Challenges on field monitoring of indoor air quality in china

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Abstract

Field monitoring is critical in the examination of indoor air quality (IAQ) which offers an integrated assessment of human exposure. A good measurement protocol includes appropriate methodologies and compliance of quality control and quality assurance procedures. In China, there has been a huge economic growth in the past 20 years and living standard for Chinese citizens has been improving with a rapid development in urban cities and infrastructures. With these developments, there have been a growth of increasing pollution sources, and IAQ has been a major concern to the government and many Chinese citizens with widespread reports of the coherent health impacts. However, the indoor monitoring in China is full of technical challenges. In this paper, we review the difficulties in conducting IAQ assessment in China. Techniques and practical consideration have been proposed accordingly.

Keywords

Indoor air quality, Field monitoring, China, Measurement protocols, Exposure

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Introduction

Indoor monitoring of air compounds (including inorganic and organic) is an ongoing challenge.¹ In addition to penetration from outdoor,² these compounds can be directly produced from various indoor sources such as cooking, incense burning, environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) and emissions from household products.^{3–5} Epidemiological studies report that many, classified as air toxins, can pose potential short- or long-term health impacts to humans.⁵ With characteristic physical and chemical properties, each of the air compounds has its own dynamic behaviours. Multiple factors can influence indoor air quality (IAQ), including quantities of direct emission sources, effectiveness of ventilation and filtration systems, and potential deposition/re-emission onto/ from indoor adhesive surfaces. In some circumstances, chemical reaction can play an important role in transformation of the air compounds with consequential effects on indoor environments.^{6–8}

Field monitoring is a direct and effective tool to measure levels and compositions of the air compounds, which is applied for source apportionment, health risk assessment and indoor air pollution management.⁹ Owing to sustainable and rapid growth in economy, more indoor and outdoor pollution sources are being produced in China. Meanwhile, the public are beginning to pay more attention to IAQ in their living areas and workplaces and are expressing concerns regarding the possible health effects. There is a need for a more 'joint-up' protocol in China for in situ monitoring of IAQ. However, there are many challenges that can be encountered in these field studies. Our research team has been conducting IAQ studies since 1990s and accumulated over 20 years of hands-on experiences in this

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subject. This paper discusses the difficulties and solutions for the field monitoring of IAQ in China.

Indoor sources and guidelines of air compounds

China has the largest population in the world, but the information for the important indoor air compounds is very limited or even missing (except in Hong Kong). Carbon dioxide (CO_2) and carbon monoxide (CO) are the two cases in point. CO₂ is one major combustion product from town gas, kerosene, and wood or coal fuelled appliances when they are in operation.¹⁰ Human respiration is also recognized as a crucial indoor source of CO₂. Both CO₂ and carbon monoxide (CO) can be emitted from fossil fuel burning and cigarette smoke as well. CO2, therefore, acts as a good indicator to evaluate indoor ventilation efficiency. Typical indoor CO₂ concentrations range between 700 and 2000 ppmv (approximately 3657 mg/m^3) but can exceed 3000 ppmv (5486 mg/m^3) during the use of unvented appliances.^{10,11} Gas stove is known as the major source of indoor NO₂. Ozone (O₃) may be generated indoors by photocopy machines, laser printers, ion-generating air cleaners and brush-type electrical motors such as sewing machines. Fine particulate matter $(PM_{2.5})$ can be produced from the indoor combustion sources.

The importance of IAQ has often been underestimated in China. The local features of indoor sources (e.g. in-house fuels and materials), environments (e.g. building structures and designs) and life styles (e.g. behaviours and activities) are greatly different from those in other countries. Indoor levels of the air compounds also have close relationships between the volume of indoor spaces, quantity of sources, air removal and/or exchange rates, and the corresponding concentration outdoors. Actual human exposures are often hard to be quantified. This is largely because both behaviour and activity pattern of an individual can strongly affect their levels of exposure. The results from the Total Exposure Assessment Methodology studies undertaken by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S.EPA) in the 1980s consistently showed that personal exposures to many indoor pollutants can markedly exceed than those anticipated from the concentrations in ambient air. This phenomenon has been known as the 'personal cloud effect'.

Our team has reported the variations in indoor volatile organic compounds (VOCs) composition between China and other regions. The levels are mostly elevated by a variety of sources, including utilization of consumer household products (e.g. cleaning agents and air fresheners), ETS, emissions from paints, varnishes, solvents, adhesives, furnishing, clothing and building materials, and incense burning,^{3,4,12} which are sometimes higher than those found in outdoor air.¹³ Primary indoor sources of formaldehyde, a carcinogen to human, include building materials such as particle board, medium-density fibreboard, plywood, resins, adhesives and carpeting.^{14,15} Formaldehyde is also used in the manufacture of urea formaldehyde foam insulation which is injected into wall cavities to supplement the insulation in existing buildings.¹⁶ In-building radon levels could be highly related to its abundance in the soil surrounding the structure and number of entry points (e.g. foundation joints, cracks in floors and walls, drains and piping, electrical penetrations and cellars with earth floors) that allow the gas to infiltrate from outdoors.¹⁶ Microorganism is an important biological pollution to indoor environment.¹⁷ A diversity of fungi and bacteria are found indoors, and their survivals are associated with the presence of organic matter (e.g. wall coatings, woods and foodstuffs). The penetration from outdoor is one of the major sources for fungi and bacteria, particularly in summer and autumn. Humid environment favours the fungal growth. Hence the microorganisms are always located in apartments with damp conditions, especially those containing structural faults, at basements or under floor crawl spaces.

The integrity of quality control/quality assurance (QC/QA) for the materials and products made in China is always a concern for the consumers. Any poor quality matters can contribute to the indoor air pollutions. Therefore, it is absolutely vital to conduct the IAQ investigations in China.

Guidelines or criteria for common indoor air compounds have been established by health organizations or governments (Table 1). Most time-integrated exposure limits are defined for long term (i.e. 8 h average or even longer) but only few are for short term. In comparison, the environmental protection agency in China has a better foresight to inform the public of the 'peak values' by defining more short-term exposure limits for the air compounds. This is a good start since the restriction can be more effectively reflect the risk levels to the residents and workers.

Challenges on micro-scale indoor monitoring in China

A lack of hands-on experience is a big barrier to conduct an intensive indoor monitoring in China. Many researchers applied inappropriate methodologies, and few even completely follow the procedures reported in other countries' study, without any consideration of on-site parameters. The key for a successful field study is to establish an explicit objective for the monitoring. The scheme should be divided into three important stages, including (1) preparation, (2) sampling and

Table 1. Summ	ary of exposure g	Table 1. Summary of exposure guidelines/criteria for in	important air compounds in offices and public places	mpounds in of	fices and pul	blic places.			
Criteria Parameters	USA	Canada	UK	Finland	Japan	Korea	Singapore	Hong Kong ^a	China
Carbon dioxide (mg/m ³)	1440 (averaging 1530 (8 h) ^c time not mentioned) ^b	1530 (8 h) ^c	I	2160 (8 h) ^d	I	I: 1800 (8 h) ^e II: 1800 (1 h) ^f	1800 (8 h) ^f 1260 above outdoor (8 h) ^g	Excellent class: 1800 (24 h) ^h <1440 Good class: <1800	1800 (24 h) ^h
Carbon monoxide (µg/m ³)	I	10,000 (8 h) ^c	11000 (8 h) ⁱ	10,000 (8 h) ^d	I	I: 11,000(8 h) ^e II: 29,000 (1 h) ^j	10,000 (8 h) ^{f.g}	Excellent class: 10,000 (1 h) ^h <2000 Good class: <10,000	10,000 (1 h) ^h
Ozone $(\mu g/m^3)$	I	I	I	1			100 (8 h) ^f	Excellent class: 160 (1 h) ^h <50 Good class: <120	160 (1 h) ^h
Nitrogen dioxide (µg/m ³)	I	560 (24 h) ^k	280 (1 h) ⁱ	200 (1 h) ^d	I	I	I	Excellent class: 450 (1 h) ^h <40 Good class: <150	450 (1 h) ^h
Formaldehyde (µg/m ³)	I	120 (1 h) ^c	120 (30 min) ^k 50 (8 h) ^d	50 (8 h) ^d	160 (30 min) ¹	200 (8 h) ^{e,j}	200 (8 h) ^{f.g}	Excellent class: 100 (1 h) ^h <30 Good class:<100	100 (1 h) ^h
$PM_{10} (\mu g/m^3)$	1	150 (24 h)°	1	50 (24 h) ^d	I	150 (8 h) ^{e.j}	150 (max) ^f 50 (8 h) ^g	Excellent class: 150 (24 h) ^h <20 Good class: <180	150 (24 h) ^h
PM _{2.5} (µg/m ³) Total VOC (µg/m ³)	1 1	- 5000 ^k (24 h)	1 1	1 1	400 (30 min) ¹	1 1	- 6900 (max) ^{f.g}	– – – – Excellent class: 600 (8 h) ^h <200 Good class: <600	- 600 (8 h) ^h
Radon (Bq/m^3)	I	150 (one year) ^k	200 (one year) ^m	200 (annually) ^d	I	I	I	t class: class:	400 (one year) ^h
Airborne bacteria (cfu/m ³)	-	1	1	I	I	I	500 (max) ^{f,g}	Excellent class: <500	2500 (depends on instrument used) ^h

(continued)

Table 1. Continued	led								
Criteria Parameters	USA	Canada	UK	Finland	Japan	Korea	Singapore	Hong Kong ^a	China
Fungi cfu/m ³	200 ⁿ	 150 cfu/m³ (three of more species reflective of out-door flora; 50 cfu/m³ (only one species other than Cladosporium or alternaria; up to 500 cfu/m³ (summer if the species is primarily Cladosporium or other tree/leaf fungi)^k 		1	1	1	500 (max) ^f , up to 500 cfu/m ³ is acceptable ^a (if the species present are primarily <i>Cladosporium</i>)	Good class: <1000	1
^a Guidance Notes for the ^b US EPA (1996), Faciliti ^c Health Canada 1993, re ^d Indoor Climate and Vei ^e Ministry of Labour, Koo ^f Guidelines for Good IA ^g Singapore Standard SS ^h General Administration ⁱ Department of Health's ^j Ministry of Environmen ^k Alberta IAQ Guideline. ¹ Ministry of Health, Lab ^m Health Canada, 2006. ⁿ US Public Health Servi	^a Guidance Notes for the Management of IAQ M ^b US EPA (1996), Facilities Manual: Architecture ^c Health Canada 1993, revised in 1995. ^d Indoor Climate and Ventilation of Buildings Re ^e Ministry of Labour, Korea I: Offices. M ^f Guidelines for Good IAQ in Office Premises. M ^g Singapore Standard SS 554: 2009 'Code of Prace ^h General Administration of Quality supervision, ^h General Administration of Quality supervision, ^h Ibepartment of Health's Committee on Medical ^M ministry of Environment, Korea II: Public Usin, ^k Alberta IAQ Guideline. ^M Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan. ^m Health Canada, 2006. ⁿ US Public Health Services recommend this valu	of IAQ Management, EP rchitecture, Engineering, a uildings Regulations and G emises. Ministry of the E de of Practice for Indoor de of Practice for Indoor pervision, Inspection and i Medical Effects of Air F ublic Using Facilities. ue, Japan. d this value for fungal bic	PD 2003 (Note: the numerical values are 8 h averages). and Planning Guidelines. Maximum Indoor Air Concentrations. Guidelines 2003, Ministry of the Environment, Finland. invironment, 1996. Air Quality in Air-conditioned Buildings'. Quarantine, Ministry of Health, State Environmental Protectior Pollutants (COMEAP) 2004.	e numerical valu delines. Maximuu Ainistry of the E r-conditioned Bu stry of Health, S (AP) 2004.	m Indoor Air nvironment, F uildings'. itate Environr	rages). Concentrations. inland. nental Protection	D 2003 (Note: the numerical values are 8 h averages). and Planning Guidelines. Maximum Indoor Air Concentrations. Guidelines 2003, Ministry of the Environment, Finland. nvironment, 1996. Air Quality in Air-conditioned Buildings'. Quarantine, Ministry of Health, State Environmental Protection Administration of China 2002. ollutants (COMEAP) 2004.	ла 2002.	

(3) post-sampling. In the preparation stage, it is important to collect all necessary background information and conduct walkthrough inspection to proposed sites.⁹ Questionnaires should be designed to collect the useful information about the locations. Through the visits, the number of sites and locations, sampling frequencies and methodologies should be outlined. Preliminary tests must be run and accurate calibrations of all sampling equipment and analytical devices must be initialized under the OC/OA instructions. The selection of sampling point is fairly critical in micro-scale indoor monitoring. Outdoor monitoring usually requires the equipment to be placed close to fresh air intake from any air handling unit in the study area. However, in indoor monitoring, the distances between ground, walls, ventilation systems, potential sources and sampling devices are admirably specified, subjected to the purposes of the assessment. During the sampling stage, the operators must strictly follow all well-defined procedures and schedules to collect real-time data or offline samples. The samplers should be setup in a breathing zone (from 0.5 to 1.5 m height) and placed 0.5 m away from the walls. All parameters on field (i.e. relative humidity, ventilation speed, air exchange rate and temperature) must be recorded and documented. Field blanks and collocated samples have to be collected. The real-time data must be reserved while the offline samples must be stored and transported properly. In the post-sampling stage, sample and data analyses must be conducted through QC/QA inspections. These include calculations of accuracy, precision and uncertainty for the data sets. The data interpretation must be done by any professional.

Selection of proper monitoring technique is another challenge. Typical indoor monitoring techniques include real-time measurement (online) and timeintegrated sampling (offline). Table 2 summarizes the feasible methodologies that can be applied in the micro-scale indoor monitoring. They can be further classified as continuous and intermittent monitoring subjected to sampling time effectiveness, and as passive and active techniques based on the driving force principles. Passive sampling technique has some merits for micro-scale field monitoring: (1) small in size and light weight, (2) unobtrusive and more readily acceptable to study participants, (3) comparatively easier to be operated and no AC power required (e.g. battery or external electrical power) and (4) cost-effective. However, the diffusive rate for a passive method is generally low, and hence a long sampling time (e.g. >24 h) is required and only integrated measurements can be conducted.⁴⁰ Moreover, variations in ventilation, indoor air pollution sources and activities can greatly affect the concentrations and compositions of the target compounds and their stabilities in a function of time. These multiple

factors must be considered while a measurement protocol is chosen with appropriate detection range and sensitivity. Real-time monitoring equipment and active samplers offer collections of data and samples, respectively, in short-time intervals; however, they are usually costly and bulky. Besides, space is always limited for the micro-scale indoor monitoring and thus meticulous equipment are needed. Unfortunately, many local factories manufacture the products that require little capital and low technology. In addition, sensitive and steady (i.e. low flow rate) monitors must be required, but the reliability and stability for the local equipment are always in doubt. Import of guaranteed devices and accessories from international vendors is possible. However, rather than high shipping cost, this is time and labour consuming due to complicated custom regulations and tax-related problems in China.

Representativeness, reliability and stability of the sampling locations are also concerns in China. In the micro-scale monitoring, multiple locations must be selected as representatives of the site. This must require a degree of consistency for the sites. At many sites, there could be a variety of ethnicities, communities and cultures in the Chinese society. Different degrees of variations in minor to major features (e.g. materials, behaviour and activities) can cause difficulties in the classifications of the sampling locations. Besides, poor and unsatisfactory indoor conditions can greatly affect the steady indoor monitoring in buildings of an economically developing country.

Apart from those scientific issues, the researchers could often meet difficulties to access the target locations. It is very common in China that residents, owners or building/work supervisors would strongly refuse or disagree or oppose to conduct the indoor monitoring in their apartments and workspaces due to insufficient knowledge and communication. Valuable data are thus lost. Public education is an important factor to assist the environmentalists who are seeking to acquire information to improve the IAQ for the building in question. The scientists should also keep up to date with the advance technology in the monitoring and analysis of IAQ.

Conclusions

There is a need to conduct IAQ researches through onfield monitoring in China. It is critical to have a good planning before the study starts. This includes clear definition of the purposes and objectives, collection of background information and walkthrough inspection. All procedures must have QA/QC instructions. Passive samplers are usually small, light and simple to operate in the micro-scale field environments but their performances can be varied by environmental factors in

		Measuring device/Method	Sampling duration	Working concentration	Detection limit	Analysis principle	References
NO_2	Active	NO monitor/NO ₂ Converter	Real time	0–2000 ppbv	N.R.	Chemiluminescence	18
		APNA - 360	Real time	0–10 ppmv	10 ppbv	Oxidation catalyst + chemiluminescence	12
	Passive	Palmes tube (Gradkos sampler)	2-4 weeks	1.0–10,000 ppbv	0.4 ppbv for two weeks	I	19
		Ogawa sampler	Over 24 h	0–25 ppmv	2.3 ppbv for 24 h	1	20
CO_2	Active	LI-820 CO ₂ analyser	Real time	0–20,000 ppmv	N.R.	Non-dispersive infrared	18,21
		Q-Trak indoor air quality detector	Real time	0-5000 ppmv	l ppmv	Non-dispersive infrared	11
		CO ₂ analyser 2810	Real time	0–10,000 ppmv	N.R.	Non-dispersive infrared	12
	Passive	Passive diffusion sampler	1-6 weeks	0–500 ppmv	1 ppmv	1	22
		Type 13X zeolite molecular sieve	42–294 days	N.R.	N.R.	1	23
CO	Active	Q-Trak indoor air quality detector	Real time	0-500 ppmv	0.1 ppmv	Non-dispersive infrared	18
		GXH3011 CO analyser	Real time	0–200 ppmv	0.1 ppmv	Non-dispersive infrared	24
	Passive	Passive diffusion tubes	8 h	N.R.	0.87 ppmv	Colorimetry	25
		Personal CO exposure monitor	8 h	0–50 ppmv	0.25 ppmv	Electrochemical	26
O_3	Active	Model 202 O ₃ analyser	Real time	1.5 ppbv–100 ppmv	3.0 ppbv	UV absorption	18
		O ₃ 42 M analyser	Real time	0-10 ppmv	N.R.	UV absorption	27
	Passive	Passive sampling badges	0-14h	N.R.	0.1 ppbv	Ion chromatography	28

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Table 2.	Table 2. Continued	d				
		Measuring device/Method Sampling duration Working concentration	Sampling duration	Working concentration	Detection limit	Analysis principle
		Harvard ozone passive sampler	7–8 h	0–140 ppbv	0.6 ppbv	I
НСНО	HCHO Active	DNPH-coated solid cartridge	10 min–8 h	N.R.	$0.28\mu g/m^3$	High performance liquid chromatography
		Optical meter	Real time	20 ppbv–1 ppmv	20 ppbv	Photoelectric photometry
	Passive	Diffusive DNPH cartridge	24 h	$0.5-800{ m mg/m^3}$	$3-11 \mu g/m^3$	High performance liquid chromatography
		Badge-type diffusive MBTH sampler	Long time	N.R.	9.7 ppbv for 24 h	Spectrophotometer
		SPME	10 min-8 h	0-100 ppbv	1 ppbv	SPME-GC/FID
VOCs	Active	Canister	4 h	Multiple measurements	0.5 ppbv	GC/MS
		Tenax Tube	<21 in volume	No background pollution	$5 ng/m^3$	Thermal desorption-GC/FID
		Online monitoring by PTR-MS	Real time	Mobile, sensitive, robust	50 pptv	Proton transfer reaction-mass spectrometry
	Passive	Passive Activated Carbon	2h at 50ml/min	High concentration only, low accuracy	$0.2\mu g/m^3$	Thermal desorption-GC/FID

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SPME-GC/MS

 $2\,\mu g/m^3$

Energy free, short exposure time

 $30 \text{ s}{-15} \min$

SPME

GC/MS: gas chromatography/mass spectrometry; PTR-MS: proton transfer reaction mass spectrometry; SPME-GC/FID: solid phase microextraction-gas chromatography/flame ionization detection; DNPH: 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine; HCHO: Formaldehyde; MBTH: 3-Methyl-2-benzothiazolinonehydrazone hydrochlide hydrate; VOCs: volatile organic compounds; N.R.: reference includes no data on catalyst deactivation.

References

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addition to a long sampling duration is required. The cost, size and quality of the equipment and measuring devices must be considered. Precise selection and proper classification of representative monitoring sites are also important. Public education and promotion can assist the environmentalists to conduct more significant IAQ researches. Conclusively appropriate methodologies and advanced technology must be applied to meet the goals of the studies.

Authors' contribution

YH, SCL and JC conceived and designed the study. SSHH conducted the data analysis and wrote the manuscript, and all the authors provided comments and feedback on the manuscript.

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