

2002 Air Quality Report

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

SUMMARY

A summary of the New Jersey air quality monitoring data for 2002. Contains information on the Air Quality Index (AQI), concentrations of individual pollutants – carbon monoxide, lead, nitrogen oxides, ozone, particulate matter, and sulfur dioxide. Data on acid precipitation, sulfates, nitrates and other constituents of particulate matter, ozone precursors and toxic air contaminants are also provided.

Air Monitoring Shelter

Visibility Camera in Brigantine National Wildlife Refuge

Smoke from Forest Fires Impacts New Jersey

2002 Air Quality Report

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PAGE(S)

INTRODUCTION

NETWORK SUMMARY

AIR QUALITY INDEX SUMMARY

CARBON MONOXIDE SUMMARY

LEAD SUMMARY

NITROGEN DIOXIDE SUMMARY

OZONE SUMMARY

PHOTOCHEMICAL ASSESSMENT MONITORING STATIONS (PAMS)

PHOTOCHEMICAL ASSESSMENT MONITORING STATIONS …………….. 1-5

PARTICULATE SUMMARY

SULFUR DIOXIDE SUMMARY

AIR TOXICS SUMMARY

ATMOSPHERIC DEPOSITION SUMMARY

REGIONAL HAZE & VISIBILITY

APPENDIX A – MONITORING SITES

APPENDIX B – FINE PARTICULATE SPECIATION SUMMERY

NETWORK

2002 Air Quality Report

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

LIST OF TABLES

PAGE(S)

PHOTOCHEMICAL ASSESSMENT MONITORING STATIONS (PAMS)

PARTICULATE

SULFUR DIOXIDE

AIR TOXICS

ATMOSPHERIC DEPOSITION

APPENDIX A – 2002 AIR MONITORING SITES

APPENDIX B – FINE PARTICULATE SPECIATION SUMMARY – 2002

2002 Air Quality Report

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

LIST OF FIGURES

PAGE(S)

NETWORK

AIR QUALITY INDEX

CARBON MONOXIDE

LEAD

NITROGEN DIOXIDE

OZONE

PARTICULATE

SULFUR DIOXIDE

AIR TOXICS

APPENDIX A – 2002 AIR MONITORING SITES

2002 Introduction

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

INTRODUCTION

Air Quality in New Jersey has significantly improved since the passage of the Clean Air Act in 1970. As the chart below indicates, New Jersey is now in compliance with all National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS), except for ozone. These improvements are the result of aggressive pollution control programs implemented in New Jersey as well as regional emission reduction strategies involving other states.

But air quality problems do remain in the state. Ozone continues be to a significant problem in the summer months, and has been found to have serious health effects at lower levels than previously thought. The United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) revised the NAAQS for ozone in 1997 to account for this new health information. Although the standard changes were challenged, the courts eventually upheld them. If the new standards for ozone are to be met, additional emission reduction strategies will have to be implemented.

At the same time the USEPA revised the standards for ozone, they promulgated a new standard for fine particles. Fine particles are defined as particles less than 2.5 micrometers in diameter and are referred to as PM2.5. These small particles have been found to have a greater impact on public health than larger particles, which were the focus of the previous standards. Early data collected on PM2.5 levels in New Jersey presented in this report indicate that fine particles are likely to be a problem in some areas of the state.

In addition to ozone and PM2.5, there is increasing concern about a class of air pollutants termed "air toxics". These pollutants include substances known to cause cancer or other serious health problems. The list of potential air toxics is very large and includes many different types of compounds from heavy metals to toxic volatile organic compounds such as benzene. New Jersey is using the results of an EPA air toxics study and other information to address this complex problem. More comprehensive monitoring of air toxics in New Jersey is being implemented and data from that program is presented in this report.

Questions or comments concerning this report can be made by e-mailing us at **bamweb@dep.state.nj.us**, by phone at (609) 292-0138 or by writing to us at:

> New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection Bureau of Air Monitoring P. O. Box 418 Trenton, New Jersey 08625

2002 Network Summary

Department of Environmental Protection

NETWORK DESIGN

In 2002, the Bureau of Air Monitoring maintained 47 Ambient Air Monitoring Sites in New Jersey. These monitoring sites are designed to fulfill the following monitoring objectives for federal and state regulated pollutants: to measure maximum pollutant concentrations, to assess population exposure, to determine the impact of major pollution sources, to measure background levels, to determine the extent of regional pollutant transport, and to measure secondary impacts in rural areas. In addition, monitoring data is provided to

Figure 1: Ambient air monitoring trailer located at the Elizabeth Lab site

various public and media outlets and are used to provide hourly updates on air quality to the Bureau's web page at www.state.nj.us/dep/airmon. The Air Monitoring Sites can be divided into two primary networks: the Continuous Monitoring Network and the Manual Sampling Network.

SPATIAL SCALES

There are many factors and constraints which affect the design of a monitoring network. Most importantly, a network design should consider pollutant characteristics, topographical features, and resource limitations when evaluating whether data collected at a particular site can meet monitoring objectives. To assist in designing an effective air monitoring network, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) developed the concept of spatial scales of representativeness. The spatial scales define prospective sites in terms of the area surrounding a monitor where the pollutant concentrations are relatively similar. For each monitoring objective, appropriate spatial scales can be used to identify the general physical location of a suitable monitoring site. The list of various spatial scales are defined below:

Micro-scale (10 – 100m): Monitors that show significant concentration differences from as little as 10 meters or up to 50 meters away from the monitor are classified being

Micro-scale monitors. This often occurs when monitors are located right next to low-level emission sources, such as busy roadways, construction sites, and facilities with short stacks. These locations are in areas where the general public is exposed to the concentrations measured.

Middle Scale (100 – 1000m): These monitors show pollutant measurement variations between locations that are approximately 1 kilometer apart. These differences may occur near large industrial areas with many different operations or near large construction sites. Zones of representation for middle scale monitors are often source oriented. Monitoring measurements of this type might be appropriate for the evaluation of short-term exposure to an emission source.

Neighborhood scale (1 – 10km): Neighborhood scale monitors do not show significant differences in pollutant concentrations with spacing of a few kilometers. A particular scale location can represent not only the immediate neighborhood but also neighborhoods of the same type in other parts of the city. Neighborhood scale monitors provide good data for trend analysis studies and compliance with National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) because their zone of representation are often found in areas were people commonly reside.

Urban Scale (10 – 100km): Urban scale monitors show consistency among pollutant measurements with monitor separations of at least 10 kilometers. Urban scale sites are usually located at higher elevations and away from highly traveled roads, and industries. These locations are ideal for evaluating concentrations over an entire metropolitan and/or rural area.

Regional scale (100 – 1000km): Regional scale (background monitors) show consistency among measurements for monitor separations of a few hundred kilometers. These monitors are best located in rural areas away from local sources, and at higher elevations. National parks, national wilderness areas, and many state and county parks and reserves are appropriate areas for regional scale sites. Data gathered at this scale location is most useful in assessing pollutant concentrations in a large area and evaluating transport emissions.

THE CONTINUOUS MONITORING NETWORK

The Continuous Monitoring Network consists of automated sites which measure carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) , ozone (O_3) , sulfur dioxide (SO₂), particulate matter, and meteorological data (not all pollutants are measured at all sites). The data is transmitted to a centralized computer system in Trenton, New Jersey, once every minute, thus providing near realtime data. A map showing the location of the continuous monitoring sites is shown in Figure 2 and the parameters recorded at each site are displayed in Table 1 (page 3). Many of these locations are also part of the Manual Monitoring network, which is described in the next section.

Table 1 2002 - Continuous Air Monitoring Network

Continuous Parameter Codes

- **NOx -** Nitrogen Dioxide and Nitric Oxide **TEOM -** Continuous PM2.5 Analyzer
-
- **Sulfur Dioxide**

SS - Smoke Shade

O3 - Ozone **MET -** Meteorological Parameters

Spatial Scale codes: Mi - **Micro**, M - **Middle**, N - **Neighborhood**, U - **Urban**, R – **Regional**

MANUAL MONITORING NETWORK

The Manual Monitoring Network does not transmit data in near real-time as does the Continuous Monitoring Network. The manual network consists primarily of equipment that collects samples for subsequent analysis in a laboratory. The network provides data on fine particulates (particles smaller than 2.5 micrometers in diameter or $PM_{2.5}$), inhalable particulates (PM_{10}), lead (Pb), several parameters associated with atmospheric deposition, pollutants important in the formation of ground level ozone (ozone precursors), and numerous organic compounds that are considered toxic pollutants. Sites that measure ozone precursors are part of the national Photochemical Assessment Monitoring Station (PAMS) program. While some ozone precursors are automatically measured every hour, the data are usually only retrieved once a day. A map of the manual sampling sites is shown in Figure 3 and a list of the pollutants measured at each location in shown in Table 2 (page 5).

Manual Parameter Codes

Spatial Scale codes: Mi - **Micro**, M - **Middle**, N - **Neighborhood**, U - **Urban**, R - **Regional**

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2002 Air Quality Index Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

WHAT IS THE AIR QUALITY INDEX (AQI)?

The Air Quality Index (AQI) is a national air quality rating system based on the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS). Generally, an index value of 100 is equal to the primary, or health based, NAAQS for each pollutant. This allows for a direct comparison of each of the pollutants used in the AQI (carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, particulate matter, ozone, and sulfur dioxide). The AQI rating for a reporting region is equal to the highest rating recorded for any pollutant within that region. In an effort to make the AQI easier to understand, a descriptive rating, and a color code, based on the numerical rating are used (see Table 1).

For more information on the AQI, visit EPA's web site at www.epa.gov/airnow/aqibroch.

Table 1

Each weekday morning an air quality summary for the previous day, and a forecast are prepared using the AQI format. These are provided to the Associated Press wire service, the New York Times, and to participating radio and television stations. Each afternoon, an air quality update, which includes the current air quality information and a forecast for the following day, is issued to various newspapers. An extended forecast consisting of the

expected descriptor ratings over the next 72-hour period is also provided for each reporting region on weekdays. A telephone recording of the AQI forecast is taped by 11 a.m., Monday-Friday, and can be heard by dialing **1-800- 782-0160**.

For purposes of reporting the AQI, the state is divided into 9 regions (see Figure 1). Table 2 shows the monitoring sites and parameters used in each reporting region to calculate the AQI values.

Figure 1 Air Quality Index Regions

Table 2 Pollutants Monitored According to Air Quality Index Reporting Region - 2002

- **CO Carbon Monoxide O3 Ozone**
	-
- **SO2 Sulfur Dioxide NO2 Nitrogen Dioxide**
- **PM Particulate Matter**
-
- **Reporting Region Monitoring Site CO SO2 PM O3 NO2**

Along with the forecast, cautionary statements are provided for days when the air quality is expected to be unhealthy. A weekday ozone forecast map, introduced during the 1996 ozone season, is televised on New Jersey Network's (NJN) TV News Broadcast. After the ozone season, an air quality forecast map is substituted. A web page was also created in 1996 to show current air quality levels. This page can be accessed at the following internet address: http://www.state.nj.us/dep/airmon. Some examples of the air quality information available on our web site are shown below:

Figure 2 Examples of NJDEP's Air Monitoring Website

Readings from Individual Instruments at Jersey City

2002 AQI SUMMARY

A summary of the AQI ratings for New Jersey in 2002 is presented in the pie chart to the right. In 2002 there were 193 "Good" days, 128 were "Moderate", 23 were rated "Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups", 16 were considered "Unhealthy", and 5 were rated "Very Unhealthy". This indicates that air quality in New Jersey is considered good or moderate most of the time, but that pollution is still bad enough to adversely affect some people on about one day in ten. Table 3 lists the dates when the AQI exceeded the "Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups" threshold at any monitoring location and shows which pollutant(s) were in that range or higher. The map that follows shows the AQI ratings for the year broken down by AQI region.

Table 3 Air Quality Index (AQI) Exceedances of 100 During 2002

Ratings **Pollutants**

PM $O₃$ - Fine Particle Matter

- Ozone

* Number in parentheses () indicates number of monitoring sites exceeding 100 on given day

Air Quality Index - 5

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2002 Carbon Monoxide Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

NATURE AND SOURCES

Carbon monoxide (CO) is a colorless, odorless, poisonous gas formed when carbon in fuels is not burned completely. It is a by-product of motor vehicle exhaust, which contributes over 50 percent of all CO emissions nationwide. In cities, automobile exhaust can cause as much as 95 percent of all CO emissions, and high CO levels often coincide with morning and afternoon rush hours (Figure 3). Non-road engines and vehicles, such as construction equipment and boats, are also significant sources of CO and overall the transportation sector is responsible for about 82% of all CO emissions nationaly. Other sources of CO include industrial processes, fuel combustion in sources such as boilers and incinerators, and natural sources such as forest fires. Figure 1 shows the national average contributions of these sources.

Report, 2003 Special Studies, September 2003

Figure 3 (page 2) also shows that CO levels are typically higher in the winter. This is because motor vehicles do not burn fuel as efficiently when they are cold. Atmospheric inversions are also more frequent during the winter months. Inversions usually occur overnight when cooler air is trapped beneath a layer of warmer air aloft. When this occurs, the

inversion acts like a lid, preventing pollution from mixing in the atmosphere and effectively trapping it close to ground level (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Effect of Atmospheric Inversion on Air Pollution

HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL **EFFECTS**

Carbon monoxide enters the bloodstream and reduces the body's ability to distribute oxygen to organs and tissues. The most common symptoms associated with exposure to carbon monoxide are headaches and nausea. The health threat from exposure to CO is most serious for those who suffer from cardiovascular disease. For a person with

heart disease, a single exposure to CO at low levels may cause chest pain and reduce that individual's ability to exercise. Healthy people are also affected, but only at higher levels of exposure. Elevated CO levels are also associated with visual impairment, reduced work capacity, reduced manual dexterity, decreased learning ability, and difficulty in performing complex tasks.

STANDARDS

There are currently two national primary, or health based, standards for carbon monoxide. They are set at a one-hour concentration of 35 parts per million (ppm), and an 8-hour average concentration of 9 ppm. These levels are not to be exceeded more than once in any calendar year. There are no national secondary (welfare based) standards for CO at this time.

New Jersey state standards for CO are based on different units (milligrams per cubic meter as opposed to parts per million), and our standards are not to be exceeded more than once in any 12-month period. The state has set secondary (welfare based) standards for CO at the same level as the primary standards. The standards are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1 National and New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards for Carbon Monoxide

mg/m³ = Milligrams Per Cubic Meter ppm = Parts per Million

Figure 3 Carbon Monoxide Concentrations – New Jersey 1967-1999 Seasonal and Hourly Variations

Annual Mean Winter Mean Summer Mean 4.00 3.50 3.00 2.50 Parts Per Million (ppm) Parts Per Million (ppm) 2.00 1.50 1.00 0.50 0.00 00:00 01:00 02:00 03:00 04:00 05:00 06:00 07:00 08:00 09:00 10:00 11:00 12:00 13:00 14:00 15:00 16:00 17:00 18:00 19:00 20:00 21:00 22:00 23:00 Hour

Carbon Monoxide 2

MONITORING LOCATIONS

The state monitored CO levels at 15 locations in 2002. These sites are shown in the map in Figure 4. The site in Fort Lee did not operate between June 22nd and September $8th$ due to site relocation. The Middlesex site was shutdown on January 31^{st.} and the North Bergen site was shut down on July 2^{nd.}

CO LEVELS IN 2002

None of the monitoring sites recorded exceedances of any CO standard during 2002. The maximum one-hour average concentration recorded was 7.6 ppm at the site in Burlington. The highest 8-hour average level recorded was 4.6 ppm, at the East Orange site. Summaries of the 2002 data are provided in Figure 5 and Table 2 (page 4).

Figure 5 Highest and 2nd Highest 8-Hour Averages of Carbon Monoxide in New Jersey - 2002

Carbon Monoxide 3

Table 2 Carbon Monoxide Data – 2002 1-Hour and 8-Hour Averages

 1 Data not available from June 22nd to September $8th$

 2 Data not available after January 31st

 3 Data not available after July 2 $n³$

Trends

Carbon monoxide levels have improved dramatically over the past 20 years. The last time the CO standard was exceeded in New Jersey was in January of 1995 (see Figure 6, page 5), and the entire state was officially declared as having attained the CO standard on August 23, 2002. At one time unhealthy levels of CO were recorded on a regular basis – as much as a hundred days a year at some sites. The reduction in CO levels is due primarily to cleaner running cars which are by far the largest source of this pollutant. A trend graph of CO levels showing the maximum, minimum and average 8-hour concentrations recorded since 1975 is provided in Figure 7 (page 5). The graph depicts the second highest 8-hour value recorded, as this is the value that determines if the health standard is being met (one exceedance per site is allowed each year).

2001 Carbon Monoxide 5

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2002 Lead Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

NATURE AND SOURCES

Lead (Pb) is a metal that occurs naturally in the environment as well as being produced by a variety of human activities. Historically, the major sources of lead in the air have been motor vehicles and industrial facilities. With the phase out of lead in gasoline, however, the industrial sources now predominate. Because of the reductions in lead emissions from cars and trucks, levels in the air have decreased dramatically. When high levels do occur they are usually near industrial sources. The pie chart below shows the major industrial source of lead in New Jersey. The industrial sources include Electric Services (Energy generating facilities), Foundries (Metal casting facilities), and Refuse and Sewage systems.

Figure 1 New Jersey's Summary of 2002 Lead Emissions by Industrial Category

Source: NJDEP, Air Quality Planning Data 2002

HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL **EFFECTS**

Lead accumulates in the blood, bones, muscles, and fat. People are mainly exposed to lead by breathing it from the air or by ingesting food, water, soil, or dust that has been contaminated with lead. Infants and small children are especially sensitive to lead, even at low levels. Lead can damage the kidneys, liver, brain, and nerves and very high exposures can result in mental retardation, behavioral disorders, memory problems, and seizures. Lower levels of lead can damage the brain and nerves in fetuses and young children, resulting in learning disabilities. Lead can also cause high blood pressure and increase the risk of heart disease.

Animals can ingest lead while grazing and may experience health effects similar to those seen in humans. Lead can enter water systems through runoff and from sewage and industrial waste streams. Elevated levels of lead in water can cause reproductive damage in aquatic life and may cause changes in the blood and nerves of fish.

STANDARDS

The primary (health based) and secondary (welfare based) standards for lead are the same. The national standards are set at a maximum quarterly average concentration of 1.5 micrograms per cubic meter (ug/m3). The table below shows the National and New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS and NJAAQS) for lead. The difference between the national and state standards is that the national standards are based on calendar quarters (Jan-Mar, Apr-Jun, Jul-Sep, Oct-Dec) while the state standards are based on concentrations recorded over any three consecutive month period during the year.

Table 1 National and New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards for Lead

MONITORING LOCATIONS

Lead concentrations in recent years have been so low that many of the monitoring sites have been discontinued. As a result, New Jersey monitored lead at only one location in 2002. This location, near a battery manufacturing plant in New Brunswick, is shown in the map in Figure 2.

LEAD LEVELS IN 2002

A summary of the lead levels monitored in 2002 is shown in Table 2 and Figure 3. No exceedances of the primary or secondary standards were recorded. The maximum 3 month average was 0.116 micrograms per cubic meter (ug/m3), less then a tenth of the health standard.

Figure 2 2002 Lead Monitoring NetworkNew Brunswick - Delco Remy

Table 2 Lead Data – 2002 3-Month and Calendar Quarter Averages

μg/m³ = Micrograms Per Cubic Meter

 1 ¹ The month indicates the last month in the 3-month period

TRENDS

The phase out of lead in gasoline has resulted in substantial improvements in air quality and lead levels in New Jersey are now well within the air quality standards. Below is a trend graph showing New Jersey's maximum quarterly average concentrations from 1991 to 2002, compared to the national maximum quarterly average concentrations during the same time frame. New Jersey's lead levels decreased by 70% from 1991 to 2002, compared to national lead levels, which decreased by 75% over the same time span. New Jersey values in more recent years are based on data from very few

sites (only one site in 2002). While meeting the NAAQS for lead is no longer a major environmental issue in New Jersey, concern still exists over lead exposure via routes other than direct inhalation. Lead may have accumulated in the soil over time and children playing in such areas may ingest the lead directly.

Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2002 Air Trends Report

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2002 Nitrogen Dioxide Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

NATURE AND SOURCES

Nitrogen Dioxide (NO2) is a reddish-brown, highly reactive gas that is formed in the air through the oxidation of Nitric Oxide (NO). When $NO₂$ reacts with other chemicals in the atmosphere, it can result in the formation of ozone, particulate matter, haze and acid rain. Nitrogen Oxides (NO_x) , a mixture of gases which is mostly comprised of NO and NO2. These gases are emitted from the exhaust of motor vehicles, the burning of coal, oil or natural gas, and during industrial processes such as welding, electroplating and dynamite blasting. Although most NO_x is emitted as NO_z , it is readily converted to $NO₂$ in the atmosphere. In the home, gas stoves and heaters produce substantial amounts of nitrogen dioxide. A pie chart summarizing the major sources of NO_x is shown in Figure 1. As much of the NO_x in the air is emitted by motor vehicles, concentrations tend to peak during the morning and afternoon rush hours. This is shown in the graph in Figure 2 (page 2), which also indicates that concentrations tend to be higher in the winter than the summer. This is due in part to poorer local dispersion conditions caused by light winds and other weather conditions that are more prevalent in the colder months of the year.

HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL **EFFECTS**

Short-term exposures (less than 3 hours) to low levels of nitrogen dioxide may aggravate pre-existing respiratory illnesses, and can cause respiratory illnesses, particularly in children ages 5-12. Symptoms of low-level exposure to NO_x include irritation to eyes, nose, throat and lungs, coughing, shortness of breath, tiredness and nausea. Long-term exposures to NO₂ may increase susceptibility to respiratory infection and may cause permanent damage to the lung. NO and $NO₂$ are found in tobacco smoke, so people who smoke or breath in second-hand smoke may be exposed to NOx. The Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS), the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), and the EPA have determined that, with the available information, no conclusion can be made as to the carcinogenicity of NO_x to human beings.

Nitrogen Oxides contribute to a wide range of environmental problems. These include potential changes in the composition of some plants in wetland and terrestrial ecosystems, acidification of freshwater bodies, eutrophication of estuarine and coastal waters, increases in levels of toxins harmful to fish and other aquatic life, and visibility impairment.

STANDARDS

The primary (health based) and secondary (welfare based) National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for NO₂ are the same. They are set at a calendar year average concentration of 0.053 parts per million (ppm). The New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards (NJAAQS) are identical to the NAAQS except micrograms per cubic meter (μ g/m³) are the standard units, and the state standard applies to any 12-month period, not just the calendar year. The state of California has a one-hour average standard of 470 μ g/m 3 that New Jersey uses as a guideline in assessing short-term impacts from specific sources. Table 1 (page 2) provides a summary of the $NO₂$ standards.

Table 1 National and New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards for Nitrogen Dioxide

Parts Per Million (ppm) Micrograms Per Cubic Meter (µg/m3)

MONITORING LOCATIONS

The state monitored Oxides of Nitrogen levels at 11 locations in 2002. These sites are shown in the map to the right. The Somers Point monitoring station was discontinued on March 6, 2002. A valid 2002 annual average could not be calculated for this site.

NO2 LEVELS IN 2002

None of the monitoring sites recorded exceedances of the primary or secondary NO₂ NAAQS during 2002. The maximum annual average concentration recorded was 0.040 ppm at Exit 13 of the New Jersey Turnpike in Elizabeth. While national health and welfare standards have not been established for NO, it is considered to be an important pollutant that contributes to the formation of ozone, fine particles and acid rain. The maximum annual average concentration of NO recorded in 2002 was 0.048 ppm, also at the Exit 13 site (see Table 2 and Figure 4, page 4).

Table 2 Nitrogen Dioxide & Nitric Oxide Data – 2002

^a Data not available after March

Figure 4 Annual Average NO and NO2 Concentrations

TRENDS

NO2 concentrations have not posed a significant direct health threat in New Jersey. A graph of $NO₂$ levels showing the annual mean concentrations recorded from 1975 to 2002 is provided in Figure 5 (page 5). The graph shows the highest, average of all sites, and lowest annual average recorded at any site. Although NO2 concentrations are well within the NAAQS, there is still a great deal of interest in oxides of nitrogen because of their role in the formation of other pollutants – most notably ozone and fine particles. Both these pollutants are of concern over much of the northeastern United States and efforts to reduce levels of ozone and fine particles are likely to require reductions in NO emissions.

TOTAL REACTIVE OXIDES OF **NITROGEN (NO.)**

Although not specifically defined, there is a group of nitroxyl compounds that react in the troposphere and contribute to the formation of ozone. They are termed Total Reactive Oxides of Nitrogen (NO_y). These compounds include NO_x ,

peroxyacyl nitrates (RC(O)OONO₂ or PAN), peroxynitric acid (HO₂NO₂), nitrous acid (HONO), nitric acid (HNO₃), dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5) and nitrate radicals (XNO_3). NO_v can also be described as the sum of the NO_x and the atmospheric NO_x oxidation products. Although measuring NO_y is not required, NO_y measurements may provide valuable information for evaluating chemical mechanisms in ozone prediction models, indicate NO and $NO₂$ emission trends, and assist in developing regional control strategies for ozone.

The identification and measurement of individual NOy compounds is technically difficult and expensive, however, an analyzer that measures total NO_v concentrations is available. The NJDEP began monitoring for NOy at the Rider University station in March 2002. NO_x and PAMS speciated volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are also measured at this station.

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2002 Ozone Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

NATURE AND SOURCES

Ozone (O_3) is a gas consisting of three oxygen atoms. It occurs naturally in the upper atmosphere (stratospheric ozone) where it protects us from harmful ultraviolet rays (see Figure 1). However, at ground-level (tropospheric ozone) it is considered an air pollutant and can have serious adverse health effects. Ground-level ozone is created when nitrogen oxides (NOx) and volatile organic compounds (VOC's) react in the presence of sunlight and heat. NOx is primarily emitted by motor vehicles, power plants, and other sources of combustion. VOC's are emitted from sources such as motor vehicles, chemical plants, factories, consumer and commercial products, and even natural sources such as trees. Ozone and the pollutants that form ozone (precursor pollutants) can also be transported into an area from sources hundreds of miles upwind.

Since ground-level ozone needs sunlight to form, it is mainly a daytime problem during the summer months. Weather patterns have a significant effect on ozone formation and hot, dry summers will result in more ozone than cool, wet ones. In New Jersey, the ozone

Figure 1: Good and Bad Ozone

Ozone is good up here…Many popular consumer products like air conditioners and refrigerators involve CFCs or halons during either manufacturing or use. Over time, these chemicals damage the earth's protective ozone layer.

Ozone is bad down here… Cars, trucks, power plants and factories all emit air pollution that forms ground-level ozone, a primary component of smog.

Source: EPA

season runs from April 1st to October 31st, although unhealthy conditions are rare before mid-May or after the first few weeks of September. For a more complete explanation of the difference between ozone in the upper and lower atmosphere, see the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) publication "Ozone: Good Up High, Bad Nearby".

ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS

Ground-level ozone damages plant life and is responsible for 500 million dollars in reduced crop production in the United States each year. It interferes with the ability of plants to produce and store food, making them more susceptible to disease, insects, other pollutants, and harsh weather. "Bad" ozone damages the foliage of trees and other plants, sometimes marring the landscape of cities, national parks and forests, and recreation areas. The black areas on the leaves of the blackberry bush and sassafras tree shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 is damage caused by exposure to ground-level ozone. (Figure 2 and 3 Photos by: Teague Prichard, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources)

HEALTH EFFECTS

Repeated exposure to ozone pollution may cause permanent damage to the lungs. Even when ozone is present in low levels, inhaling it can trigger a variety of health problems including chest pains, coughing, nausea, throat irritation, and congestion. Ozone also can aggravate other health problems such as bronchitis, heart disease, emphysema, and asthma, and can reduce lung capacity. People with pre-existing respiratory ailments are especially prone to the effects of ozone. For example, asthmatics affected by ozone may have more frequent or severe attacks during periods when ozone levels are high. As shown in Figure 4 ozone can irritate the entire respiratory tract. Children are also at risk for ozone related problems. Their respiratory systems are still developing and they breathe more air per pound of body weight than adults. They are also generally active outdoors during the summer when ozone levels are at their highest. Anyone who spends time outdoors in the summer can be affected and studies have shown that even healthy adults can experience difficulty in breathing when exposed to ozone. Anyone engaged in strenuous outdoor activities, such as jogging, should limit activity to the early morning or late evening hours on days when ozone levels are expected to be high.

Area of the Respiratory Tract that may be Affected by Ozone

AMBIENT AIR QUALITY STANDARDS FOR OZONE

National and state air quality standards have been established for ground-level ozone. There are both primary standards, which are based on health effects, and secondary standards, which are based on welfare effects (e.g. damage to trees, crops and materials). For ground-level ozone, the primary and secondary National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) are the same (see Table 1). The ozone NAAQS were revised in 1997 because EPA had determined that the old standard of 0.12 parts per million (ppm) maximum daily one-hour average was not sufficiently protective of public health. They set a revised standard of 0.08 ppm maximum daily eight-hour average. The standard changes were challenged in court but eventually upheld. As many people are accustomed to the old standards, summary information relative to that standard will be provided in this report along with summaries based on the new standard.

OZONE NETWORK

Ozone was monitored at 15 locations in New Jersey during 2002. Of those 15 sites, 12 operated year round and 3 operated only during the ozone season (April 1st through October 31st). The location of the sites are shown in Figure 5.

Table 1 National and New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards for Ozone

DESIGN VALUES

The NAAQS for ozone are set in such a way that determining whether they are being attained is not based on a single year. For example, an area was considered to be attaining the old 1-hour average standard if the average number of times the standard was exceeded over a three-year period was 1 or less (after correcting for missing data). Thus it was the fourth highest daily maximum 1-hour concentration that occurred over a three-year period that determined if an area would be in attainment. If the fourth highest value was above 0.12 ppm then the average number of exceedances would be greater than 1. The fourth highest value is also known as the design value.

Under the new standard, attainment is determined by taking the average of the $4th$ highest daily maximum 8-hour average concentration that is recorded each year for three years. This becomes the design value for an area under the new standard. When plans are developed for reducing ozone concentrations, an area must demonstrate that the ozone reduction achieved will be sufficient to ensure the design value will be below the NAAQS, as opposed to ensuring that the standards are never exceeded. This avoids having to develop plans based on extremely rare events.

Figure 6 and 7 show the design value for the 1 and 8-hour standards starting with the 1986-1988 period. Design values are calculated for all ozone sites in the network and the median, maximum and minimum for each year were used in the graphics.

HOW THE CHANGES TO THE OZONE STANDARDS **AFFECT AIR QUALITY RATINGS**

In 2002 there were 16 days on which the old standard was exceeded in New Jersey and 44 days on which the new standard was exceeded. Significant progress was being made towards meeting the old standards (see Figure 8 below). There are fewer days on which that standard is exceeded, and when it is, fewer sites tend to be involved. Also, the maximum levels reached are not as high as they were in the past. The maximum 1-hour average concentration recorded in 1988 was 0.218 ppm, compared to a maximum of 0.153 ppm in 2002.

It is apparent, however, that the current standard is significantly more stringent than the old one (compare Figure 8 to Figure 9 below). As a result, additional control measures to reduce ozone levels will be needed. These measures will have to be implemented over a wide area and will require the cooperative effort of many states and the federal government if they are to be successful.

MAJOR OZONE EPISODES

June 20 - 26 - This was the longest uninterrupted episode of 2002, resulting in 7 consecutive days on which the 8-hour standard was exceeded.

Conditions on June 20th and 21st were not ideal for ozone formation. There was a maritime flow that resulted from high pressure settling off of Maine, and temperatures were in the 80's. Nonetheless, five sites (Rutgers University, Rider University, Flemington, Colliers Mills, and Chester) recorded 8-hour exceedances on the $20th$, with the maximum of 0.094ppm occurring at the Rutgers

University site. On the 21st, only the Flemington site exceeded the 8-hour standard with a maximum concentration of 0.089ppm. These two days of the episode may have been the result of a stagnant air mass and/or re-circulation. Also, the highpressure system over Maine originated over the Great Lakes region where it may have picked up more than normal amounts of ozone precursors. When winds shifted around to the southwest on June 22nd, ten sites exceeded the 8-hour standard. The change was brought about by a high-pressure system that settled over southern Delaware. Temperatures began to increase into the upper 80's, and within the next few days of this episode rose to the mid-90's. June $23rd$ saw nine sites exceed the 8-hour standard, while sites along the eastern portion of the state remained in the moderate range due to the cleaner southern winds coming off the ocean and bay. On June $24th$ a cold front pushed its way down through northern New Jersey / Central Pennsylvania and a major gradient can be seen throughout the state's ozone concentrations (Figure 10 to right). The site at the Ancora State Hospital recorded an 8-hour exceedance of 0.104ppm while concentrations at the Newark Lab site only reached a maximum 8-hour average of 0.048ppm. On June $25th$ the frontal boundary reached just

below Interstate Route 195 in central New Jersey in the morning and eventually retreated back north by mid-afternoon. This instability caused a wide variety of ozone values for the day, as the southern portion of the state continued to be under the influence of warm southwest winds, while the northern portion of the state, for several hours was receiving cooler, cleaner maritime air out of the north-northeast. This may explain why Bayonne, Teaneck, and the Newark Lab recorded maximum 8-hour values of 0.054ppm, 0.044ppm, and 0.041ppm respectively, while sites in the southern half of the state recorded 8-hour exceedances as high as 0.109 ppm at Clarksboro and 0.105 ppm at the Camden Lab. All together there were 8 sites throughout the state that exceeded the 8-hour standard. Only the Clarksboro site recorded levels above the 1-hour standard, with a maximum 1-hour value of 0.125 ppm. Temperatures remained warm on the $26th$, low to mid 80's, but the episode began to break up as stronger winds blanketed the state and a front finally pushed through taking the stagnant, polluted air mass off to the northeast. The Chester, Flemington, Rider University, and Rutgers University monitoring sites still recorded 8-hour exceedances on the 26th while the remaining sites stayed within the moderate range.

July 7 - 9 - This episode occurred in conjunction with elevated levels of fine particulates that were the result of extensive forest fires in Quebec, Canada. Two of the three days on which all of the state's ozone monitors recorded exceedances occurred during this episode, and although it was not lengthy, it resulted in the highest 1-hour and 8-hour concentrations of the year.

(Analysis abstracted from Dr. Bill Ryan's Summary of 2002 Ozone Season.) The intense fires located in northern Quebec began early July 5th and the first noticeable plumes began moving south. The fires died down over night and by July 6th the first plume had become detached from its source and made its way into northern New York. The flames flared up again on July 6th and a plume began to form over southern Ontario. By mid-afternoon on July 6th the original plume had made its way into southeastern

MAJOR OZONE EPISODES (CONT.)

Pennsylvania and New Jersey. By Sunday a strong cold front moved into the fire regions of northern Quebec and cutoff the southern flowing plume. At this time there were three distinct plumes affecting the northeastern United States. The first plume, by Sunday July $7th$, had made its way off the coast of the Carolinas, while the other plumes had drifted through the mid-Atlantic and New England states. A high-pressure system positioned off the Mid-Atlantic States pushed the first plume back northward, where it dissipated onshore impacting New Jersey's southern and eastern regions most directly. This swirling motion can be seen in the satellite picture in Figure 11 and is most noticeable off the southeast coast of New Jersey. Organic compounds in the fire's plume may have enhanced ozone formation during this event.

On July $7th$, two of the southern monitors - Millville and the Ancora State Hospital, recorded 8-hour exceedance values of 0.086ppm and 0.097ppm respectively. The other southern site, the Nacote Creek Research Station, recorded a maximum 8-hour concentration of 0.084ppm - just shy of the standard. July 8th was a statewide 8-hour exceedance day. Temperatures were not extremely warm, averaging in the mid to upper 80's and there was a high-pressure system off the Carolina coast pumping southwesterly breezes into the region. The Camden Lab, Clarksboro, and Colliers Mills sites recorded ozone concentrations above the 1-hour standard, and the 0.153 ppm 1-hour value recorded at Colliers Mills was the highest 1-hour value for the entire 2002 season. Colliers Mills also recorded the highest 8-hour value of the day at 0.128 ppm and Clarksboro the second highest with a 0.125 ppm 8-hour value. Similar conditions remained in place on July $9th$ and there was another statewide exceedance day of the 8-hour standard (see Figure 12). Temperatures were a bit higher on the 9th and most of the state reached the mid-90's. The maximum 8-hour concentration for the 2002 season of 0.138ppm was recorded at Colliers Mills this day, and six sites recorded exceedances of the 1 hour standard - the most for one day in 2002. The passing of a cold front that brought along cloud cover and thunderstorms broke up the episode and there were no recorded exceedances on July 10th.

July 28 - August 5 - This nine-day episode would have been the longest of the year, except for a break that occurred on July 30th when all sites stayed within the moderate range. Although July $30th$ was still a warm day with temperatures in the mid-90's, a shift in winds to the northwest-brought clean Canadian air to the region throughout the day.

On July 31st the winds continued to arrive from the northwest over most of the state and the shore regions were located on the northeastern most side of the high-pressure system that had settled in Illinois and

Figure 11

Indiana, producing winds directly out of the north. Thus, the two sites recording 8-hour exceedances that day were Monmouth University and the Ancora State Hospital, which were receiving winds that were traveling through the metropolitan New York region. The winds produced on the southeast side of the high, which by August 1st had moved into Ontario, is now exposing most of New

MAJOR OZONE EPISODES (CONT.)

Jersey to metropolitan New York air. Although this is not the traditional setup for producing ozone exceedances it has proven to cause high concentrations in our southern most monitors as the air travels from New York, through the Route 1 corridor on into the southern region of the state. August 1st produced six 8-hour exceedances with Colliers Mills and Millville recording the highest 8hour values of the day with 0.114ppm and 0.107ppm respectively. Both sites also exceeded the 1-hour standard that day. By August 2nd another high-pressure system settled off of the North Carolina coast and introduced south-southwest winds into New Jersey by mid-morning. So, the dirty air that had moved from northeast to southwest the previous two days was now once again moving back through the region from the opposite direction. This air parcel had become dirtier as it passed over the Baltimore-Washington corridor on its way back up through New Jersey. Add in temperatures in the upper 90's, and 11 sites exceeded the 8 hour standard with the maximum at Camden of 0.116ppm. Camden also recorded a 1-hour exceedance value of 0.133 ppm on August 2nd. The high moved further off the Carolina coast and pushed north, setting up winds from the south across the eastern part of the state, while the high-pressure system located over the Great Lakes influenced the western part of New Jersey. This explains the variations in ozone concentrations for the day with the western sites such as the Camden Lab, Chester, and Flemington recording 8-hour exceedances while the sites under the influence of maritime flow over the Delaware Bay (Ancora State Hospital, Millvile, Nacote Creek Research Station) stayed well within the moderate range. Nacote Creek Research Station recorded a maximum 8-hour concentration of just 0.060 ppm while the highest 8-hour maximum value of 0.096ppm was produced at the Camden Lab, as northwesterly winds flowing over the metropolitan Philadelphia region affected that site. August 4th was yet another day of variability across New Jersey as 1-hour exceedances were recorded at the Rider University and Rutgers University sites and nearly at the Camden Lab. These high concentrations were the result of a stationary cold front that stalled northwest of Philadelphia and helped produce 1-hour exceedances all along the I-95 corridor from Washington, D.C. to New York City. August $5th$ is the last day of the episode and as a result of a passing cold front just three sites in New Jersey exceeded the 8-hour standard, with Clarksboro and Millville just reaching the 0.085ppm standard. The site at the Ancora State Hospital recorded the highest 8 hour value with 0.094 ppm. The cloud cover associated with the passing cold front blanketed the state, leaving just a small clearing in the southern portion of the state, coinciding with the sites that recorded the exceedances for August $5th$. The cold front makes its way through the region by August 6th bringing with it strong northerly winds and scattered showers. The maximum 8-hour value for August $6th$ was 0.037ppm - an significant deviation from the previous week's ozone values. **Figure 13**

August 10 -14 - This episode produced the 3rd of the statewide exceedance days, where all 15 monitors exceeded the 8-hour standard.

August 12^{th} , 13^{th} , & 14^{th} produced 1-hour exceedances at four sites on each day. On August 10th the episode begins when a high-pressure system over West Virginia produced light southwest winds throughout New Jersey and exceedances along the Route 1 corridor. Rider University recorded a 1-hour exceedance of 0.126 ppm, just above the 1-hour standard. Rutgers University and Flemington recorded the highest ozone concentrations of the eight sites that exceeded the 8 hour standard. The high dropped south into South Carolina and the southwest winds continued across the state on August 11th. Although maximum temperatures barely made it into the 90's, the skies over most of the state were very clear allowing maximum solar intensity. The dew points at Philadelphia International Airport were in the mid-60's on August $11th$, unusually low for this time of year. Nine sites across New Jersey exceeded the 8-hour standard, with the maximum concentrations falling along the Route 1 corridor. Rider University recorded the maximum 8-hour value of the day with a 0.110 ppm.

MAJOR OZONE EPISODES (CONT.)

August 12th brought competing high-pressure systems throughout the region. The high that had been influencing the region moved off the coast of Georgia while another high pressure system settled into the West Virginia area. The result was a strong westerly influence compounded by the existing southwest winds. Clear skies and temperatures in the mid 90's produced 8-hour exceedances at 11 sites throughout the state. The two northerly sites that did not exceed the 8-hour standard were Bayonne and the Newark Lab and is mostly likely a result of local NOx scavenging. The other two sites not exceeding the standard were Monmouth University and the Nacote Creek Research Station, likely resulting from a sea breeze influence. Four sites also exceeded the 1-hour standard; Teaneck, Rider University, the Camden Lab, and Colliers Mills. On August 13th all of the state's monitoring sites recorded exceedances of the 8-hour standard (see Figure 13, page 8). Winds throughout the region were still coming out of the southwest, but were very calm. Temperatures throughout the state were in the mid to upper 90's and clear skies again promoted maximum solar intensity. Four sites exceeded the 1-hour standard; the Camden Lab, Clarksboro, Colliers Mills, and Teaneck as high ozone values were recorded from Raleigh, North Carolina, up into the coastal regions of Maine. August 14th produced four more 1-hour exceedances - the $4th$ day in a row - and 11 exceedances of the 8-hour standard. This episode begins to unwind as some of the coastal sites receive relief in the form of a sea breeze. The Nacote Creek Research Station, Monmouth University, and Bayonne did not exceed the 8-hour standard on August $14th$, while the remainder of the sites still under the southwest flow, produce 8-hour exceedances as high as 0.123ppm at Chester.

This episode ends in a very different manner than the standard high ozone episode. Instead of the passage of a sharp cold front, this episode ends gradually as cleaner air sweeps north, wind speeds increase and the atmosphere steadily destabilizes. On August 15th, concentrations fall across the region as low level flow becomes more southeast and the Bermuda high fills in westward. Cloud cover spreads over the region on August 16th with regional ozone falling further. (Ryan, 2003)

SUMMARY OF 2002 Ozone Data Relative to the 1-HOUR STANDARD

standard of 0.12 ppm at least once during the year. Seven sites had at least two exceedances while the Camden Lab and Of the 15 monitoring sites that were operated during the 2002 ozone season, 13 recorded levels above the old 1-hour Colliers Mills recorded the most exceedances with seven. The highest 1-hour concentration was 0.153 ppm at the Colliers Mills site on July 8, 2002. In the 2001 ozone season there were nine sites that recorded levels above the standard and the maximum was 0.145 ppm, recorded at Rider University.

Figure 14 Highest and Second Highest Daily 1-Hour Averages

Table 3 Ozone Data – 2002 1-Hour Averages

¹ Design Value calculations exclude data affected by the July 2002 Canadian forest fire episode

SUMMARY OF 2002 OZONE DATA RELATIVE TO THE 8-HOUR STANDARD

All of the 15 monitoring sites that were operated during the 2002 ozone season recorded levels above the new 8-hour standard of 0.08 ppm. Colliers Mills recorded the most exceedances with 30. The highest 8-hour concentration recorded was 0.138 ppm at the Colliers Mills site on July 9, 2002. All sites recorded levels above the 8-hour standard in 2001 as well, with a maximum concentration of 0.121 ppm, recorded at the Colliers Mills site. Design values for the 8-hour standard were also above the standard at all sites, indicating that the ozone standard is being violated throughout New Jersey.

Table 4 Ozone Data – 2002 8-Hour Averages

 $^{\rm 1}$ Design Value calculations exclude data affected by the July 2002 Canadian forest fire episode
² Data not available prior to Aug. 6, 2001

ACCOUNTING FOR THE INFLUENCE OF WEATHER

Trends in ground level ozone are influenced by many factors including weather conditions, transport, growth, and the state of the economy, in addition to changes brought about by regulatory control measures. Of these factors, weather probably has the most profound effect on year to year variations in ozone levels. Several methods have been developed to try to account for the effect of weather on ozone levels so that the change due to emissions could be isolated. While none of these methods are completely successful they do show that over the long term, real reductions in ozone levels have been achieved. A simple way of

showing the changing effect of weather on ozone is shown above in Figure 16. The number of days each year on which the ambient temperature was 90 degrees or greater is shown next to the number of days the ozone standard was exceeded. In the earliest years shown (1981-1985) there are significantly more days with high ozone than days above 90 degrees. But this pattern gradually changes and for the most recent years there are more "hot" days than "ozone" days. This is an indication that on the days when conditions are suitable for ozone formation, unhealthy levels are being reached less frequently.

OZONE NON-ATTAINMENT AREAS IN NEW JERSEY

The Clean Air Act requires that all areas of the country be evaluated and then classified as attainment or non-attainment areas for each of the National Ambient Air Quality Standards. Areas can also be found to be "unclassifiable" under certain circumstances. The 1990 amendments to the act required that areas be further classified based on the severity of nonattainment. The classifications range from "marginal" to "extreme" and are based on "design values". The design value is the value that actually determines whether an area meets the standard. For the 1-hour ozone standard for example, the design value is the fourth highest daily maximum 1-hour average concentration recorded over a three year period. Note that these classifications did not take into account the transport of ozone and its precursors and missed the concept of multi-state controls.

New Jersey is part of four planning areas, the New York, Philadelphia, Atlantic City and Allentown/Bethlehem areas. Their classification with respect to the old 1-hour standard is shown on the map in Figure 17. Now that the new 8-hour average standard for ozone has been upheld by the courts, new designations will have to be made.

OZONE TRENDS

The primary focus of efforts to reduce concentrations of ground-level ozone in New Jersey has been on reducing emissions of volatile organic compounds (VOCs). Studies have shown that such an approach should lower peak ozone concentrations, and it does appear to have been effective in achieving that goal. Maximum 1-hour concentrations have not exceeded 0.20 ppm since 1988 and the last time levels above 0.18 ppm were recorded was in 1990 in Figure 18. But improvements may have leveled off in recent years, especially with respect to maximum 8-hour average concentrations. Significant further improvements will require reductions in both VOCs and NOx. The NOx reductions will have to be achieved over a very large region of the country because levels in New Jersey are dependent on emissions from upwind sources.

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2002 PHOTOCHEMICAL ASSESSMENT MONITORING STATIONS (PAMS)

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

PHOTOCHEMICAL ASSESSMENT MONITORING STATIONS (PAMS)

Most ground-level ozone is the result of oxides of nitrogen (NOx) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) reacting in the presence of sunlight. As a result, it is necessary to measure these ozone forming pollutants, also known as precursor pollutants, to effectively evaluate strategies for reducing ozone levels. The Photochemical Assessment Monitoring Stations (PAMS) network was established for this purpose. Data from the PAMS network is used to better characterize the nature and extent of the O_3 problem, track VOC and NOx emission inventory reductions, assess air quality trends, and make attainment/nonattainment decisions. PAMS monitor both criteria and non-criteria pollutants including ozone (O₃), oxides of nitrogen (NOx), nitric oxide (NO), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), and specific VOCs, including several carbonyls, that are important in ozone formation. In addition, the measurement of specific weather parameters (e.g. Wind speed/direction, temperature) is required at all PAMS, and upper air weather measurements are required in certain areas. The VOC and carbonyl measurements are only taken during the peak part of the ozone season, from June $1st$ to August $31st$ each year.

The PAMS network is designed around metropolitan areas where ozone is a significant problem, and each site in the network has a specific purpose as shown in the Figure 1 below. New Jersey is part of the Philadelphia and New York Metropolitan areas and has a total of three PAMS sites. A Type 3 maximum ozone site for the Philadelphia area is located at Rider University in Mercer County, a Type 2 maximum emissions site is located downwind of the Philadelphia Metropolitan urban area in Camden, and a site at Rutgers Universtiy in New Brunswick has been designated both a PAMS Type 1 upwind site for the New York urban area, as well as a Type 4 downwind site for the Philadelphia Metropolitan urban area. An upper air weather monitoring station is also located at the Rutgers University site. All of the PAMS sites for the Philadelphia and New York City areas are shown in Figure 2.

5 USEPA , PAMS General Information

Note: Rutgers University PAMS site is both Type 4 for Philadelphia and Type 1 for New York City.

PAMS (CONT.)

The theory behind the locations chosen for these sites is that with regard to ozone precursors, the Type 2 sites should be located so as to be directly impacted by emissions from the urban area. The other sites will show ozone precursor levels that are the result of transport into or out of the urban area. These levels are diminished by chemical reactions and enhanced by inputs from sources along the transport pathway, as well as being affected by local sources near the sites. Figure 3 shows VOC trends for the PAMS sites in the Philadelphia area. Relative levels of precursors are pretty much what might be expected based on the site Type, with levels being lower upwind of the urban area, highest in the urban area, and declining with distance downwind of the urban center. The trends over time show that at Lums Pond (upwind - Type 1), Rider University (maximum ozone concentration - Type 3) and Rutgers University (downwind - Type 4), VOCs have declined over the measurement period. The declines in ozone precursor levels were initially more steep, with more level, though still declining concentrations, over the last several years. The maximum emissions impact , ie., Type 2 sites (Camden and East Lycoming) for this area show a somewhat more complicated trend. For the Camden site, which is located at the site of maximum precursor level based on the second most predominant wind direction, the levels are lower than for the East Lycoming site. The concentrations seem to show a more steady declining trend similar to the other sites already discussed. This might be expected since these are seasonal average values, and over the course of a season this site is not downwind of the urban center as often as is the East Lycoming site. This site would also be expected to show variability more like the non-urban center sites, since the factors that influence the precursor levels at Camden are usually more similar to those sites. The East Lycoming site on the other hand, is located in the predominant downwind direction, and hence when considering average values, will be most impacted by the urban area. Urban areas have many ozone precursor point source emitters, while the other sites, particularly in the summer months, are largely impacted by transportation related sources as well as transport from the urban area. As might be expected then, the East Lycoming data shows the most year to year variation due to the variety of sources that impact it.

Figure 3 Philadelphia Region Total Non-methane Organic Carbon (TNMOC)

PAMS (cont.)

Figure 4 shows VOC trends for the PAMS sites in the New York City metropolitan area. The Queens Community College site ceased operations after the 2001 season. In general, observations here are similar to those for the Philadelphia area. Relative levels of precursors are what might be expected, with the sites most impacted by the urban area having the highest levels. The Bronx Botanical Garden site, located in the most predominant downwind direction, has the highest levels and the greatest variability. The Queens Community College site, located in the second most predominant morning downwind directions, shows lower and less variable precursor levels, much like the Philadelphia region's Camden site. The Rutgers University and Sherwood Island State Park sites show relative levels and trends similar to the Type 1 and Type 3 sites in the Philadelphia region.

In conclusion, VOC values measured at nearly all PAMS sites in the Philadelphia and New York City areas declined during the time period these measurements were made. Changes in gasoline formulation over the period as well as the effect of newer, cleaner vehicles replacing older vehicles in the automotive fleet likely account for at least some of the reductions. Type 2 sites, though impacted by vehicle emissions, are also affected by urban stationary sources whose year to year variability and emission trends over the measurement period are less clear. All sites are also impacted by naturally occurring isoprene, which is emitted by trees. All VOCs are not equal in their contribution to ozone formation and while isoprene levels are generally lower than many other VOCs, its ozone forming potential is one of the highest, and isoprene might account for a significant amount of the ozone forming potential, especially at the non-urban sites. Isoprene levels are thought to be influenced by factors that affect tree health and growth, such as rainfall and severe temperatures.

Summaries of results for all the VOCs and carbonyls measured at the New Jersey PAMS sites are provided in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1

Summary of Photochemical Assessment Monitoring (PAMS) Data June, July, and August, 2002

Parts Per Billion (Volume) – ppbv Parts Per Billion (Carbon) – ppbC Max – Maximum Avg - Average

Table 1 (Continued) Summary of Photochemical Assessment Monitoring (PAMS) Data June, July, and August, 2002

Table 2

Camden Lab PAMS Carbonyls

June, July, and August, 2002

Parts Per Billion (Volume)

28 Sampling Dates (224 Observations)

* The number of samples, out of a possible 224, in which the compound was detected.

2002 Particulate Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

NATURE AND SOURCES

Particulate air pollution consists of both solid particles and liquid droplets suspended in the atmosphere. Suspended particles can range in size from 70 microns in diameter, approximately the size of a pinhead, to less than 1 micron in diameter. Particles can be directly emitted, or they can form in the atmosphere from gaseous emissions, such as sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) . Particles that originate as gases are referred to as secondary particulates.

Particulate matter is generally categorized according to the size of the particles. Coarse particles are defined as particles greater than 2.5 microns in diameter, while particles less than 2.5 microns in diameter are referred to as fine particles (PM2.5) (See Figure 1). Coarse particles are further subdivided into Total Suspended Particulates (TSP), which include all but the largest particles, and $PM₁₀$, which include particles less than 10 microns in diameter. The human respiratory tract will usually trap particles above about 10 microns in diameter before they reach the lungs. Particles smaller than 10 microns (PM_{10}) are inhalable and are considered to be more harmful to human health than larger particles; fine particles are considered to be even more harmful as they can reach the deep recesses of the lungs.

Graphics Courtesy of the US Department of Energy

Both fine and coarse particles have anthropogenic, or manmade, as well as natural sources. Anthropogenic sources of coarse particles include industrial processes such as grinding operations, while anthropogenic sources of fine particles include soot from fuel combustion, and secondary particle formation from organic compounds, biomass burning, and emissions of sulfur dioxide $(SO₂)$ and oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) . Natural sources of coarse particles include windblown dust, sea salt, and biological debris; and natural sources of fine particles include biogenic gases, which result in the formation of secondary particles.

ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS

In addition to health effects, particulate matter is the major cause of reduced visibility in many parts of the United States. Figure 2 provides an example of reduced visibility recorded by our WebCam site in Newark (accessible via the Internet at www.state.nj.us/dep/airmon). Airborne particles can also impact vegetation and aquatic ecosystems, and can cause damage to paints and building materials. More information is provided in the Regional Haze section of this report.

> **Figure 2 Visibility WebCam**

HEALTH EFFECTS

Inhalable particles (PM_{10}) and especially fine particles (PM2.5) are a health concern because they easily reach the deepest recesses of the lungs. Various health problems are associated with both long and short-term exposures. When inhaled, these particles can accumulate in the respiratory system and are associated with increased hospital admissions and emergency room visits for heart and lung conditions, such as asthma, bronchitis, cardiac arrhythmias, heart attacks, and even premature death. Groups that appear to be at the greatest risk from particulates include children, the elderly, and individuals with heart and lung diseases, such as asthma (*US EPA, 2001).*

STANDARDS

In 1971, EPA set primary (health based) and secondary (welfare based) standards for total suspended particulate matter (TSP). These standards, known as the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS), were based on maximum 24-hour and annual concentrations (*US EPA, 1997)*. The annual standards were based on the geometric mean concentrations over a calendar year, and the 24-hour standards were based on the arithmetic average concentration from midnight to midnight. The primary 24 hour average standard for TSP was set at 260 micrograms per cubic meter (μ g/m³) and the annual geometric mean health standard was set at 75 μ g/m³. The 24-hour secondary standard was set at 150 μ g/m³. While EPA did

not establish a secondary annual standard for TSP they did set a quideline of 60 μ g/m³ to be used to ensure that the secondary 24-hour standard was being met throughout the year. Although New Jersey still maintains state standards for TSP, the national standards have been replaced with standards for smaller particles as described below. As a result, monitoring for TSP has largely been discontinued, with the exception of one station, where TSP samples are taken to analyze for lead (Pb). See the Lead Summary section for more details.

In 1987, EPA replaced the TSP standards with standards that focused only on inhalable particles. Inhalable particles are defined as particles less than 10 microns in diameter (PM₁₀). The 24-hour PM₁₀ primary and secondary standards were set at 150 μ g/m 3 , and the annual primary and secondary standards were set at 50 μg/m³. The annual standard for PM₁₀ is based on the arithmethic mean, as opposed to the geometric mean that was used for TSP.

In 1997, EPA promulgated new standards for fine particulates, which it defined as particles less than 2.5 microns in diameter ($PM_{2.5}$). They kept the existing standards for PM_{10} as well. The $PM_{2.5}$ annual primary and secondary standards were set at 15 μ g/m 3 and the 24-hour standard was set at 65 μ g/m³. Table 1 provides a summary of the Particulate Matter standards.

‡ Annual Geometric Mean

† Annual Arithmetic Mean

PARTICULATE MONITORING **NETWORK**

New Jersey's Particulate Monitoring Network consists of 20 fine particulate monitoring sites, 8 PM_{10} monitoring sites, 1 TSP monitoring site, and 11 sites where smoke shade is monitored.

At some of these sites, samplers that comply with strict EPA specifications are used for collecting data that are submitted to a national database maintained by the EPA. These filter-based samplers, which are approved by the EPA and known as Federal Reference Method (FRM) samplers, collect particles on a filter over a 24-hour period. The filters are subsequently weighed under controlled environmental conditions. The data from the FRM samplers are used by the NJDEP and EPA to determine whether the state, or portions of the state, meet the federal health and welfare particulate standards. Because the FRM samplers do not provide data in real time, the NJDEP employs additional samplers that continuously measure particulate concentrations. These samplers are used by the NJDEP to report current air

quality to the public through the Air Quality Index (www.state.nj.us/dep/airmon). The NJDEP uses Tapered Element Oscillating Microbalance (TEOM) analyzers and smoke shade instruments for real-time particle reporting. The TEOM analyzers collect a sample of fine particles on an oscillating filter, and determine the concentration based on the change in the frequency at which the filter oscillates. Smoke shade instruments collect a sample of particles on a paper tape for one hour. At the end of each hour the amount of light that will pass through the spot that has formed on the tape is measured, the tape advanced, and the cycle started over. The amount of light transmittance measured is used as an estimate of actual particle concentrations.

FINE PARTICLE SUMMARY

FINE PARTICLE MONITORING SITES

There are 20 monitoring sites in New Jersey where an FRM, collects a PM2.5 24-hour sample (see Figure 3)**.** At 5 sites, continuous particulate monitors measure the

concentration of fine particles every minute and transmit the data to the Bureau of Air Monitoring's central computer, where it is made available on the Bureau's Public Website www.state.nj.us/dep/airmon). Additionally, at four of these locations a separate sampler collects fine particles on three types of filter media which are subsequently analyzed using ion chromatography (IC), X-ray fluorescence (XRF), and Thermal Optical Analysis (TOA) to determine the concentrations of the chemical analytes that constitute the sample.

FINE PARTICLE CONCENTRATION SUMMARY

The annual mean concentration of PM_{2.5} ranged from 11.1 μg/m 3 in Chester to 15.1 μg/m 3 at Elizabeth Lab. Each site recorded its maximum 24-hour concentration on July 7th during the forest fire episode, with the exception of the Union City and Elizabeth (Mitchell) site, which did not record a reading on that date. During this episode, fine particle concentrations ranged from 66.0 μ g/m³ in Washington Crossing State Park to 106.7 μ g/m³ in Atlantic City. Due to the rare nature of this event, the concentrations during this

episode were flagged as being affected by an exceptional event, and are not used in the planning process. More information on the forest fire episode is presented later in this section. Excluding this event, maximum 24-hour concentrations ranged from 37.2 μ g/m³ at Fort Lee to 59.0 μ g/m³ at Elizabeth Lab. Figure 4 and Table 2 depict the mean and maximum concentrations at each site.

Three years of data are required to determine compliance with the NAAQS for $PM_{2.5}$. NJDEP will be evaluating PM2.5 data collected to date in making its final determination as to whether the annual NAAQS are being met.

Figure 4 2002 Fine-Particulate Concentrations

Particulate 4

Table 2 PM2.5 Summary Data – 2002

† Annual average includes forest fire event

a
Indicates site did not run during the forest fire episode

b
Indicates site did not run during the forest fire episode; and data was unavailable March 15 through December 31

PM2.5 REAL-TIME MONITORING

New Jersey's continuous PM2.5 monitoring network consists of 5 sites: Camden Lab, Elizabeth Lab, Fort Lee, New Brunswick, and Newark Lab. The data is transmitted once a minute to a central computer in Trenton, where it is averaged and automatically updated on the bureau's website every hour. Table 3 provides a summary of the data from these sites and Figure 5 depicts the health level associated with the maximum daily fine particulate concentration recorded in the state each day for the entire year.

Table 3 2002 Summary of Continuous PM2.5 Data

Concentration in Micrograms Per Cubic Meter (μ**g/m3)**

^a Data unavailable June 30th through August 30th

Figure 5 Maximum Daily Fine Particulate Air Quality Index (AQI)
FINE PARTICLE SPECIATION SUMMARY

New Jerseys Fine Particulate Speciation Network consists of 4 monitoring sites: Camden Lab, Elizabeth Lab, New Brunswick, and Chester. Samplers run every third day on a schedule concurrent with the FRM sampling network. Of the 55 measured analytes, organic carbon and sulfate combined make up over 60% of the total mass, and nitrate, ammonium, and elemental carbon make up an additional 38% (98% total) of the particulate mass. Figure 6 shows the average concentration of each analyte, with only the eight most prevalent constituents depicted. Appendix B shows the average, maximum, and 2^{nd} highest concentrations for each compound for 2002.

Figure 6 2002 - Average Fine Particle Analyte Concentrations (Highest 7 Analytes at Each Site)

2002 COARSE PARTICLE SUMMARY

COARSE PARTICLE MONITORING SITES

The coarse particulate monitoring network is composed of PM₁₀ sampling sites and TSP sampling sites. Samples are collected on a filter, which is weighed before and after sampling. The amounts of Sulfate and Nitrate are measured on some PM₁₀ samples and Lead is measured on the TSP samples. Figure 7 depicts the PM_{10} particulate monitoring network in New Jersey.

Figure 7 2002 PM10 Monitoring Network

TSP CONCENTRATION SUMMARY

New Jersey currently operates one site, located in New Brunswick, mainly for the purpose of determining the concentration of lead in the atmosphere. For more information, see the 2002 Lead Summary section. In 2002, the annual geometric mean concentration of TSP in New Brunswick was 28.1 μ g/m³, and the maximum 24-hour concentration recorded was 139 μ g/m³. The site was in attainment for the primary and secondary annual TSP standards of 75 μ g/m³ and 60 μ g/m³ respectively, and the site did not surpass the 24-hour primary standard of 260 μg/m³ or the 150 μg/m³ secondary standard.

PM₁₀ CONCENTRATION SUMMARY

In 2002, the annual mean concentration of PM_{10} ranged from 21.4 μg/m³ at Trenton to 36.8 μg/m³ at Camden RRF. Table 4 and Figure 8 show the annual mean and 24-hour maximum PM₁₀ concentrations throughout the state. All areas of the state are in attainment for the annual PM_{10} standard of 50 μ g/m³, and no sites surpassed the 24-hour standard of 150 μ g/m³.

Table 4 PM10 Data-2002 24-Hour and Annual Averages

Micrograms Per Cubic Meter $(\mu g/m^3)$ 24-Hour Standard = $150 \mu g/m^3$ Annual Standard = $50 \mu q/m^3$

Annual average includes forest fire event

There was no sample during the forest fire event

 b Data unavailable June 30th through August 30th (no sample during forest fire)

Figure 8

The concentration of Sulfates and Nitrates were also analyzed **Monitoring Network** on some PM₁₀ filters. The results showed that, on average, about 2% percent of PM_{10} is nitrate and about between 11% and 15% percent is sulfate. The contributions of sulfate and nitrate to PM₁₀ are significantly less than their contributions to $PM_{2.5}$. This is because $PM₁₀$ is predominantly made up of larger particles most of which are directly emitted into the atmosphere. PM2.5 is predominantly a secondary pollutant, forming in the atmosphere from gaseous emissions, such as $SO₂$ and NOx. For more details on the PM₁₀ sulfate and nitrate results, see the section on atmospheric deposition.

SMOKE SHADE SUMMARY

SMOKE SHADE MONITORING SITES

In addition to fine and coarse particulate monitoring, smoke shade is also monitored at 11 stations around the state. Smoke shade, which is an indirect measurement of particles in the atmosphere, has been monitored in New Jersey for over 30 years. Smoke shade is primarily used for the daily reporting of particulate levels in the Air Quality Index. The sites monitoring smoke shade are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9 2002 Smoke Shade

SMOKE SHADE CONCENTRATION SUMMARY

In 2002, the annual mean concentration of smoke shade ranged from 0.14 Coefficient of Haze units (COH) at Flemington to 0.64 COH at Elizabeth Lab. COH are units of light transmittance and smoke shade is not a direct measure of particle mass. A 24-hour average level of 2.0 COH is used as a benchmark. Readings above the 2.0 COH benchmark are reported as Unhealthy for Sensitive Groups on the daily Air Quality Index. For more details see the Air Quality Index section of this report. Table 5 lists the maximum and second highest daily average and annual mean smoke shade levels recorded at the monitoring sites in 2002.

Table 5 Smoke Shade - 2002

Coefficient of Haze (COHs)

^a There was no sampling during the forest fire event **b** Insufficient data

Figure 10 Speciated PM2.5 Particles at Camden Lab New Jersey 7/7/02

CANADIAN FOREST FIRE EPISODE

A July 2nd lightning storm ignited as many as 85 separate fires in 2 areas southeast of James Bay in Quebec, Canada. The fires were in a region approximately 200-400 miles north of the U.S. border, and destroyed more than 250,000 acres of forest. Ten of the fires burned out of control for days. On July 7th, 2002 northwesterly winds carried the plume of smoke over parts of the Northeast United States, including New Jersey, prompting health advisories. The smoke plume reached as far south as Washington D.C.

During this episode New Jersey recorded its highest PM_{2.5} concentrations on record, with the highest concentrations being reported in the Southern Delaware Valley and Southern Coastal regions. The highest FRM reading was recorded in Atlantic City, which recorded a 24-hour concentration of 106.7 μ g/m³. The 1-hour average TEOM levels reached as high as 159 μ g/m 3 at the Camden Lab. As expected, Organic Carbon was the most prevalent compound, contributing between 86% and 89% of the PM2.5 particle mass. Typically organic carbon makes up between 34% and 36% of the total PM2.5 particulate mass (Figure 10 & Figure 11).

Particulate 10

Figure 12 depicts the average hourly particulate concentrations, illustrating the duration and intensity of the particulate concentrations during this episode.

In the southern and central sections of the state fine particle levels remained at an unhealthy level the following day. Camden Lab recorded a 24-hour average TEOM concentration of 90 μ g/m³, while New Brunswick recorded a 24-hour average of 65 μ g/m³. TEOM readings at Elizabeth Lab and Newark Lab were slightly below 65 μ g/m³, the cutoff level for unhealthy particle concentrations. On July $9th$, changing winds cleared out the remaining smoke and the particulate levels returned to more normal summertime concentrations.

Figure 12 Hourly PM2.5 Data from Forest Fire Episode (7/6/02-7/9/02)

TRENDS IN PARTICULATE CONCENTRATIONS

The longest continuously operating particle monitoring network in the state that is suitable for looking at trends is the smoke shade network. As noted earlier, this monitoring program has been in effect for over thirty years and still has 11 active sites. The trend graph for smoke shade, shown in Figure 13 indicates that particulate levels have steadily declined over the past thirty years. Smoke shade is not a direct measurement of particle mass, but can be related to TSP, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} health standards.

Year

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2002 Sulfur Dioxide Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

NATURE AND SOURCES

Sulfur dioxide $(SO₂)$ is a heavy, colorless gas with a suffocating odor that easily dissolves in water to form sulfuric acid. $SO₂$ gases can be formed when fuel containing sulfur is burned, or when gasoline is extracted from oil. Most of the sulfur dioxide released into the air comes from electric utilities, especially those that burn coal with a high sulfur content. Sulfur is found in raw materials such as crude oil, coal, and ores that contain metals such as aluminum, copper, zinc, lead and iron. Industrial facilities that derive their products from these materials may also release $SO₂$. A pie chart summarizing the major sources of $SO₂$ is shown in Figure 1.

^a - sums do not equal 100 due to rounding Source: USEPA National Air Quality Emissions Trends Report, 2003 Special Studies, September 2003

SO2 concentrations in New Jersey are generally higher in the winter than in the summer due to higher emissions from space heating and other sources. This is shown in the chart depicted in Figure 2 (page 2). The chart also shows that $SO₂$ levels tend to peak in the morning as emissions accumulate prior to being more effectively dispersed when wind speeds increase and atmospheric mixing increases later in the day.

HEALTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL **EFFECTS**

Sulfur dioxide causes irritation of the mucous membranes. This is probably the result of the action of sulfurous acid that is formed when the highly soluble $SO₂$ dissolves at the surface of the membranes. Groups that are especially susceptible to the harmful health effects of SO₂ include children, the elderly, and people with heart or lung disorders such as asthma. When $SO₂$ concentrations in the air become elevated, people belonging to these sensitive groups and those who are active outdoors may have trouble breathing. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) evaluated SO₂ and based on available information, determined that no conclusion can be made as to the carcinogenicity of $SO₂$ to human beings.

Sulfur dioxide reacts with other gases and particles in the air to form sulfates that can be harmful to people and the environment. Sulfate particles are the major cause of reduced visibility in the eastern United States. SO₂ can also react with other substances in the air to form acids, which fall to the earth in rain and snow. Acid rain damages forests and crops, can make lakes and streams too acidic for fish, and speeds up the decay of building materials and paints.

STANDARDS

There are three National Ambient Air Quality Standards ($NAAGS$) for $SO₂$. There is an annual average health standard of 0.030 parts per million (ppm). This is based on a calendar year average of continuously monitored levels. There is also a 24-hour average health based standard of 0.14 ppm which is not to be exceeded more than once a year, and a secondary (welfare based) standard of 0.5 ppm, 3-hour average concentration that is also not to exceeded more than once per year.

New Jersey has also set state air quality standards for SO2. They are similar to the federal standards but are expressed in micrograms per cubic meter (μ g/m³) instead of ppm. They are also based on rolling averages rather than block averages. So, for example, the state's primary 12-month standard is based on any twelve-month average recorded during the year, while the federal standard is based solely on the calendar

year average. The state also has secondary 12-month, 24-hour, and 3-hour average standards. Table 1 summarizes the NAAQS and the New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards (NJAAQS) for SO₂.

Table 1 National and New Jersey Ambient Air Quality Standards for Sulfur Dioxide

Parts Per Million (ppm)

^a – National standards are block averages rather than moving averages

MONITORING LOCATIONS

The state monitored $SO₂$ levels at 15 locations in 2002. These sites are shown in the map in Figure 3. The Somers Point site was discontinued on March 6, 2002. Consequently, a valid 2002 annual average could not be calculated for this site.

SO₂ LEVELS IN 2002

None of the monitoring sites recorded exceedances of the primary or secondary $SO₂$ standards during 2002. The maximum annual average concentration recorded was 0.009 ppm at Exit 13 of the New Jersey Turnpike at Elizabeth Lab. The maximum 24-hour average level recorded was 0.037 ppm which was recorded in Jersey City. The highest 3-hour average recorded was 0.092 ppm also at the Exit 13 site at Elizabeth Lab. Summaries of the 2002 data are provided in Table 2, Table 3 (page 4) and Figure 4 (page 4).

Table 2 Sulfur Dioxide Data – 2002 3-Hour and Annual Averages

Parts Per Million (ppm)

^d – Data not available after March 2002

Table 3 Sulfur Dioxide Data – 2002 24-Hour and Daily Averages

Parts Per Million (ppm)

^d - Data not available after March 2002

TRENDS

Since the implementation of regulations requiring the use of low sulfur fuels in New Jersey, $SO₂$ concentrations have improved significantly. The last time an exceedance of any of the National $SO₂$ standards was recorded in the state was in 1980. A trend graph of $SO₂$ levels showing the highest, lowest and average of the daily average concentrations recorded is presented in Figure 5. The graph uses the second highest daily value, as this is the value that determines if the national health standard is being met

(one exceedance per site is allowed each year).

Although there has not been a measured exceedance of the NAAQS in over two decades, there is still a small area of New Jersey that is classified as a non-attainment area for $SO₂$. This is the result of air quality modeling studies that predicted non-attainment of the standard within a small area of Warren County. The area is shown in the map in Figure 6 (page 6).

Sulfur Dioxide Nonattainment Area (includes Belvidere Town; Harmony Township; Oxford Township; White Township; the portion of Liberty Township south of UTM northing 4,255,000 and west of UTM easting 505,000; and the portion of Mansfield Township west of UTM easting 505,000).

*Nonattainment of the National Primary (Health) and Secondary (Welfare) Standards

FIVE MINUTE AVERAGE SO₂ **MONITORING**

A 1992 court decision compelled the USEPA to review, and if appropriate, revise the NAAQS for SO₂. After soliciting comments from the public and evaluating several options, the USEPA determined that high short-term $SO₂$ concentrations are a local problem rather than a widespread national concern. The USEPA Administrator decided in May 1996 not to revise the NAAQS for SO₂, but concluded that in some local areas, 5 -minute $SO₂$ concentrations greater than 0.6 ppm pose a health threat to sensitive persons. In January 1997, the USEPA published proposed revisions to the regulations that would establish "concern and intervention levels (IL)." This IL would have a lower range of 0.6 ppm and an upper range of 2.0 ppm of $SO₂$. These levels are based on a 5-minute $SO₂$ concentration that is the highest of the 5-minute averages from the 12 possible non-overlapping periods during a clock hour. Under the proposed regulations, the USEPA would leave the responsibility of assessing the health risk and implementing corrective measures to the States. Also, the USEPA recommended that States evaluate the need to monitor 5-minute $SO₂$ averages around sources based on citizen complaints, the actual emissions of a source, the population in the vicinity of the source, and environmental justice issues.

The USEPA published a draft "Guideline Document for Ambient Monitoring of 5-Minute SO₂ Concentrations" on July 20, 2000. This guidance is intended to assist State and local agencies in determining whether 5 -minute $SO₂$ monitoring should be established in their jurisdictions, and how to redesign an existing $SO₂$ network to fulfill these additional needs.

In October 2002, an air monitoring project was established in Warren County, New Jersey to evaluate the feasibility of monitoring 5 -minute $SO₂$ concentrations in the vicinity of local point source. This is the first time since the publication of USEPA's draft "Guideline Document for Ambient Monitoring of 5-Minute $SO₂$ Concentrations" that $SO₂$ concentrations anywhere in New Jersey are being directly compared to the 5-minute SO₂ guideline IL. Warren County was selected for this study as the Belvidere area of the county is the only $SO₂$ non-attainment area in the state. The study had broad community involvement in its design and implementation. It is primarily being supported by a local industrial facility as part of a Supplemental Environmental Project (SEP). SEPs

are sometimes part of settlement agreements between the DEP and a regulated facility. They are projects deemed to have an environmental benefit for the community, and are supported by a facility in lieu of, or in addition to, direct monetary penalties. The results of the monitoring study are available on the World Wide Web at www.airqap.com

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2002 Air Toxics Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

INTRODUCTION

Air pollutants can be divided into two categories: the criteria pollutants (ozone, sulfur dioxide, carbon monoxide, nitrogen dioxide, particulate matter, and lead); and air toxics. The criteria pollutants have been addressed at the national level for many years. The United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) has set National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for them, and they are subject to a standard planning process that includes monitoring, reporting, and control requirements. Each of these pollutants is discussed in its own section of this NJDEP 2002 Air Quality Report.

Air toxics are basically all the other chemicals that can be released into the air and have the potential to cause adverse health effects in humans. These effects cover a wide range of conditions, from lung irritation to birth defects to cancer. There are no NAAQS for these pollutants, but in 1990 the U.S. Congress directed the USEPA to begin to address a list of almost 200 air toxics by developing control technology standards for specific categories of sources that emit them. These air toxics are known as the Clean Air Act Hazardous Air Pollutants (HAPs). You can get more information about HAPs at the USEPA Air Toxics web site at www.epa.gov/ttn/atw. NJDEP also has several web pages dedicated to air toxics. They can be accessed at www.state.nj.us/dep/airmon/airtoxics.

HEALTH EFFECTS

People exposed to significant amounts of air toxics may have an increased chance of getting cancer or experiencing other serious health effects. The noncancer health effects can range from respiratory, neurological, reproductive, developmental, or immune system damage, to irritation and effects on specific organs. In addition to inhalation exposure, there can be risks from the deposition of toxic pollutants onto soils or surface waters. There, they can be taken up by plants and animals which are later consumed by humans.

SOURCES OF AIR TOXICS

A few years ago, USEPA began a national study of air toxics, the National-Scale Air Toxics Assessment (NATA). To determine people's exposure to air toxics around the country, USEPA first prepared a comprehensive inventory of air toxics emissions from all man-made sources in 1996. The 1996 emissions inventory for New Jersey was briefly reviewed and revised by NJDEP before being finalized. Although there are likely to be some errors in the details of such a massive undertaking, the emissions inventory still can give us an indication of the most important sources of air toxic emissions in our state. The pie chart in Figure 1, based on the 1996 NATA emissions estimates, shows that mobile sources are the largest contributors of air toxics emissions in New Jersey.

Source: USEPA's National Air Toxics Assessment, 1996

On-road mobile sources (cars and trucks) account for 35% of the emissions, and non-road mobile sources (airplanes, trains, construction equipment, lawnmowers, boats, dirt bikes, etc.) contribute 33%. Area sources (residential, commercial, and small industrial sources) represent 25% of

Figure 2

the inventory, and major point sources (such as factories and power plants) account for the remaining 7%.

Air toxics come from many different sources - not only manufacturing, but also other kinds of human activity. When New Jersey's emissions estimates are broken down by county (see Figure 2), it is evident that the areas with the largest air toxic emissions are generally those with the largest populations. This is directly related to high levels of vehicle use, solvent use, heating, and other population-

related activities in those counties.

ESTIMATING AIR TOXICS EXPOSURE

The next step in USEPA's NATA project was to use the emissions information in an air dispersion model. The model estimates the concentrations of air toxics that people may be exposed to in different parts of the country. The map in Figure 3 shows the predicted concentrations of benzene throughout New Jersey. The high concentration areas tend to overlap the more densely

Figure 3

NATA PREDICTED CONCENTRATIONS IN NEW JERSEY FOR 1996

Benzene

Maximum concentration is 4.5 micrograms per cubic meter, or 35 times the health benchmark

Health Benchmark = 0.13ug/m*3

populated areas of the state, following the pattern of emissions. Not all air toxics follow this pattern, as some are more closely associated with individual point sources, but in general, larger populations result in greater emissions of, and exposure to, air toxics.

Our preliminary analysis of the state and county average air toxics concentrations generated by NATA indicates that nineteen chemicals were predicted to exceed their health benchmarks, or level of concern, in one or more counties in 1996. Eighteen of these are considered to be cancercausing (carcinogenic) chemicals, and one (acrolein) is not. These chemicals are summarized in Table 1. Estimated air concentrations of these 19 pollutants vary around the state, depending on the type of sources that emit them.

Table 1

Air Toxics of Greatest Concern in New Jersey Based on 1996 National Air Toxics Assessment

AIR TOXICS MONITORING PROGRAM

NJDEP has established four air toxics monitoring sites around the state. They are located in Camden, Elizabeth, New Brunswick and Chester (see Figure 4). The Camden Lab site has been measuring several toxic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) since 1989. The Elizabeth Lab began measuring VOCs in 2000, and the New Brunswick and Chester sites became operational in July 2001. Analysis of toxic metals at all four sites also began in July 2001.

 A comparison of the concentrations predicted by NATA and actual monitored levels can be made for the Camden Lab site. In 1996, thirteen of the compounds evaluated in NATA were measured at Camden Lab. Table 2 compares the NATA predictions with the measured concentrations for 1996. Measured 2002 levels, and the percent of change from 1996, are also shown. Of the thirteen air toxics measured, five of them fell below detection limits in 1996, so a concentration of zero or a value under the detection limit is reported for that year. A comparison of some of the key compounds (Figure 5) shows that for most air toxics, the agreement between predicted and monitored concentrations is remarkably good. Acetaldehyde and Formaldehyde do not show a good agreement between predicted and monitored concentrations in 1996; however, measurements in subsequent years of these pollutants are closer in agreement to the 1996 predicted values. For most of the thirteen air toxics in Table 2, the 2002 levels measured at the Camden Lab were substantially lower than the concentrations measured in 1996.

2002 Air Toxics Monitoring NetworkChester Elizabeth Lab New Brunswick Camden Lab

Figure 4

Figure 5 Air Toxics Levels Measured in 1996 at Camden, New Jersey Compared to NATA Predicted Levels

Table 2 Comparison of NATA Predicted to Measured Levels in Camden, NJ

NA – Not Available μ**g/m3** - **Micrograms Per Cubic Meter**

 ***** Measurements for 1996 and 2002 were below detection limits

 ****** Measurement fell below detection limits

Negative values for percent change mean measured levels went down from 1996 to 2002

AIR TOXICS MONITORING RESULTS FOR 2002

The results of the air toxics monitoring program for 2002 are shown in Table 3 (page 6). This table shows the average concentration for each air toxic measured at the four New Jersey monitoring sites. All values are in parts per billion by volume (ppbv). More detailed tables (Tables 4-7) that show additional statistics, detection limit information, health benchmarks used by NJDEP, and levels in ppbv and micrograms per cubic meter (μ g/m³) can be found at the end of this section. The ppbv units are more common for monitoring results, while μ g/m³ units are generally used in modeling and health studies. Note that many of the compounds that were tested were often below the detection limit of the method used. Concentrations below the detection limit, including zero values, were used in the calculation of the annual

average concentrations.

Reported averages for which a significant portion of the data (more than 50%) was below the detection limit should be viewed with extreme caution. Median values (the value of the middle sample value when the results are ranked) are reported along with the mean (average) concentrations because for some compounds only a single or very few high values were recorded. These high values will tend to increase the average concentration significantly but would have less effect on the median value. In such cases, the median value may be a better indicator of long term exposures, on which most of the health benchmarks for air toxics are based. The average concentrations for some of the more prevalent air toxics are graphed in Figure 6 (page 6).

Table 3 New Jersey Air Toxics Summary – 2002

Annual Average Concentration ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume

Table 3 (Continued) New Jersey Air Toxics Summary – 2002

Annual Average Concentration ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume

Table 3 (Continued) New Jersey Air Toxics Summary – 2002

Annual Average Concentration ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume

TRENDS

The site in Camden Lab is the only monitoring location that has been measuring air toxics for an extended period. The graph in Figure 7 shows the change in concentrations for three of the most prevalent air toxics (benzene, toluene, and xylene) from 1990 to 2002. The graph shows that while average concentrations can vary significantly from year to year, the overall trend is a significant decrease of

concentrations over the last ten years. High individual samples may result in high annual averages in some years, e.g., the annual average for xylene in 1999 would be 2.2 μg/m³ instead of 6.9 μg/m³ if the value measured on July 5, 1999 were excluded. Because air toxics comprise such a large and diverse group of compounds, however, these general trends may not hold for other pollutants in different areas of the state.

Table 4 Air Toxics Data – 2002 Camden Lab, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume**

Table 4 (Continued) Air Toxics Data - 2001 Camden Lab, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume**

Table 5 Air Toxics Data – 2002 Chester, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume**

Table 5 – (Continued) Air Toxics Data – 2002 Chester, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 - Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv - Parts Per Billion by Volume**

Table 6 Air Toxics Data – 2002 Elizabeth Lab, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume**

Table 6 – (Continued) Air Toxics Data – 2002 Elizabeth Lab, New Jersey

μg/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume

Table 7 Air Toxics Data – 2002 New Brunswick, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume**

Table 7 – (Continued) Air Toxics Data – 2002 New Brunswick, New Jersey

μ**g/m3 – Micrograms Per Cubic Meter ppbv – Parts Per Billion by Volume**

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2002 Atmospheric Deposition Summary

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

Nature and Sources

Atmospheric deposition refers to pollutants that are deposited on land or water from the air. Deposition is usually the result of pollutants being removed from the atmosphere and deposited by precipitation (wet deposition) or by the settling out of particulates (dry deposition). Dry deposition also includes gaseous pollutants that are deposited to land and water bodies. Figure 1 below shows the basic mechanisms of deposition and also the major pollutants that are of concern. These include sulfur dioxide (SO2), nitrogen oxides (NOx), mercury (Hg), and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). SO2 is a major contributor to acid deposition which can reduce the ability of water bodies to support certain types of fish and other aquatic organisms. NOx also contributes to the acid deposition problem and can contribute to eutrophication of water bodies as well. Hg will accumulate

in fish by a process know as bio-magnification. Small concentrations of Hg in water are concentrated in smaller organisms. These smaller organisms are in turn consumed by larger ones. As the Hg moves up the food chain, it becomes more and more concentrated. Fish in Hg contaminated water can become contaminated to the point where they are no longer safe for people to eat. For more information on Hg in fish see "A Guide to Health Advisories for Eating Fish and Crabs Caught in New Jersey Waters" which is available at www.state.nj.us/dep/dsr/njmainfish.htm. VOCs are a very diverse group of compounds, some of which are toxic including some known carcinogens.

Atmospheric deposition is the result of pollution from a wide variety of sources and in some cases the pollution can travel great distances before being deposited on the land or water. Some known sources of atmospheric deposition are power plants, motor vehicles, incinerators, and certain industries.

Figure 1

 Source: USEPA Clean Air Markets Web Site: http://www.epa.gov/acidrain/

MONITORING LOCATIONS

The state monitored wet deposition levels at 3 locations in 2002. These sites are shown in the map to the right. A sample is collected each week from all of the sites and after each significant rain event at the Washington Crossing State Park site. The Washington Crossing site is also part of the National Atmospheric Deposition Program (NADP) network which is used by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency to assess national deposition patterns and trends. Each of the sites shown in Figure 2 has a sampler for collecting wet deposition (rain and snow) and a rain gauge for determining precipitation amounts.

In addition to the wet deposition monitoring, dry (particulate) sulfate and nitrate are measured at 3 sites as shown in Figure 3. These measurements are made by analyzing the filters used in the PM₁₀ monitoring network (see section on Particulate Matter). Dry sulfate and nitrate are pollutants which form in the atmosphere and can react with water, creating acids which can affect the acidity (pH) of lakes and streams. Nitrate can also add nutrients to water bodies and can eventually lead to eutrophication (excessive growth of plant life).

Atmospheric Deposition 2
SUMMARY OF 2002 DATA

A summary of the 2002 wet deposition data is provided in Table 1. The table shows total precipitation, pH, conductivity and concentrations of several important ions. When acidity is reported on the pH scale, neutral is considered a 7 with decreasing pH values corresponding to increasing acidity. Normal rainfall has a pH of approximately 5.6 due to the natural presence of carbonic acid in the air. The mean pH value recorded at the Washington Crossing State Park weekly sampler was 4.52. The Ancora State Hospital sampler recorded a mean pH of 4.50 and the Lebanon State Forest sampler recorded a mean pH of 4.53.

Conductivity is a measure of the total density of ions in the water collected. It is used as an indicator of the

 $NO₃$

 $SO₄²$

total amount of pollution in the sample. Conductivity is the ability of the water to conduct electricity and generally increases as the concentration of ions in water increases.

Concentrations of specific ions considered important because they can affect the chemistry of lakes, streams and other water bodies are also reported for each site. Summaries are provided for each season of the year along with annual averages.

Table 2 shows the concentrations of sulfate and nitrate found in samples of particulate matter collected at three sites. Sulfate and nitrate in particulate form can also significantly affect the acidity and nutrient content of water bodies. These two ions make up, on average, about 17% of the total mass of the particles collected.

Table 1 Acid Precipitation Monitoring Network - 2002 Annual and Seasonal Averages

Weighted by Precipitation Amount

Ancora State Hospital – Weekly

Table 1 (Continued) Acid Precipitation Monitoring Network – 2002 Annual and Seasonal Averages

Weighted by Precipitation Amount

$Ca2+$ Mg^+ K^+ $Na+$ NH_4 NO ₃	- Calcium - Magnesium - Potassium - Sodium - Ammonium - Nitrate	PO ₄ ³ Cond. us/cm mq/1 $<$ MDL Winter	- Phosphate - Specific conductance - MicroSiemens per centimeter - Milligrams per liter - Below minimum detection limit - January - March
СĽ			
	- Chloride	Spring	- April - June
SO_4^{2-}	- Sulfate	Summer	- July - September
рH	- Acidity	Fall	- October - December

Washington Crossing State Park – Weekly

Washington Crossing State Park – Event

Table 2 Acid Deposition Particulate Matter – 2002 Micrograms per Cubic Meter

N – Number of samples

Min – Minimum

Max – Maximum

TRENDS

Figure 4 shows the change in the amount of sulfate ion deposited over the last 13 years at the site in Washington Crossing State Park. The figure shows "wet deposition" only. That is, it does not include dry particulate sulfate that was deposited when no precipitation was occurring. Therefore, the total deposition is higher than what is shown here.

The factors controlling the trend are the sulfate concentrations in air and cloud droplets, and the total amount of precipitation in a given year. For example, in 1991 and 1992, both the sulfate concentrations and the total precipitation were below normal, while they were high in 1993 and 1994. Since the values shown here are annual totals, they are also sensitive to loss of samples due to contamination or other factors.

Sulfate can alter soil and water chemistry, and a deposition level of 20 kilograms per hectare per year has been generally accepted as the limit above which damage to sensitive natural resources is likely to occur. However, there are no national or New Jersey standards for sulfate deposition.

Sulfate deposition in rain and snow is expressed as mass per unit land area over time. To convert the values shown in Figure 4 to pounds per acre per year, multiply by 0.89 (since one kilogram equals 2.21 pounds and one hectare equals 2.47 acres)

2002 Regional Haze & Visibility

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

THE BASICS OF HAZE

Small particles and certain gaseous molecules in the atmosphere cause poor visibility by scattering or absorbing light (see Figure 1). While some visibility impairment occurs even under natural conditions, man made aerosols are the primary cause. When high concentrations of such pollutants are well mixed in the atmosphere, they form a uniform haze that can obscure distant objects. Sometimes haze is the result of pollutants that have been transported considerable distances on the prevailing winds.

Visibility in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic

ANATOMY OF REGIONAL HAZE

Data collected over the last decade show that fine particle concentrations, and hence visibility impairment, are highest in the industrialized and densely populated areas of the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic. Sulfate $(SO₄)$ is the primary culprit and typically constitutes 40% of the total fine mass in the region even on clear days. It can account for 60-80% of the total fine mass on very hazy days. Organic carbon usually accounts for the next largest portion of total fine particle mass. It can account for 20-30% on the haziest days. The remainder of the mass is made up primarily of nitrate $(NO₃)$, elemental carbon, and fine soil particles.

WINTER VS. SUMMER

Figure 2 shows the makeup of fine particles collected at the IMPROVE (Interagency Monitoring of Protective Visual Environments) site located north of Atlantic City in the Brigantine Wilderness Area. Evaluations of the data for 1997 & 1998 indicate that visibility was significantly impaired on 19 days in the summer compared to only 4 days in winter. Most visibility impairment is due to sulfate, which can have a greater effect on light extinction (a measure of visibility impairment) than all other types of fine particles combined. Higher sulfate values in the summer can be attributed to the greater photochemical conversion of $SO₂$ to $SO₄$ that results from the increased sunlight during the summertime. (Malm, 1999)

HOW IS HAZE REGULATED?

On July 1, 1999, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) issued a new set of regulations aimed at achieving national visibility goals by 2064. This "regional haze rule" addresses the combined visibility effects of numerous pollution sources over a wide geographic region and how they impact Class I areas. Class I areas as defined by the Clean Air Act, include national parks greater than 6,000 acres, wilderness areas and national memorial parks greater than 5,000 acres, and international parks that existed as of August 1977. The Wilderness Area located in the Brigantine National Wildlife Refuge is New Jersey's only Class I area and the only one between Virginia and Maine.

SOURCES OF HAZE CONTRIBUTORS

The following categories of air pollutants are the major contributors to haze.

- **Sulfate particles** form in the air from sulfur dioxide gas. Most of this gas is released from coal-burning power plants and other industrial sources, such as smelters, industrial boilers, and oil refineries. Sulfates are the largest contributor to haze in the eastern U.S., due to the large number of coal-fired power plants that affect the region. In humid environments, sulfate particles grow rapidly to a size that is very efficient at scattering light, thereby exacerbating the problem in the East.
- **Organic carbon particles** are emitted directly into the air and are also formed by the reaction of various gaseous hydrocarbons. Sources of direct and indirect organic carbon particles include vehicle exhaust, vehicle refueling, solvent evaporation (e.g., paints), food cooking, and various commercial and industrial sources. Gaseous hydrocarbons are also emitted naturally from trees and from fires, but these sources usually have only a small or short-term effect on overall visibility.
- **Nitrate particles** form in the air from nitrogen oxide gas. This gas is released from virtually all combustion activities, especially those involving cars, trucks, off-road engines (e.g., construction equipment, lawn mowers, and boats), power plants, and other industrial sources. Like sulfates, nitrates scatter more light in humid environments.
- **Elemental carbon particles** are very similar to soot. They are smaller than most other particles and tend to absorb rather than scatter light. The "brown clouds" often seen in winter over urban areas and in mountain valleys can be largely attributed to elemental carbon. These particles are emitted directly into the air from virtually all combustion activities, but are especially prevalent in diesel exhaust and smoke from the burning of wood and wastes.
- **Crustal material** is very similar to dust. It enters the air from dirt roads, fields, and other open spaces as a result of wind, traffic, and other surface activities. Whereas other types of particles form from the condensation and growth of microscopic particles and gasses, crustal material results from the crushing and grinding of larger, earth-born material. Because it is difficult to reduce this material to microscopic sizes, crustal material tends to be larger than other particles and tends to fall from the air sooner, contributing less to the overall effect of haze.

source- www.hazecam.net

ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS

Regional haze is probably most closely associated with its effects on prized vistas such as the Grand Canyon or Acadia National Park. Its impacts may be difficult to quantify but it certainly has a negative overall effect on aesthetics and the outdoors, and how natural areas throughout the nation are enjoyed. But haze also affects urban area and scenes, and can obscure or eclipse the view of an urban skyline (see Figures 4 and 5) or other important urban landmarks such as the Washington Monument .

The pollution that causes regional haze has additional, multifaceted effects on the environment. The most abundant contributors to regional haze, sulfates and nitrates, eventually make their way into the ecosystem through deposition - that is, they are transferred from the air into the water and soils. Too much deposition can have adverse environmental effects, upsetting the delicate balance of the ecosystem. Increased sulfates in the atmosphere leads to acid rain while increased nitrates promote eutrophication of streams and lakes by depleting available oxygen (see section on Atmospheric Deposition).

Figure 4 illustrates how sulfates and nitrates enter the ecosystem by way of deposition.

Figure 4

MONITORING OF HAZE IN NEW JERSEY

Typical visual range in the eastern U.S. is 15 to 30 miles, or about one-third of what it would be without manmade air pollution. In the West, the typical visual range is 60 to 90 miles, or about one-half of the visual range under natural conditions. Haze diminishes the natural visual range. (www.hazecam.net)

Visiblity and haze are monitored in two locations in New Jersey; Newark and Brigantine. The monitor in Newark measures the impact of haze on visisbility by using a digital camera. The camera is located inside the New Jersey Transit building and is pointed at the New York City skyline. On clear days the entire skyline, as well as each individual building, is easily distinguishable (Figure 5). The Manhattan skyline appears nonexistant when conditions conducive to haze formation are in place (Figure 6).

Visibility Camera – New Jersey Transit Building

The IMPROVE site located within the Brigantine National Wildlife Refuge monitors haze and visibility using several types of instruments. Figure 7 below is an example of a clear day in Brigantine as the Atlantic City skyline is easily distinguishable along the horizon. The example of a hazy day in Brigantine is illustrated below in Figure 8 and not only has the skyline disappeared but the water that was visible in the foreground in the clear picture also seems to have vanished in the haze.

Visibility Camera – Brigantine National Wildlife Refuge

Figure 7 Figure 8

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www.hazecam.net

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

¹ See Parameter Codes, Table 4 (page Appendix A-8)

¹ See Parameter Codes, Table 4 (page Appendix A-8)

Appendix B

Fine Particulate Speciation Summary- 2002

New Jersey Department of Environmental Protection

Table 1 Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 Camden Lab, New Jersey

Table 1 (Continued) Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 Camden Lab, New Jersey

Table 2 Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 Chester, New Jersey

Table 2 (Continued) Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 Chester, New Jersey

Concentrations in Micrograms Per Cubic Meter $(\mu g/m^3)$

Table 3 Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 Elizabeth Lab, New Jersey

Table 3 (Continued) Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 Elizabeth Lab, New Jersey

Table 4 Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 New Brunswick, New Jersey

Table 4 (Continued) Fine Particulate Speciation Data – 2002 New Brunswick, New Jersey

Concentrations in Micrograms Per Cubic Meter $(\mu g/m^3)$