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3	Lead in exterior paints from the urban and suburban
4	environs of Plymouth, south west England
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7	Andrew Turner [*] & Kevin R. Solman
8	
9	School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences
10	Plymouth University
11	Drake Circus
12	Plymouth PL4 8AA
13	UK
14	
15	
16	
17	*Corresponding author. Tel: +44 1752 584570; Fax: +44 1752 584710; e-mail:
18	aturner@plymouth.ac.uk
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22 Abstract

23 The dry weight concentrations of lead in paints on a variety of structures in the urban 24 and suburban environs of a British city (Plymouth, south west England) have been 25 determined in situ and ex situ by field-portable x-ray fluorescence spectrometry. Lead 26 was detected in 221 out of 272 analyses, with overall median and mean concentrations of 4180 μ g g⁻¹ and 29,300 μ g g⁻¹, respectively, and a maximum concentration of 27 28 390,000 μ g g⁻¹. The highest concentrations were observed in extant paints on poorly 29 maintained, metallic structures, including railings, gates, telephone kiosks and 30 bridges, in various yellow road line paints, and in paints of varying condition on 31 public playground facilities (ramps, climbing frames, monkey bars). Occupants of 32 households in the vicinity of structures that are shedding leaded paint are at potential 33 risk of exposure from paint particles being tracked in on shoes while children in 34 contact with leaded paints in playgrounds and recreational areas are at potential risk 35 from the direct ingestion of paint flakes. Since the issues highlighted in the present 36 study are neither likely to be restricted to this city, nor to the UK, a greater, general 37 awareness and understanding of the sources and routes of exposure of exterior leaded 38 paint is called for.

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43 **1. Introduction**

44 Because of the well-documented toxic effects of lead, and in particular those that 45 impact on the development of young children, the use of leaded products has been 46 restricted or phased out over the past few decades (Mansson et al., 2009; Bierkens et 47 al., 2011). In the domestic setting, a significant vehicle for Pb poisoning has been the 48 inadvertent or deliberate ingestion of household paint particles containing various 49 leaded pigments (Jacobs et al., 2002; Su et al., 2002). Consequently, the Pb content of 50 consumer paints has come under close scrutiny in the scientific literature and by 51 regulators and limits on its concentration in formulations have been progressively 52 revised downwards. In the US, the current limit for Pb in consumer paints has been set 53 at 90 ppm (CPSC, 2011), and although several countries have since adopted similar 54 thresholds, the Global Alliance to Eliminate Lead Paint (GAELP) has a goal of 55 eradicating Pb in paint by 2020 (Kessler, 2014).

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57 An additional source of Pb exposure in the home environment is from contaminated 58 external geosolids, like soils and road dusts, that are airborne or tracked in on shoes 59 and clothing (Alradady et al., 2003; Hunt et al., 2006). External solids are often 60 contaminated with residual Pb associated with its past use in gasoline (Zahran et al., 61 2013; Datko-Williams et al., 2014), but an additional source that has received less 62 attention is extant leaded paint on exterior structures, and in particular on 63 constructions in poor condition and where paint is readily flaking from the substrate 64 through weathering and deterioration of the binder (Weiss et al., 2006). Flaking paint 65 in the external environment may also pose more direct risks to contractors repairing or repainting structures (Jacobs, 1998), and to children if poorly maintained painted 66

surfaces are encountered within or in the vicinity of recreational areas (Mathee et al.,2009).

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70 In a previous study, a variety of metals in paint flakes sampled from a number of 71 structures in the centre of Plymouth, a coastal city in south west England, were 72 measured by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) spectrometry following acid digestion 73 (Turner and Sogo, 2012). Despite many leaded pigments having been either banned or 74 voluntarily removed from non-consumer paints in the UK by the 1990s, we 75 discovered concentrations of Pb in many samples that exceeded the US urban abatement action level of 5000 μ g g⁻¹ (Horner, 2004). This finding has prompted us to 76 77 hypothesise that leaded paint may be a pervasive problem in this city and in the 78 British urban and suburban environments more generally. Accordingly, the present 79 investigation employs a field portable x-ray fluorescence (FP-XRF) spectrometer, 80 configured in a plastics mode and with a thickness correction algorithm for the 81 analysis of thin layers, to allow a greater throughput of paint analyses on a wider 82 range of structures in Plymouth. Measurements are made both in situ and ex situ and, 83 although we specifically target Pb, we also measure Cr because of its occurrence in 84 many leaded pigments. The results are used to provide an inventory of the types of 85 structures on which leaded paint is likely to be encountered in the city and in the UK, and to address the potential sources of Pb exposure to the general public from paint in 86 87 the urban and suburban settings.

88

89 2. Materials and methods

90 2.1. Sampling and sample locations

91 Fifteen urban and suburban regions of Plymouth (population $\sim 250,000$) that 92 provided a wide geographical coverage of the city were visited between February and 93 April of 2015 and during periods of dry weather. In each region, as many paints on 94 public structures and facilities and on municipal and commercial buildings (excluding 95 private residences) that were directly accessible from the roadside or pavement were 96 examined using a FP-XRF spectrometer. On site, painted wooden, metallic and 97 tarmacked surfaces, including gates, railings, bridges, roads, buildings, posts, 98 playground facilities, pillar boxes and K6-type telephone kiosks, were photographed, 99 position-fixed and coded, and the colour, condition and degree of layering of paint 100 recorded. Surfaces that were in reasonable condition were measured in situ while 101 those that were visibly flaking were sampled directly or from fragments that had 102 accumulated on the ground using a pair of stainless steel tweezers. Where distinct 103 layers of paint or distinct components or colours were observed on a single structure, 104 multiple measurements were made or multiple samples collected. Samples were 105 stored individually in labelled specimen bags and returned to the laboratory in a 106 sealed polyethylene box.

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108 2.2. XRF analysis

The outer surfaces of the paint fragments and painted structures were analysed for a
variety of metals, of which Pb was the focus of the present study but Cr was also
considered, by energy dispersive FP-XRF spectrometry using a battery-powered
Thermo Scientific Niton XRF analyser (model XL3t 950 He GOLDD+).

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For in situ measurements (n = 58), a smooth, regular area of the painted surface was wiped clean and dry using a medical-grade wipe before the XRF nose, including the

116 measurement window and proximity sensor, was positioned firmly against a measurement area of 8 mm in diameter. Surfaces were measured for a period of 200 117 118 seconds (100 seconds each for the main and low energy ranges) by depressing the 119 trigger mechanism of the instrument. Spectra up to 50 keV were quantified by 120 standardless analysis in 'plastics' mode and with a thickness correction of 50 µm to vield metal concentrations in parts per million (μg^{-1}) and with an error of 2σ (95%) 121 122 confidence). Data were subsequently transferred to a laptop computer in the 123 laboratory using Thermo Scientific Niton data transfer (NDT) PC software. 124

For the analysis of paint fragments in the laboratory (n = 224), the XRF was securely 125 126 fixed into a bench top accessory unit and connected via USB and a remote trigger to 127 the laptop. Individual samples were carefully placed on to a SpectraCertified[®] Mylar 128 polyester 3.6 µm film using a pair of tweezers and with the outer face downwards, 129 before the slide was positioned centrally over a 3 mm small-spot collimator above the 130 detector. Measurements were activated through the laptop under conditions identical 131 to those described above and with concurrent transfer of data through the NDT 132 software.

133

134 The Niton XLT3t GOLDD+ series analysers define detection limits that are specific

135 to the characteristics of the sample and the counting time in terms of 3σ ;

136 measurements are reported where concentrations exceed this threshold and detection

137 limits are provided otherwise. Detection limits specific to the paint samples and

analytical conditions of the present study were about 8 μ g g⁻¹ and 15 μ g g⁻¹ for Pb and

139 Cr, respectively. No XRF reference paints exist that report Pb concentrations on a

140 w/w basis above 100 μ g g⁻¹. However, analysis of NIST SRM2579a paint films that

are defined by a wide range of Pb concentrations on a mg cm⁻² basis (x) returned 141 results in $\mu g^{-1}(v)$ that were directly proportional to certified values ($v = 3.2 \times 10^4 x$; r^2 142 > 0.999; p < 0.01). For an evaluation of absolute accuracy, a reference plastic 143 144 manufactured by Niton (PN 180-554, 13 mm thick polyethylene disk impregnated 145 with metals) was analysed in quadruplicate and without thickness correction. The mean measured Pb concentration (\pm one sd) of 944 (\pm 12) µg g⁻¹ compared with an 146 added Pb concentration of 1002 (± 40) $\mu g \ g^{\text{-1}},$ while the mean measured Cr 147 concentration (\pm one sd) of 1090 (\pm 12) μ g g⁻¹ compared with an added concentration 148 149 of 995 (\pm 40) µg g⁻¹. 150

151 Since Pb and Cr were measured both on painted surfaces in situ and on flakes returned 152 to the laboratory, a comparison between the two approaches was made on a number of 153 surfaces where intact areas were adjacent to visibly flaking areas. Despite possible 154 differences between adjacent areas in terms of thickness of application and degree of 155 corrosion, coupled with any potential confounding effects associated with the 156 underlying substrate itself, good agreement was observed between Pb concentrations 157 measured across a range of surfaces ([ex situ] = 1.40^* [in situ]; r = 0.921, n = 10, $p < 10^{-1}$ 158 (0.01); for Cr, a weaker relationship based on fewer analyses was observed that was nevertheless significant ([ex situ] = 0.58^* [in situ]; r = 0.630, n = 6, p = 0.05). Note 159 160 that in the cases where painted surfaces were measured by both approaches, only 161 those determined in situ have been reported below. 162

163 **3. Results and Discussion**

164 *3.1. Structure description and classification*

165 A summary of the type, number and colours of the painted structures examined in the 166 present study is given in Table 1. A total of 224 structures were measured and a total 167 of 272 analyses for Pb were performed, with the numerical difference reflecting 168 multiple analyses of different regions or layers of the same structure. The most 169 common categories examined were railings (all metal and including various fences) 170 and posts (mainly metal and encompassing street posts, lamp-posts and traffic posts) 171 which were a variety of colours; likewise, gates (including gate posts) and downpipes 172 were mainly of metal construction and were painted in a number of colours. 173 Playground facilities embraced a variety of brightly coloured installations, such as 174 roundabouts, ramps, climbing frames, monkey bars and the supporting posts of slides 175 and swings, while painted areas of public and commercial buildings of various ages 176 included walls, doors, window frames and window sills. The iconic K6-type cast iron 177 telephone kiosks and metallic pillar boxes of different designs were always red, 178 whereas the painted (road) surfaces of highways, car parks, pavements and manhole 179 covers, were mainly yellow-orange. Bridges were the largest structures examined and 180 consisted of footbridges over roads and railways, road bridges over disused railways 181 and disused rail bridges over roads. Miscellaneous structures not categorised above 182 included fire hydrants, bollards, waste bins and benches.

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In general, and among the structures examined, the surfaces of the telephone kiosks and bridges were observed to be in the poorest condition with what was perceived to be extensive flaking of multiple layers of paint and visible accumulations of paint fragments on the ground. For this reason, measurements of different layers or regions of paint were made on all kiosks and on the majority of bridges. Other constructions

189 on which multiple measurements were performed included several multi-coloured

190 playground facilities, and various buildings, posts and railings.

191

192 *3.2. Lead concentrations and distributions*

193 Table 2 summarises the concentrations of Pb in paints on the different types of

structures. Overall, Pb was detected in 221 cases (or 81% of all analyses), with

195 concentrations spanning more than four orders magnitude (ranging from 20 μ g g⁻¹ to

about 390,000 μ g g⁻¹) and exceeding the US urban abatement action level of 5000 μ g

197 g⁻¹ in 104 instances (or 38% of all analyses). The median, grand mean and standard

198 error for all measurements were 4,180 μ g g⁻¹, 29,300 μ g g⁻¹ and 3,560 μ g g⁻¹,

199 respectively, but where median concentrations were used to summarise multiple

200 measurements of the same structure (and n = 175), respective values were 2,700 µg g⁻

201 ¹, 20,500 µg g⁻¹ and 2,770 µg g⁻¹. Skewness and excess kurtosis for the entire dataset

were +3.03 and 12.0, respectively (or +2.52 and 6.70, respectively, for data based on

203 the number of structures measured), indicating a highly skewed, leptokurtic data set

whose variability is due to a relatively small number of extreme differences.

205



- 214 lines; a green downpipe on the exterior wall of a small industrial estate; the yellow
- railing of a ramp in a playground; the lowest painted layer of a red pillar box; two
- 216 yellow car park posts; and black and green flakes sampled from cast iron railings
- surrounding a hospital and cemetery, respectively

218 7	Table 1:	Classification	and colour	coding o	of the struc	ctures e	examined	in the	study.
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	black	blue	brown	green	grey/silver	red/pink	white	yellow/orange	multiple	no. structures	no. analyses
bridges				1					5	6	20
buildings	1	1		2	2		1	2	2	11	16
downpipes	1	2	1	4	1		2			11	11
gates	3		2	4		6	1	4	3	23	27
pillar boxes						14				14	16
playgrounds		3		5		7	5	6		26	26
posts	9			1	12		5	6	2	35	38
railings	12	5	1	16	7	5	2		2	50	52
roads				1		1	2	27		31	31
telephone kiosks						9				9	26
miscellaneous	1			2	2		1	1	1	8	9
total	27	11	4	36	24	42	19	46	15	224	272

	no. undetected	< 10 ²	10 ² -10 ³	10 ³ -10 ⁴	10 ⁴ -10 ⁵	>10 ⁵	min.	max.	median
bridges	2	1	5	1	6	5	94	223,000	30,100
buildings	2	3	6	3	2		33	9,850	573
downpipes				7	3	1	1,810	104,000	4,480
gates	6		7	9	5		166	28,800	1,650
pillar boxes	1	1	4	5	4	1	42	171,000	2,820
playgrounds	6		10	3	6	1	116	115,000	1,170
posts	13	3	7	9	4	2	20	175,000	2,200
railings	7	6	13	9	12	5	32	198,000	4,280
roads	12	2		8	7	2	50	142,000	5,020
telephone kiosks			1	1	20	4	510	389,000	43,200
miscellaneous	2	3	1		3		74	97,200	982
total	51	19	54	55	72	21	20	389,000	4,180

Table 2: Distribution and summary statistics for Pb concentrations ($\mu g g^{-1}$) among the different structures mea	sured.
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229 Table 3 summarises the Pb results according to colour classification. (Note that 230 samples and surfaces from the multi-coloured structures listed in Table 1 have now 231 been divided into their component colours.) Lead was measured in all colour 232 categories, and the percentage of cases in which Pb was detectable ranged from less 233 than 65 for grey/silver and white surfaces to more than 90 for blue and red/pink surfaces. Median concentrations ranged from about 400 μ g g⁻¹ for grey/silver paints to 234 more than 25,000 μ g g⁻¹ for red paints, and with the exception of blue paints, colour 235 236 categories were not normally distributed with positive skewness and positive excess 237 kurtosis.

238

239 3.3. Leaded pigments and the occurrence of Cr

240 The wide dispersion of Pb concentrations among the different colours and ages of 241 structures suggests that a number of leaded compounds are encountered in the paints 242 analysed. Before being phased out or restricted in use, leaded pigments were used in 243 paints for colour, opacity and corrosion inhibition, and, in combination with other 244 metal compounds, as driers (Abel, 2000). Some commonly employed leaded pigments include the primers, red lead, 2PbO·PbO₂ and basic lead silicochromate, 245 246 PbSiO₃·3PbO·PbCrO₄·PbO, white lead, 2PbCO₃·Pb(OH)₂, a pigment that turns black 247 on exposure to sulphurous gases in the atmosphere, lead chromate, a series of yellow 248 and orange pigments that can be pure PbCrO₄ or mixed phase PbCrO₄/PbSO₄,

249 molybdate red, Pb(Cr,S,Mo)O₄, and chrome green, PbCrO₄/PbSO₄·FeNH₄Fe(CN)₆, a

250 co-precipitate of lead chromate and Prussian blue.

251

252 It is clear that many of these Pb-based pigments also contain hexavalent Cr, itself a

253 cytotoxin and genotoxin (Wise et al., 2006). Chromium was detected in 106 paints,

with median, minimum and maximum concentrations of 443 μ g g⁻¹, 24 μ g g⁻¹ and 254 33,800 μ g g⁻¹, respectively, and a distribution that displayed positive skewness and 255 excess kurtosis. Chromium was detected in 99 cases in which Pb was detected and 256 257 these results are plotted as a scatter chart in Figure 1. Here, data have been coded according to colour, although no clear trends or groupings are evident on this basis. 258 259 Also shown in the figure are ratios of Pb to Cr (on a w/w basis) for the pigments with 260 the lowest and highest ratios of these metals (namely, about 4 for pure PbCrO₄ to 261 about 24 for basic lead silicochromate). Many of the data lie within these two end-262 points, consistent with the use of a variety of Pb-Cr pigments in the paints. Data with 263 ratios of Pb:Cr exceeding 24, including those containing significant quantities of Pb 264 and no detectable Cr (e.g. many bridge paints; data not shown), suggest the use of 265 leaded pigments that do not contain Cr, like white lead and the primer, red lead, while 266 data with ratios of Pb:Cr below 4 suggest the existence of additional, unleaded but 267 Cr(III)-bearing pigments (e.g. chromium oxide, Cr₂O₃, and cobalt blue, 268 $Co(Al,Cr)_2O_4$). Relatively low ratios of Pb:Cr and the general dispersion among the 269 data may also be attributed to the heterogeneous but preferential weathering and 270 dissolution of Pb over Cr from PbCrO₄-based pigments (White et al., 2014). 271

272 Figure 1: Concentrations of Pb versus concentrations of Cr in the different coloured paint samples. The





	no. undetected	< 10 ²	10 ² -10 ³	10 ³ -10 ⁴	10 ⁴ -10 ⁵	>10 ⁵	min.	max.	median
black	4		16	5	8	2	119	158,000	982
blue	1	2	4	3	6		32	66,100	5,860
brown	3			2	1	1	1,750	184,000	21,600
green	9	5	6	13	9	3	54	198,000	2,500
grey/silver	9	6	6	3	4		20	18,600	398
red/pink	5	1	11	11	32	7	42	389,000	25,600
white	7	3	3	5	3	1	30	202,000	2,780
yellow/orange	13	2	8	12	12	5	50	175,000	4,680

Table 3: Distribution and summary statistics for Pb concentrations ($\mu g g^{-1}$) among the different colours of paint measured.

3.4. Implications for exposure and the local environment

This study has revealed a wide range of Pb concentrations in painted surfaces of a variety of both contemporary and historical structures in the urban and suburban environs of a British city. The highest concentrations (in excess of 100,000 $\mu g g^{-1}$) were often associated with relatively old, metallic (cast iron and steel) structures that were observed to be in a poor state of repair and that often had distinct layers of flaking paint resulting from aging, weathering and abrasion of the surface. In these cases, Pb concentrations were usually highest in the lowest, and presumably oldest, layers, an effect exemplified by the distribution of Pb concentrations among the different coloured or shaded surfaces of a road bridge in Figure S1 and a telephone kiosk in Figure S2. This effect may be attributed to the reduction in the Pb content of progressively newer paints (including the use of leaded primers as the oldest basecoat), or to an increase in the degree of weathering of non-leaded components of the paint with increasing age. A more surprising observation, however, was the high incidence of concentrations that exceeded the urban abatement action level of 5000 µg g^{-1} (Horner, 2004) on painted surfaces that were largely intact and that appeared to have been applied relatively recently. Examples of the latter included a range of facilities in children's playgrounds (one installation was date-stamped as March 2009), posts and bollards used to demark the entrances of car parks, several small, sprung entrance gates to recreational facilities, and bright yellow paint on the footway of a pedestrian bridge.

From an environmental standpoint, flaking of leaded paint will result in both the direct (particulate) and indirect (through dissolution-readsorption) contamination of local soils, road-dusts and pavement dusts. Contamination of surface waters may

occur indirectly through the gradual dissolution of Pb from paint flakes into rainwater, an effect accentuated by low pH and the presence of natural and anthropogenic complexants, and the subsequent transport of aqueous Pb by storm-water drains (Davis and Burns, 1999). Human exposure associated with flaking leaded paint may be a concern for residents and schools in the immediate vicinity of structures in a poor state of repair (Weiss et al., 2006). In the present study, private houses were observed within 20 m of many of the structures in the poorest condition and whose painted surfaces were associated with the highest concentrations of Pb; we also noted that one of the railings shedding paint and containing Pb at a concentration in excess of 25, $000 \ \mu g \ g^{-1}$ served to enclose a school play area. In these cases, Pb may enter the indoor environment as fine, airborne dust and through paint flakes and contaminated soil tracked indoors on shoes and clothing. Track-in and soil resuspension appear to be the main vehicles for the introduction of external Pb into the contemporary household (Laidlaw et al., 2014) and flaking paint from external structures (and in particular, metallic railings and elevated steel structures like bridges) has been identified as a major contributor to these routes (Weiss et al., 2006; Lucas et al., 2014). The potential for Pb to be tracked into the household is also a concern for families of contractors involved in the repair, maintenance or restoration of structures containing extant leaded paint (Virji et al., 2009) and for members of the public who use telephone kiosks that are in a poor state of repair and that have significant accumulations of paint flakes on the floor.

Perhaps the greatest concerns arising from our research are the wide occurrence and high concentrations of Pb in paints on public playground facilities. Here, the risks are greatest for peeling or chalking paint on structures that children are in direct contact with, like poles, rails, climbing frames and monkey bars, and to infants under 72 months old because of their tendency to mouth foreign objects and the relatively high absorption of Pb in their gastrointestinal tract (Kennedy et al., 2014). Lead poisoning in a 5-year old child resulting from the biting and ingestion of paint chips from playground equipment in Montreal was described by Health Canada (1994), with the recommendation that painted surfaces be carefully stripped using solvent and repainted using lead-free paint. Leaded paint has since been reported on equipment in contemporary public play-parks in Japan (Takaoka et al., 2006) and South Africa (Mathee et al., 2009) but the present study appears to be the first to document its occurrence in Europe.

From the discussion above, it is clear that the general findings of the present study are unlikely to be specific to the city of Plymouth or to the UK. Thus, since the phasing out of leaded gasoline, exterior paint, in itself or as a component of contaminated soil dust, may represent one of the most significant routes of Pb exposure in the urban and suburban settings. Despite guidance and regulations on the use and removal of paint containing Pb being incorporated into governmental policy (e.g. Health and Safety Executive, 2002), a greater awareness of the pervasiveness of exterior leaded paint is required, both for the public and for employers dealing with the renovation, repair, maintenance or decoration of a wide variety of painted facilities. In particular, means of reducing the inherent risks and managing and regulating Pb in paint on public structures and facilities need to be more clearly and robustly addressed by the relevant authorities and stakeholders.

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