

HEALTH RISK ASSESSMENTS OF MICROENVIRONMENT EXPOSURES AND URINARY BIOMARKERS OF INDOOR-OFFICE WORKERS: A PRELIMINARY STUDY

Tanasorn Tunsaringkarn^{1,*}, Tassanee Prueksasit², Wattasit Siriwong¹

¹College of Public Health Sciences, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok 10330, Thailand

²Department of General Science, Faculty of Science, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok 10330, Thailand

ABSTRACT: Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are major source of pollutants in the ambient air, especially along the congested roadsides where the air qualities are generally below the standard. Whereas, for the indoor-office workers who spend most of their times inside, the indoor air pollution is an important environmental concern. In this study, the health risk assessments of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde ambient air were conducted at two office buildings in central Bangkok, Thailand during the summer of 2011. The average ambient air benzene, toluene, ethyl-benzene, *m*-, *p*-xylene, *o*-xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde were 134.34, 239.28, 73.73, 48.46, 22.24, 21.16 and 7.42 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, while the average personal air benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, *m*-, *p*-xylene, *o*-xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde exposures were 165.70, 580.50, 84.45, 62.86, 24.52, 14.11 and 1.35 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ respectively. Most of each microenvironments of ambient and personal air exposures were not significantly differences except for the acetaldehyde (Independent t-test, $p < 0.05$). Total concentration of personal air exposures was significantly higher than ambient air concentration (Independent t-test, $p < 0.05$). All microenvironments of ambient air concentration in this study showed strongly and positively correlated to personal air exposures (Spearman's rho correlation, $r = 1.000$). Averages of life time cancer risk range of benzene, ethylbenzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde in official workers were $1.584\text{E}-04 - 2.05\text{E}-04$, $8.26\text{E}-06 - 2.01\text{E}-05$, $2.54\text{E}-05 - 7.08\text{E}-05$ and $2.63\text{E}-06 - 3.08\text{E}-06$, respectively. Of which cancer risk calculation of benzene, ethylbenzene and formaldehyde were higher than acceptable limit of $1.00\text{E}-06$. But hazard quotients (HQs) of all microenvironments were varied from 0.001 to 0.003 which less than one. Each of microenvironments and total concentration of exposures (TVOCs) had positive relationship to urinary formic acid (Linear regression analysis, $p < 0.05$). We concluded that the indoor office workers have higher cancer risk of microenvironments in ambient air exposures and urinary formic acid should be an appropriate biomarker for these exposures.

Keywords: Risk assessment, Microenvironment, Exposure, Biomarker, Indoor, Office worker

INTRODUCTION

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are organic chemicals that have - high vapor pressures at normal, room-temperature conditions. They are divided into 2 types of non-chlorinated VOCs or non-halogenated hydrocarbons (aliphatic and aromatic hydrocarbons, alcohols, aldehyde and ketone) and chlorinated VOCs or halogenated hydrocarbons (halogenated VOCs). The VOCs are numerous, diverse, and ubiquitous. Many VOCs are dangerous to human health and can cause harm to the environment. VOCs are an important group of air pollutants to be investigated, as they

contribute to the most serious air pollution problems [1-6]. Benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene are known as major components of both indoor and outdoor air contaminants [7] as well as aldehydes of formaldehyde and acetaldehyde [8, 9]. They have been demonstrated to be active in the formation of photochemical smog and ground-level ozone production. Several VOCs found in urban air are classified as carcinogenic compounds (e.g., benzene and ethylbenzene). Some of them may cause short- and long-term adverse health effects, even at very low concentrations. Important signs or symptoms associated with exposure to VOCs include eye irritation, nose and throat discomfort, headache, allergic skin reaction, nausea, fatigue, or dizziness [10] which has led to the phenomenon of

* Correspondence to: Tanasorn Tunsaringkarn

E-mail: tkalayan@chula.ac.th

sick building syndrome and related complaints of workers [11, 12]. VOCs are regulated by law, especially indoors, where their concentrations are the highest. The United States Environmental Protection Agency [13] has found concentrations of VOCs in indoor air to be 2 to 5 times greater than in outdoor air and sometimes much higher. During certain activities, indoor levels of VOCs may reach 1,000 times that of the outside air. Jones [14] reported that individual VOC emissions are not that high in an indoor environment, but the indoor total VOCs (TVOCs) concentrations can be up to five times higher than the VOCs outdoor levels. Therefore, it is important to measure VOCs in indoor environment, where most people in developed countries spend up to 90% of their time indoors [11, 15], in order to assess their possible risk and to determine the source strengths of VOCs [16, 17].

Several studies have identified some organic compounds which can be used as markers for the particulate matter emitted air pollution sources [18-22]. For example, the carbonyls, which are the major species of organic compounds involved in photochemical air pollution, since the aldehydes and ketenes are the key products of photo-oxidation of gas-phase hydrocarbons [23, 24]. The ability of organic chemicals that cause health effects varies greatly from those that are highly toxic, to those with no known health effects. As with other pollutants, the extent and nature of the health effects will depend on many factors including level of exposure and length of exposure times. Up to now, there is not much known about what health effects caused by the levels of organics usually found in office. There are limited numbers of studies on the indoor microenvironment in Thailand. This study aimed to evaluate microenvironments of VOCs including benzene, toluene, ethyl-benzene, xylene (BTEX) and aldehydes of formaldehyde and acetaldehyde in ambient air and personal exposures in indoor-office workers, as well as assess their health risks and the relationship between ambient air concentrations and urinary biomarkers in the office workers.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study areas & Study subjects

Thirty-two indoor-office workers of 2 office buildings located in Pathumwan district, central Bangkok, Thailand were selected for this study. All indoor-office workers were healthy and had worked for more than six months. They were provided with a consent form before the study was begun.

Permission to conduct cancer risk assessment from human subjects in this study was approved by the Ethical Review Committee for Research Involving Human Research Subjects, Health Science Group, Chulalongkorn University. The study was conducted in the summer of 2011.

Sample collections

Indoor ambient air and personal air samples were collected –using the active sampling method (8 hours during work time: 8.00 A.M.-16.00 P.M.). The sampling train system consisted of a 2,4 DNPH cartridge (for formaldehyde and acetaldehyde) and activated charcoal tube (for benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene) connected to a low flow personal air pump. Both cartridge and charcoal tube were kept at 4°C during transportation to the laboratory and stored in a refrigerator until their analysis.

Urine samples were collected from 32 office workers in glass containers and stored at -20°C for the t, t-MA, formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and formic acid analyses.

Air sample analysis

The 2, 4-DNPH cartridge was extracted immediately after sampling collection, and was eluted with acetonitrile (ACN) and analyzed for the presence of formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and formic acid by the method of Morknoy [25]. For the detection of benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene and xylene, the activated charcoal was extracted with carbon disulfide (CS₂), and the sample solution was then analyzed by the Gas Chromatography/Flame Ionized Detector (GC/FID).

Urine samples analysis

All urinary samples were analyzed by GC/FID, as described by De Graff et al. [26]. All measured values were divided by urinary creatinine (Cr) concentration for clinical chemistry analysis [27]. The World Health Organization (WHO) has adopted guidelines for the acceptable limits of urinary creatinine concentrations to be between 0.3 and 3.0 g/L [28].

Cancer and non-cancer risk calculation

The inhalation exposures were estimated in terms of Chronic Daily Intake (CDI) for cancer and Exposure Concentration (EC) for non-cancer. The calculations of CDI and EC were done according to Risk Assessment Guidance for Superfund (RAGS) Part A and Part F approaches, respectively. They can be expressed as followed:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CDI} &= \text{CA} \times \text{IR} \times \text{ET} \times \text{EF} \times \text{ED} / (\text{BW} \times \text{AT}) \\ \text{EC} &= \text{CA} \times \text{ET} \times \text{EF} \times \text{ED} / \text{AT} \end{aligned}$$

Table 1 The reference values for carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic substances

Substances	Reference value			
	IUR ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) ⁻¹		SFI ($\text{mg}/\text{kg}/\text{day}$) ⁻¹	
Carcinogenic substances				
Benzene	7.8×10^{-6} ^{a,b}	2.9×10^{-5} ^c	2.73×10^{-2} ^b	0.1 ^c
Ethylbenzene	1.1×10^{-3} ^b	2.5×10^{-6} ^c	3.85×10^{-3} ^b	0.0087 ^c
Formaldehyde	1.3×10^{-5} ^{a,b}	6×10^{-6} ^c	-	0.021 ^c
Acetaldehyde	2.2×10^{-6} ^{a,b}	2.7×10^{-6} ^c	-	0.01 ^c
Non-carcinogenic substances				
	RfC (mg/m^3)			
Toluene	5.0 ^{a,b}			
Xylenes	0.1 ^{a,b}			

^a Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS), 2010

^b The Risk Assessment Information System (RAIS), 2009

^c Office of Environmental Health Hazard Assessment (OEHA), 2003

Where; CDI ($\text{mg}/\text{kg}/\text{d}$) = Chronic Daily Intake
= Average Daily Dose
(ADD) for non-cancer

EC ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) = Exposure Concentration

CA (mg/m^3) = Contaminant concentration in Air

IR (m^3/h) = Inhalation Rate ($0.875 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$
assumed for adult)

BW (kg) = Body Weight (60 kg, average
body weight of workers)

ET (h/d) = Exposure Time (8 h/d for workers)

EF (d/y) = Exposure Frequency (350 d/y
assumed for workers)

ED (y) = Exposure Duration (30 y for
workers)

AT (d) = Averaging Time ($70 \text{ y} \times 365$ for
cancer or $\text{ED} \times 365$ for non-
cancer)

Cancer risk was evaluated by multiplying CDI by
inhalation cancer slope factor (CSF_i).

Hazard quotient (HQ) for non-cancer can be
calculated by dividing EC by the reference
concentration for inhalation (RfC), as following
equations.

$$\text{Cancer risk} = \text{CDI} \times \text{CSF}_i$$

$$\text{Risk} = \text{IUR} \times \text{EC}$$

$$\text{IUR} = \text{Inhalation Unit Risk } [(\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3)^{-1}]$$

Where; Cancer risk > $1.00\text{E}-6$ means Carcinogenic
effects of concern

Cancer risk $\leq 1.00\text{E}-6$ means Acceptable
level

$$\text{HQ} = \text{ADD}/\text{RfD}$$

$$\text{RfD} = \text{Reference dose for inhalation}$$

$$\text{HQ} = \text{EC}/(\text{RfC} \times 1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mg})$$

Where; HQ > 1 means Adverse non-carcinogenic
effects of concern

HQ ≤ 1 means Acceptable level

The reference values for carcinogenic and non-
carcinogenic substances were shown in Table 1.

Statistical analysis

All analytical measurements were performed in
duplication to give value with standard error. All
analyses were carried out with SPSS 17.0 for
Windows statistical software package. Descriptive
statistical analysis was evaluated on concentrations
of parameters. Independent t-test was computed to
compare between ambient and personal air
concentrations and Spearman's rho correlation was
done for correlation between them. Linear
regression was estimated association between the
ambient air concentrations and urinary biomarker
parameters.

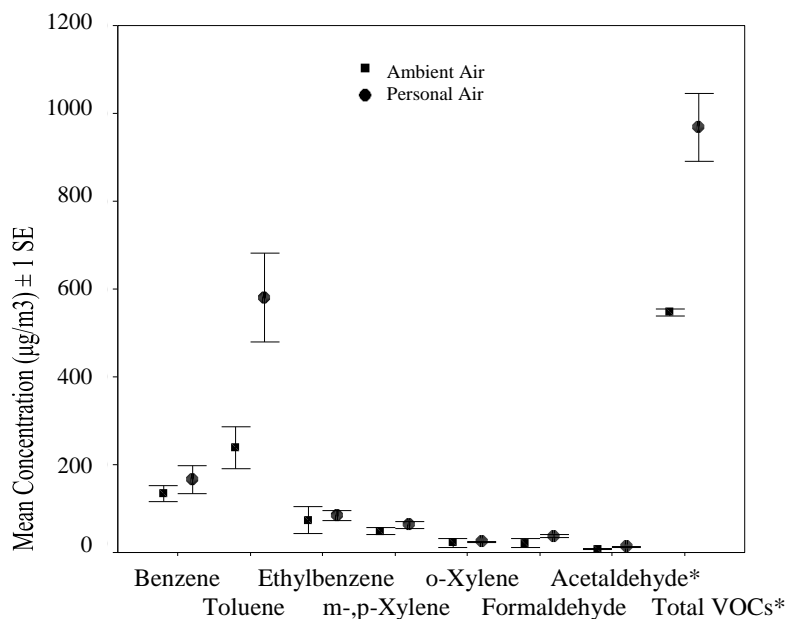
RESULTS

Exposure assessment

Mean age of indoor-official workers was 35.79
years. The average ambient air benzene, toluene,
ethyl-benzene, *m*-,*p*-xylene, *o*-xylene, formaldehyde
and acetaldehyde were 134.34, 239.28, 73.73,
48.46, 22.24, 21.16 and $7.42 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ while the average
personal air benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, *m*-, *p*-
xylene, *o*-xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde
were 165.70, 580.50, 84.45, 62.86, 24.52, 14.11 and
 $1.35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ respectively (Figure 1). Each of ambient
air was not significantly difference compared to
personal air exposures except acetaldehyde. But
total ambient air concentration was significantly
lower than personal air exposure (Independent t-
test, $p < 0.05$).

Correlation between ambient air and personal air exposures

The Spearman's rho-correlation analysis showed
that all ambient air concentrations were strongly



*Significant difference between ambient air and personal air exposures at $p < 0.05$

Figure 1 Ambient air and personal exposures of office workers

Table 2 The Spearman's rho-correlation^a between ambient and personal air exposures of workers

Parameter	Personal Benzene	Personal Toluene	Personal Ethylbenzene	Personal m-, p-Xylene	Personal o-Xylene	Personal TXylene	Personal BTEX	Personal Formaldehyde	Personal Acetaldehyde
Ambient Benzene	1.000 (0.000)	-0.903 (0.097)	-0.001 (0.999)	0.858 (0.142)	0.449 (0.551)	0.813 (0.187)	-0.656 (0.344)	0.314 (0.686)	0.008 (0.992)
Ambient Toluene		1.000 (0.000)	0.413 (0.587)	-0.586 (0.414)	-0.156 (0.844)	-0.532 (0.468)	0.917 (0.0830)	-0.532 (0.468)	0.214 (0.786)
Ambient Ethylbenzene			1.000 (0.000)	0.339 (0.661)	0.355 (0.645)	0.350 (0.650)	0.724 (0.2760)	-0.335 (0.665)	0.740 (0.260)
Ambient m-, p-Xylene				1.000 (0.000)	0.822 (0.178)	0.996 (0.004)	-0.223 (0.767)	-0.187 (0.813)	-0.001 (0.999)
Ambient o-Xylene					1.000 (0.000)	0.870 (0.130)	0.140 (0.860)	-0.706 (0.294)	-0.285 (0.715)
Ambient TXylene						1.000 (0.000)	-0.179 (0.821)	-0.274 (0.726)	-0.047 (0.953)
Ambient BTEX							1.000 (0.000)	-0.640 (0.360)	0.385 (0.615)
Ambient Formaldehyde								1.000 (0.000)	0.353 (0.698)
Ambient Acetaldehyde									1.000 (0.000)

^aSpearman's rho-correlation r (p -value)

TXylene = Total Xylene

BTEX = Benzene + Xylene + Ethylbenzene + Xylene

and positively correlated to personal concentration exposures ($r=1.000, p < 0.001$) (Table 2)

Cancer risk and non-cancer assessments

Risk assessment of indoor-office workers was calculated by using Chronic Daily Intake (CDI) for cancer and Exposure Concentration (EC) for non cancer. Our results showed that the CDI for benzene, ethylbenzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde were $5.84E-03 - 7.58E-03, 2.14E-03 - 5.23E-03, 0.56E-03 - 1.56E-03, 3.42E-04 -$

$3.99E-04$ mg/kg/d respectively. While the exposure concentrations (EC) of these compounds were found to be in the range of 13.65 – 17.70, 5.01 – 12.20, 1.30 – 3.63, 0.80 – 0.93 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Table 3). The averages life time cancer risk range of benzene, ethylbenzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde in indoor-office workers were $1.58E-04 - 2.05E-04, 8.26E-06 - 2.01E-05, 2.54E-05 - 7.08E-05$ and $2.63E-06 - 3.08E-06$, respectively, which the cancer risks of benzene, ethylbenzene and

Table 3 Average life time cancer risk and hazard quotients (HQ) assessments of indoor-official workers

Parameter	CDI (mg/kg/d)	Average Life Time Cancer Risk	EC ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	Average HQ
Benzene	5.84E-03 – 7.58E-03	1.58E-04 – 2.05E-04	13.65 – 17.70	0.001 – 0.002
Ethylbenzene	2.14E-03 – 5.23E-02	8.26E-06 – 2.01E-05	5.01 – 12.20	0.000 – 0.000
Formaldehyde	0.56E-03 – 1.56E-03	2.54E-05 – 7.08E-05	1.30 – 3.63	0.000 – 0.001
Acetaldehyde	3.42E-04 – 3.99E-04	2.63E-06 – 3.08E-06	0.80 – 0.93	0.000 – 0.000
Toluene	9.60E-03 – 1.43E-02	-	22.39 – 33.44	0.000 – 0.000
<i>m-, p</i> -Xylene	2.02E-03 – 2.82E-03	-	8.29 – 5.70	0.000 – 0.000
<i>o</i> -Xylene	6.09E-04 – 1.62E-03	-	1.78 – 4.71	0.000 – 0.000
Sum of risk	-	9.0E-03 – 2.18E-02	-	0.001 – 0.003

Table 4 Association of exposures and urinary biomarkers of official workers

Ambient Air Exposures ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and Urinary Biomarkers ($\mu\text{g}/\text{g Cr}$)	Mean Concentration	Linear regression model results*		
		Standardized Coefficient	95% CI	<i>p</i> -value
Benzene (Exposure)	134.34			
t, t-MA	0.24	-8.374E-5	-0.019 to 0.018	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	0.362	-1.614 to 2.338	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	-0.481	-2.987 to 2.025	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	-0.685	-1.231 to 0.139	0.016
Toluene (Exposure)	239.28			
t, t-MA	0.24	3.074E-05	-0.007 to 0.007	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	-0.133	-0.858 to 0.592	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	0.177	-0.743 to 1,096	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	0.259	0.051 to 0.452	0.016
Ethylbenzene (Exposure)	73.73			
t, t-MA	0.24	-4.722E-05	-0.010 to 0.010	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	0.204	-0.910 to 1.318	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	-0.271	-1.684 to 1.142	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	-0.386	-0.694 to 0.078	0.016
<i>m-,p</i> -Xylene (Exposure)	48.46			
t, t-MA	0.24	0.000	-0.040 to 0.040	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	0.789	-3.519 to 5.097	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	-1.049	-6.512 to 4.414	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	-1.493	-2.683 to -0.303	0.016
<i>o</i> -Xylene (Exposure)	22.24			
t, t-MA	0.24	0.000	-0.032 to 0.032	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	0.625	-2.788 to 4.038	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	-0.831	-5.159 to 3.497	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	-1.183	-2.125 to -2.400	0.016
Formaldehyde (Exposure)	21.16 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$			
t, t-MA	0.24	-0.000	-0.032 to 0.032	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	-0.630	-4.070 to 2.810	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	0.838	-3.525 to 5.201	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	1.192	0.242 to 2.142	0.016
Acetaldehyde (Exposure)	7.42 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$			
t, t-MA	0.24	0.003	-0.550 to 0.555	0.993
Formaldehyde	50.13	-10.841	-7.036 to 48.353	0.711
Acetaldehyde	90.92	14.416	-60.657 to 89.488	0.698
Formic Acid	20.91	20.512	4.461 to 38.862	0.016
TVOCs (Exposures)	546.62 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$			
t, t-MA	0.24	2.492E-03	-0.012 to 0.017	0.727
Formaldehyde	50.13	-0.201	-1.750 to 1.348	0.793
Acetaldehyde	90.92	0.317	-1.644 to 2.280	0.744
Formic Acid	20.91	-0.514	-0.945 to -0.083	0.021

*Adjust for age

formaldehyde were higher than the acceptable limit of $1.00E-06$. Only the cancer risk of acetaldehyde was in the acceptable limit. Sum of cancer risk of workers was $9.0E-03 - 2.18E-02$. For non-cancer risk, the hazard quotients (HQs) ranges of benzene, ethylbenzene, *m*-, *p*-xylene, *o*-xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde in this study were 0.001- 0.002, 0.000 - 0.000, 0.000 – 0.000, 0.000 – 0.000, 0.000 – 0.001 and 0.000 – 0.000 respectively, while, the hazard index (sum of HQs, HI) was less than one (0.001 – 0.003).

Association between ambient air exposures and urinary biomarkers

The average concentrations of urinary *t*, *t*-MA, formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and formic acid were 0.24, 50.13, 90.92, 20.91 $\mu\text{g/g Cr}$, respectively (Table 4). The benzene, ethylbenzene, *m*-, *p*-xylene, *o*-xylene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde exposures were not associated with urinary *t*, *t*-MA, formaldehyde, acetaldehyde but they were significantly and positively associated with formic acid (Linear regression analysis, $p < 0.05$). The TVOCs was $546.62 \mu\text{g/m}^3$, which was significantly and positively associated with formic acid (Linear regression analysis, $p < 0.05$)

DISCUSSION

The occurrence and concentrations of VOCs in indoor environments can be affected by several factors such as outdoor atmospheric conditions, indoor sources, indoor volume, human activities, chemical reactions, ventilation rates, and seasonal factors [29-31]. These indoor sources of VOCs may have been originated from the adhesives and painting materials, which are generally used by the manufactures of these products. The previous study by Afshari et al. [32] found that water-based paints emitted significant amounts of toluene, xylenes, *n*-butanol and high molecular weight aliphatic hydrocarbons, depending upon the thickness of the paint layer. Their studies found that the ambient air concentration was the primary factor in determining indoor air quality, while infiltration of outdoor air could be substantially increased the indoor pollutants and thereby influenced the indoor air quality [33, 34]. In fact, some components in these emissions are highly reactive and may be contribute to the health damage such as benzene, ethylbenzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde as carcinogens [8].

The results of this study showed high exposures of benzene, ethylbenzene and formaldehyde concentrations higher than the acceptable limit. Among this VOCs, benzene was the highest caused

of cancer, followed by formaldehyde, ethylbenzene and acetaldehyde. Since humans spend most of their lives indoors, it is necessary to minimize any exposure to VOCs. These indoor sources of VOCs may have been originated from the adhesives and painting materials, which are generally used by the manufactures of these products. The previous study by Afshari et al. [32] found that water-based paints emitted significant amounts of toluene, xylenes, *n*-butanol and high molecular weight aliphatic hydrocarbons, depending upon the thickness of the paint layer. Some other studies found that the ambient air concentration was the primary factor in determining indoor air quality, while infiltration of outdoor air could be substantially increased the indoor pollutants and thereby influenced the indoor air quality [34]. In fact, some components in these emissions are highly reactive and may be contribute to the health damage such as benzene, ethyl benzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde as carcinogens [8, 35].

However, exposure to the combinations of air pollutants is inevitable. Data dealing with the effects of co-exposure to air pollutants are very limited. In most cases, it is not possible to recommend guidelines for such combinations. World Health Organization (WHO) recommended the indoor concentrations of airborne benzene associated with an excess lifetime risk of $1.00E-04$, $1.00E-05$ and $1.00E-06$ are 17.00, 1.70 and $0.17 \mu\text{g/m}^3$ respectively, and these concentrations are not difference from outdoor concentrations [36]. Our results demonstrated that the indoor ambient air benzene was $134.34 \mu\text{g/m}^3$, or 7.95 folds higher than the limited level ($17.00 \mu\text{g/m}^3$ as recommended by WHO).

Many studies carried out in other Asian's cities have found higher indoor benzene concentrations than those reported from cities in the developed world [37-40]. Formaldehyde and acetaldehyde are the most abundance of indoor office building than outdoor [41, 42] but results from our study exhibited lower level than the study by Ongwandee et al. [43]. Furthermore, we found that indoor ambient air VOC levels strongly correlated with personal exposures. But the personal exposure was higher than ambient air concentrations, which supported the previous studies that conducted in other countries such as USA [44], Turkey [45] and UK [17, 46].

These indoor sources of VOCs may have been originated from the adhesives and painting materials, which are generally used by the manufactures of these products. The previous study by Afshari et al. [32] found that water-based paints

emitted significant amounts of toluene, xylenes, *n*-butanol and high molecular weight aliphatic hydrocarbons, depending upon the thickness of the paint layer. Leong et al. [34] found that the ambient air concentration was the primary factor in determining indoor air quality, while infiltration of outdoor air could be substantially increased the indoor pollutants and thereby influenced the indoor air quality. In fact, some components in these emissions are highly reactive and may be contribute to the health damage such as benzene, ethylbenzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde as carcinogens [8].

The Hazard Quotients (HQs) of benzene and formaldehyde were 0.001 – 0.002 and 0.000 – 0.001 but the HQs of the other VOCs were zero, and all were less than one. These sources of VOCs can be reduced by increasing outdoor air ventilation. However, this entails increased costs in building construction, operation, and energy [47]. Low VOC-emitting materials are being developed and are used more widely in buildings to help achieve healthier and more productive indoor environments. Leong et al. [34] in their preliminary study of relationship between outdoor and indoor air pollutant concentrations at Bangkok's major streets found that the pollutant levels inside the building were due to inadequate ventilation and air infiltration of outdoor air pollutants emitted from vehicular emissions with little or no contribution from indoor sources.

Higher doses of the exposures may overwhelm the metabolic capacities and led to the presence of un-metabolites which may be remained in urine. Therefore, the urinary *t*, *t*-MA, formaldehyde, acetaldehyde and formic acid could be used as biomarkers of these exposures [48-51]. Each of VOCs and TVOCs reported in this study were associated with urinary formic acid ($p < 0.05$).

Sufficient assessment of the hazards, risks of indoor environments and the regulation of indoor air pollutants such as benzene, ethylbenzene, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde are necessary to protect human health, especially children and people who are sensitive to these chemicals. Therefore, from a practical standpoint, it is an expedient to reduce indoor exposure levels to as low as possible. This will require reducing or eliminating human activities that released these VOCs, such as smoking tobacco, using solvents for hobbies or cleaning, or using building materials that off-gas VOCs.

CONCLUSIONS

Our results demonstrated that indoor-office workers

had higher exposures of VOCs and led to higher risk of cancer. We found good correlations between ambient air VOCs and personal exposures in summer sampling periods. There were also strong associations of each ambient gas-phase organic compounds and urinary formic acid. Urinary formic acid could be considered as a good biomarker for monitoring of VOCs exposures. Increasing awareness of consequences indoor air quality and a health promotion program for maintaining a healthy and comfortable working environment must be exercised.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by the Thai Fogarty ITREOH Center (D43 TW007849 NIH FIC) and College of Public Health Sciences, Chulalongkorn University. The authors would like to thank to the Environmental Research Training Center (ERTC), Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment for sampling devices and equipment and thank the Ethical Review Committee for Research Involving Human Research Subjects, Health Science Group, Chulalongkorn University for their suggestion and approval this study. Lastly, the authors thank Dr. Kriangkrai Lerdthusnee for his advice and suggestion of this paper.

REFERENCES

1. US EPA. Health effects assessment for ethylbenzene. Washington, DC.: Office of Health ; 1984. [cited 24 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0051.htm>
2. US EPA. Assessment of health risk to garment workers and certain home residents from exposure to formaldehyde. Washington, DC.: Office of Toxic Substances; 1987. [cited 23 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0419.htm>
3. US EPA. Health assessment document for acetaldehyde. Office of Health and Environmental Assessment, Research Triangle Park: EPA/600/8-86/015A. (External Review Draft); 1987. [cited 15 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/iris/subst/0290.htm>
4. US EPA. Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS): carcinogenic effects of benzene: an update. Washington, DC.; National Center for Environmental Assessment–Washington Office, Office of Research and Development; 1998. [cited 9 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/iris/supdocs/0276index.html>
5. US EPA. Integrated Risk Information System (IRIS): a compilation of electronic reports on specific substances found in the environment and their potential to cause human health effects); 2012. [cited 23 Apr 2011]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/IRIS/>
6. IARC. Occupational exposures in petroleum refining; crude oil and major petroleum fuels: monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risks to humans; vol. 45. Lyon, France; 1989

7. Wang S, Ang HM, Tade MO. Volatile organic compounds in indoor environment and photocatalytic oxidation: state of the art. *Environ Int.* 2007; 33(5): 694-705.
8. IARC Monographs on the evaluation of carcinogenic risk to human: formaldehyde, 2-butoxyrntanol and 1-tert-butoxypropan-2-ol summary of data reported and evaluation: vol. 88. International Agency Research Center on cancer, World Health Organization; 2006.
9. IARC Monographs on the evaluation of the carcinogenic risk of chemicals to humans: chemical agents and related occupations: vol. 100F. Lyon, France; 2012.
10. Barro R, Regueiro J, Llompert M, Garcia-Jares C. Analysis of industrial contaminants in indoor air: part 1. Volatile organic compounds, carbonyl compounds, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and polychlorinated biphenyls. *J Chromatogr A.* 2009; 1216(3): 540-66.
11. Molhave L, Clausen G, Berglund B, De Ceaurriz J, Kettrup A, Lindvall T, et al. Total volatile organic compounds (tvoc) in indoor air quality investigations. *Indoor Air.* 1997; 7(4): 225-40.
12. Hempel-Jorgensen A, Kjaergaard SK, Molhave L, Hudnell KH. Sensory eye irritation in humans exposed to mixtures of volatile organic compounds *Arch Environ Health.* 1999; 54(6): 416-24.
13. US EPA. An Introduction to Indoor Air Quality (IAQ): Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs); 2010. [cited 20 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/iaq/voc.html>
14. Jones AP. Indoor air quality and health. *Atmos Environ.* 1999; 33(28): 4535-64.
15. Brown SK, Sim MR, Abramson MJ, Gray CN. Concentrations of volatile organic compounds in indoor air – a review. *Indoor Air.* 1994; 4(2): 123-34.
16. Gokhale S, Kohajda T, Schlink U. Source apportionment of human personal exposure to volatile organic compounds in homes, offices and outdoors by chemical mass balance and genetic algorithm receptor models. *Sci Total Environ.* 2008; 407(1): 122-38.
17. Delgado-Saborit JM, Aquilina NJ, Meddings C, Baker S, Harrison RM. Relationship of personal exposure to volatile organic compounds to home, work and fixed site outdoor concentrations. *Sci Total Environ.* 2011; 409(3): 478-88.
18. Li CK, Kamens RM. The use of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons as source signatures in receptor modeling. *Atmos Environ.* 1993; 27(4): 523-32.
19. Khalili NR, Scheff PA, Holsen TM. PAH source fingerprints for coke ovens, diesel and gasoline engines, highway tunnels, and wood combustion emissions. *Atmos Environ.* 1995; 29(4): 533-42.
20. Mukund R, Kelly TJ, Spicer CW. Source attribution of ambient air toxic and other VOCs in Columbus, Ohio. *Atmos Environ.* 1996; 30(20): 3457-70.
21. Schauer JJ, Rogge WF, Hildemann LM, Mazurek MA, Cass G, Simoneit BRT. Source apportionment of airborne particulate matter using organic compounds as tracers. *Atmos Environ.* 1996; 30(22): 3837-55.
22. Ho KF, Lee SC. Identification of atmospheric volatile organic compounds (VOCs), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and carbonyl compounds in Hong Kong. *Sci Total Environ.* 2002; 289(1-3): 145-58.
23. Blake DR, Rowland FS. Urban leakage of liquefied petroleum gas and its impact on Mexico City air quality. *Science.* 1995; 269(5226): 953-6.
24. Blake NJ, Blake DR. VOCs: overview. In: Shankar M, editor. *Tropospheric chemistry and composition*; 2002. [cited 21 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.physsci.uci.edu/~rowlandblake/publications/blaketropospheric.pdf>
25. Morknoy D. Carbonyl compounds in Bangkok ambient air associated with gasohol. [Doctoral dissertation]. Bangkok: Program in Environmental Management, Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University; 2008.
26. De Graff ID, Nolan L, Woolley C, Fiorante A. Analysis of formaldehyde-DNPH and other carbonyl-DNPH derivatives by capillary gas chromatography. USA: Supelco, Inc.; 1998.
27. Slot C. Plasma creatinine determination. A new and specific Jaffe reaction method. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest.* 1965; 17(4): 381-7.
28. The American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists [ACGIH]. Introduction to biological exposure indices. In: TLVs[®] and BEIs[®] Based on the documentation of the threshold limit values for chemical substances and physical agents & biological exposure indices. Cincinnati, OH : ACGIH Worldwide, 2010.
29. Son B, Breysse P, Yang W. Volatile organic compounds concentrations in residential indoor and outdoor and its personal exposure in Korea. *Environ Int.* 2003; 29(1): 79-85.
30. Schlink U, Rehwagen M, Damm M, Richter M, Borte M, Herbarth O. Seasonal cycle of indoor-VOCs: comparison of apartments and cities. *Atmos Environ.* 2004; 38(8): 1181-90.
31. Massolo L, Rehwagen M, Porta A, Ronco A, Herbarth O, Mueller A. Indoor-outdoor distribution and risk assessment of volatile organic compounds in the atmosphere of industrial and urban areas. *Environ Toxicol.* 2010; 25(4): 339-49.
32. Afshari A, Lundgren B, Ekberg LE. Comparison of three small chamber test methods for the measurement of VOC emission rates from paint. *Indoor Air.* 2003; 13(2): 156-65.
33. Kousa A, Oglesby L, Koistinen K, Künzli N, Jantunen M. Exposure chain of urban air PM2.5—associations between ambient fixed site, residential outdoor, indoor, workplace and personal exposures in four European cities in the EXPOLIS-study. *Atmos Environ.* 2002; 36(18): 3031-9.
34. Leong ST, Muttamara S, Laortanakul P. Preliminary Study of Relationship between Outdoor and Indoor Air Pollutant Concentrations at Bangkok's Major Street. *Thammasat Int J Sc Tech.* 2003; 8(3): 29-39.
35. US EPA. Technology transfer network air toxics: Original list of hazardous air pollutants; 2008. [cited 24 Apr 2012]. Available from: <http://www.epa.gov/ttn/atw/188polls.html>
36. World Health Organization [WHO]. WHO guidelines for indoor air quality: selected pollutants. Copenhagen: WHO Regional Office for Europe; 2010. [cited 21 Apr 2012]. Available from: http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0009/128169/e94535.pdf

37. El Fadel M, Alameddine I, Kazopoulo M, Hamdan M, Nasrallah R. Carbon monoxide and volatile organic compounds as indicators of indoor air quality in underground parking facilities. *Indoor Built Environ.* 2001; 10(2): 70-82.
38. Raw GJ, Coward SK, Brown VM, Crump DR. Exposure to air pollutants in English homes. *J Expo Anal Environ Epidemiol.* 2004; 14(Suppl 1): S85-94.
39. Guo H, Lee SC, Chan LY, Li WM. Risk assessment of exposure to volatile organic compounds in different indoor environments. *Environ Res.* 2004; 94(1): 57-66.
40. Milner JT, ApSimon HM, Croxford B. Spatial variation of CO concentrations within an office building and outdoor influences. *Atmos Environ.* 2006; 40(33): 6338-48.
41. Gilbert NL, Guay M, David Miller J, Judek S, Chan CC, Dales RE. Levels and determinants of formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, and acrolein in residential indoor air in Prince Edward Island, Canada. *Environ Res.* 2005; 99(1): 11-7
42. Lovreglio P, Carrus A, Iavicoli S, Drago I, Persechino B, Soleo L. Indoor formaldehyde and acetaldehyde levels in the province of Bari, South Italy, and estimated health risk. *J Environ Monit.* 2009; 11(5): 955-61.
43. Ongwandee M, Moonrinta R, Panyametheekul S, Tangbanluekal C, Morrison G. Concentrations and Strengths of Formaldehyde and Acetaldehyde in Office Buildings in Bangkok, Thailand. *Indoor Built Environ.* 2009; 18(6): 569-75.
44. Serrano-Trespacios PI, Ryan L, Spengler JD. Ambient, indoor and personal exposure relationships of volatile organic compounds in Mexico City Metropolitan Area. *J Expo Anal Environ Epidemiol.* 2004; 14(Suppl 1): S118-32.
45. Pekey H, Arslanbaş D. The Relationship between indoor, outdoor and personal VOC concentrations in homes, offices and schools in the metropolitan region of Kocaeli, Turkey. *Water Air Soil Pollut.* 2008; 191(1-4): 113-29.
46. Lai HK, Kendall M, Ferrier H, Lindup I, Alm S, Hänninen O, et al. Personal exposures and microenvironment concentrations of PM_{2.5}, VOC, NO₂ and CO in Oxford, UK. *Atmos Environ.* 2004; 38(37): 6399-410.
47. Cox SS, Liu Z, Little JC, Howard-Reed C, Nabinger SJ, Persily A. Diffusion-controlled reference material for VOC emissions testing: proof of concept. *Indoor Air.* 2010; 20(5): 424-33.
48. Baumann K, Angerer J. Occupational chronic exposure to organic solvents. VI. Formic acid concentration in blood and urine as an indicator of methanol exposure. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health.* 1979; 42(3-4): 241-9.
49. Gottschling LM, Beaulieu HJ, Melvin WW. Monitoring of formic acid in urine of humans exposed to low levels of formaldehyde. *Am Ind Hyg Assoc J.* 1984; 45(1): 19-23.
50. Heck HD, Casanova-Schmitz M, Dodd PB, Schachter EN, Witek TJ, Tosun T. Formaldehyde (CH₂O) concentrations in the blood of humans and Fischer-344 rats exposed to CH₂O under controlled conditions. *Am Ind Hyg Assoc J.* 1985; 46(1): 1-3.
51. Scherer G, Renner T, Meger M. Analysis and evaluation of trans,trans-muconic acid as a biomarker for benzene exposure. *J Chromatogr B Biomed Sci Appl.* 1998; 717(1-2): 179-99.