National Air Toxics Trends Study In Grand Junction, Colorado

January through December 2006



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Table of Contents

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY	6
SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION	7
Introduction	
Site Information	7

SECTION 2: CARBONYLS AT GRAND JUNCTION – POWELL SITE	. 8
Summary Statistics – Carbonyls	
Maximum and Mean – All Samples	
Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected	
Graphs - Carbonyls	
Field Blanks – Carbonyls	. 9
Precision of Sample Results – Carbonyls	

SECTION 3: VOLATILE ORGANIC COMPOUNDS AT GRAND JUNCTION – POWELL

SITE	11
Summary Statistics – Volatile Organic Compounds	
Maximum and Mean – All Samples	
Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected	
Graphs – Volatile Organic Compounds	
Precision of Sample Results – Volatile Organic Compounds	. 20
Field Blanks – Volatile Organic Compounds	. 20

SECTION 4: METALS AT GRAND JUNCTION - POWELL SITE	
Summary Statistics – Metals	
Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected	
Maximum and Mean – All Samples	
Graphs – Metals	
Precision of Sample Results – Metals Compounds	
Field Blanks – Metals Compounds	
*	

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1
1
4
1
1
5
4444

SECTION 6: CARBON MONOXIDE AT GRAND JUNCTION - POWELL SITE	
Summary Statistics - Carbon Monoxide	
Maximum – All Samples	

SECTION 7: PARTICULATE MATTER AT GRAND JUNCTION - POWELL SITE	.27
Particulate Data At Grand Junction - Powell	27

SECTION 8: PM _{2.5} SPECIATION AT GRAND JUNCTION – POWELL SITE Summary Statistics – PM _{2.5} Speciation Data Graphs – PM2.5 Speciation Data SECTION 9: METEOROLOGY Meteorological Parameters Monitored SECTION 10: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS ATTACHMENT-1 COMPOUNDS CONTRIBUTING TO CANCER AND NON-CANCER RISKS: OVERVIEY OF SOURCES AND HEALTH EFFECTS CARBONYLS Acetaldehyde Crotonaldehyde Formaldehyde Formaldehyde	29
Graphs – PM2.5 Speciation Data	
Meteorological Parameters Monitored SECTION 10: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	30
Meteorological Parameters Monitored SECTION 10: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	33
ATTACHMENT-1 COMPOUNDS CONTRIBUTING TO CANCER AND NON-CANCER RISKS: OVERVIEV OF SOURCES AND HEALTH EFFECTS	33
COMPOUNDS CONTRIBUTING TO CANCER AND NON-CANCER RISKS: OVERVIEW OF SOURCES AND HEALTH EFFECTS	34
OF SOURCES AND HEALTH EFFECTS	35
CARBONYLS	7
Acetaldehyde Crotonaldehyde Formaldehyde	35
Crotonaldehyde Formaldehyde	35
Crotonaldehyde Formaldehyde	
	36
VOLATILE ORGANIC COMPOUNDS	37
Acetonitrile	37
Acrolein	38
Benzene	
1,3-Butadiene	
Carbon Tetrachloride	
Tetrachloroethylene	
1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene and 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene	41
METALS	41
Arsenic	
Chromium	
Manganese	43
REFERENCES FOR ATTACHMENT-1	44
References for Carbonyls Section	44
References for Volatile Organic Compounds Section	
References for Metals	47
ATTACHMENT-2	49
DOCUMENTATION FOR GRAND JUNCTION URBAN AIR TOXICS TRENDS	
MONITORING LOCATIONS	

<u>Tables</u>

Table 2.1	Carbonyl Compounds Sample Summary - 2006	8
Table 2.2	Carbonyl Compounds Data Summary Comparisons – 2005 – 2006	9
	VOC Sample Summary - 2006	
Table 3.2	VOC Data Summary Comparisons - 2005 – 2006	. 13
Table 3.3	Compounds Detected in Over 90 Percent of the VOC Air Samples - 2006	. 14
Table 3.4	Volatile Organic Compounds Rarely Detected in the VOC Air Samples	. 14
Table 4.1	Metals Sample Summary - 2006	. 21
Table 4.2	Metals Data Summary Comparisons 2005 - 2006	. 22
Table 5.1	24 Hr Maximum and Annual Mean Concentrations for Hexavalent and Total Chromium -	-
2005	and 2006	. 24
Table 6.1	Carbon Monoxide Data Summary - 2006	. 26
Table 7.1	Percentage Data Recovery for PM ₁₀ Samples - 2006	. 27
Table 7.2	Data Summary for PM ₁₀ Samples - 2006	. 27
Table 7.3	Percentage Data Recovery for PM _{2.5} Samples - 2006	. 27
Table 7.4	Data Summary for PM _{2.5} Samples - 2006	. 27
Table 8.1	Annual Maximum and Mean Concentrations for PM _{2.5} Speciation	. 29

Figures

Figure 2.2Sample Day Comparisons for 200610Figure 3.1Annual Mean and 24 Hour Maximum VOCs15Figure 3.2Toluene, Benzene and Ethylbenzene Concentrations17Figure 3.3Styrene, Xylenes and 1,2,4-Trimethybenzene Concentrations18Figure 3.4Trichlorofluoromethane, Chloromethane, and Dichloromethane Concentrations18Figure 3.5Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations19Figure 3.6Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations19Figure 4.1Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 200623Figure 5.1Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 7.1PM10 and PM2.5 - 200626Figure 8.1Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.528Figure 8.1Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.533	Figure 2.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Carbonyls 2006	10
Figure 3.2Toluene, Benzene and Ethylbenzene Concentrations17Figure 3.3Styrene, Xylenes and 1,2,4-Trimethybenzene Concentrations18Figure 3.4Trichlorofluoromethane, Chloromethane, and Dichloromethane Concentrations18Figure 3.5Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations19Figure 3.6Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations19Figure 4.1Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 200623Figure 5.1Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 6.1Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 8.1Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.520631	Figure 2.2 Sample Day Comparisons for 2006	10
Figure 3.3 Styrene, Xylenes and 1,2,4-Trimethybenzene Concentrations18Figure 3.4 Trichlorofluoromethane, Chloromethane, and Dichloromethane Concentrations18Figure 3.5 Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations19Figure 3.6 Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations19Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 200623Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation - 200631	Figure 3.1 Annual Mean and 24 Hour Maximum VOCs	15
Figure 3.4 Trichlorofluoromethane, Chloromethane, and Dichloromethane Concentrations18Figure 3.5 Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations19Figure 3.6 Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations19Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 200623Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation - 200631	Figure 3.2 Toluene, Benzene and Ethylbenzene Concentrations	
Figure 3.5 Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations19Figure 3.6 Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations19Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 200623Figure 4.2 Total Chromium, Lead, and Manganese Concentrations - 200623Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation - 200631	Figure 3.3 Styrene, Xylenes and 1,2,4-Trimethybenzene Concentrations	
Figure 3.6 Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations19Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 200623Figure 4.2 Total Chromium, Lead, and Manganese Concentrations - 200623Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation - 200631	Figure 3.4 Trichlorofluoromethane, Chloromethane, and Dichloromethane Concentrations	
Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 2006	Figure 3.5 Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations	19
Figure 4.2 Total Chromium, Lead, and Manganese Concentrations – 200623Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations – 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 – 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation – 200631	Figure 3.6 Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations	19
Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 200625Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations - 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation - 200631	Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 2006	
Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations – 200625Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 200626Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 – 200628Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM2.5 Speciation – 200631	Figure 4.2 Total Chromium, Lead, and Manganese Concentrations – 2006	
Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 2006	Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 2006	
Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 – 2006	Figure 5.2 Hexavalent Chromium Concentrations – 2006	
Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM _{2.5} Speciation – 2006	Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 2006	
	Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 2006	
Figure 9.1 Grand Junction Windrose	Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM _{2.5} Speciation – 2006	31
	Figure 9.1 Grand Junction Windrose	

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National Air Toxics Trends Study In Grand Junction, Colorado

January through December 2006

Executive Summary

The Grand Junction air toxics monitors were originally established as a part of the Pilot Study for the National Air Toxics Trends Sites. Grand Junction was one of the five "rural" sites selected. (The Environmental Protection Agency considers this area "rural" because it is not a major metropolitan area). This report discusses the data collected at the Grand Junction monitors for 2006. Most of the compounds detected are found in urban air nationwide. There do not appear to be any compounds of local significance.

The majority of compounds can be related to motor vehicular sources. These include formaldehyde, benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, xylenes, and styrene. Chloroflourocarbons are also present, including chloromethane, dichlorodifluoromethane, trichlorofluoromethane, and trichlorotrifluoroethane.

Section 1: Introduction Introduction

The Grand Junction Air Toxics monitoring site was established as a part of the United States Environmental Protection Agency's' National Air Toxic Trends Study. This network of monitors will measure air toxics for a six year period to determine the success of the National Air Toxics Strategy in reducing U.S. population exposure to cancer-causing substances in the air. The main test will be a comparison of mean concentrations of compounds for the first three years, versus the mean concentrations for the last three years. This report discusses the results from the Grand Junction site from January 2006 through December 2006.

This report is separated into sections. Sections 2 through 5 discuss the compounds monitored as a part of this study. Each section begins with summary statistics for the compounds analyzed and then the percentage of samples in which each chemical was detected. Summary graphs of certain compounds are presented. Sections 6, 7 and 8 compare the carbon monoxide, PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ data collected as a part of the regular monitoring conducted in Grand Junction by the Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment (CDPHE) to the national ambient air quality standards (NAAQS). Attachment 1 discusses sources and health effects for certain compounds that have been of potential health significance on a national or local basis. This Attachment gives a brief summary of each chemical's use, its air emission sources, and its concentrations in typical urban air.

Site Information

The National Air Toxics Trends Study at Grand Junction sampled at two separate locations. These are in close proximity to one another. However, the particulate samplers are located on a roof-top, while the other parameters are monitored at a shelter at ground level. Due to the different sampling heights, staff at Region VIII of the EPA suggested the sites be separately catalogued in the national air monitoring database. The particulate samplers are located on the roof of the Powell Building at 650 South Avenue. The other monitor is located at an adjacent site, 645¹/₄ Pitkin Avenue. This site contains the carbon monoxide monitor, meteorological tower and the gaseous air toxic monitors. Documentation regarding these sites, including maps, photographs, and aerial views, is available in Attachment 2. The sites are located on the southern end of the city in an area of commercial/light industrial land use.

Section 2: Carbonyls at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Summary Statistics – Carbonyls

Maximum and Mean – All Samples

The carbonyls discussed in this section are the group of organic chemicals that contain a carbon atom double bonded to an oxygen atom. The generalized symbol for the carbonyl group is **R-C=O**, where the "R" is some other carbon-based compound. Twelve compounds were measured for this study. The list of these compounds and the summary of the collected data are shown in Table 2.1 and Table 2.2.

Carbonyls were sampled on an every-sixth-day basis for the year, for a total of 61 samples attempted. One sample was not valid, and another was taken the day following the scheduled date, for a total of 60 valid samples. The site met the EPA goal for over 85 percent sample recovery.

Table 2.1 summarizes the annual maximum and mean concentrations for each carbonyl compound measured during the study. The annual means were calculated by replacing all "non-detect" values with one-half of the sample minimum detection limit. This is an accepted conservative technique for calculating annual values when some of the samples were less than the laboratory's ability to detect. The most prevalent carbonyls in the ambient air in Grand Junction are formaldehyde, acetone, and acetaldehyde. The other nine carbonyl compounds measured in this study occurred at concentration levels significantly below those of these top three compounds.

All of the carbonyls, except for isovaleraldehyde and 2,5-dimethylbenzaldehyde, were present at least 95 percent of the time. However, the true annual mean of 2,5-dimethylbenzaldehyde may be well below the number reported here. Due to the fact that this compound was never detected, one-half of the detection limit was used for the estimated concentration of the non-detects. Actual concentrations could have been at lower levels than these estimates.

The 2006 sample detection limits were lower than the 2005 limits because of improved analytical methodology.

Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected

Table 2.1 shows that most of these compounds were present in air over 95 percent of the time. However 2,5-dimethylbenzaldehyde was seen much less frequently, with no detections in 2006. 2,5-dimethylbenzaldehyde was detected 34 percent of the time in the 2001 - 2002 pilot study, while it was only detected 4.8 percent of the time in 2005, and not at all in 2006. This is a sizable reduction in detection frequency from the Pilot study.

Isovaleraldehyde was detected about 78 percent of the time. This is a significant change from the 2005 detection frequency of 30%. The increased detection frequency is likely due to improved (lower) detection limits for 2006, versus 2005.

Oran di kun atia n	646	60 S	60 Samples	
Grand Junction – Powell Site	te Number Samples Per Above 2 Detection		Percentage of Samples Detected	
Acetaldehyde	75-07-0	60	100	
Formaldehyde	50-00-0	60	100	
Acetone	67-64-1	60	100	
Valeraldehyde	110-62-3	60	100	
Butyraldehyde	123-72-8	60	100	
Propionaldehyde	123-38-6	60	100	
Crotonaldehyde	123-73-9	59	98.3	
Hexaldehyde	66-25-1	60	100	
Tolualdehydes	NA	60	100	
Benzaldehyde	100-52-7	60	100	
Isovaleraldehyde	590-86-3	47	78.3	
2,5-Dimethylbenzaldehyde	5779-94-2	0	0	

 Table 2.1 Carbonyl Compounds Sample Summary - 2006

Graphs - Carbonyls

The summary data for carbonyl compounds measured during 2006 are graphed in Figure 2.1. These compounds in these graphs are ordered by ranking their maximum concentration. The graphs show that acetaldehyde, acetone, and formaldehyde generally had the highest maxima. The maximums observed in 2006 were lower than those in 2005. The means for the compounds during the two years were fairly close, with no consistent trend across compounds.

Grand Junction –	2006 Statistics (µg/m³)			2005 Statistics (µg/m³)		
Powell Site	Maximum	Mean	Average MDL*	Maximum	Mean	Average MDL *
Acetaldehyde	4.162	2.358	0.008	17.188	2.991	0.026
Formaldehyde	7.522	4.017	0.006	11.418	3.118	0.020
Acetone	8.385	4.079	0.017	10.215	4.664	0.020
Valeraldehyde	0.409	0.167	0.004	6.306	0.202	0.013
Butyraldehyde	0.640	0.339	0.004	6.223	0.400	0.015
Propionaldehyde	0.670	0.313	0.005	4.798	0.315	0.013
Crotonaldehyde	0.628	0.176	0.003	3.755	0.217	0.012
Hexaldehyde	0.385	0.113	0.008	1.520	0.105	0.010
Tolualdehydes	0.442	0.225	0.015	0.457	0.128	0.022
Benzaldehyde	0.768	0.334	0.009	0.412	0.220	0.014
Isovaleraldehyde	0.088	0.042	0.004	0.127	0.020	0.013
2,5-Dimethylbenzaldehyde	ND	ND	0.005	0.099	0.011	0.016

Table 2.2 Carbonyl Compounds Data Summary Comparisons – 2005 – 2006

*- Average MDL - average minimum detectable level

Figure 2.2 shows the concentrations for the compounds during the year. Formaldehyde peaked in the July through September time period. It is believed that more formaldehyde is formed photochemically during this period of higher solar radiation. Formaldehyde plays a role in the formation of ozone, a chemical that also peaks during the summer.

Field Blanks - Carbonyls

Field blanks were collected twice a month by attaching a blank sample cartridge to the sampler briefly, and then removing it. The purpose of these blanks was to assess contamination that might exist in the cartridge media, sample installation or shipping. Most cartridges had small amounts of formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, and acetone. Detailed information regarding field blank results is available upon request.

Precision of Sample Results – Carbonyls

This project collected two types of precision data in order to assess both sampling and analytical procedures. Every two months, a second carbonyl cartridge was sampled simultaneously with the primary sample. These additional samples, or duplicates, were collected to assess the precision (repeatability) of the sampling method. The laboratory also conducted a test of the precision of the analytical process by injecting two samples of each cartridge's liquid extract into the liquid chromatograph/ mass spectrometer. These extra injection samples are known as laboratory replicates. Detailed information regarding precision and laboratory replicate results is available upon request.

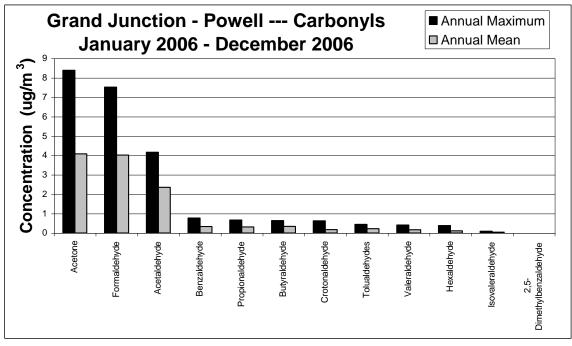
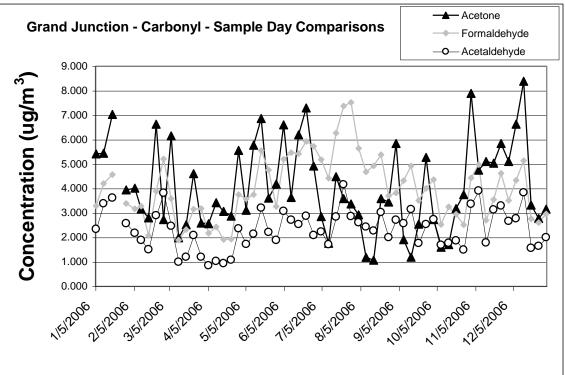


Figure 2.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Carbonyls 2006





Section 3: Volatile Organic Compounds at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Summary Statistics – Volatile Organic Compounds

Maximum and Mean – All Samples

Volatile organic compound (VOC) data collected at the Grand Junction - Powell station from January through December 2006 are presented in this section. There were 60 VOCs analyzed for this study. The compound carbon disulfide was a new addition for 2006. Eastern Research Group added it to the list of analytes, due to requests from other parts of the country. Carbon disulfide is an industrial solvent. The list of these VOCs is on Table 3.1. These are the same VOCs collected by all of the sites participating in the national air toxics study.

Volatile organic compounds were sampled on an every-sixth-day basis, with two samples taken on alternate days, to make up for missed days. A total of 61 samples were taken, for a percentage data recovery rate of 100 percent.

Table 3.2 summarizes the annual maximum and mean concentrations for each of the 60 volatile organic compounds measured during the study. It should be noted that the annual means and maximums were calculated by replacing all "non-detect" values with one-half of the sample detection limit. This is an accepted conservative technique for calculating annual values when some of the samples were less than the laboratory's ability to measure.

		61 Samples Taken				
Grand Junction - Powell						
Site	Number*	Number of Samples Detected	Percentage of Samples Detected			
1,1,1-Trichloroethane	71-55-6	61	100.0			
1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane	79-34-5	0	0.0			
1.1.2-Trichloroethane	79-00-5	0	0.0			
1,1-Dichloroethane	75-34-3	0	0.0			
1,1-Dichloroethene	75-35-4	0	0.0			
1,2,4-Trichlorobenzene	120-82-1	2	3.3			
1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene	95-63-6	61	100.0			
1,2-Dibromoethane	106-93-4	0	0.0			
1,2-Dichloroethane	107-06-2	0	0.0			
1,2-Dichloropropane	78-87-5	0	0.0			
1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene	108-67-8	59	96.7			
1,3-Butadiene	106-99-0	56	91.8			
Acetonitrile	75-05-8	38	62.3			
Acetylene	74-86-2	61	100.0			
Acrolein	107-02-8	45	73.8			
Acrylonitrile	107-02-8	3	4.9			
Benzene	71-43-2	61	100.0			
Bromochloromethane	74-97-5	0	0.0			
Bromodichloromethane	74-97-5	0	0.0			
Bromoform	75-27-4	0	0.0			
Bromomethane	74-83-9	53	86.9			
Carbon Disulfide	74-03-9	61	100.0			
Carbon Disuilide Carbon Tetrachloride	56-23-5	60	98.4			
	108-90-7	2				
Chlorobenzene	75-00-3	34	3.3 55.7			
Chloroethane	67-66-3					
Chloroform		39	63.9			
Chloromethane	74-87-3	61	100.0			
Chloromethylbenzene	100-44-7	0	0.0			
Chloroprene	126-99-8	1	1.6			
cis-1,2-Dichloroethylene	156-59-4	0	0.0			
cis-1,3-Dichloropropene	10061-01-5	0	0.0			
Dibromochloromethane	124-48-1	0	0.0			
Dichlorodifluoromethane	75-71-8	61	100.0			
Dichloromethane	75-09-2	57	93.4			
Dichlorotetrafluoroethane	76-14-2	61	100.0			
Ethyl Acrylate	140-88-5	0	0.0			
Ethyl tert-Butyl Ether	637-92-3	1	1.6			
Ethylbenzene	100-41-4	61	100.0			
Hexachloro-1,3-butadiene	87-68-3	2	3.3			
m,p-Xylene	100-01-6	61	100.0			
m-Dichlorobenzene	541-73-1	0	0.0			
Methyl Ethyl Ketone	78-93-3	57	93.4			
Methyl Isobutyl Ketone	108-10-1	44	72.1			
Methyl Methacrylate	80-62-6	7	11.5			
Methyl tert-Butyl Ether	1634-04-4	2	3.3			
n-Octane	111-65-9	56	91.8			
o-Dichlorobenzene	95-50-1	0	0.0			
o-Xylene	95-47-6	61	100.0			
p-Dichlorobenzene	106-46-7	37	60.7			
Propylene	115-07-1	61	100.0			
Styrene	100-42-5	59	96.7			
tert-Amyl Methyl Ether	994-05-8	0	0.0			
Tetrachloroethylene	127-18-4	52	85.2			
Toluene	108-88-3	61	100.0			
trans-1,2-Dichloroethylene	156-60-5	0	0.0			
trans-1,3-Dichloropropene	10061-02-6	0	0.0			
Trichloroethylene	79-01-6	19	31.1			
Trichlorofluoromethane	75-69-4	61	100.0			
Trichlorotrifluoroethane	76-13-1	61	100.0			
Vinyl chloride	75-01-4	2	3.3			

 Table 3.1
 VOC Sample Summary - 2006

* CAS Number" refers to the Chemical Abstract System Number. This is an alternate way of referencing organic chemicals, that can have multiple names.

		2006 Statistics (µg/m ³)			2005 Statistics (µg/m ³)			
Grand Junction - Powell		Average					Average	
Site	Number*	Maximum**	Mean**	MDL	Maximum**	Mean**	MDL	
1,1,1-Trichloroethane	71-55-6	0.27	0.12	0.02	0.22	0.15	0.20	
1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane	79-34-5	ND	ND	0.09	0.17	0.16	0.31	
1,1,2-Trichloroethane	79-00-5	ND	ND	0.03	ND	ND	0.29	
1,1-Dichloroethane	75-34-3	ND	ND	0.02	ND	ND	0.15	
1,1-Dichloroethene	75-35-4	ND 0.45	ND	0.06	ND	ND	0.18	
1,2,4-Trichlorobenzene	120-82-1	0.15	0.06	0.11	0.67	0.58	1.20	
1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene	95-63-6	5.21	0.81	0.01	2.80	1.01	0.29	
1,2-Dibromoethane	106-93-4	ND ND	ND ND	0.14	ND 0.16	ND	0.32	
1,2-Dichloroethane	107-06-2	ND	ND	0.06 0.15	ND	0.10 ND	0.19	
1,2-Dichloropropane 1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene	78-87-5 108-67-8	1.08	0.25	0.15	0.88	0.33	0.24	
1,3-Butadiene	106-99-0	0.55	0.23	0.02	0.62	0.33	0.17	
Acetonitrile	75-05-8	6.18	0.20	0.01	394.55	17.18	0.12	
Acetylene	74-86-2	6.72	1.80	0.02	6.31	2.05	0.05	
Acrolein	107-02-8	3.23	0.62	0.02	3.05	0.81	0.03	
Acrylonitrile	107-13-1	0.65	0.02	0.12	0.48	0.07	0.13	
Benzene	71-43-2	3.87	1.85	0.02	3.55	1.95	0.13	
Bromochloromethane	74-97-5	ND	ND	0.10	ND	ND	0.31	
Bromodichloromethane	75-27-4	ND	ND	0.05	ND	ND	0.24	
Bromoform	75-25-2	ND	ND	0.18	ND	ND	0.43	
Bromomethane	74-83-9	0.08	0.04	0.04	0.23	0.08	0.19	
Carbon Disulfide	75-15-0	23.57	8.51	0.03	NS	NS	NS	
Carbon Tetrachloride	56-23-5	1.20	0.59	0.06	0.94	0.49	0.32	
Chlorobenzene	108-90-7	0.05	0.01	0.02	ND	ND	0.14	
Chloroethane	75-00-3	0.11	0.03	0.02	0.13	0.09	0.20	
Chloroform	67-66-3	0.39	0.08	0.02	0.39	0.11	0.17	
Chloromethane	74-87-3	1.71	1.21	0.03	1.96	1.32	0.11	
Chloromethylbenzene	100-44-7	ND	ND	0.03	ND	ND	0.21	
Chloroprene	126-99-8	0.07	0.04	0.08	ND	ND	0.15	
cis-1,2-Dichloroethylene	156-59-4	ND	ND	0.06	0.52	0.09	0.17	
cis-1,3-Dichloropropene	10061-01-5	ND	ND	0.06	ND	ND	0.17	
Dibromochloromethane	124-48-1	ND	ND	0.09	ND	ND	0.41	
Dichlorodifluoromethane	75-71-8	4.65	2.78	0.02	4.15	3.18	0.10	
Dichloromethane	75-09-2	2.26	0.41	0.06	2.88	0.43	0.22	
Dichlorotetrafluoroethane	76-14-2	0.14	0.12	0.02	0.21	0.12	0.15	
Ethyl Acrylate	140-88-5	ND	ND	0.05	ND	ND	0.23	
Ethyl tert-Butyl Ether	637-92-3	0.04	0.02	0.03	ND	ND	0.19	
Ethylbenzene	100-41-4	1.91	0.66	0.02	5.30	1.36	0.13	
Hexachloro-1,3-butadiene	87-68-3	0.21	0.07	0.14	1.76	0.99	2.52	
m,p-Xylene	100-01-6	6.56	2.29	0.04	20.24	4.62	0.18	
m-Dichlorobenzene	541-73-1	ND 9.35	ND	0.02	ND 2.22	ND	0.34	
Methyl Ethyl Ketone Methyl Isobutyl Ketone	78-93-3 108-10-1	9.35	1.23 0.21	0.13 0.03	3.33 1.15	0.43 0.18	0.28 0.27	
Methyl Methacrylate	80-62-6	9.30	0.21	0.03	14.05	0.18	0.27	
Methyl tert-Butyl Ether	1634-04-4	9.30 0.25	0.26	0.02	ND	0.79 ND	0.32	
n-Octane	111-65-9	0.23	0.01	0.01	0.84	0.34	0.24	
o-Dichlorobenzene	95-50-1	ND	ND	0.03	ND	ND	0.22	
o-Xylene	95-47-6	2.65	0.83	0.03	9.21	1.97	0.29	
p-Dichlorobenzene	106-46-7	0.54	0.09	0.02	0.30	0.14	0.36	
Propylene	115-07-1	7.11	1.11	0.04	3.29	1.32	0.10	
Styrene	100-42-5	1.75	0.37	0.02	12.78	1.05	0.15	
tert-Amyl Methyl Ether	994-05-8	ND	ND	0.04	.ND	ND	0.15	
Tetrachloroethylene	127-18-4	2.31	0.34	0.07	0.75	0.27	0.25	
Toluene	108-88-3	8.56	4.06	0.02	13.00	5.53	0.14	
trans-1,2-Dichloroethylene	156-60-5	ND	ND	0.07	ND	ND	0.18	
trans-1,3-Dichloropropene	10061-02-6	ND	ND	0.04	ND	ND	0.21	
Trichloroethylene	79-01-6	.27	0.05	0.05	0.27	0.12	0.24	
Trichlorofluoromethane	75-69-4	2.53	1.52	0.04	2.30	1.63	0.17	
Trichlorotrifluoroethane	76-13-1	1.23	0.76	0.09	1.30	0.81	0.27	
Vinyl chloride	75-01-4	0.03	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.10	
CAS Number" refers to the Chen				noto wow of ro	<u></u>			

Table 3.2 VOC Data Summary Comparisons - 2005 – 2006

* CAS Number" refers to the Chemical Abstract System Number. This is an alternate way of referencing organic chemicals, that can have multiple names.

** ND – Non-Detect. All samples were less than the detection limit for this compound.
 NS – Not Sampled. Carbon Disulfide is a new compound for 2006; it was not sampled in 2005.

Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected

Table 3.1 shows the percentage of the samples in which each VOC was detected. Twenty-two of the compounds were detected in over 90 percent of the samples. These compounds, that are almost always present, are listed in Table 3.3. Thirteen of these compounds were detected over 90 percent of the time in 2005, as well. Of the nine "new" compounds seen for greater than 90% of the time in 2006, eight had significantly lower detection limits in 2006 than they had in 2005. One compound, carbon disulfide, was not measured in 2005. Thus, the increasing number of ubiquitous compounds seen in Grand Junction air is likely due to better laboratory methodology, not to an actual change in ambient levels.

Seventeen VOCs were not detected at all during the years 2005 or 2006. Seven other compounds were very rare – they were detected once or twice during the years 2005 and 2006 (Table 3.4). The fuel additive tert-amyl methyl ether (TAME), was not detected in 2005 or 2006. Methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE) and ethyl tert-butyl ether (ETBE), two other fuel additives, were detected once or twice in the two year period. The list of compounds in Table 3.4 includes many compounds that are chiefly emitted by stationary sources. Evidently, these source types are not present in the immediate vicinity of the station.

-		=
	1,2,4 - Trimethylbenzene	o - xylene
Compounds Detected	Acetylene	Propylene
Over 90 % of the	Benzene	Styrene
Time in 2005 and 2006	Chloromethane	Toluene
(13)	Dichlorodifluoromethane	Trichlorofluoromethane
	Ethylbenzene	Trichlorotrifluoroethane
	m,p - xylene	
Compounds Detected	1,1,1-Trichloroethane	Dichloromethane
Over 90% of the	1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene	Dichlorotetrafluoroethane
Time in 2006, that	1,3-Butadiene	Methyl Ethyl Ketone
Were Not Detected	Carbon Disulfide (New in 2006)	n-Octane
This Often in 2005 (9)	Carbon Tetrachloride	
• •		

Table 3.3 Compounds Detected in Over 90 Percent of the VOC Air Samples - 2006

Table 3.4 Volatile Organic Compounds Rarely Detected in the VOC Air Samples

Compounds Not Seen In 2005 or 2006 (17)	1,1,2-Trichloroethane 1,1-Dichloroethane 1,1-Dichloroethene 1,2-Dibromoethane 1,2-Dichloropropane Bromochloromethane	Bromodichloromethane Bromoform Chloromethylbenzene cis – 1,3-Dichloropropene Dibromochloromethane Ethyl Acrylate	m-Dichlorobenzene o-Dichlorobenzene tert-Amyl Methyl Ether trans – 1,2-Dichloroethylene trans – 1,3-Dichloropropene
Compounds Not Seen In 2005, but Seen Once Or Twice in 2006 (4)	Chlorobenzene	Chloroprene	Ethyl tert-Butyl Ether Methyl tert-butyl Ether
Compounds Not Seen In 2006, but Seen Once In 2005 (3)	1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane	1,2-Dichloroethane	cis-1,2-Dichloroethylene

Graphs – Volatile Organic Compounds

Figure 3.1 has four graphs showing the 24-hour maximum and annual mean concentrations for each of the 40 compounds that were detected during the year. These graphs are ordered from highest to lowest 24-hour maximum. Note that the graphs scales vary from a full-scale level of 25 ug/m^3 , to a full-scale value of 1.0 ug/m^3 .

Figures 3.2 and 3.3 show that benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, the three xylenes, styrene, and 1,2,4trimethylbenzene show a close relationship with similar peaks and valleys. These compounds are all present in petroleum. Figure 3.4 shows that three chlorofluorocarbon compounds tend to trend together. In Figure 3.5, acetylene and propylene trend together. This similarity is due to a similar source, probably automotive emissions. Figure 3.6 shows 1,3 –butadiene and acetonitrile. They do not trend together. These are both used in chemical production. Although present in very small amounts, 1,3 – butadiene is believed to be a significant component of the total cancer risk from airborne toxic compounds.

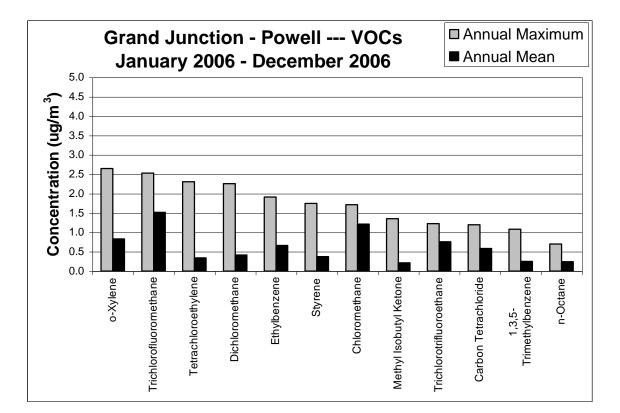
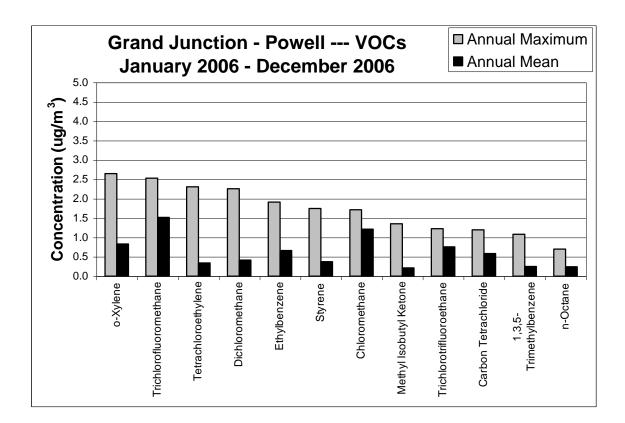
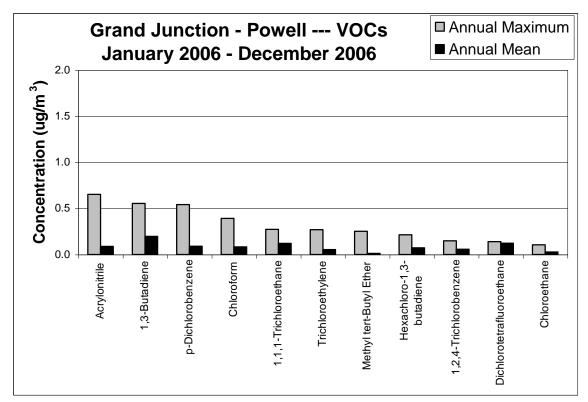


Figure 3.1 Annual Mean and 24 Hour Maximum VOCs





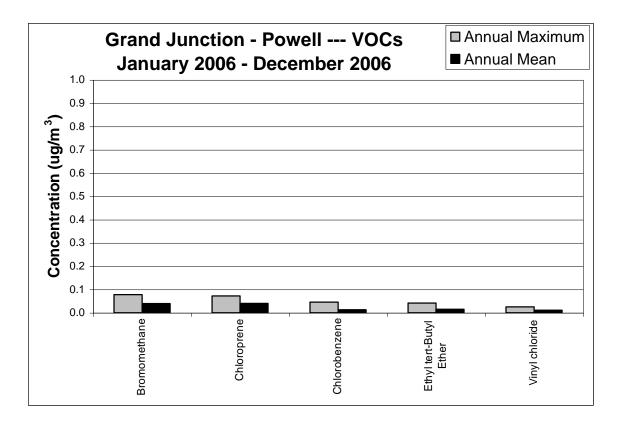
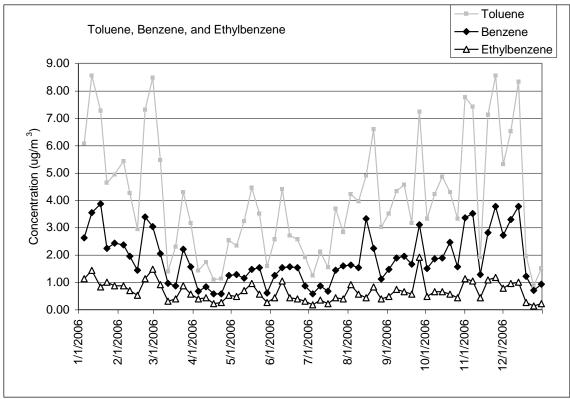


Figure 3.2 Toluene, Benzene and Ethylbenzene Concentrations



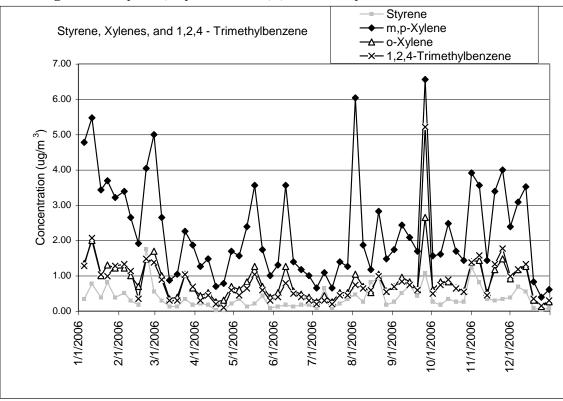
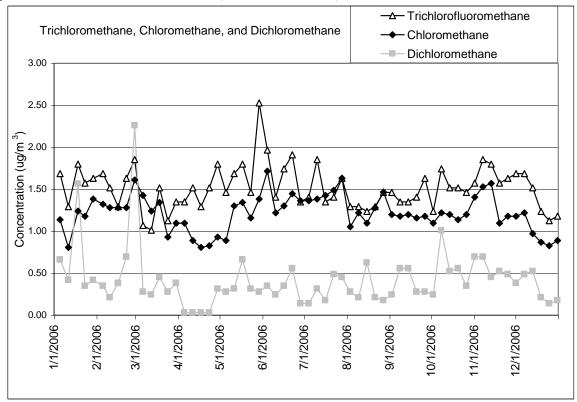


Figure 3.3 Styrene, Xylenes and 1,2,4-Trimethybenzene Concentrations

Figure 3.4 Trichlorofluoromethane, Chloromethane, and Dichloromethane Concentrations



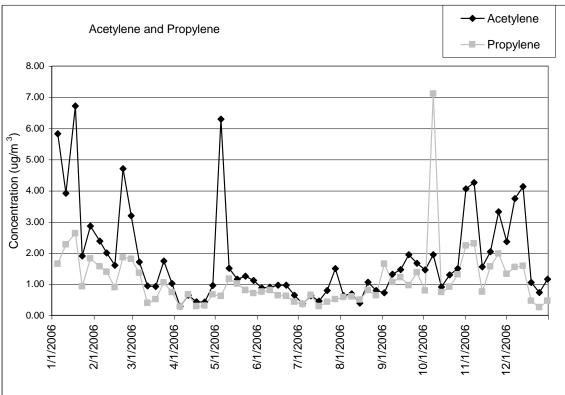
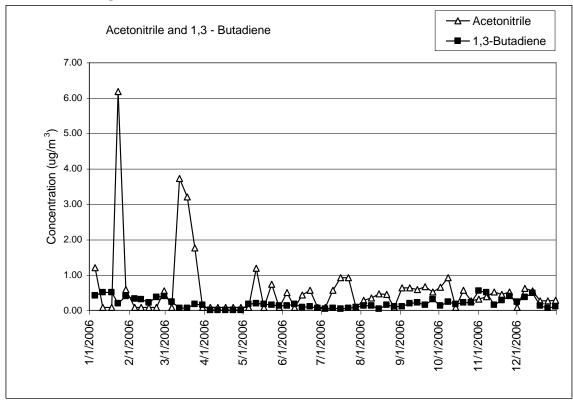


Figure 3.5 Acetylene and Propylene Concentrations

Figure 3.6 Acetonitrile and 1,3-Butadiene Concentrations



Precision of Sample Results - Volatile Organic Compounds

Every other month, a second canister was sampled simultaneously with the primary sample. These additional samples, known as duplicates, were collected in order to assess the precision (repeatability) of the canister sampling method. On the duplicate sampling dates, the laboratory also conducted a test of the precision on the duplicate samples of each canister's air into the gas chromatograph/mass spectrometer. These samples are known as the laboratory replicates. This project collected these two types of precision data in order to assesses both sampling and analysis procedures. Information regarding precision and accuracy results is available upon request to the Air Pollution Control Division.

Field Blanks - Volatile Organic Compounds

The volatile organic compound sampling method involves sampling in stainless steel canisters with specially-treated interior surfaces. The canisters are re-used. After a full canister is analyzed, it is pumped out repeatedly to a high vacuum. This procedure cleans it for the next use. Periodically, one canister from each cleaning batch is tested to make sure the method is performing adequately. The test canister is filled with ultra-pure air, and then analyzed. If it shows no contamination, the batch is released for use. If contamination is found, the entire batch is sent through the cleaning process for a second time. The canisters arrive in the field closed, and under 20 to 30 inches of vacuum. Therefore, field blanks are not used in this method. The canisters are "blanked" at the laboratory prior to shipping to the field.

Section 4: Metals at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Summary Statistics – Metals

Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected

During the study, metals were sampled on the every-sixth-day schedule, for a total of 61 samples attempted. Of these, 59 were recovered, for a percentage data recovery of 96.7. Table 4.1 shows the percentage of the samples in which each metal was detected. Chromium (total), lead and manganese were detected in all samples. Antimony was detected in all samples, except one. Arsenic was never detected. Nickel, cadmium and beryllium were seen less than one-third of the time.

		59 Samples Taken			
Grand Junction – Powell Site	CAS Number	Number of Samples Above Detection Limit	Percentage of Samples Above Detection Limit		
Antimony	7440-36-0	58	98.3		
Arsenic	7440-38-2	0	0.0		
Beryllium	7440-41-7	18	30.5		
Cadmium	7440-43-9	12	20.3		
Chromium (total)	7440-47-3	59	100.0		
Lead	7439-92-1	59	100.0		
Manganese	7439-96-5	59	100.0		
Nickel	7440-02-0	7	11.9		

 Table 4.1 Metals Sample Summary - 2006

Maximum and Mean – All Samples

Table 4.2 summarizes the annual maximum and mean concentrations for each of the metals measured during the study. Annual means were calculated by using one-half of the detection limit in place of the non-detect samples. This is an accepted conservative technique for calculating annual values when some of the samples were less than the laboratory's ability to measure. Results show that manganese, lead, and total chromium were the compounds with the highest mean concentrations in ambient air. The other metals were present at lower concentrations.

The 2006 levels are similar to 2005, but mean and maximum chromium levels are lower in 2006. This may be due to a reduction in chromium contamination levels on the blank filters.

Grand Junction	CAS	2006 Statistics (µg/m³)			2005 Statistics (µg/m ³)		
– Powell Site		Maximum	Mean	Average MDL	Maximum	Mean	Average MDL
Antimony	7440-36-0	0.00402	0.00147	0.00037	0.00324	0.00134	.00074
Arsenic	7440-38-2	ND	ND	0.00575	0.00289	0.00213	.00422
Beryllium	7440-41-7	0.00126	0.00059	0.00079	0.00126	0.00091	.00146
Cadmium	7440-43-9	0.00201	0.00026	0.00030	0.00353	0.00035	.00050
Chromium (total)	7440-47-3	0.04701	0.01308	0.00176	0.17206	0.03167	.00385
Lead	7439-92-1	0.01363	0.00433	0.00040	0.01179	0.00401	.00052
Manganese	7439-96-5	0.04016	0.01504	0.00054	0.03106	0.01199	.00072
Nickel	7440-02-0	0.01244	0.00119	0.00154	0.00298	0.00091	.00108

 Table 4.2 Metals Data Summary Comparisons 2005 - 2006

ND - Not Detected

Note that beryllium, cadmium, and nickel have means that are less than the MDL. These values are a function of the method of calculating the annual mean using one-half of the minimum detectable limit for "non-detect" samples. Table 4.1 shows that arsenic was never detected in the 59 samples. Beryllium was detected only 18 times out of 59 samples. Cadmium was detected only 12 times and nickel was detected only 7 times out of 59 samples.

Graphs – Metals

The metal compounds measured during the study are graphed in Figure 4.1. This figure shows that total chromium and manganese were the metals at highest concentration. Total chromium was higher in 2005 than in 2006. Perhaps this was due to the chromium contamination problem.

Figure 4.2 shows that lead, manganese, and chromium were at low levels for most of the year. Manganese was generally the highest compound, but chromium had a couple of peak levels.

Precision of Sample Results – Metals Compounds

Several times a month, a second PM_{10} sampler was run simultaneously with the main one. These duplicates were collected in order to assess the precision (repeatability) of the metals sampling method. In general, duplicates for all compounds showed good agreement.

Field Blanks – Metals Compounds

Periodically the laboratory analyzes a "blank", or unused, filter for metals. The purpose of this extra analysis is to determine if there was any contamination of the filter during manufacturing or during laboratory processing. In 2004, total chromium contamination was a problem for national air toxics network. These chromium contamination findings were believed to be related to the use of metal knives in cutting individual filters from the giant sheets prepared at the factory. At the extremely low levels of metals in ambient air that the national air toxics network is assessing, such filter contamination is a concern. The national project team evaluated new filter materials and sampling methods, and recommended changing to Teflon filters, and low volume PM_{10} samplers, in early 2005. Unfortunately, chromium continues to show up in the blanks of the 2005 and 2006 filters, along with lesser amounts of antimony and manganese. However, the chromium blank levels dropped a bit in 2006. Blank amounts are subtracted, but the chromium variability is still a problem, with blanks as high as 1.040 µg/filter.

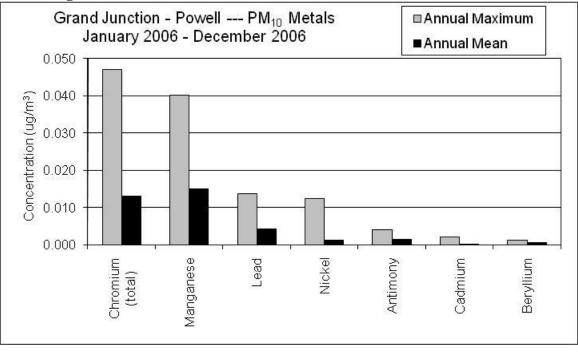


Figure 4.1 Maximum and Annual Mean Metal Concentrations - 2006

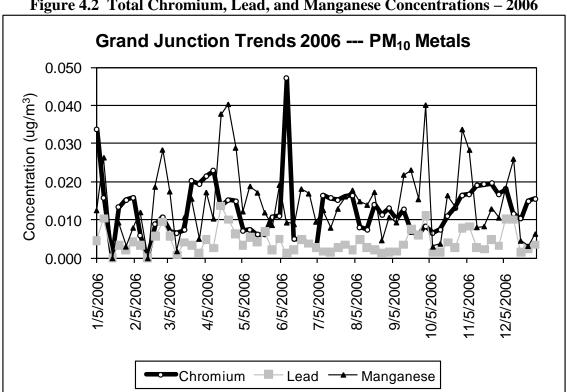


Figure 4.2 Total Chromium, Lead, and Manganese Concentrations – 2006

Section 5: Hexavalent Chromium at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Summary Statistics – Hexavalent Chromium

Maximum and Mean – All Samples

Hexavalent chromium data collected at the Grand Junction – Powell station from January 2006 through December 2006 are presented in this section. In 2005, a new hexavalent chromium sampler was added to the Grand Junction site. The technical steering committee made this decision for the nationwide air toxics monitoring network. The previous method only measured total chromium and could not distinguish between the trivalent (Cr^{3+}) and hexavalent (Cr^{6+}) forms. These two forms are quite different in their health effects; the Cr^{6+} form is a carcinogen, while the Cr^{3+} form is not. This new method is described in the document, "Hexavalent Chromium Method Development: Final Report, Work Assignment 5-03" by Eastern Research Group, Morrisville, North Carolina, September 30, 2005. Note that, due to its sensitivity, this method gives results in nanograms per cubic meter of air (ng/m³), a unit one thousand times lower than the micrograms per cubic meter (ug/m³) used elsewhere in this report.

During the year-long period, hexavalent chromium was sampled on an every-sixth-day basis, for a total of 61 samples attempted. Of these, 60 were recovered, for a percentage data recovery of 98.4. Table 5.1 summarizes the annual maximum and mean concentrations for hexavalent chromium during 2005 and 2006. The annual mean was calculated by using one-half of the minimum detection limit in place of the non-detect samples. This is an accepted conservative technique for calculating annual values when some of the samples were less than the laboratory's ability to measure.

Table 5.1	24 Hr Maximum and Annual Mean Concentrations for Hexavalent and Total
	Chromium – 2005 and 2006

Grand Junction – Powell	CAS	Maximum	Mean	Cr ⁶⁺ 59 Samples Taken – 200 Cr ⁶⁺ 60 Samples Taken - 200		Minimum Detection
Site	Number	ng/m ³	ng/m ³	Number Above Detection	Percentage Above Detection	Level ng/m ³
Hexavalent Chromium - 2005	1854-02-99	0.0952	0.0230	40	67.8	0.0173
Total Chromium - 2005	7440-43-3	172.1	31.7	59	100.0	3.8
Hexavalent Chromium - 2006	1854-02-99	0.1130	0.0300	49	81.7	0.0111
Total Chromium - 2006	7440-43-3	47.01	13.08	59	100.0	1.76

Percentage of Samples For Which Compound Was Detected

Hexavalent chromium was at detectable levels about eighty percent of the time. In 2006, the hexavalent chromium detection level dropped a bit, so more samples were above the detection limit. Total chromium (measured from the PM_{10} filters) was always present.

Graphs – Hexavalent Chromium

Figure 5.1 shows annual maximum and mean hexavalent chromium concentrations for 2006. Figure 5.2 shows hexavalent chromium concentrations during the calendar year. Most concentrations were less than 0.080 ng/m^3 for the year. The maximum concentration occurred in August.

Precision of Sample Results – Hexavalent Chromium

Every other month a second hexavalent chromium sample was run simultaneously with the main one, in order to assess the precision (repeatability) of the sampling method. In general, duplicates for four of the six duplicate dates showed good agreement. One of the two that did not show good agreement had levels below detection limit. The reason for the disagreement in the other paired result, (.043 vs 0.033 ng/m³), is not known.

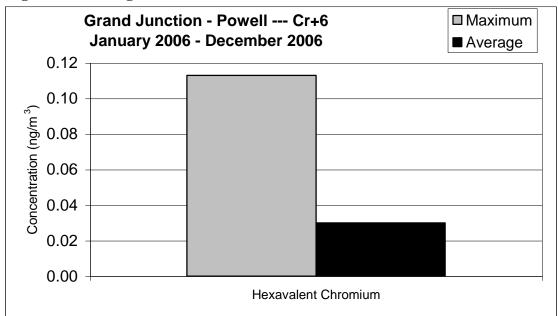
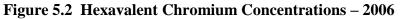
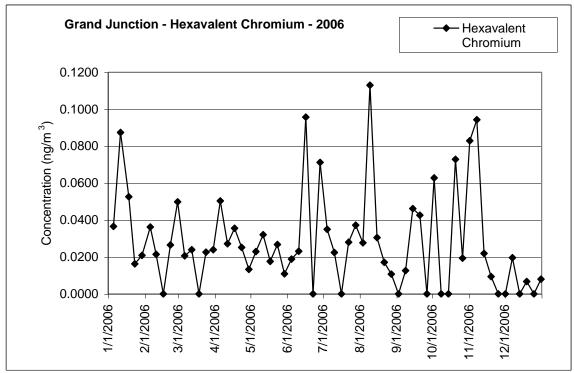


Figure 5.1 Average and Maximum Hexavalent Chromium Concentration - 2006





Field Blanks – Hexavalent Chromium

Twice a month a filter was transported to the field, placed on the sampler, and immediately removed, without having any air passed through it. These "field blanks" were taken to assess whether contamination in the field or the sampling materials is significant. Out of 24 field blanks taken, only two showed detectable levels of hexavalent chromium. Unlike the total chromium samples discussed in Section 4, hexavalent chromium samples are not potentially compromised by high blank levels. This is good, because the concentrations of hexavalent chromium are more relevant to risk assessment than the amount of total chromium is.

Section 6: Carbon Monoxide at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Summary Statistics - Carbon Monoxide

Maximum – All Samples

The Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment operates a carbon monoxide monitor at the Grand Junction – Powell station. This monitor was installed on January 29, 2004 as a part of the Colorado Department of Public Health & Environment's statewide air quality measurement network. Results of the statewide carbon monoxide monitoring network are discussed in "Colorado: 2006 Air Quality Data Report" by the Air Pollution Control Division. Table 6.1 shows the most recent annual NAAQS statistics for this area.

Grand Junction –	1 Ho	our Average (p	opm)	8 Hour Average (ppm)		
Powell Site	Federal Standard Maximum		2 nd Maximum	Federal Standard	Maximum	2 nd Maximum
Carbon Monoxide	35	3.0	2.8	9	1.9	1.7

Table 6.1	Carbon M	Monoxide	Data	Summary	7 - 2006
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Figure 6.1 summarizes daily means and daily one-hour maximum carbon monoxide samples for the dates that air toxics sampling took place. (Air toxics were sampled once every-sixth-day). The national air toxics monitoring network hopes to use contemporaneous carbon monoxide data as an indication of motor vehicle activity. In the future, levels of air toxics compounds that are mobile source-related will be analyzed for increases or decreases over time. The carbon monoxide data should provide some indication of whether overall vehicular emissions are increasing or decreasing over time.

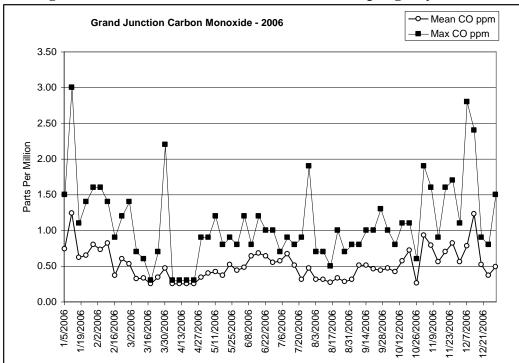


Figure 6.1 Carbon Monoxide on Air Toxics Sampling Days - 2006

Section 7: Particulate Matter at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Particulate Data At Grand Junction - Powell

The Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment operates samplers for particulate matter 10 microns or less in diameter (PM_{10}) and particulate matter 2.5 microns or less in diameter ($PM_{2.5}$) at the Grand Junction – Powell station. These samplers serve to indicate the status of Grand Junction regarding the NAAQS for PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$. Results of the statewide particulate matter monitoring network are discussed in "Colorado: 2006 Air Quality Data Report" by the Air Pollution Control Division. Table 7.1 shows the percentage PM_{10} data recovery for the year. Table 7.2 shows the most recent annual PM_{10} NAAQS statistics for this area. Tables 7.3 and 7.4 give the same information for $PM_{2.5}$. Note that the PM_{10} data are at standard conditions, while the $PM_{2.5}$ data are at local conditions. This is because the Colorado state version of the PM_{10} standard requires that "standard" conditions of temperature and pressure be used. This corrects for the fact that air temperatures and pressure is different at various altitudes, by adjusting the air volume to what it would be at sea level. The federal standard for $PM_{2.5}$ does not require this correction, so "local" conditions of temperature and pressure are used (no altitude correction is done). Grand Junction is well below the national air standards for particulate matter.

Station	Samples	Sample Days	Percentage	
	Recovered	Scheduled	Recovered	
Grand Junction - Powell Site	121	122	99.2	

Table 7.1 Percentage Data Recovery for PM₁₀ Samples - 2006

Grand Junction –	Annual Arith (µg/m³ at Stand	nmetic Mean ard Conditions)	24 Hour Maximum (μg/m³ at Standard Conditions)			
Powell Site	Standard	Annual Mean	Standard	Maximum	2 nd Maximum	
PM ₁₀	50	30.1	150	98.3	77.9	

Table 7.2 Data Summary for PM₁₀ Samples - 2006

Station	Samples	Sample Days	Percentage
	Recovered	Scheduled	Recovered
Grand Junction - Powell Site	122	122	100.0

Table 7.4 Data Summary for PM_{2.5} Samples - 2006

Grand Junction – Powell Site	Annual Arithmetic Mean (µg/m ³ at Local Conditions)		98 th Percentile (µg/m ³ at Local Conditions)	
r owen one	Standard	Annual Mean	Standard	98 th Percentile
PM _{2.5}	15	9.70	65	24.1

Figure 7.1 is a graph of PM_{10} versus $PM_{2.5}$ values, for each day sampled. The two pollutants behaved differently, with PM_{10} showing peaks and valleys, and $PM_{2.5}$ staying fairly constant. This difference in behavior is likely due to the underlying sources. PM_{10} is dominated by surface disturbance of earth materials (street sand, windblown dust), while $PM_{2.5}$ particles are generated by combustion (automobile tailpipe emissions, coal burning, etc). The PM_{10} levels are subject to change due to daily weather conditions, whereas the $PM_{2.5}$ combustion source is more constant.

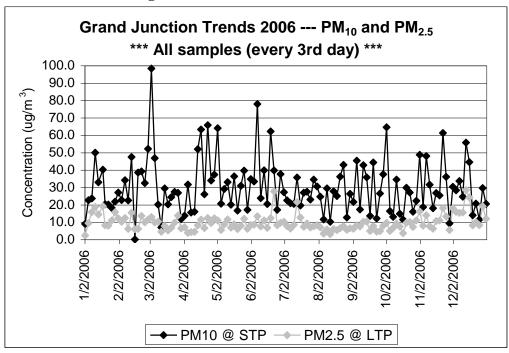


Figure 7.1 PM10 and PM2.5 - 2006

Section 8: PM_{2.5} Speciation at Grand Junction – Powell Site

Summary Statistics – PM_{2.5} Speciation Data

A primary reason for locating the National Air Toxics Trend Station at Grand Junction was the availability of contemporaneous $PM_{2.5}$ sample speciation data. These data are summarized below. A number of elements and ions are detected, at low levels, in the air.

	2006 Maximum	2006 Mean	2005 Maximum	2005 Mean
Metal/Compound	ug/m ³	ug/m ³	ug/m ³	ug/m ³
Antimony	0.05360	0.00202	0.05360	0.00593
Aluminum	0.36800	0.08061	0.16200	0.04426
Arsenic	0.00456	0.00052	0.00261	0.00039
Barium	0.40500	0.01152	0.04790	0.00940
Bromine	0.00758	0.00195	0.00572	0.00193
Cadmium	0.01400	0.00168	0.01750	0.00231
Calcium	0.47300	0.11264	0.21400	0.07572
Cerium	0.08860	0.00548	0.11600	0.01245
Cesium	0.03080	0.00166	0.07250	0.00279
Chlorine	0.17800	0.00961	0.02220	0.00274
Chromium (Total)	0.00720	0.00099	0.00723	0.00140
Cobalt	0.00176	0.00008	0.00164	0.00016
Copper	0.02340	0.00338	0.01070	0.00246
Europium	0.01970	0.00080	0.01190	0.00151
Gallium	0.00619	0.00081	0.00712	0.00070
Gold	0.00385	0.00040	0.00876	0.00055
Hafnium	0.01860	0.00065	0.01330	0.00128
Indium	0.02010	0.00123	0.01790	0.00166
Iridium	0.00409	0.00056	0.00631	0.00064
Iron	0.37400	0.12532	0.24300	0.10279
Lanthanum	0.04390	0.00305	0.04180	0.00806
Lead	0.01360	0.00270	0.01510	0.00296
Magnesium	0.07460	0.00544	0.08970	0.00660
Manganese	0.01010	0.00271	0.00703	0.00212
Mercury *	0.00841	0.00104	0.00991	0.00155
Molybdenum	0.00782	0.00043	0.00642	0.00035
Nickel	0.00521	0.00061	0.00350	0.00058
Niobium	0.00759	0.00041	0.00419	0.00027
Phosphorus	0.01020	0.00030	0.01670	0.00130
Potassium	0.20600	0.08633	0.18500	0.06829
Rubidium	0.00537	0.00044	0.00234	0.00036
Samarium	0.00536	0.00047	0.01280	0.00164
Scandium	0.00291	0.00015	0.00163	0.00015
Selenium	0.00969	0.00095	0.00339	0.00096
Silicon	0.86200	0.27287	0.58200	0.18672
Silver	0.02320	0.00230	0.01720	0.00209

Table 8.1 Annual Maximum and Mean Concentrations for PM_{2.5} Speciation

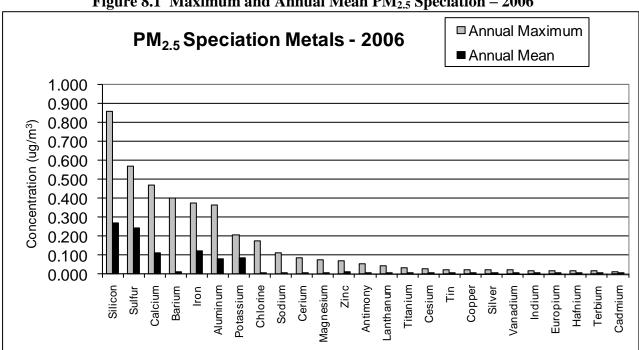
	2006 Maximum	2006 Mean	2005 Maximum	2005 Mean
Metal/Compound	ug/m ³	ug/m ³	ug/m ³	ug/m ³
Sodium	0.11200	0.00781	0.27200	0.01491
Strontium	0.00771	0.00115	0.00365	0.00121
Sulfur	0.57000	0.24487	0.56500	0.25857
Tantalum	0.00793	0.00081	0.00956	0.00091
Terbium	0.01690	0.00045	0.02230	0.00429
Tin	0.02600	0.00233	0.02470	0.00400
Titanium	0.03170	0.00600	0.03050	0.00896
Tungsten	0.00911	0.00092	0.00991	0.00128
Vanadium	0.02140	0.00331	0.00700	0.00131
Yttrium	0.00595	0.00057	0.00326	0.00046
Zinc	0.07300	0.01433	0.08110	0.01287
Zirconium	0.01390	0.00133	0.00616	0.00113
Organic Carbon	12.00000	4.49820	9.80000	4.38741
Ammonium	1.67000	0.44734	1.31000	0.42124
Elemental Carbon	2.97000	0.79450	2.32000	0.78429
Nitrate	5.32000	0.90293	4.18000	0.77679
Potassium Ion	0.18300	0.04003	0.14700	0.03035
Sodium Ion	0.08500	0.03039	0.15000	0.02997
Sulfate	1.75000	0.73630	1.88000	0.77502

* Mercury is highly volatile. Therefore, the use of filter sampling methods likely underestimates ambient concentrations.

Graphs – PM2.5 Speciation Data

Graphs of mean and maximum concentration for various elemental species indicate that those with the highest concentrations were aluminum, calcium, iron, silicon, sulfur, barium, and potassium. These elements are all present in the earth's crust, which suggests that geological material is an important component of $PM_{2.5}$ at this location. The crustal material could be from wind blown dust, street sand, or electric power plant fly ash. Wind blown dust and street sand are usually in the PM_{10} particulate matter size fraction, but fly ash occurs in the $PM_{2.5}$ size fraction. Cesium is also fairly high, for reasons that are not known. This element has both naturally-occurring, non-radioactive forms (in minerals), and man-made, radioactive forms (from nuclear power plants and atmospheric fallout from nuclear weapons testing).

Carbon is present in soot from burning. Nitrate and sulfate form as the gases nitrogen dioxide and sulfur dioxide condense. These components, along with ammonium, play an important role in visibility degradation (visible haze). Ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate particulate matter absorbs light, so the view appears hazy when these are in the air.



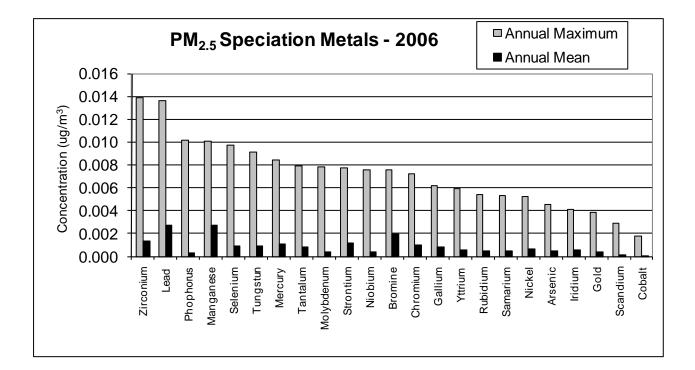
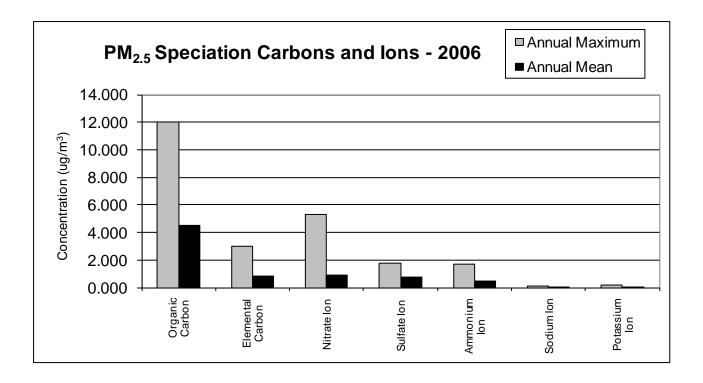


Figure 8.1 Maximum and Annual Mean PM_{2.5} Speciation – 2006



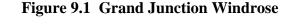
Section 9: Meteorology

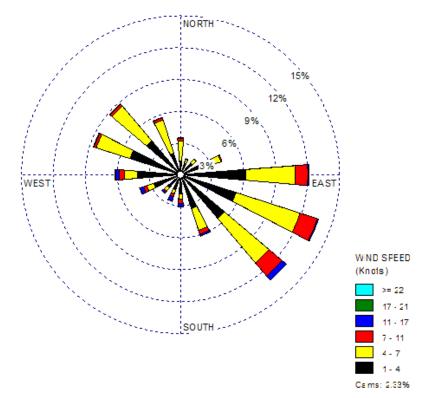
Meteorological Parameters Monitored

A meteorological tower at the Pitkin shelter site measures wind speed, wind direction, relative humidity and temperature. The year 2006 wind rose is shown below. The "arms" of this diagram show the percentage of the time that the wind blew from each direction. The shading on each arm indicates the wind speeds associated with each direction. For example, about 9% of the winds are from the northwest. Wind speeds in the ranges of 1-4 mph or 4-7 mph are the most frequent.

The wind rose shows that winds follow a daily pattern typical of river valleys. At night, the winds come from the southeast quarter, flowing down river. During the day, heating of the air causes flow reversals, and flow comes from the northwest.

A look at the highest concentration days for each pollutant indicated that often "high" days for each compound were not the "high" days for the other compounds. This is not that surprising, given that the pollutants show such variation. Some are in gaseous form, and some are in particulate matter. Some are from automobiles, and thus ubiquitous, while others are source-specific. Two dates did show maxima for more than one type of air pollutant. January 11, 2006 was high for toluene, ethylbenzene, PM10, lead in PM10, and hexavalent chromium. February 28, 2006 was high for volatile organic compounds toluene, ethylbenzene, m,p-xylene, dichloromethane, chloromethane, trichlorofluoromethane, and also for hexavalent chromium. The source of these pollutants could be automobile emissions, with higher levels due to air being trapped near the ground during wintertime temperature inversions.





Section 10: Summary and Conclusions

The National Air Toxics Trends Study in Grand Junction for 2006 showed similar results to prior years. The highest carbonyls in air were formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, and acetone. Thirteen volatile organic compounds are ubiquitous, having been detected in 90% of the air samples for 2005 and 2006. These are: acetylene, benzene, chloromethane, dichlorodifluoromethane, ethylbenzene, propylene, styrene, toluene, trichlorofluoromethane, trichlorotrifluoroethane, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, m,p-xylenes, and o-xylene, For the metals, chromium, lead, and manganese showed the highest concentrations. Hexavalent chromium is an extremely small fraction of the chromium in air.

A look at the highest concentration days for each pollutant indicated that often "high" days for each compound were not the "high" days for the other compounds. Two dates did show maxima for more than one type of air pollutant. January 11, 2006 was high for toluene, ethylbenzene, PM10, lead in PM10, and hexavalent chromium. February 28, 2006 was high for volatile organic compounds toluene, ethylbenzene, m,p-xylene, dichloromethane, chloromethane, trichlorofluoromethane, and also for hexavalent chromium. The source of these pollutants could be automobile emissions, with higher levels due to air being trapped near the ground during wintertime temperature inversions.

The study will continue in 2007. One of the major goals of this study is to run the site for six years, and then compare the mean concentrations for each pollutant during the first three years to the means for the next three years. The Environmental Protection Agency is conducting this study at a number of locations around the country. The purpose is to assess whether air pollution control strategies aimed at reducing air toxics have succeeded. These interim results, when compared to levels measured during the 2001 - 2002 Pilot study, suggest that levels are decreasing.

ATTACHMENT-1

Compounds Contributing to Cancer and Non-cancer Risks: Overview of Sources and Health Effects

Chemicals can be released to the environment as a result of their use and manufacture. Some chemicals may also form, as other chemicals react with sunlight and one another in outdoor air. A brief summary of the potential sources and health effects of some prevalent chemicals in the ambient air is provided below. This information is adopted from the following main sources: EPA Air Toxics Web site, EPA Office of Pollution Prevention and Toxics (OPPT), EPA Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS), Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), New Jersey Department of Health and Senior Services, Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), and the California Air Resources Board (CARB).

Carbonyls

Three of the twelve carbonyl compounds sampled are discussed below. These three are believed to be significant health risk drivers, at the nationwide level.

Acetaldehyde

Acetaldehyde is a hydrocarbon with the formula CH_3CHO . It is closely related to formaldehyde, HCHO. Like formaldehyde, it exists in the atmosphere as a gas with a pungent odor. Acetaldehyde is ubiquitous in the ambient environment. It is mainly used as an intermediate in the synthesis of other chemicals, such as acetic acid, acetic anhydride, chloral, and glyoxal. It is employed in the food processing industry as a food and fish preservative, a flavoring agent, and in gelatin fibers. The tanning and paper industries use acetaldehyde, as do the perfume and dye manufacturers (CARB Acetaldehyde Fact Sheet).

Acetaldehyde can be released to the environment as a product of incomplete combustion in fireplaces and wood stoves, forest and wild fires, pulp and paper production, stationary internal combustion engines and turbines, vehicle exhaust, and petroleum refineries. Waste water processing is also a source. It is important to note that residential fireplaces and woodstoves are the two highest sources of emissions, followed by various industrial emissions.

Although it is used in industry, the California Air Resource Board believes that the largest sources in outdoor air are combustion and production from photochemical reactions (CARB Acetaldehyde Fact Sheet). Acetaldehyde itself can break down in these complex reactions between air pollutants and sunlight, forming formaldehyde.

The health effects of acetaldehyde are very similar to those of its chemical relative formaldehyde. It irritates the eyes and mucous membranes. It can paralyze the respiratory muscles, act as a narcotic to prevent coughing, and speed up pumping of the heart. Exposure can lead to headaches and sore throat. (Kirk Othmer, Vol 1, page 107). It should be noted that most of these health effects have been observed in factory workers, who are exposed to acetaldehyde concentrations thousands of times greater than those occurring in outdoor air. Acetaldehyde is believed to be a probable human carcinogen, leading to cancer of the nose and throat. Acetaldehyde has been shown to cause birth defects in animals, but no human research is available. (CARB Acetaldehyde Fact Sheet).

EPA's Technology Transfer Network Air Toxic Website provides information on the potential health effects of acetaldehyde. According to this source, the primary acute effects of acetaldehyde are irritation of the eyes, skin, and respiratory tract in humans. At higher exposure levels, erythema, coughing, pulmonary edema, and necrosis may happen. Chronic toxicity symptoms in humans resemble those of alcoholism.

The EPA has established a Reference Concentration (RfC) for inhalation exposure to acetaldehyde based on degeneration of the olfactory epithelium in rats. No information is available on the reproductive and developmental effects of acetaldehyde in humans. Animal studies data indicate that acetaldehyde may be a potential developmental toxin. EPA has classified acetaldehyde as a Group B2, probable human carcinogen, based on increased incidence of nasal tumors in male and female rats and laryngeal tumors in male and female hamsters after inhalation exposure.

The California Air Resources Board observed an annual mean of 1.33 ppb acetaldehyde in its state-wide network during 1996 (CARB Acetaldehyde Fact Sheet). The 2006 mean observed in this Grand Junction study, 1.3 ppb, is right at the California state-wide mean. Acetaldehyde levels are a national problem related primarily to the use of motor vehicles.

Crotonaldehyde

Crotonaldehyde with the chemical formula of C_4H_6O is also known as propylene aldehyde, betamethylacrolein, crotinin aldehyde and butenal. Crotonaldehyde is a colorless liquid with a pungent, suffocating odor.

Crotonaldehyde can be emitted to the environment from the combustion of gasoline, and the burning of wood, paper, cotton, plastic, and tobacco. It can also be released through industrial use. It is found naturally in emissions of some vegetables and volcanoes.

According to the ATSDR Medical Management Guidelines inhaled crotonaldehyde is highly toxic. It is irritating to the upper respiratory tract even at low concentrations. Crotonaldehyde vapor is heavier than air. Therefore, higher levels of crotonaldehyde vapors would be found nearer to the ground. The mechanism of toxicity of crotonaldehyde is not known, but it is highly reactive. Crotonaldehyde is also a skin irritant and can cause eye irritation and damage to the cornea. After an acute, relatively high concentration exposure, people may become sensitized to crotonaldehyde. Except for rare cases of sensitization, no health effects have been reported in humans exposed to relatively low concentrations of crotonaldehyde. No studies have been found that address reproductive or developmental effects of crotonaldehyde in humans. The compound has been shown to cause degeneration of spermatocytes in mice. No teratogenic effects from acute exposures have been reported.

The Department of Health and Human Services has determined that crotonaldehyde may be a possible carcinogen. The EPA IRIS has classified crotonaldehyde as a possible carcinogen based on the fact that there is no human data, but an increased incidence of hepatic tumors in male rats. The possible carcinogenicity of crotonaldehyde is supported by genotoxic activity and the expected reactivity of croton oil and aldehyde. The EPA IRIS, however, has not derived a cancer toxicity value for the compound. The EPA HEAST (Health Effects Summary Tables) has established an oral cancer toxicity value for crotonaldehyde. The Agency for Research on Cancer has determined that crotonaldehyde is not classifiable as to its carcinogenicity to humans.

Information concerning typical concentrations of crotonaldehydes in air could not be located. The Grand Junction annual mean concentration for 2006 was 0.06 ppb.

Formaldehyde

Formaldehyde is a hydrocarbon compound with the formula HCHO. It exists in the atmosphere as a colorless gas with a pungent odor. It is used in the manufacture of urea-formaldehyde resins which are used in particleboard and plywood products. Therefore, high levels of airborne formaldehyde can also be found in indoor air as a result of release from various consumer products such as building materials and home furnishings. Another source of formaldehyde in indoor air is smoking. It is also employed in chemical manufacturing of pharmaceuticals, herbicides, and sealants. Textile finishes, such as used for "permanent press" clothes, contain formaldehyde (Kirk-Othmer, Vol 11, pages 245 - 246).

EPA's Technology Transfer Network Air Toxic Website provides information on the potential sources and health effects of formaldehyde. According to this source, the major sources of formaldehyde emissions to the ambient air include power plants, manufacturing facilities, incinerators, forest and wild fires, stationary internal

combustion engines and turbines, pulp and paper plants, petroleum refineries, and automobile traffic. In urban areas, combustion of automotive fuel is the dominant source for much of the year. However, formaldehyde can also form photochemically in the air, as other hydrocarbons and oxides of nitrogen from automobile traffic break down to form ozone. Complicating the situation is the fact that the complex ozone-producing atmospheric reactions may both create and destroy formaldehyde, as the chains of chemical reactions proceed along various pathways.

The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), lists a number of possible health effects that may occur from inhalation of formaldehyde. Formaldehyde is an irritant. The major acute toxic effects via inhalation exposure are eye, nose, and throat irritation and effects on the nasal cavity. At 0.4 - 3 ppm, it may cause the eyes to tear. Other effects observed in humans from exposure to high levels of formaldehyde are coughing, wheezing, chest pain, and bronchitis (EPA's Technology Transfer Network Air Toxic Website). Formaldehyde is believed to be carcinogenic (cancer-causing) to humans. However, the body can quickly break down formaldehyde, so it does not accumulate in fatty tissue. Currently, ATSDR believes that formaldehyde does not cause birth defects in humans (ATSDR Toxicological Profile for Formaldehyde). The main concerns with this compound are its irritant properties and its potential ability to cause cancer of the nose and throat.

Chronic inhalation exposure to formaldehyde in humans has been associated with respiratory symptoms and eye, nose, and throat irritation. EPA has not established an inhalation Reference Concentration (RfC) for formaldehyde. However, the ATSDR has established an inhalation reference concentration called a Minimal Risk Level (MRL) for formaldehyde based on respiratory effects in humans. Developmental effects, such as birth defects, have not been observed in animal studies. EPA has classified formaldehyde as a Group B1, probable human carcinogen, based on limited evidence in humans and sufficient evidence in animals. Occupational studies have shown statistically significant increases in incidence of lung and nasopharyngeal cancer. This evidence is considered limited because of possible exposure to other agents. Animal studies have reported an increased incidence of nasal squamous cell carcinoma by inhalation exposure. Please see the EPA IRIS database for a detailed discussion on the carcinogenicity of formaldehyde.

ATSDR states that typical levels of formaldehyde in urban air are 10 - 20 ppb. ATSDR cites concentrations of 0.2 ppb for rural areas, and 2-6 ppb for suburban areas (ATSDR Toxicological Profile for Formaldehyde). The mean level observed in Grand Junction during 2006, 3.3 ppb, is within the "suburban" range.

Volatile Organic Compounds

Volatile organic compounds that are potential risk drivers include acetonitrile, acrolein, 1,3 – butadiene, benzene, carbon tetrachloride, tetrachloroethylene, 1,3,5 – trimethylbenzene and 1,2,4 - trimethylbenzene. Some health summary and source information regarding these compounds is given below.

Acetonitrile

Acetonitrile is a volatile organic compound with the formula CH_3CN . In the atmosphere, it exists as a gas. Acetonitrile is used in the chemical industry for making acrylic fibers, nitrile rubber, perfumes and pharmaceuticals. (CARB Fact Sheet on Acetonitrile). It is often used as a solvent.

Emissions from automobiles and manufacturing operations are the main atmospheric sources of acetonitrile. The California Air Resources Board indicates that coating, engraving, and allied services are the main stationary sources of the compound in California (CARB Fact Sheet on Acetonitrile).

Acetonitrile, also known as methyl cyanide, is metabolized to hydrogen cyanide in the human body (EPA OPPT Chemical Fact Sheet on Acetonitrile). As this metabolism takes time, health reactions to an exposure to acetonitrile may be delayed. Acetonitrile is an irritant to the skin, eyes, and lungs. Very high exposures can affect the nervous system, leading to drooling, nausea, vomiting, confusion, headache, and convulsions. Levels greater than 500 ppm can cause death (New Jersey Hazardous Substance Fact Sheet on Acetonitrile). It should be noted that many of these health effects are observed to occur at concentrations thousands of times higher than those usually found in outdoor air. Studies have indicated that acetonitrile can cause birth defects in animals, but generally only at levels where the mother is experiencing obvious symptoms. The EPA has established a Reference

Concentration for inhalation exposure to acetonitrile based on mortality in mice. It is not known whether acetonitrile can cause cancer. Due to a lack of studies in this area EPA considers it not classifiable as to carcinogenic status.

EPA's OPPT chemical fact sheet on acetonitrile cites air concentration information in the Hazardous Substance Data Bank (HSDB). According to this source, levels in rural and urban US areas range from 2 to 7 ppb. The 2006 annual mean of 0.35 ppb at Grand Junction is a below the normal range.

Acrolein

Acrolein is a hydrocarbon compound with the formula CH_2 =CH-CHO. It exists in the atmosphere as a colorless gas with a pungent odor. It is used in the manufacture of plastics, drugs, pesticides, and other chemicals. Acrolein is a strong irritant, and is used in tear gas. Acrolein is a byproduct of burning. It is produced from burning of gasoline or diesel fuels in cars, as well as from wood-burning and forest fires. Coal-burning power plants emit some acrolein. Cigarette smoke is a source of acrolein in indoor air.

In urban areas, combustion of automotive fuel is the dominant source for much of the year. Acrolein can also form photochemically in the air, as other hydrocarbons and oxides of nitrogen from automobile traffic break down to form ozone. However, in outdoor air acrolein itself quickly breaks down to form other compounds, with less than a 24-hour half-life.

The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), lists a number of possible health effects that may occur from inhalation of acrolein. It is an irritant. The major acute toxic effects via inhalation exposure are eye, nose, throat and lung irritation, as well as effects on the nasal cavity. It can cause the eyes to tear. Other effects observed in humans from exposure to high levels of acrolein are coughing, wheezing, chest pain, and pulmonary edema. Acrolein has neurological effects such as lightheadedness, headaches, unconsciousness, and death. Acrolein is not believed to be carcinogenic (cancer-causing) to humans. Animal studies suggest that it may be able to cause birth defects, if maternal exposure is high enough to cause severe problems to the mother.

Chronic inhalation exposure to acrolein in humans has been associated with respiratory symptoms and eye, nose, and throat irritation. EPA has established an inhalation Reference Concentration (RfC) for acrolein of .00002 mg/m3. EPA has stated that acrolein's potential carcinogenicity cannot be determined, as the current database is inadequate.

ATSDR states that typical levels of acrolein in urban air are 0.2 ppb, with 0.12 ppb in rural air. (ATSDR Public Health Statement for Acrolein.). The mean level observed in Grand Junction during 2006, 0.27 ppb, is a bit higher than the urban number.

Benzene

Benzene is a hydrocarbon compound with the formula C_6H_6 . It exists in the atmosphere as a colorless gas with a sweet odor. It is used in chemical manufacturing of medicines, detergents, explosives, shoes, dyes, leather, resins, paints, plastics and inks (CARB Fact Sheet on Benzene). It is also present in gasoline.

The largest sources of benzene in ambient air are automobiles, gasoline service stations, refineries, and chemical plants. Burning of vegetative matter in forest fires and woodstoves is also a source. In ambient air, benzene reacts with hydroxyl (OH⁻) radicals within a few hours. Since hydroxyl radicals are common in outdoor air, this chemical transformation prevents the build-up of large concentrations of benzene.

Benzene is a serious concern from a toxicological standpoint. Unlike many of the compounds discussed here, benzene is a proven human carcinogen. It damages the blood-forming capacity of the body, leading to anemia or leukemia. Like the other volatile organic compounds, breathing large amounts can cause lightheadedness, headache, vomiting, convulsions, coma and death. It also irritates the skin and eyes, exerting a drying effect. However, these health effects are usually seen in workplaces, where levels are thousands of times higher than those in outdoor air. Experiments with laboratory animals suggest that benzene exposure may be associated with numerous cancers. It may cause bone marrow damage and bone formation problems for a developing fetus (ATSDR Toxicological Profile for Benzene). EPA has had concern about whether levels of benzene in outdoor air are associated with cancer and leukemia. While no link with outdoor air concentrations has been unequivocally proven, EPA has acted to reduce air concentrations of this pollutant.

The EPA has established a Reference Concentration for inhalation exposure to benzene based on decreased lymphocyte count in an occupational epidemiologic study. Benzene is classified as a "known" human carcinogen for all routes of exposure by the EPA IRIS based on the increased incidence of leukemia in epidemiologic and case studies.

The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) cites national 1984 to 1986 data from 300 cities, which indicate an average benzene level of 1.8 ppb for urban and suburban areas (ATSDR Toxicological Profile for Benzene). The Grand Junction – Powell site 2006 mean of 0.58 ppb observed in this study is somewhat lower.

1,3-Butadiene

1,3-Butadiene is a hydrocarbon compound with the formula C_4H_6 . It exists in the atmosphere as a colorless gas with an odor similar to gasoline. It is used in making rubber and plastics. The most important use is in tire production. It is also used in the production of chemicals such as 1,4-hexadiene (NIOSH Current Intelligence Bulletin 41).

According to the California Air Resources Board, most emissions of 1,3-butadiene come from combustion of fuels in diesel and gas-powered motor vehicles. Other sources that they list include petroleum refining, tire wear, residential wood heating, and forest fires. Rubber and chemical production plants also have emissions. Breathing of cigarette smoke is another source of 1,3-butadiene exposure (ATSDR Fact Sheet).

1,3-Butadiene is of concern toxicologically because it is characterized as carcinogenic to humans based on the new EPA guidelines for cancer risk assessment and it also has adverse effects on reproduction and fetal development. Exposure to high concentrations can cause irritation and central nervous system effects such as eye irritation, cough, sore throat, headache, drowsiness, nausea, unconsciousness, and death. Rats and mice exposed to this compound in laboratory tests developed multiple cancers within single individuals. The animals had damaged testes and ovaries, and offspring of the animals had skeletal problems. Other effects seen in animals at low levels of inhalation exposure for one year include kidney and liver disease, and damaged lungs (ATSDR Fact Sheet). Generally, the acute health effects have not been seen at concentrations existing in outdoor air. However, EPA considers that the levels of 1,3-butadiene in air may represent a significant portion of the cancer risk related to ambient airborne chemicals.

The EPA has established a Reference Concentration for inhalation exposure to 1,3-butadiene based on ovarian atrophy in mice. The EPA has characterized 1,3-butadiene as carcinogenic to humans by inhalation based on the following total evidence: sufficient evidence from epidemiologic studies showing increased lymphohema-topoietic cancers and leukemia; tumors at multiple sites in animal studies, and strong evidence suggesting that the carcinogenic effects are mediated by genotoxic metabolites of 1,3-butadiene.

ATSDR estimates that urban and suburban areas have an average concentration of 0.3 ppb 1,3-butadiene, while rural areas have 0.1 ppb (ATSDR Toxicological Profile for 1,3-Butadiene). The annual average for 2006 at Grand Junction - Powell is 0.09 ppb.

Carbon Tetrachloride

Carbon tetrachloride, also known as tetrachloromethane or methane tetrachloride, is a chlorinated hydrocarbon with the formula CCl₄. It exists in the atmosphere as a gas. It has a sweet odor. The primary uses of carbon tetrachloride were as a dry cleaning solvent, a grain fumigant, as a refrigerant, and as an aerosol propellant. Carbon tetrachloride has a long atmospheric half-life, so it can travel to the higher reaches of the atmosphere and

damage the earth's ozone layer. Due to its toxicity and ozone-damaging qualities, most uses of carbon tetrachloride have been banned. It is still in use in industrial settings for producing refrigerants.

Carbon tetrachloride is emitted to the air from industrial sources and from petroleum refineries (California Air Resources Board Toxic Air Contaminant Identification List Summary for Carbon Tetrachloride). Carbon tetrachloride is also a common indoor air contaminant due to releases from building materials and products, such as cleaning agents, used in homes (Air Toxic Website). There are no natural sources of carbon tetrachloride; it is produced by man (ATSDR Toxicological Profile for Carbon Tetrachloride).

As is true for many of the chlorinated hydrocarbons, breathing large concentrations of carbon tetrachloride has central nervous system effects including lightheadedness, coma, convulsions, double vision, intoxication, and death. It can also cause vomiting. In animal studies, it had effects on the liver and kidney. Male rats exposed to carbon tetrachloride had lower sperm production. Female rats exposed to it had stunted offspring with birth defects. These health effects are generally observed in occupational settings, where people had exposure to very high levels over a number of years.

EPA has not established a Reference Concentration for carbon tetrachloride. The CalEPA has established a Reference Exposure Level for carbon tetrachloride based on liver effects in guinea pigs. Carbon tetrachloride has been associated with liver and kidney cancer in animals. EPA considers it a Class B2 Carcinogen (probable human carcinogen) based on liver tumors in animals.

The California Air Resources Board has monitored carbon tetrachloride at a number of locations, and found a mean value of 0.078 ppb (California Air Resources Board Toxic Air Contaminant Identification List Summary for Carbon Tetrachloride). The 0.09 ppb annual mean for 2006 observed at Grand Junction – Powell is at the same level.

Tetrachloroethylene

Tetrachloroethylene, also known as perchloroethylene, is a chlorinated hydrocarbon with the formula C_2Cl_4 . It exists in the atmosphere as a gas. It has a "chloroform-like" odor (NIOSH Pocket Guide to Chemical Hazards, Tetrachloroethylene). The primary uses of tetrachloroethylene are as a dry cleaning solvent, metal cleaning solvent, or for chemical production. Tetrachloroethylene is used in paints, inks, aerosols, glues, polishes, silicones and rubber products (CARB Fact Sheet on Tetrachloroethylene and OPPT Chemical Fact Sheet on Tetrachloroethylene).

Most emissions of tetrachloroethylene come from degreasing, dry cleaning, or chemical production facilities. There are microorganisms that can produce tetrachloroethylene (ATSDR Toxicological Profile For Tetrachloroethylene).

As is true for many of the chlorinated hydrocarbons, breathing large concentrations of tetrachloroethylene has central nervous system effects including lightheadedness, coma, convulsions, double vision, intoxication, and death. It also can cause vomiting. In animal studies, it had effects on the liver and kidney. It also is an irritant to eyes, lungs, and skin. However, many of these health effects were observed in occupational settings, where exposure is much higher than in outdoor air. Some animal studies suggest that tetrachloroethylene exposure may lead to leukemia (NIOSH Registry of Toxic Effects of Chemical Substances Information for Tetrachloroethylene). Tetrachloroethylene has been associated with liver and kidney cancer in animals.

The ATSDR has established a Minimal Risk Level (MRL) based on nervous system effects in humans. It is important to note that EPA is currently re-evaluating the toxic potential of tetrachloroethylene, including its carcinogenicity, and therefore no relevant information is available in IRIS. In the interim, EPA recommends the use of CalEPA toxicity values as provisional values. The CalEPA cancer toxicity value is derived by considering data on liver tumors in male and female mice and mononuclear cell leukemia in male and female rats. EPA is currently working to revise the toxicity assessment for tetrachloroethylene.

The California Air Resources Board has monitored tetrachloroethylene at a number of locations within their state, and found a mean value of 0.019 ppb during 1996 (California Air Resources Board Toxic Air Contaminant Identification List Summary for Tetrachloroethylene). The 2006 annual mean at Grand Junction - Powell was 0.05 ppb. These levels are greater than the network-wide mean value for California.

1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene and 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene

1,3,5-trimethylbenzene and 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene are isomers of the hydrocarbon formula C₉H₁₂. In pure form they are colorless liquids. They are used in chemical manufacturing of medicines, detergents, dyes, paints and inks. Trimethylbenzenes are a large component of distilled petroleum. They are also used as gasoline additives.

The largest sources of trimethylbenzenes in ambient air are likely to be automobiles, gasoline service stations, refineries, and chemical plants. In ambient air, trimethylbenzenes have a half-life of less than a day (EPA OPPT Chemical Summary For 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene).

Health effects of trimethylbenzenes are similar to those of benzene. It damages the blood-clotting capacity of the body. Like the other volatile organic compounds, breathing large amounts can cause lightheadedness, headache, vomiting, convulsions, coma and death. It also irritates the skin and eyes, exerting a drying effect. Long-term exposure can lead to cough, reduced lung capacity, and bronchitis. However, these health effects are usually seen in workplaces, where levels are thousands of times higher than those in outdoor air. It is not known whether these compounds are carcinogenic. Some animal experiments suggest that they may cause bone formation problems for a developing fetus (EPA OPPT Chemical Summary For 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene).

The Environmental Protection Agency cites national data indicating that average atmospheric concentrations of 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene are 0.58 ppb in rural areas, and 1.20 ppb in cities (EPA OPPT Chemical Summary For 1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene). The Grand Junction - Powell site had a 2006 mean value of 0.17 ppb. As the EPA citation is for 1988, it is likely that concentrations have gone down in recent years. The mean for the 1,3,5 – trimethylbenzene isomer in 2006 was 0.05 ppb.

Metals

Arsenic, chromium, and manganese are discussed below. Levels of lead observed in Grand Junction were below the Colorado state standard of 1.5 μ g/m³ for a monthly average.

Arsenic

Arsenic is a metal-like element that occurs naturally in the earth's crust. Its chemical symbol is As. It exists in the atmosphere as particulate matter, in compounds formed from combination with other atoms such as oxygen, chlorine, and sulfur (ATSDR Public Health Statement for Arsenic). In the past, arsenic was used as a pesticide for orchard crops. Today, the chief use is in chromated copper arsenate (CCA) used to "pressure-treat" wood, to preserve it from decay in marine or in-ground usage. It is also used in metal alloy, glass-making, and electrical semi-conductors.

Emission sources of arsenic include smelters, coal-fired power plants, wood-burning, metals operations, mining operations, and incinerators. Arsenic occurs naturally in many soils, so wind-blown dusts from exposed land can contain it. Mine tailings piles generally contain enriched levels of arsenic, resulting in emissions of arsenic in the particulate emissions that occur under windy conditions. Soils contaminated by smelter fall-out can also be a source of emissions during high winds. Burning wood treated with CCA also leads to arsenic emissions.

Arsenic's toxicity has led to its use as a poison. Orally ingesting large amounts can be fatal. The effects of inhalation are similar to the oral effects. Arsenic disturbs the gastro-intestinal system, leading to abdominal pain, vomiting, and diarrhea. It affects the central nervous system, leading to nerve damage in the legs and arms. It can damage the liver and kidney. Arsenic also has effects on the skin, causing dark patches (hyperpigmentation), and skin cancer. Arsenic also irritates the eyes, lungs, and skin. These effects have been observed in situations of

occupational exposure that are significantly higher than concentrations seen in outdoor air. Exposure can lead to effects in the blood, such as anemia.

EPA has not established a Reference Concentration for arsenic. The Cal EPA has established a chronic reference level based on the developmental effects in mice; and other target organs included the cardiovascular system and nervous system. Arsenic exposure is known to cause lung cancer. EPA classifies arsenic in Group A, the known human carcinogens, based on an increased lung cancer mortality in multiple human populations exposed primarily through inhalation.

The Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) states that remote areas have concentrations of 0.001 to 0.003 μ g/m3 arsenic in air, while urban locations range from 0.020 to 0.100 μ g/m3 (ATSDR Toxicological Profile on Arsenic). Arsenic was not detected in the Grand Junction 2006 PM₁₀ samples. The annual mean in the PM_{2.5} speciation samples was 0.0005 ug/m3. It is likely that national levels of arsenic have decreased in recent years.

Chromium

Chromium is a metal that occurs naturally in the earth's crust. Its chemical symbol is Cr. It exists in the atmosphere as particulate matter, in compounds formed from combination with other atoms. Chromium may exist in several valence states, such as Cr^{0} , Cr^{+3} , and Cr^{+6} . The zero valence and trivalent forms are believed to have lower toxicity than the hexavalent form, Cr^{+6} . Chromium is used as an additive in metal processing and steel production, and also as a pigment in paints, rubber products, and plastics (California Air Resources Board Fact Sheet on Chromium). It is also used in leather tanning, and in wood preservatives. In the past, industrial cooling towers employed rust-preventing solutions that contained chromium. These towers were one of the largest chromium emissions sources, until the solutions were changed to formulas that did not contain chromium. The bricks used to line high-temperature furnaces may also contain chromium.

Emission sources of chromium include petroleum refineries, steel producers, chrome production plants, cement producers, coal-fired power plants, wood burning, metals operations, mining operations, and incinerators. Chromium occurs naturally in some soils, so wind-blown dusts from exposed land can contain it. Soils contaminated by smelter fall-out can also be a source of emissions during high winds. Burning wood treated with chromium also leads to emissions. Automobiles may emit small amounts of chromium from catalytic converters or the wearing of brake linings. Most chromium emitted to outdoor air is believed to be of the trivalent form, but some percentage is of the hexavalent form.

Chromium's toxicity varies, depending upon its valence state. Chromium ⁺³, the trivalent form, is believed to be an essential micronutrient in the human body. With regard to carcinogenicity, EPA classifies it in Group D, the unclassifiable compounds. This is due to lack of information regarding chromium ⁺³ exposures, which occur largely in industrial settings where Chromium ⁺⁶ is also present. Chromium ⁺⁶ has demonstrated health effects including lung cancer, allergic dermatitis, skin ulcers, and irritation of the nasal passages. It has also been shown to create holes in the nasal septum. It irritates the lungs and the gastro-intestinal tract. It can also damage the kidneys, lungs and blood. EPA classifies it in Group A, the known human carcinogens. However, it should be noted that these health effects have been observed in workers with long-term exposure to hexavalent chromium in industrial settings. These exposures were to chromium acid mists occurring at levels hundreds or thousands of times higher than chromium levels in outdoor air. Assessment of the health significance of outdoor levels is complicated by the fact that the monitoring method used in many studies, chemical analysis of chromium in particulate matter collected on filters, is incapable of distinguishing between chromium ⁺³ and chromium ⁺⁶. The National Air Toxics Trends Stations, of which Grand Junction is one, have recently started monitoring chromium ⁺⁶

The California Air Resources Board monitored chromium in 1996. They report a network-wide average of 0.0039 μ g/m³ total chromium, of which 0.00013 μ g/m³ was hexavalent chromium. They estimate that the hexavalent form accounts for about 3 to 8 percent of the total chromium measured (CARB Fact Sheet on Chromium). The 0.001 and 0.0047 annual means measured at two Grand Junction sites in 2000 – 2001 are close to the California results. For 2006, the Grand Junction site had a mean of 0.013 μ g/m³ total chromium, and 0.000300

ug/m³ hexavalent chromium. This means that hexavalent chromium levels are considerably lower than the 3-8% fraction California estimated. It is also likely that levels have decreased in recent years.

Manganese

Manganese is a metal that occurs naturally in the earth's crust. Its chemical symbol is "Mn". It exists in the atmosphere as particulate matter, in compounds formed from combination with other atoms. Manganese is used as an additive in metal processing and steel production. It is also used in ceramics, matches, glass, dyes, batteries, and as a pigment in paints (California Air Resources Board Fact Sheet on Manganese). It is also employed in wood preservatives. Organic forms of manganese are used as pesticides and for disease prevention in crops such as fruits, vegetables, and cotton.

Emission sources of manganese include petroleum refineries, steel producers, cement producers, coal-fired power plants, wood-burning, metals operations, mining operations, and incinerators. Manganese occurs naturally in some soils, so wind-blown dusts from exposed land can contain it. Soils contaminated by smelter fall-out can also be a source of emissions during high winds.

Manganese is considered an essential micronutrient in the human body. The body tends to regulate manganese concentrations, so oral exposure to small amounts naturally present in food is rarely a problem. Exposure of manganese by inhalation can lead to health effects. Manganese health effects on the respiratory system include lung irritation, chemical pneumonia, cough, and bronchitis. Manganese may damage the central nervous system. The disease known as "manganism", which results from manganese poisoning, includes psychological and nervous system damage. Individuals with manganism have a mask-like face, depression, uncontrollable laughter, and lethargy. The central nervous system effects include trouble with tremors, balance and walking that is similar to that of Parkinson's disease. Central nervous system damage can occur at exposure levels below those that lead to manganism. Examples are decreases in visual reaction time, hand steadiness, and eye-hand coordination. Manganese also affects the gastro-intestinal tract and the kidneys. However, it should be noted that these health effects have been observed in workers with long-term exposure to manganese fumes and dusts in industrial settings. These exposures were at levels hundreds or thousands of times higher than manganese levels in outdoor air.

EPA classifies manganese as Group D, unclassifiable as to carcinogenic potential. This is because there is little evidence to link it to cancer health effects. EPA has established a Reference Concentration for manganese based on an impairment of neurobehavioral function in humans in occupational exposure studies.

The California Air Resources Board monitored manganese in 1996. They report a network-wide average of $0.0212 \ \mu g/m3$ total manganese (CARB Fact Sheet on Manganese). The 0.015 ug/m3 annual mean for 2006 measured at Grand Junction is below the California average.

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ATTACHMENT-2

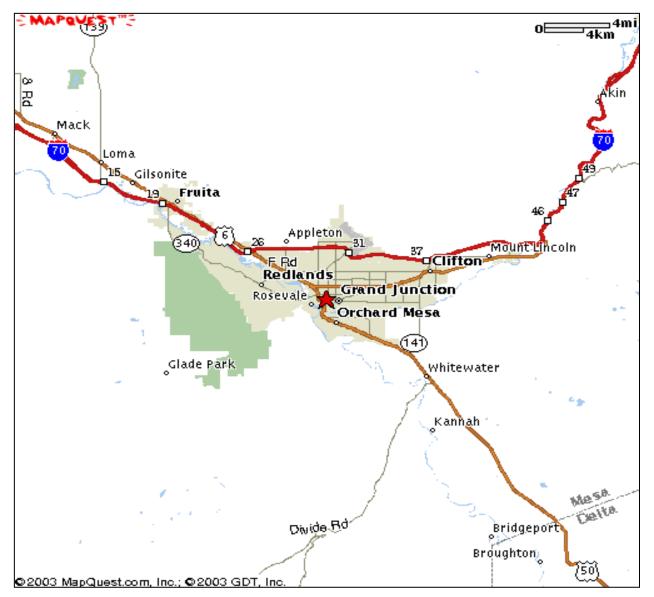
Documentation for Grand Junction Urban Air Toxics Trends Monitoring Locations

REGIONAL MAP (5 - 30 miles)

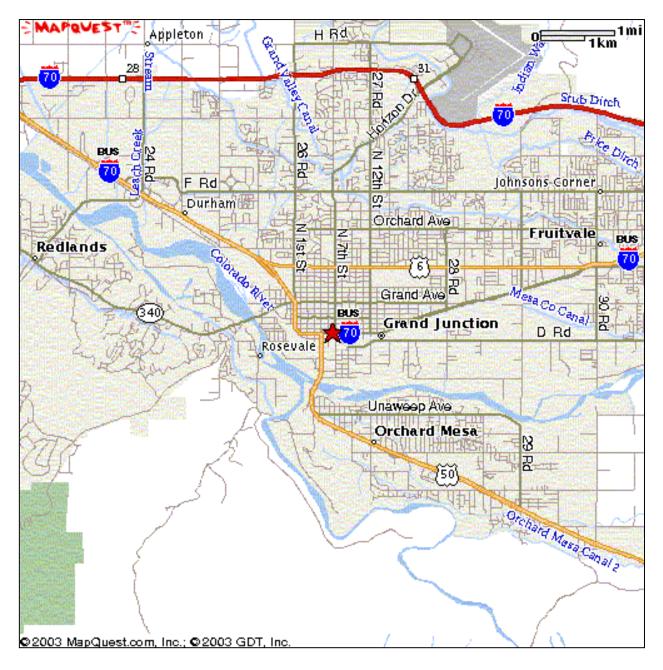
AQS ID: <u>08-077-0017</u> Site Name: <u>Grand Junction – Powell Building</u> 650 South Avenue, Grand Junction, CO 81501 GPS: Zone 12, 710962 E, 4326741 N, elev. 1396m 39° 03' 51" N, 108° 33' 42" W

AQS ID: <u>08-077-0018</u> Site Name: <u>Grand Junction – Powell/Pitkin(shelter)</u> 645 ¹/₄ Pitkin Avenue, Grand Junction, CO 81501 GPS: Zone 12, 710962 E, 4326741 N, elev. 1396m 39° 03' 51" N, 108° 33' 42" W

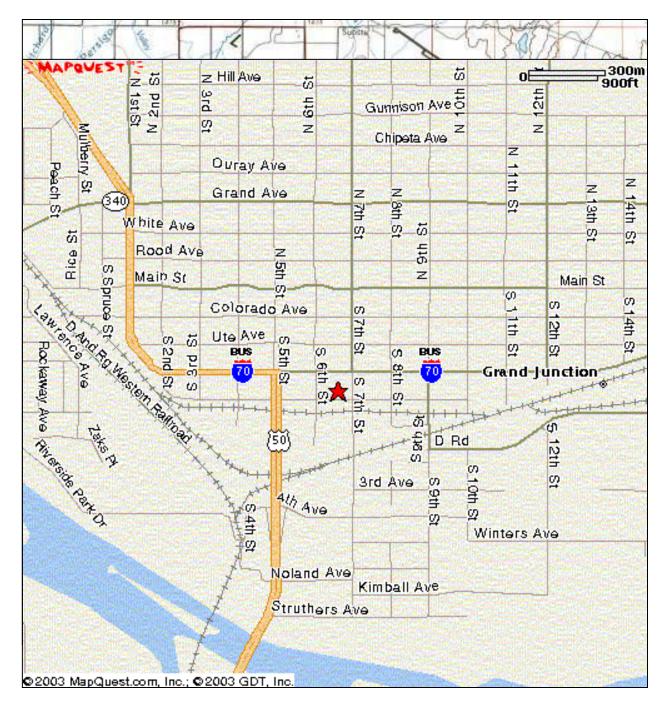
REGIONAL MAP (5 - 30 miles)



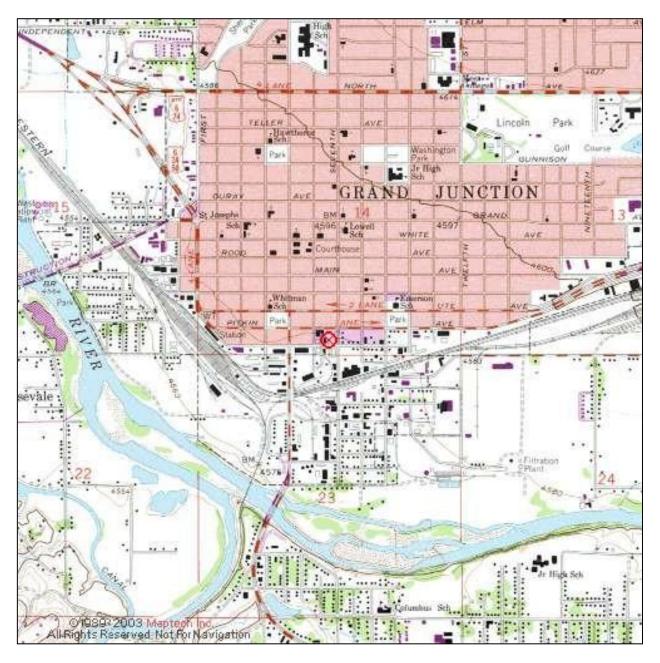
REGIONAL MAP (5 - 30 miles)



SITE MAP (1/4 - 1 mile)



SITE MAP (1/4 - 1 mile)

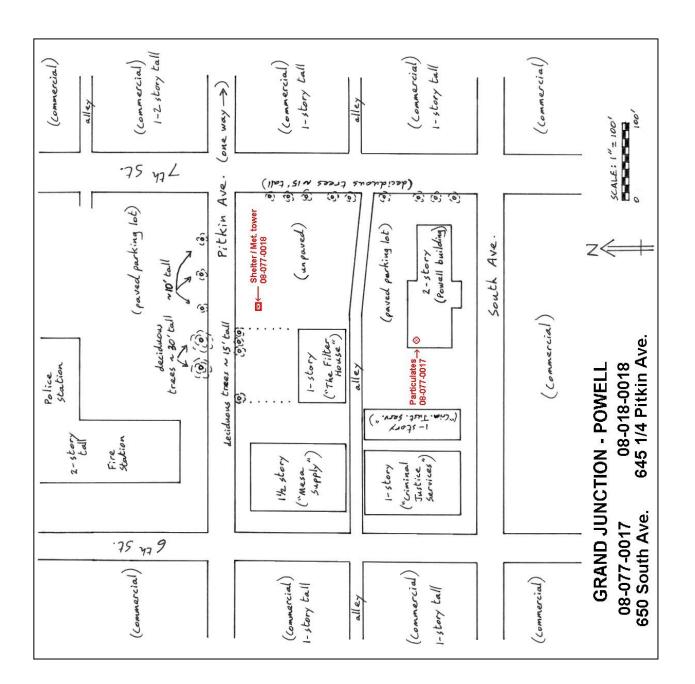


Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell Building





SITE MAP (1/4 - 1 mile)



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell Building Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Site Photo: Looking South (from gaseous shelter)

Site Photo: Looking Northwest



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell Building Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking NORTH



Looking NORTHEAST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell Building Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking EAST



Looking SOUTHEAST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell Building Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking SOUTH



Looking SOUTHWEST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell Building Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking WEST



Looking NORTHWEST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell (shelter) Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Site Photo: Looking North (from particulate samplers)



Site Photo: Looking Northwest



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell (shelter) Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking NORTH



Looking NORTHEAST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell (shelter) Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking EAST



Looking SOUTHEAST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell (shelter) Photo Date: 01/21/2004



Looking SOUTH

Looking SOUTHWEST



Site Name: Grand Junction – Powell (shelter) Photo Date: 01/21/2004

Looking WEST



Looking NORTHWEST





Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment