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Concentrations of "legacy" and novel brominated flame retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen and living room/bedroom dust

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DOI:

[10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.01.092](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.01.092)

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Document Version

Peer reviewed version

Citation for published version (Harvard):

Kuang, J, Ma, Y & Harrad, S 2016, 'Concentrations of "legacy" and novel brominated flame retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen and living room/bedroom dust', *Chemosphere*, vol. 149, pp. 224-230.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2016.01.092>

[Link to publication on Research at Birmingham portal](#)

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Checked Feb 2016

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Chemosphere

Elsevier Editorial System(tm) for

Manuscript Draft

Manuscript Number: CHEM39301R1

Title: Concentrations of "Legacy" and Novel Brominated Flame Retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen and living room/bedroom dust

Article Type: Research paper

Section/Category: Environmental Chemistry (including Persistent Organic Pollutants and Dioxins)

Keywords: Brominated flame retardant; dust; kitchen; living room; bedroom

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Corresponding Author's Institution: University of Birmingham

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Cover Letter

21th Jan, 2016

Dear Dr. Myrto Petreas,

I am glad to receive the comments from the reviewers who have presented nice comments and suggestions to help improve the manuscript. All of the reviewers' comments have been responded point-by-point in the following pages. All modifications are shown in the annotated version of the revised manuscript by using track changes mode. The publication-ready version of the revised manuscript is also uploaded. I hope these modifications will make the manuscript suitable for publication in your journal.

I am very grateful to the reviewers for their attentive and detailed comments. I am also very grateful for your great time and effort for my manuscript!

If you have any question, do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely yours

Jiangmeng Kuang

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Response to comments to CHEM39301

Editor comments:

Both reviewers are in favor of a publication and I concurred that a minor revision from your part is necessary before a final decision. In particular, please provide more information on analytical methods and QC and explore the suggestion to present ratios of concentrations in different rooms.

Response:

Dear Editor,

Thank you very much for your comments on our manuscript entitled "Concentrations of "Legacy" and Novel Brominated Flame Retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen and living room/bedroom dust". We have made corresponding changes to it according to the comments from reviewers which we found to be very constructive. More information on analytical methods and QC are provided in the response, and concentration ratios in different rooms are presented in the revised version.

Comments of Reviewer #1

General Remark

The Manuscript "Concentrations of "Legacy" and Novel Brominated Flame Retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen and living room/bedroom dust" was well written and I would recommend for publication.

Response:

Thank you very much for your recommendation. We have carefully considered your comments and have revised the manuscript accordingly.

Specific Comments

(1) Some details should be given about the vacuumed area (m^2) and the sampling time

Response: Vacuuming area and time is added in the manuscript, with the reader referred to further details about sampling in our previously published paper (Harrad et al., 2008).

(2) a. Was any EPA standard method followed regarding analytical condition on GCMS?

- b. Were all the measured areas within the range of calibration curve?
- c. The results have been corrected for recoveries?
- d. Was the calibration level based on average RF, linear curve, other?
- e. Was there more than one level in calibration curve?

Response: Thanks for this comment. Our responses to each of the sub-points follow:

- a. We have not used a EPA standard method for the determination of PBDEs and NBFs, and instead have used an in-house method.
- b. In our method, the calibration range (20-1000 pg/ μ L) corresponds to a concentration range of 40-2000 ng/g in dust. This covers most data points, except for some extremely high concentrations of BDE-209, and some very low concentrations. As these outliers are very rare, we believe our method is fit-for-purpose.
- c. As we use internal standards to calculate the concentration, the results are inherently corrected for recovery.
- d. We prepared a 5-point calibration curve ranging from 20 pg/ μ L to 1000 pg/ μ L of native standards (together with 200 pg/ μ L of all internal and recovery determination standards in each) at the beginning of analysis to calculate the relative response factor (RRF). On a day-to-day basis, we conduct continuing calibration using a single calibration point (500 pg/ μ L native standards) run at the start and end of each sample batch. Quantification of samples in that batch is made using the average of the RRFs obtained for the two continuing calibration standards. As a QA/QC check, the RRFs obtained from each continuing calibration must fall within $\pm 25\%$ of the RRFs obtained in the initial 5-point calibration. If this criterion is not met, then a new full 5-point calibration must be run.
- e. See our response to point d above.

(3)Please change chapter 3.2 format between right-aligned and left-aligned

Response: Thanks very much. We have revised this.

Reference

Harrad, S., Ibarra, C., Abdallah, M.A.-E., Boon, R., Neels, H., Covaci, A., 2008. Concentrations of brominated flame retardants in dust from United Kingdom cars, homes, and offices: Causes of variability and implications for human exposure. *Environment International* 34,

Comments of Reviewer #2

General Remark

This manuscript reported the concentrations of "legacy" and novel brominated flame retardants (BFRs) in matched samples of UK kitchen and living room/bedroom dust. The temporal trend of BFRs and the difference between different microenvironment in house was investigated. This is a first study the contamination of BFRs in kitchen and the data of the present study is also valuable for us to further understand the indoor pollution and human exposure. This is a well-written paper containing interesting results which merit publication. A few minor revision are list below.

Response:

Thank you very much for your recommendation. We have carefully considered your comments and have revised the manuscript accordingly.

Specific Comments

(1) A comparison between the present study and previous studies was conducted twice, respectively in first section (Line 221-Line227) and the second section (3.2). What's the different between these two comparisons?

Response: Thanks very much for this comment. The comparison in the first section is intended to place our data in a general global context, as it compares median concentrations of kitchen and living room/bed room in this study with median concentrations reported in 25 previous studies. In these 25 previous studies, dust was not only collected from living rooms, but also from offices, classrooms, cars, airplanes, gyms etc. Also, these studies were not limited to the UK.

In contrast, the comparison in section 3.2 is specifically focused on testing the hypothesis that recent restrictions on PBDE manufacture and use have led to a decrease in PBDE concentrations and an increase in potential replacement NBFRs. To do so, it compares concentrations of target BFRs in living room/bedroom in this study with those reported in a previous study which investigated the same BFRs in living room dust from the same area of the UK taken a number of years previously.

(2) Line 16: "BDE-99 (2.6-1440 ng/g)" change to "BDE-99 (2.6-1,440 ng/g)" to consistent with others.

Response: Thanks. The text is revised accordingly.

(3) Line 18-20: "The concentrations in living rooms/bedrooms are at the lower end of those reported in previous UK studies." This conclusion is inaccurate. In fact, only some of the target exhibited lower levels than those in previous studies. As shown in figure 2 (Line 236-238), median levels of 9 out of 16 target BFRs in dust from living rooms/bedrooms in this study are comparable or higher than those reported in previous UK studies. Moreover, this statement is inconsistent with the conclusion in Line 345-346 "Concentrations of 16 BFRs in dust from living rooms/bedrooms and kitchens from 30 UK homes are moderate compared with previous studies."

Response: Thank you very much to point this out. We revised the text in line 18-20 to "The concentrations in kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms are moderate compared with previous studies" so now it is consistent with experimental results and context.

(4) There were several written forms for PBDE congener, please unify the writing of PBDEs. For examples: "BDE-28, 47, 99, 100, 153, 154, 183 and 209" (line 109-110); "especially for BDEs-47, -154 and -153" (line 223).

Response: Thanks. We've unified this in the revised version.

(5) Line 45: Please unify the writing of "hexabromocyclododecane (HBCDD)".

Response: Thanks for this comment. The writing of HBCDD has been unified.

(6) Line 229-232 (Table 1): I would advise the authors included the ratios of concentrations of BFR in matched kitchen/living room (bedroom) dust, which make it more intuitive to compare the levels between these two microenvironments.

Response: Thanks for this advice. K/L ratios have been added in the revised version.

1 **Concentrations of “Legacy” and Novel Brominated**
2 **Flame Retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen**
3 **and living room/bedroom dust**

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9

10 Abstract

11 Concentrations of polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs),
12 hexabromocyclododecanes (HBCDDs) and 5 novel brominated flame retardants
13 (NBFRs) were measured in paired samples of kitchen and living room/bedroom dust
14 sampled in 2015 from 30 UK homes. BDE-209 was most abundant (22–170,000 ng/g),
15 followed by γ -HBCDD (1.7–21,000 ng/g), α -HBCDD (5.2–4,900 ng/g), β -HBCDD
16 (2.3–1,600 ng/g), BDE-99 (2.6–1,440 ng/g), BDE-47 (0.4–940 ng/g),
17 decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE) (nd-680 ng/g) and
18 bis(2-ethylhexyl)-3,4,5,6-tetrabromo-phthalate (BEH-TEBP) (2.7-630 ng/g). The
19 concentrations in kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms are moderate compared with
20 previous studies. at the lower end of those reported in previous UK studies.
21 Concentrations of BDE-209 in living room/bedroom dust were significantly lower and
22 those of DBDPE significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) compared to concentrations recorded in
23 UK house dust in 2006 and 2007. This may reflect changes in UK usage of these
24 BFRs. All target BFRs were present at higher concentrations in living
25 rooms/bedrooms than kitchens. With the exception of BDE-28,
26 pentabromoethylbenzene (PBEB) and DBDPE, these differences were significant
27 ($p < 0.05$). No specific source was found that could account for the higher
28 concentrations in living rooms/bedrooms.

29

30 **Keywords**

31 Brominated flame retardant; dust; kitchen; living room; bedroom

32 **Highlights**

- 33 • First report of BFRs in domestic kitchen dust
- 34 • Levels of most BFRs significantly lower in kitchen than living room/bedroom
35 dust
- 36 • Lower levels in kitchens may be due to more frequent cleaning and fewer BFR
37 sources
- 38 • BDE-209 and DBDPE in house dust respectively decreased and increased since
39 2006-07

40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 In order to comply with flame retardancy regulations in many jurisdictions, flame
43 retardants (FRs) are widely added to textiles, plastics and building materials. At the
44 current time, brominated flame retardants (BFRs) remain the most widely used class
45 of FRs across the world, including: polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs),
46 hexabromocyclododecane_s (HBCDD_s), tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA),
47 decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE) and 1,2-bis(2,4,6-tribromophenoxy)ethane
48 (BTBPE) (Alaee et al., 2003; Covaci et al., 2011). To date, a number of studies have
49 reported potential adverse human health impacts for some BFRs, including thyroid
50 toxicity (Meerts et al., 2000), neurotoxicity (Dingemans et al., 2011), reproductive
51 toxicity (Meeker et al., 2009) and carcinogenicity (Darnerud, 2003). In addition,
52 BFRs like PBDEs and HBCDD_s are persistent, bioaccumulative and capable of
53 undergoing long range environmental transport (Dickhut et al., 2012; Marvin et al.,
54 2011; Wu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2013). Owing to emissions from
55 the myriad range of goods within which they have been incorporated, BFRs are
56 ubiquitous in the environment and have been detected in nearly all abiotic
57 environmental compartments (including water, air, soil, sediments, sewage sludge and
58 dust) (Besis and Samara, 2012; Cristale et al., 2013; Gorga et al., 2013; Luo et al.,
59 2013; Zhu et al., 2008). Such contamination has led to the widespread presence of

60 BFRs in biota such as insects, birds and mammals (Gaylor et al., 2012; Guo et al.,
61 2012; Jorundsdottir et al., 2013), as well as human tissues like hair, breast milk and
62 blood serum (Aleksa et al., 2012; Kim and Oh, 2014; Lee et al., 2013; Sjödin et al.,
63 2013; Tang et al., 2013).

64

65 | Current understanding is that human exposure to PBDEs and HBCDD_s occurs via a
66 combination of diet, indoor dust ingestion, dermal exposure, and inhalation of (largely
67 indoor) air (Abdallah et al., 2008; Besis and Samara, 2012; Daso et al., 2010;
68 Johnson-Restrepo and Kannan, 2009; Trudel et al., 2011). The suspected ecological
69 and human health risks of BFRs have driven international regulation of production
70 and use of some. Specifically, the commercial Penta- and Octa-BDE formulations
71 have been banned worldwide and listed under the UNEP Stockholm Convention on
72 persistent organic pollutants (POPs) since 2009 (Ashton et al., 2009). Moreover, the
73 commercial Deca-BDE formulation has also been restricted severely in Europe since
74 July 2008 (European Court of Justice, 2008), and is currently under active
75 | consideration for listing under the Stockholm Convention. In addition, HBCDD_s was
76 listed under Annex A of the Stockholm Convention in 2013 (Report of COP6,
77 | Stockholm Convention, 2013). Such restrictions and bans on PBDEs and HBCDD_s,
78 when coupled with the fixed or even increasing market demand for flame retardants is
79 inevitably leading to increased production of alternatives. While organophosphate
80 flame retardants (PFRs) are one alternative, others include the so-called “novel” BFRs

81 (NBFRs) such as: DBDPE, BTBPE, pentabromoethylbenzene (PBEB),
82 bis(2-ethylhexyl)-3,4,5,6-tetrabromo-phthalate (BEH-TEBP) and
83 2-ethylhexyl-2,3,4,5-tetrabromobenzoate (EH-TBB). However, despite their
84 perceived low cost and high performance, there exist substantial concerns about the
85 environmental impacts of these and other NBFRs. Combined with the substantial
86 remaining inventory of goods containing banned (or “legacy”) BFRs and their
87 persistence in the environment, this increased use of NBFRs means that
88 environmental concerns about BFRs will remain an important issue for a considerable
89 time.

90

91 With respect to the contamination of indoor dust with BFRs, most attention has been
92 paid to house dust, with offices, cars and schools also featuring in some studies
93 (Harrad et al., 2010). Within homes, the majority of studies have examined living
94 room dust, with a smaller proportion studying bedrooms. To our knowledge however,
95 no data exist about concentrations of BFRs in dust from domestic kitchens. This is a
96 surprising omission, given that people may spend a substantial proportion of time in
97 this microenvironment, and that kitchens contain a substantial number of goods such
98 as microwave ovens, dishwashers, food processors, fridges, and freezers etc. that
99 because their plastic components represent a fuel source in the event of fire, are likely
100 to be flame-retarded.

101

102 Given this background, the objectives of this study are: 1. to report for the first time
103 the concentrations of selected BFRs in kitchen dust; 2. to test the hypothesis that
104 concentrations of BFRs in domestic kitchen dust exceed those in dust sampled
105 simultaneously from other areas (living rooms/bedrooms) in the same houses, and 3.
106 to test the hypothesis that restrictions on PBDEs in the EU, have led to reductions in
107 concentrations of PBDEs in dust from UK living rooms, accompanied by concomitant
108 increases in concentrations of NBFRs.

109

110 | To achieve these objectives, we determined concentrations of 8 PBDEs (BDE_s-28, 47,
111 99, 100, 153, 154, 183 and 209), 5 NBFRs (PBEB, EH-TBB, BTBPE, BEH-TEBP
112 and DBDPE) and HBCDDs (α -, β -, γ -) in paired UK kitchen and living room (or
113 bedroom) dust samples taken from 30 homes in the UK West Midlands conurbation in
114 2015. Data from kitchens are compared with those from living rooms and bedrooms;
115 with those from living rooms/bedrooms in this study compared with those recorded in
116 an earlier study conducted by our research group of dust from living rooms sampled
117 in the UK West Midlands conurbation in 2006-07.

118 **2. Material and methods**

119 **2.1 Sampling**

120 In total, 30 homes from the West Midlands conurbation in the UK (of which

121 Birmingham is the main city) were sampled in 2015. For each home, a dust sample
122 from the kitchen floor was collected with a floor dust sample collected from the living
123 room in the same house for comparison. For the 11 homes in which the living room
124 and kitchen were in the same room, dust in the bedroom was collected instead. For
125 carpeted floor, dust was collected by vacuuming on a 1 m² area for 2 min.; while
126 for bare floors, the vacuuming area and time were 4 m² and 4 min, respectively. An
127 aliquot of 2-3 g pre-baked sodium sulfate was collected as field blank. More details
128 about ~~The~~ dust collection and storage protocols have been described in our previous
129 studies (Harrad et al., 2008). An aliquot of 2-3 g pre-baked sodium sulfate vacuumed
130 from a clean Al foil surface served ~~was collected~~ as a field blank.

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131 2.2 Chemicals

132 Native BDEs 77 and 128, ¹³C-BTBPE, ¹³C-BEH-TEBP, ¹³C-BDE-209 and ¹³C- α-, β-,
133 γ-HBCDDs were used as internal standards. All standards above were purchased from
134 Wellington Laboratories Inc. All solvents used (acetone, hexane, iso-octane and
135 methanol) were HPLC grade.

136 2.3 Clean-up

137 First, 50-100 mg dust was accurately weighed and spiked with 25 ng internal
138 (surrogate) standards. Hexane : acetone (3:1) (2 mL) was added to the sample, which
139 was vortexed for 60 seconds, sonicated for 5 min and centrifuged at 2000 g for 2 min.

140 After collecting the supernatant, the residues were subjected to the same extraction
141 process twice more. The combined supernatants were reduced in volume to ~ 2 mL
142 under a gentle stream of nitrogen gas, before mixing with 3-4 mL 98% sulfuric acid.
143 The mixture was then vortexed for 20 s followed by centrifugation at 2000 g for 5 min.
144 The supernatant was then collected. To ensure complete transfer, the residue was
145 rinsed with hexane (2 mL) three times. The combined supernatant was then reduced to
146 incipient dryness under a gentle stream of nitrogen gas. The final concentrate was
147 re-dissolved in 200 μ L iso-octane prior to analysis of PBDEs and NBFRs by GC-MS.
148 Following GC-MS analysis, solvent exchange from iso-octane to methanol was
149 conducted to facilitate determination of HBCDDs on LC-MS-MS.

150 **2.4 Analytical methods**

151 **2.4.1 GC-MS**

152 A Thermo Trace 1310 gas chromatography interfaced with an ISQ single quadrupole
153 MS equipped with a programmable-temperature vaporiser (PTV) was employed to
154 conduct the analysis under electron capture negative ionisation (ECNI) mode. Two μ L
155 of purified sample extract were injected on a Thermo TG-SQC column (15 m \times 0.25
156 mm \times 0.25 μ m). The injection temperature was set at 92 $^{\circ}$ C, held 0.04 min, ramp
157 700 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 295 $^{\circ}$ C. The GC temperature programme was initially 50 $^{\circ}$ C, held 0.50
158 min, ramp 20 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 240 $^{\circ}$ C, held 5 min, ramp 5 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 270 $^{\circ}$ C and then ramp
159 20 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 305 $^{\circ}$ C, held 16 min. Helium was used as a carrier gas with a flow rate

160 of 1.5 mL/min for the first 22.00 min, then ramp 1.0 mL/min² to 2.5 mL/min, hold
161 13.00 min. The mass spectrometer was employed in selected ion monitoring (SIM)
162 mode and the measured ions for each compound are listed in Table S1. Dwell times
163 for each ion were 30 ms. The ion source and transfer line temperatures were set at 300
164 and 320 °C, respectively and the electron multiplier voltage was at 1400 V. Methane
165 was used as reagent gas.

166

167 **2.4.2 LC-MS-MS**

168 A high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, LC-20AB, SHIMADZU)
169 followed by electrospray ionisation and tandem mass spectrometry (ESI-MS-MS, API
170 2000, AB Sciex) was employed to measure the concentration of HBCDDs in this
171 study. A Varian Pursuit XRS3 C18 analytical column (150 mm × 2 mm, 3 µm particle
172 size) was used as stationary phase, and the mobile phase was a mixture of 1:1 water
173 and methanol (phase A) and methanol (phase B). Elution started at 50 % phase B and
174 then increased linearly to 100 % over 4 min, held isocratically for 5 min and then
175 decreased to 65 % over 3 min, then returned to initial condition in 0.01 min and
176 maintained for column regeneration for another 4 min, resulting in a total run time of
177 16 min. The flow rate and injection volume were 0.15 mL/min and 20 µL,
178 respectively. The mass spectra were obtained in ESI (-) mode and data collected in
179 MRM mode, with the parent and daughter ions for each compound listed in Table S2.

180 **2.5 QA/QC**

181 As a QA/QC check, one aliquot of SRM2585 (organics in house dust, NIST) was
182 analysed for every 20 samples. Data obtained for these SRM analyses were very
183 reproducible and in good agreement with the certified values (Table S3). One field
184 blank was analysed every 10 samples. Most target compounds were not detected in
185 blanks, or were detected at levels equivalent to a concentration in dust of below 1 ng/g,
186 except BDE-209, which was detected in blanks at around 20 ng/g. Even for BDE-209,
187 concentrations in blanks were always less than 5% of the concentrations detected in
188 samples. Concentrations of each compound found in blanks are listed in Table S4 and
189 are subtracted from the results of samples before further analysis of the data. The
190 limits of detection for each target compound are listed in Table S5.

191 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

192 Statistical analysis of the data was conducted using Microsoft Excel 2013 to generate
193 descriptive statistics, with all other statistical procedures conducted using IBM SPSS
194 Statistics 19.0. As a first step, the distribution of concentrations of each compound
195 within the dataset for each microenvironment category was evaluated using a
196 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results of this test and visual inspection of frequency
197 diagrams together revealed both concentration and dust loading data in kitchen and
198 living room to be log-normally distributed. Hence, concentrations and dust loadings

199 were log-transformed before performing t test comparisons. In all instances, where
200 concentrations were below the detection limit, the concentration was assumed to equal
201 half of the detection limit.

202 **3. Results and discussion**

203 **3.1 Concentrations of BFRs**

204 Table 1 lists minimum, maximum, and median concentrations of target BFRs in both
205 kitchen and living room/bedroom dust in this study, while a boxplot (Figure 1)
206 illustrates the concentration range and profile of target BFRs in our samples. Based on
207 concentration range, the 16 BFRs targeted in this study may be categorised into three
208 groups. BDE-28, PBEB, BDE-100, EH-TBB, BDE-154, BDE-153, BDE-183 and
209 BTBPE belong to the first group, ranging from not detected to several tens ng/g with
210 median concentrations lower than 10 ng/g. The second group contains BDE-47,
211 BDE-99, BEH-TEBP, DBDPE and α -, β -, γ -HBCDDs, for which median
212 concentrations range from 10 ng/g to hundreds ng/g and concentrations range from
213 several ng/g to in excess of 1,000 ng/g. Finally, group 3 consists of BDE-209 only, for
214 which concentrations range from several tens ng/g to more than 100,000 ng/g with a
215 median value of nearly 1,000 ng/g. The concentration ranges and profiles obtained in
216 this study are broadly consistent with previous studies as shown in Figure 2. This
217 Figure plots median concentration values for exemplar previous studies (Abdallah et

218 al., 2008; Ali et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2012a; Ali et al., 2011; Ali et al., 2012b; Allen et
 219 al., 2013; Bjorklund et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2014; Carignan et al., 2013; Coakley et
 220 al., 2013; Dirtu et al., 2012; Dodson et al., 2012; Harrad and Abdallah, 2011; Harrad
 221 et al., 2008; Kalachova et al., 2012; Kang et al., 2011; Kefeni and Okonkwo, 2012;
 222 Nguyen Minh et al., 2013; Ni and Zeng, 2013; Shoeib et al., 2012; Stasinska et al.,
 223 2013; Tang et al., 2013; Thuresson et al., 2012; Vorkamp et al., 2011; Whitehead et al.,
 224 2013; Yu et al., 2012), alongside those detected in kitchen and living room/bedroom
 225 dust in this study (represented as red and black dots respectively). It can be seen that
 226 for most compounds, concentrations in this study are lower than previously reported,
 227 especially for BDEs-47, -154 and -153. This finding is not inconsistent with a
 228 reduction in the use of the Penta-BDE formulation since the early-mid-2000s. In
 229 contrast, concentrations of NBFRs, HBCDDs and BDE-209 recorded in this study are
 230 similar or even slightly higher than previously reported, which is consistent with the
 231 later introduction (or absence to date) of restrictions on use of these BFRs.

232
 233
 234
 235

~~Table 1 Maximum, minimum and median concentrations of target BFRs in dust from
 kitchens (K) and living rooms/bedrooms (L), ng/g~~

	Maximum		Minimum		Median	
	K	L	K	L	K	L
BDE-28	150	55	<0.2	<0.2	1.2	1.0

BDE-47	940	590	0.4	2.4	7.6	13
BDE-99	1400	930	2.6	4.0	17	33
BDE-100	320	140	<0.2	0.7	1.7	3.2
BDE-153	410	170	0.1	<0.4	1.7	1.9
BDE-154	180	60	<0.4	<0.4	0.4	0.7
BDE-183	29	120	<1.0	0.6	1.9	4.2
BDE-209	32000	170000	22	170	590	1500
PBEB	25	15	<0.2	<0.2	0.3	0.4
EH-TBB	290	450	<0.2	<0.2	4.1	12
BTBPE	10	97	<1.0	<1.0	1.2	4.5
BEH-TEBP	420	630	2.7	7.8	36	75
DBDPE	450	680	<9.2	21	74	120
α -HBCDD	3800	4900	5.2	75	110	280
β -HBCDD	1100	1600	2.3	6.4	29	67
γ -HBCDD	13000	21000	1.7	14	35	110

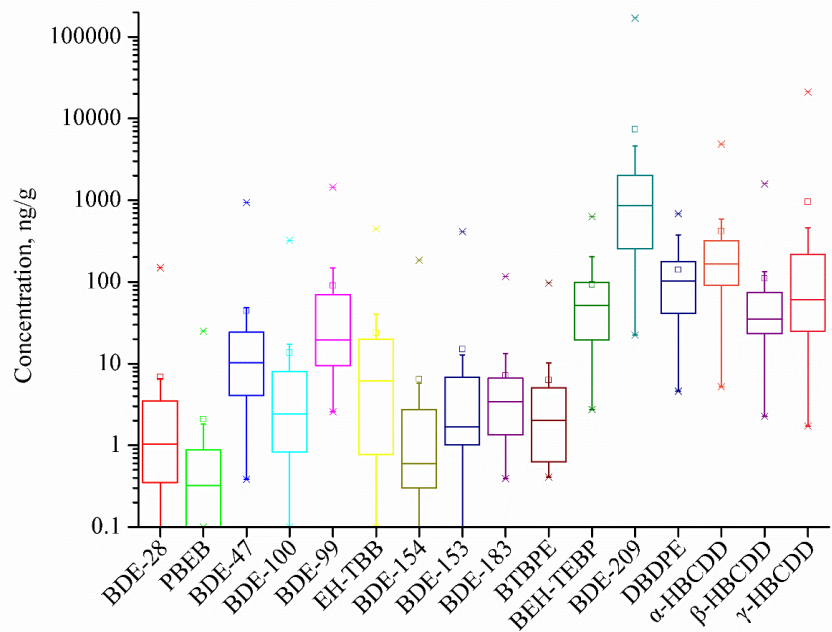
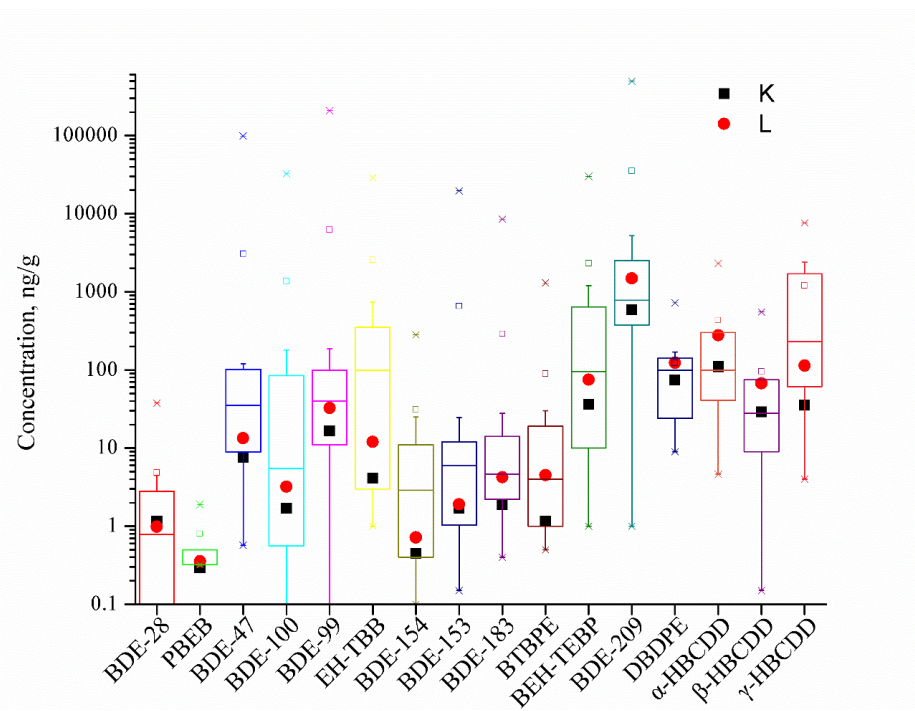


Figure 1 Concentration range of BFRs in this study



240

241

242

Figure 2 Median concentrations of target BFRs in this study (K, kitchen; L, living room/bedroom) compared to the range of medians reported in selected previous studies

243 **3.2 Is there evidence of temporal changes in BFR concentrations in**
244 **living room/bedroom dust following restrictions on PBDE use?**

245 To investigate the impact of recent restrictions on manufacture and use of PBDEs on
246 concentrations of PBDEs and potential replacement NBFRs in UK indoor dust, we
247 compared concentrations of individual PBDEs, BTBPE, and DBDPE in living room
248 and bedroom dust in our study, with those reported for 30 UK living room dust
249 samples collected between 2006 and 2007 (Harrad et al., 2008). Before doing so, we
250 first conducted a t-test comparison of log-transformed concentrations of our target
251 BFRs in our living room and bedroom dust samples to verify the validity of
252 aggregating these data in this context. This revealed no significant differences ($p>0.05$)
253 between concentrations in living room and bedroom dust for any of our target BFRs.
254 Consequently, we compared BFR concentrations in living room dust from 2006-07
255 with our combined data for living room and bedroom dust via a t test comparison of
256 log-transformed concentrations in the two temporally-distinct sample groups. This
257 revealed concentrations of most target BFRs to be statistically indistinguishable
258 ($p>0.05$) between the two time periods. However, concentrations of BDE-209 and
259 BDE-154 are significantly lower ($p<0.05$) and those of DBDPE and BDE-28
260 significantly higher ($p<0.05$) in this (later) study. While it is hard to rationalise the
261 opposite trends in BDEs-28 and -154, and acknowledging the small sample numbers
262 involved; the apparent decrease in concentrations of BDE-209, coupled with the

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263 corresponding increase of DBDPE, is not inconsistent with the 2008 introduction of
264 restrictions on use of Deca-BDE in the EU (European Court of Justice, 2008), and
265 reports that DBDPE is the main alternative to Deca-BDE (Covaci et al., 2011).

266 **3.3 Are concentrations of BFRs higher in kitchen than living** 267 **room/bedroom dust?**

268 To test our hypothesis that concentrations of BFRs in kitchen dust will exceed
269 significantly those in living area and bedroom dust from the same homes, we
270 conducted a paired t test comparison between concentrations of individual BFRs in
271 kitchen dust and those in living room and bedroom dust. This revealed concentrations
272 for all but BDE-28, PBEB, and DBDPE to be significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in living
273 room and bedroom dust compared to that from kitchens. Moreover, although not
274 significant ($p > 0.05$), a higher concentration was still observed for BDE-28, PBEB and
275 DBDPE in living room/bedroom dust compared to kitchen dust. The higher
276 concentrations observed in living rooms and bedrooms compared to the corresponding
277 kitchens are not attributable simply to the respective number of putative sources in the
278 two microenvironments. Kitchens in this study contained more potential sources, such
279 as: fridges, microwave oven, washing machines, ovens, toasters, and curtains etc. than
280 living rooms/bedrooms (which contained mainly carpets, TVs, computers, sofas, and
281 curtains). Instead, it is plausible that the goods present in kitchens are treated with
282 FRs other than the BFRs targeted in this study, in contrast to the goods found in living

283 rooms/bedrooms. As carpet was absent from all the kitchens in this study, while being
284 the most frequently reported putative source in living rooms/bedrooms (present in
285 21/30 of these microenvironments), we examined further whether the
286 presence/absence of carpets in this study could explain the differences between
287 kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms. To do so, we classified the 60 dust samples into
288 3 groups: i.e. kitchen samples (K), bare floor living room/bedroom samples (BL) and
289 carpeted living room/bedroom samples (CL) and subjected data on BFR
290 concentrations (in this instance not log-transformed) in samples in each of these
291 groups to a Kruskal-Wallis test. However, the mean ranks of BL and CL are very close
292 (Table 2) and both are much higher than those of kitchen samples for most
293 compounds. This result indicates that the presence of carpet does not significantly
294 influence the concentrations of our target BFRs in living room/bedroom dust. Hence,
295 the absence of carpet from kitchens does not account for the lower concentrations
296 compared to living rooms/bedrooms.

297
298 **Table 2 Mean ranks of BFR concentration in carpeted living room/bedroom (CL),-**
299 **bare floor living room/bedroom (BL) and kitchen (K) of Kruskal Wallis test**

	CL	BL	K
BDE-28	29.93	27.75	29.68
PBEB	30.45	33.38	27.83

BDE-100	35.83	34.88	23.85
EH-TBB	35.58	33.25	24.45
BDE-154	34.65	31.31	25.58
BDE-153	34.03	31.06	26.07
BDE-183	35.33	25.38	24.05
BTBPE	35.70	35.75	23.70
BDE-47	35.88	33.63	24.15
BDE-99	34.38	35.19	24.73
BEH-TEBP	37.67	33.25	23.05
DBDPE	34.20	28.75	26.57
α -HBCDD	36.80	34.94	23.18
β -HBCDD	36.33	37.44	22.83
γ -HBCDD	33.67	31.31	26.23
BDE-209	34.95	34.31	24.58

300

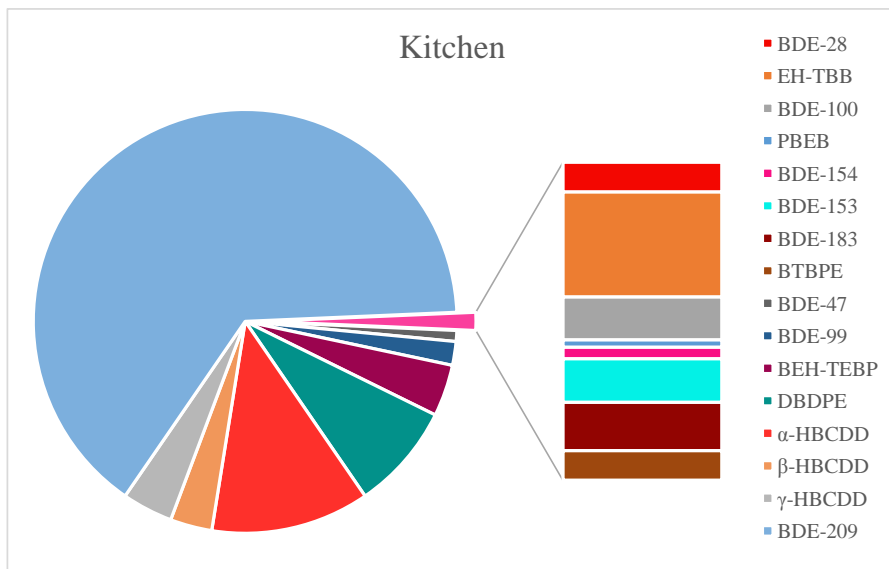
301 In summary, this study reveals no evidence that the presence of carpet can explain the
302 significantly elevated BFR concentrations in living room/bedroom dust compared to
303 kitchen dust. We therefore investigated the reasons driving this difference further, by
304 comparing the BFR profile in these two microenvironment categories. Figure 3 is
305 drawn based on the median value of each compound from which it can be found that
306 the composition profiles of kitchen and living room/bedroom dust are similar. To

307 further confirm this, we carried out a Wilcoxon test to compare the mass percentage of
308 each compound in living room/bedroom and kitchen dust. To minimise the
309 overwhelming impact of dominant components such as BDE-209, all target
310 compounds were classified into three groups according to their concentration level as
311 described in section 2.1. At the group level, the relative abundance of groups 1, 2, and
312 BDE-209 were not significantly different between kitchen and living room/bedroom
313 dust. Next, the percentage of each compound was calculated based on the total
314 concentration of the group to which it was assigned. This approach revealed a
315 significantly higher proportion ($p=0.001$) of BDE-28 in kitchens but higher
316 proportions of BTBPE ($p=0.022$) and α -HBCDD ($p=0.035$) in living rooms/bedrooms.
317 The proportion of β -HBCDD was also lower in kitchens, but at a significance level of
318 $p=0.056$. However, no significant difference was observed for γ -HBCDD ($p=0.600$).
319 Notwithstanding these differences in the relative abundances of a small number of our
320 target BFRs, there appears no clear evidence of major differences between the BFR
321 profiles in kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms, which suggests that there are no
322 major differences in source types between these two microenvironment categories.

323

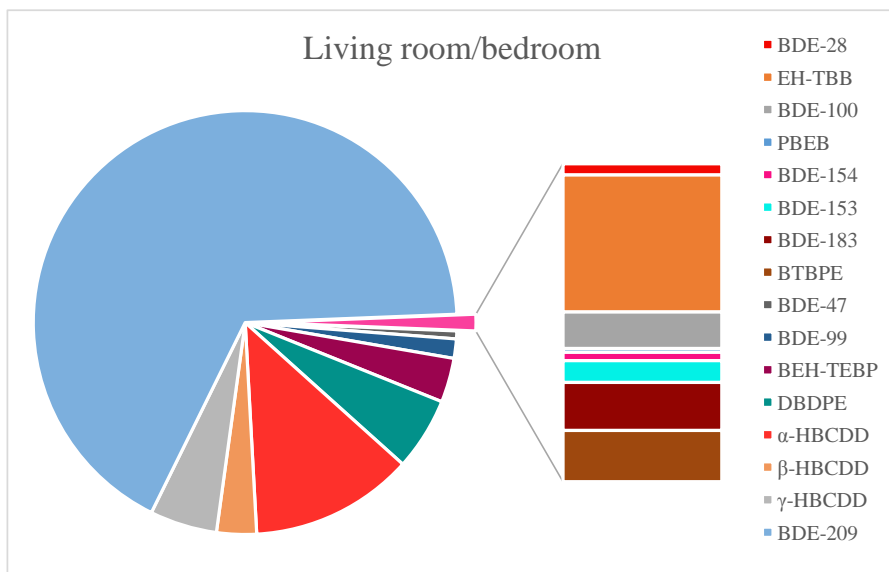
324

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(a)

328
329
330



(b)

331 **Figure 3 Median BFR compositions in dust from kitchens (a) and living-**
332 **rooms/bedrooms (b)**

333

334 As no specific source was identified as responsible for the higher BFR concentrations
335 in dust from living rooms/bedrooms compared to those in kitchen dust, we propose
336 instead that the cause is a generally higher BFR emission rate in living
337 rooms/bedrooms. Although kitchens contain more putative sources, the rate at which
338 BFRs may be emitted from these are influenced by factors such as material, volume
339 and BFR content of sources, which can combine to obscure clear relationships
340 between BFR contamination of dust and putative source counts. Moreover, our study
341 only monitors a selection of BFRs, so it is possible that some FRs not targeted in our
342 study are used in kitchen appliances. Further studies will be carried out to test this
343 hypothesis. Another potential contributory factor may be that given the greater use of
344 water for cleaning and cooking in kitchens, it is reasonable to assume that kitchens are
345 more humid than living rooms/bedrooms. This may lead to greater water content on
346 the surface of kitchen dust that may impede the sorption of BFRs from air.

347

348 **4. Conclusions**

349 Concentrations of 16 BFRs in dust from living rooms/bedrooms and kitchens from 30
350 UK homes are moderate compared with previous studies. Comparison of data for
351 living rooms/bedrooms in this study with previous data for living room dust from the

352 same region of the UK in 2006-07, reveals concentrations of BDE-209 to have fallen
353 significantly, while concentrations of DBDPE have risen. Concentrations of 13 out of
354 our 16 target BFRs in kitchen dust are exceeded significantly by those in living
355 room/bedroom dust. Comparison of BFR patterns in both microenvironment
356 categories suggests that the sources of our target BFRs are similar in both. The higher
357 concentrations in living rooms/bedrooms may be due to a combination of factors such
358 as: an overall higher emission intensity of our target BFRs in living rooms and
359 bedrooms, lower uptake of BFRs by dust in kitchens due to the higher humidity, and
360 that kitchen appliances contain FRs different to those in living rooms/bedrooms and
361 that are targeted in this study.

362

363 **Acknowledgements**

364 Jiangmeng Kuang is supported by a Li Siguang scholarship funded by the University
365 of Birmingham and the China Scholarship Council, with additional funding from the
366 Food Standards Agency (Project Reference FS410016).

367

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- 556

Highlights

- First report of BFRs in domestic kitchen dust
- Levels of most BFRs significantly lower in kitchen than living room/bedroom dust
- Lower levels in kitchens may be due to more frequent cleaning and fewer BFR sources
- BDE-209 and DBDPE in house dust respectively decreased and increased since 2006-07



1 **Concentrations of “Legacy” and Novel Brominated**
2 **Flame Retardants in matched samples of UK kitchen**
3 **and living room/bedroom dust**

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8

9 Abstract

10 Concentrations of polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs),
11 hexabromocyclododecanes (HBCDDs) and 5 novel brominated flame retardants
12 (NBFRs) were measured in paired samples of kitchen and living room/bedroom dust
13 sampled in 2015 from 30 UK homes. BDE-209 was most abundant (22–170,000 ng/g),
14 followed by γ -HBCDD (1.7–21,000 ng/g), α -HBCDD (5.2–4,900 ng/g), β -HBCDD
15 (2.3–1,600 ng/g), BDE-99 (2.6–1,440 ng/g), BDE-47 (0.4–940 ng/g),
16 decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE) (nd–680 ng/g) and
17 bis(2-ethylhexyl)-3,4,5,6-tetrabromo-phthalate (BEH-TEBP) (2.7–630 ng/g). The
18 concentrations in kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms are moderate compared with
19 previous studies. Concentrations of BDE-209 in living room/bedroom dust were
20 significantly lower and those of DBDPE significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) compared to
21 concentrations recorded in UK house dust in 2006 and 2007. This may reflect changes
22 in UK usage of these BFRs. All target BFRs were present at higher concentrations in
23 living rooms/bedrooms than kitchens. With the exception of BDE-28,
24 pentabromoethylbenzene (PBEB) and DBDPE, these differences were significant
25 ($p < 0.05$). No specific source was found that could account for the higher
26 concentrations in living rooms/bedrooms.

27

28 **Keywords**

29 Brominated flame retardant; dust; kitchen; living room; bedroom

30 **Highlights**

- 31 • First report of BFRs in domestic kitchen dust
- 32 • Levels of most BFRs significantly lower in kitchen than living room/bedroom
- 33 dust
- 34 • Lower levels in kitchens may be due to more frequent cleaning and fewer BFR
- 35 sources
- 36 • BDE-209 and DBDPE in house dust respectively decreased and increased since
- 37 2006-07

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 In order to comply with flame retardancy regulations in many jurisdictions, flame
41 retardants (FRs) are widely added to textiles, plastics and building materials. At the
42 current time, brominated flame retardants (BFRs) remain the most widely used class
43 of FRs across the world, including: polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs),
44 hexabromocyclododecanes (HBCDDs), tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA),
45 decabromodiphenyl ethane (DBDPE) and 1,2-bis(2,4,6-tribromophenoxy)ethane
46 (BTBPE) (Alaee et al., 2003; Covaci et al., 2011). To date, a number of studies have
47 reported potential adverse human health impacts for some BFRs, including thyroid
48 toxicity (Meerts et al., 2000), neurotoxicity (Dingemans et al., 2011), reproductive
49 toxicity (Meeker et al., 2009) and carcinogenicity (Darnerud, 2003). In addition,
50 BFRs like PBDEs and HBCDDs are persistent, bioaccumulative and capable of
51 undergoing long range environmental transport (Dickhut et al., 2012; Marvin et al.,
52 2011; Wu et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2013). Owing to emissions from
53 the myriad range of goods within which they have been incorporated, BFRs are
54 ubiquitous in the environment and have been detected in nearly all abiotic
55 environmental compartments (including water, air, soil, sediments, sewage sludge and
56 dust) (Besis and Samara, 2012; Cristale et al., 2013; Gorga et al., 2013; Luo et al.,
57 2013; Zhu et al., 2008). Such contamination has led to the widespread presence of

58 BFRs in biota such as insects, birds and mammals (Gaylor et al., 2012; Guo et al.,
59 2012; Jorundsdottir et al., 2013), as well as human tissues like hair, breast milk and
60 blood serum (Aleksa et al., 2012; Kim and Oh, 2014; Lee et al., 2013; Sjödin et al.,
61 2013; Tang et al., 2013).

62

63 Current understanding is that human exposure to PBDEs and HBCDDs occurs via a
64 combination of diet, indoor dust ingestion, dermal exposure, and inhalation of (largely
65 indoor) air (Abdallah et al., 2008; Besis and Samara, 2012; Daso et al., 2010;
66 Johnson-Restrepo and Kannan, 2009; Trudel et al., 2011). The suspected ecological
67 and human health risks of BFRs have driven international regulation of production
68 and use of some. Specifically, the commercial Penta- and Octa-BDE formulations
69 have been banned worldwide and listed under the UNEP Stockholm Convention on
70 persistent organic pollutants (POPs) since 2009 (Ashton et al., 2009). Moreover, the
71 commercial Deca-BDE formulation has also been restricted severely in Europe since
72 July 2008 (European Court of Justice, 2008), and is currently under active
73 consideration for listing under the Stockholm Convention. In addition, HBCDDs was
74 listed under Annex A of the Stockholm Convention in 2013 (Report of COP6,
75 Stockholm Convention, 2013). Such restrictions and bans on PBDEs and HBCDDs,
76 when coupled with the fixed or even increasing market demand for flame retardants is
77 inevitably leading to increased production of alternatives. While organophosphate
78 flame retardants (PFRs) are one alternative, others include the so-called “novel” BFRs

79 (NBFRs) such as: DBDPE, BTBPE, pentabromoethylbenzene (PBEB),
80 bis(2-ethylhexyl)-3,4,5,6-tetrabromo-phthalate (BEH-TEBP) and
81 2-ethylhexyl-2,3,4,5-tetrabromobenzoate (EH-TBB). However, despite their perceived
82 low cost and high performance, there exist substantial concerns about the
83 environmental impacts of these and other NBFRs. Combined with the substantial
84 remaining inventory of goods containing banned (or “legacy”) BFRs and their
85 persistence in the environment, this increased use of NBFRs means that
86 environmental concerns about BFRs will remain an important issue for a considerable
87 time.

88

89 With respect to the contamination of indoor dust with BFRs, most attention has been
90 paid to house dust, with offices, cars and schools also featuring in some studies
91 (Harrad et al., 2010). Within homes, the majority of studies have examined living
92 room dust, with a smaller proportion studying bedrooms. To our knowledge however,
93 no data exist about concentrations of BFRs in dust from domestic kitchens. This is a
94 surprising omission, given that people may spend a substantial proportion of time in
95 this microenvironment, and that kitchens contain a substantial number of goods such
96 as microwave ovens, dishwashers, food processors, fridges, and freezers etc. that
97 because their plastic components represent a fuel source in the event of fire, are likely
98 to be flame-retarded.

99

100 Given this background, the objectives of this study are: 1. to report for the first time
101 the concentrations of selected BFRs in kitchen dust; 2. to test the hypothesis that
102 concentrations of BFRs in domestic kitchen dust exceed those in dust sampled
103 simultaneously from other areas (living rooms/bedrooms) in the same houses, and 3.
104 to test the hypothesis that restrictions on PBDEs in the EU, have led to reductions in
105 concentrations of PBDEs in dust from UK living rooms, accompanied by concomitant
106 increases in concentrations of NBFRs.

107

108 To achieve these objectives, we determined concentrations of 8 PBDEs (BDEs-28, 47,
109 99, 100, 153, 154, 183 and 209), 5 NBFRs (PBEB, EH-TBB, BTBPE, BEH-TEBP
110 and DBDPE) and HBCDDs (α -, β -, γ -) in paired UK kitchen and living room (or
111 bedroom) dust samples taken from 30 homes in the UK West Midlands conurbation in
112 2015. Data from kitchens are compared with those from living rooms and bedrooms;
113 with those from living rooms/bedrooms in this study compared with those recorded in
114 an earlier study conducted by our research group of dust from living rooms sampled
115 in the UK West Midlands conurbation in 2006-07.

116 **2. Material and methods**

117 **2.1 Sampling**

118 In total, 30 homes from the West Midlands conurbation in the UK (of which

119 Birmingham is the main city) were sampled in 2015. For each home, a dust sample
120 from the kitchen floor was collected with a floor dust sample collected from the living
121 room in the same house for comparison. For the 11 homes in which the living room
122 and kitchen were in the same room, dust in the bedroom was collected instead. For
123 carpeted floor, dust was collected by vacuuming a 1 m² area for 2 min; while for bare
124 floors, the vacuuming area and time were 4 m² and 4 min, respectively. More details
125 about dust collection and storage protocols have been described in our previous
126 studies (Harrad et al., 2008). An aliquot of 2-3 g pre-baked sodium sulfate vacuumed
127 from a clean Al foil surface served as a field blank.

128 **2.2 Chemicals**

129 Native BDEs 77 and 128, ¹³C-BTBPE, ¹³C-BEH-TEBP, ¹³C-BDE-209 and ¹³C- α-, β-,
130 γ-HBCDDs were used as internal standards. All standards above were purchased from
131 Wellington Laboratories Inc. All solvents used (acetone, hexane, iso-octane and
132 methanol) were HPLC grade.

133 **2.3 Clean-up**

134 First, 50-100 mg dust was accurately weighed and spiked with 25 ng internal
135 (surrogate) standards. Hexane : acetone (3:1) (2 mL) was added to the sample, which
136 was vortexed for 60 seconds, sonicated for 5 min and centrifuged at 2000 g for 2 min.
137 After collecting the supernatant, the residues were subjected to the same extraction

138 process twice more. The combined supernatants were reduced in volume to ~ 2 mL
139 under a gentle stream of nitrogen gas, before mixing with 3-4 mL 98% sulfuric acid.
140 The mixture was then vortexed for 20 s followed by centrifugation at 2000 g for 5 min.
141 The supernatant was then collected. To ensure complete transfer, the residue was
142 rinsed with hexane (2 mL) three times. The combined supernatant was then reduced to
143 incipient dryness under a gentle stream of nitrogen gas. The final concentrate was
144 re-dissolved in 200 μ L iso-octane prior to analysis of PBDEs and NBRs by GC-MS.
145 Following GC-MS analysis, solvent exchange from iso-octane to methanol was
146 conducted to facilitate determination of HBCDDs on LC-MS-MS.

147 **2.4 Analytical methods**

148 **2.4.1 GC-MS**

149 A Thermo Trace 1310 gas chromatography interfaced with an ISQ single quadrupole
150 MS equipped with a programmable-temperature vaporiser (PTV) was employed to
151 conduct the analysis under electron capture negative ionisation (ECNI) mode. Two μ L
152 of purified sample extract were injected on a Thermo TG-SQC column (15 m \times 0.25
153 mm \times 0.25 μ m). The injection temperature was set at 92 $^{\circ}$ C, held 0.04 min, ramp
154 700 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 295 $^{\circ}$ C. The GC temperature programme was initially 50 $^{\circ}$ C, held 0.50
155 min, ramp 20 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 240 $^{\circ}$ C, held 5 min, ramp 5 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 270 $^{\circ}$ C and then ramp
156 20 $^{\circ}$ C/min to 305 $^{\circ}$ C, held 16 min. Helium was used as a carrier gas with a flow rate
157 of 1.5 mL/min for the first 22.00 min, then ramp 1.0 mL/min² to 2.5 mL/min, hold

158 13.00 min. The mass spectrometer was employed in selected ion monitoring (SIM)
159 mode and the measured ions for each compound are listed in Table S1. Dwell times
160 for each ion were 30 ms. The ion source and transfer line temperatures were set at 300
161 and 320 °C, respectively and the electron multiplier voltage was at 1400 V. Methane
162 was used as reagent gas.

163

164 **2.4.2 LC-MS-MS**

165 A high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC, LC-20AB, SHIMADZU)
166 followed by electrospray ionisation and tandem mass spectrometry (ESI-MS-MS, API
167 2000, AB Sciex) was employed to measure the concentration of HBCDDs in this
168 study. A Varian Pursuit XRS3 C18 analytical column (150 mm × 2 mm, 3 µm particle
169 size) was used as stationary phase, and the mobile phase was a mixture of 1:1 water
170 and methanol (phase A) and methanol (phase B). Elution started at 50 % phase B and
171 then increased linearly to 100 % over 4 min, held isocratically for 5 min and then
172 decreased to 65 % over 3 min, then returned to initial condition in 0.01 min and
173 maintained for column regeneration for another 4 min, resulting in a total run time of
174 16 min. The flow rate and injection volume were 0.15 mL/min and 20 µL,
175 respectively. The mass spectra were obtained in ESI (-) mode and data collected in
176 MRM mode, with the parent and daughter ions for each compound listed in Table S2.

177 **2.5 QA/QC**

178 As a QA/QC check, one aliquot of SRM2585 (organics in house dust, NIST) was
179 analysed for every 20 samples. Data obtained for these SRM analyses were very
180 reproducible and in good agreement with the certified values (Table S3). One field
181 blank was analysed every 10 samples. Most target compounds were not detected in
182 blanks, or were detected at levels equivalent to a concentration in dust of below 1 ng/g,
183 except BDE-209, which was detected in blanks at around 20 ng/g. Even for BDE-209,
184 concentrations in blanks were always less than 5% of the concentrations detected in
185 samples. Concentrations of each compound found in blanks are listed in Table S4 and
186 are subtracted from the results of samples before further analysis of the data. The
187 limits of detection for each target compound are listed in Table S5.

188 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

189 Statistical analysis of the data was conducted using Microsoft Excel 2013 to generate
190 descriptive statistics, with all other statistical procedures conducted using IBM SPSS
191 Statistics 19.0. As a first step, the distribution of concentrations of each compound
192 within the dataset for each microenvironment category was evaluated using a
193 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results of this test and visual inspection of frequency
194 diagrams together revealed both concentration and dust loading data in kitchen and
195 living room to be log-normally distributed. Hence, concentrations and dust loadings

196 were log-transformed before performing t test comparisons. In all instances, where
197 concentrations were below the detection limit, the concentration was assumed to equal
198 half of the detection limit.

199 **3. Results and discussion**

200 **3.1 Concentrations of BFRs**

201 Table 1 lists minimum, maximum, and median concentrations of target BFRs in both
202 kitchen and living room/bedroom dust in this study, while a boxplot (Figure 1)
203 illustrates the concentration range and profile of target BFRs in our samples. Based on
204 concentration range, the 16 BFRs targeted in this study may be categorised into three
205 groups. BDE-28, PBEB, BDE-100, EH-TBB, BDE-154, BDE-153, BDE-183 and
206 BTBPE belong to the first group, ranging from not detected to several tens ng/g with
207 median concentrations lower than 10 ng/g. The second group contains BDE-47,
208 BDE-99, BEH-TEBP, DBDPE and α -, β -, γ -HBCDDs, for which median
209 concentrations range from 10 ng/g to hundreds ng/g and concentrations range from
210 several ng/g to in excess of 1,000 ng/g. Finally, group 3 consists of BDE-209 only, for
211 which concentrations range from several tens ng/g to more than 100,000 ng/g with a
212 median value of nearly 1,000 ng/g. The concentration ranges and profiles obtained in
213 this study are broadly consistent with previous studies as shown in Figure 2. This
214 Figure plots median concentration values for exemplar previous studies (Abdallah et

215 al., 2008; Ali et al., 2013; Ali et al., 2012a; Ali et al., 2011; Ali et al., 2012b; Allen et
216 al., 2013; Bjorklund et al., 2012; Brown et al., 2014; Carignan et al., 2013; Coakley et
217 al., 2013; Dirtu et al., 2012; Dodson et al., 2012; Harrad and Abdallah, 2011; Harrad
218 et al., 2008; Kalachova et al., 2012; Kang et al., 2011; Kefeni and Okonkwo, 2012;
219 Nguyen Minh et al., 2013; Ni and Zeng, 2013; Shoeib et al., 2012; Stasinska et al.,
220 2013; Tang et al., 2013; Thuresson et al., 2012; Vorkamp et al., 2011; Whitehead et al.,
221 2013; Yu et al., 2012), alongside those detected in kitchen and living room/bedroom
222 dust in this study (represented as red and black dots respectively). It can be seen that
223 for most compounds, concentrations in this study are lower than previously reported,
224 especially for BDEs-47, -154 and -153. This finding is not inconsistent with a
225 reduction in the use of the Penta-BDE formulation since the early-mid-2000s. In
226 contrast, concentrations of NBFRs, HBCDDs and BDE-209 recorded in this study are
227 similar or even slightly higher than previously reported, which is consistent with the
228 later introduction (or absence to date) of restrictions on use of these BFRs.

229

230 **3.2 Is there evidence of temporal changes in BFR concentrations in** 231 **living room/bedroom dust following restrictions on PBDE use?**

232 To investigate the impact of recent restrictions on manufacture and use of PBDEs on
233 concentrations of PBDEs and potential replacement NBFRs in UK indoor dust, we
234 compared concentrations of individual PBDEs, BTBPE, and DBDPE in living room

235 and bedroom dust in our study, with those reported for 30 UK living room dust
236 samples collected between 2006 and 2007 (Harrad et al., 2008). Before doing so, we
237 first conducted a t-test comparison of log-transformed concentrations of our target
238 BFRs in our living room and bedroom dust samples to verify the validity of
239 aggregating these data in this context. This revealed no significant differences ($p>0.05$)
240 between concentrations in living room and bedroom dust for any of our target BFRs.
241 Consequently, we compared BFR concentrations in living room dust from 2006-07
242 with our combined data for living room and bedroom dust via a t test comparison of
243 log-transformed concentrations in the two temporally-distinct sample groups. This
244 revealed concentrations of most target BFRs to be statistically indistinguishable
245 ($p>0.05$) between the two time periods. However, concentrations of BDE-209 and
246 BDE-154 are significantly lower ($p<0.05$) and those of DBDPE and BDE-28
247 significantly higher ($p<0.05$) in this (later) study. While it is hard to rationalise the
248 opposite trends in BDEs-28 and -154, and acknowledging the small sample numbers
249 involved; the apparent decrease in concentrations of BDE-209, coupled with the
250 corresponding increase of DBDPE, is not inconsistent with the 2008 introduction of
251 restrictions on use of Deca-BDE in the EU (European Court of Justice, 2008), and
252 reports that DBDPE is the main alternative to Deca-BDE (Covaci et al., 2011).

253 **3.3 Are concentrations of BFRs higher in kitchen than living**
254 **room/bedroom dust?**

255 To test our hypothesis that concentrations of BFRs in kitchen dust will exceed
256 significantly those in living area and bedroom dust from the same homes, we
257 conducted a paired t test comparison between concentrations of individual BFRs in
258 kitchen dust and those in living room and bedroom dust. This revealed concentrations
259 for all but BDE-28, PBEB, and DBDPE to be significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in living
260 room and bedroom dust compared to that from kitchens. Moreover, although not
261 significant ($p > 0.05$), a higher concentration was still observed for BDE-28, PBEB and
262 DBDPE in living room/bedroom dust compared to kitchen dust. The higher
263 concentrations observed in living rooms and bedrooms compared to the corresponding
264 kitchens are not attributable simply to the respective number of putative sources in the
265 two microenvironments. Kitchens in this study contained more potential sources, such
266 as: fridges, microwave oven, washing machines, ovens, toasters, and curtains etc. than
267 living rooms/bedrooms (which contained mainly carpets, TVs, computers, sofas, and
268 curtains). Instead, it is plausible that the goods present in kitchens are treated with
269 FRs other than the BFRs targeted in this study, in contrast to the goods found in living
270 rooms/bedrooms. As carpet was absent from all the kitchens in this study, while being
271 the most frequently reported putative source in living rooms/bedrooms (present in
272 21/30 of these microenvironments), we examined further whether the

273 presence/absence of carpets in this study could explain the differences between
274 kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms. To do so, we classified the 60 dust samples into
275 3 groups: i.e. kitchen samples (K), bare floor living room/bedroom samples (BL) and
276 carpeted living room/bedroom samples (CL) and subjected data on BFR
277 concentrations (in this instance not log-transformed) in samples in each of these
278 groups to a Kruskal-Wallis test. However, the mean ranks of BL and CL are very close
279 (Table 2) and both are much higher than those of kitchen samples for most
280 compounds. This result indicates that the presence of carpet does not significantly
281 influence the concentrations of our target BFRs in living room/bedroom dust. Hence,
282 the absence of carpet from kitchens does not account for the lower concentrations
283 compared to living rooms/bedrooms.

284

285 In summary, this study reveals no evidence that the presence of carpet can explain the
286 significantly elevated BFR concentrations in living room/bedroom dust compared to
287 kitchen dust. We therefore investigated the reasons driving this difference further, by
288 comparing the BFR profile in these two microenvironment categories. Figure 3 is
289 drawn based on the median value of each compound from which it can be found that
290 the composition profiles of kitchen and living room/bedroom dust are similar. To
291 further confirm this, we carried out a Wilcoxon test to compare the mass percentage of
292 each compound in living room/bedroom and kitchen dust. To minimise the
293 overwhelming impact of dominant components such as BDE-209, all target

294 compounds were classified into three groups according to their concentration level as
295 described in section 2.1. At the group level, the relative abundance of groups 1, 2, and
296 BDE-209 were not significantly different between kitchen and living room/bedroom
297 dust. Next, the percentage of each compound was calculated based on the total
298 concentration of the group to which it was assigned. This approach revealed a
299 significantly higher proportion ($p=0.001$) of BDE-28 in kitchens but higher
300 proportions of BTBPE ($p=0.022$) and α -HBCDD ($p=0.035$) in living rooms/bedrooms.
301 The proportion of β -HBCDD was also lower in kitchens, but at a significance level of
302 $p=0.056$. However, no significant difference was observed for γ -HBCDD ($p=0.600$).
303 Notwithstanding these differences in the relative abundances of a small number of our
304 target BFRs, there appears no clear evidence of major differences between the BFR
305 profiles in kitchens and living rooms/bedrooms, which suggests that there are no
306 major differences in source types between these two microenvironment categories.

307

308 As no specific source was identified as responsible for the higher BFR concentrations
309 in dust from living rooms/bedrooms compared to those in kitchen dust, we propose
310 instead that the cause is a generally higher BFR emission rate in living
311 rooms/bedrooms. Although kitchens contain more putative sources, the rate at which
312 BFRs may be emitted from these are influenced by factors such as material, volume
313 and BFR content of sources, which can combine to obscure clear relationships
314 between BFR contamination of dust and putative source counts. Moreover, our study

315 only monitors a selection of BFRs, so it is possible that some FRs not targeted in our
316 study are used in kitchen appliances. Further studies will be carried out to test this
317 hypothesis. Another potential contributory factor may be that given the greater use of
318 water for cleaning and cooking in kitchens, it is reasonable to assume that kitchens are
319 more humid than living rooms/bedrooms. This may lead to greater water content on
320 the surface of kitchen dust that may impede the sorption of BFRs from air.

321

322 **4. Conclusions**

323 Concentrations of 16 BFRs in dust from living rooms/bedrooms and kitchens from 30
324 UK homes are moderate compared with previous studies. Comparison of data for
325 living rooms/bedrooms in this study with previous data for living room dust from the
326 same region of the UK in 2006-07, reveals concentrations of BDE-209 to have fallen
327 significantly, while concentrations of DBDPE have risen. Concentrations of 13 out of
328 our 16 target BFRs in kitchen dust are exceeded significantly by those in living
329 room/bedroom dust. Comparison of BFR patterns in both microenvironment
330 categories suggests that the sources of our target BFRs are similar in both. The higher
331 concentrations in living rooms/bedrooms may be due to a combination of factors such
332 as: an overall higher emission intensity of our target BFRs in living rooms and
333 bedrooms, lower uptake of BFRs by dust in kitchens due to the higher humidity, and

334 that kitchen appliances contain FRs different to those in living rooms/bedrooms and
335 that are targeted in this study.

336

337 **Acknowledgements**

338 Jiangmeng Kuang is supported by a Li Siguang scholarship funded by the University
339 of Birmingham and the China Scholarship Council, with additional funding from the
340 Food Standards Agency (Project Reference FS410016).

341

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Table 1 Maximum (max), minimum (min) and median values of kitchen dust BFR concentration (K, ng/g), living room/bedroom dust BFR concentration (L, ng/g) and matched kitchen-living room/bedroom dust BFR concentration ratio (K/L)

	K			L			K/L		
	max	min	median	max	min	median	max	min	median
BDE-28	150	<0.2	1.2	55	<0.2	1.0	9.55	0.10	1.00
BDE-47	940	0.4	7.6	590	2.4	13	10.30	0.05	0.54
BDE-99	1400	2.6	17	930	4.0	33	15.37	0.06	0.46
BDE-100	320	<0.2	1.7	140	0.7	3.2	7.23	0.03	0.40
BDE-153	410	0.1	1.7	170	<0.4	1.9	10.02	0.01	0.58
BDE-154	180	<0.4	0.4	60	<0.4	0.7	8.64	0.03	0.52
BDE-183	29	<1.0	1.9	120	0.6	4.2	4.57	0.02	0.46
BDE-209	32000	22	590	170000	170	1500	3.92	0.03	0.33
PBEB	25	<0.2	0.3	15	<0.2	0.4	4.45	0.06	0.84
EH-TBB	290	<0.2	4.1	450	<0.2	12	2.85	0.01	0.37
BTBPE	10	<1.0	1.2	97	<1.0	4.5	5.29	0.02	0.44
BEH-TEBP	420	2.7	36	630	7.8	75	2.35	0.05	0.36
DBDPE	450	<9.2	74	680	21	120	12.09	0.03	0.72
α -HBCDD	3800	5.2	110	4900	75	280	2.88	0.05	0.37
β -HBCDD	1100	2.3	29	1600	6.4	67	1.86	0.08	0.41
γ -HBCDD	13000	1.7	35	21000	14	110	34.85	0.003	0.37

Table 2 Mean ranks of BFR concentration in carpeted living room/bedroom (CL), bare floor living room/bedroom (BL) and kitchen (K) of Kruskal-Wallis test

	CL	BL	K
BDE-28	29.93	27.75	29.68
PBEB	30.45	33.38	27.83
BDE-100	35.83	34.88	23.85
EH-TBB	35.58	33.25	24.45
BDE-154	34.65	31.31	25.58
BDE-153	34.03	31.06	26.07
BDE-183	35.33	25.38	24.05
BTBPE	35.70	35.75	23.70
BDE-47	35.88	33.63	24.15
BDE-99	34.38	35.19	24.73
BEH-TEBP	37.67	33.25	23.05
DBDPE	34.20	28.75	26.57
α -HBCDD	36.80	34.94	23.18
β -HBCDD	36.33	37.44	22.83
γ -HBCDD	33.67	31.31	26.23
BDE-209	34.95	34.31	24.58

Table 1 Maximum (max), minimum (min) and median values of kitchen dust BFR concentration (K, ng/g), living room/bedroom dust BFR concentration (L, ng/g) and matched kitchen-living room/bedroom dust BFR concentration ratio (K/L)

	K			L			K/L		
	max	min	median	max	min	median	max	min	median
BDE-28	150	<0.2	1.2	55	<0.2	1.0	9.55	0.10	1.00
BDE-47	940	0.4	7.6	590	2.4	13	10.30	0.05	0.54
BDE-99	1400	2.6	17	930	4.0	33	15.37	0.06	0.46
BDE-100	320	<0.2	1.7	140	0.7	3.2	7.23	0.03	0.40
BDE-153	410	0.1	1.7	170	<0.4	1.9	10.02	0.01	0.58
BDE-154	180	<0.4	0.4	60	<0.4	0.7	8.64	0.03	0.52
BDE-183	29	<1.0	1.9	120	0.6	4.2	4.57	0.02	0.46
BDE-209	32000	22	590	170000	170	1500	3.92	0.03	0.33
PBEB	25	<0.2	0.3	15	<0.2	0.4	4.45	0.06	0.84
EH-TBB	290	<0.2	4.1	450	<0.2	12	2.85	0.01	0.37
BTBPE	10	<1.0	1.2	97	<1.0	4.5	5.29	0.02	0.44
BEH-TEBP	420	2.7	36	630	7.8	75	2.35	0.05	0.36
DBDPE	450	<9.2	74	680	21	120	12.09	0.03	0.72
α -HBCDD	3800	5.2	110	4900	75	280	2.88	0.05	0.37
β -HBCDD	1100	2.3	29	1600	6.4	67	1.86	0.08	0.41
γ -HBCDD	13000	1.7	35	21000	14	110	34.85	0.003	0.37

Table 2 Mean ranks of BFR concentration in carpeted living room/bedroom (CL), bare floor living room/bedroom (BL) and kitchen (K) of Kruskal-Wallis test

	CL	BL	K
BDE-28	29.93	27.75	29.68
PBEB	30.45	33.38	27.83
BDE-100	35.83	34.88	23.85
EH-TBB	35.58	33.25	24.45
BDE-154	34.65	31.31	25.58
BDE-153	34.03	31.06	26.07
BDE-183	35.33	25.38	24.05
BTBPE	35.70	35.75	23.70
BDE-47	35.88	33.63	24.15
BDE-99	34.38	35.19	24.73
BEH-TEBP	37.67	33.25	23.05
DBDPE	34.20	28.75	26.57
α -HBCDD	36.80	34.94	23.18
β -HBCDD	36.33	37.44	22.83
γ -HBCDD	33.67	31.31	26.23
BDE-209	34.95	34.31	24.58

Figure 1
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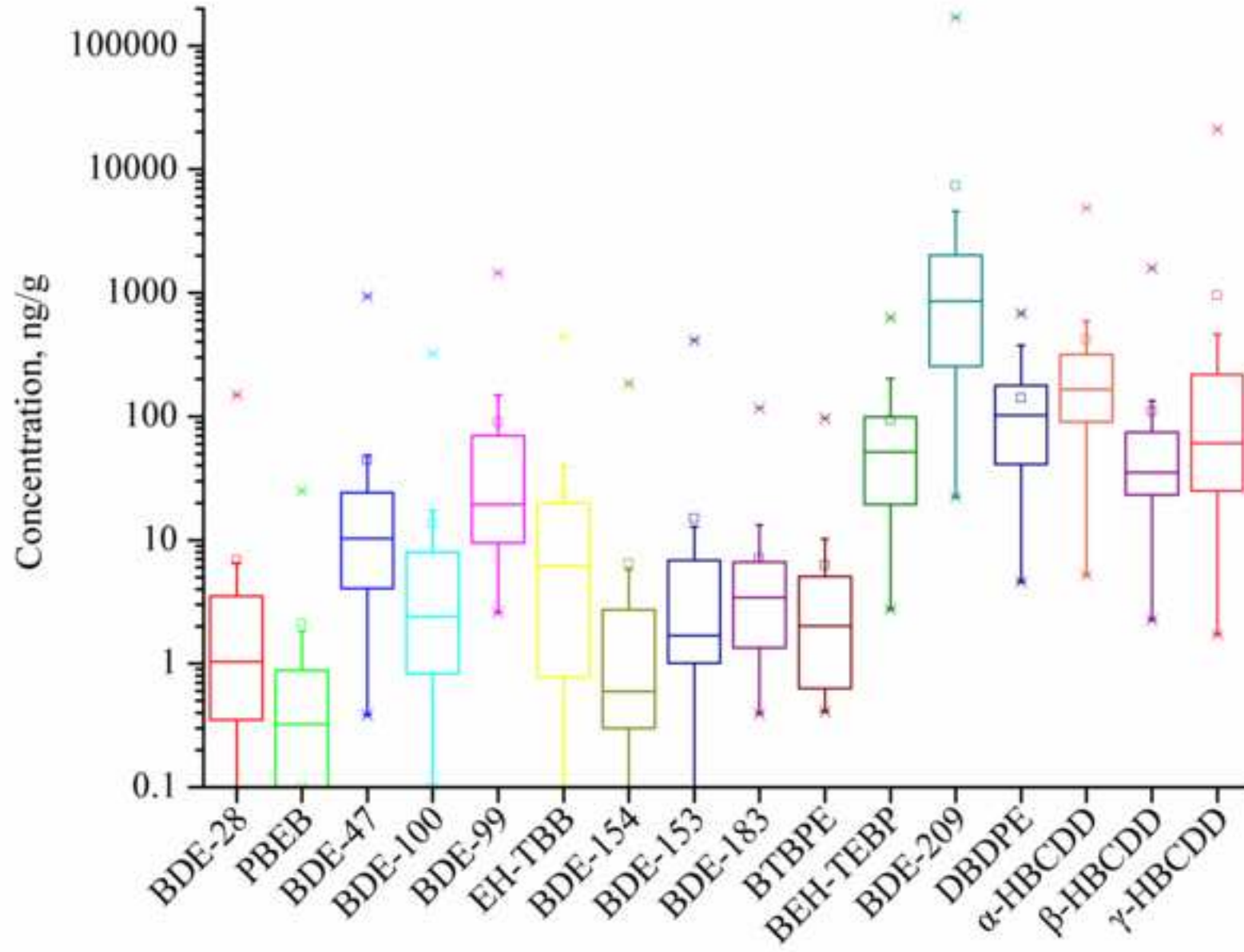


Figure 2
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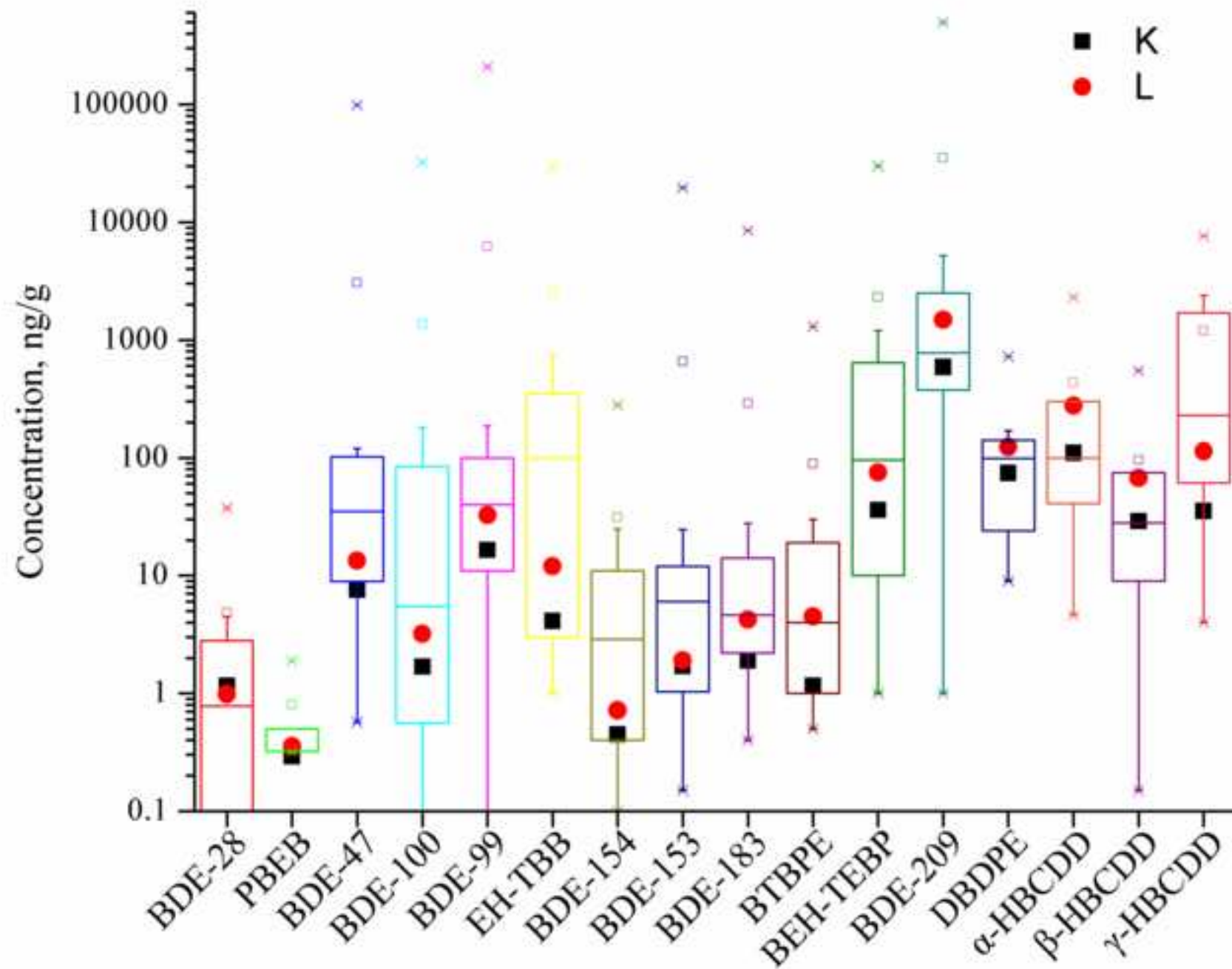
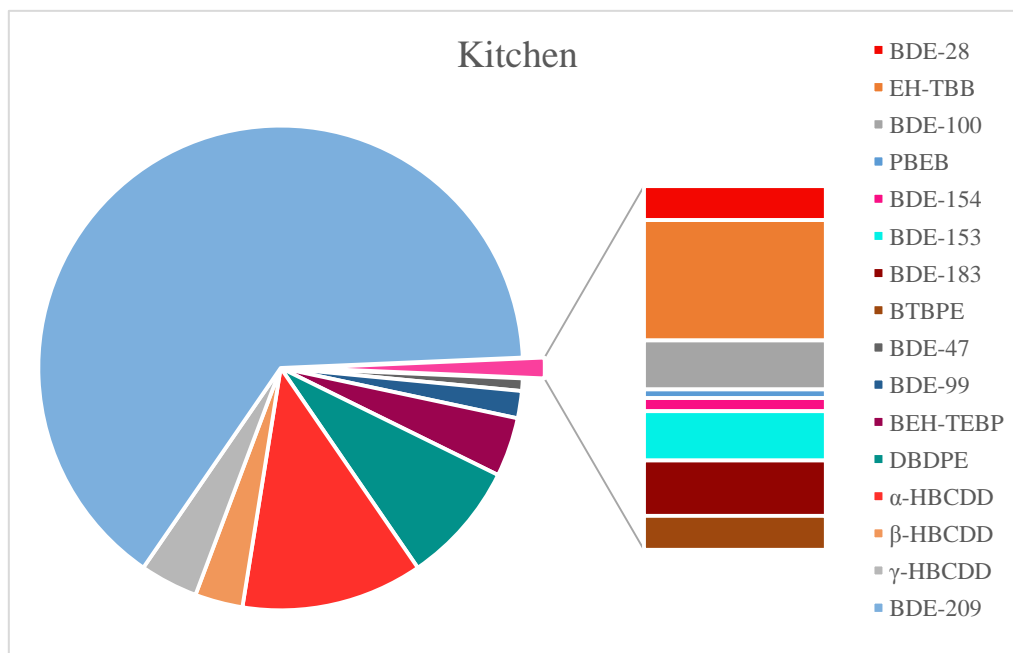
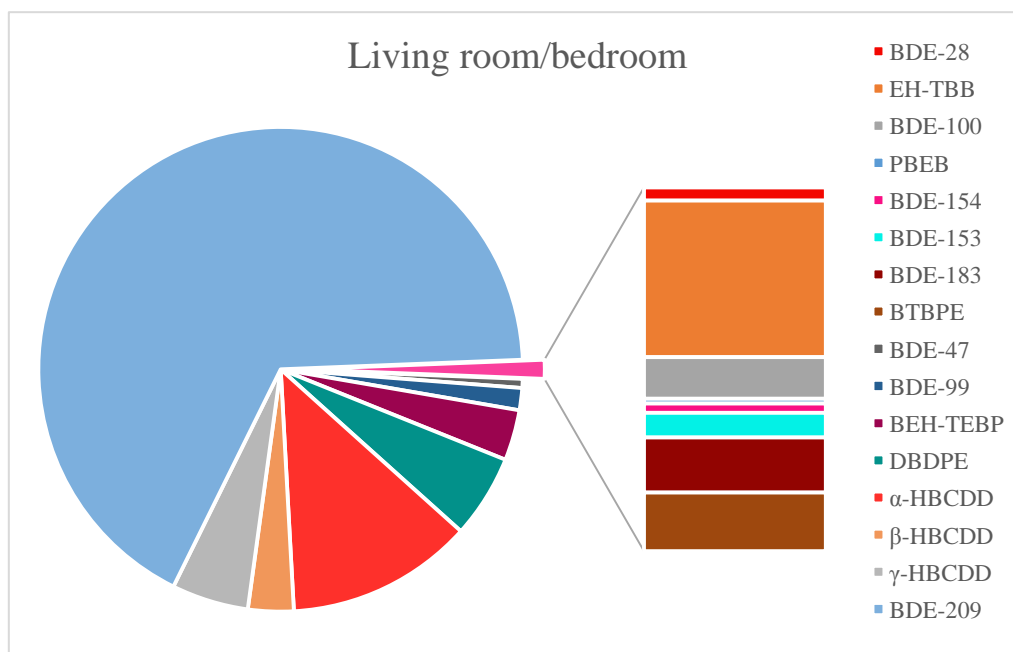


Figure 3



(a)



(b)

Figure 1 Concentration range of BFRs in this study

Figure 2 Median concentrations of target BFRs in this study (K, kitchen; L, living room/bedroom) compared to the range of medians reported in selected previous studies

Figure 3 Median BFR compositions in dust from kitchens (a) and living rooms/bedrooms (b)

Supplementary Material

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