

# “Source apportionment of ambient air particulate matter in Jharia coalfields region, Jharkhand”

Sponsor

Bharat Coking Coal Limited (BCCL)



CSIR-National Environmental Engineering  
Research Institute, Nagpur



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**Principal Investigator**

Dr. Rajesh Biniwale  
Senior Principal Scientist  
CSIR-National Environmental  
Engineering Research Institute  
Nagpur-440020, Maharashtra  
rb\_biniwale@neeri.res.in

**Scientific Team**

Dr. Yogesh Pakade  
Er. S.A. Praveen  
Dr. Rakesh Kadaverugu  
Dr. Anirban Middey  
Dr. A. D. Bhanarkar

**Project Team**

Mr. Pankaj Kaware  
Mr. Ariz Ahmed  
Ms. Anshu Pandey  
Ms. Samiksha Ashtikar  
Ms. Shruti Pande  
Ms. Punam Bagde  
Ms. Pratiksha Thombre  
Mr. Mohit Mahurkar  
Mr. Rahul Pawar  
Ms. Smita Aditya  
Mr. Ankush Rai  
Mr. Vijay Selvaraj

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## Chapter 1 Introduction

Jharia Coalfield (JCF) is one of the oldest coalfields of India and has been subjected to coal exploitation for more than 100 years. JCF is one of the significant coal-producing areas in the country and occupies an important place in India's industrial and energy scenario by virtue of prime coking coal and is an essential source of coal. Jharia coalfield is crucial and a large coalfield situated in Dhanbad and Bokaro district, Jharkhand. Geographically the JCF is bounded by latitude  $23^{\circ}38' N$  to  $23^{\circ}49' N$  and longitude  $86^{\circ}09' E$  to  $86^{\circ}30' E$  and encompassing a total area of about 450sq km (Figure 1.1). Jharia is the largest coal producer in India and has an estimated reserved of 19.4 billion tonnes of coking coal. The coalfield contributes to the local economy and directly or indirectly employs the local population.

Bharat Coking Coal Limited, a subsidiary of Coal India Limited, has been operating the majority of the coal mines in the Jharia coalfield regions since its inception in 1972. Jharia, one of the eight blocks in Dhanbad and the main source of metallurgical coal in India can be termed as the country powerhouse since its mines are the only source for the best quality coking coal required by the steel industries and others in the country.

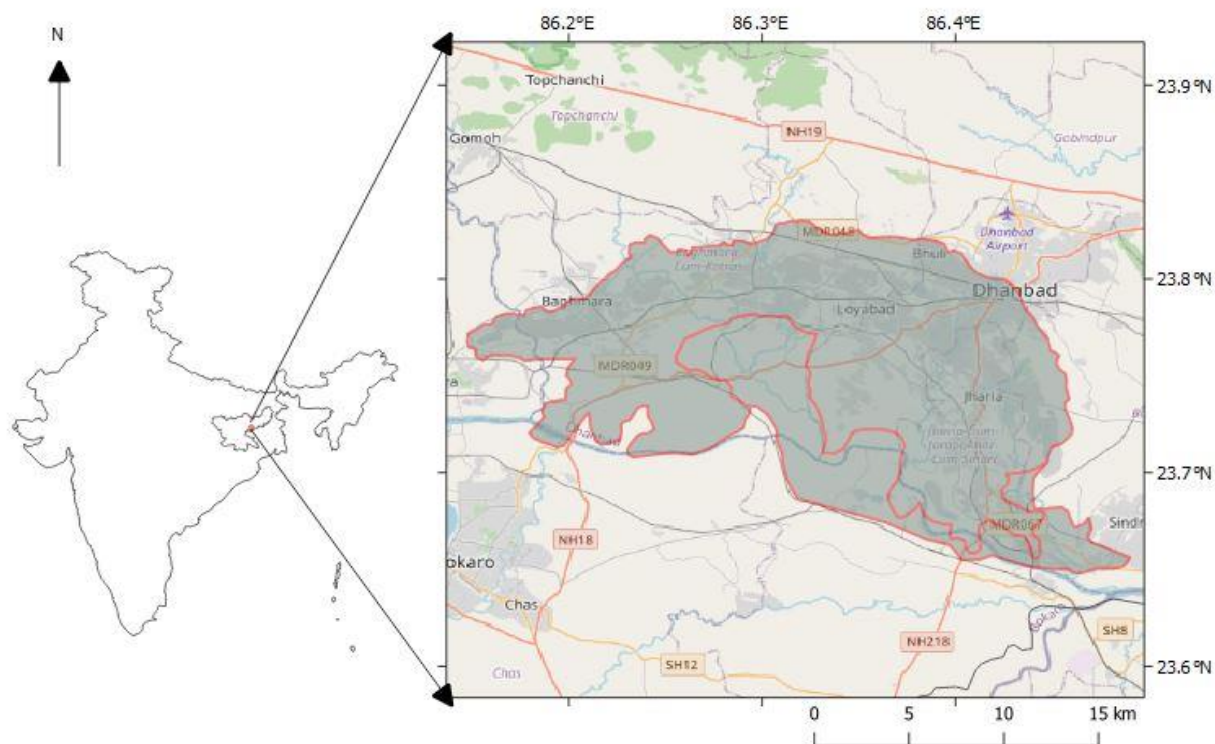


Figure 1.1: Geographical location of Jharia Coalfield in India

### 1.1. Climate

Dhanbad lies 236 m above the mean sea level and experiences the tropical climate. When compared with the winter, the summers have much more rainfall. The Köppen-Geiger climate classification is Aw (Tropical wet-dry climate) and experiences an average temperature of 25.9 °C and 1203 mm of precipitation falls annually. The driest month is December. There is 3 mm of precipitation in December. In July, the precipitation reaches its peak, with an average of 321 mm. With an average of 32.5 °C, May is the warmest month. At 18.4 °C on average, January is the coldest month of the year. The windrose for the March-June months is presented in Figure 1.2.

### 1.2. Land use & Land cover

In the present investigation, the Jharia coalfield area (2827.43 sq km) has been undertaken to study the Land use land cover (LULC), For this study, Sentinel-2A satellite image is used in the month of 17 February 2019 having a minimum cloud. These images were downloaded from the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Earth Explorer. Each Sentinel 2A satellite imagery band was geo-referenced to the WGS\_84 datum and Universal Transverse Mercator Zone 45 North coordinate system. The Sentinel 2A satellite image stacking of the band-2, band-3, band-4 and band-8 of 10 m resolution was performed on the ArcGIS 10.5 software for studying the LULC of the Jharia coalfield.

For LULC classification, supervised classification was carried out in the study area. Thus allocations of each classified area in sq. km and its percentages are tabulated in Table 1.1. The percentage of areas as classified as; agriculture (74.5%), barren land (7.45%) built-up areas (5.14%), mining (2.64%), vegetation (9.40%) and water body (0.86%) (Figure 1.2).

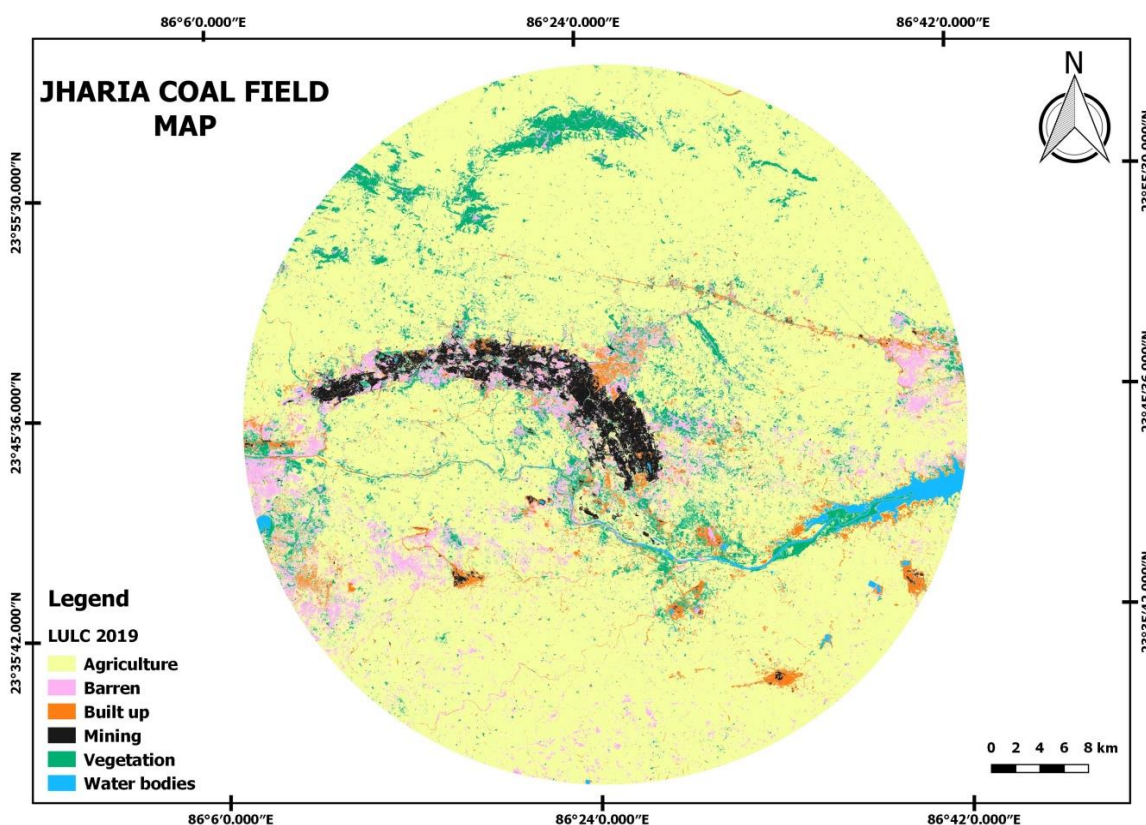


Figure 1.2: Land Use land cover map of Jharia coal field area



Table 1.1: LULC classification of Dhanbad study area

Sr. No	Name	Area in sq. km	Area in %
1.	Agriculture	2106.7	74.51
2.	Barren	210.64	7.45
3.	Built up	145.31	5.14
4.	Mining	74.67	2.64
5.	Vegetation	265.74	9.40
6.	Water bodies	24.37	0.86
<b>Total</b>		<b>2827.43</b>	<b>100</b>

### 1.3. Population

The study area covers four district boundaries; namely Dhanbad (1710.2sq km), Bokaro (620.43sq km), Giridih (29.8sq km) in Jharkhand and Puruliya (465.85sq km) district in West Bengal state. The Dhanbad district covers the maximum study area and the population is around 23, 94,434 in the year 2001 and is around 26,84,487 in 2011. The Bokaro district total population is in 2001 is 17, 75,961 and in 2011 it is 20, 62,330. The Giridih district total population is 19, 01,564 in 2001 and is 24,45,474 in 2011. The Puruliya district in West Bengal state total population is in 2001 is 25, 35,233 and in 2011 are 29, 30,115.

Based on the covered study area the total population in the study area is tabulated in Table 1.2. The total population in the study area based on Census book 2001 is 25,32,195 and 2011 is 28,62,600.

Table 1.2: Population in the study area as per 2011 census

District Name	District Area Covered by Study Area	% of Area Covered of District by Study Area	Population of 2001	Population 2001 in Study Area	Population of 2011	Population 2011 in Study Area
Bokaro	620.43	21.50	17,75,961	3,81,791	2,062,330	4,43,353
Dhanbad	1710.2	81.51	23,94,434	19,51,645	2,684,487	21,88,060
Giridih	29.8	0.59	19,01,564	11,275	2,445,474	14,500
Puruliya	465.85	7.40	25,35,233	1,87,484	2,930,115	2,16,686
Total	2826.28		Total Population 2001	25,32,195	Total Population 2011	28,62,600

### 1.4. Purpose of Study

Urban air pollution is a notable concern across the world. Inferring to the rapid rates of industrialization and urbanization in Indian cities, polluted air quality is considered a key factor in crumbling the quality of life with an adverse effect on the human being. Hence air quality gained a significant role in recent decades since it is worsened by emission from major pollutants including particulate matter (PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>), NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> were found to exceed the national ambient air quality standard (NAAQS) limits.

Particulate pollution is a major concern in the field of air pollution. The particulate matter in the air result from dispersion of dust from industrial (mining and non-mining) and allied activities, transportation, local vehicular movement and domestic fuel (Coal, wood-burning etc.) burning. Assessment of the air quality can provide useful insight for the development of the air quality management plan. The database developed on air quality also helps the regulatory agency identify the locations where natural resources and human health could be at risk.

Jharia coal mines having low ash content and high calorific value coals are subjected to intensive mining activities because of the easy availability of coal at shallow depths in thick seams. Therefore, they are often used directly in iron and steel plants for metal oxide reduction after washing. Although these coal mines are highly-priced for their high-quality coal, they are notorious for their mine fires, which cause a lot of fugitive gaseous and PM emissions. Hence, the Jharia region has been under scrutiny by various public authorities and the common public with a vision to improve the ambient air quality.

Various sources contribute to high particular matter concentration in the Jharia region: vehicles, mining activities, re-suspended dust, fugitive emissions, fuel oils, household LPG. The percentage contribution of these factors in the ambient depends exclusively on a particular region's economic activities. To improve the existing ambient air quality, the major sources of PM emissions first need to be identified.

Hence, the environmental clearance committee of MoEFCC has directed BCCL to conduct a source apportionment study for particulate matter. In this context, BCCL has approached CSIR-NEERI to conduct a source apportionment study of ambient air particulate matter in the Jharia coalfields region to quantify the various sources of PM emissions and suggest an effective environmental management plan.

The study's major objective is to assess the current ambient air quality, sources of air pollution, and propose the priorities for the actions for improvement of air quality. The study includes the entire Jharia Coalfield and an area up to 10 Km from the periphery/boundary of BCCL mines.

The detailed objectives are as follows:

i. Ambient Air Monitoring

- Monitoring of ambient air quality at selected receptor locations for pollutants including PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>(limited), SO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, PAHs to establish the status of the air quality in Jharia Coalfields and an area up to 10 K.M from the periphery/boundary of BCCL mines. Also, review of the available air quality monitoring data from Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) /Jharkhand State Pollution Control Board (JSPCB).
- To validate dispersion modelling predictions using measured air quality parameters
- To draw supportive data through the specific site-related monitoring regarding impact causing sources such as kerbside monitoring
- To establish the impact of meteorological conditions on a few select indicator pollutants in different micrometeorological conditions of the Jharia Coalfields

- Emission Inventory related to Jharia Coalfields along with area up to 10 Km from the periphery/boundary of BCCL mines
- ii. To identify the pollution load grid wise for point, line and area source
- To establish possibilities of receptor level concentrations of air pollutants by matching dispersion modelling and air quality monitoring data
  - Source apportionment
  - To identify and apportion the pollution load at receptor level to various sources in the Jharia Coalfields along with an area up to 10 Km from the periphery/boundary of BCCL mines
  - To carry out the source apportionment using molecular markers for a limited number of samples through a time-resolved sample collection at various periods of the day and day-of-the-week.
  - Any other item in consensus between both BCCL/CIL & NEERI evolved during the study.

### 1.5. Approach of study

The study approach has many components, each one of them having its importance and interdependence as shown in Figure 1.3. The ultimate objective is source apportionment of ambient air of JCF that primarily requires knowledge of ambient air quality status, sources and emission load. These three objectives were achieved by monitoring air pollutants at 13 locations in Jharia Coalfield using various instruments and multiple analyses. These locations were selected based on land use and activity profile. All monitoring was carried out using varied instruments and all attributes were analysed using standards methodologies. The study's methodology of the study was divided into three parts namely ambient air quality monitoring, sources emission inventory and source apportionment analysis.

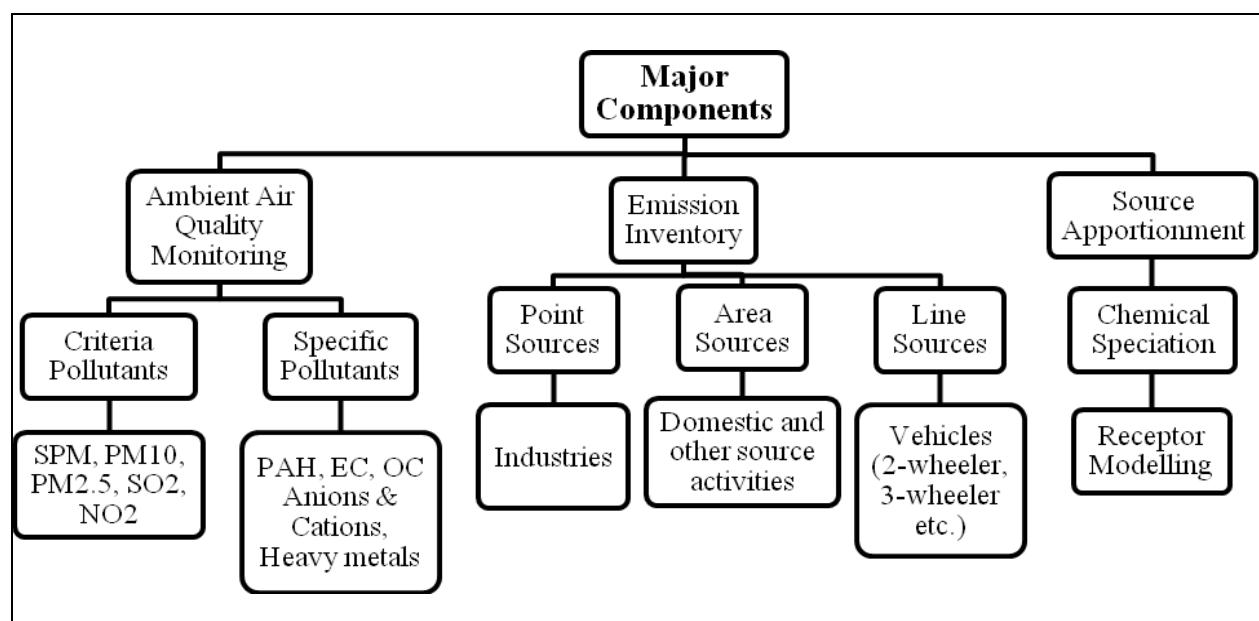


Figure 1.3: Air quality Monitoring & emission source apportionment studies

## Chapter 2 Emission Inventory

This section consists of all methodologies that have been applied for the emission inventory and dispersion modelling in the Jharia Coalfield. The emission inventory is the process to identify the possible source and its contribution. Emission inventory and dispersion modelling are based on the primary data collection to calculate emission load from a particular source. It provides fundamental information for air quality modelling and air pollution control strategy development. In the coal mining area, mining, non-mining, industrial, vehicular and other sources are contributing. Air quality monitoring includes the suitable location selected based on the metrological conditions, chemical characterization for identification of the source, CMB model to estimate the source apportionment to  $PM_{2.5}$ .

Air pollutant emission inventory is a process to identify the possible sources and their contribution. It provides fundamental information for air quality modelling and air pollution control strategy development. Mining, non-mining, industrial, vehicular and other sources are contributing to critical coal mining zone like JCF, India. According to possible emission sources, sources are divided into three categories like point sources, area sources and line sources. The inventory of these sources is important to make a proper source profile.

### 2.1. Inventory of Point Sources

A point source of pollution is a single identifiable source that is responsible for significant pollution load in the study area, like thermal power stations. A comprehensive list of different point-like industries in the study area was obtained from the regional office of the Jharkhand State Pollution Control Board (JSPCB), at Dhanbad. The industries specific information of includes production capacities, raw material used, manufacturing process, fuel consumption, etc. also collected from the regional office by the CSIR-NEERI team.

### 2.2. Inventory of Area Sources

Area sources are sources of pollution that emit a substance or radiation from a specified area. Mining activities, domestic/hotel fuel (coal) burning, garbage burning, etc. are the major contributor to area sources. In order to assess the fuel consumption in the study area, the necessary information was collected through surveys at petrol pumps, hotels and restaurants, bakeries, open eat out and crematoria. Also, surveys collected data on the seasonal implication of fuel used particularly wood and coal. The data on trash burning and solid waste generated in the study were collected from Municipal Corporation Dhanbad.

### 2.3. Inventory of Line Sources

Vehicles contribute a whole range of HCs besides contributing  $SO_x$ ,  $NO_x$  (as  $NO_2$ ), HC and lead. Diesel vehicles are the primary source of smoke and  $NO_x$  in addition to CO and HCs. However, CO and HCs per litre of fuel consumed by diesel vehicles is relatively low compared to gasoline-powered vehicles. In gasoline-powered vehicles, the exhaust is the major source of pollution that contributes 100 % CO and  $NO_x$  and 80% of HCs emitted to the atmosphere. The remaining 20% of HCs are emitted from crankcase blow-by and evaporative emissions. In the

two-stroke engine, the crankcase blow-by is absent. The exhaust emissions are the principal sources of pollutants emitting about 40% of fuel supplied without burning due to short circulating, contributing high concentration of HCs. In diesel vehicles, practically all pollutants are emitted through exhaust gases and the contribution to crankcase blow-by and evaporative fuel emission are negligible.

Though the quantity of pollutants emitted by the vehicles is directly proportional to the number of vehicles playing on the road, the intensity of pollution potential depends on several contributory factors such as a geographical location, unplanned development of central business areas, inadequate and ill-maintained road as well as the type of vehicle, unplanned traffic management, meteorological conditions, and non-availability of adequate emission control technology.

Vehicle activity data were collected during the field campaign at 12 road networks in the study area, and the daily average vehicular activity is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Daily average vehicle activity on different road network considered during the field survey

<b>Label</b>	<b>Road Network</b>	<b>HDV</b>	<b>LMV</b>	<b>3W</b>	<b>2W</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>L1</b>	Jharia to Lodna -5 km	1254	1385	3640	9560	15839
<b>L2</b>	Pathardih to Sindri -7 km	1539	5356	4362	15633	26890
<b>L3</b>	Bastacola to Pathardih -13km	2153	8325	3678	10233	24389
<b>L4</b>	Bhuli to Bankmore - 6km	1475	13832	12965	18241	46513
<b>L5</b>	Katras to Harina-12.5 km	1802	7290	3156	15329	27577
<b>L6</b>	Bankmore to Kusunda -5 km	658	2685	1896	10235	15474
<b>L7</b>	Kusunda to Katras - 10 km	1306	4521	5327	15689	26843
<b>L8</b>	Monidih to Kusunda -7 Km	1208	7659	3985	14698	27550
<b>L9</b>	Lohpiti to Mahuda Area Colony - 8 km	1535	4523	2235	6356	14649
<b>L10</b>	Mahuda to Parasia Chowk -7 km	1223	4023	1759	5623	12628
<b>L11</b>	Parasia Chowk To Moonidih - 3 km	269	2159	236	2347	5011
<b>L12</b>	Bhowra to Parbatpur - 13 Km	2135	7856	4258	14578	28827

The vehicle utilization factors (km travelled per day per vehicle type) were adapted from the Auto Fuel Policy Report (Table 2.2). Two-to-four-wheelers Emission factors were taken from various project reports conducted by CPCB and Indian Clean Air Programmed (ICAP) (CPCB 2010; ARAI 2007). The percentage distribution of various types of vehicles moving on the road network considered during the field survey is presented in Fig 2.1. It shows that major numbers of vehicles moving in the considered Road network are two-wheelers (51%), followed by light motor vehicles (26%), three-wheeler (17%) and heavy-duty diesel vehicles (6%).

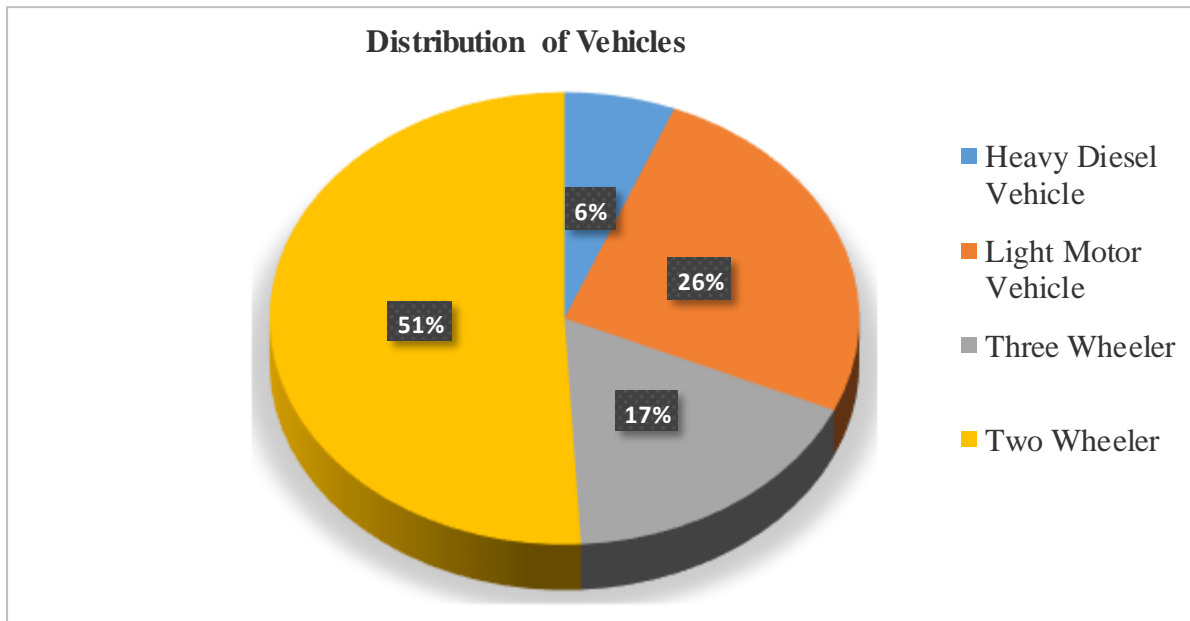


Figure 2.1 Percentage of different types of vehicle surveyed on the road network during the field survey

Table 2.2: Utilization Factors for different types of vehicle

Vehicle Type	km per day
LMV (Car Jeep)	52.6
LMV (Taxi)	77.89
2 Wheeler	25.1
3 Wheeler (Auto)	97.72
HCV	45.5

## 2.4. Methodology

The following method is adopted to estimate the emission load due to vehicles

$$E_i = N_v \times VKT \times E_f \quad (2.1)$$

Where,  $E_i$  is the emission from a particular type of vehicle

$N_v$  is the number of vehicles of a particular type

VKT is the vehicle km travelled

$E_f$ , km is the emission factor for a specific vehicle

Table 2.3: Emission estimate for road transport

Label	Road Network	Emission (kg/day)	
		PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>
L1	Jharia to Lodna -5 km	230.12	113.08
L2	Pathardih to Sindri -7 km	379.07	180.37
L3	Bastacola to Pathardih -13km	632.21	451.98
L4	Bhuli to Bankmore - 6km	331.41	187.69
L5	Katras to Harina-12.5 km	719.42	415.63
L6	Bankmore to Kusunda -5 km	308.69	194.34
L7	Kusunda to Katras - 10 km	576.31	277.95
L8	Monidih to Kusunda -7 Km	317.83	114.25
L9	Lohpiti to Mahuda Area Colony - 8 km	360.24	151.99
L10	Mahuda to Parasia Chowk -7 km	241.56	148.24

L11	Parasia Chowk To Moonidih - 3 km	94.26	57.23
L12	Bhowra to Parbatpur - 13 Km	592.82	379.80

Re-suspension of the unpaved and paved roads depends on the ‘silt loading’ factor and ‘vehicles weight’ roaming on the road (Table 2.4). The silt loading ( $S_L$ ) is the mass of the silt-sized material per unit area of the road surface. The amount of dust produces by vehicles movement on a paved road can be appraised by the following equation:

$$E = k. (SL/2)^{0.65} . (W/3)^{1.5} \quad (2.2)$$

Where, ‘E’ = emission rate of PMs (Table 2.3);

SL is silt load (g/m<sup>2</sup>);

W is the average weight of the vehicle (Tons);

k is constant (the function of particle size) in g VKT<sup>-1</sup> (Vehicle Kilometer Travel)

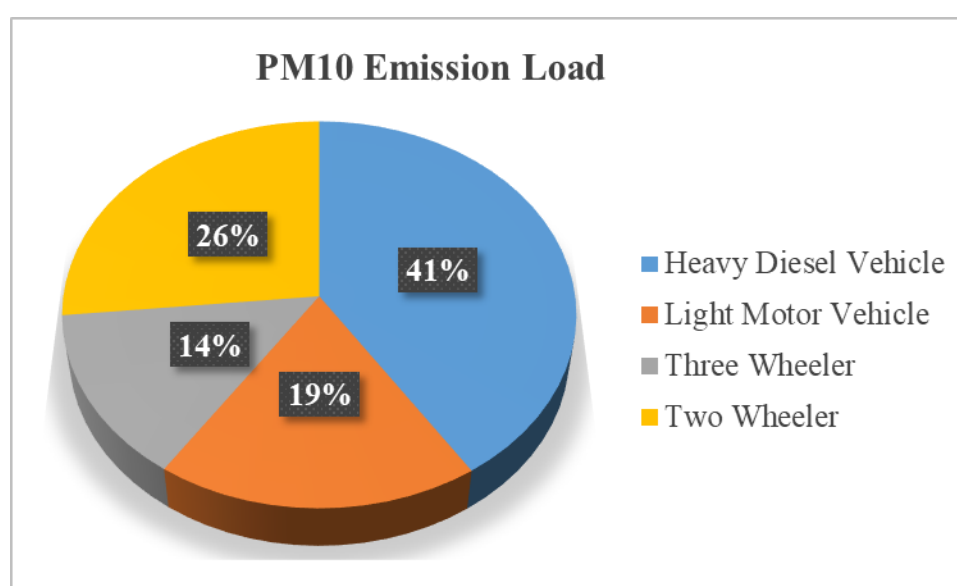


Figure 2.2 PM<sub>10</sub> emission load for different categories of vehicle

It is observed that 41% of PM<sub>10</sub> emission is contributed by the Heavy-duty diesel vehicles followed by two-wheelers (26%), Light motor vehicles (19%) and three-wheelers (14%) in the considered road network during the study period.

Table 2.4: Emission rate for the paved and unpaved road

Emission Sector	Emission Rate	
	PM <sub>10</sub> (kg/day)	PM <sub>2.5</sub> (kg/day)
Re-suspension dust from Paved & Unpaved Road	1756	843

## 2.5. Results

### 2.5.1. Industrial Emission

Emission inventory estimates are determined based on considering available industrial activity information, emission factors (Table 2.5) and observations. For the current study, industrial and mining information was collected for emission inventory development. Emission inventory information for industries was collected from the regional office of JSPCB. In Dhanbad, the major industries are the power plant and the coking industry. Other

than those are coal mines, thus coal as a fuel is majorly used in industries and households. Emission loads by point source are depicted in Table 2.6 as per emission inventory.

Table 2.5: Emission factor for coal mining activities

EF	TSP	PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>
<b>g/Mg Coal</b>	1914	1864	1176	420	820

Table 2.6: Emission load from Industrial sector in Dhanbad

Sr. No	Name of Industry	Type of Fuel	Fuel consumption	Unit	TSP (Ton/yr)	PM <sub>10</sub> (Ton/yr)	PM <sub>2.5</sub> (Ton/yr)	SO <sub>2</sub> (Ton/yr)	NO <sub>2</sub> (Ton/yr)
1	M/s Mahalaxmi Industries	Coal	4	MT/Oven/cycle (24hrs)	2.79	2.72	1.72	0.61	1.20
2	GEETEE Hard Coke Traders	Coal	100	TPD	69.86	68.04	42.92	15.33	29.93
3	M/s Shree Gopal Coke Industries	Coal	77.4	TPD	54.07	52.66	33.22	11.87	23.17
4	M/s Laxmi Hard coke Manufacturing Company	Coal	102	TPD	71.26	69.40	43.78	15.64	30.53
5	M/s - Sanjay Hard Coke Industries	Coal	70	TPD	48.90	47.63	30.05	10.73	20.95
6	M/s Inder Hard Coke Industries	Coal	36	TPD	25.15	24.49	15.45	5.52	10.77
7	M/s Shiv Shakti Coke Industries	Coal	80	TPD	55.89	54.43	34.34	12.26	23.94
8	Khetawat Coke Manufacturing Company	Coal	4.5	MT/Oven/ Batch (24hrs)	3.14	3.06	1.93	0.69	1.35
9	M/s Pawan Hard Coke Industries	Coal	100	TPD	69.86	68.04	42.92	15.33	29.93
10	M/s Ganapati Udyog	Coal	135	TPD	94.31	91.85	57.95	20.70	40.41
11	M/s Aman Soft Coke Industries	Coal	29.76	TPD	20.79	20.25	12.77	4.56	8.91

### 2.5.2. Area/Distributed source

An area source emission inventory estimates the pollutant loads emanating from several small but numerous individual sources in a specific geographic area and which cannot be included underline no point sources.

Area sources considered for emission inventory for Dhanbad city are:

- Cooking operations in households: Slum and non-slum
- Cooking operations in hotels, restaurants, open eat-outs and bakeries
- Crematoria



The following sections will detail the methodology adopted for estimating emissions from each of the above-mentioned sources and the results thus obtained.

➤ **Emission load from mining activities**

The emission loads from coal mine activities are depicted in Table 2.7. The emission load is calculated based on the secondary data collected from the BCCL mines covered in the study. The data includes coal and overburden quantity handled per day during loading and unloading, transfer from pit to stockyard through haul road and conveyor, vehicular movement frequency and diesel consumption for HEMM and DG sets. Emission factors from EEA air pollutant emission inventory guidebook 2019 were considered for the estimations of TSP and PM load.

Table 2.7: Emission load from coal mine activities in Jharia coalfield region

Mine	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	PM <sub>10</sub> (Tone/y)	PM <sub>2.5</sub> (Tone/y)
ABOCP	2355283	156.1	78.0
ADI Colliery	1444818	47.9	23.9
ASP Colliery	19540	27.7	13.8
Bhowra south	78079	26.9	13.4
Block IV Govindpur	432827	22.5	11.2
DBOCP	605747	64.7	32.4
East Bassuriya Colliery	576494	24.3	12.2
Gopalichuck Colliery	37573	3.7	1.9
Jeenagora OCP	2079123	208.0	104.0
Kuya OCP	1134723	90.1	45.1
NAKC	245205	78.3	39.1
NGK	261847	126.0	63.0
Nichitpur colliery	791140	61.4	30.7
Phularitand colliery	335887	84.1	42.1
Rajapur OCP	1170784	90.4	45.2
Sendra Bansjora	472760	63.0	31.5
Shatabdi colliery (Muraidhih)	34270	77.0	38.5
Tetulmari	876320	23.3	11.7
<b>Total</b>		<b>1275.4</b>	<b>637.7</b>

➤ **Cooking operations in non-slum household**

A survey of 20 non-slum household areas was conducted in randomly selected areas of Dhanbad to understand which fuels are being used in these households and their quantities. The survey results indicated that Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG) was the fuel of choice in all the households and that each household used about 1 cylinder per month on average. It was assumed that LPG use remains the same for all 365 days of the year. The results obtained are presented in Table 2.8.

Table 2.8: Emissions from the use of LPG in non-slum households in Dhanbad

LPG Pollutant	PM <sub>10</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/kg)	2.1	0.4	1.8	0.25	0.07
Emission (T/Year)	0.00575	0.0011	0.0049	0.0007	0.0002

➤ **Cooking operations in slum households**

A survey of 15 areas having slum households was conducted, spread in Jharia Coalfield which was known to have significant slum populations, to understand which fuels are being used in these households and their quantities. It was seen that a majority of the slum households use coal as a cooking fuel (Table 2.9).

Table 2.9: Emission from coal as fuel

Pollutant	SPM	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/kg)	20	13.3	3.99	24.92	0.5
Emission (T/Year)	28.354	18.856	5.657	35.330	0.709

➤ **Emissions from crematorium**

In order to calculate emission from crematoria data were obtained from crematoriums in Dhanbad. Emission from the burning of bodies using woods mainly produces PM<sub>10</sub>, CO and HC majorly as depicted in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10: Emission from Crematoria using Wood as fuel

Pollutant	PM <sub>10</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/Kg)	17.3	0.2	1.3	126.3	114.5
Emission (kg/day)	7.178	0.083	0.537	52.183	47.308

➤ **Emissions from bakeries**

Data were collected from 34 bakeries operating in Dhanbad in which 12 bakeries were using electrical ovens. The emissions from such bakeries were not considered. All the other bakeries were using coal as fuel. Emissions from such bakeries are given in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11: Emission from Bakeries using Coal as fuel

Pollutant	SPM	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/kg)	20	13.3	3.99	24.92	0.5
Emission (T/Year)	6.26	4.16	1.25	7.80	0.16

➤ **Emissions from hotels and restaurants**

Data were collected from 35 hotels in Dhanbad city. It has been found that most hotels/restaurants were using a combination of coal and LPG as cooking fuel. Emission

from coal and LPG were calculated and depicted in Table 2.12 and 2.13.

Table 2.12: Emission from Hotel & Restaurants using Coal

Pollutant	SPM	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/kg)	20	13.3	3.99	24.92	0.5
Emission (T/Year)	8.110	5.393	1.618	10.105	0.203

Table 2.13: Emission from Hotel & Restaurants using LPG

Pollutant	PM <sub>10</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/kg)	2.1	0.4	0.8	0.25	0.07
Emission (T/Year)	0.136	0.026	0.117	0.016	0.005

#### ➤ Emission from open eat-outs

From the survey it has been observed that most of the open eat-outs were using coal as cooking fuel, only a few were using LPG (Table 2.14).

Table 2.14: Emission loads from open eat-outs

Pollutant	SPM	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	CO	HC
Emission Factor (g/kg)	20	13.3	3.99	24.92	0.5
Emission (T/Year)	14.07	9.36	2.81	17.54	0.35

### 2.5.3. Grid wise emission inventory

The grid-wise particulate emission inventory maps were prepared from the primary and secondary data collected during the field surveys and the information received from the open cast mines, respectively. The PM emissions from restaurants, eat-outs, domestic chullahs, vehicles, crematoria, etc. were estimated based on the primary data obtained from the filed campaigns, whereas, the emissions from the mine operations were estimated based on the data received from the mines and the emission factors reported in the literature. Once the emissions rates were estimated, the cumulative emissions (including all types of sources like line, point, and area) were calculated falling under the grid defined (shown in Figure 2.3 and Figure 2.4). From the figures, it can be interpreted that the PM emissions are high on the northeast side of the study area. Whereas, the actual transport and dispersion of these emissions can be interpreted through the dispersion modelling carried out using the AERMOD model.

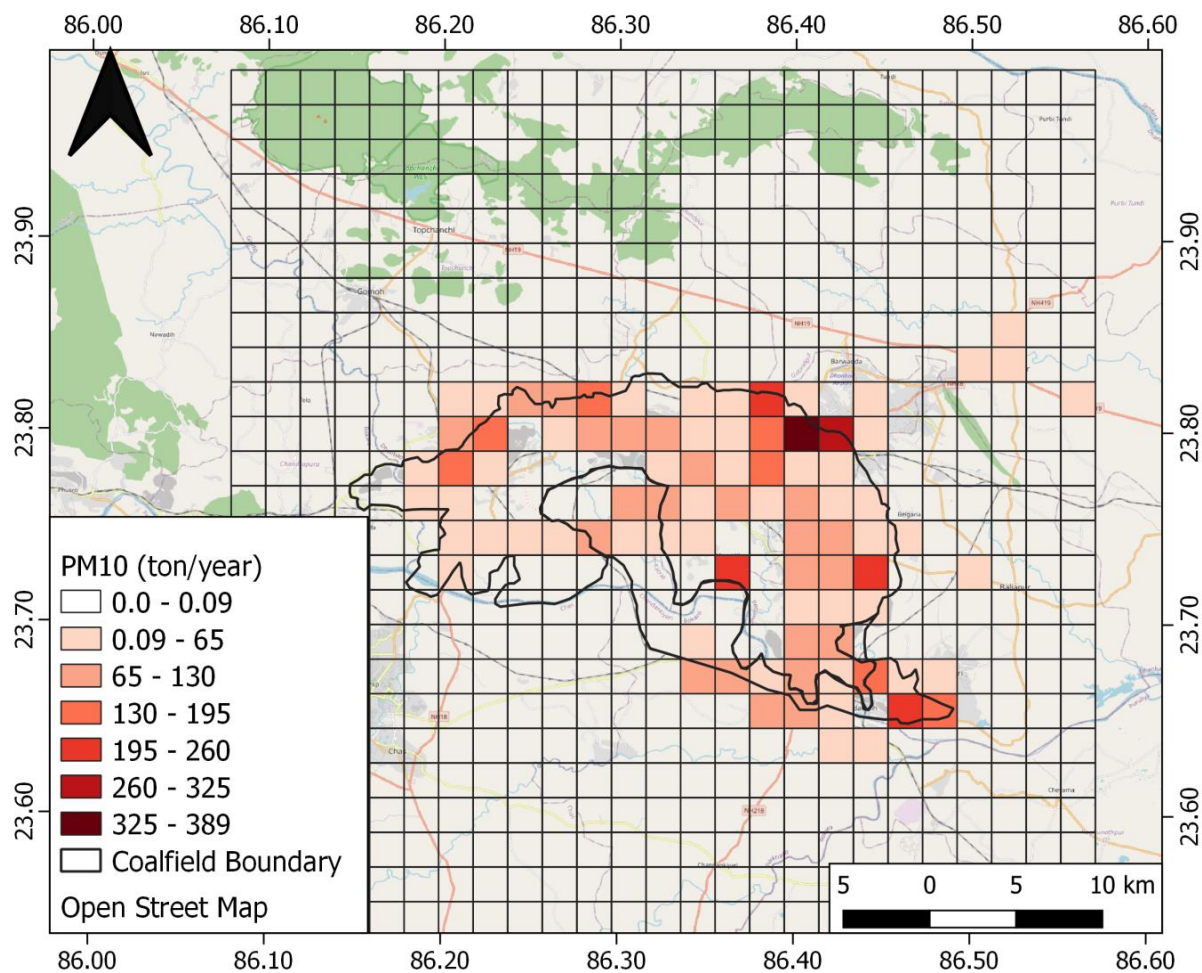


Figure 2.3 Grid-wise emission inventory of PM<sub>10</sub> in tons/year over the study area

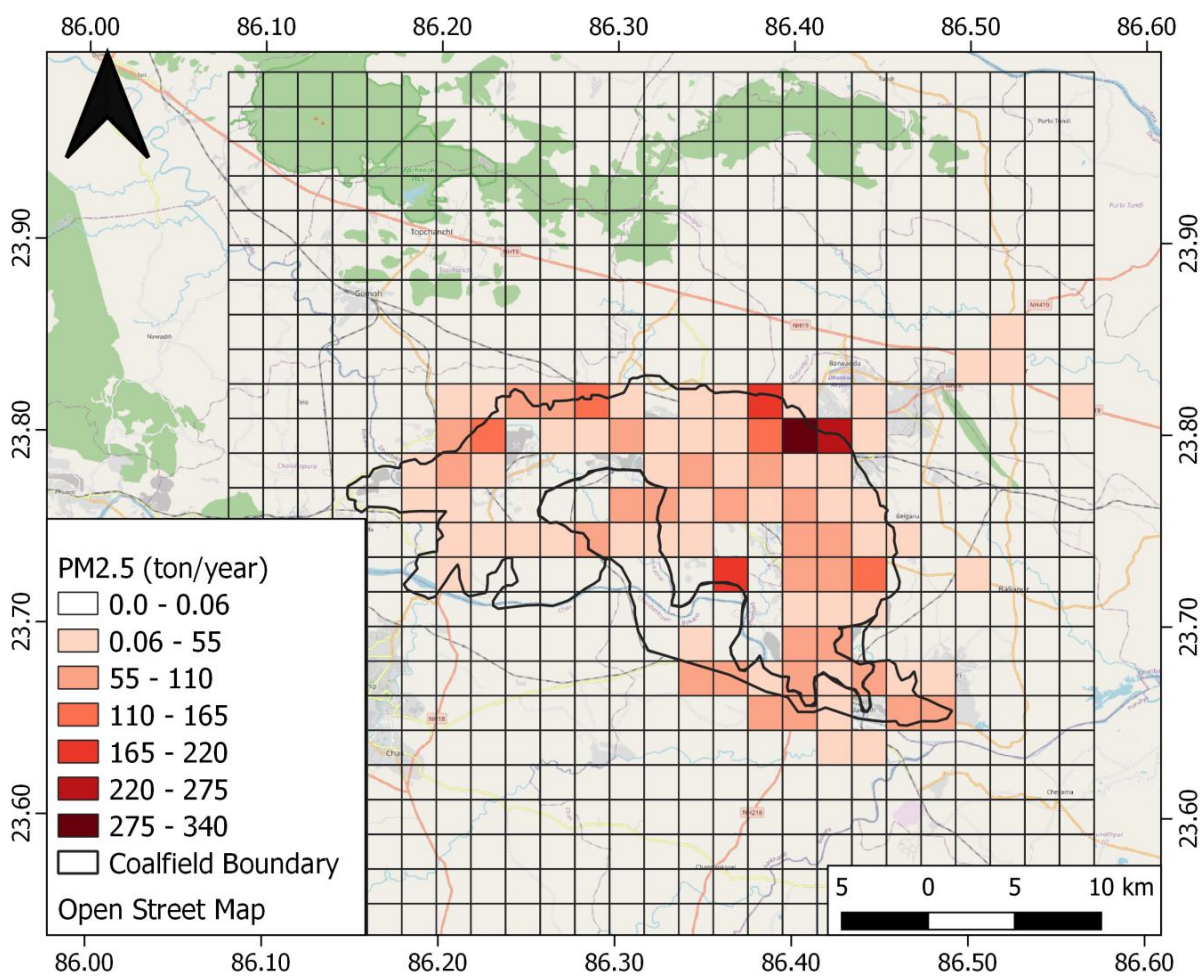
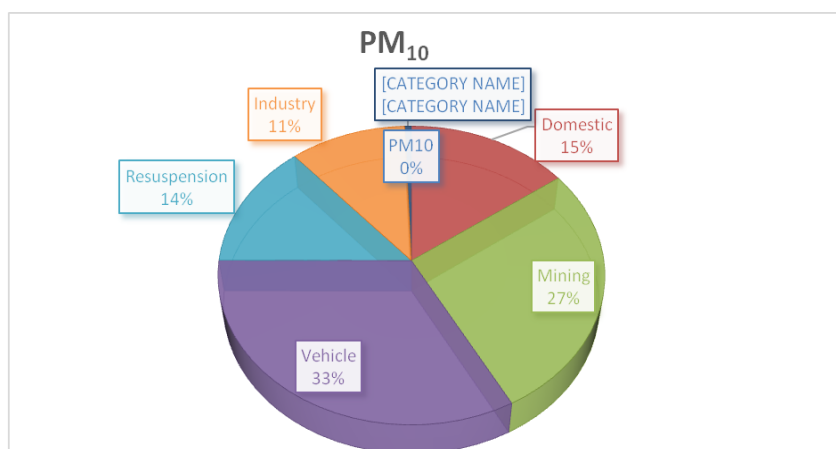


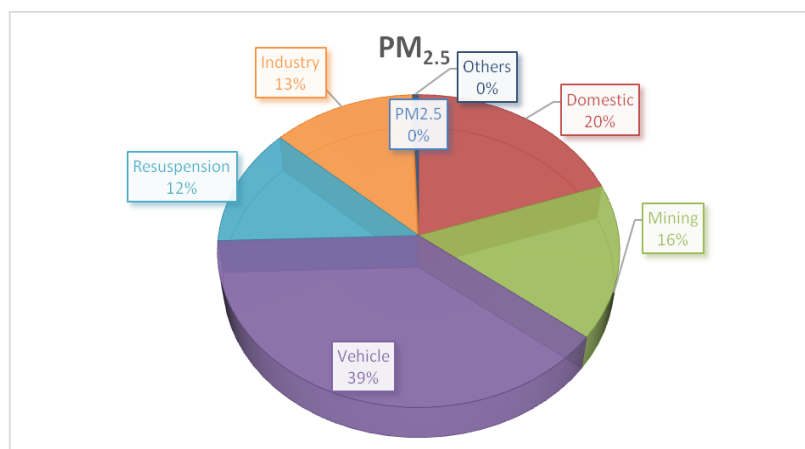
Figure 2.4 Grid-wise emission inventory of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in tons/year over the study area

The respective share of various emission sources is represented through pie diagrams shown in Figure 2.5. Data shows that PM<sub>10</sub> emissions are contributed mostly from vehicular emissions

followed by emissions from the mines whereas,  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions are contributed mostly from vehicular emissions, domestic burning and mine activities. The grid-wise emission inventory maps and the information on the pollution sources provide the basis for the policymakers to target the hotspots of pollution generation in order to take effective mitigation actions.



(a)



(b)

Figure 2.5 (a) and (b) represents emission load from various sectors over JCF region for  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  respectively

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Roy, D., Singh, G., Sinha, S., Park, J., & Seo, Y. C. (2021). Emission inventory of  $PM_{10}$  in Dhanbad/Jharia coalfield (JCF), India: an intricate coal mining sector. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 23(3), 3048-3061. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-020-00702-4>.



Based on preliminary field visit by NEERI Scientists along with BCCL staffs, the following locations (Figure 3.1) were selected for the establishment of Air Quality Monitoring Stations for source apportionment study;

- **Core Zone**

1. Cluster XIV Lohapatty– nearby sources: Chandrapura Thermal Power Plant
2. Cluster VII Mine rescue station- nearby sources: Coal Mine, Industry
3. Cluster V- Katras
4. Cluster IX Lodhna
5. Cluster XI Moonidih nearby sources: Coal Mine
6. Cluster X Patherdih: nearby sources: Coal Mine, Steel Industry
7. Cluster VIII Bastacola nearby sources: Coal Mine

- **Buffer Zone**

8. Bank More
9. Harina
10. Bhuli
11. Sindri
12. Parbatpur Electro steel/ Bhaga
13. Background

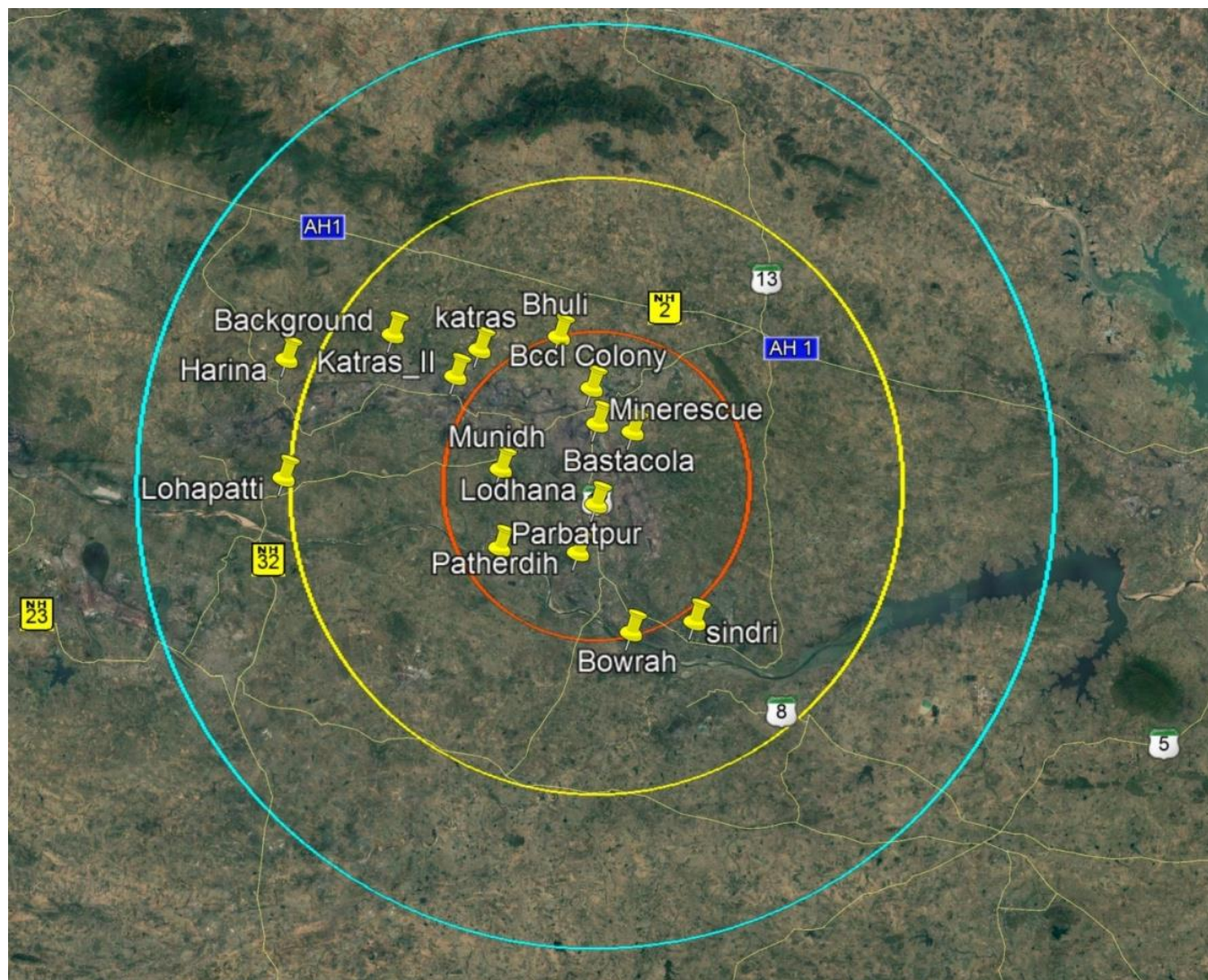


Figure 3.1: Air monitoring sites under 30 km buffer area

### 3.1. Sampling Method and Schedule

The PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> sampling for Jharia Coalfields was done at all the 13 sampling sites for the period of 24 h using low volume respirable suspended particulate matter samplers (Instrumax, ARA and Envirotech) on Quartz and polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) filter paper of 47 mm diameter. Samplers at a flow rate of 16.67 LPM were used. The filter papers were desiccated before and after sampling for 24h at a temperature of  $27 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$  and at a relative humidity (RH) of  $55 \pm 2\%$  to remove the moisture present in them. The PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> field samples were collected periodically throughout the sampling period. The sampling frequency and types of equipment used for monitoring are described in Table 3.3.2 and 3.3.3. The national Ambient quality and Standards for Coal Mines (Stipulated by Ministry of Environment and Forests are depicted in Table 3.3.4. and Table 3.3.5.

Table 3.3.2: Frequency of Air pollutants sampling in Jharia Coalfields

Parameter	Number of Days	Change of Filter/ absorbing media	Reporting
PM <sub>10</sub>	10	24 hourly, Teflon: 5 Days Quartz: 5 Days	24 hourly
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	10	24 hourly Teflon: 5 Days Quartz: 5 Days	24 hourly
NO <sub>2</sub>	10	8 hourly	8 hourly
SO <sub>2</sub>	10	8 hourly	8 hourly

Table 3.3.3: Ambient Air Quality Sampling/Analysis Methodology for Target Pollutants

Particulars	Parameters			
	PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>
Sampling Instrument	INSTUMEX and ARA-N-FRM Sampler	INSTUMEX and ARA-N-FRM Sampler	APM sampler	APM sampler
Sampling Principle	Cyclonic Flow Technique	Cyclonic Flow Technique	Chemical absorption in suitable media	Chemical absorption in suitable media
Flow rate	16.7 LPM	16.7 LPM	0.5 LPM	0.5 LPM
Sampling Period	24 hourly	24 hourly	8 hourly	8 hourly
Sampling Frequency	7 days continuous, Teflon and quartz on alternate days	7 days continuous, Teflon and quartz on alternate days	7 days continuous	7 days continuous
Analytical Instrument	Electronic Micro Balance	Electronic Micro Balance	Spectrophotometer	Spectrophotometer
Analytical Method	Gravimetric	Gravimetric	Modified Jacob and Hochheiser method	Colorimetric Improved West & Gaeke Method
Minimum reportable value	5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	9 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$



Table 3.3.4: National Ambient Air Quality Standards (2009)

Sr. No.	Pollutant	Time Weighted Average	Concentration in ambient Air (in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) Industrial, Residential Rural & Other Areas	Concentration in ambient Air (in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) Ecologically Sensitive Area	Concentration In ambient Air (in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) Methods of Measurement
1	Sulphur Dioxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ )	Annual*	50	20	Improved West & Geake, Ultraviolet fluorescence
		24Hours**	80	80	
2	Nitrogen Dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2$ )	Annual*	40	30	Modified Jacob & Hochheiser (Na-Arsenite) Chemiluminescence
		24Hours**	80	80	
3	Particulate matter (Size less than $10\mu\text{m}$ ) or $\text{PM}_{10}$	Annual*	60	60	Gravimetric, TOEM, Beta attenuation
		24Hours**	100	100	
4	Particulate matter (Size less than $2.5\mu\text{m}$ ) or $\text{PM}_{2.5}$	Annual*	40	40	Gravimetric, TOEM, Beta attenuation
		24Hours**	60	60	
5	Ozone ( $\text{O}_3$ )	8 Hours*	100	100	UV photometric, Chemiluminescence chemical method
		1 Hour	180	180	
6	Lead (Pb)	Annual*	0.5	0.5	ASS / ISP method after sampling on EPM 2000 or equivalent filter paper ED-XRF using Teflon filter
		24Hours**	1	1	
7	Carbon Monoxide ( $\text{CO}$ )	Annual*	0.2	0.2	Non-dispersive Infra-Red (NDIR) Spectroscopy
		24Hours**	0.4	0.4	
8	Ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ )	Annual*	100	100	Chemiluminescence, Indo-phenol's blue method
		24Hours**	400	400	
9	Benzene ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_6$ )	Annual*	0.5	0.5	Gas Chromatography based continuous analyzer. Adsorption and desorption followed by GC analysis
10	Benzo (a) Pyrene (BaP)- particulate phase only	Annual*	0.1	0.1	Solvent extraction followed by HPLC / GC analysis
11	Arsenic (As)	Annual*	0.6	0.6	AAS/ ICP method after sampling on EPM 2000 or equivalent filter paper
12	Nickel (Ni)	Annual*	20	20	

Table 3.3.5 Standards for Coal Mines (Stipulated by Ministry of Environment and Forests (MoEF), Vide Notification No. GSR 742(E), Dt: 25.09.2000)

Pollutant	Time weighted Average	Concentration in Ambient Air	
		New Coal Mines (commenced after 25.09.2000)	Existing Coal Mines (commenced prior to 25.09.2000)
Suspended Particulates Matter (SPM)	Annual Average	360µg/m <sup>3</sup>	430µg/m <sup>3</sup>
	24 hours	500µg/m <sup>3</sup>	600µg/m <sup>3</sup>
Respirable Particulate Matter (size less than 10 µm) (RPM)	Annual Average	180µg/m <sup>3</sup>	215µg/m <sup>3</sup>
	24 hours	250µg/m <sup>3</sup>	300µg/m <sup>3</sup>
Sulphur Dioxide (SO <sub>2</sub> )	Annual Average	80µg/m <sup>3</sup>	80µg/m <sup>3</sup>
	24 hours	120µg/m <sup>3</sup>	120µg/m <sup>3</sup>
Oxides of Nitrogen as NO <sub>2</sub>	Annual Average	80µg/m <sup>3</sup>	80µg/m <sup>3</sup>
	24 hours	120µg/m <sup>3</sup>	120µg/m <sup>3</sup>

### 3.2. Chemical Analysis

#### 3.2.1. Gravimetric analysis

The exposed filters were analysed by gravimetric technique using a weighing balance for PM<sub>10</sub> particles and using a microbalance for PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles with a precision of 5µg with automatic (internal) calibration.

#### 3.2.2. Elemental analysis

PM<sub>10</sub> samples collected on glass fibre filters were digested in a microwave digester. The samples were made up to 50ml using deionized distilled water. Similarly, the exposed filters containing PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles were cut equally into 2 halves. A part of the exposed filter was used for ions analysis. Whereas, the other half was cut into tiny fragments and digested and made up to 15mL using distilled deionized water. The obtained samples (both PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>) after digestion were stored in vials and refrigerated at 4°C until further analysis. These samples were later subjected to estimate the elemental composition using ICP-OES (Thermo Scientific, USA).

#### 3.2.3. Analysis of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>

SO<sub>2</sub> analysis: Modified West and Gaeke method was followed for sampling and analysis of Sulfur dioxide in ambient air. SO<sub>2</sub> from the air is absorbed in a solution of potassium tetracholo-mercute (TCM). A dichlorosulphitomercurate complex, which resists oxidation by the oxygen in the air was formed. Once formed, that complex was stable to strong oxidants such as ozone and oxides of nitrogen and therefore, the absorber solution may be stored for some time prior to analysis. The complex was made to react with pararosaniline and formaldehyde to form the intensely colored pararosaniline methylsulphonic acid. The absorbance of the solution was measured by means of a suitable spectrophotometer.

NO<sub>2</sub> analysis: Modified Jacobs and Hochheiser method was followed for sampling and analysis of NO<sub>2</sub> in ambient air. Ambient NO<sub>2</sub> was collected by bubbling air through a solution of sodium hydroxide and sodium arsenite. The concentration of nitrite ion produced during sampling was determined calorimetrically by the nitrite ion reaction with phosphoric acid, sulphanilamide, and N-(1-naphthyl)-ethylenediamine di-hydrochloride (NEDA) and the absorbance of the highly colored azo dye was measured at 540nm.

#### **3.2.4. Ion analysis**

The filter papers containing both PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples were extracted and subjected to ion analysis as per standards. The filter papers were divided into tiny fragments and moistened with isopropanol slightly before extraction since the filters are hydrophobic. Further 25 mL of deionized distilled water was added and sonicated using an ultrasonic bath for 60 min at 60°C. The samples were then kept overnight after sonication. Furthermore, the samples were then filtered using nylon filter discs (25mm, 0.45mm) and were refrigerated at 4°C until further analysis. The extracted samples were subjected to IC to analyse the ions (anions and cations) present in them.

#### **3.2.5. Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH) analysis**

Filter papers were cut into pieces using scissors and transferred to a 100 ml beaker and 50 ml of Dichloromethane (DCM) (GC/HPLC grade) was added. The samples were extracted with DCM using an ultrasonic bath for about 30 minutes. The extracted samples were filtered with Whatman filter paper containing 2gm Anhydrous Sodium Sulphate. After filtration, the filtrate is concentrated using a rotary vacuum evaporator to 2ml final volume. Solid-phase extraction may be used to clean up the impurities of the sample and re-concentrated in a rotary evaporator. The samples were analyzed through GC with conditions as injector 300°C and FID temperature 320°C.

#### **3.2.6. EC & OC analysis**

This is a thermal/optical-transmittance (TOT) method that speciates carbon in particulate matter collected on a quartz-fiber filter into OC, EC, and CC. In the first (or non-oxidizing) heating stage, organic and carbonate carbon is thermally desorbed from the filter under a flow of helium with controlled temperature ramps. The oven is then partially cooled, and the original flow of helium is switched to an oxidizing carrier gas (He/O<sub>2</sub>). In the second (or oxidizing) heating stage, the original elemental carbon component plus pyrolyzed organic carbon formed during the first heating stage are oxidized/desorbed from the filter with another series of controlled temperature ramps. All carbon evolved from the sample is converted to CO<sub>2</sub> in an oxidizing oven immediately downstream from the desorption oven, and the CO<sub>2</sub> is converted to methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) by a methanator oven before being measured with a flame ionization detector (FID). (<https://www3.epa.gov/ttnamti1/files/ambient/pm25/spec/RTIOCECSOP.pdf>)

### 3.3. Results

#### 3.3.1. Mass concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>

In summer monitoring, the mean mass concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> particles in all 13 sampling sites were found to be in the range of 74-184 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  with the highest concentration of 184 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  at mine rescue site and lowest concentration of 74 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  at Bastacola site. Also, the mean mass concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles was found in the range of 49-117 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  with the highest concentration of 117 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and the lowest concentration of 49 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  recorded at Harina and Lohapatti site respectively.

The average concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in two seasons are described in Table 3.6 and 3.7. Results revealed that the average concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> are within the prescribed limits of MoEF notification guidelines for coal mine areas. In the case of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, there is no Govt. notified standard for mining areas but in the case of buffer zones, National Ambient Air Quality Standard, NAAQS, 2009 may be applicable. The highest PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations were found in Mine rescue and Harina (Figure 3.2 and 3.3).

Table 3.6: Average concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Summer of Jharia Coalfield

Monitoring Sites	Site Description	Average Concentration ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )-Summer	
		PM <sub>10</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )	PM <sub>2.5</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ )
Lohapatti	Core Zone	133.7	49.42
		(83-203)	(44-83)
Mines Rescue	Core Zone	184.8	83.43
		(124-255)	(55-205)
Katras	Core Zone	141.4	80.01
		(100-216)	(42-150)
Lodhna	Core Zone	156.8	63.98
		(100-303)	(32-99)
Moonidih	Core Zone	118.4	62.84
		(80-153)	(34-94)
Patherdih	Core Zone	94.7	67.22
		(50-119)	(37-91)
Bastacola	Core Zone	74.21	62.85
		(52 -209)	(36-96)
BCCL colony	Buffer Zone	157.35	74.37
		(113-222)	(47-103)
Harina	Buffer Zone	177.7	117.3
		(73-265)	(42-175)
Bhuli	Buffer Zone	141.7	105.89
		(85-243)	(44-161)
Sindri	Buffer Zone	122.2	76.05
		(82-139)	(18-127)
Parabatpur	Buffer Zone	122.4	110.98
		(86-171)	(70-150)
Background	Buffer Zone	144.4	57.13
		(24-255)	(23-97)

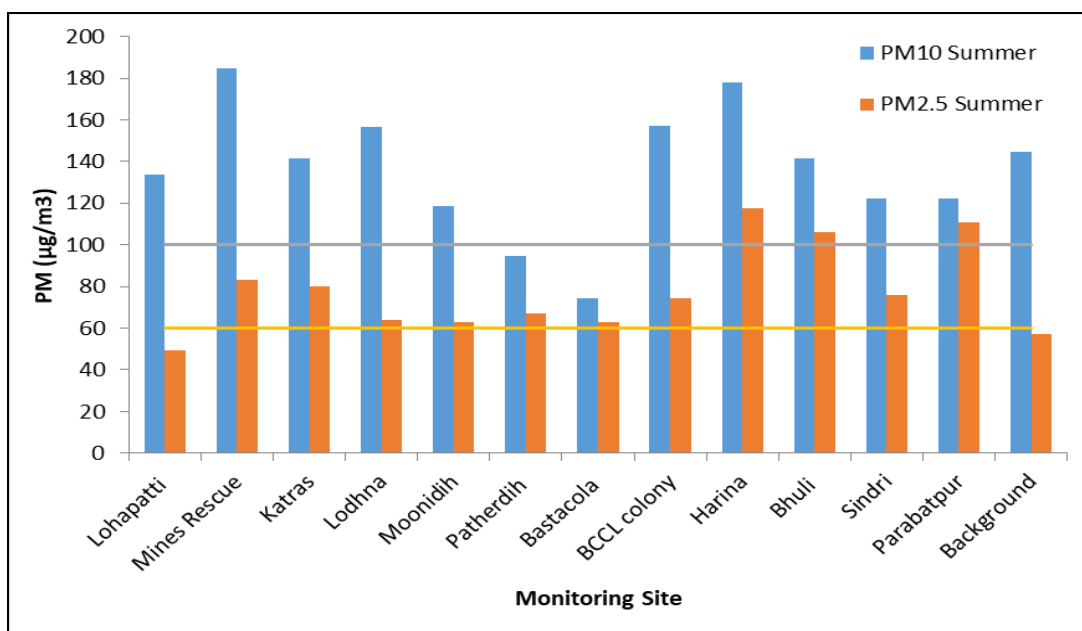


Figure 3.2: Average concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in JCF region in summer compared to NAAQS (2009)

Table 3.7: Average concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in winter of Jharia Coalfield.

Monitoring Sites	Site Description	Average Concentration (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )-Winter	
		PM <sub>10</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	PM <sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )
Lohapatti	Core Zone	174.28	139.59
		(122-241)	(114-236)
Mines Rescue	Core Zone	303.49	176.97
		(175-350)	(114-233)
Katras	Core Zone	230.06	50.87
		(134-332)	(24-78)
Lodhna	Core Zone	322.8	112.17
		(243-412)	(98-209)
Moonidih	Core Zone	300.16	188.27
		(128-728)	(64-600)
Patherdih	Core Zone	222.71	113.23
		(182-246)	(111-167)
Bastacola	Core Zone	332.05	176.48
		(251-663)	(54-425)
BCCL colony	Buffer Zone	219.98	128.79
		(155-300)	(94-175)
Harina	Buffer Zone	130.73	42.93
		(65-215)	(44-98)
Bhuli	Buffer Zone	174.75	151.66
		(150-200)	(89-180)
Sindri	Buffer Zone	171.82	167.07
		(81-210)	(142-184)
Parabatpur	Buffer Zone	228.76	148.16
		(75-660)	(101-192)
Background	Buffer Zone	233	121.18
		(195-254)	(63-170)
Katras II	Core Zone	107.13	98.42
		(128-181)	(94-104)

Whereas in winter monitoring, the highest PM<sub>10</sub> mass concentration was found to be 332µg/m<sup>3</sup> at Bastacola site (exceeding the prescribed limit of **GSR 742(E)**) along with other core mining zones like Mines Rescue, Moonidih. The lowest average concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> was found in Katras II (Table 3.7).

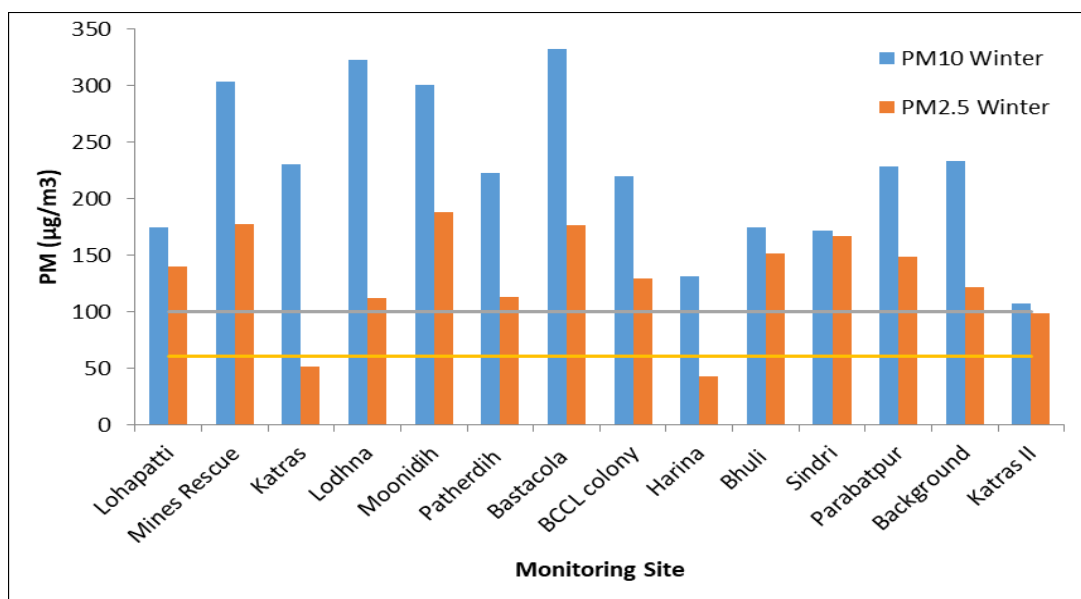
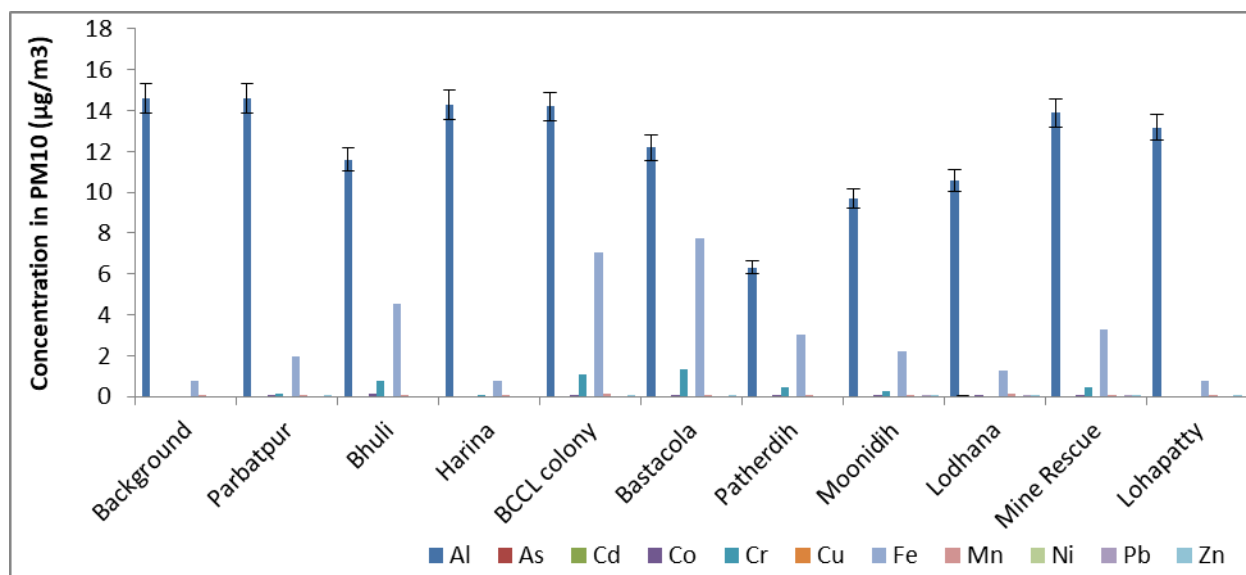
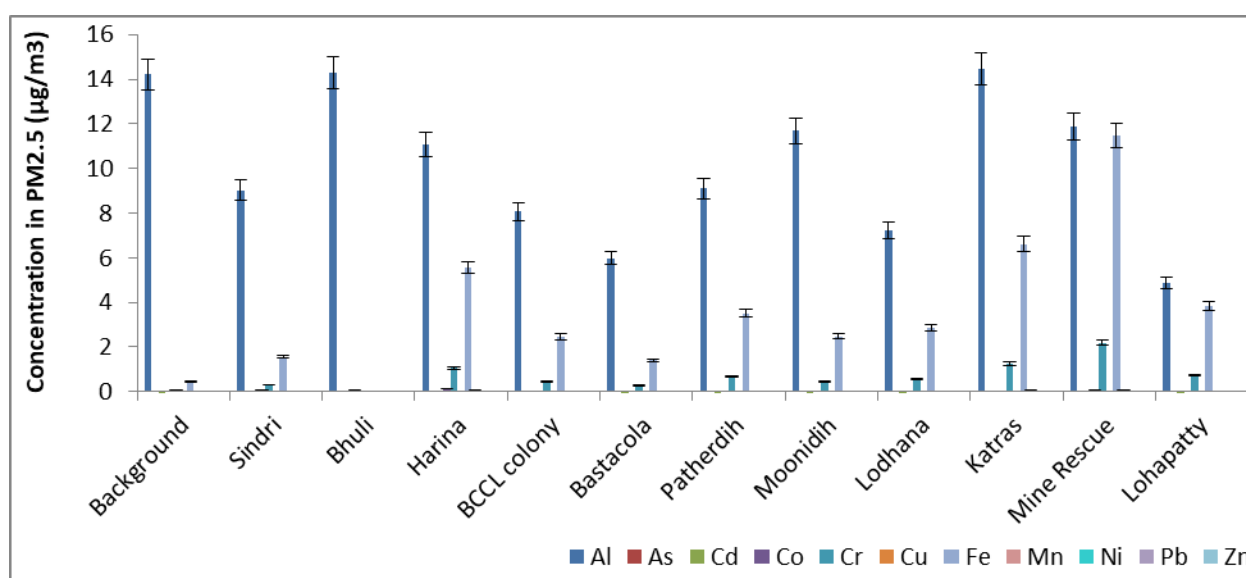


Figure 3.3: Average concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in JCF region during Winter compared to NAAQS (2009)

### 3.3.2. Elemental concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in summer

The digested samples of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles from all the 13 sampling sites were subjected to estimate the elemental composition using ICP-OES. The analysis of PM<sub>10</sub> particles yields 11 different elements such as Al, As, Cd, Co, Cu, M, Ni, Pb, Zn, Fe and Cr. Similarly, the samples containing PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles revealed the same elements as PM<sub>10</sub>. It was observed that Al and Fe were found to be higher for both PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles. Al is the most abundant element. The concentration of Al was detected in the range of 6.32-14.62µg/m<sup>3</sup>. Maximum Al concentrations were found at BCCL colony, Parbatpur, Harina and Background. The concentrations of Fe and Cr were estimated as 0.78-7.74µg/m<sup>3</sup> and 0.075-1.32µg/m<sup>3</sup> respectively. The highest concentrations of both Fe (7.74µg/m<sup>3</sup>) & Cr (1.32µg/m<sup>3</sup>) were found at the Bastacola site Figure 3.4. Similarly, in the case of PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles the concentrations of Al (4.87-14.47µg/m<sup>3</sup>), Fe (0.44-11.77µg/m<sup>3</sup>) and Cr (0.066-2.17µg/m<sup>3</sup>) were found higher than other elements. For PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles, maximum concentrations of Fe (11.77µg/m<sup>3</sup>) and Cr (2.17µg/m<sup>3</sup>) were obtained at the Mine Rescue site and Al (14.47µg/m<sup>3</sup>) at Katras. Since, the elements such as Al, Fe and Cr possess higher concentrations in the PM<sub>10</sub> elemental composition, Al would have been emitted from road dust, whereas Fe would have been emitted from the re-suspension of dust containing deposits from the emissions of vehicular and other anthropogenic activities Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.4: Metal concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> in the summer seasonFigure 3.5: Metal concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the summer season

### 3.3.3. Elemental Concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Winter

The elemental analysis was performed using inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES). For the air quality assessment, the concentrations of 11 elements i.e. Al, As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, K, Mn, Ni, Pb, and Zn in PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples, were measured. Among all the elements, Al, Fe, and K concentrations were found considerably higher for PM<sub>10</sub> samples in the winter season. Al was observed in the range of 2.02-10.77µg/m<sup>3</sup> followed by Fe (0.79-9.26µg/m<sup>3</sup>) and K (0.90-4.19µg/m<sup>3</sup>). Maximum Al concentration (10.77µg/m<sup>3</sup>) was observed at the BCCL colony, followed by Lodhna (10.29µg/m<sup>3</sup>). The Highest Fe concentration (9.26µg/m<sup>3</sup>) was observed at Bastacola while K (4.19µg/m<sup>3</sup>) at the Lodhna site. This may be due to vehicular emissions, paved roads, construction dust, coal combustion, soil dust, etc. The concentration of As, Ni, Pb was found within the limits of CPCB standards. The remaining elements i.e. Cd, Cr, Cu, Mn, and Zn were found very low (Figure 3.6).

Similarly, in the case of PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples concentrations of Al, Fe and K were detected higher than other elements. The concentration of Al, Fe, and K was obtained as 0.11-2.91µg/m<sup>3</sup>, 0.05-1.93µg/m<sup>3</sup> and 0.08-2.12µg/m<sup>3</sup>. For PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles, maximum Al and K were found at the Moonidih site, which were 2.91µg/m<sup>3</sup> and 2.12µg/m<sup>3</sup> respectively. The highest concentration of

Fe i.e.  $1.93\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  was detected at Lodhna site. The concentrations of all other analysed elements were low (Figure 3.7).

From the elemental analysis of the summer and winter seasons, it was observed that the average Al concentration obtained was more in the summer season than in the winter season. In contrast, the average concentration of Cr was more in the winter season.

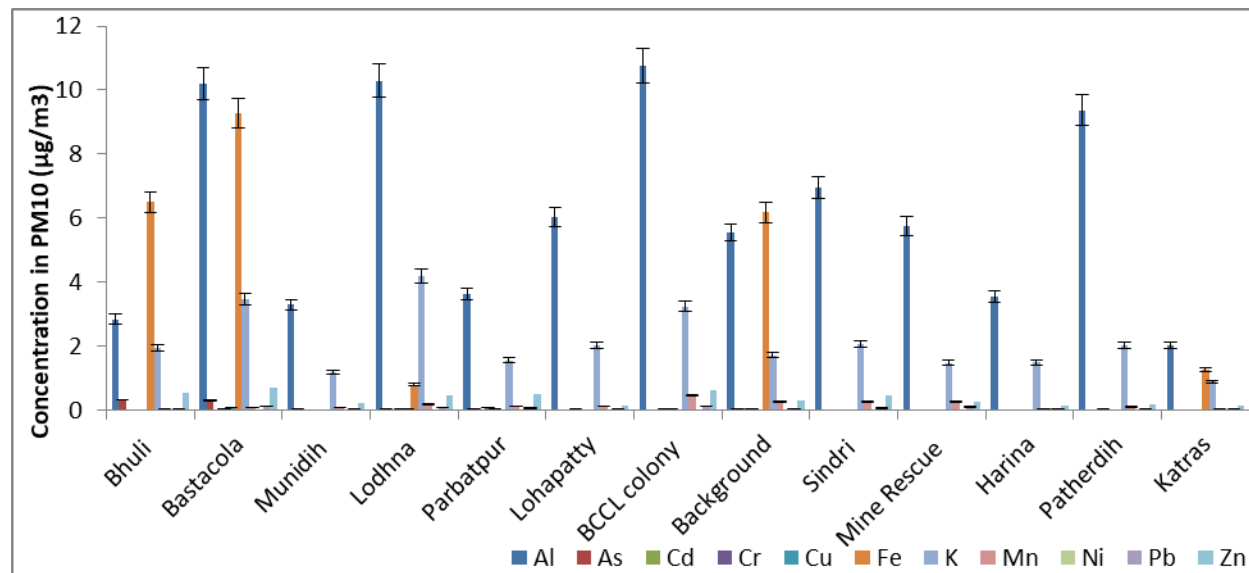


Figure 3.6: Metal concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> in winter season

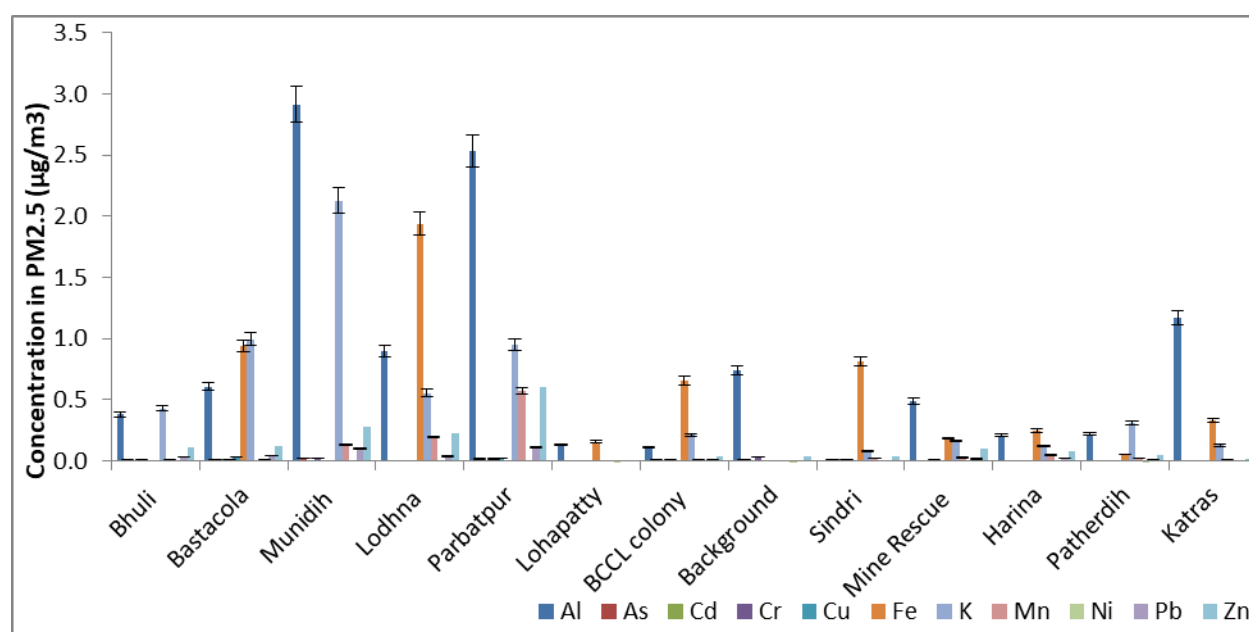


Figure 3.7: Metal concentration of PM 2.5 in winter season



### 3.3.4. SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in ambient air in the Summer season

The mean average SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the summer season among all the monitoring stations ranged between 11µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Harina & Bastacola) and 24.5µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Moonidih), being well below the threshold limits of 80µg/m<sup>3</sup> (residential or industrial). The 8-hour average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were between 10.3µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Background) and 40.9µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Lodhana), well within the standard limits of 80µg/m<sup>3</sup> (residential or industrial) Figure 3.8. The SO<sub>2</sub> in the residential areas may be received from the open burning of raw coal and other domestic and commercial activities.

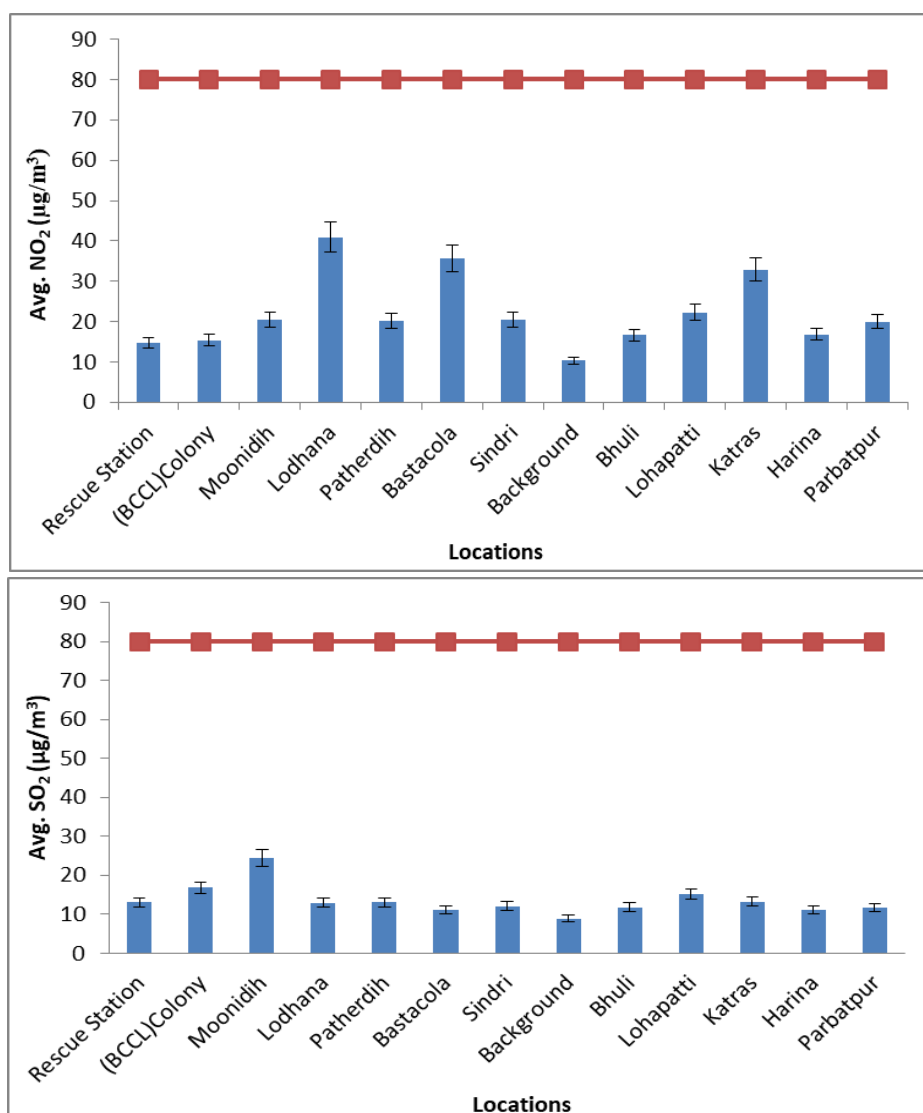


Figure 3.8: NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> Concentration of all monitoring sites in summer season

### 3.3.5. SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in ambient air in Winter season

The mean concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in the winter season was found below the threshold limit i.e. 80µg/m<sup>3</sup>. The concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> was below 10µg/m<sup>3</sup> in Katra, BCCL colony, Mine Rescue, Bastacola, Lodhana and Munidih. Bastacola and Bhuli site has a NO<sub>2</sub> concentration above 10µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Figure 3.9). It has been observed that the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in the winter and summer seasons were below the standard limit. But the average concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in the summer season was higher than in the winter season.

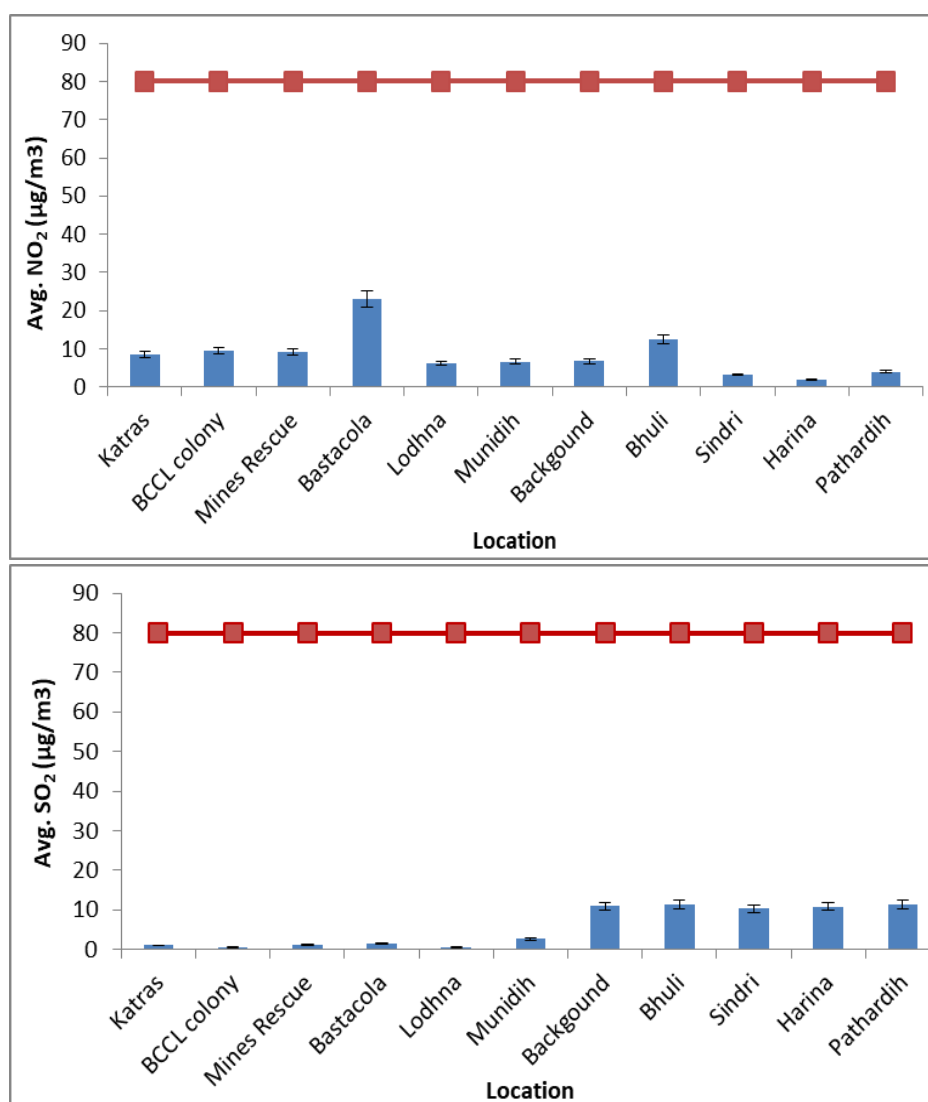


Figure 3.9: NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> Concentration of all monitoring sites in Winter season

### 3.3.6. Carbonaceous Aerosol/EC & OC in Summer

Data were obtained for four OC fractions (OC1, OC2, OC3 and OC4 in He atmosphere at 140, 280, 480 and 580°C, respectively) and three EC fractions (EC1, EC2, and EC3 in a 2% O<sub>2</sub>/98% He atmosphere at 580, 740 and 840°C, respectively). The IMPROV protocol defines OC as OC1 + OC2 + OC3 + OC4 and EC as EC1 + EC2 + EC3. The mass concentration of organic matter (OM) in the atmosphere was estimated by multiplying OC by 1.6 (conversion factor for urban aerosol). The total carbonaceous aerosol (TCA) was calculated as the sum of OM and EC. The highest concentration of OC and EC in PM<sub>2.5</sub> was found in the BCCL colony site i.e. 37.85 and 42.33 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively, and the lowest OC concentration was 15.36 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and EC was 13.08 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in Sindri site. In comparison, the concentration of OC (67.35 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) and EC (81.67 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) in PM<sub>10</sub> were higher in the BCCL colony among all the sites. The lowest OC concentration as 17.95 µg/m<sup>3</sup> was in Bastacola and EC in Parbatpur i.e. 15.44 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Figure 3.10).

### 3.3.7. Carbonaceous Aerosol/EC & OC in winter

The mass concentration of EC and OC in PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> are more significant than 100 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and 70 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively in Bastacola, Katras, Mine Rescue, Background, and Sindri. The highest concentration of EC in PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> was observed in the Sindri site, whereas OC was found higher in Sindri and Bastacola. OC contributing to PM<sub>10</sub> mass concentration was lowest in

Harina followed by Lohapatti and Patherdih. In the case of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, Parbatpur was found to have the lowest concentration among other sites.

The higher mean concentration of EC and OC in winter were likely related to the influence of emissions from residential heating (in addition to traffic source) and, on the other hand, to the unfavourable meteorological conditions leading to more excellent dispersion of pollutants in the atmosphere during this season. Elemental carbon is emitted directly into the atmosphere during incomplete combustion emissions, such as motor vehicle exhaust, fuel burning, and biomass burning (Figure 3.11).

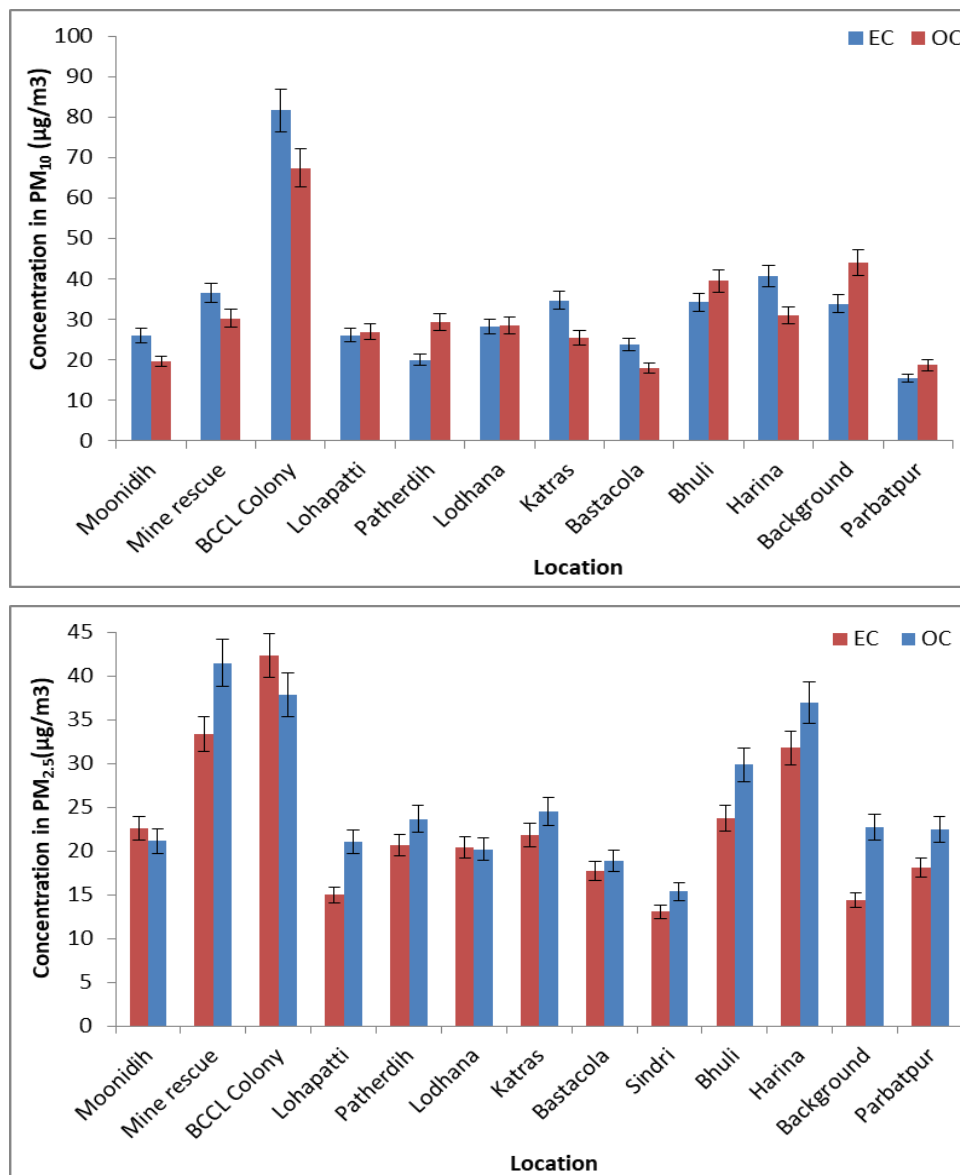


Figure 3.10: EC & OC concentration in PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Summer season

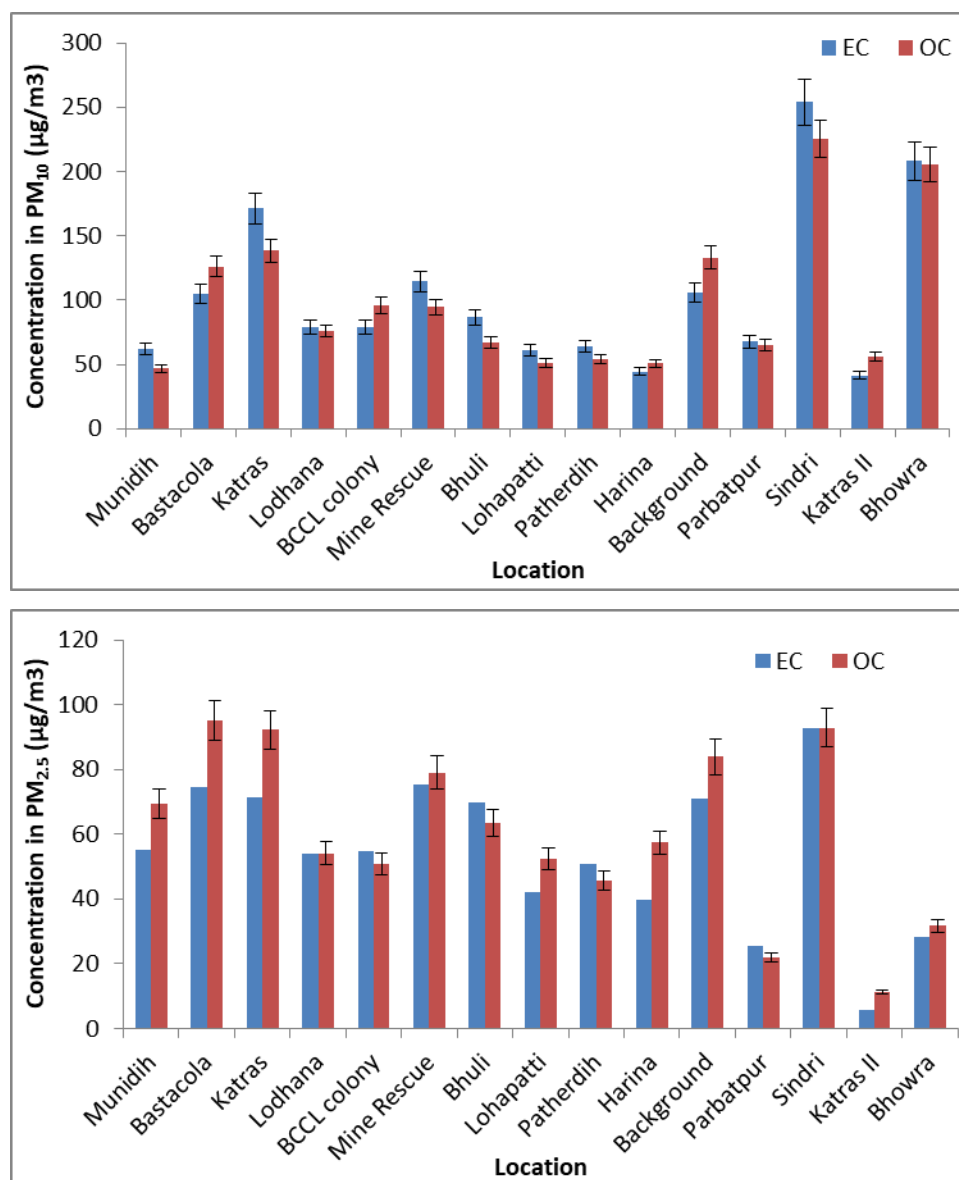


Figure 3.11: EC & OC concentration in PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Winter Season

### 3.3.8. Ionic composition of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Summer season

The anions ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$ ) and cations ( $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ) are the water-soluble inorganic ions found in abundance. In summer, the mass concentration of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in PM<sub>10</sub> was in the range of 1.06-20.17  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  where a higher concentration was observed in Harina, BCCL colony, and Lodhana sites. Likewise,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  was in the range of 0.32-19.2  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  with the highest in the Harina site.  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  concentration was highest in Harina and  $< 2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  in other locations.  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was in the range of 0.75-16.24  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , Harina with the highest concentration, and Bastacola with the lowest concentration.  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration (0.18-8.6  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) was highest in Harina followed by BCCL colony and less than  $2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  in remaining sites.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration (1.5-11.77  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) was highest in Lohapatti and BCCL colony while lowest in Katras.  $\text{K}^+$  ion was also observed in the Harina site with a concentration of 5.85  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (Figure 3.12).

The mass concentration of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in PM<sub>2.5</sub> was highest in Patherdih with a concentration of 15.13  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and lowest in Bhuli. In Bastacola site, the concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (2.85  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $\text{Cl}^-$  (2.04  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $\text{K}^+$  (1.84  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) were the highest among the other sites.  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (6.17  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  (0.57  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) concentration was highest in Lohapatti site (Figure 3.13).

### 3.3.9. Ionic composition of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Winter season

PM<sub>10</sub> ions concentration in Bastacola and Background were highest among all the monitoring

sites which followed the increasing order of  $\text{Na}^+ < \text{Mg}^{2+} < \text{F}^- < \text{K}^+ < \text{Ca}^{2+} < \text{Cl}^- < \text{NH}_4^+ < \text{SO}_4^{2-} < \text{NO}_3^-$ . It has been observed that  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ions were present in abundant in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass concentration, and concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in these sites contributes majorly to  $\text{PM}_{10}$ . Ions concentration in Katras, Lohapatti, and Bhuli sites were observed having lower ionic concentration Figure 3.14.

The ionic composition of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  comprises mainly of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{K}^+$  ions. Locations such as Bastacola and Parbatpur have higher concentration of ions compared to remaining sites in following order:  $\text{Mg}^{2+} < \text{Na}^+ < \text{Ca}^{2+} < \text{K}^+ < \text{Cl}^- < \text{NH}_4^+ < \text{SO}_4^{2-} < \text{NO}_3^-$ . The same trend has been observed i.e.  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ions contribute mainly in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass concentration. The average concentration of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in winter was higher than in summer.

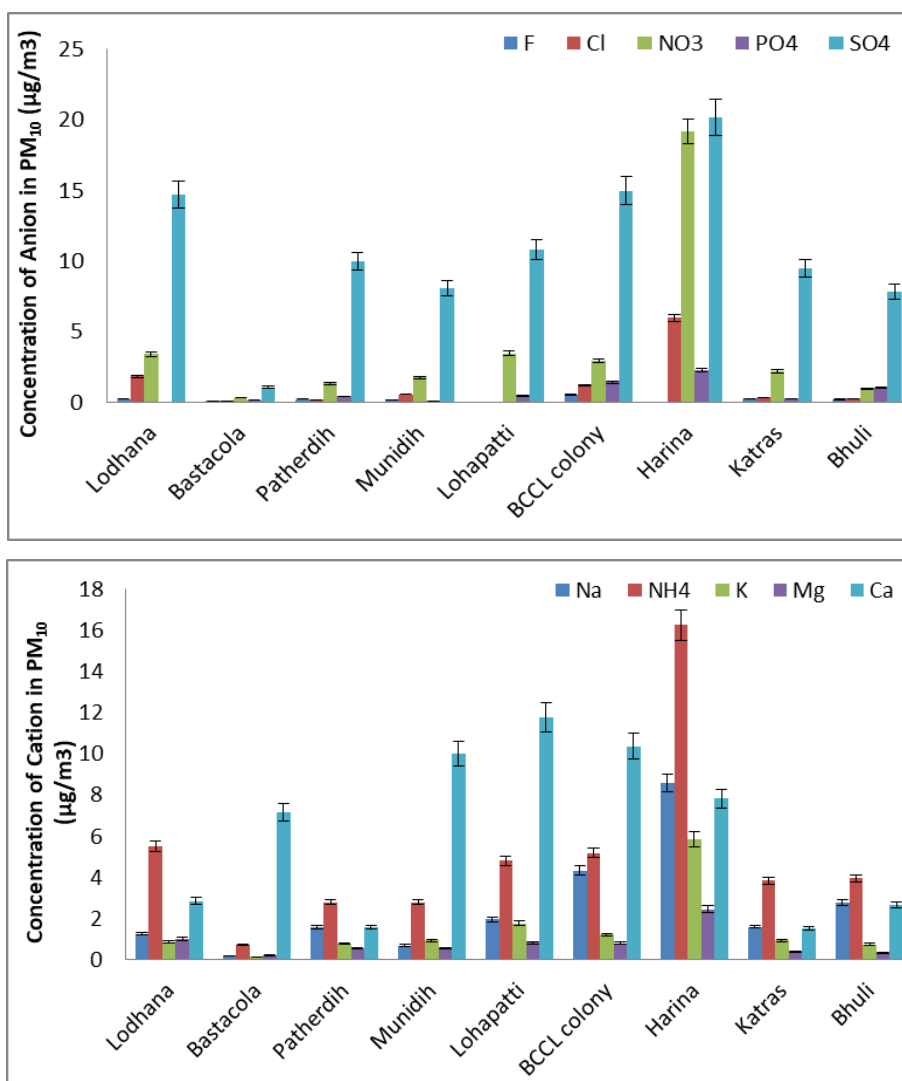


Figure 3.12: Anion and Cation concentration in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  in summer

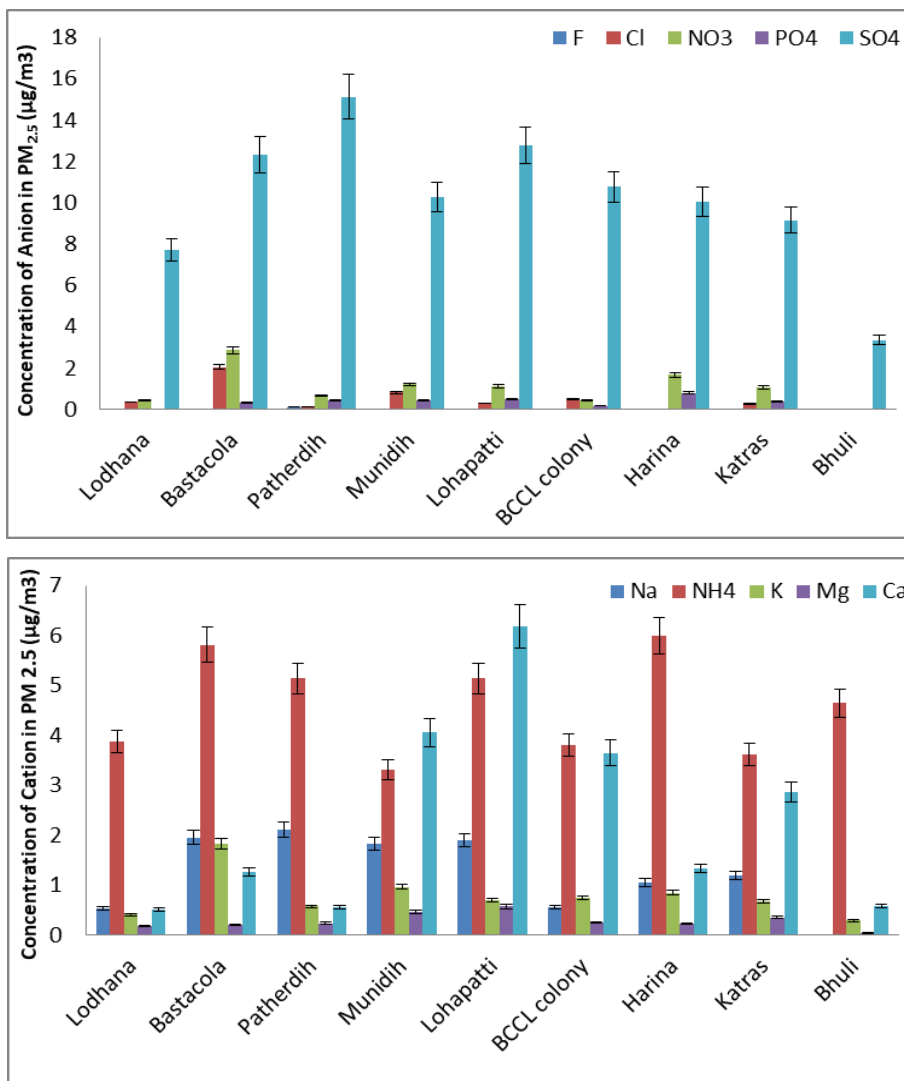


Figure 3.13: Anion and Cation concentration in PM<sub>2.5</sub> in summer

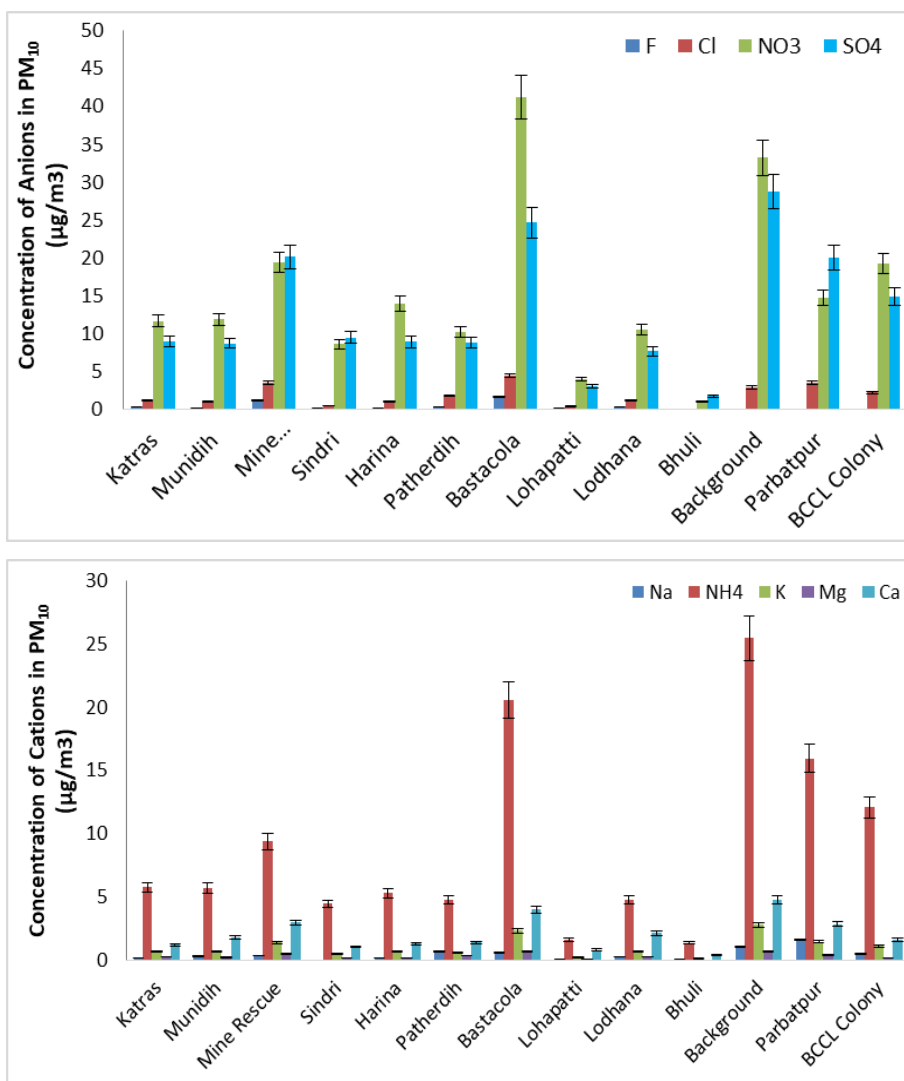


Figure 3.14: Anion and Cation concentration in PM<sub>10</sub> in winter

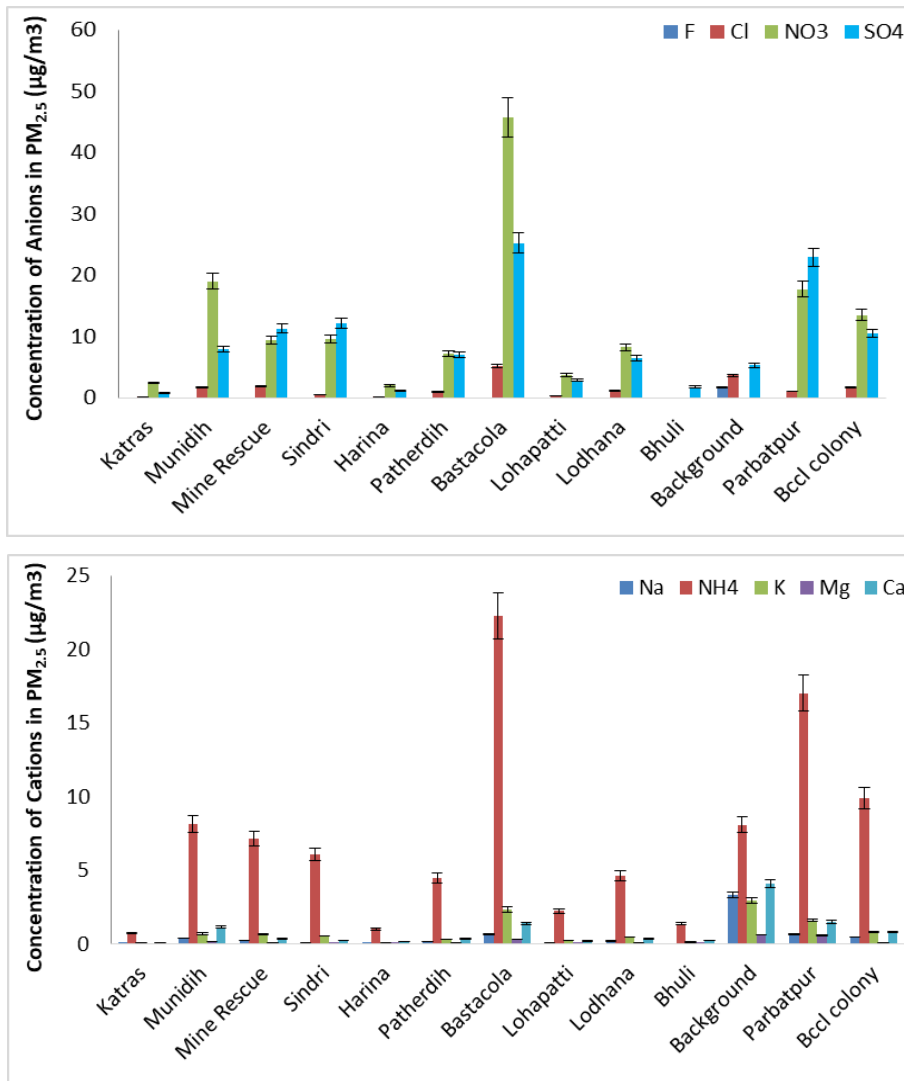


Figure 3.15: Anion and Cation concentration in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in winter

## Chapter 4 Receptor modelling

### 4.1. Source Apportionment

The source apportionment study was carried out to identify the potential sources contributing to the particulate matter of aerodynamic size less than 10  $\mu\text{m}$  in the Jharia coalfield (JCF) using a receptor modelling approach. In receptor modelling, the particulate matter ( $\text{PM}_{10}$ ) characterization in terms of metal, ions, elementary and organic carbon profiles is statistically matched with that of various source profiles in the study area. For the source apportionment study of JCF, the area is divided into various zones (buffer, core and background zone). And the ambient  $\text{PM}_{10}$  characterization obtained from the multiple monitoring locations in the study area is conflated and compared with source profiles viz. industrial (mining and non-mining) and allied industrial activities, transportation, local vehicular movement and domestic fuel (coal wood burning, etc.). The chemical mass balance (CMB) model EPA-CMB v8.2 is one of the several receptor models and is most trusted for coarse and fine particulate matter source apportionment. The CMB model estimates source contributions by determining the best linear combination of emission source profiles and the chemical composition of ambient particulate, aerosol, and volatile organic compound samples. The study is studying the apportionment of particulate matter is considered owing to the nature of high particulate matter pollution in the study area. The source apportionment study is useful for devising an effective action plan for abatement of emission load in the region; thereby the region's overall air quality can be improved.

Jharia is one of the eight blocks in Dhanbad and is the main source of metallurgical coal in India, and is termed as the powerhouse of the country owing to its best quality coking coal, which is required by the steel and other industries in India. Dhanbad lies between 23°37'3" N and 24°4' N latitude and between 86°6'30" E and 86°50' E longitude with an average elevation of 222 m. Its geographical length, extending from North to South, is 43 miles and width 47 miles, stretching across East to West. It shares its boundaries with West-Bengal in the Eastern and Southern parts, Dumka and Giridih in the North, Bokaro in the west. It is the administrative headquarter of the district and Dhanbad Municipal Corporation (DMC).

The air quality status is determined by dividing the study area into background, core, and buffer zones. Thirteen sites were selected to represent various regions, including two references or background sites. The sampling locations are shown in Figure 3.1.

#### 4.1.1. Chemical Mass Balance (CMB)

A mass balance equation can be written to account for all the chemical species in the samples as contributions from independent sources:

$$C_i = \sum_j m_j X_{ij} a_{ij} \quad 4.1$$

$C_i$  is the concentration of species  $i$  measured at a receptor site (derived from the chemical analysis),  $X_{ij}$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  elemental concentration measured in the  $j^{\text{th}}$  sample, and  $m_j$  is the airborne mass concentration of material from the  $j^{\text{th}}$  source contributing to the  $j^{\text{th}}$  sample. The term  $a_{ij}$  is



included as an adjustment for any gain or loss of species  $i$  between the source and receptor. The term is assumed to be unity for most of the chemical species.

The CMB 8.2 software (USEPA 1997) is used in this study. It is windows-based software that requires input data on ambient (at receptor locations) and source profiles of PM characterization. The model runs multiple iterations to provide optimum goodness of fit among the sources and receptors and verifies the model with various checks viz. Chi-square statistic, t-tests, mass percentage, and correlation coefficient. The following assumptions should be understood before proceeding with the CMB analysis.

The CMB model assumptions are:

- The concentration of emissions sources is constant throughout ambient and source sampling;
- Chemical species do not react with each other (i.e., they add linearly);
- All sources with potential for contributing to the receptor have been identified and have had their emissions characterized;
- The number of sources or source categories is less than or equal to the number of species;
- The source profiles are linearly independent of each other; and
- Measurement uncertainties are random, uncorrelated, and normally distributed.

The following steps are followed for running the CMB model:

- Identification of the contributing emission source types based on primary survey and emission inventory data collected around the monitoring sites.
- The selection of chemical species to be included in the CMB modelling calculation is based on the Central pollution control board (CPCB) guidelines.
- The source profiles with the fraction of each chemical species and uncertainty are withdrawn from the SPECIATE 5.1 database. SPECIATE 5.1 is US-EPA's repository of organic gas and particulate matter (PM) speciation profile of air pollution sources.
- Estimate ambient concentration (ambient data) is based on chemical analysis of the PM samples collected at the respective site during monitoring. The uncertainty of the chemical species is mainly based on the instrument uncertainty.
- The CMB 8.2 model run provides the solution of the chemical mass balance equation.

For source apportionment of  $PM_{10}$ , CMB 8.2 software (USEPA 1997) provides many goodness's of fit tests to verify the accuracy of the model. The normal checks, as specified in the manual by USEPA (1997) to accept the model are; t-statistics i.e., source contribution divided by the error of source contribution should be greater than 2,  $\chi^2$  (chi-square) is the weighted sum of squares of the differences between calculated and measured fitting species concentrations divided by the effective variance and the degrees of freedom, it should be less than 4. The weighting is inversely proportional to the squares of the precision in the source profiles and ambient data for each species. Ideally,  $\chi^2$  would be zero, there would be no difference between calculated and measured species concentrations. The  $\chi^2$  less than one indicate a very good fit for the data. Values greater than 4 indicate that one or more of the fitting species concentrations are

not well-explained by the source contribution estimates (SCE). The source contribution estimate approximates the total mass concentration which is a convenient check on the %mass explained value. When the SCE is less than its standard error, the source contribution is undetectable. Two or three times the standard error may be taken as the upper limit of the SCE in this case. Assuming that the errors are normally distributed, there is about a 66% probability that the true source contribution is within one standard error and about a 95% probability that the true concentration is within two standard errors of the SCE.

$R^2$  is determined by the linear regression of the measured versus model-calculated values for the fitting species.  $R^2$  ranges from 0 to 1. The closer the value is to 1.0, the better the SCEs explain the measured concentrations. When  $R^2$  is less than 0.8, the SCEs does not explain the observations very well with the given source profiles. The percentage mass explained should be between 80% and 120%, the ratio of the computed and the measured concentration of each element (C/M ratio) should be close to 1 and R/U ratio, i.e., the ratio of residuals to uncertainty should be less than 2. As the model requires the source contribution estimates and receptor concentrations in ambient air, the significant sources in the area need to be identified first. The investigation of sources of  $PM_{10}$  to be accounted for in the CMB model is carried out using emission inventory studies.

#### **4.1.2. Source profiling**

The Chemical profile needs to be developed for the air-polluting source as input to the receptor-oriented source apportionment models like CMB8.2 (chemical mass balance). The U.S Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) SPECIATE database and several studies carried out in other parts of the world provide an extensive collection of source profiles. The source profiles required in this study are extracted from SPECIATE5.1 the database.

The source of the particulate matter in JCF accompanies various coal handling activities such as opencast coal mining and its associated activities, thermal power stations, automobiles, generator sets fuel burning, construction activities, domestic coal, cooking gas burning, etc. and even the background contribution of natural dust (crustal origin) cannot be ruled out, particularly, in the zones having loose topsoil (Roy and Singh 2014). So, the sources profiles considered here are coal dust, coal combustion, road dust, heavy vehicle diesel, light vehicle gasoline, etc.

#### **4.1.3. Ambient profiling**

As discussed in Chapter 3, the samples collected from the sampling location undergo chemical characterization. The species obtained from the chemical analysis used in ambient profile structuring and the uncertainty is based on the instrument.

The overall methodology used in the source apportionment study is depicted by the flow diagram as follows:

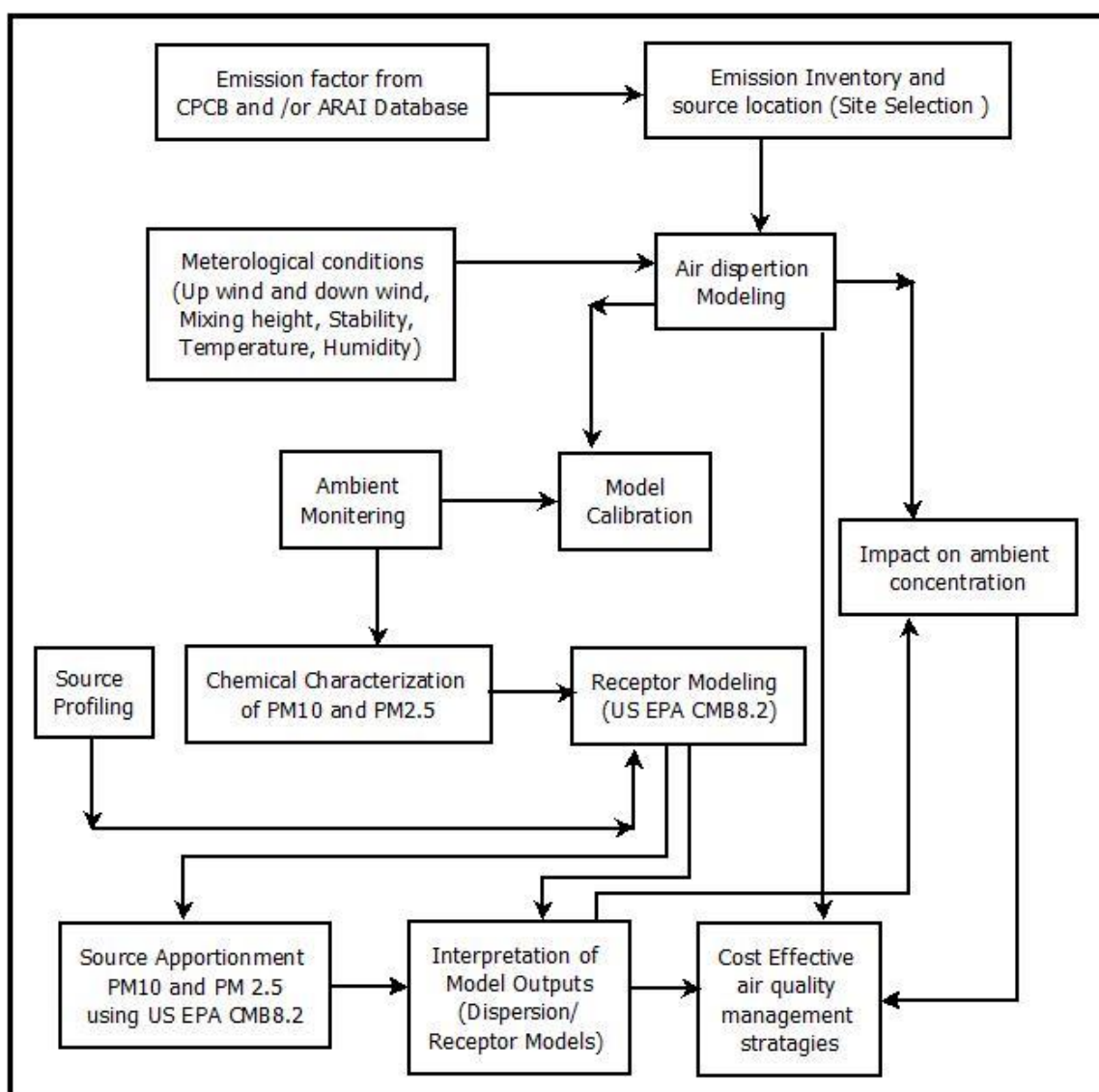


Figure 4.1: General methodology followed in the source apportionment studies

## 4.2. Results of the Chemical Mass Balance

CMB8.2 is performed for all the air quality monitoring locations. The significant sources in the area are identified first based on the field surveys. The general category of sources included in the model for all the sites are composites of all the vehicular sources, domestic combustion, road dust, agricultural waste burning, Industries, etc (Summary of relevant air quality studies from major Indian cities is given in Table 4.1). However, the choice of sources varies concerning the activities prevailing in the area and CMB model performance. A similar approach also applies to the selection of species. Efforts were made to include as many species in the model as possible. The choice was, however, restricted based on model performance. The source contributions are shown in the following Figures 4.3. The CMB model performance with respect to various sources is shown in Annexure 1.

### 4.2.1. Domestic combustion

In the summer season, the foremost emission source was domestic combustion for  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ . The domestic combustion percentage was observed at 22% and 25% for  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  in the summer season. In the winter season, domestic combustion contribution was the second most percentage contributor for  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ . The  $PM_{10}$  percentage was 23% while the  $PM_{2.5}$

percentage contribution was 28% in this season. The higher concentration of  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{F}^-$ ,  $\text{Cr}$ , and  $\text{Br}$ .  $\text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{F}^-$  are the markers of coal-burning and wood-burning (Jain et al., 2020). High  $\text{Br}$  along with  $\text{Cl}^-$  suggests the contributions from coal combustion.

#### 4.2.2. Industrial Emission

The industrial combustion percentage contribution observed 16% in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and 13% in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the summer season. In the winter season, contribution to industries is determined to be 15% in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and 24% in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . The abundances of elements like  $\text{As}$ ,  $\text{Zn}$ ,  $\text{Fe}$ ,  $\text{Cu}$ ,  $\text{Cr}$ ,  $\text{Pb}$ , and  $\text{S}$  indicate the industrial source's emissions. Kumar et al. (2001) used  $\text{Cu}$ ,  $\text{Mn}$ , and  $\text{Ni}$  as tracers for industrial emissions in Mumbai; Sharma et al. (2014b) used  $\text{Cu}$ ,  $\text{Cr}$ ,  $\text{Mn}$ ,  $\text{Ni}$ ,  $\text{Co}$ , and  $\text{Zn}$  as industrial emission tracers for metal manufacturing plants in Delhi; Kulshrestha et al. (2009) used a combination of  $\text{Ni}$ ,  $\text{Cu}$ ,  $\text{Fe}$ , and  $\text{Cr}$  as a marker for construction activities in Agra; and Karet al. (2010) used  $\text{Zn}$ ,  $\text{Cu}$ , and  $\text{Ni}$  as tracers of galvanizing, metallurgy, and electroplating industries while  $\text{Cr}$  from tannery industry in Kolkata.

#### 4.2.3. Coal Mining

Opencast coal mining activity comprises heavy-duty diesel vehicle usage, blasting, Coal handling and overburden management. During the summer season, the coal mining activity in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  is observed to be 8% and 7% respectively while in the winter season it contributes somewhat 6% and 5% in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  respectively.

#### 4.2.4. Transportation

The overall transportation contribution is 25% for  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and 32% for  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in the summer season. In the winter season, the transportation emission contribution is examined at 16% for  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and 18% for  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . The OC/EC ratio is a convenient diagnostic tool for investigating the sampling site and its emission sources. In the present study, the OC/EC ratio shows significant seasonal variations for a coarser fraction of PM than for a finer fraction. It is well established that OC/EC ratio values between 1.4 and 4 indicate emissions from gasoline catalyst vehicles and 0.3 to 1 suggest diesel vehicle emissions (Amato et al., 2016; Cesari et al., 2018). Assessing the ratio of  $\text{nss-K}^+/\text{EC}$  is another diagnostic check for estimating the relative loading of vehicular emissions, where  $\text{nss-K}^+$  is a non-sea-salt water-soluble potassium ion (calculated as  $\text{K}^+ - 0.129\text{Na}^+$ ) (Andreae and Merlet, 2001).

#### 4.2.5. Secondary Inorganic Aerosol

During summer, the secondary inorganic aerosol contribution to  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  is about 8% and 16%, respectively. Secondary inorganic aerosols contribution found in winter is about 14% and 17%, respectively for  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . The secondary inorganic aerosol source is a high concentration of nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ ), sulphate ( $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ), and ammonium ( $(\text{NH}_4^+)$ ). These secondary products are formed in the atmosphere, being emitted either by natural or anthropogenic sources. The oxidation of  $\text{NO}_x$  forms the secondary nitrate. It is favoured by low temperature (Li et al. 2004), while high temperature and strong solar radiations favour the formation of secondary sulfates through photochemical reactions (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Secondary inorganic aerosol formation from precursors ( $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ ) enhances the pollution burden over the

vicinity. Biomass burning, the presence of metal traces (Fe, Al, Mn, Zn, Cr etc.) from vehicular or industrial emission play a key role to neutralise the oxides of nitrogen and sulphur and thus raises the amount of secondary inorganic aerosols in the atmosphere.

#### **4.2.6. Agriculture**

The agriculture contribution observed that 5% for PM<sub>10</sub> and 2% for PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the study period during the summer season. In the winter season, the contribution is 3% and 2% for PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> respectively. Agricultural activities contribute ammonium to the atmosphere (Pant and Harrison, 2012; Jain et al., 2019). The OC and EC are also significant agricultural activity sources (Ram and Sarin 2011; Sharma et al. 2016a).

#### **4.2.7. Open burning**

The contribution of open burning in the summer season is 5% for both PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>. In winter, the garbage burning contribution is 6% and 2% for PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> respectively during study time. The abundance of tracers like K<sup>+</sup>, Pb, Br and considerable Cl<sup>-</sup> marks this garbage/biomass burning source. K<sup>+</sup> and levoglucosan are globally employed as biomass burning markers. Biomass consists of residential and agricultural wastes, post-harvest residue, cow dung, dry leaves, fuelwood, and wildfires (Almeida et al., 2006; Khare and Baruah, 2010; Shridhar et al., 2010). The OC and EC are also traced insignificant amounts along with K<sup>+</sup>, indicating the biomass burning emanations (Cesari et al., 2018; Sharma et al., 2014; Jain et al., 2018).

#### **4.2.8. Road Resuspension dust**

The re-suspension dust is a significant contributor to PM<sub>10</sub>. The contribution of resuspension dust is during the summer season 12% while in the winter season the emission contribution is 10% for PM<sub>10</sub>. In the summer season, resuspension dust's contribution is higher because of the high wind velocity and dry condition. The lower percentage contribution of road dust to fine particulate matter is attributed to substantial road dust particulates in coarse mode, found in other studies (Gupta et al., 2007; Masri et al., 2015). Crustal elements are significant constituents of airborne soil and re-suspension road dust. Generally, they contribute to coarse aerosols, including Al, Si, Ca, Ti, Mg, Fe, and Na used as tracers for soil dust or crustal re-suspension (Lough et al. 2005; Begum et al. 2011). The marker elements that have been used in India for the identification of soil dust include Al, Si, Ca, Ti, Fe, Pb, Cu, Cr, Ni, Co, and Mn (Sharma et al., 2017). Cu, Zn, and Ba are associated with road dust/re-suspension dust due to the release of these marker elements from cars and non-exhaust sources.

#### **4.2.9. Other emission Contribution**

Other area sources contributed in the summer season is 12% for PM<sub>10</sub> and 7% for PM<sub>2.5</sub> during the study period. In the winter season, emission contribution is 14% for PM<sub>10</sub> and 9% for PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

### 4.3 Inferences

The receptor modelling (CMB) results (Figure 4.3) revealed that the transport sector and domestic combustion are the predominant emission sources contributing to the receptor levels. During the summer season, the contribution of the transport sector was found maximum in both PM<sub>10</sub> (23%) and PM<sub>2.5</sub> (30%) followed by the contribution of domestic combustion (17% and 23% for PM<sub>10</sub> & PM<sub>2.5</sub> respectively). While in the winter season, the contribution of domestic combustion outruns the contribution of the transport sector. During the winter season, domestic combustion has contributed 22% (PM<sub>10</sub>) and 28% (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) whereas the transport sector has contributed 16% (PM<sub>10</sub>) and 21% (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) of the total emission.

After transport sector and domestic combustion, Industrial emission (12% of PM<sub>10</sub> emission) and Road Resuspension (12% of PM<sub>10</sub> emission) followed by Coal mining activity and secondary inorganic aerosol formation (both 8%) are contributing majorly to PM<sub>10</sub> emission at receptor during the summer season.

In PM<sub>2.5</sub> source contribution, secondary inorganic aerosol formation contributed majorly (16% & 15% in summer and winter seasons respectively) after domestic combustion and transport sector. Secondary inorganic aerosol formation from precursors (SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>) enhances the pollution burden over the vicinity. Biomass burning, the presence of metal traces (Fe, Al, Mn, Zn, Cr etc.) from vehicular or industrial emission play a key role to neutralise the oxides of nitrogen and sulphur and thus raises the amount of secondary inorganic aerosols in the atmosphere.

Industrial activity contributed 12% and 11% of total PM<sub>10</sub> load in summer and winter respectively but in the case of finer dust (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), it contributed 17% in the winter season at the receptor level. This may be due to the calm winter conditions that allow finer dust (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) to settle near to ground than that of summer conditions that allow more turbulence mixing in the atmosphere.

Road re-suspension of dust contributes significantly in PM<sub>10</sub> load at receptor both in summer (12%) and in winter (8%). As these are larger and heavier particles, they contribute to PM<sub>10</sub> fraction and are not found in PM<sub>2.5</sub> fraction at the receptor.

After the contribution of the industrial sector, coal-mining activity contributed around 8% and 6% of the total PM<sub>10</sub> receptor dust load during summer and winter respectively. In the case of PM<sub>2.5</sub> dust load at the receptor, coal-mining activity contributed 7% and 5% during summer and winter respectively.

From the results and analysis of receptor modelling, it can be summarised that mitigation and abatement of the emissions from domestic combustion and transport sector alone may reduce receptor dust load by 40% (approx.).

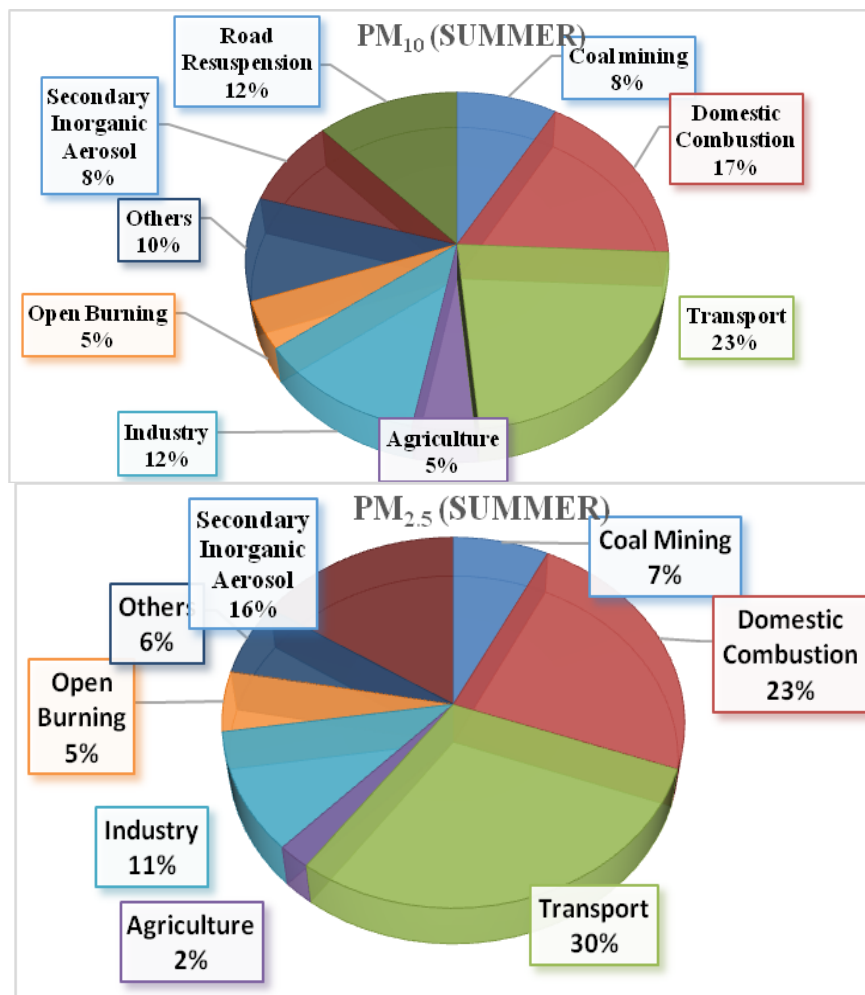


Figure 4.2: Source contribution at receptor locations of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in summer

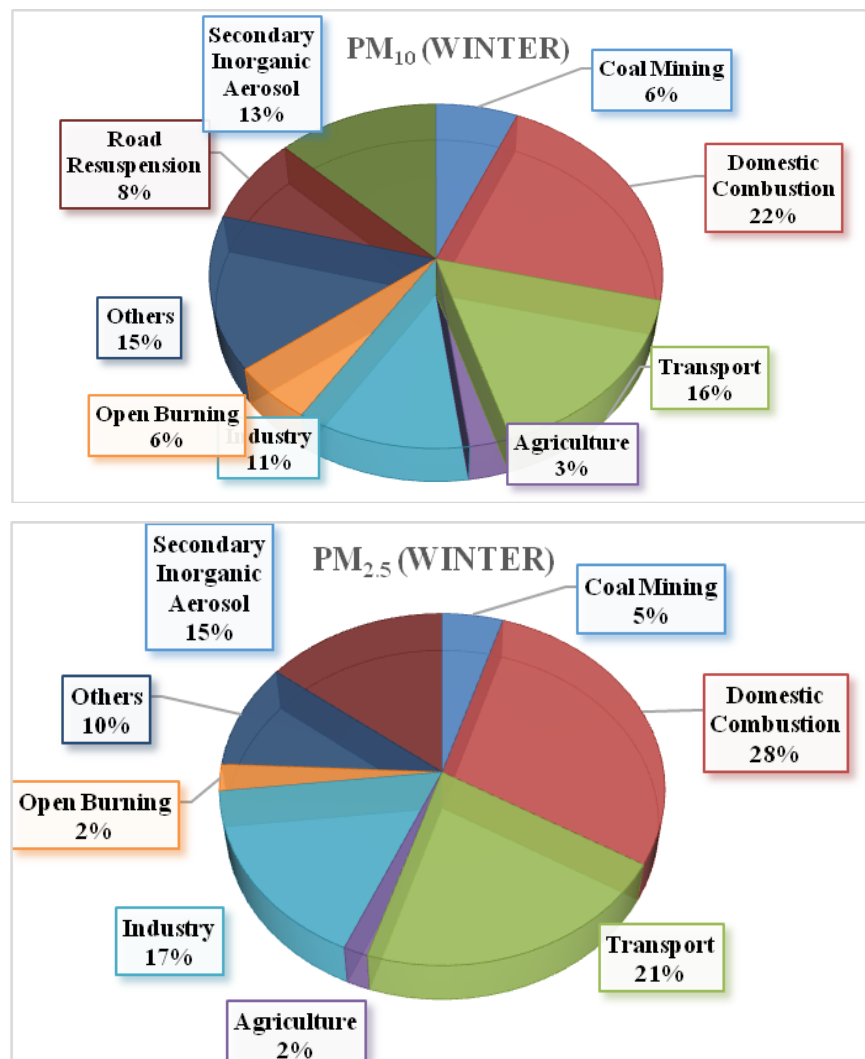


Figure 4.3: Source contribution at receptor locations of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in winter

Table 4.1: Summary of relevant air quality studies from major Indian cities.

Area/Location	Particle size	Sources	Elements and Ions	References
Delhi	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Secondary Nitrate, Secondary Sulfate, Vehicular emission, Biomass burning, Soil dust, Fossil fuel combustion, Sodium and magnesium salt, Industrial emission	Al, Mg, Ca, Ti, Fe, Cr, Mn, Zn, As, Pb, Br, M, F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , and Na <sup>+</sup>	Jain et. Al., 2020
Mangalore	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Construction dust, Diesel generator, Tyre wear emission, Brake lining emission, Sand dust emission, gasoline vehicle emission, Diesel vehicle emission, Unpaved and paved road emission, Biomass burning, LPG stove emission, Solid fuel emission, Ferrous and steel industries emission, Fabrication and welding emission, Kerosene stove emission	As, Ba, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mg, Mn, Mo, Ni, Pb, Sr, Zn, F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup> and Ca <sup>2+</sup>	G. Kalaiarasan et al. 2018
Delhi NCR	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Dust construction, Vehicle emission, Biomass Burning, Industrial emission, Secondary Pollutants, DG sets emission,	Al, Si, P, S, Cl, Br, V, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Ti, Ca, F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , Br <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup> and Ca <sup>2+</sup>	Report No. ARAI/16-17/DHI-SA-NCR/Final Report August 2018
Delhi	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Secondary Aerosol, Vehicular emission, Biomass burning, Soil dust, Fossil fuel combustion, Sea salt, Industrial emission	Al, Mg, S, Si, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, Cu, Mn, Fe, Zn, Br, Cr, As, Pb, F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , and Na <sup>+</sup>	Jain et. Al., 2017
Nagpur	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	DG sets, biomass burning, resuspended dust, secondary aerosol and mobile sources.	Al, Ba, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mg, Mn, Ni, Pb, Si, Zn. F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>3-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup> and Ca <sup>2+</sup>	Pipalatkhar et al., 2014
Raipur	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Brick kiln process, steel re-rolling mills, steel processing industries, biomass burning, metallurgical industrial emissions and coal burning	Al, As, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, K, Mg, Mn, Mo, Na, Ni, Pb, S, Sb, Se, V, Zn, Na <sup>+</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , and Ca <sup>2+</sup>	Matawle et al., 2014
Hyderabad	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Vehicles exhaust, resuspension of dust, secondary sulfates, secondary nitrates, biomass	Na, Mg, K, Al, Si, Ca, Fe, Cl, SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	Guttikunda et al., 2013



		burning, coal burning.		
Pune	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Vehicles, DG sets, construction dust, solid fuels emissions, resuspended dust	Al, Pb, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Br, Ni, Fe, Mn, Mg, Cr, Ti, Ca, Cd, S, Si, Na, Ba, Sb, Cd, Sr, Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	ARAI, 2010
Kanpur	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Vehicles, open burn, road dust, domestic wood, coal and LPG, metal smelting, DG sets.	Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup> , Si, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Cd, Sn, Sb, Pb	CPCB, 2010b
Mumbai	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Wood combustion, Fuel oil combustion, kerosene combustion, biomass burning, LPG, ammonium sulfate, ammonium nitrate, heavy duty diesel vehicles emissions, soil dust.	Na, Mg, Al, Si, P, S, Cl, Ca, Br, V, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Ti, Ga, Rb, Y, Zr, Pd, Ag, In, Sn, La, Se, Sr, Mo, Cr, Cd, Sb, Ba, Hg, and Pb. F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , Br <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , Ca <sup>2+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup>	CPCB, 2010a
Chennai	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Vehicles, DG sets, bakeries, soil dust, construction dust, paved road dust, kerosene and LPG emissions.	As, Ag, Ca, Na, Fe, Mg, Cu, Zn and other metals. Cl <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup>	IIT Madras, 2010
Bangalore	PM <sub>10</sub> and PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Petrol vehicles, diesel vehicles, secondary particulates, fuel oil burning, wood domestic wood burning, DG set, kerosene generator set, paved road dust re suspension, soil dust.	Na, Mg, Al, Si, P, S, Cl, Ca, Br, V, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Ti, Ga, Rb, Y, Zr, Pd, Ag, In, Sn, La, Se, Sr, Mo, Cr, Cd, Sb, Ba, Hg, and Pb. F <sup>-</sup> , Cl <sup>-</sup> , Br <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> , NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , Na <sup>+</sup> , K <sup>+</sup> , Mg <sup>2+</sup> and Ca <sup>2+</sup>	TERI, 2010

DG - Diesel generators; LPG - Liquefied petroleum gas; OC - Organic carbon; EC - Elemental carbon.

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## Chapter 5 Dispersion Modelling

Air quality modeling includes four major processes (a) emission of pollutants, (b) transportation of the pollutants due to mean wind profile (c) chemical transformations and (d) deposition/removal. In the present study the particulate matter emissions, transportation and dispersion are carried out using the AERMOD model, which is developed by USEPA. AERMOD model estimates the spatial profile of pollutants based on the Gaussian plume equation, which is an analytical solution to the steady-state approximation of the advection-diffusion phenomenon. The boundary conditions about the atmospheric mixing height and other thermodynamic vertical profiles for the simulations are derived from the mesoscale model. The model relies on the atmospheric stability classes for deriving the dispersion coefficients across the multiple dimensions with respect to the distance away from the sources. In this study, only the ground level concentrations of the particulate matter are simulated during the study period. The study domain envelops the Jharia Coal Fields situated in the Jharkhand state of India. The methodology followed in the present study is shown in Figure 5.1. The southwest part of the Dhanbad City shares borders with the study area, but the majority of emission load used in the study is included from the JCF.

### 5.1. Wind data analysis

The nearest IMD (India Meteorological Department) observations are at Patna and Kolkata, which are approximate >150km from the study area. Hence, hourly meteorological observations required for the study for the AERMOD dispersion model were simulated through the Weather Research and Forecast, version-3.9 (WRF), which is a meteorological model that dynamically downscales the global NCAR/UCAR meteorological data to the regional level data ([www.mmm.ucar.edu](http://www.mmm.ucar.edu)). Nested domains of grid resolution 12km and 4km, respectively were laid over the study area for simulation of hourly meteorological variables using the WRF model (Figure 5.2). Hourly meteorological data, including both the surface variables and upper atmosphere variables, were simulated for the study period viz. 23 May to 12 June 2019 and 23 January to 12 February 2020, representing the summer and winter seasons, respectively.

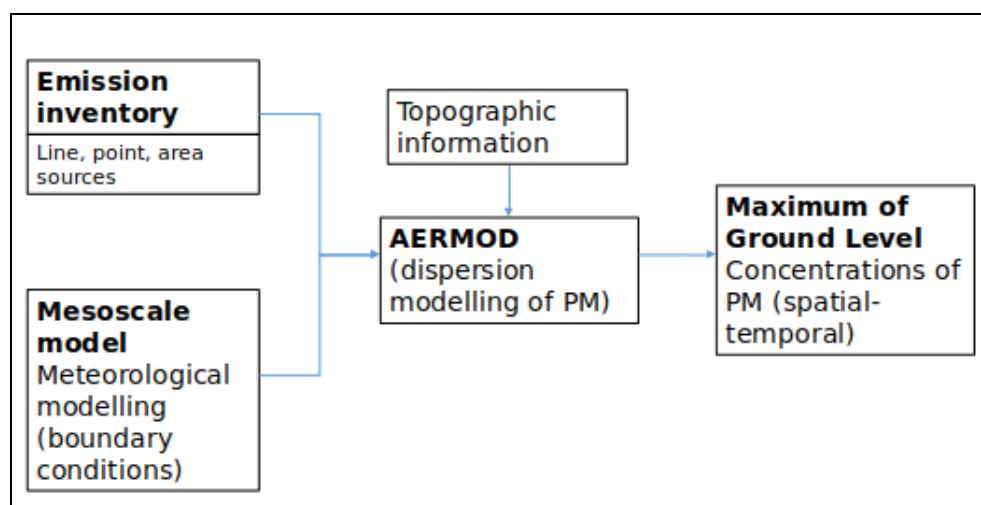


Figure 5.1: Methodology followed in the study.

The mesoscale model interface program MMIF (<https://www.epa.gov/>) converter tool was used

to convert the inner domain’s gridded WRF model simulated meteorological data into a format suitable for the AERMOD model. The AERMOD receptor grid covering the study area is shown in Figure 5.3. A Cartesian receptor grid having 21 rows and 21 columns with a resolution of 2000 m was laid for the simulation of particulate matter dispersion /concentration at the receptor locations. Overall there are 20 grids in each direction covering an area of 40 km by 40 km enveloping the JCF.

The spatial pattern of the predominant wind profile over the study area is plotted using the windrose diagrams for the summer (March to May 2019) and winter season (November 2019 to February 2020), shown in Figures 5.2 and 5.3, respectively. Results show that the study area is experiencing the predominant wind (having high frequency) flow from east to west direction followed by north-west to south-east direction during summer, while in winter the predominant wind direction is from north to south. The wind speeds vary in the range of 0.5 to 11.1m/s during the summer predominantly in the range of 2.1 to 3.6m/s whereas wind speeds vary in the range of 0.5 to 8.8m/s during the winter, predominantly in the range of 2.1 to 3.6m/s.

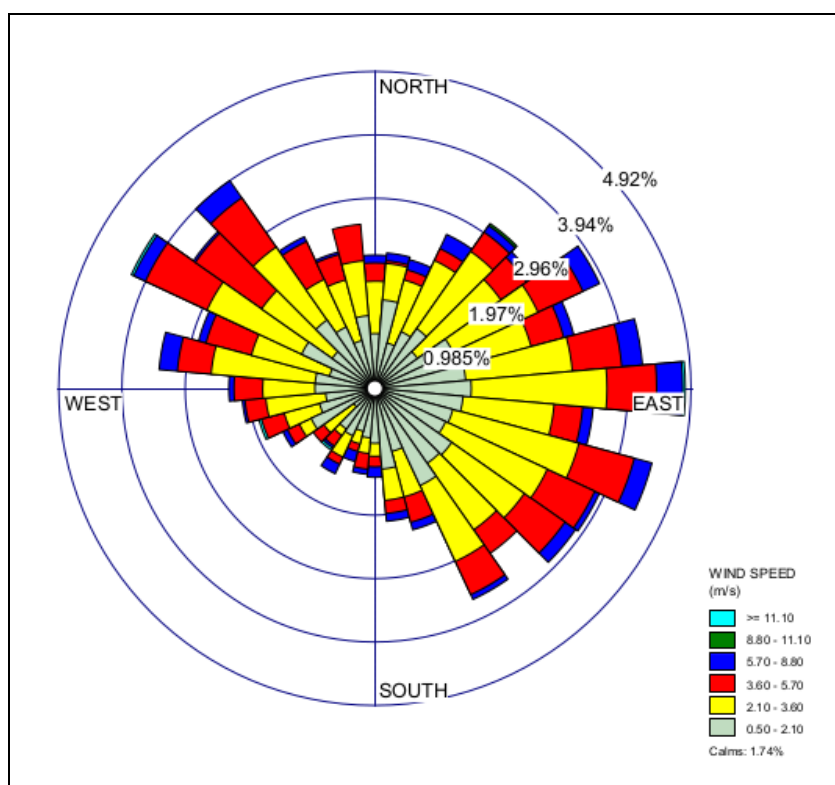


Figure 5.2: Windrose of the study area during March-June, 2019 (wind direction blowing towards the center)

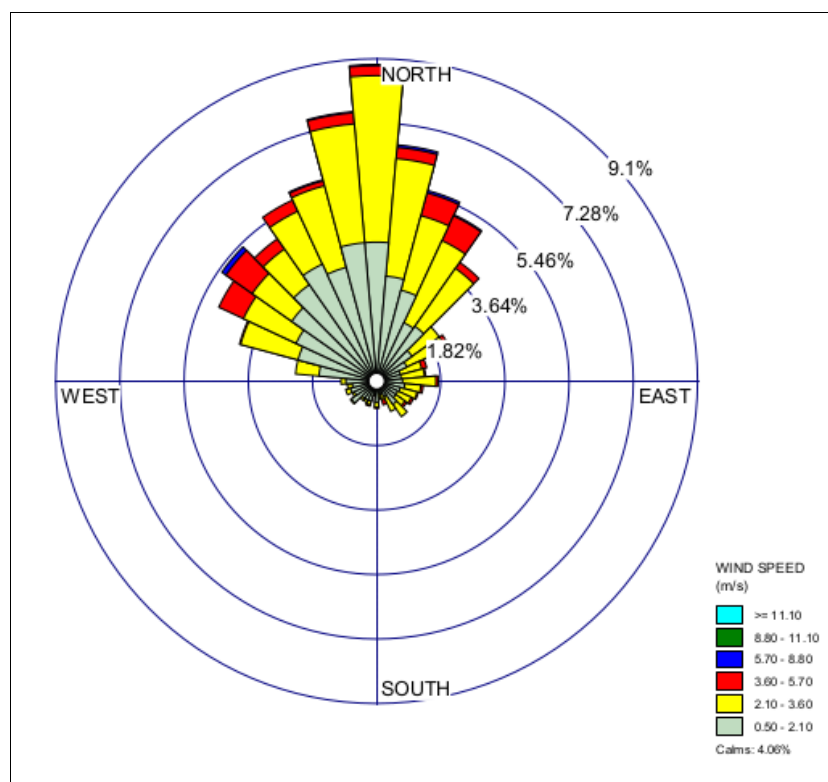


Figure 5.3: Windrose of the study area during November-December 2019 (wind direction blowing towards the centre)

## 5.2. Dispersion of Particulate matter

Spatial profiles of maximum ground-level concentrations of 24-hour average values of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  were simulated using the AERMOD Gaussian plume model. The emission rates of particulate matter from multiple source types including the point, line, and area were derived from the field monitoring of the emission inventory. Point sources mainly include the emissions from the industries situated in the study area that mainly use coke/coal as the fuel. The line sources include the emissions from the vehicular exhaust. Emission inventory of traffic pollution was carried out in the study area by noting down the vehicular activity. The vehicular activity of different vehicular types such as trucks, light motor vehicles, three-wheeled vehicles, motorbikes, etc. was multiplied by the corresponding emission factors for the estimation of gaseous pollution. The summation of emissions from all vehicle types adds to the overall line sources contributing to the pollution load in the study area. The area sources include emissions from the open cast mining emissions (including all the activities in the mine premises) and domestic burning (including emissions from crematoria, bakeries, open eat-outs, restaurants, chulha burning from the slum, etc.).

The emissions in grams per second were calculated from the emission inventory survey, for the line and point sources. Whereas, the emission rates in  $g/s/m^2$  were calculated for the area sources including mining. These emission rates from each source type have been computed in the study area and fed into the AERMOD model domain for the simulation of spatial average concentrations of  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ . In the present study, the maximum GLC (ground level concentrations, in  $\mu g/m^3$ ) was simulated at several receptor grid locations in AERMOD domains. The AERMOD model was run during the sampling period in May 2019 and November 2019, representing the pre-monsoon and post-monsoon seasons, respectively.

Analysis of WRF model simulated wind speed and direction data shows that the wind is

predominantly flowing from south-east direction to north-west direction, followed by the reversal in the direction, during the monitoring in summer, representing pre-monsoon conditions (Figure 5.5). The wind speeds during the monitoring period in summer month varied between 0.5 and 8.8m/s. During the monitoring period in winter (post-monsoon), the wind predominantly flowed from the north-east to south-west direction having wind speeds in the range of 0.5 to 3.6m/s (Figure 5.5).

The wind blowing from different directions in the study area determines the direction of pollution dispersion. The Gaussian plume equation used in the AERMOD model estimates the diffusion and advection of the pollutants concerning the emission rates and meteorology (wind speed, direction and atmospheric stability categories). The model simulated maximum ground level concentration of the particulate matter (PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>) in the study area covering the JCF is shown through the isopleths. The isopleths (contours connecting the regions with the same ground level concentration in the context of the present study) of maximum GLC of PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were observed to form a pattern according to the predominant wind directions flowing in different monitoring seasons. It is observed that the line sources in the study area have contributed the maximum to the surface GLC of PM<sub>10</sub>, following the open cast mines. The AERMOD model simulated the value of GLC of PM<sub>10</sub> due to line sources, open cast mines, and all sources are 927, 286, and 978 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively, for the summer season. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> maximum GLC contributed by the line sources, open cast mines, and all sources included are 809, 143, and 835 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively. It is evident from the result that the line sources are significantly contributing to the overall particulate pollution in the study area during summer. The analysis of the PM<sub>10</sub> and its maximum GLC simulated by the AERMOD model for the winter season also follows a similar pattern as of summer. The contribution of line sources, open cast mines, and all sources included are 1565, 597, and 1679 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> maximum GLCs during the winter are 1004, 299, 1167 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  as contributed by line, open cast mines, and all sources including, respectively. Based on the emission inventory and the prevailing meteorological conditions during the winter season have in general contributed to the higher particulate matter than that of the summer season.

Pockets of maximum concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> (200-1000  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and above) are observed in the vicinity to roads nearer to the open cast mines south of Dhanbad City during the winter (Figure 5.5). The localities of the high concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> are Sabji Patti road and Sudamdih mine area, which is reflected in the figure. The area covering the Dhanbad city and the mines situated in the southwest have PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations in the range of 200-900 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . The fringes of the JCF have recorded the PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations in the range of 100-250 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . In contrast, the PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations for the summer season have significantly lower and the majority of the study area have PM<sub>10</sub> < 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , however, the area extending from south of Dhanbad City and Sudamdih mine have relatively high PM<sub>10</sub> concentration in the range of 100-500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . Baghmara and Sonardih mine area in the west of Dhanbad City have also been observed to have high GLC of PM<sub>10</sub> in the range of 100-500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ .

A similar pattern of the spatial distribution of PM<sub>2.5</sub> is reflected as of PM<sub>10</sub>. As the underlying meteorological conditions are the same for both the PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> simulations the

spatial pattern is nearly similar. High concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> (100-500µg/m<sup>3</sup>) are observed in the southwest direction of Dhanbad City (Figure 5.6). The maximum GLC of PM<sub>10</sub> is found to be higher than PM<sub>2.5</sub> during both the monitoring seasons, and higher concentrations are observed during the winter season. The prevailing winter meteorology in the region has lower wind speeds and mixing heights, which poses an unfavorable situation for the dispersion of particulate matter, hence containing a high chance of accumulation of airborne pollutants. The significant contribution of particulate matter from the line sources is observed in the study area, followed by the area sources (from open cast mining, domestic burning, bakeries, open eat-outs, and restaurants). The locations of the highly polluted can be interpreted from the images shown in Figures 5.6 (a) and 5.6 (b) for devising realistic and grass-root level mitigation strategies.

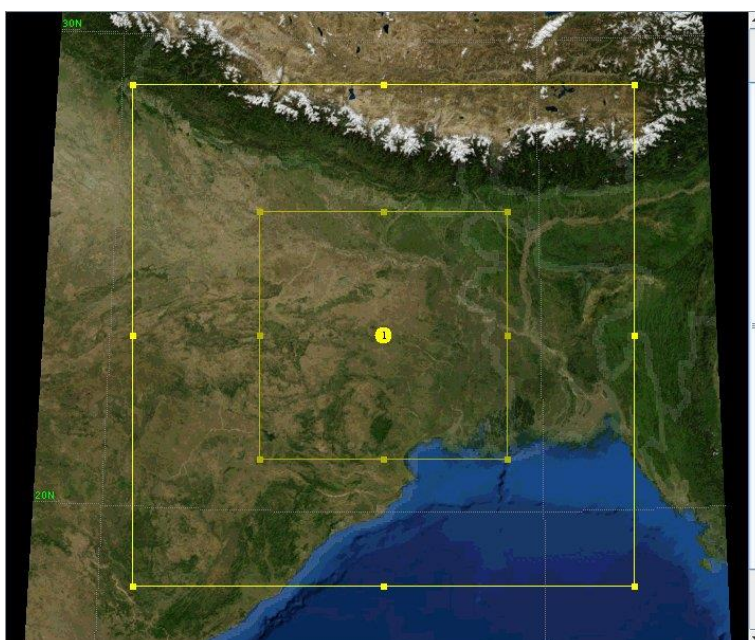


Figure 5.4: AERMOD grid covering the Jharia Coal Fields (JCF). The line, area, and point sources covered in the study are indicated in red color. The UTM coordinates of the left bottom point are x=406111 and y=2603492, and the coordinates of the right top point are x=456248 and y=2653417.

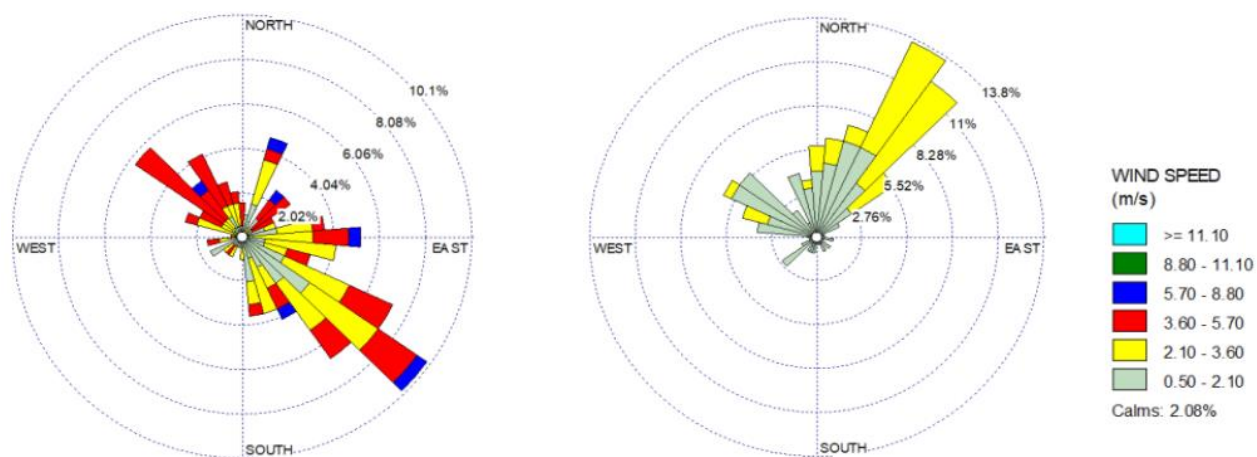


Figure 5.5: Windrose diagram for the summer (left) and winter seasons (right) at Jharia Coal Fields during the sampling period. Wind direction is flowing towards the centre.



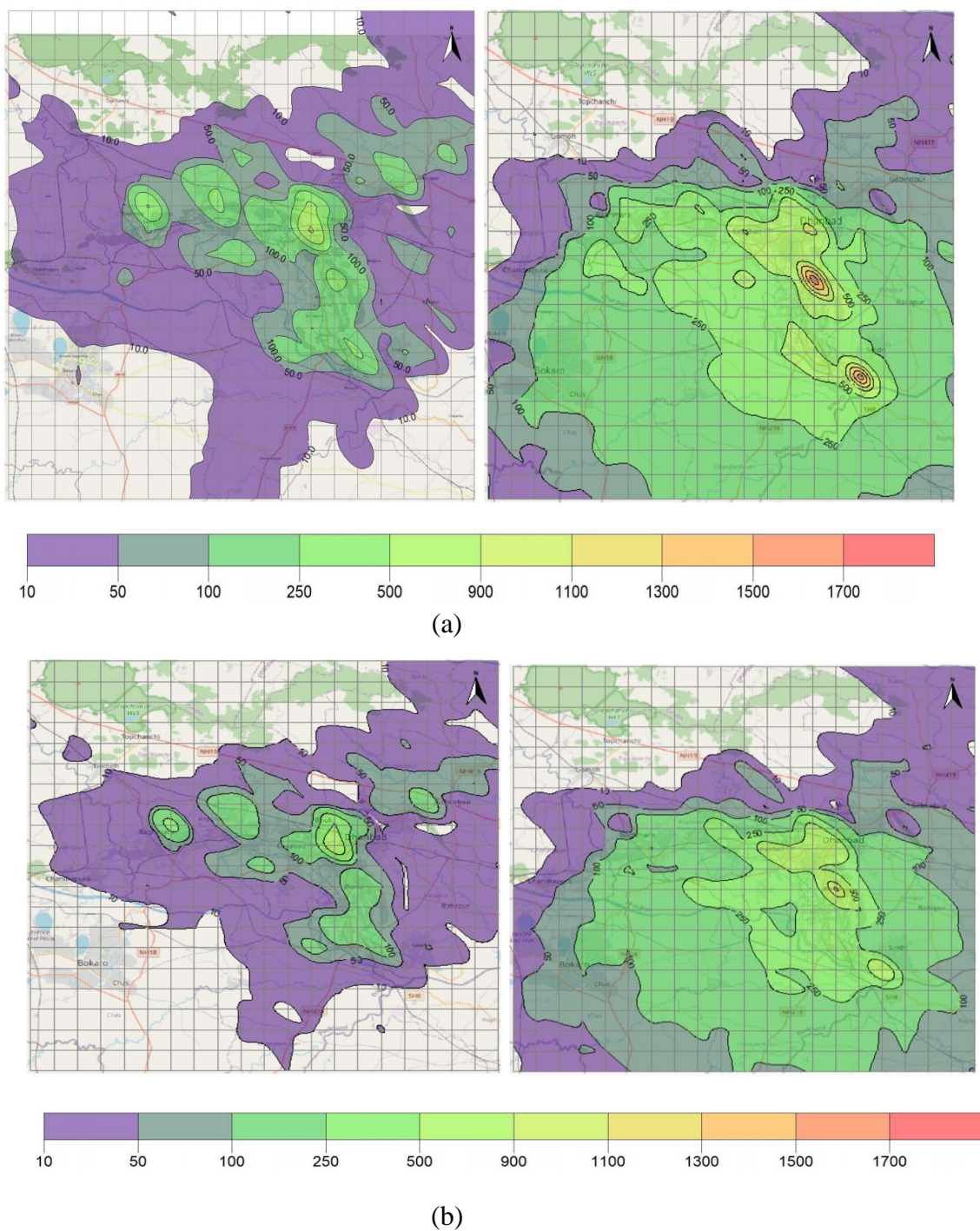


Figure 5.6: 24-hour average maximum ground level concentration of PM contours in the study area simulated during the study periods in summer (left) and winter (right) seasons (a) PM<sub>10</sub> (µg/m<sup>3</sup>) and (b) PM<sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m<sup>3</sup>)

### 5.3 Validation of the model

Comparison between the model simulated period average PM and the measured PM concentrations was made to determine the overall efficiency of the dispersion model. In the present study, the model validation metrics viz. mean bias (MB), normalized mean bias (NMB), mean gross error (MGE), normalized mean gross error (NMGE), and Pearson's correlation ( $r$ ) were calculated for PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> separately including data of both seasons. At some of the monitoring locations like Mines Rescue, Katras, Patherdih, Harina, Lodhna, and Lohapatti the discrepancies between the modeled and observed data were found to be high, for both summer and winter seasons. At remaining locations for both seasons, the results indicate an acceptable/fair degree of model performance in simulating the particulate dispersion. Results show that the correlation coefficient between the measured and modeled PM<sub>10</sub> is 0.6, which is

fair enough in environmental open systems, similarly, for  $PM_{2.5}$  the correlation value is around 0.7 (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 Performance Stimulation Metric

Model metric	$PM_{10}$	$PM_{2.5}$
MB	-19.46	20.67
NMB	-0.11	0.24
NMGE	0.32	0.37
Correlation Coefficient	0.6	0.7

The NMB values are observed to be lower for  $PM_{10}$  (-0.11) than  $PM_{2.5}$  (0.24), which indicates the slight negative bias in  $PM_{10}$  simulations (under-prediction of the concentrations) and positive bias in  $PM_{2.5}$  (over-prediction of the concentrations). Whereas, the NMGE for both  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  are 0.32 and 0.37, respectively, which indicates the variation in the model simulations deviate around 30% from the mean values on average (which is a result due to some extreme values in the simulations). However, this discrepancy could be minimized if long-term simulations are carried out, which is highly computationally intensive. Nevertheless, the model performance metrics in terms of correlation and normalized mean gross error infer that the model could capture the spatial profile of the particulate matter distribution to a good extent.

## Chapter 6 Recommendation

### 6.1. Mine industries

1. The project proponent might consider installing conveyor systems for transporting the coal from the coal handling plant to the railway siding or to the nearest thermal power plant (if feasible).
2. A sufficient number of plants should be planted around the mine pit to arrest the movement of particulate matter or dust into the surrounding areas.
3. Scientific studies might be necessary to design a green belt with an optimized dimension of plot size and direction as per the prevailing meteorology. Similar studies are required to design a wind barrier for optimized benefits.
4. Adequate dust control measures should be in place, like mechanized sweeping, water sprinkling or mist spraying systems on the haul roads and at loading sites. Long-range misting or fogging canons are also should be in place.
5. Dust suppression measures at all operations of mining should be ensured.
6. Ensuring the complete coverage of the trucks and railway wagons that carry coal with a tarpaulin sheet is necessary.
7. In the long-run mobilization of closed trucks to carry the coal is preferable.
8. The coal transport roads should not be left with open curb sides. End to end covering up of curb side is essential to avoid the re-suspension of coal due to the truck movement.

### 6.2. Area Sources

Area sources are mainly domestic sources of fuel (coal, wood, kerosene, LPG) burning, trash/MSW combustion, bakeries, hotels/restaurants etc. and re-suspension of dust. Based on the survey and assessment, the following recommendations emerge:

1. Construction and demolition of buildings in the urban area give high local dust contribution resulting health problems. These practices need to follow compliance guidelines to reduce emissions.
2. Road and pavement should be well constructed to suppress road dust. The standard specifications and code of practice for road construction should be followed and implemented as per the Indian Road Congress (IRC) guidelines or international standard guidelines.
3. Strategically placed green cover in urban and semi-urban areas can help to improve local air quality.
4. Manage agricultural residues, including strict enforcement of bans on open burning
5. Strictly enforce bans on the open burning of household waste.
6. Use clean fuels – electricity, natural gas, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) in cities, and LPG and advanced biomass cooking and heating stoves in rural areas; substitution of coal by briquettes
7. Use incentives to improve the energy efficiency of household appliances, buildings, lighting, heating and cooling; encourage roof-top solar installations
8. Promote the use of electric vehicles

9. Encourage centralized waste collection with source separation and treatment, including gas utilization.
10. There is a substantial population that also uses available coal. These houses could be given a combination of improved chulla or free/subsidised power for cooking purposes.
11. Hotels and dhabas need to be educated and compulsorily asked to use LPG for its cooking purposes.
12. The trash and MSW burning is very common. Some of the places contain a mix of plastics and thermocol. The combustion of these materials is very harmful to human health.
13. Coal depot pollution is due to open storage and unregulated buying, selling and transportation. These coal depots are responsible for nearby air pollution peaks. However, the contribution of the same need to be assessed.

### **6.3. Line Source**

The vehicular sector in cities has been seen to be a major source of gaseous and fine particulate matter. The action plan for this sector would need a combination of efforts:

1. Vehicle inspection and maintenance: Enforce mandatory checks and repairs for vehicles.
2. Improved public transport: Encourage a shift from private passenger vehicles to public transport.
3. Set up a mechanism of Inspection and Maintenance programme for all vehicles in the district through RTO with automated system assessment.
4. The Inspection & Maintenance (I & M) centre shall also test all vehicles for their inbuilt emission tests.
5. All commercial vehicles should be phased out after 8 years of age or subjected to two years extension after rigorous I&M tests
6. All private vehicles should be subjected to proper assessment and fitness tests through I&M centres.
7. All autos and buses shall also be subjected to I&M tests
8. Dhanbad city does not have a designated place for truck parking and maintenance related activities. A separate designated place should be allocated to prevent illegal parking and repair shops on the roads and kerbside.
9. Dhanbad city does not have a designated place for Auto-rikshaw. A separate designated place should provide to prevent traffic congestion and control vehicle emission.
10. Major haul trucks with heavy loads should not pass through the main city. The plan being made should be implemented in the next 1-1.5 years.
11. Overloading is a common phenomenon in the region resulting in poor road quality. This can be avoided through online checking when vehicles leave industries with a guarantee that the vehicle is not carrying more material than its designated loads.

#### 6.4. Others

- There is a need to explore various options for controlling air pollutants to tackle increased emissions in future.
- The local authority should stress sustainable and affordable public transport keeping clean air goals in mind.
- Frequent (time to time) arrangement of campaign/awareness programmes for lawmakers, stakeholders, health professionals, academicians to brainstorm about the future scenario and importance of clean air.
- Strategic installation of continuous air quality monitoring systems at various locations of urban, semi-urban and rural areas to check the existing air quality and information dissemination to the general public.

## Annexure -1

[A] Cumulative receptor sample of PM<sub>10</sub> for source profiling with fitting parameters

Source contribution estimate	Source profiles	Std Error	R-square	Chi-square
82.7% mass	Unpaved road	0.056	0.96	2.41
	Coal combustion	0.643		
	Light Duty vehicle	1.60		
	Heavy Diesel vehicle	2.19		
	Residential combustion	5.59		
	Iron and steel industry	7.16		
	Agriculture soil dust	0.212		
	Solid waste	1.37		

[B] Cumulative receptor sample of PM<sub>2.5</sub> for source profiling with fitting parameters

Source contribution estimate	Source profiles	Std Error	R-square	Chi-square
88.1% mass	Residential combustion	3.34	0.98	2.44
	Coal combustion	0.094		
	Light Duty vehicle	0.30		
	Heavy Diesel vehicle	1.91		
	Agriculture soil dust	0.10		
	Flyash	0.51		