

PM Source Apportionment and Mapping Using Microscopic Chemical Imaging

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Introduction

Over the past 20 years, an ever-increasing number of epidemiological studies have shown significant associations between the mass concentration of ambient air particulate matter (PM) and adverse respiratory and cardiovascular health effects (e.g., Dockery et al, 1993, Pope et al., 1995, Krewski et al., 2009). PM air pollution has long been linked to both acute and chronic health effects, including asthma, cardiac disease, and other conditions (e.g., Koenig et al., 2005, Shah et al., 2008). In addition, many studies indicate that fine particles (PM with aerodynamic diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$) have a greater impact on human health than coarse particles (PM with aerodynamic diameter 2.5-10 μm) (e.g., Dockery and Pope, 2006). Based on these and other studies, a National Ambient Air Quality Standard (NAAQS) for PM_{2.5} was established on 1997 and modified in 2006. The current standard is 35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in a twenty-four hour period and annual average of 15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. At these levels, a significant number of urban areas in the US are in violation of the NAAQS and in order to develop effective abatement strategies, there is an increased need for determining the sources of PM_{2.5}.

One important approach used to aid in the development of cost-effective control strategies to control PM_{2.5} is determining its sources through the application of various receptor modeling methods (Watson and Chow, 2004, Watson et. al., 2008). These methods are implemented by collecting PM at a receptor (a location in the community), chemically analyzing the collected material, and working backwards to determine the source contributions. Meteorological data (e.g., wind speed and direction) are not required but can provide additional information in identifying specific sources. It should be noted that receptor oriented methods are complementary to source models (i.e., dispersion models, etc.) and applying them to the same ambient case will point out deficiencies in each of the approaches (Watson and Chow, 2004).

Watson et al. (2008) presented a review of the advantages and disadvantages of a number of receptor modeling methods. There are a number of receptor models, including chemical mass balance (CMB), non-negative least squares (e.g., PMF), edge detection (e.g., UNMIX), etc. These models tend to fall into two different categories: 1) a single variable or sample type (e.g., Chemical Mass Balance - CMB), or 2) a multivariate/multi-sample type (e.g., Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF), and UNMIX target transformation factor analysis). Inputs to the CMB include a speciated chemical profile for the observed ambient PM along with speciated profiles for the potential sources. The CMB then performs a linear least squares regression analysis to predict the relative source contributions to the observed ambient data. Prior to performing the CMB, the chemical profiles have to be developed. This generally involves the collection of source samples followed by detailed chemical analysis. In order to reduce model uncertainty and enable the identification of additional sources, polyaromatic hydrocarbons have, in some cases, been added to the chemical profiles (Watson et. al., 1998, Fujita et al., 1998, Chow et al., 2007, Fujita et al., 2007). The multivariate approaches do not require chemically speciated source profiles but do require large, speciated ambient data sets (>100 samples). All these approaches are effective in providing estimates of source contributions to observed ambient PM; however, they are expensive (requiring multiple analytical methods) and time consuming (completion of the analysis generally takes weeks or months followed by data base development and receptor modeling).

In this conference paper we briefly describe an alternative approach using microscopic imaging (MCI) to rapidly and inexpensively apportion observed ambient PM to specific source categories. Validation and limitations of the technique, along with an example of the application of the method are also presented. Additional details are contained in a recently published paper by Gertler et al. (2014).

Method Description

Taback et al. (1999) reported on a microscopic chemical imaging approach to characterize in real time particles in air or water based on their fluorescence. The original system coupled optical microscopy with spectroscopic imaging of particle fluorescence to non-destructively monitor impurities and microorganisms. One of the tests reported was the assessment of PAHs on particles. This led Gertler and Gillies (2001) to propose the application the MCI method for PM source apportionment based on the fluorescence spectra of PAHs. Their hypothesis was based on the use of PAHs as source markers

in previous CMB apportionment studies (Watson et al., 1998, Fujita et al., 1998, Chow et al., 2007, Fujita et al., 2007). The approach taken was to analyze previous collected ambient and source filters using an MCI instrument (FIPA-20, GreenVision Systems, Ltd., Tel Aviv, Israel) and apply the system software (similar to the linear least squares regression technique employed by the CMB) to determine the sources of the PM, and compare the results against those obtained using the CMB.

The MCI system used in this earlier study is described in Taback et al. (1999) and Gertler and Gillies (2001). Briefly, the MCI instrument (FIPA-20) employs microscopic chemical imaging coupled with adaptive learning algorithms to identify chemical species that may be present on particles. Figure 1 contains a schematic of the principle of operation. The instrument scans the collected particles and records the particle-by-particle spectra for the wavelength region of 390-900 nm using an interferometer based imaging Fourier spectrometer coupled to a fluorescence microscope with UV optics. The wavelength accuracy of the latest version FIPA-20 interferometer is 2 nm and quantification of pixels to 0.25 μm (equivalent to a particle of the same size) resolution is possible (In a sense, this is similar to scanning electron microscopy with an electron microprobe.) The image is then digitized and pixel-by-pixel spectral information is collected. Particle size and morphology information are also recorded. The software developed for the MCI instrument compares the spectral and morphological data collected for the sample with data in the source library and reports the presence of identified sources and their percent contribution to the mass of sample collected.

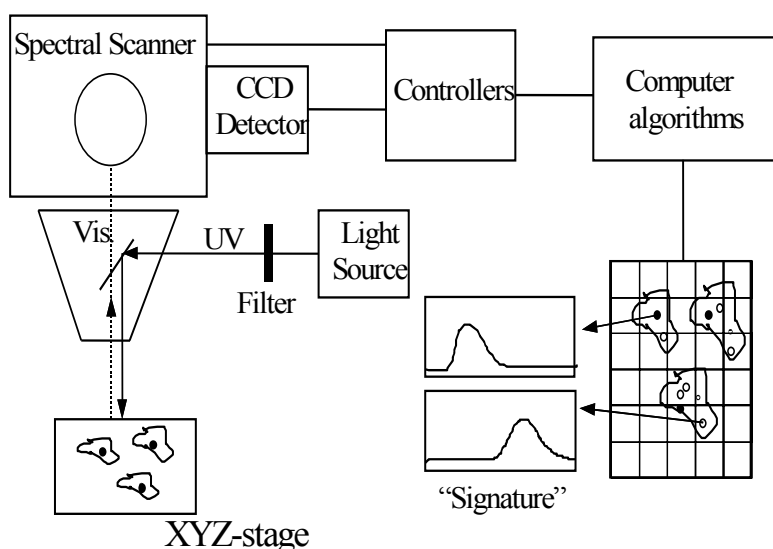


Figure 1: Schematic of the FIPA-20 instrument for MCI analysis of particle samples

The procedure employed by Gertler and Gillies (2001) consisted of two main parts, the first part was building a source profile data base using source samples collected as part of the Cairo Air Improvement Project (Abu-Allaban et al., 2002) and the second one was the routine scanning of ambient filters. Building the source profile data base enabled the system to recognize target sources. Different source samples were scanned into the system and analyzed. Their spectral output was then saved to a database. One important criterion they used was the samples had to have been analyzed using standard analytical methods coupled with CMB source apportionment in order to validate the MCI apportionment results. Spectral and morphological information were also obtained. The key in the identification process was a coupling of the maximum and peak shape in the observed spectrum and the comparison of these parameters with the same parameters for sources contained in the source library. As part of this preliminary work only the spectral data were used.

Method Validation

We performed a two-step evaluation: (1) comparison against saved images to test correct identification and (2) comparison against a more complete CMB analysis performed by Abu-Allaban et al. (2002). In the first step, we observed correct classification in 83% of the cases. The results for the second comparison are presented in Figure 2 and show a good agreement, with a slope of 0.945 and R^2 of 0.726. Based on this assessment, we conclude the method is able to predict the sources of the observed PM. It should be noted that inherent in this comparison is the assumption that the CMB is the "gold standard" for source apportionment. Different source apportionment methods will yield variations in predicted PM apportionment. Given this variability and uncertainty (likely on the order of 20%), the conclusion of comparability seems warranted.

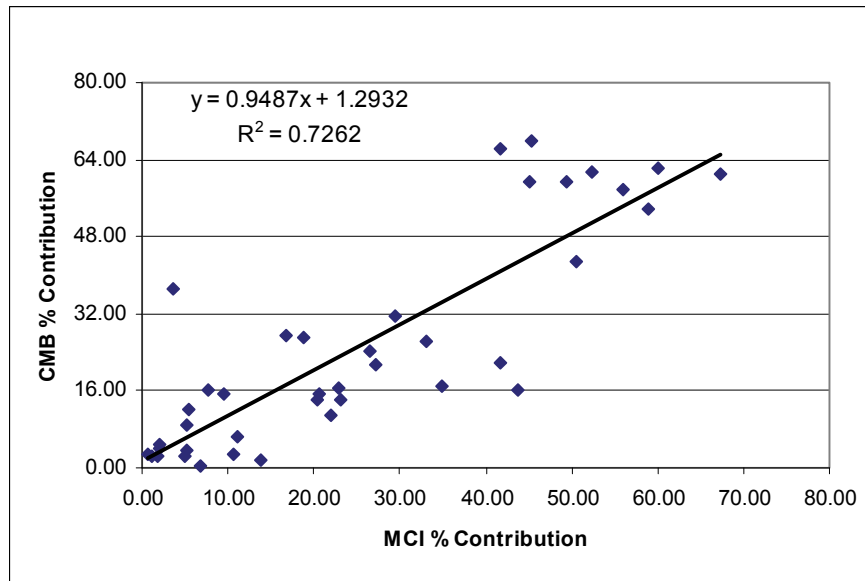


Figure 2: Comparison of MCI percent source contribution predictions developed using the intensity of the observed spectra (similar to a volume weighting) with CMB source contribution predictions

Mapping of PM Sources

The ability to obtain rapid source apportionment information provides an opportunity to spatially map the source contributions to aid with the implementation of control strategies. To test this approach, following validation of the method, we applied the MCI technique to develop spatial maps of PM source contributions to observed ambient PM for a number of cities including Singapore, Hyderabad (India), and Shanghai. In this preliminary work, samples were collected using fixed PM monitors and the MCI analysis was performed in a central laboratory. Apportionment results from the sampling networks were interpolated and spatially mapped, as seen in Figure 3 for the mobile source contribution in Singapore. Future studies could employ distributed MCI instruments capable of both PM sampling and analysis, which would yield real time PM source apportionment information and allow for short term interventions.

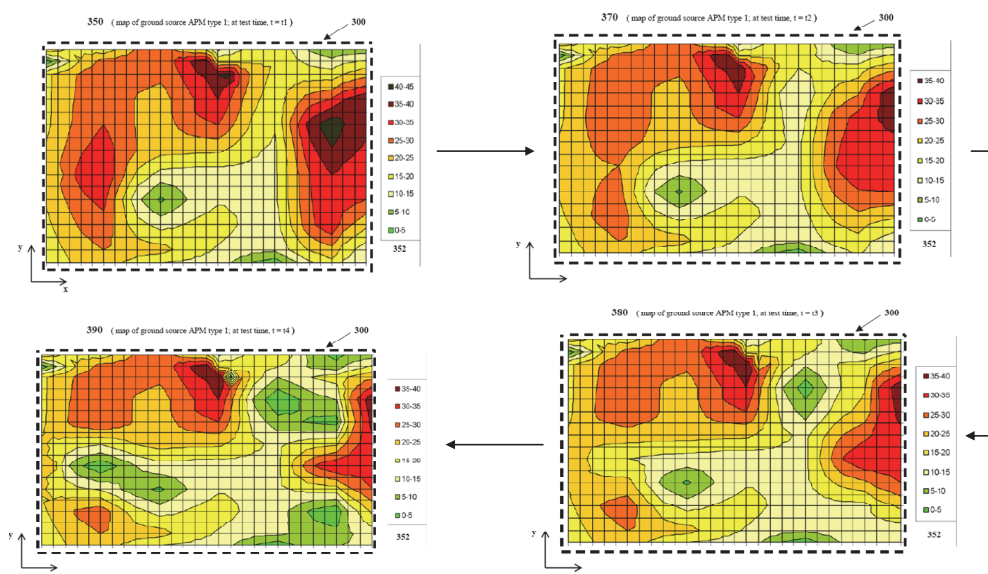


Figure 3: Modeled mobile source contributions from six sites over four days to observed PM_{2.5} in Singapore

Discussion

Based on our assessment and application of the MCI method, we can identify a number of advantages and limitations of the method when used for PM source apportionment. Advantages include:

- **Rapid analysis:** The method is able to predict source contributions in near-real time. The primary delays are in the transport of filters to the instrument followed by the time to scan the filters. This time for scanning is approximately two hours, much less than the time involved in speciated chemical analysis. In addition, the apportionment prediction is part of the analytical procedure and no additional modeling is necessary.
- **Cost:** Since extensive laboratory measurements are not required, the estimated cost per filter analysis is significantly reduced. This has the potential to expand the use of receptor modeling for use in developing strategies for PM reduction.
- **Increased spatial and temporal resolution:** Due to the decrease in cost and number of samples required for modeling, enhanced spatial and temporal resolution of PM source contributions can be routinely obtained.
- **Number of samples:** While the CMB can be performed on a single ambient sample, other receptor modeling methods require >100 samples to be applied. Like the CMB, the MCI method can be used on a single sample.

However, a number of limitations in the method were also identified. These include:

- **Particles must fluoresce:** The identification is based on fluorescence; hence non-fluorescing particles are not observed. Fluorescing particles include those from combustion sources (due to the presence of PAHs) and other fluorescing compounds (e.g., geological materials, which fluoresce due to their crystalline structure). Non-fluorescing particles include those from secondary sources (e.g., NH_4NO_3 and $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$). Methods need to be developed to characterize the contribution from non-fluorescing particles.
- **Lack of adequate uncertainty parameters:** The fitting algorithm is based on peak wavelength and peak shape. While there is a “certainty” related to the fitting, it does not include adequate measures such as χ^2 that would aid with an assessment of the overall fitting.
- **Morphology:** While the principle behind the MCI allows for the use of morphological information to potentially aid in source attribution, this aspect of the analytical capability remains under-developed at this time and will need to be addressed.
- **Apportionment of similar sources:** Many source emissions have similar chemical profiles, leading to an inability to adequately separate these “collinear” source types. An example of this is the lack of separation between spark-ignition vs. diesel sources. We lumped all mobile source contributions into a general mobile source category. Source spectra indicate a difference; however, the earlier generation MCI instrument was unable to accurately separate the categories.
- **Particle size limitations:** The instrument used has a size limitation of 0.5 μm . While this is sufficient to account for much of the mass, under a number of scenarios, the PM may be dominated by particles smaller than this size. (Note, recent equipment advancements have lowered the size resolution to 0.25 μm).

Summary

Current commonly applied methods to apportion the sources of ambient PM are expensive and time consuming, which limits the ability to develop and implement effective control strategies. To address these deficiencies, we evaluated the application of MCI for use in apportioning the source contributions to ambient PM. The MCI method involves measuring individual particle's fluorescence and source attribution is based on the individual particle analysis coupled with identification from a source library. Previously collected PM ambient and source samples were evaluated. The MCI apportionment results were validated by comparison against previously obtained CMB predictions and a set of sequestered particle images. Using fluorescence intensity as a surrogate for concentration we found the MCI and CMB apportionments to be in good agreement with the CMB predictions. Advantages of the approach include rapid analysis, low cost/sample, increased spatial and temporal resolution, and the ability to perform assessments using a small number of samples. Limitations include the current inability to analyze non-fluorescing particles, need to include particle morphology, size limitations, and ability to separate similar source types. Overall, this approach has the ability to identify and apportion the sources of ambient PM inexpensively and in near real time.

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