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Journal

CLEAN - Soil Air Water, 44(7)

ISSN

0323-4320

Authors

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Publication Date

2016-07-01

DOI

10.1002/clen.201500225

Peer reviewed

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Sustainability

Environmental Monitoring





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Research Article

Chemical Characterization and Source Apportionment of Atmospheric Particles Across Multiple Sampling Locations in Faisalabad, Pakistan

Atmospheric particles (total suspended particles, TSPs) mass samples (288) were collected by high volume samplers at nine sampling locations in Faisalabad, Pakistan from May 2012 to April 2013. These TSP mass samples were subjected to gravimetric and quantitative chemical analyses for determining trace elements (Pb, Cd, Ni, Zn, Cu, Fe) using atomic absorption spectroscopy and water-soluble cations (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺ and K^+ , NH_4^+) and anions (Cl⁻, SO_4^{2-} , and NO_3^-) by ion chromatography. The average TSP mass and elemental concentrations at all locations were found to be highest during the dry and lowest during the wet season. The crustal elements Ca, Fe, Mg, and Na were the largest contributors to TSP mass while elements of anthropogenic origin Pb, Cd, Ni, Cu, and Zn had relatively lower concentrations and also showing a high spatial variation. The concentration of TSP and elements exhibited the maxima at the sampling locations characterized by intensive industrial and vehicular activities. The wind rose analysis and the UNMIX model applied to chemical speciation data both identified the same three primary sources of TSP: power plant/refinery, brick kilns, and roadways. The normalized dot product was successfully used to quantify the similarity between different source profiles extracted from UNMIX model. The coupling of UNMIX with wind direction analysis complemented each other and provided a complete assessment of source contributions and locations.

Keywords: Elements; Source identification; Total suspended particles; UNMIX; Wind roses *Received:* April 8, 2015; *revised:* October 17, 2015; *accepted:* February 22, 2016 **DOI:** 10.1002/clen.201500225

Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site.

1 Introduction

Over the last two decades, air pollution has become a serious environmental concern in developing countries like Pakistan, as a consequence of rapid urbanization and industrialization coupled with increased transportation and energy demands. In particular, urban centers are facing the menace of air pollution primarily due to the presence of particulate matter (PM) and its associated trace metals in the atmosphere [1, 2]. Numerous epidemiological investigations have demonstrated a strong association between ambient PM concentrations and respiratory- and cardiovascular-related increases in morbidity and mortality especially in urban areas [3].

Characterizing the chemical composition of atmospheric PM and identifying its primary sources are necessary steps for successfully instituting mitigation measures and effective regulatory policies that minimize consequent health impacts [4, 5]. Some periodic reports revealed that atmospheric PM and its associated trace metals have severe environmental and health concerns in the urban areas of Pakistan [1, 2, 4–7]. Meteorology affects transport and transformation of PM in the atmosphere, some source strengths, and can be useful for a better characterization of PM and source identification [9–12].

Source apportionment/identification by receptor modeling has always been a useful tool for establishing emissions regulations. Over the past two decades, models such as chemical mass balance (CMB), principal component analysis (PCA), and positive matrix factorization (PMF), have been used in this regard by many researchers [1, 2, 4–6, 10, 13–15]. During past few years, the UNMIX model has been effectively used as a valuable tool to produce satisfactory results regarding source apportionment comparable

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Abbreviations: AAS, atomic absorption spectrophotometry; CMB, chemical mass balance; PCA, principal component analysis; PM, particulate matter; PMF, positive matrix factorization; SL, sampling location; TSP, total suspended particles; US EPA, United States Environmental Protection Agency; WHO, World Health Organization.

with other source apportionment models [13–15]. This model uses a new transformation method based on the self-modeling curve resolution technique to derive meaningful factors [15].

To identify more precisely the sources behind the factors obtained by UNMIX, the spatial distribution of these possible sources can be evaluated as a function of wind direction. The combination of UNMIX results and wind direction analysis indicates source contributions to each monitoring location [8, 11, 12]. So, the identification and characterization of PM sources could be helpful for the designing and application of effective abatement strategies and emissions regulations in the area.

The present study was carried out to characterize total suspended particulate (TSP) mass and element constituents during a 1-year monitoring period and then identify different possible sources contributing to these concentrations. The UNMIX model along with pollutant wind roses was used for the identification of source location in the study area. To improve source identification using receptor modeling and pollutant wind roses, the multiple locations were selected in the study area. The combination of receptor modeling and associations between wind direction and elemental concentrations enabled the primary sources in Faisalabad to be identified.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study area and sampling locations

Faisalabad is the third largest city in Pakistan and a major industrial hub. It covers an area of 1230 km² supporting a population of over 4 million. Figure 1 shows the major industries in the proximity of the sampling locations (SL) including textile mills, brick kilns, a power plant, and a refinery. Other major industries include marble factories, flour mills, chemical and soap factories, engineering complexes, and food processing units. In addition, there are eight intercity highways that have heavy traffic. The climate is characterized as hot and dry (arid) with mean annual rainfall of 350 mm, approximately half falling during the monsoon season (July–September). Mean maximum and minimum temperatures in summer are about 40 and 27°C and in winter about 21 and 6°C, respectively. The predominant wind directions are from the southwest.



Figure 1. Map of the sampling site locations and possible emission sources in the study area: (SL1) Khurianwala, (SL2) Industrial cluster-1, (SL3) Industrial cluster-2, (SL4) Chibanwala, (SL5) Industrial cluster-3, (SL6) Chak Jhumra, (SL7) M3-Motorway, (SL8) Khichian, and (SL9) remote rural area. The northeast corner is 39°27′00″ N, 21°22′48″E, and the southwest corner is 23°53′60″N, 02°51′18″E.

Nine different sampling locations were selected to represent different urban, industrial, and rural settings located downwind, to the North and East, of the city center as shown in Fig. 1. Supporting Information Tab. S1 presents sampling location details. The selection of multiple sampling locations was made based on the existing anthropogenic activities responsible for air pollution, prevailing wind direction for pollutants distribution and dispersion, and to identify sources and their relative contribution to ambient air quality.

2.2 Monitoring and sampling procedure

TSP mass concentrations were monitored with a MicroDust Pro Real-Time Aerosol Monitor (model HB3275-07, Casella CEL, UK) on a 6 h average basis at each sampling location. The instrument has a detection range of 0.001–2500 mg m⁻³ with a resolution of 0.001 mg m⁻³. TSP samples were collected on micro-glass-fiber filter papers (47 mm) using a high volume air sampler (model CF-1001BRL, Hi-Q, USA). The sampler flow rate was $85 L m^{-1}$ with manual compensation for the increased pressure drop across the filter as it loads. The samplers were deployed at 100 m distance and upwind side of the adjacent roads. There were no trees, buildings, and any obvious PM sources within 100 m around the sampling site.

The sampling was done during 2 months of each season, *i.e.*, in May and June 2012, for the summer period, August and September 2012, for the monsoon, December 2012, and January 2013, for winter and March and April 2013, for spring. On sampling day, two 6-h samples were collected during daytime from 7 am to 1 pm and then 1–7 pm. In total, 288 TSP samples were collected at nine sampling locations during the four sampling periods. Each sampling period has four sampling days or eight 6-h samples at each sampling location. In addition, 36 (four per site) field blanks were also collected. The TSP mass was also determined gravimetrically from the filters after conditioning in a desiccator for 24 h at $45 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity and $23 \pm 3^{\circ}$ C. The method detection limit for TSP mass was $5 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$. The filter papers containing PM were placed in sealed plastic Petri dishes and stored at -20° C before analysis.

2.3 Analytical assay

After gravimetric analysis, each filter was cut into two equal parts. One-half was used for the determination of trace metals after digestion in nitric acid (Suprapure, 65% GR grade, Merck) and perchloric acid (Suprapure, 70% GR grade, Merck), 10:1, v/v, facilitated by heating [16]. The extracted solution was filtered and diluted to 100 mL with double distilled water and kept in the refrigerator in cleaned polyethylene bottle until analysis. The same procedure was carried out for filter and reagent blanks. Selected trace metals were determined by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (AAS) (Thermo AA, Solar-Series) following Method IO-3.2 [17]. The estimated detection limits (three times the standard deviation of nine blanks analyzed) were 0.005, 0.1, 0.01, 0.02, 0.02, and $0.05 \,\mu g \, mL^{-1}$ for Cd, Pb, Ni, Zn, Cu, and Fe, respectively.

The other half of the filter was used for determination of watersoluble elemental cations (Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Na⁺ and K⁺, NH₄⁺) and anions (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻) after extraction in distilled-deionized water (having a resistivity of 18 M Ω cm) by ultrasonication for 2 h [14]. Ionic species were analyzed by ion chromatography (IC Vario-940 Metrohom, Switzerland). The estimated detection limits were 0.03, 0.02, 0.02, 0.03, 0.05, 0.05, 0.05, 0.05, and 0.03 μ g mL⁻¹ for Na⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻, respectively. The peak areas were calibrated by analyzing a series of standards over the range 0.02–10 mg L⁻¹. The recovery of the elements and ions was in the range of 80–110%, and the precision based on duplicate spiked samples was \pm 5%.

2.4 Quality assurance

An intensive quality assurance program was implemented to maintain the accuracy and precision throughout the study. The United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) procedures/guidelines for ambient air quality monitoring were followed for sampling and laboratory analysis. The flow rates of the aerosol monitor and high volume air sampler were calibrated daily before sampling. For TSP gravimetrical and chemical analysis, field blanks, filter paper, and reagent blanks were also used to minimize the error. Filter and reagent blank concentrations were always <10% of the loaded filter values. To estimate the uncertainty associated with the TSP gravimetric and chemical analysis, 5% duplicate samples were also collected. The results of the duplicate analysis showed $\pm5\%$ variation in TSP mass and $\pm10\%$ variation in elemental concentrations that indicates the reliability of the data generated.

Laboratory testing conducted in a manner to ensure the precision and accuracy at all stages. All chemicals and solvents used were of analytical reagent grade procured from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). The atomic absorption spectrophotometer was standardized with a series of standard solutions supplied by the manufacturer (Thermo Electron S series; Thermo Scientific, Waltham, Mass). The reproducibility test that indicates the stability of the instruments exhibited the relative standard deviation from 97 to 101% with the average relative deviation <5%. Inter-laboratory comparison of the AAS results was also performed at an independent laboratory (Hi-tech Laboratory, University of Agriculture-Faisalabad) and normally, a maximum of $\pm 10\%$ deviation was recorded in the results of the two laboratories.

2.5 Source identification

2.5.1 Wind direction analysis

Wind speed and direction were also determined with a Portable Weather Station (model 110-WS-18, Nova Lynx, USA) with a temporal resolution of 5 min at each sampling location. Then 6 h average wind direction was computed by treating all angular measurements as points on the unit circle and computing the resultant vector of the unit vectors determined by data points [18].

Pollutant roses are indispensable tools to identify unknown sources of particulate heavy metals. Pollutant wind roses were drawn by coupling average (6 h) pollutant concentrations and wind direction data at each sampling location [8, 10–12]. Each wind rose has 16 wind sectors (0–360°), where each petal represents the average concentration of the element in the sector that the wind is blowing from during the sampling period. The indicated wind direction suggests the direction of the source from the sampling location, considering that the source is not too distant from the sampling sites as reported by Javed et al. [19].

2.5.2 Application of UNMIX model

A receptor model "EPA UNMIX v6.0" was used for PM source identification. The EPA UNMIX 6.0 Fundamentals User Guide [20] was followed to optimize the model run conditions. Recently, it has been used in several similar studies [13–15, 21]. UNMIX was used along with wind roses to identify elemental signatures for each major source category as previously indicated by wind direction analysis. The combination of wind direction analysis and UNMIX results indicate more specifically source contributions to each monitoring location.

Firstly, the model was run separately on the elemental concentrations associated with the directions of the three possible sources identified by the wind rose analysis (*i.e.*, power plant/refinery, brick kilns, and roadways). The whole sample composition dataset was filtered into three groups having the element concentration values only from the direction of that particular source at each location. Each group had 68, 64, and 78 samples for power plant/refinery, brick kilns, and roadways oriented UNMIX runs, respectively. Then, UNMIX was also applied to the sample dataset for the dry (n = 216) and wet (n = 72) seasons, separately.

For the UNMIX runs, TSP mass was excluded as not indicative of a particular source. Also secondary ions (NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, and NO₃⁻) were excluded due to their non-specific, long-distance, and secondary sources, as having the emphasis only on identification of local sources in the study area as indicated by Javed et al. [19]. Moreover, since K has a higher variation of about 88% by the model due to spatially dispersed emission sources (biomass burning in the household, brick kilns, agriculture burnings, and textile boilers), it was excluded from the final analysis. We followed strict UNMIX criteria to determine sources (i.e., explained variance is always >80%, and the signal-to-noise ratio >2) in a feasible solution [20]. The concentration time series plots and influential plots were then examined to find out any influential point and to exclude these from the data. In all cases, the feasible model run gave Min signal-to-noise ratio >2 and Min r^2 value > 80% which showed that the results are robust. Also, high R² values of the measured and UNMIX predicted concentrations of selected elements showed that the model performed well (e.g., Supporting Information Tab. S2). Supporting Information Figs. S1-S3 show some feasible solution conditions of UNMIX run for the dry season.

2.5.3 Normalized dot product

One way to quantify the similarity between different source profiles extracted from the model is to take the normalized dot product of the corresponding components of two vectors (*e.g.*, source profiles) [22, 23]. If the normalized dot product is 1, the source profiles are identical. The degree to which they are below 1 indicates their dissimilarity. Each feature component $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_N)$ is normalized independently to distribute the feature values in the [0,1] range by using Eq. (1):

$$x'_{i} = \frac{x_{i}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i}^{2}}}$$
(1)

The dot product of two vectors *x* and *y* can be calculated as [23]:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbf{x}'_{i} \mathbf{y}'_{i} \tag{2}$$

where $x_i^{'}$ and $y_i^{'}$ are the normalized components or coordinates of x and y vectors.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 TSP mass and element concentrations

A maximum of $\pm 10\%$ deviation was observed between the two methods for determining TSP mass while the real-time monitor overmeasured TSP mass concentration as compared to the high volume sampler (Supporting Information Fig. S4). The average mass concentrations of TSP and elemental species (n = 288) at selected sampling locations during the dry and wet sampling periods (May 2012-April 2013) are summarized in Tab. 1. Samples were classified as dry (summer, winter, and spring; n = 216) and wet (monsoon; n = 72) depending on the occurrence of rainfall during the sampling periods. The differences in TSP mass and elemental concentrations at all locations were statistically significant (p < 0.001) with higher levels during the dry season as expected. The lower levels observed during the wet season can be attributed to the wash-out effect of rainfall, wet surfaces, and higher relative humidity that reduces the resuspension of the road and crustal dust [4, 5, 14, 24] and also shutdown of brick kilns during the wet (rainy) season. Higher concentrations were found during the dry period likely due to the enhanced resuspension of the road and crustal dust favored by higher temperature and wind speed, coupled with lower rainfall and relative humidity [1, 2, 9, 15]. Also, brick kilns operate during the dry season while the most do not operate during the wet season.

The average TSP concentrations at all locations were $645\,\mu\mathrm{g\,m}^{-3}$ with a range of $115-1422\,\mu g\,m^{-3}$ during the dry season and $365 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$ with a range of $86-658 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$ during the wet season (Tab. 1). The highest TSP concentration was observed at SL2 (1422 and $658 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$) followed by SL3 with concentrations of 1186 and $588 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$ during dry and wet periods, respectively. These locations are characterized by intensive industrial activities with heavy on road traffic. Similar higher TSP concentrations were observed at SL1, SL4, and SL6 sampling locations, which is in agreement with similar human activities at these dense commercial urban areas. The more remote rural location, SL9, had the lowest TSP concentration of 115 and $86 \mu g m^{-3}$ during dry and wet periods, respectively. TSP concentrations at all locations except SL9 were much higher than the 24-h limit values of 120 and $260 \,\mu g \,m^{-3}$ recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) [25] and US EPA [26], respectively.

Elemental concentrations followed the same seasonal pattern as TSP concentrations – higher in the dry season, lower in the wet season. The crustal elements Ca, Fe, Na were the largest contributors to TSP and showing a significant location-to-location variation [15, 27, 28]. Elements of anthropogenic origin, *i.e.*, Pb, Cd, Ni, Cu, Zn had relatively lower concentrations. In Pakistan, Pb is still being used as an anti-knocking agent in gasoline regardless of a ban on the leaded fuel, because compliance is not enforced yet [4]. Also, Pb has become a part of the road dust due to the use of leaded fuel over the years [14, 29]. The likely Ni source was crude oil combustion in a power plant and oil refinery located near and upwind of the sampling sites [19, 21]. While Zn and Cu are mostly emitted from lubricant oil, brake linings, and tire wear of poorly maintained and old vehicles plying on the roads [2, 4]. Use of lowquality coal, wood, used rubber tires, and waste oil as a fuel in brick

						Sampling	location				
	Sampling period	SL1	SL2	SL3	SL4	SL5	SL6	SL7	SL8	6TS	Mean
TSP	DIY ^{a)} Wet	$830 \pm 200^{b)}$ 525 + 160	1422 ± 320 658 + 210	1186 ± 270 588 + 190	691 ± 180 325 + 70	363 ± 110 290 + 90	504 ± 140 322 ± 90	296 ± 90 205 + 60	404 ± 120 286 + 80	$\begin{array}{c} 115\pm25\\ 86\pm20 \end{array}$	645 ± 160 365 ± 110
Ъb	Dry	3.9 ± 0.3	4.2 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 0.4	3.8 ± 0.3	3.1 ± 0.3	3.6 ± 0.3	2.8 ± 0.2	3.4 ± 0.3	1.1 ± 0.1	3.3 ± 0.3
Cd		0.037 ± 0.005	0.041 ± 0.006	2.1 ± 0.2 0.039 ± 0.005	0.034 ± 0.005	0.026 ± 0.005	0.029 ± 0.006	0.022 ± 0.004	0.024 ± 0.006	0.011 ± 0.002	0.029 ± 0.005
Ni		1.5 ± 0.3	1.6 ± 0.4	1.5 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.3	0.012 ± 0.001 1.0 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.4	1.1 ± 0.3	0.77 ± 0.21	0.49 ± 0.11	1.2 ± 0.3
Zn	Dry	0.04 ± 0.23 11.8 ± 2.3	0.31 ± 0.17 10.4 ± 2.4	0.70 ± 0.24 11.4 ± 2.8	0.70 ± 0.21 9.8 ± 2.5	0.40 ± 0.13 8.4 ± 2.2	11.1 ± 2.1	6.8 ± 1.8	0.53 ± 0.11 9.5 ± 2.4	0.30 ± 0.00 3.2 ± 0.6	0.02 ± 0.17 9.1 ± 2.1
ţ	Wet	7.1 ± 1.9	6.4 ± 2.1	8.0 ± 2.3	5.5 ± 1.3	4.2 ± 1.4	6.6 ± 1.1	3.6 ± 1.0	4.3 ± 1.3	1.8 ± 0.4	5.3 ± 1.4
Fe	Dry Wet	$13.6\pm2.3\8.5\pm1.9$	$11.6\pm 2.5\ 8.2\pm 2.4$	$12.3\pm 2.2\ 7.2\pm 1.5$	9.9 ± 2.2 6.7 ± 2.5	7.7 ± 1.6 3.6 ± 0.9	13.2 ± 3.1 7.7 ± 2.0	8.5 ± 2.1 4.3 ± 1.4	9.4 ± 1.9 5.56 ± 1.9	3.6 ± 0.6 2.0 ± 0.4	$9.9 \pm 2.1 \\ 6.0 \pm 1.7$
Cu	Dry	7.3 ± 1.2	8.3 ± 1.1	7.4 ± 1.2	6.8 ± 1.2	4.3 ± 0.9	6.3 ± 1.0	5.2 ± 0.9	5.7 ± 0.9	1.8 ± 0.3	5.9 ± 0.9
	Wet	3.6 ± 0.7	3.4 ± 0.6	3.1 ± 0.8	2.9 ± 0.8	1.3 ± 0.3	2.5 ± 0.7	1.8 ± 0.3	2.1 ± 0.5	0.96 ± 0.21	2.4 ± 0.6
Mg^{2+}	Dry	6.0 ± 0.9	6.7 ± 0.9	5.9 ± 1.0	5.6 ± 0.9	3.5 ± 0.8	5.1 ± 0.8	4.2 ± 0.7	4.6 ± 0.8	1.4 ± 0.3	4.8 ± 0.8
Na^+	Drv	2.9 ± 0.6 10.3 ± 2.1	2.8 ± 0.5 9.1 ± 2.2	2.5 ± 0.6 9.9 ± 2.5	2.4 ± 0.7 8.6 ± 2.2	1.1 ± 0.3 7.4 ± 1.9	2.1 ± 0.0 9.7 ± 1.8	1.5 ± 0.3 5.9 ± 1.5	1.7 ± 0.4 8.3 ± 2.1	0.8 ± 0.2 2.8 ± 0.5	1.9 ± 0.4 8.0 ± 1.8
	Wet	6.2 ± 1.7	5.6 ± 1.9	7.0 ± 2.0	4.8 ± 1.1	3.6 ± 1.2	5.8 ± 0.9	3.1 ± 0.8	3.8 ± 1.1	1.5 ± 0.3	4.6 ± 1.2
Ca^{2+}	Dry	14.9 ± 2.6	12.6 ± 3.1	13.5 ± 1.5	10.9 ± 2.4	8.5 ± 1.8	14.5 ± 3.4	9.3 ± 2.3	10.3 ± 2.2	3.9 ± 0.7	10.9 ± 2.2
-	Wet	9.4 ± 2.1	9.6 ± 2.2	7.6 ± 1.1	7.4 ± 2.7	4.0 ± 1.1	8.5 ± 2.2	4.8 ± 1.6	6.2 ± 2.1	2.3 ± 0.4	6.6 ± 1.7
\mathbf{K}^+	Dry	12.9 ± 2.6	11.5 ± 2.7	12.5 ± 3.1	10.8 ± 2.7	9.3 ± 2.3	12.2 ± 2.3	7.4 ± 1.9	10.5 ± 2.7	3.6 ± 0.7	10.1 ± 2.4
+ 100	Wet	7.8 ± 2.1	7.1 ± 2.3	8.8 ± 2.4	6.1 ± 1.4	4.6 ± 1.5	7.3 ± 1.2	3.9 ± 1.1	4.8 ± 1.4	1.9 ± 0.4	5.8 ± 1.6
\mathbf{NH}_{4}	Wet	20.7 ± 5.1 9.4 ± 3.0	19.5±4.7 8.8±3.3	18.7 ± 0.3	1.7.5 ± 3.6 8.9 ± 3.7	14.5 ± 3.1 6.8 ± 2.0	18.1 ± 3.6 9.3 ± 2.2	14.6 ± 2.8 7.0 ± 1.4	5.2 ± 1.0	7.4 ± 1.9 4.1 ± 0.8	15.7 ± 3.6 7.4 ± 2.3
<u>_</u>	Dry	7.7 ± 1.4	6.9 ± 1.7	7.0 ± 1.9	6.4 ± 1.4	4.5 ± 1.3	7.4 ± 1.8	4.2 ± 1.3	5.2 ± 1.3	2.0 ± 0.6	5.7 ± 1.4
	Wet	4.1 ± 1.1	4.8 ± 1.6	3.7 ± 1.1	3.2 ± 1.6	1.9 ± 0.3	2.9 ± 1.8	1.6 ± 0.5	1.9 ± 0.7	0.6 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 1.0
NO_3^-	Dry	6.5 ± 1.9	6.1 ± 1.9	5.7 ± 1.8	5.3 ± 2.0	4.4 ± 1.0	5.7 ± 1.5	4.7 ± 0.8	3.3 ± 0.8	2.3 ± 0.5	$\textbf{4.9}\pm\textbf{1.4}$
	Wet	2.9 ± 1.7	3.1 ± 1.5	2.7 ± 1.3	3.8 ± 2.1	2.1 ± 0.6	3.0 ± 0.8	2.5 ± 0.7	1.6 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.4	2.6 ± 1.1
50_{4}^{2-}	Dry	$\textbf{24.8} \pm \textbf{4.4}$	22.2 ± 5.6	21.0 ± 4.3	19.3 ± 4.4	14.9 ± 3.4	23.8 ± 6.1	14.8 ± 4.5	17.1 ± 3.7	7.4 ± 1.3	18.5 ± 4.2
	Wet	14.2 ± 5.1	15.5 ± 5.1	13.1 ± 1.9	10.8 ± 4.7	6.9 ± 1.8	11.4 ± 3.5	7.5 ± 2.8	9.3 ± 2.6	3.9 ± 0.8	10.3 ± 3.2
a) At tŀ. b) All v	le 0.01 significance alues are $\mu g m^{-3} \pm 0.01$	level, the differ SD. Each value i	ence between dı is a mean of eig	y and wet mear ht samples.	ıs is statistically	' significant (<i>t</i> -te	st) at all locatio	.su			

Table 1. Ambient TSP and elemental concentrations \pm SD (μ g m⁻³) in TSP (n = 288) at different sampling locations during dry and wet seasons

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kilns located in the study area was also a likely source of trace metals such as Cd, Zn, Cu, and Pb [19, 24]. These metal concentrations are mostly due to anthropogenic emissions, so maxima were found at locations characterized by intensive industrial and vehicular activities nearby (*e.g.*, http://uk-air.defra.gov.uk/assets/documents/ reports/cat16/0604041205_heavy_metal_issue1_final.pdf) [21, 30].

Among the water-soluble cations and anions in PM, NH_4^+ , and SO_4^{2-} were found to have the highest concentration. The NO_3^- concentration in PM was found less as compared to the SO_4^{2-} concentration. Nitrate is almost invariably observed indicating excess ammonia in the atmosphere that neutralizes the particulate sulfate and condenses with the nitrate, forming particulate ammonium sulfate ((NH_4)₂SO₄) and ammonium nitrate (NH_4NO_3) [14]. These secondary ions concentration is associated with the long-distance sources and enhanced gas to particle conversion [19]. K⁺ and Cl⁻ ions are mostly emitted by coal, biomass, and waste burning as well these ions are also associated with a crustal origin [4]. Spatial and temporal variations in TSP and its element concentrations were mainly due to changes in anthropogenic activities and prevailing metrological conditions [1, 2, 9, 15, 24, 31], as will be explored further in what follows.

3.2 Source identification from elemental wind roses

To identify the possible sources in the study area, the wind roses for the selected elements at each sampling location were superimposed on the map of the study area. All pollutant wind roses are presented in Supporting Information Figs. S5–S14. The maps showing superimposed wind roses with vectors drawn toward the direction of the highest peak from each location for Cd, Ni, and Fe are presented in Figs. 2–4, respectively, and for other selected elements in Supporting Information Figs. S15–S21.

As a first order assessment, sources are identified as lying at a given distance along a straight line from the point of measurement in the direction of peak average concentration [10–12]. In this study Cd, Ni, and Fe are identified as tracers of specific sources, *i.e.*, brick kilns, oil-fueled power plant/refinery, and traffic related



Figure 2. Map with superimposed Cd wind roses with the direction of concentration peaks pointing the direction of the potential source from the sampling location.





Figure 3. Map with superimposed Ni wind roses with the direction of concentration peaks pointing the direction of the potential source from the sampling location.

resuspended road dust, respectively, that are likely existing sources in the study area as indicated by Javed et al. [19]. The selected elements are tracers of these sources as frequently reported in the literature [2, 4–6, 13–15, 21, 24, 31, 32].

The Cd concentration wind rose peaks indicate the directions for Cd sources relative to the sampling locations. Hence, the intersection of vectors drawn from each sampling location triangulates likely sources. Figure 2 suggests that the likely sources of Cd are brick kilns located at the intersection of Cd vectors. More than 600 brick kilns operate in and around Faisalabad. Among these, seven are located in the study area upwind from the sampling locations (Fig. 1). Low-quality coal, wood, used rubber tires, and waste oil are mostly used for fuel in these kilns. This low-quality fuel, combined with inefficient combustion process produces vast quantities of hazardous air pollutants including trace metals such as Cd, Zn, Pb, Na, and K (see Supporting Information Figs. S15–S21 for the wind rose maps for the other elements associated with brick kilns) [4, 15, 19, 33, 34].

A power plant consisting of two units with a production capacity of 132 and 244 MW is also situated upwind from sampling locations. A PARCO oil refinery is about 500 m from the power plant. Ni has been reported as a tracer of the petrochemical industry and oil combustion (power plant and oil refinery) [13, 31, 24]. The concentration peaks of Ni wind roses at all sampling locations are directed toward the power plant and oil refinery location (Fig. 3).

Traffic-related resuspended road dust is also a dominant source of aerosol PM and mainly contributed Fe, Mg, Ca, Cu, and Pb (see Fig. 4 and Supporting Information Figs. S15–S21 for maps for the other elements) to atmospheric PM metals. Iron was used as a typical tracer of resuspended soil/road dust emissions [1, 13–15, 24, 28]. The longest petals of the Fe wind roses point toward roadways, the largest sources of resuspended dust (Fig. 4). Roads in Faisalabad are poorly maintained, heavily trafficked, and have unpaved shoulders with limited, poor vegetation along the sides. Vehicle fleets are typically old, poorly maintained, employing inefficient engines, overloaded, smoky, and use fuel of poor quality [4, 29].

In summary, the convolution of element concentrations with wind direction indicates the direction of the main emissions and triangulation of these directions from multiple sites coincides with the location of known major sources in the study area.



Figure 4. Map with superimposed Fe wind roses with the direction of concentration peaks pointing the direction of the potential source from the sampling location.

3.3 Source identification from directionally oriented UNMIX results

The UNMIX model was run separately on the elemental concentrations associated with the directions of the three possible sources identified by the wind rose analysis (*e.g.*, power plant/refinery, brick kilns, and roadways). UNMIX results are shown in Fig. 5a–c, which represent the distribution of each element across the source profiles, derived from the model. The first component in each presumably corresponds to the signature of the source category indicated by the wind rose triangulations. For the power plant directional dataset (n = 68), source 1 was interpreted as power plant/oil refinery as expected, because of high factor loadings on elements Ni, Zn, and Pb in this source, which could be due to the use of crude oil in power plant and oil refinery. These tracer elements are useful indicators of this emission source [13, 21, 24, 30]. Source 2 will be discussed below.

Source 1 for the brick kiln directional dataset (n = 64) suggests its elemental profile. It is characterized by high loadings of the elements Cd, Na, Zn, and Pb, possibly from the combustion of low-quality fuel currently being used in brick kilns located in the study area [4, 14, 15, 19, 34]. Again, source 2 will be discussed below.

The UNMIX results regarding roadway directional dataset (n = 78) also resolved two sources. Source 1, likely from resuspended road dust, is typical of crustal elements, *e.g.*, Fe, Mg, and Ca [1, 13, 15, 28]. Considerable levels of Zn, Pb, and Cu were also found in this source profile and attributed to the poor vehicle maintenance and the use of adulterated fuel [4, 35]. For instance, Pb is still being used as an anti-knock agent in gasoline despite a ban on leaded fuel because compliance is not enforced yet. So, Pb has become a part of the road dust due to the use of leaded fuel over the years [14, 19, 29]. Zn and Cu are emitted from lubricant oil, brake linings, and tire wear [31, 36].

This roadway source profile closely resembles source 2 of both power plant and brick kiln dataset suggesting strong resemblance with each other. The second source in the roadway dataset could be







Figure 5. UNMIX-derived source contributions (μ g m⁻³) for the dataset of (a) brick kilns (b) power plant/oil refinery (c) roadways.

electric generators and vehicular exhaust due to high loading of Pb, Zn, and Cu [14, 31, 36].

In this study, the normalized dot product was successfully used to quantify the similarity between different source profiles extracted from UNMIX model runs on various datasets [22]. The normalized dot product between the roadway sources 1 and 2 for the power plant and brick kiln source are 0.99 and 0.98, respectively. Normalized dot products between all profiles are listed in Tab. 2 for comparison.

3.4 Source identification from overall UNMIX results

UNMIX was also run on the entire sample dataset for dry (n = 216) and wet (n = 72) seasons, separately. The three sources profiles obtained for the dry season (Fig. 6a) are similar to the first source profiles derived from the three directionally oriented UNMIX results. As shown in Tab. 2, the normalized dot products for the power plant, brick kiln, and roadway are 0.94, 0.98, and 0.99,

Table 2. Normalized dot products of the source profiles

Dataset	Sources	Dry season			Wet s	Wet season		Roadway		Power plant		Brick kiln	
		S1	S2	S3	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	S1	S2	
Drv season	S 1	1.00	0.83	0.82	0.95 ^{a)}	0.77	0.78	0.90	0.94	0.84	0.87	0.83	
5	S2		1.00	0.92	0.81	0.90	0.92	0.87	0.86	0.76	0.98	0.92	
	S3			1.00	0.87	0.97	0.99	0.78	0.73	0.98	0.90	0.99	
Wet season	S1				1.00	0.82	0.83	0.84	0.95	0.90	0.93	0.87	
	S2					1.00	0.99	0.71	0.65	0.98	0.91	0.97	
Roadway	S1						1.00	0.73	0.67	0.99	0.92	0.98	
	S2							1.00	0.91	0.82	0.86	0.80	
Power plant	S1								1.00	0.77	0.84	0.75	
	S2									1.00	0.94	0.98	
Brick kiln	S1										1.00	0.90	
	S2											1.00	

^{a)}The largest (close to 1) values of dot product are marked in bold, showing the strong resemblance with each other.

respectively, confirming the three primary sources contributing to TSP during the dry season obtained from the directional analysis. The normalized dot products between the dry season source profile 3 (roadways) and directional analysis source profile 2 for the power plant and brick kiln (roadways) are 0.98 and 0.99, respectively, again indicating roadways.

For the wet season, UNMIX resolved two sources (Fig. 6b) which can be interpreted as a power plant (source 1) and roadways (source

(b)

сa

Power plant/oil refinery

РЪ

РЪ

сч

Ni

źn

Fe

Ċu

Мg

Na

Ċa

сч

Roadways

'n

ź'n

Fe

Ċu

Mg

Na





Soil Air Water

CIFA

Site	References	TSP	Cd	Ni	Cu	Fe	Pb	Zn	Model used	Source identified (no. of sources)
	Present study	505	0.021	0.91	4.15	7.95	2.5	7.2	UNMIX	(3) Power plant/refinery, brick kilns, and roadways
						Regula	tory ag	ency		
	[25] [26]	120 260	0.005 0.006	0.00038 0.00024		-	0.50 1.50	-		
						Urł	oan are	a		
Islamabad, Pakistan	[1]	164	0.004	0.024	0.306	2.46	0.144	2.31	PCA	(6) Industries, automobile exhaust, biomass burning, resuspended soil dust, crude oil combustion, metallurgical emissions
Islamabad, Pakistan	[2]	168	0.005	0.026	0.184	2.56	0.108	1.39	PCA	(5) Automobile emissions, windblown soil dust, excavation activities, biomass burning, industrial and fugitive emissions
Islamabad, Pakistan	[4]	119	0.003		0.038	1 .34	0.064	3.33	PCA	(3) Industrial emissions, automobile exhaust, and windblown soil dust
Wah Cantt, Pakistan	[5]	235	0.023		0.049	3.91	0.014	3.94	PCA	(4) Industries, metallurgical emissions, automotive exhaust, and soil-based wind erosion
Lahore, Pakistan	[6]	340	0.077	0.018	0.073	8.2	4.4	11.0	PCA	(6) Resuspended soil, automobile emissions, industries, secondary aerosols, coal, and biomass burning
Kolkata, India	[37]	139-580	0.004	0.028		1 .10	0.159	0.607	CMB	(4) Road dust, soil dust, disel, and coal combustion
Rourkela, India	[38]	140		0.018	0.017	10.14	0.017	0.252	CMB	(6) Steel production, road/soil dust, fertilizer plant, wood combustion, solid waste burning, and automobiles
Delhi, India	[34]	546	0.011	0.148	3.69	16.44	0.441	4.68	PCA	(5) Resuspended dust, industries, biomass burning, oil combustion, and battery
Delhi, India	[39]	327	0.021	0.055	1.17	5.16	0.657	3.11	CMB/PCA	(4) Crustal dust, vehicles, industrial sources,
Mumbai, India	[40]	134	0.007		0.016	1.62	0.101	0.260	FA	(3) Windblown, resuspended dust, and sea salt spray
Dhaka, Bangladesh	[41]	516	0.003		0.054	24.80	0.279	0.801	Correlation	(3) Fossil fuel combustion, crustal aerosol, and coal fly ash
Dhaka, Bangladesh	[42]	413	0.009		0.249		0.485	0.861		
Faisalabad, Pakistan	[7]	550	0.021			0.015	0.549	0.016		

Table 3. Comparison of TSP and trace element levels (µg m⁻³) with other urban areas of subcontinent cities and standards of regulatory agencies

FA, factor analysis.

2). These sources also resembled sources 1 and 3 for the dry season, with corresponding normalized dot products of 0.95 and 0.97, respectively, indicating that the first source corresponded to source 1 of the power plant directional dataset while the second source matched source 1 of roadway directional dataset. Most brick kilns did not operate during the wet season, supporting its absence from the wet season UNMIX results.

3.5 Comparison with similar studies from the subcontinent

Table 3 shows the comparative results to develop an overall comparative status of PM and metal pollution status in the atmosphere of Faisalabad in the region. Average TSP mass was four times higher than the WHO and about two times higher than the US EPA standards [25, 26]. Similarly, Cd, Ni, Pb levels were also many times higher than standard values proposed by these regulatory agencies. Compared with other urban areas of the subcontinent, the

measured concentrations of most trace metals in the urban areas of Faisalabad are much higher than the reported values for Islamabad [1, 2, 4], Kolkata, Delhi, Mumbai [37, 34, 39, 40], and Dhaka [41, 42] except Lahore [6]. Regarding TSP sources, most of the studies reported the major sources associated with roadways (*i.e.*, resuspended road/soil dust, automobile exhaust) and industries (*i.e.*, oil combustion, coal burning, and metallurgical emissions) as indicated in this study. The PCA is by far the most common model used for source identification studies followed by CMB.

4 Concluding remarks

The present study showed a significant spatial and temporal variation of TSP mass and element concentrations in the local atmosphere of Faisalabad mainly due to changes in anthropogenic activities and prevailing metrological conditions. The major elements in the local atmosphere (Ca, Fe, Mg, and Na) were of crustal origin while elements of anthropogenic origin (Pb, Cd, Ni,

Cu, and Zn) emerged as minor contributors. Source identification based on combined wind direction analysis and UNMIX results identified three major contributors to TSP: power plant/refinery, brick kilns, and roadways. The triangulation of the wind rose directions from multiple sites coincided with the location of known primary sources in the study area. The UNMIX results also identified elemental signatures corresponding to the same three primary sources indicated by the wind rose triangulations. The normalized dot product was successfully used to quantify the similarity between different source profiles extracted from UNMIX model runs on various datasets. The coupling of UNMIX with wind direction analysis proved thus to be useful in extracting more specific information on source contributions and locations. It is anticipated that the present investigation would be helpful for the designing and instituting the effective abatement strategies and emissions regulations.

Acknowledgments

The funding provided by Higher Education Commission, Government of Pakistan, to carry out this research is gratefully acknowledged. The study is a part of a Ph.D. research work of the corresponding author who would also like to thank personnel from the Air Quality Research Center, UC Davis for the writing assistance.

The authors have declared no conflicts of interest.

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