

ENVE 576

Indoor Air Pollution

Fall 2016

Week 12: November 8, 2016
Epidemiology and adverse health effects

Built
Environment
Research
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*Advancing energy, environmental, and
sustainability research within the built environment*

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Schedule update

Other assignments:

- No more HW assignments
- One more blog post (due Nov 22)
- Final project reports due Nov 29
 - Do you need more time?

ADVERSE HEALTH EFFECTS OF AIR POLLUTION

Adverse health effects of air pollution

- How do we know if something is harmful to humans?
 - Or animals? Or plants?

Primary methods of assessing health effects

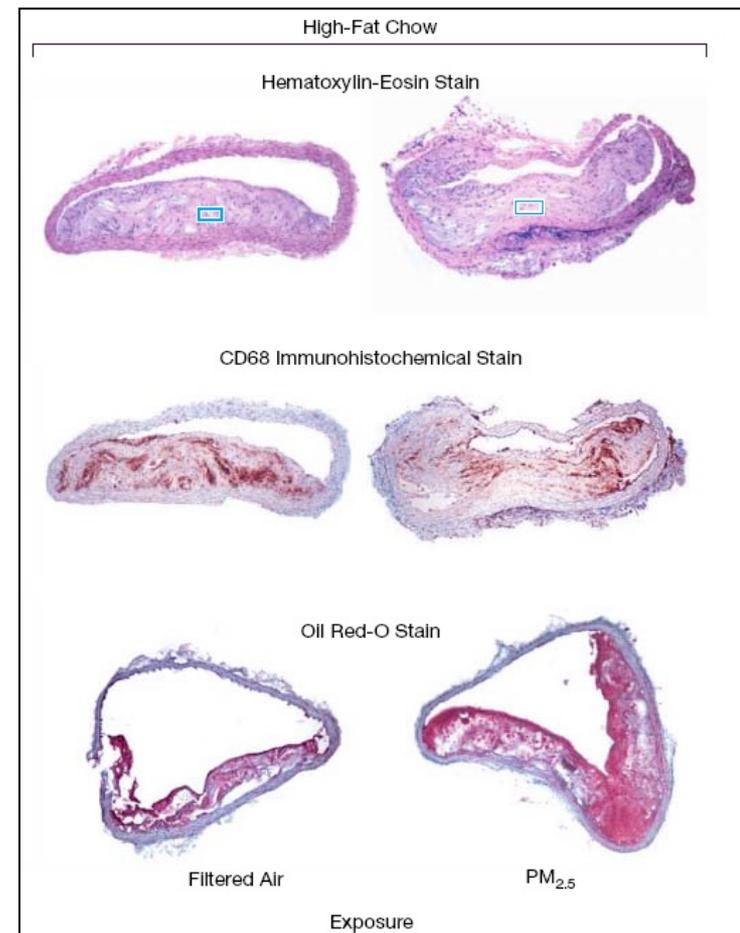
- Toxicology studies
 - Cellular level
 - Theoretical underpinnings/underlying biological mechanisms
- Entire organisms: humans or animal *models* (e.g., mice):
 - Clinical (dose-response)
 - Fundamental relationship between exposure/dose and effect
 - Causative mechanisms
 - Epidemiology (exposure-response)
 - Simply a relationship between exposure/dose in a population
 - Correlation not causation
 - But if informed by fundamental biological plausibility, it can help confirm

How do air pollutants cause health effects?

- PM or ozone induce airway inflammation
- Oxidative stress is induced by transition metals or PAHs
- Modifications of intracellular proteins/enzymes
 - Stimulating cells to generate reactive oxygen species (ROS)
- Biological compounds (glucans, endotoxins) affect immune response and inflammation
- Stimulation of autonomic nervous system
- Adjuvant (stimulate immune response) effects
- Pro-coagulant activity (UFPs)
- Suppression of normal defense mechanisms

Example: Particulate matter

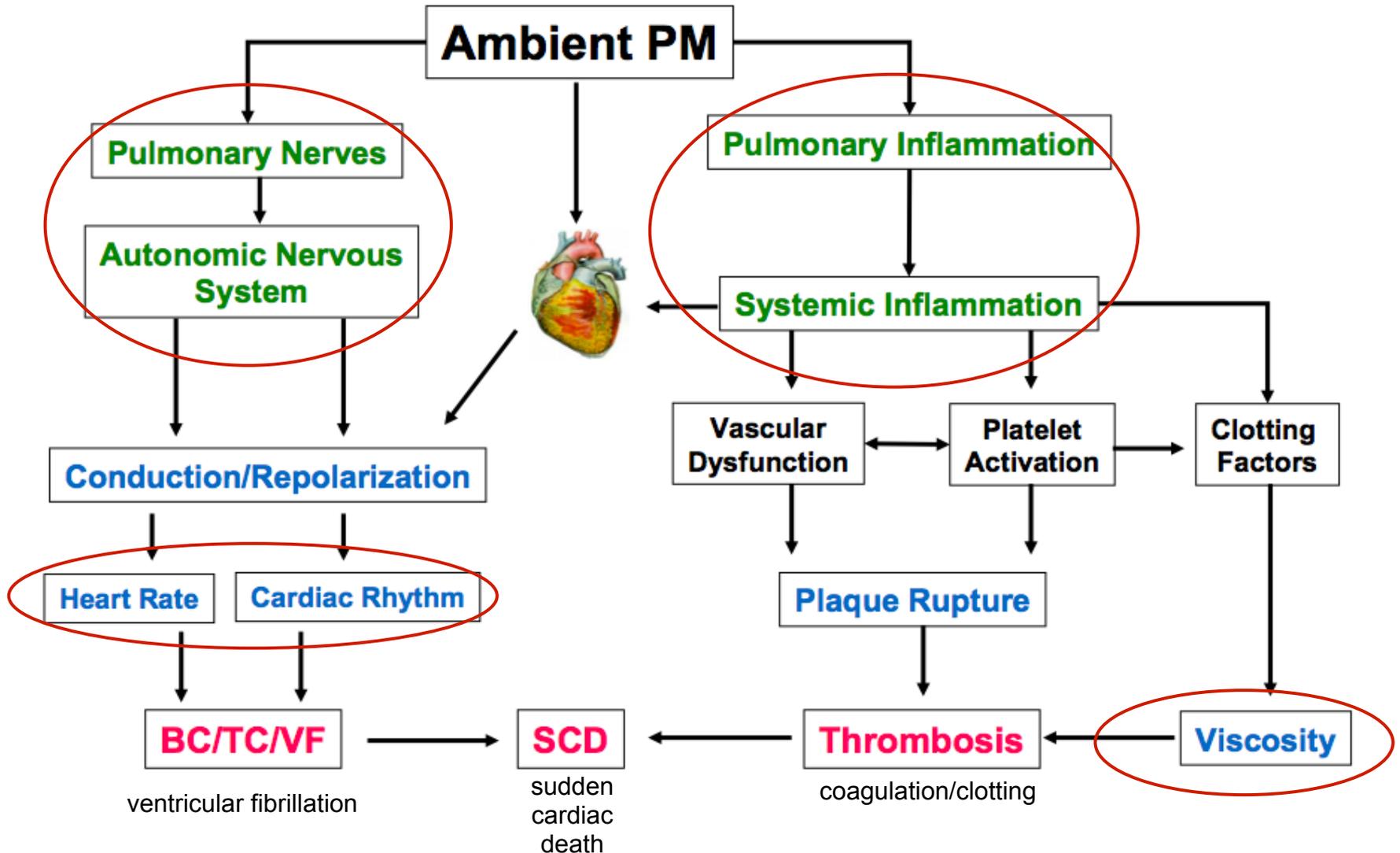
- Toxicological, clinical, and epidemiological studies have all increased understanding of the **mechanism of action** by which PM leads to adverse health effects such as mortality and lung and heart disease
- Image to the right shows abdominal arteries from mice exposed to filtered air and to fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$)
 - $PM_{2.5}$ increased arterial blockage



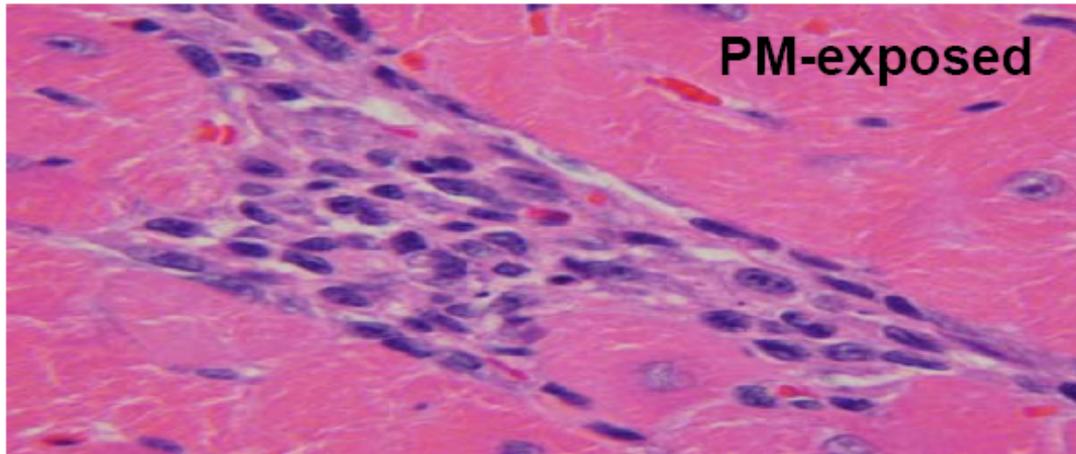
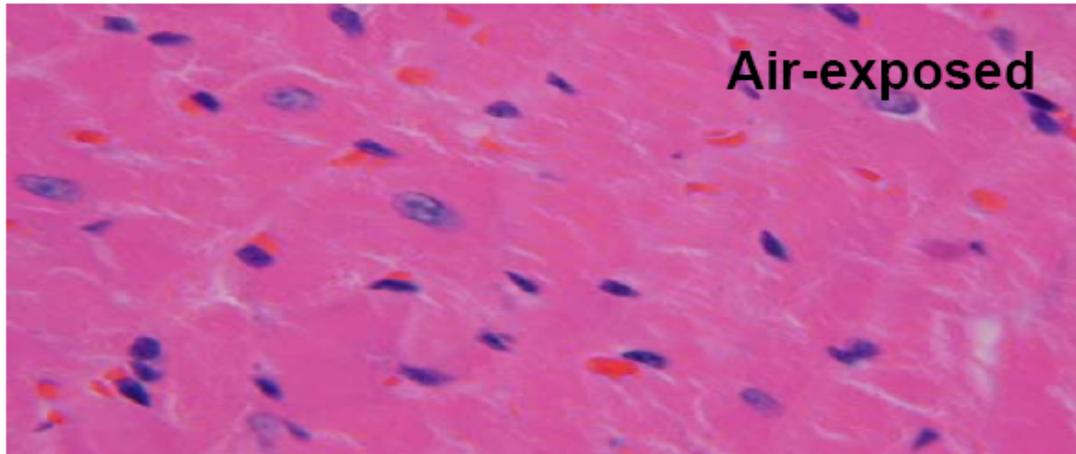
How does PM cause health effects?

- Several theories exist here... likely more than one mechanism
 1. PM leads to lung **irritation** which leads to increased permeability in lung tissue;
 2. PM increases **susceptibility to viral and bacterial pathogens** leading to pneumonia in vulnerable persons who are unable to clear these infections;
 3. PM **aggravates the severity of chronic lung diseases** causing rapid loss of airway function;
 4. PM causes **inflammation** of lung tissue, resulting in the release of chemicals that impact heart function;
 5. PM causes **changes in blood chemistry** that results in clots that can cause heart attacks.

How could PM affect the cardiovascular system?



PM causes injury to cardiac cells

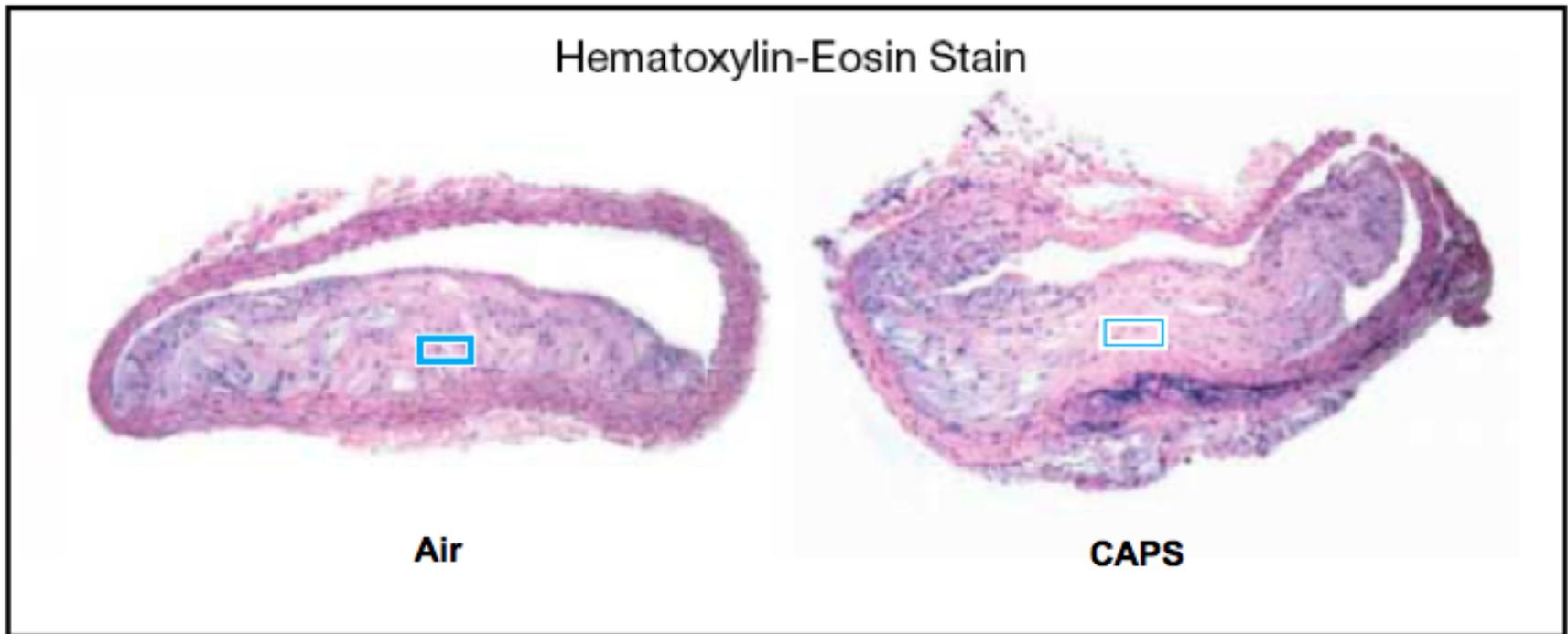


Rats exposed to ambient
PM one day per week for
16 weeks

Kodavanti et al., 2003

PM hardens arteries

Plaque area

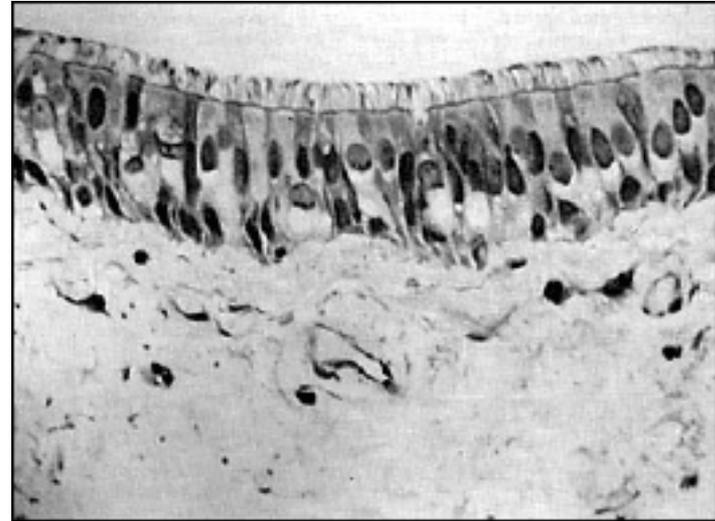


**ApoE mice exposed for 6 hrs/day, 5 days/wk x 6 months to CAPS
(85 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ average)
Mean levels only 15.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$**

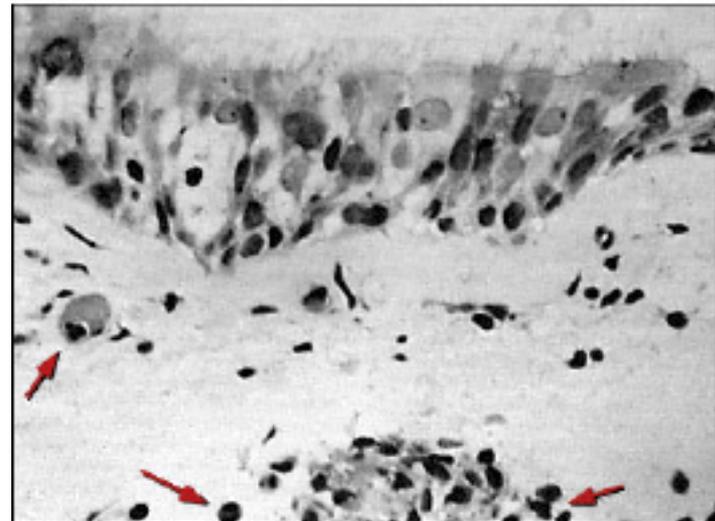
Sun et al. 2005

Ozone damages lung tissue

- Tiny cilia that clear the lungs from mucus appear along the top of the image to the right (healthy lung tissue)
- In the lung exposed to only 20 ppb of ozone (to the right) for 4 hours of moderate exercise, many cilia appear missing and others are misshapen
 - Arrows point to tiny bodies called neutrophils which indicate inflammation



Healthy Lung Tissue



Ozone-damaged Lung Tissue

HUMAN EPIDEMIOLOGY STUDIES

Do these cell-level impacts show up in large human studies?

Human epidemiology studies

- How would you conduct an epidemiology study?

Human epidemiology studies

- Examine two populations with different exposures
 - e.g., babies home to renovated nurseries or not
 - e.g, children in homes w/ vinyl floors or not
 - e.g., spouses of smokers and non-smokers
- Collect data on health outcomes
 - Asthma, cancer, lung function, mortality, etc.
- Form 2x2 'epi matrix' for select populations

	With effect	Without effect
Exposed	<i>exposed with effect</i>	<i>exposed without effect</i>
Not exposed	<i>not exposed with effect</i>	<i>not exposed without effect</i>

Human epidemiology studies

- Relative risk = RR

$$RR = \frac{(\text{exposed with effect}) / (\text{total exposed})}{(\text{not exposed with effect}) / (\text{total not exposed})}$$

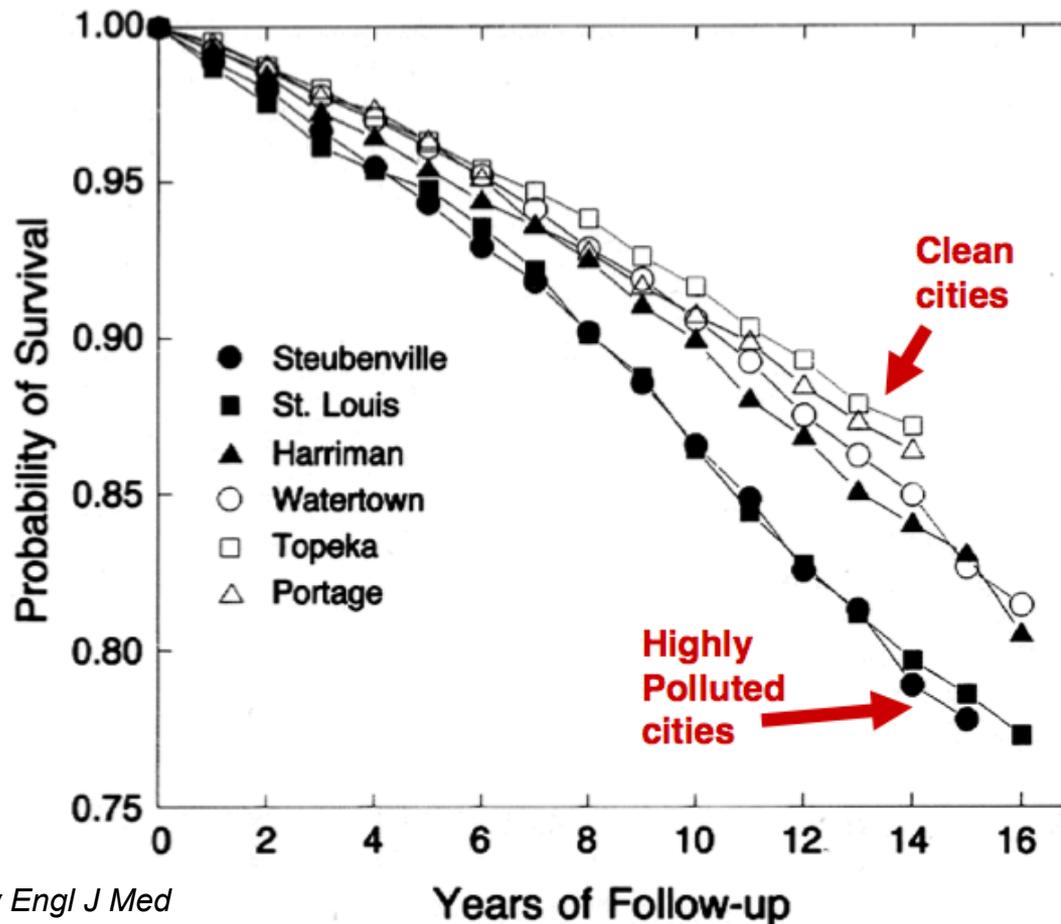
- RR > 1.0 = association
 - RR >> 1.0 = strong association
(also if confidence interval doesn't cross 1)
- Odds ratio = OR (often ~RR)

$$OR = \frac{(\text{exposed with effect}) * (\text{not exposed without effect})}{(\text{not exposed with effect}) * (\text{exposed without effect})}$$

- OR > 1.0 = association
- OR >> 1.0 = strong association

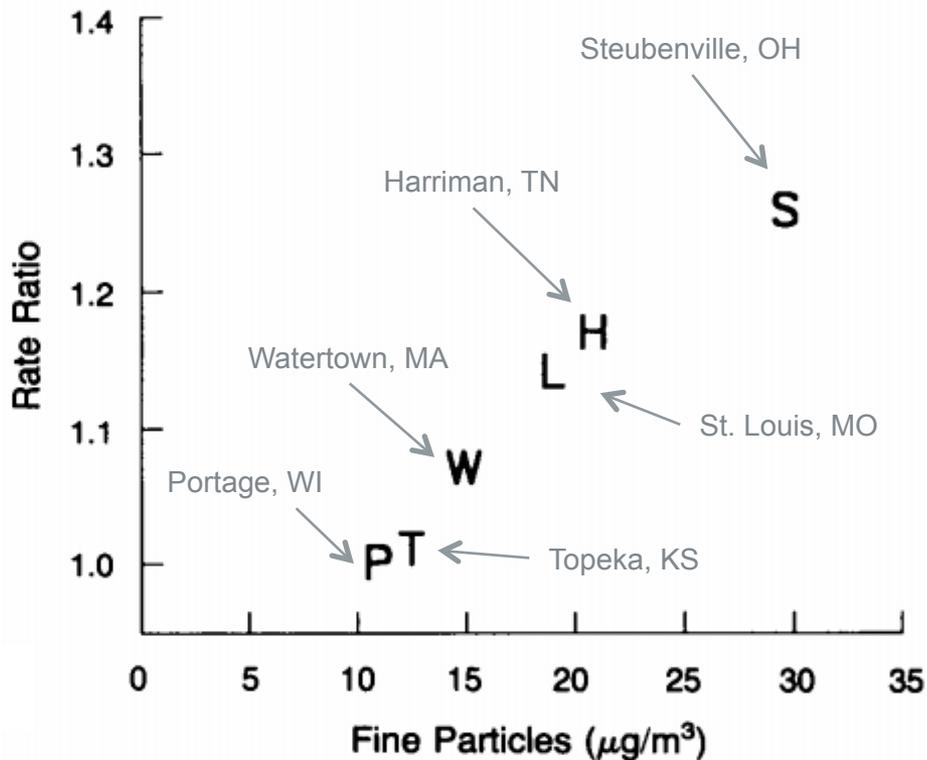
Health effects of outdoor PM: Epidemiology

- Early high impact study: The Harvard Six Cities Study
 - Long-term air pollution linked to shortened life expectancy
 - 15 year prospective study of 8000+ adults in six US cities



Health effects of outdoor PM: Epidemiology

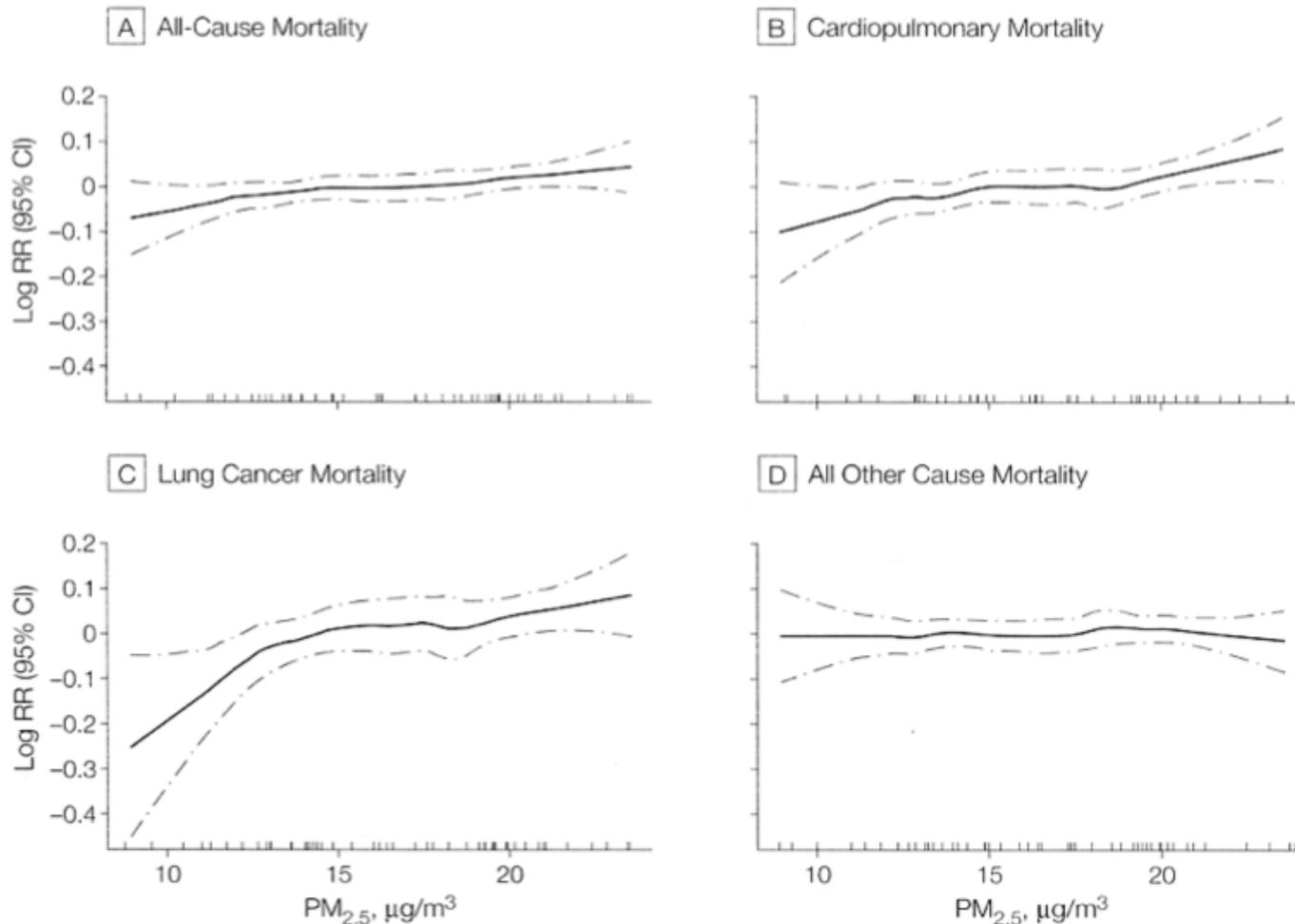
- Harvard Six Cities Study
 - Relative risk of dying almost linearly correlated with outdoor PM_{2.5}



Mean PM_{2.5} concentration measured outdoors in six cities over several years in the 1980s

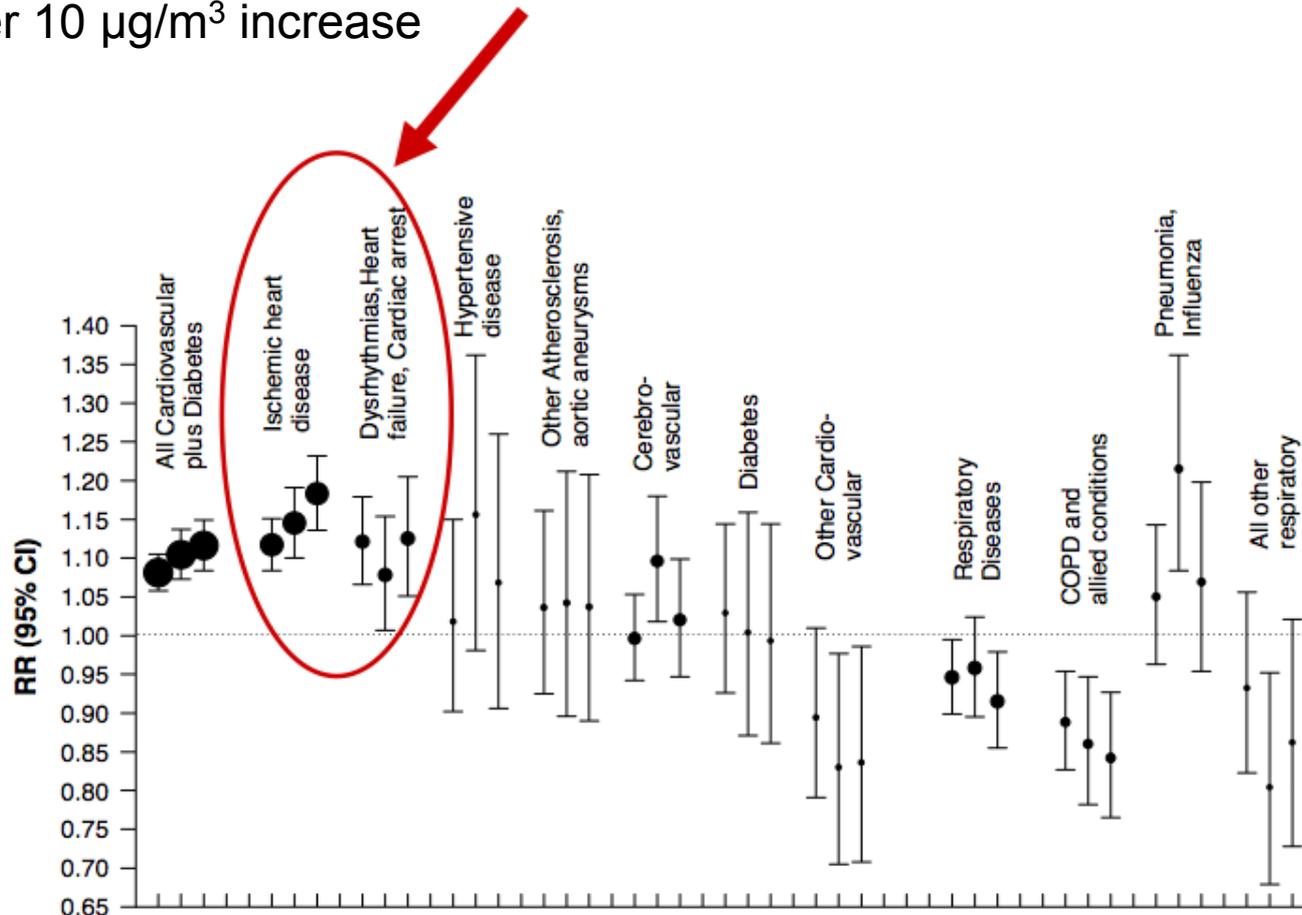
Health effects of outdoor PM: Epidemiology

- ACS cohort: over 1 million people
 - Increased PM_{2.5} → **increased risk of death**



Health effects of outdoor PM: Epidemiology

- Follow-up of ACS cohort: over 1 million people
 - Increased PM_{2.5} most strongly associated with death from heart disease, dysrhythmias (irregular heartbeat), heart failure, and cardiac arrest
 - Per 10 µg/m³ increase

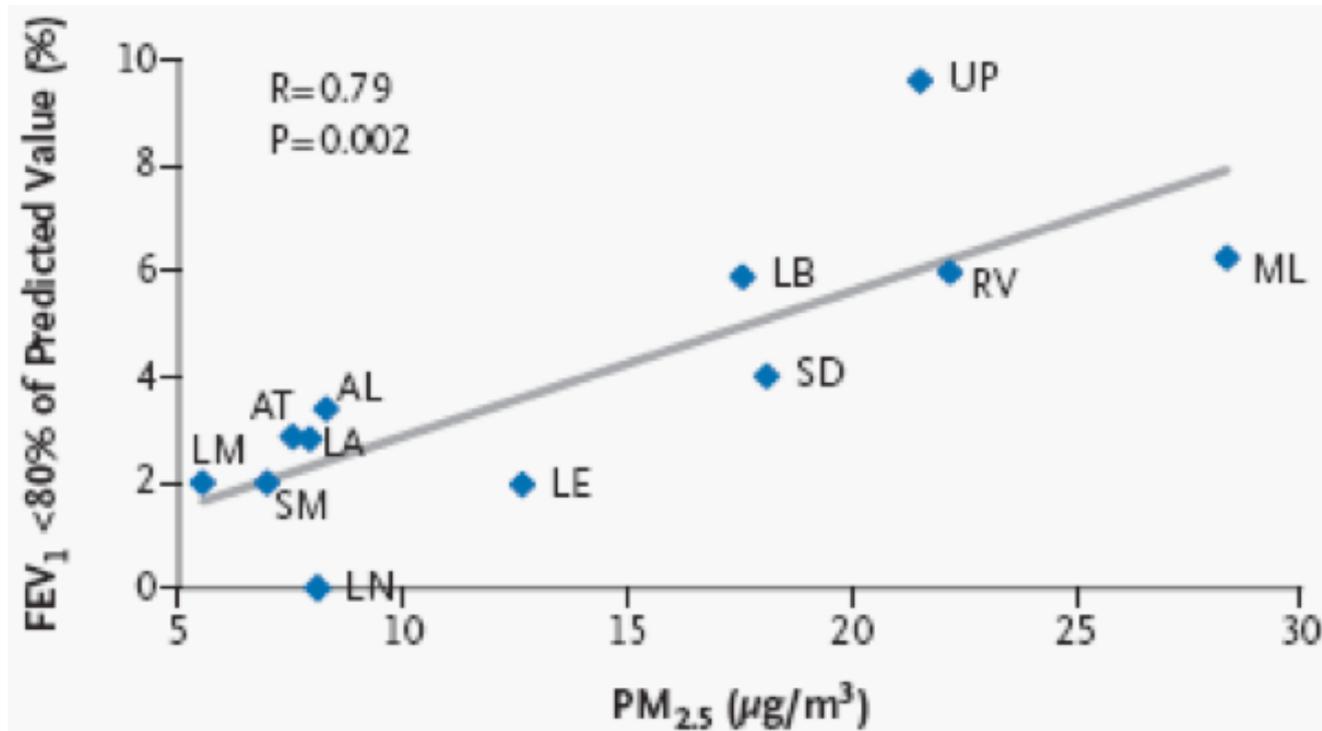


Outdoor PM and lung growth

- Children living in cities with higher air pollution showed greater deficits in lung function growth

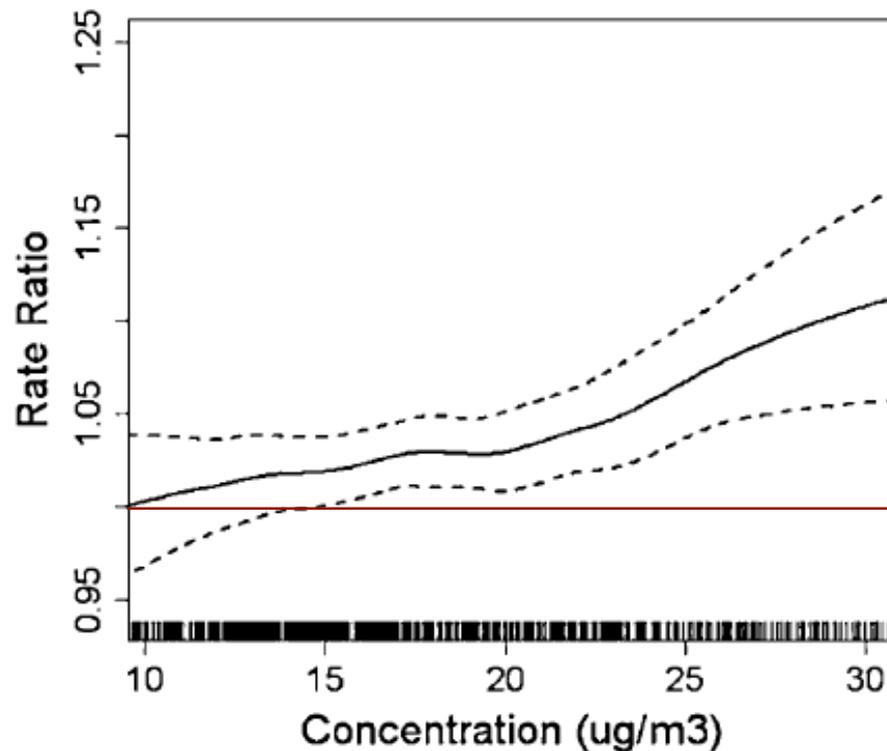
FEV₁ = forced expiratory volume in 1 second

- Volume of air you can exhale in 1 sec



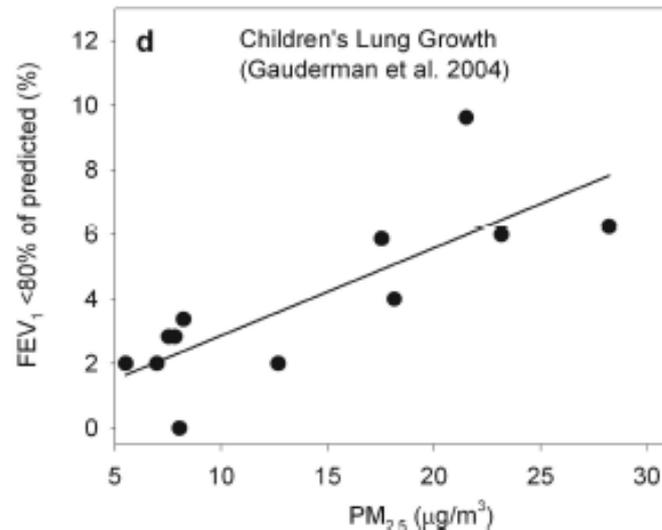
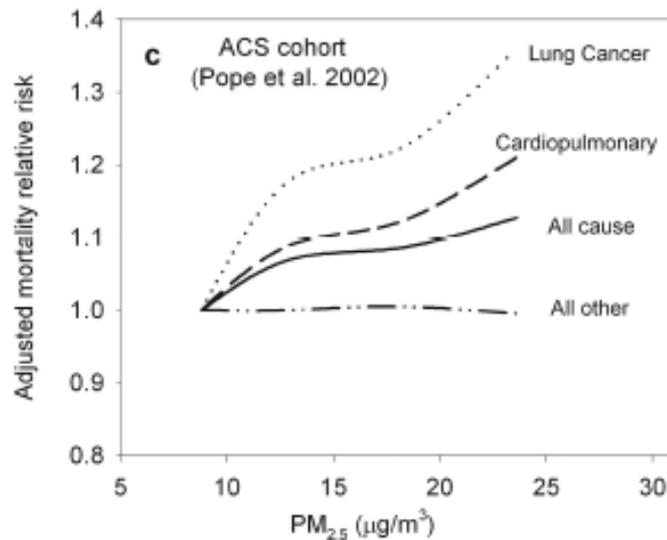
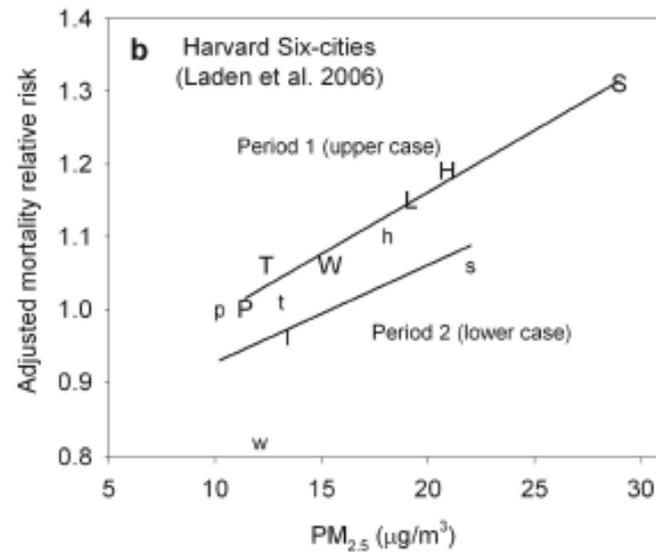
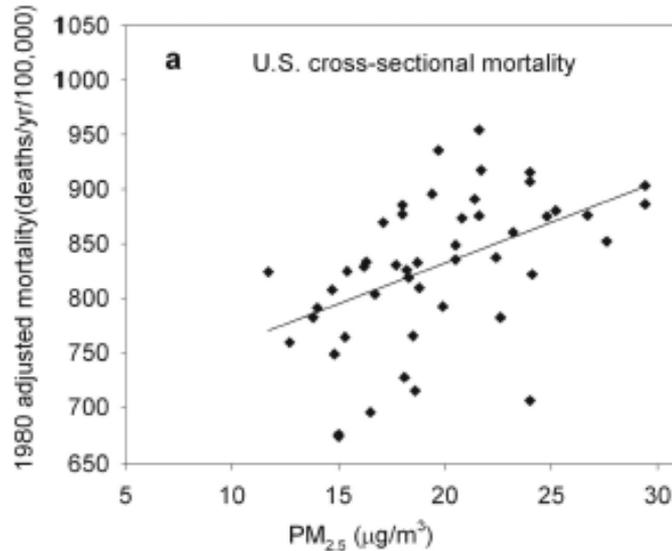
Outdoor PM and asthma

Ambient PM_{2.5} and ER visits for pediatric asthma



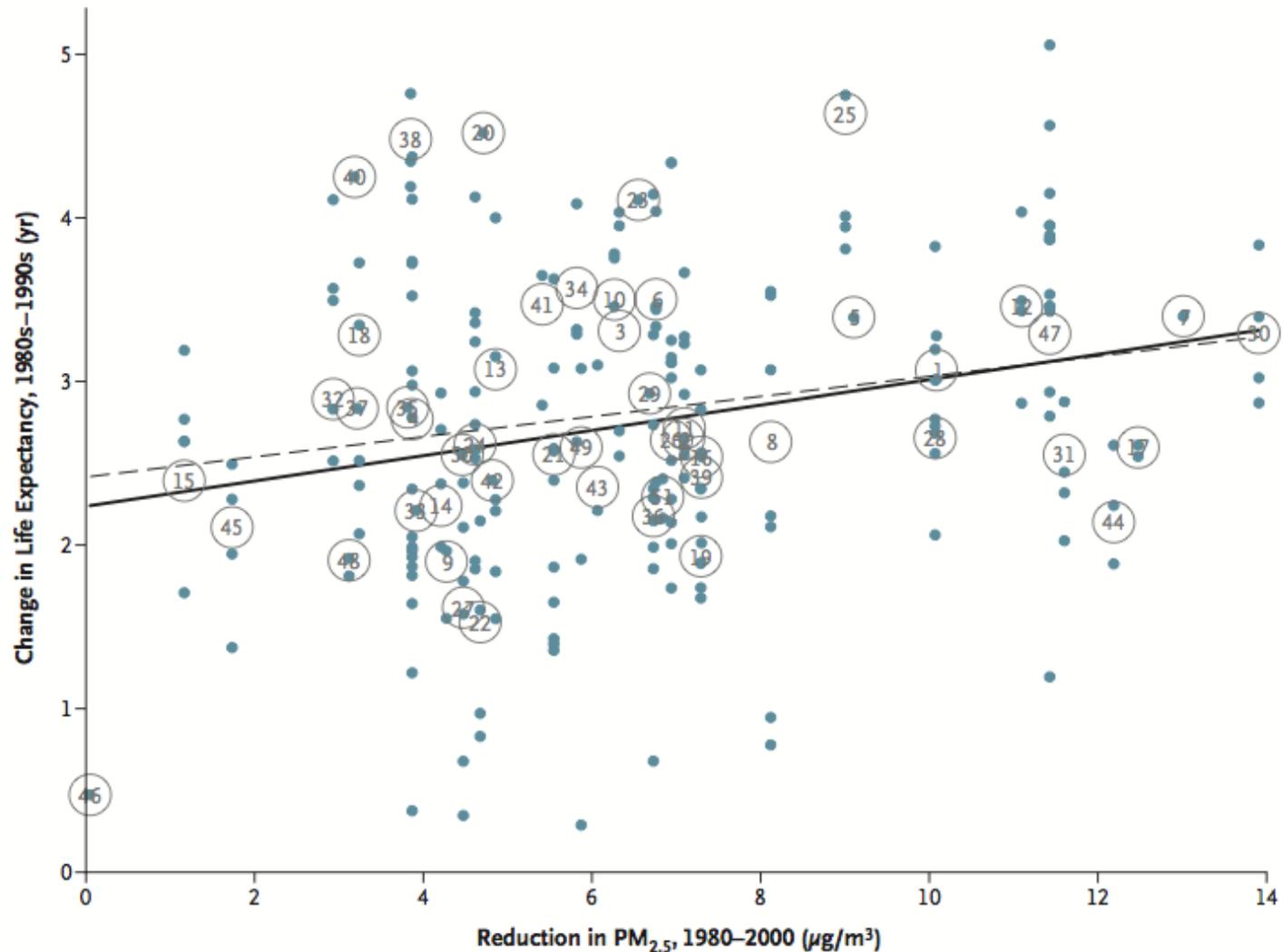
3-day average PM_{2.5} data measured outdoors in Atlanta, GA from 1993 to 2004

More PM_{2.5} risk relationships



What happens when you reduce PM?

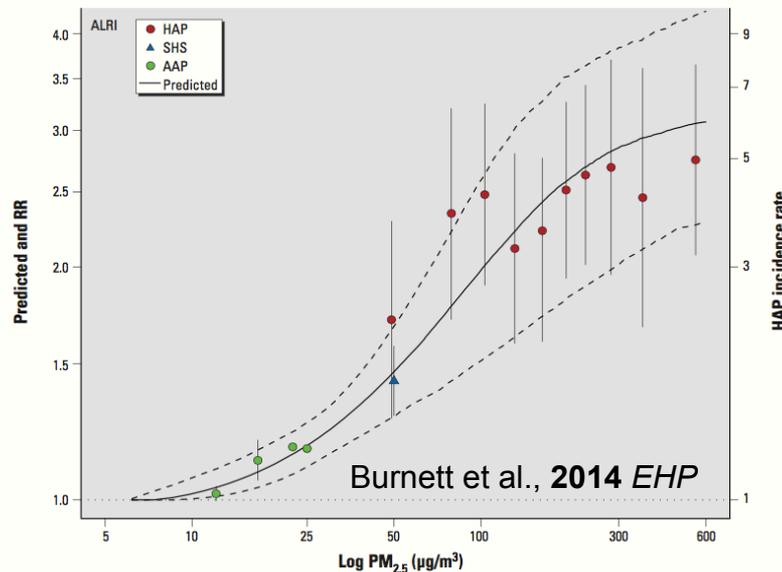
Reduce outdoor PM_{2.5} by 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ \rightarrow increase life expectancy by 0.61 years



Increased **mortality** risks outdoor PM_{2.5}

All-cause mortality

- $4 \pm 3\%$ increase per $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in PM_{2.5}
Pope et al., 2002 *J Am Med Assoc*
- $6 \pm 2\%$ increase per $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in PM_{2.5}
Krewski et al., 2009 HEI Research Report
- $16 \pm 9\%$ increase per $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in PM_{2.5}
Laden et al., 2006 *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*
- What is the shape of the concentration-response curve?



PM_{2.5} compositions

- All PM_{2.5} constituents are not equally toxic
- Sulfate ion, iron, nickel, and zinc in PM_{2.5}
 - Mortality
Burnett et al., 2000 *Inhalation Toxicology*
- Vanadium, elemental carbon, and nickel in PM_{2.5}
 - Cardiovascular and respiratory hospitalizations
Bell et al., 2009 *Am J Respir Crit Care Med*
- Elemental carbon, organic carbon, and nitrates in PM_{2.5}
 - Cardiovascular deaths
Ostro et al., 2007 *Environ Health Perspectives*
- Elemental carbon in PM_{2.5}
 - Cardiovascular hospital admissions
Levy et al., 2012 *Am J Epidemiology*

PM size: Ultrafine particles (UFP, <100 nm)

- Mean UFP number concentrations, not mass, associated with reductions in peak expiratory flow in adult asthmatics
Penttinen et al., 2001 Eur Respir J
- Asthma medication use associated with increased PM_{2.5} mass and UFP number concentrations
von Klot et al., 2002 Eur Respir J
- UFP number concentrations (not PM_{2.5} mass) associated with daily total and cardio-respiratory mortality
Stölzel et al., 2007 J Expo Sci Environ Epidem
- UFP concentrations associated with strongest risk of stroke
Andersen et al., 2010 Eur Heart J

Summary of PM health effects

- Myocardial infarction (heart attack)
- Stroke
- Arrhythmia (irregular heart beat)
- Heart failure exacerbation
- Lung cancer
- Children's lung growth
- Hospitalizations for asthma
- Mortality
- ***No apparent thresholds***
- Health risks link to outdoor measurements, so we don't really know enough about actual indoor exposures & health effects
 - **We don't really know what threshold to target**

INTEGRATED SCIENCE ASSESSMENT FOR PM2.5

PM in the U.S.

- We can turn to the US EPA *Integrated Science Assessment for Particulate Matter*
 - 2228 pages dedicated to describing and summarizing impacts of particulate matter on human health and the environment
 - Summary of PM standards since 1971:

Table 1-1. Summary of NAAQS promulgated for PM, 1971-2006.

Year (Final Rule)	Indicator	Avg Time	Level	Form
1971 (36 FR 8186)	TSP (Total Suspended Particulates)	24 h	260 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (primary) 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (secondary)	Not to be exceeded more than once per yr
		Annual	75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (primary)	Annual geometric mean
1987 (52 FR 24634)	PM ₁₀	24 h	150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Not to be exceeded more than once per yr on average over a 3-yr period
		Annual	50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Annual arithmetic mean, averaged over 3 yr
	PM _{2.5}	24 h	65 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	98th percentile, averaged over 3 yr
		Annual	15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Annual arithmetic mean, averaged over 3 yr ¹
1997 (62 FR 38652)	PM ₁₀	24 h	150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Initially promulgated 99th percentile, averaged over 3 yr; when 1997 standards were vacated in 1999, the form of 1987 standards remained in place (not to be exceeded more than once per yr on average over a 3-yr period)
		Annual	50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Annual arithmetic mean, averaged over 3 yr
2006 (71 FR 61144)	PM _{2.5}	24 h	35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	98th percentile, averaged over 3 yr
		Annual	15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Annual arithmetic mean, averaged over 3 yr ²
	PM ₁₀	24 h	150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	Not to be exceeded more than once per yr on average over a 3-yr period

Note: When not specified, primary and secondary standards are identical.

EPA Integrated Science Assessment for PM

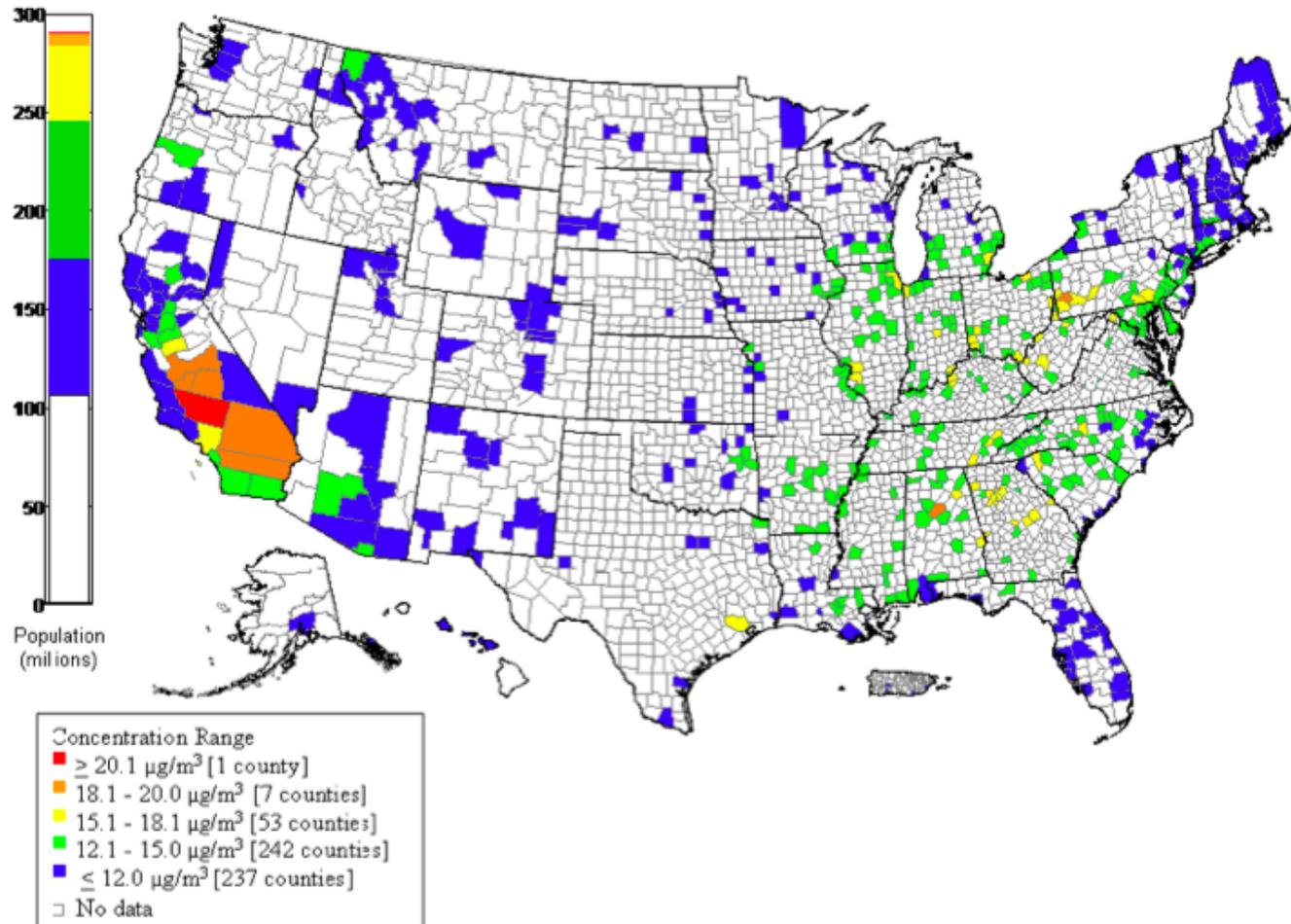
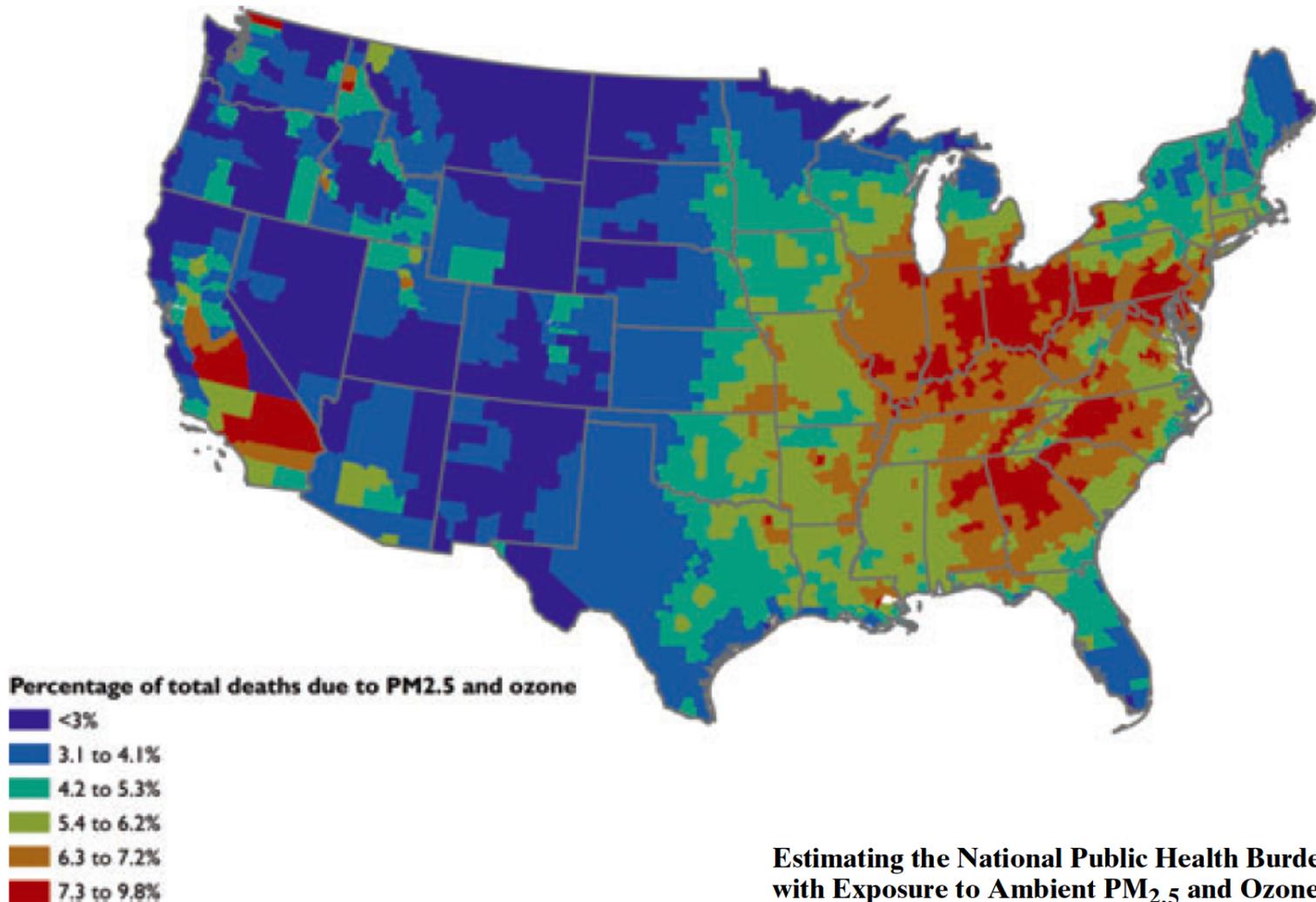


Figure 3-9. Three-yr avg 24-h PM_{2.5} concentration by county derived from FRM or FRM-like data, 2005-2007. The population bar shows the number of people residing within counties that reported county-wide average concentrations within the specified ranges.

Outdoor air pollution and mortality



Estimating the National Public Health Burden Associated with Exposure to Ambient PM_{2.5} and Ozone

Neal Fann,* Amy D. Lamson, Susan C. Anenberg, Karen Wesson, David Risley, and Bryan J. Hubbell

Outdoor air pollution and mortality

Estimating the National Public Health Burden Associated with Exposure to Ambient PM_{2.5} and Ozone

Neal Fann,* Amy D. Lamson, Susan C. Anenberg, Karen Wesson, David Risley, and Bryan J. Hubbell

- Fann et al. (2012) estimated that 130,000 and 4,700 deaths were caused by PM_{2.5} and ozone in US, respectively, in 2005
 - Nearly 1.1 million life years lost from PM_{2.5} exposure and approximately 36,000 life years lost from ozone exposure
 - Among the 10 most populous counties, the percentage of deaths attributable to PM_{2.5} and ozone ranged from 3.5% in San Jose to 10% in Los Angeles

Assuming: $6 \pm 2\%$ increase per $10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in PM_{2.5}

Krewski et al., **2009** HEI Research Report

EPA Integrated Science Assessment for PM

Subjective causality....

Table 2-1. Summary of causal determinations for short-term exposure to PM_{2.5}.

Size Fraction	Outcome	Causality Determination
PM _{2.5}	Cardiovascular Effects	Causal
	Respiratory Effects	Likely to be causal
	Mortality	Causal

Table 2-2. Summary of causal determinations for long-term exposure to PM_{2.5}.

Size Fraction	Outcome	Causality Determination
PM _{2.5}	Cardiovascular Effects	Causal
	Respiratory Effects	Likely to be causal
	Mortality	Causal
	Reproductive and Developmental	Suggestive
	Cancer, Mutagenicity, and Genotoxicity	Suggestive

EPA Integrated Science Assessment for PM

Epidemiology data for short-term PM_{2.5}

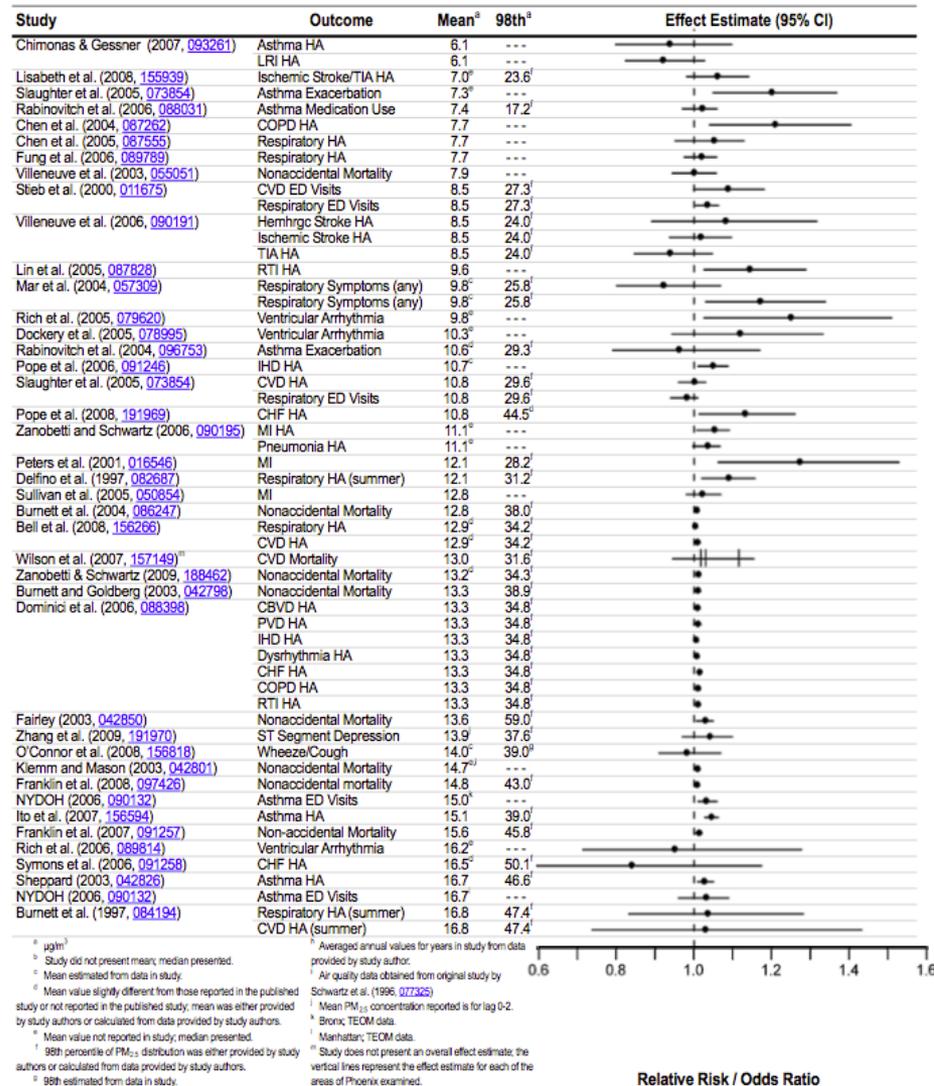


Figure 2-1. Summary of effect estimates (per 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) by increasing concentration from U.S. studies examining the association between short-term exposure to PM_{2.5} and cardiovascular and respiratory effects, and mortality, conducted in locations where the reported mean 24-h avg PM_{2.5} concentrations were <17 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$.

EPA Integrated Science Assessment for PM

Epidemiology data for long-term PM_{2.5}

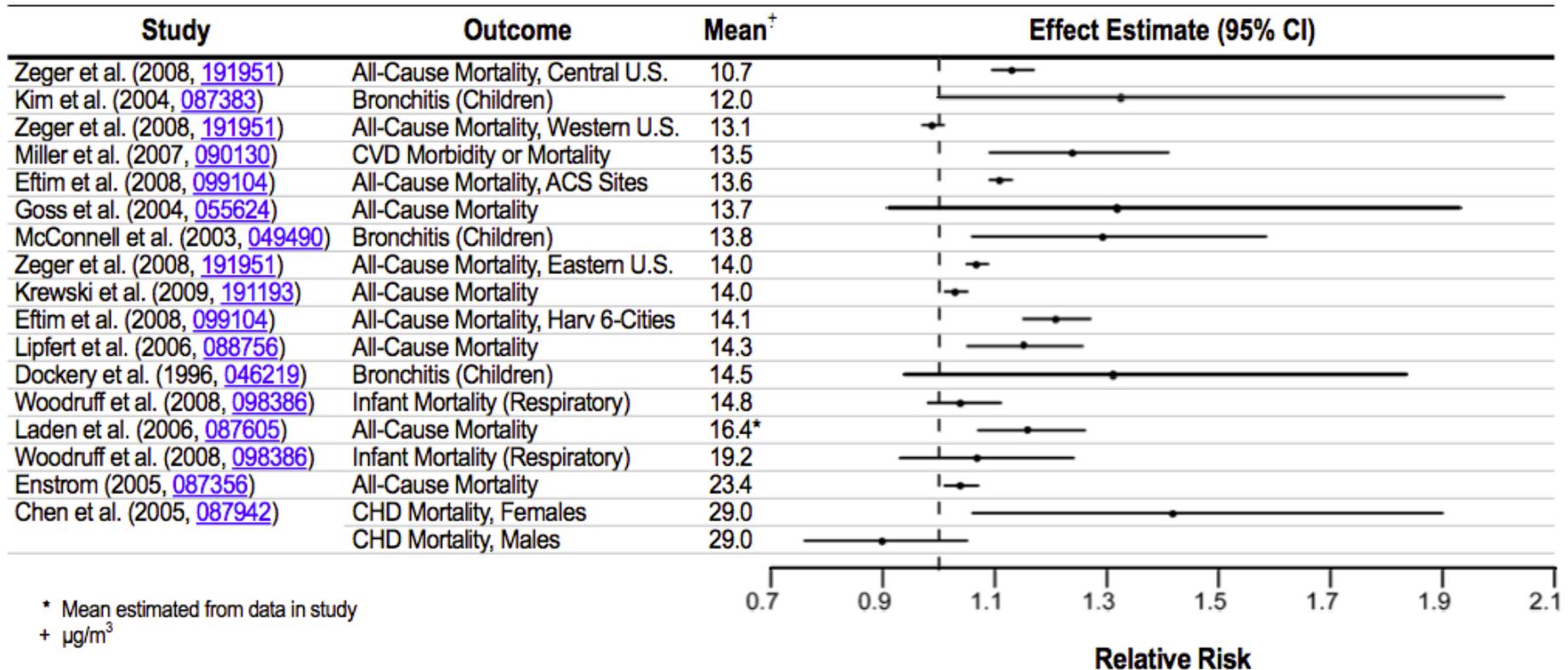


Figure 2-2. Summary of effect estimates (per 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) by increasing concentration from U.S. studies examining the association between long-term exposure to PM_{2.5} and cardiovascular and respiratory effects, and mortality.

EPA Integrated Science Assessment for PM

Subjective causality....

2.3.5.1. Effects of Short-Term Exposure to UFPs

Table 2-4. Summary of causal determinations for short-term exposure to UFPs.

Size Fraction	Outcome	Causality Determination
UFPs	Cardiovascular Effects	Suggestive
	Respiratory Effects	Suggestive

Summary of PM health effects from EPA ISA

- Short-term exposure exacerbates cardiovascular and pulmonary disease
 - Increases risk of having symptoms, requiring medical attention, and/or even dying
- Long-term exposure results in even larger increased risks of respiratory and cardiovascular disease and death
- US policy appears to have improved human health
 - But has not eliminated concern

WHAT ABOUT INDOOR EXPOSURES?

And epidemiology studies

Indoor proportions of outdoor pollutants

- Most of the health effect estimates we've described use outdoor monitoring data
 - Usually assumes everyone in a location is exposed to the same concentration
- We've already discussed (and had HW problems) on how outdoor pollution becomes indoor pollution
 - Where we spend most of our time
- How do we get better exposure estimates and thus health effect responses?

Example: Indoor exposure to “outdoor PM₁₀”

Indoor Exposure to “Outdoor PM₁₀”

Assessing Its Influence on the Relationship Between PM₁₀ and Short-term Mortality in U.S. Cities

- A recent study attempted to account for variations in *AER* across the US and, after assuming some base values for k_{dep} and P for PM₁₀, they predicted indoor concentrations of outdoor PM₁₀ inside average homes in each region
 - Compared those estimates to short-term mortality data to see if their predicted average indoor concentration correlated with mortality rates

$$\left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{windows_closed} = \frac{P\lambda_{inf}}{\lambda_{inf} + k_{dep,inf}}$$

$$\left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{windows_open} = \frac{(1)\lambda_{open}}{\lambda_{open} + k_{dep,open}}$$

$$\left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{AC_on} = \frac{P\lambda_{inf}}{\lambda_{inf} + k_{dep,inf} + \eta f_{HVAC} \frac{Q_{HVAC}}{V}}$$

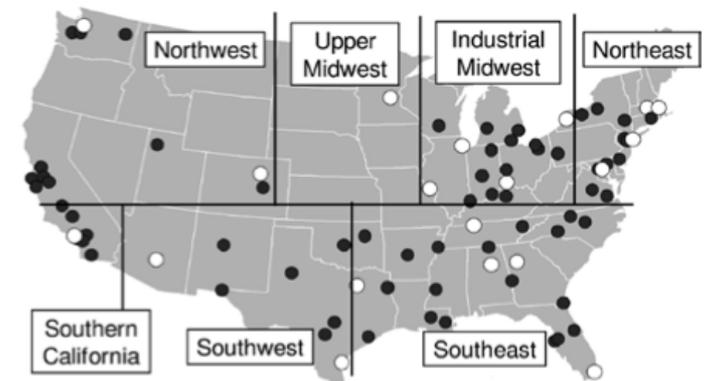


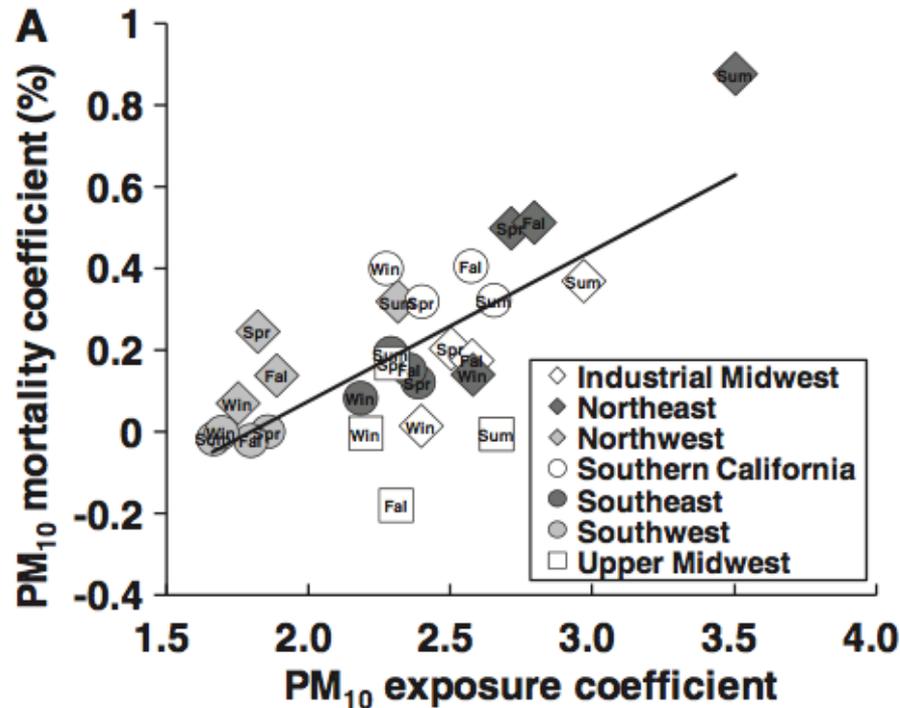
FIGURE 1. Location within the seven U.S. regions of the 19 cities from the NMMAPS with detailed building infiltration rates (open circles) that were used in the original analysis (Figure 2) and the 64 NMMAPS cities with less well-characterized building infiltration rates (closed circles) that were added to the extended analysis (Figure 3).

Example: Indoor exposure to “outdoor PM₁₀”

Indoor Exposure to “Outdoor PM₁₀”

Assessing Its Influence on the Relationship Between PM₁₀ and Short-term Mortality in U.S. Cities

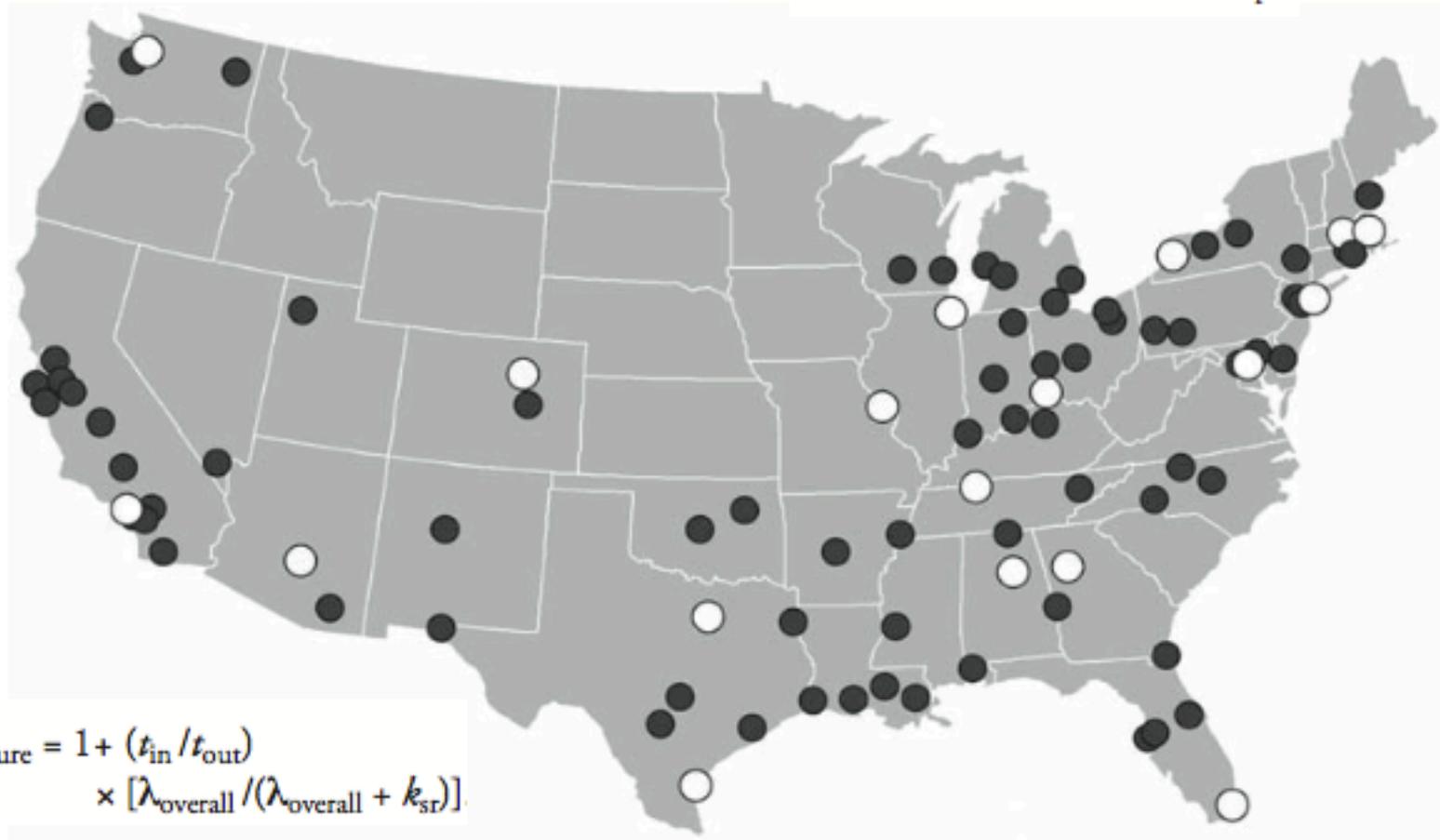
$$\left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{total} = f_{windows_closed} \left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{windows_closed} + f_{windows_open} \left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{windows_open} + f_{AC_on} \left\{ \frac{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{in}}{\Delta[PM_{10}]_{out}} \right\}_{AC_on} = \beta_{exp}$$



Strong correlations suggest indoor exposures are an important component to outdoor PM exposure

Indoor exposure to outdoor O₃ and short-term mortality

$$\Delta[\text{O}_3]_{\text{in}} = [\lambda_{\text{overall}} / (\lambda_{\text{overall}} + k_{\text{sr}})] 10 \text{ ppb} \quad \lambda_{\text{overall}} = \lambda_{\text{infiltr}} + (x)(1-y) \lambda_{\text{open}}$$



$$\Delta\text{O}_3_{\text{exposure}} = 1 + (t_{\text{in}} / t_{\text{out}}) \times [\lambda_{\text{overall}} / (\lambda_{\text{overall}} + k_{\text{sr}})]$$

Figure 1. Location of the 18 NMMAPS cities for which detailed modeled infiltration rates were available (open circles) and the 72 additional NMMAPS cities included in the extended analysis (filled circles).

Indoor exposure to outdoor O₃ and short-term mortality

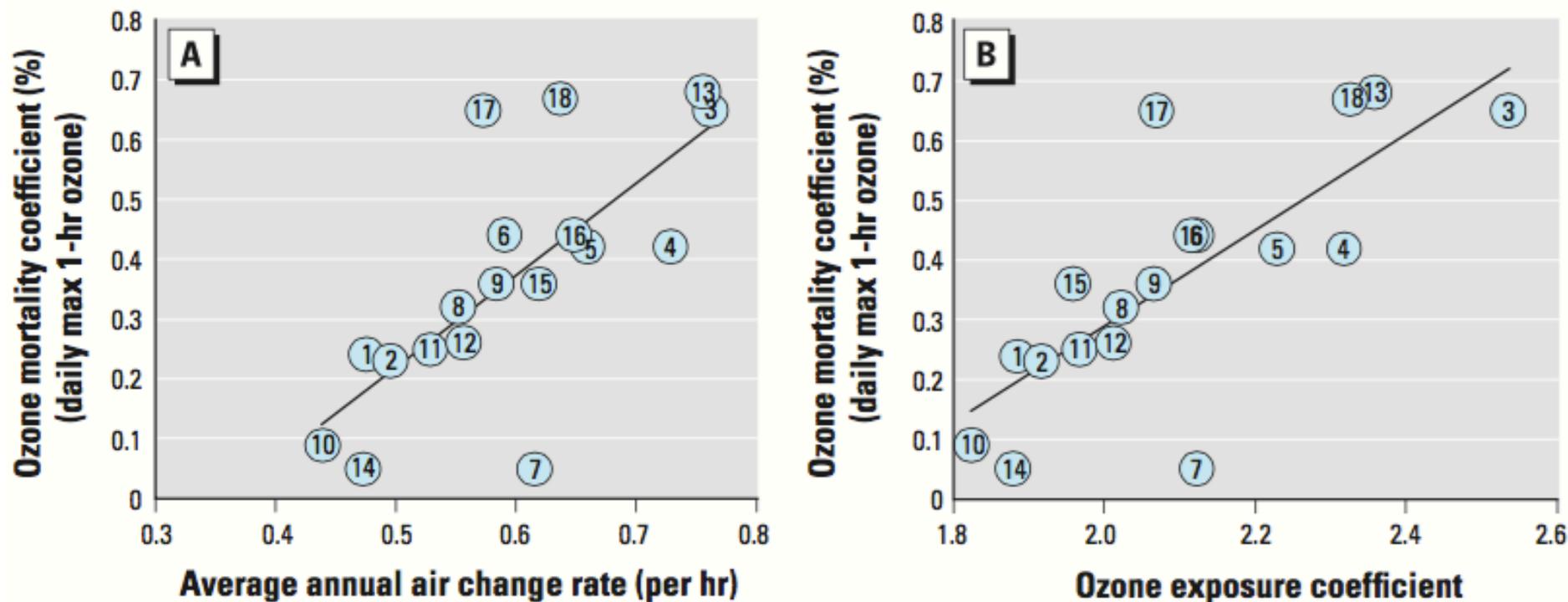


Figure 2. For the 18 NMMAPS cities for which detailed modeled infiltration rates were available, ozone mortality coefficients versus (A) average annual air change rates ($y = 1.54x - 0.55$, $R^2 = 0.51$), and (B) ozone exposure coefficients ($y = 0.81x - 1.32$, $R^2 = 0.58$). Ozone mortality coefficients based on daily maximum (max) 1-hr ozone. Numbers within circles refer to numbers listed in the first column of Table 1.

OTHER INDOOR AIR EPIDEMIOLOGY STUDIES

Association between gas cooking and respiratory disease in children

Gas stoves

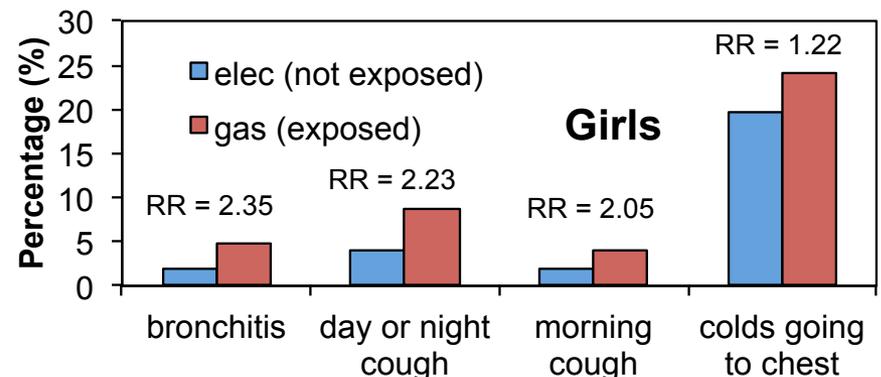
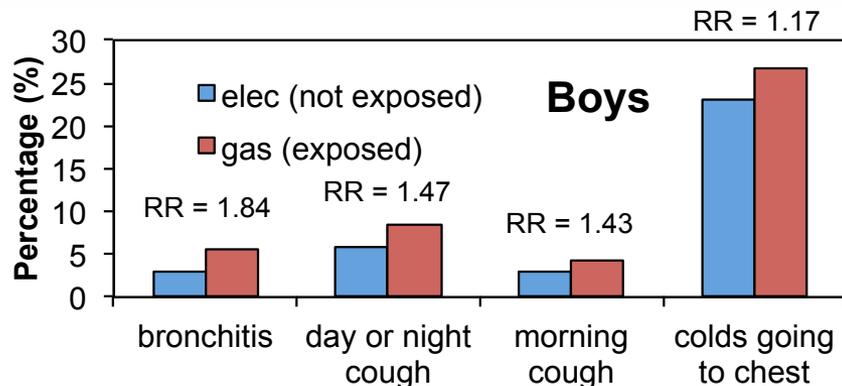
Melia et al., *British Medical Journal* 1977, 2, 149-152

- Four year longitudinal study of the prevalence of respiratory symptoms and disease in almost 6000 6-11 year old school children
 - Children from homes in which gas was used for cooking were found to have more cough, “colds going to the chest,” and bronchitis than children from homes where electricity was used

TABLE 1—Prevalence (%) of respiratory symptoms and diseases during last 12 months in boys and girls according to type of fuel used for cooking in the home

Symptoms and diseases	Boys			Girls		
	Electricity	Gas	P*	Electricity	Gas	P*
Bronchitis	3.1	5.7	<0.001	2.0	4.7	<0.001
Day or night cough	5.8	8.5	<0.007	3.9	8.7	<0.001
Morning cough	3.0	4.3	<0.07	2.0	4.1	<0.001
Colds going to chest	23.0	26.8	<0.02	19.8	24.1	<0.006
Wheeze	10.3	11.2	≈ 0.5	5.7	8.6	<0.005
Asthma	1.8	2.7	≈ 0.2	1.0	1.6	≈ 0.2
No of children	1648	1274		1556	1280	

*Probability value for difference between prevalence rates, χ^2 test.



Respiratory Symptoms in Children and Indoor Exposure to Nitrogen Dioxide and Gas Stoves

Gas stoves

Garrett et al., *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care. Med.* 1998, 158, 891-895

- NO₂ measured in 80 homes in Australia using passive samplers
 - 148 children 7-14 years old were recruited (53 had asthma)
 - Indoor median NO₂ concentrations were 6 ppb (max 128 ppb)
 - Respiratory symptoms were more common in children exposed to a gas stove (OR = 2.3) after adjustments for parental allergy, parental asthma, and gender
 - NO₂ exposure was a marginal risk factor for respiratory symptoms
 - Gas stove was still a risk factor after accounting for NO₂
 - What does that mean?

Respiratory Symptom	% of Children	Gas Stove Exposure		Bedroom NO ₂	
		OR*	95% CI	OR*	95% CI
Cough	59	2.25	1.13–4.49	1.47	0.99–2.18
Shortness of breath	31	1.49	0.72–3.08	1.23	0.92–1.64
Waking short of breath	17	1.01	0.42–2.45	1.04	0.71–1.53
Wheeze	24	1.79	0.80–3.99	1.15	0.85–1.54
Asthma attacks	23	1.73	0.77–3.90	1.06	0.77–1.46
Chest tightness	13	3.11	1.07–9.05	1.12	0.81–1.56
Cough in the morning	24	1.42	0.63–3.19	1.25	0.92–1.69
Chest tightness in morning	14	1.10	0.42–2.88	1.32	0.95–1.84

* Adjusted for parental asthma, parental allergy, and sex.

A cross-sectional study of the association between ventilation of gas stoves and chronic respiratory illness in U.S. children enrolled in NHANESIII
Kile et al., *Environmental Health* 2014, 13, 71

- The Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey was used to identify U.S. children aged 2–16 years with information on respiratory outcomes (asthma, wheeze, and bronchitis) who lived in homes where gas stoves were used in the previous 12 months and whose parents provided information on ventilation. Logistic regression models evaluated the association between prevalent respiratory outcomes and ventilation in homes that used gas stoves for cooking and/or heating. Linear regression models assessed the association between spirometry measurements and ventilation use in children aged 8–16 years.

Table 2 Adjusted Odds ratios and 95% confidence intervals for the association between respiratory illnesses in children aged 2–16 years who live in households that use gas stove with ventilation compared to households that use gas stoves without ventilation (Model 1)

Ventilation of gas stove	Ever diagnosed with asthma ^a (N = 5,745)		Wheeze in past 12 months ^b (N = 5,744)		Ever diagnosed with bronchitis ^c (N = 7,255)	
	No. cases	OR (95% CI)	No. cases	OR (95% CI)	No. cases	OR (95% CI)
No	269	1 Ref.	561	1 Ref.	188	1 Ref.
Yes	224	0.64 (0.43, 0.97)*	458	0.60 (0.42, 0.86)*	128	0.60 (0.37, 0.95)*

*P-value <0.05.

^aAdjusted for age group, sex, parental history of asthma or hay fever, and furry or feathery pets in the house, household income < \$20,000, and BMI percentiles for age.

^bAdjusted for age group, parental history of asthma or hay fever, furry or feathery pets in the house, indoor tobacco smoke, race-ethnicity, household income < \$20,000, and BMI percentile for age.

^cAdjusted for age group, parental history of asthma or hay fever, indoor tobacco smoke, race-ethnicity, household income < \$20,000, and census region.

“One-second forced expiratory volume (FEV₁) and FEV₁/FVC ratio was also higher in girls who lived in households that used gas stoves with ventilation compared to households that used gas stoves without ventilation.”

Association of domestic exposure to volatile organic compounds with asthma in young children

Rumchev et al., *Thorax* 2004, 59, 746-751

- Population based case-control study conducted in Perth, Australia
 - Children 6 months to 3 years of age (cases = 88; controls = 104)
 - Cases had asthma; controls did not
 - Housing questionnaires were given and indoor VOCs were measured

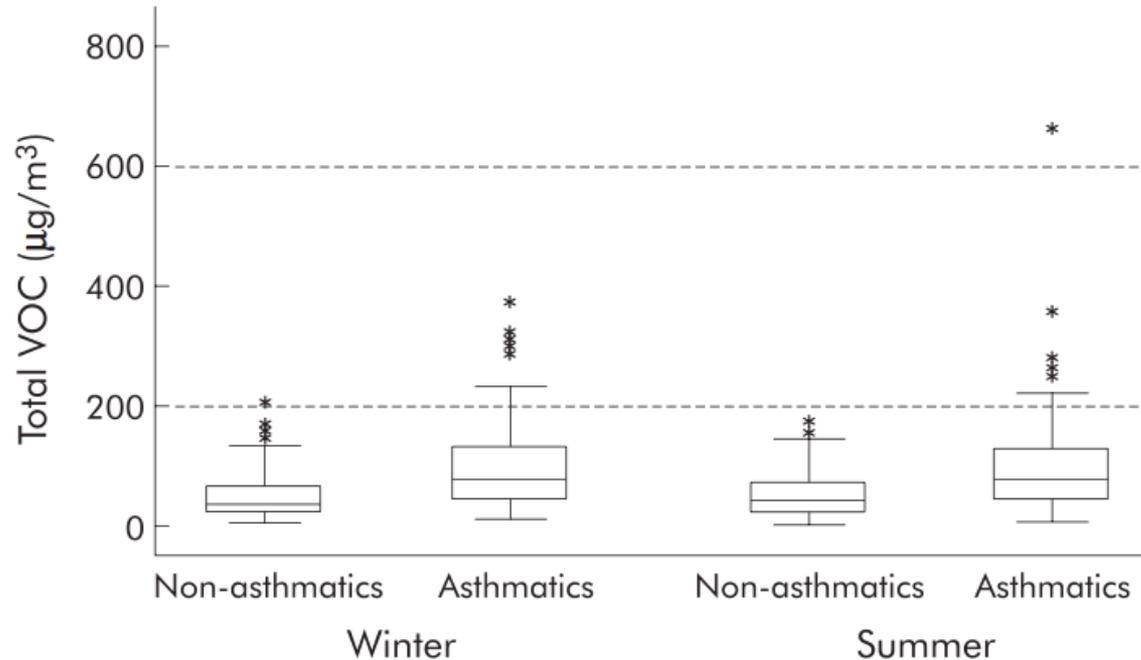


Figure 1 Seasonal differences in exposure levels to total volatile organic compounds (VOCs, $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for asthmatic and non-asthmatic children.

Association of domestic exposure to volatile organic compounds with asthma in young children

Rumchev et al., *Thorax* 2004, 59, 746-751

- Cases had significantly higher VOC levels than controls ($p < 0.01$)
 - Highest odds ratios were benzene > ethylbenzene > toluene

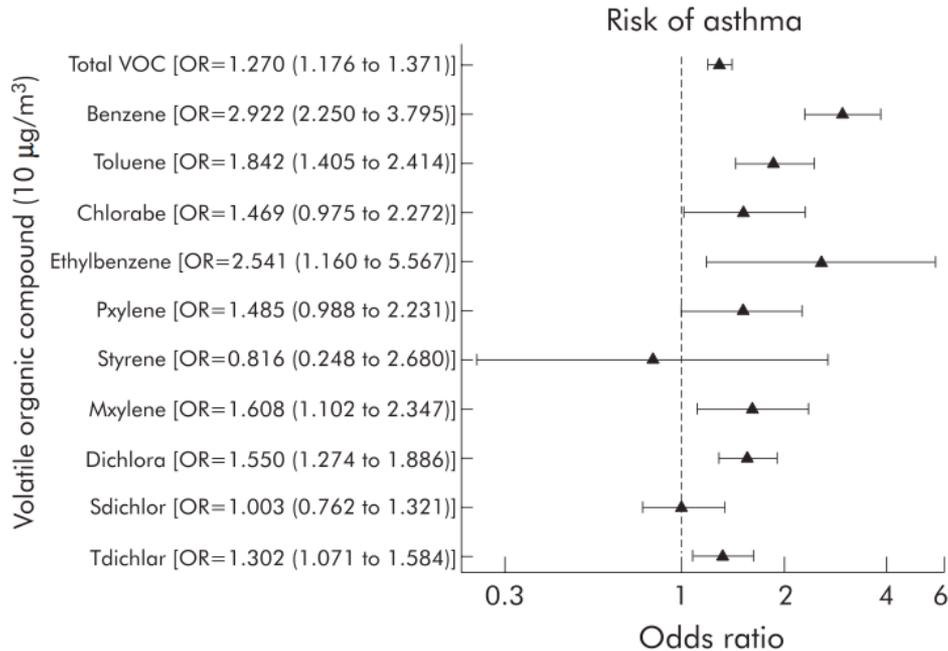


Figure 3 Adjusted odds ratio with $\pm 95\%$ confidence intervals for the risk of asthma with each 10 mg increase in exposure to VOCs.

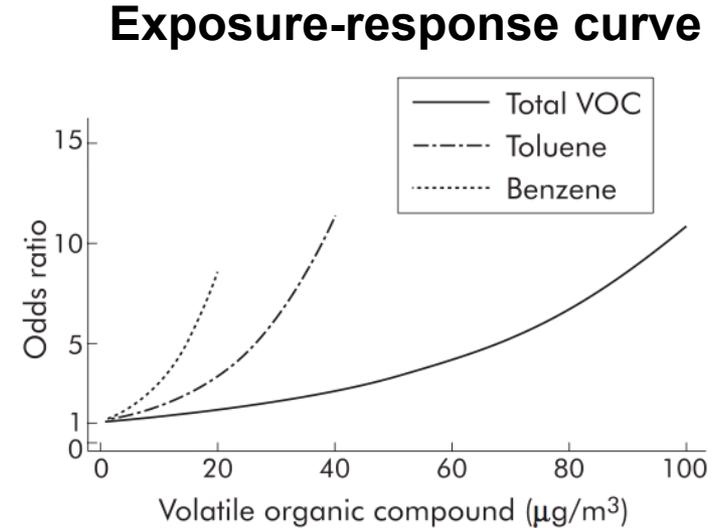


Figure 2 Asthma in young children associated with exposure to indoor volatile organic compounds ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$): odds ratios adjusted for age, sex, atopy, socioeconomic status, smoking indoors, air conditioning, house dust mites, and gas appliances.

- Frequency of use of 11 chemical based domestic products was determined via questionnaires completed by women during pregnancy
 - Given a “total chemical burden” score (TCB)
- Four wheezing patterns were defined for the period from baby’s birth to 42 months of age (never, transient early, persistent, late onset)
- 13971 children tracked; completely data for 7019 children

Fifteen product categories were included in the questionnaire and, from this initial list, we selected the 11 most frequently used (by at least 5% of the study sample). The products chosen (and the percentages of women using them) were: disinfectant (87.4%), bleach (84.8%), carpet cleaner (35.8%), window cleaner (60.5%), dry cleaning fluid (5.4%), aerosols (71.7%), turpentine/white spirit (22.6%), air fresheners (spray, stick or aerosol) (68%), paint stripper (5.5%), paint or varnish (32.9%), and pesticides/insect killers (21.2%). A simple score for frequency of use of each product was derived (0 = not at all, 1 = less than once a week, 2 = about once a week, 3 = most days, 4 = every day) and the scores for each product were summed to produce a total chemical burden (TCB) score for each respondent which could range from 0 (no exposure) to 55 (exposed to all 11 products daily).

Frequent use of chemical household products is associated with persistent wheezing in pre-school age children

Sherriff et al., *Thorax* 2005, 60, 45-49

Use of cleaning products

Table 1 Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for wheezing phenotypes* (transient early wheeze, persistent wheeze, and late onset wheeze (0–42 months)) according to total chemical burden (TCB) score measured during pregnancy (continuous)

Wheezing phenotype	% (N)	Unadjusted OR (95% CI) (N = 7019)	Unadjusted p value	Adjusted OR** (95% CI) (N = 5691)	Adjusted p value
Never wheezed	71.2 (5001)	1 (reference)		1 (reference)	
Transient early wheeze	19.1 (1340)	1.02 (1.00 to 1.03)	0.04	1.01 (0.99 to 1.02)	0.6
Persistent wheeze	6.2 (432)	1.08 (1.05 to 1.11)	<0.0001	1.06 (1.03 to 1.09)	0.0001
Late onset wheeze	3.5 (246)	1.02 (0.99 to 1.05)	0.2	1.02 (0.98 to 1.06)	0.3

*Never wheezed 0–42 months. Transient early wheeze: wheeze 0–6 months and no wheeze 6–42 months. Persistent wheeze: wheeze 6–18 months, 18–30 months and 30–42 months. Late onset wheeze: wheeze onset 30–42 months.

**Adjusted for weekend exposure to environmental tobacco smoke at 6 months, maternal smoking during pregnancy, maternal history of asthma, maternal parity, crowding in the home, sex, contact with pets, damp housing, maternal age at delivery, maternal educational attainment, housing tenure, hours mother worked outside home, month of returning chemical usage questionnaire, and duration of breastfeeding.

Table 2 Unadjusted and adjusted odds ratios (ORs) and 95% confidence intervals (CIs) for wheezing phenotypes* (transient early wheeze, persistent wheeze, and late onset wheeze (0–42 months)) according to total chemical burden (TCB) score measured during pregnancy (bottom decile versus top decile)

Wheezing phenotype	Bottom decile of TCB % (N)	Top decile of TCB % (N)	Unadjusted OR (95% CI) (N = 7019)	Unadjusted p value	Adjusted OR** (95% CI) (N = 5691)	Adjusted p value
Never wheezed	74.9 (603)	66.9 (338)	1 (reference)		1 (reference)	
Transient early wheeze	18.8 (151)	19.0 (96)	1.13 (0.90 to 1.50)	0.4	0.94 (0.60 to 1.40)	0.7
Persistent wheeze	4.0 (32)	10.1 (51)	2.84 (1.79 to 4.51)	<0.0001	2.30 (1.20 to 4.39)	0.012
Late onset wheeze	2.4 (19)	4.0 (20)	1.88 (0.99 to 3.57)	0.05	2.02 (0.80 to 5.15)	0.14

*Never wheezed 0–42 months. Transient early wheeze: wheeze 0–6 months and no wheeze 6–42 months. Persistent wheeze: wheeze 6–18 months, 18–30 months and 30–42 months. Late onset wheeze: wheeze onset 30–42 months.

**Adjusted for weekend exposure to environmental tobacco smoke at 6 months, maternal smoking during pregnancy, maternal history of asthma, maternal parity, crowding in the home, sex, contact with pets, damp housing, maternal age at delivery, maternal educational attainment, housing tenure, hours mother worked outside home, month of returning chemical usage questionnaire, and duration of breastfeeding.

Zock et al., *Am. J. Respir. Crit. Care. Med.* 2007, 176, 735-741

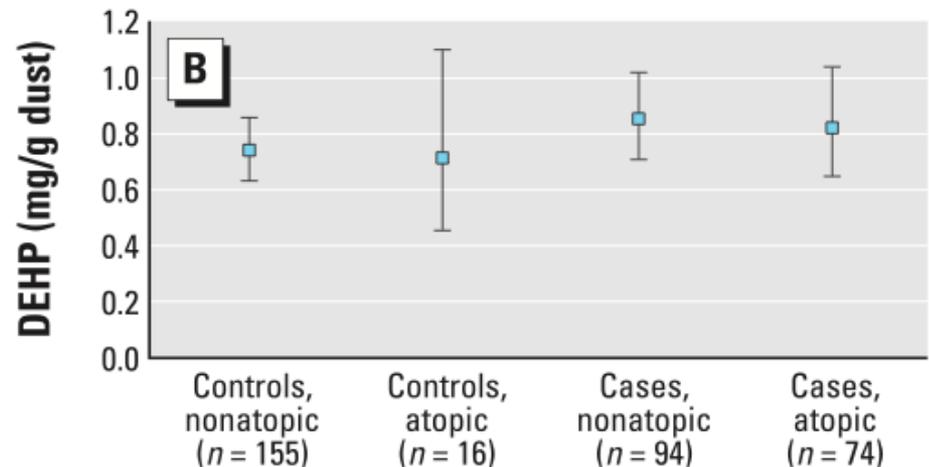
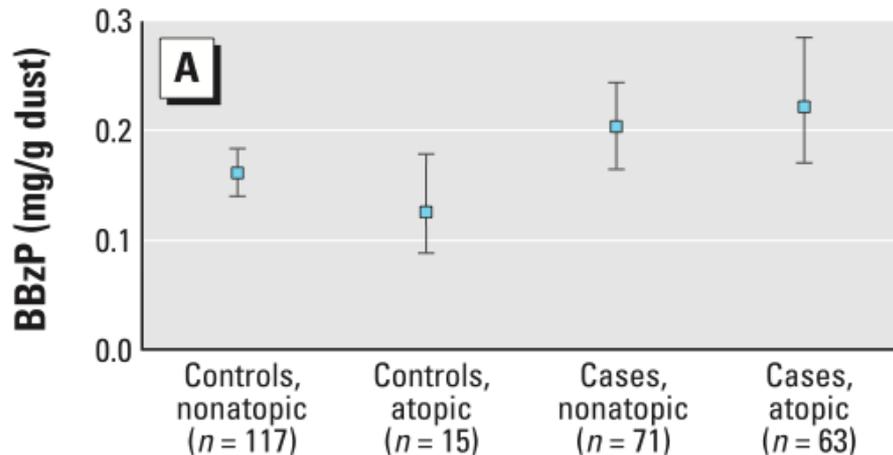
- Identified 3503 people in 10 countries who do the cleaning in their homes and who were free of asthma at the beginning of the study
- Frequency of use of 15 types of cleaning products was obtained by interview
- Tracked incidence of asthma
- Use of cleaning sprays at least weekly (42% of participants) was associated with asthma symptoms or medication use (RR = 1.49) and wheeze (RR = 1.39)
 - Asthma was higher among those using sprays at least 4 days per week (RR = 2.11)
 - Highest risks for glass-cleaning, furniture, and air-freshener sprays
 - Non-spray-form products were not associated

What about SVOCs?

The Association between Asthma and Allergic Symptoms in Children and Phthalates in House Dust: A Nested Case–Control Study

Bornehag et al., *Environ. Health Perspect.* 2004, 112, 1393-1397

- Cohort of 10852 children
 - 198 cases with persistent allergic symptoms
 - 202 controls without symptoms
- Measured phthalate concentrations in house dust
- BBzP (butyl benzyl phthalate) was higher in cases than controls
 - Associated with rhinitis (stuffy/runny nose) and eczema (inflammation of skin)
- DEHP was associated with asthma



SVOCs and thyroid function

Relationship between Urinary Phthalate and Bisphenol A Concentrations and Serum Thyroid Measures in U.S. Adults and Adolescents from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 2007–2008

- Analysis of urinary biomarker data of exposure to phthalates (DEHP, DBP) and BPA for 1346 adults and 329 adolescents using the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES)
 - Compared to serum thyroid measures
- Found significant relationships between phthalates (and possibly BPA) and altered thyroid hormones
 - These hormones play important roles in fetal and child growth and brain development, as well as metabolism, energy balance, and other functions in the nervous, cardiovascular, pulmonary, and reproductive systems

Ventilation rates and health

Association between ventilation rates in 390 Swedish homes and allergic symptoms in children

Bornehag et al., *Indoor Air* 2005

- Same cases (198) and controls (202) from before
- Compared symptoms and diagnoses to AER measurements
 - Cases had significantly **lower** ventilation rates

Table 3 Differences in mean ventilation rate between cases and controls in different groups of buildings

Type of buildings	Cases	Controls	P-value	
			t-test	Mann–Whitney U
Single-family houses (n)	161	172		
Mean ach in total building (n)	0.34 (161)	0.38 (169)	0.025	0.014
Ach in child's bedroom (n)	0.32 (158)	0.37 (166)	0.020	0.011
Chain houses (n)	12	11		
Mean ach in total building (n)	0.37	0.32	0.627	0.622
Ach in child's bedroom (n)	0.40	0.33	0.412	0.712
Multi-family houses (n)	25	19		
Mean ach in total building (n)	0.49 (25)	0.47 (18)	0.793	1.000
Ach in child's bedroom (n)	0.50 (23)	0.52 (17)	0.807	0.967
All types of building (n)	198	202		
Mean ach in total building (n)	0.36 (198)	0.39 (198)	0.126	0.053
Ach in child's bedroom (n)	0.34 (193)	0.38 (194)	0.099	0.068

Significant difference was ~14% lower ACH in cases than controls

HVAC systems and health

Risk factors in heating, ventilating, and air-conditioning systems for occupant symptoms in US office buildings: the US EPA

BASE study

Mendell et al., *Indoor Air* 2008

- ‘Building-related symptoms’ in office workers were assessed in 97 air-conditioned office buildings in the US
- A primary correlation between building symptoms and HVAC characteristics was:
 - Outdoor air intakes less than 60 m above ground level were associated with significant increases in most symptoms
 - For upper respiratory symptoms, OR for intake heights were:
 - <30 m: OR = 2.0
 - 30-60 m: OR = 2.7
 - Below ground: OR = 2.1
 - Above 60 m: OR = 1.0
 - Poorly maintained humidification systems and infrequent cleaning of cooling coils and drain pans were also associated
 - What does this suggest?

A NOTE ON CARCINOGENS

Weight of evidence categories

- There are several categories of ratings for human carcinogens
- A: Human carcinogen
 - Good epi data
 - Very few of these
- B: probable human carcinogen
 - B1 = limited epi data
 - B2 = inadequate epi but good non-human data
- C: possible human carcinogen
 - No epi data
 - Limited non-human animal
- D: not classified (inadequate data)
- E: evidence of non-carcinogenicity

Getting weight of evidence data

- EPA IRIS: Integrated Risk Information System
 - <http://www.epa.gov/IRIS/>

TABLE 4.9 Toxicity data for selected potential carcinogens

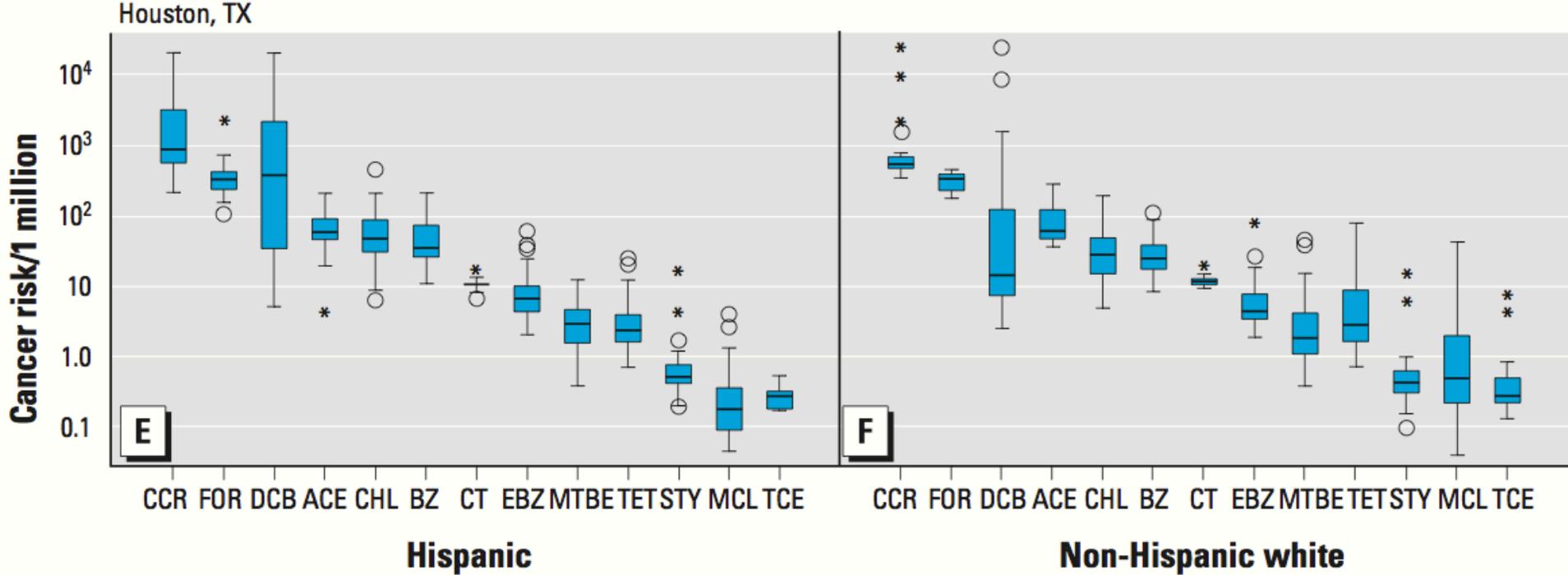
Chemical	Category	Potency factor oral route (mg/kg-day) ⁻¹	Potency factor inhalation route (mg/kg-day) ⁻¹
Arsenic	A	1.75	50
Benzene	A	2.9×10^{-2}	2.9×10^{-2}
Benzol(a)pyrene	B2	11.5	6.11
Cadmium	B1	—	6.1
Carbon tetrachloride	B2	0.13	—
Chloroform	B2	6.1×10^{-3}	8.1×10^{-2}
Chromium VI	A	—	41
DDT	B2	0.34	—
1,1-Dichloroethylene	C	0.58	1.16
Dieldrin	B2	30	—
Heptachlor	B2	3.4	—
Hexachloroethane	C	1.4×10^{-2}	—
Methylene chloride	B2	7.5×10^{-3}	1.4×10^{-2}
Nickel and compounds	A	—	1.19
Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs)	B2	7.7	—
2,3,7,8-TCDD (dioxin)	B2	1.56×10^5	—
Tetrachloroethylene	B2	5.1×10^{-2}	$1.0 - 3.3 \times 10^{-3}$
1,1,1-Trichloroethane (1,1,1-TCA)	D	—	—
Trichloroethylene (TCE)	B2	1.1×10^{-2}	1.3×10^{-2}
Vinyl chloride	A	2.3	0.295

Source: U.S. EPA <http://www.epa.gov/iris>.

Cancer Risk Disparities between Hispanic and Non-Hispanic White Populations: The Role of Exposure to Indoor Air Pollution

Hun et al., *Environ Health Persp* 2009

METHODS: We estimated the personal exposure and cancer risk of Hispanic and white adults who participated in the Relationships of Indoor, Outdoor, and Personal Air (RIOPA) study. We evaluated 12 of the sampled volatile organic compounds and carbonyls and identified the HAPs of most concern and their possible sources. Furthermore, we examined sociodemographic factors and building characteristics.



CONCLUSIONS: Hispanics appear to be disproportionately affected by certain HAPs from indoor and outdoor sources. Policies that aim to reduce risk from exposure to HAPs for the entire population and population subgroups should consider indoor air pollution.

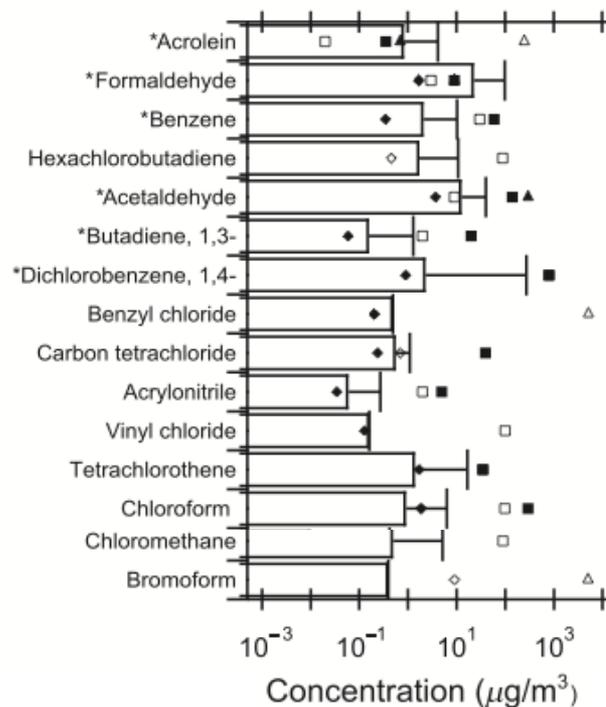
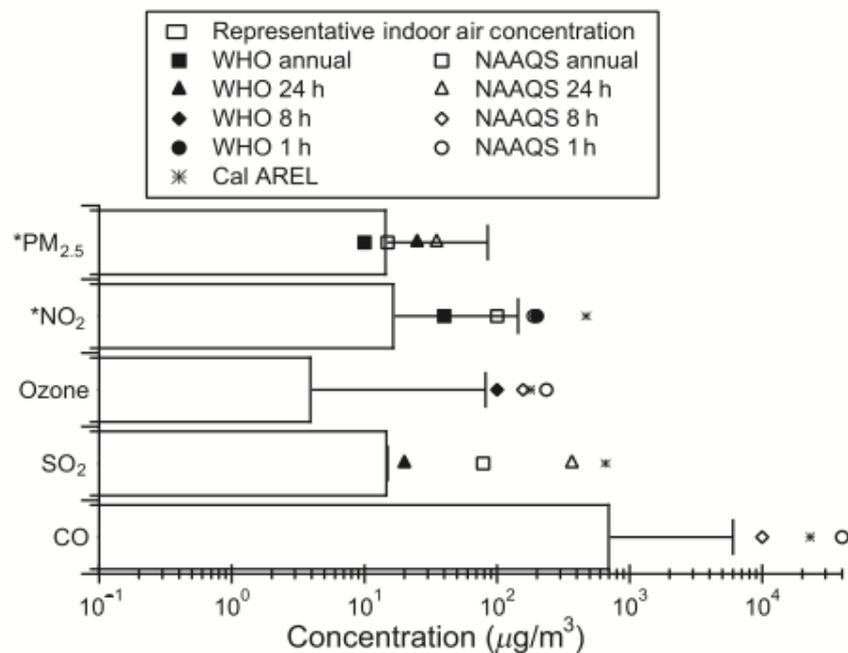
LINKING INDOOR AIR AND EPIDEMIOLOGY

Hazard assessment of chemical air contaminants measured in residences

Logue et al., *Indoor Air* 2010

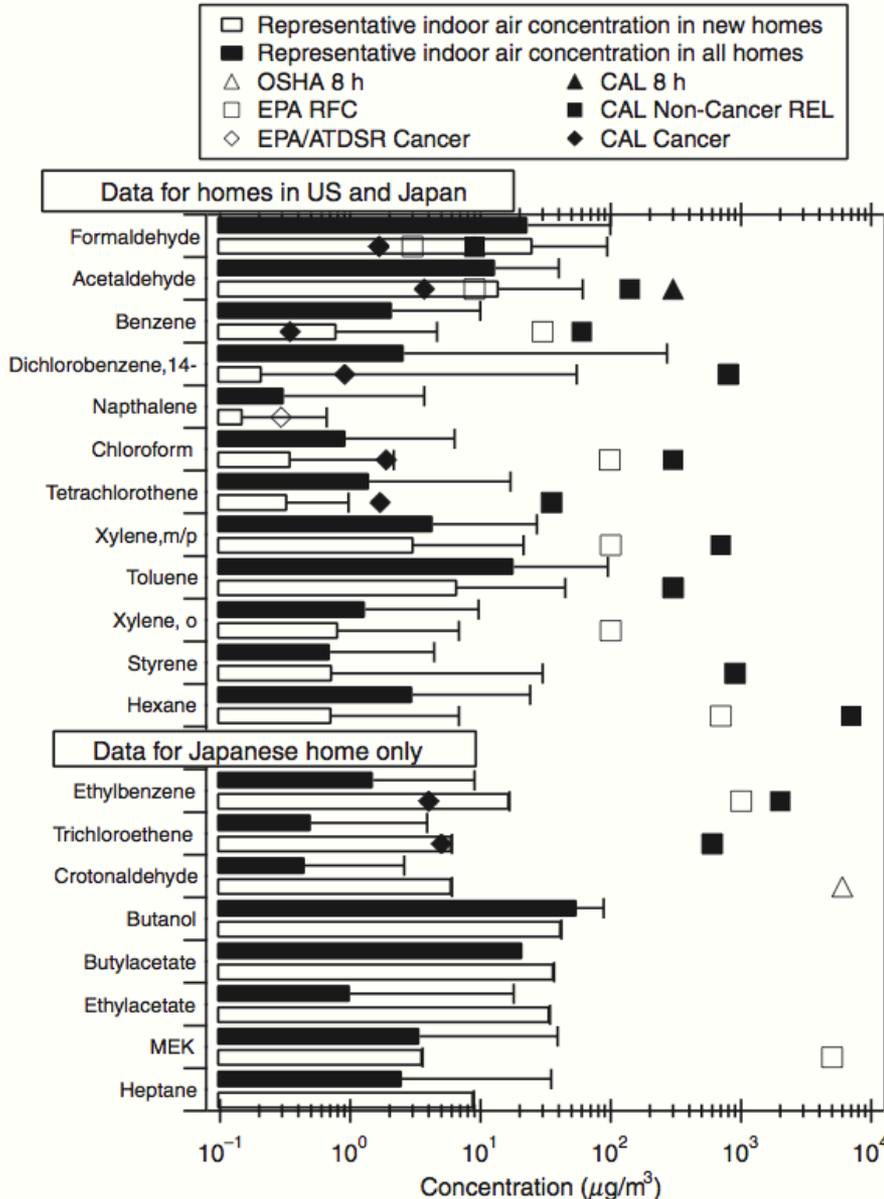
Table 1 Publications with chronic exposure-relevant concentrations

Study	Sample Period	Location: city, country or US State	US homes	New homes	Criteria pollutants	VOCs	Aldehyde	SVOCs	Metals	Number of samples
1 Topp et al. (2004)	2 weeks	Hamburg/Erfurt, Germany			N	X				2524
2 Park and Ikeda (2006)	24 h	Japan		X		X	X			2151
3 Geyh et al. (2000)	6 months	Upland, CA, USA	X		O					1980
4 Rehwagen et al. (2003)	4 weeks	Leipzig, Germany				X		X		1499
5 Garcia-Algar et al. (2003)	7–15 days	UK, Spain			N					1438
6 Williams et al. (2009)	5 days	Detroit, MI, USA	X		P					973
7 Lee et al. (1998)	48 h	Boston, MA, USA	X		N					942
8 Raw et al. (2004)	2 weeks	England, UK			N, C					812
9 Levy (1998)	48 h	Various Cities, North America, Europe, Asia	X		N					617



Hazard assessment of chemical air contaminants measured in residences

Logue et al., *Indoor Air* 2010



“Fifteen pollutants appear to exceed chronic health standards in a large fraction of homes. Nine other pollutants are identified as potential chronic health hazards in a substantial minority of homes, and an additional nine are identified as potential hazards in a very small percentage of homes. Nine pollutants are identified as priority hazards based on the robustness of measured concentration data and the fraction of residences that appear to be impacted: acetaldehyde; acrolein; benzene; 1,3-butadiene; 1,4-dichlorobenzene; formaldehyde; naphthalene; nitrogen dioxide; and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. Activity-based emissions are shown to pose potential acute health hazards for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, formaldehyde, CO, chloroform, and NO_2 .”

A Method to Estimate the Chronic Health Impact of Air Pollutants in U.S. Residences

Logue et al., *Environ Health Persp* 2012

$$DALY_{\text{disease}} = YLL_{\text{disease}} + YLD_{\text{disease}}$$

$$DALY_s = (\partial DALY_s / \partial \text{disease incidence}) \times \text{disease incidence.}$$

Intake-incidence-DALY approach

$$\Delta \text{Incidence} = -\{y_0 \times [\exp(-\beta \Delta C_{\text{exposure}}) - 1]\} \times \text{population,}$$

$$\Delta C_{\text{exposure}} = 0.7 C_{\text{indoors}}$$

Intake-DALY approach

$$DALY_s = (\partial DALY / \partial \text{disease incidence}) \times (\partial \text{disease incidence} / \partial \text{intake}) \times \text{intake,}$$

$$DALY_{s_i} = (\partial DALY / \partial \text{intake}) \times \text{intake,}$$

$$DALY_{s_i} = C_i \times V \times [(\partial DALY_{\text{cancer}} / \partial \text{intake})_i \times \text{ADAF} + (\partial DALY_{\text{noncancer}} / \partial \text{intake})_i],$$

Table 1. Pollutants included in analysis and assumed population-average concentrations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

Pollutant	Concentration	Pollutant	Concentration
1,1,2,2-Tetrachloroethane	0.42	Cyclohexane	5.2
1,1,2-Trichloroethane	0.46	Di(2-ethylhexyl) adipate	1.6×10^{-2}
1,1-Dichloroethene	1.2	Dibenzo[a,c+h]anthracene	1.4×10^{-5}
1,2-Dibromoethane	0.14	Dibromochloromethane	0.44
1,2-Dichloroethane	0.34	<i>d</i> -Limonene	23
1,3-Butadiene	0.46	Ethanol	860
1,4-Dichlorobenzene	50	Ethylbenzene	3.9
2-Butoxyethanol	2.6	Formaldehyde	69
2-Ethylhexanol	3.7	Hexachlorobutadiene	1.7
2-Ethoxyethanol	0.43	Hexane	7.3
2-Methoxyethanol	0.12	Isopropylbenzene	0.4
Acetaldehyde	22	Manganese	3.3×10^{-3}
Acrolein	2.3	Methyl ethyl ketone	7.4
Acrylonitrile	0.27	Mercury	1.6×10^{-4}
Ammonia	28	Methyl methacrylate	0.27
Arsenic	9.8×10^{-4}	Methylene chloride	8.2
Atrazine	5.9×10^{-4}	Methyl isobutyl ketone	1.2
Benzaldehyde	2.5	Methyl <i>tert</i> -butyl ether	12
Benzene	2.5	Naphthalene	1.2
Benzo[a]pyrene	9.1×10^{-5}	NO ₂	13.1
Benzyl chloride	0.5	<i>o</i> -Phenylphenol	0.13
Beryllium	1.6×10^{-6}	Ozone	17.2
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate	0.14	Pentachlorophenol	2.9×10^{-3}
Bromodichloromethane	0.49	PM _{2.5}	15.9
Bromoform	0.39	Styrene	5.9
Cadmium	2.6×10^{-3}	SO ₂	2.9
Carbon disulfide	0.34	Tetrachloroethene	1.7
CO	810	Tetrahydrofuran	15
Carbon tetrachloride	0.68	Toluene	2.3
Chlorobenzene	0.68	Trichloroethene	0.16
Chloroethane	0.26	Vinyl chloride	1.7
Chloroform	1.5	Xylene, <i>o</i>	8.2
Chloromethane	1.8	Xylene, <i>m/p</i>	9.7
Chromium	2.2×10^{-3}	Xylenes	7.4
Crotonaldehyde	4.7		

A Method to Estimate the Chronic Health Impact of Air Pollutants in U.S. Residences

Logue et al., *Environ Health Persp* 2012

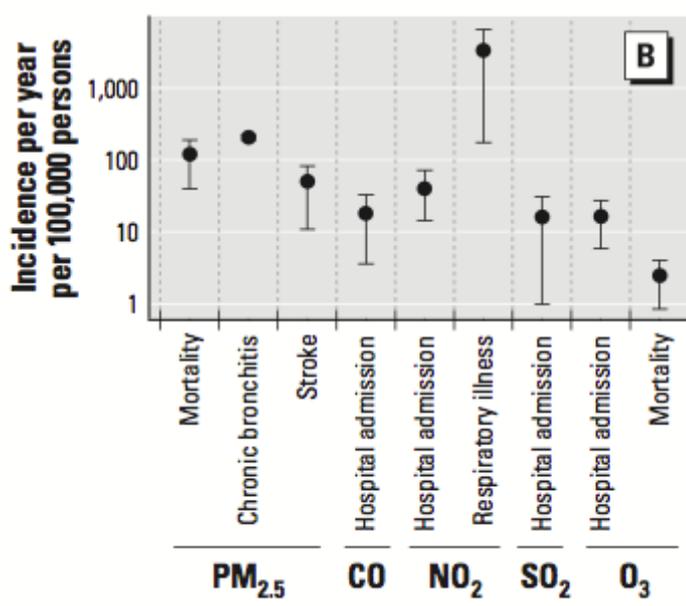
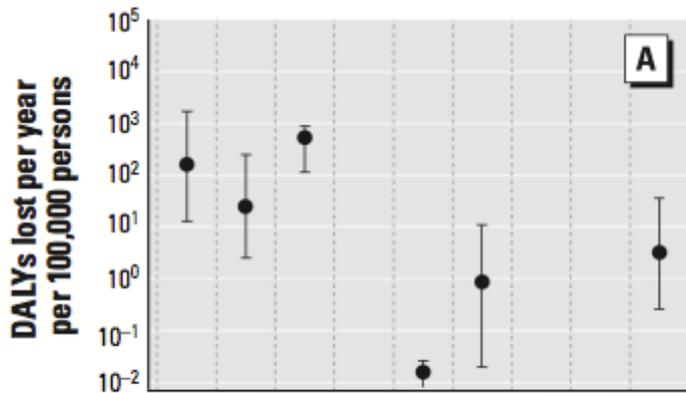
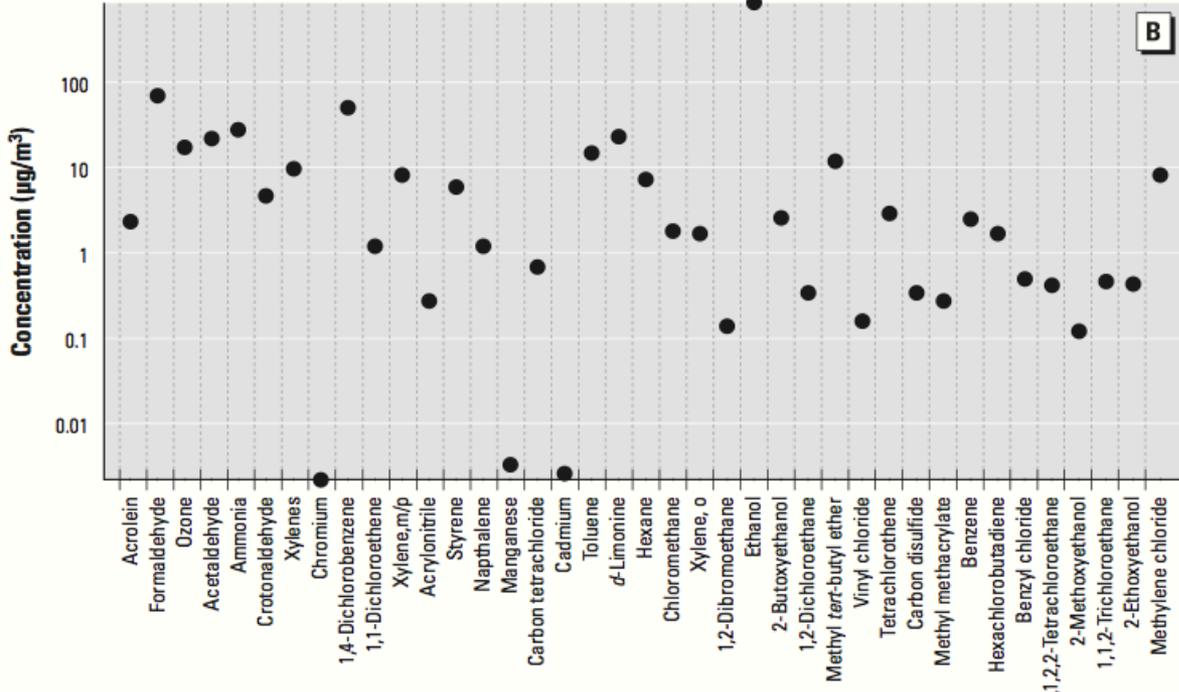
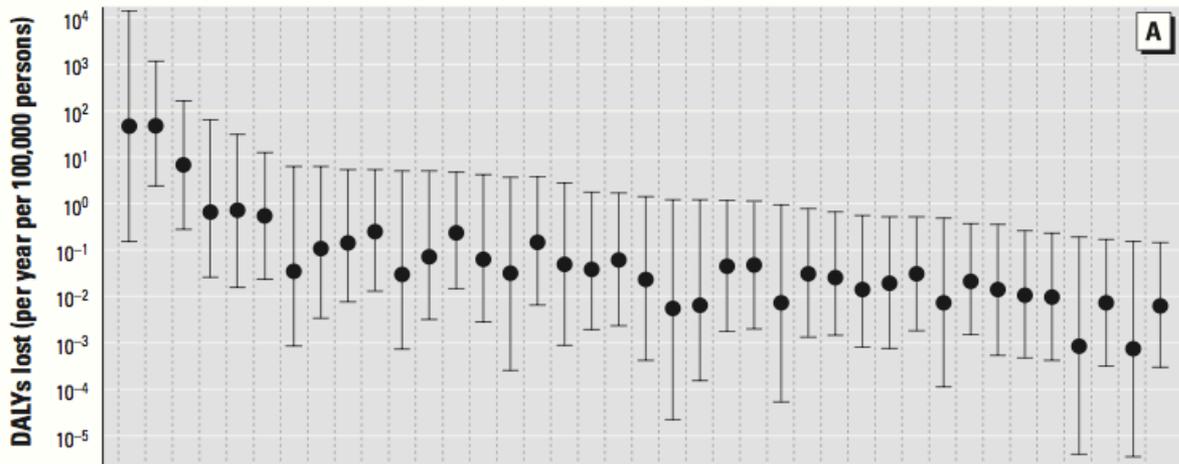
Table 2. Criteria pollutant C-R function outcomes and DALYs lost per incidence.

Pollutant	Outcome	β -Coefficient (95% CI)	γ_0	DALYs lost per incidence (95% CI)
PM _{2.5}	Total mortality (Pope et al. 2002)	0.058 (0.002, 0.010)	7.4×10^{-3}	1.4 (0.14, 14) (Pope 2007; Pope et al. 2002, 2009)
	Chronic bronchitis (Abbey et al. 1995)	0.091 (0.078, 0.105)	0.4×10^{-3}	1.2 (0.12, 12) (Lvovsky et al. 2000; Melse et al. 2010)
	Nonfatal stroke (Brook et al. 2010)	0.025 (0.002, 0.048)	0.2×10^{-3}	0 complications: 9.5 (9.25, 9.75) 1 complication: 11.7 (11.1, 12.4) > 1 complication: 13.1 (12.2, 14.0) (Hong et al. 2010)
CO	Hospital admissions (Burnett et al. 1999)			4×10^{-4} (Lvovsky et al. 2000)
	Asthma	0.033 (0.016, 0.050)	1.8×10^{-3}	
	Lung disease	0.025 (0.000, 0.057)	2.1×10^{-3}	
	Dysrhythmias	0.058 (0.012, 0.102)	2.4×10^{-3}	
	Heart failure	0.034 (0.002, 0.066)	3.4×10^{-3}	
NO ₂	Hospital admissions (Burnett et al. 1999)			4×10^{-4} (Lvovsky et al. 2000)
	Respiratory issues	0.004 (0.000, 0.008)	9.5×10^{-3}	
	Congestive heart failure	0.003 (0.001, 0.004)	3.4×10^{-3}	
	Ischemic heart disease	0.003 (0.002, 0.004)	8.0×10^{-3}	
	Respiratory illness, indicated by symptoms (Hasselblad et al. 1992)	0.028 (0.002, 0.053)	N/A	4×10^{-4} (Lvovsky et al. 2000)
Ozone	Mortality (Jerrett et al. 2010; Samet et al. 1997)	0.001 (0.000, 0.002)	7.7×10^{-3}	1.0 (0.1, 10) (Levy et al. 2001; Lvovsky et al. 2000)
	Hospital admissions (Burnett et al. 1999)			4×10^{-4} (Lvovsky et al. 2000)
	Asthma	0.003 (0.001, 0.004)	1.8×10^{-3}	
	Lung disease	0.003 (0.001, 0.005)	2.1×10^{-3}	
	Respiratory infection	0.002 (0.001, 0.003)	5.8×10^{-3}	
	Dysrhythmias	0.002 (0.000, 0.004)	2.4×10^{-3}	
SO ₂	Hospital admissions (Burnett et al. 1999)	0.002 (0.000, 0.003)	8.0×10^{-3}	4×10^{-4} (Lvovsky et al. 2000)

N/A, not applicable. γ_0 is the baseline prevalence of illness per year, and β is the coefficient of the concentration change used for inputs into Equation 3.

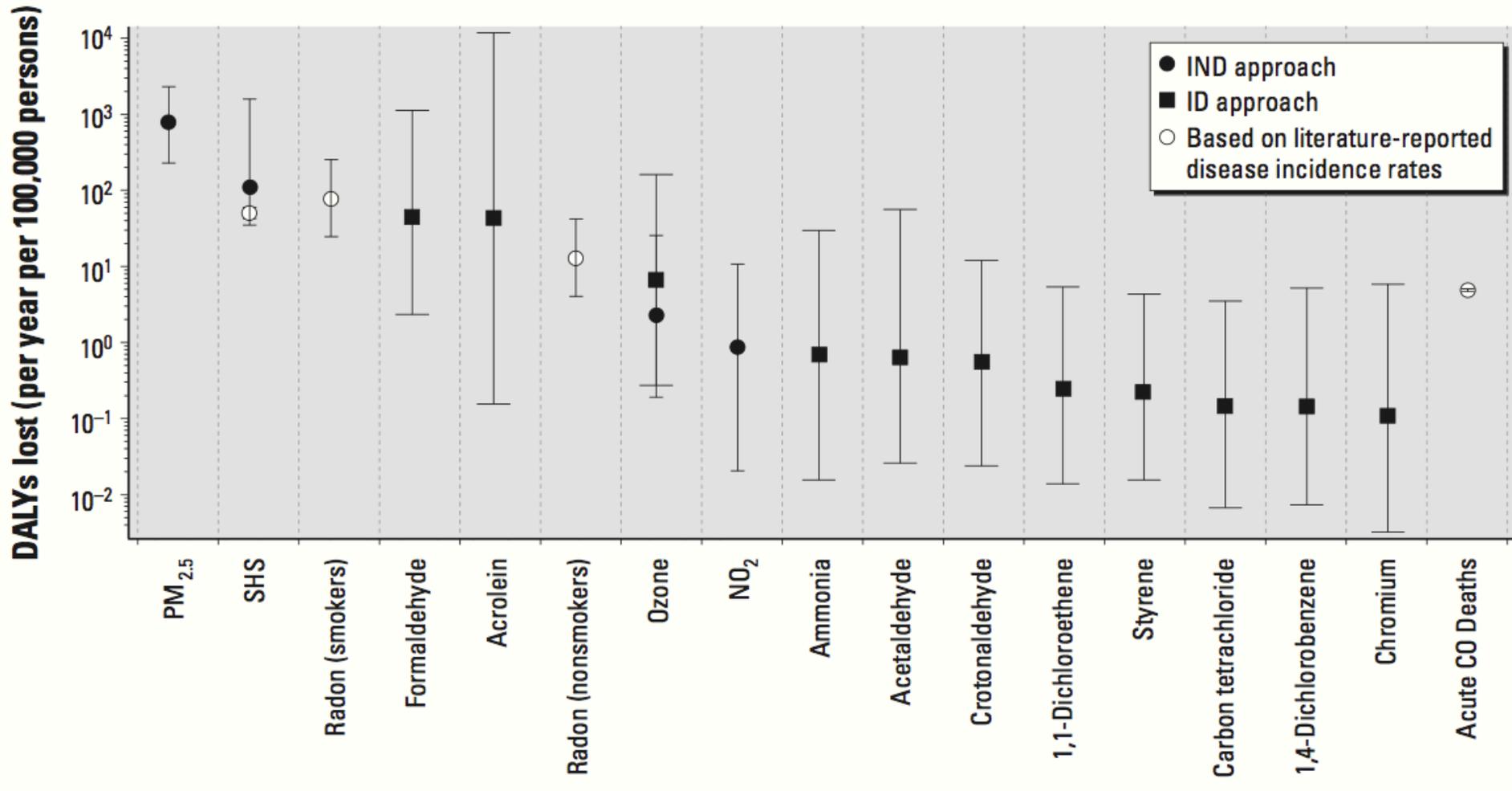
A Method to Estimate the Chronic Health Impact of Air Pollutants in U.S. Residences

Logue et al., *Environ Health Persp* 2012



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Summary

- We have **a lot** of information about adverse health effects and outdoor air pollution
 - Animal studies, cell level studies, epidemiology studies
- We have **much less** information about indoor air and adverse health effects
 - Most of this information suggests strong connections
- There are new methods/efforts to link epidemiology functions to indoor air pollutants to estimate health effects across the building stock
 - Including under changing conditions (e.g., ventilation, filtration, or source control)
 - Still a burgeoning field of study