

DETERMINATION OF SAFE BUFFER WIDTH OF ROADWAY TO PROTECT
HUMAN HEALTH FORM HARMFUL NO_x EXPOSURE

by

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ABSTRACT

DETERMINATION OF SAFE BUFFER WIDTH OF ROADWAY TO PROTECT HUMAN HEALTH FROM HAZARDOUS NO_x EXPOSURE

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According to the 2004 EPA Trends Report, US on-road transportation sources emit 36% of nitrogen oxides (NO_x), 63% of carbon monoxide (CO), and 29% of volatile organic compounds (VOCs). This research determines a safe roadway buffer width to protect human health from air pollutant (NO_x) exposure.

The method was used to determine a buffer width for NO_x along Great Southwest Parkway in Grand Prairie, Texas. NO_x health effects include eye, nose, throat, and lung irritation; cough; shortness of breath; tiredness and nausea. In the

Dallas Fort Worth region, where Grand Prairie is located, on-road vehicles contribute over 50 % of NO_x emissions.

Vehicle NO_x emission rates along Great Southwest Parkway were measured using a Horiba 1300 OBS on-board emission measurement system, to determine a maximum 2.02 g/mile emission factor for the corridor. Hourly DFW meteorological data for a 5-year period was processed using Cal3qhcr to determine the 10 worst-case meteorological combinations for a 1-hour averaging time, and the 5 worst for an 8-hour averaging time. The maximum emission factor and worst-case meteorological conditions were input into the line source dispersion model CALINE4 to determine worst-case concentrations at 5-m intervals away from the roadway. CALINE4 output was post-processed in Arc View GIS to plot concentrations at receptor locations. Worst-case concentrations were compared to 1-hour NO_x standards implemented in Hong Kong. For the current Great Southwest traffic volume, it was found that 1-hour NO_x standards would not be exceeded. Additional CALINE4 runs were conducted to determine how much the traffic volume could increase, and still avoid exceedances outside a 20-foot buffer width, which is a common setback distance in residential areas. It was determined that the traffic volume could increase by a factor of 15 and still protect human health from NO_x impacts, using a 20-foot buffer.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Dispersion Modeling.	2
1.3 Line Source Dispersion Modeling and its Role in Transportation Planning.....	2
1.4 Purpose of the Research and Organizational Structure.	3
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	4
2.1 Background.....	4
2.1.1 Transportation Sources and Impacts.....	4
2.2 Air Quality Standards.....	6
2.2.1 National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS).....	6
2.2.2 Hong Kong Air Quality Standards	8
2.3 Dispersion Modeling & Roadway/Line	

Source Modeling - The Caline4 Model	10
2.3.1 Model Description	11
2.3.2 Intersection Link Option.....	14
2.3.3 NO ₂ Option.	15
2.4 Emission Data Collection	15
2.4.1 Background.....	15
2.4.2 Dynamometer	16
2.4.3 Remote Sensing	16
2.4.4 Macroscopic Emission Models.....	17
2.4.5 Microscopic Emission Models	18
2.4.6 On-Board Emission Measurement.....	19
2.5 Literature Review.....	19
3. METHODOLOGY.....	30
3.1 Overview.....	30
3.2 Measurement of Emission Factor	30
3.3 Data Collection Procedure.....	32
3.3.1 Great Southwest Parkway.....	32
3.3.2 Data Collection Procedure.....	34
3.4 Computer Estimation of NO _x Concentrations.....	35
3.4.1 Job Options.....	37
3.4.2 Meteorological Options	40
3.4.3 Output Options.....	45

3.4.4 Link Options	46
3.4.5 Receptor Options	48
3.5 Post-Processing of Output in GIS.....	48
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.....	50
4.1 Overview.....	50
4.1.1 Introduction.....	50
4.1.2 Data Interpretation and Emission Factor Calculation.....	50
4.2 Determination of the Worst-Case Meteorology	52
4.2.1 Observation/Discussion of Table 4.3 – Table 4.6 and Figures 4.1 and 4.2	59
4.2.2 Observation/Discussion of Table 4.8 and Figure 4.3	62
4.3 Caline4 Analysis.....	63
4.3.1 Observations/Discussions of Table 4.10.....	65
4.3.2 Finding the Traffic Volume which Exceeds the Threshold limit of 0.19 ppm, Considering 20 Foot Buffer Width.....	67
4.4 GIS Analysis.....	68
5. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	76
5.1 Conclusions.....	76
5.2 Recommendations for Future Research.....	78

Appendix

A. SAMPLE CALINE4 OUTPUT	79
REFERENCES	92
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION.....	95

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1.1 NO _x Emissions by Source	2
2.1 Percent Emission of VOC, NO _x and CO from Transportation Sources.....	5
2.2 Standard Gaussian Coordinate System	11
2.3 Finite Line Source (FLS) of Caline Series Models.....	12
2.4 Mixing Zone.....	13
2.5 Chassis Dynamometer	16
2.6 Typical Remote Sensing Setup	17
3.1 Schematic Diagram of Chevy Astro Van Outfitted with OBS-1300 and Accessories.....	31
3.2 Layout of Great Southwest Parkway between Study Signals.....	33
3.3 Flow Chart for Caline4 Runs	36
3.4 The Job Options Screen	37
3.5 Meteorological Option Screen	40
3.6 The Output Options Screen.....	46
4.1. Comparison of Rural and Urban Mixing Heights for 1-Hour Time Average.....	55
4.2. Comparison of Rural and Urban Mixing Heights for 8-Hour Time Average.....	58
4.3 Frequency of Worst-Case Meteorological Occurrence by Season	62

4.4 Contour Map of Maximum 1-hour NO _x	69
4.5 3-Dimensional NO _x Distribution, 1-Hour Time Average	70
4.6 NO _x Concentration Distribution in North Zone, 1-Hour time Average.....	72
4.7 NO _x Concentration Distribution in South Zone, 1-Hour time Average.....	73
4.8 NO _x Concentration Frequency Distribution.....	74
4.9 Contour Map Superimposed with Aerial Photograph.....	75

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
2.1 National Ambient Air Quality Standards.....	7
2.2 Hong Kong Air Quality Objectives for Seven Pollutants and Potential Health Effects of Pollutants	9
2.3 Literature Review.....	20
3.1 OBS-1300 and Accessories and their Use	31
3.2 Emission Factor (EF) Summary.....	35
3.3 Surface Roughness Length.....	39
3.4 Summary of Input for Job Options	40
3.5 Rammet Output File.....	42
3.6 Worst-Case Meteorology for -Hour Time Average.....	43
3.7 Worst-Case Meteorology for 8-Hour Time Average.....	43
3.8 Summary of Meteorological Data (Hourly Averages).....	45
3.10 Link Geometry	48
4.1 OBS-1300 Parameters.....	50
4.2 Typical Summary Data Sheet for Each Day	51
4.3 Summary of Emission Factors	52
4.4 Meteorological Conditions Giving Highest Concentrations for 1 Hour Time Average.....	53

4.5 Top Ten Worst-Case Meteorological Conditions for 1 Hour Time Average	54
4.6 Meteorological Conditions giving Highest Concentrations for 8 Hour Time Average.....	56
4.7 Top Five Worst-Case Meteorological Concentrations for 8 Hour Time Average.....	57
4.8 Worst-Case Meteorological Occurrences by Season	59
4.9 Caline4 Output – NO ₂ Concentrations.....	63
4.10 Caline4 Output – NO ₂ Concentration with Position of Occurrence and	65
4.11 Concentration in ppm as a Function of Traffic Volume	67

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

“According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 4–8% of deaths occurring annually in the world are related to air pollution.” (*Kathuria, 2002*)

Dallas/Fort Worth, Texas (DFW) is one of the most polluted regions across the nation due to significant vehicular growth in the past 2–3 decades. To restore the air quality and refurbish its image, numerous command and control policy instruments have been implemented in DFW by the state and the local governments. The Texas State Implementation Plan (SIP) contains legally enforceable provisions bringing the region into attainment with the federal national ambient air quality standard (NAAQS) for ozone. Ozone is formed in the atmosphere from the interaction between volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) from various sources like industrial stacks, natural sources, area sources and on-road and off-road vehicles. In the DFW region, 50 % of NO_x is contributed by on-road vehicles (see Fig. 1). This research attempts to determine a safe roadway buffer width to protect human health from exposure to NO_x vehicular pollution. Not only is NO_x a precursor to ozone formulation, but it is also a pollutant in and of itself. Its health effect includes irritation to eyes, nose, throat, and lungs. It can also cause cough and shortness of breath, tiredness and nausea. The health effects of NO_x are discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

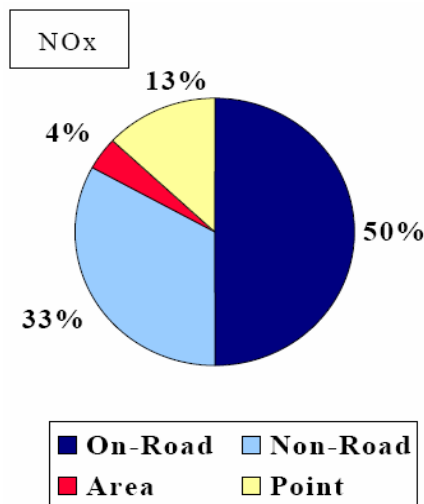


Fig.1.1 NO_x Emissions by Source
<http://www.tnrc.state.tx.us/oprd/sips/sip101.pdf>

1.2 Dispersion Modeling

Dispersion modeling is a method for estimating pollutant concentrations at a given distance from a source, over a time average. A Gaussian dispersion equation has been developed from statistical rationale, as well as derived from the mass balance principle, to estimate pollutant concentrations. Modeling of various sources and receptors can then be readily conducted by incorporation of the dispersion equation into computer programs. Dispersion modeling offers numerous advantages over ambient concentration measurement, like the ability to assess the impact of new sources, the ability to test the “what if scenarios”, and reduced cost.

1.3 Line Source Dispersion Modeling and its Role in Transportation Planning

Line source models are used to simulate the dispersion of pollutants near the roadways, where vehicles continuously emit pollutants of varying characteristics. Various highway dispersion models have been developed using different

methodologies/techniques and encompassing roadway geometry, traffic characteristics and atmospheric conditions. These models have been continuously upgraded and modified based on field experiments and numerical and physical modeling results. These models, despite several assumptions and limitations, are used throughout the world. Air quality models enable regulatory agencies to carry out air pollution prediction analyses due to vehicular traffic near the roadways as a part of the environmental impact assessment (EIA) procedure, and thus play a key role in development of air quality management strategies. (Sharma, 2000)

1.4 Purpose of the Research and Organizational Structure

A disadvantage of line source dispersion modeling computer programs is that the output is not always oriented toward the needs of transportation planners. In particular, appropriate graphical output can facilitate decision making and engineering judgment. Geographical information systems (GIS) can be a great aid to mitigate the above mentioned shortcoming of the line source dispersion modeling computer programs.

The purpose of this research is to determine, for a given traffic volume, a roadway buffer width needed to protect human health from exposure to NO_x . In particular, measured vehicle emission data will be input into the line source dispersion model CALINE4 and post processed in ArcGIS to determine the roadway buffer width.

Chapter 2 includes a literature review and background theories underlying the research. The methodology, results, and conclusions & recommendations are covered in Chapters 3, 4 and 5, respectively.

CHAPTER 2

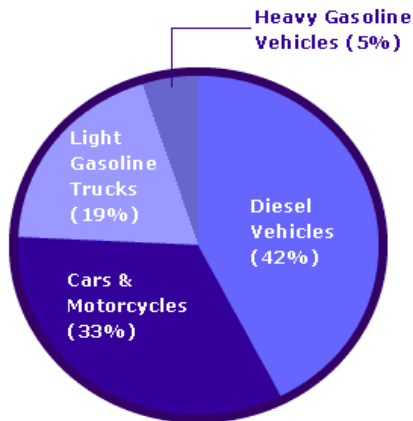
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Background

2.1.1 Transportation Sources and Impacts

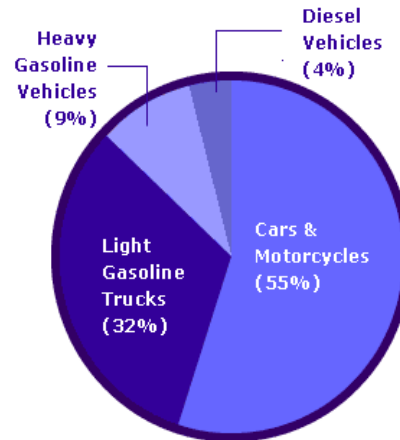
Transportation facilities are considered to be the backbone of a country and essential for its socioeconomic advance and national defense. They reflect the economical and technological development of the country. On a personal level, vehicles enable an individual to enjoy their freedom of 'self-being' to its fullest. Vehicles increase the quality of life. However, the downside of vehicles is impossible to overlook. Accidents, congestion, sprawl, and air pollution are issues which demand serious thoughts and strict actions. The undesirable effects of the transportation facilities on environmental degradation create serious worries. They consume high levels of non-renewable sources like energy and fossil fuel. Vehicle induced air pollution has serious negative effects on human health and environment from local to regional scales. Figure 2.1 shows emission of major pollutants from transportation sources in year 1999.

**1999 National Emissions by Source:
Nitrogen Oxides
On-Road Mobile Sources**



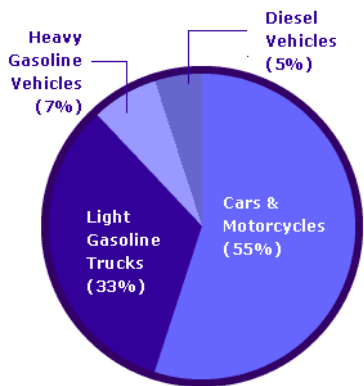
Some percentage totals do not equal 100 due to rounding.

**1999 National Emissions by Source:
Carbon Monoxide
On-Road Mobile Sources**



Some percentage totals do not equal 100 due to rounding.

**1999 National Emissions by Source:
Hydrocarbons
On-Road Mobile Sources**



Some percentage totals do not equal 100 due to rounding.

<http://www.epa.gov/otaq/inventory/overview/pollutants/nox.htm#>

Fig. 2.1 Percent Emission of VOC, NO_x and CO from Transportation Sources

2.2 Air Quality Standards

2.2.1 National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS)

The Clean Air Act, which was last amended in 1990, requires the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to set National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for pollutants which are harmful to public health and the environment. The Clean Air Act established two types of national air quality standards. **Primary standards** set limits to protect public health, including the health of "sensitive" populations such as asthmatics, children, and the elderly. **Secondary standards** set limits to protect public welfare, including protection against decreased visibility, damage to animals, crops, vegetation, and buildings.

The EPA has set NAAQS for six principal pollutants, which are called "criteria pollutants". They are listed in Table 2.1 below. Units of measure for the standards are parts per million (ppm) by volume, milligrams per cubic meter of air (mg/m^3), and micrograms per cubic meter of air ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

Table 2.1 National Ambient Air Quality Standards (TCEQ, 2005)

Pollutant	Averaging Period	Standard	Primary NAAQS	Secondary NAAQS
Ozone	8-hr	The average of the annual fourth highest daily eight-hour maximum over a three-year period is not to be at or above this level.	85 ppb	85 ppb
Carbon Monoxide	1-hr	Not to be at or above this level more than once per calendar year.	35.5 ppm	35.5 ppm
	8-hr	Not to be at or above this level more than once per calendar year.	9.5 ppm	9.5 ppm
Sulfur Dioxide	3-hr	Not to be at or above this level more than once per calendar year.	–	550 ppb
	24-hr	Not to be at or above this level more than once per calendar year.	145 ppb	–
	Annual	Not to be at or above this level.	35 ppb	–
Nitrogen Dioxide	Annual	Not to be at or above this level.	54 ppb	54 ppb
Respirable Particulate Matter (10 microns or less) (PM10)	24-hr	Not to be at or above this level on more than three days over three years with daily sampling.	155 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	155 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
	Annual	The three-year average of annual arithmetic mean concentrations at each monitor within an area is not to be at or above this level.	51 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	51 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
Respirable Particulate Matter (2.5 microns or less) (PM2.5)	24-hr	The three-year average of the annual 98th percentile for each population-oriented monitor within an area is not to be at or above this level.	66 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	66 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
	Annual	The three-year average of annual arithmetic mean concentrations from single or multiple community-oriented monitors is not to be at or above this level.	15.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	15.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
Lead	Quarter	Not to be at or above this level.	1.55 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	1.55 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$

The U.S. NO_x standard is based on an annual averaging time. This research used Caline4 as a dispersion modeling tool, which is able to predict NO_x concentration with time average of 1-hour and 8 hours but unable to produce result a with a time average of

1 year. To resolve this challenge, Hong Kong air quality standards with 1-hour averaging time were used as a basis for comparison in this study. Section 2.2.2 discusses this standard briefly. The Hong Kong standards are the only standard to my knowledge which considers a 1-hour time average concentration of NO_x.

2.2.2 Hong Kong Air Quality Standards

Air quality in Hong Kong is badly affected by the high density of vehicles on the roads, coupled with the hilly geography and cavernous streets. Regional air pollution has increasingly affected visibility. Also, air pollution topped the list of complaints to the Environmental Protection Department (EPD) with 14,554 in year 2003, almost double that of 1998.

2.2.2.1 Air Quality Objectives

Air Quality Objectives (AQOs) for seven widespread air pollutants were established in 1987 under the Air Pollution Control Ordinance (APCO). In 1989, the entire territory was declared as air control zone, with a set of Air Quality Objectives (AQOs) for seven pollutants: sulfur dioxide, total suspended particulates (TSP), respirable suspended particulates (RSP), nitrogen dioxide, carbon monoxide, photochemical oxidants (ozone) and lead. The AQOs derive from scientific analyses of the relationship between pollutant concentrations in the air and the associated adverse effects of the polluted air on the health of the public. The established AQOs, as shown in Table 2.2, apply to the whole territory.

Table 2.2 Hong Kong Air Quality Objectives for Seven Pollutants and Potential Health Effects of Pollutants

Pollutant	Concentration in Micrograms per Cubic Meter					Health effects of pollutant at elevated ambient levels
	Averaging Time					
	1hr	8hr	24hr	3mths	1yr	
Sulphur Dioxide	800	---	350	---	80	Respiratory illness; reduced lung function; morbidity and mortality rates increase at higher levels.
Total Suspended Particulates	---	---	260	---	80	Respirable fraction has effects on health.
Respirable Suspended Particulates (v)	---	---	180	---	55	Respiratory illness; reduced lung function; cancer risk for certain particles; morbidity and mortality rates increase at higher levels.
Nitrogen Dioxide	350	---	150	---	80	Respiratory irritation; increased susceptibility to respiratory infection; lung development impairment.
Carbon Monoxide	30,000	10,000	---	---	-- -	Impairment of co-ordination; deleterious to pregnant women and those with heart and circulatory conditions.
Photochemical Oxidants (as ozone)	240	---	---	---	-- -	Eye irritation; cough; reduced athletic performance; possible chromosome damage.
Lead	---	---	---	1.5	-- -	Affects cell and body processes; likely neuro-psychological effects, particularly in children; likely effects on rates of incidence of heart attacks, strokes and hypertension.

(Reference:- http://resources.emb.gov.hk/envir-ed/text/lifewide/e_m3_3_3_n0.htm)

2.3 Dispersion Modeling & Roadway/Line Source Modeling - The Caline4 Model

Most dispersion models are based on the Gaussian plume dispersion model. The Gaussian plume model gives concentration of a pollutant at position (x,y,z) as follows:

$$C(x, y, z) = \frac{Q}{2\pi u \sigma_y \sigma_z} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{y^2}{2\sigma_y^2}\right) \cdot \left\{ \exp\left[-\frac{(z-H)^2}{2\sigma_z^2}\right] + \exp\left[-\frac{(z+H)^2}{2\sigma_z^2}\right] \right\} \quad (2.1)$$

Where

$C(x, y, z)$ = contaminant concentration at the specified coordinate [ML^{-3}],

σ_y = lateral dispersion coefficient function [L],

σ_z = vertical dispersion coefficient function [L],

u = wind speed [L/T],

H = effective stack height [L],

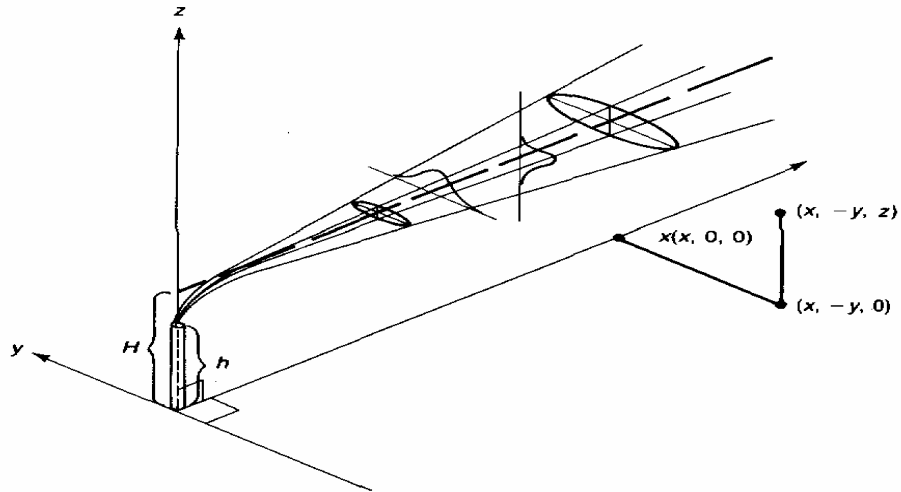
x = downwind distance [L],

y = crosswind distance [L],

z = vertical distance [L].

The standard Gaussian coordinate system is shown in Fig. 2.2

Figure 19.4 Coordinate system showing Gaussian distributions in the horizontal and vertical.



Adapted from Turner, 1970.

Fig. 2.2 Standard Gaussian Coordinate System

2.3.1 Model Description

The **California line** source Dispersion model (Caline) is one of those models based on the Gaussian plume dispersion model. Caline was developed first by DOT California (Caltran) to estimate CO concentration.

CALINE4 is latest version of the series. **CALINE4** divides individual highway links into a series of elements from which incremental concentrations are computed and summed, as shown in Fig. 2.3.

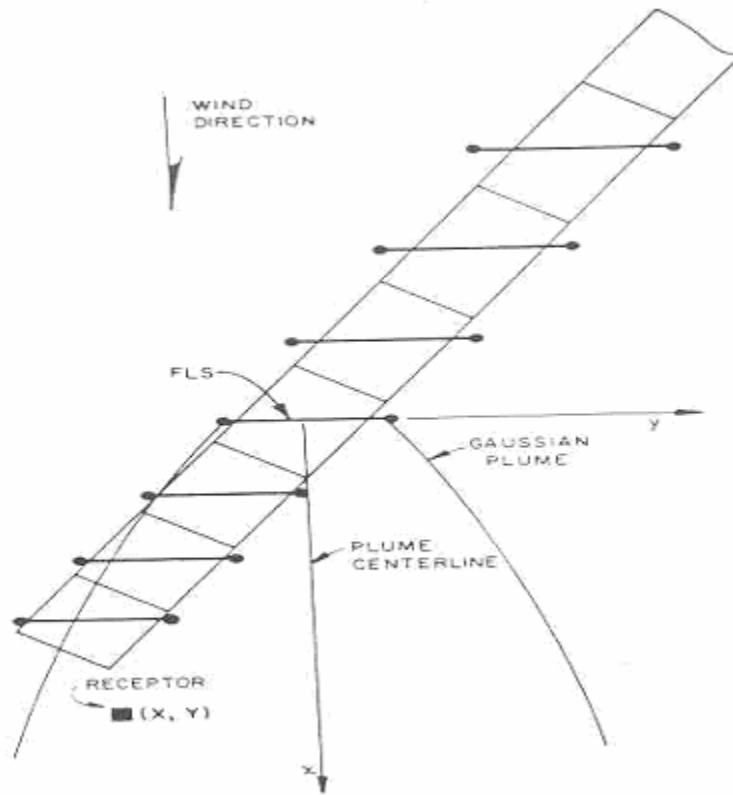


Fig. 2.3 Finite Line Source (FLS) of Caline Series Models (adopted from Benson, 1991)

Each element is modeled as an “equivalent” finite line source (FLS) positioned normal to the wind direction and centered at the element midpoint. Element size increases with distance from the receptor to improve computational efficiency.

The emissions from an element are released uniformly along the **FLS** and dispersed in a Gaussian manner by the model. Incremental downwind concentration is computed by using the crosswind Gaussian formulation for a line source of finite length (Equation 2) (Benson, 1991). Each finite length element is considered to be a series of point sources; concentrations from each differential “point source” are integrated over the length of the segment, as shown in Eq. 2.

$$C(x, y) = \frac{q}{\pi \sigma_z u} \int_{y_1-y}^{y_2-y} \exp\left(\frac{-y^2}{2\sigma_y^2}\right) dy \quad (2.2)$$

where q is the lineal source strength, u is the wind speed, and y_1 & y_2 are the **FLS** endpoint y coordinates.

The EPA version of the model permits the specification of up to 20 links and 20 receptors. This short-coming has been nullified by CalRoadView and enables the user to use the number of links and length of his/her desire. Each link defines a relatively straight segment of roadway with a constant width, height, traffic volume and vehicle emission factor.

CALINE4 treats the region directly above the highway as a zone of uniform mixing with uniform emissions and turbulence. This “mixing zone” is defined as the region over the traveled way plus 3 m (almost two vehicle widths) on each side, as shown in Fig. 2.4.

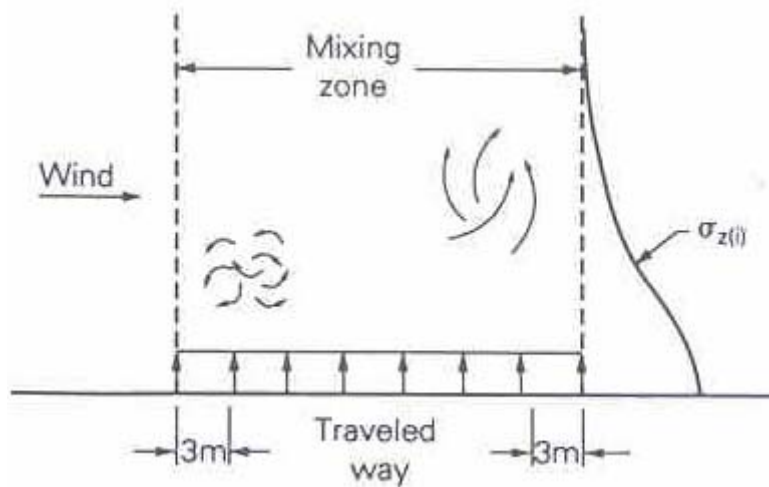


Fig. 2.4 Mixing Zone (adopted from Benson, 1991)

The additional width accounts for the initial horizontal dispersion imparted to pollutants by the vehicle wake. Within the mixing zone, the mechanical turbulence created by moving vehicles and the thermal turbulence created by hot vehicle exhaust are treated as significant dispersive mechanisms.

CALINE4 assumes that initial vertical dispersion at the edge of the mixing zone, σ_z , is determined by the length of time air resides in the mixing zone, t_r . Equation 3, which is empirically derived, is used to calculate σ_z

$$\sigma_z = 1.5 + (t_r/10) \quad (2.3)$$

where σ_z in meters and t_r in seconds.

Horizontal dispersion is estimated directly from the wind direction standard deviation, to account for site specific conditions and unique meteorological regimes.

2.3.2 Intersection Link Option

At controlled intersections, the operational modes of deceleration, idle, acceleration and cruise have a significant effect on the rate of vehicle emissions. Traffic parameters such as queue length and average vehicle delay define the location and duration of these emissions. The net result is a concentration of emissions near the intersection which cannot be modeled adequately using a single, composite emission factor. For this reason, a specialized intersection link option has been added to **CALINE4**. (Benson, 1991)

2.3.3 NO₂ Option

A number of methods have been developed to expand the use of the Gaussian plume formulation for reactive species such as NO₂. These include the exponential decay, ozone limiting and photo stationary state methods. An unfortunate weakness of these methods is their assumption that reactants mix instantaneously as they disperse and that the resulting time averaged concentrations determine the reactions rates. Because the component reactants, NO and ambient O₃, are not mixed instantaneously by the relatively large scale dispersive processes of the atmosphere, the assumption leads to overestimates of NO₂ production. Discrete parcel NO₂ concentrations are computed by CALINE4 for each element-receptor combination because of the variable travel time involved. These concentrations are not, of course, the same as time-averaged NO₂ concentrations. To arrive at time averaged values, the link source strength is adjusted by element to yield an initial NO₂ mixing zone concentration equal to the discrete parcel concentration at the receptor. The model then proceeds to compute the time average concentration exactly as the concentration for a non-reactive species such as CO would be computed.

2.4 Emission Data Collection

2.4.1 Background

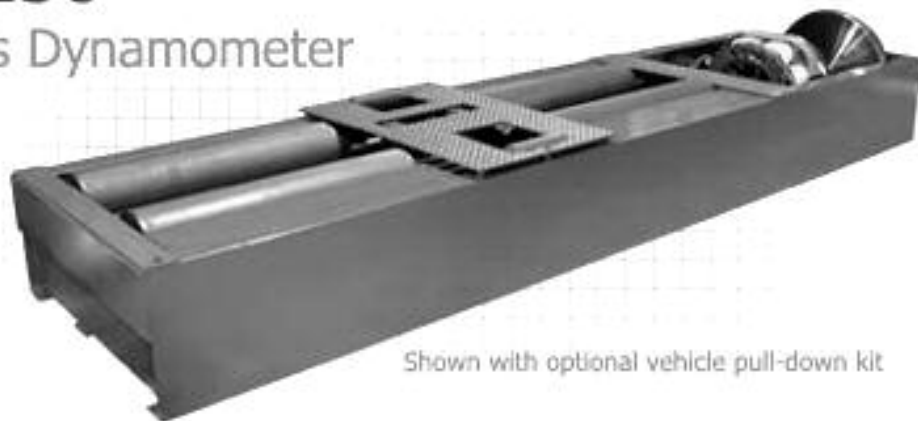
Various methods for measuring or modeling vehicular emissions in order to develop emission factors for input into Caline4 are discussed below.

2.4.2 Dynamometer

In dynamometer testing, the federal test procedure is used to determine compliance of light-duty vehicles and light-duty trucks with federal emission standards. The vehicle is “driven” on a dynamometer over a simulated urban driving trip, intended to represent typical driving patterns in urban areas. Exhaust (tailpipe) emissions are measured during the trip. A vehicle is driven on a simulated cycle involving stops, starts, acceleration, deceleration, constant speed and idling. All these driving modes are characterized based on overall time-weighted average speed. (Munshi, 2005)

MD-250

Chassis Dynamometer



Shown with optional vehicle pull-down kit

Figure 2.5 Chassis Dynamometer (adopted from Munshi, 2005)

2.4.3 Remote Sensing

Remote sensing is a method to measure pollutant levels in a vehicle's exhaust while the vehicle is traveling down the road. These devices are not attached to the vehicle. Remote sensing helps in collection of trend data for entire vehicle populations, identifies gross polluters between inspection cycles, and does not interfere with the commuter.

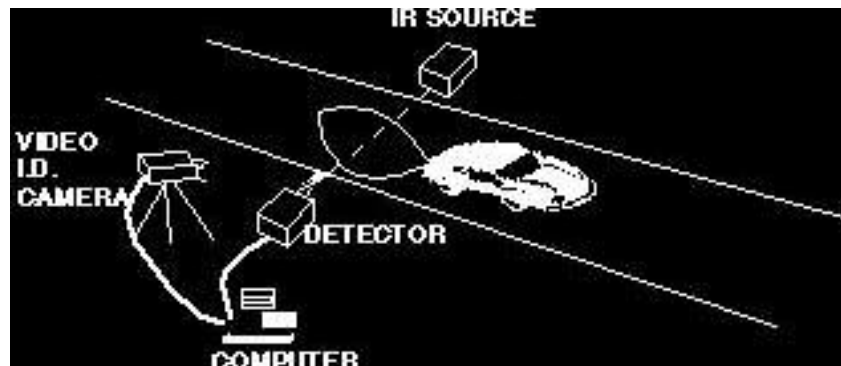


Fig 2.6 Typical Remote Sensing Setup (adopted from Munshi, 2005)

Figure 2.6 shows the typical setup of Remote Sensing Devices (RSD). The RSD system uses an infrared (IR) or ultraviolet (UV) absorption concept to measure emissions. To measure CO, CO₂, or HC, the system projects a beam of IR radiation across a roadway continuously. Two scenarios may be observed:

- When the RSD's detectors are receiving infrared light signals through the air with no vehicle emissions in the path, the signals maintain their strength.
- If there is some amount of CO, CO₂, or HC, present in the path, signals will get absorbed, which weakens the signals.

“In the case of NO_x, the RSD uses an ultraviolet (UV) light source in addition to the infrared beam. This is due to the fact that NO_x absorption characteristics are stronger and more selective in the ultraviolet light spectrum.” (Munshi, 2005).

2.4.4 Macroscopic Emission Models

Macroscopic modeling uses a model that has been developed for freeway and arterial road networks for an entire region. There are various macroscopic models but

MOBILE6 is the most widely used because it is more efficient and detailed compared to other models. It is used by North Central Texas Council of Governments (NCTCOG) for estimating DFW mobile source emission reductions associated with the SIP and in determining transportation conformity. MOBILE6 estimates on-road vehicle emissions under various conditions. In MOBILE6, emission rates can be combined with activity from a travel demand model to develop highway emission inventories expressed in tons per time period. Further, it calculates region wide emission factors (EF) in grams/mile for arterials, freeways, ramps and other major road connectors. (Munshi, 2005)

2.4.5 Microscopic Emission Models

Numerous microscopic models also exist that simulate traffic on different roadway facility types such as freeway segments, freeway on-ramps, arterial intersections, and rural highways. For example, CORSIM was developed for the Federal Highway Administration. This model is made up of two principal modules, a preprocessor and simulator. Emission data is provided from dynamometer testing. An urban street is represented as a set of nodes and directed links. Total emissions on each link are determined by applying default emission rates (based on speed and acceleration from look-up tables) to each driving vehicle second by second traveling on the link. CORSIM can accommodate a variety of traffic control conditions. Each vehicle which enters the simulation network is stochastically assigned a set of performance characteristics, which include a vehicle type as well as driver behavior characteristics. Microscopic models are more accurate than region-wide macroscopic models but may still be inaccurate if not calibrated for local conditions. Also, vehicle operating history can impact emissions, but speed-acceleration tables sometimes used in microsimulation

models cannot account for this. Microscopic models, however, represent the best strategy for estimating benefits of emission reduction pre-implementation. (Munshi, 2005)

2.4.6 On-Board Emission Measurement

On-board emission measurement is a “micro-scale” technique for quantifying vehicular emissions since the data is collected under real-world conditions at any point of time and location where the vehicle is driven. Real-world emissions are measured during various driving situations (accelerations and decelerations), which is an advantage over dynamometer testing. Also, on-board measurement proves advantageous over RSDs since remote sensing gives an instantaneous snap-shot in time and space; in addition, RSDs cannot be used across multiple lanes of heavy traffic. Improvements at individual intersections, which are too small to observe in a macroscopic model but are significant when aggregated, can be measured using on-board systems. Also, on-board systems measure real-world emissions for actual driving conditions rather than model simulated conditions, which proves advantageous over micro scale modeling. (Munsh, 2005)

This study used data from on-board measurement to develop emissions for use in Caline4.

2.5 Literature Review

Table 2.3 summarizes articles reviewed related to air quality and GIS.

Table 2.3 Literature Review

No.	Research Title	Year	Author	Objective	Major Findings	Remarks
1	The use of GIS in climatology and meteorology	2003	Lee Chapman & John E. Thornes	To review GIS ability in capturing, modeling, analyzing and displaying special data.	This is article reviews uses of GIS in fields of Climatology and Meteorology.	A distinction is made between the derivation of spatial datasets from their subsequent modified applications.
2	A qualitative tool combining an interaction matrix and a GIS to map vulnerability to traffic induced air pollution	2004	Maria Mavroulidou, Susan J. Hughes, and Emma E. Hellawell	To define ‘interaction matrix’ using key parameters such as traffic, meteorology, and buildings, and locate hot spots where detailed air quality monitoring is required.	Interaction matrix works well at local scale.	
3	Rapid urban growth, land use changes and air pollution in Santiago Chile	1999	H. Romero, M. Ihl, A. Rivera, P. Zalzar, P. Azocar	To observe air quality impact of urban growth using satellite images and digital terrain model.	Urban heat island, Normal Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI), and thermal inversion layers were mapped using GIS. Heavy traffic and wind direction has	

Table 2.3 - continued

					caused maximum CO concentration in southern part of city. Ozone exceedances were observed throughout the year, with maximum frequency in summer and spring.	
4	An integrated simulation system for traffic induced air pollution	1998	Matthias Schmidt, Ralf Peter Schalfer	To model vehicle induced pollution for local agencies to conduct air quality planning.	High accuracy in case of macroscale modeling (150km * 150km).	SIMTRAP project is currently funded by the European community. It simulates realistic traffic data using DYNEMO model and air pollution data using DYMOS model. Interpretation and visualization of results are readily conducted in GIS but it demands High Performance Computing Network (HPCN).

Table 2.3 - continued

5	Comparative study of 3D numerical and puff models for dense air pollution	1999	Ni Bin Chang, C. Y. J. Kao, Y. L. Wei , C. C. Tseng	To conduct risk assessment and establish an emergency response system for hazardous chemical release using 3D mathematical model integrated with GIS.	This research has considered seven industrial zones in the Kaohsiung metropolitan area. Release and dispersion of various hazardous chemicals were predicted using developed 3D numerical model and then results were compared with output of puff model. Developed 3D model predictions were found to be conservative compared to puff model output.	Can be applicable for Title V permitting (future recommendation)
6	GIS based mathematical modeling of urban air pollution	1999	E.A. Zakarin, B.M. Mrkarimova	To develop GIS based mathematical model of urban air pollution.	Researchers claim that their derived mathematical model gives more control over variables and can be used as an air pollution predicting system for areas other than considered in this study.	

Table 2.3 - continued

7	Integration of the global positioning system (GPS) and GIS for traffic congestion studies	2000	Michael A. P. Taylor, Jeremy E. Woolley, Rocco Zito	To develop an integrated system of GIS and GPS which can be installed in a probe vehicle to collect traffic data, engine data and pollution data.	Research proves effectiveness and efficiency of GIS in facilitating multi-faceted data collection and analysis for traffic planning.	
8	Estimating urban air pollution levels from road traffic in TRAEMS	1999	Dr. Joseph Kwame Affum, Prof. Lex Brown	To provide an overview of design and development of Transport Add-on Environmental Modeling System (TRAEMS).	NO _x emissions up to 2011 are predicted for line sources in the City of Brisbane, Australia.	It is not clear that the authors have considered atmospheric reactions of NO _x in modeling.
9	Estimation of car fuel consumption in urban traffic	1986	D. C. Biggs, R. Akcelik	To derive a mathematical model for fuel consumption.	Various functions and graphs are presented to predict fuel consumption based on various parameters.	Applicable to macro and meso scale traffic.
10	Travel time study with GPS and GIS: An integrated methodology	1998	Cesar A. Quiroga, Darcy Bullock	To assimilate various transportation data related to travel time studies, using developed GIS -GPS system.	Median speed, harmonic mean speed and other parameters were found based on functional class.	Research shows GPS' ability for extensive data collection (second by second logging), and GIS' ability for data handling and filtration.

Table 2.3 - continued

11	On-road measurement of vehicle tailpipe emission using a portable instrument.	2003	Christopher Frey, Nagui Roupail	To measure CO, NO and HC from a fleet of 11 vehicles.	Emission comparison based on driver behavior. The article found that the phases of the driving cycle, in order from greatest pollutant generation to least, are acceleration, cruising, deceleration, and idling.	This kind of work can be useful to check the accuracy of Sate Implementation Plan (SIP) Transportation Control Measures (TCM).
12	A review of the development and application of the CaLine3 and 4 models	1991	Paul E. Benson	To provide scholarly review of CaLine3 and 4 models, their advancement and application.	Article discusses background theories in development of model and integration of these theories in model.	
13	Development and verification of the California Line source dispersion models	1988	Paul E. Benson	To verify CaLine4 model results by conducting independent studies.	Error is reported as a function of wind direction for CaLine3. 75% of Caline predictions fall within a factor 2 of measured values. This error has been reduced by 66% in CaLine4.	
14	CALINE4 - A dispersion model for	1984 1989	State of California	Comprehensive technical report		

Table 2.3 - continued

	predicting air pollutant concentrations near roadways	(revised)	Department of Transportation Division of New Technology and Research	focusing on each and every parameter of model, including a CO, NO and HC sensitivity analysis of model and field tracer study.		
15	User's guide for CL4: A user-friendly interface for the Caline4 model for transportation project impact assessments	1998	Dana L. Coe, Douglas S. Eisinger, Jeffrey D. Prouty, Tom Kear	Shows use of all components within the Caline4.		
16	User's Guide for CALRoads View	2001	Jeese L. The, Cristiane L. The, Michael A. Johnson	Provides detailed descriptions of various CAL-series and other associated software, with their GUI applications and screen shots of interfaces.		
17	Impact of Signal Synchronization on Vehicular Emission – An On-Board Measurement Case Study.	2005	Rupangi Prakash Munshi	To determine the impacts of signal synchronization on real-world, on-road emissions of NO _x .	Signal re-timing, opposite to popular belief, has not reduced NO _x emissions for the particular corridor studied. In all cases except one, there was	

Table 2.3 - continued

					no statistical difference in emissions before and after retiming. In the one case, emissions increased due to increased average speed.	
18	Determination of the Meteorological Conditions Responsible for the Worst-case Odor Impacts from Area Sources Using Two Dispersion Models – ISC3 and AEROMOD	2005	Sapna Devanathan	To determine meteorology responsible for worst-case odor concentrations from a wastewater treatment plant.	High temperatures in summer cause the worst-case situations.	
19	Vehicular pollution control in Delhi	2002	Vinish Kathuria	Research investigates the effectiveness of the policy enhancements made in order to control vehicular pollution in New Delhi, the capital city of India.	Research concluded that against uncontrolled vehicular growth (360-400 vehicles per day), all the enhancements are falling short of controlling vehicle induced air pollution.	
20	GIS applications in air pollution modeling	2000	Niraj Sharma	This research mainly explores the potential	Integration of GIS and air quality dispersion	

Table 2.3 - continued

				of GIS applications in field of air quality to meet transportation planning needs.	models can facilitate and improve decision making.	
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Articles 2 to 6 focus on GIS applications in the field of air quality. They focus on behavior of various air quality parameters/concepts in time and space. They model these parameters/concepts in a GIS environment using various techniques. Articles 7 and 10 discuss use of GPS system in real time data collection, which has provided a bigger picture for use of GPS in the data collection of current study.

In his research Mr. Niraj Sharma (Article 20) has adopted a macro-scale dispersion modeling approach. The real time concentrations for various pollutants like carbon monoxide (CO), hydrocarbons (HC), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), and Suspended Particulate Matter (SPM) were measured at six different locations on a highway segment of almost 200 km, using air quality sampling devices. Meteorological data like wind speed, wind direction, temperature, and humidity were collected from the local meteorological department. Traffic characteristic data were also measured at the same locations where pollutant concentrations were measured. All these real time data were used as an input to the Caline4 model. The researcher assumed that CO can be used as indicator of vehicular pollution. The Caline4 model was run for CO with multi run worst-case condition (i.e. time average of 8 hours and worst-case wind angle). Using output of Caline4 model, pollution dispersion maps were developed using ArcGIS. This study has highest resemblance in methodology with this research. Sharma's study does not consider health impacts of the pollutant, nor does it compare concentrations with any standard threshold value. In a broad sense, one can say that this study goes beyond the point where Sharma concludes his research.

Devnathan (2005) (article 18) has exported ISC3 and AERMOD output into an ArcGIS environment. Exceedance contours of odors from a wastewater treatment plant were prepared using various GIS tools.

From the above literature review and to best of my knowledge, only this research takes NO_x in exclusive consideration in terms of health effect and subsequent requirement of buffer width of roadway required to protect human health from harmful exposure of NO_x .

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

The research was carried out in two parts; one was real-time data collection and the second was computer modeling. This chapter describes briefly how an emission factor was measured for use in Caline4, and in greater detail the methodology for computer modeling of ambient concentrations.

3.2 Measurement of Emission Factor

The emission factor is one of the most critical parameters of dispersion modeling. For line source modeling, it is expressed in units of ‘mass of pollutant/vehicle miles traveled’. There are various ways to derive an emission factor, depending upon the kind of pollution source being considered: area source, point source or line source. In the case of line sources, computer models, dynamometer testing or on-road testing can be used to generate the emission factors. To ensure the highest degree of accuracy in this research, the emission factor was derived from real-time data.

Student Ms. Rupangi P. Munshi (Graduate student of Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering UTA) carried out her research “Impact of Signal Synchronization on Vehicular Emission - An On-Board Measurement Case Study.” The emission factors used in this research result from this previous research. The author was a member of the on-board data collection and analysis team. The emission data was

collected using the department 2000 Chevrolet Astro van out fitted with a tailpipe emission analyzer, On-Board System OBS-1300, provided by the Horiba Instruments, Inc. Fig. 3.1 shows the experimental setup and Table 3.1 describes all accessories that were used in measurement of emission factor.

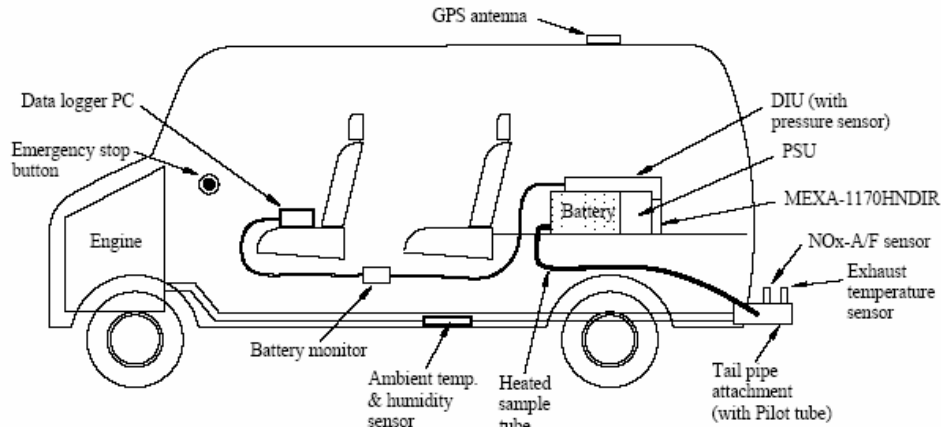


Fig. 3.1 Schematic Diagram of Chevy Astro Van Outfitted with OBS-1300 and Accessories (Munshi, 2005)

Table 3.1 OBS-1300 and Accessories and their Use

Unit	Use
Chevy Astro Van	This vehicle is used to collect emission data.
The OBS 1300	An on-board emission measurement system which performs simple analysis of exhaust gases.
The Data Interpretation Unit (DIU)	An interface between sensor, data analyzer and data logging PC
Mexa720 NO _x Analyzer	This instrument attaches NO _x probe and provides NO _x concentration readings in ppm.
Data logging PC	A DELL laptop is provided with data logging software. The software that is used in conjunction with OBS logs the pollutant emissions, A/F ratio, exhaust pipe temperature and ambient temperature and ambient humidity data.
GPS system	A GPS system is used to determine velocity, altitude and position of vehicle on the roadway.
Battery	Two 12V – 24V batteries are provided for power supply.
Tail pipe attachment	An attachment is provided for the exhaust pipe to hold the tubing and wiring that connects to MEXA-1170 HNDIR and DIU.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

3.3.1 Great Southwest Parkway

“Great Southwest (GSW) Parkway is a road in the city of Grand Prairie, Texas. The stretch of Great Southwest Parkway under study is from the signalized intersections of GSW and Abram Street to GSW and Fairmont Street. This stretch of road has multiple facets such as a school zone, two railroad crossings, commercial zone and residential neighborhood. It also runs perpendicular to an approach road of I-20 at one signalized intersection. These facets impact the flow of traffic and thereby the traffic volume is unique at each signalized intersection. For example, at the intersection connecting to I-20, the traffic volume is higher compared with the GSW intersections connecting to residential neighborhoods. Also, the school zone lowers the speed limit for a small stretch of GSW from the normal speed limit of 45 mph to 20 mph. A detailed map of the Great Southwest Parkway between the signalized intersections under study is shown in Figure 3.2”. (Munishi, 2005)

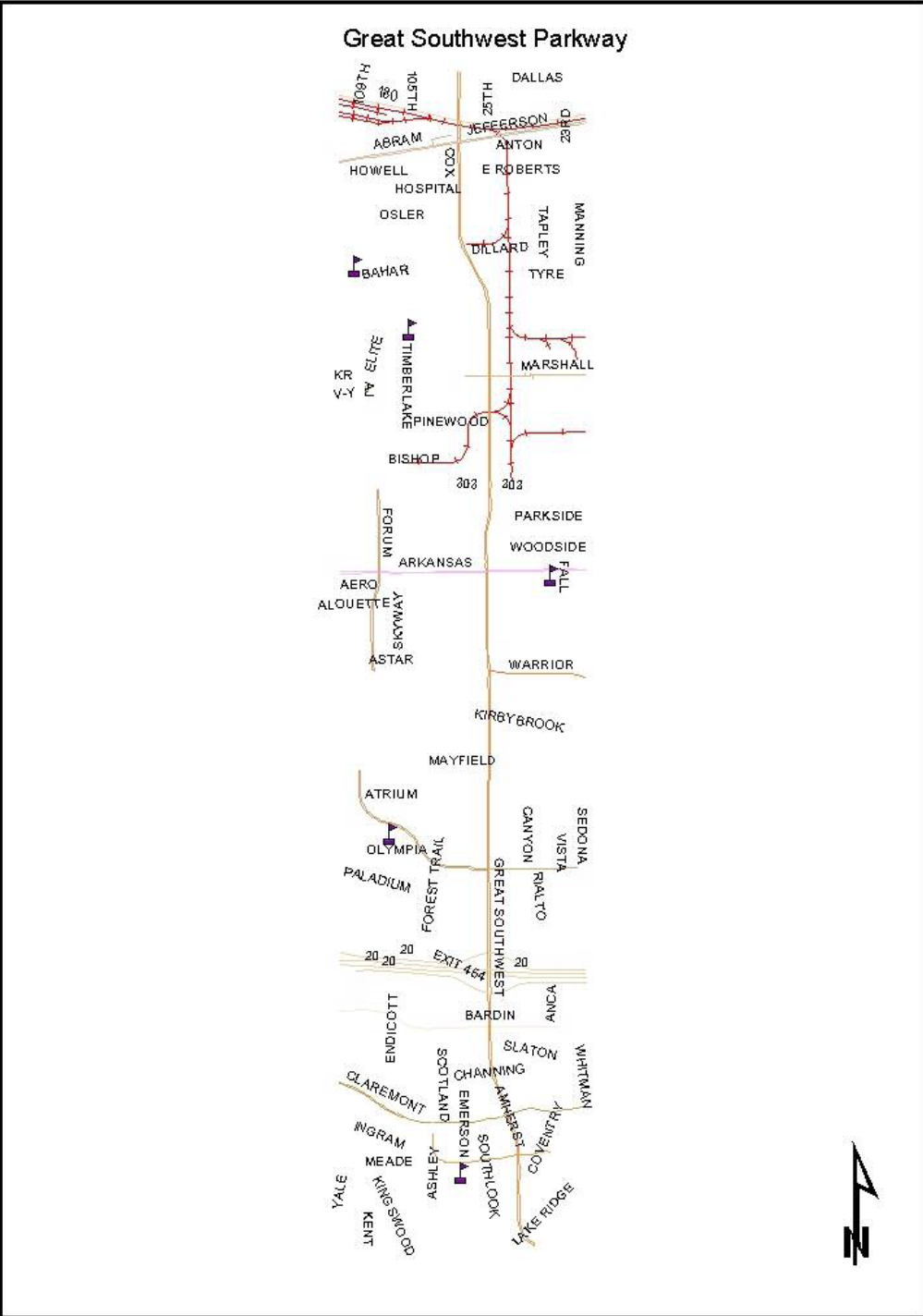


Figure 3.2 Layout of Great Southwest Parkway between Study Signals (Munshi, 2005)

3.3.2 Data Collection Procedure

The OBS-1300 and its accessories were installed in the Chevy Astro van. Runs were made to ensure that the system worked properly and a data check was also conducted. After the pilot runs, detailed data collection began. Runs were made for three different traffic conditions:

1. AM Peak – 7:00 to 8:30 AM
2. Off-Peak – 8:30 to 11:00 AM and 4:00 to 4:30 PM
3. PM Peak – 4:30 to 6:30 PM

“The peak hours were determined by Kimley-Horn and Associates Inc. from the traffic count data. These runs were made before and after signal retiming. The signal retiming was implemented by Kimley-Horn Associates Inc., a consulting firm hired by the North Central Texas Council of Governments. The before signal retiming runs were made in December and January, which are considered to be winter months, and the after signal retiming runs were made in April and May, which are spring months.” (Munshi, 2005)

In her research Ms. Munshi assumed that signal synchronization and retiming reduce vehicular emissions, so in the present research we have considered emission factors for before signal synchronization to model a worst-case scenario. The emission factor data used from Ms. Munshi’s research is shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Emission Factor (EF) Summary

	Overall	AM Peak	Off Peak	PM Peak
Max. EF (g/vmt)	2.02	1.22	2.02	1.74
Min. EF (g/vmt)	0.36	0.58	0.58	0.77
Avg. EF (g/vmt)	1.08	0.81	0.78	1.30

3.4 Computer Estimation of NO_x Concentrations

The computer modeling process is preformed in two parts:

1. Creation of pollutant concentration data base using Caline4 software.
2. Post processing of output from Caline4→ Creation of pollution concentration distribution maps using ESRI ArcGIS 9.0.

To perform Task 1, the software used was CalroadView designed by Lakes Environmental Inc. The reason for using CalroadView over the free version of Caline4 is the GUI provided by Calroadview and NO₂ modeling ability. In this section whenever and where ever Caline4 is mentioned, CalroadView software is meant.

In order to determine worst-case ambient concentrations, the following assumption was made:

$$\text{Max. Ambient Concentration} = \text{Function (Max. Emission Factor, Worst-Case Meteorology)} \quad (3.1)$$

The flow chart shown in Fig. 3.3 explains how, the above assumption was incorporated in order to obtain pollution concentration using Caline4.

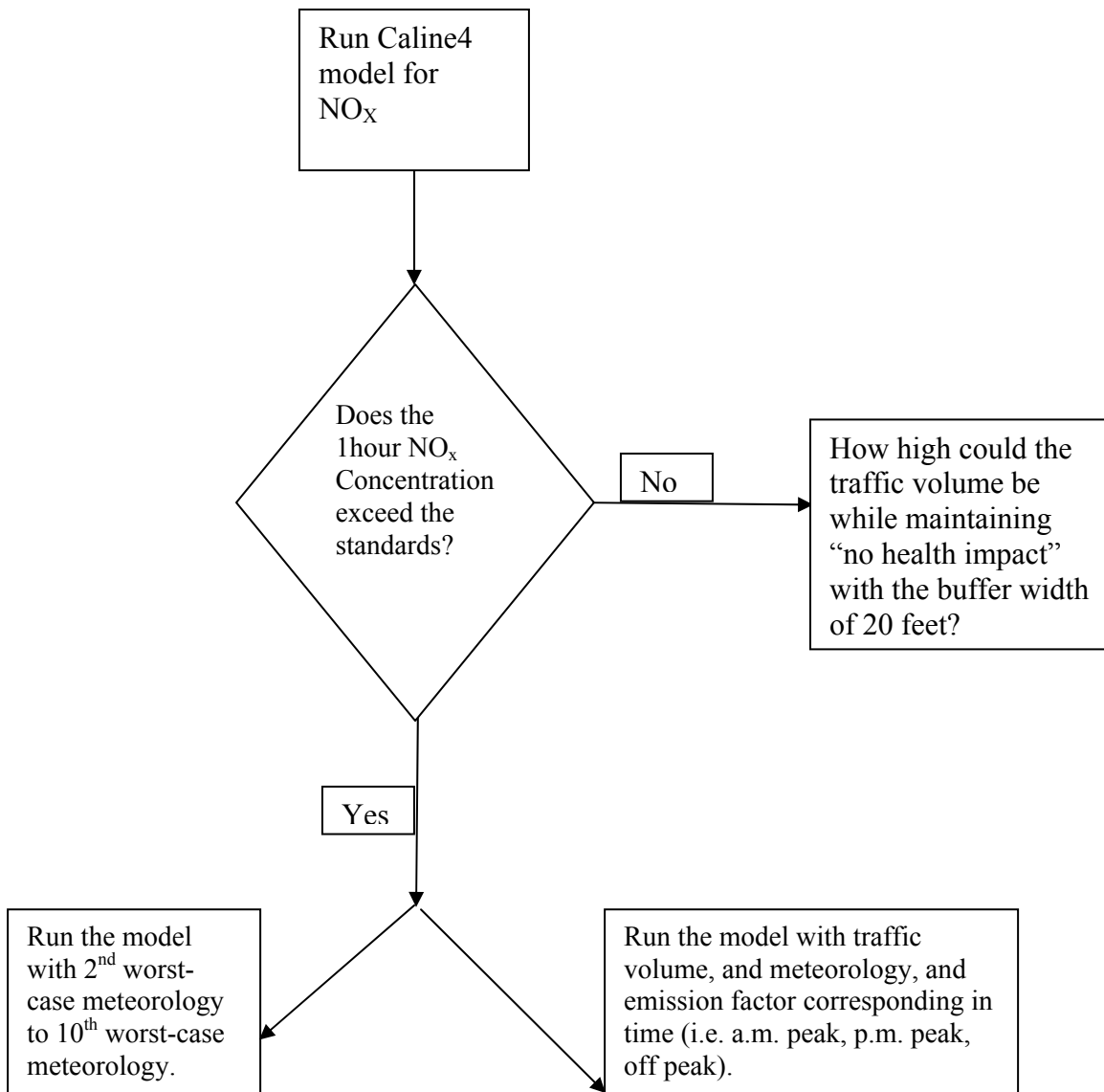


Figure 3.3 Flow Chart for Caline4 Runs

Caline4 is broadly divided into five parts.

1. Job options
2. Meteorological options
3. Output options
4. Links
5. Receptors

Each of these parts is discussed in greater detail below.

3.4.1 Job Options

Figure 3.4 below shows the job option screen.

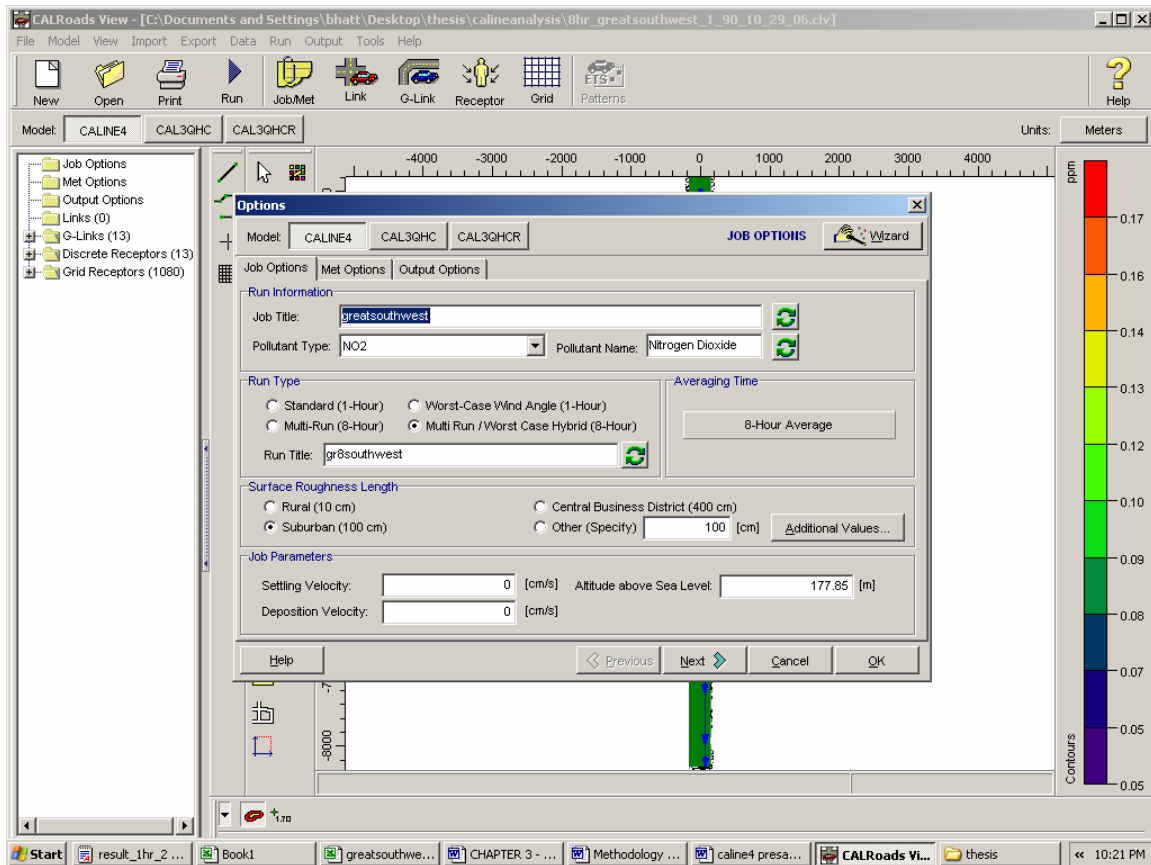


Fig. 3.4 The Job Options Screen

The following items are defined as job options:

1. Run Information

- Job title (optional)
- Pollutant Type

Select one from CO, PM, NO₂, Inert Gases (such as SF₆)

2. Run Type

- Standard – Calculates 1-hour average NO₂ concentrations at the receptors. The user must input a wind direction on the Run Conditions Screen.
- Multi-Run – Calculates 8-hour average NO₂ concentrations at the receptors. The user must input wind angles for each hour.
- Worst-case wind angle – Calculates 1-hour average NO₂ concentrations at the receptors. The model selects the wind angles that produce the highest NO₂ concentrations at each of the receptors. **This is the most appropriate choice for most users.**
- Multi-Run/Worst-Case hybrid – Calculates 8-hour average NO₂ concentrations at the receptors. The model selects the wind angles that produce the highest NO₂ concentrations at each of the receptors.

3. Surface Roughness Length - This is a measure of the amount of local air turbulence that affects the spread of the plume. There are four radio buttons for quick selections :

- Rural: Roughness Coefficient = 10 cm
- Suburban: Roughness Coefficient = 100 cm
- Central Business District: Roughness Coefficient = 400 cm
- Other (see Table 3.3 below)

Table 3.3 Surface Roughness Length

Roughness Coefficient (cm)	Landscape Type
.002	Sea, paved areas, snow-covered flat plain, tide flat, smooth desert
.5	Beaches, pack ice, morass, snow-covered fields
3	Grass prairie or farm fields, tundra, airports, heather
10	Cultivated areas with low crops and occasional obstacles (such as bushes)
25	High crops, crops with varied height, scattered obstacles (such as trees or hedgerows), vineyards
50	Mixed far fields and forest clumps, orchards, scattered buildings
100	Regular coverage with large obstacles, open spaces roughly equal to obstacle heights, suburban houses, villages, mature forests
≥ 200	Centers of large towns or cities, irregular forests with scattered clearings.

4. Job Parameters

- Settling Velocity – This is the rate at which a particle falls with respect to its immediate surroundings. It is the actual physical velocity of the particle in the downward direction.
- Deposition Velocity- This is a measure of the rate at which a pollutant can be absorbed/adsorbed by a surface.
- Altitude above Sea Level - This gives the site altitude for the run. This data was taken from OBS 1300 data collection. The mean of all values for all runs is taken as input.

The following is the summary of job option inputs for this research.

Table 3.4 Summary of Input for Job Options

Field Name	Value	Comments
Job Title	Great Southwest	
Pollutant Type	NO ₂	
Run Type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worst-case Wind Angle • Worst-case Wind Angle Multi Run	1-hour time average 8 hr time average
Surface Roughness	100 cm	Suburban
Settling Velocity	0 cm/s	NO ₂ is a gas which does not have settling velocity
Deposition Velocity	0 cm/s	Conservative Assumption
Altitude above sea level	177.85 m	From OBS -1300 data

3.4.2 Meteorological Options

Figure 3.5 below shows the Meteorological Options screen.

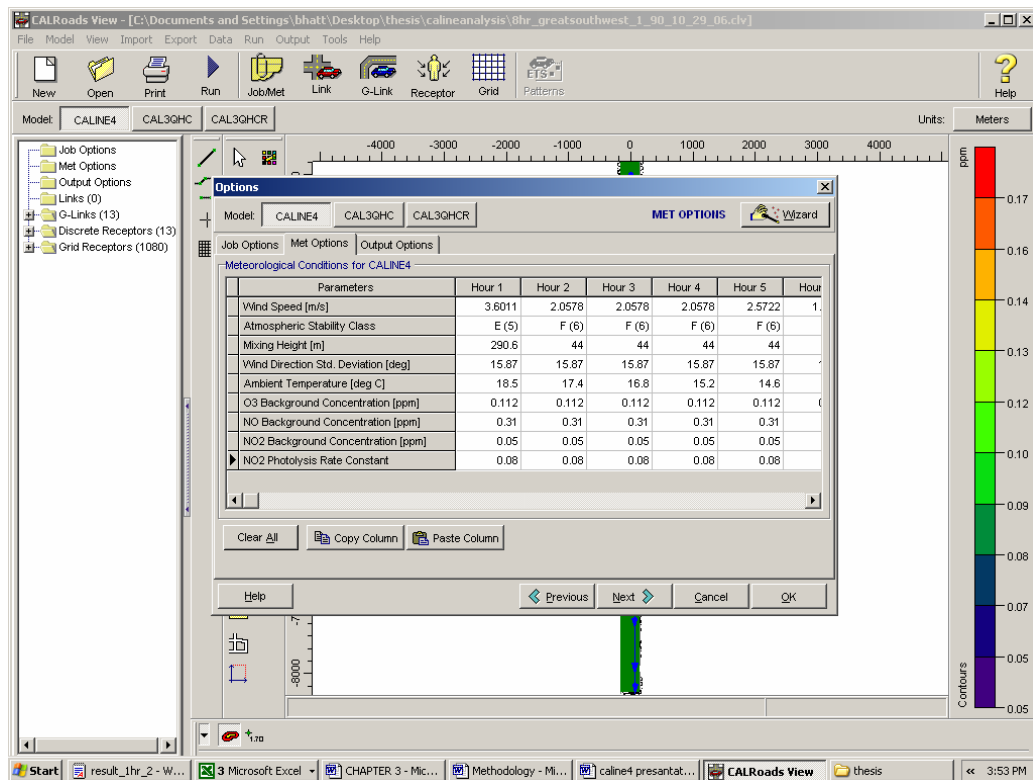


Fig. 3.5 Meteorological Option Screen

As shown in equation 3.1, meteorology is a key parameter in determining ambient pollutant concentrations. Thus it is very essential to consider 3 to 5 years meteorological data on an hourly basis. Caline4, however, does not have ability to process hourly meteorological data. In order to derive worst-case meteorology, 'Cal3hcqr' (intersection dispersion modeling software in CALROADS family, which has the ability to handle hourly meteorological data) was run with a unit emission factor for carbon monoxide (CO). The five meteorological conditions giving the highest CO concentrations were selected for years 1984, 1987, 1988, 1989, and 1990. The meteorological data was taken from the www.weblakes.com; the upper air data was not available for 1986 and CAL3HCQR was unable to process 1985 data, so these years were skipped. From these five years of data analyzed, the 10 worst-cases for time average 1-hour and 5 worst-cases for time average 8-hour were selected for modeling in Caline4. In order to do so, the following assumptions were made:

- Meteorological conditions creating the worst-case concentration for an intersection give the same effects for a segment.
- Meteorological conditions creating the worst-case concentration for CO create the same effects for NO₂.

These should be reasonable assumptions.

The meteorological files obtained from www.weblakes.com were not in a format which could be input into the model. PCRAMMET is a meteorological preprocessor used in the Cal3qhcr model. Rammet View, the Lakes Environmental interface for PCRAMMET, was used to preprocess the data for Cal3qhcr. The operations performed by Rammet View are:

- Calculation of hourly values for atmospheric stability from meteorological surface observations, and
- Interpolating the twice daily mixing heights to hourly values.

The inputs to Rammet View include an hourly surface data file and a mixing height data file. The hourly file and mixing height data file were obtained from the Lakes website in the SCRAM (MET 144) file format.

The meteorological stations chosen were Stephenville (upper air) and Dallas Fort Worth International Airport (surface, station number 03927). The default ASCII format was chosen for the files, to obtain a sequential hourly file. The anemometer height was 22 ft for upper air and the option to use the default values for the wind speed categories was chosen. An example of the Rammet output file with the various meteorological parameters is illustrated in Table 3.5. Table 3.6 and Table 3.7 summarize the worst-case meteorology for 1 -hour and 8-hour time averages, respectively.

Table 3.5 Rammet Output File

Year	Month	Day	Hour	Random Flow Vector	Wind Speed (m/s)	Ambient Temperature (K)	Stability Category	Rural Mixing Height (m)	Urban Mixing Height (m)
88	1	1	1	171	5.14	272	5	50	89

Table 3.6 Worst-Case Meteorology for 1-Hour Time Average

Year	Month	Day	Hour	Wind Speed (m/s)	Amb. Temp (K)	Stability Class	Rural Mixing Height (m)	Urban Mixing Ht. (m)
84	1	8	7	1.54	275.9	7	834.5	43
84	2	3	24	1.54	282	7	1432.9	61
84	3	3	19	5.66	294.3	4	998	998
84	3	28	4	12.35	282	4	1972.8	1972.8
87	4	17	2	1.54	289.8	7	1959.6	49
87	12	10	2	1.54	279.8	7	1115	45
87	12	29	21	1.03	272	7	660	437
88	6	12	5	2.57	289.3	6	1510.2	112
88	7	23	5	3.09	294.3	6	2253.1	82
88	9	11	24	7.20	301.5	4	1910.9	1910.9
88	11	14	5	6.69	291.5	4	1102.4	1102.4
89	3	13	4	5.14	287.6	5	953.5	103
89	4	17	2	6.17	290.9	4	828.3	828.3
89	12	10	2	6.17	281.5	4	1030.5	1030.5
89	12	29	23	6.17	279.8	4	377.6	377.6
90	1	10	2	2.06	279.3	6	835.4	38
90	2	1	1	1.03	285.9	4	503.2	503.2
90	2	2	1	2.57	283.2	6	778.1	54
90	12	14	7	1.54	281.5	4	421.8	421.8

Table 3.7 Worst-Case Meteorology for 8-Hour Time Average

Year	Month	Day	Hour	Wind Speed (m/s)	Amb. Temp (K)	Stability Class	Rural Mixing Height (m)	Urban mixing Ht. (m)
84	2	17	7	1.03	272	7	660	437
84	9	21	4	3.09	293.7	5	1048.8	674
84	10	11	10	5.14	296.5	3	198	536.4
84	11	13	7	2.06	279.3	6	1211.1	142
84	11	13	8	1.5	280.9	5	169	291.1
87	1	28	4	2.57	280.9	6	924.4	36
87	4	4	4	3.09	277.6	6	1823.5	114
87	9	2	23	2.57	296.5	6	1815.3	378.3
87	11	3	8	0	287.6	5	219.5	267.4
87	12	4	21	2.57	285.9	6	926.8	769.7
88	3	5	24	3.09	279.8	6	925.1	50
88	5	27	7	1.54	290.4	4	347.2	418.4
88	6	2	23	4.1155	293.2	4	426.7	426.7
88	9	12	1	7.72	300.4	4	1872.9	1872.9

Table 3.7 - continued

88	10	11	6	4.63	286.5	5	1186.3	93
89	1	28	4	5.14	284.3	4	215.3	215.3
89	6	21	11	5.69	304.8	3	1224.3	1299.7
89	9	2	23	3.61	303.7	5	2249	577.9
89	11	3	8	2.57	275.9	5	192.4	215
89	11	21	11	4.12	296.5	3	738.6	778.4
90	2	24	23	3.09	284.3	6	1830.9	342.8
90	2	25	2	3.61	283.2	5	1865.6	40
90	10	29	6	2.57	285.4	6	1624.9	44

The following parameters are defined as meteorological inputs:

1. Wind Speed (m/s)
2. Atmospheric Stability class – This is a measure of the turbulence of the atmosphere and defined by numbers 1-7 (1 most unstable and 7 most stable)
3. Mixing Height – It is defined as the altitude to which thermal turbulence occurs due to solar radiation. Mixing height is a cap to vertical mixing.
4. Pollutant Background Concentration

Maritime tropical wind blows most frequently from the south in Texas (Arya, 1999) so Arlington Municipal Airport (C61) <http://www.tnrcc.state.tx.us> serves as the best station for background concentrations for Great Southwest Parkway. Table 3.8 summarizes data obtained from this station. This station provides data as an hourly average and average, maximum, minimum, and standard deviation of 24 hours of a day. Since Caline4 can handle only one value, average, maximum, minimum, and standard deviation of 24 hours from Jan-04 to May-05 were considered and their average, maximum and minimum values are shown in Table 3.8. From this station pollutant background concentrations for Great Southwest, wind speed, and wind direction standard deviation were taken. After various trials, it was concluded that the

maximum background concentration and minimum standard deviation of wind angle produce the maximum concentration at receptors.

Table 3.8 Summary of Meteorological Data (Hourly Averages)

Wind Direction (Degrees)					Ozone (ppm)				
Observed from Jan-04 to May-05					Observed from Jan-04 to May-05				
	Max.	Avg.	Min.	Stdev.		Max.	Avg.	Min.	Stdev.
Max.	22.0	18.5	15.9	1.9	Max.	112	67.6	46.0	17.0
Avg.	10.4	7.90	5.67	1.43	Avg.	35.1	24.3	14.3	7.01
Min.	2.78	1.30	0.77	0.62	Min.	1.00	0.41	0.00	0.51
NO (ppm)					NO ₂ (ppm)				
Observed from Jan-04 to May-05					Observed from Jan-04 to May-05				
	Max.	Avg.	Min.	Stdev.		Max.	Avg.	Min.	Stdev.
Max.	309.5	138.2	37.2	71.8	Max.	49.6	36.9	18.3	8.54
Avg.	25.1	17.3	7.14	6.18	Avg.	15.1	10.9	5.77	3.03
Min.	2.50	1.20	0.00	0.76	Min.	2.60	1.17	0.00	0.66

3.4.3 Output Options

This option enables user to define link and receptor nomenclature. By default the system assigns capital alphabet letters to the links and numbers to the receptors. This pattern was maintained in this research. Fig. 3.6 below shows the screen of output options.

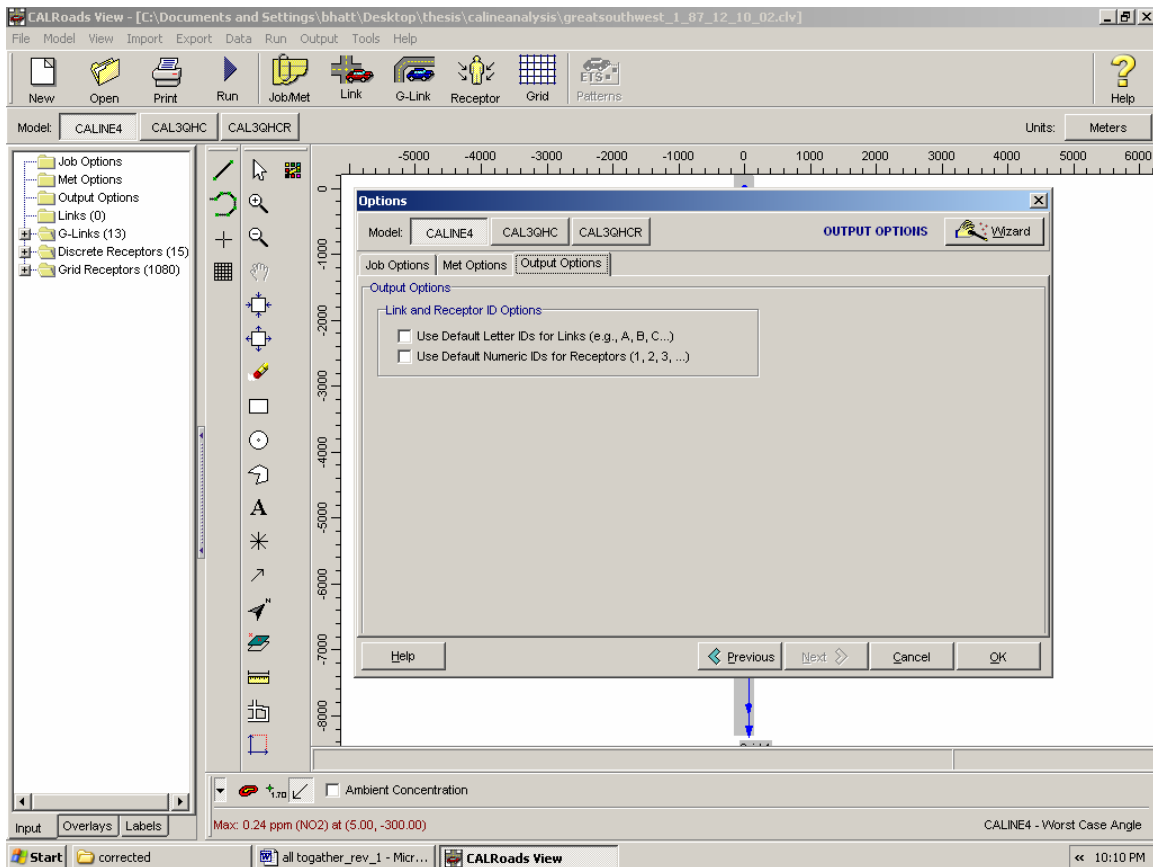


Fig. 3.6 The Output Options Screen

3.4.4 Link Options

1. Link Geometry

The roadway segment of the Great Southwest Parkway under consideration was divided into 13 segments based upon the signalized intersections. The longitude and latitude data of every signalized intersection was taken from the Transportation Department of the North Central Texas Council of Governments (NCTCOG); this data was converted into an X-Y coordinate system, which is Caline4 compatible. This information is illustrated in Table 3.9. Caline4 has the ability to identify various kinds of

link types, as discussed in Chapter 2. In the present research, all links were considered ‘at grade’.

2. Link Activity

Traffic Volume: The hourly traffic volume anticipated to travel on each link, in units of vehicles per hour. If a multi-run scenario is selected, traffic volume must be defined for 8 hours. This data was obtained from NCTCOG. The maximum traffic volume per hour was 1428 on Great Southwest at the Bardin Street intersection. The maximum was used as a conservative assumption to model the worst-case scenario.

Emission Factor: The weighted average emission rate of the local vehicle fleet, expressed in terms of grams per mile per vehicle. The value used was 2.02 gram per vehicle mile traveled, which was the overall maximum from the on-road data collection, as discussed in Section 3.3.

Table 3.9 Link Geometry

					After Setting First links at (0,0)	
Longitude (Degrees)	Latitude (Degrees)	Radian Conversion of Latitude	X coordinate (Meters)	Y coordinate (Meters)	X coordinate (Meters)	Y coordinate (Meters)
97.0	32.7	0.571	93368	3633909	0.00	0
97.0	32.7	0.571	93371	3633596	3.00	-313
97.0	32.7	0.571	93379	3632791	10.6	-1118
97.0	32.7	0.571	93386	3631983	18.2	-1926
97.0	32.7	0.571	93395	3631004	27.4	-2905
97.0	32.7	0.571	93401	3630374	33.4	-3535
97.0	32.7	0.571	93417	3628743	48.7	-5166
97.0	32.7	0.570	93424	3627928	56.4	-5981
97.0	32.7	0.570	93430	3627374	61.6	-6535
97.0	32.7	0.570	93431	3627237	62.9	-6672
97.0	32.7	0.570	93434	3626909	66.0	-7000
97.0	32.7	0.570	93437	3626632	68.6	-7277
97.0	32.7	0.570	93443	3625908	75.4	-8001
97.0	32.7	0.570	93447	3625577	78.6	-8332

3.4.5 Receptor Options

Grid receptors were used to define receptor locations 1080 receptors were defined with longitudinal spacing of 500 m and lateral spacing of 5 m. The origin of the grid was set at the southwest corner with coordinates (-150,-8300).

3.5 Post-Processing of Output in GIS

With all above input, Caline4 runs were conducted and no exceedances were observed; therefore vehicle volume was increased to see at what traffic volume an exceedance occurs at a buffer width of 20 feet. With this data contours were generated in ArcGIS as follows:

1. Output from Caline4 was saved in .rtf format.
2. Data from the .rtf file was then imported in to a spreadsheet.

3. The spreadsheet was saved in .csv format, since .xls format is not compatible with M.S. Access.
4. The .csv was then converted into M.S. Access data base.
5. Using the entire data base a shape file was created using ArcCatalog. The set of the data base and shape file were jointly known as 'personal geodata base'.
6. Using ArcMap and ArcSeen, various maps were created (see Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
4.1 Overview

4.1.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 3, NO_x emissions data was collected on Great Southwest Parkway. The emissions data were used as an input to Caline4. This chapter presents dispersion modeling results.

4.1.2 Data Interpretation and Emission Factor Calculation

Using various variables mentioned in Table 4.1, Munshi et al. developed a database and calculated the emission factor for NO_x for the Great Southwest Parkway corridor for every run. Table 4.2 shows the typical summary sheet developed by the research team and Table 4.3 shows the summary of emission factors.

Table 4.1 OBS-1300 Parameters

1. Date and time	2. NO _x concentration (ppm)
3. Air to Fuel Ratio (AFR)	4. Exhaust flow rate (L/min)
5. Exhaust Temperature (°C)	6. Exhaust Pressure (kPa)
7. Ambient Temperature (°C)	8. Ambient Pressure (kPa)
9. Humidity (%)	10. Velocity (km/hour)
11. Latitude (degree)	12. Longitude (degree)
13. Altitude (m)	14. GPS Velocity (km/hour)
15. North/South	16. East/West
17. No of Satellites	

(Munshi, 2005)

Table 4.2 Typical Summary Data Sheet for Each Day

Date:	11/16/2004					
	AM	PM				
Driver:	Vyethavya		---			
	AM Peak	Off-Peak				
No of Runs in North	2	3				
No of Runs in South	2	3				
Trip Duration	3054.00	4185.00				
AM Peak Run	N	S	N	S		
Parameters	Run1	Run2	Run3	Run4		
Trip Duration (seconds)	686.00	768.00	776.00	824.00		
Total Speed (miles/hour)	28.24	25.24	24.96	23.42		
Control Delay (seconds)	133.00	140.00	197.00	198.00		
Total No. of Stops per Run	5.00	6.00	6.00	7.00		
Concentration of NOx (g/mile)	0.88	0.62	0.88	0.66		
Off-Peak Run	N	S	N	S	N	S
Parameters	Run1	Run2	Run3	Run4	Run5	Run6
Trip Duration (seconds)	686.00	686.00	755.00	686.00	686.00	686.00
Total Speed (miles/hour)	30.20	35.31	25.53	31.48	32.26	30.98
Control Delay (seconds)	110.00	53.00	177.00	111.00	77.00	66.00
Total No. of Stops per Run	3.00	2.00	6.00	1.00	4.00	6.00
Concentration of NOx (g/mile)	0.95	0.62	0.69	0.62	0.75	0.68

(Munshi, 2005)

Table 4.3 Summary of Emission Factors

Emission Factor (EF), gram/mile	Overall	A.M. peak	Off- peak	P.M. peak
Max. EF	2.02	1.22	2.02	1.74
Min. EF	0.36	0.58	0.58	0.77
Average EF	1.08	0.81	0.78	1.30

This research aims to model the worst-case concentration; hence the maximum emission factor from all runs was used. This emission factor is associated with the Northbound Off-Peak run taken on November 14th, 2004.

4.2 Determination of the Worst-Case Meteorology

In order to determine worst-case meteorology, CAL3QHCR was run using five years meteorological data (see Chapter 3). Worst-case meteorology was determined based on concentration of CO. To identify the 10 worst-cases of meteorology for 1-hour time average, all results of CAL3QHCR were observed. The top 5 worst-cases were extracted from each year (first 3 if CO concentration was considerably low with respect to CO concentration of other years). This exercise is summarized in Table 4.4. The top 10 worst-cases of meteorology derived from Table 4.4 are summarized in Table 4.5. A similar procedure was repeated for 8-hour time average, and results are summarized in Tables 4.6 and 4.7. Table 4.8 and Figure 4.3 break out worst-case meteorology occurrences according to season.

Table 4.4 Meteorological Conditions Giving Highest Concentrations for 1 Hour Time Average

Serial Number	Year	Month	Day	Hour	Wind Speed (m/sec)	Ambient Temp (K)	Stability Class	Rural Mixing Ht. (m)	Urban Mixing Ht. (m)	Concentrations (ppm)
1	84	1	8	7	1.54	275.9	7	835	43	30.6
2	84	2	3	24	1.54	282	7	1433	61	27.4
3	84	3	3	19	5.66	294.3	4	998	998	23.8
4	84	3	28	4	12.3	282	4	1973	1972.8	26.1
5	87	4	17	2	1.54	289.8	7	1960	49	29
6	87	12	10	2	1.54	279.8	7	1115	45	31.6
7	87	12	29	21	1.03	272	7	660	437	27.2
8	88	6	12	5	2.57	289.3	6	1510	112	22.6
9	88	7	23	5	3.09	294.3	6	2253	82	26.5
10	88	9	11	24	7.20	301.5	4	1911	1910.9	27.7
11	88	11	14	5	6.69	291.5	4	1102	1102.4	26.7
12	89	3	13	4	5.14	287.6	5	954	103	29
13	89	4	17	2	6.17	290.9	4	828	828.3	26.4
14	89	12	10	2	6.17	281.5	4	1031	1030.5	31.6
15	89	12	29	23	6.17	279.8	4	378	377.6	27.2
16	90	1	10	2	2.06	279.3	6	835	38	27.6
17	90	2	1	1	1.03	285.9	4	503	503.2	27
18	90	2	2	1	2.57	283.2	6	778	54	25.9
19	90	10	28	24	2.06	290.4	6	1620	44	25.5
20	90	12	14	7	1.54	281.5	4	422	421.8	20.6

Table 4.5 Top Ten Worst-Case Meteorological Conditions for 1 Hour Time Average

Order Number	Year	Month	Day	Hour	Wind Speed (m/sec)	Ambient Temp (K)	Stability Class	Rural Mixing Ht (m)	Urban Mixing Ht (m)	Concentrations (ppm)
1	87	12	10	2	1.54	279.8	7	1115	45	31.6
2	89	12	10	2	6.17	281.5	4	1031	1031	31.6
3	84	1	8	7	1.54	275.9	7	834.5	43	30.6
4	89	3	13	4	5.14	287.6	5	953.5	103	29
5	87	4	17	2	1.54	289.8	7	1960	49	29
6	88	9	11	24	7.20	301.5	4	1911	1911	27.7
7	90	1	10	2	2.06	279.3	6	835.4	38	27.6
8	84	2	3	24	1.54	282	7	1433	61	27.4
9	87	12	29	21	1.03	272	7	660	437	27.2
10	89	12	29	23	6.17	279.8	4	378	378	27.2

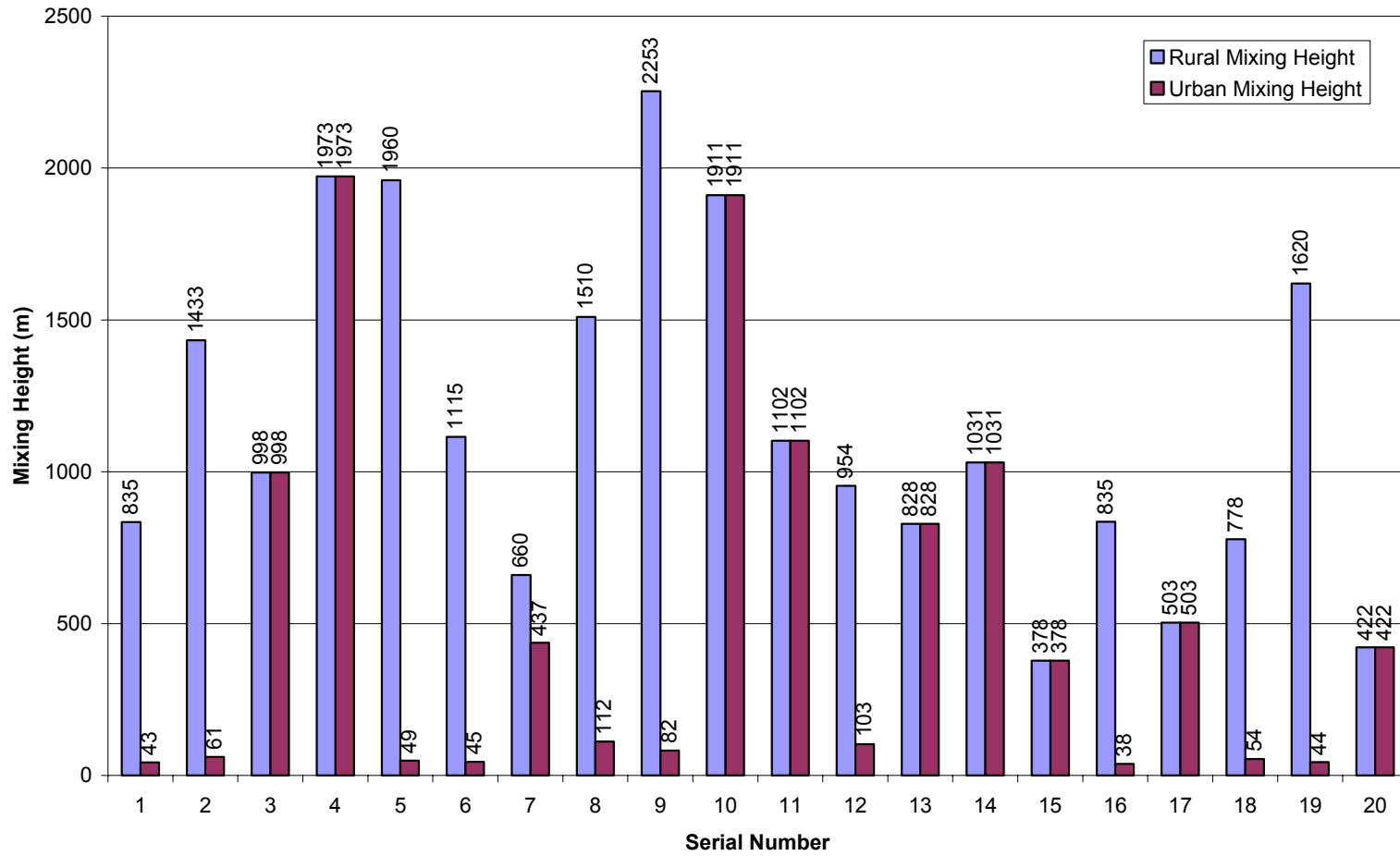


Fig. 4.1. Comparison of Rural and Urban Mixing Heights for 1-Hour Time Average

Table 4.6 Meteorological Conditions Giving Highest Concentrations for 8 Hour Time Average.

Serial Number	Year	Month	Day	Hour	Wind Speed (m/sec)	Ambient Temp (K)	Stability Class	Rural Mixing Ht. (m)	Urban Mixing Ht. (m)	Concentrations (ppm)
1	84	2	17	7	1.03	272	7	660	437	13.1
2	84	9	21	4	3.09	293.7	5	1049	674	12.6
3	84	10	11	10	5.14	296.5	3	198	536.4	15.2
4	84	11	13	7	2.06	279.3	6	1211	142	15.0
5	84	11	13	8	1.54	280.9	5	169	291.1	13.6
6	87	1	28	4	2.57	280.9	6	924	36	12.3
7	87	4	4	4	3.09	277.6	6	1824	114	9.3
8	87	9	2	23	2.57	296.5	6	1815	378.3	11.2
9	87	11	3	8	0.00	287.6	5	220	267.4	13.1
10	87	12	4	21	2.57	285.9	6	927	769.7	9.4
11	88	3	5	24	3.09	279.8	6	925	50	13.3
12	88	5	27	7	1.54	290.4	4	347	418.4	11.1
13	88	6	2	23	4.12	293.2	4	427	426.7	12.2
14	88	9	12	1	7.72	300.4	4	1873	1872.9	13.3
15	88	10	11	6	4.63	286.5	5	1186	93	12.8
16	89	1	28	4	5.14	284.3	4	215	215.3	12.3
17	89	6	21	11	5.66	304.8	3	1224	1299.7	10.6
18	89	9	2	23	3.60	303.7	5	2249	577.9	11.3
19	89	11	3	8	2.57	275.9	5	192	215	9.2
20	89	11	21	11	4.12	296.5	3	739	778.4	9.7
21	90	2	24	23	3.09	284.3	6	1831	342.8	10.7
22	90	2	25	2	3.60	283.2	5	1866	40	12.5
23	90	10	29	6	2.57	285.4	6	1625	44	17.0

Table 4.7 Top Five Worst-case Meteorological Concentrations for 8 Hour Time Average

Order Number	Year	Month	Day	Hour	Wind Speed (m/sec)	Ambient Temp (K)	Stability Class	Rural Mixing Ht (m)	Urban Mixing Ht (m)	Concentrations (ppm)
1	90	10	29	6	2.57	285.4	6	1625	44	17.0
2	84	10	11	10	5.14	296.5	3	198	536.4	15.2
3	84	10	11	10	5.14	296.5	3	198	536.4	15.2
4	84	11	13	8	1.54	280.9	5	169	291.1	13.6
5	84	11	13	7	2.06	279.3	6	1211	142	15.0

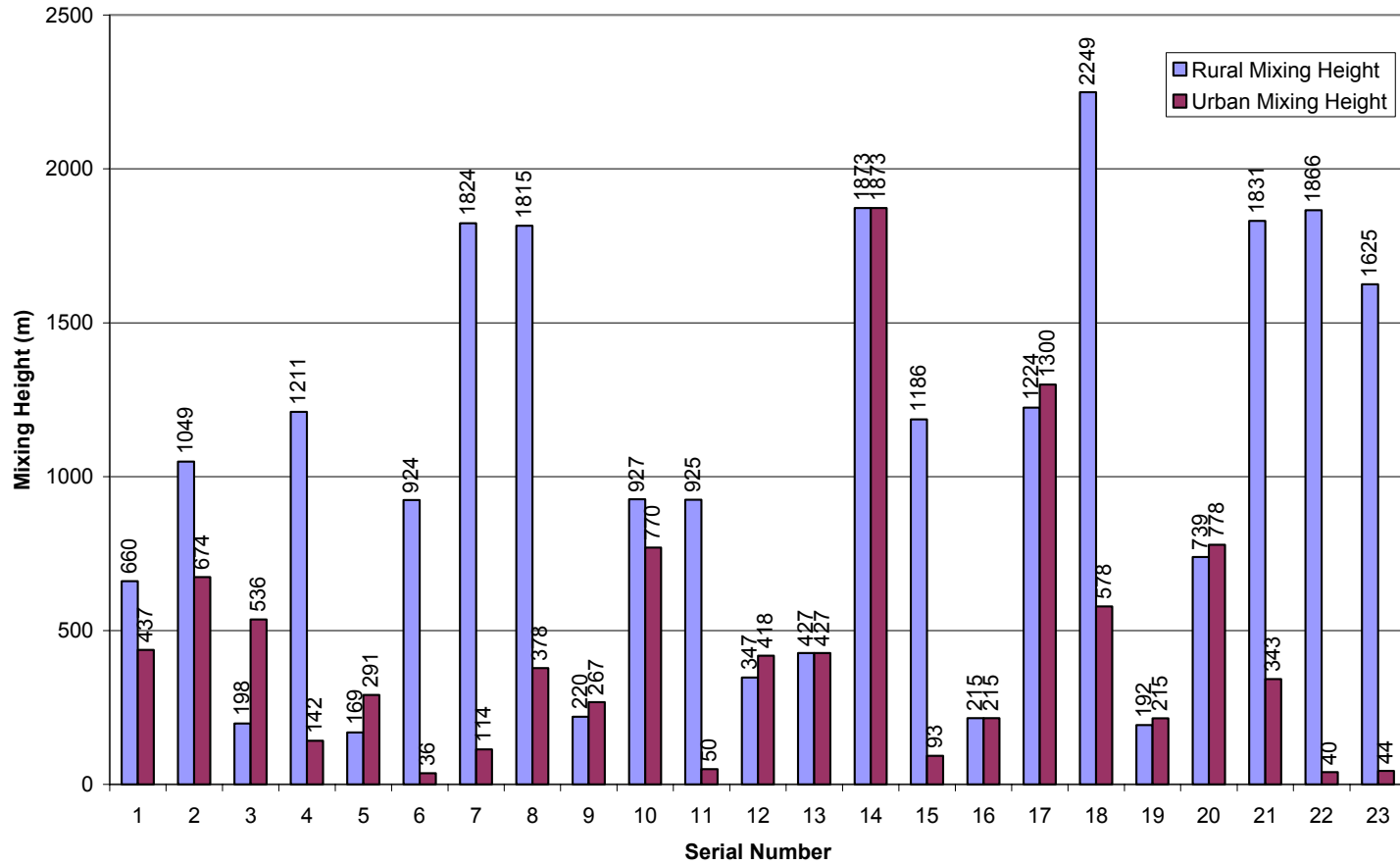


Fig. 4.2. Comparison of Rural and Urban Mixing Heights for 8-Hour Time Average.

Table 4.8 Worst-Case Meteorological Occurrences by Season

			1984	1987	1988	1989	1990	Frequency of Occurrence	Total
Spring	Mar. 21- June 21	March	28					1	6
		April				17		1	
		May			27			1	
		June			2,12	21		3	
Summer	June 22 – Sept. 21	June						0	6
		July			23			1	
		August						0	
		September	21	2	11,1 2	2		5	
Fall	Sept. 22 – Dec. 21	September						0	15
		October	11		11		12,2 8,29	5	
		November	13	3	14	3,21		5	
		December		4,10		8,10	14	5	
Winter	Dec. 22- Mar. 20	December				29		1	15
		January	8			28	10	3	
		February	3,17				1,2,2 4,25	6	
		March	3	4,17	5	13		5	

(Note:- Numbers in columns headed 1984-1990 show dates of occurrence)

4.2.1 Observations/Discussion of Table 4.3 – Table 4.6 and Figures 4.1 & 4.2

- From Table 4.3, 16 out of 20 cases of worst-case meteorology occurred between mid-night to early morning 7 a.m. (hours 24 to 7). Only 3 cases of worst-case meteorology occurred during rush hours (hours 7 to 17). During the night, traffic volumes are generally lower than during the day, and lower than volumes used as Caline4 inputs. Thus, pairing worst-case meteorology (which occurs from hours

- 24 to 7) with worst-case emissions (which occurs from hours 7 to 17) was a conservative assumption since the two are not likely to occur at the same time.
- Worst-case concentration for 8 hour time average in Cal3qhr indicates concentration at the end of the 8th hour. From Table 4.6, 13 out of 23 worst-case meteorological occurrences range from mid night to early morning (7 a.m.).
 - The higher the turbulence in the atmosphere, the lower is the pollutant concentration in atmosphere due to higher mixing/dispersion. Temperature gradient causes thermal turbulence and horizontal component of wind velocity causes mechanical turbulence in atmosphere. Out of the 43 cases of worst-case meteorology (20 from Table 4.3 and 23 from Table 4.5), only 4 cases have a wind velocity greater than or equal to 7 m/s; most wind speeds vary between 1 - 3 m/s, both inclusive. Out of the 43 cases, only 2 cases have temperatures greater than 25° C (77° F), and the majority of cases have temperature between -2 – 13°C (35.6° F – 55.4°F). Warmer temperatures are often associated with solar heating of the ground surface, which generates temperature gradients that cause instability and thermal turbulence. Hence we can say that conditions with lower wind speed and low temperatures favor low mechanical and thermal turbulence.
 - Stability class is a measure of atmospheric turbulence. As discussed earlier, conditions are favoring low mechanical and thermal turbulence, so stability class varies from 4 (Neutral) to 7 (extremely stable). The most prevailing stability class is 7 (5 cases out of 10). However, one outlier observation is the 2nd from Table 4.6, which has wind speed of nearly 5 m/s, temperature more than 20°C and

- urban mixing height higher than rural mixing height (mixing height is discussed later in this section). This may be explained by the argument that the worst-case wind angle is causing the higher concentration rather than simply meteorology.
- Mixing height is defined as the altitude to which thermal mixing occurs due to solar heating of the ground. In other words, it defines the vertical limit of mixing. The lower the mixing height, the higher is the possibility of a pollutant being trapped, causing a higher concentration of the pollutant. An interesting observation is made that in majority for cases, urban mixing height is much lower than rural mixing height (6 out of 10 cases in Table 4.4 and 3 out of 5 in Table 4.7). Comparisons are made between urban and rural mixing heights in Figures 4.1 and 4.2. Land is much more open and uncovered in rural areas, while asphalt and concrete roads cover the majority of lands in urban areas. Concrete and asphalt have lower heat absorbing capacities than open land/soil, which means they liberate infrared radiation more quickly at night. This means the Earth's surface could be cooler than the overlying air, which would lead to a radiation inversion, which could explain the lower mixing height.

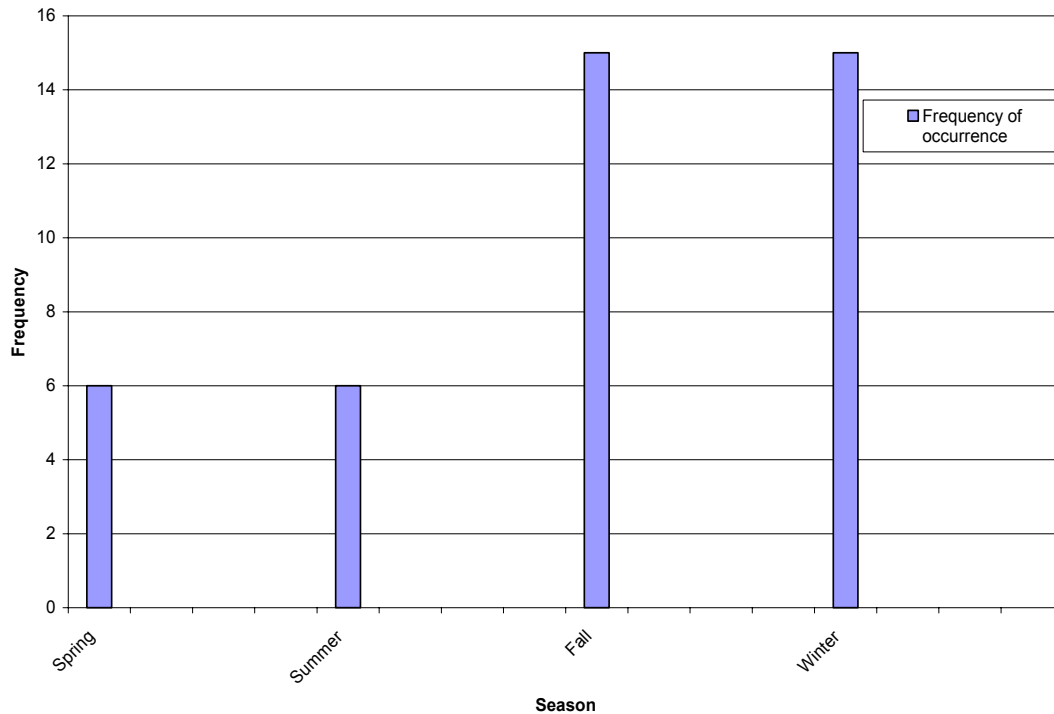


Fig 4.3 Frequency of Worst-Case Meteorological Occurrence by Season

4.2.2 Observation/Discussion of Table 4.8 and Figure 4.3

In summer, strong solar radiation heats the ground surface, which causes thermal turbulence in the atmosphere. In summer thermal turbulence typically prevails and the atmosphere remains well mixed. These are favorable conditions for high dispersion and low pollution concentrations. This is the reason why Figure 4.3 shows minimum frequency of worst-case meteorology in summer. Fall and winter have exactly the opposite situation to summer, with stable conditions occurring more frequently; hence, maximum frequencies of worst-cases happened during October to January (i.e. fall to

winter). On-road testing showed that in fall vehicular pollution was higher (the maximum emission factor was observed on November 14, 2004). All the rush hour worst-case meteorology for 1-hour time average were observed in fall and winter (November, December and January) except, one in September, which was during fall.

4.3 Caline4 Analysis

Worst-case meteorological data given in Table 4.5 for 1-hour time average and Table 4.7 for 8-hour time average were used as meteorological inputs (see Chapter 3 for more information on input to Caline4). Table 4.9 shows the Caline4 output of NO₂ concentrations at 90 receptors. Appendix A shows NO₂ concentrations in ppm at all 1080 receptors in the receptor grid. Table 4.10 summarizes the maximum concentration and its receptor location for all 10 runs for 1-hour time average and 5 runs for 8-hour time average.

Table 4.9 Caline4 Output – NO₂ Concentrations

REC	REPTOR	BRG (DEG)	PRED CONC (ppm)
1	G1_1	11	0.07
2	G1_2	11	0.07
3	G1_3	11	0.07
4	G1_4	11	0.07
5	G1_5	11	0.07
6	G1_6	11	0.07
7	G1_7	12	0.07
8	G1_8	12	0.07
9	G1_9	12	0.07
46	G1_46	167	0.07
47	G1_47	168	0.07
48	G1_48	168	0.07
49	G1_49	169	0.07
50	G1_50	169	0.07
51	G1_51	170	0.07
52	G1_52	170	0.07
53	G1_53	170	0.07
54	G1_54	170	0.07

Table 4.9 - continued

10	G1_10	167	0.07
11	G1_11	168	0.07
12	G1_12	168	0.07
13	G1_13	168	0.07
14	G1_14	169	0.07
15	G1_15	169	0.07
16	G1_16	169	0.07
17	G1_17	170	0.07
18	G1_18	170	0.07
19	G1_19	11	0.07
20	G1_20	11	0.07
21	G1_21	11	0.07
22	G1_22	11	0.07
23	G1_23	11	0.07
24	G1_24	11	0.07
25	G1_25	12	0.07
26	G1_26	12	0.07
27	G1_27	12	0.07
28	G1_28	167	0.07
29	G1_29	168	0.07
30	G1_30	168	0.07
31	G1_31	169	0.07
32	G1_32	169	0.07
33	G1_33	169	0.07
34	G1_34	170	0.07
35	G1_35	170	0.07
36	G1_36	170	0.07
37	G1_37	10	0.07
38	G1_38	10	0.07
39	G1_39	11	0.07
40	G1_40	11	0.07
41	G1_41	11	0.07
42	G1_42	11	0.07
43	G1_43	11	0.07
44	G1_44	12	0.07
45	G1_45	12	0.07

55	G1_55	10	0.07
56	G1_56	10	0.07
57	G1_57	11	0.07
58	G1_58	11	0.07
59	G1_59	11	0.07
60	G1_60	11	0.07
61	G1_61	11	0.07
62	G1_62	11	0.07
63	G1_63	12	0.07
64	G1_64	168	0.07
65	G1_65	168	0.07
66	G1_66	169	0.07
67	G1_67	169	0.07
68	G1_68	169	0.07
69	G1_69	170	0.07
70	G1_70	170	0.07
71	G1_71	170	0.07
72	G1_72	170	0.07
73	G1_73	10	0.07
74	G1_74	10	0.07
75	G1_75	11	0.07
76	G1_76	11	0.07
77	G1_77	11	0.07
78	G1_78	11	0.07
79	G1_79	11	0.07
80	G1_80	11	0.07
81	G1_81	12	0.07
82	G1_82	168	0.07
83	G1_83	168	0.07
84	G1_84	169	0.07
85	G1_85	169	0.07
86	G1_86	169	0.07
87	G1_87	170	0.07
88	G1_88	170	0.07
89	G1_89	170	0.07
90	G1_90	171	0.07

Where

REC = Record

BRG (DEG) = Worst-case wind angle in degree

PRED CONC (ppm) = Predicted concentration in ppm

Table 4.10 Caline4 Output – NO₂ Concentration with Position of Occurrence and Threshold Value

Run No.	Run Type	Max Conc. (ppm)	Position		Exceedance Threshold (ppm)
			X (m)	Y (m)	
1	1 Hour	0.16	0	-300	0.19
2	1 Hour	0.12	0	-800	0.19
3	1 Hour	0.15	0	-300	0.19
4	1 Hour	0.18	5	-300	0.19
5	1 Hour	0.13	5	-1000	0.19
6	1 Hour	0.14	0	-300	0.19
7	1 Hour	0.16	10	-1000	0.19
8	1 Hour	0.16	0	-300	0.19
9	1 Hour	0.12	0	-300	0.19
10	1 Hour	0.15	0	-300	0.19
11	8 Hour	0.17	0	-300	
12	8 Hour	0.17	0	-300	
13	8 Hour	0.15	0	-300	
14	8 Hour	0.15	0	-300	
15	8 Hour	0.15	0	-300	

4.3.1 Observations/Discussions of Table 4.10

- As discussed in Chapter 3, the entire roadway was centered at X=0; as expected, most maximum concentrations occurred at X=0 (i.e. centerline). Some variation in position of the maximum concentration was because of the curvilinear profile

of Great Southwest Parkway corridor. Due to worst-case wind angle selection, almost all maximum concentrations occurred at X=0 and Y=-300; this also includes contribution from all individual links.

- The method used for finding worst-case meteorology using Cal3qhc is valid. The 8-hour concentration of NO_x follows the degree of worseness of meteorology. However, 1-hour time average NO_x concentration does not quite following this pattern, but 1-hour time average is a relatively small averaging period, so we can consider the discrepancy as an exception.
- Calculation of Threshold Value

Hong Kong air quality standards (see Chapter 2) give an air quality health impact threshold 350 µg/m³ for NO_x. The following procedure was adopted to convert this value into ppm.

$$C_{\text{mass}} = \frac{1000 * MW * C_{\text{ppm}} * P}{RT}$$

MW = NO_x molecular weight which is 31.6 g/gmole (assuming 90% NO and 10% NO₂)

C_{ppm} = Concentration in units of ppm

P = Ambient Pressure (atm)

T = Ambient Temperature (Kelvin)

R = 0.08206 atm-l/gmol-K

Using the above formula, the 1-hour NO_x standard of 350 µg/m³ was found to equal to 0.19 ppm. No NO_x standard was found with an 8-hour averaging time; thus, no 8-hour

value is given in Table 4.10. In Table 4.10, the highest 1-hour concentration is 0.18 ppm; thus, the 0.19 ppm standard is not exceeded.

4.3.2 Finding the Traffic Volume which Exceeds the Threshold limit of 0.19 ppm, Considering 20 Foot Buffer Width

Since there was not any exceedance of the 0.19 ppm 1-hour standard with the current traffic volume, the traffic volume was increased to determine the theoretical level of traffic which would produce an exceedance of the standard 20' from the roadway edge. Twenty feet is a buffer width or setback distance required by some cities in residential and/or commercial areas. A filter strip made up of close-growing grasses or other vegetation used to convey sheet runoff from impervious surfaces. To achieve effective pollution removal from storm water runoff a 20 feet of filter strip is recommended; i.e. 20 foot buffer width (Storm Water Fact Sheets NCTCOG, 1998). Structures must be built a minimum 20 foot from the edge of the pavement.

Three discrete receptors were located at the centerline and on the both sides of the roadway at 20 foot from roadway edge (13.41 m from centerline). The following results were obtained by increasing the traffic volume, with first worst-case meteorological conditions.

Table 4.11 Concentration in ppm as a Function of Traffic Volume

Receptor	Location (x,y) m ↓	Concentration in ppm			
		5000	10000	21000	20000
	Traffic volume →				
1	(0,-300)	0.21	0.27	0.33	0.38
2	(-13.41,-300)	0.13	0.16	0.18	0.20
3	(13.41,-300)	0.13	0.16	0.18	0.20

4.3.2.1 Observations/Discussion of Table 4.11

Health effect exceedance first takes place at centerline with traffic volume of 5000 vehicles/hr. Health effect exceedance is observed beyond the buffer width, when the traffic volume reaches 31,000 vehicles/hr, which is not realistic for Great Southwest Parkway. Hence, 20 feet (nearly 6 m) buffer width is adequate to protect human health from NO_x exposure on Great Southwest Parkway. The methodology used was conservative. Emission factor was highest observed in van; however, van is a fairly new vehicle with relatively low emission factor.

4.4 GIS Analysis

CalroadView can plot concentration isopleths; however, to obtain more control over output format, ArcGIS had been chosen to plot dispersion maps. The following maps were developed using ArcGIS 9.0. Figure 4.4 shows the contour map of maximum concentrations of NO_x with 1-hour time average. Figure 4.5 shows 3-D NO_x distribution for 1-hour time average.

Contours at Location with Maximum Concentration

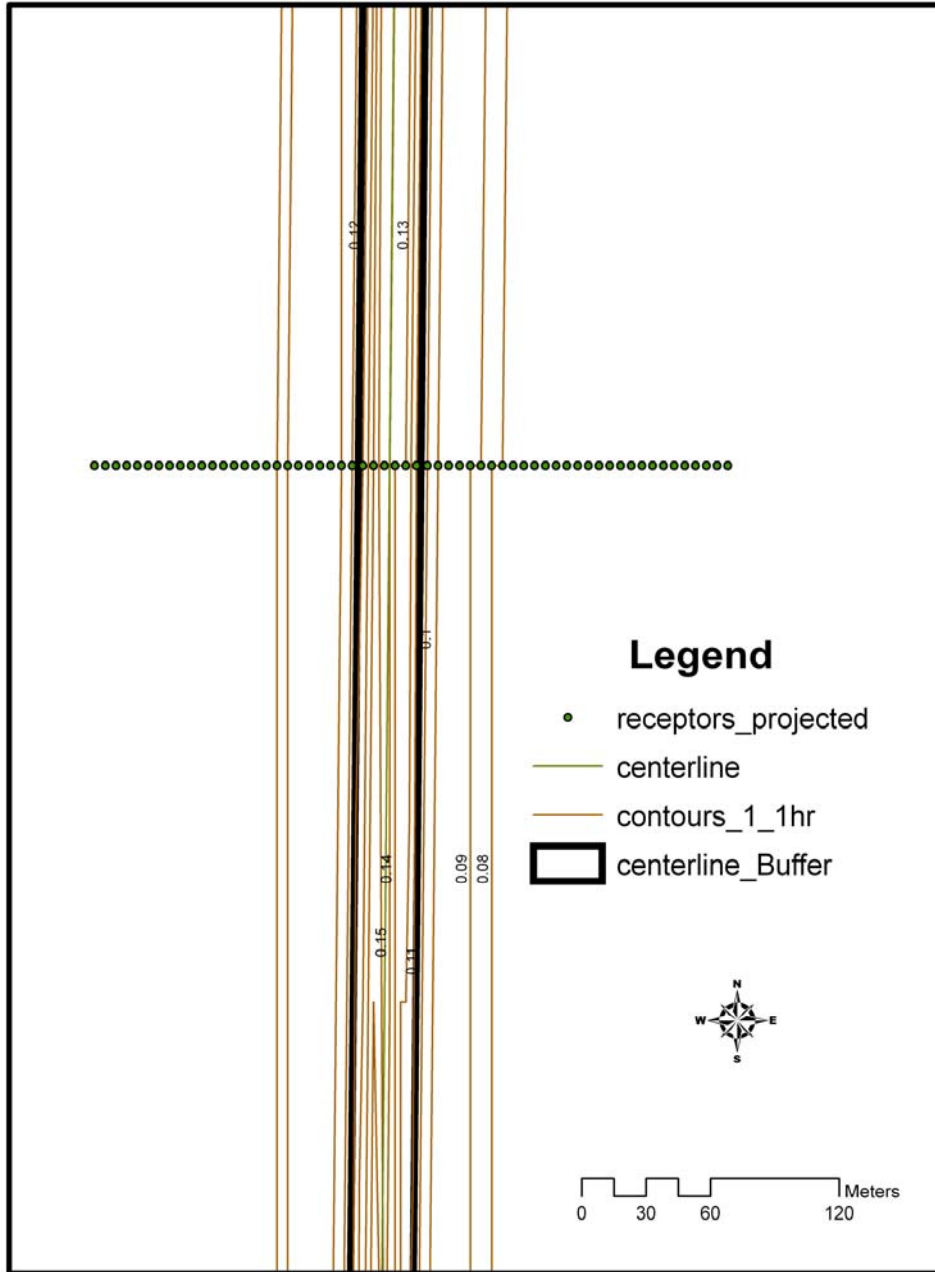
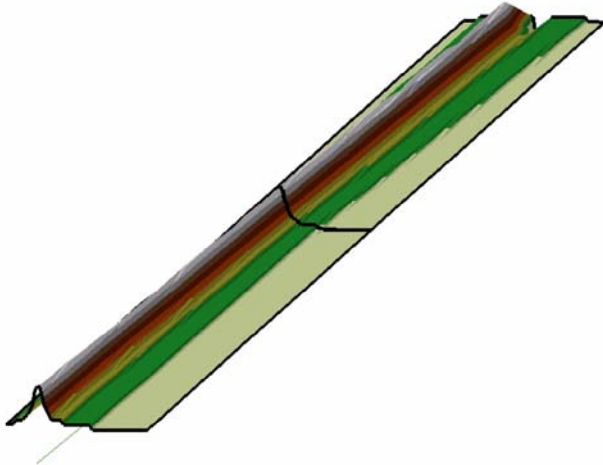


Fig. 4.4 Contour Map of Maximum 1-hour NO_x

Pollutant Distribution



Legend

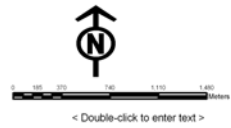
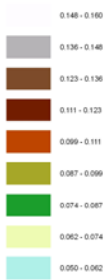


Fig. 4.5 3-Dimensional NOx Distribution, 1-Hour Time Average

Fig 4.5 was developed using ArcSCENE to generate the 3-D effect. To make the figure aesthetically pleasant, the figure is divided in two zones viz. North zone and South zone. To develop a 3-D effect, a Triangulated Irregular Network was created using surface analysis functionality of ArcGIS in the geostatistical analyst extension. Since contour values are small, it was not possible to make the 3-D effect visible plotting x, y and z to scale; thus z values were increased by a factor of 1000. Figures 4.6 and 4.7 show NO_x dispersion in North zone and South zone, respectively. The pollutant concentration is highest at the center and decreases away from the center, following the bell-shaped curve typical of Gaussian dispersion behavior.

Pollutant Distribution in North Zone

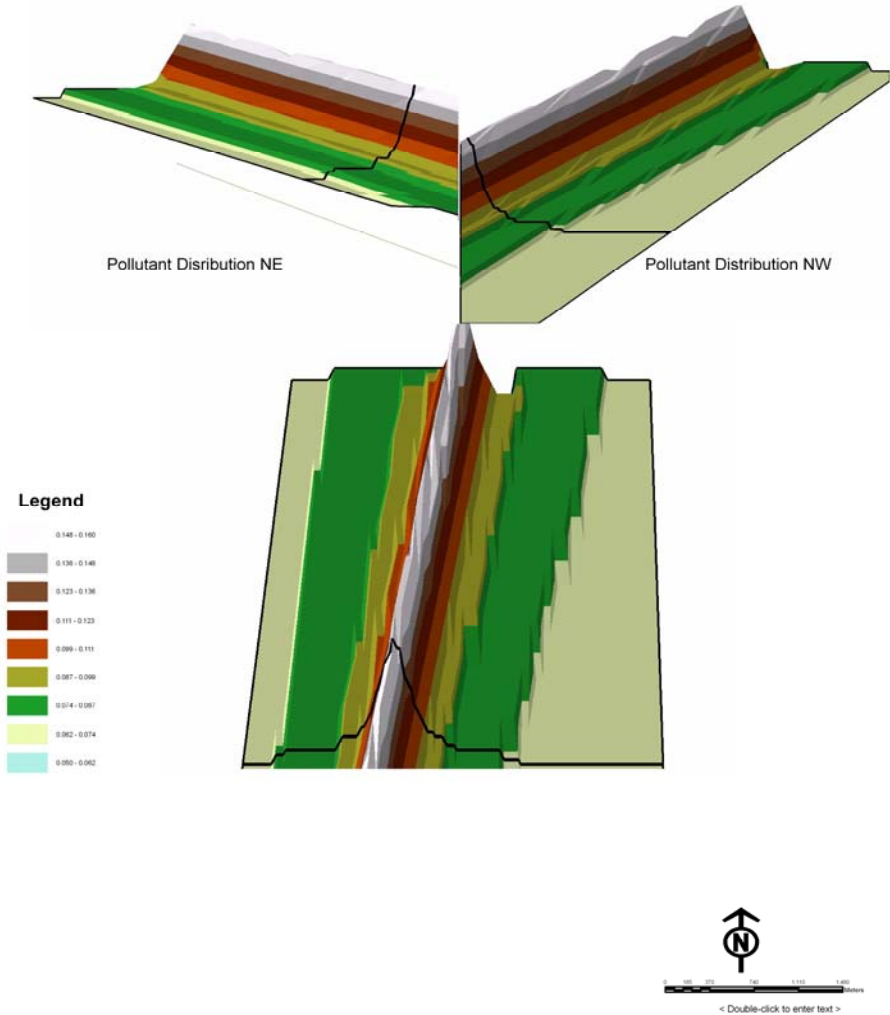


Fig. 4.6 NOx Concentration Distribution in North Zone, 1-Hour time Average

Pollutant Distribution in South Zone

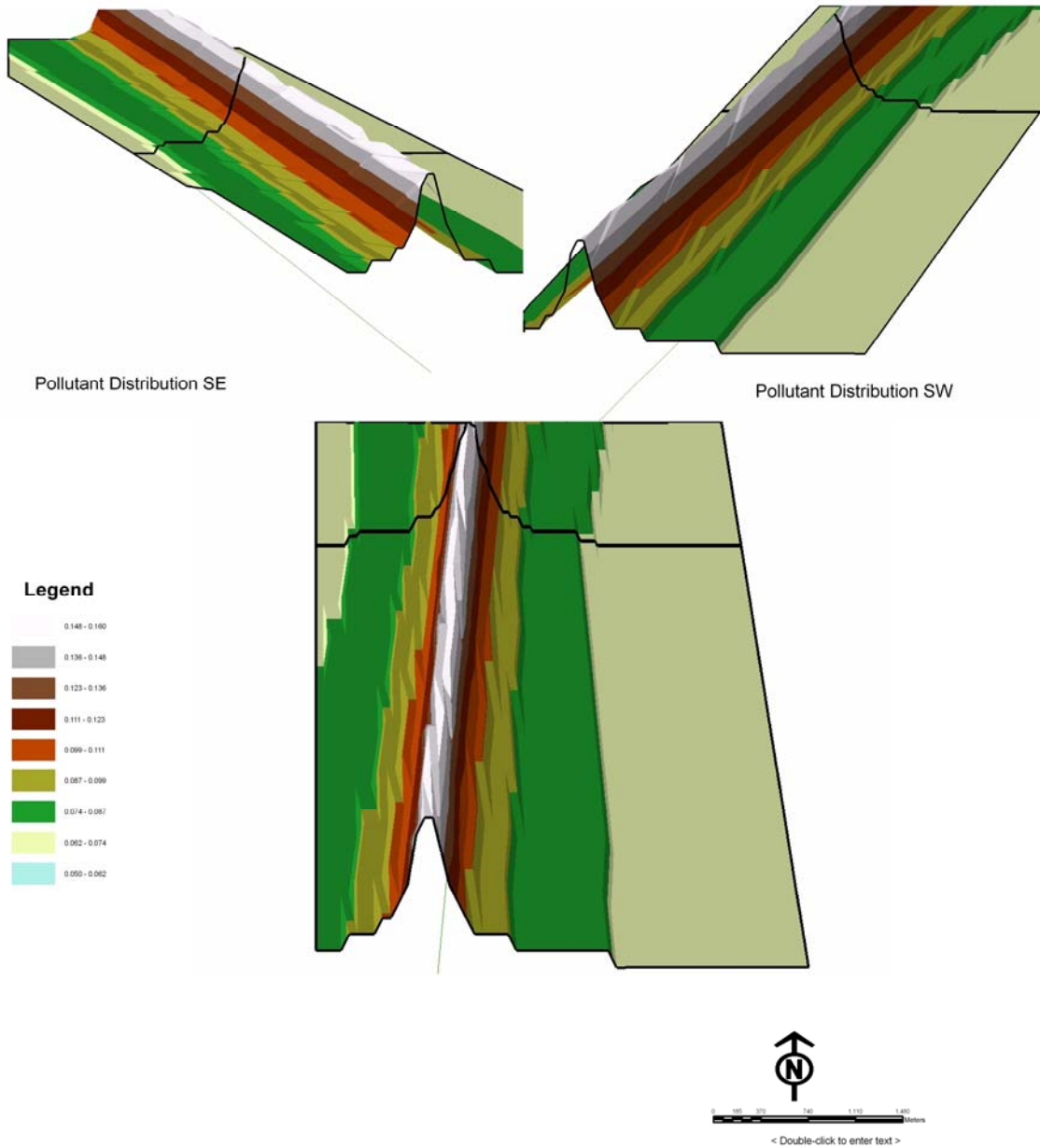


Fig. 4.7 NOx Concentration Distribution in South Zone, 1-Hour time Average

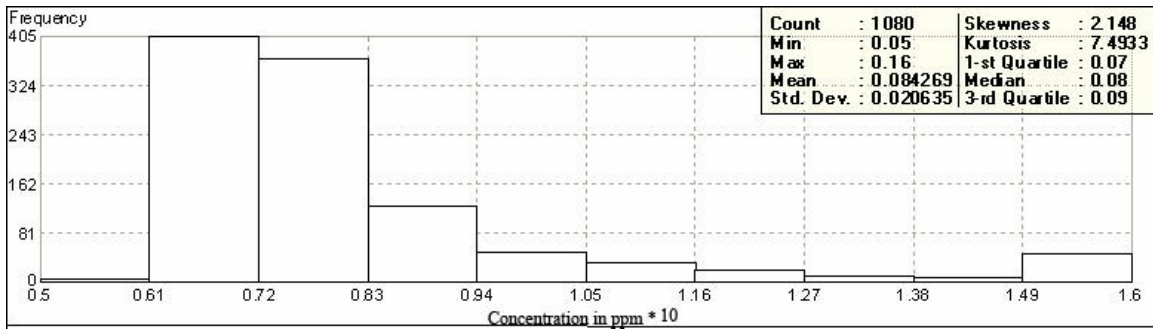


Fig. 4.8 NO_x Concentration Frequency Distribution

Figure 4.8 shows a frequency distribution of the maximum 1-hour NO_x concentration observed at each of the 1080 receptor. Geostatistical analyst of ArcGIS was used to obtain the distribution. The most frequently observed 1-hour maximum concentrations fall between 0.061 ppm and 0.083 ppm; in fact, over 700 of the 1080 values fall within this range. Figure 4.9 shows the contour map at the intersection of Great Southwest Parkway and Abrams street, superimposed on aerial photograph.

Contours at Intersection of Abrams street and Great Southwest Parkway



Fig. 4.9 Contour Map Superimposed with Aerial Photograph

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

This research aimed to model NO_x concentrations and determine a safe buffer width of roadway to protect human health from harmful exposure of NO_x. A number of Caline4 runs were made in order to model NO_x concentration. After making careful observations in Chapter 4, the following conclusions can be drawn.

- A roadway buffer width of 20 feet (nearly 6 m) is adequate to protect human health from NO_x along Great Southwest Pathway, assuming that the van is representative of vehicles on the roadway. This is non-conservative assumption since the van is relatively new and thus a relatively clean vehicle. Every individual with normal health is safe during this exposure. Traffic volumes on the roadway could increase by a factor of 15, and the 20 foot buffer width would still be sufficient to protect human health. The data used for the model were conservative, in that worst-case emission and meteorology were modeled simultaneously; this buffer width would thus likely be valid for any corridor with a similar traffic volume and number of signals.
- Worst-case meteorology for 1-hour time average is most likely to occur during night hours (Table 4.4); these are the hours when traffic tends to be at minimum.

Hence, it is highly unlikely that worst-case meteorology and maximum traffic volume could couple together and create maximum pollution concentrations.

- A distinct pattern was observed for worst-case meteorology when divided according to season. Fall and winter showed maximum frequency of worst-case meteorology; spring and summer showing the least. On-road testing showed that in fall vehicular pollution was higher (the maximum emission factor was observed on November 14, 2004). All the rush hour worst-case meteorology for 1-hour time average were observed in months of November, December and January, except one in September.
- The method used for finding worst-case meteorology using Cal3qhcr is valid. The 8-hour concentration of NO_x follows the degree of worseness of meteorology. However, 1-hour time average NO_x concentration does not quite following this pattern, but 1-hour time average is relatively small averaging period, so we can consider the discrepancy as an exception.

5.2 Recommendations for Future Research

- A relationship between vehicular activity and emission factor should be developed. The emission factor will change with increased traffic volume due to increased dispersion parameters due to increased mechanical and thermal turbulence. In the present research to determine safe buffer width, only the traffic volume was increased but the EF was kept constant. This approach contains some error, which may or may not be significant.
- Photolysis rate defines rate of NO₂ generation in atmosphere; this rate depends on solar radiation, which is not constant across the globe. Yet, to our knowledge no research work has been done to find out this constant for Dallas-Fort Worth area. This could be a great aid to all permitting and regulatory agencies to model NO₂ generation in the area of concern.
- A buffer width of 20 feet was sufficient to protect human health from the NO_x exposure given the roadway and vehicle modeled in this research; however, a 20 feet buffer width may not be sufficient to protect against health impacts of other potential pollutants like CO, HC, and SO₂ further research should consider all the pollutants and quantify their combined effect in order to determine safe buffer width.
- A comprehensive modeling effort should take into account all kinds of sources like area, point and line and considering all possible exposure path-ways.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE CALINE4 OUTPUT

REC	REPTOR	BRG	PRED
		(DEG)	(PPM)
1	G1_1	11	0.07
2	G1_2	11	0.07
3	G1_3	11	0.07
4	G1_4	11	0.07
5	G1_5	11	0.07
6	G1_6	11	0.07
7	G1_7	12	0.07
8	G1_8	12	0.07
9	G1_9	12	0.07
10	G1_10	167	0.07
11	G1_11	168	0.07
12	G1_12	168	0.07
13	G1_13	168	0.07
14	G1_14	169	0.07
15	G1_15	169	0.07
16	G1_16	169	0.07
17	G1_17	170	0.07
18	G1_18	170	0.07
19	G1_19	11	0.07
20	G1_20	11	0.07
21	G1_21	11	0.07
22	G1_22	11	0.07
23	G1_23	11	0.07
24	G1_24	11	0.07
25	G1_25	12	0.07
26	G1_26	12	0.07
27	G1_27	12	0.07
28	G1_28	167	0.07
29	G1_29	168	0.07
30	G1_30	168	0.07
31	G1_31	169	0.07
32	G1_32	169	0.07
33	G1_33	169	0.07
34	G1_34	170	0.07
35	G1_35	170	0.07
36	G1_36	170	0.07
37	G1_37	10	0.07
38	G1_38	10	0.07
39	G1_39	11	0.07
40	G1_40	11	0.07
41	G1_41	11	0.07
42	G1_42	11	0.07
43	G1_43	11	0.07
44	G1_44	12	0.07

45	G1_45	12	0.07
46	G1_46	167	0.07
47	G1_47	168	0.07
48	G1_48	168	0.07
49	G1_49	169	0.07
50	G1_50	169	0.07
51	G1_51	170	0.07
52	G1_52	170	0.07
53	G1_53	170	0.07
54	G1_54	170	0.07
55	G1_55	10	0.07
56	G1_56	10	0.07
57	G1_57	11	0.07
58	G1_58	11	0.07
59	G1_59	11	0.07
60	G1_60	11	0.07
61	G1_61	11	0.07
62	G1_62	11	0.07
63	G1_63	12	0.07
64	G1_64	168	0.07
65	G1_65	168	0.07
66	G1_66	169	0.07
67	G1_67	169	0.07
68	G1_68	169	0.07
69	G1_69	170	0.07
70	G1_70	170	0.07
71	G1_71	170	0.07
72	G1_72	170	0.07
73	G1_73	10	0.07
74	G1_74	10	0.07
75	G1_75	11	0.07
76	G1_76	11	0.07
77	G1_77	11	0.07
78	G1_78	11	0.07
79	G1_79	11	0.07
80	G1_80	11	0.07
81	G1_81	12	0.07
82	G1_82	168	0.07
83	G1_83	168	0.07
84	G1_84	169	0.07
85	G1_85	169	0.07
86	G1_86	169	0.07
87	G1_87	170	0.07
88	G1_88	170	0.07
89	G1_89	170	0.07
90	G1_90	171	0.07
91	G1_91	10	0.07
92	G1_92	10	0.07

93	G1_93	10	0.07
94	G1_94	10	0.07
95	G1_95	11	0.07
96	G1_96	11	0.07
97	G1_97	11	0.07
98	G1_98	11	0.07
99	G1_99	11	0.07
100	G1_100	168	0.07
101	G1_101	168	0.07
102	G1_102	169	0.07
103	G1_103	169	0.07
104	G1_104	170	0.07
105	G1_105	170	0.07
106	G1_106	170	0.07
107	G1_107	170	0.07
108	G1_108	171	0.07
109	G1_109	10	0.07
110	G1_110	10	0.07
111	G1_111	10	0.07
112	G1_112	10	0.07
113	G1_113	11	0.07
114	G1_114	11	0.07
115	G1_115	11	0.07
116	G1_116	11	0.07
117	G1_117	11	0.07
118	G1_118	168	0.07
119	G1_119	169	0.07
120	G1_120	169	0.07
121	G1_121	169	0.07
122	G1_122	170	0.07
123	G1_123	170	0.07
124	G1_124	170	0.07
125	G1_125	170	0.07
126	G1_126	172	0.07
127	G1_127	10	0.07
128	G1_128	10	0.07
129	G1_129	10	0.07
130	G1_130	10	0.07
131	G1_131	10	0.07
132	G1_132	10	0.07
133	G1_133	11	0.07
134	G1_134	11	0.07
135	G1_135	11	0.07
136	G1_136	168	0.07
137	G1_137	169	0.07
138	G1_138	169	0.07
139	G1_139	170	0.07
140	G1_140	170	0.07

141	G1_141	170	0.07
142	G1_142	170	0.07
143	G1_143	171	0.07
144	G1_144	172	0.07
145	G1_145	10	0.07
146	G1_146	10	0.07
147	G1_147	10	0.07
148	G1_148	10	0.07
149	G1_149	10	0.07
150	G1_150	10	0.07
151	G1_151	10	0.07
152	G1_152	11	0.07
153	G1_153	11	0.07
154	G1_154	168	0.07
155	G1_155	169	0.07
156	G1_156	169	0.07
157	G1_157	170	0.07
158	G1_158	170	0.07
159	G1_159	170	0.07
160	G1_160	171	0.07
161	G1_161	172	0.07
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164	G1_164	10	0.07
165	G1_165	10	0.07
166	G1_166	10	0.07
167	G1_167	10	0.07
168	G1_168	10	0.07
169	G1_169	10	0.07
170	G1_170	10	0.07
171	G1_171	11	0.07
172	G1_172	169	0.07
173	G1_173	169	0.07
174	G1_174	169	0.07
175	G1_175	170	0.07
176	G1_176	170	0.07
177	G1_177	170	0.07
178	G1_178	171	0.07
179	G1_179	172	0.08
180	G1_180	172	0.08
181	G1_181	10	0.07
182	G1_182	10	0.07
183	G1_183	10	0.07
184	G1_184	10	0.07
185	G1_185	10	0.07
186	G1_186	10	0.07
187	G1_187	10	0.07
188	G1_188	10	0.07

189	G1_189	10	0.07
190	G1_190	169	0.07
191	G1_191	169	0.07
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212	G1_212	170	0.07
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218	G1_218	9	0.07
219	G1_219	10	0.07
220	G1_220	10	0.07
221	G1_221	10	0.07
222	G1_222	10	0.07
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224	G1_224	10	0.07
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237	G1_237	9	0.07
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239	G1_239	9	0.07
240	G1_240	10	0.07
241	G1_241	10	0.07
242	G1_242	10	0.07
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244	G1_244	169	0.07
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253	G1_253	9	0.07
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256	G1_256	9	0.07
257	G1_257	9	0.07
258	G1_258	9	0.07
259	G1_259	10	0.07
260	G1_260	10	0.07
261	G1_261	10	0.07
262	G1_262	169	0.07
263	G1_263	170	0.07
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265	G1_265	171	0.07
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270	G1_270	174	0.08
271	G1_271	9	0.07
272	G1_272	9	0.07
273	G1_273	9	0.07
274	G1_274	9	0.07
275	G1_275	9	0.07
276	G1_276	9	0.07
277	G1_277	9	0.07
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279	G1_279	10	0.07
280	G1_280	170	0.07
281	G1_281	170	0.07
282	G1_282	170	0.07
283	G1_283	172	0.07
284	G1_284	172	0.08

285	G1_285	172	0.08
286	G1_286	173	0.08
287	G1_287	173	0.08
288	G1_288	174	0.08
289	G1_289	9	0.07
290	G1_290	9	0.07
291	G1_291	9	0.07
292	G1_292	9	0.07
293	G1_293	9	0.07
294	G1_294	9	0.07
295	G1_295	9	0.07
296	G1_296	9	0.07
297	G1_297	9	0.07
298	G1_298	170	0.07
299	G1_299	170	0.07
300	G1_300	170	0.07
301	G1_301	172	0.08
302	G1_302	172	0.08
303	G1_303	173	0.08
304	G1_304	173	0.08
305	G1_305	173	0.08
306	G1_306	174	0.08
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308	G1_308	9	0.07
309	G1_309	9	0.07
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312	G1_312	9	0.07
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315	G1_315	9	0.07
316	G1_316	170	0.07
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318	G1_318	172	0.07
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324	G1_324	174	0.08
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328	G1_328	9	0.07
329	G1_329	9	0.07
330	G1_330	9	0.07
331	G1_331	9	0.07
332	G1_332	9	0.07

333	G1_333	9	0.07
334	G1_334	170	0.07
335	G1_335	172	0.07
336	G1_336	172	0.08
337	G1_337	172	0.08
338	G1_338	173	0.08
339	G1_339	173	0.08
340	G1_340	173	0.08
341	G1_341	173	0.08
342	G1_342	175	0.08
343	G1_343	9	0.07
344	G1_344	9	0.07
345	G1_345	9	0.07
346	G1_346	9	0.07
347	G1_347	9	0.07
348	G1_348	9	0.07
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352	G1_352	170	0.07
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361	G1_361	9	0.07
362	G1_362	9	0.07
363	G1_363	9	0.07
364	G1_364	8	0.07
365	G1_365	9	0.07
366	G1_366	9	0.07
367	G1_367	9	0.07
368	G1_368	9	0.07
369	G1_369	9	0.07
370	G1_370	171	0.07
371	G1_371	172	0.08
372	G1_372	172	0.08
373	G1_373	173	0.08
374	G1_374	173	0.08
375	G1_375	173	0.08
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BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Hetal Bhatt was born on September 05, 1980 in Vadodara, Gujarat, India, the son of Mr. H. K. Bhatt and Mrs. C. H. Bhatt. He completed his high school education at Vadodara, India in 1998. Subsequently, he enrolled in the Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, Vadodara, Gujarat, India, in 1999 and earned his B. E. (Bachelor of Engineering) in Civil Engineering in May 2003.

Hetal Bhatt had started his M.S. (Master of Science) degree in Environmental Engineering at The University of Texas at Arlington, Arlington, Texas in January 2004 and earned M.S. Degree in Civil Engineering in December 2005. During his tenure as a master's student, he was appointed as the Graduate Research Assistant. His thesis was based on NO_x dispersion modeling and looked at the safe buffer width of roadway to protect human health from harmful NO_x exposure. Also during his study, he did an internship in the Transportation Department of the North Central Texas Council of Governments (NCTCOG).