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2	Estimation of personal exposure to fine particles (PM _{2.5}) of ambient origin for
3	healthy adults in Hong Kong

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- 5 Xiao-Cui Chen^a, Judith C. Chow^{b,c}, Tony J. Ward^d, Jun-Ji Cao^{c,e}, Shun-Cheng Lee^f, John G.
- 6 Watson^{b,c}, Ngar-Cheung Lau^{a,g}, Steve HL Yim^{a,g}, Kin-Fai Ho^{a, c, h*}
- ⁷ ^aInstitute of Environment, Energy and Sustainability, The Chinese University of Hong Kong,
- 8 Hong Kong, China
- ⁹ ^bDivision of Atmospheric Sciences, Desert Research Institute, Reno, NV 89512, USA
- ¹⁰ ^cKey Laboratory of Aerosol, SKLLQG, Institute of Earth Environment, Chinese Academy of
- 11 Sciences, Xi'an, China
- ¹² ^dSchool of Public and Community Health Sciences, University of Montana, Missoula, Montana,
- 13 USA
- ¹⁴ ^eInstitute of Global Environmental Change, Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an, China
- ¹⁵ ^fDepartment of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University,
- 16 Kowloon, Hong Kong, China
- ^gDepartment of Geography and Resource Management, The Chinese University of Hong Kong,
- 18 Hong Kong
- ¹⁹ ^hThe Jockey Club School of Public Health and Primary Care, The Chinese University of Hong
- 20 Kong, Hong Kong, China
- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24
- 25 -----
- *Correspondence: Kin-Fai Ho, The Jockey Club School of Public Health and Primary Care, The Chinese University
 of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China. Tel.: 852-2252-8763. Fax: 852-2606-3500. E-mail: kfho@cuhk.edu.hk

Graphical abstract:



Highlights:

• A wide range of trace elements were investigated for a year-long ambient and personal PM_{2.5} samples.

• An exposure factor of 0.73 \pm 0.02 was estimated using ambient PM_{2.5} sulfur as a surrogate.

• $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a) accounted for ~57-73% of total personal exposure by season.

• Using ambient $PM_{2.5}$ at central monitoring stations as proxies underestimates the true exposures by 16-28%.

28 Abstract

29 Personal exposure and ambient fine particles ($PM_{2,5}$) measurements for 13 adult subjects 30 (ages 19-57) were conducted in Hong Kong between April 2014 and June 2015. Six to 21 31 personal samples (mean = 19) per subject were obtained throughout the study period. 32 Samples were analyzed for mass by gravimetric analysis, and 19 elements (from Na to Pb) 33 were analyzed using X-Ray Fluorescence. Higher subject-specific correlations between 34 personal and ambient sulfur ($r_s = 0.92$; p < 0.001) were found as compared to PM_{2.5} mass 35 $(r_s = 0.79; p < 0.001)$ and other elements $(0.06 < r_s < 0.86)$. Personal vs. ambient sulfur 36 regression yielded an average exposure factor (F_{pex}) of 0.73 ± 0.02, supporting the use of 37 sulfur as a surrogate to estimate personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a). E_a 38 accounted for 41-82% and 57-73% of total personal PM_{2.5} exposures (P) by season and 39 by subject, respectively. The importance of both E_a and non-ambient exposures (E_{na} , 11.2 40 \pm 5.6 µg/m³; 32.5 \pm 10.9%) are noted. Mixed-effects models were applied to estimate the 41 relationships between ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations and their corresponding exposure 42 variables (E_a, P). Higher correlations for E_a (0.90; p < 0.001) than for P (0.58; p < 0.01) 43 were found. A calibration coefficient < 1 suggests an attenuation of 22% (ranging 16-44 28%) of the true effect estimates when using average ambient concentrations at central 45 monitoring stations as surrogates for E_a . Stationary ambient data can be used to assess 46 population exposure only if PM exposure is dominated by E_a .

Keywords: Personal exposure; Ambient concentration; Exposure factor; Fine particles
exposure of ambient origin; Exposure measurement error

49 **1. Introduction**

Epidemiological studies show that elevated PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ (particles with aerodynamic 50 51 diameters less than 2.5 and 10 µm, respectively) concentrations are associated with 52 cardiovascular and respiratory morbidity and mortality (Boldo et al., 2006; Brook et al., 53 2010; Franklin et al., 2006; Nel, 2005). Associations of short-term and long-term 54 exposure to PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ mass and their components with daily cardiovascular and 55 respiratory emergency hospitalizations and mortality were reported in Hong Kong (Pun et al., 2014; Wong et al., 2015), confirming the adverse health effects of PM_{2.5} (Ruckerl et 56 57 al., 2011).

58 Since most people spent ~80-90% of their time indoors (Chen et al., 2018; Jahn et al., 59 2013; Klepeis et al., 2001), personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposures (P) can differ from those of ambient 60 concentrations (C) measured at central monitoring stations (Sarnat et al., 2010). Cross-61 sectional studies showed weak personal-ambient PM_{2.5} correlations (Lachenmyer, 2000; 62 Meng et al., 2004; Oglesby et al., 2000), with stronger associations reported in 63 longitudinal studies (Adgate et al., 2003; Rhomberg et al., 2011; Sarnat et al., 2000). 64 Zeger et al. (2000) provided a statistical system to estimate the effects of measurement 65 error on health risk estimates. Several types of exposure measurement error (e.g., 66 classical error, Berkson error) have been investigated (Dionisio et al., 2016; Goldman et 67 al., 2010; Rhomberg et al., 2011). These studies indicated that Berkson error increases the 68 variance of regression coefficients, while the classical error was influenced by indoor 69 sources and particles generated from personal activities (Koenig et al., 2005; Zeger et al., 70 2000). These errors may cause bias in air pollution epidemiology (Avery et al., 2010; 71 Goldman et al., 2011; Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2014).

72 Some studies have used sulfate and/or sulfur as tracers to estimate personal exposure to 73 $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a) based on the assumptions that sulfate/sulfur compounds are 74 primarily originated from outdoor pollution sources (Chen et al., 2017; Sarnat et al., 2009; 75 Sarnat et al., 2002; Wallace and Williams, 2005). Other PM elements (e.g., nickel, iron) 76 have also been utilized as surrogates for ambient PM_{2.5} (Ji et al., 2018; Long and Sarnat, 77 2004). Further, the exposure factor (F_{pex}) has been used to estimate the outdoor (ambient) 78 contributions to total personal exposure (Meng et al., 2005; Rhomberg et al., 2011); F_{pex} 79 varies with seasons, individuals, and geographic regions (Sarnat et al., 2009; Wallace and 80 Williams, 2005). These studies have reported higher P-C sulfate/sulfur correlations than 81 for $PM_{2.5}$ mass (Ebelt et al., 2005; Noullett et al., 2010).

82 Associations between health outcomes and exposure components (i.e., E_a and non-83 ambient exposures $[E_{na}]$) also characterize the exposure-epidemiological relationships 84 (Ebelt et al., 2005; Ji and Zhao, 2015; Meng et al., 2005; Wilson and Brauer, 2006). 85 Some of these studies concluded that the strength of association between ambient 86 concentrations and true exposures tended to bias the health effect estimates towards the 87 null (Dominici et al., 2000; Schwartz et al., 2007; Strand et al., 2005). Therefore, 88 regression coefficients between ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations and true exposures (e.g., P, 89 E_a) were used to evaluate the bias in PM_{2.5}-mediated health effects (Avery et al., 2010; 90 Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2014).

Past studies in Hong Kong have investigated ambient and/or indoor PM mass and chemical concentrations (Ho et al., 2004; Huang et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2016). Other studies have focused on the health risks of source-specific $PM_{2.5}$, with a limited number of studies conducted that have evaluated the characteristics of personal exposures or the 95 related health risks (Fan et al., 2018). The work reported here investigates the 96 relationships between ambient concentrations and corresponding personal $PM_{2.5}$ mass 97 and elements as well as addressing the utility of sulfur as an estimator for E_a . The 98 magnitudes of exposure measurement error are examined, and correlations between the 99 estimated exposures (e.g., E_a) and measured parameters (i.e., P and C) are assessed using 100 mixed-effects models.

101

102 **2. Material and methods**

103 2.1 Study design and sampling methods

104 Thirteen adult subjects (ages 19-57) living and working in different Hong Kong districts 105 participated in this investigation (Figure 1). All subjects were non-smokers, were not 106 exposed to environmental tobacco smoke in indoor microenvironments (e.g., home, 107 school, office, or other indoors), and did not have any chronic diseases. Sampling was 108 conducted between April 2014 and June 2015. Eleven of the thirteen subjects completed 109 the four sampling seasons; one subject participated from April to August 2014 and 110 another one from October 2014 to June 2015. The Joint Chinese University of Hong 111 Kong-New Territories East Cluster Clinical Research Ethics Committee (Ref. No. CRE-112 2014.154) approved this study before subject recruitment. A written informed consent 113 was obtained from each subject before that subject participated in this study.

114

115 2.1.1 Personal monitoring

116 Twenty-four hour (24-h, 00:00-24:00 local time) personal PM_{2.5} exposure was measured

117 using a Personal Environmental Monitor (PEM, Model 200, MSP Corp., Shoreview, MN,

118 USA) with a Leland Legacy pump (SKC Inc., Eighty-Four, PA, USA) operated at a flow 119 rate of 10 L/min. The PEM was loaded with a 37 mm Teflon membrane filter (PTFE, 120 $2 \mu m$ pore size, PALL) and wore near each subject's breathing zone during sampling. 121 Subjects were required to carry the sampler at all times except for sleeping, sitting, or 122 other activities when the sampler was placed in close proximity (< 1 meter from the 123 subject's breathing zone) and at the same height as them.

The 13 subjects were divided into three groups, sampling once 18th day for each group. This resulted in 6 to 21 personal samples per participant, which provided a longitudinal record. Samples were excluded from the analysis if the total sampling time was < 16-h (due to pump failure) and/or if the filter was contaminated. Out of the 248 personal samples, 242 exposure events (97.6%) passed the quality checks for follow-up data analyses.

Each participant was required to complete a general questionnaire regarding personal information before participating in the study. Study subjects were encouraged to maintain regular daily activity patterns. During each monitoring session, subjects were also required to fill out a 24-h time-activity diary. Additional details about personal monitoring can be found in our recent publication (Chen et al., 2018).

135

136 2.1.2 Concurrent ambient monitoring

Twenty-four hour (00:00 to 24:00 local time) ambient PM_{2.5} samples were collected
every-sixth day at seven central monitoring stations using Partisol Samplers (Model
2025i, Thermal Fisher Scientific Inc., MA, USA) equipped with PM_{2.5} inlets operated at a
flow rate of 16.7 L/min (http://www.aqhi.gov.hk/en.html). A total of 467 ambient PM_{2.5}

141 samples were acquired over the year-long sampling period. Daily meteorological data, 142 including ambient pressure (P), temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed 143 (WS), wind direction (WD), and rainfall (R) from the Hong Kong Observatory (HKO, 144 http://www.weather.gov.hk/contente.htm) were acquired. Average daily temperatures and 145 relative humidities were $24.1 \pm 4.7^{\circ}$ C and $79.8 \pm 11.1\%$ (Supplemental Table S1), 146 respectively. Figure 1 locates the seven ambient monitoring stations and participants' 147 residences, with distances from the stations ranging 1.0-31.2 km with an average of ~14.5 148 km. It is assumed that the distances < 20 km do not affect the estimated P-C associations 149 (Sarnat et al., 2010). Quality assurance and quality control procedures are detailed in the 150 Supporting Information.

151

152 2.1.3 Filter analyses

153 Triplicate Teflon-membrane filter weights $(\pm 3 \mu g)$ were determined using a 154 microbalance (readability of 1 μg , Sartorius AG, Model ME 5-0CE, Goettingen, 155 Germany) in a temperature (20-25 °C) and relativity humidity (35 ± 5%) controlled 156 environment. Averages of the triplicate post- and pre-weights were used to calculate mass 157 concentrations.

Teflon-membrane filter samples were transmitted to the Desert Research Institute laboratories (DRI, Reno, NV, USA) in a temperature-controlled package (< 4°C) for elemental analysis (Watson et al., 1999) by an Energy Dispersive X-Ray Fluorescence analyzer (ED-XRF, Epsilon 5, PANalytical Company, Almelo, The Netherlands) for 51 elements (sodium to lead) (Chow and Watson, 2012). 19 elements (i.e., sodium [Na], magnesium [Mg], aluminium [Al], silicon [Si], sulfur [S], chlorine [Cl], potassium [K],

164	calcium [Ca], titanium [Ti], vanadium [V], chromium [Cr], manganese [Mn], iron [Fe],
165	nickel [Ni], copper [Cu], zinc [Zn], arsenic [As], bromine [Br], and lead [Pb]) returned
166	concentrations exceeding minimum detection limits (MDL) for $> 50\%$ of the samples,
167	and these elements are included in data analysis. Field blanks were analyzed following
168	the same procedure. MDLs were within the range of 0.5 to 33 ng/m^3 . The 19 elements
169	were detectable (i.e., $>$ MDLs) for $> 85\%$ of the samples with the exception of Mg, Cr,
170	and As (54-75% detectable).

172 2.2 Estimation of personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a)

Total personal PM_{2.5} exposure is the sum of E_a and E_{na} (Wallace and Williams, 2005; Wilson and Brauer, 2006). E_a consists of infiltrated PM_{2.5} when subjects remain indoors and direct exposure while subjects are outdoors. E_{na} accounts for exposure due to indoor sources and personal activities while subjects stay indoors and outdoors (Noullett et al., 2010; Wilson and Brauer, 2006; Wilson et al., 2000). Personal exposures and ambient concentrations can be measured directly while E_a and E_{na} can only be estimated (Wilson and Brauer, 2006). The equations are given by the following expression:

$$180 \quad P = E_a + E_{na} \tag{1}$$

$$181 \quad P = F_{pex}C + E_{na} \tag{2}$$

182
$$F_{pex} = S_{P_{ij}} / S_{C_j}$$
 (3)

183 where the exposure factor (F_{pex}), i.e., personal-to-ambient sulfur ratio, estimates the 184 contribution of ambient particles to total personal exposures; S_{Pij} represents personal 185 exposure to sulfur for subject *i* on *j*th day; and S_{Cj} represents the ambient sulfur 186 concentration measured at the fixed monitoring station on *j*th day (Ebelt et al., 2005;
187 Wilson et al., 2000).

188

189 2.3 Statistical analysis

190 A paired sample t-test was applied to compare the mass and elemental concentration 191 differences between personal exposures and the corresponding ambient concentrations. 192 Spearman's r_s was used where the data were not normally distributed; otherwise, 193 Pearson's correlations (*r*) was applied. Linear regression analysis was used to analyze the 194 strength of P-C associations. A *p*-value of < 0.05 is considered statistically significant.

The uniformity between ambient and personal exposures was assessed using the coefficients of divergence (COD) (Krudysz et al., 2008). Two datasets are more similar (i.e., negligible differences in absolute concentrations) when COD approaches zero (e.g.,

198 < 0.20) and more different when COD values approach one. COD is calculated as follows:

199
$$\operatorname{COD}_{jk} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\frac{X_{ij} - X_{ik}}{X_{ij} + X_{ik}})^2}$$

200 (4)

where X_{ij} and X_{ik} represent *i*th observation of chemical component X at the central monitoring stations (or for subjects) throughout the sampling period; *j* and *k* represent concentrations from the two different sampling stations that are compared, and *n* is the observation number.

A mixed-effects model was used to analyze calibration coefficients using ambient concentrations as fixed-effects variables and study subjects as random variables to 207 account for between-individual variance. The calibration coefficients (β) were estimated 208 as the fixed regression coefficients:

209
$$Y_{ij} = \mu_Y + \beta_1 C_{ij} + \beta_2 Season_{ij} + \beta_3 Met_{ij} + b_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$$
(5)

where Y_{ii} represents the "true exposures" (either E_a or P), and C_{ii} represents surrogate 210 211 exposures (i.e., ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations) for *i*th subject on *j*th day (Zeger et al., 212 2000). Calibration coefficients equal to unity suggested no bias, while less than one 213 suggested an attenuated estimate (Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2014). The mixed-effects 214 model (Eq. 5) was implemented by controlling seasonality (Season_{ii}) and meteorological 215 conditions (Met_{ii}) with the assumption that the random effects (b_i and ε_{ii}) are mutually independent with a mean of zero as well as within-individual $(\sigma_{\rm b}^2)$ and between-216 individual (σ_w^2) variance. The mixed-effects model was applied in the statistical 217 218 environment R 3.4.1 (R Development Core Team, 2017: http://www.r-project.org) (Bates et al., 2014). The marginal R^2 statistic was used to measure the overall predictive ability; 219 the semi-partial R^2 statistic (R^2_{β}) was calculated for each variable (Jaeger et al., 2016). 220

221

222 **3. Results**

223 3.1 Activity profiles

A summary of subjects' activity patterns is presented in Table 1. 229 (94.6%) activity diaries were considered valid (i.e., complete activity logs corresponding to 1440 min sampling durations). On average, subjects spent $84.1 \pm 14.5\%$ of each day indoors, of which $71.5 \pm 19.2\%$ were at home. Outdoor activities accounted for $11.9 \pm 12.7\%$ of the time with the remaining time spent in transportation ($4.0 \pm 4.3\%$), indoors at work/school ($4.8 \pm 10.9\%$), or inside other buildings ($4.3 \pm 10.5\%$); negligible amount of time (~2.0%) 230 was spent cleaning. Higher standard deviations associated with averages implies large 231 variations in daily activities. Subject-specific activity patterns are summarized in Table 232 S3. For Hong Kong residences, Chau et al. (2002) reported that people spent 86% of the 233 time indoors, 3–7% in transit, and 3–7% outdoors. A recent 48-subject panel study also 234 found that residents spent 69.4-73.6% of their time indoors at home, 4.0-5.9% in transit, 235 and 5.1-5.3% outdoors. Indoor cooking/dining and cleaning activities constituted 1.7-3.3% 236 and 4.7-7.5% of the day, respectively. These personal activities (including time indoors, 237 in transit, cooking, and cleaning) were positively associated with personal PM_{25} 238 exposures (Chen et al., 2018).

239

240 3.2 Characteristics of personal PM_{2.5} exposures

Figure 2 illustrates the temporal variations in subject-specific $PM_{2.5}$ exposure. Significant seasonal differences (p < 0.001) were found with the highest exposure levels in winter and lowest in summer. Daily personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposures ranging from 11.6 to 80.8 µg/m³ with an average of $33.7 \pm 14.8 \mu$ g/m³. Table 2 shows that annual average personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposures ranged from $22.3 \pm 11.2 \mu$ g/m³ to $41.7 \pm 18.9 \mu$ g/m³ by subject. The 30-day moving average shows similar peaks and valleys between personal exposure and ambient $PM_{2.5}$ with consistently higher concentrations found in personal samples (Figure 2).

248

249 3.3 Association of personal exposures and ambient concentrations

250 3.3.1 $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations. No significant mass differences (2.2 µg/m³, 95%

251 Confidence Interval: 1.7-6.1 μ g/m³) were observed between Partisol sampler and PEMs

252 (p = 0.24) (Figure S1). High Spearman's correlations $(0.90 < r_s < 0.99; p < 0.01)$ and low

253 COD values (ranging 0.10-0.36) were found among the seven monitoring stations (Table 254 S2 and Figure S2), indicating a homogenous distribution in outdoor $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations 255 across the study area.

As shown in Table 2, personal exposures were significantly higher (p < 0.05) compared to ambient PM_{2.5} during all seasons with seasonal personal-to-ambient (P/C) PM_{2.5} ratios greater than one. Only two subjects (i.e., IDs 101 and 113) had lower personal exposure levels with average and median P/C ratios ranging 0.86-0.94.

Table 3 summarizes the regression statistics of personal exposure vs. ambient $PM_{2.5}$ concentration by season (across all subjects) and by subject (across all seasons for each subject). Moderate to strong Pearson's correlations were reported by season (0.44 < r < 0.79; p < 0.01) and by subject (0.58 < r < 0.96). The average intercept was 9.3 ± 5.2 $\mu g/m^3$ (ranging 0.4-22 $\mu g/m^3$) with ~ 50% of the samples having intercepts greater than 6.1 $\mu g/m^3$ (Supporting Information), indicating a considerable portion of fine particles were generated indoors and/or due to personal activities.

267

3.3.2 PM_{2.5} Elements. Summary statistics for the elemental composition of personal PM_{2.5} 268 along with P/C ratios are shown in Table 4. The largest mass difference was found for Na 269 (1529 ng/m³; p < 0.001), with large differences also found for Cl (57 ng/m³; p < 0.001), 270 Ca (65 ng/m³; p < 0.001), Ti (3 ng/m³; p < 0.001), and Fe (52 ng/m³; p < 0.001). Sulfur 271 was the most abundant element measured in ambient $PM_{2.5}$ (2921 ng/m³), accounting for 272 273 10.9% of the PM_{2.5} mass (Table S1). Strong correlations (0.92 < r < 0.96; p < 0.01) were 274 found between sulfur and sulfate (with sulfate to sulfur ratios of 3.2-3.8) for both summer and winter (Figure S3). Ambient concentrations were higher than personal exposures for 275

Al, S, V, Mn, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, and Pb (p < 0.05), with mean and median P/C ratios in the range of 0.60-0.90 (Table 4).

278 Figure 3a shows higher P-C Spearman's correlation coefficients (r_s) for sulfur across 279 subjects ($0.82 < r_s < 0.98$; p < 0.01). Strong correlations were also found for Si, Zn, Br, 280 and Pb with median r_s ranging 0.86-0.90 (p < 0.05), and weak or no associations for Na, 281 Mg, and Cr. Moderate P-C correlations were found for Ca (median $r_s = 0.58$; p < 0.05), 282 Fe (median $r_s = 0.59$; p < 0.05), and Ti (median $r_s = 0.64$, p < 0.05). Figure 3b shows 283 higher COD values (0.20 < COD < 0.50) for soil dust (e.g., Al, Si, K, Ca, Fe, Ti, and Zn) 284 and other trace elements (e.g., V, Ni, and Cu). A COD value of > 0.20 was adapted as a 285 threshold to illustrate the disparity between ambient concentrations and personal 286 exposures (Kim and Hopke, 2008). Heterogeneous distributions (COD > 0.50) between 287 ambient concentrations and personal exposures were also found for Na, Cl, Mg, and Cr. 288 The lowest COD values (ranging 0.09-0.20) were found for sulfur (Figure S2), indicating 289 its uniform distribution across the study area.

290

291 3.4 Characterization of personal exposure to PM_{2.5} of ambient origin

Figure 4 illustrates the linear regression of the pooled personal exposures and ambient concentrations for sulfur ($N_p = 230$). Regression slope provides a general estimate of the average ambient exposure factor (F_{pex}) of 0.73 ± 0.02, indicating that personal exposure to sulfur is 73% of the ambient levels and that ambient sulfur can explain over 80% of the variations in personal sulfur exposure ($R^2 = 0.82$). Subject- and season-specific linear regression analyses between personal and ambient sulfur concentrations are summarized in Table 5. Strong P-C sulfur correlations were found by subject (0.81 < r < 0.98; p < 0.01) and by season (0.76 < r < 0.88; p < 0.01).

300 Figure 5 reports the contribution of ambient PM_{2.5} to personal exposure for each subject and by season. Subject-specific E_a (ranging 12.6-25.1 µg/m³; coefficient of 301 variance, CV = 15.4%) was higher than E_{na} (ranging 4.0 to 24.3 µg/m³, CV = 50.1%), but 302 303 with a lower CV. For the pooled estimated variables (Figure 6), total personal exposure 304 showed strong correlations both with E_a (r = 0.75; p < 0.05) and E_{na} (r = 0.73; p < 0.05). 305 Longitudinal regressions of E_a vs. C for each subject are shown in Table 6. 306 Correlations range 0.82-0.99 with an average of 0.94 by subject and 0.80-0.95 by season 307 with an average of 0.89 (Table 6). Table 7 presents the results of mixed-effects 308 regressions for E_a and personal PM_{2.5} exposure as compared to ambient PM_{2.5}. Personal 309 $PM_{2.5}$ exposure calibration coefficients of 0.87 (95% CI, 0.70-1.04, p = 0.002) are higher 310 than 0.78 for E_a (95% CI: 0.72-0.84, p < 0.001), when adjusted for seasonality and 311 meteorological conditions.

312

4. Discussion

Daily average personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposure exceeded the World Health Organization (WHO) 24-h air quality guideline of 25 µg/m³ for 67.2% of the sampling days, mostly during winter. These results agree with previous studies that shown higher personal $PM_{2.5}$ levels in Hong Kong than those in many North American and European cities (ranging 12.9-25.4 µg/m³) (Kim et al., 2005; Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2014; Meng et al., 2012; Noullett et al., 2010; Wallace and Williams, 2005; Williams et al., 2000). However, average personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposures of 33.4 ± 17.3 µg/m³ (ranging 22.4-50.2 µg/m³) in this study

- 321 are ~50% lower than those in Chinese cities (ranging 45.4-126.8 μ g/m³) (e.g., Guangzhou,
- 322 Shanghai, Tianjin, Beijing) (Baccarelli et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2018; Jahn et al., 2013; Lei
- 323 et al., 2016) and in New Delhi, India (ranging 53.9-489.2 μ g/m³) (Pant et al., 2017).

324 Personal PM_{25} exposures exceeding the corresponding ambient (or outdoor) PM_{25} 325 concentrations were also reported in past studies (Fan et al., 2017; Hsu et al., 2012; Hu et 326 al., 2018; Jahn et al., 2013; Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2014; Meng et al., 2012). Table 2 327 shows that four of the 13 (30.8%) subjects (e.g., IDs: 103, 107, 109, and 112) reported annual average exposures of 38.0-41.7 μ g/m³, with P-C mass differences of 10.8-18.6 328 $\mu g/m^3$ (p < 0.05). Moderate to strong P-C correlations (0.58 < r < 0.76; p < 0.01) and 329 330 higher $PM_{2.5}$ P/C ratios (1.5-2.1) were also found. Higher personal to ambient mass 331 differences may be due to the between-individual variance related to their daily activities 332 or lifestyles (Table S3). Past findings have indicated that subjects who were more active 333 may have higher and more variable exposures than the corresponding ambient 334 concentrations (Baccarelli et al., 2014). For adult subjects in Guangzhou, Jahn et al. 335 (2013) reported that five out of seven districts showed higher personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposures 336 than ambient concentrations, attributing the increments to indoor sources and personal 337 activities. Health estimates in an epidemiologic analysis would be underestimated with 338 weak P-C correlations. Fan et al. (2018) reported higher personal PM_{2.5} exposures with 339 moderate P-C correlation ($r_s = 0.52$; p < 0.05) for healthy residents in Hong Kong. They found that an interquartile change (16.4 μ g/m³) in personal PM_{2.5} exposure was linked to 340 a 12.8 % (95 CI%, 5.5-20.7%) increase in FeNO (i.e., fractional nitric oxide 341 342 concentration in exhaled breath, a biomarker of airway inflammation); no positive 343 association was shown for ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations.

344 This study provides evidence that longitudinal P-C correlations (r = 0.88) (data not 345 shown) could be a better indicator than those of cross-sectional correlations (r = 0.60, 346 Table 3). Personal exposure across a subpopulation leads to improved P-C correlations 347 than individual exposures (Jahn et al., 2013; Rhomberg et al., 2011; Zeger et al., 2000). 348 Since 11 of the 13 subjects were sampled at least 20 times, within-individual P-C $PM_{2.5}$ 349 correlations are higher (Avery et al., 2010). The results are also consistent with decreased 350 personal-ambient mass differences being associated with increased P-C correlations 351 (Adgate et al., 2003; Avery et al., 2010).

Table 3 shows lower P-C PM_{2.5} correlations during summer (r = 0.44, p < 0.01) and winter (r = 0.48, p < 0.01) compared to other seasons, which could result from reduced infiltration rates due to the closed windows for cooling in summer and for thermal comfort in winter. Sarnat et al. (2000) and Sarnat et al. (2006) suggested that season is an essential factor in determining P-C associations. Chen et al. (2018) also confirmed that season was a factor affecting the strength of personal-ambient PM_{2.5} associations.

358 COD analyses reveal dissimilarities between personal exposures and ambient PM_{2.5} 359 concentrations for mass (ranging 0.15-0.41 with median COD = 0.23) and most elements 360 (median COD ranging 0.24-0.62). The personal $PM_{2.5}$ samples were enriched (P/C ratios 361 > 1) in Ca and Ti (i.e., resuspension particles), as well as Fe and Cr (e.g., traffic-related 362 particles), consistent with daily activity patterns affecting total personal exposures (Chen 363 et al., 2018; Krall et al., 2018). Larson et al. (2004) and Hsu et al. (2012) reported high 364 associations between personal activities (e.g., time indoors) and crustal particles (e.g., 365 Ca). Average P/C ratios > 1 for Zn (Table 4) may be impacted by both indoor (e.g., 366 cleaning products) and outdoor (e.g., traffic) sources. P/C data with average and median P/C ratios < 1 (e.g., S, Mn, V, Ni, and As) were less influenced by indoor sources or
personal activities (Hsu et al., 2012).

Greater spatial variability was found for most of the analyzed elements (as compared to $PM_{2.5}$ mass and sulfur) with higher COD values and weak P-C correlations, consistent with higher exposure measurement errors (Dionisio et al., 2016). To quantify the effects of exposure error on health risk estimates, Dionisio et al. (2016) showed that spatial errors in epidemiological models have the potential to introduce 10-40% biases in relative risk estimates.

375 The spatial distribution for sulfur was more uniform than for other elements with P-C 376 correlations greater than 0.90 (p < 0.01) and COD values < 0.20, consistent with previous 377 studies (Brokamp et al., 2015; Hsu et al., 2012; Wallace and Williams, 2005). Not much variation by season was found for F_{pex} (ranging 0.67-0.83). Differences in subject-378 379 specific F_{pex} (ranging 0.44-0.90) were mostly due to subjects' daily activity patterns. 380 Replacing P/C sulfur ratios with slopes from the personal vs. ambient sulfur regressions 381 by subject and by season improved F_{pex} (0.73-0.76, averaging 0.73 \pm 0.03). These are 382 comparable to previous findings (0.54-0.75) using sulfate or sulfur as an outdoor 383 exposure marker (Allen et al., 2004; Kioumourtzoglou et al., 2014; Noullett et al., 2010; 384 Wilson and Brauer, 2006). The adjusted F_{pex} should be considered as upper bounds 385 because it is assumed that infiltration is proportional to ambient concentrations (Ott et al., 386 2000). Chen et al. (2017) found that sulfate can be used to estimate E_a for adult subjects 387 in Guangzhou, China. In contrast, Ji et al. (2018) suggested sulfur may not be a sufficient indicator in Beijing, China; they proposed the use of iron to estimate indoor PM_{2.5} of 388 389 outdoor origin.

Average E_{na} (11.2 ± 5.6 µg/m³) in Hong Kong was higher than in Vancouver, Canada 390 391 (8.47 μ g/m³) (Wilson and Brauer, 2006); Prince George, Canada (5.0-6.4 μ g/m³) (Noullett et al., 2010); and in the U.S. (10.0-12.5 μ g/m³) (Schwartz et al., 2007; Williams 392 et al., 2003). Higher E_{na} values were reported in Guangzhou (18.1 ± 29.1 µg/m³) and in 393 Tianjin (63-97 μ g/m³, for PM₁₀), China (Chen et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2014). As shown in 394 Figure 6, on average, 52% of the personal exposure is due to E_a and 48% to E_{na} . 395 Comparable contributions and similar correlations of E_a and E_{na} with personal exposure 396 397 illustrate the importance of both ambient and indoors sources and their relevance to 398 personal activities.

399 The strength of P-C and E_a -C associations vary across subjects and seasons, indicating 400 the presence of intra- and inter-personal heterogeneity. Higher correlation coefficients were found between spatially-averaged ambient $PM_{2.5}$ with E_a (Adj. $R^2 = 0.90$; p < 0.01) 401 than among individual subjects (Adj. $R^2 = 0.58$, p < 0.01). Sheppard et al. (2005) showed 402 403 that increases in the number of central monitors is associated with decreases in 404 measurement error. Calibration coefficient < 1 agree with those estimated with a 405 regression model in the time-series studies by Kioumourtzoglou et al. (2014). Substantial 406 attenuations of 0.31-0.39 were reported in other studies (Sarnat et al., 2001; Schwartz et 407 al., 2007) using ambient $PM_{2.5}$ as the true exposure. These results refer to the 408 proportionality coefficient discussed by Zeger et al. (2000). If there were a true health 409 risk associated with E_a , similar results would be found for ambient $PM_{2.5}$ with lower 410 correlation coefficients. In contrast to the Berson error, Zeger et al. (2000) indicated that 411 the error term of average personal exposure and true ambient exposure (i.e., E_{na}) is the 412 classical error type and has the potential to bias the estimate coefficients when E_a 413 correlates with E_{na} . In this study, E_{na} is independent of ambient PM_{2.5}, as shown by very 414 weak C-E_{na} correlations (r = 0.09; p > 0.05). Sheppard et al. (2005) contend that when 415 ambient and non-ambient sources are independent, exposure variations due to E_{na} do not 416 bias the effect estimates when the study targets ambient exposure effects. A lack of bias 417 does not indicate the absence of exposure measurement error. Goldman et al. (2011) 418 propose that measurement error reduce the statistical significance of risk ratio estimates 419 for both error types. In this analysis, calibration coefficients < 1 were found for average ambient PM2.5, indicating the observed effect could be underestimated when ambient 420 421 levels at central monitoring stations are used as exposure metrics in time-series studies.

The current analysis does not further characterize the measurement errors due to instrument imprecision and $PM_{2.5}$ spatial variability (Section 2.1.2) but utilizes the mixed-effects model to calculate exposure measurement error on C-E_a and P-C correlations. This results in some limitations: 1) the small number of subjects may limit the prediction power; 2) the Hong Kong locale may limit the generalizability to other subpopulations or cities/regions; and 3) due to the lack of health data, the bias of health risk estimates was not evaluated.

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430 **5.** Conclusions

Personal exposures provide more precise and representative estimates of health effects than measurements from the central monitoring stations. Consistent with previous studies, sulfur can be used as a surrogate for ambient PM_{2.5}, with an adjusted exposure factor (F_{pex}) of 0.73 ± 0.02. Moderate to strong P-C correlations were found (0.58 < *r* < 0.96) with higher correlations found between C and E_a (0.82 < *r* < 0.99; *p* < 0.05), as compared 436 to E_{na} (r = 0.09; p > 0.05). Calibration coefficients were less than one, consistent with an 437 underestimation of health risks when using ambient PM2.5 as the surrogate for true 438 exposures. This study also highlights the importance of E_{na} (18-59%) to personal PM_{2.5} 439 exposures. It is necessary to treat E_a and E_{na} as independent predictors of PM_{2.5}-related 440 health effects. Longitudinal personal monitoring studies involving subpopulations 441 varying in health status, occupations, activity levels, geographical locations, and other 442 factors would be beneficial in future research studies to evaluate true exposures and 443 expand upon our findings presented in this manuscript.

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445 **Declarations of interest**

446 None.

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458 Author Contributions

459 XCC was involved in data analysis and manuscript preparation. TW and KFH conceived 460 and designed the study. JJC, JCC, and SCL performed the exposure assessment and 461 chemical analyses. TW, JCC, JGW, and KFH revised the manuscript. HLY and NCL 462 supervised the development of the study and manuscript evaluation. All authors have 463 read and approved the final manuscript.

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1 Tables

2 Table 1. Summary of study subjects and information from the questionnaire and time-activity diaries.

Personal characteristics [*]	
Sampling date	April 25, 2014 – June 7, 2015
Study subjects (N)	13
Female	6
Male	7
Median age, years (range)	37 (19-57)
Smokers (Yes/No, %)	No (100%)
Environmental tobacco smoke (ETS) [#]	
Rarely	10 (76.9%)
Outdoors (e.g., street)	3 (23.1%)
Number of valid personal measurements (%) ^a	242 (97.6%)
Personal activity diaries (%) ^b	229 (94.6%)
Time-activities data from diaries (n = 229)	Mean \pm SD ^c
Indoors, total	$84.1 \pm 14.5\%$
Indoors, at home	$71.5 \pm 19.2\%$
Sleeping	$36.7 \pm 7.2\%$
Sitting	$24.8 \pm 16.8\%$
Cooking/Dining	$8.0 \pm 6.1\%$
Cleaning activity	$2.0 \pm 3.5\%$
Indoors, but not in a residential home (e.g., at chool, office)	$4.8 \pm 10.9\%$
Inside other buildings (e.g., canteen, shopping mall, gymnasium)	$4.3 \pm 10.5\%$
Transportation	$4.0 \pm 4.3\%$
Bus/mini-bus	$2.5 \pm 3.9\%$
Metro	$1.5 \pm 3.0\%$
Outdoors (e.g., walking outside)	$11.9 \pm 12.7\%$

Notes: *Reported values calculated from daily self-reporting individual activities. Data were collected over
 229 days from 13 subjects. Mean values are weighted averages based on individual 15-min intervals
 summed over the entire sampling period. *Percent of samples collected; *Percent of valid data; *SD refers to
 standard deviation. *Information from questionnaire, no available detailed data (e.g., frequency, duration)
 from daily activity diaries.

		Personal PM ₂	Personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposure (μ g/m ³)) ratio (no un	Mass difference ($\mu g/m^3$)	<i>p</i> -value ^f		
		Mean \pm SD ^a	Median	Min-Max	Q1-Q3 ^b	N ^c	Mean \pm SD ^a	Median	Min-Max	Q1-Q3 ^b	Np ^d	$(Mean \pm SD^a)$	
Season	Spring [#]	32.1 ± 15.8	28.5	10.8-74.7	19.4-45.2	76	1.44 ± 0.66	1.22	0.60-3.73	1.03-1.63	76	8.4 ± 11.5	< 0.001
	Summer	22.4 ± 11.8	18.1	6.8-56.2	14.3-28.5	65	1.62 ± 0.92	1.29	0.65-4.99	1.07-1.82	60	8.0 ± 10.9	< 0.001
	Autumn	35.3 ± 11.9	36.6	11.1-62.2	28.2-42.0	59	1.15 ± 0.31	1.11	0.41-2.86	1.03-1.23	52	3.9 ± 7.5	0.001
	Winter	50.2 ± 19.9	49.9	15.5-96.6	39.9-55.4	42	1.23 ± 0.55	1.06	0.60-3.41	0.99-1.25	42	7.9 ± 17.7	0.006
Subject ID	101	22.3 ± 11.2	23.5	6.8-50.9	14.1-26.3	20	0.92 ± 0.27	0.86	0.58-1.54	0.74-1.05	20	(-)3.6 ± 7.0	0.03
	102	29.2 ± 16.4	22.3	8.5-61.7	16.9-38.7	21	1.28 ± 0.37	1.18	0.71-1.89	1.01-1.57	20	5.2 ± 7.5	0.006
	103	41.7 ± 18.9	41.3	9.5-74.2	27.1-57.4	19	2.06 ± 1.06	1.68	0.77-4.99	1.44-2.38	18	18.4 ± 15.8	< 0.001
	104	23.7 ± 7.3	20.7	15.9-35.8	20.3-27.0	6	1.55 ± 0.49	1.53	1.01-2.30	1.27-1.63	5	6.6 ± 4.3	0.03
	105	36.4 ± 23.7	28.8	11.1-96.5	14.8-48.5	20	1.41 ± 0.53	1.14	0.89-2.93	1.03-1.59	19	9.8 ± 14.1	0.007
	106	34.4 ± 21.5	29.9	11.4-86.7	16.7-43.8	21	1.35 ± 0.56	1.16	0.81-3.31	1.09-1.33	20	7.8 ± 11.0	0.005
	107	40.7 ± 20.9	38.7	12.3-81.1	21.6-51.2	20	1.67 ± 0.90	1.19	1.03-4.02	1.11-1.74	19	13.2 ± 13.7	0.001
	108	31.0 ± 13.0	32.0	10.9-50.2	19.4-42.8	21	1.32 ± 0.71	1.08	0.41-3.71	1.00-1.36	20	4.3 ± 11.1	0.10
	109	38.0 ± 12.4	42.2	15.1-55.6	31.6-45.5	21	1.66 ± 0.96	1.29	0.99-4.38	1.16-1.39	20	10.4 ± 11.0	< 0.001
	110	31.8 ± 13.4	34.0	7.1-51.8	19.4-41.3	20	1.18 ± 0.31	1.11	0.78-2.12	1.02-1.28	19	4.3 ± 6.7	0.01
	111	29.6 ± 13.5	29.9	7.8-52.6	16.4-38.9	21	1.11 ± 0.18	1.12	0.76-1.42	0.99-1.19	20	2.9 ± 4.2	0.006
	112	39.7 ± 18.3	38.3	12.0-96.6	31.7-47.9	20	1.52 ± 0.67	1.29	0.97-3.73	1.10-1.74	19	12.0 ± 14.4	0.002
	113	27.4 ± 11.5	26.0	11.6-50.4	20.8-35.8	12	0.94 ± 0.18	0.87	0.60-1.17	0.84-1.12	11	$(-)2.1 \pm 6.0$	0.28
Total		334 + 173	31.8	6 8-96 6	18 5-45 1	242	138 ± 0.69	1.16	0 41-4 99	1 02-1 48	230	7 2 + 12 1	< 0.001

Table 2. Statistical summary of personal $PM_{2.5}$ exposure and personal-to-ambient $PM_{2.5}$ ratios by season and by subject, along with mass differences between personal exposures (variable 1) and ambient concentrations (variable 2)^e.

Total 33.4 ± 17.3 31.86.8-96.618.5-45.1242 1.38 ± 0.69 1.160.41-4.991.02-1.48230 7.2 ± 12.1 < 0.00119Notes: "SD refers to standard deviation; "Q1: 25th percentile; Q3: 75th percentile." N refers to the number of valid data. "N_p refers to number of personal-ambient20data pairs compared. "Ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations obtained from seven Environmental Protection Department (EPD) monitoring stations in Hong Kong.21"Bolded value indicated paired variables were statistically significant at the 0.05 level. "Spring (April 25th-May 31st, 2014 and March 3rd-May 26th, 2015);22Summer (June 6th-August 29th, 2014 and June 1st-June 7th, 2015); Autumn (September 4th-November 27th, 2014); Winter (December 3rd, 2014-February 25th, 2015).232015).

24

27	Table 3. Regression statistics for personal exposures and ambient PM _{2.5} concentrations by season and by
28	subject

		Slope	Intercept, µg/m ³	Pearson's r ^a	<i>p</i> -value ^b	N_p
Season	Spring	1.05 ± 0.13	7.3 ± 3.3	0.69	< 0.001	76
	Summer	1.18 ± 0.32	5.6 ± 4.6	0.44	< 0.001	60
	Autumn	0.90 ± 0.10	7.3 ± 3.4	0.79	< 0.001	52
	Winter	0.76 ± 0.22	18.2 ± 9.6	0.48	0.001	42
	Mean	0.97 ± 0.18	9.6 ± 5.8	0.60		230
Subject ID	101	0.68 ± 0.09	4.6 ± 2.6	0.88	< 0.001	20
	102	1.02 ± 0.12	4.8 ± 3.4	0.89	< 0.001	20
	103	0.88 ± 0.31	21.2 ± 8.1	0.58	0.01	18
	104	0.81 ± 0.28	9.7 ± 5.0	0.85	0.07	5
	105	1.15 ± 0.19	5.9 ± 6.2	0.82	< 0.001	19
	106	1.11 ± 0.15	4.7 ± 4.7	0.87	< 0.001	20
	107	0.94 ± 0.19	14.8 ± 6.3	0.76	< 0.001	19
	108	0.66 ± 0.18	13.5 ± 5.4	0.65	0.002	20
	109	0.61 ± 0.20	22.0 ± 5.9	0.58	0.007	20
	110	1.00 ± 0.14	4.3 ± 4.1	0.87	< 0.001	19
	111	1.09 ± 0.08	0.4 ± 2.3	0.96	< 0.001	20
	112	1.04 ± 0.30	10.9 ± 9.1	0.64	0.003	19
	113	0.81 ± 0.13	3.7 ± 4.3	0.90	< 0.001	11
	Mean	0.92 ± 0.18	9.3 ± 5.2	0.79		230

Notes: N_p denotes number of personal-ambient data pairs compared. ^aSpearman's correlation coefficients were estimated when data pairs < 30. ^bBolded value indicated paired variables were statistically significant

at the 0.05 level.

	Elements in p	ersonal PM	$l_{25}(ng/m^3)$					P/C ratio (no	unit)				Mass difference (ng/m ³)	<i>p</i> -value
	Mean \pm SD ^a	Median	Min-Max	Q1-Q3 ^b	MDLs	N ^c	> MDL% ^d	Mean \pm SD ^a	Median	Q1-Q3 ^b	95 CI% ^e	N_p^{f}	(Mean \pm SD ^a)	
Na	3037 ± 1901	2489	103-9374	1661-3848	33	244	99.2	6.91 ± 7.93	3.43	0.61-1.17	5.88-7.95	224	1529 ± 2380	< 0.001
Mg	128 ± 86	112	13-435	57-172	1	174	70.7	1.42 ± 2.47	0.80	0.79-1.03	1.04-1.81	159	(-31) ± 121	0.001
Al	132 ± 99	124	7-619	44-166	5	232	94.3	0.92 ± 0.59	0.75	1.02-3.43	0.84-0.99	216	$(-25) \pm 78$	< 0.001
Si	256 ± 287	176	4-2412	69-328	3	233	94.7	1.14 ± 1.53	0.80	0.77-1.14	0.93-1.34	218	$(-17) \pm 212$	0.25
S	2511 ± 1279	2317	85-6324	1493-3488	2	246	100.0	0.93 ± 0.26	0.90	1.12-1.94	0.89-0.96	230	(-346) ± 710	< 0.001
Cl	177 ± 259	73	6-1633	31-201	5	243	98.8	3.55 ± 7.17	1.72	0.96-1.57	2.63-4.48	229	57 ± 210	< 0.001
Κ	284 ± 226	238	21-1303	113-378	3	246	100.0	1.27 ± 1.91	0.91	0.42-0.88	1.02-1.51	231	(-0.1) ± 164	0.99
Ca	161 ± 143	128	17-1297	84-173	2	245	99.6	2.25 ± 5.46	1.39	0.58-1.98	1.55-2.96	231	65 ± 132	< 0.001
Ti	13 ± 10	11	1-64	6-17	1	237	96.3	1.54 ± 1.26	1.23	0.57-1.06	1.37-1.71	219	3 ± 7	< 0.001
V	16 ± 15	11	1-94	6-19	1	238	96.7	0.72 ± 0.50	0.63	0.80-1.52	0.65-0.79	224	(-7) ± 12	< 0.001
Cr	4 ± 4	3	1-35	2-4	0.9	185	75.2	1.97 ± 2.98	0.98	0.52-1.15	1.52-2.41	170	1 ± 5	0.003
Mn	11 ± 9	10	1-56	4-16	0.8	225	91.5	0.90 ± 0.63	0.80	0.42-0.83	0.82-0.99	211	$(-2) \pm 6$	< 0.001
Fe	232 ± 180	185	8-1162	113-305	0.7	246	100.0	1.41 ± 1.46	1.08	0.65-1.03	1.22-1.60	231	52 ± 154	< 0.001
Ni	6 ± 5	4	0-25	2-8	0.5	237	96.3	0.91 ± 0.55	0.79	0.42-0.78	0.84-0.98	223	(-0.7) ± 3	0.004
Cu	15 ± 20	11	1-250	5-18	0.5	241	98.0	0.74 ± 0.64	0.62	0.71-1.14	0.66-0.83	226	$(-4) \pm 17$	< 0.001

44 **Table 4.** Statistical summary of PM_{2.5} elemental concentrations for personal samples, personal to ambient elements ratios and differences in average PM_{2.5}

45 elemental concentrations between personal (variable 1) and ambient (variable 2) samples^g.

24-144

2-4

3-16

0.5

0.8

0.5

Pb 25 ± 36 191-4415-350.520884.6 0.75 ± 0.33 0.710.55-0.900.70-0.79194 $(-6) \pm 34$ 0.75 ± 0.33 46Notes: aSD refers to standard deviation; bQ1: 25^{th} percentile; Q3: 75^{th} percentile. N refers to the number of valid data, and concentrations below the minimum detection limits (MDLs) were removed; dMDLs refers to method detection limits, which is three times of the standard deviation of average laboratory blanks by x-ray fluorescence (Watson et al., 1999). 95% confidential interval. ${}^{f}N_{p}$ refers to number of personal-ambient data pairs compared. Ambient elemental concentrations obtained from seven EPD air quality monitoring stations in Hong Kong. **Bolded value indicated paired variables were statistically significant at a significance level of 0.05 for a two-sided test.

 1.29 ± 3.83

 0.65 ± 0.43

 1.04 ± 0.81

0.81

0.60

0.87

0.55-0.90

0.42-0.78

0.71-1.14

0.80-1.79

0.57-0.74

0.94-1.15

231

103

230

100.0

53.7

99.2

246

132

244

 $(-4) \pm 121$

 $(-0.3) \pm 6$

 $(-2) \pm 3$

0.60

0.47

0.02

< 0.001

51

Zn

As

Br

 106 ± 133

 3 ± 2

 11 ± 11

68

3

9

1-1366

1-13

1-88

Table 5. Regression statistics for personal exposure and ambient sulfur concentrations by season and by

54 subject.

		Slope	Intercept, µg/m ³	Pearson's r ^b	p-value ^c	N _p
Season	Spring	0.77 ± 0.05	0.3 ± 0.1	0.88	< 0.001	76
	Summer	0.83 ± 0.06	0.3 ± 0.1	0.88	< 0.001	60
	Autumn	0.67 ± 0.05	0.5 ± 0.3	0.88	< 0.001	52
	Winter	0.77 ± 0.10	0.5 ± 0.4	0.76	< 0.001	42
	Mean	0.76 ± 0.07	0.4 ± 0.1	0.85		
Subject ID	101	0.60 ± 0.08	0.4 ± 0.3	0.87	< 0.001	20
	102	0.72 ± 0.06	0.4 ± 0.2	0.95	< 0.001	20
	103	0.44 ± 0.08	1.0 ± 0.3	0.81	< 0.001	18
	104	0.78 ± 0.12	0.3 ± 0.3	0.97	0.007	5
	105	0.89 ± 0.05	0.1 ± 0.2	0.98	< 0.001	19
	106	0.90 ± 0.05	0.1 ± 0.2	0.97	< 0.001	20
	107	0.77 ± 0.06	0.5 ± 0.2	0.95	< 0.001	19
	108	0.75 ± 0.09	0.3 ± 0.3	0.90	< 0.001	20
	109	0.66 ± 0.07	0.6 ± 0.2	0.92	< 0.001	20
	110	0.82 ± 0.06	0.3 ± 0.2	0.95	< 0.001	19
	111	0.89 ± 0.06	0.2 ± 0.2	0.96	< 0.001	20
	112	0.86 ± 0.08	0.2 ± 0.3	0.93	< 0.001	19
	113	0.65 ± 0.14	0.3 ± 0.5	0.83	0.002	11
	Mean	0.75 ± 0.07	0.4 ± 0.2	0.92		
Total ^a		0.73 ± 0.03	0.3 ± 0.1		< 0.001	230

Notes: ^aResults are from mixed-effects regression analysis, which account for the repeated measurements 56 within subject ($\sigma_b^2 = 0.003$ and $\sigma_w^2 = 0.08$) while controlling for seasonality and meteorological conditions 57 (e.g., T, RH). N_p: number of personal-ambient data pairs compared. ^bSpearman's correlation coefficients (r_s) 58 were estimated when data pairs < 30. ^cBolded value indicated paired variables were statistically significant 59 at the 0.05 level.

		Slope	Intercept, µg/m ³	Pearson's r^{a}	<i>p</i> -value ^b	N_p
Season	Spring	0.87 ± 0.03	$(-0.5) \pm 0.8$	0.95	< 0.001	76
	Summer	0.94 ± 0.06	$(-0.5) \pm 0.8$	0.91	< 0.001	60
	Autumn	0.67 ± 0.07	3.1 ± 2.4	0.80	< 0.001	52
	Winter	0.88 ± 0.06	$(-0.7) \pm 2.8$	0.91	< 0.001	42
	Mean	0.84 ± 0.06		0.89		230
Subject ID	101	0.60 ± 0.07	2.7 ± 2.1	0.90	< 0.001	20
	102	0.84 ± 0.06	(-0.4) ± 1.6	0.96	< 0.001	20
	103	0.53 ± 0.09	4.8 ± 2.4	0.82	< 0.001	18
	104	0.75 ± 0.14	2.7 ± 2.5	0.95	0.01	5
	105	0.91 ± 0.03	(-0.7) ± 0.9	0.99	< 0.001	19
	106	0.90 ± 0.02	$(-0.8) \pm 0.8$	0.99	< 0.001	20
	107	0.85 ± 0.03	0.8 ± 1.0	0.99	< 0.001	19
	108	0.82 ± 0.09	0 ± 2.8	0.90	< 0.001	20
	109	0.79 ± 0.07	1.6 ± 2.0	0.94	< 0.001	20
	110	0.92 ± 0.05	$(-0.4) \pm 1.6$	0.97	< 0.001	19
	111	0.94 ± 0.04	$(-0.7) \pm 1.2$	0.98	< 0.001	20
	112	0.91 ± 0.06	$(-0.4) \pm 1.8$	0.96	< 0.001	19
	113	0.75 ± 0.11	$(-1.5) \pm 3.7$	0.91	< 0.001	11
	Mean	0.60 ± 0.20		0.94		230

Table 6. Regression statistics for personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a) vs. ambient concentration (C) by season and by subject.

Notes: N_p denotes the number of personal-ambient data pairs compared. ^aSpearman's correlation 75 coefficients (r_s) were estimated when data pairs < 30. ^bBolded value indicated paired variables were

real statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

- **Table 7.** Statistical parameters for the personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a) and total personal
- $PM_{2.5}$ exposure (P) with ambient $PM_{2.5}$ (C).

	Ambient PM _{2.5} (C)
Personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a)	7 sites
^a Estimate β (95% CI)	0.78 (0.72-0.84)***
<i>p</i> -value	< 0.001
$^{\mathrm{b}}Adj.\ \mathrm{R}^{2}$	0.74 (0.90)
^c Contribution (%)	82.2%
Total Personal PM _{2.5} exposure (P)	13 subjects ($N_p = 230$)
^a Estimate β (95% CI)	0.87 (0.70-1.04)**
<i>p</i> -value	0.002
^b Adj. \mathbb{R}^2	0.29 (0.58)
^c Contribution (%)	50.0%

Notes: ^aResults are from mixed-effects regression analysis, which accounts for the repeated measurements 94 within subject while controlling for seasonality and meteorological conditions (e.g., T, RH). ^bThe marginal 95 R² statistic for the overall mixed-effects model are marked in bold (Adj. R²). ^cDenotes percentage of 96 variance (Contribution = R²_p/Adj. R²*100%) explained by the fixed effects (e.g., C, P) in mixed-effects 97 models. ^{**}*p*-value < 0.01, ^{***}*p*-value < 0.001 for significant difference from 1.

Figure Captions

1

2

(labeled A) and study subjects' residences for personal monitoring (orange circles). 3 Figure 2. Subject-specific $PM_{2.5}$ exposures ($\mu g/m^3$) and time series of daily average 4 5 ambient and personal PM_{2.5} throughout the study period. 6 **Figure 3**. Distribution of (a) subject-specific Spearman's correlation coefficients (r_s) and (b) coefficients of divergence (COD) for personal-to-ambient PM_{25} and elements ratios. 7 COD values greater than 0.20 (solid line) imply similarities. Boxplots represent 75th 8 percentile, the median and 25th percentile of all data. 9 **Figure 4**. Association of ambient and personal exposure to sulfur $(\mu g/m^3)$ throughout the 10 study period ($N_p = 230$). 11 Figure 5. Estimation of personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a) and non-12 ambient exposure (E_{na}) by subject and by season. 13 Figure 6. Scatter plot and regression statistics with 95% confidence interval showing the 14 relationship between estimate variables (E_a , E_{na}) with total personal exposures. 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

Figure 1. Map of the study area in Hong Kong with seven air quality monitoring stations



Fig. 1. Map of the study area in Hong Kong with seven air quality monitoring stations(labeled A) and study subjects' residences for personal monitoring (orange circles).



Fig. 2. Subject-specific $PM_{2.5}$ exposures ($\mu g/m^3$) and time series of daily average ambient and personal $PM_{2.5}$ throughout the study period.



Fig. 3. Distribution of (a) subject-specific Spearman's correlation coefficients (r_s) and (b) coefficients of divergence for personal-to-ambient PM_{2.5} and elements ratios. COD values greater than 0.20 (solid line) imply similarities. Boxplots represent 75th percentile, median, and 25th percentile of all data.



Fig. 4. Association of ambient and personal exposure to sulfur throughout the study 42 period ($N_p = 230$).



Fig. 5. Estimation of personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ of ambient origin (E_a) and non-ambient

50 exposure (E_{na}) by subject and by season.

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Fig. 6. Scatter plot and regression statistics with 95% confidence interval showing the relationship between estimate variables (E_a , E_{na}) with total personal exposures.

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