1 Evaluation of airborne particulate matter and metals data in personal, indoor and outdoor

2 environments using ED-XRF and ICP-MS and co-located duplicate samples

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9 Abstract

10 Factors and sources affecting measurement uncertainty associated with monitoring metals in 11 airborne particulate matter (PM) were investigated as part of the Windsor, Ontario Exposure 12 Assessment Study (WOEAS). The assessment was made using co-located duplicate samples and 13 a comparison of two analytical approaches: ED-XRF and ICP-MS. Sampling variability was 14 estimated using relative percent difference (RPD) of co-located duplicate samples. The comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF results yields very good correlations ($R^2 \ge 0.7$) for elements 15 16 present at concentrations that pass both ICP-MS and ED-XRF detection limits (e.g. Fe, Mn, Zn, 17 Pb and Cu). PM concentration ranges (median, sample number) of 24-hr indoor PM₁₀ and 18 personal PM₁₀ filters, and outdoor PM₂₅ filters were determined to be 2.2 –40.7 (11.0, n=48) µg m^{-3} , 8.0 - 48.3 (11.9, n= 48) µg m^{-3} , and 17.1 – 42.3 (21.6, n=18)) µg m^{-3} , respectively. The 19 20 gravimetric analytical results reveal that the variations in PM mass measurements for same-day 21 sampling are insignificant compared to temporal or spatial variations: 92%, 100% and 96% of 22 indoor, outdoor and personal duplicate samples, respectively, pass the quality criteria (RPD \leq 20%). Uncertainties associated with ED-XRF elemental measurements of S. Ca. Mn. Fe and Zn. 23 24 for 24-hr filter samples are low: 78% to 100% of the duplicate samples pass the quality criteria. In the case of 24-hr filter samples using ICP-MS, more elements passed the quality criteria due to the lower detection limits. These were: Li, Na, K, Ca, Si, Al, V, Fe, Mn, Co, Cu, Mo, Ag, Zn, Pb, As, Mg, Sb, Sn, Sr, Th, Ti, Tl, and U. Low air concentrations of metals (near or below instrumental detection limits) and/or inadvertent introduction of metal contamination are the main causes for excluding elements based on the pass/fail criteria. Uncertainty associated with elemental measurements must be assessed on an element-by-element basis.

Keywords: Particulate matter; Uncertainty; Metals; Exposure Assessment; Air pollution; ICP-MS;
ED-XRF

33 **1. Introduction**

Air pollutants, especially airborne particulate matter (PM) and metals in PM, have been associated 34 35 with both short-term and long-term adverse health effects including chronic respiratory disease. 36 heart disease, lung cancer, and damage to other organs (Costa et al., 1997; Ghio et al., 1999; Allen 37 et al., 2001: Vincent et al., 2001: Prieditis et al., 2002: Osonio-Vargas et al., 2003: Rasmussen, 38 2004; Lingard et al., 2005; Williams et al., 2007; Niu et al., 2008). Characterization of PM 39 components, including inorganic elements, is of central importance in proposing mechanisms for 40 health effects and in source apportionment studies (Butler et al., 2008, 2009). One of the most 41 effective strategies to address the increasing public concern from criteria air pollutants and their 42 impact on human health is through undertaking personal exposure monitoring. The Windsor, Ontario Exposure Assessment Study (WOEAS; Williams et al., 2007), launched in 2005, aims to 43 44 provide accurate and representative human exposure data collected across the city for indoor and 45 outdoor residential locations, and personal environments. To meet the study goals of WOEAS, 46 development of accurate and reliable sampling approaches is a critical focus, since sampling 47 variability is one of the most important contributors to the overall uncertainty of exposure

measurements of PM and PM-bound transition metals. Efforts in this area are essential to obtain
accurate and representative information on daily exposures of urban populations to air pollution.

50 At the outset of the Windsor sampling program, a pilot study of 24-hr personal, indoor and 51 outdoor levels of PM_{2.5} and associated metals was conducted to develop standard operating 52 procedures for field sampling and laboratory analysis (Rasmussen et al., 2007a). The present 53 study is a continuation of this effort to improve monitoring quality, by using co-located duplicate 54 samples to identify uncertainties associated with monitoring PM-bound metals. Recently 55 Lippmann (2009) identified the need for such information, pointing out that problems in 56 interpretation may arise from readings of elements in airborne PM which are near or below the 57 lower detection limits. The aim of using co-located duplicate PM samples is to unravel all the 58 sources of uncertainty in the multi-element data and to provide a framework for assessing such 59 uncertainties as part of the larger monitoring study in Windsor Ontario. Effective quality control 60 criteria were developed to assess data derived from integrated 24-hr personal and indoor PM₁₀ 61 samples, and 2-week outdoor PM_{2.5} samples.

62 There are many challenges in the WOEAS approach. One is the small particle mass collected on 63 the filter samples due to the short sampling time (24 hours) and the low flow rates (4 LPM) (Niu 64 et al., 2007a; Rasmussen et al., 2007b). A 24-hr sampling time was employed in the present study 65 as 24-hr measurements are the standard in the majority of air pollution guidelines (US EPA, 2006; 66 CESI, 2008). Light-weight battery-operated low-flow samplers are required for personal 67 monitoring, and to minimize noise and disruption during indoor monitoring, while the participants 68 are carrying out their normal daily routines (Rasmussen et al, 2006a; 2007a). Although there are 69 many advantages to recently developed real-time PM monitoring techniques (Butterfield and 70 Quincey, 2007), gravimetric analysis techniques remain important for studies involving 71 characterization of PM-bound metals. In addition, there is a continued requirement for accurate

and reliable 24-hr PM sampling as a comparison method to calibrate continuous monitoring
techniques (Lanki et al., 2002; Lippmann, 2009).

74 The low sample mass pose a major obstacle in obtaining reliable elemental data, as many metals 75 (particularly those present in trace concentrations in the airborne particles) are below the detection 76 limits of the Energy Dispersive X-ray Fluorescence (ED-XRF) spectrometer, as observed in a 77 preliminary residential air study in Ottawa (Rasmussen et al., 2006a). Problems associated with 78 using the more sensitive and increasingly popular Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectroscopy 79 (ICP-MS) approach arise not from the instrumental detection limits but from issues related to 80 sampling and analysis: sample contamination during collection, processing, transporting, 81 weighing, extraction/digestion, and analysing procedures. 82 Challenges also arise from data correlation and equivalence (Butterfield and Quincey, 2007) 83 between different science-based techniques which sometimes show bias or even unrelated results 84 for PM monitoring (Lanki et al., 2002; Braniš and Hovorka, 2005). Both ED-XRF and ICP-MS 85 are commonly employed but fundamentally different techniques for analysing PM-bound 86 elements. Thus, data comparability between these methods is an important issue. There is very 87 limited work on comparisons of ED-XRF and ICP-MS (Herner et al., 2006). A direct and detailed 88 data correlation study to determine the degree to which the air quality data obtained using ICP-89 MS can be compared with ED-XRF in the present study will be helpful to address the information

90 gap in this field.

91 The present study establishes the relative advantages and limitations of each instrumental 92 approach, but goes further to demonstrate that the capacity of the field and lab personnel to collect 93 and maintain uncontaminated samples during the whole measurement process (from sampling to 94 analysis) is critical. Most epidemiological studies investigating health effects of airborne metals

95 rely on occupational data (e.g. Wild et al. 2009), due to the current lack of reliable population-96 based airborne metals data. The few epidemiological studies of metals in urban air which have 97 been published (e.g. Hibbs, 2002) would be more likely to be incorporated into risk assessments if 98 the analytical and sampling uncertainties were better quantified and constrained. As future urban 99 air studies are undertaken to address the airborne metals data gap, researchers will be increasingly 100 obligated to monitor and report quality assurance data if the results are to be accepted as valid by 101 regulators and risk managers. Uncertainty arising from sampling variability, the first stage of a 102 measurement (Ramsey et al., 1997), is an issue of great concern due to its major contribution to 103 the overall measurement uncertainty (Ramsey et al., 1995, 1997; Horowitz et al., 1997; Jorhem et 104 al., 2006; Rasmussen et al., 2006a; Niu et al., 2007a). There is very scarce information for 105 identification of metal contamination and related sources. The present study focuses on this field 106 to provide helpful information for evaluating date reliability to obtain accurate and reliable results 107 for PM-bound elements analysis.

108 2. Experimental

109 2.1. Field Sampling

110 Regular and duplicate samples for 24-hr or two-week periods were collected (Table 1). The 111 integrated non-duplicate 24-hr personal and indoor samples of PM2.5 and PM10 were collected using the R & P ChemPassTM multi-pollutant sampler and BGI 400 Personal Sampling Pumps at a 112 flow rate of 4 L min⁻¹. Three adult participants wore Personal Environmental Monitors (PEMs) 113 114 (Demokritou et al., 2001) for 4 consecutive days. Each backpack contained two PEMs with one 115 pump for each of them and each pump was configured with two PM₁₀ samplers. Duplicate 116 stationary monitors were placed inside three Windsor homes for the same 4-day period with the 117 same double PM₁₀ sampler configuration.

118	Samples of PM _{2.5} were also collected simultaneously over a two-week period (Aug. 3-17, 2005)
119	using PEMs at low flow rates (1.8 L min ⁻¹) from the backyards of Windsor residences. A total of
120	42 two-week individual samples (including 3 field blanks) and 9 two-week duplicate $PM_{2.5}$
121	samples were collected.
122	To assess uncertainties of both gravimetric and elemental measurements associated with the field
123	monitoring, a duplicate study was conducted using 24-hr duplicate samples (48 indoor, 18
124	outdoor, and 48 personal (Table 1)) which were collected by setting up monitors at 4 L min ⁻¹ .
125	Teflon filters (37-mm with PTFE ring support) were used for all sampling campaigns. The PEM
126	filter assemblies were prepared and dismantled at the University of Windsor using nitrile gloves
127	and PFTE coated forceps. The Teflon filters were changed and shipped to Health Canada after
128	sampling for gravimetric analysis. The impactors were cleaned and impaction plates were
129	recoated after every sample, and a drain disk was placed on top of the stainless-steel screen to
130	minimize contact between the filter and the aluminum filter holder.
131	2.2. Quality assurance
132	Extreme precautions were taken to avoid any inadvertent contamination of filter samples during
133	all steps of handling and processing. Field blanks, laboratory filter blanks, gravimetric analysis
134	blanks, reagent blanks and NIST certified reference materials (Table 1) were used to monitor
135	potential sources of contamination, instrument performance, analytical accuracy and precision.
136	A wide range of NIST certified reference materials, including Urban Particulate Matter (NIST
137	1648), Indoor Dust (NIST 2583 and NIST 2584), Coal Fly Ash (NIST 1633b), Urban Soil (NIST
138	2586), Suburban Soil (NIST 2710 and NIST 2711), Mineral Soil and Till (TILL series), and
139	Sediments (NIST 2702 and CCRMP LKSD series) were used to test the extraction efficiency of
140	the methodology. The extraction efficiency testing was performed by an independent private lab,

- 141 using the same methodology used by the Health Canada lab (Niu et al., 2007b; Rasmussen et al.,
- 142 2007a). Certified water reference materials, NIST 1640, TMDA 64, and TM 28.3, were used for
- 143 assessing and monitoring instrument performance in the Health Canada lab.

144 2.3. Gravimetric analysis

145 Gravimetric analysis was performed inside Health Canada's Archimedes M3TM Buoyancy-

146 Corrected Gravimetric Analysis Facility, which was custom-designed to minimize weighing

147 errors (Rasmussen et al., 2006b). The Teflon filters were first pre-conditioned for at least 24-hr

148 inside a custom-designed chamber with automated controls to maintain environmental conditions

149 at a constant air temperature of 21 °C (± 0.5 °C) and constant relative humidity (RH) of 40 % (± 1

150 %). The possible static electricity interference was removed by passing each filter between two

151 polonium-210 strip deionizers placed side by side in the chamber. The filters were then weighed

using a Mettler UMX2 microbalance (readability of $\pm 0.1 \,\mu$ g).

Tared filters were loaded into pre-labeled polystyrene Petri dishes in Ottawa (Health Canada lab)
prior to transportation to the Windsor lab for assembly of the monitors for indoor, outdoor and
personal sampling in the WOEAS strategy. The filter samples were then returned to the same
holders after sampling and shipped back to Health Canada lab for post-weighing using the
procedures described earlier.

158 2.4. Laboratory procedures

159 The post-weighed Teflon filter samples were first analyzed by ED-XRF using an ED-XRF

160 spectrometer custom-built for US EPA by Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (Dzubay et al.,

- 161 1988) and were then digested using ultrasonication digestion in a HF-HNO₃ acid mixture
- 162 followed by ICP-MS analysis either at Health Canada or at a private laboratory (Alberta Research
- 163 Council, Vegreville, Alta; 24-hr duplicate samples). Both labs employed the same digestion

164	methods and the same ICP-MS instruments (Perkin Elmer ELAN DRC II) operated in dynamic
165	reaction cell mode for Cr and in standard mode for other elements. ED-XRF is a non-destructive
166	technique which allows subsequent ICP-MS analysis of the same filter samples, thus providing
167	data for direct comparison of the two methods.

Ultrasonication digestion in a strong HF-HNO₃ acid mixture was selected as the most appropriate 168 169 approach for handling large numbers of samples while at the same time minimizing the risk of 170 sample contamination (Niu et al., 2007b, 2008; Rasmussen et al., 2007a). The filters were 171 digested under clean laboratory conditions. A sample or field blank filter was placed into a 15 mL 172 digestion tube with 3 mL of HNO₃ (Seastar Chemical Inc.), 1 mL of HF (Seastar Chemical Inc.), 173 and 6 mL of deionized water (18 M Ω from Milli-Q Element water purification system. Millipore, 174 Billerica, MA) for digestion in a hot water bath at 60 °C for 6 days, with two 30 min untrasonica-175 tion intervals (Jalkanen et al., 1996). The digestion and analysis included three to six blank filters, 176 directly taken from the manufacturer's packaging, acting as "lab filter blanks". Ten laboratory 177 reagent blanks (consisting of reagents only) and three certified reference materials (CRMs) were 178 also included in each filter digestion and analytical batch for quality control. The lab filter blanks 179 and reagent blanks were used to assess contaminations from lab and reagent sources.

180 2.5. Assessment criteria

Two criteria were set in this study to further assess the overall performance of the air quality monitoring procedures and to evaluate which elements are reportable. One is the "Pass-fail" criterion with a cut-off value. For a given element, a "pass" was assigned when 70% and over of the samples in a given set exceed the detection limit (DL), defined as three times the standard deviation (3σ) of the measured concentrations of the eight to twelve procedural blanks, for either ICP-MS or ED-XRF measurements. The "partially pass" and "fail" categories were defined as 187 when the passed percentage was larger than 20% but less than 70%, and equal to or less than
188 20%, respectively. Values for elements that "passed" or "partially passed" were considered
189 qualified for reporting, while values for failed elements were not recommended for further
190 analysis.

191 The second criterion is the relative percent difference (RPD) parameter used for evaluation of the 192 uncertainties associated with personal, indoor and outdoor monitoring duplicates (PM_{10} or $PM_{2.5}$) 193 samples. A pair of duplicate measurements was assigned a "pass" for the condition RPD $\leq 20\%$ 194 (RPD criterion). The air concentration in µg m⁻³ or ng m⁻³ was used for these assessments. Two 195 types of pairs, pairs from the same pumps and pairs from the different pumps were analyzed for 196 indoor and personal samples.

197 The analytes (PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, or element) were grouped according to their duplicate pair

198 reproducibility into four categories: "Highly-Reliable", "Reliable", Less-Reliable", and

199 "Unreliable". The percentage of duplicate pairs which pass the RPD criterion (P-RPD-Cri) was

used as the criterion. "Highly-Reliable" was defined as P-RPD-Cri \ge 70%; "Reliable" was defined

201 as $50\% \le P-RPD-Cri \le 70\%$; "Less-Reliable" was defined as $20\% \le P-RPD-Cri \le 50\%$; and

202 "Unreliable" was defined as P-RPD-Cri < 20%.

203 2.6. Sample selection

204 Low sample mass is a challenge for reliable metal analysis for not only ED-XRF but also for ICP-

205 MS, especially when low flow rates (1-5 L/min) and short sampling times (24-hr) are employed.

For all 2-week and 24-hr samples, filters with particle mass of at least 0.06 mg were selected for

207 elemental analysis. The 0.06 mg minimum cut-off for particle mass ensures reliable analysis

208 results for most elements using ICP-MS. As demonstrated in the pilot study (Rasmussen et al.,

209 2006a), samples below the minimum particle mass should not be included due to the ICP-MS

210 detection limits for key elements. For the 24-hr samples, only 9 out of 24 personal duplicate pairs

and 12 out of 24 indoor qualified for elemental determination by ICP-MS, while the remainder

212 had particle masses below the minimum mass requirement, which is typical for studies of this

type (Rasmussen et al., 2007a, 2008). For the two-week samples, all 9 outdoor duplicate pairs and

all 39 outdoor non-duplicate filter samples exceeded 0.06 mg.

215 **3. Results and discussion**

216 Numerous factors may cause variations and high uncertainties in the measurement of elements for

the PM collected in different environmental conditions (indoor, outdoor or personal). To focus on

the uncertainties, the two most commonly used instrumental approaches, ICP-MS and ED-XRF,

219 were employed for multi-element determination. Reliability of the elemental results was

220 investigated for two-week samples using inter-laboratory and inter-method comparisons, and for

221 24-hr samples using a duplicate study.

222 *3.1. Evaluation of extraction efficiency*

Efficient extraction (quantitative recovery) is essential when comparing indoor, outdoor and
personal environments, to eliminate bias introduced by different matrices and from the digestion
processes. It is also a precondition for inter-method comparisons between ED-XRF and ICP-MS
(Herner et al., 2006). Certified reference materials (CRMs) were used to test extraction efficiency
and to double check the analysis accuracy for ICP-MS determination (Figure 1).

A total of 31 elements were analysed by ICP-MS for a set of CRMs (ref. experimental section 2.2)

which represented a variety of environmental matrices (urban PM, indoor dust, coal fly ash, soil,

till, and sediment). Overall recoveries ranged from 73% to 127%, accounting for 98% of the total

231 measurement data. Only 3 exceptions were observed: Cr in Urban Particulate Matter NIST 1648,

232 yielding 30% recovery, Cd in Indoor Dust NIST 2583, yielding 63% recovery, and Zn in

geochemical soil TILL-4 yielding 138% recovery. The obtained 63% Cd recovery is well within 233 the wide acceptable certified value range of NIST 2583 (3.6 to 11.0 μ g g⁻¹, corresponding to 49% -234 235 150% acceptable recovery range) (NIST, 1996). Thus, the 63% recovery reported for Cd may not 236 necessarily reflect poor extraction efficiency but rather uncertainty in the original Cd 237 concentration. For Zn in Till-4, the high RSD and high reported recovery may be caused by 238 contamination during the analytical processes (Niu et al., 2007a; Rasmussen et al., 2007a). The 239 low recovery of Cr in NIST 1648 was expected as several previous studies have shown similarly 240 low recoveries (28% - 30%) for this CRM using the same digestion methods (Jalkanen et al., 241 1996; Rasmussen et al., 2007a). The low recovery was due to the enrichment of refractory Cr 242 compounds in the NIST 1648 matrix (Lum et al., 1982), which are difficult to fully solubilize.

243 The graphs in Figure 1 show observed values (with Fe and Mn as examples) plotted against the certified values for a wide range of CRMs. The observed results of Fe and Mn agree with the 244 245 certified values very well. Graphs for other elements (not presented here) show the same results, 246 indicating that the ICP-MS calibration and the overall digestion efficiencies are excellent for most elements in most environmental sample matrices ($R^2 = 1$ and slope range from 0.9 to 1. Figure 1). 247 248 with the exception of Cr in NIST 1648 as discussed above. True total element techniques such as 249 ED-XRF, in which digestion is not needed, have an advantage in this regard. The experimental 250 results confirm that the acid digestion and ICP-MS determination approach employed in this study 251 was accurate and reliable. The present experiments confirm conclusions from previous digestion 252 protocols studies (Niu et al., 2007b; Rasmussen et al., 2007b) that strong acid digestion involving 253 HF is required to dissolve metals that are bound in stable materials such as silicates in PM.

254 3.2. 2-week outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ samples

255 The 2-week outdoor PM_{2.5} samples were collected from 39 different sites in summer 2005 256 throughout the city of Windsor. Elemental concentrations of these 2-week PM_{2.5} samples are 257 determined using two different analytical approaches: first by ED-XRF (US-EPA lab) and then 258 followed by HF-HNO₃ digestion/ICP-MS (Health Canada lab). Over 20 elements were analyzed 259 by both techniques. Not all of these elemental measurements from the 39 sampling sites pass the 260 detection limits (DLs) of both ED-XRF and ICP-MS. Results shown in Table 2 indicate that Fe, 261 Zn, Mn, Cu, Pb, and V are the top six elements with highest concentrations. Correspondingly, 262 they also show the highest DL-passing rate (nearly 100% for all of them except 80% for V and 263 97% for Cu for ED-XRF analysis, Table 2). Among these elements, the concentration ranges of 264 Fe, Zn, Mn, and Cu across the different sampling sites are large, indicating their relatively large 265 variations in spatial distribution. On the other hand, spatial variation of Pb and V is relatively 266 small as evidenced by their narrow concentration ranges (Table 2).

267 Results show that the maximum $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in the present Windsor data set (23.3 µg m⁻³)

268 was comparable to the maximum $PM_{2.5}$ value of 23.2 μ g m⁻³ from a previous study of 22 Ottawa

homes (Rasmussen et al., 2006a), though the median value of 19.7 μ g m⁻³ in Windsor was more

270 than two times the median value $(9.0 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ in Ottawa. For trace metals (e.g. Cu, Pb, and Ni),

their median concentrations were similar in the two cities. All their maximum concentrations were
much lower than occupational exposure limits (NIOSH, 2003) in both cities.

273 Table 2 shows that Fe, Zn, Mn, Cu, Pb and V pass the DL criterion for both ICP-MS and ED-

274 XRF. Other elements such as Cr, As, Ni, and Sr also exhibited high DL-passing rates (from 92%

to 100%) for ICP-MS but not for ED-XRF (from 33% to 69%) for these elements due to their low

air concentrations ($C_{\text{median}} < 1.3 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$). Such low air concentrations posed a great challenge for

accurately quantifying metals in PM and the subsequent risk assessment. The key concern is

278 sample contamination. Any contamination may cause over-quantification errors or introduce

- 279 interferences leading to unacceptable analytical uncertainties. Great care must be taken to avoid or
- 280 minimize sources of contamination both in the field and in the laboratory.

Generally, the elemental concentration results (range, median, geometric mean and arithmetic 281 282 mean) from the ICP-MS and ED-XRF compare well, especially for high concentration elements 283 (Table 2). The direct comparison of the element analysis of these two methods (Figure 2) yielded very good correlations ($R^2 > 0.7$) for elements (including Fe, Mn, Zn, Pb and Cu, not all shown in 284 Figure 2) having both high DL-passing rates and concentrations that were above 2 ng m⁻³ (Table 285 2). Correlations were weakened or lost for elements with either very low concentrations (<2 ng m⁻ 286 ³) or very low DL-passing rates using ED-XRF, such as V, Cr, Ti, Ni, As, and Sr. 287 A two-tail paired *t*-test was used to determine if there was a significant difference when 288 289 comparing individual results on the same sample. No significant difference was found for Zn, Fe, 290 and Cu (n = 39; p > 0.08). However, there were significant differences for Mn, Pb and V. The difference for V was expected due to its both low ED-XRF DL-passing rate and R^2 (0.47) values. 291 292 The differences for Mn and Pb were probably due to the relative higher values from ED-XRF 293 measurements for these two metals as indicated by their relative high slopes which from 1.15 to 1.19. Such slope values and the highly correlated characteristics (R^2 are 0.73 and 0.95 for Pb and 294 Mn, respectively) indicate bias between ICP-MS and ED-XRF for detecting these two metals. 295 296 These variances were, however, considered acceptable given the fundamental differences of the two techniques. 297

- 298 3.3. 24-hour outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ samples
- 299 More challenges occurred for element determinations of 24-hr low-flow filter samples (n=9).
- 300 Compared to the 2-week samples, the DL-passing rates of ED-XRF show significant decreases for
- 301 Cu, Pb, V, Cr, and As, from 97% to 61%, 100% to 28%, 80% to 6%, 33% to 6% and 69% to 0%,

302 respectively (Tables 2 and 3), due to the limited particle mass collected in this short (24-hr) time 303 period. This led to the weak or complete lack of correlations of such elements between ICP-MS 304 and ED-XRF. Elements with high concentrations, such as Fe, Zn and Mn, however, maintained 305 high DL-passing rates (nearly all 100%) for both ICP-MS and ED-XRF (Table 3). These elements were highly correlated (Figure 3, R^2 around 1.1, slope >0.8), even in 24-hr sampling cases, 306 307 indicating again the good agreement between ICP-MS and ED-XRF measurements provided that 308 minimum requirements of particle mass and metal concentration are met for both instruments. 309 The decrease in the number of species that are well correlated between ICP-MS and ED-XRF for 310 24-hr sampling filters emphasizes the challenge of low mass loadings on element determination 311 using ED-XRF and ICP-MS. Obviously, decrease of the particle mass leads to the increase of the 312 uncertainty of the determination. However, the cause of uncertainty for ED-XRF and for ICP-MS 313 may be different. The higher detection limit plus the possible heterogeneity of the particle films 314 on the filters at low particle concentrations may be the main contributions to the uncertainties in 315 ED-XRF as indicated by the low DL-passing rates for most elements in Table 3. However, 316 depending on elements, these two uncertainty factors in ED-XRF may have a limited effect on 317 ICP-MS detection. Sample contamination plays an important role in ICP-MS variability (see 318 discussion below). Compared with ED-XRF where analysis is simple and non-destructive, the 319 long and complicated pre-treatment and digestion processes associated with ICP-MS require extra 320 care to avoid contamination leading to unwanted variability.

321 *3.4. 24-hour duplicate study*

322 To evaluate uncertainty associated with personal, indoor and outdoor monitoring, duplicate 323 samples (PM_{10} or $PM_{2.5}$) were evaluated using the relative percent difference (RPD) criterion

described in experimental section 2.5. A pair of duplicate measurements was assigned a "pass"

325 when RPD \leq 20%. The percentages of the duplicate pairs which pass the RPD criterion (P-RPD-

326 Cri) were used to evaluate the sampling quality (ref. experimental section 2.5).

327 The PM analysis results for indoor, outdoor, and personal duplicate samples were all Highly-

328 Reliable with P-RPD-Cri from 92 % to 100%. The results for pairs using the same pumps and for

pairs using different pumps for indoor (92% vs 92%) and personal samples (92% vs 96%)

330 generally showed no significant difference.

331 Elemental analysis results shown in Figures 4 and 5 indicate that the degree of variation was

332 element specific. For outdoor samples, the Highly-Reliable elements as evaluated by ED-XRF

333 (Figure 4) were S, Ca, Fe, Mn, and Zn with P-RPD-Cri \ge 70%. Reliable elements were Br and K

334 (may also include Si and Pb) with P-RPD-Cri around 50% or higher. Note that the Highly-

335 Reliable and Reliable elements are limited in number due to the low mass loading on the filters,

336 causing many concentrations to fall below the detection limits of ED-XRF for these elements.

337 For indoor and personal duplicate pairs assessed by ICP-MS, the results showed that the Highly-

Reliable and Reliable category elements were Li, Na, K, Ca, Al, Si, Mn, Fe, Co, Cu, Pb, As, V,

339 Sb, Sn, Sr, Mo, Ag, Ti, Mg, Th, Tl, and U (Figure 5). Calculations of variability for pairs from the

340 same pump, or from two separate pumps for indoor pairs exhibit no significant difference (Figures

341 5a and 5b): Highly-Reliable, and Reliable + Less-Reliable element numbers are nearly the same.

342 For personal sample pairs, however, more elements fell into the category of Highly-Reliable and

343 fewer fell into the categories of Reliable and Less-Reliable when using different pumps (Figure

5c) as compared to the pairs using the same pumps (Figure 5d). These results suggest that pumps

345 may have some effect on variability in personal sampling compared to stationary sampling. Note

- that such pump-related differences were not observed for indoor sampling, indicating the
- 347 differences in personal sampling may be caused by individual participant behaviour, as reported

in previous work (Williams et al., 2003) showing that there is a statistically significant difference in duplicate personal sample $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations relative to the handedness of the person. However, in this study, the difference between the same and the different pumps was less significant if the total number of Highly-Reliable plus Reliable elements were considered together in personal sampling (Figures 5c and 5d).

353 Comparing Figures 5a and 5b with Figures 5c and 5d, significant differences between indoor and 354 personal sampling were observed. It appears that indoor has more Highly-Reliable + Reliable (and 355 therefore fewer Less-Reliable + Unreliable) elements than personal sampling. This phenomenon 356 might imply some individual behavioral and/or environmental effect on personal airborne PM 357 sampling. The sampling environments continuously change with a participant's movement from 358 one place to another, which might be one of the causes of the increased variability in personal 359 sampling as compared with the stationary indoor sampling. The mechanism is unclear and 360 requires further investigation.

361 3.5. Uncertainty contribution to PM and element assessment

The comparison results of the RPD variations for PM and metals (in ICP-MS data) shown in Figure 6 indicated that PM variations assessed for indoor and personal duplicate pairs were consistently very low (RPD < 10%). Elemental variations were generally higher than that of PM, and were strongly element-dependent. Some of them yielded large variations that exceed the RPD criterion (RPD > 20%). Such RPD differences between PM and elemental assessments suggest that significant sources of metal contamination, in addition to physical sampling variability, might contribute to the overall uncertainty for many metal exposure assessments.

369 Three certified reference materials (TM 28.3, TMDA-64, and NIST 1640) are trace metals in

370 water which were used to test ICP-MS instrument performance and its contribution to overall

variability. Table 4 summarizes the results which show very low uncertainties (RPD < 1%) in
most cases. This result eliminates the instrument performance reproducibility as a significant
contributor to the elemental analysis variations. Blank analysis results showed that contamination
was one of the main causes for variations in metal determination using ICP-MS. The overall
contamination contributed up to 20 to 75 ng filter⁻¹ for some elements such as Cu, Zn, Pb, and Sr.

376 The sources of contamination can vary depending on the element, and can arise at every stage of 377 handling, transportation, and laboratory processes. For example, the main contamination of Pb 378 came from field processes (including field sampling, handling, and transportation) accounting for 379 76% of its total blanks (Figure 7). For Cu and Zn, the main contamination was from lab processes 380 (including filter preparation, weighing, digestion, and determination processes) contributing 93% 381 to 97% of their overall blanks in this study. The contribution of contamination for Sr was almost 382 equal from each of the handling and treatment processes (Figure 7). Thus, data reliability must be 383 assessed separately for each element. Previous testing (Rasmussen et al., 2006a) indicated that 384 metal contamination is introduced from unknown sources during all sample handling in 385 cumulative amounts that may exceed the contribution from the particles themselves if appropriate 386 precautions were not taken. Omitting unnecessary handling procedures to minimize sample 387 contamination improves the analysis methodology and lowers the detection limit significantly 388 (Niu et al., 2007a; Rasmussen et al., 2007a). Similar concerns were raised by Graney (Graney et 389 al., 2004), who observed that additional contamination arises when filters are transferred through 390 multiple (non-destructive) instrumental methods of analysis prior to the final acid digestion.

391 There are two more challenging factors that have significant effect on metal measurement

392 uncertainties: the very low particle mass for 24-hr low flow sampling filters and the very low

393 concentrations of metals in airborne particles. Such low particle mass and low metal

394 concentrations require sensitive instrumentation with very low detection limit to ensure reliable

395 and accurate analysis. Adequate sensitivity is achieved for many metals using ICP-MS but 396 contamination can also easily and extensively exceed such low detection limits. Thus, at present, 397 the analytical capabilities have exceeded the capabilities to control contamination levels. More 398 challenges therefore arise for contamination control at each stage of analysis: from sample 399 handling to filter weighing, exposure to the lab environment, digestion, water, and reagents. Even 400 the pipettes themselves can contribute 1.6 ppb Fe, 2.0 ppb Co, 5.4 ppb Pb, 6.4 ppb Al, 9 ppb Zn, 401 18.8 ppb Ca and 19.1 ppb Na, respectively (PerkinElmer, 2003). Every effort has to be made to 402 minimize contamination of filters through all stages of sampling and determination. Every 403 unnecessary handling or pretreatment step should be eliminated to further improve analysis 404 methodology and lower the measurement uncertainties.

405 **4.** Conclusions

406 Results in this study indicate that to benefit from the improved sensitivity and lower detection 407 limits that are associated with ICP-MS, rigorous operations are required to eliminate all the 408 possible sources of contamination. Both the inter-laboratory, inter-method comparisons, and 409 duplicate sample analysis will help to evaluate the data reliability and to identify and quantify the 410 possible sources of variations during sampling, handing and processing.

411 PM assessments in collocated duplicates revealed that the indoor and personal sampling

412 procedures for PM_{10} samples, and the outdoor sampling for $PM_{2.5}$ samples, were reliable, with \geq

413 92% to 100% duplicates passing the RPD $\leq 20\%$ criterion. Direct comparison of the two

414 fundamentally different techniques, ICP-MS and ED-XRF, resulted in good correlations for both

415 24-hr and 2-week sampling filter samples for elements that were above detection limits for both

416 instruments. Note that bias was also observed for certain elements, highlighting that correction

417 factors may need to be applied in such circumstances to ensure data equivalence between ICP-MS

and ED-XRF, as in the case for PM monitoring using different science-based techniques
(Butterfield and Quincey, 2007)

Total sample volume is one of the key factors influencing both the uncertainty of PM and elemental assessments and correlations between ICP-MS and ED-XRF results. Larger sample volume resulting from longer sampling time usually ensures better elemental correlations and lower uncertainties. However, extended sampling times yield decreased temporal resolution and less specificity about sources. Therefore, a compromise must be made between uncertainty and temporal resolution/specificity of the source apportionment.

426 Uncertainty for element assessment mainly comes from contamination rather than sampling 427 strategy. In addition, higher uncertainty associated with the shorter sampling period (24-hr) is the 428 serious challenge in obtaining reliable element data due to the very small particle mass collected 429 with low-flow pumps, especially for personal monitoring in which very low-flow rates must be 430 used to minimize both pump weight and battery drain.

Contamination, which varies from element to element, can arise from every stage of handling, transportation, and laboratory processing. Thus, the acceptability of elemental concentrations must be assessed on an element by element basis, for each individual sampling situation. Extreme caution must be exercised to avoid contamination of filters during all stages of sampling and determination processes. Minimal pre-treatment of the filter samples should be employed to eliminate any unnecessary steps that may introduce contamination, and consequently to further decrease measurement uncertainty and improve analysis accuracy and precision.

Variability of duplicates sharing the same pump was comparable to variability of duplicates from
different pumps in the same location, indicating that pumping is not the main source of duplicate
variability. There was no significant difference in reproducibility whether pairs are from the same

441 pump or from different pumps for PM assessment in both indoor and personal monitoring, and for 442 elemental assessment in the indoor environment. Though slight differences occur in elemental 443 assessment for personal monitoring, the differences were not statistically significant. Uncertainty 444 in personal sampling was increased as compared with the indoor sampling. Environmental and/or 445 individual participant behavioral reasons may account for such uncertainty differences amongst 446 environments.

447 Acknowledgments

448 Thanks to Michelle Nugent, Alain Filiatreault and Keith Van Ryswyk for assistance in the field 449 and PM mass measurements, to Prof Iris Xu, Angelos Anastassopoulos, and Hongyu You for 450 access to their homes for the duplicate study, to H. David Gardner for element database 451 management and analysis, and to the Windsor Study participants for access to their backyards for 452 the two-week sampling. Bob Kellogg of Alion Science and Technology is acknowledged for 453 performing the ED-XRF analysis. We gratefully acknowledge funding support from Health 454 Canada Safe Environments Program and the NSERC MITHE Strategic Network (www.mithe-455 sn.org). Although this work was reviewed by the US EPA and approved for publication, it does 456 not necessarily reflect official Agency policy.

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Legends

Table 1. Sampling scheme.

Table 2. Comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF results for 2-week outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (n= 39).

Table 3. ICP-MS and ED-XRF results for 24-hr outdoor PM_{2.5} filter samples (n=9).

Table 4. Elemental relative percent difference (RPD) values analysed by ICP-MS for Certified Reference Materials.

Figure 1. Quality assurance results for ICP-MS analysis using Certified Reference Materials. Graphs compare certified and observed values for a variety of matrix types with Fe and Mn as examples.

Figure 2. Direct comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF for elemental analysis of the 2-week outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (with Fe and Zn as examples).

Figure 3. Direct comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF for elemental analysis of the 24-hr outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (with Fe and Zn as examples).

Figure 4. Elemental analysis results using ED-XRF for outdoor co-located duplicate filters. P-RPD-Cri: The percentages of the duplicate pairs which pass the RPD criterion.
■ - 70% or more pass; ⊠ - 50% to 69% pass; ≣ - 20% to 49% pass; and □ - less than 20% pass. See text for details.

Figure 5. Elemental analysis results using ICP-MS for indoor and personal co-located duplicate filters. P-RPD-Cri: The percentages of the duplicate pairs which pass the RPD criterion. \blacksquare - 70% or more pass; \boxtimes - 50% to 69% pass; \blacksquare - 20% to 49% pass; and \square - less than 20% pass. See text for details.

Figure 6. Comparison of PM and elemental relative percent difference (RPD) variations for indoor (a) and personal (b) co-located duplicate samples. Elemental data are from ICP-MS.

Figure 7. Results for elemental blank analysis by ICP-MS. Pie diagrams show the proportional contribution of different sources of contamination to the blanks.

Sample type	Sampling time	Collecting environment	Sample type	Sample numbers
Non-duplicates	2 weeks	Outdoor	PM _{2.5}	39
	2 weeks	Outdoor	PM _{2.5}	9
Co-located duplicates	24 hours	Outdoor	PM _{2.5}	18
	24 hours	Indoor	PM_{10}	48
	24 hours	Personal	PM ₁₀	48
	2 weeks	Outdoor		3
Field blooks	24 hours	Outdoor		3
rield blanks	24 hours	Indoor		3
	24 hours	Personal		3
Lab filter blanks				3 in one batch analysis
Gravimetric blanks				1 for each 10 samples
Reagent blanks				8 to12 in one batch analysis
NIST CRMs				3 for each CRM in one batch analysis

Table 1. Sampling scheme

Elements	Method	ConcentrationMedianGeomean (\pm sd)Mean (\pm sd)Range (ng m ⁻³)(ng m ⁻³)(ng m ⁻³)(ng m ⁻³)		Sample > DL (%)		
Mass		13221.4 - 23294.6	19685.4	19604.4 ± 1732.8	19684.4 ± 1732.8	100
Fe	ICP-MS	49.3 - 217.0	115.8	115.3 ± 37.9	121.0 ± 37.9	100
	ED-XRF	67.1 - 242.9	110.9	117.6 ± 38.3	122.7 ± 38.3	100
Zn	ICP-MS	13.8 -57.8	26.2	26.6 ± 8.9	27.9 ± 8.9	100
	ED-XRF	16.7 - 57.7	26.6	27.8 ± 9.5	29.1 ± 9.5	100
Mn	ICP-MS	2.4 - 10.2	3.8	4.0 ± 1.5	4.2 ± 1.5	100
	ED-XRF	2.5 - 12.1	4.6	4.5 ± 1.7	4.8 ± 1.7	100
Cu	ICP-MS	0.9 - 10.2	2.1	2.4 ± 2.0	2.8 ± 2.0	100
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 11.5<="" td=""><td>2.7</td><td>2.7 ± 1.6</td><td>3.0 ± 1.6</td><td>97</td></dl>	2.7	2.7 ± 1.6	3.0 ± 1.6	97
Pb	ICP-MS	2.3 - 5.9	3.4	3.5 ± 0.8	3.6 ± 0.8	100
	ED-XRF	2.4 - 7.9	4.1	4.0 ± 1.2	4.2 ± 1.2	100
V	ICP-MS	0.7 - 2.0	1.4	1.4 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.3	100
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 3.2<="" td=""><td>1.7</td><td>1.4 ± 0.6</td><td>1.6 ± 0.6</td><td>80</td></dl>	1.7	1.4 ± 0.6	1.6 ± 0.6	80
Ti	ICP-MS ED-XRF	<dl -17.2<br=""><dl -="" 5.6<="" td=""><td>_^a 2.8</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>18 59</td></dl></dl>	_ ^a 2.8	-	-	18 59
Ni	ICP-MS	<dl -="" 2.9<="" td=""><td>1.3</td><td>0.9 ± 0.7</td><td>1.4 ± 0.6</td><td>92</td></dl>	1.3	0.9 ± 0.7	1.4 ± 0.6	92
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 1.8<="" td=""><td>1.0</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>59</td></dl>	1.0	-	-	59
As	ICP-MS	0.2 - 2.4	0.9	0.7 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.7	100
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 2.1<="" td=""><td>1.3</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>69</td></dl>	1.3	-	-	69
Cr	ICP-MS ED-XRF	0.1 - 1.0 <dl -="" 1.1<="" td=""><td>0.6</td><td>0.5 ± 0.2 -</td><td>0.6 ± 0.2 -</td><td>100 33</td></dl>	0.6	0.5 ± 0.2 -	0.6 ± 0.2 -	100 33
Sr	ICP-MS	<dl -="" 1.6<="" td=""><td>0.6</td><td>0.4 ± 0.4</td><td>0.7 ± 0.4</td><td>92</td></dl>	0.6	0.4 ± 0.4	0.7 ± 0.4	92
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 1.5<="" td=""><td>0.8</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>56</td></dl>	0.8	-	-	56

Table 2. Comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF results for 2-week outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (n= 39).

DL = detection limit. ^a Value not calculated due to large % samples below DL.

Elements	Method	ethod $\begin{array}{c} Concentration \\ Range (ng m^{-3}) \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} Median \\ (ng m^{-3}) \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} Geomean \\ (ng m^{-3}) \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{c} Mean (\pm sd) \\ (ng m^{-3}) \end{array}$		$\frac{\text{Mean (\pm sd)}}{(\text{ng m}^{-3})}$	Sample >DL (%)	
Mass		16717.2 - 40597.2	21312.2	22873.0	24030.3 ± 8507.9	100
Fe	ICP-MS	85.3 - 382.3	261.1	219.5	239.7 ± 96.4	100
	ED-XRF	110.6 - 432.8	242.2	238.9	259.3 ± 103.1	100
Zn	ICP-MS	14.5 -57.2	48.1	40.3	43.4 ± 14.4	100
	ED-XRF	19.3 - 76.9	55.7	49.5	52.5 ± 16.0	100
Mn	ICP-MS	3.7 - 19.1	11.4	10.0	11.3 ± 5.6	100
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 28.7<="" td=""><td>12.6</td><td>11.5</td><td>13.5 ± 7.7</td><td>89</td></dl>	12.6	11.5	13.5 ± 7.7	89
Cu	ICP-MS	<dl -="" 28.1<="" td=""><td>2.2</td><td>1.8</td><td>5.5 ± 9.0</td><td>89</td></dl>	2.2	1.8	5.5 ± 9.0	89
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 21.1<="" td=""><td>6.9</td><td>_ ^a</td><td>-</td><td>61</td></dl>	6.9	_ ^a	-	61
Pb	ICP-MS ED-XRF	3.1 - 13.1 <dl -="" 14.4<="" td=""><td>6.6 -</td><td>6.7</td><td>7.2 ± 2.9</td><td>100 28</td></dl>	6.6 -	6.7	7.2 ± 2.9	100 28
V	ICP-MS	0.45 - 3.1	1.2	1.1	1.3 ± 0.9	100
	ED-XRF	<dl -="" 6.6<="" td=""><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>6</td></dl>	-	-	-	6
As	ICP-MS ED-XRF	<dl -="" 1.7<br=""><dl -="" 2.8<="" td=""><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>0 0</td></dl></dl>	-	-	-	0 0
Cr	ICP-MS ED-XRF	<dl -="" 1.2<br=""><dl -="" 8.0<="" td=""><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>44 6</td></dl></dl>	-	-	-	44 6

Table 3. ICP-MS and ED-XRF results for 24-hr outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (n = 9).

DL = detection limit. ^a Value not calculated due to large % samples below DL.

Analyte	V	Fe	Mn	Cu	Zn	Pb
TM28.3	0.5 (0.4)	3.2 (2.0)	1.4 (1.0)	0.8 (0.5)	1.2 (0.7)	0.3 (0.3)
TMDA-64	1.1 (0.7)	0.6 (0.3)	0.6 (0.3)	1.1 (0.7)	0.4 (0.2)	0.6 (0.3)
NIST 1640	0.5 (0.4)	1.4 (0.6)	0.6 (0.3)	1.4 (1.0)	0.7 (0.3)	0.0 (0.0)

Table 4. Elemental Relative Percent Difference (RPD) values analysed by ICP-MS for Certified Reference Materials ^{*}.

* Values are the average of three analysis with standard deviation in bracket. TM28.3 and TMDA 64 are trace metals in filtered and diluted Lake Ontario waters from the National Water Research Institute. NIST 1640 is trace metals in natural fresh water from the National Institute of Standards & Technology.



Figure 1. Quality assurance results for ICP-MS analysis using Certified Reference Materials. Graphs compare certified and observed values for a variety of matrix types with Fe and Mn as examples.



Figure 2. Direct comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF for element analysis of the 2-week outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (with Fe and Zn as examples).



Figure 3. Direct comparison of ICP-MS and ED-XRF for elemental analysis of the 24-hr outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples (with Fe and Zn as examples).



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Figure 6. Comparison of PM and elemental relative percent difference (RPD) variations for indoor (a) and personal (b) co-located duplicate samples. Elemental data are from ICP-MS.



Figure 7. Results for elemental blank analysis by ICP-MS. Pie diagrams show the proportional contribution of different sources of contamination to the blanks.