Dunker et al., 1984; Dunker et al.,  
299 2002). It aims to compute only the first order derivatives (which  
300 correspond to the potencies mentioned in paragraph 2).

301

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial E_1} ; \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_2} ; \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_3}$$

302

303 The Taylor formula is applied at first order to calculate the  
304 concentration change between two emission levels (denoted H and  
305 L).

306

$$\Delta C_L^H = \Delta E_1 \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_1} \right|_H + \Delta E_2 \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_2} \right|_H + \Delta E_3 \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial E_3} \right|_H$$

307

308 with  $\Delta E_1 = E_1^H - E_1^L$ ,  $\Delta E_2 = E_2^H - E_2^L$ ,  $\Delta E_3 = E_3^H - E_3^L$ 

309

310 In the linear case, the first order derivatives are constant and the first  
311 order approximation of the Taylor formula gives the exact  
312 expression of the impact on concentration of an emission change  
313 between H and L. When the emission-concentration relationship is  
314 nonlinear, the first derivatives are not constants. The first order  
315 Taylor formula cannot take into account the nonlinear effects. It is a  
316 linear approximation based on derivatives computed at a given  
317 emission reference level (level H in our example). The estimation of  
318 the impact on concentration of an emission change between H and L  
319 is accurate enough if level L is close enough to level H.

320

321 The HDDM method (Hakami et al., 2003) aim to increase the  
322 accuracy of the DDM method by computing second order  
323 derivatives.



324 DDM (and HDDM) gives similar information to the Stein Alpert  
325 formulation applied with the Brute force top-down approach  
326 (because the reference level is H). For the same reason than for the  
327 Stein Alpert approach, these two methods are suitable for source  
328 apportionment purpose only if the relation between concentration  
329 and emission is close to linearity.  
330 DDM (and HDDM) approximates the impact on concentration from  
331 an emission change between the two level H and L, using  
332 derivatives computed at level H. This impact is accurate enough if  
333 the level L is close enough to the reference level H.

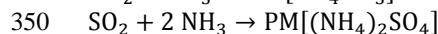
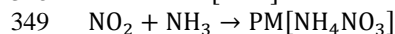
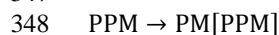
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## 336 5. Example

337

338 In this section, examples are designed to illustrate the differences in  
339 terms of contribution and impact estimates when the approaches  
340 discussed previously are used. In these examples, we focus on the  
341 formation of particulate matter (PM) in the atmosphere and only  
342 consider three formation processes: direct emissions (primary PM  
343 denoted as PPM); formation through reactions with nitrogen oxides  
344 ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) and ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) and formation through reactions with  
345 sulphur oxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ ) and  $\text{NH}_3$ . These reactions pathways are  
346 summarised by the following system of reactions:

347



351

352 This system is further simplified by assuming that all reactions have  
353 comparable kinetics (reaction speed) and have reached their  
354 equilibrium. From these three reactions, 1 PM mole can be produced  
355 by 1 PPM mole, by the combination of 1  $\text{NH}_3$  and 1  $\text{NO}_2$  moles or  
356 by the combination of 1  $\text{SO}_2$  and 2  $\text{NH}_3$  moles.

357

358 We also limit our examples to emissions from three activity sectors.  
359 The residential sector (R) only emits PPM and  $\text{NO}_2$ , the agricultural  
360 sector (A) only emits  $\text{NH}_3$  and the industrial sector (I) only emits  
361 PPM and  $\text{SO}_2$  (Figure 1). We assume for convenience that no



362 background pollution is present (i.e. there is no PM when all  
 363 emissions are zero).

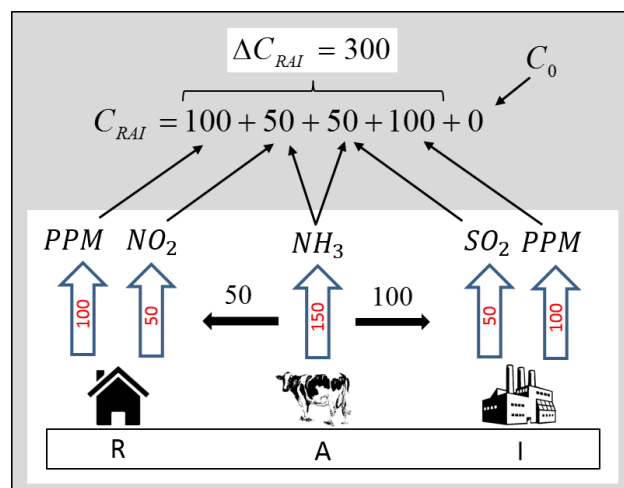
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365 **5.1. Non-limited regime**

366

367 In this first example, the quantity of precursors (in terms of mass) is  
 368 large enough to feed all reactions. The agricultural sector emits 150  
 369  $\text{NH}_3$  moles which can react with 50  $\text{NO}_2$  moles emitted by the  
 370 residential sector and 50  $\text{SO}_2$  moles emitted by industrial sector. 100  
 371 PPM moles are emitted by the residential sector as well by the  
 372 industrial sector.

373



374 Figure 1. Example of PPM,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions released  
 375 by three activity sectors: residential (R), agricultural (A) and  
 376 industrial (I). For convenience, no units are associated to emissions  
 377 and concentrations  
 378

379

380 Let's first calculate the PM concentration produced with and without  
 381 each of the sources:  
 382



383 No source:  $C_0$  is the PM concentration obtained when all emissions  
384 are set to zero. Since we assumed a zero background pollution,  
385  $C_0 = 0$ .

386  
387 One source only:  $C_R$  (resp.  $C_A$  and  $C_I$ ) is the PM concentration  
388 reached when only the residential (resp. agricultural and industrial)  
389 sector releases emissions:  
390 -  $C_R = 100$  produced by PPM emissions ( $\text{NO}_2$  emissions do not  
391 produce PM as no  $\text{NH}_3$  is available).  
392 -  $C_A = 0$  because  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  are not available to react with  
393  $\text{NH}_3$ .  
394 -  $C_I = 100$  produced by the PPM emissions ( $\text{SO}_2$  emissions do not  
395 produce PM as no  $\text{NH}_3$  is available).

396  
397 Two sources:  $C_{RA}$ ,  $C_{RI}$ , and  $C_{AI}$  are the concentrations obtained when  
398 two (out of three) activity sectors release their emissions  
399 simultaneously (the  $RA$  subscripts correspond to residential and  
400 agriculture,  $RI$  to residential and industrial,  $AI$  to agriculture and  
401 industrial):

402 -  $C_{RA} = 150 : 100$  produced by PPM emissions from the  
403 residential sector and 50 produced by the 50  $\text{NO}_2$  released by the  
404 residential sector reacting with the 50  $\text{NH}_3$  emitted by agriculture  
405 (100  $\text{NH}_3$  moles remain unused).  
406 -  $C_{RI} = 200 : 100$  produced by PPM emissions from the residential  
407 sector and 100 produced by PPM emissions from the industrial  
408 sector.  
409 -  $C_{AI} = 150 : 100$  produced by PPM industrial emissions and 50  
410 from the combination of 50  $\text{SO}_2$  (industry) and 100  $\text{NH}_3$   
411 (agriculture).

412  
413 Three sources:  $C_{RAI}$  is the concentrations obtained when all  
414 emissions are released simultaneously.  
415 -  $C_{RAI} = 300 : 200$  from PPM (residential and industry), 50 from  
416 reaction between  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  and 50 from reaction between  $\text{SO}_2$   
417 and  $\text{NH}_3$ .

418  
419 **Brute-force Bottom-up (BF-BU) method**

420



421 The contribution of each activity sector is calculated as the  
 422 concentration change resulting from a 100% emission increase from  
 423 the lowest emission level (previously denoted “L” or background) to  
 424 the highest level (denoted as “H”, the base case  $C_{RAI}$  obtained with  
 425 all emissions)

426

427 In a bottom-up approach, the concentration associated with the  
 428 lowest emission level is considered as the reference. Concentration  
 429 impacts are then computed by difference between any situation (e.g.  
 430 one, two or three sources present) and this reference.

431

432 - with one source:  $\Delta C_R^{BU} = C_R - C_0 = 100$   
 433  $\Delta C_A^{BU} = C_A - C_0 = 0$   
 434  $\Delta C_I^{BU} = C_I - C_0 = 100$   
 435

436

437 - with two sources:  $\Delta C_{RA}^{BU} = C_{RA} - C_0 = 150$   
 438  $\Delta C_{RI}^{BU} = C_{RI} - C_0 = 200$   
 439  $\Delta C_{AI}^{BU} = C_{AI} - C_0 = 150$

440

441 - with three sources:  $\Delta C_{RAI} = C_{RAI} - C_0 = 300$

442

443 To calculate the interaction terms, we use the Stein-Alpert  
 444 formulation using Eq. (5) and Eq. (6):

445

$$\Delta C_{RAI} = \Delta C_R^{BU} + \Delta C_A^{BU} + \Delta C_I^{BU} + \hat{C}_{RA}^{BU} + \hat{C}_{RI}^{BU} + \hat{C}_{AI}^{BU} + \hat{C}_{RAI}^{BU}$$

446

447 from which the interaction terms are obtained by application of (4)  
 448 and (6):

449

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{C}_{RA}^{BU} &= \Delta C_{RA}^{BU} - \Delta C_R^{BU} - \Delta C_A^{BU} = 50 \\ \hat{C}_{RI}^{BU} &= \Delta C_{RI}^{BU} - \Delta C_R^{BU} - \Delta C_I^{BU} = 0 \\ \hat{C}_{AI}^{BU} &= \Delta C_{AI}^{BU} - \Delta C_A^{BU} - \Delta C_I^{BU} = 50 \\ \hat{C}_{RAI}^{BU} &= \Delta C_{RAI} - \Delta C_R^{BU} - \Delta C_A^{BU} - \Delta C_I^{BU} - \hat{C}_{RA}^{BU} - \hat{C}_{RI}^{BU} - \hat{C}_{AI}^{BU} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

450

451 As can be seen from this example, the system behaves non-linearly  
 452 and the interaction terms (e.g.  $\hat{C}_{RA}^{BU}$ ) are not-zero. Moreover the sum  
 453 of the individual impacts ( $\Delta C_R^{BU} + \Delta C_A^{BU} + \Delta C_I^{BU} = 200$ )  
 454 underestimates the overall impact ( $\Delta C_{RAI} = 300$ ). These results are  
 graphically represented in Figure 2 (third column).



455

456

457 **Brute-force Top-down (BF-TD) method**

458

459 In a BF-TD approach, the higher emission level (base case,  $C_{RAI}$ ) is  
 460 the reference and the impact of each activity sector is calculated as  
 461 the concentration change resulting from a 100% emission decrease  
 462 (of one, two or three sources) from this reference to the background  
 463 level.

464

465 - with one source: When all emissions from one sector are  
 466 reduced (e.g. residential), the other two sector remain active  
 467 (agricultural and industry). In this case, the Top-down impact is  
 468 the difference between the base case concentration and the  
 469 concentration resulting from the agricultural and industrial  
 470 emissions only. A similar reasoning can be made for all sectors:

471

472 
$$\Delta C_R^{TD} = C_{RAI} - C_{AI} = 150$$

473 
$$\Delta C_A^{TD} = C_{RAI} - C_{RI} = 100$$

474 
$$\Delta C_I^{TD} = C_{RAI} - C_{RA} = 150$$

475

476 - with two sources: The Top-down impact due to a full reduction  
 477 of two sectors (e.g. residential and agriculture) is similarly  
 478 computed as the difference between the base case concentration  
 479 and the concentration resulting from the remaining sector  
 480 (industry).

481

482 
$$\Delta C_{RA}^{TD} = C_{RAI} - C_I = 200$$

483 
$$\Delta C_{RI}^{TD} = C_{RAI} - C_A = 300$$

484 
$$\Delta C_{AI}^{TD} = C_{RAI} - C_R = 200$$

485

486

487 - with three sources: The impact resulting from the simultaneous  
 488 reduction of all three sources is similar in the Top-down and  
 489 Bottom-up approaches:

490

491 
$$\Delta C_{RAI} = C_{RAI} - C_0 = 300$$

492



493 The interaction terms can be obtained in a similar way to the  
 494 bottom-up approach by using the Stein and Alpert formulation for  
 495  $\Delta C_{RAI}$ :

$$496 \quad \Delta C_{RAI} = \Delta C_R^{TD} + \Delta C_A^{TD} + \Delta C_I^{TD} + \hat{C}_{RA}^{TD} + \hat{C}_{RI}^{TD} + \hat{C}_{AI}^{TD} + \hat{C}_{RAI}^{TD}$$

497

498 The interaction terms are given by:

499

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{C}_{RA}^{TD} &= \Delta C_{RA}^{TD} - \Delta C_R^{TD} - \Delta C_A^{TD} = -50 \\
 \hat{C}_{RI}^{TD} &= \Delta C_{RI}^{TD} - \Delta C_R^{TD} - \Delta C_I^{TD} = 0 \\
 \hat{C}_{AI}^{TD} &= \Delta C_{AI}^{TD} - \Delta C_A^{TD} - \Delta C_I^{TD} = -50 \\
 \hat{C}_{RAI}^{TD} &= \Delta C_{RAI}^{TD} - \Delta C_R^{TD} - \Delta C_A^{TD} - \Delta C_I^{TD} - \hat{C}_{RA}^{TD} - \hat{C}_{RI}^{TD} - \hat{C}_{AI}^{TD} = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

500

501 With this approach, a non-linear behavior is also observed and  
 502 interaction terms are not zero. It is also interesting to note that the  
 503 triple interaction term ( $\hat{C}_{RAI}^{TD}$ ) is null. The sum of the individual  
 504 impacts ( $\Delta C_R^{TD} + \Delta C_A^{TD} + \Delta C_I^{TD} = 400$ ) overestimates the overall  
 505 impact ( $\Delta C_{RAI} = 300$ ). We further discuss these aspects at the end of  
 506 this section. These results are graphically represented in Figure 2  
 507 (fourth and fifth columns).

508

509

### 510 Tagged species approach

511

512 Compared to Brute-force, the tagged species approach calculates the  
 513 share of each source to the overall concentration change. These  
 514 shares are referred to as contributions and have the main property  
 515 that the sum of the individual contributions is equal to the overall  
 516 concentration impact, by definition, i.e.:

517

$$518 \quad \Delta C_{RAI} = \delta C_R^{TAG} + \delta C_A^{TAG} + \delta C_I^{TAG}$$

518

519

520 The sector contributions are computed by tracking the mass of their  
 521 emitted species contributing to PM formation (in our example:  
 522 PM[PPM], PM[NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>] and PM[(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>])

523





524 - PM[PPM] is formed from PPM. The 100 moles from the  
525 residential sector lead to 100 moles of PM. The same applies to  
526 the 100 moles from industry.

527  
528 - PM[NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>] is formed by combination of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. The  
529 share between these two contributions is obtained by application  
530 of stoichiometric molar mass ratios:  
531

$$a_1 = \frac{[NO_3]_m}{[NO_3]_m + [NH_4]_m} = 0.78$$

532  
533 In our example, 50 moles of PM[NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>] are formed by  
534 combination of NO<sub>2</sub> (50 moles) from the residential sector and  
535 NH<sub>3</sub> (50 moles) from agriculture. The contribution attributed to  
536 NO<sub>2</sub> is 50 × a<sub>1</sub> whereas the contribution attributed to NH<sub>3</sub> is  
537 50 × (1 - a<sub>1</sub>).  
538

539  
540 - PM[(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>] is formed by combination of NH<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>. The  
541 following stoichiometric mass ratio is used:  
542

$$a_2 = \frac{[SO_4]_m}{[SO_4]_m + 2[NH_4]_m} = 0.73$$

543  
544 The contribution attributed to SO<sub>2</sub> is 50 × a<sub>2</sub> whereas the  
545 contribution attributed to NH<sub>3</sub> is 50 × (1 - a<sub>2</sub>).  
546

547 The contribution of each sector is then obtained as the sum of their  
548 precursor contribution shares as follows:  
549

550  $\delta C_R^{TAG} = 100 + 50 \times a_1 = 138.7$   
551  $\delta C_A^{TAG} = 50 \times (1 - a_1) + 50 \times (1 - a_2) = 24.9$   
552  $\delta C_I^{TAG} = 100 + 50 \times a_2 = 136.4$

553 By definition the sum of the contributions ( $\delta C_R^{TAG} + \delta C_A^{TAG} +$   
554  $\delta C_I^{TAG} = 300$ ) is exactly equal to the overall concentration impact  
555 ( $\Delta C_{RAI} = 300$ ).



556 Note that a decomposition of the non-linear interaction terms  
 557 obtained in the top-down or bottom-up approach, using the above  
 558 stoichiometric ratios would lead to similar results than the tagged  
 559 approach. These results are graphically represented in Figure 2  
 560 (second column).  
 561

562

563

### 563 **DDM**

564

565 In this methodology, delta concentrations and interaction terms are  
 566 estimated with first order partial derivatives computed from the  
 567 highest emission level (base case in our example). Being a  
 568 sensitivity approach using level H as reference, DDM shows clear  
 569 analogies with the BF-TD.

570

$$571 \quad \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_R} \right|_{TD} = 150 \quad \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_A} \right|_{TD} = 100 \quad \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_I} \right|_{TD} = 150$$

572

573

574 where  $\alpha_R$ ,  $\alpha_A$  and  $\alpha_I$  are percentage emission changes from the base  
 575 case for the residential, agricultural and industrial sectors.

576 The first-order derivatives are evaluated using finite differencing  
 577 between the base case and a level characterised by emissions that are  
 578 10% lower for each activity sector.

579 The concentration changes resulting from a 100% emission  
 580 reduction (i.e. between the base case and the zero emission case)  
 581 could be estimated by setting  $\alpha_R$ ,  $\alpha_A$  and  $\alpha_I$  to unity.

582

$$\Delta C_R^{HDDM} = \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_R} \right|_{TD} = 150$$

$$\Delta C_A^{HDDM} = \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_A} \right|_{TD} = 100$$

$$\Delta C_I^{HDDM} = \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_I} \right|_{TD} = 150$$

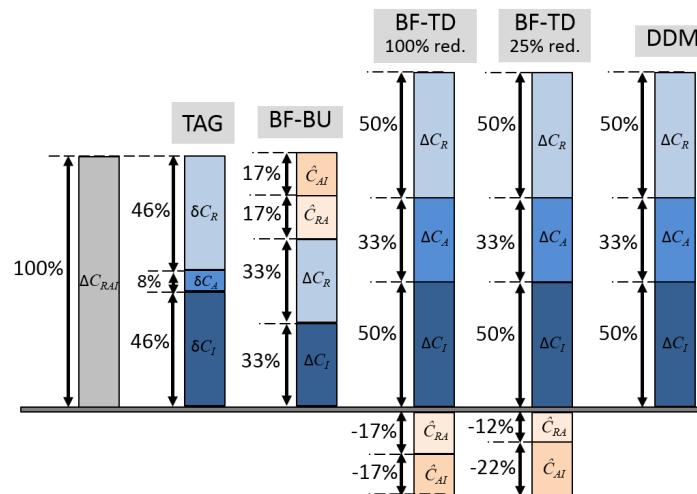
583

584

585 We see from this last example that both the total PM and the  
 586 contribution of the sources are then comparable with those obtained



587 with the BF-TD method. Their interpretation is similar (Figure 2,  
 588 sixth column).  
 589



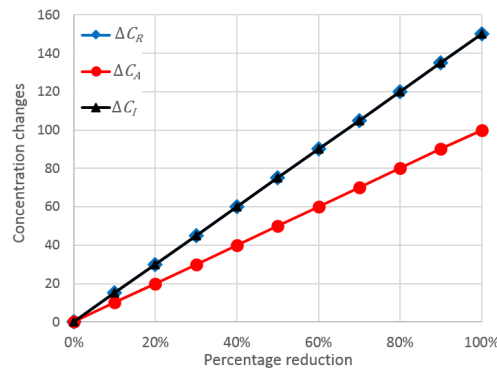
590  
 591 Figure 2. Schematic representation of the allocation of PM to its  
 592 sources in the non-limited example. The expected total PM is  
 593 displayed in the grey bar on the left.  
 594

595 In the linear case (second paragraph) we have seen that a single  
 596 source contribution can be computed as the impact resulting from a  
 597 full reduction of this source. However, source contributions and  
 598 concentration impacts should not be confused as they are different in  
 599 most situations. The example presented in this paragraph illustrates  
 600 this clearly for a non-linear system. Indeed the contributions of the  
 601 single sources computed by the tagged species approach ( $\delta C_R^{TAG} =$   
 602  $138$ ;  $\delta C_A^{TAG} = 24$ ;  $\delta C_I^{TAG} = 136$ ) differ from the concentration  
 603 impacts resulting from a total abatement of these single sources  
 604 computed by the BF-TD ( $\Delta C_R^{TD} = 150$ ;  $\Delta C_A^{TD} = 100$ ;  $\Delta C_I^{TD} = 150$ )  
 605 method. Moreover, the sum of the concentration impacts obtained  
 606 with either the BF-TD approach for single sources does not equal the  
 607 total concentration impact ( $\Delta C_{RAI} = 300$ ). This is also valid for any  
 608 selection of two sectors ( $\Delta C_R^{TD} + \Delta C_A^{TD} = 250 \neq \Delta C_{RA}^{TD} = 200$ ). Note



609 that similarly to BF-TD, the concentration impacts computed as  
610 increases from the background (BF-BU) show the same behaviour  
611 ( $\Delta C_R^{BU} + \Delta C_A^{BU} = 100 \neq \Delta C_{RA}^{BU} = 150$ ).

612  
613 Figure 3 shows that the impact on concentration is proportional to  
614 the emission reduction indicating that the relationship between  
615 emission and concentration changes is linear. However, this example  
616 also illustrates the fact that linearity encompasses two aspects: 1)  
617 the interaction terms are zero ( $\hat{C}^{int} = 0$ ); 2) the ratios between  
618 concentration change and emission changes ( $\Delta C/\Delta E$ ) remain  
619 constant, regardless of the calculation bounds (denoted “H” and “L”  
620 in Section 4). In the current example the ratios  $\Delta C/\Delta E$  are constant  
621 (linear trend of  $\Delta C$  on Figure 3) but the relationship between  
622 concentration and emission is not linear because of the non-zero  
623 interaction terms (not shown) ( $\hat{C}_{RA}^{TD} = -50$  and  $\hat{C}_{AI}^{TD} = -50$ ).  
624 However, even with zero interaction terms, we can still observe a  
625 non-linear behaviour with the emission reduction percentage. The  
626 evaluation of linearity therefore requires two tests: one to quantify  
627 the interaction terms and the second to assess the deviation from a  
628 linear trend with respect to the emission reduction percentage.  
629



630  
631 Figure 3: Evolution of the concentration changes resulting from  
632 different percentage of source abatement (Top down approach) for  
633 the three sectors (Residential, Agricultural and Industrial).  
634



635

636

637 **5.2. Limited regime**

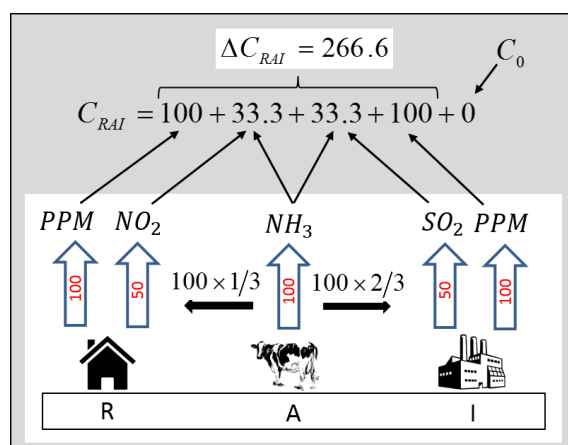
638

639 This example is similar to the previous, except that the emissions of  
640  $\text{NH}_3$  are reduced from 150 to 100 moles.

641 When all sources release emissions, the 100 moles of  $\text{NH}_3$  are  
642 shared into  $100/3=33.3$  moles which react with  $\text{NO}_2$  to form 33.3  
643 moles of  $\text{PM}[\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3]$  and  $100 \times 2/3=66.6$  moles which react with  
644  $\text{SO}_2$  to give 33.3 moles of  $\text{PM}[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4]$ . Because the mass of  
645  $\text{NH}_3$  is not enough to react with all the  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  mass, 16.7  
646 moles of  $\text{NO}_2$  and 16.7 moles of  $\text{SO}_2$  remain unused.

647 Note that when the agricultural source is active with one only of the  
648 two other sources (residential or industrial) the  $\text{NH}_3$  100 moles are  
649 then sufficient to consume all the  $\text{NO}_2$  or  $\text{SO}_2$  and lead to 50 moles  
650 of PM in either case.

651



652

653 Figure 3. Example with three sources in an ammonia-limited regime.  
654 The mass emitted by each source is expressed in moles.

655

656 The PM concentrations obtained when one or two sources are active  
657 are similar to the previous example:

658



$$\begin{aligned}
 659 \quad & C_0 = 0 ; C_R = 100 ; C_A = 0 ; C_I = 100 \\
 660 \quad & C_{RA} = 150 ; C_{RI} = 200 ; C_{AI} = 150
 \end{aligned}$$

661

662 But the result differ when all sources are active:  $C_{RAI} = 266.6$  (200  
663 from PPM (residential industry), 33.3 from reaction between  $\text{NO}_2$   
664 and  $\text{NH}_3$  and 33.3 from reaction between  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NH}_3$ ).

665

#### 666 **Bottom-up brute-force method (BF-BU)**

667

668 The BF-BU approach computes all concentration impacts from the  
669 background concentration ( $C_0$ ). The Stein-Alpert terms are similar to  
670 the non-limited case, excepted for  $\Delta C_{RAI}$  and  $\hat{C}_{RAI}$ :

671

$$\begin{aligned}
 672 \quad & \Delta C_R^{BU} = 100 & \hat{C}_{RA}^{BU} &= 50 \\
 673 \quad & \Delta C_A^{BU} = 0 & \hat{C}_{RI}^{BU} &= 0 \\
 674 \quad & \Delta C_I^{BU} = 100 & \hat{C}_{AI}^{BU} &= 50 \\
 675 \quad & \Delta C_{RAI} = 266.6 & \hat{C}_{RAI} &= -33.3
 \end{aligned}$$

676

677 The limiting effect of  $\text{NH}_3$  appears only in the negative triple  
678 interaction term ( $\hat{C}_{RAI}$ ).

679

#### 680 **Top-down brute-force method (BF-TD)**

681

682 The Top-down approach uses the base case ( $C_{RAI}$ ) concentration as  
683 reference to compute the concentration impact. In this case, all  
684 Stein-Alpert terms are different from the non-limited regime:

685

$$\begin{aligned}
 686 \quad & \Delta C_R^{TD} = 116.6 & \hat{C}_{RA}^{TD} &= -16.6 \\
 687 \quad & \Delta C_A^{TD} = 66.6 & \hat{C}_{RI}^{TD} &= 33.3 \\
 688 \quad & \Delta C_I^{TD} = 116.6 & \hat{C}_{AI}^{TD} &= -16.6 \\
 689 \quad & \Delta C_{RAI} = 266.6 & \hat{C}_{RAI} &= -33.3
 \end{aligned}$$

690

691

#### 692 **Tagged approach**

693

694 The contribution of each source is computed similarly to the non-  
695 limited regime. The productions of 33.3 moles of  $\text{PM}[\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3]$  and



696 33.3 moles of  $\text{PM}[(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4]$  are split among the different sectors  
697 using the stoichiometric coefficients  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ :

698

$$699 \delta C_R^{TAG} = 100 + 33.3 * a_1 = 125.8$$

$$\delta C_A^{TAG} = 33.3 * (1 - a_1) + 33.3 * (1 - a_2) = 16.6$$

$$\delta C_I^{TAG} = 100 + 33.3 * a_2 = 124.2$$

700

701

702 **DDM**

703

704 As shown below, DDM only considers first derivatives, which are

705 not suitable to estimate higher order interaction terms. The

706 calculation of the first order derivatives in this example gives:

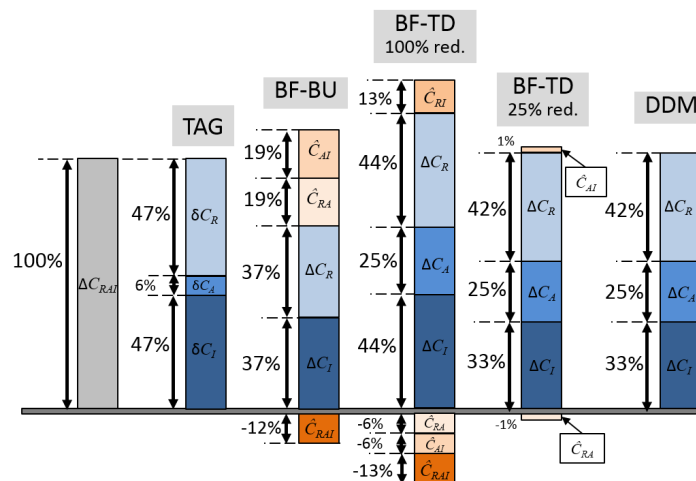
707

$$\Delta C_R^{HDDM} = \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_R} \right|_{TD} = 111.5$$

$$\Delta C_A^{HDDM} = \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_A} \right|_{TD} = 66.7$$

$$\Delta C_I^{HDDM} = \left. \frac{\partial C}{\partial \alpha_I} \right|_{TD} = 88.1$$

708



709



710 Figure 4. Schematic representation of the allocation of PM to its  
711 sources in the ammonia-limited example. The expected total PM is  
712 displayed in the grey bar on the left.

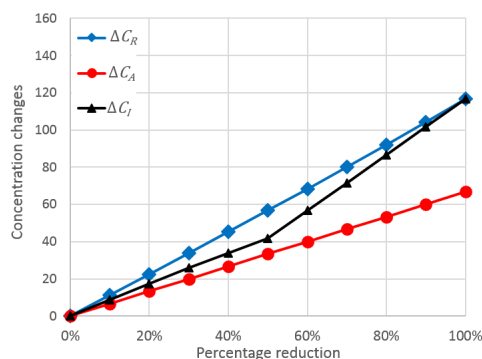
713

714 The main difference with respect to the non-limited regime is the  
715 appearance of a triple interaction term that will also lead to  
716 differences between the BF-TD and the DDM approaches, given the  
717 fact that the latter only accounts for first order terms.

718

719 In comparison to the non-limited regime, the calculation of the  
720 concentration impacts resulting from different percentage of  
721 emission reduction shows non-linear trends (Figure 5). A  
722 discontinuity appears at 50% reduction for the abatement of  
723 industrial emissions. This discontinuity corresponds to a change of  
724 chemical regime. Below the 50% reduction level, the quantity of  
725  $\text{NH}_3$  is not sufficient to feed the reactions with  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  (with  
726 no  $\text{SO}_2$  reduction, 50 moles of  $\text{NO}_2$  and 50 moles of  $\text{SO}_2$  would  
727 require 150 moles of  $\text{NH}_3$  but only 100 are available) while beyond  
728 this 50% reduction level the quantity of  $\text{NH}_3$  is then enough to feed  
729 the reactions with  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{SO}_2$  (with 50%  $\text{SO}_2$  reduction, 50 moles  
730 of  $\text{NO}_2$  and 25 moles of  $\text{SO}_2$  requires 100 moles of  $\text{NH}_3$ ).

731



732

733 Figure 5: Evolution of the concentration changes resulting from  
734 different percentage of source abatement (Top down approach) for  
735 the three sectors (Residential, Agricultural and Industrial).





736  
737 The methodologies presented in this section aim at decomposing the  
738 impact of an ensemble of sources into different terms attributed to  
739 each individual sources. The terms computed by methodologies  
740 designed for source apportionment (like TAG) are named source  
741 contributions. Their sum is always equal to the combined impact of  
742 all sources. On the other hand, the terms computed by sensitivity  
743 analysis represent the emission change of each individual source and  
744 their sum is equal to the combined impact of all sources only if the  
745 relationship between emissions and concentrations is linear (see  
746 Section 2). In non-linear situations, the source contributions  
747 computed for source apportionment and the source impacts  
748 computed for sensitivity analysis are different (see Figure 4 where  
749 column 2 shows different results than column 3 or 4). Non-linearity  
750 also imply that the calculation of the source impacts depends from  
751 the bounds used to estimate the concentration changes (denoted “H”  
752 and “L” in Section 4). The BF-BU and BF-TD (columns 3 and 4 in  
753 Figure 4) give different results because they are not using the same  
754 reference level (“L” for the BU and “H” for the TD as defined in  
755 Section 4). Moreover, the results depend from the percentage of  
756 emission changes applied to calculate the source impacts as  
757 demonstrated by the different source impacts computed with the BF-  
758 TD for 100% and 25% emission reductions (columns 4 and 5 in  
759 Figure 4). We expect that lower percentage emission reductions  
760 generate less non-linearity and lead to a better agreement between  
761 the BF-TD and the DDM method (columns 5 and 6 in Figure 4).  
762 In synthesis, the second example illustrates that all the  
763 methodologies tested to find source contributions and source  
764 impacts give different results when the relationship emissions-  
765 concentrations is non-linear. It is therefore important to determine  
766 the degree of non-linearity in order to understand the range of  
767 applicability of each methodology and apply it for the right purpose.

## 768 6. Conclusions

769  
770 When pollutant concentrations exceed the thresholds set in the  
771 legislation, competent authorities must take actions to abate  
772 pollution. In the European legislation (Directive 2008/50/EC) both



773 source apportionment and planning are requested when designing air  
774 quality plans. In practice, source apportionment is often used for  
775 planning purposes. It is indeed intuitive to use source apportionment  
776 to detect the activity sectors that need to be tackled in priority in an  
777 air quality plan. On the other hand, sensitivity analysis is often used  
778 as an approach to derive source contributions (e.g. SHERPA,  
779 FASST, GAINS...).

780  
781 In this work, we compared the two above mentioned approaches and  
782 investigated their domain of application. While sensitivity analysis  
783 refers to impacts to characterize the concentration change resulting  
784 from a given emission change, source apportionment aims to  
785 quantify contributions, by attributing a fraction of the pollutant  
786 concentration to each emission source. In the case of linear  
787 relationships between concentration and emissions, impacts and  
788 contributions are equivalent concepts. Source apportionment may  
789 then be used for air quality planning purposes and vice versa,  
790 sensitivity analysis may be used for quantifying sources  
791 contributions.

792  
793 In many cases, however, linearity is not a valid assumption. In such  
794 cases, sensitivity approaches cannot be used to retrieve source  
795 apportionment information, unless non-linear interaction terms are  
796 explicitly accounted for. On the other hand, source apportionment  
797 approaches (e.g. tagged species approach) intrinsically account for  
798 these non-linear interactions into their source contributions. But  
799 because it mix interaction terms and impacts, which may react in  
800 opposite directions, source apportionment should not be used to  
801 evaluate the impact of abatement strategies

802 Even when using sensitivity analysis for planning, it is important to  
803 note that, under non-linear conditions, the calculated impacts will  
804 only provide information for the exact conditions that are  
805 considered. Impacts for an emission reduction of 50% are only valid  
806 for exactly that percentage of reduction and extrapolation to air  
807 quality planning with any other emission reduction levels would be  
808 inappropriate, unless additional scenarios are tested. Along the same  
809 line of reasoning, the importance of the non-linear interaction terms  
810 (among precursors) should be quantified as well when assessing the



811 impact of more sources or precursors. Finally, these non-linear  
812 interaction terms are in most cases not constant with the emission  
813 reduction intensities, which would impose the further need to  
814 quantify them for different levels of emission reduction.

815  
816 Fortunately, not all cases are so complex to require the full  
817 quantification of all non-linear interaction terms. Thunis et al. (2015)  
818 showed that for yearly average relationships between emission and  
819 concentration changes, linearity is a realistic assumption, implying  
820 the possible use of source apportionment and sensitivity analysis for  
821 both purposes. Some integrated assessment tools (e.g. GAINS,  
822 SHERPA) take advantage of this assumption to retrieve source  
823 apportionment information from calculated CTM sensitivities.  
824 Although non-linearities are important for short-term time averages  
825 (e.g. daily means, episodes), they are likely not associated to every  
826 process. For instance, non-linear interactions are expected to be  
827 more relevant for secondary pollutants, especially under limited  
828 regimes. The challenge consists, therefore, in screening the system  
829 for significant non-linearities and account for them by calculating  
830 explicitly the relevant non-linear interaction terms.

831  
832 One main strength of source apportionment approaches is to provide  
833 contribution estimates that can be cross validated with source  
834 apportionment derived from measurements (i.e. receptor modelling,  
835 for a detailed description see e.g. Belis et al., 2013). This step is  
836 crucial for the evaluation of chemistry transport models.  
837

## 838 **7. Code availability**

839 No specific code is attached to this work as all presented examples  
840 can easily be replicated.

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## 842 **References**

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