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1 Indoor Residential Exposure to Semivolatile Organic Compounds in France

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20 KEY WORDS

Aggregate exposure; cumulative exposure; chemicals; Monte Carlo simulation; indoor air
quality; dermal exposure.

23 ABSTRACT

Multiple chemicals are emitted in residential accommodation. Aggregate Daily Doses (ADD) 24 (ng/kg-bw/d) were estimated for 32 semivolatile organic compounds (SVOCs) of different 25 chemical families that are frequently detected in French dwellings in both air and settled dust. 26 Daily doses were determined using steady-state models for the population, categorized into 11 27 age groups covering birth to age 30. Three routes of exposure were taken into account: dust 28 29 ingestion, inhalation (gaseous and particulate phases) and dermal contact with the gaseous phase of air. Contamination levels were preferentially retrieved from large, nationwide 30 representative datasets. A two-dimensional probabilistic approach was used to assess 31 parametric uncertainty and identify the most influential factors. For children aged 2 to 3 years, 32 ADD estimates spanned orders of magnitude, with median values ranging from 8.7 pg/kg-33 bw/d for 2,2',3,4,4'-pentabromodiphenylether (BDE 85) to 1.3 µg/kg-bw/d for di-isobutyl 34 phthalate (DiBP). Inhalation, ingestion and dermal pathway contributed at varying levels, and 35 depending on compound, air was the dominant medium for 28 of the 32 compounds (either by 36 inhalation or dermal contact). Indoor exposure estimate variance was mainly driven by indoor 37 contamination variability, and secondarily by uncertainty in physical and chemical 38 parameters. These findings lend support to the call for cumulative risk assessment of indoor 39 SVOCs. 40

INTRODUCTION 41

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Both consumer product use and the production of chemicals have been rising constantly since 42 the mid-20th century, and many of these chemicals are semivolatile organic compounds 43 (SVOCs). SVOCs include compounds from various chemical families: phthalates, bisphenols, 44 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), organophosphorus (OPs), organochlorines (OCs), 45 synthetic musks, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and polybromodiphenylethers (PBDEs).

The health effects of SVOCs have been assessed by numerous studies on both humans and 47 animals; some are suspected of having reprotoxic (Casas et al. 2013; Rubin 2011), neurotoxic 48 (Baldi et al. 2001; Blanc-Lapierre et al. 2012; Elbaz et al. 2009; Zaganas et al. 2013) or 49 carcinogenic effects (Armstrong et al. 2004; IARC 2010a, 2010b). 50

SVOCs are emitted by volatilization from their source materials and contaminate other 51 compartments; in some cases, they can also migrate directly from source (Sukiene et al. 52 2017). In the indoor environment, they are found in the gas phase, airborne particles, settled 53 dust (Weschler and Nazaroff 2008) and on any other available surfaces such as walls, ceiling 54 and flooring – as well as on human skin and clothing. In addition to dietary exposure and 55 dermal contact with consumer products, humans are continuously exposed to these chemicals 56 through various pathways, including inhalation of indoor air (gaseous and particulate phases), 57 ingestion of settled dust and dermal contact with indoor air and settled dust (on floor and 58 other surfaces). Many authors have assessed indoor exposure to certain families of SVOCs 59 (phthalates, PBDEs, etc.), taking into account one or more exposure media via oral, 60 respiratory (and sometimes dermal) pathways (Bekö et al. 2013; Gaspar et al. 2014; Linares et 61 al. 2010; Mitro et al. 2016; Roosens et al. 2010; Trudel et al. 2011; Wilson et al. 2003). Mitro 62 et al. (2016) recently estimated indoor exposures based on US dust surveys and an air 63

contamination model. Here, we seek to use measurement data to assess the exposure of alarge population and estimate the associated uncertainty.

The objective of this study was to estimate the indoor exposure of people of various age 66 groups, to 32 SVOCs from different chemical families frequently detected in French 67 dwellings (Blanchard et al. 2014; Mandin et al. 2014, 2016). Three routes of exposure were 68 taken into account: dust ingestion, inhalation of air (gaseous and particulate phases) and 69 dermal contact with the gaseous phase of air. Contamination levels were preferentially 70 retrieved from large, representative datasets. A two-dimensional probabilistic approach was 71 used to assess the uncertainty associated with the different parameters, and identify the most 72 impacting factors. 73

74 METHODS

Target Population: To address exposure across a broad section of the population, we estimated exposures for 11 age groups from birth to age 30 (as an example of an adult), following the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA 2005) recommendations as to which age groups should be considered within a health risk assessment.

Compounds selection: 32 SVOCs were selected on the basis of their health interest
(Bonvallot et al. 2010), and because they were detected in both the air and the settled dust of
French dwellings (Blanchard et al. 2014; Mandin et al. 2014, 2016).

Exposure model: The Aggregate Daily Doses (ADD) (ng/kg-bw/d) were assessed by
summing internal (uptake) daily doses from dust ingestion (DD_{ing-dust}), inhalation of air (both
gaseous and particulate phases) (DD_{inh-air}) and dermal contact with gas phase (DD_{derm-gas}).

Very few studies included the dermal exposure to dust pathway when assessing aggregate
exposures to SVOCs. Trudel et al. (2011) studied dermal exposure to 8 PBDEs in dust. Even

though they overestimated this pathway using in vitro experimental data with acetone as 87 carrier vehicle (Roper et al. 2006), they found the contribution of dermal exposure to dust to 88 be consistently < 20%, even for the most contaminated region, and for every age group 89 (below 1 year to 65 years of age). Bekö et al. (2013) estimated indoor exposure to five 90 phthalates and found a very low (<1%) contribution of dermal exposure to dust, in 91 comparison to other pathways. Since this pathway is typically found to be minor and required 92 93 uptake parameters are ill-suited to dust exposure even when available, dermal exposure to dust was not addressed in this work. 94

Equations for exposure dose estimation: Daily Doses (DD) can be estimated in steady-state
conditions using the following equations. These were adapted from relationships developed
by Bekö et al. (2013) and Weschler and Nazaroff (2012, 2014).

98 Ingestion of settled dust

$$DD_{ing-dust} = \frac{C_{dust} \times DI \times f_{oral} \times f_{dust} \times t}{BW}$$
(1)

99 Where C_{dust} is the SVOC concentration in settled dust (ng/g), DI is the amount of dust 100 ingested by an individual per day (g/d), f_{oral} is the oral bioavailability of the SVOC (-), f_{dust} is 101 the bioaccessibility of the SVOC from the dust (-), t is the fraction of time spent in dwellings 102 (-), BW is the body weight (kg), and DD_{ing-dust} is expressed in ng/kg-bw/d.

103 Inhalation of indoor air

$$DD_{inh-air} = \frac{(C_{part} + C_{gas}) \times IR \times f_{pulm} \times t}{BW}$$
(2)

104

105 Where C_{part} is the SVOC particulate phase concentration (ng/m³), C_{gas} is the SVOC gas phase 106 concentration (ng/m³), IR is the inhalation rate for an individual per day (m³/d), f_{pulm} is the pulmonary bioavailability of the SVOC (-), t is the fraction of time spent in dwellings (-), BW
is the body weight (kg), and DD_{inh-air} is expressed in ng/kg-bw/d.

 $DD_{derm-gas} = \frac{C_{gas} \times k_{p-g} \times BSA \times t}{BW}$

(3)

109 Dermal contact with the gas phase

110

Where C_{gas} is the SVOC gas phase concentration (ng/m³), k_{p-g} is the SVOC transdermal 111 permeability coefficient (m/h), BSA is the body surface area (m²), t is the daily duration 112 exposure (h/d), BW is the body weight (kg), and DD_{derm-gas} is expressed in ng/kg-bw/d. The 113 steady-state model adapted by Weschler and Nazaroff (2012, 2014) used to estimate k_{p-g} is 114 described in more detail in Supplemental Material (see S1). This requires use of the SVOC 115 octanol/water partition coefficients (log (Kow)), Henry's law constants (H) and coefficients 116 describing the external transport of a gaseous SVOC from the bulk indoor air to the boundary 117 layer adjacent to the skin (y_d) . 118

119 The ADD for a single SVOC for an individual was then calculated by summing the previous120 doses according to the following equation, and expressed in ng/kg-bw/d:

$$ADD = DD_{ing-dust} + DD_{inh-air} + DD_{derm-gas}$$
(4)

121

Parameter estimation for exposure model: Parameter distributions were constructed or
retrieved from the literature as detailed below. Some of these parameters will be the same for
all SVOCs (yd, BW, BSA, IR, DI and t) while others will vary from one compound to another
(foral, fdust, fpulm, log (Kow), H, Cdust, Cpart and Cgas).

126 Physical and chemical parameters

For each SVOC, measured or estimated values of log (Kow) and H at 25°C were retrieved 127 from: online databases - Hazardous Substances Data Bank (HSBD) and ChemIDplus 128 (http://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/), Chemspider (http://www.chemspider.com/), and Chemicalize 129 (http://www.chemicalize.org/); toxicological and environmental data sheets from the French 130 National Competence Center for Industrial Safety and Environmental Protection (INERIS) 131 (http://www.ineris.fr/substances/fr/page/21); online calculators Chemexper 132 _ (https://www.chemexper.com/) and ACD/Labs (http://www.acdlabs.com/); EPI Suite software 133 (U.S. EPA, v4.1) and the Handbook of Physical-Chemical Properties and Environment Fate 134 for Organic Chemicals (Mackay et al. 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2010d). Particular attention was 135 136 paid to avoiding duplicates (EPI Suite software, HSBD and ChemIDplus often used the same sources for these parameters). Furthermore, only values at the reference temperature of 25°C 137 were selected, in order to obtain comparable data between compounds and estimate DD at a 138 constant temperature. At least two values were available for each SVOC. Where at least 15 139 values for log (Kow) and H were available, distributions were fitted. Otherwise, we used either 140 triangular distributions having at least three values (minimum, average and maximum), or 141 uniform distributions for two retrieved values. See Table S1 for corresponding distributions 142 and input parameters for each SVOC. 143

144 Contamination data

145 Contamination data were provided from measurements taken in recent French housing 146 surveys. Concentration levels in settled dust collected from vacuum cleaner bags were 147 retrieved from a national survey covering the 3.6 million French dwellings that were home to 148 at least one child aged 6 months to 6 years in 2008-2009, using 145 samples (Mandin et al. 149 2014). Concentration levels in airborne Particulate Matter (PM) of 10 μ m in diameter were 150 retrieved from a national survey covering the 24.7 million French main residences, using 285 151 samples (Mandin et al. 2016). PM samples were collected from each living room over a period of one week, and assumed to be representative of each dwelling as a whole. SVOC gas
phase concentrations were not available at national scale; data from 30 French dwellings
(Blanchard et al. 2014) were used as a surrogate.

Modeling was established regarding the percentage of samples above the limit of detection 155 (LOD) or the limit of quantification (LOQ) for the retrieved studies. For settled dust and PM 156 157 measurements, lognormal distributions were fitted using summary statistics when > 75% of data were above LOD (Burmaster 1997). This concerns 20 and 14 compounds, for settled dust 158 and PM measurements respectively. Where detection frequency ranged from 20 to 75%, the 159 maximum-likelihood estimation (MLE) was used to estimate lognormal distributions (Helsel 160 2011; Helsel and Hirsch 1992). This statistical method could be used to estimate the 161 undetected data in the studies of Mandin et al. (2014, 2016), because sample sizes were large 162 enough - with 145 and 285 samples for dust and PM respectively. The number of compounds 163 concerned was 7 for settled dust and 11 for PM measurements. Where detection frequency 164 ranged from 1 to 20%, custom distribution was modeled with discrete probability for the 165 quantified values, and continuous uniform probability from 0 to LOD and from LOD to LOQ. 166 The number of compounds concerned was 5 for settled dust and 7 for PM measurements. For 167 the gas phase measurements, the Blanchard et al. (2014) sample size (n=30) was too small to 168 use MLE. So, where detection frequency ranged from 1 to 99%, custom distribution was 169 modeled using continuous uniform probability from 0 to LOQ and discrete probability for the 170 quantified values. For all three media, a literature survey was conducted to retrieve specific 171 data when detection frequency was < 1%. Publications were selected in the following order of 172 preference: conducted in Europe, post-2000 and providing sample size, measurement method, 173 LOD and/or LOO values and percentage of samples above the LOD and/or LOO. Where a 174 lower LOD or LOQ was used, other contamination information was used instead of the 175

initially-selected data (Blanchard et al. 2014; Mandin et al. 2014, 2016). See Table S2 for
corresponding distributions and input parameters for each SVOC in each medium.

178 Exposure media properties

Assessment of DD_{derm-gas} (Eq. 3) requires use of a transdermal permeability coefficient, k_{p-g}, 179 estimated using the specific physical and chemical parameters of each SVOC, and a non-180 specific mass transport coefficient, y_d . This last describes the external transport of an SVOC 181 from the gas phase in the core of a room through the boundary layer adjacent to the skin, see 182 Eq. 1 (Supplemental Material). A triangular distribution was modeled for χ_d , using the 183 184 minimum and maximum values found in the literature and the generally assumed value of 6 m/h as most likely (Pandrangi and Morrison 2008; Tamas et al. 2006; Weschler and Nazaroff 185 2008). See Table S3 for corresponding distribution and input parameters. 186

187 <u>Bioaccessibility and bioavailabilities</u>

Bioaccessibility in dust (f_{dust}) is the fraction of pollutant released from settled dust into the 188 gastrointestinal tract and available for absorption (Rostami and Juhasz 2011). For each 189 SVOC, f_{dust} was retrieved from the literature survey performed by Raffy et al. (2016). Oral 190 bioavailability (foral) is the fraction of a contaminant reaching the digestive system and 191 absorbed into systemic circulation (Rostami and Juhasz 2011). Pulmonary bioavailability 192 (f_{pulm}) is the fraction of a contaminant reaching the alveolar system and absorbed into 193 194 systemic circulation. For each SVOC, f_{oral} and f_{pulm} were retrieved from the following online databases: the HSBD (https://toxnet.nlm.nih.gov/cgi-bin/sis/htmlgen?HSDB) and the Agency 195 for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) (https://www.atsdr.cdc.gov/). For each 196 197 compound displaying at least three available values, triangular distributions were modeled (minimum, average and maximum values). Where only two values were retrieved, uniform 198 distributions were modeled (minimum and maximum). Where only a single value was 199

available, triangular distributions were modeled between this value (as the likeliest), and the minimum and the maximum values retrieved from other compounds belonging to the same chemical family. Finally, if no value was found for an SVOC, a uniform distribution was modeled between the minimum and the maximum values found for the other compounds from the same chemical family - or from the entire studied chemical families taken together if no other compound from the same chemical family was assessed. See Table S4 for corresponding distributions and input parameters for each SVOC.

207 <u>Human body parameters</u>

The World Health Organization (WHO 2006) has identified and suggested common critical 208 life stages for use in exposure and risk assessment. Because these were not available for every 209 parameter and age group for populations living in France, we used the U.S. EPA Exposure 210 211 Factors Handbook (U.S. EPA 2011). The potential influence of this is covered in the discussion section. We compiled the distribution of human body weight (BW), body surface 212 area (BSA), dust ingestion (DI), inhalation rate (IR) and time spent in dwellings (t). 213 Lognormal distributions were used for BW, BSA and DI. Normal distributions were used for 214 IR and t. See Table S5 for corresponding distributions and input parameters. 215

Simulation: DD from all three routes of exposure (Eq. 1 to 3) and ADD (Eq. 4) were 216 estimated using Crystal Ball® software (Oracle[©], version 11.1.1.3.00). Latin Hypercube two-217 dimensional simulations were carried out with 500,000 runs for each SVOC, and each age 218 group. Two-dimensional simulations take into account both the uncertainty (lack of 219 220 knowledge about a parameter) and the variability (heterogeneity of a parameter in a population) of the input parameters. The following parameters were considered variable (i.e. 221 high variability in relation to uncertainty): C_{dust}, C_{part}, C_{gas}, y_d, BW, BSA, IR and t, whereas 222 log (Kow), H, foral, fdust and fpulm, were considered uncertain. DI was considered both uncertain 223

and variable. Sensitivity analysis was performed in a one-dimensional simulation by assessing
the contribution of each input parameter to ADD variance (the output), using linear
regression.

227 **RESULTS**

228

[Figure 1]

ADD (ng/kg-bw/d) estimates for the 32 SVOCs for children aged 2 to 3 years are shown in 229 Figure 1. We are presenting results for this specific segment because young children are more 230 vulnerable than the rest of the population in terms of exposure to contaminants (due to more 231 frequent contact with the ground and deposited dust, carrying objects in their mouths, higher 232 233 inhalation rates, etc.) and more sensitive in terms of effects (due to ongoing development of the main organ systems, which continues after birth). Detailed results for ADD and the three 234 DD from each exposure route for all 11 age groups (birth to age 30) are shown in Tables S8 to 235 S18. ADD estimations spanned orders of magnitude, with median values ranging from 8.7 236 pg/kg-bw/d for 2,2',3,4,4'-pentabromodiphenylether (BDE 85) to 1.3 µg/kg-bw/d for 237 diisobutyl phthalate (DiBP) for children aged 2 to 3 years. Variability of ADD (relative 238 interpercentile range, see Table S6) ranged from 1.2 for 2,2',4,4',5-pentabromodiphenylether 239 (BDE 99) to 12 for 2,3,3',4,4'-pentachlorobiphenyl (PCB 105), with a median value of 4. The 240 median uncertainty on the mean was 40%, ranging from 11% for the benzo[a]pyrene to 230% 241 for 2,3',4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl (PCB 118) (see detailed relative errors in Table S13). 242

The relative contribution of exposure pathways to aggregated median exposure is presented in Figure 1 (bottom panel) for children aged 2 to 3 years. The relative contributions made by each route of exposure to total indoor estimates differ by compound, and could be related to their degree of volatility. For the most volatile SVOCs - that is those compounds having an octanol-air partition coefficient (log (K_{oa})) value of 9 or less (see Table S1) and expected to be

primarily gaseous (Weschler and Nazaroff, 2012), inhalation and dermal contact with the gas 248 phase were the dominant routes of exposure: fluorene, anthracene, aldrin, dieldrin, tonalide, 249 galaxolide, tributylphosphate, diethyl phthalate (DEP), dibutyl phthalate (DBP), DiBP and 250 2,4,4'-trichlorobiphenyl (PCB 28), 2,4',5-trichlorobiphenyl (PCB 31) and 2,2',5,5'-251 tetrachlorobiphenyl (PCB 52). For less volatile SVOCs - that is those compounds having a log 252 (K_{0a}) value of 13 or greater (see Table S1) and expected to be primarily in the particle phase 253 (Weschler and Nazaroff, 2012), dust ingestion was the dominant route of exposure: 254 (DEHP), di-isononyl phthalate (DiNP) 255 diethylhexyl phthalate and 2,2',4,4',5,6'hexabromodiphenylether (BDE 154). The contribution made by different pathways was more 256 contrasted for SVOCs having a log (K_{oa}) value of between 9 and 13 (see Table S1). On the 257 whole, air was the dominant exposure medium (sum of inhalation and dermal contact > 50%258 of ADD) for 28 compounds out of 32, while dust was the major contributor for DEHP, DiNP, 259 260 benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP) and 2,2',4,5,5'-pentachlorobiphenyl (PCB 101). Overall, dust ingestion is more contributive to exposure for less volatile chemicals, although this is not the 261 case with BBP and PCB 101, both of which are found in relatively high concentrations in 262 dust. 263

Relative contributions of exposure pathways for P95 values were similar to median values. Notable exceptions were that higher contributions from dust ingestion were found for PCB 118, 2,2',3,4,4',5'-hexachlorobiphenyl (PCB 138) and 2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl (PCB 153), and higher contributions from inhalation were found for benzo[a]pyrene and DBP.

268

[Figure 2]

The main sensitivity analysis results are shown in Figure 2 (see Table S7 for detailed results). These reveal that contamination parameters are most influential: C_{gas} , C_{part} and C_{dust} , the only exception being H for BDE 99. Their relative contributions to ADD variance ranged from

30% for galaxolide (C_{part}) and BDE 99 (H) to 89% for fluorene (C_{gas}). For most compounds, 272 273 the other influential parameters (having contributions higher than 10%) are the other contamination parameters: Cgas, Cpart and Cdust, and also fpulm. For some compounds, other 274 influential parameters are f_{dust} (DEHP and DiNP) alongside physical and chemical 275 parameters: log (Kow) and H (lindane and BDE 99). Furthermore, compounds have been 276 ranked by volatility in Figure 2 (based on their $\log (K_{oa})$ values), from most volatile (fluorene) 277 278 to least volatile (DiNP). Among the most volatile SVOCs, Cgas tended to be the more influential parameter, while C_{dust} and C_{part} appeared influential for the least volatile. Lastly, 279 we note that within each age group, human parameters were not influential. 280

281

[Figure 3]

ADD (ng/kg-bw/d) estimates for the 32 SVOCs for four age groups are shown in Figure 3: infants aged 0 to 1 months, infants aged 1 to 3 months, children aged 2 to 3 years and adults aged 21 to 30 years. As expected, ADD decreases with age because of increasing BW - except within the [0-1 month] category where the dust ingestion rate equals 0 mg, and ADD may be lower in comparison with other groups. This is true in particular of compounds making a major contribution to dust ingestion (PCB 101, BBP, DEHP and DiNP). Detailed results for ADD across all 11 age groups (birth to age 30) are shown in Tables S8 to S18.

289 DISCUSSION

Indoor exposure to 32 SVOCs was modeled using contamination measurements from dwellings and human body parameters. ADD spanned orders of magnitude from 8.7 pg/kgbw/d to 1.3 μ g/kg-bw/d. Inhalation, ingestion and dermal pathway all contributed, though differently across compounds. Indoor exposure estimations were influenced more by variability in indoor concentrations (C_{gas}, C_{part} and C_{dust}) than by uncertainty in physical and chemical parameters. Study strengths include: 1) estimation of indoor exposure to numerous SVOCs from different chemical families via gas- and particle-phase inhalation, dermal contact with gas phase, and ingestion of settled dust; 2) use of field measurements in dust, particulate and gaseous phases;
3) use, when available, of large and nationwide representative datasets; 4) choice of a twodimensional probabilistic approach, and 5) consideration of many age groups.

301 Study limitations include: 1) use of an exposure model that neglects dynamic conditions; 2) 302 use of different data sets for different exposure media, and 3) uncertainty analysis being 303 restricted to parameter uncertainty.

304 We used steady-state models to estimate indoor exposure to SVOCs. Because indoor air measurements were performed over a period of one week, and settled dust being collected in a 305 306 vacuum cleaner, we assumed that equilibrium had been reached. Because we frequently move 307 from one environment into another, or between rooms having different concentrations, equilibrium is rarely achieved for the transfer from air to skin. A transient model developed 308 by Gong et al. (2014) considered convective mass transfer resistance in the boundary air layer 309 adjacent to the skin. Morrison et al. (2016) have recently improved this model by including 310 skin surface lipids, which increase overall resistance to SVOC uptake from air. However, 311 312 because these models require parameters that are not available for all compounds, default parameters are employed - rendering a probabilistic assessment difficult. 313

For contamination data in the three media when the detection frequency was < 1% (Blanchard et al. 2014; Mandin et al. 2014, 2016) a literature survey was conducted to retrieve other contamination information, which was then employed (instead of the initially-targeted data) where a lower LOD or LOQ was used by the authors (see Table S2). This concerned settled dust and gas phase concentrations for the 2,4,4'-tribromodiphenylether (BDE 28), and gas phase concentration alone for 12 other SVOCs: benzo[a]pyrene, PCB 31, PCB 105, PCB 118,

320 PCB 138, PCB 153, BDE 47, BDE 85, BDE 99, 2,2',4,4',6-pentabromodiphenylether (BDE

321 100), 2,2',4,4',5,5'-hexabromodiphenylether (BDE 153) and BDE 154.

To put our results into perspective, this indoor aggregate multimedia and multipathway 322 exposure assessment was compared to the few other studies investigating the same exposure 323 pathways, namely: Bekö et al. (2013), Gaspar et al. (2014) and Mitro et al. (2016), who 324 325 investigated phthalates and galaxolide for children aged 3 to 6 years in Denmark, California (US) and 14 states of the US, respectively. Our ADD estimated median values for children 326 aged 3 to 6 years (see Table S14) were compared to: estimated median values for DBP and 327 DEHP (Bekö et al. 2013; Gaspar et al. 2014); estimated median values for DiBP, BBP and 328 DEP (Bekö et al. 2013), and estimated average values for DBP, DEHP, DiBP, BBP, DEP and 329 galaxolide (Mitro et al. 2016). Similar results were found for DBP, DEHP and DEP. For 330 DiBP, we found a median value equal to 1.1 µg/kg-bw/d, consistent with the 1.5 µg/kg-bw/d 331 found by Bekö et al. (2013). Using a dust contamination level for this compound that was 332 333 seven times lower, Mitro et al. (2016) found a lower exposure level equal to 0.1 µg/kg-bw/d. This difference in concentration data between French and US samples may also reflect a shift 334 in the use of phthalates as a result of changes to the formulation of plasticizers. For BBP, we 335 336 found a median value equal to 0.1 μ g/kg-bw/d, consistent with the 0.2 μ g/kg-bw/d of Mitro et al. (2016). Using a dust contamination level for this compound that was four times lower, 337 Bekö et al. (2013) found a lower exposure level equal to 0.01 µg/kg-bw/d. Regarding 338 339 galaxolide, our exposure level of 0.05 µg/kg-bw/d is consistent with Mitro et al. (2016) who found 0.1 μ g/kg-bw/d - in line with dust contamination that was twice as high as ours. 340

Pathway contributions were found to be similar to Mitro et al. (2016) for DBP, DEP and galaxolide, with inhalation as the main route of exposure (> 50%), followed by dermal absorption from the gas phase and dust ingestion. Pathway contribution estimates from Bekö et al. (2013) for DiBP, BBP and DEHP are also similar to our findings, with total uptake dominated by dermal absorption from the gas phase for DiBP, and dust ingestion for BBP and
DEHP. The results of the present study were also comparable to Gaspar et al. (2014), with
dust ingestion dominating total uptake of DEHP.

In addition to the indoor exposure in dwellings assessed by this study, other sources of 348 exposure (e.g. diet and personal care products) and other indoor environments (e.g. schools 349 350 and offices) for many of these compounds contribute to total exposure, as well as direct dermal contact with surfaces. The use of personal care products, directly applied to skin or 351 inhaled from aerosols, could have a non-negligible contribution to total exposure for some 352 compounds, e.g., for certain phthalates (Romero-Franco et al. 2011) and musks (Zhang et al. 353 2017). Most of the studies addressing SVOC exposure assessment also looked at dietary 354 355 ingestion (Beamer et al. 2012; Duggan et al. 2003; Lorber et al. 2007; Roosens et al. 2010; Trudel et al. 2011; Wilson et al. 2003; Wormuth et al. 2006). This could naturally lead to 356 higher ADD estimates and different pathway contributions. Diet has been shown to be an 357 important source of exposure for certain compounds: e.g. some PBDEs (Trudel et al. 2011) 358 and some phthalates (Wilson et al. 2003). However, several authors who have performed 359 exposure assessments on both indoor and diet exposure found that dietary ingestion was not 360 the main route of exposure for chlorpyrifos (Beamer et al. 2012; Duggan et al. 2003), DEP, 361 BBP and DiNP (Wormuth et al. 2006), some PBDEs (Lorber et al. 2007), some PCBs and 362 some OCs (Wilson et al. 2003). For certain compounds, exposure via dietary ingestion could 363 also equal exposure via non-dietary ingestion: e.g. DEHP (Wormuth et al. 2006), and 364 anthracene, phenanthrene, benzo[a]pyrene and fluorene (Wilson et al. 2003). To put our 365 366 results in perspective, we compared them to those of the French infant total diet study (ANSES 2016a, 2016b). We compared to lower bound (LB) and upper bound (UB) median 367 estimates for children aged 2 to 3 years. For 6 PCBs (sum of PCB 28, 52, 101, 138, 153 and 368 369 2,2',3,4,4',5,5'-heptachlorobiphenyl (PCB 180)) our median residential indoor ADDs were

about one order of magnitude lower than dietary exposure estimates (LB and UB). For 7 370 PBDEs (sum of BDE 28, 47, 99, 100, 153, 154 and 2,2',3,4,4',5',6-heptabromodiphenylether 371 (BDE 183)) they were about one order of magnitude higher (LB and UB). For DEHP they 372 were of the same order of magnitude (LB and UB). For DiNP and lindane they were of the 373 same order of magnitude as the LB estimates and about one order of magnitude lower than the 374 UB. For BBP, DEP and DBP they were of the order of magnitude of UB estimates, and one 375 order of magnitude higher than the LB. For DiBP they were about one or two orders of 376 magnitude higher than UB and LB respectively. For chlorpyrifos, dieldrin and aldrin they 377 were of the same order of magnitude, in comparison with the LB estimates, and about two 378 379 orders of magnitude lower, in comparison with the UB.

380 Compared to more traditional deterministic approaches, probabilistic methods (e.g. Monte Carlo simulations) have the main advantage of addressing input parameters featuring both 381 uncertainty and variability. ADD estimations were mainly dependent on variability in indoor 382 383 concentrations (Cgas, Cpart and Cdust), and secondarily by uncertainty in fpulm and physical and chemical parameters. Uncertainty of parameters is related to lack of total knowledge, whereas 384 data variability refers to true heterogeneity. An interesting finding is that although input 385 parameter uncertainty has been accused of causing broad uncertainty in exposure estimates 386 (Pelletier et al. 2017; Salthammer and Schripp 2015), it appeared to contribute less to total 387 variance of ADD than did variability. For every compound but one, variability of a 388 389 concentration explains at least 40% of ADD variance; in half of all cases, this exceeded 60%. Concentrations of a chemical within dwellings span orders of magnitude, especially as a result 390 391 of the presence (or absence) of a source in the dwelling. Physical and chemical parameters can either be measured experimentally or calculated using other chemical properties. 392 Depending on which of these methods is used, it follows that values vary by one order of 393 394 magnitude or more (Finizio et al. 1997) - and these uncertainties are propagated in the

calculation of DD_{derm-gas} and then ADD. Up to 34% of ADD variation for aldrin could be 395 396 explained by uncertainty in f_{pulm} (see Table S7) because data for most of the SVOCs were unavailable. Indeed, data were available for just two compounds: 2,2',4,4'-397 tetrabromodiphenylether (BDE 47) and benzo[a]pyrene, leading to modeling of uniform 398 distribution between 0 and 100% for most compounds (see Table S4) and to potential 399 overestimation of inhalation exposure. The same limit was encountered for the other uptake 400 fractions (f_{oral} and f_{dust}), though to a lesser extent. For most SVOCs, in respect of f_{oral}, even 401 where pharmacokinetics studies were available and provided qualitative evidence that the 402 SVOC was absorbed following oral exposure, no quantitative data describing in vivo oral 403 404 absorption were available in the literature. Moreover, in laboratory animals, absorption of a compound can also depend strongly on experimental parameters, such as the carrier vehicle 405 employed (Huwe et al. 2008). For example, gastrointestinal lindane bioavailability in rats 406 407 ranged from 6% when the compound was suspended in water to 99% when given in oil. A further aspect is that we used PM₁₀ measurements, whereas a smaller sampling fraction would 408 have been more representative of respirable particles - this may result in an overestimation of 409 the inhalation pathway for those SVOCs mainly present in the particulate phase (BDE 47, 410 411 BDE 99, benzo[a]pyrene, PCB 118, PCB 138 and PCB 153). Human body parameters (BW, 412 BSA, IR, DI and t) are highly variable and, to a lesser extent, uncertain. Özkaynak et al (2011) found significant uncertainty on DI, and this result led us to consider both uncertainty 413 and variability for this parameter in our study. Nevertheless, we found that human body 414 415 parameters made a marginal or null contribution (see Table S7) to the variance of ADD for a child aged 2 to 3 years, for each SVOC. It is however important to bear in mind both that we 416 ran the model age-group by age-group, and that these parameters can have a broader impact 417 when applied to a more diverse population. 418

Recent studies have investigated and modeled the clothing effect. Morrison et al. (2016) have 419 420 shown that frequency of bathing and changing clothes were influential in terms of dermal uptake. In addition, introduction to the model of a skin surface lipid film, and its interactions 421 with clothing, may affect results. The authors assessed the influence of clothing on the dermal 422 uptake of two phthalates (DEP and DBP). They found that clean clothes were protective 423 against air pollutants, whereas worn clothes, because they had adsorbed air pollutants, 424 increased dermal uptake. Because only clean clothes could be considered protective, we 425 decided to not take into account the role of clothing in this study, making the assumption that 426 the total body surface area was exposed to the gaseous phase. 427

428 CONCLUSIONS

429 This indoor aggregate multimedia and pathway exposure assessment considered a wide range 430 of pollutants, across a broad population. It reveals that exposure spanned orders of magnitude, from pg/kg-bw/d to µg/kg-bw/d and was mainly dependent on indoor SVOC contaminations. 431 Within the boundaries of the conceptual model we used, exposure variability overwhelmed its 432 uncertainty. Air was the dominant medium for most compounds, either by inhalation or 433 dermal contact. Along with evidence of these compounds causing similar toxic effects 434 (Fournier at al. 2014; Mitro et al. 2016), these findings lend support to the call for cumulative 435 risk assessment of indoor SVOCs. 436

437

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442 The authors declare having no competing financial interests.

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621 FIGURES

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Ingestion Inhalation Dermal

Figure 1. Top panel of the graph shows Aggregate daily dose of each SVOC for a child aged 2 to 3 years (ng/kg-bw/d), percentiles 5th, 25th, 75th and 95th are presented in box plot format. The bottom panel of the graph shows the contribution made by each route of exposure (ingestion, inhalation and dermal exposure from air) to total indoor exposure, based on the median value estimated for each SVOC for children aged 2 to 3 years (ng/kg-bw/d).

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SVOC	Relative contribution (%)								
SVOC	[10-2	20]	[20-30]	[30-40]	[40-50]	[50-60]	[60-70]	[70-80]	[80-90]
Fluorene									Cgas
DEP	Cdu	st	fpulm			Cgas			
Anthracene									Cgas
Phenanthrene	Cdu	st						Cgas	
PCB 28				fpulm	Cgas				
PCB 31			fpulm			Cgas			
Tonalide			fpulm		Cpart				
Aldrin				fpulm		Cgas			
Dieldrin				fpulm		Cpart			
Galaxolide			fpulm Cgas	Cpart					
Tributylphosphate								Cgas	
DiBP			Cdust				Cgas		
PCB 52	Cdu	st	fpulm			Cpart			
DBP			fpulm			Cpart			
Lindane	fpulm	Н	Cpart	Cgas					
Chlorpyrifos			fpulm			Cgas			
BBP	Сра	rt				Cdust			
PCB 101	Cga	is					Cdust		
BDE 28	fpul	m	Cpart		Cgas				
PCB 138			Cgas				Cdust		
PCB 153				Cgas	Cdust				
PCB 118			Cdust			Cgas			
PCB 105	fpul	m					Cpart		
BDE 47									Cgas
Benzo[a]pyrene									Cpart
BDE 99			Kow	Н					
BDE 85								Cgas	
BDE 100	fpul	m					Cpart		
BDE 153	Cdu	st					Cgas		
DEHP	fdu	st					Cdust		
BDE 154			Cdust				Cgas		
DiNP				fdust	Cdust				

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Figure 2. Relative contribution (%) of key parameters (C_{gas} , C_{part} , C_{dust} , f_{pulm} , f_{dust} , log (K_{ow}) and H) to total variation of Aggregate daily doses from exposures to 32 indoor SVOCs (ng/kg-bw/d) for children aged 2 to 3 years. Only relative contributions above 10% are represented. Bold font indicates the more influential parameter for each SVOC. Compounds are ranked according to their volatility (based on their log (K_{oa}) values) from the most volatile (fluorene) to the least volatile (DiNP).



□ 0-1month □ 1-3months ■ 2-3years ■ 21-30years

Figure 3. Aggregate daily dose of each SVOC for four age groups (ng/kg-bw/d).

Aggregate daily dose, ng/kg-bw/d