Activity Pattern and Personal Exposure to Nitrogen Dioxide in Indoor and Outdoor Microenvironments

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12 ABSTRACT

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People are exposed to air pollution from a range of indoor and outdoor sources. 14 15 Concentrations of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), which is hazardous to health, can be significant in both types of environments. This paper reports on the measurement and analysis of indoor and 16 outdoor NO₂ concentrations and their comparison with measured personal exposure in various 17 microenvironments during winter and summer seasons. Furthermore, the relationship between 18 NO₂ personal exposure in various microenvironments and including activities patterns were 19 also studied. Personal, indoor microenvironments and outdoor measurements of NO₂ levels 20 were conducted using Palmes tubes for 60 subjects. The results showed significant differences 21 in indoor and outdoor NO₂ concentrations in winter but not for summer. In winter, indoor NO₂ 22 concentrations were found to be strongly correlated with personal exposure levels. NO₂ 23 concentration in houses using a gas cooker were higher in all rooms than those with an electric 24 cooker during the winter campaign, whereas there was no significant difference were noticed 25 in summer. The average NO_2 levels in kitchens with a gas cooker were twice as high as those 26 with an electric cooker, with no significant difference in the summer period. A time-weighted 27 average personal exposure was calculated and compared with measured personal exposures in 28 various indoor microenvironments (e.g. front doors, bedroom, living room and kitchen); 29 including non-smokers, passive smokers and smoker. The estimated results were closely 30 correlated, but showed some underestimation of the measured personal exposures to NO₂ 31 concentrations. Interestingly, for our particular study higher NO₂ personal exposure levels 32 were found during summer (14.0 ± 1.5) than winter (9.5 ± 2.4) . 33

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Key words: nitrogen dioxide, indoor and outdoor sources, gas/electric cooking, personal exposure, smokers, NO₂/ NO_x ratio, time weighted average modelling

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1 1. INTRODUCTION

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3 Nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) is one of the most common air pollutants in ambient and indoor air (Lai et al., 2006; Hanninen et al., 2004). The major outdoor source of NO₂ concentrations are 4 mobile and stationary combustion sources (Kampa and Castanas, 2008; Lewne et al., 2004), 5 whereas indoor sources includes gas cookers, wood stoves, fireplaces, and environmental 6 tobacco smoke (ETS). NO₂ is formed from the combination of nitrogen and oxygen (O_2) 7 during high temperature combustion processes (Brunekreef, 2001; Baili, et al., 1999). NO₂ and 8 9 associated compounds can also produce secondary aerosol by the photochemical oxidation (Bencs et al., 2008). In some indoor environments such as industrial workplaces and in homes 10 with gas stoves, peak concentrations may reach 1 to 2 ppm with a 24-h averages NO₂ 11 concentration up to 0.5 ppm (Chan et al., 2007; Monn, 2001). 12

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NO₂ is an irritant gas and can increase susceptibility to airway infections and impair lung 14 function in exposed populations (Kattan et al., 2007; Curtis et al., 2006; Kraft et al., 2005). 15 Several, multi- and single-pollutants time-series studies have also found association between 16 NO₂ and non accidental mortality (Beelen et al., 2008; Brook et al., 2007; Burnett et al., 17 18 2004). Table 1 summarizes some of the short-term and long-term health effects of NO₂ 19 exposure over various concentration and exposure time. A review by Latza et al. (2009) also examines some recent studies assessing the health effects of environmental NO₂. The toxicity 20 of NO₂ depends on its oxidative and free radical properties, as well as its ability to form nitric 21 22 and nitrous acids in aqueous solution on the moist surfaces (Sandström, 1995; Utell, et al., 1991). Its main effect, therefore, on human health is to damage respiratory tract cells such as 23 24 mucous membranes of the lung (Frampton et al., 2002; Blomberg et al., 1999; Spengler et al. 25 1983). Hence it is important to study the factors that lead to personal exposure to air pollutants 26 such as NO₂ and how it can be assessed.

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28 The personal exposure to air pollutants from both indoor and outdoor sources has recently received high attention (Krzyzanowski, 2008; Chaloulakou et al., 2008; Mitchell et al., 2007). 29 Personal exposure to pollutants like NO2 depends on the concentration of NO2 in 30 microenvironments and the time that one spends in those microenvironments (see for example, 31 Ott, 1982; Monn, 2001; Harrison, et al., 2002). Although high ambient NO₂ concentrations are 32 dangerous to health, indoor NO₂ concentrations can pose a greater health risk due to people 33 spending most of their time indoors. In indoor environments where ventilation is restricted, 34 35 using wood, solid, liquid and gaseous fuels in a small space in home can lead to high exposure. However, the NO₂ levels may be comparatively lower in newly built houses with 36 proper ventilation (Willers et al., 2006). NO₂ is often found at higher concentrations indoors 37 than outdoors (Lai et al., 2006; Garcıa Algar et al., 2004; Lee, et al., 2002; Bailie, et al., 1999), 38 and houses with gas cookers have been found to have much higher mean 24-hr concentrations 39 than houses with electric cookers (Willers et al., 2006; Hanninen et al., 2004; Berglund, 1993). 40

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This paper examines the relationship between measurements of personal exposure levels of office workers to NO₂ and those measured in microenvironments for an area of Hertfordshire and North London, UK. Although people may be exposed to several different sources during a typical day depending on their activity patterns, this paper focuses on levels measured in the work place, the home and outdoors and how these explain the overall personal exposure of the 1 subjects. This work has implications for air quality monitoring networks and their 2 representativeness of personal levels of exposure to air pollution.

3 2. METHODOLOGY

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5 2.1 The Study area

6 The study was carried out in north London and Hertfordshire which consists of several small 7 and medium sized towns (shown in Figure 1). Hertfordshire is a county adjacent to the north 8 of London, which covers an area of 1643sq km and has a population of over 1 million. The 9 county has important transport links, with the A1(M) and M1 motorways for traffic travelling 10 north and south. M25 is a major motorway to the south of the county and encompasses the 11 Greater London area.

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13 **2.2 Target population**

The target populations of this study were 21 - 60 year old office workers living and working in 14 urban areas in Hertfordshire and north London. For the winter period of 2000, a random 15 sample of 60 office workers were asked to fill in their activities diaries and questionnaires. 16 This number of subjects is in accordance with the WHO guidance of having sample of a 17 minimum of 50 subjects for the sample to be representative of a target population (see for 18 example, EXPOLIS, 1999, WHO 2000). At the same time, weekly average concentrations of 19 NO₂ (personal, bedroom, living room, kitchen, outside front door, office and inside car were 20 measured using two passive Palmes diffusion tubes at each site. Correlations between weekly 21 22 personal exposures and mean indoor and outdoor concentrations during the same periods were examined. In addition, 30 individuals from winter study participated again in a summer season 23 campaign (2001). The lower number was due to the fact that not all subjects from the winter 24 study were able to participate in this second campaign. The supplementary data (Table S1-S2) 25 shows various detail including the age distribution, male/female ratio, houses with gas cooker, 26 electric cooker, smokers, non-smokers etc. 27

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29 2.3 Monitoring strategy

During winter 2000 and summer 2001 passive NO₂ diffusion tubes (Palmes, et al. 1976) were 30 used to measure weekly average NO₂ concentrations for fixed indoors microenvironments, an 31 outdoor site and personal average exposures of individuals. The Palmes tube method is simple 32 to use with the tubes having a long shelf live before and after exposure giving both reliable 33 and reproducible results (Bush, et al., 2001). The diffusion tube relies on molecular diffusion 34 of NO₂ through a vertical acrylic tube of known length and cross-sectional area onto a reactive 35 surface or absorbent mesh coated with triethanolamine (TEA) where the molecule is captured 36 by chemical reaction forming a nitrite. After exposure to NO₂ for a seven-day period, the 37 reactive surface is analysed using UV/VIS spectrophotometry at 540 nm and the integrated 38 loading of the reaction product is used to infer the average gas concentration (Palmes et al. 39 1976). All tubes were prepared and analysed at the University of Hertfordshire laboratory. 40

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42 **2.4 Siting protocol for passive diffusion tubes**

Indoor passive tubes were placed to avoid windows, corners, and heating vents and outdoor passive tubes were located outside homes, approximately 2 m above the ground away from possible localized pollutant sources such as driveways, roads and exhaust vents. All tubes were tracked by individual identification numbers, which were also recorded on their activity diaries and questionnaires. Volunteers were instructed to wear the passive tubes at breathing 1 height by clipping them onto their collar or lapel, to keep them outside of coats and to keep

tubes nearby when not wearing them, for example, while sleeping, having a shower or taking abath.

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5 2.5 Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was performed with SPSS software. Descriptive data or simple summary 6 statistics (mean, standard deviation, maximum and minimum) were derived to describe the 7 distribution of NO₂ concentrations to which the individuals were exposed. Pair t-test for mean 8 9 values were performed to find any differences between time weighted average NO₂ exposure values and average personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations. Standard multiple regression 10 analysis was used to assess the importance of indoor NO₂ concentrations measured over the 7-11 day period. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to summarise the relationship between 12 personal exposure and the exposure levels measured in microenvironments. 13

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15 **2.6 Calculation of time weighted average micro-environmental exposure**

Time weighted average micro-environmental exposure was estimated based on weekly average NO_2 concentrations from home indoor (bedroom, living room and kitchen) and outdoor including in office and car and time activity diaries according to the following equation:

$$E_i = \sum_{j}^{J} C_j t_{ij} \tag{1}$$

21 where

21	where	
22	E_i	is the NO ₂ time weighted average exposure for person i over the specified time
23		period;
24	C_j	is the NO ₂ concentration in microenvironment j ;
25	t_{ij}	is the aggregate time that person <i>i</i> spends in microenvironment <i>j</i> ;
26	Ĵ	is the total number of microenvironments that the person i moves through
27		during the specified time period such as indoors at home, indoors at work,
28		indoors in other locations, in transit, and outdoors.
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3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

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33 **3.1 Questionnaires and Time activity diary data**

The time activities diaries were filled by 55 subjects (out of a total of 60 volunteers) in winter 34 2000. Analysis of their activities showed that all volunteers spent more than 80% of their time 35 indoors. The time spent in each microenvironment over the week is shown in Figure 2. Over 36 50% of the time was spent at homes during winter but less in summer periods, followed by 37 about 30% of the time being spent at the workplaces. The individuals spent 5.5% (in winter) 38 and 4.6% (in summer) of their time in other non-smoking areas such as shopping malls and 39 40 cinemas, and 2.7% on average in other smoking areas such as in restaurants and public houses. With regard to travelling time, the average total time spent in the traffic was about 45 minutes 41 per day, equivalent to 4.5% (winter) and 4.0% (summer) of the daily activities time. The 42 individuals spent three times (11.9%) of the total daily activities time outdoors during 43 summer in comparison to winter (4%). These results are in agreement with other European 44 studies e.g. Piechocki-Minguy et al., (2006); Harrison, et al., (2002) and EXPOLIS (1999). 45

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4 **3.2** Average personal exposure to NO₂ and average NO₂ concentrations in 5 microenvironments

In winter, average NO₂ concentrations in bedroom, living room and kitchen were significantly 6 higher (p<0.05) in houses with gas cookers compared with those with electric cookers, while 7 there was also significant difference in personal exposure. Weekly average NO₂ 8 9 concentrations in all microenvironments are depicted in Figure 3. The result shows that personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations for all volunteers ranged from 5.7 to 15.4 ppb. This 10 range was 6.3 to 15.4 ppb for volunteers using gas cookers and 5.7 to 11.0 ppb for those using 11 electric cookers. NO₂ concentrations in the bedroom ranged from 3.2 to 15.5 ppb with 6.3 to 12 15.5 ppb in houses with gas cookers and 3.2 to 11.1 ppb in houses with electric cookers. NO₂ 13 concentrations in the living room ranged from 4.1 to 30.1 ppb with 6.1 to 30.1 in houses with 14 gas cookers and from 4.1 to 11.4 in houses with electric cookers. The results also show that 15 weekly mean NO₂ concentrations in the kitchens with gas cookers ranged from 12.9 to 38.8 16 ppb (Table 2a). These values were higher than for the kitchens with electric cookers (4.2-9.7 17 ppb). 18

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20 In summer, there were no significant differences in NO₂ concentrations in rooms of houses with electric or gas cookers or in personal exposure. Weekly average NO₂ concentrations in all 21 22 microenvironments are presented in Figure 3. The results shows that personal exposure of volunteers using gas cookers ranged from 12.7 to 18.1 ppb (average 14.6 ppb) and from 11.3 23 24 to 15.3 ppb for those volunteers using electric cookers (average 13.3 ppb). Further, it was also noticed that NO₂ levels in kitchens with gas cookers (ranging from 12.8 to 17.7 ppb) were 25 higher than those with electric cookers (ranging from 8.0 to 13.3 ppb). NO₂ concentrations in 26 the bedroom ranged from 12.5 to 17.3 ppb in houses with gas cookers and 10.6 to 14.8 ppb in 27 28 those with electric cookers (Table 2b). NO₂ concentrations in the living room ranged from 10.8 to 18.2 ppb (from 13.2 to 18.2 in house with gas cookers and from 10.8 to 15.4 in houses 29 with electric cookers). 30

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The highest difference between concentrations in gas cooker and electric cooker houses is 32 observed for kitchens and this would be expected as cooking appliances represent a dominant 33 exposure source. The results also show that indoor contribution to personal exposure to NO₂ is 34 important for winter months especially for those people living in houses with gas cookers. 35 During the summer period, when ventilation is high (such as through open windows), the 36 variation between the microenvironment concentrations is less than for winter (see values of 37 standard deviation in Table 2). Similarly, there is less difference between the personal 38 exposure and microenvironmental levels for the summer period due to the higher ventilation 39 rates and because people tend to spend less time at home. 40

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42 **3.3 Personal exposure to NO₂ and indoor/outdoor concentrations**

Outdoors NO₂ concentrations were significantly higher when compared with indoor concentrations for the winter period. Average outdoors NO₂ concentrations ranged from 8.1 to 16.1 ppb, with an average of 12.9 ppb and NO₂ concentrations in offices ranged from 5.6 to 13.5 ppb (average 8.8 ppb) and average NO₂ concentrations in the cars ranged from 4.1 to 11.3 ppb (average 6.8 ppb). In contrast, outdoor NO₂ concentrations were not significantly different

from indoor concentrations in summer. The outdoors concentrations ranged from 11.3 to 18.8 1 ppb (average 14.5 ppb). NO₂ concentrations in offices ranged from 9.2 to 15.2 ppb (average 2 12.2 ppb) and in cars ranged from 8.7 to 14.4 ppb (average 11.4 ppb). Winter periods are often 3 subject to higher congestion and hence higher traffic emissions of nitrogen oxides. In addition, 4 stable atmospheric conditions are common which restricts the dispersion of air pollution 5 giving rise to higher concentrations especially in cities (see for example, Kukkonen, et. al., 6 2005). During summer times in contrast, traffic levels can be lower (e.g. due to holiday 7 periods) and greater dispersion which can lead lower ambient levels of pollutants like NO₂. 8

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10 Outdoor levels of NO_2 could be higher due to increased primary NO_2 emissions from vehicles. Several studies have shown that while NO_x levels show a decreasing trend, the NO_2 levels 11 remain constant in urban centres i.e. higher NO₂/NO_x ratio (Carslaw, 2005; AQEG, 2006; 12 Carslaw et al., 2007; Carslaw and Carslaw, 2007; Grice et al., 2009). These studies also 13 suggest that this increase may be due to an increased NO/NO₂ ration in vehicular exhaust. 14 Furthermore, present vehicular emission control technologies (such as oxidation catalyst, 15 catalytic diesel particulate filter) also contribute to an increased NO₂/NO_x ratio due to increase 16 primary NO₂ emissions. Interestingly an increase in the NO₂/NO_x ratio could also lead to the 17 increased urban ozone levels (Carslaw and Carslaw, 2007). 18

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A summary of personal exposure in different microenvironment is shown in Figure 4 which illustrates that significant exposure occur from indoor sources. This obviously has implications for groups other than office workers, in particular individuals who are elderly or have existing illness and spend most of their time indoors. It also shows the importance of outdoor contributions to the overall exposure for the summer period.

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26 Several microenvironmental models have been proposed to predict indoor NO₂ concentrations as a function of outdoor concentrations, indoor source strength, and key building parameters 27 28 such as infiltration, ventilation (Sexton et al., 1983; Rijnders et al., 2001; Kulkarni and Patil, 2002; Milner et al., 2005; Dimitroulopoulou et al., 2001, 2006). Sexton et al. (1983) proposed 29 a simple deterministic model to relate exposure to background ambient levels, indoor values, 30 and human activities. The study indicates that indoor NO₂ concentrations vary primarily with 31 outdoor levels and type of cooking fuel, but are also affected by factors such as air-exchange 32 rates and strength of indoor sources. Rijnders et al. (2001) have shown that personal and 33 outdoor NO_2 concentrations are significantly influenced by (a) the degree of urbanization (b) 34 by the traffic density and by (c) distance to a nearby highway. However, considering the above 35 discussion, it would be useful to develop a holistic model that can consider the relative 36 contribution of the outdoor levels to the indoor concentrations, microenvironment 37 designs/structure, influence of personal habits and time activity patterns, including physical 38 properties and cocktail effects of chemicals/reactivity of air pollutants and consequently the 39 implication on personal exposure. 40

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43 **3.4** Average personal exposure of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers to NO₂

Personal exposure of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers to NO_2 concentrations and NO₂ concentrations in house microenvironments with electric and gas cookers is shown in Figures 5 and 6. The results from the winter study clearly showed that, average personal

47 exposure to NO_2 of smokers in houses with gas cookers (13.6 ppb) was higher than those non-

smokers (10.8 ppb) and passive smokers (10.9 ppb). Furthermore, small but significant 1 differences were noticed for personal exposure to non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers 2 3 in houses with electric cookers (8.1, 8.7 and 9.4 ppb, respectively). The study also shows that average NO₂ concentrations in kitchens, living rooms and bedroom of smokers using gas 4 cookers were found to be higher than the rooms of smokers, non-smokers and passive smokers 5 with electric cookers. Furthermore various microenvironments have comparatively higher NO₂ 6 levels with smoker and hence it can be suggested that smoking also influence the NO₂ 7 exposure. Further the personal exposure risk may increase during winter, when the windows 8 9 of a house are kept closed during most of the period.

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Results from summer studies showed that average personal exposure to NO₂ of smokers in 11 houses with gas cookers (17.0 ppb) was higher than those non-smokers (14.9 ppb) and passive 12 smokers (13.7 ppb). However, there was no significant difference between personal exposure 13 of non-smokers, passive and smokers in houses with electric cookers (13.1, 13.7 and 13.4 ppb, 14 respectively). Significant differences were found between the average NO₂ concentration in 15 bedrooms and living rooms of smokers using gas cookers and those for rooms of non-smokers 16 and passive smokers. No difference was found for the other areas for non-smokers and passive 17 18 smokers using gas cookers or electric cookers.

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20 **3.5 Time-weighted average personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations**

Paired t-test was used to analyse the data for significance. It showed that there was a non-21 22 significant difference at the 95% level between time-weighted average NO₂ microenvironment concentrations and average personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations for the winter season. 23 24 The results show that overall time weighted average ranged from 6.6 to 15.4 ppb (average 10.9 ppb) and the time weighted average of smokers, non-smokers, and passive smokers using 25 26 electric cookers ranged from 7.0 to 9.3 ppb (mean: 8.6 ppb), 5.4 to 11.7 ppb (mean: 7.6 ppb) and 6.7 to 9.7 ppb (mean: 8.2 ppb) respectively. The time weighted average of smokers, non-27 28 smokers, and passive smokers using gas cookers ranged from 11.2 to 12.0 ppb (mean: 11.6 ppb), 7.1 to 14.7 ppb (mean: 10.4 ppb) and 6.7 to 16.5 ppb (mean: 10.5 ppb) respectively. The 29 time weighted average gave a good approximation of personal exposure NO₂ levels although 30 there was a small (~6%) underestimation (y = 0.9433x, R² = 0.8535). 31

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In contrast, significant different at the 95% level were found in summer. The results shows 33 that overall time weighted average ranged from 11.0 to 16.3 ppb (average 13.1 ppb). Further, 34 the time weighted average of volunteers using gas cookers ranged from 12.0 to 16.3 (average 35 12.5 ppb) and from 11.0 to 14.1 (average 13.8 ppb) for those using electric cookers. This is the 36 opposite trend to that observed for winter where the mean of the time-weighted 37 microenvironment concentrations was higher for the cases where gas cookers where used. 38 Higher average time weighted concentrations of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers 39 using gas cookers (13.6, 13.4 and 15.6 ppb respectively) was observed than those using 40 electric cookers (12.5, 12.9 and 11.6 ppb respectively). The time-weighted average exposure 41 was also plotted against the personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations as shown in Figure 7 42 which shows that just over 65% of the time weighted average correlates with the direct 43 personal exposure measurements of NO₂ concentrations (y = 0.5934x + 4.7931, $R^2 = 0.6533$). 44

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A probable reason for this large unexplained fraction was that the volunteers spent more time outside during the summer campaign and were involved with activities not recorded in present case. In addition, there is an intercept of nearly 5 ppb which indicates there were NO₂ pollution levels to which the person was not exposed. Another complication during summer period is the infiltration of outdoor air into indoors through open windows which was not specifically investigated as part of this study. It should be noted that the number of subjects were significantly less than for the winter campaign and hence the uncertainties in the dataset will be higher.

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8 **3.6** Comparison of the current work with other studies

Table 3 also shows a comparative overview of recent studies on NO_2 concentration in various microenvironments and personal exposure. It is interesting to note that none of the studies really covered all the microenvironments as studied in the present case. This highlights the significance of the present study in explaining much of personal exposure assessment of NO_2 , especially for the winter case where people spend more time indoor.

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Compared to other UK studies outdoor NO₂ levels in Hertfordshire falls towards lower range. 15 For example, outdoor level reported include Ashford: 12.4 ppb; Birmingham: 10 ppb; London: 16 22 ppb; Oxford: 12.4 ppb, Southampton: 27 ppb (Lai et al., 2004; Gracia-Algar et al., 2004; 17 Harrison et al., 2002; Levy et al., 1998; Linaker et al. 1998). Campbell et al., (1994) measured 18 the NO₂ concentration at 243 validated urban sites throughout the UK and the average 19 concentrations varied from 10 ppb (northern Scotland) to 50 ppb (near road side in London). 20 Compared to other European cities (Table 3), outdoor NO₂ levels falls in lower to moderate 21 22 range in UK. On a global prospective, Asian cities seem to have highest outdoor NO₂ concentrations such as Delhi (36.4±15.6ppb), Hong Kong (38±8 ppb), where vehicular 23 emission seems to be a major contributor (Ravindra et al., 2006, 2003; Chao et al., 2000). 24 European Union aim to achieve an outdoor annual average guide value of 21.3 ppb by 2010. 25

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In addition to the Table 3, various other studies also report the indoor NO₂ levels in European 27 28 cities such as Kuopio (5.5 ppb), Kjeller (7.8 ppb), Geneva (8.3 ppb), Avon (6.8 ppb), Hamburg (8.8 ppb), Erfurt (9.0 ppb) (Cyrys et al., 2000; Levy et al., 1998; Farrow et al., 29 1997). However, only few studies report the levels in different microenvironment as depicted 30 in Table 3. It shows that indoor levels are comparable to reported values in UK cities (Lai et 31 al., 2004; Harrison et al., 2002) and also some of the European cities. However, higher indoor 32 levels were also reported for Antwerp, Barcelona, Paris and Prague (Table 3). A study by 33 Breysee et al. (2005), also reports significantly higher levels of indoor NO₂ in Baltimore, 34 USA. 35

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The NO₂ concentration in various microenvironments are related with various factors such as 37 ventilation, electrical/gas cooking or heating, ETS etc (Zota et al., 2005; Gallelli et al., 2002). 38 Algar-Gracia et al. (2004) reported that gas fire increase average NO₂ concentrations by 1.3 39 fold and gas cooker by 2.1 times. Further, the outdoor NO₂ levels and seasons variability can 40 also influence the levels in these microenvironments (Franklin et al., 2006). People living in 41 small apartments with limited ventilation and lack of local exhaust mechanism have 42 probability to high personal exposure. Gas stoves are typically used for brief periods and 43 combustion by product from these sources are not evenly distributed in an apartment (Zota et 44 al., 2005) and hence NO₂ levels may exceed the maximum hourly limits of NO₂ in kitchen 45 during cooking. However, long term monitoring approaches only provide limited possibilities 46 to study the health effect of short term peak exposure to NO₂. Hence further studies would be 47

needed to address this challenge and to develop a strong database for short term exposure
 assessment.

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In addition to the present study, only few studies have monitored NO₂ levels inside a vehicle 4 (Lewne et al., 2006, Harrison et al., 2002). Interestingly, the NO₂ level seems to be lower in a 5 personal car than a taxi, bus and lorry although this would also be related to the time, traffic 6 location in different environments. The intensity and the NO_2 levels 7 offices/workplaces/schools seems to be slightly lower than indoor except in some cases; where 8 9 the they may be situated near an area with dense vehicular activities or near a highway. This aspect, however, was not studied in this work as most work places were away from particular 10 sources such as major roads. 11

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Levy at al. (1998) studied 18 cities in 15 countries around the world and found that personal 13 NO_2 exposures were more strongly correlated with indoor concentrations (r = 0.75) than with 14 outdoor concentrations (r = 0.57) when all countries were considered simultaneously. Linaker 15 et al., (1998) noticed that personal exposure to NO₂ in school children of Southampton and 16 levels ranged from 6 to 137 ppb with a geometric mean of 199 ppb. In contrast to other 17 studies (Monn et al., 1998; Zota et al., 2005; Piechocki-Minguy et al., 2006, see Table 3) 18 personal exposures were found to be higher in summer than winter at Hertfordshire. This 19 could indicate that for this particular cohort of subjects and their micro-environments, outdoor 20 sources were particularly important. Further the personal exposure seems to be strongly 21 22 dependent on both the levels of NO_2 in indoor and outdoor environments (see Figure 3 and 4). In certain cases, as shown by Lewne et al (2007), specific micro-environments can play an 23 24 important role in determining the overall exposure level as in the of bus drivers, taxi drivers and tunnel workers. 25

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Although there are ambient air pollution guidelines and threshold values for NO₂, they are 27 28 limited for indoor air quality (Franchi et al., 2004; 2006; WHO, 2000, 2003). Table 4 shows an overview of outdoor/indoor air quality guide values for NO₂. Kraft et al. (2007) proposed 29 two short-term NO₂ exposure values to protect public health i.e. 53.2 ppb (for 1 hour) and 26.6 30 ppb (for 24 hours) based on the results of exposure-chamber experiments. A recent study by 31 Pilotto et al., (2004) suggests that a reduction in NO₂ exposure can reduce asthma symptoms. 32 Hence, it would be more useful to propose indoor to supplement the outdoor guidelines and 33 threshold values for NO₂ based on personal exposure in different microenvironments. 34

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36 4. CONCLUSIONS

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Nitrogen dioxide concentration measurements of personal exposure, home and workplace microenvironments (e.g. office, bedroom, living room and kitchen), outdoor and in-car are presented for Hertfordshire and north London during winter and summer. A number of key conclusions can be drawn from this work

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43 (i) The study revealed that average NO_2 concentrations were higher in the various 44 microenvironment of a house with a gas cooker than a house with an electric cooker. Hence, 45 kitchens are a major source of indoor NO_2 . 1 (ii) The concentration in kitchens with gas cooker was noticed to be 2–3 times higher than 2 those with electric cooker. The use of gas cooker in house with poor ventilation significantly 3 increases the risk of high NO₂ personal exposure in indoor microenvironments.

- 4 (iii) In comparison to the passive smokers and non-smokers, the highest personal exposures 5 were noticed in smoker's house with the risk of exposure rising further with the use of gas 6 cookers.
- 7 (iv) The work shows that where gas cookers are not being used, the outdoor NO_2 could be 8 a major source of indoor NO_2 concentration in various microenvironments.
- 9 (v) The high levels of NO₂ were observed in summer but a high correlation was observed 10 between the measured personal exposure and time-weighted microenvironment concentrations 11 during winter.

(vi) A comparison of personal exposure of NO₂ and levels in various microenvironments
 was also performed with other recent indoor studies. The levels of NO₂ ranged from 3.2 ppb to
 30.1 ppb during summer and winter seasons for the various microenvironments.

(vii) The study also supports the conclusion that indoor NO_2 concentrations can better explain personal exposure than outdoor concentrations alone.

- (viii) In light of the above points the time weighted average exposure to NO_2 gave a good approximation of personal exposure with some underestimation, when compared with personal exposure to NO_2 concentrations. The mean indoor NO_2 concentrations, especially in bedrooms, have been found to reflect personal exposure closely.
- (ix) As we spend most of our time indoor, it is suggested that indoor guide values based on
 personal exposure in different microenvironments should be developed to support limit values
 for outdoor levels.

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Figure 1: Sketch map of Hertfordshire







Figure 3: Weekly average NO₂ concentrations in all microenvironments for volunteers using electric and gas cookers for winter of 2000 (upper) and summer of 2001 (lower).







Figure 5: Weekly average personal exposure and NO₂ concentrations in houses of nonsmokers, passive smokers and smokers (using electric cookers)





Figure 6: Weekly average personal exposure and NO₂ concentrations in houses of nonsmokers, passive smokers and smokers (using gas cookers)



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Figure 7: Comparisons between personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations and time weighted average NO₂ concentration

Table 1: Reported exposure levels of NO₂ and associated health effects.

NO₂ Concentration $(nnh)^{\dagger}$	Exposure	Health Effects	References
(ppp) Conoral	Inne		
		Natural background mean concentration	
10.6 47.9		Outdoor urban annual mean levels	
30.0 - 47.9		Outdoor urban hourly maxima	
10.6.4		Indeer peorly vented as combustion	WHO 2000
10.0.4		appliances (over few days)	WIIO, 2000
1064		Indoor hourly maxima	
Short tarm arnasura	offacts		
2500 - 7500	Jjecis	Very small changes in lung functions	DOF 1996
200-300		Changes in lung function of sensitive	DOE, 1996
200-300		population (e.g. Asthmatic)	DOL, 1770
2000	Healthy non-	NO ₂ is a proinflammatory air pollutants under	Blomberg et
	smoking	condition of repeated exposure	al., 1999
	subjects		
	exposed for 4		
	hrs on four		
	consecutive		
4000	days		
1000	2 hours	No significant affects	
2500	exposure		
2500	2 hours	Pronounced decrements in pulmonary function	
4000	exposure		NULO 2000
4000	1.25 hours	No affects on Asthmatics	WHO, 2000;
200	exposure		WHO 2005
300	10 min	Decrease in forced expiratory volume	
200	exposure	$\frac{\ln 1 \text{ s} (\text{FEV}_1)}{\log 1 \log 1}$	
300		Slight affects on chromic obstructive	
500 15000	2 1	pulmonary disease	Encounter of
500 - 15000	3 nours	Healthy subjects having single exposures (for 3	Frampton et
	exposure	nours) to NO_2 with exercise can induce (a)	al., 2002
		sumptoms in some subjects: (a) small	
		reductions in hometocrit and homoglobin: (d)	
		reductions in hematocrit and hemoglobili, (d)	
		lymphocytes: and (a) possible increased	
		susceptibility of airway epithelial cells to	
		injury from exposure to respiratory viruses	
4 3 - 180 5	1 hours	Exacerbate severe asthma and can cause death	Sunver et al
	1 110415	among asthmatics (in association with O_3).	2002
212.8		Review identify demonstrable effects at 212.8	Kraft et al.,
		ppb or above level (for patients with light	2005
		asthma at 106.4 ppb)	

Long-term exposure e	ffects		
8-68.1	2 week	20% increased risk of respiratory symptom and	WHO, 2000
	average	diseases for each increment of 28.1 ppb	
6.7-31.1	1 year	Respiratory infections and symptoms	Brauer et al.,
(mean: 13.6)			2002
22.4	19 Year time-	2.25% ncrease in the daily nonaccidental	Burnett et al.,
	series analysis	mortality rate	2004
10.6-31.9 /	1 year/	Can increase mortality due to cardiopulmonary	Gehring et al.,
11.7 – 29.3	5 years	causes (with PM_{10}).	2006
15-100	10 years	20 to 30% decreases in both predicted FEV1	Arbex et al.,
		and forced expiratory flow (FEF ₂₅₋₇₅) between	2007
		25 and 75% of forced vital capacity (FVC).	
0.5 - 480	Over 1 week	Higher levels can increases asthma symptoms	Katten et al.,
(median: 29.8)		in nonatopic children and can decrease peak	2007
		flow.	

[†][NO₂ (ppb) = 0.532 x NO₂ ($\mu g/m^3$)]

- 2 Table 2a: Average personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations (of volunteers using electric
- 3 and gas cookers) and average NO₂ concentrations in house microenvironments measured
- 4 during winter of 2000
- 5

	Avera	ge NO ₂	concent	trations	(ppb)					
	Electr	ic cook	ers		Gas c	ookers				
	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.		
Personal exposure to NO ₂	5.7	11.0	8.1	1.8	6.3	15.4	11.2	2.3		
Bedrooms	3.2	11.1	7.8	2.0	6.3	15.5	10.8	2.3		
Living rooms	4.1	11.4	7.9	2.1	6.1	30.1	13.7	5.5		
Kitchens	4.2	9.7	7.1	2.8	12.9	38.8	20.6	6.9		

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8 Table 2b: Average personal exposure to NO₂ concentrations (of volunteers using electric

9 and gas cookers) and average NO₂ concentrations in house microenvironments measured

10 during summer of 2001

11

	Avera	ge NO ₂	concent	trations ((ppb)					
	Electr	ic cook	ers		Gas co	ookers				
	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.		
Personal exposure to NO ₂	11.3	15.3	13.3	1.2	12.7	18.1	14.6	1.6		
Bedrooms	10.6	14.8	12.7	1.3	12.5	17.3	14.3	1.4		
Living rooms	10.8	15.4	13.1	1.5	13.2	18.2	14.7	1.4		
Kitchens	8.0	13.3	11.0	1.7	12.8	17.7	14.2	1.3		

Table 3: A comparative summary of NO₂ levels in various microenvironments and personal exposure.

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	NO ₂ concen	tration (ppb)						Comments	References
	Indoor					Outdoors	Personal		
Statistics	Bedrooms	Living Room	Kitchen	Vehicle	Office/ workplace		Exposure		
Average	9.1±2.5	10.5±4.8	13.1±8	6.8±1.6	8.8±1.8	12.9±1.8	9.5±2.4	Winter	Present Study
Range	3.2-15.5	4.1-30.1	8.1-13.4	4.1-11.3	5.6-13.5	8.1-16.1	5.7-15.4		
Average Range	13.5±1.6 10.6-17.3	13.9±1.6 10.8-18.2	12.6±2.2 8.0-17.7	11.4±1.6 8.7-14.4	12.2±1.5 9.2-15.2	14.5±1.8 11.3-18.8	14.0±1.5 11.3-18.1	Summer	Present Study
Mean				13.1±5.5 [‡]		9.5±6.4	16.7	Birmingham	Harrison et al., 2002
Mean Range	11.9±1.0		1		15.7±0.8	12.4±1	13.6±1.7 11.7-16.0	Oxford, UK	Lai et al., 2004
Median	5.8 23.9 6.1					12.4 27.4 15.5		Ashford, Barcelona Menorca	Garcia Algar et al., 2004
Mean Range		26±12 4.6-67	33±18 8.1-75			17±7 5.2-29		No-heating period	Zota et al., 2005
Mean Range		43±16 11-78	50±19 10-85			21±5.6 7-31		During heating period	Zota et al., 2005
Average Range	17.6±3.5 6.4-34.6				30.3 7.4-84.6	20.7±3.6 13.3-47.9	22.3±4.0 9.6-41	Antwerp	Stranger et al., 2007
Range	7.4-14.4				15.4-48.9	16-61.2	9.0/20.2	Summer/winter	Piechocki-Minguy et al., 2006
Average	27.1±6.5	28.6±11.2	32.5±11.9			38.2±8.0	24.5	Hong Kong	Chao et al., 2000
Mean Range	18.7±7.3 7.4-45.5	•	I		23.9±8.5 7.7-55.3	32±8.1 13.5-58	23.2±6.0 12-45.2	Paris	Mosqueron et al., 2002
Median					8 [†]	24	12	School	Van Roosbroeck et al., 2007

						106 1	Tunnal wonker	
						180±1	Tunnel worker	
						$1'/\pm0.6$	Outdoor worker	
						49±0.9	Garage- Diesel	Lewne et al., 07
						22±0.6	Garage - Petrol	
Mean						28±0.7	Bus Driver	
						24±0.7	Taxi Driver	
			14.9 / 13.8			25.5 / 31.9	Taxi / Bus /	Lewne et al., 06
			/			/	Lorry	
			16.0			36.2		
	9.6±5.9			14.4 ± 8.0	12.8±6.4		Helsinki	
Mean	14.4±6.9			19.2±12.8	19.2±6.9		Basle	Kousa et al., 2001
	22.9±12.2			16.0±9.6	32.5±10.6		Prague	
		14.1±1.1					Gas cooking	Willer et al., 2005
		11.9±1.3					Electric cooking	
Mean	31.6±40.2						Baltimore	Breysse et al., 2005
Range	4.1-260							
C						23.6±5.4	Workers	Gallelli et al., 2007
Mean	13.2 ± 5.2	25 ± 8.8				13.2 ± 4.1	Students	
						21.3±7.1	Housewife's	
Average	11.2				14.4	16.5	25-40% higher	Monn et al., 1998
6							during winter	,
Mean	23.6-28.0				25-26		Barcelona	Garcia Algar et al.,
								2003
Median	8.9				11.0/25 ^{††}	11.4	<8°C	Sorensen et al., 2005
Q25-Q75	6.9-11					9.2-15		
Median	6.6				6.6/13.8	9.2	>8°C	Sorensen et al., 2005
Q25-Q75	4.7-10.3					5.7-11.7		
Mean	8.3±1.6						High with gas	Gilbert et al., 2006
Range	3.3-29.1						heating house	

[†]School; [‡]see details of microenvironment in text; ^{††}Urban background/Street station; ^{Q25-Q75}25-75% interquartile range

		Guideline Valua [†] (nph)	Average period
Bel	gium	71.8	1 h
20		50.0	1.1
Car	nada	<53.2	l h
Chi	na	53.2	1 h
Gei	many	31.0	1 week
	intany	186.2	30 min
No	rway	53.2	1 h
	5		
UK		21.3	1 h
		106.4	1 year
EP	4	53	1 vear
	1	55	i jour
WH	łO	106	1 h
		63.8	8 h
		21	1 year
EU	÷	106.4	1 h
		21.3	1 year

Table 4: Overview of NO₂ guidelines for outdoor air quality.