

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

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## ABSTRACT

People are exposed to air pollution from a range of indoor and outdoor sources. Concentrations of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), which is hazardous to health, can be significant in both types of environments. This paper reports on the measurement and analysis of indoor and outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and their comparison with measured personal exposure in various microenvironments during winter and summer seasons. Furthermore, the relationship between NO<sub>2</sub> personal exposure in various microenvironments and including activities patterns were also studied. Personal, indoor microenvironments and outdoor measurements of NO<sub>2</sub> levels were conducted using Palmes tubes for 60 subjects. The results showed significant differences in indoor and outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in winter but not for summer. In winter, indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were found to be strongly correlated with personal exposure levels. NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in houses using a gas cooker were higher in all rooms than those with an electric cooker during the winter campaign, whereas there was no significant difference were noticed in summer. The average NO<sub>2</sub> levels in kitchens with a gas cooker were twice as high as those with an electric cooker, with no significant difference in the summer period. A time-weighted average personal exposure was calculated and compared with measured personal exposures in various indoor microenvironments (e.g. front doors, bedroom, living room and kitchen); including non-smokers, passive smokers and smoker. The estimated results were closely correlated, but showed some underestimation of the measured personal exposures to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Interestingly, for our particular study higher NO<sub>2</sub> personal exposure levels were found during summer (14.0±1.5) than winter (9.5±2.4).

**Key words:** nitrogen dioxide, indoor and outdoor sources, gas/electric cooking, personal exposure, smokers, NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio, time weighted average modelling

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) 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 NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are mobile and stationary combustion sources (Kampa and Castanas, 2008; Lewne et al., 2004), whereas indoor sources includes gas cookers, wood stoves, fireplaces, and environmental tobacco smoke (ETS). NO<sub>2</sub> is formed from the combination of nitrogen and oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) during high temperature combustion processes (Brunekreef, 2001; Baili, et al., 1999). NO<sub>2</sub> and 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 with gas stoves, peak concentrations may reach 1 to 2 ppm with a 24-h averages NO<sub>2</sub> concentration up to 0.5 ppm (Chan et al., 2007; Monn, 2001).

NO<sub>2</sub> is an irritant gas and can increase susceptibility to airway infections and impair lung function in exposed populations (Kattan et al., 2007; Curtis et al., 2006; Kraft et al., 2005). Several, multi- and single-pollutants time-series studies have also found association between NO<sub>2</sub> and non accidental mortality (Beelen et al., 2008; Brook et al., 2007; Burnett et al., 2004). Table 1 summarizes some of the short-term and long-term health effects of NO<sub>2</sub> 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 NO<sub>2</sub>. The toxicity of NO<sub>2</sub> depends on its oxidative and free radical properties, as well as its ability to form nitric 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 mucous membranes of the lung (Frampton et al., 2002; Blomberg et al., 1999; Spengler et al. 1983). Hence it is important to study the factors that lead to personal exposure to air pollutants such as NO<sub>2</sub> and how it can be assessed.

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). Personal exposure to pollutants like NO<sub>2</sub> depends on the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> in microenvironments and the time that one spends in those microenvironments (see for example, Ott, 1982; Monn, 2001; Harrison, et al., 2002). Although high ambient NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are dangerous to health, indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can pose a greater health risk due to people spending most of their time indoors. In indoor environments where ventilation is restricted, using wood, solid, liquid and gaseous fuels in a small space in home can lead to high exposure. However, the NO<sub>2</sub> levels may be comparatively lower in newly built houses with proper ventilation (Willers et al., 2006). NO<sub>2</sub> is often found at higher concentrations indoors than outdoors (Lai et al., 2006; Garcia Algar et al., 2004; Lee, et al., 2002; Bailie, et al., 1999), and houses with gas cookers have been found to have much higher mean 24-hr concentrations than houses with electric cookers (Willers et al., 2006; Hanninen et al., 2004; Berglund, 1993).

This paper examines the relationship between measurements of personal exposure levels of office workers to NO<sub>2</sub> 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**

### 4 **2.1 The Study area**

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

### 11 **2.2 Target population**

12 The target populations of this study were 21 - 60 year old office workers living and working in  
13 urban areas in Hertfordshire and north London. For the winter period of 2000, a random  
14 sample of 60 office workers were asked to fill in their activities diaries and questionnaires.  
15 This number of subjects is in accordance with the WHO guidance of having sample of a  
16 minimum of 50 subjects for the sample to be representative of a target population (see for  
17 example, EXPOLIS, 1999, WHO 2000). At the same time, weekly average concentrations of  
18 NO<sub>2</sub> (personal, bedroom, living room, kitchen, outside front door, office and inside car were  
19 measured using two passive Palmes diffusion tubes at each site. Correlations between weekly  
20 personal exposures and mean indoor and outdoor concentrations during the same periods were  
21 examined. In addition, 30 individuals from winter study participated again in a summer season  
22 campaign (2001). The lower number was due to the fact that not all subjects from the winter  
23 study were able to participate in this second campaign. The supplementary data (Table S1-S2)  
24 shows various detail including the age distribution, male/female ratio, houses with gas cooker,  
25 electric cooker, smokers, non-smokers etc.

### 26 **2.3 Monitoring strategy**

27 During winter 2000 and summer 2001 passive NO<sub>2</sub> diffusion tubes (Palmes, et al. 1976) were  
28 used to measure weekly average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for fixed indoors microenvironments, an  
29 outdoor site and personal average exposures of individuals. The Palmes tube method is simple  
30 to use with the tubes having a long shelf live before and after exposure giving both reliable  
31 and reproducible results (Bush, et al., 2001). The diffusion tube relies on molecular diffusion  
32 of NO<sub>2</sub> through a vertical acrylic tube of known length and cross-sectional area onto a reactive  
33 surface or absorbent mesh coated with triethanolamine (TEA) where the molecule is captured  
34 by chemical reaction forming a nitrite. After exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> for a seven-day period, the  
35 reactive surface is analysed using UV/VIS spectrophotometry at 540 nm and the integrated  
36 loading of the reaction product is used to infer the average gas concentration (Palmes et al.  
37 1976). All tubes were prepared and analysed at the University of Hertfordshire laboratory.

### 38 **2.4 Siting protocol for passive diffusion tubes**

39 Indoor passive tubes were placed to avoid windows, corners, and heating vents and outdoor  
40 passive tubes were located outside homes, approximately 2 m above the ground away from  
41 possible localized pollutant sources such as driveways, roads and exhaust vents. All tubes  
42 were tracked by individual identification numbers, which were also recorded on their activity  
43 diaries and questionnaires. Volunteers were instructed to wear the passive tubes at breathing  
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1 height by clipping them onto their collar or lapel, to keep them outside of coats and to keep  
2 tubes nearby when not wearing them, for example, while sleeping, having a shower or taking a  
3 bath.

## 4 5 **2.5 Statistical analyses**

6 Statistical analysis was performed with SPSS software. Descriptive data or simple summary  
7 statistics (mean, standard deviation, maximum and minimum) were derived to describe the  
8 distribution of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations to which the individuals were exposed. Pair t-test for mean  
9 values were performed to find any differences between time weighted average NO<sub>2</sub> exposure  
10 values and average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Standard multiple regression  
11 analysis was used to assess the importance of indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations measured over the 7-  
12 day period. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to summarise the relationship between  
13 personal exposure and the exposure levels measured in microenvironments.

## 14 15 **2.6 Calculation of time weighted average micro-environmental exposure**

16 Time weighted average micro-environmental exposure was estimated based on weekly  
17 average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from home indoor (bedroom, living room and kitchen) and  
18 outdoor including in office and car and time activity diaries according to the following  
19 equation:

$$20 \quad E_i = \sum_j^J C_j t_{ij} \quad (1)$$

21 where

- 22  $E_i$  is the NO<sub>2</sub> time weighted average exposure for person  $i$  over the specified time  
23 period;  
24  $C_j$  is the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in microenvironment  $j$ ;  
25  $t_{ij}$  is the aggregate time that person  $i$  spends in microenvironment  $j$ ;  
26  $J$  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.

## 29 30 31 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### 32 33 **3.1 Questionnaires and Time activity diary data**

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

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4 **3.2 Average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> and average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in**  
5 **microenvironments**

6 In winter, average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in bedroom, living room and kitchen were significantly  
7 higher ( $p < 0.05$ ) in houses with gas cookers compared with those with electric cookers, while  
8 there was also significant difference in personal exposure. Weekly average NO<sub>2</sub>  
9 concentrations in all microenvironments are depicted in Figure 3. The result shows that  
10 personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for all volunteers ranged from 5.7 to 15.4 ppb. This  
11 range was 6.3 to 15.4 ppb for volunteers using gas cookers and 5.7 to 11.0 ppb for those using  
12 electric cookers. NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the bedroom ranged from 3.2 to 15.5 ppb with 6.3 to  
13 15.5 ppb in houses with gas cookers and 3.2 to 11.1 ppb in houses with electric cookers. NO<sub>2</sub>  
14 concentrations in the living room ranged from 4.1 to 30.1 ppb with 6.1 to 30.1 in houses with  
15 gas cookers and from 4.1 to 11.4 in houses with electric cookers. The results also show that  
16 weekly mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the kitchens with gas cookers ranged from 12.9 to 38.8  
17 ppb (Table 2a). These values were higher than for the kitchens with electric cookers (4.2-9.7  
18 ppb).  
19

20 In summer, there were no significant differences in NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in rooms of houses  
21 with electric or gas cookers or in personal exposure. Weekly average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in all  
22 microenvironments are presented in Figure 3. The results shows that personal exposure of  
23 volunteers using gas cookers ranged from 12.7 to 18.1 ppb (average 14.6 ppb) and from 11.3  
24 to 15.3 ppb for those volunteers using electric cookers (average 13.3 ppb). Further, it was also  
25 noticed that NO<sub>2</sub> levels in kitchens with gas cookers (ranging from 12.8 to 17.7 ppb) were  
26 higher than those with electric cookers (ranging from 8.0 to 13.3 ppb). NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in  
27 the bedroom ranged from 12.5 to 17.3 ppb in houses with gas cookers and 10.6 to 14.8 ppb in  
28 those with electric cookers (Table 2b). NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the living room ranged from  
29 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  
30 with electric cookers).  
31

32 The highest difference between concentrations in gas cooker and electric cooker houses is  
33 observed for kitchens and this would be expected as cooking appliances represent a dominant  
34 exposure source. The results also show that indoor contribution to personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> is  
35 important for winter months especially for those people living in houses with gas cookers.  
36 During the summer period, when ventilation is high (such as through open windows), the  
37 variation between the microenvironment concentrations is less than for winter (see values of  
38 standard deviation in Table 2). Similarly, there is less difference between the personal  
39 exposure and microenvironmental levels for the summer period due to the higher ventilation  
40 rates and because people tend to spend less time at home.  
41

42 **3.3 Personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> and indoor/outdoor concentrations**

43 Outdoors NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were significantly higher when compared with indoor  
44 concentrations for the winter period. Average outdoors NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations ranged from 8.1 to  
45 16.1 ppb, with an average of 12.9 ppb and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in offices ranged from 5.6 to  
46 13.5 ppb (average 8.8 ppb) and average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the cars ranged from 4.1 to 11.3  
47 ppb (average 6.8 ppb). In contrast, outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were not significantly different

1 from indoor concentrations in summer. The outdoors concentrations ranged from 11.3 to 18.8  
2 ppb (average 14.5 ppb). NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in offices ranged from 9.2 to 15.2 ppb (average  
3 12.2 ppb) and in cars ranged from 8.7 to 14.4 ppb (average 11.4 ppb). Winter periods are often  
4 subject to higher congestion and hence higher traffic emissions of nitrogen oxides. In addition,  
5 stable atmospheric conditions are common which restricts the dispersion of air pollution  
6 giving rise to higher concentrations especially in cities (see for example, Kukkonen, et. al.,  
7 2005). During summer times in contrast, traffic levels can be lower (e.g. due to holiday  
8 periods) and greater dispersion which can lead lower ambient levels of pollutants like NO<sub>2</sub>.

9  
10 Outdoor levels of NO<sub>2</sub> could be higher due to increased primary NO<sub>2</sub> emissions from vehicles.  
11 Several studies have shown that while NO<sub>x</sub> levels show a decreasing trend, the NO<sub>2</sub> levels  
12 remain constant in urban centres i.e. higher NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio (Carslaw, 2005; AQEG, 2006;  
13 Carslaw et al., 2007; Carslaw and Carslaw, 2007; Grice et al., 2009). These studies also  
14 suggest that this increase may be due to an increased NO/NO<sub>2</sub> ration in vehicular exhaust.  
15 Furthermore, present vehicular emission control technologies (such as oxidation catalyst,  
16 catalytic diesel particulate filter) also contribute to an increased NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio due to increase  
17 primary NO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Interestingly an increase in the NO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio could also lead to the  
18 increased urban ozone levels (Carslaw and Carslaw, 2007).

19  
20 A summary of personal exposure in different microenvironment is shown in Figure 4 which  
21 illustrates that significant exposure occur from indoor sources. This obviously has implications  
22 for groups other than office workers, in particular individuals who are elderly or have existing  
23 illness and spend most of their time indoors. It also shows the importance of outdoor  
24 contributions to the overall exposure for the summer period.

25  
26 Several microenvironmental models have been proposed to predict indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
27 as a function of outdoor concentrations, indoor source strength, and key building parameters  
28 such as infiltration, ventilation (Sexton et al., 1983; Rijnders et al., 2001; Kulkarni and Patil,  
29 2002; Milner et al., 2005; Dimitroulopoulou et al., 2001, 2006). Sexton et al. (1983) proposed  
30 a simple deterministic model to relate exposure to background ambient levels, indoor values,  
31 and human activities. The study indicates that indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations vary primarily with  
32 outdoor levels and type of cooking fuel, but are also affected by factors such as air-exchange  
33 rates and strength of indoor sources. Rijnders et al. (2001) have shown that personal and  
34 outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are significantly influenced by (a) the degree of urbanization (b)  
35 by the traffic density and by (c) distance to a nearby highway. However, considering the above  
36 discussion, it would be useful to develop a holistic model that can consider the relative  
37 contribution of the outdoor levels to the indoor concentrations, microenvironment  
38 designs/structure, influence of personal habits and time activity patterns, including physical  
39 properties and cocktail effects of chemicals/reactivity of air pollutants and consequently the  
40 implication on personal exposure.

#### 41 42 43 **3.4 Average personal exposure of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers to NO<sub>2</sub>**

44 Personal exposure of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and  
45 NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in house microenvironments with electric and gas cookers is shown in  
46 Figures 5 and 6. The results from the winter study clearly showed that, average personal  
47 exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> of smokers in houses with gas cookers (13.6 ppb) was higher than those non-

1 smokers (10.8 ppb) and passive smokers (10.9 ppb). Furthermore, small but significant  
2 differences were noticed for personal exposure to non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers  
3 in houses with electric cookers (8.1, 8.7 and 9.4 ppb, respectively). The study also shows that  
4 average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in kitchens, living rooms and bedroom of smokers using gas  
5 cookers were found to be higher than the rooms of smokers, non-smokers and passive smokers  
6 with electric cookers. Furthermore various microenvironments have comparatively higher NO<sub>2</sub>  
7 levels with smoker and hence it can be suggested that smoking also influence the NO<sub>2</sub>  
8 exposure. Further the personal exposure risk may increase during winter, when the windows  
9 of a house are kept closed during most of the period.

10  
11 Results from summer studies showed that average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> of smokers in  
12 houses with gas cookers (17.0 ppb) was higher than those non-smokers (14.9 ppb) and passive  
13 smokers (13.7 ppb). However, there was no significant difference between personal exposure  
14 of non-smokers, passive and smokers in houses with electric cookers (13.1, 13.7 and 13.4 ppb,  
15 respectively). Significant differences were found between the average NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in  
16 bedrooms and living rooms of smokers using gas cookers and those for rooms of non-smokers  
17 and passive smokers. No difference was found for the other areas for non-smokers and passive  
18 smokers using gas cookers or electric cookers.

### 19 **3.5 Time-weighted average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations**

20 Paired t-test was used to analyse the data for significance. It showed that there was a non-  
21 significant difference at the 95% level between time-weighted average NO<sub>2</sub> microenvironment  
22 concentrations and average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for the winter season.  
23 The results show that overall time weighted average ranged from 6.6 to 15.4 ppb (average 10.9  
24 ppb) and the time weighted average of smokers, non-smokers, and passive smokers using  
25 electric cookers ranged from 7.0 to 9.3 ppb (mean: 8.6 ppb), 5.4 to 11.7 ppb (mean: 7.6 ppb)  
26 and 6.7 to 9.7 ppb (mean: 8.2 ppb) respectively. The time weighted average of smokers, non-  
27 smokers, and passive smokers using gas cookers ranged from 11.2 to 12.0 ppb (mean: 11.6  
28 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 NO<sub>2</sub> levels although  
30 there was a small (~6%) underestimation ( $y = 0.9433x$ ,  $R^2 = 0.8535$ ).

31  
32  
33 In contrast, significant different at the 95% level were found in summer. The results shows  
34 that overall time weighted average ranged from 11.0 to 16.3 ppb (average 13.1 ppb). Further,  
35 the time weighted average of volunteers using gas cookers ranged from 12.0 to 16.3 (average  
36 12.5 ppb) and from 11.0 to 14.1 (average 13.8 ppb) for those using electric cookers. This is the  
37 opposite trend to that observed for winter where the mean of the time-weighted  
38 microenvironment concentrations was higher for the cases where gas cookers where used.  
39 Higher average time weighted concentrations of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers  
40 using gas cookers (13.6, 13.4 and 15.6 ppb respectively) was observed than those using  
41 electric cookers (12.5, 12.9 and 11.6 ppb respectively). The time-weighted average exposure  
42 was also plotted against the personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations as shown in Figure 7  
43 which shows that just over 65% of the time weighted average correlates with the direct  
44 personal exposure measurements of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations ( $y = 0.5934x + 4.7931$ ,  $R^2 = 0.6533$ ).

45  
46 A probable reason for this large unexplained fraction was that the volunteers spent more time  
47 outside during the summer campaign and were involved with activities not recorded in present

1 case. In addition, there is an intercept of nearly 5 ppb which indicates there were NO<sub>2</sub>  
2 pollution levels to which the person was not exposed. Another complication during summer  
3 period is the infiltration of outdoor air into indoors through open windows which was not  
4 specifically investigated as part of this study. It should be noted that the number of subjects  
5 were significantly less than for the winter campaign and hence the uncertainties in the dataset  
6 will be higher.

### 7 8 **3.6 Comparison of the current work with other studies**

9 Table 3 also shows a comparative overview of recent studies on NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in various  
10 microenvironments and personal exposure. It is interesting to note that none of the studies  
11 really covered all the microenvironments as studied in the present case. This highlights the  
12 significance of the present study in explaining much of personal exposure assessment of NO<sub>2</sub>,  
13 especially for the winter case where people spend more time indoor.

14  
15 Compared to other UK studies outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> levels in Hertfordshire falls towards lower range.  
16 For example, outdoor level reported include Ashford: 12.4 ppb; Birmingham: 10 ppb; London:  
17 22 ppb; Oxford: 12.4 ppb, Southampton: 27 ppb (Lai et al., 2004; Gracia-Algar et al., 2004;  
18 Harrison et al., 2002; Levy et al., 1998; Linaker et al. 1998). Campbell et al., (1994) measured  
19 the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration at 243 validated urban sites throughout the UK and the average  
20 concentrations varied from 10 ppb (northern Scotland) to 50 ppb (near road side in London).  
21 Compared to other European cities (Table 3), outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> levels falls in lower to moderate  
22 range in UK. On a global prospective, Asian cities seem to have highest outdoor NO<sub>2</sub>  
23 concentrations such as Delhi (36.4±15.6ppb), Hong Kong (38±8 ppb), where vehicular  
24 emission seems to be a major contributor (Ravindra et al., 2006, 2003; Chao et al., 2000).  
25 European Union aim to achieve an outdoor annual average guide value of 21.3 ppb by 2010.

26  
27 In addition to the Table 3, various other studies also report the indoor NO<sub>2</sub> levels in European  
28 cities such as Kuopio (5.5 ppb), Kjeller (7.8 ppb), Geneva (8.3 ppb), Avon (6.8 ppb),  
29 Hamburg (8.8 ppb), Erfurt (9.0 ppb) (Cyrus et al., 2000; Levy et al., 1998; Farrow et al.,  
30 1997). However, only few studies report the levels in different microenvironment as depicted  
31 in Table 3. It shows that indoor levels are comparable to reported values in UK cities (Lai et  
32 al., 2004; Harrison et al., 2002) and also some of the European cities. However, higher indoor  
33 levels were also reported for Antwerp, Barcelona, Paris and Prague (Table 3). A study by  
34 Breysee et al. (2005), also reports significantly higher levels of indoor NO<sub>2</sub> in Baltimore,  
35 USA.

36  
37 The NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in various microenvironments are related with various factors such as  
38 ventilation, electrical/gas cooking or heating, ETS etc (Zota et al., 2005; Gallelli et al., 2002).  
39 Algar-Gracia et al. (2004) reported that gas fire increase average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations by 1.3  
40 fold and gas cooker by 2.1 times. Further, the outdoor NO<sub>2</sub> levels and seasons variability can  
41 also influence the levels in these microenvironments (Franklin et al., 2006). People living in  
42 small apartments with limited ventilation and lack of local exhaust mechanism have  
43 probability to high personal exposure. Gas stoves are typically used for brief periods and  
44 combustion by product from these sources are not evenly distributed in an apartment (Zota et  
45 al., 2005) and hence NO<sub>2</sub> levels may exceed the maximum hourly limits of NO<sub>2</sub> in kitchen  
46 during cooking. However, long term monitoring approaches only provide limited possibilities  
47 to study the health effect of short term peak exposure to NO<sub>2</sub>. Hence further studies would be



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

3  
4 In addition to the present study, only few studies have monitored NO<sub>2</sub> levels inside a vehicle  
5 (Lewne et al., 2006, Harrison et al., 2002). Interestingly, the NO<sub>2</sub> level seems to be lower in a  
6 personal car than a taxi, bus and lorry although this would also be related to the time, traffic  
7 intensity and the location in different environments. The NO<sub>2</sub> levels in  
8 offices/workplaces/schools seems to be slightly lower than indoor except in some cases; where  
9 they may be situated near an area with dense vehicular activities or near a highway. This  
10 aspect, however, was not studied in this work as most work places were away from particular  
11 sources such as major roads.

12  
13 Levy et al. (1998) studied 18 cities in 15 countries around the world and found that personal  
14 NO<sub>2</sub> exposures were more strongly correlated with indoor concentrations ( $r = 0.75$ ) than with  
15 outdoor concentrations ( $r = 0.57$ ) when all countries were considered simultaneously. Linaker  
16 et al., (1998) noticed that personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> in school children of Southampton and  
17 levels ranged from 6 to 137 ppb with a geometric mean of 199 ppb. In contrast to other  
18 studies (Monn et al., 1998; Zota et al., 2005; Piechocki-Minguy et al., 2006, see Table 3)  
19 personal exposures were found to be higher in summer than winter at Hertfordshire. This  
20 could indicate that for this particular cohort of subjects and their micro-environments, outdoor  
21 sources were particularly important. Further the personal exposure seems to be strongly  
22 dependent on both the levels of NO<sub>2</sub> in indoor and outdoor environments (see Figure 3 and 4).  
23 In certain cases, as shown by Lewne et al (2007), specific micro-environments can play an  
24 important role in determining the overall exposure level as in the of bus drivers, taxi drivers  
25 and tunnel workers.

26  
27 Although there are ambient air pollution guidelines and threshold values for NO<sub>2</sub>, they are  
28 limited for indoor air quality (Franchi et al., 2004; 2006; WHO, 2000, 2003). Table 4 shows  
29 an overview of outdoor/indoor air quality guide values for NO<sub>2</sub>. Kraft et al. (2007) proposed  
30 two short-term NO<sub>2</sub> exposure values to protect public health i.e. 53.2 ppb (for 1 hour) and 26.6  
31 ppb (for 24 hours) based on the results of exposure-chamber experiments. A recent study by  
32 Pilotto et al., (2004) suggests that a reduction in NO<sub>2</sub> exposure can reduce asthma symptoms.  
33 Hence, it would be more useful to propose indoor to supplement the outdoor guidelines and  
34 threshold values for NO<sub>2</sub> based on personal exposure in different microenvironments.

#### 35 36 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

37  
38 Nitrogen dioxide concentration measurements of personal exposure, home and workplace  
39 microenvironments (e.g. office, bedroom, living room and kitchen), outdoor and in-car are  
40 presented for Hertfordshire and north London during winter and summer. A number of key  
41 conclusions can be drawn from this work

42  
43 (i) The study revealed that average NO<sub>2</sub> 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<sub>2</sub>.

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 NO<sub>2</sub> 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<sub>2</sub> could be  
8 a major source of indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in various microenvironments.

9 (v) The high levels of NO<sub>2</sub> were observed in summer but a high correlation was observed  
10 between the measured personal exposure and time-weighted microenvironment concentrations  
11 during winter.

12 (vi) A comparison of personal exposure of NO<sub>2</sub> and levels in various microenvironments  
13 was also performed with other recent indoor studies. The levels of NO<sub>2</sub> ranged from 3.2 ppb to  
14 30.1 ppb during summer and winter seasons for the various microenvironments.

15 (vii) The study also supports the conclusion that indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can better  
16 explain personal exposure than outdoor concentrations alone.

17 (viii) In light of the above points the time weighted average exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> gave a good  
18 approximation of personal exposure with some underestimation, when compared with  
19 personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. The mean indoor NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, especially in  
20 bedrooms, have been found to reflect personal exposure closely.

21 (ix) As we spend most of our time indoor, it is suggested that indoor guide values based on  
22 personal exposure in different microenvironments should be developed to support limit values  
23 for outdoor levels.

## 24 25 26 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

27 We sincerely thank all the volunteers' who participated in the study. BRE are thanked for  
28 providing calibration facilities for the Palmes tubes. The results of the study were relevant for.  
29 The motivation for this study was driven by projects such as FUMAPEX (FP5 Project),  
30 OSCAR (FP5 Project), the Cluster of European Air Quality Research (CLEAR) and more  
31 recently ENVIRISK and HENVINET both of which are FP6 funded projects.

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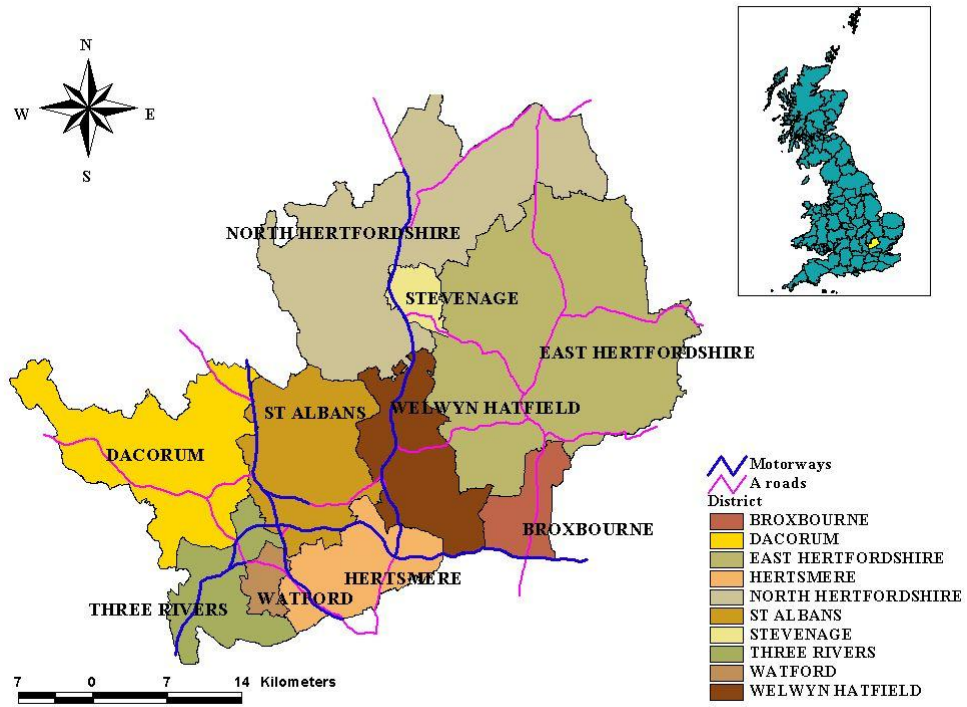
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28 implications for indoor nitrogen dioxide concentrations. *Indoor Air* 15:393-401; 2005.

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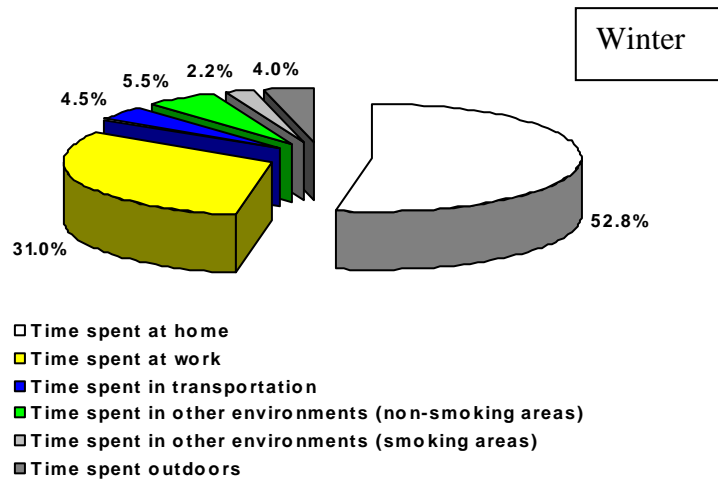
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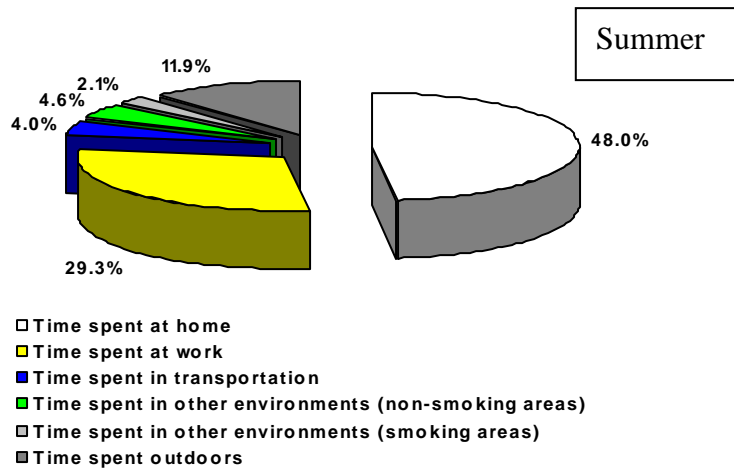
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**Figure 1: Sketch map of Hertfordshire**

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**Figure 2: Time spent in microenvironments (house, office, other non-smoking and smoking indoors, outdoors and vehicles) of all volunteers during a 7 day period of exposure in winter and summer**

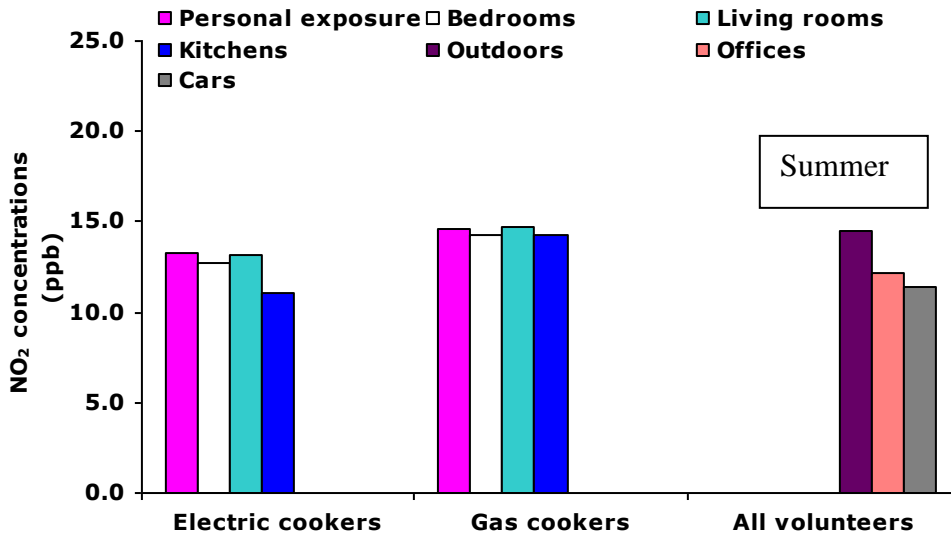
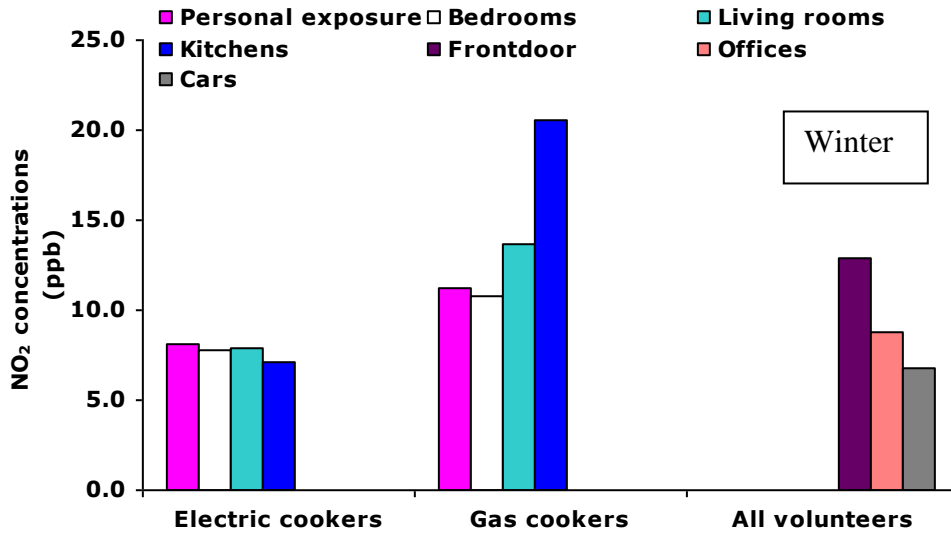
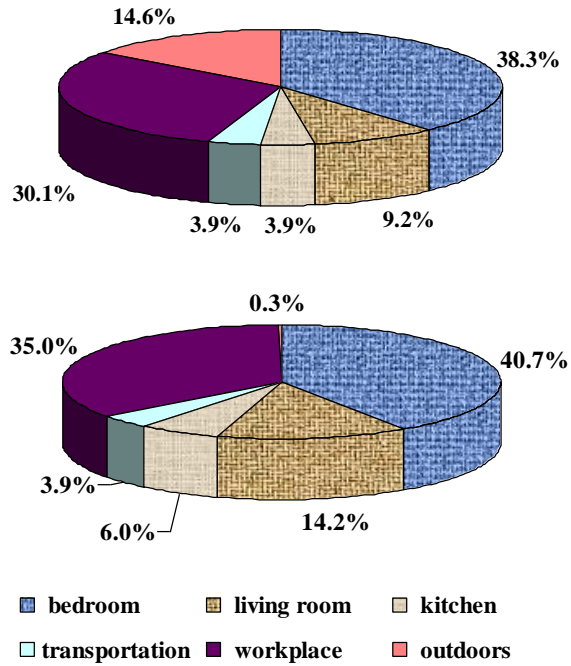


Figure 3: Weekly average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in all microenvironments for volunteers using electric and gas cookers for winter of 2000 (upper) and summer of 2001 (lower).

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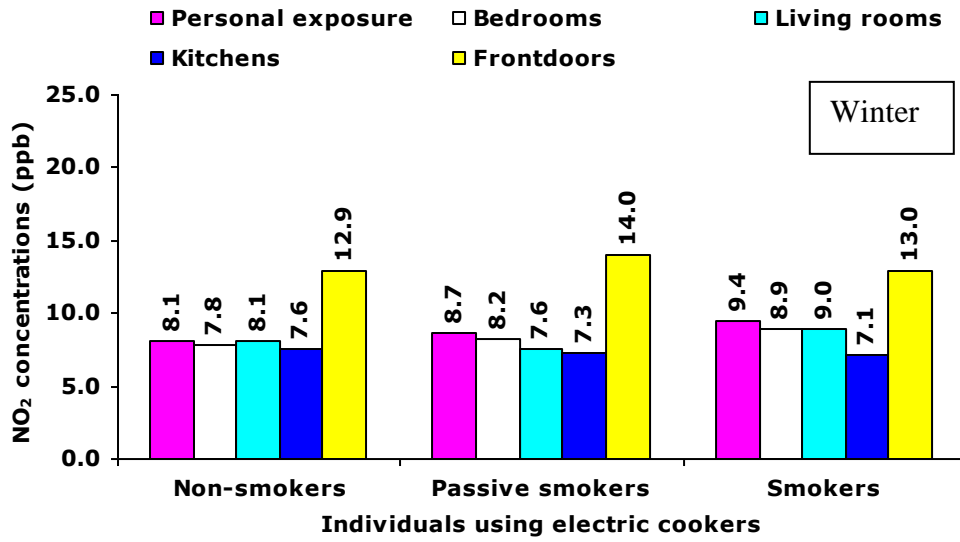
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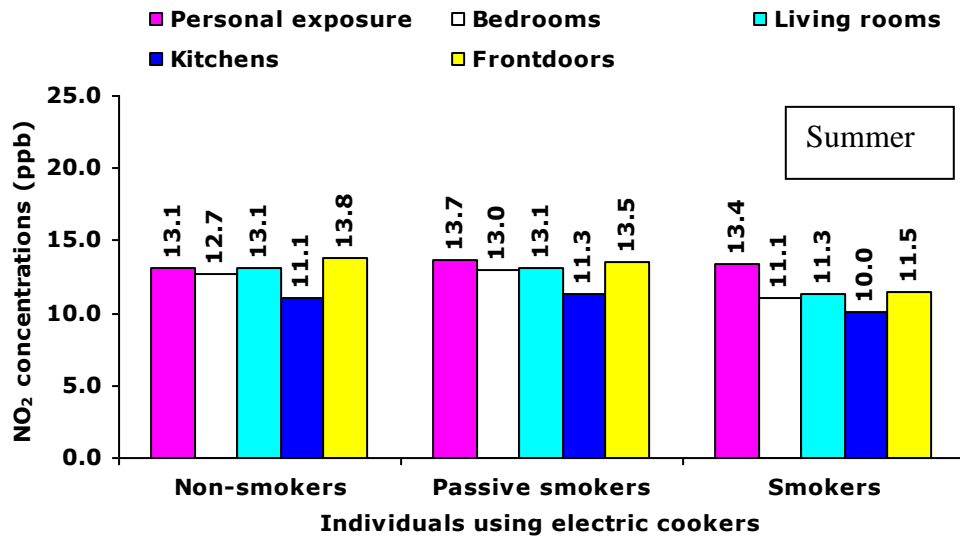
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**Figure 4: Distribution of personal exposure in different microenvironments during summer (above) and winter (below).**

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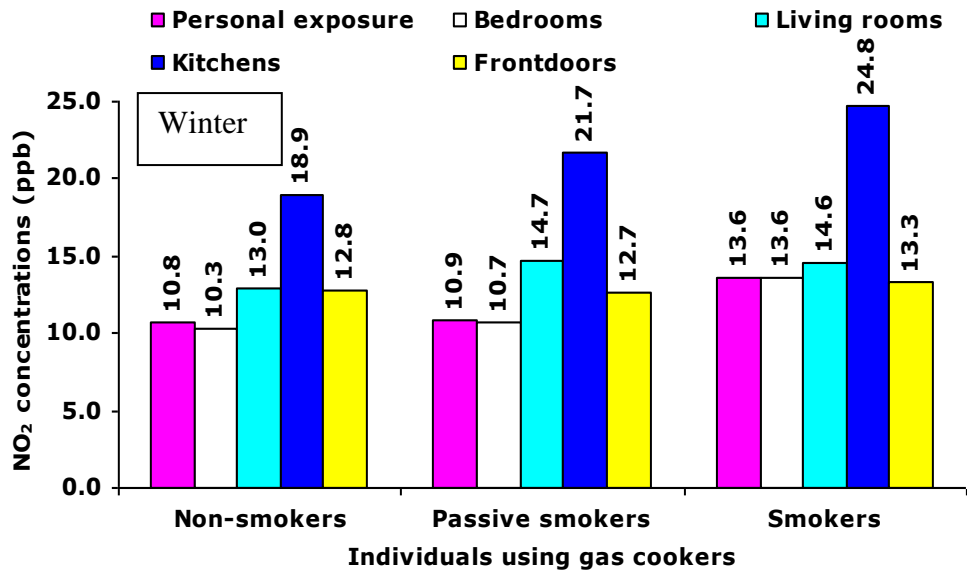
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4 **Figure 5: Weekly average personal exposure and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in houses of non-**  
5 **smokers, passive smokers and smokers (using electric cookers)**

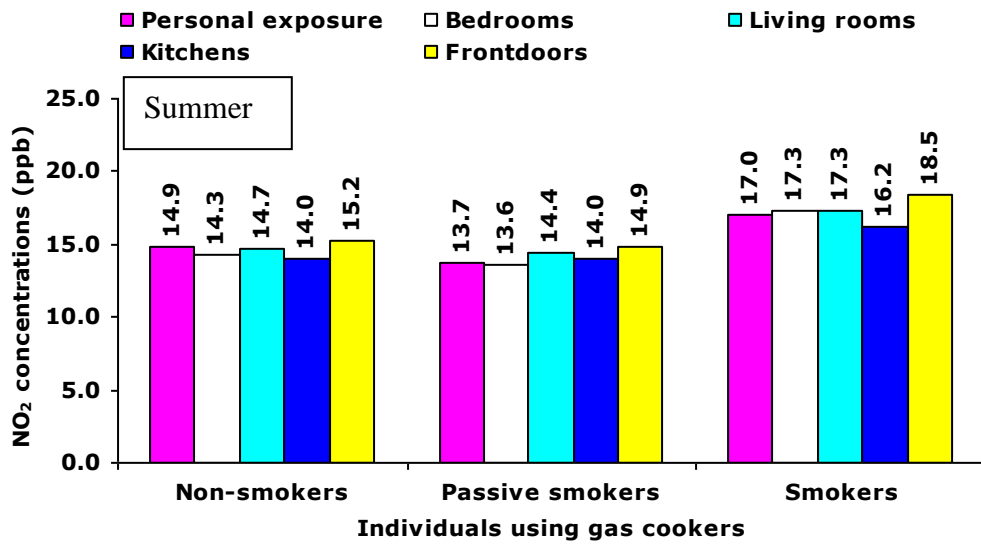
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Figure 6: Weekly average personal exposure and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in houses of non-smokers, passive smokers and smokers (using gas cookers)

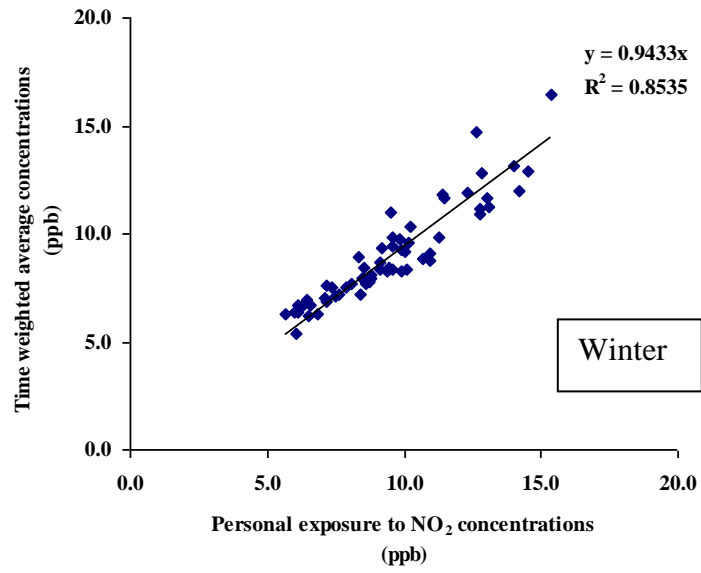
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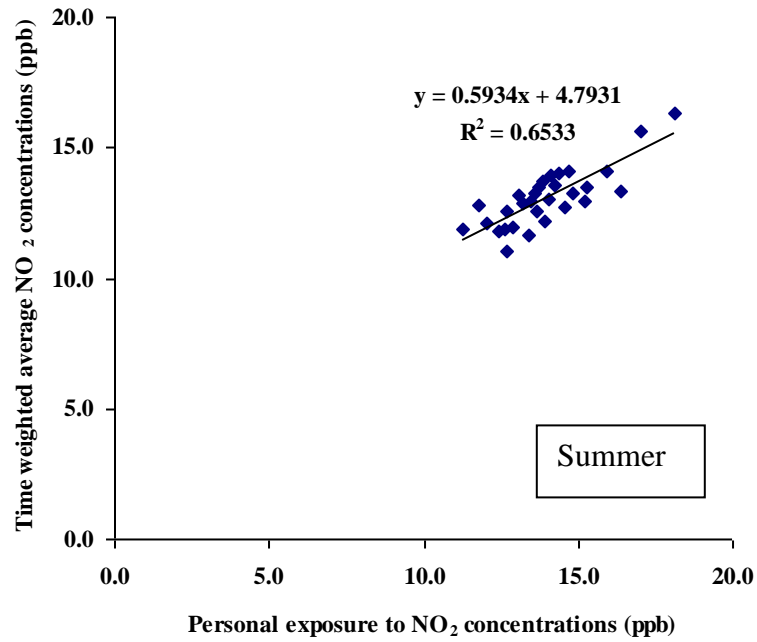
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**Figure 7: Comparisons between personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and time weighted average NO<sub>2</sub> concentration**

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2**Table 1: Reported exposure levels of NO<sub>2</sub> and associated health effects.**

<b>NO<sub>2</sub> Concentration (ppb)<sup>†</sup></b>	<b>Exposure Time</b>	<b>Health Effects</b>	<b>References</b>
<b><i>General</i></b>			
0.2 - 5		Natural background mean concentration	WHO, 2000
10.6 - 47.9		Outdoor urban annual mean levels	
39.9 - 540		Outdoor urban hourly maxima	
10.6.4		Indoor poorly vented gas combustion appliances (over few days)	
1064		Indoor hourly maxima	
<b><i>Short-term exposure effects</i></b>			
2500 – 7500		Very small changes in lung functions	DOE, 1996
200-300		Changes in lung function of sensitive population (e.g. Asthmatic)	DOE, 1996
2000	Healthy non-smoking subjects exposed for 4 hrs on four consecutive days	NO <sub>2</sub> is a proinflammatory air pollutants under condition of repeated exposure	Blomberg et al., 1999
1000	2 hours exposure	No significant affects	WHO, 2000; WHO 2003
2500	2 hours exposure	Pronounced decrements in pulmonary function	
4000	1.25 hours exposure	No affects on Asthmatics	
300	10 min exposure	Decrease in forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV <sub>1</sub> )	
300		Slight affects on chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	
500 - 15000	3 hours exposure	Healthy subjects having single exposures (for 3 hours) to NO <sub>2</sub> with exercise can induce (a) mild airway inflammation; (b) mild respiratory symptoms in some subjects; (c) small reductions in hematocrit and hemoglobin; (d) possible small reductions in circulating T lymphocytes; and (e) possible increased susceptibility of airway epithelial cells to injury from exposure to respiratory viruses.	Frampton et al., 2002
4.3 - 180.5	1 hours	Exacerbate severe asthma and can cause death among asthmatics (in association with O <sub>3</sub> ).	Sunyer et al., 2002
212.8		Review identify demonstrable effects at 212.8 ppb or above level (for patients with light asthma at 106.4 ppb)	Kraft et al., 2005

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

$$^{\dagger}[\text{NO}_2 \text{ (ppb)} = 0.532 \times \text{NO}_2 \text{ (}\mu\text{g/m}^3\text{)}]$$

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**Table 2a: Average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (of volunteers using electric and gas cookers) and average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in house microenvironments measured during winter of 2000**

	Average NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations (ppb)							
	Electric cookers				Gas cookers			
	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.
<i>Personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub></i>	5.7	11.0	8.1	1.8	6.3	15.4	11.2	2.3
<i>Bedrooms</i>	3.2	11.1	7.8	2.0	6.3	15.5	10.8	2.3
<i>Living rooms</i>	4.1	11.4	7.9	2.1	6.1	30.1	13.7	5.5
<i>Kitchens</i>	4.2	9.7	7.1	2.8	12.9	38.8	20.6	6.9

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**Table 2b: Average personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (of volunteers using electric and gas cookers) and average NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in house microenvironments measured during summer of 2001**

	Average NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations (ppb)							
	Electric cookers				Gas cookers			
	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.	Min.	Max.	Mean	Stdev.
<i>Personal exposure to NO<sub>2</sub></i>	11.3	15.3	13.3	1.2	12.7	18.1	14.6	1.6
<i>Bedrooms</i>	10.6	14.8	12.7	1.3	12.5	17.3	14.3	1.4
<i>Living rooms</i>	10.8	15.4	13.1	1.5	13.2	18.2	14.7	1.4
<i>Kitchens</i>	8.0	13.3	11.0	1.7	12.8	17.7	14.2	1.3

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1 **Table 3: A comparative summary of NO<sub>2</sub> levels in various microenvironments and personal exposure.**

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Statistics	NO <sub>2</sub> concentration (ppb)						Comments	References	
	Indoor					Outdoors			Personal Exposure
	Bedrooms	Living Room	Kitchen	Vehicle	Office/ workplace				
Average Range	9.1±2.5 3.2-15.5	10.5±4.8 4.1-30.1	13.1±8 8.1-13.4	6.8±1.6 4.1-11.3	8.8±1.8 5.6-13.5	12.9±1.8 8.1-16.1	9.5±2.4 5.7-15.4	Winter Present Study	
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 <sup>‡</sup>		9.5±6.4	16.7	Birmingham Harrison et al., 2002	
Mean Range	11.9±1.0				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				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 <sup>†</sup>	24	12	School Van Roosbroeck et al., 2007	

Mean							186±1 17±0.6 49±0.9 22±0.6 28±0.7 24±0.7 25.5 / 31.9 / 36.2	Tunnel worker Outdoor worker Garage- Diesel Garage - Petrol Bus Driver Taxi Driver Taxi / Bus / Lorry	Lewne et al., 07  Lewne et al., 06
Mean	9.6±5.9 14.4±6.9 22.9±12.2				14.4±8.0 19.2±12.8 16.0±9.6	12.8±6.4 19.2±6.9 32.5±10.6		Helsinki Basle Prague	Kousa et al., 2001
			14.1±1.1 11.9±1.3					Gas cooking Electric cooking	Willer et al., 2005
Mean Range	31.6±40.2 4.1-260							Baltimore	Breyse et al., 2005
Mean	13.2±5.2		25±8.8				23.6±5.4 13.2±4.1 21.3±7.1	Workers Students Housewife's	Gallelli et al., 2007
Average	11.2					14.4	16.5	25-40% higher during winter	Monn et al., 1998
Mean	23.6-28.0					25-26		Barcelona	Garcia Algar et al., 2003
Median Q25-Q75	8.9 6.9-11					11.0/25 <sup>††</sup>	11.4 9.2-15	<8°C	Sorensen et al., 2005
Median Q25-Q75	6.6 4.7-10.3					6.6/13.8	9.2 5.7-11.7	>8°C	Sorensen et al., 2005
Mean Range	8.3±1.6 3.3-29.1							High with gas heating house	Gilbert et al., 2006

<sup>†</sup>School; <sup>‡</sup>see details of microenvironment in text; <sup>††</sup>Urban background/Street station; <sup>Q25-Q75</sup>25-75% interquartile range

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**Table 4: Overview of NO<sub>2</sub> guidelines for outdoor air quality.**

	<b>Guideline Value<sup>†</sup> (ppb)</b>	<b>Average period</b>
Belgium	71.8	1 h
Canada	<53.2	1 h
China	53.2	1 h
Germany	31.9	1 week
	186.2	30 min
Norway	53.2	1 h
UK	21.3	1 h
	106.4	1 year
EPA	53	1 year
WHO	106	1 h
	63.8	8 h
	21	1 year
EU <sup>‡</sup>	106.4	1 h
	21.3	1 year

<sup>†</sup> health related concentration/values based on current toxicological and epidemiological knowledge; <sup>‡</sup> to be achieved by 2010