

Windsor, Ontario Exposure Assessment Study: Design and Methods Validation of Personal,  
Indoor and Outdoor Air Pollution Monitoring.

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## 13    **ABSTRACT**

14    The Windsor, Ontario Exposure Assessment Study (WOEAS) evaluated the contribution of  
15    ambient air pollutants to personal and indoor exposures of adults and asthmatic children living in  
16    Windsor, Ontario, Canada. Additionally, the role of personal, indoor and outdoor air pollution  
17    exposures upon asthmatic children's respiratory health was assessed. Several active and passive  
18    sampling methods were applied, or adapted, for personal, indoor and outdoor residential  
19    monitoring of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), volatile organic compounds (VOC), particulate matter  
20    (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>), elemental carbon (EC), ultrafine particles (UFP), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), air exchange  
21    rates, allergens in settled dust and particulate associated metals. Participants completed five  
22    consecutive days of monitoring during the winter and summer of 2005 and 2006. During 2006 in  
23    addition to undertaking the air pollution measurements asthmatic children completed respiratory  
24    health measurements including peak flow meter tests and exhaled breath condensate, as well as  
25    tracking of respiratory symptoms in a diary. Extensive quality assurance and quality control steps  
26    were implemented including the collocation of instruments at the National Air Pollution  
27    Surveillance (NAPS) site operated by Environment Canada and at the Michigan Department of  
28    Environmental Quality site in Allen Park, Detroit. During field sampling duplicate and blank  
29    samples were also completed and these data are reported.

30    In total, 50 adults and 51 asthmatic children were recruited to participate resulting in 922  
31    participant days of data. When comparing the methods employed in the study with standard  
32    reference methods, field blanks were low, bias was acceptable with most methods being within  
33    20% of reference methods. Duplicates were typically within less than 10% of each other,  
34    indicating that study results can be used with confidence.

35    This manuscript covers study design, recruitment, methodology, time activity diary, surveys, and  
36    quality assurance and control results for the different methods employed.

## INTRODUCTION

The challenges of assigning exposure on an individual basis have received increasing commentary in the literature with several studies being conducted to better assess the impact of exposure misclassification in health effects research.<sup>1-3</sup> The impact of air pollutants on the health of susceptible populations such as the elderly,<sup>4</sup> diabetics,<sup>5</sup> children<sup>6</sup> and asthmatics<sup>7-10</sup> indicate that exposure sources and baseline health are important factors for guiding regulatory decisions related to ambient or indoor air quality guidelines or standards.

Human exposure to air pollution is influenced by indoor and outdoor sources, as well as personal activities; the complex interplay of these factors complicates the interpretation of personal exposures. This research will address these challenges by assessing exposures for adult populations and asthmatic children.

There are a number of air pollutants known to have potential human health impacts including particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), allergens in settled dust, volatile organic compounds (VOC), and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), as well as constituents of PM<sub>2.5</sub> such as elemental carbon (EC), ultrafine particles (UFP) and metals. It is important to identify all potential sources of personal exposures to these pollutants in an effort to understand source-specific impacts as well as the potential for misclassification of exposure and the role that this may have on discerning health impacts. Outdoor sources include traffic emissions, industrial emissions, long range transport, secondary formation of pollutants in the atmosphere, and personal activities such as refuelling vehicles and using a barbecue. Indoor environments are also affected by outdoor generated pollutants via infiltration;<sup>11-13</sup> therefore housing characteristics that affect infiltration are important to consider. Indoor sources of exposure also include off-gassing of building materials, combustion processes such as cooking, use of personal care and cleaning products, cigarette smoke and presence of pets.<sup>14</sup> Several studies that have included personal, indoor and outdoor pollutant measurements have found that personal exposures can exceed both indoor and outdoor concentrations.<sup>15-18</sup> These findings suggest that not all personal exposures are captured by residential indoor and outdoor measurements. In the case of particulate air pollution, simple movement by residents in the home can resuspend particles from clothes or carpeting. Exposure to nitrogen dioxide indoors may be increased by being close to gas stoves. Recent literature suggests that time spent in traffic can contribute significantly to personal exposures for a variety

of air pollutants.<sup>19-21</sup> In addition, locations such as work, school, restaurants and other indoor locations are also known to contribute to personal exposures.<sup>22,23</sup> As part of the Border Air Quality Strategy (BAQS) a personal exposure assessment study was conducted in 2005 and 2006 in Windsor, Ontario to understand air quality issues in this area. One objective was to examine the relationships between indoor and outdoor concentrations and personal exposures to a variety of air pollutants, including PM, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and VOC. The goal of this research was to develop a better understanding of factors affecting these relationships for adults and asthmatic children. A second objective was to examine the role of personal, indoor and outdoor air pollution exposures upon asthmatic children's respiratory health with the goal of identifying which sources of exposure had the greatest impact upon health. Windsor is a relatively small geographical area (120.6 km<sup>2</sup>) that is impacted by a variety of ambient air pollution sources. It is the site of one of the major border crossings to the United States and is therefore impacted by large volumes of commercial truck traffic. Additionally, Windsor also has several local industries such as automobile manufacturing. Finally, there is long-range transportation of pollutants from the United States.<sup>24,25</sup> This manuscript presents the study design and methodology as well as important data for method validations including quality assurance and control. It includes summary results for recruitment, time activity diaries and surveys.

## **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **Study Design**

Health Canada and the University of Windsor conducted a personal exposure study with Windsor adults in 2005 and asthmatic children in 2006. Personal, residential indoor and outdoor exposures were assessed over a period of 10 days, with a total of 5 sampling days each in the winter (January-March) and summer (July-August) of each year. Pollutants included in the study were NO<sub>2</sub>, VOC, O<sub>3</sub>, UFP, EC, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub> and components of PM including EC, nitrate and metals. Ancillary measurements included air exchange rates (AER), temperature, relative humidity, and settled dust, as well as respiratory health measures collected for asthmatic children in 2006. Sampling began Monday evenings at approximately 4:00 pm, and ended on Saturday evenings at approximately the same time. At the end of each 24 ± 3 hour interval, teams of two technicians visited each home to refurbish sampling equipment, check for mechanical malfunctions, and administer questionnaires. All data were collected over 8 consecutive weeks

per season, with a total of six homes being sampled concurrently. Personal sampling was conducted by having participants carry a small backpack housing air pollution monitoring equipment. Participants were asked to keep the backpack with them throughout their daily activities, although no direct methods were applied to assess compliance. If they were in one location for an extended period of time (i.e., at school or work) they were instructed to place the backpack close to them with the sampling inlet facing up. Indoor residential monitoring was conducted by placing equipment inside the participant's home (i.e., typically within the family or living room where participants spent a substantial amount of time). Outdoor residential monitoring was located in the backyard, several meters away from the home and away from any combustion sources such as barbecues and driveways. Both indoor and outdoor residential sampling was conducted at breathing height (1.5m). The Windsor study design paralleled that of the United States Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA) Detroit Exposure and Aerosol Research Study (DEARS) with respect to sampling periods, days of the week, and survey and questionnaire design<sup>18</sup> so that environmental data from both cities could be used to investigate border air quality issues in the region. Table 1 provides details for the methods and instrumentation employed in the Windsor study.

Approval was obtained from Health Canada and the University of Windsor Research Ethics Boards to conduct this study and all personal information is protected according to the Canadian Access to Information Act and the Privacy Act.

#### **Sample Population – Recruitment and Retention**

In 2005, an initial pool of potential volunteer participant families was identified from the Windsor Children's Respiratory Health Study.<sup>7</sup> From the pool of potential participants, homes meeting inclusion criteria were randomly selected and their adult residents were approached for participation. Adults were considered eligible for study inclusion if they were non-smoking, living in a detached home, had an asthmatic child, were not occupationally exposed to VOC, and did not have any workplace restrictions on carrying the personal monitoring equipment. Using these criteria a pool of 90 eligible volunteers was established. Among the eligible volunteers preference was subsequently given to households that were spatially distributed across Windsor. In 2006, eligible participants included physician-diagnosed asthmatic children between the ages of 10 and 13 years. Of the available pool of candidates drawn from a previous study of 186

asthmatic children<sup>4</sup> further consideration was given to ensuring an approximately even spatial distribution of homes across Windsor. Figure 1 identifies residential locations.

Given the above mentioned eligibility criteria and the need to ensure that there would be sufficient statistical power to assess the role of personal, indoor and outdoor air pollution exposures upon asthmatic children's respiratory health a power calculation was conducted. Statistical power estimates were calculated and applied for both years by taking into account the repeated measures design of the study. Due to correlations within the data, standard power calculations were adapted to account for dependencies. Using a methodology described by Killip et al.<sup>26</sup> the effective sample size was first calculated. This involved estimating the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for the study participants using personal monitoring data collected in previous publications; their values of the variance of FEV<sub>1</sub> scores in asthmatic children were also used.<sup>27,28</sup>

The ICC is a ratio of the variability between subjects to the total variability:

$$ICC = \rho = \frac{s_b^2}{s_b^2 + s_w^2} \quad (1)$$

where  $s_b^2$  is the variance between individuals and  $s_w^2$  is the variance within individuals. The effective sample size was then estimated by dividing the total number of planned observations (n=480) each year by the design effect. As outlined by Killip et al.<sup>26</sup> the design effect was estimated as:

$$DE = 1 + \rho(M - 1) \quad (2)$$

where M represents the number of observations taken in each cluster. PASS software 2007 (NCSS, Utah, USA) was then applied to estimate the percent change in FEV<sub>1</sub> for a 10 µg/m<sup>3</sup> increase in PM<sub>2.5</sub> that could be detected with a power of 80%.

Based on these calculations, 48 participants were recruited in each of the years. The study design was not intended to recruit a representative selection of the population but rather to identify homes of susceptible individuals.

Participant retention was encouraged through several techniques. Prior to recruitment, two technicians visited each residence to demonstrate the monitoring equipment as well as to answer any questions. During this visit, consent was obtained, the baseline housing questionnaire was completed, visit schedules were discussed, and suitable locations for the indoor and outdoor monitoring equipment were identified. At the end of each season participants were provided with a personalised report describing their individual data in comparison to others who were monitored during the same week. These reports contained guidance material from the Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation and Health Canada on different air pollutants. These were provided at a meeting where the principal investigator discussed study findings and was available to answer participants' questions. Between sampling seasons in 2006, children were invited to a pizza party with their parents to provide them with the opportunity to meet other participating children and discuss their experiences.

#### **Passive Samplers**

During 2005 and 2006, personal, indoor and outdoor Ogawa passive samplers (Ogawa & Company, Pompano Beach, FL, USA) were used to measure exposures to O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. The O<sub>3</sub> badge was only used for personal and outdoor monitoring. The sampler used a single nitrite-coated quartz-fibre filter purchased from the manufacturer; when O<sub>3</sub> is present in the sampled air it diffuses into the filter and oxidizes the nitrite to nitrate on an equimolar basis. The NO<sub>2</sub> badge uses a single carbonate-coated quartz-fibre filter, also purchased from the manufacturer, to trap NO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>18</sup> Sampling times were approximately 24 ± 3 hours for each badge. The badges were located within the breathing zone for the personal samples and were placed in a manifold-type device that housed all the active and passive samplers thus ensuring constant air flow across the face of the passive badges. Figure 2 demonstrates the personal, indoor and outdoor monitoring equipment setup. All Ogawa badges were refrigerated during storage and shipping. The Ogawa filters were analysed according to the Ogawa Standard Operating Protocols (SOP), the only deviation from the O<sub>3</sub> method was that the protocol assumes two filters were used for measurements and in the Windsor situation there was only one filter. The sampling rate was therefore half the rate cited in the protocol. After exposure, the O<sub>3</sub> nitrite-coated filter was extracted with ultra-pure (Milli-Q) water, whereas the NO<sub>2</sub> carbonate-coated filter was extracted with 0.09% (v/v) hydrogen peroxide. Both extracts were analyzed by ion chromatography (IC) using Dionex DX-300 or DX-600 IC systems (Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Nitrate from the

extracts of the O<sub>3</sub> filter was analyzed using a Dionex IonPacAS15 column and gradient elution, whereas nitrate and other anions extracted from the nitrogen dioxide filter was analyzed using a Dionex-AS4A column with carbonate/bicarbonate eluent. Calibration checks were performed daily before analysis of the field samples and once in every 10-15 samples using standards prepared from NIST-traceable standards.

Selected VOC in air were collected using cleaned and evacuated Summa canisters. During both years indoor and outdoor measurements were made at each of the residences using 6.0 L canisters deployed every 24 hours. During 2005, the adult participants also carried a 1.0 L Summa canister within the padded backpack to monitor their personal exposures. The canisters sampled at flow rates of 3.5 mL/min and 0.5 mL/min for the 6.0 L and 1.0 L canisters, respectively. The passive canister sampling systems included four basic components: an in-line Swagelok™ filter with 2 µm stainless-steel sintered filter to eliminate particulates, a restrictor, a Veriflow SC423XL back-pressure flow regulator and a vacuum gauge. The back-pressure flow regulator ensured that approximately a 0.5 to 1 psi pressure drop across the restrictor was maintained until the canister was within 1 to 2 psi of reaching atmospheric pressure, after which the regulator no longer maintained a 1 psi differential across the orifice, resulting in a drop in flow rate. The flow controllers were assembled in the laboratory and leak tested. United States EPA Compendium Method TO-15 requires that the flow controllers be certified clean prior to use. The flow controllers were certified as clean by passing a humidified, high-purity air through the flow controller into evacuated canisters which were then analyzed by GC-MS; if no VOC concentrations were greater than 0.2 ppbv the flow controllers were determined to be clean. The certified flow controllers were then capped with Swagelok fittings and shipped to the site for sampling. The Summa canister analysis methods followed the US EPA method TO-15. The 2005 VOC analytical methods and quality assurance data have been published elsewhere.<sup>17</sup>

#### **Continuous Measurements**

Continuous measurements of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, UFP, EC, and temperature / relative humidity (RH) were collected indoors and outdoors at each residence using DustTrak (Model 8520, TSI, ST Paul, MN, USA), PTrak (Model 8525, TSI, ST Paul, MN, USA), Aethalometer (AE-42, Magee Scientific Company, Berkley, CA, USA), and Smart ReaderPlus 2 (ACR Systems Inc., Surrey, BC, Canada) monitors, respectively. These methods and their validation are included in a

companion manuscript detailing their performance including precision and Limits of Detection (LOD) calculations<sup>29</sup> methods are summarised briefly below.

Two DustTrak instruments (one indoors and one outdoors) were deployed at each residence; these are optical instruments capable of measuring particles from about 0.3 micrometers ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) in diameter up to 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$ . The PTrak measurements of UFP number concentrations were also conducted indoors and outdoors but for only 10 minutes per hour in each location (20 x 30-second averages) due to their limited alcohol storage reservoir volume. Although PTraks count all particles from 20 nm to 1  $\mu\text{m}$ , the instrument is considered to monitor mainly UFP because approximately 80-99% of these particles are below 0.1  $\mu\text{m}$ .<sup>30</sup>

The Aethalometer measures light absorption from particles collected on a quartz fibre tape. Because only a limited number of Aethalometers were available, only one unit was operated at each residence to sample EC both indoor and outdoor; the intake was programmed to switch between indoor sampling and outdoor sampling every 30 minutes during the day and hourly at night. The PTrak instruments were programmed to synchronize with the Aethalometer as it switched from an indoor to an outdoor air intake.

In 2006, the asthmatic children carried an active sampling personal DataRAM (pDR) (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) to measure continuous  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ; the cut size was ensured by pumping the intake air through a 1.8 Lpm  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  personal environmental monitor (PEM) (Chempass System R&P/Thermo, Waltham, MA, USA) with no filter present. Like the DustTrak, the pDR uses optical means to measure particles smaller than 2.5  $\mu\text{m}$ , and is laboratory-calibrated to a NIST particle standard.<sup>22</sup> The pDR uses a laser at higher frequency (i.e. lower wavelength) than the DustTrak; therefore the highest sensitivity regions for these instruments occurred at somewhat different diameters.

#### Active Samplers

Particulate matter ( $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$ ) was measured using the R&P Chempass multi-pollutant PEM (Chempass System R&P/Thermo, Waltham, MA, USA) as described in Demokritou et al.<sup>31</sup> Teflon filters were pre-conditioned for 24-hr before mass measurement, following US EPA quality assurance guidelines,<sup>32</sup> at Health Canada's Archimedes M3™ Buoyancy-Corrected Gravimetric Analysis Facility.<sup>33</sup> Average daily standard deviation of blank reference filter measurements was typically  $\pm 0.5\text{-}0.6 \mu\text{g}$  ( $n=10\text{-}14$ ), resulting in daily laboratory detection limits of  $1.5\text{-}1.6 \mu\text{g}$  based on 3 times standard deviation.<sup>34</sup> Method detection limits for the

present study are based on variability introduced throughout all pre-weighing and post-weighing steps, including storage for the entire time elapsed from removal of the filter from its packaging to the final post-weighing (typically 1-2 months).

PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> measurements were collected in all three locations (indoor, outdoor, and personal) during the 2005 monitoring. During 2006, PM<sub>10</sub> was measured only indoors and outdoors using the PEM; the personal PM<sub>10</sub> inlet was replaced by an active personal DataRam (pDR) as described above. Technicians ensured that the PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> target flow rates were 4.0 Lpm, with an acceptable range of  $\pm 20\%$ . Flow rates were assessed pre and post sampling every 24-hr using a soap bubble flow meter (AP Buck, Orlando, FL, USA).

In addition to the PEM samplers there were two low flow particulate samplers operating at 0.8 Lpm. One collected elemental carbon / organic carbon (EC/OC) onto a pre-fired quartz fibre 15mm filter (Pall-Gelman, Mississauga, ON, Canada) and the other collected particulate-associated nitrate through a denuder which scrubbed gas-phase nitrates prior to collecting the particulates on pre-coated 15mm glass fibre filters (Pall Gelman, Mississauga, Ontario). The EC/OC filter analysis has yet to be completed and will not be included in this paper. Due to problems with field laboratory protocols the nitrate denuders were unreliable in 2005 and part of the winter 2006 and only the acceptable duplicate data will be included in this paper.

During the winter and summer of 2006 a pre-fired quartz 37mm fibre filter (Pall-Gelman, Mississauga, Ontario) was placed in line after the pDR to collect the pre-separated particulates (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) that passed through the PEM inlet and the pDR unit. This filter was in place for the entire 5 days of each season at a flow rate of 1.8 Lpm. During summer 2006 the same filter type was also located indoors for the same five day period. The filters will be analysed for traffic markers (hopanes) in an attempt to understand longer term exposure to traffic related air pollutants. Analysis of these filters is still pending so details are not included in this paper.

Settled dust was sampled by technicians using the High Volume Surface Sampling System (HVS3) vacuum.<sup>35</sup> Samples were typically collected during visits scheduled one week after the conclusion of the winter monitoring to ensure that the request not to vacuum for a week prior to the settled dust collection did not interfere with the air pollution monitoring. The sampling required a minimum of two square meters of the floor in the living area to be vacuumed for a four minute period. Technicians were asked to ensure the collection of at least one gram of dust; a small weighing scale was used to pre and post weigh the amber glass bottle used to collect the

sample in the field. In the event that one gram of dust could not be collected from the two square meters, for example on hardwood floors, further living space was sampled to ensure sufficient sample for all intended analyses; technicians noted any increase in sample area. Samples were stored in amber glass jars and a brown paper bag for shipping.

On receipt of the samples the dust was sieved before extraction with a non-metallic, 300µm sieve to remove any coarse material. Dust samples were further sieved into 300-150µm and <150µm size fractions and recombined for analysis of house dust mite allergen (DerP1 and DerF1), cat allergen (Feld1), endotoxin and (1→3)-β-D-Glucan.

Allergens were assayed by monoclonal enzyme immunoassays (ELISA). Endotoxin analyses were completed in accordance with the 1996 version of the American Industrial Hygiene Association protocol described in the Field Guide for the Determination of Biological Contaminants in Environmental Samples. (1→3)-β-D-Glucan was analysed using the limulus amoebocyte lysate based method.

Metals in airborne PM and in the settled dust were determined using ICP-MS.<sup>36-38</sup>

#### **Fixed-Site Monitors**

Environment Canada maintains two outdoor National Air Pollution Surveillance (NAPS) sites in the city of Windsor. These sites monitor a variety of pollutants, including particulate matter and criteria gases such as NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and VOC. The College Road East site, located to be representative of urban ambient air pollution found in Windsor, was used for conducting the majority of the WOEAS duplicate sampler deployment and instrument comparisons to assess bias and precision. Duplicate 24-hr samples for all WOEAS active and passive samplers, excluding the continuous instruments, were collocated at this NAPS site in the summer of 2005 and 2006 and in the winter of 2006; the site was being refurbished during winter 2005 and was therefore not available for that sampling season.

The Environment Canada method for measuring continuous PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the Windsor NAPS sites was a tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA) with an inlet heater temperature of 40 °C using the Sample Equilibrium System (SES) sample dryer. The SES dryer contains specially-designed Nafion tubing inlets on the main flow to minimize potential for particle loss. The dryer lowers the relative humidity in the main flow, and allows for mass transducer operation at 5 °C above the peak air monitoring station temperature. NO<sub>2</sub> was measured by Environment Canada using the chemiluminescence method (Thermo

Model 42 Nitrogen Dioxide Analysers, TEI Inc, Franklin, MA). O<sub>3</sub> was measured by Environment Canada using the ultraviolet photometric method (Thermo Model 49C, TEI Inc, Franklin, MA). There were no Environment Canada NAPS instruments available to measure UFP, PM<sub>10</sub>, or EC. All NAPS instruments operated on a continuous basis and time-averaged values were calculated to correspond directly with the WOEAS instrument measurements. The WOEAS duplicate passive and active samplers included the Chempass PM system and the Ogawa badges. These were set up by technicians at the Windsor NAPS site and timed to correspond with the rest of the study's personal sampling periods, typically 4pm to 4pm.<sup>39</sup> Duplicate indoor and personal samples were also deployed for PM<sub>10</sub> for five 24-hr periods in winter 2006.<sup>38</sup> Duplicate personal samples were collected by technicians who were located in Windsor and replicated typical participant activities. The WOEAS Chempass filter-based particulate samples were also collected at the Michigan Department of Environmental Quality (MDEQ) site at Allen Park, Detroit. These measurements were undertaken to ensure the comparability of WOEAS and DEARS methods, and to enable comparison of WOEAS particulate samplers with a dichotomous sampler located at this site.<sup>18</sup> All samples were collected for 24-hr from 9am to 9am, for two days per week on Tuesday and Wednesday. Data from this location were used to examine possible bias between the PEM used in this study and the dichotomous sampler measuring PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>-PM<sub>2.5</sub>, which is an equivalent Federal Reference Method (FRM). This represents the only comparison of the PEM used in this study with a FRM. The filters used in the FRM dichotomous sampler underwent gravimetric analysis using a Mettler UT20 balance. The filters were placed in Petri dishes in a controlled environmental chamber for a minimum of 24-hr to allow the filters to equilibrate. The temperature remained between 19 - 23 °C +/- 2 °C and the humidity was kept between 30 - 40% +/- 5% for a minimum of 24-hr. The balance was warmed up for a minimum of 1 hour prior to use. Following the internal balance calibration procedure, a manual audit of the balance was performed using a 100 mg mass (ASTM Class 1 or NBS Class P weight). The balance was viewed as operational if the audit indicated the result was within 10 µg of the expected value. In addition, a laboratory reference filter was then analyzed; reference filter mass had to be within 20 µg of the expected value. At the end of every 5 measurements, the precision for the balance had to be less than 1 µg; the precision test was repeated until this was achieved. Further tests involved analyzing a laboratory filter blank for long and short-term drift of filter weights.

Following the analysis of every 25<sup>th</sup> filter, a random re-weigh of at least one filter was performed. The original and re-weigh values had to differ by less than  $\pm 6 \mu\text{g}$  of the original weight. If not, all of the 25 filters were re-weighed until the required precision was achieved. Comparison of the personal monitors to a reference method is a crucial requirement in determining the reliability of the data. We used two regression methods to compare the samplers. Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression minimizes the vertical distance between the data points and the line of best fit. This type of regression is sometimes said to assume no error in the x-axis measurements. However, it is also the best estimate of the y-axis values given the x-coordinate even though the x-coordinate is in error.<sup>40</sup> Orthogonal regression recognizes that error may occur in both measurement methods, and therefore minimizes the perpendicular distance to the line of best fit. However, this approach assumes equal variance in the two measurement methods, which is seldom the case. Reduced major axis (RMA) regression is a form of weighted orthogonal regression in which the ratio of the variances is used to modify the angle between a data point and the line of best fit. The RMA method results in the best estimate of the “true” relationship between the two methods. It has been recommended as the best way to determine whether candidate methods can be certified as reference methods for environmental measurements.<sup>41</sup> Therefore, we carried out both OLS and RMA regression methods on the PEM<sub>2.5</sub> and PEM<sub>10</sub> monitors versus the dichotomous sampler.

#### **Air Exchange Rates**

A daily assessment of air exchange was undertaken in each of the homes using perfluorocarbon tracer (PFT) gas.<sup>42</sup> Four sources of the tracer gas were set up on the main floor of the home at the beginning of the first day to allow the gas to equilibrate for 2 hours during equipment setup. The emitters were deployed for the duration of the 5 day sampling period in each season. One receptor (capillary adsorption tube) was installed daily at a location away from any potential ventilation or heating sources. The total amount of the tracer gas absorbed by the receptors combined with the participant reported square footage of each home and the emission rate of the emitters was used to calculate a daily average air exchange rate (AER) for each home.

#### **Questionnaires and Time Activity Diaries**

Adult participants in 2005 and the parents of asthmatic children in 2006 completed two different questionnaires to assess potential sources of exposure: (1) a baseline questionnaire to obtain information on housing characteristics that did not change over time and (2) a daily questionnaire

to obtain information on daily activities such as cooking and cleaning. During the second season a shorter baseline survey was administered by the recruitment technician to assess any new renovations and changes undertaken in the residence since the last season of sampling. In both years participants completed a time activity diary throughout the day, noting their activities as well as their presence in various locations in 15 and 30 minute intervals for the adults and children, respectively. The adult diary included details on whether the individual cooked or cleaned; this was deemed less likely for the children and was removed from their diaries. Both diaries included information on whether the participants were in close proximity to any smokers, and for how long, as this was deemed important in terms of increased exposure to air pollutants. Key locations noted on the diaries included; at home, outside at home, in transit, at work / school, outside away from home and inside away from home. Multiple responses could be included if activities or locations changed within the time interval. The activities were then coded for all diaries and coding was confirmed by manually assessing 10% of all diaries to assure consistency in interpretation of the descriptions. All surveys and diaries were independently entered twice and compared electronically to each other to identify any discrepancies in the data entry.

### Health Measurements

During the 2006 sampling period asthmatic children also conducted respiratory health assessments, including forced expiratory volume in one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>) which was estimated using a PiKo-1 electronic peak expiratory flow/FEV<sub>1</sub> meter (Ferraris Medical, Louisville, CO, USA); these instruments have comparable responsiveness with pneumotachographs.<sup>43</sup> Twice daily (first thing in the morning, again at bedtime), three consecutive FEV measurements were made prior to taking any asthma medications. During the technician visit in the evenings an exhaled breath condensate sample was collected using an RTube (Respiratory Research Inc., Charlottesville, VA, USA). Participants sat and breathed at tidal volumes orally into a mouthpiece attached to a cold condenser for 10 min. Approximately 1 mL of breath condensate was collected. The condensed breath was then transferred to several microtubes and stored at –20°C and then –80°C until analyses. The sample was first analysed for amylase to test for saliva contamination. This was followed by the measurement of the oxidative stress biomarkers, thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) and 8-isoprostane, and the inflammatory cytokine Interleukin-6 (IL-6); all laboratory methods are described in detail in Liu et al.<sup>4</sup>

Children's time activity diaries included space to report any symptoms, including cough, wheeze, chest tightness and difficulty breathing. These symptoms were scored from 0 – 4 where 0 indicated no symptom and 4 indicated the worst symptoms. Scoring was explained to the participants at the start of the study and technicians reviewed the diaries each day to assess completeness.

#### Quality Assurance

Laboratory detection limits (LDL) were estimated as three times the standard deviation of the laboratory blanks, with field detection limits (FDL) being defined as 3 times the standard deviation of the field blanks. Field blanks comprised approximately 10% of all samples.

Duplicate outdoor samples were collected at the NAPS sites.

The quality assurance program included the calibration of flow rates, leak tests, collection of routine field blanks and determination of precision and accuracy during sampling as well as for the chemical analyses. Various quality control samples were used to determine accuracy and precision of the chemical analyses and to diagnose any sources of contamination.<sup>36,38</sup>

Blank corrections were applied when more than 50% of the field blanks were greater than the lab detection limit (LDL). In these situations, a field detection limit (FDL) was then calculated as being three times the standard deviation of the field blanks. Sample data were then adjusted by subtracting the median of the field blanks. Any resulting values which were lower than the LDL were substituted with  $\frac{1}{2}$  LDL. Samples that were above the LDL but below the FDL were not changed.

All data were assessed for validity using the following criteria. Any samples requiring a specific flow rate were tested at the beginning and end of each 24-hr sampling period; if the end flow rate was operating at a flow more than 20% above or below the target flow rate, they were deemed invalid. Samples were also deemed invalid if they were deployed for more than 30 or less than 18 hours. Other criteria for invalidating samples included: presence of insects found during assembly, evidence that filters were mishandled in the field or laboratory, or noted sources of contamination either in the field or the laboratory.

Duplicate comparisons for all methods, where these data exist, were used to assess precision estimates. Data from standardised methods used at the NAPS and MDEQ were used to yield estimates of bias.

The following bias definition, also frequently referred to as the fractional or percent difference was utilised:

$$\text{Bias} = \frac{A-T}{T} \quad (3)$$

where A is the instrument value and T is the true value. This returns a positive or negative number, which can be multiplied by 100 to produce a “percent bias” normally reported.

A precision calculation of two identical instruments is often defined as the absolute value of the difference between one instrument reading and the mean of the two, divided by that mean, which works out to be the difference divided by the sum:

$$\text{Abs } [A-B]/(A+B) \quad (4)$$

The idea in this definition is that when the true value is unknown, it can be assumed that it is near the average of the two instruments.

In many cases in this study it was not just the comparison of two instruments, but rather several, as all continuous instruments underwent pre and post side by side intercomparisons. It was determined that a reasonable approach would be to compare the continuous instruments to the median of their readings for any given 3-minute sampling period. In this case, the median was assumed to be close to the “true” reading. The resulting formula for the bias-corrected precision is:

$$\frac{\text{Abs}[A'-T]}{T} \quad (5)$$

where A' is the bias-corrected value for instrument A and T is the median. For each collocation session, the correction factor for each instrument was calculated as the ratio of the mean of all the instruments' medians to the mean of each instrument. The correction for bias was then calculated by multiplying this correction factor in that particular session by the mean (or median) of each individual instrument. This approach was typically applied to the continuous instrument data.

For each pollutant, the laboratory results were combined with log sheet data to calculate concentrations. Several coding flags were included to address any field or sample specific issues that arose during the sample collection; each sample was coded as being valid, flagged or invalid. All analyses were conducted using SAS v. 9.1 (SAS Institute Inc, NC, USA).

## RESULTS

### Participant Retention Rates

Forty-eight adults were originally recruited for both the winter and summer 2005 sampling sessions. However, as five participants withdrew from the study after the winter session due to moving, renovating homes, or summer travel plans, two new additional participants were recruited for the summer. Therefore, the total sample size was 48 and 45, in winter and summer respectively, with 43 of the same homes participating in both seasons. There were 5 male and 45 female adult participants in total.

During the winter and summer of 2006 the total sample size for the asthmatic children was 48 and 48 respectively, with 45 individuals participating in both seasons. In total, 51 asthmatic children were recruited for this study with one winter and two summer sets of siblings being followed. The children were between 10 and 13 years of age with the majority of them (n=31) being male. This age range was selected because children of this age are able to participate in personal monitoring and complete time activity diaries with minimal supervision. Table 5 shows participant data.

A total of 922 participant days were completed. This was only 4% less than the intended 960 days, and was due to the small number of participants who were unavailable in the second season. The compliance for the data collection, including wearing the backpack and completing the diaries, was high. Participants reported to the technicians daily highlighting any non-compliance due to restrictive activities.

### Nitrogen Dioxide

The mean WOEAS NO<sub>2</sub> level over two years of sampling at the central NAPS site was 20 ppb for the Ogawa badges, compared to 16 ppb for the collocated Environment Canada chemiluminescence method (Table 2). The Ogawa badges had a median bias compared to the NAPS method of 17% and a median precision of 7%.

### Ozone

Ozone sampling was only undertaken during the summer periods. The mean value for both years was 36 ppb for the Environment Canada UV photometric method compared to 26 ppb for the WOEAS O<sub>3</sub> collocated at the NAPS site (Table 2), resulting in a median bias of -24%. The Ogawa O<sub>3</sub> badges had a median precision of 9%.

#### **Volatile Organic Compounds (VOC)**

VOC sampler deployment was intended to be 1395 samplers in 2005 (total number of indoor, outdoor, and personal samplers for all participants) and 930 samplers in 2006 (total number of indoor and outdoor samplers for all participants). However, the few participant retention issues described previously resulted in slightly lower numbers of deployed canisters. In addition, a small number of deployed VOC canisters were deemed invalid and therefore excluded from the analysis due to flow gauge failures, which was determined as a canister sampling time of less than 18 hr and/or the canister not being collected within 30 hr of deployment. As a result, the total sample size for VOC canisters was 1294 in 2005 and 872 in 2006. A Health Canada report including the full descriptive statistics for the 2005 and 2006 VOC data is available upon request.<sup>44</sup>

#### **Continuous Instruments**

Results from the continuous instruments are presented in a companion paper.<sup>29</sup> Briefly, for both years and both seasons there were 902 and 834 person days of indoor and outdoor data collected for the DustTraks, 656 and 657 person days for the Aethalometers, 666 and 659 person days for the PTraks, and during 2006 personal pDR data resulted in 358 person days of data. The DustTrak and pDR had positive biases of a factor of about 2.5 and 1.6, respectively, compared to the PEM. However, their average bias-corrected precisions were within 10%, indicating that a proper correction for bias would bring them into very good agreement with standard methods. Both instruments had limits of detection of approximately 5 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. Although no standard methods exist to establish the bias of the Aethalometer and P-Trak, their precision estimates were within 20% for the Aethalometer and within 10% for the P-Trak.

#### **Chempass PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> PEM**

*Allen Park Site.* Intercomparisons between the two different size fractions of the PEM PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> with the FRM dichotomous sampler were conducted over the four seasons. Due to missing data in either of the two size fractions of the FRM dichotomous sampler a total of 38 days were available for comparison of both methods. The slopes and intercepts of the two lines of best fit

are provided in Figures 3a and 3b. As can be seen, because of the excellent agreement of both PEMs with the two dichotomous fractions, the OLS and RMA lines virtually overlap. The PEM  $PM_{2.5}$  showed very good agreement ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ) with the collocated Allen Park FRM dichotomous sampler (Table 3, Figure 3a), although with a small positive median bias of 9%. The bias was significant (95% confidence interval 1.07-1.15) and only 3 of the 38 paired samples were below the 1:1 line. The  $PM_{2.5}$  PEM showed good precision (median 7%). The  $PM_{10}$  PEM sampler also showed excellent agreement ( $R^2 = 0.97$ ) with the reference dichotomous sampler, with a median positive bias of 9% and a median precision of 6% (Table 3, Figure 3b). The PEM estimate of coarse particle concentrations ( $PM_{10}-PM_{2.5}$ ) agreed well with the dichotomous sampler, with a small positive bias of 9% and a slightly worse median precision of 12% (Table 3).

Details of the method evaluation for metals in airborne PM in the Windsor study have been described previously, detailing quality assurance procedures during sampling, handling and analysis, analytical method comparisons and collocated duplicates<sup>36,37</sup>.

*NAPS site.* Based on its excellent performance in comparison with the FRM dichotomous sampler, the decision was made to use the PEM as the standard method and then compare it with the TEOM at the Windsor NAPS site. As found in other studies,<sup>45</sup> the TEOM displayed strong losses in the one winter season with collocated data having a median negative bias of 52% (Table 4). The summer median bias was still negative but less so at -26%.

#### **Particulate Associated Nitrate**

The mini-PEM samplers for measuring particulate-associated nitrate required the coating of a denuder each time the samplers were used. Due to field laboratory problems the consistency of the coating was unreliable and all data from 2005 and part of winter 2006 had to be discarded. The median bias for the NAPS based WOEAS duplicate samplers was 7% there was no reference method available at the NAPS site for bias calculations.

#### **Settled Dust**

A single dust sample was collected from each of the residences in 2005 and 2006 resulting in a total of 93 samples. Samples from the separated settled dust of grain size  $<300\mu m$  were analysed for dust mite allergens Der p1 and Der f 1, cat allergen Fel d 1, endotoxin and (1,3)-D-Glucan. For all of these analyses only the Der p1 samples were found to have the majority of the samples below the LDL, 35 and 23 of all of the samples collected in 2005 and 2006 and as such, the

replacement of ½ the LDL was not applied. For the remainder of the allergen analyses, ½ of the LDL was applied when any were below LDL.

#### **Air Exchange Rate**

The average daily AER for each residence was calculated using the estimated house volume and the known amount of PFT that was emitted and trapped on the corresponding daily capillary adsorption tube (CAT). A total of 30 and 45 homes in the winter and summer of 2005 and 33 and 46 homes in winter and summer 2006 had valid daily AER calculations. Homes missed in the winter season of 2005 and 2006 were due to difficulties in financial contracting that resulted in the late start of the AER sampling.

#### **Questionnaire and Time Activity Diary**

The majority of the homes were detached, single family dwellings (n=92) with electric stoves (n=77). Approximately half of the homes had either an attached garage or no garage at all. Summary statistics are provided in Table 5. Data obtained via the daily questionnaire on activities that occurred in the residence included information on daily cooking, cleaning, presence of smokers, ventilation use, and candle use. Of all the homes included in the study only four homes had a smoker present at any point in the study, 257 sampling days had open windows, and on 55 of the sampling days candles were used. The adults' activity patterns did not alter significantly between winter and summer therefore both seasons were combined in Table 5. Adults spent approximately 80% of their time indoors at home or indoors away from home, 10% of their time at work, 5.5% of their time in transit, and about 4.5% of their time outdoors. The children spent significantly more time indoors at home in the summer than in the winter (77.4% vs. 68.7%) and indoors away from home (9.8% vs. 5.8%). In winter, the children spent significantly more time at school (18.5%), compared with summer (0.6%). These children were also found to spend significantly more time outdoors in the summer, than during the winter, likely due to more favourable weather conditions (23.5°C versus 0.5°C mean temperatures in each season). The children spent 4.8% of their time in the yard at home or close to home in the summer compared with only 0.7% in winter. No significant differences in the average time spent in transit were observed (3.7% in winter and 3.4% in summer).

#### **Health Measurements**

During 2006, the asthmatic children completed peak flow measures, provided exhaled breath condensate samples and noted any symptoms in their diaries. The best three forced expiratory

flows in one second (FEV<sub>1</sub>) and forced vital capacity (FVC) trials were used. The total number of morning and evening FEV<sub>1</sub> (422 and 425 measurements) and FVC (424 and 428 measurements) were completed. The exhaled breath condensate sample was only completed each evening with technician supervision, resulting in 458 samples.

The children used the time activity diary to record symptom prevalence and this indicated that only a small percentage of children reported any cough (2.6%), wheeze (1.6%), chest tightness (1.7%) or difficulty breathing (1.3%) at any point during the 10 days of sampling.

## DISCUSSION

There are several personal exposure studies that have included healthy adults and asthmatic children, and of these studies the EPA DEARS conducted at the same time as WOEAS is the most comparable in terms of the adult population and the methods employed.<sup>18</sup> The main difference in the study designs was that DEARS included a randomly selected population. The WOEAS 2006 asthmatic children represent a susceptible population with a similar age group to other personal monitoring studies that have been conducted.<sup>28,46,47</sup> The sample size for the 2006 WOEAS health measurements was determined using a power calculation which was based on results obtained from Delfino et al.<sup>28</sup> The Delfino et al.<sup>28</sup> study had a population of 19 participants which completed a total of 710 FEV<sub>1</sub> manoeuvres; this is comparable with the Windsor results where there were a total of 847 FEV<sub>1</sub> manoeuvres available for analyses. Children in the age range of 10 – 13 years have been shown to be capable of carrying out study activities and complying with study requirements. Retention of participants in both years was high (43 out of 48 in both 2005 and 2006 completed 2 seasons of data collection); the small numbers of losses were due to home renovations and scheduling, with no losses attributed to study fatigue. Spatial representativeness was more difficult to ensure seasonally due to participants' scheduling requirements.

The Ogawa NO<sub>2</sub> badge median precision of 7% in this study is slightly higher than the findings by Mukherjee et al.<sup>48</sup> who reported that 8 paired duplicate samples collected at two different locations (4 pairs at each site) over 3, 4 and 7 days had percent relative standard deviation values less than 3.6%. The Quebec City study conducted by Gilbert et al.<sup>49</sup> found 7-day Ogawa samples had an average precision of 4.5%.

Similarly, the Ogawa O<sub>3</sub> method had a precision of 9%, although it underestimated the concentrations in comparison to the NAPS measurements with a median bias of -24%. Possible

reasons for this bias are under investigation. Varns et al.<sup>50</sup> also used the Ogawa samplers for ozone monitoring and conducted duplicate analyses as well as an estimate of bias compared to Dasibi model 1008 continuous monitors. Their duplicate data indicated that there was a median absolute difference of 1.38ppb and a negative bias that ranged from 2.7 – 4.7 ppb over the four locations used. Typical ozone concentrations were 20 – 70 ppb in Texas, which is similar to the values found in Windsor. Another paper by Gibson et al.<sup>51</sup> showed their duplicate analyses had an overall precision of 5.4% while comparisons at three locations with Thermo Electron Instruments Inc. model 49C continuous ozone analysers had  $R^2$  values ranging from 0.82-0.95. The VOC Summa Canisters proved to be an acceptable method of obtaining 24-hr indoor and outdoor residential measurements in both years of sampling. Personal VOC measurements were restricted to the 2005 adult population as the combined weight of the canister along with the personal pump and battery was too heavy for the children to carry. The total sample size for VOC canisters was 1294 in 2005 and 872 in 2006, which was 93% and 94% of the intended 1395 and 930 samples, respectively, and represents one of the largest VOC datasets using this method.

The Chempass PM<sub>2.5</sub> PEM compared well with the FRM dichotomous sampler over two years of side-by-side measurements at the Allen Park MDEQ site in Detroit. The PEM had an overall bias of +11% compared to the FRM sampler. A regression of the PEM on the FRM showed a small intercept and an  $R^2$  of 97%. The positive bias of 11% for the Windsor PEM PM<sub>2.5</sub> is an improvement upon the 18% positive bias noted for the Marple PEM<sub>2.5</sub> in Ozkaynak et al.<sup>15</sup> However, Liu et al.<sup>52</sup> after initially using oiled impactors and noting a large positive bias averaging 7.7  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , switched to greased impactors and reported a negligible positive bias of 0.4  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . Williams et al.<sup>53</sup> reported that their PEM had a 10 - 20% higher mass concentration than the FRM, probably as a result of retention of semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOC) by the PEMs that are blown off by high filter face velocity samplers such as the dichotomous sampler. Winter and summer comparisons for the current study found that the PEM was approximately 52% and 26% higher respectively than the TEOM. Differences between the PEM and the TEOM have been previously attributed to evaporation of PM volatiles in the TEOM measurements.<sup>45</sup> The TEOM reads lower than other filter-based methods due to its elevated inlet temperature, which causes a proportion of the volatiles in the particulates to be vaporized on intake. This bias will vary depending on the proportion of volatiles in the particulates.<sup>54</sup> During the winter, when

the temperature difference between ambient air and the filter is greater, there may be greater volatilization than during the summer.<sup>45</sup> The DustTrak and pDR PM<sub>2.5</sub> agreed well with the gravimetric PEM PM<sub>2.5</sub> method, ( $R^2$  of 87% and 71%, respectively). These continuous data are important indicators of peak exposures which can be identified through the location and activity data available from the time activity diaries.

Time activity patterns are similar to those reported in the Canadian Human Activity Pattern Survey,<sup>55</sup> and those reported within the US<sup>56</sup> and other developed countries.<sup>57</sup> Some of the biggest seasonal differences were due to the children being in school during the winter sampling period compared to the summer when school was not taking place; the adult population did not have equivalent differences. Time spent outdoors was also influenced by season and both populations spent more time outdoors in summer (approximately 10% of their total day).

## CONCLUSIONS

The majority of the WOEAS data can be used with confidence to examine the relationships between personal, indoor and outdoor concentrations for the range of pollutants listed. Predictors of these relationships can be determined using the questionnaires and time activity diary data which were reviewed by the technicians on a daily basis with the participants to ensure accuracy and compliance. The study can also be used to understand the impact that ambient air pollution has upon personal and indoor residential exposures. When the data are combined with the health effects data collected in 2006 it will be possible to investigate the effects of personal, indoor and outdoor air pollution exposures upon respiratory health. These WOEAS data can be used with confidence for developing risk management policies to reduce personal and indoor exposures to air pollutants.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The participants and their families are gratefully thanked for their contributions to these two years of data collection; without them none of this research would have been possible. The careful field work undertaken by the numerous field technicians from Health Canada and the University of Windsor is appreciated. The authors would like to acknowledge contributions from Dr. Paul Villeneuve (Health Canada) for the power calculation, Alice Grgicak-Mannion (GLIER, University of Windsor) for the map of residential locations, Mark Davey (University of Washington), Steve Ferguson and Dr. Mike Wolfson (Harvard School of Public Health) for their guidance on methods and laboratory analyses, Sandy Benetti of Environment Canada for her

679 help in the initial coordination of the laboratory activities and sample analyses, Don Fugler of  
680 Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation and Dr. Russell Dietz of Brookhaven National  
681 Laboratory for their support with air exchange rate measurements, Environment Canada and  
682 Michigan Department of Environmental Quality for permitting us to locate our instruments at the  
683 College Road and Allen Park sites and access to their data for the method comparisons, and Dr.  
684 Markey Johnson and Dr. Scott Weichenthal from Health Canada for conducting the internal  
685 review. Funding was provided by the Border Air Quality Strategy (BAQS) through Health  
686 Canada.

687 Although this work was reviewed by the US EPA and approved for publication, it may not  
688 necessarily reflect official Agency policy.

#### 689 **IMPLICATIONS**

690 It is important to obtain data to identify any factors that can influence the relationships between  
691 personal, indoor and outdoor concentrations for a range of air pollutants. Ensuring that the  
692 methods employed are valid and comparable to reference methods used in typical air pollution  
693 monitoring is crucial for data to be of use to regulators. These exposure data can then be used for  
694 developing risk management policies to reduce personal and indoor exposures to air pollutants.

695 **Table 1.** Target variables and instrumentation

Variable	Instrument / Equipment	Principle	Frequency	Location
PM <sub>2.5</sub> and PM <sub>10</sub> (mass)	Impactor	Gravimetric	Daily	Indoors, outdoors; personal (PM <sub>2.5</sub> 2005 personal only)
PM <sub>2.5</sub> associated nitrate	Impactor and denuder		Daily	Indoors, outdoors, personal
PM <sub>2.5</sub> (mass)	TEOM	Piezoelectric	Daily	Central site (NAPS)
PM <sub>2.5</sub> and coarse particles (PM <sub>10</sub> -PM <sub>2.5</sub> )	Dichotomous (virtual impactor)	Gravimetric	Daily	Outdoors only at Allen Park, Detroit
NO <sub>2</sub>	Ogawa	Diffusion	Daily	Indoors, outdoors, personal
O <sub>3</sub>	Ogawa	Diffusion	Daily (Summer only)	Personal, outdoors
Fine particles (>0.1 µm - <2.5 µm)	DustTrak	Optical	Every 3 minutes	Indoors, outdoors
	Personal DataRAM (pDR)	Optical	Every 3 minutes	Personal (2006 only)
Ultrafine particles (Number) (20 nm to about 1 µm)	P-Trak	Condensation particle counter (CPC)	Every 30 secs for 10 mins each hour	Indoors, outdoors
Elemental carbon	Aethalometer	Absorption at 880 nm	Every 3 minutes; alternating location every half hour during day & hourly at night	Indoors, outdoors
Air change rate	Perfluorocarbon tracer	Tracer gas collection	Daily	Indoors
Temperature / Relative humidity	Smart Reader Plus 2	Thermistor Thin film	Every 3 minutes	Indoors, outdoors
Household characteristics & personal activities	Questionnaire, diary		Once per household, daily for activities	N/A
Settled Dust	HVS3 Vacuum		Once after the completion of the air pollution measurements	Indoors

Lung function	PiKo-1 peak expiratory flow meter		Morning and evening pre-medication use	Personal (2006 only)
Exhaled Breath Condensate (EBC)	R Tube		Evening daily	Personal (2006 only)

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Ancillary meteorological variables (wind speed and direction, atmospheric pressure, visibility, and weather conditions) were also obtained from Environment

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Canada and added to the dataset.

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**Table 2.** Relative bias and precision of collocated samplers at NAPS.

Pollutant	Method	Descriptive Statistics						Bias			Precision		
		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	p25	Median	p75	p25	Median	p75	p25	Median	p75
NO <sub>2</sub> (ppb)	Ogawa	113	20	10	13	18	26	0.01	0.17	0.35	0.03	0.07	0.17
	EC	113	16	6	12	15	20						
O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)	Ogawa	76	26	9	21	25	34	-0.15	-0.24	-0.39	0.05	0.09	0.17
	EC	76	36	11	29	36	42						
Nitrate (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Mini-PEM	56	1.9	1.6	1	1.5	2.1	-	-	-	0.03	0.07	0.13

**Table 3.** Comparison of gravimetric PEM to dichotomous reference sampler at Allen Park location: bias and precision.

Pollutant (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Method	Descriptive Statistics						Bias			Precision		
		N	Mean	Std.Dev.	p25	Median	p75	p25	Median	p75	p25	Median	p75
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	Dichot	38	15.8	8.8	9.0	13	21	1.04	1.11	1.19	0.03	0.07	0.12
	PEM	38	17.6	10.3	9.8	16	24						
PM <sub>10</sub>	Dichot	38	26.6	11.3	17	24	34	1.02	1.10	1.15	0.03	0.06	0.10
	PEM	38	29.0	12.6	20	27	38						
PM <sub>2.5-10</sub>	Dichot	38	10.4	3.2	8.2	9	13	0.94	1.09	1.19	0.05	0.12	0.24
	PEM	38	10.9	3.5	8.9	11	13						

**Table 4.** Comparison of gravimetric PM<sub>2.5</sub> PEM with collocated TEOM at NAPS location: TEOM bias.

PM <sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m³)	Descriptive Statistics						TEOM Bias		
	N	Mean	Std.Dev.	p25	Median	p75	p25	Median	p75
Winter									
PEM	39	12.0	6.6	6.5	9.8	16.6	-0.59	-0.51	-0.47
TEOM	39	6.0	3.8	2.8	5.0	7.4			
Summer									
PEM	77	17.9	10.0	10.1	15.2	22.9	-0.32	-0.26	-0.16
TEOM	77	13.7	8.7	6.9	12.0	18.8			

707 **Table 5.** Descriptive Statistics of the Study Population by Year.

Study Population		2005	2006
Gender (N)	Male	5	31
	Female	45	20
Ethnicity (N)	Caucasian (other)	N / A	48 (3)
Age (N)	10		20
	11	N / A	20
	12		10
	13		1
Baseline Housing Characteristics			
Home Type (N)	Detached	50	42
	Row House	0	4
	Duplex/triplex	0	2
	Other	0	1
Home Size (m <sup>2</sup> )	Mean	207.5	172
Stove Type (N)	Gas / Electric	41 / 3	12 / 36
Air Cleaning Device on Furnace (N)	Yes (No)	14 (30)	34 (12)
Garage Type (N)	No Garage	14	21
	Detached	12	10
	Attached	23	16
	Attached no door	1	1
Daily Questionnaire Variables (No. of Sampling days)			
Season	Summer / Winter	229 / 239	240 / 240
Candles Used in the Home Today	Yes (No)	28 (420)	27 (438)
Windows Open Today	Yes (No)	134 (315)	123 (338)
Cooking	Yes (No)	324 (128)	365 (99)
Cleaning	Yes (No / Don't Know)	226 (236)	254 (206 / 2)
Presence of smokers	Yes (No)	3 (445)	1 (463)
Presence of pets	Yes (No)	310 (139)	260 (204)
Time Activity Data			
% of time spent indoors at home	Summer / Winter	74.6 / 76.5	77.4 / 68.7
% of time spent indoors away from home	Summer / Winter	3.8 / 0.5	9.8 / 5.8
% of time spent at work / school	Summer / Winter	5.6 / 5.4	0.6 / 18.5
% of time spent in the yard or nearby	Summer / Winter	8.7 / 10.4	4.8 / 0.7
% of time spent outdoors away from home	Summer / Winter	2.4 / 10.4	5.6 / 5.2
% of time spent in transit	Summer / Winter	4.8 / 6.3	3.4 / 3.7

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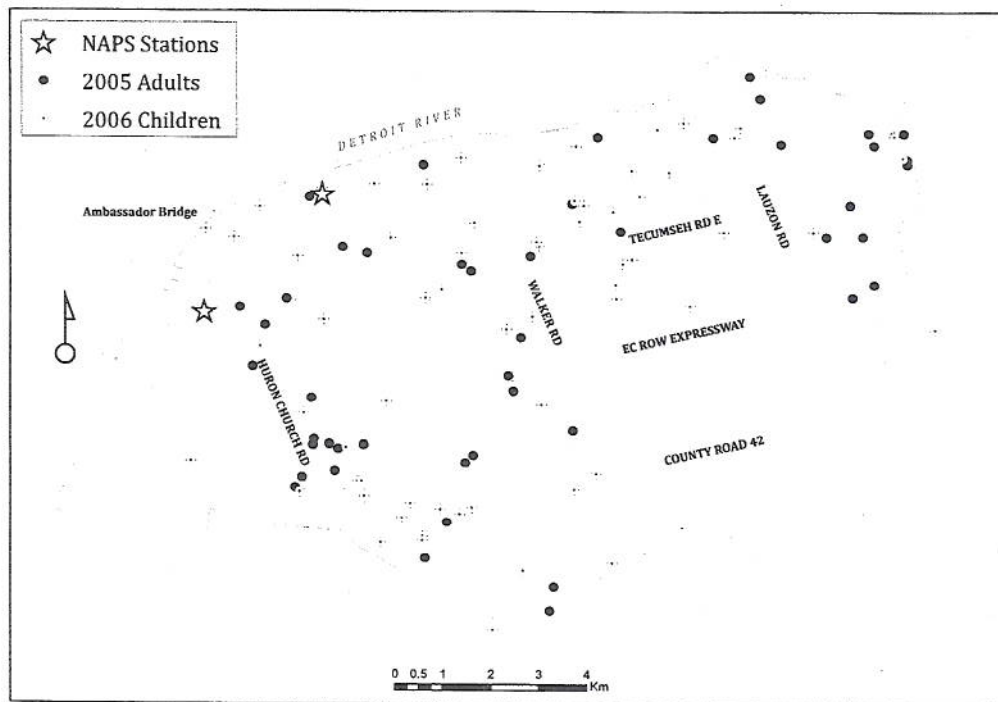
**Figure 1.** Map of participant locations and NAPS site.

**Figure 2.** Picture of equipment set up.

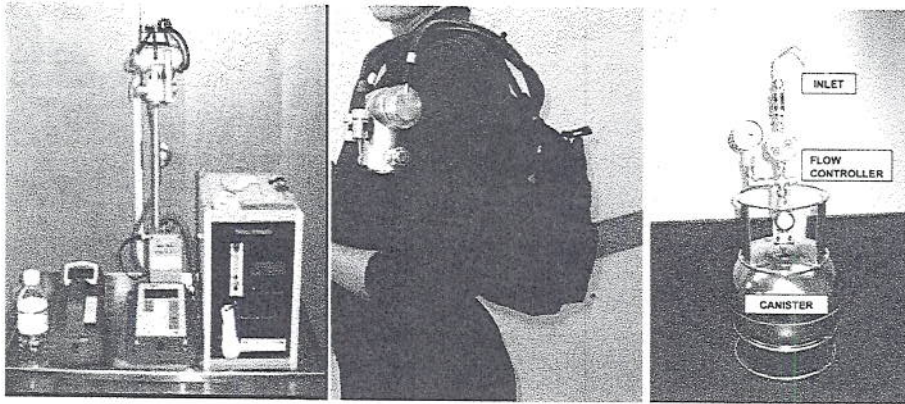
**Figure 3a.** Comparison of the PEM2.5 sampler with the Allen Park Dichotomous sampler.

**Figure 3b.** Comparison of the PEM10 sampler with the Allen Park Dichotomous sampler.

**Figure 1.** Map of participant locations and NAPS site.



**Figure 2.** Picture of equipment set up



a) Indoor & outdoor monitors

b) Personal set up

c) VOC canister

Figure 3a. Comparison of the PEM<sub>2.5</sub> sampler with the Allen Park Dichotomous sampler.

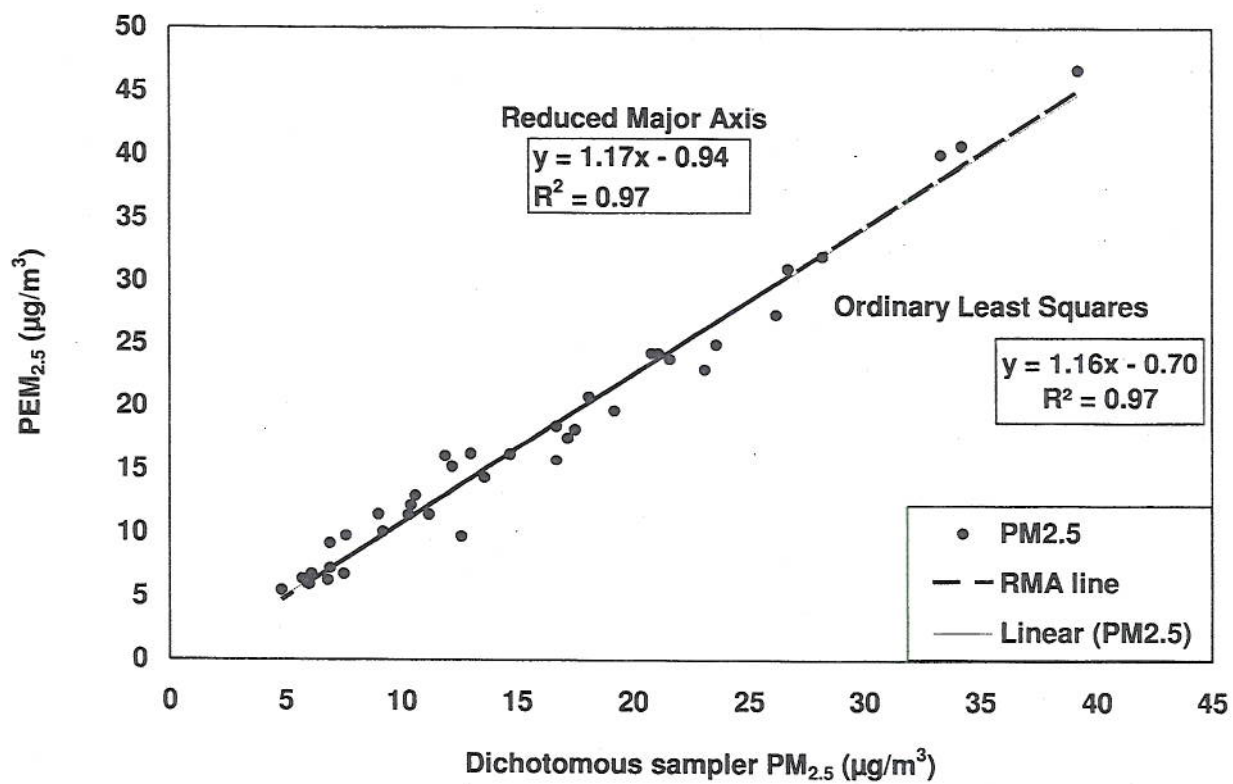


Figure 3b. Comparison of the PEM<sub>10</sub> sampler with the Allen Park Dichotomous sampler.

