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6.1 OVERVIEW

 Carbon monoxide is a colorless, odorless, and tasteless gas that is ubiquitous in the atmosphere (George 2001). It arises from both natural and anthropogenic (human-made) sources. It is produced as a primary pollutant during the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels and biomass, including internal combustion photochemical oxidation of methane and other VOCs in the atmosphere. Vegetation can emit carbon waters (lakes, streams, rivers, oceans) and surface soils also results in the formation of carbon monoxide. Volcanic activity is another natural source of carbon monoxide in the atmosphere. Carbon monoxide is of anthropogenic carbon monoxide emissions versus that from natural sources is difficult to quantify since both sources of carbon monoxide vary over time. The EPA estimated that 84% of all carbon monoxide emissions in 2005 arose as a result of human activity, with biogenic emissions accounting for 16% of the concluded that during the summer months, when natural sources of carbon monoxide precursors such as biogenic VOCs and forest fires are high, natural sources of carbon monoxide in the atmosphere are far monoxide are historically associated with on-road automobile use (EPA 2010). engines, wildfires, and controlled burns. Carbon monoxide is also produced indirectly from the monoxide into the atmosphere as a metabolic byproduct. Photooxidation of organic matter in surface also produced endogenously in humans during the normal catabolism of hemoglobin (Hb). The amount total emissions (EPA 2012). However, an analysis of the carbon monoxide budget over North America greater than anthropogenic contributions (Miller et al. 2008). Data from the EPA National Emissions Inventory (NEI) suggest that as much as 75% of the total point and non-point emissions of carbon

 The background levels of carbon monoxide have changed significantly in the past several decades. Concentrations have decreased appreciably due to reduced emissions from automobiles as a consequence of advancements in automotive design. The development of catalytic converters for passenger vehicles, beginning in the 1970s, resulted in a substantial decrease in carbon monoxide emissions, despite large the efficiency of the converter. The end result is that modern passenger automobiles emit about 90% less carbon monoxide over their lifetimes as compared to vehicles designed in previous decades (George increases in miles traveled (George 2001). In the early 1980s, automakers equipped vehicles with more sophisticated catalytic converters and added on-board computers and $O₂$ sensors in order to help optimize 2001).

The annual average outdoor carbon monoxide concentrations are roughly 0.12 parts per million by volume (ppmv) in the Northern Hemisphere and about 0.04 ppmv in the Southern Hemisphere (EPA

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 2000). These levels are variable throughout the course of the year, with seasonal maximum levels trapped near the ground beneath a layer of warm air) are more frequent. Minimum levels are generally about 0.03 ppmv during summer in the Southern Hemisphere to about 0.20 ppmv at high latitudes in the volume of stationary emission sources, such as refineries or power plants, typically have greater atmospheric levels of carbon monoxide as compared to rural or remote sites. In metropolitan areas in the United States, as much as 95% of all carbon monoxide emissions result from on-road vehicle exhaust (EPA 2008). The majority of these on-road emissions are derived from gasoline-powered vehicles, since diesel vehicles emit less carbon monoxide. There is also a diurnal pattern of atmospheric carbon vehicular usage (rush hours) and the lowest levels occurring at times that correlate with lower commuting activity (Campbell et al. 1995; EPA 2000). Maximum carbon monoxide levels frequently exceed 5 ppmv occurring during late winter in both hemispheres when inversion conditions (in which air pollutants are observed during late summer. Carbon monoxide concentrations are reported to range from a minimum of Northern Hemisphere during winter (EPA 2000). Urban locations with high automobile usage or a high monoxide concentrations in urban areas, with the highest levels occurring during hours with heavy at these locations during the high commute hours.

 appliances and whether occupants smoke tobacco products. Unvented kerosene and gas space heaters; leaking chimneys and furnaces; back-drafting from furnaces, gas water heaters, wood stoves, and fireplaces; gas stoves, generators, and other gasoline-powered equipment; automobile exhaust from attached garages; and tobacco smoke all contribute to indoor air levels of carbon monoxide (EPA 2009a). Dangerous levels of carbon monoxide can occur inside boat cabins, partially enclosed cockpits, and beneath swim platforms or other enclosed areas (USCG 2008). Most new boats are equipped with carbon Carbon monoxide levels in indoor air are greatly dependent upon the presence of combustion-based Average levels in homes without gas stoves vary from 0.5 to 5 ppmv. Levels near properly adjusted gas stoves are often 5–15 ppmv, and those near poorly adjusted stoves may be \geq 30 ppmv (EPA 2009a). monoxide monitors; however, the U.S. Coast Guard advises owners of boats built prior to 1998 to have the monitors inspected or replaced (USCG 2008).

 is likely negligible indoors.) In addition, soils and coastal waters may also act as a sink for carbon The primary degradation pathway of carbon monoxide in the environment occurs through its reaction with photochemically-produced hydroxyl radicals. (It should be noted that the production of hydroxyl radicals requires ultraviolet [UV] radiation that does not penetrate windows and therefore, photooxidation monoxide, since various forms of microorganisms are capable of utilizing carbon monoxide as an energy source (Tolli et al. 2006).

 urban areas with heavy vehicular traffic or stationary sources such as petroleum refineries, gas and coal workers who are subject to high levels of vehicular exhaust (such as taxi cab drivers and toll booth workers) may be occupationally exposed to higher levels of carbon monoxide. Members of the public who smoke or work in smoke-filled environments such as restaurants, bars, and casinos where smoking is Exposure of the general population to carbon monoxide occurs through inhalation. Populations living in burning power plants, petrochemical plants, and coke oven plants are more likely to be exposed to higher levels of carbon monoxide from ambient outdoor air. Employees in these refineries and plants and allowed are exposed to higher levels of carbon monoxide than members of the population who do not smoke and are not frequently exposed to second-hand tobacco smoke.

6.2 RELEASES TO THE ENVIRONMENT

6.2.1 Air

 Title I of the Clean Air Act of 1970 establishes carbon monoxide as one of six criteria pollutants and sets emissions throughout the United States. EPA's National Emission Inventory (NEI) database contains detailed information about sources that emit criteria air pollutants and their precursors and hazardous air Quality System (AQS) database is EPA's repository of criteria air pollutant monitoring data since the 1970s. [Table 6-1](#page-3-0) contains data for carbon monoxide emissions from 1970 to 2008 from the NEI database for 13 major emission categories. Detailed carbon monoxide emissions from these sources for individual years are available as zipped Microsoft Access® database files that may be accessed directly from the EPA website; however, these data are subject to occasional revisions by EPA as emission estimates for a accounted for the largest percentage of emissions in the United States as compared to the other emission sources; however, the quantity of carbon monoxide emitted from automobiles has been declining significantly over the past 4 decades due to the use of emission control devices and catalytic converters. national air quality standards for carbon monoxide and the other criteria pollutants (EPA 2000). Two databases developed by the EPA are particularly useful for monitoring carbon monoxide levels and pollutants for the 50 United States, Washington DC, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. The Air specific time period are amended. As indicated in [Table 6-1](#page-3-0), on-road vehicle use has historically

 Indoor air levels of carbon monoxide are highly dependent upon the smoking habits, the types of appliances and heating units that are used in the home or building, and whether or not the home or building has an attached garage for automobiles. Carbon monoxide levels from the use of appliances will

 Table 6-1. Anthropogenic Carbon Monoxide Emissions (Thousands of Short Tons) from 1970 to 2008

^aCategories

- 1. Fuel combustion electric utilities
- 2. Fuel combustion industrial utilities
- 3. Fuel combustion other
- 4. Chemical allied manufacturing
- 5. Metal processing
- 6. Petroleum and related categories
- 7. Other industrial processes
- 8. Solvent utilization
- 9. Storage and transport
- 10. Waste disposal and recycling
- 11. Highway vehicles
- 12. Off-highway
- 13. Miscellaneous
^bEmission estimate

different than values for subsequent revisions of the data as generated by the Environmental Protection Agency.
NA = not available database. These numbers may be different than values published for previous versions of the data and may also be

Source: EPA 2009h

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 depend on several factors, such as the type of fuel used, ventilation, appliance design, fuel consumption Criteria Reports (1991, 2000), carbon monoxide emissions from ranges, ovens, and pilot lights using natural gas were typically greater under yellow tipping flame conditions (characteristic of an improper air-fuel ratio) than blue tipping flame conditions (characteristic of properly adjusted stoves). The average emission rate (mass of carbon monoxide emitted per energy unit produced) for top burning ovens and deliberately adjusted to produce blue tipping or yellow tipping flames, the average emission rate ranged rate, use pattern, and operating condition (EPA 1991, 2000, 2010). As reported in the EPA Air Quality broilers was 11.9–87.7 micrograms per kilojoule (μg/kJ) under blue flame conditions, as opposed to 53.5– 156.6 μg/kJ for improperly adjusted ovens and broilers. In separate tests using three different gas ranges from 34.3–70.9 μg/kJ under properly adjusted operation to 108.4–196.9 μg/kJ under improperly adjusted conditions (EPA 1991, 2000).

 stoves and fireplaces under normal operating conditions (Houck et al. 2006). Carbon monoxide emission Quantitative estimates have been made regarding emissions of carbon monoxide from wood-burning factor data were based on 277 tests on 70 fireplace models. The mean emission factor was 64.1 g carbon monoxide emitted per kg dry wood (SD of 40.7 g/kg dry wood) (Houck et al. 2006). It has been reported that emission rates of carbon monoxide for well-tuned unvented gas appliances range from 0.15 to 3.2 g/hour, while rates for poorly tuned unvented ones range from 1.5 to 22 g/hour (Dutton et al. 2001).

6.2.2 Water

 matter is primarily responsible for producing carbon monoxide in sunlit surface waters (Tolli et al. 2006). Emissions from oceans are a minor source of carbon monoxide with estimated ranges from about 10 to Direct anthropogenic releases of carbon monoxide to water are not expected; however, natural processes occur that result in carbon monoxide formation in waters. The photodegradation of dissolved organic 100 teragrams (Tg) annually (EPA 2000; Liss and Slater 1974).

6.2.3 Soil

 The formation of carbon monoxide in soils appears to occur by abiotic processes, such as thermal decomposition or photodecomposition of organic matter. In general, warm and moist conditions found in most soils favor carbon monoxide uptake, whereas hot and dry conditions as found in deserts and some savannas favor the release of carbon monoxide from soil to the atmosphere with estimated annual emissions of about 30 Tg per year (EPA 2000).

6.3 ENVIRONMENTAL FATE

6.3.1 Transport and Partitioning

 horizontal movement of the wind. Wind direction determines the horizontal transport of carbon monoxide and what impact emissions from one location will have upon another site (EPA 1991). Carbon elevated. The transport of carbon monoxide in urban locations is complex and can be influenced by the geometry of street canyons, topography around roadways, and presence of noise barriers, vegetation, and buildings, as well as local meteorological factors. A field study was designed to characterize the air site also contained an open field and a residential neighborhood with mature vegetation. Time-series barrier. Levels of carbon monoxide were reduced as much as 50% behind the noise barrier as compared direction was directly toward the road, carbon monoxide levels behind the barrier were slightly higher meteorological conditions (Baldauf et al. 2008). Carbon monoxide is a gas that will partition to the atmosphere and is distributed globally by the monoxide levels may be high around local sources, and locations downwind from the source may also be quality and flow of pollutants near a highway with and without noise barriers (Baldauf et al. 2008). The carbon monoxide levels were collected in an open field with no barrier and an area behind the noise to measurements taken at the open field, depending upon the direction of the wind. However, when wind than in the open field indicating that pollutants can be trapped behind noise barriers depending upon

 In most urban areas during the winter months, there is often enhanced stability in the atmospheric boundary layer, which reduces the vertical mixing of emissions from the ground. This effectively traps slowly transported to the mesosphere and stratosphere, where it reacts with atomic oxygen generated by carbon monoxide at street levels during these periods. Unreacted carbon monoxide in the troposphere is the photodissociation of O_2 (Fabian et al. 1979; Pressman and Warneck 1970).

 The surface waters of the world's oceans are saturated with carbon monoxide with respect to the atmosphere and are therefore a net source of atmospheric carbon monoxide. Using a mean atmospheric $6x10^{-8}$ cm³ carbon monoxide per cm³ water, the total annual flux of carbon monoxide to the atmosphere from seawater was estimated at approximately $4.3x10^{13}$ g/year (43 teragrams (Tg)) (Liss and Slater 1974). account for the variations in surface water levels and the flux into the atmosphere (Conrad and Seiler carbon monoxide concentration over the ocean surface of 0.13 ppmv and a surface water concentration of Other reported estimates based on computed carbon monoxide concentrations in surface waters were reported to range from 13 to 165 Tg/year (Ohta 1997). Differences in microbial activity in surface water 1988).

6.3.2 Transformation and Degradation

6.3.2.1 Air

 $(O₂)$ or water vapor are very slow at ambient temperatures and pressure. Carbon monoxide reacts with dioxide and ozone, or atomic oxygen, formed by the photodissociation of molecular O_2 in the in the troposphere is through its reaction with photochemically-produced hydroxyl radicals. This results in the formation of CO_2 and atomic hydrogen, which rapidly reacts with O_2 to form peroxy radicals (EPA 2000, 2010). The second-order rate constant for the gas-phase reaction of carbon monoxide with hydroxyl radicals at atmospheric pressure has been measured as 2.4×10^{-13} cm³/molecule-second (EPA 1991). This corresponds to an estimated tropospheric half-life of approximately 22–67 days, assuming a hydroxyl radical concentration of $5.0x10⁵ - 1.5x10⁶$ hydroxyl radicals per cm³ air. No estimates of the by sunlight; therefore, their levels in indoor air will be negligible. Carbon monoxide is generally stable under environmental conditions. Reactions with molecular oxygen ground-state triplet oxygen atoms, $O(^{3}P)$, produced by the atmospheric photodegradation of nitrogen stratosphere, to form $CO₂$ (NRC 1977). However, the primary degradation pathway of carbon monoxide half-life of carbon monoxide in indoor air were located. Hydroxyl radicals are formed photochemically

6.3.2.2 Water

 Although oceans and other water bodies are considered a net source of carbon monoxide in the (Conrad and Seiler 1988). Taxonomically diverse microorganisms isolated from surface waters collected environment, evidence suggests that various microorganisms may degrade carbon monoxide in the water off the New England coast readily oxidized carbon monoxide (Tolli et al. 2006). Microbial oxidation rate constants for carbon monoxide in coastal waters were reported to range from 0.01 to 0.11 hours⁻¹, corresponding to half-lives on the order of several hours (Tolli et al. 2006). These rates were reported to be approximately an order of magnitude greater than in oligotrophic environments, suggesting the presence of an active carbon monoxide oxidizing microbial community near shore.

6.3.2.3 Sediment and Soil

 reaching the soil surface, and soil temperature (Conrad and Seiler 1985). In general, warm and moist conditions found in most soils favor uptake, whereas hot and dry conditions as found in deserts and some Soils may act as a source or a sink for carbon monoxide, depending on soil moisture, intensity of sunlight

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consumption by soil microorganisms ranged from 15 to 640 Tg (from $1.5x10^{13}$ to $6.4x10^{14}$ g) per year (King 1999a). Carbon monoxide oxidation to $CO₂$ has been demonstrated for both aerobic and anaerobic savannas favor the release of carbon monoxide (EPA 2000). Global estimates of carbon monoxide microorganisms.

6.4 LEVELS MONITORED OR ESTIMATED IN THE ENVIRONMENT

 Reliable evaluation of the potential for human exposure to carbon monoxide depends in part on the Concentrations of carbon monoxide in unpolluted atmospheres and in pristine surface waters are often so low as to be near the limits of current analytical methods. In reviewing data on carbon monoxide levels analytically is not necessarily equivalent to the amount that is bioavailable. The analytical methods reliability of supporting analytical data from environmental samples and biological specimens. monitored or estimated in the environment, it should also be noted that the amount of chemical identified available for monitoring carbon monoxide in a variety of environmental media are detailed in Chapter 7.

6.4.1 Air

 monitoring data for carbon monoxide are usually expressed or reported as either parts per million by volume (ppmv) or parts per billion by volume (ppbv). A concentration of 1 ppmv implies that for every to express these concentrations in mass units, the following conversion factors may be used: The concentration of carbon monoxide in air can be represented using various concentration units. Air million molecules of gas in the measured volume, one of them is a carbon monoxide molecule. In order 1.00 ppmv=1.16 mg/m³ (1.00 mg/m³=0.86 ppmv) and 1.00 ppbv=1.16 μg/m³ at 20 °C.

 of carbon monoxide decreases with altitude in the Northern Hemisphere, but this vertical gradient may be Southern Hemisphere (EPA 1991). Annual 24-hour average carbon monoxide concentrations obtained at monitoring locations at rural sites in the United States are typically about 0.2 ppmv, compared with an annual 24-hour average of 1.2 ppmv across all monitoring sites (EPA 2000). Carbon monoxide levels [Table 6-2](#page-8-0). These data are derived from measurements submitted to the EPA AQS database, which collects data from EPA, state, local, and tribal air pollution control agencies. As indicated by the data presented in the table, only one measurement exceeded the EPA 8-hour carbon monoxide level of 9 ppm, Annual average outdoor carbon monoxide concentrations are about 0.12 ppmv in the Northern Hemisphere and about 0.04 ppmv in the Southern Hemisphere (EPA 2000). In general, the concentration reversed in the Southern Hemisphere due to the transport of carbon monoxide from the Northern to the (1- and 8-hour maximum levels) from various cities in the United States for 2008 are provided in

^aPost office state abbreviations are used.

Source: EPA 2009i

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 and no measurements exceeded the 1-hour average level of 35 ppm at the 365 different monitoring sites. Using data from this nationwide network of monitoring sites, EPA estimated that there has been a 75% decrease in the ambient levels of carbon monoxide in the United States from 1980 to 2006 (EPA 2008).

 The EPA Integrated Science Assessment (ISA) on carbon monoxide (2010), used monitoring data from occur in the United States in the absence of anthropogenic emissions in continental North America. These remote-site baseline measurements were obtained from The National Oceanic and Atmospheric (GMD). The 3-year average carbon monoxide PRBs at remote locations outside the continental United United States (CONUS) region, the 3-year average carbon monoxide PRB concentration was 0.132 ppmv (EPA 2010). The seasonal variability of carbon monoxide levels was observed at each monitoring 2005 to 2007 at 12 remote locations in the United States to estimate policy-relevant background (PRB) concentrations of carbon monoxide. These concentrations are defined as levels that would be expected to Administration's (NOAA) Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL), Global Monitoring Division States (OCONUS) were 0.13 ppmv (Alaska sites) and 0.0992 ppmv (Hawaii sites). Over the continental location with minima achieved during the summer and fall months and maxima observed during the winter and spring seasons.

 Urban areas with heavy vehicular traffic congestion tend to have high levels of carbon monoxide in ambient air. These levels follow a predictable diurnal pattern, which reaches maximum concentrations at times of heavy commuting and then decreases during periods of low vehicular traffic. The apex of these profiles corresponds to the morning and evening rush hour commutes when vehicle density is at its atmospheric turbulence resulting from solar activity raises the height of the mixed layer, resulting in monoxide at four sites in Toronto as a function of traffic density (Campbell et al. 1995). The four areas of monoxide levels ranged from 0.63 ppmv at a low traffic density site (average daily vehicle count of 2,000 vehicles) to 1.54 ppmv at a site in which the vehicular count was about 45,000 per day (Campbell et al. 1995). Chen et al. (2008) measured carbon monoxide levels at 10 roadside pollution monitoring sites in the city of Leicester, England. A diurnal carbon monoxide concentration pattern was observed in this highest. For many locations, the morning peak yields higher carbon monoxide levels than the evening peak, because the height of the mixed layer is much lower during the morning, thereby inhibiting vertical mixing that helps dissipate the carbon monoxide. In the late afternoon and into early evening, increased generally lower carbon monoxide concentrations compared with those of the morning (EPA 2000). A study conducted by the Toronto (Canada) Public Health Department examined the level of carbon the study were categorized as low, medium, or high in terms of traffic density. Mean hourly carbon study; however, the carbon monoxide levels during the evening rush hour period generally exceeded the

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 rush hour (Chen et al. 2008). levels than the morning commute. Maximum carbon monoxide levels at these sites ranged from 0.8 to 3.1 ppmv during the morning commute, while maximum levels were 1.0–4.0 ppmv during the evening

 monoxide in vehicles along heavy traffic routes in Athens, Greece. The mean carbon monoxide exposure 11.5 ppmv for bus, trolley, electric train, and pedestrians, respectively, during the winter season (Duci et al. 2003). Besides the mode of transportation, the route travelled, the monitoring period, and the season of year had significant influences on the measured carbon monoxide concentrations. In-vehicle carbon commercial/residential area of Beirut, Lebanon under several ventilation modes (Abi Esper et al. 2007a). (Abi Esper et al. 2007a). Opening a window or setting the air conditioning unit to fresh air intake generally resulted in a reduction of carbon monoxide levels within the vehicle. High levels of carbon monoxide inside vehicles and other transportation sources that use gasoline powered engines are frequently observed. Duci et al. (2003) studied the concentration of carbon level for trips greater than 30 minutes in duration were 21.4 ppmv for private car versus 10.4, 9.6, 4, and monoxide levels were monitored in a passenger vehicle driven along a heavily traveled route of a Trips were conducted during morning rush hours in spring and summer months. The highest mean carbon monoxide levels were observed within vehicles driven with the windows and vents closed (37.4 ppmv) and windows closed and air conditioning on recirculation ventilation settings (30.8 ppmv)

 Indoor air levels of carbon monoxide are greatly dependent upon the presence of indoor combustion sources such as wood burning stoves, fireplaces, gas space heaters, and gas stoves, as well as the operating condition and usage patterns of these appliances or whether the occupants smoke. Dutton et al. natural gas fireplaces. Time-averaged carbon monoxide levels were1.5–78 ppmv at one residence and 1.6–30 ppmv at the other residence while the fireplace operated uninterrupted; however, levels >100 ppm were observed at one of the residences on several occasions. Background carbon monoxide levels were 0–7 ppmv in the homes when the fireplaces were not operating. Attached garages may also be a significant source of carbon monoxide to the indoor air of residences. The net increase of carbon monoxide levels in 16 homes with attached garages ranged from <1 to 30 ppmv following the cold start of an automobile enclosed within the attached garage (Graham et al. 2004). (2001) studied carbon monoxide levels in two residences located in Boulder, Colorado using unvented

 The levels of carbon monoxide in the surface waters of the world's oceans are supersaturated with respect to the partial pressure of carbon monoxide in the atmosphere and are subject to diurnal cycling. Levels have been reported to vary from $2x10^8$ to $1.3x10^{-7}$ cm³ carbon monoxide per cm³ of water (20–130) nanoliters per liter [nL/L]) based on measurements in the Pacific Ocean and from $2x10^{-8}$ to $1x10^{-7}$ cm³ were reported to range from 42 to 173 nL/L on two consecutive sampling dates and reached a maximum value of 246 nL/L on subsequent sampling at a later date (Ohta 1997). These levels showed a marked respectively. The concentrations in the water column decreased as a function of depth from the water surface to approximately 10 nL/L at a depth of 70 meters. Tolli et al. (2006) reported a carbon monoxide level of 12 nanomoles/L at a coastal sampling location in Vineyard Sound, Massachusetts. carbon monoxide per cm³ of water (20–100 nL/L) in the North Atlantic (Liss and Slater 1974). Carbon monoxide concentrations in seawater measured in the upwelling region of the equatorial Pacific Ocean diurnal variation with a maximum and minimum occurring early in the afternoon and morning,

6.4.3 Sediment and Soil

 In-situ soil-gas carbon monoxide levels were studied in a pine forest soil and cultivated soil as a function remained elevated (250–320 ppbv) and greater than the atmospheric levels through the upper surface soil (O-horizon, 0–2 cm depth), but declined to values less than the atmospheric level in the lower depths of from approximately 250 ppbv in the upper 1 cm of the O-horizon to approximately 50 ppbv at a depth of 3 cm, which was roughly 5-fold less than ambient atmospheric levels. of depth from the surface (King 1999b). In the pine forest soil, the carbon monoxide concentrations the soil (A-horizon 2–10 cm depth). In the cultivated soil, carbon monoxide levels decreased rapidly

6.4.4 Other Environmental Media

 Carbon monoxide is released from tobacco smoke; however, the amount released is a function of the type of tobacco product (e.g., cigarette, cigar) and the degree to which tobacco is actively smoked. Moir et al. from marijuana and tobacco cigarettes using a mechanical rotary smoking machine. The standard conditions employed a puff volume of 35 mL, puff duration of 2 seconds, and a puff interval of duration of 2 seconds, and a 30-second interval between puffs. These conditions were referred to as extreme conditions. Under standard conditions, the average±standard deviation (SD) emission of carbon (2008) examined the emissions of carbon monoxide and other compounds under two smoking conditions 60 seconds. Conditions more consistent with marijuana smoking employed a puff volume of 70 mL, puff

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 13.4±1.6 mg carbon monoxide per marijuana cigarette. Under extreme smoking conditions, the levels marijuana cigarette. These results predict that typical use of marijuana (70 mL puff volume) would result carbon monoxide emissions in sidestream smoke were 61.7±2.0 and 54.0±3.7 mg carbon monoxide per monoxide in mainstream smoke $(n=20)$ was 20.8 ± 1.9 mg carbon monoxide per tobacco cigarette and were 41.5±4.0 mg carbon monoxide per tobacco cigarette and 35.3±2.9 mg carbon monoxide per in more carbon monoxide being inhaled than during typical cigarette smoking (30 mL puff volume). The tobacco cigarette and marijuana cigarette, respectively, using the standard conditions. Under extreme smoking conditions, the levels were 61.6 ± 2.9 and 50.6 ± 3.9 mg carbon monoxide per cigarette for tobacco and marijuana cigarettes, respectively.

Emissions from plants and biomass burning are reported to contribute approximately $1x10^{14}$ g/year to the global environment (Khalil and Rasmussen 1990). The direct emission of carbon monoxide from living plants increases as a function of solar irradiance. The source of the carbon monoxide likely occurs as a result of direct photooxidation of the plant material followed by transport to the stomata; however, the exact mechanism is not fully understood (Sanderson 2002).

6.5 GENERAL POPULATION AND OCCUPATIONAL EXPOSURE

 The general population is exposed to carbon monoxide through the inhalation of indoor and outdoor air. poisoning. [Table 6-3](#page-23-0) displays the estimated number of exposure cases categorized by age and gender. Since carbon monoxide is ubiquitous in the environment, all humans are exposed to some level of carbon monoxide. The CDC estimated that during 2004–2006, an estimated average of 20,636 emergency room visits occurred for nonfatal, unintentional, non-fire-related carbon monoxide exposures annually (CDC 2008). Approximately 73% of these exposures occurred in residences, 13% occurred in workplace settings, and the rest were in other or unknown settings. The greatest number of incidences (8,538 incidences representing approximately 41% of the cases) occurred during the winter months of December through February. Nearly 70% of the incidences were diagnosed as carbon monoxide

 Weather-related disasters in which large segments of the population have lost power for extended periods devices. Two major hurricanes struck the Gulf Coast of the United States in 2005 (hurricanes Katrina and Rita) resulting in sustained power outages for many residents of the affected states. Multiple carbon monoxide poisonings were reported over the period of disrupted power, primarily due to the use of improperly vented generators (CDC 2006). Twenty-seven separate incidents of carbon monoxide of time often result in carbon monoxide-related accidents through the improper use of gasoline-powered

Table 6-3. Average Annual Estimated Non-Fatal Carbon Monoxide Exposure
Cases in the United States Emergency Room Visits (2004–2006)

^aAge data were unavailable for eight cases.

Source: CDC 2008

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 resulting in 78 nonfatal cases and 10 deaths. A portable generator was involved in 25 (93%) of the 27 incidents. Regarding the other two incidents, one involved a fixed generator and one involved a poisoning were reported during the dates of August 29–October 19, 2005, in Texas and Alabama, portable gas stove (CDC 2006).

 Recreational water craft are a source of accidental carbon monoxide exposures (USCG 2008). A study (CDC 2005). The findings of this study indicated that occupancy near carbon monoxide sources, failed carbon monoxide from generators or propulsion engines within the airspace formed by an extended rear conducted by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) confirmed 176 acute boating-related carbon monoxide poisonings over a 15-year period at a lake on the Arizona/Utah border carbon monoxide detectors, water level exhaust from generators on houseboats or cabin cruisers, and houseboat deck contributed to these accidents (CDC 2005).

 NIOSH (1996) issued a report describing carbon monoxide poisonings that occurred through the use of small gasoline-powered engines and tools such as pressure washers, gas-powered saws, and compressors. In many cases, dangerous levels of carbon monoxide built up rapidly when using these tools, even in relatively open spaces with some ventilation like parking garages or open barns.

 Blood carboxyhemoglobin (COHb) levels were measured on a cross-sectional national probability sample of persons representative of the civilian population in the United States aged 3–74 years in the second February 1980 (Radford and Drizd 1982). The statistical analysis of COHb levels in blood of the time spent indoors where carbon monoxide levels are assumed to be higher than outdoor air. A slightly higher proportion of ex-smokers had COHb levels over 2% versus people who never smoked (5.5% versus 3.6%). This accounts for the higher mean and standard deviation for ex-smokers than for never- This difference may be accounted for in part or wholly by the inclusion in the ex-smoking group of National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II) conducted from February 1976 to population based on smoking status and age is provided in [Table 6-4](#page-25-0). Four principal inhalation exposure routes were examined (outdoor air, indoor air, occupational exposure, and smoking). Of these four exposure routes, it was concluded that COHb levels in the population were most influenced by smoking status. Close examination of the data also indicated that COHb levels in the population tended to be greater during the winter months as opposed to the summer months, presumably due to the amount of smokers, because the two medians are nearly identical (0.77% COHb versus 0.74% COHb, respectively). people who incorrectly reported a history of having stopped smoking (Radford and Drizd 1982).

 Table 6-4. Carboxyhemoglobin (COHb) Levels in the U.S. Population Based Upon Smoking Status

 ${}^{a}N^{2}$ = unweighted population size
 ${}^{b}N^{3}$ – population ostimate in thour

 h^bN^3 = population estimate in thousands
 h^cN

 cigarette, cigar, or pipe smokers. Never-smokers were defined as persons who self-reported that they had smoked fewer than 100 cigarettes in their lifetimes and were not current smokers. Ex-smokers were persons who reported that they had smoked more than 100 cigarettes but were not current smokers. Current smokers were persons reporting that they were current

Source: Radford and Drizd 1982

 Additional studies have shown that COHb levels do not differ in ex-smokers versus those who never smoked (Yasuda et al. 2004).

 the EXPOLIS research project conducted from 1996 to 1998, and the results of this study have been summarized in several publications (Bruinen de Bruin et al. 2004a, 2004b; Hanninen et al. 2004). The geometric mean 48-hour exposure levels of nonsmoking subjects were 1.68, 0.82, 0.45, 2.17, and respectively (Hanninen et al. 2004). Bruinen de Bruin et al. (2004a) used data for 50 office workers residing in Milan, Italy over a 1-year period to assess the contribution of local sources to exposure and microenvironment concentrations. This study examined the time that the subjects spent in 11 different The results of this study indicated that exposures from indoor environments contributed approximately 82% of the total carbon monoxide exposures, because this is where the study population spent over 90% commuting activities, even though these activities only accounted for about 7.5% of the population's time. Carbon monoxide exposure to European populations residing in five cities have been investigated through 1.50 mg/m3 (1.45, 0.71, 0.39, 1.87, and 1.29 ppmv) in Athens, Basle, Helsinki, Milan, and Prague, microenvironments and three exposure-influencing activities: gas cooking, smoking, and commuting. of their time; however, approximately 16% of the total exposure to carbon monoxide occurred from

potentially exposed to high levels of carbon monoxide due to emissions from automobile exhaust. (2–4 PM) hours at seven gas stations located in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut (API 1994). rescue/response personnel are potentially exposed to carbon monoxide levels near or exceeding was performed to estimate the level of carbon monoxide that wildland firefighters are exposed to during various job tasks associated with that profession (Materna et al. 1992). Following a series of prescribed who tended gasoline powered pumping engines were exposed to levels as high as 300 ppmv. The mean time-weighted average (TWA) exposure level obtained from 46 personal measurements was 14.4 ppmv, or in-home use of methylene chloride paint strippers in poorly ventilated areas can lead to high levels of carbon monoxide in blood, since carbon monoxide is a metabolic byproduct of methylene chloride. Occupations such as toll both workers, gas station attendants, taxi drivers, and traffic or bicycle police are Carbon monoxide levels were monitored continuously during both morning (9 AM–12 PM) and afternoon Mean (arithmetic) concentrations of carbon monoxide at the pumping islands ranged from 1.15 to 5.44 ppmv, with a maximum 1-minute level of 144 ppmv observed at one station. Firefighters and recommended occupational exposure limits. A study conducted from 1986 to 1989 in northern California burns, the instantaneous fireline carbon monoxide levels ranged from 3 to 80 ppmv; however, firefighters but one employee had a TWA exposure of 38 ppmv and five firefighters had TWAs >25 ppmv. Industrial

6.6 EXPOSURES OF CHILDREN

 This section focuses on exposures from conception to maturity at 18 years in humans. Differences from adults in susceptibility to hazardous substances are discussed in Section 3.7, Children's Susceptibility.

 Children are not small adults. A child's exposure may differ from an adult's exposure in many ways. larger skin surface in proportion to their body volume. A child's diet often differs from that of adults. or formula to the diet of older children who eat more of certain types of foods than adults. A child's behavior and lifestyle also influence exposure. Children crawl on the floor, put things in their mouths, Children drink more fluids, eat more food, breathe more air per kilogram of body weight, and have a The developing human's source of nutrition changes with age: from placental nourishment to breast milk sometimes eat inappropriate things (such as dirt or paint chips), and spend more time outdoors. Children also are closer to the ground, and they do not use the judgment of adults to avoid hazards (NRC 1993).

The NHANES II survey (see [Table 6-4](#page-25-0)) includes COHb levels of children. Several activities may influence the levels of carbon monoxide to which children or infants are exposed. Time spent indoors when measured during the winter months of November–March, as opposed to levels obtained in May– September. The average COHb level for all children in the NHANES study aged 3–11 years was 0.87% for samples collected during the winter months and 0.58% during the summer months. The location where the children in the population resided also influenced the COHb levels observed in the study. levels (1.01% in winter months and 0.77% in summer months), while children living in rural areas had mean COHb levels of 0.79% in the winter months and 0.49% during the summer months (Radford and As with adults, children are exposed to carbon monoxide through the inhalation of indoor and outdoor air. versus outdoors, riding in automobiles, and exposure to second-hand tobacco smoke influence the total carbon monoxide exposure that children receive. COHb levels in children were significantly greater Children residing in central cities with populations over 1 million tended to have the highest mean COHb Drizd 1982).

 Pregnant females who smoke potentially expose their unborn fetus to carbon monoxide, and the health consequences of this activity have been discussed in Chapter 3. Carbon monoxide crosses the placenta and can accumulate in the fetus to a greater extent than in the mother.

6.7 POPULATIONS WITH POTENTIALLY HIGH EXPOSURES

 Populations that are exposed to high levels of vehicular traffic are expected to have greater exposure to certain occupations such as toll workers, gas station attendants, firefighters, and other professions exposed carbon monoxide, as compared to individuals in low traffic density areas. As discussed in Section 6.5, to combustion sources may have high levels of exposure.

 Members of the general population who smoke or live with smokers are exposed to higher levels of about 5% in regular smokers, but may be as high as 10% in heavy smokers (Benowitz 2003). Data from the NHANES II study indicate that mean COHb levels in the blood of smokers are approximately 4 times greater than levels for members of the nonsmoking population (Radford and Drizd 1982). More recent data support these conclusions. In a study of 11,403 men aged 35–64 years, the mean COHb level for COHb levels were measured as part of pulmonary function testing in 100 subjects in one pulmonary laboratory located in a Virginia hospital outpatient setting (Mahoney et al. 2007). COHb levels for the entire group averaged 1.9%, with a range of 1–8%. The average COHb level for nonsmokers (n=85) was 1.6%, while the level for smokers (n=15) was 3.5%. COHb levels were measured for smokers versus nonsmokers at four commercial establishments where cigarette smoking was not prohibited and COHb levels were also obtained in a control group of 50 college students and professors in a well-ventilated, commercial establishments was 5.04%, while the average value for the 27 nonsmokers was 2.49%. COHb levels ranged from 1 to 6% in the nonsmokers and from 1 to 14% in the smoking group. The carbon monoxide than nonsmoking members of the general population. COHb levels typically average nonsmokers was 0.79%, but rose to 6.54% for those who smoked >40 cigarettes/day (Law et al. 1997). nonsmoking environment (Light et al. 2007). The average COHb concentration of 33 smokers from the COHb levels in the control group were 1%.

6.8 ADEQUACY OF THE DATABASE

 the Administrator of EPA and agencies and programs of the Public Health Service) to assess whether adequate information on the health effects of carbon monoxide is available. Where adequate information is not available, ATSDR, in conjunction with National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS), is required to assure the initiation of a program of research designed to determine the health effects (and techniques for developing methods to determine such health effects) of carbon monoxide. Section 104(i)(5)(A) of CERCLA, as amended, directs the Administrator of ATSDR (in consultation with

6. POTENTIAL FOR HUMAN EXPOSURE

 The following categories of possible data needs have been identified by a joint team of scientists from that all data needs discussed in this section must be filled. In the future, the identified data needs will be evaluated and prioritized, and a substance-specific research agenda will be proposed. ATSDR, NTP, and EPA. They are defined as substance-specific informational needs that if met would reduce the uncertainties of human health assessment. This definition should not be interpreted to mean

6.8.1 Identification of Data Needs

 Physical and Chemical Properties. Information is available on the physical and chemical properties of carbon monoxide (George 2001; Lide 2008; O'Neil et al. 2006; Verschueren 2001). These data are captured in Chapter 4. No data needs are identified.

Production, Import/Export, Use, Release, and Disposal. According to the Emergency to submit substance release and off-site transfer information to the EPA. The TRI, which contains this provide a list of industrial production facilities and emissions. Adequate information on the production Planning and Community Right-to-Know Act of 1986, 42 U.S.C. Section 11023, industries are required information for 2007, became available in February of 2009. This database is updated yearly and should and use of carbon monoxide was located (George 2001); no information on the import/export of carbon monoxide was found, but these volumes are assumed to be low. Since carbon monoxide is not required to be reported under the TRI, the production and emissions from U.S. industrial facilities is not reported to the EPA. The EPA continuously updates the NEI database, which contains detailed information about sources that emit carbon monoxide. No data needs are identified.

 Environmental Fate. The environmental fate of carbon monoxide is well understood. When released to the atmosphere, carbon monoxide eventually reacts with photochemically produced hydroxyl radicals would be desirable. and is oxidized to CO_2 (EPA 2000, 2010). Microorganisms have also been shown to oxidize carbon monoxide to $CO₂$ (Tolli et al. 2006). Data on the half-life of carbon monoxide in indoor environments

 Bioavailability from Environmental Media. Carbon monoxide is a gas and is not considered bioavailable from environmental media other than air. No data needs are identified.

 chain. No data needs are identified. **Food Chain Bioaccumulation.** Carbon monoxide is a gas and does not bioaccumulate in the food

Exposure Levels in Environmental Media. Reliable monitoring data for the levels of carbon monoxide in contaminated media at hazardous waste sites are needed so that the information obtained on levels of carbon monoxide in the environment can be used in combination with the known body burden of carbon monoxide to assess the potential risk of adverse health effects in populations living in the vicinity of hazardous waste sites.

 The EPA continuously monitors carbon monoxide levels throughout the United States. The EPA's NEI database contains detailed information about sources that emit criteria air pollutants, including carbon database is EPA's repository of criteria air pollutant monitoring data since the 1970s. These databases are monoxide for the 50 United States, Washington DC, Puerto Rico, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. The AQS updated regularly.

Exposure Levels in Humans. All humans are exposed to carbon monoxide through the inhalation of ambient air. Indoor air levels of carbon monoxide are highly variable and depend upon the type, condition, and venting procedures of appliances. The NHANES II survey, conducted from February 1976 status, age, race, and other factors (Radford and Drizd 1982). These data are not current; therefore, a data to February 1980, provided an analysis of COHb levels in blood of the population based on smoking need exists to update these data with new monitoring results.

This information is necessary for assessing the need to conduct health studies on these populations.

Exposures of Children. Children are exposed to carbon monoxide by the same pathway as adults (inhalation of air). While the levels of COHb in children's blood from the NHANES II study is comprehensive, these surveys are over 2 decades old. Therefore, a data need exists to update this study with new monitoring results.

Child health data needs relating to susceptibility are discussed in Section 3.12.2, Identification of Data Needs: Children's Susceptibility.

Exposure Registries. No exposure registries for carbon monoxide were located. This substance is not currently one of the compounds for which a sub-registry has been established in the National Exposure Registry. The substance will be considered in the future when chemical selection is made for sub-registries to be established. The information that is amassed in the National Exposure Registry

 facilitates the epidemiological research needed to assess adverse health outcomes that may be related to exposure to this substance.

6.8.2 Ongoing Studies

 The Federal Research in Progress (FEDRIP 2009) database provides additional information obtainable from a few ongoing studies that may fill in some of the data needs identified in Section 6.8.1. A study being conducted by Ohio State University (Ross Kauffman, principal investigator) seeks to study tobacco administrators with the information needed to develop successful policies by gathering information on study is also intended to lay the groundwork for future studies of tobacco use in prison facilities. It is anticipated that this study will address COHb levels in the prison facilities. use in two Ohio prisons. One objective of this study is to examine the influence of an indoor tobacco ban on smoking behaviors among low-security prisoners. A second objective is to provide prison prisoner attitudes toward tobacco control policies and cessation programs in correctional settings. The