

Case Report

Open Access

Chemical Characterization and Assessment of Public Health Risk Due to Inhalation of PM_{2.5} in the City of Salamanca, Guanajuato

Israel Castro Ramírez¹, Diana Olivia Rocha Amador², Juan Manuel López Gutiérrez¹, Elizabeth Ramírez Mosqueda¹, Glenda Edith Cea Barcia¹, Francisco Daniel Ramos Patlán³, Rogelio Costilla Salazar^{1*}

¹University of Guanajuato, Environmental Science Department, DICIVA, Irapuato, Mexico.

²University of Guanajuato, Pharmacy Department, DCNE, Guanajuato, Mexico.

³University of Guanajuato, Department of Agronomy, DICIVA, Irapuato, Mexico.

*Corresponding author: Rogelio Costilla Salazar.

Abstract

In this study, we conducted an analysis of health risks faced by residents of Salamanca, Mexico, who were exposed to fine particulate matter with a diameter of 2.5 µm (PM_{2.5}) through inhalation. The characterization and analysis of these particulate matter samples were undertaken. A total of 131 samples were collected from two different sites: 65 from the Red Cross site (RC) and 66 from the Integral Family Development site (DIF). These samples were analyzed for a set of chemical components, including metals and ions. Non-cancerous health risk levels associated with PM_{2.5} exposure through the human respiratory system, as per the WHO benchmark (assigned a value of 1), revealed notable risk values for two elements: Manganese (Mn) with a range of 1.19-2.12 in the adult population and 1.59-2.84 in the child population, and Nickel (Ni) with a uniform risk value of 1.39 for both evaluated population groups. However, concerns arose regarding potential non-cancerous effects as the cumulative risk levels for various assessed elements showed elevated indices. These ranged from 3.81-4.4 in adults and 4.48-5.24 in children. This study provided comprehensive data on composition and its potential impact on human health, offering valuable insights for the implementation of mitigation measures aimed at reducing inhalation-related exposure.

Keywords: characterization; mitigation; cumulative risk; non-cancer health risk

Introduction

Certain human activities associated with industrial processes contribute to increased atmospheric pollution. These activities include construction, mining, disposal of industrial waste, handling and transportation of raw materials involving combustion processes or earthmoving and building renovation (Azarmi & Kumar, 2016; Fan & Wang, 2016; Ramírez et al., 2019; Takaoka et al., 2016). Such activities are prevalent in most urban environments (Motesaddi Zarandi et al., 2019; J. Sun & Zhou, 2017; Y. Sun et al., 2010; Viana et al., 2008). Atmospheric pollution results from a combination of various anthropogenic activities and natural conditions (Lippmann, 2012; M. Tian et al., 2021). Particulate Matter (hereafter referred to as PM), commonly found in the environment, consists of particles to which heavy metals such as chromium, cadmium, lead, zinc, manganese, and some metalloids like arsenic may adhere. These components can be quantified as part of particles (Kumar et al., 2014; Moreno-Ríos et al., 2022; Santibáñez-Andrade et al., 2017; H. Z. Tian et al., 2015). The concentration of these particles varies

regionally and can be characterized by their origin or size. PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ refer to particles with an aerodynamic diameter equal to or less than 2.5 and 10 µm, respectively (Perrino, 2010; USEPA, 1996). Significant PM sources include vehicular traffic, which generates precursor gases such as NO_x, CO, and volatile organic compounds (Viana et al., 2007; Watson et al., 2001).

Additionally, meteorological factors, such as climate, temperature, wind speed, precipitation, humidity, radiation, geographical location, topography, land cover, and proximity to arid areas, influence the concentration and PM composition (Bayraktar et al., 2010; Minguillón et al., 2014; Schneider et al., 2015; Teixeira et al., 2009). Previous studies have focused on characterizing and determining variations in the behavior of PM_{2.5} particles in major urban areas worldwide (Amil et al., 2016; Das et al., 2015; Duarte et al., 2022; Kretzschmar, 1994; Pan et al., 2015; Tan et al., 2017). Elevated concentrations of PM in the environment have been linked to premature deaths (Buxton et al., 2020; Hannam et al., 2014; Hansen et al., 2006) and respiratory diseases, including asthma,

chronic obstructive pulmonary diseases, and earth conditions (Goudarzi et al., 2018; Marabini et al., 2017; Sierra-Vargas et al., 2009; Smith, 2007). In the decade from 2010 to 2020, it has been documented those certain cities in the Mexican Republic exhibit elevated levels of air pollution (IQAir, 2018, 2020), such as the case of Salamanca, Guanajuato. This municipality has been classified as one of the most polluted sites in Mexico, where primary sources of pollution include fixed sources like chemical, petrochemical, and thermoelectric industries (Cortina-Januchs et al., 2015; Linares et al., 2010; Pham et al., 2008). Other contributing sources include fertilizer companies, the textile industry, metal processing, and food production (Herrera Murillo et al., 2012).

In 2003, the Mexican Petroleum Institute (IMP) published a study characterizing $PM_{2.5}$ in the city of Salamanca. The results revealed that particulate matter is composed of 40% organic carbon, 10% elemental carbon, 17% sulfates, 6% nitrates, 5% geological material (silica, oxides, aluminum, calcium, and iron silicates), 2% trace elements (heavy metals), and 20% unspecified compounds. The study describes the sources, indicating that PM_{10} is prevalent in unpaved streets and agricultural lands, while anthropogenic contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ primarily originate from combustion processes (Sosa Iglesias & Ortega López, 2004). Given the environmental challenges in this city, it is essential to conduct studies characterizing the chemical composition of $PM_{2.5}$ and establishing the relationship between potentially toxic

chemical elements and the likelihood of adverse health effects through inhalation exposure. This study aims to characterize and assess the public health risk associated with exposure to atmospheric particles smaller than $PM_{2.5}$ in the city of Salamanca, Guanajuato.

Materials and Methods

Study Site and Location of Monitoring Stations

A quantitative study of particulate matter collected in 2014-2015 in the urban area of Salamanca, Mexico, was conducted based on the municipality's industrial activity history. Salamanca is in the central part of the state of Guanajuato, covering an area of 755.6 km² with a population of 160,682 people in the municipal seat (National Institute for Statistics and Geography, 2021). Situated at 1720 meters above sea level, the city experiences a semi-warm and slightly humid climate, with predominant rainfall from June to August. The annual average temperature is 19.3 °C, with high temperatures from April to June and low temperatures from December to February (Mexican National Meteorological System, 2010). For the location of monitoring stations, two points were selected: RC with UTM coordinates N 270788.95, E 2277078.44, and the offices of the DIF with UTM coordinates N 270142.61, E 2274808.19 (Figure 1). These were considered strategic and representative due to their proximity to main roads and significant pollutant sources in the urban area.

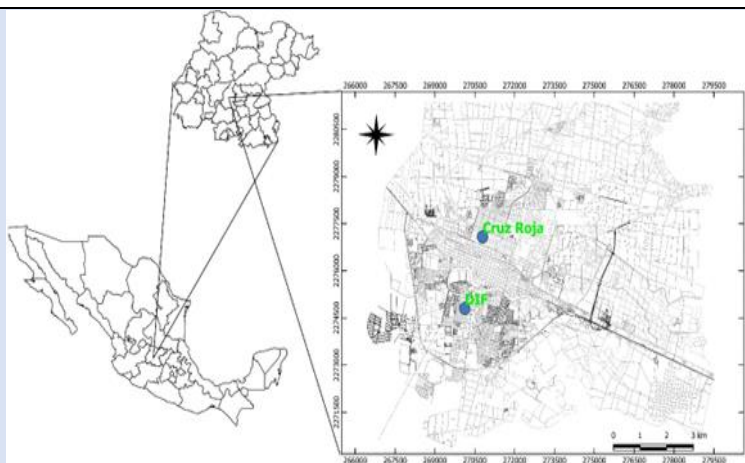


Figure 1: The location of the study area (monitoring stations) was georeferenced in UTM coordinates, map was created using QGIS 3.16.6 (Alkmaar, Netherlands).

Sample Collection

High-volume TISCH ENVIRONMENT samplers with an average flow rate of 68 m³h⁻¹ and a $PM_{2.5}$ head,

based on the principle of inertial impaction to classify particles by the desired size, were used for sample collection. Sampling was conducted over 24 hours

every 6 days, following the schedule of the National Air Quality Information System (SINAICA), with an air capacity of $1.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$. A total of 65 filters were collected at the DIF station, and 66 filters at the station. Filters were stabilized before and after sampling at $22 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$ and $40 \pm 5\%$ relative humidity for 24 hours (NOM-035-SEMARNAT-1993, 1993). Particles were collected on $8 \times 10''$ quartz (SiO_2) filters from Whatman, known for high collection efficiency, inert character, and high purity.

Chemical Analysis of PM

The procedure for chemical characterization, considering the handling of particulate matter on the filter, followed the approach described by Campos and colleagues in their 2010 publication. Approximately 10% of the space impacted by particles on the quartz filter (approximately 150 cm^2) was cut and placed in test tubes. To this, 20 mL of $\text{HNO}_3\text{-HCl}$ (2.5M-0.5M) was added. Ultrasonic extraction was performed using a Branson Model 5800 ultrasonic bath for 3 hours at a temperature of $60\text{-}70^\circ\text{C}$ (Herrera Murillo et al., 2012), followed by centrifugation of the mineralized sample at 6000 revolutions per minute for 10 minutes using a Solbat J40 centrifuge.

Chemical identification was carried out using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-

MS) (Agilent Technologies 7500CE). For quality control of the analytical procedure, a small amount (1 mg) of Standard Reference Material® 2706 New Jersey Soil was loaded to obtain recovery percentages. Table 1 shows the recovery data for each analyzed element. External calibration was used for quantification, with six levels of concentration of the multi-elemental standard for environmental samples (V, Cr, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Mo, Cd, Ba, Tl, and Pb) in a calibration range of $0\text{-}100 \text{ mgL}^{-1}$ for all elements.

For the soluble fraction, deionized water (Milli-Q) filtered in 50 mL of water in a tube was used. A 150 cm^2 filter fragment was introduced, and ultrasonic extraction was carried out for one hour. The obtained solution was analyzed by ion chromatography for the determination of Cl^{-1} , SO_4^{-2} , and NO_3^{-1} , and by Flow Injection Analysis (FIA) colorimetry for NH_4^{+} on an ICnet METROOHM chromatograph. For quality control in the soluble fraction, blanks and tubes with fragments were used, employing the standard addition method to evaluate the recovery percentage. Table 1 presents the results obtained for the different evaluated anions and cations. External calibration was used for quantification, with concentrations of 0.39, 0.78, 1.56, 3.125, 6.25, 12.5, 25, and $50 \text{ } \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ for Cl^{-1} , NO_3^{-1} , SO_4^{-2} , Na^{+1} , NH_4^{+1} , and K^{+1} .

Table 1: Recovery percentages and detection limits for different elements, anions, and cations in the chemical characterization of particulate matter.

Analyte	SRM Recovery Percentage 2706	Limit of Detection ($\mu\text{g} / \text{m}^3$)
V	96.48 ± 6.14	0.106
Cr	95.93 ± 4.34	0.133
Mn	95.77 ± 3.69	0.013
Co	80.54 ± 0.11	N. F
Ni	52.02 ± 3.01	0.063
Cu	39.60 ± 2.86	0.084
Zn	105.61 ± 2.62	0.156
As	126.65 ± 1.15	0.096
Se	56.96 ± 0.61	0.126
Mo	91.16 ± 0.51	0.013
Cd	76.65 ± 0.40	0.001
Ba	61.44 ± 3.27	0.006
Tl	103.44 ± 0.01	0.002
Pb	60.82 ± 3.050	0.034
Na^{+1}	112.00 ± 15.71	0.002
NH_4^{+1}	92.98 ± 5.72	0.003
K^{+1}	148.59 ± 2.45	0.001
Ca^{+2}	96.48 ± 5.30	0.002
Cl^{-1}	112.40 ± 9.65	0.0005
NO_3^{-1}	87.35 ± 5.677	0.006
SO_4^{-2}	93.00 ± 1.038	0.011

Exposure Assessment and Inhalation Risk Characterization

Risk analysis is employed to assess issues arising in the environment and human health due to the presence of potentially toxic substances, hazardous activities, and the management of toxic substances. The risk assessment method was conducted based on the procedures described by Peña et al. (2001) and the United States Environmental Protection Agency US EPA (2009). The methodology involves the following steps: risk identification, dose-response assessment, exposure assessment, risk characterization, and the development of regulatory options.

For the calculation of the exposure dose, the following formula was utilized:

$$\text{Exposition dose (mg/Kg/día)} = \frac{(C \times I \times r \times A \times F \times D)}{(t \times W)} \quad (1)$$

Where: C = concentration of the pollutant in the atmosphere (mg m^{-3}), I = rate of inhaled air ($\text{m}^3\text{day}^{-1}$), r = retention rate for inhaled air, A = absorption rate of inhaled air, F = exposure frequency (days), D = exposure duration (years), t = average time, W = body weight.

The values used are listed in Table 2.

Regarding the calculation for risk assessment (R), the expression used is:

$$R = DE/RD \quad (2)$$

Where: DE = exposure dose (mg/kg/day), RD = reference dose (mg/kg/day) (Table 3), or the concentration of the pollutant and the Minimal Risk Levels (MRL) in the following expression:

$$R = C/MRL \quad (3)$$

Table 2: Reference Dose (RD) and Minimal Risk Level (MRL) values for risk calculation.

Element	RD (mg/kg/día)	MRL (mg/m^3)
V		1.00E-04
Cr	2.86E-05	3.00E-04
Mn	1.43E-05	3.00E-04
Co	5.00E-06	1.00E-04
Ni	2.00E-02	9.00E-05
Cu	1.00E-01	7.50E-02
Zn	3.00E-01	3.00E-01
As	3.00E-04	
Se	5.00E-03	
Mo	5.00E-03	
Cd		1.00E-05
Ba	2.00E-01	
Pb		5.00E-04

Results and Discussion

Chemical Characterization of Particulate Matter

The number of valid samples by Mexican environmental regulations (NOM-025-SSA1-2014) resulted in 57 filters for the RC monitoring station and 62 filters at the DIF site. In Table 4, concentrations of the analyzed chemical elements are presented, indicating the general behavior of average concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of soluble compounds. For

both study sites, the order is the same: $\text{SO}_4^{2-} > \text{NH}_4^+ > \text{NO}_3^- > \text{Ca}^+ > \text{K}^+ > \text{Na}^+ > \text{Cl}^- > \text{NO}_2^- > \text{Li}^+$ ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The soluble compound with the least occurrence in the sampling sites is NO_2^- , present in 20 samples at the RC monitoring station and 31 samples at the DIF site. The ions with the highest presence and concentration are SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , and NO_3^- . Some studies analyzing soluble ions describe SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , and NO_3^- as the most representative in concentration (Gao et al., 2015; Liao et al., 2018; Peter et al., 2018).

Table 3: Elemental Chemical Composition of PM_{2.5} at DIF and RC Station

Element	RC				DIF			
	N	Maximum ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Medium ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	SD	N	Maximum ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Medium ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	SD
Li ⁺	57	0.007	0.005	0.001	62	0.006	0.005	0.001
Na ⁺	57	0.563	0.065	0.070	62	0.505	0.080	0.074
NH ₄ ⁺	57	3.765	1.826	0.870	62	3.316	1.233	0.637
k ⁺	57	0.715	0.244	0.153	62	1.229	0.254	0.207
Ca ⁺²	57	0.401	0.112	0.083	62	1.228	0.257	0.211
Cl ⁻¹	51	0.511	0.031	0.083	57	0.955	0.048	0.135
NO ₂ ⁻¹	20	0.049	0.011	0.013	31	0.134	0.021	0.028
NO ₃ ⁻¹	57	3.502	0.283	0.507	62	2.918	0.384	0.511
SO ₄ ⁻²	57	10.287	5.901	2.656	62	9.454	4.181	1.845
V	57	5.480	2.473	0.949	62	8.600	3.959	1.861
Cr	57	3.690	1.368	0.433	62	6.580	1.421	0.732
Mn	57	7.060	1.348	1.093	62	6.880	2.409	1.355
Co	57	0.060	0.031	0.013	62	0.140	0.053	0.028
Ni	57	8.230	2.601	1.641	62	8.030	1.651	1.222
Cu	57	78.840	14.410	16.399	62	39.770	5.900	7.840
Zn	57	88.320	11.025	11.615	62	37.250	12.519	6.627
As	57	1.840	0.442	0.262	62	1.550	0.464	0.235
Se	53	1.030	0.378	0.181	59	0.960	0.383	0.174
Mo	57	2.010	0.774	0.598	62	2.130	0.663	0.493
Cd	56	0.270	0.067	0.055	62	0.250	0.075	0.054
Ba	57	7.410	2.069	1.363	62	7.770	2.710	1.469
Tl	34	0.020	0.011	0.002	39	0.020	0.012	0.004
Pb	57	16.450	1.543	2.224	62	7.280	1.758	1.298

The soluble compound SO₄⁻² has the highest concentrations in the monitoring sites, with a maximum concentration of 10.287 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. This value is lower than reported in the city of Xinxiang, where a PM_{2.5} study was conducted in 2014, describing significant atmospheric pollution issues (Feng et al., 2017). The sulfate ion concentration is like the value (10.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) reported by Matawle and colleagues in 2017 in an area with heavy industries, a characteristic shared by the city of Salamanca. The presence of SO₄⁻² is described to originate from sulfur in fuel, oxidizing into sulfur oxides (Mukta et al., 2020; Wen et al., 2018).

The concentrations of potentially toxic elements for the RC site, in order of concentration levels, are Cu>Zn>Ni>V>Ba>Pb>Mn>Cr>Mo>As>Se>Cd>Co>Tl ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The DIF sampling site exhibited the following concentration behavior: Zn>Cu>V>Ba>Mn>Pb>Ni>Cr>Mo>As>Se>Cd>Tl>

Co ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). For the DIF station, the elements V, Mn, Cu, Zn, Ba, and Pb were identified in the 62 analyzed samples, while the RC station had V, Mn, Cu, Zn, and Ba identified in the 57 analyzed samples. The rest of the elements were found in a variable number of samples at both monitoring stations. Lead and vanadium are known to be released into the environment during combustion processes and are considered byproducts of the refining process of certain hydrocarbons (Hassanvand et al., 2015; Hernandez & Rodriguez, 2012; Schauer, 2006). Copper is currently a heavily studied element due to its strong association with anthropogenic activities. Its presence in the urban environment is attributed to high levels of vehicular traffic and the wear of certain automotive parts, contributing to its presence in atmospheric particles (Hulskotte et al., 2007; Izydorczyk et al., 2021; Straffellini et al., 2015).

Table 4: Average concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) of potentially toxic elements (PTE) in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ particulate matter from studies conducted in different cities around the world.

Element	Salamanca, Mexico		Shandong China	Tianjin China	Hong Kong China	Chennai India	Jeddah Saudi Arabia	Tehran Iran
	DIF	RC						
V ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	2.47±0.94	3.95±1.86	0.007		0.011	0.001	0.013	0.051
Cr ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	1.37±0.43	1.42±0.73	0.02	0.035	0.002	0.058	0.001	2.19
Mn ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	1.35±1.09	2.40±1.35	0.09	0.065	0.019	0.015	0.01	1.07
Co ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	0.03±0.01	0.05±0.02	0.014	0.006				
Ni ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	2.60±1.64	1.65±1.22	0.009	0.017	0.005	0.132	0.004	1.03
Cu ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	14.41±16.4	5.90±7.84	0.03		0.043	0.005		1.25
Zn ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	11.02±11.62	12.51±6.62	0.07	0.573	0.177	0.219		3.09
As ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	0.44±0.26	0.46±0.23	0.02	0.02	0.004	0.021	0.008	2.31
Se ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	0.38±0.18	0.38±0.17	0.02			0.017		
Mo ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	0.77±0.60	0.66±0.49						
Cd ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	0.07±0.05	0.07±0.05	0.017	0.003	0.001	0.016	0.01	0.76
Ba ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	2.07±1.36	2.71±1.46	0.07		0.019	0.039		
Tl ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	0.01±0.002	0.01±0.004						
Pb ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	1.54±2.22	1.75±1.29	0.31	0.144	0.054	0.008	0.25	1.58
Reference	Present study		(J. Zhang et al., 2018)	(Zhang et al., 2015)	(Liao et al., 2018)	(Peter et al., 2018)	(Harrison et al., 2017)	(Kermani et al., 2018)

Table 5 presents data from studies conducted on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in different cities worldwide. The concentrations found in this study exceed those reported in various studies. Only the data from the study conducted in Tehran, Iran, show concentrations of Cr, As, Cd, and Pb that are higher than those found in the city of Salamanca, Guanajuato.

Health Risk Analysis for Potentially Toxic Elements (PTEs) in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ Particulate Matter

The calculated risk, when assessing individual elements in the chemical composition of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in the city of Salamanca, is presented in Table 6. In the risk levels of exposure to non-carcinogenic heavy metals through the respiratory system, for most of these elements, the risk is less than 1. This value is described in the guidelines by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) (2016), stating that some adverse health effects may occur above this value. There are only two elements in the two monitoring stations that exceed this level, which are Ni and Mn. Ni exceeds the level of 1 in the adult and children population groups at the DIF monitoring station, while in the results from the RC monitoring point, both Mn and Ni had values greater than 1 in both population groups. In a study conducted in central India in areas described with the presence of heavy industries, a characteristic like the city of Salamanca, Ni, and Mn levels are lower (2.46×10^{-1} for Ni and 3.32×10^{-1} for Mn) than those found in the

present study. The study from India reports levels exceeding 1 for other elements such as Cd, Co, and Cr (Matawle et al., 2017).

When comparing the results found in Salamanca with risk levels from $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in Xinxiang, a city described as urbanized and located 2 km away from industrial pollution, the Mexican city's risk levels are higher. For example, the risk levels for Cr are 1.58×10^{-1} in children and 8.93×10^{-2} in adults, and the Mn risk level is 1.92×10^{-1} in children and 1.08×10^{-1} in adults (Feng et al., 2017). Considering the total risk for each group and at each station, it can be observed that the value is still greater than 1. This indicates that the exposed population is at potential risk of experiencing some effects caused by the evaluated elements, as mentioned by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR, 2004), including hepatic, hematological, and neural effects, which are part of the elemental chemical composition of suspended particles with an aerodynamic diameter of $2.5 \mu\text{m}$.

Conclusion

Regarding the chemical characterization, 21 soluble and elemental components were identified, highlighting the presence of soluble compounds such as SO_4^{-2} and NH_4^{+1} , with elements such as Cu and Zn also standing out. Since all the analyzed elements are present in the total $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ particulate matter, the risk could increase, potentially generating a combination of these elements and, through synergy, increasing the

total risk compared to individual risks. The child population showed a higher risk (5.24 DIF and 4.48 RC), as the total risk values are higher compared to adults (4.40 DIF and 3.81 RC). Therefore, it is concluded that the child population is the most sensitive and vulnerable sector, and efforts should be made to reduce their exposure to PM_{2.5} particulate matter. The risk has been calculated only for the main inhalation route, and calculating for other routes by summing each corresponding value for the exposure route could reveal an overall increased total risk. It is expected that this study will serve as support for further environmental pollution studies in the city of Salamanca, providing a broader perspective on pollution regulation.

Declarations

Funding

The main financial support was for support of institutional projects approved by the Directorate of Support for Research and Postgraduate Studies of the University of Guanajuato, this funding was used primarily in the sampling stage.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declare not competing interests

Availability of data and material

The creation of tables and databases was carried out which are available upon request for anyone who requests it.

References

1. (2004). Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR). ATSDR Interaction Profile for Copper, Lead, Manganese, and Zinc.
2. Amil, N. Latif, M. T. Khan, M. F. & Mohamad, M. (2016). Seasonal variability of PM_{2.5} composition and sources in the Klang Valley urban-industrial environment. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 16(8):5357-5381.
3. ATSDR. (2020). Guidance for Inhalation Exposures.
4. ATSDR. (2022). MINIMAL RISK LEVELS (MRLs). 1-17.
5. (2016). (ATSDR) Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry. Exposure Dose Guidance for Determining Life Expectancy and Exposure Factor.
6. Azarmi, F., & Kumar, P. (2016). Ambient exposure to coarse and fine particle emissions from building demolition. *Atmospheric Environment*, 137:62-79.
7. Bayraktar, H. Turalioğlu, F. S. & Tuncel, G. (2010). Average mass concentrations of TSP, PM₁₀, and PM_{2.5} in Erzurum urban atmosphere, Turkey. *Stochastic Environmental Research and Risk Assessment*, 24(1):57-65.
8. Buxton, M. A. Perng, W. Tellez-Rojo, M. M. Rodríguez-Carmona, Y. Cantoral. et. al. (2020). Particulate matter exposure, dietary inflammatory index and preterm birth in Mexico City, Mexico. *Environmental Research*, 189.
9. Cortina-Januchs, M. G. Quintanilla-Dominguez, J. Vega-Corona, A. & Andina, D. (2015). Development of a model for forecasting of PM₁₀ concentrations in Salamanca, Mexico. *Atmospheric Pollution Research*, 6(4):626-634.
10. Das, R. Khezri, B. Srivastava, B. Datta, S. Sikdar et.al. (2015). Trace element composition of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ from Kolkata—a heavily polluted Indian metropolis. *Atmospheric Pollution Research*, 6(5):742-750.
11. Duarte, A. L. Schneider, I. L. Artaxo, P. & Oliveira, M. L. S. (2022). Spatiotemporal assessment of particulate matter (PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}) and ozone in a Caribbean urban coastal city. *Geoscience Frontiers*, 13(1).
12. Fan, J. & Wang, Y. (2016). Atmospheric emissions of as, sb, and se from coal combustion in Shandong Province, 2005-2014. *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies*, 25(6):2339-2348.
13. Feng, J. Yu, H. Liu, S. Su, X. Li, Y. Pan, Y. & Sun, J. (2017). PM_{2.5} levels, chemical composition, and health risk assessment in Xinxiang, a seriously air-polluted city in North China. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*, 39(5):1071-1083.
14. Feng, J. Yu, H. Liu, S. Su, X. Li, et.al. (2017). PM_{2.5} levels, chemical composition, and health risk assessment in Xinxiang, a seriously air-polluted city in North China. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*, 39(5):1071-1083.
15. Gao, Y. Guo, X. Li, C. Ding, H. Tang. et.al. (2015). Characteristics of PM_{2.5} in Miyun, the northeastern suburb of Beijing: chemical composition and evaluation of health risk. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 22(21):16688-16699.
16. Goudarzi, G. Alavi, N. Geravandi, S. Idani, E. Behrooz.et.al. (2018). Health risk assessment on humans exposed to heavy metals in the ambient

- air PM10 in Ahvaz, southwest Iran. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, 62(6):1075-1083.
17. Hannam, K. McNamee, R. Baker, P. Sibley, C. & Agius R. (2014). Air pollution exposure and adverse pregnancy outcomes in a large UK birth cohort: Use of a novel spatio-temporal modeling technique. *Scandinavian Journal of Work, Environment and Health*, 40(5):518-530.
18. Hansen, C. Neller, A. Williams, G. & Simpson, R. (2006). Maternal exposure to low levels of ambient air pollution and preterm birth in Brisbane, Australia. *BJOG: An International Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 113(8):935-941.
19. Harrison, R. M. Bousiotis, D. Mohorjy, A. M. Alkhalaf, A. K. Shamy. et.al. (2017). Health risk associated with airborne particulate matter and its components in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. *Science of the Total Environment*, 590-591:531-539.
20. Hassanvand, M. S. Naddafi, K. Faridi, S. Nabizadeh, R. Sowlat. et.al. (2015). Characterization of PAHs and metals in indoor/outdoor PM10/PM2.5/PM1 in a retirement home and a school dormitory. *Science of the Total Environment*, 527-528:100-110.
21. Hernandez, H. & Rodriguez, R. (2012). Geochemical evidence for the origin of vanadium in an urban environment. *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment*, 184(9):5327-5342.
22. Herrera Murillo, J. Campos Ramos, A. Ángeles García, F. Blanco Jiménez, S. Cárdenas. et. al. (2012). Chemical composition of PM 2.5 particles in Salamanca, Guanajuato Mexico: Source apportionment with receptor models. *Atmospheric Research*, 107:31-41.
23. Hulskotte, J. H. J. van der Gon, H. A. C. D. Visschedijk, A. J. H. & Schaap, M. (2007). Brake wear from vehicles as an important source of diffuse copper pollution. *Water Science and Technology*, 56(1):223-231.
24. Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía. (2021). Panorama sociodemográfico de Guanajuato Censo de Población y Vivienda 2020.
25. IQAir. (2018). 2018 WORLD AIR QUALITY REPORT Region & City PM2.5 Ranking.
26. IQAir. (2020). 2020 World Air Quality Report Region & City PM2.5 Ranking.
27. Izydorczyk, G. Mikula, K. Skrzypczak, D. Moustakas, K. Witek-Krowiak. (2021). Potential environmental pollution from copper metallurgy and methods of management. *Environmental Research*, 197.
28. Kermani, M. Farzadkia, M. Kalantari, R. R. & Bahmani, Z. (2018). Fine particulate matter (PM2.5) in a compost facility: heavy metal contaminations and health risk assessment, Tehran, Iran. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 25(16):15715-15725.
29. Kretzschmar, J. G. (1994). Particulate Matter Levels and Trends in Mexico City, Sao Paulo, Buenos Aires and Rio De Janeiro. *Atmospheric Environment*, 28(19):3181-3191.
30. Kumar, P. Morawska, L. Birmili, W. Paasonen, P. Hu. et.al. (2014). Ultrafine particles in cities. *Environment International*, 66:1-10.
31. Liao Z, Sun J, Liu J, Guo S, & Fan S. (2018). Long-term trends in ambient particulate matter, chemical composition, and associated health risk and mortality burden in Hong Kong (1995–2016). *Air Quality, Atmosphere and Health*, 11(7):773-783.
32. Linares B, Guizar J. M, Amador N, Garcia A, Miranda. et.al. (2010). Impact of air pollution on pulmonary function and respiratory symptoms in children. Longitudinal repeated-measures study. *BMC Pulmonary Medicine*, 10.
33. Lippmann, M. (2012). Particulate matter (PM) air pollution and health: Regulatory and policy implications. *Air Quality, Atmosphere and Health*, 5(2):237-241.
34. Marabini L, Ozgen S, Turacchi S, Aminti S, Arnaboldi F. et.al. (2017). Ultrafine particles (UFPs) from domestic wood stoves: genotoxicity in human lung carcinoma A549 cells. *Mutation Research - Genetic Toxicology and Environmental Mutagenesis*, 820:39-46.
35. Matawle J. L, Pervez S, Shrivastava A, Tiwari S, Pant P. et.al. (2017). PM2.5 pollution from household solid fuel burning practices in central India: 1. Impact on indoor air quality and associated health risks. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*, 39(5):1045-1058.
36. Minguillón M. C, Campos A. A, Cárdenas B, Blanco S, Molina L T. et. al. (2014). Mass concentration, composition, and sources of fine and coarse particulate matter in Tijuana, Mexico, during Cal-Mex campaign. *Atmospheric Environment*, 88:320-329.
37. Moreno-Ríos A. L, Tejeda-Benítez L. P, & Bustillo-Lecompte, C. F. (2022). Sources,

- characteristics, toxicity, and control of ultrafine particles: An overview. *Geoscience Frontiers*, 13(1).
38. Motesaddi Zarandi S, Shahsavani A, Khodaghohi F, & Fakhri Y. (2019). Concentration, sources and human health risk of heavy metals and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons bound PM_{2.5} ambient air, Tehran, Iran. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*, 41(3):1473-1487.
39. Mukta T. A, Hoque M. M. M, Sarker M. E, Hossain M. N, & Biswas G. K. (2020). Seasonal variations of gaseous air pollutants (SO₂, NO₂, O₃, CO) and particulates (PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀) in Gazipur: An industrial city in Bangladesh. *Advances in Environment Technology*, 6(4):195-209.
40. Pan Y, Tian S, Li X, Sun Y, Li Y. et.al. (2015). Trace elements in particulate matter from metropolitan regions of Northern China: Sources, concentrations and size distributions. *Science of the Total Environment*, 537:9-22.
41. Peña C. E, Carter D. E, Ayala-Fierro F, Superfund A, Research B. et. al. (2001). TOXICOLOGIA AMBIENTAL: *Evaluación de Riesgos y Restauración Ambiental*.
42. Perrino C. (2010). ATMOSPHERIC PARTICULATE MATTER. In Proceedings of a C.I.S.B. Minisymposium.
43. Peter A. E, Shiva Nagendra S. M, & Nambi I. M. (2018). Comprehensive analysis of inhalable toxic particulate emissions from an old municipal solid waste dumpsite and neighborhood health risks. *Atmospheric Pollution Research*, 9(6):1021-1031.
44. Pham D. T, Eldukhri E. E, Soroka A. J, Cortina M. G, Mendoza U. S. et.al. (2008). Forecasting SO₂ air pollution in Salamanca, Mexico using an ADALINE. *Innovative Production Machines and Systems*, 232-237.
45. Ramírez O, Sánchez de la Campa A. M, Amato F, Moreno T, Silva L. F. et. al. (2019). Physicochemical characterization and sources of the thoracic fraction of road dust in a Latin American megacity. *Science of the Total Environment*, 652:434-446.
46. Santibáñez-Andrade M, Quezada-Maldonado E. M, Osornio-Vargas Á, Sánchez-Pérez Y, & García-Cuellar C. M. (2017). Air pollution and genomic instability: The role of particulate matter in lung carcinogenesis. *Environmental Pollution*, 229:412-422.
47. Schauer, J. J. (2006). Characterization of Metals Emitted from Motor Vehicles.
48. Schneider I. L, Teixeira E. C, Silva L. F. O, & Wiegand, F. (2015). Atmospheric particle number concentration and size distribution in a traffic-impacted area. *Atmospheric Pollution Research*, 6(5):877-885.
49. Diario oficial. (1993). NOM-035-SEMARNAT-1993,
50. Sierra-Vargas M. P, Guzman-Grenfell A. M, Blanco-Jimenez S, Sepulveda-Sanchez J. D, Bernabe-Cabanillas R. M. et. al. (2009). Airborne particulate matter PM 2.5 from Mexico City affects the generation of reactive oxygen species by blood neutrophils from asthmatics: an in vitro approach. *Journal of Occupational Medicine and Toxicology*, 4(1).
51. Sistema Meteorológico Nacional. (2010). Normales Climatológica por Estado.
52. Smith, J. T. (2007). Are passive smoking, air pollution, and obesity a greater mortality risk than major radiation incidents? *BMC Public Health*, 7.
53. Sosa Iglesias G, & Ortega López F. (2004). Caracterización intensiva de la calidad del aire local y regional en la ciudad de Salamanca, Gto.: Campaña de monitoreo atmosférico 2003. *Revista Del Instituto Mexicano de Ingenieros Químicos*, 45(11-12):33-43.
54. Straffelini G, Ciudin R, Ciotti A, & Gialanella S. (2015). Present knowledge and perspectives on the role of copper in brake materials and related environmental issues: A critical assessment. Elsevier Ltd. In *Environment Pollution*, 207:211-219.
55. Sun J, & Zhou T. (2017). Health risk assessment of China's main air pollutants. *BMC Public Health*, 17(1).
56. Sun Y, Wang Y, & Zhang C. (2010). Vertical observations and analysis of PM_{2.5}, O₃, and NO_x at Beijing and Tianjin from towers during summer and Autumn 2006. *Advances in Atmospheric Sciences*, 27(1):123-136.
57. Takaoka M, Shiota K, Imai G, & Oshita, K. (2016). Emission of particulate matter 2.5 (PM_{2.5}) and elements from municipal solid waste incinerators. *Journal of Material Cycles and Waste Management*, 18(1):72-80.
58. Tan J, Zhang L, Zhou X, Duan J, Li Y. et. al. (2017). Chemical characteristics and source apportionment of PM_{2.5} in Lanzhou, China. *Science of the Total Environment*, 601-602, 1743-1752.
59. Teixeira E. C, Meira L, de Santana E. R. R, & Wiegand F. (2009). Chemical composition of

- PM10 and PM2.5 and seasonal variation in South Brazil. *Water, Air, and Soil Pollution*, 199(1-4):261-275.
60. Tian H. Z, Zhu C. Y, Gao J. J, Cheng K, Hao J. M. et.al. (2015). Quantitative assessment of atmospheric emissions of toxic heavy metals from anthropogenic sources in China: Historical trend, spatial distribution, uncertainties, and control policies. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 15(17):10127-10147.
61. Tian M, Gao J, Zhang L, Zhang H, Feng C. (2021). Effects of dust emissions from wind erosion of soil on ambient air quality. *Atmospheric Pollution Research*, 12(7).
62. (2022). USEPA. (n.d.). Integrated Risk Information System. Retrieved 19
63. (1996). USEPA. Air Quality Criteria for Particulate Matter.
64. (2009). USEPA. Risk Assessment Guidance for Superfund Volume I: Human Health Evaluation Manual (Part F, Supplemental Guidance for Inhalation Risk Assessment).
65. Viana, M. Kuhlbusch, T. A. J. Querol, X. Alastuey, A. Harrison. et.al. (2008). Source apportionment of particulate matter in Europe: A review of methods and results. *Journal of Aerosol Science*, 39(10):827-849.
66. Viana M, Querol X, Götschi T, Alastuey A, Sunyer J. et.al. (2007). Source apportionment of ambient PM2.5 at five Spanish centers of the European Community Respiratory Health Survey (ECRHS II). *Atmospheric Environment*, 41(7):1395-1406.
67. Watson J. G, Chow J. C, & Houck J. E. (2001). PM 2.5 chemical source profiles for vehicle exhaust, vegetative burning, geological material, and coal burning in Northwestern Colorado during 1995. *Chemosphere*, 43:1141-1151.
68. Wen J, Wang X, Zhang Y, Zhu H, Chen et.al. (2018). PM2.5 source profiles and relative heavy metal risk of ship emissions: Source samples from diverse ships, engines, and navigation processes. *Atmospheric Environment*, 191:55-63.
69. Zhang J, Zhou X, Wang Z, Yang L, Wang J. et.al. (2018). Trace elements in PM2.5 in Shandong Province: Source identification and health risk assessment. *Science of the Total Environment*, 621:558-577.
70. Zhang N, Han B, He F, Xu J, Niu C. et.al. (2015). Characterization, health risk of heavy metals, and source apportionment of atmospheric PM2.5 to children in summer and winter: an exposure panel study in Tianjin, China. *Air Quality, Atmosphere and Health*, 8(4):347-357.

Cite this article: Israel C. Ramírez, D.O.R. Amador, J.M.L. Gutiérrez, Elizabeth R. Mosqueda, Rogelio C. Salazar, et al. (2024). Chemical Characterization and Assessment of Public Health Risk Due to Inhalation of PM_{2.5} in the City of Salamanca, Guanajuato, *Pollution and Community Health Effects*, BioRes Scientia Publishers. 2(1):1-10. DOI: 10.59657/2993-5776.brs.24.016

Copyright: © 2024 Rogelio Costilla Salazar, this is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Article History: Received: February 07, 2024 | Accepted: February 21, 2024 | Published: March 16, 2024