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Abstract: Particulate matter (PM) composition has a key role in a wide range of health outcomes, such as asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer, cardiovascular disease, and death, among others. Because of its location and orography, Montcada i Reixac, a municipality located in the Barcelona metropolitan area (Catalonia, Spain), means an interesting case study to investigate air pollution. The area is also characterized by the presence of different industrial emission sources, including a cement factory and a large waste management plant, as well as an intense traffic. In this study, PM10 levels and trace elements, ions, and carbonaceous particles were determined for a long time period (2013-2016) in this highly polluted area. PM10 samples were collected during six consecutive days in two campaigns (cold and warm) per year. A number of elements (As, Ba, Be, Bi, Ca, Cd, Ce, Co, Cr, Cs, Cu, Dy, Er, Eu, Fe, Ga, Gd, Ge, Hf, Hg, Ho, K, La, Li, Hg, Mg, Mn, Mo, Nb, Nd, Ni, Pb, Pr, Rb, Sb, Sc, Se, Sm, Sn, Sr, Tb, Th, Ti, Tl, U, V, W, Y, Yb, and Zr), ions (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺), and carbonaceous content (total carbon, organic plus elemental carbon, and CO₃²⁻), were analysed. These data were used to identify the PM10 main components: mineral matter, sea spray, secondary inorganic aerosols, organic matter plus elemental carbon, trace elements or indeterminate fraction. Although a clear seasonality (cold vs. warm periods) was found, there were no differences between working days and weekends. However, some traffic-related elements (i.e., Co, Cr, Mn, and Sb) showed significantly higher concentrations in weekdays.

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February 7, 2018

Dear Prof. Domingo:

We are pleased to submit to your consideration for publication in **Environmental Research**, the manuscript entitled *Main components of PM10 in an area influenced by a cement plant in Catalonia, Spain: Seasonal and daily variations* (Rovira et al.).

We also state that our study does not include human subjects.

Hoping that you will find the manuscript interesting for the readers of **Environmental Research**, we look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Dr. Martí Nadal

HIGHLIGHTS

- Constituents and main components of airborne PM_{10} near a cement plant were studied.
- A clear seasonality was found, with higher levels in winter.
- A daily pattern was not observed, when comparing weekdays and weekends.
- Road traffic had a significant contribution to PM_{10} levels.

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1 Main components of PM₁₀ in an area influenced by a cement plant in
2 Catalonia, Spain: Seasonal and daily variations

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4 40 ABSTRACT
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8 42 Particulate matter (PM) composition has a key role in a wide range of health outcomes,
9 43 such as asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer, cardiovascular disease,
10 44 and death, among others. Because of its location and orography, Montcada i Reixac, a
11 45 municipality located in the Barcelona metropolitan area (Catalonia, Spain), means an
12 46 interesting case study to investigate air pollution. The area is also characterized by the
13 47 presence of different industrial emission sources, including a cement factory and a large
14 48 waste management plant, as well as an intense traffic. In this study, PM₁₀ levels and trace
15 49 elements, ions, and carbonaceous particles were determined for a long time period (2013-
16 50 2016) in this highly polluted area. PM₁₀ samples were collected during six consecutive days
17 51 in two campaigns (cold and warm) per year. A number of elements (As, Ba, Be, Bi, Ca, Cd,
18 52 Ce, Co, Cr, Cs, Cu, Dy, Er, Eu, Fe, Ga, Gd, Ge, Hf, Hg, Ho, K, La, Li, Hg, Mg, Mn, Mo,
19 53 Nb, Nd, Ni, Pb, Pr, Rb, Sb, Sc, Se, Sm, Sn, Sr, Tb, Th, Ti, Tl, U, V, W, Y, Yb, and Zr),
20 54 ions (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺), and carbonaceous content (total carbon, organic plus
21 55 elemental carbon, and CO₃²⁻), were analysed. These data were used to identify the PM₁₀
22 56 main components: mineral matter, sea spray, secondary inorganic aerosols, organic matter
23 57 plus elemental carbon, trace elements or indeterminate fraction. Although a clear
24 58 seasonality (cold vs. warm periods) was found, there were no differences between working
25 59 days and weekends. However, some traffic-related elements (i.e., Co, Cr, Mn, and Sb)
26 60 showed significantly higher concentrations in weekdays.
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31 62 *Keywords*

32 63 PM₁₀, characterization, trace elements, ions, carbon, cement plant
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1. Introduction

Nowadays, air pollution, especially in cities and metropolitan areas, is one of the most challenging problems that governments and local authorities must face. Road traffic, industrial activities (e.g., power plants, cement factories, waste incineration facilities, etc.) or the presence of harbours and airports, are pointed out as potentially important sources of air pollution in urban areas (Amato et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Grigoratos and Martini, 2015; Kalaiarasan et al., 2016; Kholdebarin et al., 2015; Mateos et al., 2018; Pant et al., 2016; Sánchez-Soberón et al., 2015; Squizzato et al., 2017; Tao et al., 2017; Tolis et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017). Among others, particulate matter below 10 μm of diameter (PM_{10}) is one of the pollutants that receive most of the attention. Particulate matter (PM) presents a wide variety of constituents, such as metals and trace elements, organic compounds, and acids (Cassee et al., 2013; Sánchez-Soberón et al., 2015, 2016). Not only PM composition, but also its size, depend on different parameters, such as weather, season of the year, and emission sources (Cassee et al., 2013). PM composition has a key role in a wide range of health effects, which include –but are not limited to– asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, lung cancer, cardiovascular disease, premature birth, low birth weight, and even death (Deepak and Devi, 2016; Ebisu et al., 2016; Falcon-Rodriguez et al., 2016; Franchini et al., 2016; Maleki et al., 2016; Morakinyo et al., 2016; Morales-Suárez-Varela et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016).

Montcada i Reixac is a municipality (34,802 inhabitants in 2016) located in Catalonia (NE Spain). Since it is located in the metropolitan area of Barcelona (4,793,592 inhabitants in 2016), it means an interesting case study to investigate air pollution. The zone is also characterized by a particular orography, being located in a river basin flanked by hills. There is also a wide variety of industrial emissions sources, two dense highways (daily crossed by around 50,000 and 160,000 vehicles), a waste treatment facility which manages approximately 240,000 tons of organic waste/year (Vilavert et al., 2014), and a cement plant with an annual capacity of 900,000 tons of clinker (Rovira et al., 2016, 2011; Sánchez-Soberón et al., 2015). In addition, a municipal waste incinerator was operating in the zone until 2004, when it ceased to operate (Schuhmacher and Domingo, 2006). Altogether, this makes this zone an area of a special environmental interest, and

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95 consequently, various studies and environmental surveys have been conducted in recent
96 years (Abad et al., 2003; Domingo et al., 1999a, 1999b, 2000; Gallego et al., 2016;
97 Meneses et al., 1999; Nadal et al., 2002, 2009; Rovira et al., 2016; Schuhmacher et al.,
98 1997, 1998a, 1998b, 2006; Schuhmacher and Domingo, 2006; Vilavert et al., 2012, 2014).
99 Despite these investigations, the inhabitants of Montcada i Reixac are still concerned
100 regarding air quality and possible health outcomes.

101 In this study, PM₁₀ levels, constituents (trace elements, ions, and carbon) and main
102 components were studied for a long time in an area influenced by a cement plant in
103 Montcada i Reixac. Seasonal and daily variations were also studied in detail. To the best of
104 our knowledge, this is the first study facing in deep, and for a long period of time, the PM₁₀
105 characterization in this complex area.

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107 **2. Materials and methods**

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109 *2.1. Study area and sampling*

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111 Sampling points (41°28'11"N; 2°11'04"E) were located in “Can Sant Joan”, a
112 neighbourhood of Montcada i Reixac. The studied area is located in the Besòs river basin,
113 with a cement plant situated at approximately 600 m from the sampling point and two
114 highways nearby. Additional details on the area of study are available elsewhere (Rovira et
115 al., 2011, 2016). A daily (between 0:00 am to 11:59 pm) PM₁₀ sample was collected for 6
116 consecutive days, in two periods per year, between 2013 and 2016. Sampling campaigns
117 were carried out in October and December of 2013, July and November of 2014, October
118 and December of 2015, and July and December of 2016. Meteorological data during the
119 sampling campaigns are summarized in Table 1. A high volume sampler MicroPNS HVS16
120 PM10 (MCZ, Bad Nauheim, Germany), which allows the sampling of daily PM₁₀ levels
121 with the reference method UNE EN 12341, was used. A volume around 1630 m³ was
122 collected for each sample in quartz microfiber filters (QFFs) of 150 mm of diameter, being
123 previously heated at 200°C for 4 hours to remove any volatile organic compound. Before
124 and after sampling, QFFs were acclimated at 25°C and 40% relative humidity. Then, at the
125 same conditions, they were weighed until the weight of each filter was stabilized.

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127 *2.2. Trace elements*

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129 A ¼ fraction of each QFF was digested with 2 mL of 65% nitric acid (Suprapur, E.
130 Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and 3 mL of hydrofluoric acid (37.5% Panreac, Barcelona,
131 Spain) in a Teflon vessel for 8 hours at room temperature and 8 hours at 80°C. The digested
132 solution was evaporated until dryness on a sand bath at 250°C. The residue was dissolved in
133 2.5 mL of nitric acid and made up to 25 mL with ultrapure water. They were kept at -20°C
134 until analysis (Mari et al., 2009).

135 The concentrations of aluminium (Al), arsenic (As), barium (Ba), beryllium (Be),
136 bismuth (Bi), cadmium (Cd), cerium (Ce), cobalt (Co), chromium (Cr), caesium (Cs),
137 copper (Cu), dysprosium (Dy), erbium (Er), europium (Eu), gallium (Ga), gadolinium (Gd),
138 germanium (Ge), hafnium (Hf), holmium (Ho), lanthanum (La), lithium (Li) mercury (Hg),
139 manganese (Mn), molybdenum (Mo), niobium (Nb), neodymium (Nd), nickel (Ni), lead
140 (Pb), praseodymium (Pr), rubidium (Rb), antimony (Sb), scandium (Sc), selenium (Se),
141 samarium (Sm), tin (Sn), strontium (Sr), terbium (Tb), thorium (Th), titanium (Ti), thallium
142 (Tl), uranium (U), vanadium (V), tungsten (W), yttrium (Y), ytterbium (Yb) and zirconium
143 (Zr), were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Perkin
144 Elmer Elan 6000). Rhodium was used as internal standard. In turn, the levels of barium
145 (Ba), calcium (Ca), iron (Fe), potassium (K), magnesium (Mg) and sodium (Na) were
146 determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES, Perkin
147 Elmer Optima 3200RL).

148 Detection limits were 0.01 ng/m³ for Bi, Ce, Cs, Dy, Er, Eu, Gd, Ho, La, Nb, Nd,
149 Pr, Sm, Ta, Tb, U, W, Y and Yb; 0.03 ng/m³ for Cd, Pb, Tl, and Rb; 0.06 ng/m³ for Co, Cu,
150 Hf, Mn, Mo, Sn, Sr, Th and Zr; 0.13 ng/m³ for As, Be, Hg, Li, Ni and Sb; 0.25 ng/m³ for
151 Ga; 0.31 ng/m³ for Cr, Ge and V; 0.63 ng/m³ for Se; 1.25 ng/m³ for Sc; 3.13 ng/m³ for Ba
152 and Fe; 6.25 ng/m³ for Ti and Zn; 15.6 ng/m³ for Ca; 31.3 ng/m³ for Al and Mg; 123 ng/m³
153 for Na; and 156 ng/m³ for K.

154 Quality control/quality assurance of the analytical process was carried out through
155 the analysis of duplicate samples, blanks, and standards (Loamy clay, National Institute of
156 Standards and Technology, LCS-4).

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158 2.3. Ions

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160 The soluble portion of another QFF piece was extracted with 15 mL of ultrapure
161 water for 12 h of axial agitation, and 3 rounds of ultrasound at 60°C for 10 min. The
162 resulting extract was filtered with a 0.47 µm membrane filter. For the analysis of Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻
163 and NO₃⁻, an ion chromatograph (Dionex D-300) was used, while the determination of
164 ammonium (NH₄⁺) was made by the reaction of Berthelot, whereby indofenol is formed
165 and subsequently determined by spectrophotometry at a wavelength of 640 nm (Patton and
166 Crouch, 1977). Detection limits were 0.002 µg/m³ for Cl⁻; 0.02 µg/m³ for NO₃⁻; 0.10 µg/m³
167 for SO₄²⁻ and 0.008 µg/m³ for NH₄⁺.

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169 2.4. Total (TC), organic (OC) and elemental (EC) carbon

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171 For the analysis of total carbon (TC), a piece of filter (2.8 cm²) was burnt through
172 combustion with an oxygen atmosphere at a temperature of 1,000°C. The resulting gases
173 (CO₂, SO₂ and NO_x), dragged by a stream of helium, were analysed by gas
174 chromatography (Thermo EA 1108 CHNS-O Carlo Erba Instruments) (Tiessen and Moir,
175 2000a, 2000b). For the analysis of organic carbon (OC) plus elemental carbon (EC), a
176 sample was previously digested in a HCl atmosphere to remove the carbon from carbonates
177 (CC), being subsequently analysed with the same methodology used to determine TC. The
178 detection limit was 0.01 µg/m³. The OC was calculated from the ratio reported by Pérez et
179 al. (2008), according to which, OC = 0.7 (OC + EC). For organic (OM) matter calculation,
180 the level of OC was multiplied by a factor of 1.6 (Malm et al., 1994; Russell, 2003; Turpin
181 and Lim, 2001).

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183 2.5 Indirect determinations

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185 The concentrations of carbonates (CO₃²⁻) were determined indirectly from the
186 stoichiometric ratio: CO₃²⁻ = 1.5Ca + 2.5Mg (Querol et al., 2001). Similarly, silicon oxide
187 (SiO₂) was calculated from the following stoichiometry: 2Al₂O₃ = SiO₂ (Querol et al.,

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4 188 2001). Levels of aluminium oxide (Al_2O_3) were calculated assuming that all the aluminium
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6 189 was present in oxide form (Querol et al., 2001).

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8 190 PM was classified into 6 main components: 1) mineral matter (sum of CO_3^{2-} , SiO_2 ,
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10 191 Al_2O_3 , Ti, P, Mn, Mg, K, Fe, and Ca), 2) sea spray (sum of Na and Cl^-), 3) organic matter
11 192 and elemental carbon (OM+EC), 4) secondary inorganic aerosols (sum of SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , and
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13 193 NO_3^-), 5) trace elements (the sum of the remaining elements), and 6) indeterminate (the
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15 194 difference between PM concentrations and the sum of the other main components)
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17 195 (Sánchez-Soberón et al., 2015).

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20 197 2.7. Statistics

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24 199 For the statistical analysis, values below the detection limit (LD) were assumed to
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26 200 be equal to one-half of that limit ($\text{ND} = \frac{1}{2} \text{LD}$). Statistical significance was established
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28 201 using firstly the Levene test to establish whether data showed a parametric distribution.
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30 202 Subsequently, the ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied. A difference was
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32 203 considered as statistically significant when the probability was lower than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$).

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35 205 3. Results and discussion

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38 207 3.1. Elements, carbon, ions and indirect determinations

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41 209 PM₁₀ levels in each sampling campaign are depicted in Fig. 1. PM₁₀ concentration
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43 210 showed a mean value of 30 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, ranging from 14 to 65 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The 5th, 25th, 75th and 95th
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45 211 percentiles were 17, 20, 36, and 63 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. Significantly higher levels were
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47 212 found in December 2013, December 2015 and December 2016 than those noted in July
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49 213 2014, December 2014 and October 2015. Periods with greater values were anticyclone
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51 214 episodes, typical of winter in Mediterranean areas. In general terms, statistically similar
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53 215 ($p=0.810$) PM₁₀ levels were found between July (23 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and October campaigns (23
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55 216 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), both presenting concentrations significantly lower ($p < 0.001$) than those in
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57 217 December (38 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). PM₁₀ levels were similar ($p=0.450$) irrespective of the day of
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59 218 sampling, being mean levels 31 and 29 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in working days and weekends, respectively.

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219 The daily (24 h) PM₁₀ limit, which can be only exceeded 35 times a year and set at 50
220 µg/m³ (European Union Parliament and Council, 2008), was overpassed in 2 of the 6
221 samples analysed in December 2013, and 1 of 6, in December 2015. According to the
222 Catalan air quality network (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2017), PM₁₀ mean annual levels in
223 this same location were: 25 µg/m³ in 2013 and 2016, and 28 µg/m³ in 2014 and 2015,
224 overpassing 6, 11, 8 and 4 times the daily threshold limit (50 µg/m³) during 2013, 2014,
225 2015 and 2016, respectively.

226 The concentrations of trace elements in PM₁₀ samples collected from 2013 to 2016
227 are shown in Table 2. Sodium (2,684 ng/m³), Ca (1,495 ng/m³), K (783 ng/m³), Fe (641
228 ng/m³) and Al (537 ng/m³) were the elements with the greatest concentrations.
229 Contrastingly, Be, Ge, Hg, Ho, Se and Tb were below their respective detection limits in
230 most of the samples. In general terms, higher levels were found in the surveys of December
231 and October than in July, with a few exceptions (i.e., Cd, Li, Sc and Se). Clear seasonal
232 trends were observed for Cu, Pb, Sb and Sn, all of them presenting statistically significant
233 differences among campaigns (July < October < December). Twenty elements (Al, As, Bi,
234 Ca, Cr, Cu, Er, Hf, La, Nb, Pb, Sb, Sm, Sn, Th, U, W, Y, Yb and Zr) showed significantly
235 different concentrations of PM₁₀ between July and October campaigns (p<0.05). Moreover,
236 significant differences between July and December were observed for As, Bi, Ca, Ce, Cr,
237 Cs, Cu, Fe, K, Mo, Nb, Ni, Pb, Rb, Sb, Sn, Tl, U and W (p<0.05). Finally, only for a few
238 elements (namely, Cu, Fe, Pb, Sb, and Sn) the difference in PM₁₀ levels between October
239 and December campaigns reached a level of statistical significance (p<0.05).

240 A specific analysis of daily trends in PM₁₀ levels was conducted, with only a few
241 elements presenting significantly different concentrations when comparing working days
242 and weekends: Co (0.35 vs. 0.20 ng/m³), Cr (6.16 vs. 3.61 ng/m³), Mn (12.8 vs. 7.89
243 ng/m³), and Sb (3.94 vs. 2.64 ng/m³). Since the activity of the cement plant is continuous
244 throughout the week, the main difference between weekdays and weekends is the reduction
245 of road traffic in the highways crossing the area. In addition, all these elements (Co, Cr,
246 Mn, and Sb) have been related to road traffic emissions according to data from the
247 scientific literature, being linked to wear brakes, brake linings, tyres, fossil fuels and
248 lubricants combustion, and/or engine abrasion (Bosco et al., 2005; Ogunbileje et al., 2013;
249 Saradhi et al., 2014; Schauer et al., 2006; Taiwo et al., 2014; Golokhvast et al., 2015;

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250 Valotto et al., 2015; Wawer et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2014). Therefore, the PM content of Co,
251 Cr, Mn and Sb might be a good surrogate to study the contribution of traffic in polluted
252 areas with similar characteristics to our case study. Furthermore, the potential contribution
253 of other emission sources cannot be disregarded, as some of these elements (Co, Cr, and
254 Mn) may be also related to mineral fraction or cement dust (Gupta et al., 2012; Saradhi et
255 al., 2014; Valotto et al., 2015).

256 The levels of total carbon (TC), organic plus elemental carbon (OC+EC),
257 carbonates (CO_3^{2-}) and ions (Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^-), as well as indirect determinations
258 (OM, SiO_2 , and Al_2O_3) calculated in the eight sampling campaigns between 2013 and 2016,
259 are summarized in Table 3. The carbonaceous content (TC, OC+EC and OM) of PM_{10}
260 samples showed a strong seasonal pattern (December>October>July), with significant
261 differences among sampling campaigns. In contrast, no significant differences in
262 carbonaceous content (TC, OC+EC and OM) were noted between working days and
263 weekends. Regarding carbonates (CO_3^{2-}), levels in July were significantly lower ($p<0.05$)
264 than in December and October. By contrast, ions (Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) did not show
265 notable differences among campaigns, with the only exception of NH_4^+ , whose values were
266 significantly higher in December ($p<0.05$). Like PM_{10} concentrations, the levels of ions (Cl^-
267 , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) were not significantly different when comparing weekdays and
268 weekends.

269 Pearson's correlations were calculated for all trace elements, ions, total carbon and
270 PM_{10} total concentrations (Supplementary Information, Fig. S1). PM_{10} showed high
271 Pearson's coefficients with TC (0.925; $R^2=0.855$), Sn (0.844; $R^2=0.713$) and Sb (0.793;
272 $R^2=0.628$), all of them at $p<0.001$. In addition, TC was highly and positively correlated
273 ($p<0.001$) with OC+EC (0.986; $R^2=0.972$), as well as with a number of elements: Sn
274 (0.855; $R^2=.783$), Sb (0.843; $R^2=0.711$), Pb (0.780; $R^2=0.609$), Cu (0.764; $R^2=0.583$), Cr
275 (0.709; $R^2=0.503$), and Fe (0.687; $R^2=0.472$). As above commented, all these elements are
276 related to road traffic emissions (e.g., brake wear, fuel combustion, tyre), a fact that points
277 out traffic as one of the main contributors to Total Carbon (TC) content in PM.

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279 3.2. PM_{10} main components

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281 PM₁₀ main components in air samples collected around the cement plant, according
282 to the sampling period and season, are depicted in Fig. 2 and 3, as well as in Supplementary
283 Information (Fig. S2). The percentage of mineral matter decreased from 28-39% in 2013 to
284 8-16% during the period 2014-2016. In July, the levels of mineral matter (2.31 µg/m³) were
285 significantly lower than those registered in October (5.41 µg/m³) and December (7.89
286 µg/m³) campaigns. Sea spray, with a mean overall contribution of 5% (range: 1-10%) did
287 not show significant differences in concentrations between sampling periods (1.46, 1.74,
288 and 1.32 µg/m³ in July, October and December, respectively). The relative contribution of
289 sea spray was lower in the December (3%) campaigns than in the October (8%) and July
290 (6%) surveys. Regarding the OM+EC fraction, significant differences were observed
291 among sampling months, with a profile inversely proportional to ambient temperature
292 (17.5, 8.61 and 4.34 µg/m³ in December, October and July, respectively). The relative
293 contribution of OM+EC fraction showed the same trends, with significant differences
294 according to the season (46%, 37% and 19% in December, October and July, respectively).
295 These results are in agreement with the presence of more combustion processes and less
296 dispersion of pollutants during cold seasons. Similarly, the concentrations of secondary
297 inorganic aerosols (4.35, 4.07, and 4.99 µg/m³ in July, October and December) were not
298 significantly different among campaigns. However, a significantly higher relative
299 contribution was noted in July (19%) than in December (15%). Finally, for the trace
300 elements fraction, a significant increase of levels was noted in parallel with the decrease of
301 the ambient temperature (0.05, 0.09, 0.13 µg/m³, in July, October and December,
302 respectively). Trace elements owned a relative contribution of 0.2% in July campaigns, and
303 0.4% in October and December surveys. When comparing weekdays and weekends, no
304 significant differences were noted in the levels of main PM components, with the only
305 exception of secondary inorganic aerosols, whose relative contribution was 14% and 16%
306 in weekdays and weekends, respectively. However, despite the relative contribution was
307 different, total levels of secondary inorganic aerosols did not show significant differences
308 between working days (4.46 µg/m³) and weekends (4.85 µg/m³).

309 The dendrogram (Supplementary Information Fig. S2) with all the data set showed
310 two main groups. The first one was mainly formed by samples obtained in anticyclone
311 periods (December 2013, 2015 and 2016), while the other included the rest of sampling

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312 periods. In turn, the anticyclone group was divided in two sub-groups: 1) December 2013,
313 and 2) December 2015 and December 2016. Similarly, the second main group was also
314 divided in two subgroups: 1) warm season campaigns (July 2014 and 2016), and 2) colder
315 surveys (October 2013 and 2015, and December 2014). The same classification was
316 obtained after applying a principal component analysis (PCA), whose plots explained
317 81.1% of the data variance in a 3-D model (Fig. 4). Cold periods (December campaigns)
318 were characterized by high scores of OM+EC and trace elements due to combustion
319 process, while July campaigns (especially in 2014) showed a great score of sea spray and
320 indeterminate component. An explanation could be the difference in wind regimes
321 according to the season, as winds blowing from the sea are increased in summer in this
322 Mediterranean area. In addition, both 2013 campaigns had high scores of mineral matter.

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324 **4. Conclusions**

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326 In the current study, the main PM₁₀ components of samples collected near a cement
327 plant were investigated. The concentrations of a number of trace elements, ions, and
328 carbonaceous fraction content were analysed. Some parameters, including PM₁₀ levels and
329 main components, showed significant differences among sampling campaigns. Most of
330 them were related to seasonal patterns (cold vs. warm periods), likely due to differences in
331 emission sources and meteorological conditions. Higher levels of PM₁₀ and its components
332 were detected in the samplings conducted in December, when the area is affected by
333 anticyclone episode conditions. Contrastingly, PM₁₀ levels and most of its components
334 were lower during summer (July campaigns) or in rainy periods (December of 2014 and
335 October of 2016). Despite the area is subjected to an important industrial activity, traffic
336 might have a significant contribution on the surrounding environment, given the strong
337 correlation among PM₁₀ levels, TC and several traffic-related trace elements (e.g., Sn, Sb,
338 Cu, Cr, and Fe). Although no significant differences in PM₁₀ main components were noted
339 between weekdays and weekends, the levels of some traffic-related elements (e.g., Co, Cr,
340 Mn, and Sb) were decreased in the weekend. To the best of our knowledge, this is the
341 longest PM₁₀ characterization survey in an area concurrently influenced by a cement plant
342 and traffic.

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Appendix. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version.

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Table 1

Meteorological conditions in each sampling campaign.

Period	Mean Temperature (°C)	Minimum Temperature (°C)	Maximum Temperature (°C)	Rainfall during sampling (mm)	Rainfall the week before sampling (mm)	Relative humidity (%)
October 2013	21.0	17.6	25.2	0.0	3.0	76
December 2013	9.7	3.7	15.5	0.0	0.0	70
July 2014	22.8	15.8	31.4	0.0	0.8	65
December 2014	6.7	0.5	15.1	0.3	34.3	65
October 2015	18.1	9.5	27.8	7.9	46.8	67
December 2015	10.5	3.4	16.4	0.3	0.0	79
July 2016	24.2	17.6	30.7	0.0	1.4	56
December 2016	8.0	-0.3	17.0	0.0	2.1	75

Table 2

Levels of trace elements (ng/m³) in PM₁₀ samples collected near a cement plant in 8 campaigns performed between 2013 and 2016.

	Oct 2013 <i>n</i> =6	Dec 2013 <i>n</i> =6	Jul 2014 <i>n</i> =6	Dec 2014 <i>n</i> =6	Oct 2015 <i>n</i> =6	Dec 2015 <i>n</i> =6	Jul 2016 <i>n</i> =6	Dec 2016 <i>n</i> =5
Al	624 ± 114	2.596 ± 539	91.0 ± 48.1	134 ± 98.0	186 ± 82.3	201 ± 71.5	261 ± 135	140 ± 113
As	0.63 ± 0.09	0.52 ± 0.15	0.19 ± 0.07	0.40 ± 0.15	0.33 ± 0.12	0.69 ± 0.16	0.19 ± 0.08	0.33 ± 0.10
Ba	ND	ND	8.39 ± 4.39	15.4 ± 10.7	19.3 ± 1.46	35.2 ± 9.82	17.9 ± 12.0	26.0 ± 7.81
Be	0.08 ± 0.03	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Bi	1.59 ± 0.50	3.97 ± 2.06	0.24 ± 0.16	0.36 ± 0.34	0.47 ± 0.22	0.72 ± 0.46	0.62 ± 0.54	1.64 ± 1.01
Ca	2686 ± 825	4.744 ± 1.076	391 ± 142	867 ± 608	767 ± 81.3	1150 ± 373	612 ± 234	596 ± 199
Ce	1.29 ± 0.48	0.68 ± 0.24	ND	0.21 ± 0.13	0.49 ± 0.93	1.76 ± 2.18	0.05 ± 0.03	0.39 ± 0.07
Cd	0.68 ± 0.35	2.12 ± 0.76	0.19 ± 0.09	0.33 ± 0.08	0.27 ± 0.06	0.44 ± 0.12	0.54 ± 0.22	0.44 ± 0.12
Co	0.27 ± 0.09	0.45 ± 0.27	0.15 ± 0.02	0.12 ± 0.07	0.18 ± 0.05	0.54 ± 0.35	0.33 ± 0.09	0.37 ± 0.22
Cr	6.26 ± 1.23	8.48 ± 3.07	3.26 ± 0.53	3.35 ± 2.79	3.82 ± 2.14	8.06 ± 3.62	3.73 ± 1.34	7.31 ± 4.46
Cs	0.09 ± 0.06	0.12 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.01
Cu	42.6 ± 9.50	41.4 ± 18.2	9.62 ± 14.8	22.2 ± 16.3	18.9 ± 3.76	38.8 ± 8.6	16.7 ± 6.06	58.7 ± 20.6
Dy	0.06 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01
Er	0.05 ± 0.02	0.11 ± 0.03	0.01 ± 0.01	ND	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
Eu	0.10 ± 0.05	0.42 ± 0.11	ND	ND	ND	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
Fe	407 ± 103	627 ± 197	313 ± 84.2	516 ± 285	518 ± 84.3	1250 ± 266	628 ± 209	912 ± 367
Ga	ND	ND	0.89 ± 0.21	0.35 ± 0.28	0.58 ± 0.05	1.28 ± 0.31	0.26 ± 0.20	0.47 ± 0.16
Gd	0.21 ± 0.07	0.29 ± 0.07	0.02 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01
Ge	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.19 ± 0.08	ND	ND
Hf	0.30 ± 0.11	0.71 ± 0.10	ND	0.08 ± 0.05	0.05 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.13	0.04 ± 0.02
Hg	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.08 ± 0.03	ND	ND
Ho	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
K	1600 ± 662	3093 ± 871	309 ± 202	ND	186 ± 80.2	478 ± 63.1	188 ± 85.0	216 ± 139
La	0.47 ± 0.17	1.04 ± 0.22	0.15 ± 0.04	0.10 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.07	0.24 ± 0.04	0.16 ± 0.09	0.11 ± 0.02
Li	0.64 ± 0.31	0.84 ± 0.28	0.29 ± 0.07	0.21 ± 0.09	0.29 ± 0.19	ND	0.68 ± 0.36	0.3 ± 0.09
Mg	56.2 ± 51.3	85.6 ± 26.0	32.1 ± 42.5	ND	ND	ND	48.8 ± 30.8	105 ± 25.1
Mn	6.98 ± 3.95	6.87 ± 3.33	7.85 ± 2.30	9.83 ± 5.34	9.47 ± 2.22	22.8 ± 6.84	10.7 ± 3.31	15.1 ± 7.00
Mo	1.06 ± 0.23	2.04 ± 0.61	2.39 ± 0.35	0.92 ± 0.48	1.92 ± 0.26	2.88 ± 0.99	0.10 ± 0.16	0.96 ± 0.65
Na	904 ± 473	1494 ± 450	ND	62.2 ± 14.5	1371 ± 388	905 ± 196	779 ± 514	700 ± 535
Nb	0.25 ± 0.04	0.89 ± 0.19	ND	0.09 ± 0.05	0.06 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.04	0.04 ± 0.02	ND
Nd	0.36 ± 0.15	14.95 ± 4.51	0.11 ± 0.03	0.04 ± 0.02	0.10 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.04	0.12 ± 0.07	0.05 ± 0.02
Ni	4.07 ± 0.91	6.96 ± 2.42	ND	2.14 ± 1.16	4.01 ± 0.88	7.31 ± 2.04	4.89 ± 1.00	5.57 ± 4.02
Pb	11.9 ± 3.20	16.8 ± 3.04	3.16 ± 1.62	10.8 ± 5.66	8.36 ± 4.14	17.6 ± 3.49	4.60 ± 1.52	17.8 ± 6.56
Pr	0.10 ± 0.04	0.24 ± 0.06	0.03 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.02	0.01 ± 0.01
Rb	3.55 ± 1.57	4.90 ± 1.23	0.51 ± 0.13	0.65 ± 0.20	0.46 ± 0.13	0.79 ± 0.08	0.86 ± 0.34	0.70 ± 0.17
Sb	3.88 ± 0.90	5.76 ± 1.94	1.62 ± 0.59	2.63 ± 2.13	2.44 ± 0.67	5.83 ± 1.92	1.60 ± 0.89	4.38 ± 1.92
Sc	2.03 ± 2.30	2.69 ± 1.15	2.56 ± 1.71	1.90 ± 1.04	1.03 ± 1.02	ND	0.93 ± 2.27	0.06 ± 0.13
Se	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Sm	0.08 ± 0.03	0.18 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.01	ND	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01
Sn	4.32 ± 1.42	8.05 ± 2.38	1.86 ± 0.74	4.09 ± 2.82	4.36 ± 0.88	7.81 ± 1.84	3.57 ± 1.63	6.97 ± 2.28
Sr	7.52 ± 4.37	21.2 ± 3.67	3.03 ± 0.12	2.57 ± 1.14	2.61 ± 0.50	2.70 ± 0.48	4.77 ± 1.63	2.59 ± 0.51
Ta	0.05 ± 0.01	0.25 ± 0.35	ND	ND	0.07 ± 0.15	0.01 ± 0.02	ND	ND
Tb	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND
Th	0.15 ± 0.04	0.33 ± 0.10	ND	ND	0.04 ± 0.03	0.03 ± 0.02	ND	ND
Ti	46.8 ± 14.4	70.9 ± 20.3	24.1 ± 8.12	21.5 ± 14.9	22.0 ± 5.93	32.6 ± 4.30	42.1 ± 16.3	29.7 ± 9.61
Tl	0.04 ± 0.04	0.07 ± 0.03	0.02 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.05
U	0.09 ± 0.02	0.15 ± 0.04	0.02 ± 0.00	0.05 ± 0.02	0.05 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01
V	6.86 ± 3.02	23.5 ± 8.95	6.57 ± 3.79	6.09 ± 2.04	8.41 ± 3.47	16.4 ± 3.14	9.42 ± 1.35	5.40 ± 5.03
W	0.33 ± 0.34	0.61 ± 0.39	0.08 ± 0.03	0.10 ± 0.11	0.12 ± 0.07	3.36 ± 3.12	ND	0.55 ± 0.73
Y	0.24 ± 0.10	0.60 ± 0.17	0.10 ± 0.03	0.05 ± 0.03	0.06 ± 0.05	0.08 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.08
Yb	0.03 ± 0.01	0.08 ± 0.02	ND	ND	ND	0.01 ± 0.00	ND	ND
Zr	10.4 ± 4.20	21.3 ± 3.72	2.60 ± 1.35	2.49 ± 1.56	3.87 ± 0.74	3.39 ± 1.17	0.72 ± 0.50	0.90 ± 1.41

Levels in ng/m³. Oct: October; Dec: December; Jul: July. ND: Not detected.

Table 3

Levels of Total Carbon (TC), organic plus elemental carbon (OC+EC), ions (Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^-) and indirect determinations (OM, CO_3^{2-} , SiO_2 , and Al_2O_3) in PM_{10} collected in 8 sampling campaigns from 2013 to 2016.

	Oct 2013 n=6	Dec 2013 n=6	Jul 2014 n=6	Dec 2014 n=6	Oct 2015 n=6	Dec 2015 n=6	Jul 2016 n=6	Dec 2016 n=5
TC	8.01 ± 1.10	17.5 ± 5.61	3.04 ± 0.47	8.00 ± 2.79	5.51 ± 0.90	17.4 ± 3.86	3.77 ± 0.80	13.9 ± 3.95
OC+EC	7.38 ± 1.34	13.9 ± 5.48	2.77 ± 0.43	6.24 ± 2.17	4.74 ± 0.85	16.2 ± 3.90	3.11 ± 0.60	13.2 ± 3.81
OM	8.27 ± 1.49	15.6 ± 6.14	3.10 ± 0.48	6.99 ± 2.44	5.40 ± 4.70	18.6 ± 4.38	3.74 ± 0.97	14.8 ± 4.26
CO₃²⁻	2.19 ± 1.12	4.83 ± 1.06	0.42 ± 0.10	0.90 ± 0.60	0.77 ± 0.08	1.15 ± 0.37	0.66 ± 0.23	0.70 ± 0.22
SiO₂	0.34 ± 0.06	1.43 ± 0.30	0.07 ± 0.03	0.08 ± 0.05	0.11 ± 0.05	0.11 ± 0.04	0.13 ± 0.07	0.08 ± 0.06
Al₂O₃	1.18 ± 0.22	4.91 ± 1.02	0.23 ± 0.12	0.27 ± 0.16	0.37 ± 0.16	0.38 ± 0.14	0.46 ± 0.25	0.26 ± 0.21
Cl⁻	0.69 ± 0.35	0.05 ± 0.03	0.34 ± 0.50	0.13 ± 0.03	0.51 ± 0.73	0.47 ± 0.14	0.33 ± 0.54	1.65 ± 0.71
SO₄²⁻	2.48 ± 0.74	2.47 ± 0.42	2.16 ± 0.44	1.05 ± 0.09	0.95 ± 0.70	1.85 ± 0.84	1.63 ± 0.76	3.13 ± 0.98
NH₄⁺	0.08 ± 0.07	0.24 ± 0.09	0.08 ± 0.08	0.09 ± 0.05	0.22 ± 0.26	0.62 ± 0.06	0.08 ± 0.04	0.15 ± 0.07
NO₃⁻	3.31 ± 0.97	5.02 ± 1.29	0.85 ± 0.26	1.13 ± 0.43	1.09 ± 0.50	2.38 ± 0.62	3.92 ± 0.46	1.88 ± 0.24

Levels in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. TC: Total carbon; OC+EC: organic carbon plus elemental carbon; OM: organic matter.
Oct: October; Dec: December; Jul :July

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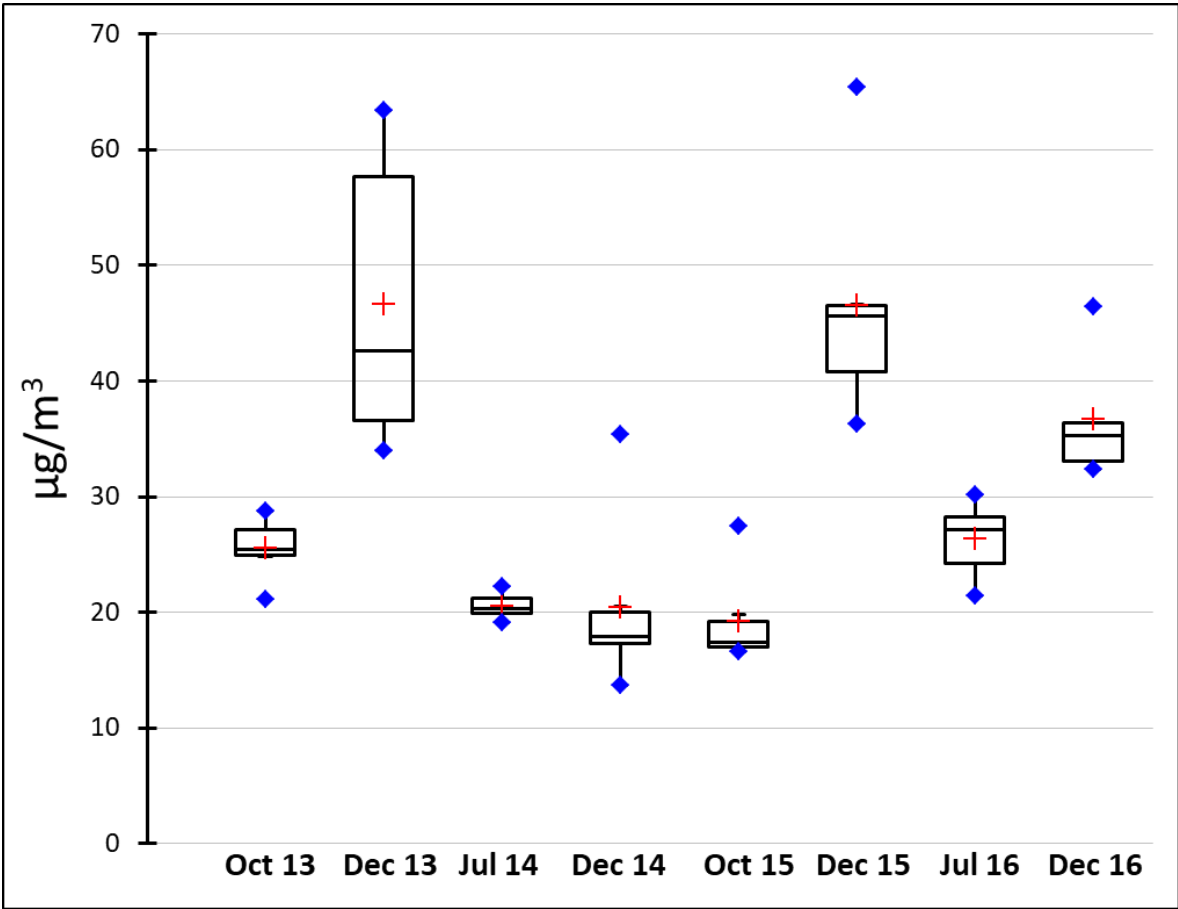


Fig. 1. Box-plot of PM₁₀ levels (µg/m³) in the eight campaigns performed from 2013 to 2016. Mean levels are marked with a red cross.

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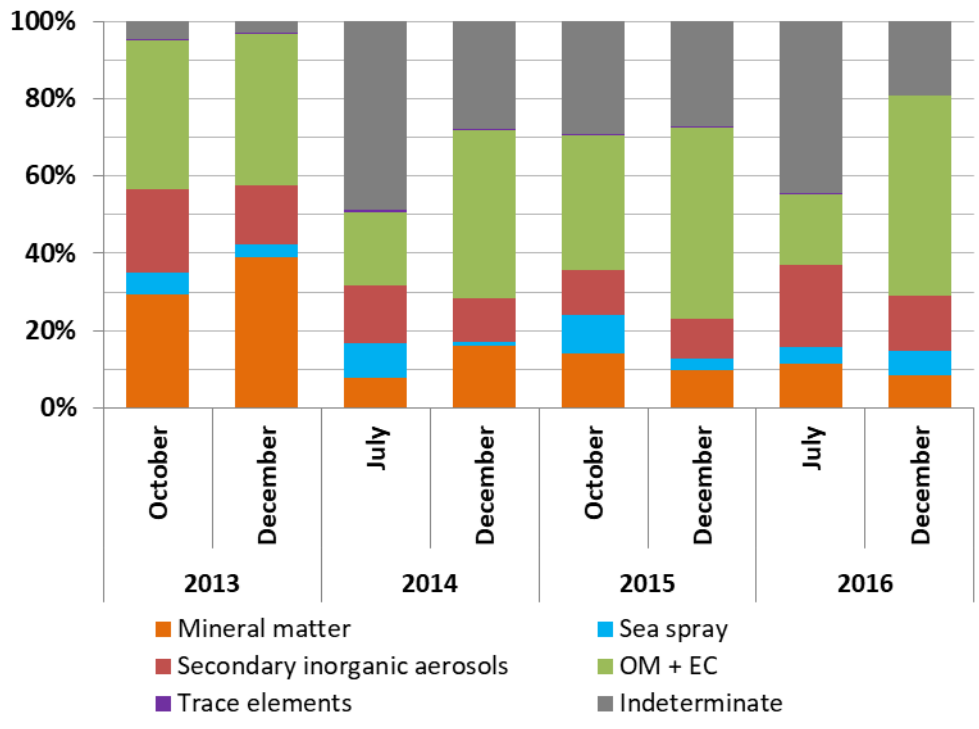


Fig. 2. PM₁₀ principal components sampled during 2013 to 2016 near a cement plant.

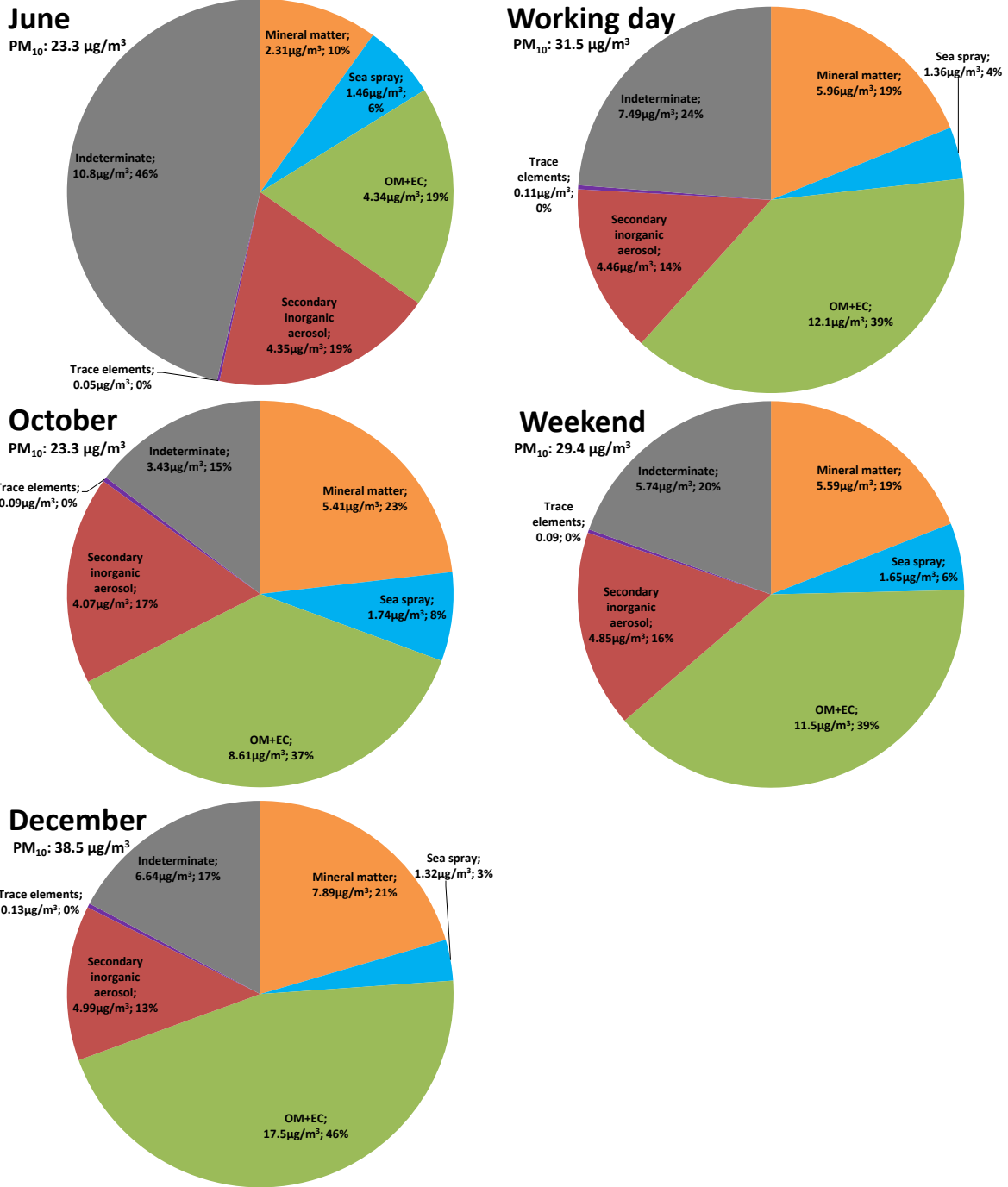


Fig. 3. PM_{10} main components in June, October, and December, and during working days and weekends.

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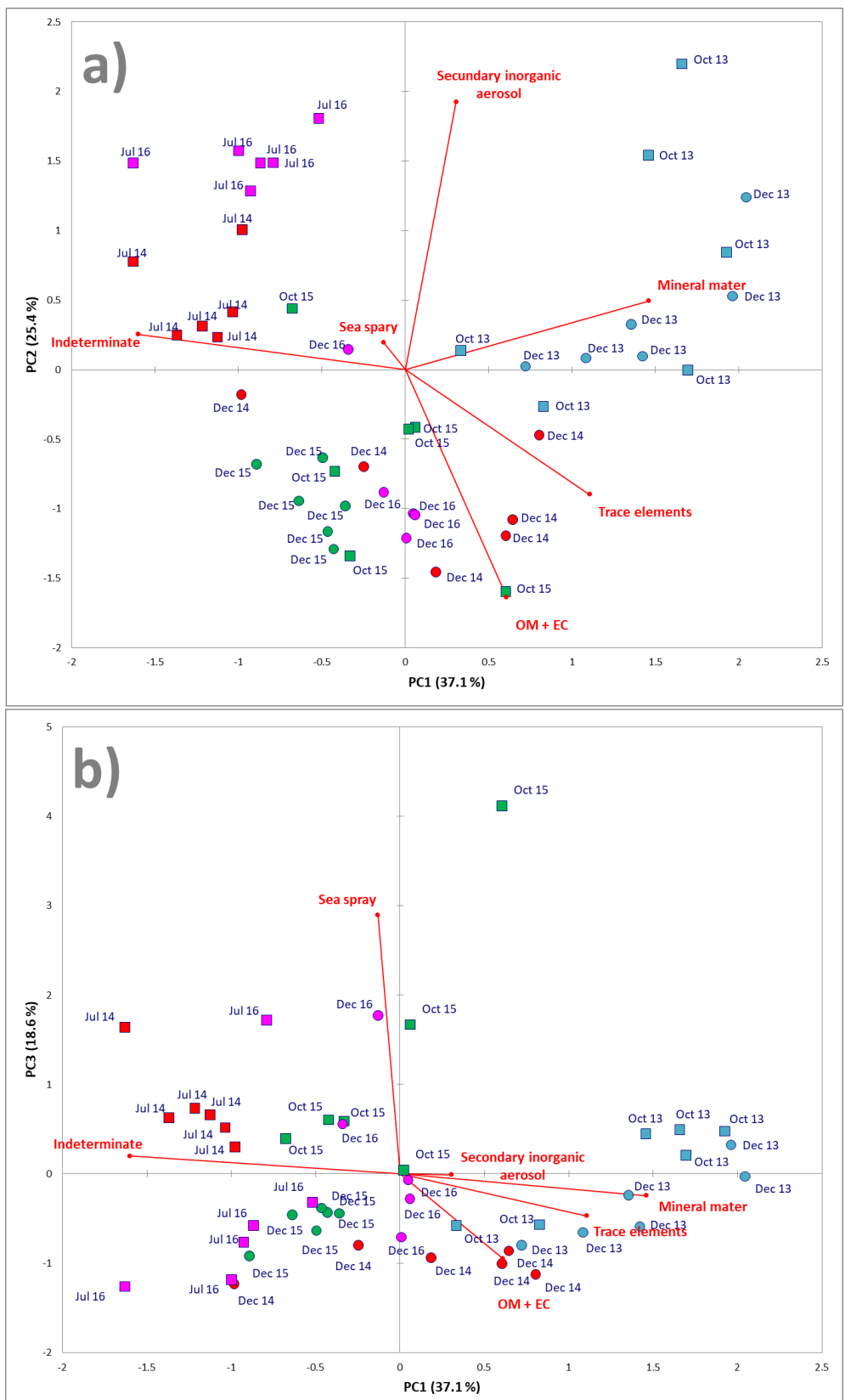


Fig. 4. Principal components analysis with main components of PM₁₀ collected around a cement plant between 2013 and 2016.

Supplementary Material

[Click here to download Supplementary Material: Supplementary Information.docx](#)

Manuscript Number:

Title: Pregnant women and prenatal exposure to BPA and DEHP through non-dietary routes: Dermal contact, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation exposure assessment in Reus (Catalonia, Spain) cohort.

Article Type: Research paper

Section/Category: Exposure

Keywords: Bisphenol-A; Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP); PBPK modeling; exposure assessment.

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Abstract: Bisphenol A (BPA) and Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) are two wide spread chemicals classified as endocrine disruptors (ED). The present study aims to estimate the non-dietary (dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) exposure to BPA and DEHP for a pregnant women cohort. In addition, to assess the prenatal exposure for the fetus, a physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model was used. It was adapted for pregnancy in order to assess the internal dosimetry levels of EDs (BPA and DEHP) in the fetus. Estimates of exposure to BPA and DEHP from all pathways along with their relative importance were provided in order to establish which proportion of the total exposure came from diet and which came from non-dietary exposures. In this study, the different oral dosing scenarios (dietary and non-dietary) were considered keeping inhalation as a continuous exposure case. Total non-dietary mean values were 0.002 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kgbw}/\text{day}$ (0.000; 0.004 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kgbw}/\text{day}$ for 5th and 95th percentile, respectively) for BPA and 0.597 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kgbw}/\text{day}$ (0.116 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kgbw}/\text{day}$ and 1.506 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kgbw}/\text{day}$ for 5th and 95th percentile, respectively) for DEHP. Indoor environments and especially dust ingestion were the main non-dietary contributors to the total exposure of BPA and DEHP with 60% and 81%. However, as expected, diet showed the higher contribution to total exposure with >99.9% for BPA and 63% for DEHP. Although diet was considered the primary source of exposure to BPA and phthalates, it must be taken into account that with non-dietary sources the first-pass metabolism is lacking, so these may be of equal or even higher toxicological relevance than dietary sources. The present study is in the framework of "Health and environmental-wide associations based on large population surveys" (HEALS) project (FP7-603946).

Dear Editor,

In the submitted manuscript titled " Pregnant women and prenatal exposure to BPA and DEHP through non-dietary routes: Dermal contact, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation exposure assessment in Reus (Catalonia, Spain) cohort", we present a pregnancy cohort study from Tarragona (Spain). This work is part of one major EU project, Health and Environment-wide Associations via Large population Surveys (HEALS). Presented work is part of ongoing biomonitoring study where we are performing a target cohort study of pregnant women to estimate prenatal and early exposure of selected chemicals. Results presented in this manuscript are the second set of results of non-dietary estimate of two major endocrine disruptors (BPA and DEHP) and internal dosimetry simulation of PBPK model. First set of result titled "Prenatal exposure estimation of BPA and DEHP using integrated external and internal dosimetry: A case study" was published in Environment Research (ER 158 566–575). Results are very interesting and present some new insight on concentration profile of these chemicals in mother and fetus. We hope that presented study covered in this manuscript is of special interest for the general readers of Environmental Research. We hope that manuscript will be considered for review and eventually acceptable for publication in this Journal. We look forward to your feedback.

Sincerely,

Vikas Kumar and Co-Authors

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1 **Pregnant women and prenatal exposure to BPA and DEHP through non-dietary**
2 **routes: Dermal contact, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation exposure**
3 **assessment in Reus (Catalonia, Spain) cohort.**

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33 Abstract

34 Bisphenol A (BPA) and Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) are two wide spread
35 chemicals classified as endocrine disruptors (ED). The present study aims to estimate
36 the non-dietary (dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) exposure to BPA and
37 DEHP for a pregnant women cohort. In addition, to assess the prenatal exposure for
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40 and DEHP) in the fetus. Estimates of exposure to BPA and DEHP from all pathways
41 along with their relative importance were provided in order to establish which proportion
42 of the total exposure came from diet and which came from non-dietary exposures. In
43 this study, the different oral dosing scenarios (dietary and non-dietary) were considered
44 keeping inhalation as a continuous exposure case. Total non-dietary mean values were
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50 exposure with >99.9% for BPA and 63% for DEHP. Although diet was considered the
51 primary source of exposure to BPA and phthalates, it must be taken into account that
52 with non-dietary sources the first-pass metabolism is lacking, so these may be of equal
53 or even higher toxicological relevance than dietary sources.

54 The present study is in the framework of “Health and environmental-wide associations
55 based on large population surveys” (HEALS) project (FP7-603946).

56 Keywords: Bisphenol-A; Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP); PBPK modeling; exposure
57 assessment.

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67 1. Introduction

68 Bisphenol A (BPA) and Di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) are two high volume
69 industrial chemicals used in a wide variety of consumer products. These compounds
70 are defined as non-persistent Endocrine Disrupters (EDs) and are categorized as
71 chemicals of concern among others by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2010).
72 The exposure to EDs plays a key role in the epigenome shaping of many aspects of
73 the endocrine function (Casati, 2013; Chen et al., 2018). The evidences present in the
74 literature indicate that EDs can affect the different levels of epigenetic control (Sharma
75 et al., 2017) and in some cases can act transgenerationally, if the exposure to EDs
76 occurs during “critical windows of exposure”, especially, the prenatal and the early life
77 period (Casati et al., 2015; Sharma et al., 2016; Watkins et al., 2017). Furthermore,
78 some studies have shown that exposure to these chemicals in the early period of life
79 may cause functional impairment of development and reproduction (Dodson et al.,
80 2012; Meeker, 2012; Sakhi et al., 2014), increase the risk of allergy/asthma (Robinson
81 and Miller, 2015; Sakhi et al., 2014) and also can develop obesity and type 2 diabetes
82 (Casas et al., 2011; De Cock et al., 2014; Myridakis et al., 2016). It is known that fetal
83 exposure is directly related to the mother’s exposure, due to a bi-directional transfer of
84 chemicals between the placenta and fetal plasma (Sharma et al. 2018). Normally
85 placental barrier is considered protective layer against harmful compounds, however, a
86 recent study has found poor barrier mechanism of placenta against some common EDs
87 (Ribeiro et al., 2017).

88 Phthalates such as DEHP are industrial chemicals, which are used in polyvinyl chloride
89 (PVC) plastics, found in products such as shoes, gloves and packing materials as well
90 as in building materials, floorings and wall coverings. In addition, they are used in
91 pharmaceuticals products, personal care products (PCPs), paints and adhesives (Bao
92 et al., 2015). All of these applications are related to dermal contact, non-dietary
93 ingestion or inhalation exposure sources. Some studies confirm that DEHP is an
94 important contaminant in dust household; people can be exposed to it via dust
95 ingestion, the exposure through this will be higher for workers in PVC industries
96 (Fromme et al., 2004). It is known that babies and young children are the most
97 vulnerable groups with respect to phthalates due to their developmental status
98 (Sathyanarayana et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2018).

99 BPA is currently used in polycarbonate plastics, found in materials intended to come
100 into contact with food, like reusable plastic bottles, feeding-bottles, plates, cups,
101 microwave and ovenware (Geens et al., 2009). In addition, we can find BPA in storage
102 containers and epoxy resin linings for food and beverage containers. Furthermore, they
103 are used in thermal papers and paper currencies, medical devices, dental sealants,
104 and PCPs which are related with dermal exposure sources (Geens et al., 2012; Lv et
105 al., 2017). Some studies showed that BPA exposure via dermal route can highly
106 contribute to overall internal exposure (Biedermann et al., 2010; Mielke et al., 2011).
107 Other studies affirm that people who work in offices will be more exposed via dust
108 ingestion or inhalation than others because the levels of BPA in dust offices were
109 almost 5–10 times higher than dust from particular homes (Geens et al., 2009).

110 The human exposure routes to EDs are multiple (Giulivo et al., 2016). Although the
111 major human route of exposure to BPA and DEHP has been shown by several
112 assessments, including the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), to be the dietary
113 pathway (EFSA, 2013; Geens et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2013). However, some studies
114 confirm that non-dietary sources need to be more thoroughly characterized (EFSA,
115 2015; Geens et al., 2012). Estimates of exposure to DEHP and BPA from all pathways

116 along with their relative importance should be provided in order to establish which
117 proportion of the total exposure comes from diet and which comes from non-dietary
118 exposures. Human exposure to EDs from non-dietary sources, their toxicity, as well as
119 their combined effects, are poorly understood (Larsson et al., 2014).

120 Although diet was considered the primary source of exposure to BPA and phthalates
121 (Casas et al., 2013; Schettler et al., 2006), there is controversy on whether external
122 exposure resulting from food ingestion is really a good estimate for internal exposure. It
123 is known that dietary exposure contributes around 90 % to internal exposure to total
124 BPA or DEHP and dermal exposure via thermal paper or via cosmetic products may
125 contribute around 10 % (von Goetz et al., 2017). DEHP and BPA, among others EDs,
126 are banned from PCPs and cosmetics in the EU (EC, 2009). However, plastic
127 containers made of PCPs may contain phthalates and BPA with the ability to migrate to
128 the products (Larsson et al., 2014), so it should be considered in the evaluations of
129 exposure to these pollutants. In this study, occupational risk, lifestyle and the use of
130 different PCPs were considered in order to assess the exposure to different pathways
131 (dermal contact, non-dietary ingestion, and inhalation). Sharma et al., (2018)
132 developed a P-PBPK model for BPA including specific pregnancy physiology and both
133 oral and dermal route of exposure. The simulation results were presented to compare
134 the reported data from different cohorts presuming the collection of samples can be
135 from at different time points, in order to explain the inconsistency in biomonitoring data.
136 Moreover, some authors compared the results obtained between real measurements
137 concentrations levels of EDs in the blood reported and the exposure estimates based
138 on PBPK models (Mielke and Gundert-Remy, 2009); the intake estimated were several
139 orders of magnitude lower than the real values in blood reported in the literature. One
140 way to explain this abnormality could be that in the PBPK model they only considered
141 the dietary source, so this could have led to an underestimation of the exposure to
142 these chemicals through non-dietary routes like dermal, inhalation or dust ingestion.
143 However, there are other contributing factors for this difference such as genetic
144 variability, biomonitoring sampling strategy and contamination of sample during
145 analysis. The present study aims to estimate the non-dietary (dermal, non-dietary
146 ingestion and inhalation) exposure to BPA and DEHP for a pregnant women cohort. In
147 addition, to assess the prenatal exposure for the fetus, through all routes (diet and non-
148 dietary) a physiologically based pharmacokinetic (PBPK) model was used. The
149 pregnancy PBPK model structure was adapted from Sharma et al., (2018). Previous
150 work has been extended to estimate the aggregate exposure of these EDs to humans
151 to understand the relative importance of nondietary exposure. Parameters and
152 structure of the models were kept same as our previous publications (Sharma et al.,
153 2018; Martínez et al., 2017), except nondietary routes (inhalation and dermal) were
154 included. The present study is in the framework of “Health and environmental-wide
155 associations based on large population surveys” (HEALS) project (FP7-603946) and
156 part of the study has been completed in MODELBI project (MINECO funded with ref
157 no AGL2016-78942-R).

158

159

160 2. Materials and methods

161 2.1. Study population

162 The study population comprises a cohort of pregnant women and ongoing birth cohort.
163 The pregnant women were recruited during the first trimester of pregnancy as part of

164 the European “HEALS” project. The recruitment of pregnant mothers has started in
165 March 2016 and in the present study 72 mother-child pairs from Reus (Tarragona,
166 Spain) were included. Women were informed of the study during their first visit (12th
167 gestational week) to the University Hospital “Sant Joan de Reus”, in Reus (Catalonia,
168 NE Spain). Women were eligible to participate according to the following inclusion
169 criteria: ≥16 years old, intention to deliver at the reference hospital, and no problems
170 with the communication language. This study was approved by the Ethical Committee
171 of Clinical Research of the Hospital and a written informed consent was obtained from
172 the participants.

173 174 2.2. Questionnaires and data acquisition

175 At 20th gestational weeks (GW), a PCPs frequency questionnaire was filled in a face-to-
176 face interview. Different PCPs were included in the questionnaire: a) makeup (face
177 cream, eyeshadow and liquid foundation), b) lipstick, c) body lotion, d) shampoo, e)
178 shower gel, f) hair conditioner, g) toothpaste, h) deodorant and i) spray perfume. In
179 addition, the questionnaires also included in one hand, general characteristics data of
180 the study population, such as maternal age at delivery, twin pregnancy, maternal body
181 mass index (BMI), maternal education, social economic status, country of origin, and
182 marital status. On the other hand, a set of questions targeting to know other sources of
183 these compounds are included, such as maternal smoking, lifestyle, hours spend
184 outdoors and indoors and occupational risk. A description of the characteristics of the
185 study population is shown in Table 1.

186 187 2.3. BPA and DEHP non-dietary assessment

188 2.3.1. Dermal contact exposure

189 The assessment of exposure of BPA and DEHP through dermal contact for pregnant
190 women population was calculated according to equation 1. We considered all
191 previously PCPs mentioned.

$$192 \text{Dermal exposure} = \sum (C_{\text{BPA/DEHP}} \cdot \text{PCP}_{\text{fr}} \cdot \text{PCP}_{\text{a}} \cdot \text{ABS} \cdot R_{\text{f}}) / \text{BW}_{20\text{GW}} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

193 Where $C_{\text{BPA/DEHP}}$ is the BPA or DEHP concentration in PCPs (in $\mu\text{g/g}$); PCP_{fr} is the
194 frequency application (in application/day); PCP_{a} is the amount per application (in
195 g/application); ABS is the dermal absorption factor (non-dimensional); R_{f} is the
196 retention factor for rinse-off products (non-dimensional); and $\text{BW}_{20\text{GW}}$ is the body weight
197 at 20 gestational weeks (in kg). Dermal exposure is given in $\mu\text{g/kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$. Data used to
198 assess the dermal exposure of BPA and DEHP are summarized in Table 2.
199

200 2.3.2. Non-dietary ingestion exposure

201 Non-dietary ingestion pathways include, on the one hand, dust ingestion that was
202 calculated according to equation 2.a. On the other hand, exposure through PCPs
203 ingestion was considered. Lipstick and toothpaste ingestion was assessed according to
204 equation 2.b.

$$205 \text{Non-dietary ingestion exposure (dust}_{\text{ingestion}}) = (C_{\text{DEHP/BPA}_{\text{dust}}} \cdot I_{\text{r}}) / \text{BW}_{20\text{GW}} \quad \text{Eq. 2.a}$$

$$206 \text{Non-dietary ingestion exposure (PCP}_{\text{ingestion}}) = (C_{\text{BPA/DEHP}} \cdot \text{PCP}_{\text{fr}} \cdot \text{PCP}_{\text{a}} \cdot \text{Ing}_{\text{f}}) / \text{BW}_{20\text{GW}} \\ 207 \text{Eq. 2.b}$$

208 Where $C_{BPA/DEHP\ dust}$ is the BPA or DEHP levels in homes dust (in $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$); I_r is the
209 Ingestion rate (in kg/day) and $BW_{20\ GW}$ is the body weight at 20 gestational weeks (in
210 kg). PCP_{fr} is the frequency application (in application/day); PCP_a is the amount per
211 application (in $\text{g}/\text{application}$) and Ing_f is the ingestion factor (non-dimensional). The total
212 non-dietary exposure is given in $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{bw}/\text{day}$. Table 3 provides data used to assess the
213 non-dietary ingestion exposure of BPA and DEHP.

214

215 2.3.3. Inhalation exposure

216 The exposure assessment of BPA and DEHP through inhalation for pregnant women
217 was calculated according to equation 3. We considered levels of BPA and DEHP in the
218 outdoor and indoor air. In this case, three different scenarios were assessed: sleeping
219 (3.a), indoors (3.b) and outdoors (3.c) scenarios.

220 Inhalation exposure_{sleeping} = $(C_{DEHP/BPA\ indoor} \cdot I_{h_{r\ sleep}} \cdot t_{sleep}) / BW_{20GW}$ Eq. 3.a

221 Inhalation exposure_{indoors} = $(C_{DEHP/BPA\ indoor} \cdot I_{h_{r\ sedentary}} \cdot t_{indoor}) / BW_{20GW}$ Eq.3.b

222 Inhalation exposure_{outdoors} = $(C_{DEHP/BPA\ outdoor} \cdot I_{h_{r\ moderate}} \cdot t_{outdoor}) / BW_{20GW}$ Eq.3.c

223 Where $C_{DEHP/BPA\ indoor}$ is the DEHP or BPA levels in indoor air (in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$); $C_{DEHP/BPA\ outdoor}$
224 is the DEHP or BPA levels found in outdoor air (in $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$); $I_{h_{r\ sleep}}$ is the inhalation rate
225 sleeping (in m^3/min); $I_{h_{r\ sedentary}}$ is the inhalation rate doing sedentary activities (in
226 m^3/min); $I_{h_{r\ moderate}}$ is the inhalation rate doing moderate activities (in m^3/min); t_{sleep} is
227 the mean of time sleeping (in min); t_{indoor} is the mean of time spending indoor (at work
228 and at home) (in min); $t_{outdoor}$ is the time spending in doing activity outdoor (in min) and
229 BW_{20GW} is the body weight at 20 gestational weeks (in kg). The total inhalation
230 exposure is given in $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{bw}/\text{day}$. Table 4 contains the data used to assess the
231 inhalation exposure of BPA and DEHP.

232

233 The concentration levels of BPA and DEHP in different PCPs, in dust and air, were
234 taken from the literature with a preference rule of Spanish values> European values>
235 other available data. To deal with variability and uncertainty of parameters used,
236 probabilistic estimation of the dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation exposure
237 was performed in a probabilistic way. Monte-Carlo simulation is a common approach
238 used to incorporate variability and uncertainty of the parameters used into the
239 estimation of human health exposure (Mari et al., 2009; May et al., 2002; Rovira et al.,
240 2016; Schuhmacher et al., 2001). Table 2, 3 and 4 includes the probabilistic distribution
241 of parameters for the calculation of human health exposure. Monte-Carlo simulation
242 was carried out by Oracle Crystal Ball[®] software. Exposures were calculated based on
243 the propagation variable of variability and uncertainty given by each parameter
244 probability function until 100,000 iterations.

245

246 2.4 Tissue dosimetry model (PBPK).

247 The basic structure of pregnant PBPK model has been adapted from Sharma et al.,
248 (2018) in the current study in order to assess dietary and non-dietary exposure. It
249 comprises plasma, liver, kidneys, fat, brain, skin, placenta, a rest of the body and a
250 fetus compartment. Fetus compartment was subcategorized again into liver, brain, and
251 plasma. All the Physiological parameters during pregnancy are considered to be

1 252 dynamic parameters that change due to the growth of mother organs (Abduljalil et al.,
2 253 2012; Gentry et al., 2003; Loccisano et al., 2013). The source of exposure to fetuses
3 254 was via a free fraction of chemicals into mother's placenta, considering that fetuses'
4 255 exposure is directly related to mother's exposure. The placental-fetal unit assumes a
5 256 bidirectional transfer process describing chemical transfer between mothers' placenta
6 257 to fetuses' plasma and fetuses' plasma to the mothers. Detailed descriptions of
7 258 standard and pregnancy-specific model equations are adapted from Sharma et al.,
8 259 (2018). Metabolic kinetic parameters for both mothers and fetuses were previously
9 260 estimated from in-vitro studies (Martínez et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2018).

11 261 Two different sources of exposure were considered for the current study, dietary
12 262 exposure and the combination of dietary with non-dietary exposure. The dosing
13 263 considered being inputs for the PBPK model was estimated using Monte Carlo
14 264 technique for the exposure assessment. It has been considered the six following
15 265 exposure scenarios of BPA and DEHP: 5th percentile diet; 5th percentile diet + non-diet;
16 266 Mean diet; Mean diet+ non-diet; 95th percentile diet, and 95th percentile diet + non-diet.
17 267 For the current study, the routes of exposure were the following: ingestion and dermal
18 268 exposure that were divided into three equal doses (with 8 hours of the interval). On the
19 269 other hand, continuous exposure for inhalation was presumed, considering three
20 270 different inhalation rates (sleeping time, doing sedentary activities and doing moderate
21 271 activities).

22 272

23 273 3. Results and discussion

24 274

25 275 3.1 Non-dietary (dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) exposure to BPA and 26 276 DEHP.

27 277 The contribution of dermal contact, non-dietary ingestion, and inhalation to the total
28 278 non-dietary intake from Reus pregnant mothers' cohort was assessed in a probabilistic
29 279 way using Monte-Carlo simulation. Figure 1, summarizes the contribution of each non-
30 280 dietary source to the total exposure of BPA and DEHP.

31 281 Regarding BPA (Figure 1), the total non-dietary mean value was 0.002 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$
32 282 (0.000 and 0.004 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ for 5th and 95th percentile, respectively). Relative mean
33 283 contributions were 60%, 36% and 4% for non-dietary ingestion, inhalation, and dermal
34 284 routes, respectively. For DEHP (Figure 1), the total non-dietary mean exposure was
35 285 0.597 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ (0.116 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and 1.506 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ for 5th and 95th
36 286 percentile, respectively). The maximum mean contribution was, again, non-dietary
37 287 ingestion with 81%, followed by dermal route and inhalation with 15% and 4%,
38 288 respectively.

39 289 For both chemicals, BPA and DEHP, non-dietary ingestion was the highest mean
40 290 relative contributor with 60% and 81%, respectively, of the total non-dietary exposure.
41 291 These represented a mean non-dietary ingestion exposure of $9.62 \cdot 10^{-4}$ and 0.485
42 292 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ for BPA and DEHP, respectively. Non-dietary ingestion route considered
43 293 the levels of both compounds in homes dust and in PCPs that could be accidentally
44 294 ingested during their use (lipstick and toothpaste). In both cases, the major contribution
45 295 (>99.9%) to the total non-dietary ingestion exposure to BPA and DEHP came from
46 296 home dust ingestion. The average concentration of BPA and DEHP in dust were very
47 297 high, $2 \cdot 10^3$ and $1.20 \cdot 10^6$ $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{dust}}$, respectively. BPA levels in dust were obtained from
48 298 Belgian houses (Geens et al., 2009) and phthalate levels in dust came from different

299 European homes (Wormuth et al., 2006). However, similar BPA and DEHP levels in
300 indoor dust were found worldwide (Das et al., 2014; Fromme et al., 2004; Kubwabo et
301 al., 2016; Loganathan and Kannan, 2011). The high contribution of dust in the total
302 DEHP non-dietary ingestion exposure is due to phthalates, which are used as
303 plasticizers in numerous consumer products, commodities, and building materials.
304 Consequently, phthalates are found in human residential and occupational
305 environments in high concentrations (Wormuth et al., 2006). As well as DEHP, the high
306 contribution of dust in the total BPA non-dietary ingestion exposure is due to BPA is
307 used in a variety of household applications. Through manufacture and usage, these
308 contaminants can leach into the environment and can be deposited in the indoor dust
309 (Geens et al., 2009). It was assumed that consumers accidentally ingest small amounts
310 of PCPs. So, it was estimated the scenario for non-dietary ingestion using information
311 about the amounts cosmetics ingested daily (Table 3), and the DEHP and BPA
312 concentrations in PCP. No much information was available on how much PCPs are
313 ingested daily and also it was not many literature data about concentration levels of
314 these two EDs in different cosmetic products. Only data regarding DEHP in lipstick and
315 BPA in toothpaste content were found. Therefore, it was only considered the accidental
316 ingestion of these two cosmetics, lipstick and toothpaste, during their use. Results
317 showed that the contribution to this kind of ingestion to the total DEHP and BPA non-
318 dietary ingestion were insignificant (0.07% and 0.01% for BPA and DEHP, respectively)
319 compared to total non-dietary ingestion and also with the dietary total intake. However,
320 more bibliographic data is needed to be able to carry out a good exposure assessment.

321 According to BPA, inhalation was the second greatest contributor to the total exposure
322 with an exposure of $5.90 \cdot 10^{-4}$ $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$, that meant the 36% of the total non-dietary
323 exposure. In this case, three different scenarios were assessed: indoor, outdoor and
324 sleeping inhalation exposure that showed a contribution to total BPA inhalation
325 exposure of 37%, 51%, and 12%, respectively. Inhalation exposure was lower than the
326 dust exposure; this can be due to BPA has a comparatively low vapour pressure. As a
327 result, concentrations of BPA in the air can be expected to be low and it will be present
328 mainly in the particulate phase, adsorbed to dust (EFSA, 2013). Finally, dermal contact
329 was the exposure route that contributed the least (4%) to the total mean non-dietary
330 BPA exposure, with a dose of $6.39 \cdot 10^{-5}$ $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$. Among all the PCPs, face cream
331 (39%), shower gel (20%) and body lotion (18%) have the higher contribution. In
332 Europe, BPA is not allowed as an ingredient in cosmetics (Regulation (EC) no.
333 1223/2009 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 30 November 2009 on
334 cosmetic products). However, if BPA is present in the packaging (e.g. polycarbonates
335 plastic (PC) packaging), it could migrate into the cosmetic products (EFSA, 2013). It
336 must be taken into account that dermal absorption of BPA can reach 95-100% if BPA is
337 applied dissolved in ethanol, because ethanol may act as a transport mediator for BPA
338 into the skin, thus enhancing the absorption fraction. In addition, this property of
339 dissolving in ethanol can be found in similar compounds in the formulation of creams
340 and body lotions (EFSA, 2013).

341 Regarding DEHP, dermal contact with a mean value of 0.087 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$, was the
342 second greatest contributor to the total non-dietary exposure (15%). In this exposure
343 assessment, perfume and deodorant were the items which contribute more to the total
344 DEHP dermal exposure, with 36% and 33%. The quite high presence of these ED is
345 due to phthalates in general, are added as humectants, emollients, or skin penetration
346 enhancers, which are very common in perfumes and fragrances (Koo and Lee, 2004).
347 Finally, DEHP inhalation (0.025 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$) was the item which contributed less (4%)
348 to the DEHP mean non-dietary exposure. Indoor exposure and sleeping inhalation

349 exposure had a relative contribution of 61% and 36%, respectively. Other authors
350 (Wormuth et al., 2006) found that accidental ingestion of PCPs are the major sources
351 of exposure to DEHP in all consumer groups that we estimated. Although the food is
352 the dominating source of exposure to DEHP in all consumer groups (Wormuth et al.,
353 2006).

354 Indoor environment (home dust ingestion and inhalation (indoor and sleeping)) were
355 the principal source of BPA and DEHP of non-dietary exposure with a relative
356 contribution of 78% and 85%, respectively. PCPs contribute with 4% and 15% to total
357 mean non-dietary exposure of BPA and DEHP, respectively, almost exclusively
358 through dermal contact. Finally, outdoor environment (through outdoor inhalation)
359 showed a contribution of 18% and <0.1% to total mean non-dietary exposure for BPA
360 and DEHP, respectively.

361 3.2 Dietary exposure vs non-dietary exposure

362 Figure 2, shows the comparison between total dietary exposure and non-dietary
363 (dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) exposure to BPA and DEHP. Data from
364 the dietary exposure was previously estimated using the same cohort population
365 (Martínez et al., 2017).

366 Regarding BPA, mean dietary daily intake from Reus (Tarragona, Spain) cohort was
367 0.715 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ (Martínez et al., 2017), and the mean exposure estimated for non-
368 dietary ingestion, inhalation, and dermal contact were $9.62 \cdot 10^{-4}$, $5.90 \cdot 10^{-4}$, $6.39 \cdot 10^{-5}$
369 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$, respectively. In general, in the present study according to non-dietary
370 exposure, the maximum exposure estimated for BPA was 0.0072 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and the
371 95% of the population were under 0.0040 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$. Non-dietary exposure practically
372 did not contribute to the total exposure (0.2%). In other words, diet was the greatest
373 contributor to the total exposure (99.8%) (Figure 2). However, on the one hand, it is
374 important to know that in this study thermal paper was not considered in dermal
375 exposure estimation, which is considered as a potential exposure source for BPA in the
376 EU by the EFSA, 2015. On the other hand, with dermal absorption and inhalation the
377 first-pass metabolism is lacking, so dermal sources may be of equal or even higher
378 toxicological relevance than dietary sources (Lu et al., 2017; Völkel et al., 2002; von
379 Goetz et al., 2017). Considering diet and non-diet sources the mean of the total
380 exposure was 0.72 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and the 5th and 95th percentile of the total exposure
381 were 0.28 and 1.41 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ (Figure 2).

382
383 Regarding DEHP, Figure 2 shows that non-dietary sources contribute with 37 % of the
384 total exposure. The mean dietary daily intake of DEHP exposure from Reus cohort was
385 1.00 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ (Martínez et al., 2017), and the mean exposure estimated for non-
386 dietary ingestion, inhalation, and dermal contact were 0.485, 0.025, 0.087 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$
387 respectively. According to total non-dietary exposure, the maximum dose was 3.86
388 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and the 95th percentile was 1.51 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$, and mean value was 0.60
389 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$. Considering diet and non-diet sources the mean of the total exposure was
390 1.60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and the 5th and 95th of the total exposure were 0.52 and 3.52
391 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$, respectively (Figure 2).

392
393 EFSA published its comprehensive re-evaluation of BPA exposure and toxicity, in
394 January 2015, and established a tolerable daily intake (TDI) of 4 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ for BPA
395 (EFSA, 2015). On the other hand, EFSA and the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA)
396 established the TDI for DEHP to 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ (ECHA, 2010; EFSA, 2015). Only the
397 non-dietary ingestion estimated data from this study can be compared with this EFSA

398 and ECHA tolerable values because the TDI values are concerned about “daily intake”.
399 Therefore, in this study, the maximum value estimated for BPA non-dietary ingestion
400 exposure was 0.0052 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and the 95% of the population were below 0.0028
401 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$. Whereas, for DEHP, the maximum value estimated for non-dietary
402 ingestion exposure was 3.39 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$ and the 95% of the population were under
403 1.24 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$. These values for BPA and DEHP estimated in our study were far
404 away from the tolerable values of the EFSA and ECHA. Although BPA and DEHP non-
405 dietary ingestion exposure assessment values were under the tolerable established, it
406 is important to take into account that non-dietary ingestion and, in general, non-dietary
407 levels must be added to the total dietary exposure assessment, in order to make a
408 good exposure estimation.

3.3 Internal dosimetry

411 The chemicals’ dose inputs considered to run the P-PBPK, were probabilistically
412 estimated by Monte-Carlo simulation (Section 2.4). From probabilistic distribution, six
413 total scenarios were selected for BPA and DEHP: the 5th percentile diet; the 5th
414 percentile diet + non-diet; mean diet; mean diet + non-diet; the 95th percentile diet and
415 the 95th percentile diet + non-diet. The outputs from the model simulation were selected
416 considering the metabolites generated, their toxicity, gestational period and ability to
417 reach the fetus. For this reason, only free BPA and MEHP (a metabolite of DEHP) were
418 considered. The simulation data were taken from pregnant women and fetus for 24 h
419 during the 24th gestational week. This period was selected because at this time fetus
420 organs are more developed and able to incorporate right biological process. This helps
421 us to explain the difference in metabolic processes in mothers and fetuses. Normally,
422 at the early stage of pregnancy, for both BPA and MEHP, fetus plasma concentration
423 level is higher due to low or no metabolic activities in the fetus (Gauderat et al., 2016;
424 Latini et al., 2003). In order to be near to a real scenario, a dietary, and non-dietary
425 (dermal and ingestion) exposure were divided into three equal doses, along with
426 continuous exposure of non-dietary source (inhalation) and were simulated (Figure 3)
427 in the case of BPA. On the other hand, DEHP metabolite MEHP time plasma
428 concentration profile in case of both mother and fetus is showed in Figure 4, the result
429 of single-dose intake of dietary and non-dietary. In this case, inhalation was considered
430 again as continuous exposure, the simulated concentration curves show a sharp peak
431 concentration o within 1 h of intake. It is known that metabolic activity in the fetus is
432 lower compared to mother's metabolism (Heindel et al., 2017). For that reason,
433 concentration levels of both chemicals in the fetus’ plasma were higher than in the
434 mother. Therefore, BPA and MEHP stay longer in the fetal body, which may cause
435 higher risk to fetuses and makes the fetus more vulnerable to the exposure. A similar
436 trend has been observed by Sharma et al., (2018).

4. Conclusions

439 The aim of this study was to estimate the non-dietary exposure to BPA and DEHP
440 (dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) to which pregnant women are subjected
441 and the prenatal exposure. This work elucidates the aggregate exposure to BPA and
442 DEHP in both dietary and non-dietary exposure for pregnant women cohort. To assess
443 the prenatal exposure, a PBPK model adapted for pregnancy was used in order to
444 assess the internal dosimetry levels of EDs (BPA and DEHP) in the fetus.

445 Regarding BPA non-dietary exposure was 0.002 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$, with the greatest
446 contribution coming from non-dietary ingestion with 60%, followed by inhalation with
447 36%. Finally, dermal exposure was the one that contributed the least with 4%.
448 However, in this study, the thermal paper was not considered in dermal exposure
449 estimation, which is considered as a potential exposure source for the general
450 population (EFSA, 2015). According to DEHP non-dietary exposure (0.597
451 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}_{\text{bw}}/\text{day}$), the maximum contributor was non-dietary ingestion with 81%, followed by
452 dermal contact with 15% and inhalation with 4%. As expected, diet was the main
453 contributor to total exposure to both chemicals. Regarding DEHP, non-dietary sources
454 contribute 37% of the total exposure. The non-dietary exposure to BPA practically did
455 no contribute to the total exposure (0.22%). Indoor environment, dust ingestion, and
456 indoor air inhalation was the main contributor to non-dietary exposure to both ED (78%
457 for BPA and 85% for DEHP) meanwhile PCPs contribute in 4% and 15%, for BPA and
458 DEHP, respectively. However, with dermal absorption that passes the first-pass
459 metabolism, dermal sources may be of equal or even higher toxicological relevance
460 than dietary sources (Völkel et al., 2002; von Goetz et al., 2017). Only the non-dietary
461 ingestion estimated data in combination with other dietary exposure from this study can
462 be comparable with EFSA and ECHA tolerable values because the TDI values are
463 concerned about "daily intake". Although BPA and DEHP non-dietary ingestion
464 exposure assessment values were under the tolerable established, it is important to
465 take into account that non-dietary exposure levels must be added to the total dietary
466 exposure assessment, in order to make a good exposure estimation.

467 According to internal dosimetry, six different scenarios were considered in order to run
468 the PBPK model. When the simulation considered diet + non-diet scenarios, the
469 concentration levels of BPA and MEHP (main metabolite of DEHP) increased
470 considerably in plasma. In addition, in fetus' plasma, the concentration of both
471 chemicals reached levels much higher than those seen previously in mothers. The low
472 metabolic activity in fetus led to maintain a continuous concentration in time. Therefore,
473 this can make the fetus more vulnerable to the exposure compared with their mothers.

474 The ongoing research is to validate the PBPK model with biological samples from this
475 cohort and demonstrate that this methodology allows the determination of BPA and
476 MEHP for monitoring in biological matrices, such as plasma and urine. Finally,
477 demonstrate that PBPK model can predict the prenatal exposure of the child/fetus to
478 EDs. To conclude, on the one hand, strategies must be presented in order to reduce
479 their exposure. Restrictions must be imposed to regulate the production and use of
480 products related especially with childcare and pregnant women.

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728 Table 1. Characteristics of the study population from Reus cohort, Tarragona (Spain) (n=72).
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Characteristics of the study population (n = 72)	%
<i>Maternal age at delivery (years)</i>	
< 20	1
20-29	14
30-39	72
>40	13
<i>Twin pregnancy</i>	
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<i>Maternal pre-pregnancy BMI*</i>	
Underweight (<19kg/m ²)	6
Normal (19-25 kg/m ²)	50
Overweight (>25 kg/m ²)	25
Obese (>30 kg/m ²)	19
<i>Maternal pregnancy (20 GW) BMI*</i>	
Underweight (<19kg/m ²)	1
Normal (19-25 kg/m ²)	41
Overweight (>25 kg/m ²)	37
Obese (>30 kg/m ²)	21
<i>Maternal education</i>	
Primary	28
Secondary	31
University	41
<i>Social economic status</i>	
Low level (< 9000-19000€/year)	24
Median level (19000-35000€/year)	49
High level (> 35000 €/year)	27
<i>Maternal country of origin</i>	
Spain	76
Other	24
<i>Marital Status</i>	
Living with the father	99
Not living with the father	1
<i>Maternal smoking</i>	
Never smoke	73
Not during pregnancy	9
During pregnancy	18

*BMI= Body mass index

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736 Table 2. Monte-Carlo parameter description to assess the total dermal contribution of BPA and DEHP.

Parameter	Symbol	units	Type	Distribution	Reference
DEHP concentration in	C_{DEHP}	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	µg/g	T	1.79 (0-6.45)	Guo and Kannan, 2013
Body lotion	-	µg/g	T	0.96 (0-11.3)	Guo and Kannan, 2013
Face cream	-	µg/g	T	0.4 (0-2.45)	Guo and Kannan, 2013
Shampoo	-	µg/g	T	0.1 (0-1.1)	Esteve et al., 2016
Shower gel	-	µg/g	U	9.53-32.4	Guo et al., 2013
Deodorant	-	µg/g	T	4.98 (0-65.3)	Guo and Kannan, 2013
Hair conditioner	-	µg/g	T	0.18 (0-0.39)	Guo and Kannan, 2013
Spray perfume	-	µg/g	T	15 (7-130)	Wormuth et al., 2006
Eye shadow	-	µg/g	T	0.64 (0-1.46)	Guo and Kannan, 2013
BPA concentration in	C_{BPA}	-	-	-	-
Body lotion	-	µg/g	LN ^a	$3.54 \cdot 10^{-04}$, $1.18 \cdot 10^{-02}$, $1.67 \cdot 10^{-01}$	Liao and Kannan, 2014
Face cream	-	µg/g	LN	0.03 ± 0	Cacho et al., 2013
Liquid foundation	-	µg/g	LN ^a	0,0.02,0.04	Liao and Kannan, 2014
Shampoo	-	µg/g	LN	0.09 ± 0	Cacho et al., 2013
Shower gel	-	µg/g	LN	0.07 ± 0	Cacho et al., 2013
PCP frequency	PCP_{fr}	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	Application/day	N	0.18 ± 0.34	Present study
Body lotion	-	Application/day	N	0.78 ± 0.41	Present study
Face cream	-	Application/day	N	0.72 ± 0.44	Present study
Liquid foundation	-	Application/day	N	0.42 ± 0.44	Present study
Shampoo	-	Application/day	N	0.62 ± 0.37	Present study
Shower gel	-	Application/day	N	0.92 ± 0.31	Present study
Deodorant	-	Application/day	N	0.94 ± 0.27	Present study
Hair conditioner	-	Application/day	N	0.35 ± 0.28	Present study
Spray perfume	-	Application/day	N	0.68 ± 0.45	Present study
Eye shadow	-	Application/day	N	0.42 ± 0.44	Present study
PCP amount	PCP_a	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.01 ± 3.29	Loretz et al., 2005
Body lotion	-	g/application	LN ^g	3.26 ± 2.25	Loretz et al., 2005
Face cream	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.80 ± 2.55	Loretz et al., 2005

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Liquid foundation	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.33 ± 2.99	Loretz et al., 2006
Shampoo	-	g/application	G	0.38,5.79,2.15	Loretz et al., 2006
Shower gel	-	g/application	G	0.67,4.89,2.84	Loretz et al., 2006
Deodorant	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.56 ± 2.41	Loretz et al., 2006
Hair conditioner	-	g/application	LN ^g	10.28 ± 2.20	Loretz et al., 2006
Spray perfume	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.30 ± 3.36	Loretz et al., 2006
Eye shadow	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.01 ± 3.61	L. J. Loretz et al., 2008
Body weight	BW _{20GW}	kg	LN	71.42 ± 17.15	Present study
Retention factor (rinse off PCP)	R _f	-	-	-	-
Shampoo	-	-	U	0-0.02	EFSA, 2015
Shower gel	-	-	U	0-0.02	EFSA, 2015
Hair conditioner	-	-	U	0-0.02	EFSA, 2015
Ingestion factor lipstick	1-(Ing _i)	-	LN	0.20 ± 0.04	Franzen et al., 2016
DEHP dermal absorption factor	ABS _(DEHP)	-	U	0.05-0.15	EPA, 2011
BPA dermal absorption factor	ABS _(BPA)	-	U	0.08-0.10	Demierre et al., 2012

LN = Log-normal; T = Triangular; U = Uniform; G = Gamma; N= Normal distribution. Mean, minimum, and maximum values were used for triangular distributions; Mean and standard deviation were used for log-normal distributions; Geometrical mean and geometrical standard deviation were used in log-normal^g distributions; minimum and maximum values were used for uniform distributions; Percentile 50,95 and maximum were used in log-normal^g distributions and location, scale and shape were used for gamma distribution.

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738 Table 3. Monte-Carlo parameter description to assess the total non-dietary ingestion contribution of BPA and DEHP.

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Parameter	Symbol	units	Type	Distribution	Reference
DEHP concentration in	C_{DEHP}	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	µg/g	T	1.79 (0-6.45)	Guo and Kannan,2013
Dust indoor	-	µg/kg dust	LN ^b	$1.20 \cdot 10^6$	Wormuth et al., 2006
BPA concentration in	C_{BPA}	-	-	-	-
Toothpaste	-	µg/g	LN ^c	0.35,0.83	Liao and Kannan,2014
Dust indoor	-	µg/kg dust	LN	$2 \cdot 10^3 \pm 2.1 \cdot 10^3$	Geens et al., 2009
PCP frequency	PCP_{fr}	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	Application/day	N	0.18 ± 0.34	Present study
Toothpaste	-	Application/day	N	1.82 ± 0.76	Present study
PCP amount	PCP_a	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	g/application	LN ^g	0.01 ± 3.29	Loretz et al., 2005
Toothpaste	-	g/application	U	0.79-1.20	McNamara et al., 2007
Dust ingestion rate	I_r	kg/day	N	$3 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 3 \cdot 10^{-6}$	EPA, 2011
Ingestion factor	Ing_f	-	-	-	-
Lipstick	-	-	LN	0.20 ± 0.04	Franzen et al., 2016
Toothpaste	-	-	U	0-0.10	Angerer et al., 2010
Body weight	BW_{20GW}	kg	LN	71.42 ± 17.15	Present study

LN = Log-normal; T = Triangular; U = Uniform. Mean, minimum, and maximum values were used for triangular distributions; Mean and standard deviation were used for log-normal distributions; Geometrical mean and geometrical standard deviation were used in log-normal^g distributions; minimum and maximum values were used for uniform distributions; Mean and P95 were used for log-normal^b distributions; Percentile 50 and 95 were used in log-normal^c distributions.

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Table 4. Monte-Carlo parameter description to assess the total inhalation contribution of BPA and DEHP.

Parameter	Symbol	units	Type	Distribution	Reference
DEHP concentration in	C_{DEHP}	-	-	-	-
Air indoor	-	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	T	0.3 (0.05-0.62)	Wormuth et al., 2006
Air outdoor	-	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	T	0.01 (0-0.05)	Wormuth et al., 2006
BPA concentration in	C_{BPA}	-	-	-	-
Air indoor	-	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	T	0 (0-0.01)	EFSA, 2015
Air outdoor	-	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	LN	0.01 ± 0.01	Salapasidou et al.,2011
Inhalation rate					
sleeping	$I_{h_{\text{sleep}}}$	m^3/min	LN ^b	0,0.01	EPA, 2011
sedentary activity	$I_{h_{\text{sedentary}}}$	m^3/min	LN ^b	0,0.01	EPA, 2011
moderate activity	$I_{h_{\text{moderate}}}$	m^3/min	LN ^b	0.02,0.03	EPA, 2011
Time sleeping	t_{sleep}	min	N	521 ± 52.10	IEC, 2012
Time outdoor	t_{outdoor}	min	N	106 ± 10.60	IEC, 2012
Time indoor	t_{indoor}	min	-	1440	-
Body weight	BW_{20GW}	kg	LN	71.42 ± 17.15	Present study

Time indoor= 24 hours – ($T_{\text{sleep}} + T_{\text{outdoor}}$). LN = Log-normal; T = Triangular. Mean, minimum, and maximum values were used for triangular distributions; Mean and standard deviation were used for log-normal distributions; Mean and P95 were used for log-normal^b distributions.

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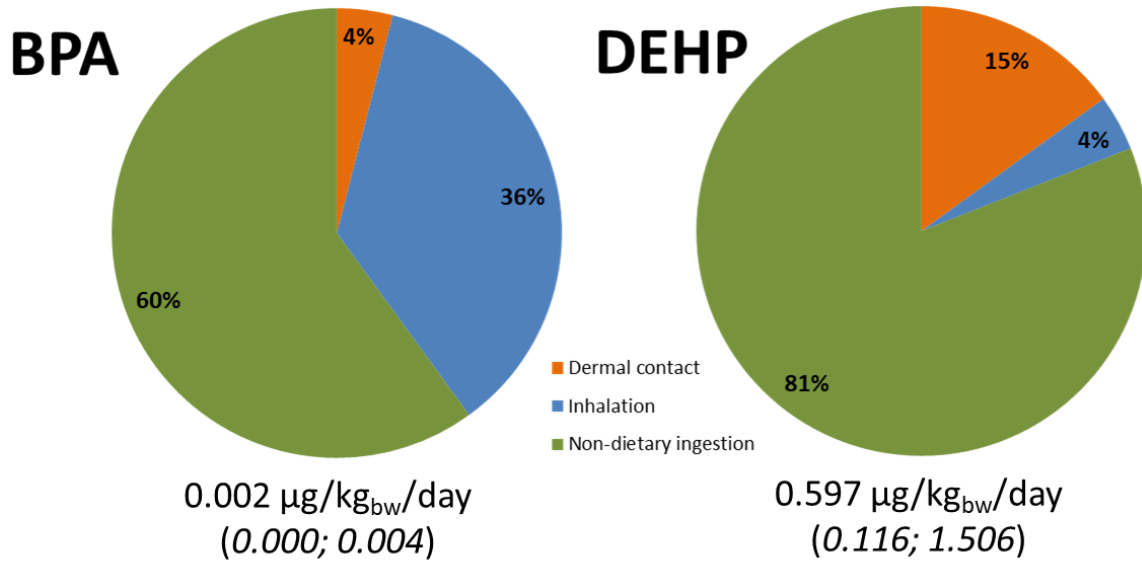


Figure 1. Non-dietary exposure (dermal contact, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) Reus (Tarragona, Spain) pregnant women cohort exposure to BPA and DEHP exposure. Results are given in mean (5th; 95th percentile).

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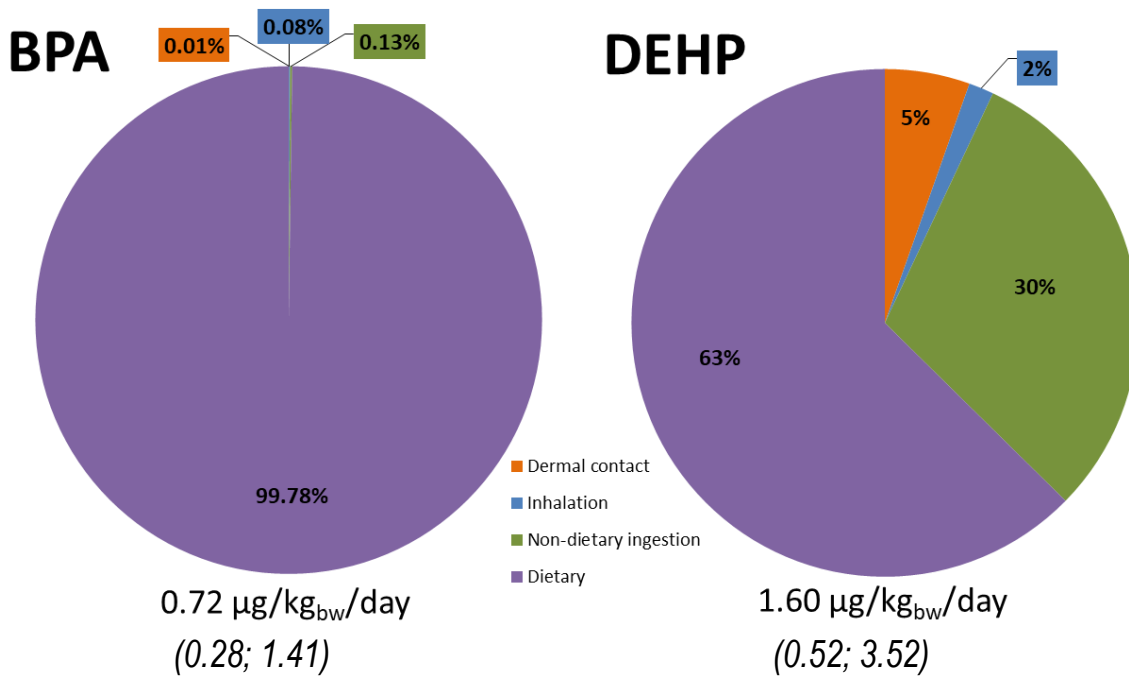
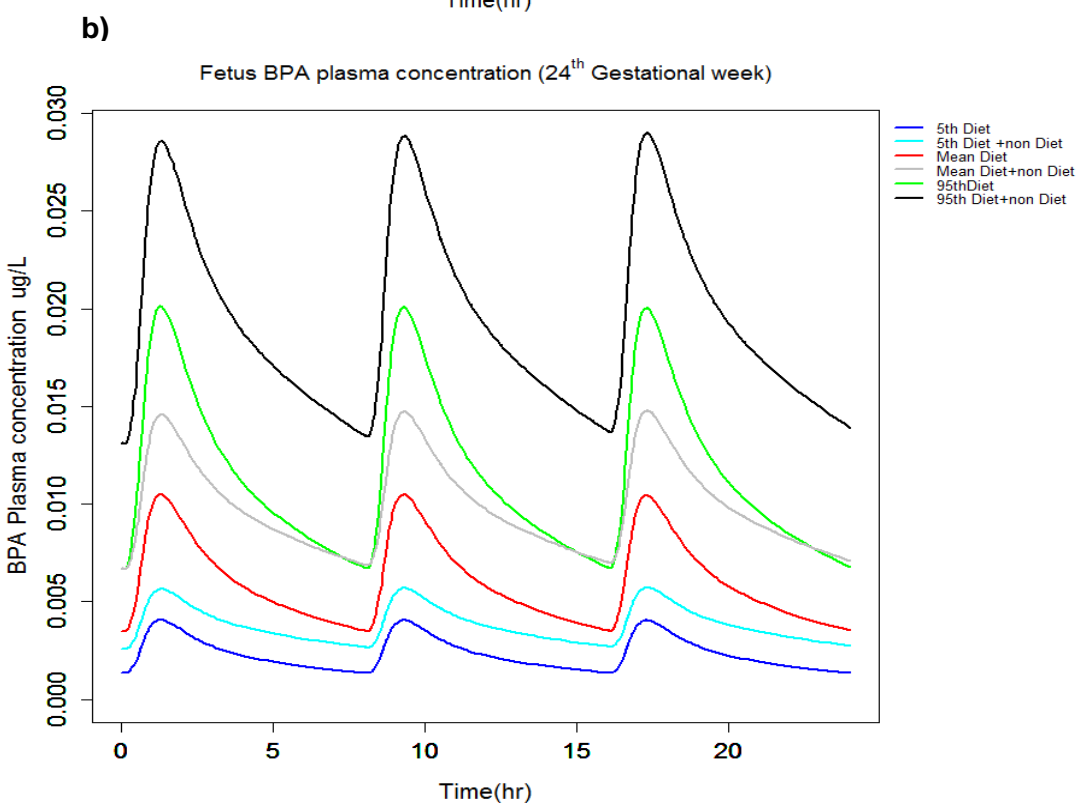
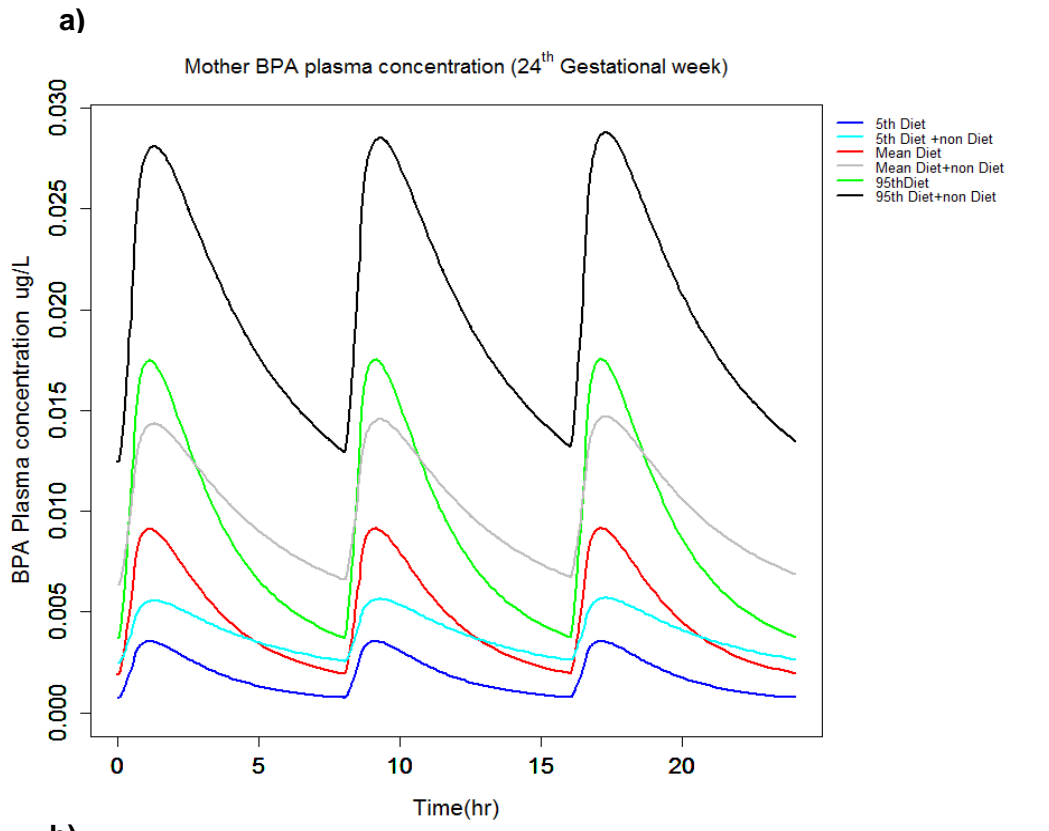
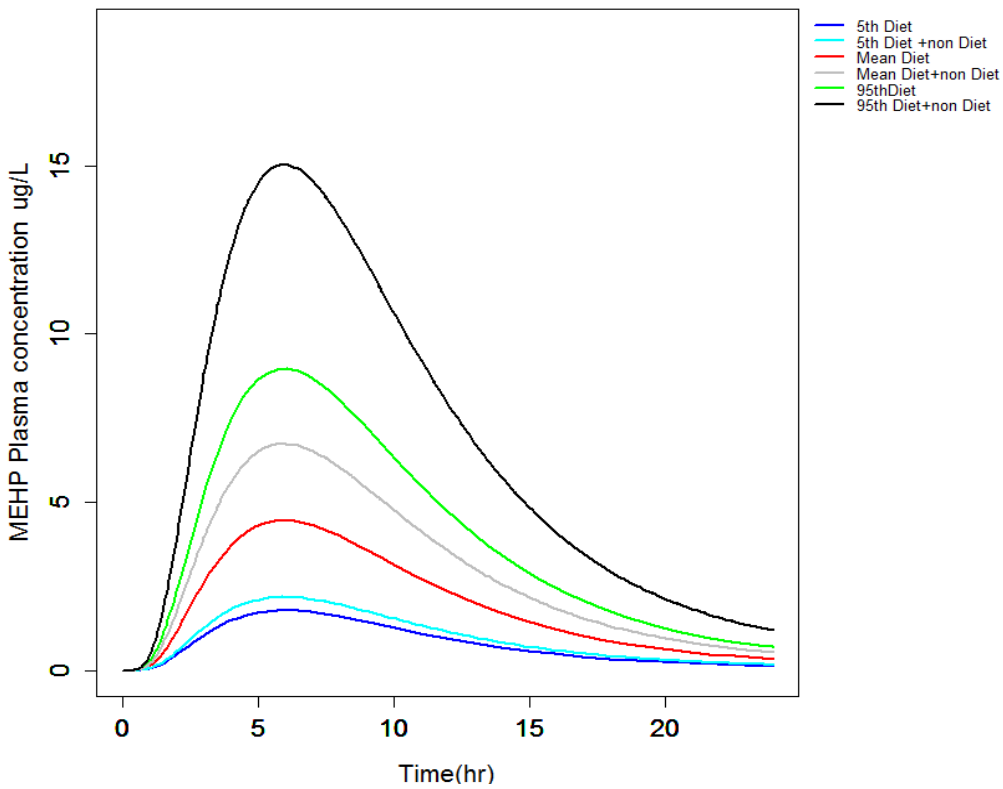


Figure 2. Total mean exposure dietary (Martínez et al., 2017) and non-dietary (dermal, non-dietary ingestion and inhalation) to BPA and DEHP for Reus pregnant women cohort. Results are given in mean (5th; 95th percentile).



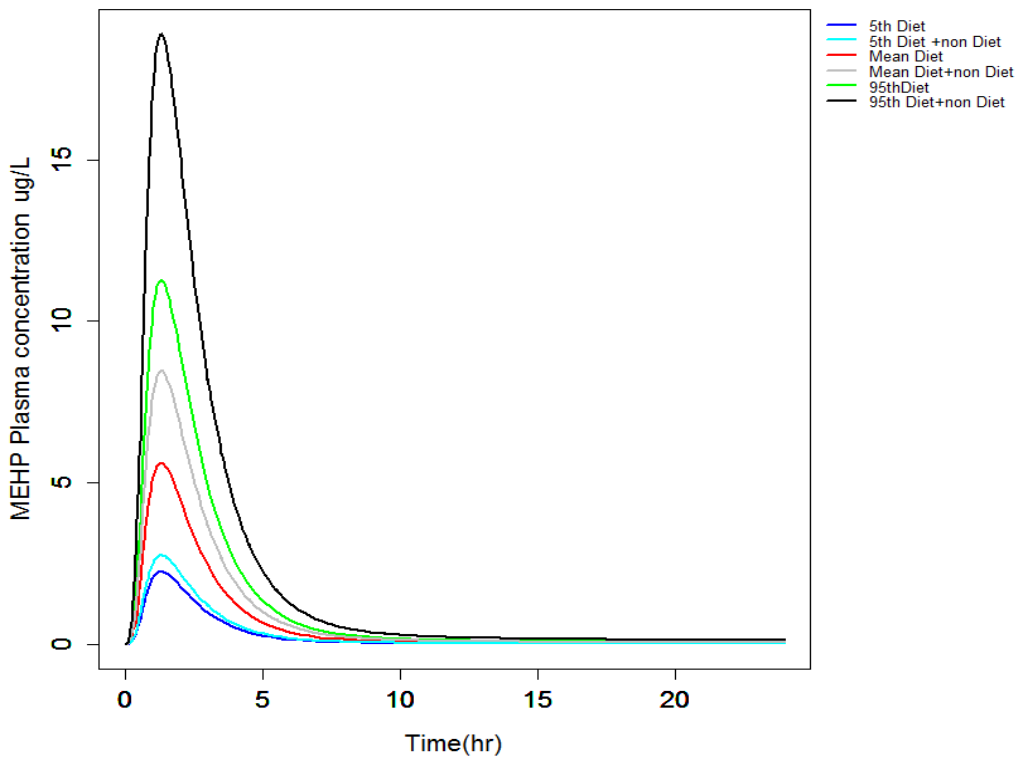
760 **Figure 3.** Time versus BPA plasma concentration for mothers a), and fetuses b), considering six
 761 different exposure scenarios (the 5th percentile diet; the 5th percentile diet + non-diet; mean diet;
 762 mean diet + non-diet; the 95th percentile diet and the 95th percentile diet + non-diet). It was
 763 considered three-food intake dose for diet and non-diet (dermal and dust ingestion) keeping
 764 inhalation as a continuous exposure.

c) Fetus MEHP plasma concentration (24th Gestational week)



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d) Mother MEHP plasma concentration (24th Gestational week)



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767 **Figure 4.** Time versus MEHP plasma concentration for mothers c) and fetuses d), considering
 768 six different exposure scenarios (the 5th percentile diet; the 5th percentile diet + non-diet; mean
 769 diet; mean diet + non-diet; the 95th percentile diet and the 95th percentile diet + non-diet). It was
 770 considered one-food intake dose for diet and non-diet (dermal and dust ingestion) keeping
 771 inhalation as a continuous exposure.