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INFLUENCE OF SAMPLING APPROACH ON CONCENTRATIONS OF LEGACY AND "NOVEL" BROMINATED FLAME RETARDANTS IN INDOOR DUST

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10 ABSTRACT

11 The study investigates the impact of sampling method on the concentrations of PBDEs (BDE-12 28, BDE-47, BDE-99, BDE-100, BDE-153, BDE-154, BDE-183, and BDE-209) and NBFRs 13 (PBEB, EH-TBB, BEH-TEBP, BTBPE and DBDPE) in indoor dust. A total of 36 dust samples 14 were collected from 12 homes in Birmingham, UK (3 samples per home comprising researcher 15 collected dust - both RCD from the living room (RCDL) and bedroom (RCDB), with an additional householder vacuum dust sample - HHVD). BDE-209 was the predominant 16 17 compound, with average concentrations of 2642, 2336 and 2634 ng/g in RCDL, RCDB and 18 HHVD respectively. The next most abundant BFR was BEH-TEBP, followed by DBDPE, 19 with average concentrations of 306, 339 and 233 ng/g for BEH-TEBP and 155, 91 and 152 20 ng/g for DBDPE in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD respectively. Average concentrations of Σ_6 tri-21 hexa-BDEs were 47, 41, and 24 ng/g in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD respectively. With the 22 exception of Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs, BDE-153, BDE-99 and to some extent BEH-TEBP, no 23 significant differences were found between BFR concentrations in RCD and HHVD. 24 Statistically significant correlations were observed between concentrations of Σ_6 tri-hexa-25 BDEs, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE in HHVD and in both RCDL and RCDB. However, comparison of estimates of exposure via dust ingestion based on these two sampling methods 26 27 revealed that using householder vacuum dust underestimates exposure, particularly for Σ_6 tri-28 hexa-BDEs, and to some extent for BEH-TEBP. In contrast, HHVD could be a viable 29 alternative to RCD as a metric of exposure for higher brominated BFRs.

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33 HIGHLIGHTS

- BFRs measured in researcher-collected (RCD) and house holder vacuum dust (HHVD).
- Concentrations of more volatile BFRs and BEH-TEBP in HHVD lower than those in RCD.
- Concentrations of less volatile do not vary significantly between the two sampling methods.
- 37 $Σ_6$ tri-hexa-BDEs, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE in HHVD and RCD significantly correlated.
- Using HHVD may underestimate exposure for Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs and BEH-TEBP.

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66 **1. INTRODUCTION**

67 Polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) and "novel" brominated flame retardants (NBFRs) 68 are chemicals added to a wide range of consumer products (electrical and electronic equipment, 69 textiles, polyurethane and polystyrene foams) to meet flame retardancy standards set by various 70 jurisdictions worldwide (Danish EPA, 2013; USEPA, 2014). Since in most applications these 71 chemicals are used additively, they can transfer from such products into the environment 72 (WHO, 1997; Alaee et al., 2003; USEPA, 2010). Evidence of their persistence and capacity for 73 bioaccumulation, coupled with their adverse health effects have led to concern about human 74 exposure (USEPA, 2006; 2008a; 2008b; 2008c; NICNAS, 2007; Noyes et al., 2010; Chevrier 75 et al., 2010; EFSA, 2012; European Commission, 2012; Johnson et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; Mankidy et al., 2014; Mariani, et al., 2015). Ingestion of indoor settled dust appears to represent 76 77 a major pathway of exposure to BFRs particularly for young children (Jones-Otazo et al., 2005; 78 Wilford et al., 2005; Harrad et al., 2008a: 2008b; 2010; Abdallah et al. 2008; Lorber, 2008; 79 Roosens et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010; Besis and Samara 2012; Stapleton et al., 2012; Qi et 80 al., 2014; Hoffman et al., 2015).

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82 To date, there are few studies that have investigated the association between indoor dust 83 sampling method and the concentration of pollutants. For determining exposure of children to 84 lead-contaminated household dust, early studies investigated different house dust sampling 85 methods, indicating that the HVS3 (high-volume small surface sampler) had the highest level 86 of precision among different standardised vacuuming and wipe sampling methods (Sterling et 87 al., 1999), due to the small particles that can be retained by the HVS3 (Lioy et al., 2002). This method has subsequently been widely used, although it can be expensive, complicated and 88 89 time-consuming (Mercier et al., 2011; USEPA, 2008d). Thus, commercial household vacuum 90 cleaners are widely used as an alternative to the HVS3. By using a household vacuum cleaner, 91 two approaches for dust collection are commonly used in studies of indoor contaminants. One 92 of these approaches involves householders providing the contents of their vacuum cleaners to 93 the researchers (Harrad et al., 2006; Suzuki et al., 2006; Kopp et al., 2012; Shen et al., 2015; 94 Cristale et al., 2016). The principal advantages of the householder vacuum cleaner approach 95 are that: it reflects indoor contamination from all rooms, is cost-effective, provides a large 96 quantity of dust in a short time, and enhances donor compliance, by obviating the need for 97 researchers to enter the home (Harrad et al., 2010). However, dust collected by this approach 98 may be contaminated by the inner part of the vacuum cleaner, thereby reducing the accuracy 99 of this method. Moreover, spatial variability, temporal variability and dust loading cannot be

100 assessed by this method, as the time and locations covered by the sample are unknown. In 101 addition, vacuum cleaner sampling rates are variable (Harrad et al., 2010). Another approach 102 involves the use of a commercial vacuum cleaner by the researchers themselves by using 103 standardized procedures and specific accessories such as socks inserted in the sampling train 104 to retain dust (Brommer et al., 2012; Ali et al., 2013; Harrad et al., 2016), Soxhlet thimbles (Allen et al., 2008; Stapleton et al., 2012) and filters (Björklund et al., 2012; Thuresson et al., 105 106 2012; Newton et al., 2015). The main advantages of such researcher-collected dust approaches 107 are that: it minimises contamination of the sample due to specific accessories which are 108 replaced or cleaned between taking each sample, and that it provides information about the 109 specific time and location of collection of each dust sample, thereby facilitating study of within-110 room and within-home spatial and temporal variations in BFR concentrations. However, in comparison with the householder vacuum approach, this method is expensive and time-111 112 consuming, and may possibly hinder donor compliance as it requires entry of the researcher to 113 the sampled microenvironment (Harrad et al., 2010). Only two studies (Allen et al., 2008; Björklund et al., 2012) have investigated the variation between researcher-collected and 114 115 household vacuum approaches for analysing PBDE in indoor dust. Overall, the two studies 116 reported PBDE concentrations in researcher-collected dust exceeded significantly those in 117 householder-donated vacuum cleaner dust.

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119 The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of two commonly-employed dust sampling methods on the concentrations of eight PBDEs (BDE-28, BDE-47, BDE-99, BDE-100, BDE-120 121 153, BDE-154, BDE-183 and BDE-209) and five NBFRs: pentabromoethylbenzene (PBEB), 122 2-ethylhexyl-2,3,4,5-tetrabromobenzoate (EH-TBB), bis (2-ethylhexyl) 3,4,5,6-123 tetrabromophthalate (BEH-TEBP), 2-bis (2,4,6-tribromophenoxy) ethane (BTBPE), and 124 decabromodiphenylethane (DBDPE) in indoor dust and to evaluate the extent to which these 125 sampling methods influence exposure assessments to BFRs via dust ingestion. To our 126 knowledge, this study is the first investigation of the influence of sampling approach on 127 concentrations of NBFRs in indoor dust.

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129 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

130 **2.1. Sampling and sample preparation**

Dust samples (n = 36) were collected from 12 homes between September 2014 and April 2015.
In each home, two floor dust samples were collected by the researcher (researcher-collected dust- RCD) with the householder additionally providing the contents of their vacuum cleaner

134 (household vacuum dust- HHVD). RCD samples were obtained from the living room (RCDL) 135 and bedroom (RCDB) of each house according to a clearly defined standard protocol (Harrad 136 et al., 2008a). Briefly, by using a handheld vacuum cleaner (DIRT DEVIL-DDMHH1-1100W), 137 1 m² of carpeted floor area was vacuumed for 2 min, using 25 μ m pore size nylon sample socks 138 mounted in the furniture attachment tube of the vacuum cleaner. After sampling, socks were 139 closed with a twist tie, sealed in plastic bags. Before sampling, the furniture attachment and the 140 vacuum tubing were cleaned thoroughly using isopropanol-impregnated disposable wipes and dried between collections. HHVD samples were collected at the same time. The dust bag from 141 142 the householder's own vacuum cleaner was wrapped in aluminium foil and sealed in a plastic bag. All samples were stored at -20 °C until analysis. Prior to analysis, dust samples were 143 passed through a pre-cleaned, n-hexane rinsed 250 µm mesh steel sieve covered with the lid 144 and shaken for 3-5 min. Field blanks were conducted which consisted of sodium sulfate that 145 spread on aluminium foil, collected using the vacuum cleaner used to collect RCD and treated 146 147 as a sample.

148 149

150 **2.2. Sample extraction, clean up and instrumental analysis**

151 PBDEs and NBFRs in dust samples were analysed following the same extraction method as reported elsewhere (Ali et al., 2011; Van den Eede et al., 2012, Al-Omran and Harrad 2016a; 152 2016b) with minor modifications. Accurately weighted aliquots of dust (~ 0.1 g) were spiked 153 with a mixture of internal standards (20 ng of BDE-77, BDE-128, ¹³CBTBPE, ¹³CBEH-TEBP, 154 and 40 ng of ¹³CBDE-209) in isooctane. Dust samples were extracted with 2 mL *n*-hexane: 155 156 acetone (3:1 v/v), 2× (vortexed for 2 min, sonicated for 5 min) and centrifuged at 3500 rev/min 157 for 5 min. The extraction process was repeated three times and the combined extracts were 158 evaporated to incipient dryness under a gentle nitrogen stream, resolubilised in 1 mL of n-159 hexane.

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161 Concentrated crude sample extracts were purified according to a previously reported method 162 (Al-Omran and Harrad 2016a; 2016b) involving two steps. Briefly, in the first step, the extract 163 was fractionated into two fractions (F1 and F2) using a 2 g Florisil SPE cartridge. F1 164 (containing PBDEs, DBDPE and PBEB) was eluted with 12 mL of hexane and F2 (containing 165 the rest of the targeted NBFRs) was eluted with 15 mL ethyl acetate. After evaporation to 1 166 mL, a second purification step for F1 was conducted on 2 g acid silica (44% w/w) eluted with 167 15 mL *n*-hexane/DCM (1:1, v/v). F2 was evaporated to dryness, resolubilised in 3-5 mL of 168 hexane, then evaporated to 1 mL, and eluted with 12 mL *n*-hexane/DCM (1:1, v/v) using an 169 aminopropyl functionalised silica column (0.5 g). F1 and F2 were combined and evaporated to 170 incipient dryness, before resolubilisation in 100 μ L of iso-octane containing PCB-129 at 250 171 pg/ μ L ready for GC/MS analysis.

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Target PBDEs and NBFRs were quantified using a gas chromatograph (GC) (Trace 1310 Gas 173 174 Chromatograph) coupled to a mass spectrometer (MS) (ISQ Quadrupole MS); both (Thermo 175 Fisher Scientific, USA) according to our previous study of BFRs in indoor dust (Al-Omran 176 and Harrad 2016b). The GC was equipped with a programmable temperature vaporiser (PTV) 177 injector and fitted with a capillary fused silica column (RESTEK, USA, 15 m x 0.25 mm inner 178 diameter, 0.25 µm film thickness). The MS was operated in the electron capture negative ion 179 (ECNI) mode. Table S1 shows quantification ions, qualification ions and retention times 180 monitored for target compounds, internal standards (IS) and the recovery determination 181 standard (RDS).

182

183 **2.3. Quality assurance/Quality control**

All glassware was cleaned by soaking them overnight in a detergent solution. After washing, 184 185 glassware and Pasteur pipettes were heated to 470 °C for 5 h. Before use, glassware was rinsed 186 with acetone and hexane. To avoid any degradation that may occur via exposure to light, 187 glassware and the Turbovap instrument were covered with aluminium foil. To assess any 188 possible contamination during sample preparation and analysis method, one laboratory blank 189 was processed in parallel with every set of 6 dust samples and one quality control sample (NIST 190 SRM 2585, organics in indoor dust) was processed with every 12 real dust samples. Limits of detection (LOD) were estimated based on a signal to noise ratio 3:1 and limits of quantification 191 192 (LOQ) were estimated based on signal to noise ratio 10:1. Where a target compound (as was 193 the case in some instances for BEH-TEBP and BDE-209) was detected a blank, the LOQ for 194 that analyte was calculated as the mean plus 3 times the standard deviation of the concentrations 195 detected in 10 blank samples. Field blanks (n = 5) were also collected to assess any 196 contamination contributed as a result of sampling, transport and storage of samples, in addition 197 to any introduced as a result of extraction and clean-up. The average of internal standard 198 recoveries in dust samples ranged from 75-93%. PBDE and NBFR concentrations in SRM2585

detected in this study were in good agreement with the certified values and those reported in
other studies. Tables S3, S4 and S5 report internal standard recovery values, along with PBDE
and NBFR concentrations in SRM2585 detected in this study.

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203 2.4. Statistical analysis

204 Statistical analysis of our data was performed using Microsoft Excel 2013 and IBM SPSS 205 statistics software (V. 20). To test any differences in mean BFR dust concentrations between 206 the two collection methods (researcher-collected and household vacuum), and between the two 207 researcher-collected rooms (living room and bedroom) one way repeated measures ANOVA 208 was performed. After testing for normality using the Shapiro–Wilk test confirmed our data to 209 display a skewed distribution, data were transformed using the natural logarithm of 210 concentrations (ng/g dw). For the purposes of statistical evaluation, all concentrations below 211 LOQ were assigned a value of 0.5 LOQ. A p value < 0.05 was taken to indicate statistical 212 significance. A Pearson correlation was used to test the relationship between BFR 213 concentrations in dust collected via the two sampling methods.

214

215 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

216 **3.1. Influence of dust sampling approach on BFR concentrations**

217 **3.1.1 Detection frequencies and the relationship between BFRs**

218 In all dust samples (n = 36), the detection frequency of PBDEs (BDE-28, BDE-47, BDE-99, 219 BDE-100, BDE-153, BDE-154, BDE-183 and BDE-209) and NBFRs (PBEB, EH-TBB, 220 BTBPE, BEH-TEBP, and DBDPE) ranged from 50% to 100%. The detection frequencies of 221 BDE-209, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE were 100% in both researcher-collected dust (RCD) and 222 household vacuum dust (HHVD). BDE-28, BDE-100, BDE-154, and PBEB were in the lowest 223 detection frequencies. They were thus not accounted for individual statistical comparison, but 224 were instead included in Σ_7 tri-hexa-BDEs (BDE-28, BDE-47, BDE-99, BDE-100, BDE-153) 225 and BDE-154) and Σ_5 NBFRs (PBEB, EH-TBB, BTBPE, BEH-TEBP, and DBDPE). Table S6 226 lists detection frequencies of PBDEs and NBFRs in this study.

- 227
- Among our target BFRs, BDE-209 was predominant, with average percentage contributions to
- 229 Σ BFRs (sum of Σ_7 tri-hepta-BDEs, BDE-209 and Σ_5 NBFRs) of 83.2%, 82.7% and 85.9% in
- 230 RCDL, RCDB and HHVD respectively. Σ_5 NBFRs were the next most abundant parameter,

231 with average contributions of 15.1%, 15.8% and 13% in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD 232 respectively. Σ_7 tri-hepta-BDEs displayed the lowest average percentage contributions of our 233 target BFRs. The average percentage contributions of BDE-99, BDE-47 and BDE-183 to Σ_7 tri-234 hepta-BDEs were 44%, 45% and 38% for BDE-99, 29%, 27% and 23% for BDE-47, and 11%, 235 5.4% and 23% for BDE-183 in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD respectively. Of our target NBFRs, 236 BEH-TEBP predominated, making mean percentage contributions to Σ_5 NBFRs of 64%, 76% 237 and 58%, followed by DBDPE which contributed 32%, 20% and 38% of Σ_5 NBFRs in RCDL, 238 RCDB and HHVD respectively. Figure 1 depicts the average percentage contributions and 239 congener/compound profiles of target BFRs, tri-hepta-BDEs and NBFRs in RCDL, RCDB and 240 HHVD.

241

3.1.2. Concentrations of PBDEs and NBFRs in indoor dust obtained via two different sampling methods

244 The three main commercial PBDE formulations (Penta-BDE, Octa-BDE and Deca-BDE) are 245 represented in this study by Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs (BDE-28, BDE-47, BDE-99, BDE-100, BDE-246 153 and BDE-154) as an indicator of Penta-BDE, BDE-183 as an indicator of Octa-BDE and 247 BDE-209 as an indicator of Deca-BDE. In all dust samples, the highest concentrations of total 248 target Σ PBDEs and Σ_5 NBFRs were found in researcher-collected dust samples from living 249 rooms (RCDL), with values of 4321 and 1450 ng/g for Σ PBDEs and Σ_5 NBFRs respectively. 250 BDE-209 was present at average concentrations of 2642, 2336 and 2634 ng/g, while those of 251 BEH-TEBP were 309, 339 and 233 ng/g in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD respectively. Average 252 concentrations of DBDPE were comparable in both RCDL and HHVD samples, with values 253 of 155 and 152 respectively, while in RCDB it was 91 ng/g. Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs average concentrations were 47.3 and 41.3 and 24.4 ng/g in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD respectively. 254 255 For the rest of our target NBFRs, BTBPE was found in comparable average concentrations in 256 RCDL and HHVD, with values of 11.0 and 11.2 respectively, while in RCDB, it was 9.5 ng/g. 257 Average concentrations of EH-TBB in RCDL and RCDB were comparable (6.9 and 6.4 ng/g) 258 exceeding those in HHVD samples (4.9 ng/g). Tables 1 and 2 provide statistical summaries of 259 concentrations of PBDEs and NBFRs in RCDL, RCDB, and HHVD samples.

260

261 Comparison with previous studies (Harrad et al., 2008a; 2008b) in Birmingham, UK, revealed 262 median concentrations of PBDEs in this study to be lower than in the earlier studies by a factor 263 of 2.7 for Σ_8 PBDEs, while DBDPE increased by a factor of 3.6. While our study is based on too few homes to provide a definitive temporal trend; these data are not inconsistent with
 restrictions on PBDE use and possible concomitant increased use of NBFR alternatives.

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3.1.3. Comparison of BFR concentrations in dust samples from two sampling methods

Tables 1 and 2 show concentrations of BDE-47, BDE-99, BDE-153, Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs and EH-TBB in researcher-collected dust from both living room (RCDL) and bedroom (RCDB) exceed those in household vacuum dust (HHVD). In contrast, BDE-183 in HHVD was higher than in RCDL and RCDB. Moreover, BDE-209, BTBPE, and DBDPE concentrations in HHVD were only higher than in RCDB and were comparable in both RCDL and HHVD. Table S7 lists the average concentration ratios for RCDL/ HHVD and RCDB/ HHVD for BDE-47, BDE-99, BDE-153, BDE-BDE-183, BDE-209, EH-TBB, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE.

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276 One way repeated measures ANOVA tests were applied to compare means of BFR 277 concentrations in RCDL, RCDB and HHVD. This revealed that, with the exception of Σ_6 tri-278 hexa-BDEs, BDE-153, BDE-99 and to a moderate extent BEH-TEBP, these differences were 279 not statistically significant (p > 0.05). Concentrations of Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs and BDE-153 in 280 researcher-collected dust (RCDL and RCDB combined) exceeded significantly those in the 281 household vacuum dust with p values of 0.012 and 0.038 for Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs, and 0.025 and 282 0.016 for BDE-153 in RCDL and RCDB respectively. BDE-99 concentrations in RCDL exceeded significantly those in HHVD with a p value of 0.015. Moreover, BEH-TEBP 283 284 concentrations in RCDL exceeded those in HHVD at a moderate level of significance (p =285 0.077). ANOVA tests revealed, with the exception of BDE-183, no significant differences (p 286 > 0.05) in BFR concentrations between the living room and bedroom. With respect to BDE-287 183, concentrations in the living room exceeded significantly those in the bedroom (p = 0.001). 288 Based on our results, Penta-BDE and to a lesser extent BEH-TEBP displayed important 289 differences between the two sampling methods, while concentrations of Deca-BDE, Octa-290 BDE, EH-TBB, BTBPE and DBDPE did not appear significantly impacted by the sampling 291 method employed.

292

To our knowledge, only two studies (Allen et al., 2008; Björklund et al., 2012) have compared PBDE and HBCDD concentrations in house dust collected via different sampling methods. In a comprehensive study of indoor dust from 20 homes in Boston, USA; Allen et al., (2008) compared concentrations of PBDEs in dust collected using household vacuum cleaner and 297 researcher-collected (from living room and bedroom) methods. The study reported that Penta-298 BDE (ΣBDE-17, 28/33, 47, 49, 66, 75, 85/155, 99, 100, 183, 153 and 154) concentrations in 299 researcher-collected dust samples exceeded significantly those in the household vacuum dust 300 for both living rooms (p = 0.001) and bedrooms (p = 0.002). In addition, the concentrations of 301 Deca-BDE formulation congeners (BDE-206, 207, 208 and 209) in the researcher-collected dust from the living room exceeded significantly (p = 0.02) those in the household vacuum 302 303 dust, with such significant differences to the household vacuum dust not observed for bedroom researcher-collected samples. Moreover, the same study found no significant difference 304 305 between Octa-BDE concentrations in dust obtained via the two sampling methods. With the 306 exception of the concentrations of Deca-BDE formulation congeners in researcher-collected 307 dust from the living room, our outcomes are consistent with the study of Allen et al. (2008), despite the differences in PBDE distribution profiles between the UK and USA, different 308 309 sampling accessories (nylon sock and cellulose extraction thimble), different vacuum cleaner 310 brands and different dust particle size fractions ($< 500 \ \mu m$ and $< 250 \ \mu m$).

311

Based on dust samples from 19 Swedish homes, Björklund et al., 2012, investigated the 312 313 differences between PBDE and HBCDD concentrations in samples collected via researcher-314 collected and household vacuum methods. The researcher-collected method employed involved collection of settled house dust from elevated surfaces (1 m above the floor). 315 316 Concentrations of all targeted PBDE congeners (BDE-28, BDE-47, BDE-49, BDE-66, BDE-85, BDE-99, BDE-100, BDE-153, BDE-154, BDE-183, BDE-197, BDE-203, BDE-206, BDE-317 318 207, BDE-208, and BDE-209) detected in researcher-collected dust exceeded significantly (P 319 < 0.001- 0.003) those collected using the household vacuum method. The significant 320 differences observed by Björklund et al. (2012) between researcher-collected method and 321 household vacuum method dust, exceeded those observed both in our study and that of Allen 322 et al. (2008). This implies that, in addition to the different sampling methods, sampling of 323 different surfaces (floor dust and elevated surface dust) exert an important influence on the 324 findings of the Swedish study. This is consistent with findings reported in our previous studies (Al-Omran and Harrad 2016a; 2016b), that BFR concentrations in elevated surface dust 325 326 samples exceed significantly those in floor dust.

327

328 **3.1.4.** Correlation between dust sampling methods

329 Pearson correlation analysis was performed on log-transformed data to determine the 330 relationship between BFR concentrations in household vacuum dust (HHVD) and researcher-331 collected dust (RCD) from the living room (RCDL) and bedroom (RCDB). The strongest 332 correlations observed between HHVD and RCD methods were for BEH-TEBP concentrations 333 in the living room (R = 0.793, p = 0.002) and bedroom (R = 0.883, p = < 0.001). Likewise, 334 concentrations of Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs in HHVD correlated with those in RCDL (R = 0.583, p =335 0.047) and RCDB (R = 0.588, p = 0.044), as well as those of DBDPE for which the corresponding correlations with HHVD concentrations were (R= 0.643, p = 0.024) and (R = 336 337 0.634, p = 0.027) for RCDL and RCDB respectively. Moreover, HHVD concentrations were moderately (R = 0.532, p = 0.075) associated with RCDL concentrations for BDE-209, and 338 339 with RCDB for EH-TBB (R = 0.557, p = 0.060). Figure 2 shows scatter plots and Pearson correlation coefficients obtained when plotting log-transformed concentrations of Σ_6 tri-hexa-340 341 BDEs, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE in household vacuum dust against concentrations in both 342 RCDL and RCDB. Table S8 shows Pearson correlation results describing the relationship 343 between BFR concentrations in dust samples collected by a researcher (RCDL and RCDB) and household vacuum (HHVD) approaches. 344

345

346 In general, our findings reveal that BFR concentrations in dust collected via the two sampling methods were highly correlated for BEH-TEBP, DBDPE, Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs, and BDE-99, and 347 348 moderately correlated for BDE-209 and EH-TBB. In contrast, concentrations of BDE-47, 349 BDE-153, BDE-183, and BTBPE were not significantly correlated between researcher-350 collected and household vacuum dust. For PBDEs, with the exception of BDE-209, these 351 findings are consistent with previous studies (Allen et. al 2008; Björklund et al., 2012). 352 However, Björklund et al., concluded that, when a single high value of BDE-209 was removed 353 from their data analysis, the correlation they observed between concentrations obtained via the 354 2 dust collection methods was no longer significant (Björklund et al., 2012).

355

356 **3.1.5** The impact of sampling approach on human exposure assessments to BFRs

To evaluate the extent to which human exposure to our target contaminants via dust ingestion is affected by the choice of sampling approach, we compared the median concentration (for typical exposure) and 95th percentile (for high end exposure) in dust samples collected via the two sampling approaches; researcher collected from the living room and bedroom and household vacuum contents. This comparison revealed that the impact of sampling method on

362 estimates of exposure to BDE-99 and Σ tri-hexa-BDEs was more important than for other target 363 compounds. Concentrations of (and thus exposure to) BDE-99 and Σ tri-hexa-BDEs in RCD 364 exceeded substantially those in HHVD by factors of 1.5 and 3.5 for BDE-99 and 1.8 and 2.7 for Σ tri-hexa-BDEs for the median and 95th percentile respectively. In addition, concentrations 365 of BEH-TEBP based on analysis of RCD exceeded those for HHVD by factors of 1.4 and 1.5 366 for the median and 95th percentile respectively. This implies that exposure assessments for 367 these compounds based on analysis of HHVD may be underestimates, particularly when 368 making high-end exposure assessments. In contrast, concentrations of DBDPE in HHVD 369 exceeded those in RCDB by factors of 1.1 and 2.3 for median and 95th percentile 370 concentrations respectively, which implies that analysing HHVD may overestimate exposure 371 to DBDPE. Table 3 illustrates RCDL/HHVD and RCDB/HHVD median and 95th percentile 372 373 concentration ratios for BDE-99, Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs, BDE-209, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE, 374 which illustrate the impact of sampling method on typical and high-end exposure assessments. 375

376 4. CONCLUSIONS

377 This study found that concentrations of BDE-99, BDE-153, Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs and – to some 378 extent - BEH-TEBP were significantly lower in HHVD (household vacuum dust) than those in 379 RCD (researcher-collected dust) from both living rooms and bedrooms. This might be due to 380 volatilisation of BFRs as a result of the long residence times of dust in the household vacuum. In addition, RCD samples were collected from bedrooms and living rooms where large quantities of 381 Penta-BDE and BEH-TEBP may have been used (in articles such as beds, chairs, and sofas), whereas 382 383 the household vacuum cleaner would contain a complex integral of dust from the entire house, which 384 would include rooms containing fewer products containing Penta-BDE, such as kitchens (Kuang et al., 385 2016) and hallways. Moreover, small particles (which we have shown previously to contain higher concentrations of some BFRs - Al-Omran and Harrad, 2016b) may have been lost 386 387 through collecting and transferring processes from the vacuum bag. Our findings indicate that 388 exposure assessments using HHVD may be underestimated for Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs and BEH-389 TEBP, which suggest that this approach is a less suitable method for assessing human exposure 390 to these compounds. However, it could be a viable alternative to RCD for higher brominated 391 BFRs such as BDE-209.

392

395 analyser to examine the particle size distribution pattern of BFR concentrations in obtained via

³⁹³ Due to the different particle size distribution pattern of BFRs in indoor dust (Wei et al. 2009; Cao

³⁹⁴ et al., 2013, 2014, 2015; Kefeni et al., 2014), future studies are recommended using particle size

- 396 the two sampling methods, to test the hypothesis that a greater proportion of fine particles in
- 397 RCD account for the higher BFR concentrations observed in such dust compared to HHVD.
- 398 This is because the same compounds (BDE-99, BDE-153, Σ_6 tri-hexa-BDEs and BEH-TEBP)
- 399 that were significantly elevated in researcher collected compared to household vacuum 400 collected dust, are also significantly higher in the finest particle size fractions of indoor dust
- 401 (Al-Omran and Harrad, 2016b).
- 402

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Figure 1: Average percentage contributions and congener/compound profiles of target BFRs, tri-hepta-BDEs and NBFRs in RCDL, RCDB (researcher-collected dust from the living room and bedroom) and HHVD (household vacuum dust)





Figure 2: Correlations between log-transformed concentrations of Σ₆tri-hexa-BDEs, BEH-TEBP and DBDPE in household vacuum dust and researcher-collected dust from the living room and bedroom

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Table 1: Summary statistics for PBDE concentrations (ng/g) in RCDL, RCDB (researcher collected dust from the living room bedroom) and dust HHVD (household vacuum dust)

Target	Sampling	Average	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Standard
compound	method					deviation
	RCDL	15.3	13.0	< 0.1	44.8	11.9
BDE-47	RCDB	12.0	11.1	< 0.1	31.9	7.8
	HHVD	7.4	6.8	< 0.1	14.3	5.1
	RCDL	23.3	17.9	4.2	77.1	18.7
BDE-99	RCDB	19.5	14.5	< 0.2	88.6	22.7
	HHVD	11.8	12.0	7.7	16.1	2.6
	RCDL	4.3	4.1	< 0.2	7.3	1.8
BDE-153	RCDB	4.8	4.0	1.4	14.7	3.6
	HHVD	2.5	2.9	< 0.2	5.9	2.1
S-tri-beva-	RCDL	47.3	40.7	6.8	135	32.6
BDFs	RCDB	41.4	33.5	8.9	147	35.4
DDLS	HHVD	24.4	22.4	12.3	41.5	9.1
	RCDL	5.7	6.0	< 0.2	11.3	3.4
BDE-183	RCDB	2.4	2.8	< 0.2	5.1	1.7
	HHVD	7.2	2.5	< 0.2	61.2	17.1
	RCDL	2642	3066	466	4184	1354
BDE-209	RCDB	2336	2232	1175	3944	780
	HHVD	2634	2462	1534	3779	802
	RCDL	2695	3112	474	4321	1363
$\Sigma_8 PBDEs$	RCDB	2380	2272	1233	3985	775
	HHVD	2666	2519	1568	3795	797

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Table 2: Summary statistics for NBFR concentrations (ng/g) in RCDL, RCDB (researcher collected dust from the living room bedroom) and dust HHVD (household vacuum dust)

Target	Sampling	Average	Median	Minimum	Maximum	Standard
compound	method					deviation
	RCDL	6.9	6.4	< 0.5	21.2	6.0
EH-TBB	RCDB	6.4	3.1	< 0.5	24.2	7.9
	HHVD	4.9	3.9	< 0.5	13.5	4.9
	RCDL	11.0	11.2	< 2.8	21.4	7.4
BTBPE	RCDB	9.5	9.8	< 2.8	15.8	4.9
	HHVD	11.2	8.0	< 2.8	35.7	11.5
	RCDL	306	175	64	1299	348
BEH-TEBP	RCDB	339	131	43	1139	380
	HHVD	233	121	33	890	256
	RCDL	155	87	14	679	184
DBDPE	RCDB	91	76	11	236	65
	HHVD	152	85	16	575	170
	RCDL	479	394	127	1450	382
$\Sigma_5 NBFRs$	RCDB	446	225	104	1412	420
	HHVD	402	272	129	1302	345

Table 3: Median and 95th percentile concentration ratios of BDE-99, Σ₆tri-hexa-BDEs, BDE-209 and DBDPE between researcher collected-dust from the living room and bedroom (RCDL and RCDB) and household vacuum dust

Compound	Sampling approach	Median	95 th percentile
BDE-99	RCDL/HHVD	1.5	3.5
	RCDB/HHVD	1.2	3.4
∑ ₆ tri-hexa-BDEs	RCDL/HHVD	1.8	2.7
	RCDB/HHVD	1.5	2.6
BDE-209	RCDL/HHVD	1.2	1.1
	RCDB/HHVD	0.9	1.0
BEH-TEBP	RCDL/HHVD	1.4	1.3
	RCDB/HHVD	1.1	1.5
DBDPE	RCDL/HHVD	1.0	1.0
	RCDB/HHVD	0.9	0.4
