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► To cite this version:

Marc Fadel, Dominique Courcot, Charbel Afif, Frédéric Ledoux. Methods for the assessment of health risk induced by contaminants in atmospheric particulate matter: a review. Environmental Chemistry Letters, 2022, 20 (5), pp.3289-3311. 10.1007/s10311-022-01461-6. hal-04138969

HAL Id: hal-04138969 https://ulco.hal.science/hal-04138969v1

Submitted on 23 Jun2023

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1	Metho	ds for the assessment of health risk induced by contaminants in
2		atmospheric particulate matter: a review
3		Marc Fadel ^{1,2} , Dominique Courcot ² , Charbel Afif ^{1,3} , Frédéric Ledoux ^{2,*}
4	¹ Emission	ns, Measurements, and Modeling of the Atmosphere (EMMA) Laboratory, CAR,
5	Faculty of	f Sciences, Saint Joseph University, Beirut, Lebanon
6	² Unité de	Chimie Environnementale et Interactions sur le Vivant, UCEIV UR4492, FR CNRS
7 0	3417, Un	iversity of Littoral Côte d'Opale (ULCO), 145 avenue Maurice Schumann, 59140
0	³ Climate	and Atmosphere Research Center. The Cyprus Institute Nicosia. Cyprus
10	Chinate	and Aunosphere Research Center, The Cyprus Institute, Meosia, Cyprus
11	*Correspo	onding author: frederic.ledoux@univ-littoral.fr
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13	Keyword	s: cancer risk, exposure pathways, non-cancer risk, particulate matter.
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15	Abstract:	
16	Air pollut	ion is a major issue for human health with more than 7 million premature deaths per
17	year due t	to indoor and outdoor air pollution. Exposure to particulate matter is correlated with
18	adverse h	ealth effects in the short and long run. Evaluating the health risk from exposure to
19	particulate	e matter is challenging because particulate matter contains many contaminants and
20	observed	diseases result from multiple causes. Here we review advanced methods for the
21	evaluation	n of cancer and non-cancer risks induced by exposure to contaminants in particulate
22	matter. C	ontaminants include polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, phthalates, dioxins, furans,
23	dioxin-lik	e polychlorobiphenyls, and major and trace elements. We discuss risk assessment by
24	ingestion,	inhalation, and dermal contact, and for population age categories. We observe that
25	the highes	st contributions to cancer risk come from benzo[a]pyrene, indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene,
26	benzo[k]f	uoranthene, dibenz[a,h]anthracene, chromium, arsenic, cadmium, and cobalt.
27		
28	Contents:	
29	1. 2	Introduction Health rick assessment and anidemiclogical studies
3U 21	2. 2	Stars for risk assessment and epidemiological studies
21	э.	Sups for fisk assessment evaluation

- 32 4. Cancer and non-cancer risk assessment
- 33 5. Risk assessment methodology
- 34 6. Risk assessment studies
- 35 7. Strengths and limitations of the health risk evaluation
- 36 8. Conclusion and future directions
- 37

38 Abbreviation list:

ABS	Dermal adsorption factor
ADD	Average daily dose
ADI	Acceptable daily intake
AF	Dermal adherence factor
AT	Average timing
BW	Body weight
Ci	Concentration of species i in air
CR	Cancer risk
CSF	Cancer slope factor
DL-PCBs	Dioxin-like polychorobiphenyls
EC	Exposure concentration in air
ED	Exposure duration
EF	Exposure frequency
ET	Exposure time
GIABS	Gastrointestinal absorption factor
HI	Hazard index
HQ	Hazard quotient
ILCR	Incremental lifetime cancer risk
IR _{ing}	Soil intake rate
IR _{inh}	Inhalation intake rate
IUR	Inhalation unit risk
LADD	Lifetime average daily dose
LCR	Lifetime cancer risk
MRL	Minimal risk level
PAHs	Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
PCDD	Dioxins
PCDF	Furans
RBA	Relative bioaccessibility
RfC	Reference concentration
RfD	Reference dose
SA	Exposed skin surface area
SBET	Simple bioavailability extraction test
TEF	Toxic equivalent factor
TEQ	Toxic equivalent concentration
USEPA	United States environmental protection
	agency
WHO	World health organization

40 1 Introduction

41 Rapid industrialization around the world has led to an important economic prosperity and an increase in the living standards. This evolution was also accompanied by the deterioration of 42 43 the environmental balance and a drastic decrease in air quality (Fowler et al. 2020). The effects of air pollution on human health have returned as a top priority at the end of the XXth and at the 44 beginning of the XXIst century as new epidemiological evidence emerged (Fowler *et al.* 2020). 45 According to the world health organization, air pollution was responsible for about 7 million 46 premature deaths worldwide in 2016 (WHO 2016). In 2013, the international agency for 47 research on cancer (IARC) has classified outdoor air pollution and particularly particulate 48 49 matter as Group 1 "carcinogenic to humans" (Loomis et al. 2013). Particulate matter is nowadays considered as one of the most challenging issues in the environmental field because 50 51 of its effect on human health (Mark Goldberg 2008, Anderson et al. 2012, Thurston et al. 2017, 52 Cochard et al. 2020). Epidemiological, biomedical, and clinical studies indicate that long-term exposure to particulate matter will increase the probability of having strokes, myocardial 53 infracts, vascular dysfunction, hypertension, heart insufficiency and heart failure (Du et al. 54 2016, Lelieveld and Münzel 2020, Manisalidis et al. 2020, Manojkumar and Srimuruganandam 55 2021). Long-term exposure to air pollution can be also related to chronic asthma, pulmonary 56 57 insufficiency, and might even promote lung cancer (Xing et al. 2016, Manisalidis et al. 2020). As for the respiratory system, short-term exposure to particulate matter is closely correlated to 58 cough, shortness of breath, asthma, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (Manisalidis et 59 al. 2020). 60

Atmospheric particles represent a complex mixture of inorganic species such as elements, 61 62 water-soluble ions, etc., organic species such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), alkanes, hopanes, etc., and a biological fraction including pollen, spores, etc. The composition 63 64 of these particles varies strongly and depends on the source of emissions (Sitaras and Siskos 2008, Mukherjee and Agrawal 2017, Yu and Park 2021), the reactivity of the atmosphere and 65 the atmospheric lifetime (Fig. 1). The exposure to the different atmospheric contaminants can 66 happen via three major routes: inhalation, ingestion and dermal absorption (Fig. 1). However, 67 the physical and chemical properties of the substance will dictate the manner in which the 68 substance enters the human body. Airborne particles might enter the human body via the 69 70 respiratory system. The penetration and the interaction of these particles with the human 71 respiratory tract are controlled by the size, the shape and the composition of the particles as 72 well as the geometry of the airways (Schwartz and Neas 2000, Bell et al. 2009, Cochard et al.

2020). Once inhaled, particulate matter and associated chemicals are either exhaled or deposited 73 in the respiratory tract. Large particles, that have a diameter higher than 10 µm, can be retained 74 in the oro-pharyngeal region due to impaction. Coarse particles, having a diameter between 2.5 75 and 10 µm can be deposited in the tracheobronchial region. Fine and ultrafine particles, having 76 a diameter below 2.5 µm and 0.1 µm respectively, can reach the alveoli and small conducting 77 airways due to gravitational sedimentation (Thakur et al. 2020). Additionally, particulate matter 78 79 deposition and accumulation might also occur at carinal ridges due to inertial impact and lower 80 clearance efficiency (Martonen et al. 1994). On the other hand, the non-respirable particulate 81 matter can enter the human body via the oral route. The absorption of the particulate matter chemical components, leading to the introduction into the vascular system is the most important 82 83 in the small intestine compared to other organs in the gastrointestinal tract (Asante-Duah 2019). As for the dermal route, the skin provides a major interface between the body and the 84 85 environment. However, the most common route of a toxicant via the skin is a passive diffusion through the epidermis into the dermis where the toxicant might enter a blood vessel (Asante-86 87 Duah 2019). Upon contact with skin or organs in the human body, chemicals may cause different health effects from a simple irritation to a severe tissue destruction (Anderson and 88 89 Meade 2014).

90 Health risk assessment studies aim at estimating the nature and the probability of adverse health 91 effects in humans who may be exposed to chemicals in contaminated media (USEPA 2022a). These studies differ from epidemiological by their objectives. Epidemiological studies evaluate 92 if past chemical exposures may be responsible for documented health problems in a specific 93 group of the population. On the other hand, health risk assessment studies estimate whether 94 current or future exposures will pose risks to a broad population (OEHHA 2001). The latter 95 96 studies are based on the evaluation of the cancer and the non-cancer health risks. According to the national air toxics assessment glossary, the cancer risk represents the incremental 97 probability that an individual might develop cancer over a lifetime as a result of a specific 98 exposure to a carcinogenic chemical (USEPA 2022b). On the other hand, the non-cancer risk 99 represents the probability to develop health complications other than cancer such as 100 cardiovascular and respiratory diseases as a result of exposure to chemical pollutants. The 101 102 evaluation of the health risks associated with the exposure to pollutants is an important step 103 leading to the development of effective risk management policies in a population.

Health risk assessment tools such as the environmental benefits mapping and analysis program community edition (BenMap-CE), the CO-benefits risk assessment (COBRA), the air quality+

(Air Q+), the household air pollution intervention tool (HAPIT), and others are widely used 106 (Glorennec and Monroux 2007, Gao et al. 2015, Farzaneh 2017, 2019). However, these tools 107 only assess the health risks of major pollutants such as sulfur oxides, nitrogen oxides, ozone 108 and particulate matter (Hassan Bhat et al. 2021). The present paper is a comprehensive review 109 of the published methods for the assessment of the health risks due to the exposure to different 110 classes of compounds in particulate matter. This paper also develops the methodology for the 111 evaluation of the cancer and the non-cancer risks for the different exposure pathways and for 112 113 different age categories. The review also aims to further understand which species and/or classes of compounds appears as the most problematic to human health, and to understand the 114 limitations of health risk evaluation methods. 115



116

Fig. 1: Exposure cycle to air pollutants emitted by different natural and anthropogenic sources,

118 dispersed in ambient air while undergoing transformations before reaching humans and 119 impacting their health.

120 2 Health risk assessment and epidemiological studies

121 Health risk assessment and epidemiological studies are both important but have different aims. The scientists that are searching for relationships between the exposure to chemicals and 122 123 observed health problems in a population usually conduct an epidemiology study (OEHHA 2001). On the other hand, health risk assessment methodologies are used to estimate if a current 124 or a future exposure to chemicals might pose a health risk to a population. The epidemiological 125 study has the advantage to be based on a known illness while the health risk assessment is a 126 probabilistic method for occurrence of pathologies and is used as a preventive tool. The 127 methods used in the health risk evaluation cannot be used to link health problems to past 128 129 chemical exposures. As well, both epidemiological or health risk assessment studies cannot prove that a specific chemical caused an individual's illness (OEHHA 2001). 130

131 Since the early 1980s, health risk assessment methods began to develop and is increasingly 132 being used to inform major policy decisions (McClellan 1999). In the same period, toxicological data have formed the foundation for many hazard and dose-response assessments 133 (Krewski et al. 1990, Déglin et al. 2021). In parallel, health risks in human population were 134 increasingly being assessed by the use of empirical data for epidemiological studies (Nurminen 135 136 et al. 1999). The latter studies are considered important for the interpretation of relationships between putative causal agents and health outcomes in human populations (Déglin et al. 2021). 137 138 These studies can yield more defensible estimates of likely human health risk than those 139 obtained from biologic models based on animal studies (Nurminen et al. 1999). That is why risk assessors rely on both toxicological and epidemiological studies when investigating the 140 association between the chemical exposure and the adverse health effects. Epidemiological 141 142 studies can also contribute to update and modify exposure data due to continuous surveillance of animal and human data, both in terms of exposure and associated health outcomes (Maffini 143 et al. 2021). Conversely, epidemiological and risk assessment studies operate in parallel lines 144 due to the inherent limitations and challenges of observational epidemiological studies (Déglin 145 et al. 2021). 146

147

148 **3** Steps for risk assessment evaluation

The risk assessment process is described by four steps: hazard identification, exposure
assessment, dose-response assessment, and risk characterization (USEPA 1991c, OEHHA
2001, WHO 2021). In the first step of the risk assessment process, scientists determine the types

of health problems caused by the exposure to a specific chemical. This step can be accomplished 152 by reviewing studies investigating the effects of the considered species on humans and 153 laboratory animals (OEHHA 2001). "Hazard identification" also includes the determination of 154 hazardousness of a species by international organizations and to which extent (WHO 2021). 155 Then, "exposure assessment" is considered as the process of estimating the magnitude, the 156 frequency, and the duration of the exposure as well as the exposure pathway of a chemical 157 present in the atmosphere (USEPA 1991c). All of this information is combined with factors 158 related to individuals such as body weight, breathing rates or daily activity patterns in order to 159 160 estimate the quantity of the chemical that is entered into the body. Some of these parameters also differ by age and sex. Hence, the relationship between the likelihood and the severity of 161 162 adverse health effects, and the amount of the exposure to the chemical is described by the "doseresponse assessment". The dose-response relationship often differs between chemicals in 163 164 general and between the ones that can cause cancer compared to those that can cause other kinds of health problems (OEHHA 2001). Finally, the risk characterization step combines the 165 166 information developed in the previous steps in order to estimate the risk in an exposed population. 167

168

169 4 Cancer and non-cancer risk assessment

170 4.1 Cancer risk assessment

According to the United States environmental protection agency, there is no exposure that have
"zero risk" while evaluating cancer risk unless there is a clear evidence otherwise (USEPA
1991a). Even an exposure to a very low concentration of cancer-causing pollutant can increase
the risk of cancer assuming a linear correlation between dose and response.

The cancer risk evaluation is based on carcinogenic chemicals where risk estimates are assigned to a probability that an individual might develop a cancer over a lifetime as a result of an exposure to a carcinogenic chemical. By that, the cancer risk is usually expressed as the maximum number of cases of cancer projected to occur in a population of 1 million due to the exposure to the cancer-causing substances over a 70-years lifetime (OEHHA 2001). The cancer risk associated with a chemical in a specific exposure pathway will be the product of a lifetime average daily dose by a carcinogenic slope factor (USEPA 1989a).

183 4.2 Non-cancer risk assessment

184 Historically, scientists have assumed that some molecular events can evoke mutagenic changes in a cell that leads to damage multiplication and carcinogenicity (Haber et al. 2012). This 185 186 phenomenon is considered as a non-threshold effect because response generation is probable at all exposure levels. The non-cancer risk represents the risk of developing health problems other 187 than cancer. The non-cancer effect is assumed to have a certain threshold or a certain value 188 below which no response is generated. This is mainly due to adaptive protective mechanisms 189 in the cells against toxic effects (Haber et al. 2012). Non cancer health effects, such as asthma, 190 nervous system disorders, birth defects, cardiovascular diseases and problems in the 191 development of children, become more severe as the exposure to chemical increases (OEHHA 192 2001). 193

194 The safe threshold doses, which are used for the non-cancer risk evaluation, are designated 195 differently by a number of health agencies worldwide. This threshold dose is reported as a 196 reference dose (RfD) or reference concentration (RfC) by the United States environmental 197 protection agency (USEPA 1994), or an acceptable daily intake (ADI) by the world health organization (Lu 1988). Other agencies reported this threshold dose as a tolerable intake (TI) 198 199 such as the international program on chemical safety (IPCS 1994), or a minimal risk level (MRL) such as the United States agency for toxic substances and disease registry (ATSDR) 200 201 (Pohl and Abadin 1995).

According to the United States environmental protection agency, the calculated hazard for a 202 203 non-cancer health effect is not a probability but a measured ratio of the magnitude of a receptor's potential exposure usually called the average daily dose (ADD) to a standard 204 exposure level such as the reference concentration (RfC) or the reference dose (RfD) (USEPA 205 1989b). This ratio is also called "Hazard quotient" (HQ) and is calculated for a specific species 206 in a specified exposure pathway. Additionally, the hazard index (HI) is defined as the sum of 207 more than one hazard quotient for multiple substances considering one pathway or multiple 208 209 exposure pathways considering one substance (USEPA 1991c).

210

211 5 Risk assessment methodology

Health risk assessment methods consider several parameters in order to evaluate the severity of the exposure. These factors include the dose or the intake rate, the characteristics of the exposed individuals the concentrations of the pollutant and other parameters related to the harmfulness of the compounds on human health. The characteristics of the exposed individuals are mainly the body weight, the duration and the frequency of the exposure. In this section, the methodology for the evaluation of the risk related to the exposure to different classes of compounds will be presented, also taking into consideration the three major exposure pathways: inhalation, ingestion, and dermal contact.

220 5.1 Method developed by the United States environmental protection agency

The health risk assessment presented by the United States environmental protection agency was 221 222 first developed and published in 1989 and 1991 (USEPA 1989c, 1991c). This method was applied since then to different classes of compounds in particulate matter depending on the 223 availability of reference values for the different species and the different exposure pathways. 224 Both non-cancer and cancer risk evaluation need to consider a daily exposure dose, expressed 225 in mg/kg/day, or a daily exposure concentration, expressed in mg/m³. For the non-cancer risk, 226 the daily exposure dose is referred to as an average daily dose (ADD_i) and the daily exposure 227 228 concentration is referred to as an exposure concentration in air (EC_i).

The average daily dose (ADD_i) for the different exposure pathways, and the exposure
concentration (EC_i) for inhalation are estimated as follows (Eq. 1 to Eq. 4):

231
$$ADD_{i-inhalation} = \frac{C_i \times IR_{inh} \times ED \times EF \times 10^{-6}}{BW \times AT}$$
(Eq. 1)

232
$$ADD_{i-ingestion} = \frac{C_i \times IR_{ing} \times ED \times EF \times 10^{-6}}{BW \times AT}$$
(Eq. 2)

233
$$ADD_{i-dermal} = \frac{C_i \times SA \times AF \times ABS \times ED \times EF \times 10^{-6}}{BW \times AT}$$
(Eq. 3)

234
$$EC_i = \frac{C_i \times ET \times ED \times EF \times 10^{-6}}{AT}$$
(Eq. 4)

235

Detailed information of each parameter used in the different formulas is given in **Table 1**. The concentration of the species (C_i) is usually considered as the average concentration during the sampling or exposure period. Some of the parameters presented in the formulas are related to the exposed individual such as the inhalation (IR_{inh}) and ingestion (IR_{ing}) rates and the body weight (BW) while other parameters are more related to the frequency (EF) and the duration of the exposure (ED) to an agent (**Table 1**). However, for the evaluation of the cancer risk, the exposure period during which the dose is averaged is usually lifetime or 70 years (USEPA 243 2011). Accordingly, the lifetime average daily dose (LADD_i) for the different exposure 244 pathways can be calculated using Eq. 1 to 4 with lifetime that corresponds to 25500 days 245 replacing the average timing calculated as $AT = ED \times 365$ days (USEPA 1989c, 2011) (**Table** 246 1).

Additionally, exposure parameters also vary depending on the exposure pathway, the age group 247 chosen such as newborns, children, adolescents, or adults, the sex, and the exposed population, 248 e.g. residents, indoor workers, outdoor workers, etc.. These parameters should be site-specific 249 250 and should be chosen based on demographic data and exposure factors related to the country or 251 the region. If no data available, default values can be used. For instance, the default body weight (BW) for a newborn between 0 and 1 year is 7.8 kg, while for a child between 1 and 11 years, 252 253 ithe body weight is 25 kg, for an adolescent between 12 and 18 years, the body weight is 61 kg, 254 and for an adult, the body weight is 70 kg (Table 1). The United States environmental protection 255 agency has published an exposure factor handbook that was updated in 2011 in order to provide statistical data on the various factors used in the assessment of the exposure to air contaminants 256 257 for assessors inside the agency as well as outside (USEPA 1997a, 2011). The handbook also 258 contain data for the assessment of the exposure to soil and water contaminants.

Furthermore, the Chinese research academy of environmental sciences (CRAES) has also published a Chinese exposure factors handbook for children and adults for the Chinese population (Duan *et al.* 2015, Duan 2016). This data is mainly used by assessors in China since the exposure parameters highly reflects the Chinese population.

263

264 5.1.1 Non-cancer risk assessment

265 The non-cancer risk assessment is based on the comparison between the average daily dose (ADD_i) representing the exposure estimate and the reference dose (RfD_i) or the comparison 266 between the exposure concentration in air (EC_i) to the reference concentration for inhalation 267 (RfC_i). The reference dose (RfD_i), expressed in mg/kg/day, is defined as an estimate of a daily 268 exposure of the human population including sensitive groups that is likely to be without an 269 appreciable risk of deleterious effects during a lifetime (USEPA 2022a). Additionally, the 270 271 reference concentration (RfC_i) is a similar term that is used to assess inhalation risks and is expressed in mg/m³. The ratios between ADD_i and RfD_i or RfC_i are called hazard quotients 272 273 (HQ_i) and are calculated following either Eq. 5a or Eq. 5b (USEPA 1989c, 1991c, 2011):

274
$$HQ_i = \frac{ADD_i}{RfD_i} (Eq. 5a)$$

275
$$or HQ_i = \frac{EC_i}{RfC_i} \quad (Eq. 5b)$$

The reference dose (RfD_i) and the reference concentration (RfC_i) values found in the literature 276 for different species in various classes such as PAHs, elements, phthalates, dioxins, furans and 277 dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls and different exposure pathways are presented in Table 2. For 278 non-standard populations, no correction is needed for the reference dose and the reference 279 280 concentration values (USEPA 2011). This is due to the idea that the integrated risk information system (IRIS) does not consider a 70 kg body weight assumption in the determination of RfD_i 281 and RfC_i. Additionally, the dermal reference dose (RfD_{dermal})can be determined from oral 282 reference dose (RfD_{oral}) values if a gastrointestinal absorption factor (GIABS) is available as 283 follows: 284

285
$$RfD_{dermal} = RfD_{oral} \times GIABS$$
(Eq. 6)

A default value for gastrointestinal absorption factor of 1 is used except for inorganic compounds such as Sb, Ba, Be, Cd, Cr(VI), Mn, Ni, Ag and V that were assigned values of 0.15, 0.07, 0.007, 0.025, 0.025, 0.04, 0.04, 0.04 and 0.026, respectively (USEPA 2004b).

A receptor might also be exposed to different chemicals associated with non-cancer effects. By that, the non-cancer risk values can be presented either by species for the different exposure pathways, or by the sum of species for a specific exposure pathway, or by the sum of species for all exposure pathways (USEPA 1989c, 1991c, 2011). In order to distinguish between the different definitions, we will describe each one separately.

The total hazard quotient (total HQ_i) is defined as the non-cancer risk for a species in the different exposure pathways assuming additive effects and is calculated as follows (Eq.7):

296

$$Total HQ_i = HQ_{i-inhalation} + HQ_{i-ingestion} + HQ_{i-dermal} \quad (Eq. 7)$$

In order to calculate the non-cancer risk for a family of chemicals in a specific exposurepathway, the hazard index (HI) is used and will be calculated as follows (Eq.8):

299
$$HI_{inhalation/ingestion/dermal} = \sum_{i} HQ_{i-inhalation/ingestion/dermal} (Eq. 8)$$

Finally, in order to evaluate the total non-cancer risk for a specific family for the combined exposure pathways, the total hazard index (THI) is calculated as follows (Eq. 9):

 $Total HI = THI = HI_{inhalation} + HI_{ingestion} + HI_{dermal} \quad (Eq.9)$

Generally, the higher hazard quotient, total hazard quotient, hazard index and total hazard index
values above 1, the greater is the level of concern and the higher the probability of occurrence
for hazardous non-cancer effects (USEPA 2011).

306

307 5.1.2 Cancer risk assessment

The cancer risk (CR_i) for a specific chemical in one exposure pathway is calculated as follows
(Eq.10a and Eq.10b), considering the exposure concentration (EC_i) or the lifetime average daily
dose (LADD_i):

311
$$CR_{i-inhalation} = EC_i \times IUR_i$$
 (Eq. 10a)
312 or $CR_{i-inhalation/ingestion/dermal} = LADD_i \times CSF_i$ (Eq. 10b)

IUR_i is the inhalation unit risk for a chemical expressed in m^3/mg used to calculate the cancer risk associated with the inhalation pathway (USEPA 1997a). CSFi is the cancer slope factor for a chemical in a specific exposure pathway expressed in kg·day/mg. Cancer slope factors (CSF) and inhalation unit risk (IUR) values found in the literature for different species and classes of compounds in particulate matter are presented in Table 2. According to USEPA (1997a), cancer slope factors and inhalation unit risk values are corrected for non-standard populations, i.e.

body weight (BW) different than 70 kg, by multiplying the values by $\sqrt[3]{\frac{BW}{70}}$.

320

321

323 Table 1: Exposure parameters through inhalation, ingestion, and dermal contact (**USEPA: United States environmental protection agency*)

Exposure parameters		Unit	Availability of data	Reference
Concentration in air	C_i	ng/m ³	· · · · ·	
Inhalation intake rate	IR _{inh}	m ³ /day	Short-term and long-term exposure values for inhalation are available for different age groups in the USEPA* exposure handbook 20 m ³ /day for an adult and 10 m ³ /day for a child	(USEPA 2011)
Soil intake rate	IR _{ing}	mg/day	Data is available for different age groups in the USEPA* exposure handbook 100 mg/day for a child and 50 mg/day for and adult	(USEPA 2011)
Body weight	BW	kg	Body weight is considered a demographic parameter. The use of specific data for the country or the region is recommended. If no data available, default body weight values for different age groups and sex found in the USEPA* exposure handbooks: 7.8 kg for newborns (0 to <1 year), 25 kg for children (1 to <12 years), 61 kg for adolescents (12 to <18 years) and 70 for adults (18 to 70 years)	(USEPA 1991c, 1997a, 2011)
Exposure frequency	EF	days/year	225 days for outdoor workers, 250 days for indoor workers and 350 days for residents	(USEPA 2002, 2004b)
Exposure time	ET	h/day	6 hours for a child, and 8 hours for an adult	(Liu <i>et al.</i> 2018, Dahmardeh Behrooz <i>et al.</i> 2021)
Exposure duration	ED	years	Exposure durations can be found in the USEPA* exposure handbook for different age groups: 1 for newborns (0 to <1 year), 11 for children (1 to <12 years), 6 for adolescents (12 to <18 years) and 52 for adults (18 to 70 years)	(USEPA 2011)
Average timing	AT	days	$AT = ED \times 365(days)$ for non-carcinogens AT = 70 years x 365 for carcinogens	(USEPA 1989c)
Exposed skin surface area	SA	cm ²	Exposed skin surface area can be found in the exposure handbook. The default exposed surface area is 2800 cm^2 for a child, 5700 cm^2 for an adult, 3300 cm^2 for an outdoor worker and 3300 cm^2 for a construction worker	(USEPA 2002, 2011)
Dermal adherence factor	AF	mg/cm ²	0.2 mg/cm ² for a child, 0.07 mg/cm ² for an adult resident, and 0.2 mg/cm ² for an adult worker	(USEPA 2002)
Dermal adsorption factor	ABS	-	0.13 for polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons 0.03 for As 0.001 for Cd 0.01 for other elements	(USEPA 2002, 2011)

Table 2: Values of the reference dose (RfD), reference concentration (RfC), cancer slope factor (CSF), and inhalation unit risk (IUR) reported in the literature for the different species

Compound	Reference dose (RfD)			Reference concentration	Cancer slope factor (CSF)			Inhalation unit
	T	(mg/kg/day)		(RfC) (mg/m ³)	(kg·day/mg)			risk (IUR) (m³/mg)
	Dermal	Ingestion	Inhalation		Dermal	Ingestion	Inhalation	
Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons								
benzo[a]pyrene	-	3 x 10 ⁻⁴ c	-	2 x 10 ^{-6 c}	25 ª	7.3 ^a	3.85 ª	6 x 10 ^{-1 c}
Dioxins, furans, dioxin-like polychlorobi	phenyls							
2,3,7,8-tetrachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	-	7 x 10 ^{-10 c}	-	4 x 10 ^{-8 c}	-	1.3 x 10 ⁵ c	-	3.8 x 10 ⁴ c
Phthalates								
bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate	-	2 x 10 ^{-2 c}	-	-	-	1.4 x 10 ⁻² °	8.4 x 10 ⁻³ b	2.4 x 10 ^{-3 c}
butyl benzyl phthalate	-	2 x 10 ^{-1 c}	-	-	-	1.9 x 10 ⁻² °	-	-
diethylphthalate	-	8 x 10 ^{-1 c}	-	-	-	-	-	-
dibutylphthalate	-	1 x 10 ^{-1 c}	-	-	-	-	-	-
Elements								
aluminum	-	1 °	-	5 x 10 ^{-3 c}	-	-	-	-
antimony metallic	-	4 x 10 ⁻⁴ c	-	3 x 10 ^{-4 c}	-	-	-	-
arsenic, inorganic	1.23 x 10 ^{-4 d}	3 x 10 ⁻⁴ c,d	3.01 x 10 ^{-4 d}	1.5 x 10 ⁻⁵ c	1.5 ^{e,g}	1.5 °	15.1 ^{c,d}	4.3 °
barium	-	2 x 10 ^{-1 c}	-	5 x 10 ^{-4 c}	-	-	-	-
cadmium	1 x 10 ^{-5 d}	1 x 10 ^{-3 c}	1 x 10 ^{-5 d}	$1 \ge 10^{-5} c$	-	-	6.3 °	1.8 °
chromium (VI)	6 x 10 ^{-5 d}	3x 10 ^{-3 c,d}	2.86 x 10 ^{-5 d}	$1 \ge 10^{-4} c$	20 ^g	5 x 10 ^{-1 c}	41 °	84 ^c
cobalt	1.6 x 10 ^{-2 d}	3 x 10 ⁻³ c	5.71 x 10 ^{-6 d}	6 x 10 ^{-6 c}	-	-	9.8 °	9 °
copper	1.2 x 10 ^{-2 d}	4 x 10 ^{-2 c,d}	6.9 x 10 ^{-4 d}	-	-	-	-	-
iron	-	7 x 10 ⁻¹ c	-	-	-	-	-	-
lanthanum	-	$5 \ge 10^{-5} \text{ c}$	-	-	-	-	-	-
lead	5.2 x 10 ⁻⁴ d	3.52 x 10 ^{-3 d}	3.5 x 10 ^{-5 d}	-	8.5 x 10 ^{-3 g}	8.5 x 10 ⁻³ e	4.2 x 10 ⁻² e	1.2 x 10 ^{-5 h}
manganese	1.84 x 10 ^{-3 d}	$1.4 \ge 10^{-1} c$	1.43 x 10 ^{-5 d}	$5 \ge 10^{-5} \text{ c}$	-	-	-	-
mercury	$3 \times 10^{-4} c$	3×10^{-4} c	$3 \times 10^{-4} c$	$3 \times 10^{-4} c$	-	-	- ,	-
nickel	9 x 10 ^{-5 d}	$2 \ge 10^{-2} \text{ c,a}$	9 x 10 ^{-5 d}	9 x 10 ^{-5 c}	-	-	0.84 ^a	0.26 °
strontium	-	6 x 10 ⁻¹ c	-	-	-	-	-	-
thallium (soluble salts)	-	1 x 10 ^{-5 c}	-	-	-	-	-	-
tin	-	6 x 10 ^{-1 c}	-	-	-	-	-	-
vanadium	-	5 x 10 ^{-3 c}	-	1 x 10 ^{-4 c}	-	-	-	8.3 ⁱ
zinc	6 x 10 ^{-2 d}	3 x 10 ^{-1 c,d}	3 x 10 ^{-1 d}	-	-	-	-	-

328 ^g(USEPA 2004b); ^h(CalEPA 2022); ⁱ(PPRTV 2022); ^j(USEPA 1997b); ^k(RAIS 2022).

Additionally, dermal cancer slope factor can be determined from oral cancer slope factor values 329 if a gastrointestinal absorption factor (GIABS) is available (Eq.11): 330

$$CSF_{dermal} = \frac{CSF_{oral}}{GIABS} (Eq. 11)$$

332 The total cancer risk for a species is calculated as the sum of the different risks associated with the different exposure pathways and is presented as follows (Eq.12): 333

334
$$Total CR_i = CR_{i-inhalation} + CR_{i-ingestion} + CR_{i-dermal} \quad (Eq. 12)$$

The cancer risk for a family of chemicals associated with a specific exposure pathway is 335 estimated as follows (Eq.13): 336

337
$$CR_{inhalation/ingestion/dermal} = \sum_{i} CR_{i inhalation/ingestion/dermal} (Eq. 13)$$

338 The cumulative cancer risk (CCR) as the risk attributed to a family of compounds in the combined three exposure pathways is calculated as follows (Eq.14): 339

340
$$Cumulative CR = CCR = CR_{inhalation} + CR_{ingestion} + CR_{dermal} \quad (Eq. 14)$$

The United States environmental protection agency considers a risk level of 10⁻⁶ (one additional 341 case per one million people) as the threshold limit (USEPA 1991b). More concern should be 342 given regarding these chemicals when the risk level exceeds the threshold. Additionally, values 343 between 10⁻⁶ and 10⁻⁴ denote a potential risk and values higher than 10⁻⁴ indicate a high potential 344 cancer risk (Chiang et al. 2009). 345

Furthermore, the cancer risk can be calculated for different age categories and summed together 346 in order to obtain an average lifetime cancer risk (LCR) or an incremental lifetime cancer risk 347 (ILCR) (OEHHA 2012): 348

349
$$LCR = Cumulative CR_{Newborn} \times \frac{ED_{newborn}}{70} + Cumulative CR_{child} \times \frac{ED_{child}}{70}$$
350
$$+ Cumulative CR_{adolescent} \times \frac{ED_{adolescent}}{70}$$

351 + Cumumative
$$CR_{adult} \times \frac{ED_{adult}}{70}$$
 (Eq. 15)

352

354 5.1.3 Concentration of the species in the risk assessment evaluation

The risk assessment in air samples can be evaluated for the exposure to the gas-phase compounds as well as the particulate phase. Therefore, several classes of compounds are usually used for the assessment of the cancer and the non-cancer risk such as elements, PAHs, phthalates, dioxins, furans, and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls.

359 PAHs refer to lipophilic chemical compounds that are formed by two or more aromatic rings that are environmentally persistent with various structures and toxicity (Halek et al. 2010, 360 Abdel-Shafy and Mansour 2016). Phthalates are a class of human-made chemicals that are 361 commonly used to increase the flexibility of plastic products, especially in poly(chloride)vinyl 362 (PVC) products (USEPA 2012). Dioxins, furans, and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls are semi-363 364 volatile persistent organic pollutants that can be transported far from their emission sources (Srogi 2008, Koukoulakis et al. 2020). Even if these organic and inorganic species are found in 365 366 low amounts in particulate matter, it has been shown that they largely contribute to the particulate matter toxicity (Akhtar et al. 2010, Fortoul et al. 2015, Bandowe and Meusel 2017). 367 On the other hand, ammonium, sulfate, sea salts, and crustal elements that contribute largely to 368 particulate matter mass contribute the least to the toxicity (Borm et al. 2007). The assessment 369 370 for elements and phthalates is usually done by evaluating the risk of each species. The reason 371 is that some of them are considered carcinogenic while others can only be evaluated for their 372 non-cancer risks. For example, diethylphthalate and dibutylphthalate are only evaluated for their non-cancer risks due the fact that no cancer slope factor or inhalation unit risk values were 373 374 found for these species in order to assess their cancer risk. On the other hand, bis(2ethylhexyl)phthalate and butyl benzyl phthalate are evaluated for both cancer and non-cancer 375 risks due to the availability of reference coefficients in the literature (Table 2). 376

Among PAHs, dioxins, and furans, benzo[a]pyrene (B[a]P) and 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-pdioxin (2,3,7,8-TCDD) are known to be carcinogenic to humans (IARC 2021). A toxic equivalent factor (TEF) was introduced to assign toxicity values for the different congeners based on the toxicity of either B[a]P or 2,3,7,8-TCDD reported as 1 (Nisbet and LaGoy 1992, Van den Berg *et al.* 2006).

382

383

Table 3: Toxic equivalent factor (TEF) values for the different polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and their derivatives

Compound name	Toxic equivalent factor (TEF) value
acenaphthylene	0.001 ^a
1-methylnaphthalene	0.0025^{b}
2-methylnaphthalene	0.001 ^a
acenaphthene	0.001 ^a
fluorene	0.001 ^a
7H-benzo[c]fluorene	20 ^e
anthracene	0.01 ^a
phenanthrene	0.001 ^a
1-methylphenanthrene	0.001 ^e
fluoranthene	0.001^{a}
pyrene	0.001 ^a
cyclopenta[c,d]pyrene	0.01 ^e
1-methylpyrene	0.001 ^e
benz[a]anthracene	0.1ª
chrysene/triphenylene	0.01 ^a
5-methylchrysene	1 ^e
benzo[b]fluoranthene	0.1 ^a
benzo[k]fluoranthene	0.1ª
benzo[a]pyrene	1 ^a
benzo[e]pyrene	0.002^{d}
dibenz[a,h]anthracene	5 ^a
benzo[g,h,i]perylene	0.01 ^a
indeno(1,2,3-C,D)pyrene	0.1ª
dibenzo[a,1]pyrene	0.001 ^e
dibenzo[a,e]pyrene	10 ^e
dibenzo[e,1]pyrene	1 ^e
dibenzo[a,i]pyrene	10 ^e
dibenzo[a,h]pyrene	10 ^e
5-nitroacenaphthene	0.01 ^d
2-nitrofluorene	0.01 ^b
9-nitroanthracene	0.0032 ^c
3-nitrofluoranthene	0.0026 ^c
1-nitropyrene	0.1 ^b
6-nitrochrysene	10 ^b

^a(Nisbet and LaGoy 1992), ^b(Collins *et al.* 1998),^c (Durant *et al.* 1996), ^d(Hester and Harrison
 1998), ^e(Iakovides *et al.* 2021)

389

390 The health risk evaluation for the PAHs and dioxins/furans classes of compounds is conducted

391 using the benz[a]pyrene equivalent concentration $(B[a]P_{eq})$ and the toxic equivalent

concentration of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin (WHO-TEQ) using the following

393 formulas (Eq.16a and Eq.16b):

394
$$WHO - TEQ = \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_i \times TEF_i \qquad (Eq. 16a)$$

395
$$B[a]P_{eq} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} C_j \times TEF_j$$
 (Eq. 16b)

C_i and C_j,expressed in ng/m³, are the concentrations of the dioxins, furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls congeners, and PAHs and their derivatives, respectively. TEF_i and TEF_j correspond to the toxic equivalent factor compared to 2,3,7,8-TCDD and B[a]P, respectively (Nisbet and LaGoy 1992, Collins *et al.* 1998, Van den Berg *et al.* 2006). The values of toxic equivalent factors, TEF_i and TEF_j are found in **Table 3** and **Table 4**. The calculated B[a]P_{eq} or WHO-TEQ are added in Equations 1 to 4 to calculate the daily dose or exposure concentration and then the non-cancer or cancer risks.

403

404 5.2 Other parameters and formulas included in the assessment of the health risk

405 5.2.1 Cancer risk for phthalates

In the evaluation of the cancer risks for phthalates, Zhang et al. (2019b) applied the same 406 formulas presented in section 3.1.2 to calculate the lifetime average daily dose for inhalation. 407 However, an additional factor related to the age sensitivity factor was added to the calculations 408 409 of the 70-years lifetime cancer risk when considering different age categories in the calculations. The authors have added an age sensitivity factor (ASF) of 10 for infants between 410 411 the age of 0 and 2, 3 for toddlers between the age of 3 and 6, 3 for adolescents between the age of 7 and 16, and 1 for adults between the age of 17 and 70 based on the reported of the office 412 413 of environmental health hazard assessment (OEHHA). OEHHA developed these ASF to take into account the higher sensitivity to carcinogens during early-life exposure (OEHHA 2015) 414 415 but are not highly used in the literature to calculate the health risk for the different age categories. 416

417

418 5.2.2 Cancer risk for polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

419 Several papers estimating the health risk due to the exposure to PAHs only consider the 420 inhalation pathway and calculate a lifetime excess cancer risk (ECR). The formula used for the 421 calculation of excess cancer risk related to PAHs exposure is the same as Eq.10a but instead of

- 422 multiplying an exposure concentration by the inhalation unit risk, the assessors directly use the
- 423 B[a]P_{eq} (Yang *et al.* 2017, Song *et al.* 2019, Pateraki *et al.* 2020, Tsai *et al.* 2020).

424

Table 4: Available toxic equivalent factor (TEF) values presented by the world health organization (WHO) in 1998 and re-evaluated in 2005 for dioxins, furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls (Van den Berg *et al.* (2006)

	WHO 1998	WHO 2005
Dioxins (PCDDs)		
2,3,7,8-tetrachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	1	1
1,2,3,7,8-pentachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	1	1
1,2,3,4,7,8-hexachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,6,7,8-hexachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,7,8,9-hexachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-heptachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	0.01	0.01
octachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	0.0001	0.0003
Furans (PCDFs)		
2,3,7,8 tetrachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,7,8 pentachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.05	0.03
2,3,4,7,8 pentachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.5	0.3
1,2,3,4,7,8 hexachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,6,7,8 hexachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.1	0.1
2,3,4,6,7,8 hexachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,7,8,9 hexachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.1	0.1
1,2,3,4,6,7,8-heptachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.01	0.01
1,2,3,4,7,8,9-heptachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.01	0.01
octachlorinated dibenzofuran	0.0001	0.0003
Dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls (DL-PCBs)		
3,4,4',5-tetrachlorobiphenyl	0.0001	0.0003
3,3',4,4'-tetrachlorobiphenyl	0.0001	0.0001
2,3',4,4',5'-pentachlorobiphenyl	0.0001	0.00003
2,3',4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl	0.0001	0.00003
2,3,4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl	0.0005	0.00003
2,3,3',4,4'-pentachlorobiphenyl	0.0001	0.00003
3,3',4,4',5-pentachlorobiphenyl	0.1	0.1
2,3',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	0.00001	0.00003
2,3,3',4,4',5-hexachlorobiphenyl	0.0005	0.00003
2,3,3',4,4',5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	0.0005	0.00003
3,3',4,4',5,5'-hexachlorobiphenyl	0.01	0.03
2,3,3',4,4',5,5'-heptachlorobiphenyl	0.0001	0.00003

429 The United States environmental protection agency proposed $6 \ge 10^{-7} (ng/m^3)^{-1}$ as the inhalation 430 unit risk value for B[a]P_{eq}. However, inhalation unit risk value was reported as 8.7 $\ge 10^{-5}$

(ng/m³)⁻¹ by the world health organization (WHO 2000), and 1.1 x 10⁻⁶ (ng/m³)⁻¹ by the office of environmental health hazard assessment (OEHHA 2009).The two latter agency used a method that does not take into consideration the different exposure parameters but only considers the pollutant concentration and a fixed unit risk leading to an overestimation or an underestimation of the real risk. Consequently, the United States environmental protection agency method can contribute to more accurate results based on the different exposure pathways and the age categories.

438

439 5.2.3 Non-cancer and cancer risks for elements

For the elements, a dimensionless average annual excess risk for an individual (R) can be used
to calculate the cancer and the non-cancer risks using the average daily dose (ADD_i) and the
lifetime daily dose (70 x RfD_i), respectively, as follows (Eq. 17-18) (Chen *et al.* 2015, Wang *et al.* 2018):

444
$$R(non - carcinogenic) = \frac{10^{-6} \times ADD_i}{70 \times RfD_i} (Eq. 17)$$

445
$$R(carcinogenic) = \frac{1 - e^{-\frac{LADD}{CSF}}}{70} \qquad (Eq. 18)$$

In this calculation, the threshold value above which the risk is unacceptable for cancer risk is also 10^{-6} , whereas the risk level of 10^{-3} per year or higher is considered serious and a high priority for attention (Wang *et al.* 2018). The acceptable value for the non-cancer risk is lower than one.

Other papers integrated the bioaccessibility of the elements in the health risk evaluation. The 450 451 bioaccessibility represents the fraction of the species concentration that is released from the environmental matrix into a synthetic biological fluid and becomes available for absorption 452 (Expósito et al. 2021). Therefore, the bioavailability, considered as the fraction of the species 453 in the exposure media absorbed by the organism, is influenced by the bioaccessibility since 454 solubilization is required for crossing membranes in the body (USEPA 2007). By that, the 455 bioaccessible fraction represents the maximum amount of the species that can be absorbed 456 457 (Manjón et al. 2020). Hu et al. (2011) estimated the relative bioaccessibility (RBA) of the elements using a simple bioavailability extraction test (SBET) and integrated them to the 458

estimation of the cancer risk and the hazard quotient through ingestion pathway as follows(Eq.19a and Eq.19b):

461
$$HQ_{ingestion} = \frac{ADD_i \times RBA}{RfD_i} \quad (Eq. 19a)$$

462
$$CR_{i-ingestion} = LADD_i \times RBA \times CSF_i (Eq. 19b)$$

Where RBA is the relative bioaccessibility corresponding to the ratio of the elements' contents extracted using the simple bioavailability extraction test method to their total contents in the study. According to the study, the highest bioaccessibility rates were observed for Cd, Zn and Pb with values exceeding 60%. On the other hand, the lowest values were attributed for Cr, Co, and Ni with mean values of bioaccessibility ranging between 12 and 19%. These values were also applied by Iakovides *et al.* (2021) that added the relative bioaccessibility parameter to the different formulas used for the calculations of the cancer risk in the three exposure pathways.

Furthermore, Nie et al. (2018) evaluated the bioaccessibility of the elements through different 470 471 simulated body fluids in order to have different contact interfaces between human body and particulate elements. Nie et al. (2018) used artificial lung fluid, artificial sweat, and artificial 472 gastric juice, and phosphate buffered saline solution. The trace elements that have the highest 473 bioaccessibility in artificial lung fluid and in artificial sweat were As, Cu, Pb and V (60-80%). 474 V, Cu, As, and Mn had the highest values in phosphate buffered saline solution (62-82%), and 475 V, Pb, Cu, and Mn in artificial gastric juice (67-84%). According to Mishra et al. (2021), the 476 477 concentration of the bioaccessible fraction is more relevant than the total concentration of the element for a better and more accurate risk assessment of the element toxicity. Up to our 478 knowledge, there were no other study using the bioaccessible fraction of other species in the 479 480 risk assessment evaluation.

481

482 **6 Risk assessment studies**

The health risk related to particulate matter exposure is generally evaluated by studying the cancer and non-cancer risks of one or several classes of compounds such as PAHs, phthalates, disping former dispin like polyablemetric and elements as mentioned configure

dioxins, furans, dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls, and elements as mentioned earlier.

Table 5: Selection of health risk assessment studies reported in the literature for polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), elements, phthalates,
 dioxins and furans (PCDD/Fs), and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls (DL-PCBs)

Site (Country)	Risk evaluation	Class of compounds	Total cancer risk values	Total non-cancer	Exposure pathways	Age categories	Problematic species	Reference
Zouk Mikael and Fiaa (Lebanon)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	PAHs Elements Phthalates PCDD/Fs and	$\begin{array}{c} 0.4 - 1.4 \ x \ 10^{-5} \\ 2.5 - 4.4 \ x \ 10^{-5} \\ 3.8 - 5.1 \ x \ 10^{-7} \\ 4 \ x \ 10^{-7} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 0.1 - 0.4 \\ 0.3 - 1.2 \\ 0.001 - 0.1 \\ 0.01 - 0.06 \end{array}$	Inhalation, ingestion, and dermal	Newborns, children, adolescents, and adults	Sum of PAHs reported to benzo[a]pyrene, As, Co, Cr(VI), Ni and V	Fadel <i>et al.</i> (2022)
Thohoyandou (South Africa)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Elements	3.4 x 10 ⁻⁶	0.54 - 1.18	Inhalation	Lifetime	Ni	Edlund <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Tangshan (China)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Elements	0.4 – 1.5 x 10 ⁻⁴	2.8-2.81	Inhalation	Children and adults	Mn, As, Cd, and Cr(VI)	Fang <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Abuja (Nigeria)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Elements	1.4 – 4.0 x 10 ⁻¹⁰	10 ⁻⁵ - 10 ⁻⁴	Inhalation, ingestion, and dermal contact	Children and adults	-	Sulaymon <i>et al.</i> (2020)
Sha-Lu area (Taiwan)	Cancer risk using a unit risk for inhalation	Elements	8.2 x 10 ⁻⁵	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	As and Cr(VI)	Tsai <i>et al</i> . (2020)
Iasi (Romania)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Elements	6.3 – 8.0 x 10 ⁻⁶	0.2 - 0.3	Inhalation	Lifetime	As and Cr(VI)	Galon-Negru <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Barcelona (Spain)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Elements	2.3 – 3.1 x 10 ⁻⁵	below 1	Inhalation	Lifetime	Cr(VI)	Sánchez-Soberón <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Nicosia (Cyprus)	Cancer risk	PAHs Elements	7.1 x 10 ⁻⁴ 7.7 x 10 ⁻⁴	-	Inhalation, ingestion, and	Lifetime	Sum of PAHs As, Ni, and Pb	Iakovides <i>et al.</i> (2021)

					dermal			
					contact			
Penteli, Votanikos,	Cancer risk using a unit	PAHs	$0.3 - 2.6 \ge 10^{-7}$	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	benzo[a]pyrene	Pateraki <i>et al.</i> (2020)
and Tourlos	risk for							
(Greece)	inhalation							
Harbin	Cancer and	PAHs	4.1 x 10 ⁻⁴	-	Inhalation,	Children,	Benzo[a]pyrene,	
(China)	non-cancer				ingestion,	adolescents,	indeno(1,2,3-	Ma et al. (2020b)
	risk				and	and adults	c,d)pyrene, and	
					dermal		benzo(k)fluoranthene	
					contact			
Beijing	Cancer risk	PAHs	8.7 x 10 ⁻⁶	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	Benzo[a]pyrene	Chang <i>et al.</i> (2019)
(China)								6 ()
Jamshedpur	Cancer risk	PAHs	$1.0 - 2.3 \times 10^{-5}$	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	Benzo[a]pyrene,	Kumar <i>et al.</i> (2019)
(India)							dibenz[a,h]anthracene	· · · · · ·
Beijing	Cancer risk	PAHs	3.0 x 10 ⁻⁴	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	Sum of PAHs reported	Song <i>et al.</i> (2019)
(China)	using a unit						to benzo[a]pyrene	C ()
. ,	risk for							
	inhalation							
Northern	Cancer risk	PAHs	$0.8 - 2.6 \ge 10^{-3}$	-	Inhalation,	Lifetime	Sum of PAHs reported	Pongpiachan (2015)
Thailand					ingestion.		to benzo[a]pyrene	
					and			
					dermal			
					contact			
Eleusis	Cancer risk	PAHs	2.4 x 10 ⁻⁵	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	Sum of PAHs reported	
(Greece)		PCDD/Fs and	1.2×10^{-5}				to benzo[a]pyrene and	Koukoulakis <i>et al.</i>
(01000)		DL-PCBs	112 11 10				the sum of PCDD/Fs	(2020)
Suzhou of	Cancer risk	PCDD/Fs	$0.2 - 2.7 \times 10^{-5}$	_	Inhalation	Lifetime	Sum of PCDD/Fs	$\frac{(2020)}{\text{Sun et al. (2017)}}$
Jiangsu							reported to 2.3.7.8-	
province							TCDD	
(China)							TODD	
Around	Cancer risk	PCDD/Fs_DL-	Sintering plants.	-	Inhalation	Lifetime	Sum of PCDD/Fs	Yang et al. (2017)
metallurgical	using a unit	PCBs	$0.1 - 4 \times 10^{-5}$				reported to 2.3.7.8-	
plants in	risk for	1 020	Copper plants:				TCDD	
China	inhalation		$0.05 - 1.1 \times 10^{-4}$					
Unina	innalation		$0.05 - 1.1 \times 10^{-1}$					

			Aluminum plants: $0.04 - 7.1 \ge 10^{-4}$					
			2.1×10^{-6}					
Beirut (Lebanon)	Cancer risk	PCDD/Fs	6.5 x 10 ⁻⁵	-	Inhalation	Different age categories	Sum of PCDD/Fs reported to 2,3,7,8- TCDD	Baalbaki <i>et al.</i> (2016)
Xi'an (China)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Phthalates	10-12 - 10-10	10-7 - 10-3	Inhalation	Lifetime	bis-2- ethylhexylphthalate, and butyl benzyl phthalate	Ma <i>et al</i> . (2020a)
Guangzhou, Shanghai, Beijing, and Harbin (China)	Cancer and non-cancer risk	Phthalates	10 ⁻¹⁰ – 10 ⁻⁷	0.01 - 0.02	Inhalation	Infants (0-2 years), toddlers (3-6 years), adolescents (7- 17 years), and adults (17- 0 years)	bis-2- ethylhexylphthalate	Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2019b)

490 6.1 Search methodology for risk assessment publications

For this review, the authors conducted a literature search using several online literature 491 databases such as Google cholar, Web of Science; ScienceDirect, PubMed, etc.). The keywords 492 searched for were "health risk assessment in particulate matter", "risk evaluation in particulate 493 matter" as well as the "health risk assessment" for the different classes of compounds in 494 particulate matter such as elements, PAHs, phthalates, dioxins and furans, and dioxin-like 495 496 polychlorobiphenyls. After obtaining articles using the aforementioned keywords, the articles were then filtered based on the title and the abstract of the research. The authors did not take 497 into consideration publications related to the health risk assessment of PAHs, phthalates, 498 dioxins and furans, and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls in the gaseous phase as well as the 499 evaluation of the risk due to the exposure to volatile organic compounds. 500

501

489





502

Fig. 2: Number of articles published related to the health risk evaluation for different classes of
compounds in particulate matter (elements, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs),
phthalates, dioxins and furans, and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls).

The evolution of the number of publications between 2010 and 2021 dealing with health risk assessment for the different classes of compounds in particulate matter is presented in **Fig. 2**. Additionally, more details can be found regarding these publications in the supplementary information. The figure shows that the number of publications including the health risk evaluation is highly increasing especially for elements and PAHs in particulate matter. However, few studies were found for phthalates, dioxins, furans, and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls.

514

515 6.2 Risk assessment studies per class of compounds

516 Table 5 presents a selection of papers dealing with the evaluation of the health risk for particulate matter components. In general, most of the studies found in the literature include 517 both the chemical characterization of particulate matter as well as source apportionment and 518 health risk evaluation. Furthermore, most of the studies focus on the exposure through one 519 pathway that is inhalation and one class of compounds as shown in **Table 5.** Literature regarding 520 521 the comparison of the health risks between different classes of compounds in particulate matter 522 is scarce and more effort should be done in order to further understand the mechanism of interactions between species. Therefore, the presentation and the analysis of the different studies 523 524 found in the literature will be discussed by class of species.

525 6.2.1 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons

PAHs, oxygenated-PAHs, and nitrated-PAHs are mainly emitted from petrogenic, pyrogenic, 526 527 and biogenic sources and are formed during the incomplete combustion of fossil fuels, natural gas, wood, coke, and organic waste (Abbas et al. 2018). PAHs can enter the human body 528 through ingestion, inhalation, and dermal contact. The general population is usually exposed to 529 530 a mixture of PAHs. The latter are present in the indoor or outdoor air as well as associated to cigarette and wood smokes, biomass and fossil fuels burning. The short-term exposure to PAHs 531 might cause impaired lung function in asthmatics and thrombotic effects for people with 532 coronary heart disease (Kim et al. 2013). Additionally, the exposure to high concentrations of 533 pollutant mixtures containing PAHs might result in eye irritation, nausea, vomiting, etc. (Abdel-534 Shafy and Mansour 2016). On the other hand, some studies have shown that the long-term 535 exposure to PAHs is linked to several health problems such as skin, lung bladder, and 536 gastrointestinal cancers in workers (Abbas et al. 2018). Like many carcinogens, PAHs are 537 metabolized enzymatically to various metabolites, of which some are reactive (Rengarajan et 538

al. 2015). The toxicity, mutagenicity and/or carcinogenic properties of the PAHs have made 16
of them listed as priority pollutants (Srogi 2007, Hussar *et al.* 2012): naphthalene,
acenaphthylene, acenaphthene, fluorene, phenanthrene, anthracene, fluoranthene, pyrene,
chrysene, benz[a]anthracene, benzo[b]fluoranthene, benzo[k]fluoranthene, benzo[a]pyrene,
indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene, dibenz[a,h]anthracene and benzo[g,h,i]perylene.

Most of the studies in the literature reported the concentrations of the 16 PAHs to an equivalent concentration of B[a]P considered as a key carcinogenic marker belonging to PAH species. Few studies in the literature added the oxygenated and nitrated derivatives of PAHs in the B[a]P_{eq} calculations (Bandowe *et al.* 2014, de Oliveira Galvão *et al.* 2018, Gao *et al.* 2018, Wei *et al.* 2021).

549 As observed in **Table 5**, benzo[a]pyrene, indeno(1,2,3-c,d)pyrene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, and 550 dibenz[a,h]anthracene generally contribute the most to the calculated cancer risk. This is mainly 551 due to their high toxic equivalent factor corresponding values compared to other PAHs (Table 3). These species along with benz[a]anthracene, chrysene, and benzo(b)fluoranthene are 552 classified by the international agency for research on cancer as group 1, 2A, or 2B (IARC 2021). 553 554 Several studies have reported that adults exhibited a greater cancer risk than children (Gong et al. 2019, Sulong et al. 2019, Wang et al. 2019, Bai et al. 2020). According to Chang et al. 555 (2019), Bai et al. (2020), a greater cancer risk was observed for male adults due to inhalation 556 557 exposure while female adults were at higher risk due to ingestion and dermal contact compared to inhalation. Furthermore, several studies have reported that when comparing exposure 558 559 pathways, higher risk values were observed for dermal contact, then ingestion, and finally 560 inhalation (Tarafdar and Sinha 2019, Iakovides et al. 2021, Fadel et al. 2022). This observation shows the importance of the evaluation of the three exposure pathways rather than only working 561 562 on the inhalation pathway. According to Tarafdar and Sinha (2019), the most influential parameter found by sensitivity analysis in the assessment of health risk is the relative skin 563 564 adherence factor followed by the exposure duration.

Anthropogenic activities in urban and industrial areas play an important role in governing cancer risk of human exposure to particulate matter (Pongpiachan 2015). Several studies tried to link the cancer risk values to PAHs emission sources. Chao *et al.* (2019) conducted a source apportionment exercise with only PAHs and concluded that vehicular emissions produce a high cancer risk contribution due to the high proportion of toxic PAHs such as benzo[a]pyrene, indeno(1,2,3-c,d)pyrene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, and dibenz[a,h]anthracene. The same conclusion was also presented by Chen *et al.* (2016), Song *et al.* (2019), Zhang *et al.* (2019c), 572 Mehmood *et al.* (2020), Iakovides *et al.* (2021), Fadel *et al.* (2022). Most of the latter studies 573 also underlined the additional contribution of other sources such as coal combustion from 574 industrial activities, biomass burning, and power plants. According to Ma *et al.* (2020b), the 575 incremental lifetime cancer risk was at least 4 times higher in the heating period using coal as 576 a source of heating compared to the non-heating period.

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578 6.2.2 Phthalates

579 Phthalates are physically bound to the materials, hence and they can migrate from the matrix into the environment (Xie et al. 2005). These compounds are generally emitted into the 580 atmosphere during plastic burning (Simoneit et al. 2005, Fadel et al. 2021). The major route of 581 582 exposure for most phthalates is ingestion while inhalation and dermal absorption are considered minor routes (NRC 2008, Boberg et al. 2018, Chen et al. 2019). The critical age group for this 583 class of chemicals is mainly small children and infants from the mouthing of toys, and other 584 585 children's products manufactured from polyvinyl chloride (Babich et al. 2004). The United States environmental protection agency and several agencies in other countries have classified 586 some of the phthalates are priority pollutants and endocrine disruptors compounds (Xie et al. 587 2005). They might interfere with the biosynthesis, secretion, action, or metabolism of naturally 588 occurring hormones (Kavlock et al. 1996, Diamanti-Kandarakis et al. 2009). The exposure to 589 590 phthalates might also affect the reproductive systems and children's intelligence (Lu et al. 591 2018). Additionally, Hauser et al. (2006) found that the DNA damage in human sperm might be related to urinary levels of some phthalates. On an environmental level, dibutylphthalate, 592 bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate, and butyl benzyl phthalate have higher toxicity compared to other 593 594 phthalates to terrestrial organisms, fish, and aquatic invertebrates (USEPA 2012).

Other than the reference dose values (RfD) presented by the United States environmental 595 protection agency and presented in Table 2, the European food safety authority (EFSA) defined 596 values for tolerable daily intake of phthalates as 0.01 mg/kg for dibutylphthalate and 0.05 mg/kg 597 for bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate. On the other hand, the scientific committee on toxicity, eco-598 toxicity, and the environment (CSTEE) specified that the tolerable daily intake values for the 599 600 exposure of infants and young children to some phthalates from toys are 37 µg/kg/day for bis(2-601 ethylhexyl)phthalate, 200 µg/kg/day for butyl benzyl phthalate, and 100 for dibutylphthalate (Ji et al. 2014). The daily intake, or the average daily dose, of phthalates to the reference dose 602 showed negligible non-cancer risks since the hazard index values were below the threshold limit 603

of 1 (Sampath et al. 2017, Zhang et al. 2019b, Ma et al. 2020a, Fadel et al. 2022). However, it 604 605 is worth noting that even at doses lower than the reference dose, phthalate exposure might be linked to interrupted semen quality and reproductive hormones in the human population. 606 607 According to Chen et al. (2017) and Maffini et al. (2021), the values of reference doses (RfD) for phthalates proposed by the United States environmental protection agency were based on 608 inadequate studies and did not take into consideration the male reproductive toxicity. However, 609 these effects might decrease when the exposure decreases. The latter idea emphasizes on the 610 importance of setting more stringent regulations on phthalates. 611

612 As for the cancer risk, most of the studies focused on the inhalation pathway (Table 5) and found no significant human health risk from particulate matter-bounded phthalates exposure 613 614 specifically from the exposure to bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate (Lu et al. 2018, Gadi et al. 2019, Li et al. 2019, Ma et al. 2020a). However, the assessment of the health risk from the inhalation 615 616 pathway only leads to an underestimation of the risk. Fadel et al. (2022) found that cancer risk values for ingestion due to the exposure to bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate is at least 6 times higher 617 618 compared to inhalation, emphasizing on the importance of considering the different exposure pathways. Additionally, several studies have reported that children were subjected to greater 619 phthalates exposure than adults (Zhang et al. 2014, Sampath et al. 2017), while no significant 620 differences were observed between adult males and females (Lu et al. 2018). Monte Carlo 621 simulation was applied by Li et al. (2019) in order to estimate the incremental lifetime cancer 622 risk from inhalation on the basis of bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate concentrations. They found by 623 624 sensitivity analysis that the phthalate concentration, the exposure frequency, and the inhalation 625 rate have great contribution on the estimation of the risk while body weight is a less significant 626 parameter. All of these findings were based on the few health risk assessment studies 627 implicating phthalates (Fig. 2). That is why it is important to increase phthalate studies in particulate matter as well as the health risk evaluation. 628

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630 6.2.3 Dioxins, furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls

Dioxins and furans are generally emitted by vehicular emissions and industrial processes especially industries producing compounds such as chlorophenols and phenoxy herbicides, chlorine bleaching of paper pulp and smelting (Cortés *et al.* 2014). Additionally, these compounds are emitted from high temperature processes such as waste incineration and sintering in iron and steel industries (Anderson and Fisher 2002). Dioxin-like

polychlorobiphenyls are not natural substances but were manufactured for use as dielectric 636 fluids, in larger-scale electrical products such as transformers and capacitors, in heat transfer 637 and hydraulic systems and in industrial oils and lubricants (WHO 2010). Several compounds 638 639 have toxicological effects and can have a significant dioxin-like-toxicity. These agents have the 640 ability to bind to the aryl hydrocarbon receptor or known as AhR. This protein is well known for its role in mediating toxicity and regulating enzymes and other proteins. The aryl 641 hydrocarbon receptor was originally characterized as a regulator of xenobiotic metabolism. In 642 the presence of dioxin-like compounds, this protein also mediates a variety of biological 643 644 responses leading to hepatocellular damage, thymic involution, immune suppression, and/or tumor promotion (Stevens et al. 2009). Other than the reference dose values proposed by the 645 646 United States environmental protection agency, the world health organization European centre of environment and health formulated tolerable daily intake value between 1 and 4 pg WHO-647 TEQ/kg/day. On the other hand, the United Kingdom committee on the toxicity of chemicals 648 in food, consumer products and the environment recommended the value of 2 pg WHO-649 650 TEQ/kg/day (López et al. 2021). While the ingestion is the main pathway for the exposure to dioxins and furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls, studies in the literature mainly focused 651 652 on the exposure by inhalation (Table 5). Fadel et al. (2022) showed that the cancer risk by 653 ingestion is 7-fold higher for adults and 100-fold higher for newborns compared to inhalation and dermal contact. Considering the inhalation pathway, Barbas et al. (2018) and López et al. 654 655 (2021) found that the risk assessment due to the exposure of dioxins, furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls pose a low cancer risk in Madrid and Valencia, two regions in Spain. On 656 the other hand, several other studies found a considerable cancer risk due to the exposure to 657 these pollutants especially in industrial areas and near waste burning activities. The health risk 658 induced by dioxins and furans was worthy of attention as their values exceed the United States 659 environmental protection agency limit in a Chinese and a Greek industrialized sites (Bi et al. 660 661 2020, Koukoulakis et al. 2020). Sun et al. (2017) evaluated the health risk near different types of factories and found that cancer risk values were the highest near municipal waste incinerators 662 663 and the lowest near inorganic chemical factories. Yang et al. (2017) found that high cancer risk values were observed in sites near secondary aluminum and copper smelters. 664

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668 6.2.4 Major and trace elements

669 Major and trace elements constitute a major concern due to the adverse effects associated with ambient exposure and their deposition (Dahmardeh Behrooz et al. 2021). They enter the human 670 671 body through inhalation, ingestion and dermal contact with potentially damaging and altering the functioning of organs such as the brain, kidney, lungs and also blood (Godwill Azeh Engwa 672 2019). For instance, the exposure to high levels of arsenic might lead to the destruction of 673 vessels, gastrointestinal tissues and can affect the heart and the brain (Martin and Griswold 674 675 2009). Additionally, the exposure to manganese might lead to neurological disorders (O'Neal and Zheng 2015). The exposure to lead is mainly related to the gastrointestinal tract and central 676 nervous system in adults and children (Martin and Griswold 2009). Also according to 677 Jaishankar et al. (2014), the exposure to elevated levels of mercury can damage the kidney, the 678 brain, and developing fetus. The health effects due to the exposure to cadmium are mainly 679 related to the fact that the human body cannot excrete cadmium because cadmium is re-absorbed 680 by the kidney (Godwill Azeh Engwa 2019). Chromium (VI) can cause lung and upper 681 682 respiratory cancers (Balali-Mood et al. 2021). The IARC has classified chromium (VI) 683 compounds, arsenic, cadmium, and nickel as group I carcinogenic to humans (IARC 2021).

684 It has been also reported that children are more susceptible to hazardous metal substances compared to adults (Zhang et al. 2019a). The evaluation of the risk due to the exposure to major 685 686 and trace elements is generally done for the three exposure pathways. The reference dose (RfD), reference concentration (RfC), inhalation unit risk (IUR), and cancer slope factors (CSF) values 687 688 are available for a large number of elements (Jiang et al. 2018, Nirmalkar et al. 2021, Fadel et al. 2022, Priyan R et al. 2022). It is worth noting that the toxicity of chromium is reported to its 689 hexavalent state. Therefore, the chromium concentration is generally divided by 7 to estimate 690 Cr(VI) concentration, given the assumed Cr(VI)/Cr(III) concentration ratio of 1 to 6 (USEPA 691 692 2004a, Farahmandkia et al. 2017, Kermani et al. 2018, Dahmardeh Behrooz et al. 2021). Additionally, it is also assumed that the measured arsenic is totally inorganic (Huang et al. 693 2014). 694

For the non-cancer risk, several elements can be included in the evaluation such as Al, As, Ba,
Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, La, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, Sn, Sr, Tl, V and Zn due to the availability of
reference concentrations and reference doses values in the literature (**Table 2**). Several studies
have reported that Mn, As and Ni contribute the most to the non-cancer values (Zhang *et al.*2019a, Hao *et al.* 2020, Sulaymon *et al.* 2020, Dahmardeh Behrooz *et al.* 2021, Duan *et al.*2021, Fang *et al.* 2021). This might be mainly due to the low values of the reference doses

leading to high values of hazard quotient and hazard index. Studies show that the non-cancer
value of an element in one or/and several exposure pathways is usually below the threshold
limit of 1. However, when considering the total risk for all the elements, it has been shown that
the population near the sampling sites were at high risk of having non-cancer health effects
(Díaz and Rosa Dominguez 2009, Zhang *et al.* 2018, Fadel *et al.* 2022). The non-cancer risk
has been found higher for children compared to adults in some studies (Dahmardeh Behrooz *et al.* 2021, Fadel *et al.* 2022).

708 As for the cancer risk, Cr (VI) and As generally show the highest proportion of the total cancer 709 risk value followed by Cd and Co (Wang et al. 2018, Galon-Negru et al. 2019, Liu et al. 2019, 710 Hao et al. 2020, Duan et al. 2021, Fang et al. 2021). These elements show high values of the 711 cancer slope factors especially for the inhalation pathway leading to high values of cancer risk (Table 2). Consequently, when trying to attribute cancer risk values for the different emission 712 713 sources, the sources that emit Cr, As, Cd and Co are the ones that show the highest contributions. 714 Major sources related to significant cancer risk values obtained are mainly road traffic and 715 industrial sources, and more specifically coal combustion plants (Duan et al. (2021), Fang et al. (2021), Liu et al. (2018), Galon-Negru et al. (2019), Tsai et al. (2020), (Chen et al. 2021)). 716 Sensitivity analysis using tornado plots were examined by Roy et al. (2019) for the ingestion 717 and the inhalation pathways. The results of this analysis showed that the dermal adherence factor 718 and the exposure duration were recognized as the predominant factors for cancer risk values. 719 720 Additionally, a negative correlation was found with body weight for cancer risk calculations 721 via inhalation pathway.

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723 7 Strengths and limitations of the health risk evaluation

The main goal of a health risk assessment is to apply a transparent procedure to analyze the consequences of exposures to potentially harmful agents (Glorennec *et al.* 2012). Health risk assessment might aid policy makers in implementing new strategies to prevent from adverse health effects related to particulate matter exposure. The method is cost-efficient, standardized, and requires no health data (Edlund *et al.* 2021). Health risk assessment allows to easily assess the potential consequences of a given exposure situation (Glorennec *et al.* 2012) and to point out the most problematic species for risk management.

However, this assessment presents limitations and uncertainties. Health risk assessment
 methods assume independence between toxic actions within and across compounds. Actually,

the interactions between the different contaminants on health, defined as cocktail effect 733 reflecting synergism or antagonism action is not well defined (Edlund et al. 2021, Fadel et al. 734 2022). Then, there is no available method for the calculation of health risk hazards due to 735 736 exposure to a combination of several air contaminants. Consequently, the total cancer and non-737 cancer risks cannot be calculated when considering exposure to several classes of compounds since... Additionally, these studies do not account for the variability in the toxicity of a certain 738 exposure depending on particle composition or differences in population sensitivity (Edlund et 739 740 al. 2021). Furthermore, uncertainties accompany risk assessment studies especially in the 741 choice of exposure parameters and reference values (Hao et al. 2020). Due to the lack of local data for exposure parameters in a considerable number of countries, the evaluation is based on 742 743 the standard parameters proposed by different agencies and that might not be suitable to the studied population. That is why, exposure parameters should be carefully chosen in order to 744 745 reflect the characterization of the population.

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747 8 Conclusion and future directions

Health risk assessment studies estimate the health impact from exposure to pollutants and chemicals that affect air quality. This review presents the published methods used for the evaluation of the cancer and non-cancer risks due to the exposure to different classes of compounds in atmospheric particles. The most employed method is the one developed by the United States environmental protection agency (USEPA). Furthermore, several parameters can be added to this method such as the bioaccessibility of the species, age sensitivity factor, etc.

Most of the published papers in the literature regarding the human health risk evaluation in 754 755 particulate matter focused on the following classes of compounds: PAHs, phthalates, dioxins, 756 furans, dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls, and major and trace elements. For some of these 757 classes, the assessment was only based on the inhalation pathway while it is important to note that ingestion and dermal pathway might highly contribute to the risk values. Among PAHs, 758 benzo[a]pyrene, indeno(1,2,3-c,d)pyrene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, and dibenz[a,h]anthracene 759 760 contribute the most to the cancer risk calculated. On the other hand, the evaluation of the cancer risk is based on the bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate for phthalates, on the equivalent concentration 761 762 of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin for dioxins, furans, and dioxin-like 763 polychlorobiphenyls, and the equivalent concentration of benzo[a]pyrene for PAHs. As for

relements, the most problematic species are Cr, As, Cd, and Co that show a high contribution tothe cancer risk in different studies.

Despite the limitations, the results of health risk assessment studies are of utmost importance 766 and might facilitate policy-decision making by focusing on the most problematic species. Since 767 768 chromium (VI) is considered as one of the species leading to high cancer risk values, efforts 769 should be made in order to analyze chromium (VI) rather than estimating the concentration of 770 chromium (VI) from the total chromium concentration. On the other hand, several attempts 771 were made in a qualitative way in order to link health risk values and the emission sources. 772 Endeavors were also done in a quantitative way to link source apportionment results applied to 773 one class of compounds, such as PAHs or elements, to the cancer and non-cancer risks. 774 However, additional efforts should be made regarding this matter by including much more 775 problematic species and emission source markers in order to better relate the health impact to 776 the different sources. Additionally, more work should be done to determine local exposure 777 parameters and local demographic data in order to reduce the uncertainty of the evaluation. 778 Efforts should be also made to have a better knowledge on the toxicity of several species in the above-mentioned classes of compounds in order to add them to the global assessment. 779 Reference doses or concentrations for the different exposure pathways are still missing 780 especially for phthalates. Furthermore, since studies started adding the bioaccessibility values 781 to the calculations of the health risk, future studies should be focalized on the determination of 782 bioaccessibility values for different classes of compounds in particulate matter. Finally, future 783 toxicological studies should be focused on the evaluation of the cocktail effect between the 784 785 different classes of compounds. Such researches could contribute to the improvement of the 786 health risk assessment model for a better estimation of the cumulative cancer and non-cancer 787 risks, especially in population exposed to a mixture of contaminants.

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789 **Declarations**

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- 791 Conflicts of interest/Competing interests: the authors declare no conflict of interest or competiting interests
- Ethics approval: this work has not been published previously
- Consent to participate: not applicable

Funding: not applicable

- Consent for publication: All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.
- 797 Availability of data and material: not applicable
- 798 Code availability: not applicable
- 799 Authors' contributions:
- 800 Marc Fadel: Conceptualization, Writing Original Draft, Visualization
- 801 Charbel Afif: Conceptualization, Writing Review & Editing, Supervision
- 802 Dominque Courcot: Conceptualization,Writing Review & Editing, Supervision
- 803 Frédéric Ledoux: Conceptualization, Writing Review & Editing, Supervision
- 804

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