Reactive Oxygen Species in Incense Smoke

Mei-Chung Kao¹ and Chiu-Sen Wang^{1, 2, 3 *}

¹ Graduate Institute of Environmental Health

² Department of Public Health

³ Graduate Institute of Occupational Medicine and Industrial Hygiene

^{1, 2, 3} National Taiwan University

No. 1, Jen-Ai Road, Section 1, Taipei, Taiwan

The objective of this study is to determine the concentration of reactive oxygen species (ROS) generated from burning incense in an experimental chamber with a volume of 288 liters and a continuous supply of filtered air at 15 l/min. A Micro-Environmental Monitor (MEM) collected PM₁ and PM_{2.5} from the incense smoke on 37-mm polycarbonate membrane filters. The ROS in particles were extracted using dichlorofluorescein-horseradish peroxidase (DCFH₂-HRP) reagent. Additionally, two parallel sampling trains, each consisting of a filter cassette and 3 impingers connected in series, were employed to simultaneously collect ROS in particles and in gas phase. Each impinger contained 10 ml of the DCFH₂-HRP reagent for absorbing ROS in gas phase. The samples obtained by filter cassette were treated as the MEM samples. Subsequently, the extracts and impinger samples were incubated at 37 °C for 15 min and the fluorescence intensity of resulting dichlorofluorescein (DCF) was determined. Fluorescence intensity data were converted to equivalent H₂O₂ concentrations using calibration curves obtained from fluorescence measurement of standard DCF solutions. For samples collected 1 hr after one joss stick of black signaloes was lit in the experimental chamber, the mean ROS concentrations in PM₁ and PM_{2.5} were 15.60 ± 1.00 and 13.50 ± 1.30 nmol H₂O₂/mg of particles, respectively. In contrast, the mean ROS concentrations in PM₁ and PM_{2.5} sampled from an apartment (free of incense smoke, cooking fumes, and cigarette smoke) were 6.54 ± 1.00 and 4.06 ± 2.04 nmol H₂O₂/mg, respectively. When one joss stick of black signaloes was burned for 1 hr in the experimental chamber, the mean ROS concentration was 0.94 ± 0.06 nmol H₂O₂/l of air in gas phase and 1.06 ± 0.05 nmol H₂O₂/l in particles. The finding could have important health implications because particulate ROS in inhaled air could easily reach the alveolar region.

Keywords: Incense smoke, aerosol, reactive oxygen species

1. Introduction

Reactive oxygen species (ROS), a term used to collectively describe oxygen-containing species with strong oxidizing ability, can cause respiratory inflammation, lung cancer, and other adverse health effects. Both endogenous and exogenous sources of ROS exist. Biological systems produce ROS to defend against foreign

Corresponding author:

Tel: +886-2-2341-0065

Fax: +886-2-2351-6701

E-mail address: cswang@ccms.ntu.edu.tw

organisms and other environmental challenges. Many studies of ROS have focused on their generation by biological systems (Kao et al., 1998; Vallyathan et al., 1995). On the other hand, Sagai et al. (1993) demonstrated that particles in diesel emissions can produce significant amounts of ROS, and do so in vivo without any biological activating systems. Photochemical reactions in polluted air also produce ROS. Earlier studies on atmospheric ROS have focused primarily on ROS in the gas phase and in rain and cloud droplets (Olszyna et al., 1988; Sakugawa and Kaplan, 1990; Hellpointner and Gäb, 1989). In a recent report on ROS in various particle fractions of Taipei aerosols, Hung and Wang (2001) showed that ROS concentrations in ambient particles correlate well with the intensity of photochemical reactions and that, for the same particle mass, smaller particles had higher ROS contents.

Combustion of organic materials such as cigarette and wood also can generate reactive oxygen species (Valavanidis et al., 1996; Leonard et al., 2000). A common source of combustion aerosols in Taiwan is incense burning, a religious practice followed by Taoists and Buddhists when they pray to gods and ancestors. Joss sticks are made of powdered incense wood coated on thin wooden sticks. ROS generated from burning joss sticks appear in both the gas and particulate phases. Particles in combustion aerosols are generally less than a few tenths of a micrometer in diameter and therefore have relatively high rates of deposition in the alveolar region of the respiratory tract. Consequently, ROS in combustion particles can reach the lower respiratory tract and therefore have greater health effects than the gas phase ROS, which are mostly absorbed by mucus in the upper respiratory tract.

Previous studies on aerosols generated from burning incense have focused mainly on particle concentrations, size distributions, and elemental and organic compositions. Cheng et al. (1995)

reported the results of a study on particle sizes and concentrations in incense smoke using a 34 m³ test room, while Kao and Lung (2000) measured concentrations of incense smoke at a residence as well as the concentration level to which worshipers were exposed at temples. Furthermore, Hu and Lung (2000) reported the rates at which particles were generated for various time intervals after the lighting of a joss stick. Other studies have also looked at aldehydes (Wang, 1992), elemental and organic compositions (Hung et al., 1993), and PAHs (Hsieh, 1996) in incense smoke. This study aims to determine the ROS concentrations in both the gas and particulate phases in incense smoke.

2. Materials and Methods

Rapid measurements of ROS can be taken using a fluorogenic probe. Dichlorofluorescein (DCFH₂), a non-fluorescent compound, forms highly fluorescent dichlorofluorescein (DCF) upon reaction with ROS. The dichlorofluorescein-horseradish peroxidase (DCFH₂-HRP) reagent solution used in this study was prepared using the procedure described by Black and Brandt (1974). Mixing 0.5 ml of 1 mM ethanol solution of 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH₂-DA) with 2 ml of 0.01 N NaOH solution yielded an unstable DCFH₂ solution. This DCFH₂ solution was then incubated at room temperature in a darkened cabinet for 30 min and then mixed with 10 ml of sodium phosphate buffer solution to maintain a PH value of 7.2 in the resulting solution. The prepared DCFH₂ solution was refrigerated and stored in a darkened cabinet. To catalyze the reaction between DCFH₂ and ROS, horseradish peroxidase (HRP) was added to the DCFH₂ solution before it was used to extract ROS from the samples.

Figure 1 A schematic diagram of the experimental system

A Cytofluor 2300 microplate reader (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA) was employed to determine the fluorescence intensity of the DCF formed from reactions between DCFH₂ and ROS in each sample. Measurements were made with an excitation wavelength of 485 ± 20 nm and an emission wavelength of 530 ± 25 nm. Data on the fluorescence intensity were converted to equivalent H₂O₂ concentrations using calibration curves, which were obtained from measuring the fluorescence of standard DCF solutions using the procedure described by Cathcart et al. (1983).

The incenses used in this study were red signaloes, dark red signaloes, and black signaloes. The first two had identical ingredients, except that a dark dye was added to the second type, while the third type was made of a different kind of wood. The joss sticks were burned in an experimental chamber (Figure 1). Two plates were inserted in the chamber to direct air to flow around them, and the incense stick was placed

between the two plates for each run. The chamber had a volume of 288 liters and a continuous supply of filtered air at 15 l/min. The average residence time of air in the chamber was 19.2 min, and therefore particle concentrations reached the steady state about one hour after an incense stick began to burn.

A Micro-Environmental Monitor (MEM, MSP Corporation, Minneapolis, MN, USA) was placed in the chamber to collect smoke particles on 37-mm polycarbonate membrane filters. An appropriate inlet allows the MEM to collect either PM₁ or PM_{2.5} samples. The sampling flow rate was 10 l/min and the sampling period 1 min. For comparison, 8-hr particle samples were collected by an MEM from 8:00 to 16:00 in an apartment free of incense smoke, cooking fumes, and cigarette smoke.

All filters were weighed before and after sampling to determine the mass of particles collected. Following weighing, each filter sample

Figure 2 Size distributions of particles in black lignaloes smoke in the experimental chamber at various combustion times. Data in the range of 0.013- 0.80 μm were SMPS measurements and data in the range of 0.80-2.5 μm were APS measurements.

was mixed with 10 ml of 1 μM DCFH₂-HRP reagent and sonicated for 10 min to extract ROS from the particles.

Another sampling system, consisting of two parallel trains, each with a filter cassette followed by 3 impingers connected in series, was employed to collect ROS in particulate phase and gas phase simultaneously. Each impinger contained 10 ml of the DCFH₂-HRP reagent. The sampling flow rate was 1 l/min and the sampling period was 1 min. The particle samples obtained by the filter cassette were treated exactly the same as the MEM samples. The extracts and samples collected by impingers were incubated at

37 °C for 15 min and the fluorescence intensity of DCF resulting from reactions between DCF and ROS in each sample was determined.

A Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, Model 3934, TSI Inc., St. Paul, MN, USA) and an Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (APS, Model 3310A, TSI Inc., St. Paul, MN, USA) were employed to determine the size distributions of incense smoke particles in the range of 0.013-0.80 and 0.80-2.5 μm , respectively.

3. Results and Discussion

Figure 3 Comparison of ROS concentrations per unit mass of particles in PM₁ and PM_{2.5} generated from burning of various incenses and in indoor aerosol. Each broad bar represents the mean of *n* samples and the error bar represents one standard deviation. The ROS concentration is expressed in terms of the equivalent H₂O₂ concentration.

Figure 2 shows some typical size distributions of smoke particles measured at various times after a joss stick of black lignaloes was lit in the experimental chamber. The curve for 0-5 min peaked at a particle size of about 0.3 μm . The number concentration of smoke particles increased with time because of particle accumulation in the chamber, while the peak shifted towards larger particles as a result of coagulation. Comparison of the curves for 15-20 min and 55-60 min indicates that the size distribution almost reached the steady state at 20 min. Particles generated from burning of red lignaloes and dark red lignaloes had size distributions similar to those shown in Figure 2, confirming that incense smoke particles were

mainly smaller than 1 μm in aerodynamic diameter, as reported previously by Cheng et al. (1995).

For both PM₁ and PM_{2.5}, the mass concentration of particles generated from the burning of black lignaloes joss sticks was lower than for red lignaloes and dark red lignaloes joss sticks. The mean PM₁ concentration and the standard deviation determined 1 hr after a stick was lit in the chamber were $26,391 \pm 2,077 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for red lignaloes, $30,935 \pm 2,641 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for dark red lignaloes and $17,306 \pm 2,996 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for black lignaloes (all based on 10 samples). The rates at which PM₁ particles were generated from burning one joss stick in the experimental chamber, calculated from steady state mass concentration

Figure 4 Combustion temperature as a function of the number of joss sticks for various incenses.

data, were 396, 464, and 260 $\mu\text{g}/\text{min}$ for red linaloes, dark red linaloes, and black linaloes, respectively. Among the three types of incense, black linaloes had the lowest generation rate for both PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ particles. The rate at which particles were generated by the burning of one stick of black linaloes obtained in this study was comparable to the rates of 230-280 $\mu\text{g}/\text{min}$ reported by Cheng et al. (1995).

Figure 3 compares the ROS concentrations per unit mass of particles in PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ generated from burning various types of incense with the particles collected at the smoke free apartment. For samples collected after one joss stick had burned for 1 hr in the experimental chamber, the ROS concentration in PM_{10} particles was 11.40 ± 0.80 nmol $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{mg}$ of particles for red linaloes, 11.60 ± 0.70 nmol $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{mg}$ of particles for dark red linaloes, and 13.50 ± 1.30 nmol $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{mg}$ of particles for black linaloes (all based on 10 samples). In contrast, unburned incense powder that was composed of very large particles had a mean ROS concentration of 2.54 ± 0.68 nmol $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{mg}$ of particles (based on 3 samples).

The ROS concentration in particles from black linaloes incense was appreciably higher than the ROS concentrations in particles from red and dark red linaloes incenses. It is interesting to note that the burning temperature of black linaloes incense was also considerably higher than that of the other two types of incense. Figure 4 shows the temperature at the burning tip of various incenses measured by a thermocouple. Temperature measurements were made for single sticks as well as for multiple sticks tied together in a bundle, and combustion temperature was found to increase with the number of joss sticks. For black linaloes, the temperature increased from 360 °C at the tip of a burning stick to 450 °C at the tip of a bundle of 50 burning sticks. For a given number of sticks in a bundle, the combustion temperature of black linaloes was at least 30 °C higher than those of the other two types of incense.

As expected, particles collected at the apartment had the lowest ROS concentration. The mean ROS concentrations in PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ particles collected 1 hr after a joss stick of black

lignaloos incense was lit in the chamber were 15.60 ± 1.00 and 13.50 ± 1.30 nmol H₂O₂/mg of particles, respectively. By contrast, the mean ROS concentrations in PM₁ and PM_{2.5} particles sampled from the apartment were 6.54 ± 1.00 and 4.06 ± 2.04 nmol H₂O₂/mg of particles, respectively. It is, however, to be noted that the sampling duration for particles from burning joss stick was only 1 min, while that for particles in the apartment was 8 hr. As particle samples from the apartment were collected using a long sampling period and a high flow rate, the ROS concentrations could be underestimated. Particles generated from burning incense sticks and particle samples from the apartment both revealed more ROS in a unit mass of PM₁ particles than in a unit mass of PM_{2.5} particles. Analyses of ash comprising large particles that had fallen from a burning incense stick gave a mean ROS concentration of 0.67 ± 0.37 nmol H₂O₂/mg of particles (based on 3 samples). These measured results indicate that smaller particles have a higher ROS content than larger particles with the same particle mass.

From the viewpoint of health effects, it is interesting to compare the ROS concentrations in the gas and particulate phases. Measurements were made 1 hr after a joss stick of black lignaloos was lit in the experimental chamber. For comparison, the ROS concentration is expressed in terms of nmol H₂O₂ per unit volume of air in the chamber. The mean ROS concentration was found to be 0.94 ± 0.06 nmol H₂O₂/l of air in the gas phase and 1.06 ± 0.05 nmol H₂O₂/l in the particulate phase (mean $\pm$ standard deviation of 5 samples). Expressed in terms of percentage of the total amount of ROS, the percentage of ROS in the particulate phase was 53 %, while that in the gas phase was 47 %.

ROS Measurements were also made for freshly generated particles, which were collected immediately after 15 joss sticks of black

lignaloos began to burn in the experimental chamber. It was necessary to burn 15 joss sticks simultaneously in order to yield sufficiently high aerosol concentrations so that a 1-min sample would contain sufficient particles for analysis. To eliminate the effect of neighboring joss sticks on combustion temperature, the sticks were placed at least 3 cm apart. The ROS concentration in freshly generated particles was found to be 17.5 ± 1.3 nmol H₂O₂/mg of particles (mean $\pm$ standard deviation of 4 samples). By contrast, the ROS concentration in aged particles collected 1 hr after a joss stick was lit was 14.8 ± 0.9 nmol H₂O₂/mg of particles (mean $\pm$ standard deviation of 5 samples). ROS in particles decayed with time, probably owing to evaporation or reactions with reducing agents in the air. It is to be noted that particle samples collected 1 hr after a joss stick was lit actually consisted of particles with ages ranging from 0 to 60 min.

4. Conclusions

Burning of incense generated high concentrations of ROS in particles and in the gas phase. The ROS concentrations in both PM₁ and PM_{2.5} generated from a burning incense stick were considerably higher than those in particles sampled from an apartment that was free of incense smoke, cooking fumes, and cigarette smoke. For both incense smoke particles generated in the experimental chamber and particles collected from the apartment, the amount of ROS in a unit mass of PM₁ particles exceeded that in a unit mass of PM_{2.5} particles. When one joss stick of black lignaloos had burned for 1 hr in the experimental chamber, the percentage of ROS in particulate phase (53 %) was higher than the percentage of ROS in gas phase (47 %). As fine particles can reach the alveolar region of the respiratory tract, ROS in particles can cause greater adverse health effects

than ROS in the gas phase, which were mostly absorbed by mucus in upper lung airways. In view of the potential health effects of particulate ROS, further investigation is needed on the factors affecting concentrations of ROS in particles generated from incense burning.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported in part by the Taiwan National Science Council Grant No. NSC 89-2314-B-002-382.

References

- Black M.J. and Brandt R.B. (1974), Spectro-fluorometric Analysis of Hydrogen Peroxide, *Analytical Biochemistry* 58: 246-254.
- Cathcart R., Schwieters E. and Ames B.N. (1983), Detection of Picomole Levels of Hydroperoxides Using a Fluorescent Dichlorofluorescein Assay, *Analytical Biochemistry* 134: 111-116.
- Cheng Y.S., Bechtold W.E., Yu C.C. and Hung I.F. (1995), Incense Smoke: Characterization and Dynamics in Indoor Environments, *Aerosol Sci. Technol.* 23: 271-281.
- Hellpointner E. and Gäb S. (1989), Detection of Methyl, Hydroxymethyl and Hydroxyethyl Hydroperoxides in Air and Precipitation, *Nature* 337: 631.
- Hsieh C.H. (1996), A study of the characteristics of PAHs in indoor air of temples, M.S. Thesis, National Cheng Kung University Graduate Institute of Environmental Engineering, Tainan, Taiwan.
- Hu S.C. and Lung S.C. (2000), A Study of the Generation Rates of Aerosol Particles and PAHs from Burning of Two Types of Incense, *Proceedings of the 2000 Conference on Aerosol Science and Technology*, Hsinchu, Taiwan, September 15-16, 2000, 245-250.
- Hung H.F. and Wang C.S. (2001), Experimental Determination of Reactive Oxygen Species in Taipei Aerosols, *J. Aerosol Sci.* 32: 1201-1211.
- Hung I.F., Wang S.H., Hu C.C., Fang H.F., Yu C.C., Tung C.J. and Cheng Y.S. (1993), Presented at the American Association for Aerosol Research Meeting, Oct. 11-15, Oak Brook, IL., U.S.A.
- Kao M.C. and Lung S.C. (2000), Personal Particulate Exposures in Buddhist Temples, *Chin J Public Health (Taipei)*, 19(2): 138-143.
- Kao M.L., Jee S.H., Chou M.H. and Ueng T.H. (1998), Involvement of Oxidative Stress in Motorcycle Exhaust Particle-induced DNA Damage and Inhibition of Intercellular Communication, *Mutation Research* 413: 143-150.
- Leonard S.S., Wang S., Shin X., Jordan B.S., Castranova V. and Dubick M.A. (2000), Wood Smoke Particles Generate Free Radicals and Cause Lipid Peroxidation, DNA Damage, NF κ B Activation and TNF- α Release in Macrophages, *Toxicology* 150: 147-157.
- Olszyna K.J., Meagher J.F., and Bailey E.M. (1988), Gas Phase, Cloud and Rain-water Measurements of Hydrogen Peroxide at a High-elevation Site, *Atmospheric Environment* 22:1699.
- Sagai M., Saito H., Ichinose T., Kodama M., and Mori Y. (1993), Biological Effects of Diesel Exhaust Particles. I. In vitro Production of Superoxide and in vivo Toxicity in Mouse, *Free Radical Biology and Medicine* 14: 37.
- Sakugawa H. and Kaplan I.R. (1990), Observation of the Diurnal Variation of Gaseous H₂O₂ in Los Angeles Air Using a Cryogenic Collection Method, *Aerosol Sci. Technol.* 12: 77.

Valavanidis A., Balomenou H., Macropoulou I. and Zarodimos I. (1996), A Study of the Synergistic Interaction of Asbestos Fibers with Cigarette Tar Extracts for the Generation of Hydroxyl Radicals in Aqueous Buffer Solution, *Free Radical Biology & Medicine* 20(6): 853-858.

Vallyathan V., Castranova V., Pack D., Leonard S., Shumaker J., Hubbs A.F., Shoemaker D.A., Ramsey D.M., Pretty J.R., McLaurin J.L., Khan A. and Teass A. (1995), Freshly Fractured Quartz Inhalation Leads to Enhanced Lung Injury and Inflammation, *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine* 150:1003-1009.

Wang L.H. (1993), A Study of Aliphatic Aldehyde Gases in Incense Smoke, M.S. Thesis, National Taiwan University Graduate Institute of Public Health, Taipei, Taiwan.

Received for review, January 29, 2002

Accepted, March 6, 2002

AAQR-2002-07