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Determination of time- and size-dependent fine particle emission with varied oil heating in an experimental kitchen

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ABSTRACT

Particulate matter (PM) from cooking has caused seriously indoor air pollutant and aroused 18 risk to human health. It is urged to get deep knowledge of their spatial-temporal distribution 19 of source emission characteristics, especially ultrafine particles (UFP < 100 nm) and 20 accumulation mode particles (AMP 100-665 nm). Four commercial cooking oils are auto 21 dipped water to simulate cooking fume under heating to 265°C to investigate PM emission 22 and decay features between 0.03 and 10 µm size dimension by electrical low pressure 23 impactor (ELPI) without ventilation. Rapeseed and sunflower produced high $PM_{2.5}$ around 24 6.1 mg/m³, in comparison with those of soybean and corn (5.87 and 4.65 mg/m³, respectively) 25 at peak emission time between 340 and 460 sec since heating oil, but with the same level of 26 particle numbers 6-9 × 10⁵/cm³. Mean values of PM_{1.0}/PM_{2.5} and PM_{2.5}/PM₁₀ at peak emission 27 time are around 0.51-0.66 and 0.23-0.29. After 15 min naturally deposition, decay rates of 28 PM1.0, PM2.5 and PM10 are 13.3%-29.8%, 20.1%-33.9% and 41.2%-54.7%, which manifest that 29 PM_{1.0} is quite hard to decay than larger particles, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀. The majority of the particle 30 emission locates at 43 nm with the largest decay rate at 75%, and shifts to a larger size between $\,$ $_{31}$ 137 and 655 nm after 15 min decay. The decay rates of the particles are sensitive to the oil type. 32 © 2016 The Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences. 33 Published by Elsevier B.V. 34

47 Introduction

48 Particulate pollution from cooking emissions has been con-49 sidered a serious environmental problem that is influencing indoor air quality, regional environments and human health 50(Buonanno et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2011; Kabir and Kim, 512011; Kim et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2010). Cooking contributed 520.6%-1.6% to source apportionment of PM_{2.5} collected during 53 the high pollution events of 5-25 January 2013 at the urban 54sites of Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Xi'an (Huang et al., 552014). Cooking with gas and stove has been identified as one 56

of the most significant particle generating activities indoors 57 (Abdullahi et al., 2013), responsible for 43.2% of residential 58 indoor PM concentrations (Zhao et al., 2006). The PM_{2.5} con-59 centrations in the cooking samples, meat roasting, cafeteria 60 frying, fish roasting, snack-street boiling, and cafeteria boiling 61 in Ya'an, China were 2.5–9.6 times higher than those in the 62 corresponding backgrounds (Li et al., 2015). Cooking has been 63 associated with lung cancer risk in retrospective case–control 64 studies in Shanghai (Kim et al., 2015). 65

Many studies investigated the mass concentrations and 66 size distribution of aerosol generated from cooking, which were 67

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proved to be affected by cooking oils, styles and temperature. 68 Karimatu reviewed the emission range for particle number and 69 mass concentration with different cooking conditions (Abdullahi 70 et al., 2013). PM_{2.5} mass concentrations ranged 0.4-1.8 mg/m³ 71 from cooking fume were 4.3 to 20.2 times higher than ambient 72 air (Wang et al., 2015). Particle number concentrations increased 73 to 1.4×10^6 particles/cm³ during cooking hours from the back-74 ground 1220 to 6200 particles/cm³ (Yu et al., 2015). Torkmahalleh 7576 investigated emission rates of seven commercial cooking oils, 77 soybean, safflower, canola, and peanut oils produced lower PM_{2.5} emission fluxes around 10⁵ μg/(min·m²) than corn, coconut, and 78 olive oils with $10^6 \,\mu g/(\text{min} \cdot \text{m}^2)$ at 197°C (Torkmahalleh et al., 79 2012). Cooking styles, like frying, grilling, toasting could elevate 80 indoor submicrometer particle number concentration levels by 81 more than five times, while PM_{2.5} concentrations could be up to 82 3, 30 and 90 times higher than the background levels during 83 smoking, frying and grilling, respectively (He et al., 2004). 84

However, few have special attention to the time and size 85 distribution for oil heating and their naturally decay character, 86 especially for ultrathin particles. In recent years, there are 87 some report on volume-based size distribution of accumula-88 tion and coarse particles (PM_{0.1-10}) from cooking fume during 89 oil heating (Gao et al., 2013a, 2013b, 2013c). Wang reported 90 91 that the average number concentrations of 14.6-100 nm and 92 100-661.2 nm particles elevated by 10 fold from the background 93 level in the living room and by 20-40 fold in the kitchen, while 94 PM_{2.5} went up to about 160 mg/m³ in the kitchen and about 95 60 mg/m³ in the living room (Wan et al., 2011).

An electrical low pressure impactor (ELPI) manufactured by 96 Dekati Ltd. (Tampere, Finland) was used to collect particles 97 from 30 nm to 10 μ m into 12 size fractions. ELPI is widely used 03 for size distribution and density measurement of fine aerosol 99 from wood combustion sources, urban/rural air, pharmaceu-100 tical aerosols or motor vehicle exhaust (Coudray et al., 2009; 101 Glover and Chan, 2004; Held et al., 2008; Maricq et al., 2000). 102The particles pass through a unipolar corona charger, where 103 particle surfaces are saturated with positive charges accord-104ing to their Stokes diameter, and then impacted on different 105stages according to their inertia related to their aerodynamic 106 diameter. Finally, the measured current values are inverted to 107 yield particle number concentrations using transfer functions 108 109 provided by the manufacturer. Mass concentration gives the 110 total mass of all particles in each size range, which is formed by multiplying the current distribution by a vector formed 111 from the masses of spheres having diameter equal to midpoint 112

values of each stage. Due to the dependence of the particle 113 charging efficiency on the Stokes diameter, the particle density 114 must be known for accurate inversions. However, the value of 115 the aerosol density is usually not precisely known so that the 116 particle density estimated of 1.0 g/cm³ is generally provided by 117 the ELPI technique as a default value for particles measured 118 with aerodynamic diameter (Held et al., 2008). Mass concentra-119 tions for cooking fine particles with a gas stove were measured 120 by assuming a specific gravity of 1.0 g/cm³, derived from typical 121 of combustion particles (Wallace et al., 2004). More details 122 about the ELPI measurement principle can be found elsewhere 123 (Marjamaki et al., 2000).

The aim of this work is to quantify source emission charac- 125 ter of particles ranging from 0.03 to 10 μ m emitted during a 126 specified oil-heating period for edible commercial oils. In order 127 to gain a better understanding of the relationship between 128 particulate mass and number concentration with heating time 129 and particle size, four commercial oils (rapeseed, sunflower, 130 soybean and corn oils) have been measured by ELPI when 131 heated to 265°C by auto dipping water to simulate cooking 132 fume. Results of this work are expected to provide information 133 on time- and size-dependent fine particle emission dependent 134 on oil style, which will assess the indoor air quality for Chinese 135 style residential kitchen. 136

1. Experimental method

The size of the kitchen is 4.5 m (L) \times 4.0 m (W) \times 3.0 m (H) as 139 shown in Fig. 1. Three hundred milliliter different oil (rapeseed, 140 sunflower, soybean and corn oil) in a Supor nonstick pan was 141 heated by liquid gas. When the oil temperature reaches up Q4 to 265°C with a real time temperature monitor (PT 1000 143 temperature sensor), auto dipping equipment will spray 5 ml 144 water within 2 ses following 8 sec interval. After oil temperature Q5 reached 265°C again, auto dipping equipment will repeat spray 146 water. Auto dipping equipment was designed to sprayed water 147 twice for all the experiments. Afterwards, fire was shut to 148 stop heating oil. It is observed that they will take within 24 sec 149 to finish auto dipping. The measurements of mass concen- 150 tration are conducted under nearly no ventilation condition 151 with smoke sucker shutting and the door of the kitchen closed 152 throughout the experimental process, which means the air 153 exchange rate is near zero, and no infiltration of particles from 154 outdoor sources. The kitchen was refreshed with fresh air 155



Fig. 1 - Schematic and real kitchen with the layout of measuring point using the TSI and ELPI monitors.

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