

1 A brief review of indoor ozone chemistry as it relates to the California Air Resources  
2 Board proposed regulation of ozone generating air cleaners

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## 9 **1. Introduction**

10 The California Air Resources Board has proposed to regulate ozone emitting air cleaners.  
11 The effect of this regulation is to reduce consumer exposure to ozone, a Criteria pollutant  
12 recognized to be associated with morbidity and mortality (Bell et al., 2005). The  
13 regulation has the further benefit of reducing exposure to the byproducts of ozone  
14 reactions with surfaces and some gas-phase compounds. I support the California Air  
15 Resource Board's efforts to reduce Californian's exposure to ozone and its byproducts,  
16 and provide the following outline of known indoor ozone chemistry. That ozone  
17 chemistry generates numerous chemicals with known and suspect adverse health  
18 outcomes, suggest that efforts to reduce indoor ozone levels are to be applauded and  
19 supported.

## 20 **2. Ozone and related chemistry**

21 Ozone is ozone. Whether it seeps into buildings from smog, or if it is generated by an  
22 electronic device. Ozone can and will react directly with some indoor materials at  
23 substantial rates. These reactions generate a suite of oxidized products. Early on,  
24 Weschler and Shields suggested ozone reactions with terpenes could lead to a substantial  
25 increase in aldehydes, radicals and even aerosols. Ozone reactions can generate irritants,  
26 carcinogens and aerosols. Formaldehyde, a carcinogen and irritant, is formed with a  
27 "yield" of ~0.9 (Atkinson and Arey, 2003) when it reacts with the compound,  $\beta$ -pinene, a  
28 "pine" smelling scent compound emitted by consumer products and natural materials.

29 This means that nearly every ozone molecule that reacts creates a formaldehyde  
30 molecule. Destailats et al. (2005) and Singer et al. (2006) show that, when relatively high  
31 levels of ozone react with these kinds of scents emitted from cleaners, formaldehyde rises  
32 to levels (10-35 ppb) much greater than the California reference exposure level of 2 ppb.  
33 The reaction products include other carbonyl compounds and carboxylic acids which  
34 have low odor and irritancy thresholds (Cometto-Muñiz et al., 1998). Pinonaldehyde, a  
35 stable di-aldehyde that is formed at high yield in ozone- $\alpha$ -pinene reaction, is a suspected  
36 irritant. Organic acids are about 10-times more irritating than their analogous aldehydes;  
37 a number of acids (formic acid), di-acids (pinic acid) and acid/aldehyde compounds  
38 (norpinonic acid) are also formed.

39 Several animal and human studies have evaluated the subjective and objective health  
40 effects of these ozone-terpene reaction mixtures. In animal studies of reactions of ozone  
41 with isoprene (Wolkoff et al., 2000),  $\alpha$ -pinene (Wolkoff et al., 1999) and d-limonene  
42 (Clausen et al., 2001), identified products that acted as airway irritants. Neither the  
43 individual reactants nor the aged products were as irritating as the mixture during  
44 reaction. Further, the more aged reaction mixtures were less irritating than younger  
45 mixtures (Wilkins et al., 2003), suggesting that unidentified products, such as short-lived  
46 radicals, were responsible for the irritation. Similarly, Tamás et al. (2006) found that the  
47 sensory load, for 20 human subjects exposed to an ozone-limonene reaction mixture, was  
48 much greater than for either compound alone. The reaction mixture also caused eye-blink  
49 frequency to increase in human subjects (Kleno and Wolkoff, 2004). Rohr et al. (2002)  
50 observed limited respiratory flow and possible long-term sensitization in mice exposed to  
51 reaction products.

52 Low-vapor pressure oxidation products can self-nucleate to form small aerosols, or  
53 condense on and increase the mass of existing aerosols. Collectively, these are known as  
54 secondary organic aerosols (SOAs). Weschler and Shields (1999) observed increases in  
55 submicron SOA concentrations in an office with elevated ozone and either limonene,  $\alpha$ -  
56 terpinene or a terpene mixture from a cleaner. For experiments using outdoor ozone  
57 (instead of injected ozone), particle concentrations followed the rise and fall of indoor  
58 ozone concentrations. Similarly, Long, et al. (2000) showed that a pine-scented cleaner

59 increased submicron particle concentrations in the presence of infiltrated ozone. In a  
60 laboratory chamber, the limonene-ozone reaction resulted in a 7 to 100 fold increase in  
61 the number concentration of particles with diameters less than 0.5  $\mu\text{m}$  (Rohr et al., 2003;  
62 Wainman et al., 2000). Sarwar et al.(2004) showed, in laboratory chamber experiments,  
63 that SOAs increase substantially when realistic levels of ozone combine with terpenes  
64 from cleaners, air fresheners and perfumes. Shown in Figure 1 is an experiment (Sarwar  
65 et al., 2004) in which a solid air freshener is introduced into a chamber with an air  
66 exchange rate of  $0.62\text{ h}^{-1}$ , and with ozone initially at  $\sim 110\text{ ppb}$ . A sharp increase in  
67 aerosols occurs due to the reaction of the terpene mixture and ozone, and is sustained for  
68 several hours. Note that the reported particle mass concentration rises above outdoor  
69 standards. Similarly, Singer et al. (2006) observed an increase of as much as  $100\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
70 in aerosol mass concentration due to the use of terpenoid containing cleaners in the  
71 presence of ozone. Hubbard et al. (2005) recently demonstrated that ozone generating  
72 particle filters, advertised as “air cleaners” designed to reduce indoor particle  
73 concentrations, actually increase particle mass substantially in the presence of terpene  
74 fragrances.

75 Aerosol generation by the ozone-terpene reaction can significantly increase indoor levels  
76 of small aerosols. A large body of epidemiological literature indicates that increases in  
77 ambient aerosol concentrations are associated with increased mortality. In particular, an  
78 increase of  $25\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in particle mass concentration for  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  (total particle mass for  
79 particles with an aerodynamic diameter  $< 2.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ ) is correlated with a 1-3.5% increase  
80 over baseline mortality and a 1-12% increase in hospitalization for respiratory and  
81 cardiovascular disease (USEPA, 2004). For typical indoor ozone concentrations, in the  
82 presence of a pine cleaner, Weschler and Shields (1998) observed a  $15\text{-}20\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
83 increase in particles  $< 1.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  in diameter. Similarly, Wainman et al. (Wainman et al.,  
84 2000) found that a  $20\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  increase due to these reaction is probable under typical  
85 indoor conditions. Where ozone is introduced by an ozone generating air filter in field  
86 homes, Hubbard et al. (2005) observed a  $10\text{-}20\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  increase in particles  $< 1.0\text{ }\mu\text{m}$  in  
87 diameter due to the ozone reaction with a variety of terpene sources. A recent screening  
88 study indicates that perfume wearers will be subjected to a “personal reactive cloud” of

89 reaction products, such as fine aerosols (Karamalegos et al., 2005). Increasing ventilation  
90 rates tends to decrease SOA concentrations by dilution, but also tends to shift the  
91 respirable particle size distribution to smaller sizes (Weschler and Shields, 2003) because  
92 the particles have less time to grow or coagulate. Although these reactions result in  
93 increased respirable aerosol mass, little is known about human health effects associated  
94 with these particular condensed reaction products. Tamás et al. (2006) observed a  
95 correlation between the number concentration of SOAs, from the limonene-ozone  
96 reaction in an office, and sensory load reported by 20 human subjects.

97 Ozone will also react with indoor surfaces, and carbonyls (aldehydes and ketone) are the  
98 prominent products observed. In ozone reactions with carpet, Morrison and Nazaroff  
99 (2002) found the aldehyde yield to range from 0.1 to 0.74 for summed aldehydes.

100 Interestingly, lower-volatility products may also contribute to aerosol growth by  
101 partitioning from the indoor surface to existing aerosols (Aoki et al., 2005; Bekö et al.,  
102 2005). In the first study of its kind, Weschler et al. (1992) discovered that ozone reacted  
103 with carpet surfaces generating formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and C4-C10 aldehydes.

104 Ozone converted some of the condensed phase material on the carpet to volatile species,  
105 demonstrating for the first time that surface chemistry can increase the gas-phase VOC  
106 concentration. Morrison and Nazaroff (2002) observed similar reaction products, but also  
107 observed unsaturated aldehydes generated on new carpet. Based on product yield studies,  
108 2-nonenal was predicted to significantly exceed odor thresholds under typical conditions  
109 and that odorous conditions could persist for years. Field measurements of secondary  
110 emissions from carpet (Wang and Morrison, 2006) showed that one- to two-year old  
111 carpet is more reactive and aldehyde yields are higher than for carpet that had been  
112 installed for over 10 years. Thus, secondary emissions can persist for at least two years.  
113 Knudsen et al. (2003) performed sensory evaluations on carpet and other materials that  
114 had been exposed to ozone. They found that carpet in particular exhibited significantly  
115 higher odor intensity as a result of secondary emissions.

116 Reiss et al. (1995) showed that ozone reactions with latex paint generates formaldehyde,  
117 acetone and acetaldehyde. Older painted surfaces were not as reactive. They estimated  
118 that ozone reactions on newly applied paint would constitute 10 – 15% of the total  
119 emission rate of formaldehyde measured in field homes (Reiss et al., 1995). By isolating

120 wall sections in field homes and exposing the sections to ozone, Wang and Morrison  
121 (2006) confirmed a small generation rate of aldehydes from latex painted walls.

122

123 Over time, indoor surface reactants will eventually become depleted. Therefore, ozone  
124 reactivity and secondary emissions of byproducts should decrease as the cumulative  
125 ozone exposure increases. However, consumer activities repeatedly coat surfaces with  
126 cooking oils, soaps, tobacco products and even human skin oils, all of which have been  
127 shown to react with ozone to form volatile products.

128 The surfaces in HVAC systems may be regenerated by continuous deposition of reactive  
129 aerosols. Morrison et al. (1998) observed that used duct liners from commercial HVAC  
130 systems consumed more significantly ozone than new duct liners . In related work,  
131 several studies have recently shown that soiled HVAC filters are more ozone reactive  
132 than clean filters (Hytinen et al., 2006; Hytinen et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2006). Hytinen  
133 et al. (2003) observed formaldehyde as the only reaction product from a subset of these  
134 filters. Bekö et al. (2006) inferred that reaction byproducts were formed on used filters  
135 that were treated with ozone because they perceived as “less acceptable” than filters  
136 treated with plain air or nitrogen. They suggest that this chemistry may account for  
137 previous observations that sick building syndrome symptoms and poor occupant  
138 performance correlate with the presence of loaded HVAC filters (Clausen et al., 2002;  
139 Wargocki et al., 2003; Wyon et al., 2000). Fine aerosols have also been observed as  
140 indicators that semi-volatile reaction products form and partition from the soiled filter  
141 surface to aerosols (Bekö et al., 2005).

142 Wang et al. (2005) showed that countertops that become coated with cooking oils or  
143 soaps will generate volatile aldehydes in the presence of ozone, in chemistry akin to  
144 Scheme 2. They verified in field studies (Wang and Morrison, 2006) that kitchen  
145 counters are a major emitter of secondary aldehydes (on a unit area basis).

146 Wisthaller et al. (2005) studied ozone-surface reactions in a simulated aircraft  
147 environment that included used carpet, seats and other inner airplane surfaces. They also  
148 evaluated the presence of t-shirts worn by volunteers for a day. A key finding was that  
149 ozone consumption increases due to reactions with human skin oils, specifically

150 squalene, on t-shirts and other airplane surfaces. Using a very sensitive proton-transfer  
151 mass spectrometry system, they observed volatile oxidation products of the ozone-  
152 squalene reaction including acetone and 6-methyl-5-heptenone. Recent work has gone  
153 further to look at individual materials within an aircraft (Coleman et al., 2007) and  
154 complete cabin settings with live subjects (Weschler et al., 2007). They identified  
155 aldehydes, similar to those observed from earlier carpet studies, which may be generated  
156 from reactions with airline carpet and upholstery. Subjects in these studies reported a  
157 higher prevalence of symptoms (including headache, dizziness, mental tension,  
158 claustrophobia) when ozone levels were in the range of 60-70 ppb (Strom-Tejsen et al.,  
159 2007). Note that these ozone levels are roughly in the range that arise when ozone  
160 generators are used indoors.

161 Ozone-nicotine surface chemistry has recently been identified by Destailats et al.(2006).  
162 Nicotine and other products of tobacco smoking adsorb strongly to indoor surfaces. In the  
163 presence of ozone, surface nicotine can form a variety of products including  
164 formaldehyde.

165 Taken as a whole, it is probable that some fraction of ozone uptake and secondary  
166 emission in commercial and residential buildings is due to reactions with soaps, cooking  
167 oils, human skin oils, terpenes and other products of human inhabitation. As our  
168 understanding of indoor chemistry expands, we may discover chemical mechanisms that  
169 we can engineer to clean the air. However, commercial efforts to chemically improve  
170 indoor air with ozone have been misguided at best, dangerous at their worst. The fact that  
171 ozone can react rapidly to remove a small number of organic compounds have led  
172 manufacturers of ozone generating “air cleaners” to claim that their products effectively  
173 destroy organic pollutants (Boeniger, 1995). The reaction rates with most indoor odors  
174 are far too small to effect any significant change in exposure. For those compounds that  
175 are “destroyed”, such as the “terpenes” already discussed, the products of these reactions  
176 appear to be worse than the original compound.

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