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- Personal exposure to PM_{2.5} emitted from typical anthropogenic sources in
- 2 Southern West Africa (SWA): Chemical characteristics and associated
- 3 health risks

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risks).



Abstract

Urbanization is a strongly emerging issue in Southern West African (SWA) region. There is a general lack of understanding about the personal exposure to fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), its chemical components and health risks related to the various anthropogenic sources in this region. In the current study, personal exposure to PM_{2.5} (PE PM_{2.5}) sampling was for the first time carried out in dry season (January) and wet season (July) of 2016 to characterize PE PM_{2.5} from Domestic Fires (DF) for women and Waste Burning (WB) for students in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire and Motorcycle Traffic (MT) for drivers in Cotonou, Benin. The average PE PM_{2.5} mass concentrations were 331.7±190.7, 356.9±71.9 and 242.8±67.6 µg m⁻³ at DF, WB and MT for women, students and drivers, which were 2.4, 10.3 and 6.4 times of the ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations, respectively. Mean concentrations of PE $PM_{2.5}$ at DF (358.8±100.5 µg m⁻³), WB (494.3±15.8 µg m⁻³) and MT (335.1±72.1 µg m⁻³) were much elevated in dry season, 15% higher than that at DF and 55% higher at both WB and MT. The changes in PE PM_{2.5} can be attributed to the source emissions, meteorological factors and personal activities. The results also show that geological material (35.8%, 46.0% and 42.4%) and organic matter (34.1%, 23.3% and 24.9%) were always the major components in PE PM2.5 at DF, WB and MT sites. It is worth noting that the contribution to PE PM_{2.5} from heavy metals was higher at WB (1.0%) than at DF (0.7%) and MT (0.4%), which was influenced by the waste burning emission strongly, leading to the highest heavy metal non-cancer risks for students (5.1 and 4.8 times of women and drivers' non-cancer

In organic species of PE PM_{2.5}, some fingerprints can be used to quantify the exposure concentrations and trace the source contributions from local typical anthropogenic sources to different samples. Women exposure concentration to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in PM_{2.5} at DF (77.4±47.9 ng m⁻³) was 1.6 times that for students at WB (49.9±30.7 ng m⁻³) and 2.1 times for drivers at MT (37.0±7.4 ng m⁻³), which is related to the solid fuels burning and grilling meat activities, resulting in 5 times higher of cancer risk safety threshold (1×10⁻⁶) to women. Phthalate esters (PAEs), commonly used as plasticizers in many products, were observed to be extremely high in student exposure PM_{2.5} samples (1380.4±335.2 ng m⁻³) at WB site, owing to the waste burning emission obviously. Drivers exposure to fossil fuel emission (especially traffic) markers-hopanes in PE PM_{2.5} at MT (50.9±7.9 ng m⁻³) was 2.0-2.3 times higher than women at DF (17.1±6.4 ng m⁻³) and students at WB (15.6±6.1 ng m⁻³), correlating with the elevated exposure to traffic emissions for drivers.

Overall, the study shows that wood combustion, waste burning, fugitive dust and motor

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vehicle emissions dominated PE PM_{2.5} mass and contributed to its toxicities mainly. Heavy metals and organic chemicals in PE PM_{2.5} in SWA brought about Pb and Mn non-cancer health risks for students at WB site and serious PAHs cancer risks for women at DF site via inhalation pathway. This study provides basic data and initial perspective of PM_{2.5} personal exposure and health risk assessment in underdeveloped area to encourage the government to improve the air quality and living standard of residents in this region.

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- 69 Keywords: personal exposure to PM_{2.5}; domestic fires; waste burning; motorcycle traffic;
- 70 West Africa

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1. Introduction

The southern West Africa (SWA) region has experienced an economic upturn and increasingly significant anthropogenic air pollutant emissions during the last few years and causes serious air pollution (IMF, 2017; Norman et al., 2007). Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5} with equivalent aerodynamic diameters $\leq 2.5~\mu m$) is one of the major concerns of international organizations and publics because of the health effects associated with exposure levels, health of individuals and pollutant emission sources (Bruce et al., 2000; Chen et al., 2013; Owili et al., 2017). Owili et al. (2017) found that the four types of ambient PM_{2.5}, including mineral dust, anthropogenic pollutant, biomass burning and mixture aerosols are significantly associated with under-five and maternal mortality in Africa. However, studies on PM_{2.5}, especially direct personal exposure to PM_{2.5} (not stationary sampling) and its health effects are still limited in low income countries in this region.

Since the 1990s, several international campaigns have been performed in Africa. Some of them were mainly focused on the particles or aerosols, for example DECAFE (Lacaux et al., 1995), EXPRESSO (Delmas et al. 1999; Ruellan et al., 1999), SAFARI-1992 (Lindesay et al., 1996), SAFARI-2000 (Swap et al., 2002), AMMA (Léon et al., 2009; Liousse et al., 2010; Marticorena et al., 2010) and INDAAF (Ouafo-Leumbe et al., 2017). As we known, the Africa is the largest source of mineral dust particles from the Sahara Desert and unpaved road surfaces (Laurent et al., 2008; Marticorena et al., 2010; Reeves et al., 2010), carbonaceous aerosols originated from wild fires (mainly savannah fires) as well (Capes et al., 2008; Gaudichet et al., 1995). Therefore, these campaigns were more biased towards the natural sources of aerosols in Africa. Liousse et al. (2014) have shown the increase of the relative importance of particulate emissions from domestic fires and fossil fuel combustion in Africa. In previous literature, the major contributions to the aerosol chemistry in the dry season in northern Benin were dust (26%-59%), primary organic matters (POC, 30%-59%), elemental carbon (EC, 5%-9%) and water soluble inorganic ions (3%-5%) (Ouafo-Leumbe et al., 2017). This poses serious health questions for people who frequent the city on a daily basis. However, there is still limited literature on the health effects of personal exposure to PM_{2.5} emitted from the typical anthropogenic sources in the emerging cities in Africa.

The main anthropogenic emission sources of PM_{2.5} in SWA include domestic wood burning, fossil fuel combustion, unregulated traffic and industries, waste burning and road dust associated to human activities. An ongoing project in Africa-DACCIWA (Dynamics-Aerosol-Chemistry-Cloud Interactions in West Africa) aims at quantifying the influence of anthropogenic and natural emissions on the atmospheric composition over South West Africa

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and assessing their impact on human, ecosystem health and agricultural productivity, which will be communicated to policy-makers, scientists, operational centres, students and general publics. The current work involved in the framework of the Work Package 2 "Air Pollution and Health" of DACCIWA is trying to link emission sources, air pollution and health impacts over representative differentiated urban sources: domestic fires and waste burning in Abidjan (Ivory Coast) and two-wheel vehicle traffic emission in Cotonou (Benin) for different target populations.

Smoking meat (fish and pork) by biomass fuels (mainly wood) is an important diet pattern for residents of coastal countries in SWA area. Many female workers without any personal health protection are engaged in roasting activity. They are directly exposed to extremely PM_{2.5} pollution from wood burning and smoking meat, causing very serious health problems. Urbanization leads to explosive population growth and rural depopulation in SWA, resulting in a large amount of urban domestic waste. The biggest landfill in Abidjan focused in this study received more than 1,000,000 t waste per year (Adjiri et al., 2015). A mass of garbage lacks processing capacity and reasonable treatment method, resulting in a large amount of air pollutants emitted during the combustion and stacking of waste, which damages the living environment and health condition of the populations in Abidjan, especially for children (UNEP, 2015). Moreover, in many low-income countries, motorbike taxis are a major mode of local transportation (Assamoi and Liousse, 2010). In Benin, motorbike taxi drivers (mainly male) represented almost 2.5% of the total population of Benin in 2002 (Lawin et al., 2016). As they spend many hours in the middle of traffic every day, these drivers are highly exposed to traffic-related PM_{2.5} pollution over years.

Major chemical components in PM_{2.5}, like OC, ions and EC mentioned above, not only strong impact on PM_{2.5} physicochemical characteristics, but also affect its health risks. Typical trace toxic chemicals, such as heavy metals and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) can be attached on PM_{2.5}, which would cause various health problems for humans (Cao et al., 2012; WHO, 1998; Xu et al., 2015). For example, Pb is neuro-developmental metal, affecting children health and mental development seriously (USEPA, 2006; Xu et al., 2017). PAHs can be teratogenic and carcinogenic for humans strongly (Tang et al., 2008). Up to now, only few studies have investigated PM_{2.5} chemical compositions of the personal exposure samples, and little is known regarding the sources and health risks of personal exposure PM_{2.5} in SWA region. This poses a challenge to formulation of strategies aimed at mitigating PM_{2.5} pollution and its health effects in this area.

Therefore, our study relies on the portative device sampling PM_{2.5} personal exposure

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samples in SWA area in 2016 for the purpose of 1) characterizing the personal exposure to PM_{2.5} as variation of different local typical anthropogenic PM_{2.5} sources by the chemical component analysis and PM_{2.5} mass balance; 2) identifying potential pollution sources to different exposed populations by fingerprint organic markers; 3) evaluating the personal exposure to PM_{2.5} health risks by the U.S. EPA health risk assessment model. This information will provide scientific understanding of the personal exposure to PM_{2.5} in SWA and try to arouse the government's attention to protect residents there from various anthropogenic sources.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Site description and participants selection

Personal exposure to $PM_{2.5}$ (hereafter defined as PE $PM_{2.5}$) filter samples were collected using portative devices in the polluted atmosphere of different source environments, including Domestic Fires (DF) for women, Waste Burning (WB) for students both in Abidjan, Côte d'Ivoire, and Motorcycle Traffic (MT) for drivers in Cotonou, Benin (Figure 1). Abidjan (5°20′ N, 4°1′ W) is the economic capital of Côte d'Ivoire with 6.5 million inhabitants in 2016. It is characterized by a high level of industrialisation and urbanization in SWA area. Cotonou (6°21′ N, 2°26′ W) is the largest city and economic center of Benin, with about 1.5 million inhabitants in 2016. Both cities experience a tropical wet and dry climate, with relatively constant air temperature (24-30 °C) and average relative humidity (RH) above 80% throughout the year.

DF site in Abidjan is located in the market of Yopougon-Lubafrique (5°19.7′ N, 4°6.4′ W) in a large courtyard with about 25 fireplaces (Figure 2). The fuels used are essentially hevea wood (one kind of rubber trees) locally. Several adult female workers were employed to grilling meat or roasting peanuts from 06:00 to 15:00 UTC (working time) in the working day. In this study, we selected two healthy, non-smoking female workers (average age of 32.5 years old) to investigate personal exposure to PM_{2.5} from domestic fire and related sources, such as grilling (Figure 2). WB site in Abidjan is near the public landfill of Akouédo (5°21.2′ N, 3°56.3′ W), which has received all the waste produced from Abidjan for the last 50 years (Figure 2). We selected two healthy, non-smoking primary school students (average age of 11 years old) who live and study next to WB site (within 100 m straight-line distance) to determine the personal exposure to PM_{2.5} from waste burning (spontaneous combustion at high air temperature condition and combustion by the landfill workers sometimes) emission at landfill and other daily sources. MT site in Cotonou is located in the Dantokpa area (6°22.1′

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N, $2^{\circ}25.9'$ E), one of the biggest markets in western Africa (Figure 2). It is largely dominated by a mass of motorcycle traffic (two-wheel vehicles powered by petrol, also named zemidjan in local language) and a small quantity of other motor vehicles emissions. We chose two healthy, non-smoking male motorcycle drivers (average age of 50 years old) to survey $PM_{2.5}$ personal exposure from motorcycle emission and related sources (such as road dust).

Two women (woman A and B) involved in this study at DF are both in charge of cooking at home by charcoal and butane gas, and cleaning house in daily life (Figure S1abc). One of the student participators (student A, boy, 8 years old) at WB doesn't cook at home by himself (energy sources for cooking are charcoal and liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)) (Figure S1ac), but the other student (student B, girl, 14 years old) is usually responsible for cooking at home by burning solid fuel, i.e., wood (Figure S1d). Two motorcycle drivers (driver A and B) focused in this study at MT are both working for a local motorcycle operation company, whose working time is usually from 6:30 to 10:30, 12:00 to 17:00 and 18:30 to 21:00 UTC. They are driving on road almost all the working time and go back home for meals. They don't cook at home by themselves (energy source for cooking is charcoal) (Figure S1a).

2.2. Personal exposure to PM_{2.5} samples collection and QA/QC

12-hour integrated (daytime: 7:30 to 19:30 UTC; nighttime: 19:30 to 7:30 on the next day UTC) PE PM_{2.5} samples were collected during the dry season (from January 6th to 11th) and wet season (from July 5th to 10th), 2016 in two major southwestern African cities mentioned above (Figure 1). PE PM_{2.5} sampling was conducted during three consecutive days with the same type participants synchronously, using the PEM (Personal Environmental Monitor) sampling devices with SKC pump (SKC Inc., USA) at a flow rate of 10 liter per minute (lpm). The PEM PM_{2.5} sampling head worn in the breathing zone of participants in this study. Samples were collected on 37 mm pre-baked quartz filters (800 °C, 3 hours, QM/A®, Whatman Inc., UK). A total of 72 personal exposure samples, including 24 samples (12 daytime + 12 nighttime samples) for women at DF, 24 (12 + 12) for students at WB and 24 (12+12) for drivers at MT, were collected in this study. Moreover, 12 PE PM_{2.5} field blanks (one field blank for each participant in one season, collected on the second day of the three consecutive sampling days) were sampled in this study as well.

In order to verify the comparability of personal exposure samples and data caused by not identical sampling devices, 10 pairs of PM_{2.5} samples were synchronously collected by two sets of actual PEMs with SKC pumps. The comparison results led to a significant correlation between the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations obtained from two sampling devices

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(y=0.986x+0.189, R^2 =0.974, P<0.0001). Identical membrane (quartz fiber) and analytical treatments were used in this study. After sampling, the filter samples were placed in Petri dishes, sealed with parafilm and stored in a -20 °C freezer to prevent loss of mass through volatilization prior to analysis. Blank values were used to account for any artifacts caused by gas absorption and subtract the background $PM_{2.5}$ and chemical compositions concentrations in this area.

We report the meteorological observations during the dry (December 2015 to March 2016) and wet (April to July 2016) seasons at the sampling places in Table 1. Meteorological data are retrieved from the NOAA Global Surface Summary of the Day I (GSOD) at the airports of each cities, namely Felix Houphouet Boigny Airport (Abidjan) and Cardinal Bernadin Gantin International Airport (Benin). We give the daily average air temperature, wind speed and rainfall accumulation in Table 1.

2.3. PM_{2.5} gravimetric and chemical analysis

PE $PM_{2.5}$ filter samples were analyzed gravimetrically for mass concentrations with a high-precision electronic microbalance (Sartorius MC21S, Germany) at Laboratoire d'Aérologie (Toulouse, France) before and after sampling in the weighing room after equilibration at 20-23 °C and the RH of 35%-45% for 24-hour. The absolute errors between replicate weights were less than 0.015 mg for blank filters and 0.020 mg for sampled filters.

Total carbon (TC) was determined on 0.5 cm² punch-out of the filters by a carbon analyzer (Ströhlein Coulomat 702C, Germany) at the Observatoire Midi-Pyrenees (OMP, Toulouse, France). The quartz filter samples were subjected to a thermal pretreatment step (kept at 60°C for 20 mins) in order to remove the volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and eliminate water vapor. Subsequently the filters were combusted at 1200°C under O₂ and detected as CO₂ in the carbon analyzer. Elemental carbon (EC) was obtained using a two-step thermal method: step 1 consisted in a pre-combustion at 340 °C under O₂ for 2 h in order to remove organic carbon (OC); step 2 consisted in the oxidation of the remaining EC at 1200 °C under O₂. The difference (TC-EC) yielded OC concentration (Benchrif et al., 2018; Cachier et al., 2005).

To extract the water-soluble inorganic ions from the quartz filters, 1/4 of the filter was placed in a separate 15 mL vials containing 10 mL distilled-deionized water (18.2 M Ω resistivity). The vials were placed in an ultrasonic water bath and shaken with a mechanical shaker for 45 min (15 min \times 3 times) to extract the ions. The extracts were filtered through 0.45 μ m pore size microporous membranes. After that, three anions (Cl⁻, NO₃⁻ and SO₄²-) and

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five cations (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) in aqueous extracts of the filters were determined by an ion chromatograph (IC) analyzer (Dionex-600, Dionex, Sunnyvale, CA, USA), which was equipped with an AS11-HC anion column and a CS12 cation column for separation. Details of the IC method are described in Bahino et al. (2018) and Cachier et al. (2005).

One element: Fe (representing earth's crust emission) and ten heavy metals: V, Cr, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Sb, Ba and Pb in PE PM_{2.5} samples were determined by Energy Dispersive X-Ray Fluorescence (ED-XRF) spectrometry (the PANalytical Epsilon 5 ED-XRF analyzer, the Netherlands) on 1/4 of filters in this study as well. The relative errors for all measured elements were < 6% between NIST Standard Reference Material (SRM) 2783 and our ED-XRF results, which is well within the required range of error, demonstrating the accuracy of ED-XRF. Replicate analysis of one quartz-fiber filter sample (five times) yielded an analytical precision between 5.2%-13.9%. Details of the ED-XRF measurements are described in Brouwer (2003) and Xu et al. (2012).

0.1-1.0 cm² punch-outs aliquots from the quartz filters were used to quantify the organic compounds, including polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), phthalate esters (PAEs) and hopanes (see the specific organic species and their abbreviations measured in this study in Table 5) by an in-injection port thermal desorption-gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (TD-GC/MS) method. The approach has the advantages of shorter sample preparation time (< 1 min), minimizing of contaminations from solvent impurities, and higher sensitivity, compared with the traditional solvent extraction-GC/MS method. The detail analytical procedures have been reported in previous publications (Ho and Yu, 2004; Ho et al., 2008, 2011; Xu et al., 2013, 2016a). The results of the blank analyses showed only trace contamination levels (< 5.0%) of PE PM_{2.5} samples concentrations.

2.4. Health risk assessment model

As we known, heavy metals and toxic organic species are associated with negative personal exposure health effects (Škrbic et al., 2016; Val et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017a; Xu et al., 2018a). In this study, four heavy metals (Mn, Ni, Zn and Pb) and all PAHs and PAEs species in PE PM_{2.5} were selected to determine the personal exposure inhalation health risks. The carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic health risks of PM_{2.5} chemical species were calculated according to the U.S. EPA health risk assessment model (USEPA, 2004, 2011). The average daily exposure dose (D) via inhalation was estimated to assess the risk by the equations (1) as follows:

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 $D = (C \times R \times EF \times ED \times cf) / (BW \times AT)$ (1)

the definitions and recommended values of parameters are shown in Table 2.

A hazard quotient (HQ) for non-cancer risk of heavy metals in PE PM_{2.5} samples can be obtained from equation (2):

 $HQ = D/RfD \qquad (2)$

the threshold value of RfD indicates whether there is an adverse health effect during a certain period. Hazard index (HI) can be obtained by summing up the individual HQ to estimate the total non-cancer risks. If the HI < 1, then non-carcinogenic effect is impossible; HI ≥ 1 , adverse health effect might likely appear (Hu et al., 2012).

The incremental lifetime cancer risk (ILCR) of PAHs and PAEs in personal exposure $PM_{2.5}$ samples can be calculated by multiplying the cancer slope factor (CSF) of PAHs and PAEs with D as equation (3):

 $ILCR = D \times CSF \qquad (3)$

for cancer risk, the value of 1×10^{-6} is an internationally accepted as the precautionary or threshold value above which the risk is unacceptable (Jedrychowski et al., 2015).

It is worth noting that, among the nineteen PAHs, BaP has been used as an indicator of PAHs carcinogenicity (Wang et al., 2006). The carcinogenic health risk of PAH species can be assessed by [BaP]_{eq} instead (Yassaa et al., 2001) by equation (4):

 $\Sigma[BaP]_{eq} = \Sigma (C_i \times TEF_i)$ (4)

Besides, the carcinogenic risk for PAEs was assessed by DEHP, which is identified as a possible carcinogen to humans by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) (IARC, 1982; Li et al., 2016). The definitions and recommended values of the parameters in equations (2-4) are also shown in Table 2 and Table 3.

2.5. Questionnaire and time-activity diary

Questionnaire (Appendix A-C) and time-activity diary (Appendix D) were collected from each participant during the sampling period, respectively, to fully grasp the basic information, potential exposure sources and activities of participants. In the questionnaire, personal information, family status, dermatological, asthma symptoms, medical history, current health status and so on were first asked from each participant. Besides, the questions for women include: (1) living habits and environment (past and current living conditions, general living habits, cooking habits and domestic fuel type/usage); (2) work environment and travel habits (workplace, work nature, working time and daily travel mode/time); and (3) affected by the burning of domestic solid fuels and roasting meat. The questions for students

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include: (1) living habits and environment (past and current living conditions, general living habits, participation in household duties, the family cooking habits and domestic fuel type/usage; distance from home to WB site); (2) school environment and travel habits (school location and related environment and daily travel mode/time); and (3) affected by the burning of waste and household air pollution source. The questions for drivers include: (1) living habits and environment (past and current living environments, general living habits, participation in household duties, the family cooking habits and domestic fuel type/usage); (2) work environment and travel habits (motorcycle power type, driving conditions, working time and daily travel mode/time); and (3) affected by the motorcycle emission and household air pollution source.

The time-activity diaries requested the participants to mark on half an hour basis (sleeping time excluded) to assess each microenvironment time spending and detailed activities.

3. Results and discussion

- 3.1. Personal exposure to PM_{2.5} and its chemical compositions
- 3.1.1. PE PM_{2.5} mass concentration

The average personal exposure to PM_{2.5} (PE PM_{2.5}) mass concentrations were 331.7±190.7, 356.9±71.9 and 242.8±67.6 μg m⁻³ for women at Domestic Fires (DF), students at Waste Burning (WB) and drivers at Motorcycle Traffic (MT) respectively in 2016 in Southern West Africa (SWA). Among these three types of subjects, the average concentrations of PE PM_{2.5} for women and students were quite similar, ~40% higher than the drivers. PE PM_{2.5} ranged from 106.2 μg m⁻³ (nighttime in dry season, January 7th) to 1164.7 μg m⁻³ (daytime in wet season, July 5th) for women at DF; from 37.8 μg m⁻³ (nighttime in wet season, July 8th) to 1137.0 μg m⁻³ (daytime in dry season, January 11th) for students at WB; and from 65.0 μg m⁻³ (nighttime in wet season, July 11th) to 648.5 μg m⁻³ (daytime in dry season, January 15th) for drivers at MT. The ranges and standard deviations of PE PM_{2.5} concentrations were extremely large, especially for women, because there are direct combustion sources close around the women workers in this study. Moreover, the variations of personal physics activities and air pollution source intensities lead to a drastic fluctuation for PE PM_{2.5}.

The average mass concentrations of PE $PM_{2.5}$ were 358.8 ± 100.5 , 494.3 ± 15.8 and 335.1 ± 72.1 µg m⁻³ in dry season (January), and 304.6 ± 284.5 , 219.5 ± 71.3 and 150.6 ± 10.4 µg m⁻³ in wet season (July) for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT, respectively

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(Table 4). Compared to dry season, the reduction rate of PE PM_{2.5} for women at DF in wet season was approximately 15%, while the sharp reductions were observed for students and drivers at a similar level by more than 50%. PE PM_{2.5} concentrations reducing could be attributed to the occurrence of increased levels of rainfall in wet season in SWA (Table 1), which causes the large reduction of road dust exposed to drivers and limits the garbage spontaneous combustion significantly around students. Moreover, large scale transport of mineral dust and combustion aerosols emitted by savannah wild fires contribute significantly to the aerosol load during the dry season (Djossou et al., 2018), which is more important at WB and MT than at DF (crowded community environment).

PE PM_{2.5} mass concentrations in the daytime were much higher than those at night, no matter in dry or wet season (Table 4 and Figure 3). The 12-hour averaged PE PM_{2.5} concentrations show day/night (D/N) ratios of 3.4 (3.8 in dry season and 3.1 in wet season), 2.7 (2.8 and 2.5) and 2.4 (1.5 and 3.3) for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT, respectively. Intensive human activities during the day, such as solid fuel combustion, waste combustion or motor vehicle emission around the different group subjects, enhance the levels of PM_{2.5} exposure in the daytime. For example, lower PM_{2.5} personal exposure level for students at night at WB can be explained also by the fact that the participants in this study usually spent most of the time indoors at night with limited physical activity, leading them to be able to stay a distance and/or shelter from obvious emission sources (waste combustion) outdoors. Besides, big fluctuations of D/N ratios for drivers were observed, with lower value in dry season and higher in wet season. Relatively lower D/N ratio probably attributes to nighttime driving (18:30 to 21:00 UTC) after dinner, which enhances their PM_{2.5} exposed levels from vehicle emission and road dust. Much higher D/N ratios in wet season attribute to the increase in precipitation in wet season in Cotonou (Table 1), especially at night (Sealy et al., 2003), leading to the lower exposure for drivers at night after aerosol scavenging and the less driving time in wet season because of the unfavorable weather.

The average PE PM_{2.5} levels are compared to the weekly ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations (Djossou et al., 2018) obtained in the same area and similar sampling period. The average PE PM_{2.5} were 3.0 and 2.0 times the ambient values found at DF, and 6.1 and 8.8 times at MT in dry and wet seasons, respectively. The highest PE PM_{2.5} to ambient (A) (PE/A) ratios were found at WB, i.e., 10.3 in dry and 10.5 in wet season. Such large PE/A ratios are due to the impact of waste combustion on the respiratory exposure of residents in this area, especially on children; on the other hand, high PE/A ratios attribute to the fact that WB site is located in the poorest region of Abidjan, where the extremely simple stove and wood used at home

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(Figure S1d), leading to a very high personal PM_{2.5} exposure level indoors during the cooking time in this area (especially for student B who was in charge of cooking at home sometimes recorded in the activity logging and questionnaire). Meanwhile, the ambient PM_{2.5} sampling equipment at WB was neither fixed very close to (blue marker in Figure 1C) nor in the downwind direction of the landfill (Djossou et al., 2018), which direct suggests the huge differences between the ambient and personal exposure PM_{2.5} concentrations.

Moreover, we also compare the daytime PE PM_{2.5} mass concentrations with the daytime ambient PM_{2.5}, which collected in the same area and exactly the same dates as the personal exposure sampling period. The average daytime women PE PM_{2.5} were 3.7 and 1.2 times of the ambient PM_{2.5} at DF in dry and wet seasons, respectively, which was similar as the finding from the comparation with the weekly PM_{2.5} mentioned above. But for the students at WB and drivers at MT, PE/A ratios were both much smaller than those compared with the weekly ambient PM_{2.5}, 5.1 and 7.0 for the students at WB, 1.9 and 3.3 for the drivers at MT in dry and wet seasons, respectively. PE/A ratios for students were also showed the highest values. PE/A ratios observed all above 1.0 and the great variability of PM_{2.5} mass concentrations between personal exposure and ambient samples imply that fix-point sampling is likely to underestimate the PM_{2.5} personal exposure and consequent human health hazards, and confirm the importance of portative PE PM_{2.5} sampling to PM_{2.5} health risk assessment again.

3.1.2. PE PM_{2.5} chemical compositions

Table 4 summarizes the average concentrations of PE PM_{2.5} chemical compositions, including carbon fractions (OC and EC), water-soluble inorganic ions and several heavy metals. Total carbon (TC) was the most important chemical species in PE PM_{2.5}, accounting for 24.4%±4.5%, 16.6%±2.0% and 17.8%±4.9% of PE PM_{2.5} mass of women, students and drivers, respectively. High level of OC proves the strong contribution of combustion sources to PE PM_{2.5} in SWA in this study (Djossou et al., 2018; Ouafo-Leumbe et al., 2017). The OC and EC concentrations varied significantly, ranging from 28.3 to 460.0, 8.0 to 189.9 and 14.7 to 65.1 μg m⁻³ for OC and 1.5 to 31.1, 0.8 to 35.1 and 1.9 to 18.2 μg m⁻³ for EC for women, students and drivers, separately. The OC concentration (83.2 μg m⁻³) and percentage (24.4%) in women PE PM_{2.5} samples were the highest among the three types of exposed participants, due to their close contact with the ignition and the direct burning of the solid fuels (wood in this study) and roasting meat at the workplace, and even cooking at home, etc. However, the EC concentrations and proportions for these three targets were similar (8.4-10.5 μg m⁻³ and 3.0%-3.5%), meaning that EC is less affected by human activities related to combustion

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sources in this study.

The OC and EC ratio (OC/EC) has been used to determine emission and transformation characteristics of carbonaceous aerosols (Cao et al., 2008). OC/EC averaged 9.9±5.3 for women at DF, 6.1±0.7 for students at WB, and 5.8±2.7 for drivers at MT. The previous studies (Cao et al., 2008; Li et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2017) suggested that average OC/EC characterizes 1.1 as motor vehicle exhaust, 2.7 as coal combustion and 9.0 as biomass burning. The OC/EC in the present study points out that biomass burning emission was the main contributor to carbonaceous aerosols for women at DF, and the mixed emissions from biomass and coal burning, even or/and motor vehicle exhaust dominated the carbonaceous aerosol sources for students at WB and drivers at MT. The OC/EC was almost always higher during wet than dry season, which may be related to the fact that the higher relative humidity in wet season favors the formation of secondary organic carbon (SOC) (Huang et al., 2014). Drivers' daytime OC/EC shows relatively low (average: 3.7) and stable ratios in wet and dry seasons, indicating that motor vehicle exhaust was the most important source to drivers' OC and EC in the daytime, consistent with the working environment of motorcycle drivers in this study. Personal exposure of women displays the higher (average: 13.9) and more scattered OC/EC than those collected from students and drivers in wet season (Figure 4), resulting from the particularly high and dramatic changes individual exposure to obvious carbonaceous aerosol sources (wood burning and grilling).

In a previous study of Djossou et al. (2018) about OC/EC at ambient (A) environment, OC/EC in personal exposure samples were about 1.2 and 2.5 times of the ambient values in dry and wet seasons for women at DF, 1.7 and 2.8 times for students at WB, and 1.1 and 2.0 times for drivers at MT. Therefore, the higher OC/EC values in personal exposure samples resulted from some specific individual's activities and potentially contaminated microenvironments (Crist et al., 2008; Meng et al., 2009). From the results we can also see that the influences of precipitation and other meteorological factors on OC/EC of the ambient samples are less than personal exposure samples (Dry season OC/EC was more comparable between the ambient and personal exposure samples in this study).

The average concentrations of total measured water soluble inorganic ions were 23.6 ± 12.8 , 35.5 ± 18.3 and 22.7 ± 5.0 µg m⁻³ for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT, accounting for $8.5\%\pm1.0\%$, $12.1\%\pm2.7\%$ and $11.9\%\pm0.4\%$ of PE PM_{2.5} mass, respectively. Unlike of the ion compositions in polluted cities of China (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were the most abundant ions in ambient PM_{2.5}, accounting for 50%-90% of measured ions and ~30% of PM_{2.5} mass) (Xu et al., 2016b; Zhang et al., 2013), Ca²⁺, a marker of

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fugitive dust, was the most abundant ion, accounting for ~28% (from 25.3% to 29.3%) of ions in this study, following by Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻ and K⁺ for women at DF, Na⁺ SO₄²⁻ and Cl⁻ for students at WB, SO₄²⁻, Na⁺ and NO₃⁻ for drivers at MT. It can thus be seen that the particle resuspension by personal activities is the main contributor to PE PM_{2.5} in SWA (Chen et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2015). The day and night variations of Ca²⁺ contribution to total ions also illustrate this conclusion (day=30.6% and night=22.8%). SO₄²⁻ forms primarily through atmospheric oxidation of SO₂ emitted mainly from coal and diesel combustion (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006, Xu et al., 2016b). As the second most enriched ion, the average proportion of SO₄²⁻ was 17.7%, which implies that purification raw coal and diesel (Wang et al., 2013) can be applied in this area to lead to lower sulfur emissions and therefore decrease the personal exposure to SO₄²⁻ in PM_{2.5}. Drivers' SO₄²⁻ exposure levels were 33% and 40% higher than women and students respectively, which may indirectly indicate that the emission of SO₄²⁻ precursor SO₂ is higher in Cotonou or targeted drivers affected by vehicle emissions are exposed to high SO₂ or SO₄²⁻, especially from the diesel vehicles.

Generally, Na⁺ and Cl⁻ were the third and fourth ranked ions. The sampling sites in SWA cities in this study are all close to the sea and are affected by sea salt particles strongly. It's also worth noting that biomass burning marker-K⁺ (Kang et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2014b) displays a high absolute average concentration (3.4 μg m⁻³) and percentage (14.5%) in women PE PM_{2.5} samples, confirming their distinct exposure from biomass burning during the roasting at the workplace. As we know, NO₃⁻ derives from NO_x emitted mainly from motor vehicle exhaust (especially gasoline vehicle), industry and power plants (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006; Xu et al., 2016b). Additional consideration here: industry is not well-developed in this area (much less industry in Cotonou than Abidjan) and is not the main source of PM_{2.5} (Ouafo-Leumbe et al., 2017). It suggests that motor vehicle emission contributed to drivers' exposure obviously in this study, comparing with women at DF and students at WB, consistent with the conclusion about SO₄²⁻ above.

The concentrations of 10 targeted heavy metals, including V, Cr, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Sb, Ba and Pb, can be found in Table 4. The total concentrations of these 10 elements were 1.4±0.3, 3.9±6.5 and 0.8±0.2 μg m⁻³ for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT during the sampling period, accounting for 0.7%±0.4%, 1.0%±1.2% and 0.4%±0.1% of PE PM_{2.5}, correspondingly. The heavy metal exposed concentration of students was 1.8 and 3.9 times higher than those for women and drivers, resulting mainly from the garbage combustion at landfill which emit extremely high level of heavy metals as we known (Wang et al., 2017b). The D/N ratios ranged from 0.8 to 2.1 for women and drivers, but averaged 4.0

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in dry season and 7.0 in wet season for students. There are two reasons for this phenomenon: the first reason could be related with the intense physical activities from the students and strong disturbances from landfill workers in the daytime at landfill; the second reason is that spontaneous combustion of waste occurs frequently during the day, because of less precipitation and higher air temperature at daytime. Ba, Zn and Mn were found to be the dominant heavy metals, ~73% of elemental concentration in all samples. It is worth mentioning that Ba took up a decisive advantage over other elements, accounting for more than half of all the elements for students. Because Ba is usually added to rubber and plastic products to improve acid and alkali resistance, at the same time these products are the main components of the garbage at landfill in this area (Feng et al., 2006). Zn and Mn ranked the first and second places for drivers at MT, which are mainly derived from the motor oil additive, tyre wear and brake pads worn (Zhao and Hopke, 2006).

3.2. Mass balance of personal exposure to PM_{2.5}

Calculation of mass balance for PM_{2.5} is an effective method to figure out the principal components in PM_{2.5} and for its source discrimination (Gokhale et al., 2008). PE PM_{2.5} mass in this study can be classified into six parts: organic matter (OM), EC, water-soluble inorganic ions, geological material (GM), heavy metals and unknown part (Figure 5). The first five main parts can explain 78.3% to 90.6% of total PE PM_{2.5} mass concentrations in this study. Unknown part may include water and other undetected substances in PE PM_{2.5}. For OM, since the chemical composition of the aerosol organic fraction is largely unknown, conversion factor 1.4 (1.4 corrects the organic carbon mass for other constituent associated with the organic carbon molecule) is generally used (Turpin and Lim, 2001) to shift OC to OM by equation (5):

$$OM = 1.4 \times OC \tag{5}$$

based on the equation (5), OM accounted for 34.1%±6.3%, 23.3%±2.8% and 24.9%±6.9% of PE PM_{2.5} mass for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT, respectively, indicating that there are distinct sources to PE PM_{2.5} OC for women at DF. According to the questionnaires, the combustion sources, such as roasting meat/peanuts and burning wood, should be the sources to OC for women personal exposure samples, which consistent with the

results mentioned above.

In addition, Fe has been widely used to estimate the upper limit of GM in previous studies (Taylor and McLennan, 1985). Fe constitutes about 4.0% of the Earth's crust in dust of the earth's crust (Cao et al., 2005). The amount of GM is calculated by equation (6):

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 $6M = (1/4.0\%) \times Fe$ (6)

based on this equation, it is found that GM contributed 35.8%±2.1%, 46.0%±3.7% and 42.4%±4.7% of PE PM_{2.5} mass concentrations for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT, respectively. Fugitive dust, including road dust resuspension from disturbance of motor vehicles and humans, construction dust from uncovered construction sites and the dust related to burning activities, could be the domination sources to PE PM_{2.5} in this study. OM and GM show the almost identical proportions (34.1% and 35.8%) of PE PM_{2.5} mass for women at DF. GM percentages for students and drivers were approximately 10% and 7% higher than that for women. Therefore, the fugitive dust related contributions are the most important sources for PE PM_{2.5} in this less developed area, meaning that there are nearly half PE PM_{2.5} contribution sources of students and drivers attributable to human physical activities. As mentioned above, it is surprising to note that the secondary formed ions (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺), even total measured water-soluble inorganic ions show the exceedingly low proportions in PE PM_{2.5} for all subjects. This reconfirms the limited contribution to PE PM_{2.5} from secondary formation ionic sources.

From Figure 5, evident diurnal distinguishes are observed in two major chemical compositions (OM and GM) in this study. We can see that GM exhibits the lower proportion at night (35.3%) than daytime (47.5%), indicating its close relationship with human activities. For different seasons, we find the higher GM for each type of participant in dry season, because of the harmattan haze bringing mineral dust and the lake of precipitation increasing road dust resuspension. Moreover, OM shows the equal or lower proportion in PE PM_{2.5} at daytime (25.0%) that nighttime (30.0%), which is mainly related with the meteorological parameters (they affect the formation of secondary organic carbonaceous aerosol) and combustion source variations between day and night. There is an exception in the last case, i.e., OM proportion at daytime women PE PM_{2.5} was much higher (50.8%) than nighttime (38.2%) in wet season, due to the influence from the damp wood burning at the working time. As we know, the damp wood burning emits more smoke (PM) than dry wood (Shen et al., 2013) or change in emission factors (Keita et al., 2018).

4. Fingerprint organic species in personal exposure to PM_{2.5}

In this section, we use organic fingerprint markers that indicate specific emission sources to further investigate the sources and detailed characteristics of PE $PM_{2.5}$ for different populations. Unlike PE $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration variations (students > women > drivers), organic fingerprint measured in this study, such as PAHs, PAEs and hopanes (Table 5), show

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different concentration orders in this study. The average PM_{2.5}-bound PAHs, PAEs and hopanes mass concentrations were 54.8 ± 20.3 , 986.8 ± 82.2 and 27.9 ± 1.0 ng m⁻³ in this study, respectively, showing a very serious PM_{2.5} organic pollution in SWA region. The descending following orders were women > students > drivers for PAHs, students > women > drivers for PAEs, and drivers > women > students for hopanes (Table 5 and Figure 6).

4.1. PAHs

The total quantified PAHs (ΣPAHs) accounted for 0.12‰-0.21‰ of PE PM_{2.5} mass concentration. BbF was the most abundant PAH for women at DF, followed by BaP and IcdP. The average BbF concentration (the maker of low temperature combustion, such as wood burning) was 11.6±19.2 ng m⁻³, accounting for up to approximately 15.0% of the ΣPAHs for women PE samples (Table 5) (Wang et al., 2006). While the most abundant PAHs for students at WB and drivers at MT were IcdP (6.4±4.5 ng m⁻³) and BghiP (6.4±0.5 ng m⁻³), respectively, which indicate the contributions from the waste incineration or high temperature fuel combustion (gasoline vehicle emission) (Baek et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2006). The ΣPAHs average concentrations in wet season increased 326% and 52% for women at DF $(125.4\pm54.8~\text{ng m}^{-3})$ and drivers at MT $(44.6\pm10.8~\text{ng m}^{-3})$ than those in dry season $(29.4\pm5.6~\text{m})$ and 29.4±4.4 ng m⁻³ respectively), while the ΣPAHs decreased 42% in wet season (36.8±15.7 ng m⁻³) compared with dry season (62.9±45.0 ng m⁻³) for students at WB. The dramatic increase in women's exposure to PAHs is mainly due to the increase in humidity (moisture content) of the wood used for grilling meat in wet season, resulting in PAH emissions sharp raising from wood combustion (Shen et al., 2013). The restraint of waste combustion in wet season is the main factor in the decrease of students' exposure to PM_{2.5}-bound PAHs at landfill, in accordance with PE PM_{2.5} mass seasonal change pattern. PE PAHs concentrations were measured in Cotonou in the previous study (Fanou et al., 2006), the result showed that the level of total PAHs associated with particles ranged from 76.21 to 103.23 ng m⁻³ for 35 taxi-moto drivers in March 2001. The PAH levels determined in this study for drivers at MT site was 50%-64% lower than the values in Fanou et al. (2006) study, suggesting that the motorbike driver exposure to PAHs in this region has improved.

As shown in Figure 6A, differing from the almost unchanged diurnal variation (daytime > nighttime) of PE PM_{2.5} and its major chemical components discussed above, PE PAHs show unstable diurnal variations for these three types of target populations: 1) Women at DF: the daytime concentrations during the wet and dry seasons were both higher than those at nighttime, suggesting that women's intensive combustion activities at daytime (roasting meat and burning wood) strongly impacted the PE PAHs. The average D/N ratios were 1.7 in dry

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season with the 12-hour average ΣPAHs of 37.4±25.1 ng m⁻³ for daytime and 21.4±17.2 ng m⁻³ for nighttime and 3.5 in wet season with 195.6±121.9 ng m⁻³ for daytime and 55.3±44.3 ng m⁻³ for nighttime; 2) Students at WB: nighttime PE PAHs were higher in dry season and lower in wet season compared with daytime levels, with the average D/N ratios of 0.7 and 1.8, respectively. The higher concentrations of combustion markers-BbF and BeP were observed during the day, while the higher concentrations of gasoline vehicle emission markers-DahA and BghiP were found at night (Baek et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2006), which was related to the garbage truck for waste transportation from city to the landfill during night. Moreover, we should also note that the impact of garbage truck emission was offset by PM_{2.5} wet deposition during the wet season; 3) Drivers at MT: we are surprised to see that the average dry season D/N ratio was 0.8 with the Σ PAHs of 26.3 \pm 7.6 ng m⁻³ for daytime and 32.5 \pm 13.8 ng m⁻³ for nighttime, and the average wet season D/N ratio was 0.3 with 21.9±8.4 ng m⁻³ for daytime and 67.3±23.7 ng m⁻³ for nighttime, respectively. The high nighttime ΣPAHs concentrations and low D/N ratios for drivers in this study may be explained by the possibility that there are potential combustion sources (PAH sources) around participant drivers (especially around drivers' home at night) in Cotonou, Benin at night rather than the motor vehicle exhaust, especially in wet season (combustion emission marker BaP was the highest PAH species at night in wet season), although the drivers exposed to the traffic emissions during the night working time (18:30 to 21:00 UTC). Further studies are required to confirm the findings and figure out the reasons. Even so, the highest PAH individual species for drivers PE samples was BghiP (gasoline vehicle emission marker) in both wet and dry seasons, proving the obvious influence from the motor vehicle emissions to motorcycle drivers (Baek et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2006).

Diagnostic ratios of PAHs with similar molecular weights have been widely used in source identification (Tobiszewski and Namiesnik, 2012; Yunker et al., 2002). In our study, the average values of BeP/(BeP+BaP) and IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) were 0.47 and 0.52 for women at DF, 0.51 and 0.52 for students at WB, and 0.64 and 0.34 for drivers at MT, respectively (Figure 7), showing that the impacts of different atmospheric pollution sources on the different type participants are very significant, and that the diagnostic ratios of PAHs can be applied to identify the source of PAHs in PE PM_{2.5} effectively. The average BeP/(BeP+BaP) ratio ranged from 0.47 to 0.64, comparable with those reported in Guangzhou (0.41-0.72) and Xi'an (0.59-0.73) of China (Li et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2018b) and lower than that reported in Shanghai (all samples > 0.70), China (Feng et al., 2006), implying the low oxidability of the PAHs in SWA cities (less developed than Chinese cities). PAHs in drivers' PE samples are

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more prone to aging (the average ratio was 1.3-1.4 times of those for women and students) because of the re-suspension of road dusts where PAHs are attached to (longer residence lifetime) and longer outdoor activity time (more sunlight); and more fine and ultra-fine particles-bound PAHs from high-temperature combustion in motor vehicular engine, which are more easily photochemical oxidation in the air (Baek et al., 1991; Lima et al., 2005). The difference of BeP/(BeP+BaP) ratios in dry and wet seasons is not obvious and no fixed rule. However, this ratio exhibits a significant day-night change, with the values of 0.59 at daytime and 0.49 at nighttime. It means that more beneficial meteorological conditions at daytime (such as more sunlight) and stronger individual physical activity (increasing the time of particulate re-suspension) are more conducive to the aging of PM_{2.5} and its bounded PAHs. Moreover, IcdP/(BghiP+IcdP) of < 0.2, 0.2-0.5 and > 0.5 represent petrogenic, petroleum combustion and a mix of grass, wood, and coal combustions, respectively (Yunker et al., 2002). The quite low ratios for drivers at MT (0.34) indicates that the PAHs in those samples were mainly produced from motor vehicle emissions (petroleum combustion), while grass, wood and coal combustions were more dominant for women at DF (0.52) and students at WB (0.52) (Figure 7). IcdP/(IcdP+BghiP) ratio in all samples from our study shows not significant seasonal variation.

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4.2. Phthalate esters (PAEs)

Phthalate esters are widely used plasticizers in plastic materials and can be released into the air from the matrix evaporation and plastics combustion (Gu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2017a). The personal exposure levels of PAEs could be mainly attributed to the usage of the household products, painting material at home, plastic waste incineration and municipal sewage release (Zhang et al., 2014a). The total concentrations of six phthalate esters (DMP, DEP, DBP, BBP, DEHP and DNOP) and one plasticizer (DEHA) (named ΣPAEs for all these seven species) were 882.0±193.3, 1380.4±335.2 and 698.1±192.4 ng m⁻³, respectively, for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT (Table 5). DEHP was the most dominant PAE species, followed by DBP in this study for all the three kinds of participants. DEHP is mainly used as a plasticizer for polyvinyl chloride (PVC). And together with DBP, they are the most widely used phthalate esters globally (Meng et al., 2014). The average DEHP and DBP concentrations were 543.6 and 304.6 ng m⁻³, accounting for up to approximately 55.1% and 30.9% of the ΣPAEs, respectively (Figure 6B). The elevated ΣPAEs for students at WB in this study are mostly result from combustion of the plastic products at landfill. The results in this study are similar as the previous studies carried out in Xi'an, Tianjin of China (Kong

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et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2017a). The Σ PAEs ranged from 376.6 to 1074 ng m⁻³ in outdoors, and from 469.2 to 1537 ng m⁻³ in student classrooms in Xi'an (Wang et al., 2017a), in which DEHP and DBP were also the dominant species, totally accounting for 68% and 73% of the Σ PAEs in outdoor and indoor environments, respectively.

The average concentrations of the Σ PAEs for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT were comparable in dry season. But the average concentrations were 927.2±154.9, 1929.8±340.4 and 594.6±16.6 ng m⁻³ in wet season in this study, 1.1, 2.3 and 0.7 times of the Σ PAEs values in dry season (Figure 6B). A significant increase in students PE Σ PAEs at WB in wet season can be attributed to the enhanced PAEs emission in the day (3173.6±1028.3 ng m⁻³), consistent with the findings on PE PM_{2.5} above. Dry and wet seasons led to almost similar PAEs profiles with different day and night variations (Figure 6B). The average D/N ratios of the Σ PAEs in dry season show limited changes, with the values of 1.0, 1.0 and 1.3, respectively, for women, students and drivers; while 1.1, 4.6 and 0.7 in wet season. Noticeably different D/N ratios between two seasons observed in this study for students at WB is interrelated with the human activities (specially related to the plastic material emissions) and the subdued waste spontaneous combustion resulting from diurnal variations of meteorological parameters (more precipitation at night in wet season) mentioned in Sect. 3.1.1.

4.3. Hopanes

Hopanes have been used as markers for fossil fuel combustion, especially for petroleum combustion (Simoneit, 1999; Wang et al., 2009). The average concentration of drivers who exposed to the eight hopanes (Σhopanes) in this study was 50.9 ± 7.9 ng m⁻³, 2.0 and 2.3 times higher than for women at DF (17.1±6.4 ng m⁻³) and students at WB (15.6±6.1 ng m⁻³) (Table 5), respectively, which proves the extremely high driver personal respiratory exposure contribution from the motor vehicle emissions (gasoline combustion) in this study. Then, it is important to note that numbers of automobiles are rapidly increasing in SWA cities, which further exacerbates the air pollution and related health problems there. The Σhopanes show the unobvious seasonal variations for three kinds of exposure participants, i.e., 0.9, 1.8 and 0.7 times Σhopane concentrations were observed in dry season of those in wet season. Although the Σhopane concentrations were changeable in this study among three sites, the distribution of individual species of hopanes were similar for each participant. αβ-NH and αβ-HH were two dominant hopanes in all PE PM_{2.5} samples, with the average concentrations

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of 6.0 and 6.5 ng m⁻³ and the percentages of 21.4% and 23.3% of the Σ hopanes, respectively (Table 5 and Figure 6C).

Compared with D/N ratios of the $\Sigma PAHs$ and $\Sigma PAEs$, hopanes exhibit a more stable diurnal trend in this study, namely, daytime concentrations were always greater than nighttime, owing to the obvious traffic emissions during the day. For women at DF, D/N ratio was both 2.0 in dry and wet seasons, with the Σ hopanes of 24.0±11.1 and 12.2±5.0 ng m⁻³ for daytime and nighttime in dry season, and 21.4±17.5 and 10.9±3.6 ng m⁻³ in wet season. Emphasize that D/N ratio of the Σ hopane for drivers at MT presents the highest value (11.5) for all the detected chemical species in this study, with the concentrations of 78.0±19.1 and 44.9±16.4 ng m⁻³ for daytime and nighttime in dry season, and 74.2±16.3 and 6.5±1.7 ng m⁻³ in wet season. We notice that the daytime concentrations were comparable for drivers between two seasons, while the nighttime hopanes in wet season were washed away by rainfall mostly, resulting in a very large drop in concentration levels.

Therefore, although PAHs, PAEs and hopanes are not abundant components in PE PM_{2.5}, these fingerprint organics can more accurately trace the contribution of air pollution sources to PM_{2.5}. The PAHs, PAEs and hopanes representing emissions from combustion sources, plastics emissions and fossil fuel combustion emissions (gasoline vehicles) respectively are very well matched to the potential air pollution sources around these three type participants in this study. The results not only indicate that the PM_{2.5} respiratory exposure was strongly contributed from the environmental pollution sources and individual activities, but also prove the successful application of organic tracers in human exposure study.

5. Health risk assessment of personal exposure to PM_{2.5}

Non-cancer risks of four heavy metals (Mn, Ni, Zn and Pb) and cancer risks of PAHs and PAEs via inhalation exposure way for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT are shown in Table 6. In general, the non-carcinogenic risks of Mn and Pb were relatively higher than those of Ni and Zn, but still well-behind the international threshold value (1.0). Among those four metals, Hazard Quotient (HQ) of Pb in wet season for students at WB was the highest (2.95E-02), which suggests that Pb non-carcinogenic risk to children is obvious in that area compared with other participants and metals. Except that Ni shows the stable wet season greater non-carcinogenic risk than dry season for all three kinds targets, there was no stable change in dry/wet season risks of other components. Summing up these four metals, Hazard Index (HI) values for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT in dry and wet seasons were also represented in Table 6. Dry/wet season ratios of HI were 0.9, 0.5 and 2.3

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for women, students and drivers, suggesting that the non-cancer risk of personal exposure to metals in $PM_{2.5}$ in dry season was much higher than that in wet season for drivers, owing to a mass of fugitive dust on the road in dry season. Moreover, the yearly average HI levels were 8.06E-03, 4.13E-02 and 8.68E-03 for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT, respectively, showing the highest non-cancer health risks from the heavy metals in $PM_{2.5}$ for students, 5.1 and 4.8 times of women and drivers. Overall, Mn, Zn, Ni, Pb and HI were all within the safety limit for all populations involved in this study, pointing out the negligible non-cancer health risks of heavy metals in $PM_{2.5}$ in SWA region.

In Table 6, the ILCRs of PAHs were all beyond 1×10⁻⁶ (international acceptable level), suggesting non-negligible cancer risks of PAHs for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT whenever dry or wet season. Meanwhile, the ILCRs of PAEs were all below 1×10⁻⁶, well within the safety limit of cancer risk. For all types of targets, PE PM_{2.5}-bound PAHs and PAEs in wet season were more likely to cause cancer risks than dry season; thus, the seasonal changes, mainly due to increased humidity, result in an increased personal exposure cancer risks to toxic organic species in PM2.5. In dry season, the average ILCR values of PAHs were comparable for women and drivers, both ~50% lower than those for students, implying the high toxicity originated from the waste burning sources and high sensitivity to juveniles. In wet season, PAHs exhibit the highest ILCR for women at DF, 2.5 and 2.7 times of those for students and drivers, respectively. It can be seen that the domestic wood burning and grilling meat can trigger nearly ten times safe limit of cancer risks to target women in this study. The cancer risks of PAEs show the similar pattern in dry and wet seasons, with the descending order of students at WB > women at DF > drivers at MT (Yang et al., 2011). The carcinogenic risks of PAEs for drivers in traffic environment was the lowest, much lower (45% and 76% lower in dry and wet seasons) than PAEs for students who are close to the source of waste incineration. In a word, the ILCRs of PAHs exceeded the threshold value of 1×10⁻⁶ for all the participants, indicating that the carcinogenic PAHs are a threat to the individual's health and subsequently alerting a need of effective control in SWA. However, PAEs show limited carcinogenic risks in this study, but the effect of waste burning source to students is needed to pay more attention and reasonable controls for both PM2.5-bound heavy metals and organic compounds.

In addition, it should be noted that the non-cancer and cancer risks could be potentially underestimated since many toxic chemical components could not be detected in this study. It is concluded based on the data that different targets present different levels of risks from different chemical species in PE PM_{2.5} from various air pollution sources. We must pay

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attention to heavy metal non-cancer health risks via inhalation way, especially Pb and Mn for students at WB site as well as PAHs cancer risks for women at DF site in wet season in SWA region.

6. Conclusions

We explore the chemical characteristics and health risks of personal exposure to PM_{2.5} (PE PM_{2.5}) from different typical anthropogenic air pollution sources in Southern West Africa. Our study finds that organic matter and geological material are the almost identical proportions (34.1% and 35.8%) for women at domestic fire site. Nearly half contribution to PE PM_{2.5} for students at waste burning site and drivers at motorcycle traffic site comes from fugitive dust. Therefore, the primary source (mainly dust) is the most important source for PE PM_{2.5} in these undeveloped regions. The contribution to PE PM_{2.5} from heavy metals was higher for students (1.0%), owing to the waste burning emissions strongly, leading to the highest non-cancer risk among these three kinds of participants, as well as the extremely high PAEs concentrations (indicator of plastic emissions). PE PM_{2.5}-bound PAHs concentration for women at domestic fire site was 1.6 times for students and 2.1 times for drivers, which is mainly attributed to the wood burning and grilling meat activities, resulting in approximately five times higher of international cancer risk safe limit (nearly ten time of threshold value in wet season). Drivers' exposure to hopanes in PE PM_{2.5} was 2.0-2.3 times higher than women and students, correlating with the elevated traffic emissions on road environment well.

This work can be regarded as the first attempt in underdeveloped country of Africa at the current condition, although there are some drawbacks, such as relatively short sampling period and a limited number of participants. More investigations on personal exposure and related potential health effects by cohort study method will be considered in the further. The policy implication of our findings is that developing and implementing appropriate preventive and control measures on different PM_{2.5} anthropogenic sources in different regions are appropriate, such as using dry wood for barbecues for the female workers and improving waste treatment equipment at landfill as soon as possible to reduce waste inorganized stack and open combustion.

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Author Contributions

H.X. and C.L. conceived and designed the study. H.X., J.-F.L., C.L. and B.G.

795 contributed to the literature search, data analysis/interpretation and manuscript writing. J.-F.L.,

796 C.L., B.G., V.Y., A.A., K.H., S.H., Z.S. and J.C. contributed to manuscript revision. H.X., J.-

797 F.L., E.G., J.A and L.L. carried out the particulate samples collection and chemical

798 experiments, analyzed the experimental data.

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Additional Information

Fig. S1 accompany this manuscript can be found in Supplementary Information.

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Competing financial interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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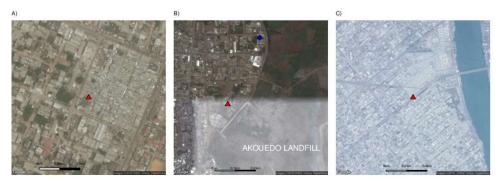
1090	Figure Caption:
1091	Figure 1. Locations of the sampling sites within the cities. A: Domestic Fires (DF) site at the
1092	Yopougon-Lubafrique market in Abidjan; B: Waste Burning (WB) site at the landfill of
1093	Akeoudo in Abidjan, the location of the long-term sampling site is given by the blue marker;
1094	and C: Motorcycle Traffic (MT) site at Dantokpa area in Cotonou.
1095	Figure 2. Pictures showing the sampling sites and corresponding participants: (a) women at
1096	DF; (b) students at WB; (c) drivers at MT.
1097	Figure 3. Personal exposure to PM _{2.5} mass concentrations of woman at DF, student at WB
1098	and driver at MT in dry season (January) and wet season (July) of 2016 in SWA area.
1099	Figure 4 Variations of OC/EC ratios in personal exposure to PM _{2.5} samples for women at DF
1100	students at WB and drivers at MT (The box plots indicate the average concentration and the
1101	min, 1st, 25th, 50th, 75th, 99th and max percentiles).
1102	Figure 5. Personal exposure to PM _{2.5} mass concentration closures for women at DF, students
1103	at WB and drivers at MT in different sampling seasons.
1104	Figure 6. Distributions of A: PAHs; B: PAEs; and C: hopanes in PM _{2.5} personal exposure
1105	samples for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT in dry and wet seasons of 2016.
1106	Figure 7. Correlations between PAHs diagnostic ratios (average ratio points of each type
1107	participant indicate day and night value respectively).
1108	

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1109 **Figure 1.**

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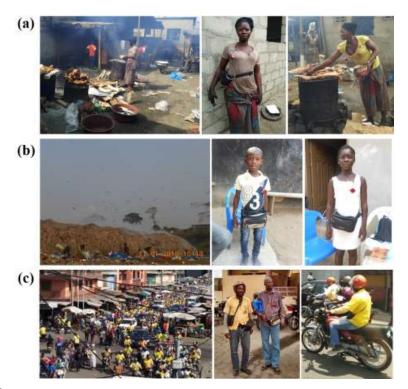


Figure 2.

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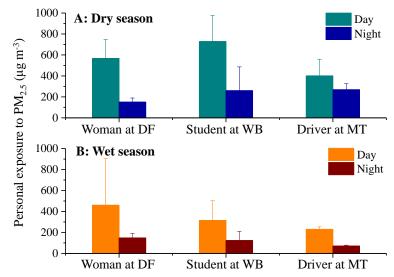


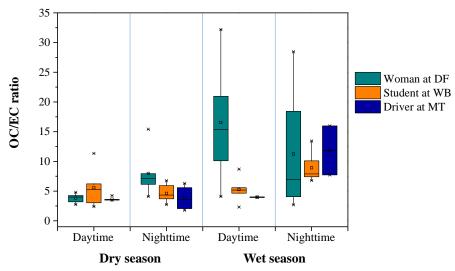
Figure 3.

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1118 **Figure 4.**

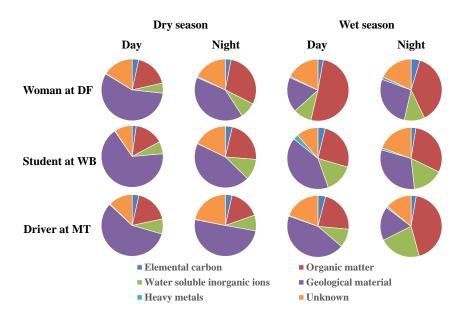
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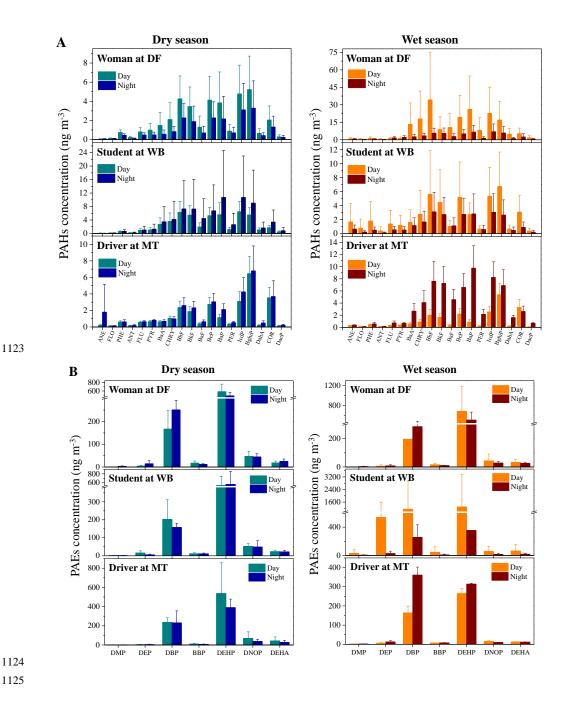


1120 1121 **Figure 5.**

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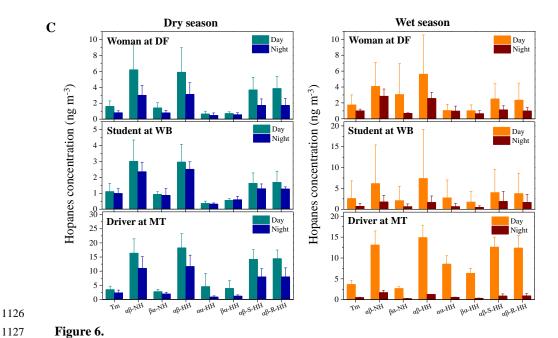




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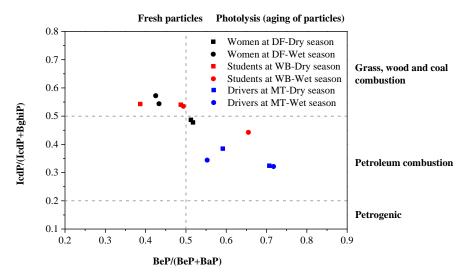


Figure 7.

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Table 1 Meteorological parameters of the studied two cities during the dry (December 2015 to March 2016) and wet (April to July 2016) seasons.

	Season	Abidjan	Cotonou
Maan daily air taran aratum (9C)	Dry	28.0	28.3
Mean daily air temperature (°C)	Wet	27.5	27.7
Total mainfall (mam)	Dry	268	92
Total rainfall (mm)	Wet	626	558
Mann wind and (m s-1)	Dry	3.0	3.0
Mean wind speed (m s ⁻¹)	Wet	3.4	4.3

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Table 2 Definitions and recommended values of the parameters in equations (1-4) in this study.

Parameter	Definition (unit)	Value used in this study
		(reference)
D	average daily exposure dose (mg kg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	/
С	heavy metals concentrations in equations (ng m ⁻³)	/
R	inhalation rate, air volume a child inhaled each day (m³ day-¹)	16.0 for women and drivers; 15.2 for students (USEPA, 2011)
EF	exposure frequency (day year ⁻¹)	130 for women and drivers (half working days); 182 for students (half year)
ED	exposure duration (year)	30 for women and drivers (working years); 15 for students (before going to high school)
BW	body weight (kg)	62.5 for women ^a ; 37.5 for students ^a ; 85.0 for drivers ^a
AT	averaging time (day)	30 or 15×365 (non-cancer); 70×365 (cancer)
cf	conversion factor (kg mg ⁻¹)	10-6
HQ	hazard quotient	/
RfD	reference dose, estimated as the maximum permissible risk on human by daily exposure (mg kg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹)	Table 3
HI	hazard index	/
ILCR	incremental lifetime cancer risk (ILCR)	/
CSF	cancer slope factor (mg kg ⁻¹ day ⁻¹) ⁻¹	Table 3
[BaP] _{eq}	equivalent BaP toxicity concentration (ng m ⁻³)	/
Ci	individual PAH species concentration (ng m ⁻³) (i means target PAH species)	/
TEFi	toxicity equivalency factor of each target PAH compound (i means target PAH species)	(Nisbet and Lagoy, 1992)

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a: Measured in this study.

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Table 3 Reference dose (RfD) (mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹) and cancer slope factor (CSF) (mg kg⁻¹ day⁻¹)⁻¹ via inhalation exposure way used in this study.

	RfD	CSF	Reference
Mn	1.8×10 ⁻³	/	Liu et al., 2015
Ni	5.4×10 ⁻³	/	Zhou et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015
Zn	3.0×10 ⁻¹	/	Zhou et al., 2014
Pb	3.5×10 ⁻³	/	Zhou et al., 2014; Hu et al., 2012
BaP	/	3.140	USEPA, 2011
DEHP	/	0.014	USEPA, 1997; Wang et al., 2017a

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Nighttime 22.2 ± 10.6 24.1±10.6 0.57 ± 0.05 0.01 ± 0.00 0.03 ± 0.00 0.04 ± 0.00 0.01 ± 0.00 0.01 ± 0.00 0.06 ± 0.01 0.12 ± 0.00 70.7±8.1 15.5±1.9 1.9 ± 0.0 3.6 ± 1.5 0.2 ± 0.0 2.3 ± 0.2 3.2 ± 0.5 0.1 ± 0.0 1.2±0.1 2.6 ± 0.1 2.3 ± 0.1 Drivers at MT Table 4 Statistical analysis (arithmetic mean±standard deviation) of personal exposure to PM_{2.5} mass concentrations and the chemical 230.4±22.8 0.03 ± 0.00 0.17 ± 0.02 0.02 ± 0.00 0.07 ± 0.02 0.29 ± 0.04 Daytime 4.56 ± 0.64 0.02 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.00 37.0±3.5 22.3±1.0 **46.3±4.2** 9.3 ± 0.8 3.1 ± 0.2 1.6 ± 0.2 5.2 ± 0.3 0.7 ± 0.0 1.1 ± 0.0 0.3 ± 0.0 6.8 ± 0.3 3.6 ± 0.2 Nighttime 123.7 ± 86.1 28.5 ± 26.8 0.06 ± 0.06 32.1 ± 30.3 0.04 ± 0.05 0.10 ± 0.09 0.02 ± 0.02 0.02 ± 0.03 1.76 ± 1.24 0.26 ± 0.27 0.01 ± 0.01 15.8±8.8 1.3 ± 0.6 4.5 ± 3.8 3.6 ± 3.6 1.8 ± 1.3 2.3 ± 0.4 0.3 ± 0.2 3.3 ± 3.1 1.9 ± 0.7 0.4 ± 0.3 Wet season Students at WB 315.2±186.9 65.2 ± 65.2 12.3 ± 11.4 77.4±76.2 16.2 ± 17.3 7.3 ± 13.9 0.37 ± 0.36 0.04 ± 0.05 0.12 ± 0.14 54.4±50.0 0.31 ± 0.35 5.07 ± 1.74 0.03 ± 0.03 Daytime 6.4 ± 5.9 0.0 ± 0.1 5.0 ± 6.0 3.3 ± 4.4 0.6 ± 0.2 4.6 ± 5.4 148.6 ± 42.9 Nighttime 0.06 ± 0.03 0.04 ± 0.00 0.02 ± 0.02 0.03 ± 0.02 0.13 ± 0.07 0.32 ± 0.17 87 ± 0.96 00.0 ± 00.0 15.1 ± 2.2 40.1 ± 9.3 **46.3±7.2** 6.3 ± 3.7 1.9 ± 1.0 2.3 ± 0.8 4.4±1.7 0.1 ± 0.0 1.3 ± 0.8 3.2 ± 0.8 1.6 ± 0.7 0.3 ± 0.1 Women at DF 189.3 ± 197.8 460.5 ± 445.2 200.8±207.1 11.5 ± 10.8 37.6±29.5 0.14 ± 0.16 0.02 ± 0.02 0.02 ± 0.02 0.13 ± 0.07 0.05 ± 0.02 0.51 ± 0.32 3.37 ± 3.34 Daytime 0.01 ± 0.01 7.6 ± 8.0 1.1 ± 1.2 6.6 ± 4.3 8.6 ± 8.4 2.2 ± 0.8 4.2 ± 2.2 5.8 ± 5.2 0.6 ± 0.5 Nighttime 269.0±56.1 40.8 ± 13.6 31.8 ± 14.2 0.21 ± 0.11 0.02 ± 0.02 0.01 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.01 0.03 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.0 5.90 ± 0.3 21.9 ± 3.2 9.0 ± 2.3 2.1 ± 0.9 2.7 ± 0.5 5.3 ± 0.6 2.4 ± 0.3 6.0 ± 1.2 2.2 ± 0.6 0.9 ± 0.2 0.3 ± 0.1 compositions (units: μg m⁻³) during the sampling period in SWA region. **Drivers at MT** 401.3 ± 158.0 10.99 ± 6.50 49.5 ± 12.5 63.1 ± 16.0 30.9 ± 11.9 0.03 ± 0.02 0.03 ± 0.03 0.35 ± 0.12 0.05 ± 0.03 0.05 ± 0.03 0.33 ± 0.16 Daytime 0.02 ± 0.01 13.6 ± 3.6 0.6 ± 5.5 7.5 ± 2.5 1 ± 0.2 0.4 ± 0.2 3.7 ± 1.3 3.3 ± 1.1 9 ± 0.4 2.4 ± 0.8 Nighttime 260±226.1 49.5±39.5 25.2±18.8 40.9 ± 34.4 0.07 ± 0.04 0.15 ± 0.12 4.85 ± 3.3 0.02 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.01 0.01 ± 0.01 0.02 ± 0.01 3.6 ± 0.9 1.9±0.8 2.2 ± 0.8 0.3 ± 0.2 8.6 ± 5.7 3.0 ± 0.7 4.9 ± 3.2 3.0 ± 4.1 6.4 ± 9.4 Students at WB 728.5±248.5 21.17 ± 4.64 100.0±60. 85.0±57.4 46.6±15.4 0.06 ± 0.02 0.29 ± 0.08 0.09 ± 0.02 0.14 ± 0.03 0.49 ± 0.19 0.07 ± 0.02 0.02 ± 0.01 Daytime 15.0 ± 4.7 14.9±4.5 5.5 ± 1.3 5.8 ± 4.0 0.8 ± 0.3 7.5 ± 2.5 1.4 ± 0.4 4.1 ± 1.1 6.5 ± 3.6 150.6 ± 38.5 Nighttime 0.04 ± 0.03 2.64 ± 0.36 0.00 ± 0.00 0.00 ± 0.00 0.01 ± 0.00 0.01 ± 0.01 0.02 ± 0.01 0.55 ± 0.73 35.7±6.8 12.5±3.7 4.7 ± 2.2 1.6 ± 0.6 2.2 ± 1.4 1.8 ± 0.6 1.6 ± 0.3 0.4 ± 0.5 1.7±0.6 3.1 ± 0.9 31 ± 5.0 0.2 ± 0.1 Women at DF 567.0±180.6 14.61 ± 5.25 72.4±24.6 0.18 ± 0.06 0.04 ± 0.02 0.04 ± 0.02 0.05 ± 0.02 Daytime 91.9 ± 31.1 0.40 ± 0.22 0.02 ± 0.01 0.04 ± 0.01 19.5 ± 7.3 11.0 ± 3.2 29.3±6.6 3.2 ± 0.6 0.6 ± 0.2 4.4 ± 1.3 2.7±0.7 4.0 ± 1.1 2.9±0.4 0.6 ± 0.2 carbon 1142 Total 1141 NO₃-SO₄²-

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Sb	0.02 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.02	0.02 ± 0.02	0.00 ± 0.00	0.02 ± 0.04	0.01 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.08	0.21 ± 0.18	1.16 ± 1.38	0.22 ± 0.29	0.07 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.09
Ba	0.19 ± 0.09	0.16 ± 0.12	0.25 ± 0.11	0.07 ± 0.09	0.22 ± 0.18	0.05 ± 0.07	0.47 ± 0.39	1.02 ± 0.60	6.80 ± 8.30	0.84 ± 1.41	0.18 ± 0.18	0.14 ± 0.01
Pb	0.07 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.07	0.17 ± 0.07	0.04 ± 0.03	0.07 ± 0.05	0.02 ± 0.03	0.14 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.03	0.92 ± 1.01	0.13 ± 0.18	0.05 ± 0.02	0.03 ± 0.01
Heavy metals	1.05 ± 0.28	$0.91{\pm}0.80$	$1.59{\pm}0.51$	$0.40{\pm}0.31$	1.16 ± 0.66	$0.56 {\pm} 0.28$	1.62 ± 0.65	1.93 ± 1.10	11.80 ± 13.91	1.69 ± 2.38	$0.90{\pm}0.26$	0.53 ± 0.09

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Table 5 Mass concentrations of PE PM_{2.5}-bound PAHs, PAEs and hopanes species for women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT (ng m⁻³).

Specific species (abbreviation)		t DF	Students	at WB	Drivers at MT	
		Stdev*	Average	Stdev*	Average	Stdev*
acenaphthene (ACE)	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.2	0.7	1.7
fluorene (FLO)		0.3	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.0
phenanthrene (PHE)	0.8	0.4	0.9	1.2	0.6	0.1
anthracene (ANT)	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0
fluoranthene (FLU)	1.0	0.4	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.1
pyrene (PYR)	1.2	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.1
benzo[a]anthracene (BaA)	4.5	8.5	2.2	1.5	1.1	0.5
chrysene (CHR)	6.1	11.2	3.0	1.6	1.8	0.8
benzo[b]fluoranthene (BbF)		19.2	5.6	2.7	3.6	1.2
benzo[k]fluoranthene (BkF)		4.2	5.0	2.9	3.3	1.1
benzo[a]fluoranthene (BaF)	3.8	5.3	2.1	2.4	1.5	0.8
benzo[e]pyrene (BeP)	7.7	8.1	5.0	2.5	3.6	0.7
benzo[a]pyrene (BaP)	9.7	12.5	5.5	5.7	3.5	1.6
perylene (PER)	2.8	5.0	1.3	1.4	0.8	0.4
indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene (IcdP)	9.4	9.3	6.4	4.5	4.5	0.7
benzo[ghi]perylene (BghiP)	7.8	6.1	6.0	3.6	6.4	0.5
dibenzo[a,h]anthracene (DahA)	1.8	2.2	1.0	0.6	0.6	0.1
coronene (COR)	2.8	1.6	2.3	1.4	3.3	0.4
dibenzo[a,e]pyrene (DaeP)	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.1
ΣΡΑΗς	77.4	47.9	49.9	30.7	37.0	7.4
dimethyl phthalate (DMP)	2.2	1.0	9.6	27.9	1.9	0.5
diethyl phthalate (DEP)	8.3	4.1	146.5	517.0	6.8	1.4
di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP)	224.8	90.6	440.7	848.4	248.2	42.1
benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP)	13.8	4.3	19.7	37.3	8.1	2.9
bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate (DEHP)	566.4	181.4	688.0	899.1	376.3	144.5
di-n-octyl phthalate (DNOP)	40.9	16.9	43.8	26.2	33.0	31.0
bis(2-ethylhexyl)adipate (DEHA)	25.6	6.0	32.0	41.8	23.8	19.0
ΣΡΑΕς	882.0	193.3	1380.4	335.2	698.1	192.4
17α(H)-22,29,30-trisnorhopane (Tm)	1.3	0.5	1.3	1.9	2.5	0.5
$17\alpha(H)-21\beta(H),30$ -norhopane ($\alpha\beta$ -NH)	4.0	1.2	3.3	4.1	10.6	1.9
17β (H)-21α(H),30-norhopane (βα-NH)	1.5	1.8	1.1	1.5	1.9	0.3
17α (H)-21β(H)-hopane (α β- HH)	4.3	1.9	3.6	5.4	11.5	2.2
$17\alpha(H)-21\alpha(H)$ -hopane ($\alpha\alpha$ -HH)	0.8	0.2	1.0	2.0	3.6	2.1
17β (H)-21α(H)-hopane (βα-HH)	0.7	0.2	0.8	1.2	2.9	1.2
$17\alpha(H)$ - $21\beta(H)$,(22S)-homohopane ($\alpha\beta$ -S-HH)	2.3	0.7	2.2	2.4	8.9	1.3
$17\alpha(H)$ - $21\beta(H)$,(22R)-homohopane ($\alpha\beta$ -R-HH)	2.2	0.8	2.1	2.1	8.9	1.3
Σhopanes	17.1	6.4	15.6	6.1	50.9	7.9

^{*:} standard deviation

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Table 6 Non-cancer risks of heavy metals and cancer risks of PAHs and PAEs via inhalation exposure way in PE $PM_{2.5}$ of women at DF, students at WB and drivers at MT in dry and wet seasons.

	Dry season			Wet season			
	Women	Students	Drivers	Women	Students	Drivers	
Non-cancer risk							
Mn	5.71E-03	2.02E-02	1.09E-02	4.83E-03	2.31E-02	4.26E-03	
Ni	1.44E-04	5.60E-04	1.77E-04	4.49E-04	2.59E-03	2.00E-04	
Zn	1.45E-04	2.15E-04	6.16E-05	1.24E-04	5.45E-04	5.05E-05	
Pb	1.75E-03	5.98E-03	9.33E-04	2.97E-03	2.95E-02	7.75E-04	
НІ	7.74E-03	2.70E-02	1.21E-02	8.37E-03 5.57E-02		5.29E-03	
Cancer risk (ILCR)							
PAHs ([BaP] _{eq})	3.13E-06	6.43E-06	3.22E-06	9.33E-06	3.68E-06	3.42E-06	
PAEs (DEHP)	2.92E-07	3.36E-07	1.86E-07	3.15E-07	4.86E-07	1.16E-07	

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Appendix A.

2016

Assessing Air Pollution Exposures in southern West Africa - Questionnaire for Women

1. Participant name:		
2. Interviewer name:		
3. Sampling site:	_	
4. Address of the interview place:		_
5. Address of the participant home: _		_
6. Interview date://	_ (yyyy/mm/dd)	_
7. Interview start time:	End time:	

This questionnaire is for research purposes only. Please think carefully and answer all the questions below. Your answers will be kept completely confidential and your personal information will not be disclosed or displayed in any way and any case.

Thank you for your cooperation!

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A. Basic Information	(2) Other:
lacksquare Please choose by $igtigtigtigtigtigta$ or fill in the answer $lacksquare$	A12 Floor
A1. Gender: (0) Male (1) Female	A13. Residential area: m ²
A2. Age: years old	(0) One room and one hall
A3. Height: cm; Weight: Kg	(1) Two rooms and one hall
A4. Marital status:	(2) Three rooms and two halls
(0) Single (1) Married	(3) Others
(2) Divorced (3) Widowed	A14. How long did you move in this house after
A5. Highest level of education:	it was decorated?
(0) Primary school	(0) \square < 3 months (1) \square 3-6 months
(1) \square Junior high school	(2) \square 6-12 months (3) \square > 12 months
(2) High school	A15. When was your house built?(year)
(3) Undergraduate	A16. How many years have you lived in this
(4) Above undergraduate	house? (year)
A6. The total number of family members	A17. What material is your house built?
(including you):	(0) Brick (1) Armored concrete
A7. Number of adults (18 years or older;	(2) \square Timber (3) \square Other materials
including you):	A18. What is the material of the floor in your
A8. Family total annual income: West	house?
African Franc / Month	(0) Cement (1) Marble
A9. Now professional:	(2) Solid wood (3) Composite wood
(0) Unemployed	(4) Tile (5) Plastic (6) Rock
(1) Students	(7) Brick (8) Bare soil
(2) Retired staff	A19. What is the material of the furniture in
(3) Workers	your house?
(4) Farmers	(0) Solid wood (1) Plastic
(5) Corporate staff	(2) Leather (3) Metal
(6) Civil servants	(4) ☐ Stone (5) ☐ Glass
(7) Housewife	(6) Cloth (7) Artificial board
(8) Driver	A20. Has your house been decorated in the last
(9) Others:	year?
A10. Work address (if any)?	(0) Yes (1) No
	→A21. What kind of decoration?
A11. Your housing type:	(0) Paint
(0) Apartment	(1) Change the floor
(1) One-storey house	-

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(2) Add new furniture	A31. Drinking type:
(3) Other:	(0) Alcohol (1) Beer
A22. Does your house have ventilation	(2) Wine (3) Other
equipment?	A32. Drinking frequency per week:
(0) Yes (1) No	(0) \square < once (1) \square 1-3 times
→ A23. What kind of equipment?	(2) $\square > 3$ times (3) \square I don't know
(Please select all suitable answers)	A33. Please describe your health status in
(0) Hanging air conditioner	general.
(1) Cabinet air conditioner	$(0) \ \square \ \text{Very good} \ (1) \ \square \ \text{Good}$
(2) Ventilator	(2) \square Not bad (3) \square Not good
A24. How far is your house from the main road?	A34. Do you have a family history of allergies?
(0)	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2)	A35. Have you been allergic to flowers or
A25. Do you smoke?	animals, food, etc.?
(0)	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
A26. Do you have a smoking history?	A36. Have you ever had itchy skin and red
(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No	patches (rashes) lasting more than 6 months?
→A27. How long is your smoking	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No (2) ☐ I don't know
history? years	A37. Do your parents have asthma?
A28. Does your family member smoke (not	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No (2) ☐ I don't know
including you)?	A38. Do you have asthma?
(0) Yes (1) Used to smoke	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2) No	A39. Have you heard any noise or wheeze in your chest (whistle sound) during breathing?
A29. In general, are you influenced by second	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
hand smoke in the following environments often?	A40. Have you had symptoms of sneezing, runny nose or stuffy nose in the absence of a
(0) Your own home	cold?
(1) Working environment	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2) Other' house	A41. Are you diagnosed with high blood pressure by your doctor?
(3) Restaurants, bars, supermarkets,	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No (2) ☐ I don't know
streets and so on	→ A42. Are you taking antihypertensive
(4) Other:	drugs every day?
(5) Rarely affected by second hand	$(0) \square \text{ Yes } \qquad (1) \square \text{ No}$
smoke	A43. Are you diagnosed with diabetes by your doctor?
A30. Do you often drink alcohol? (0) Yes (1) No (2) Not often	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know

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A44.	Are	you	${\bf diagnosed}$	with	a	myocardial
infar	ction	by yo	our doctor?			
(0)	Yes	s (1)	☐ No (2) ☐] I do	n't	know

lacktriangle Please choose by igtimes or fill in the answer lacktriangle

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B. Environment	B8. Where do you usually make smoked fish?					
【Please choose by ⊠ or fill in the answer】	(0) Kitchen at home (1) Yard at home					
B1. Do you cook at home?	(2) Outdoor-working place					
(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No	B9. How many times do you make smoked fish					
→B2. Cooking frequency per day:	per week?times					
(0) Once (1) Twice	B10. How long do you average make the smoked fish each time?min					
(2) Three times	B11. When do you usually make smoked fish?					
$(3) \square > $ Three times	(0) Morning					
B3. What kind of fuel is used at home for	(1) Noon					
cooking? (Please select all suitable answers)	(2) Afternoon					
(0) Natural gas	(3) Evening					
(1) Coal	B12. Do you raise pet at home?					
$(2) \ \square \ Liquefied \ petroleum \ gas \ (LPG)$	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No					
(3) Electricity	B13. Do you grow flowers or plants at home? (0) \(\subseteq \text{Yes} (1) \subseteq \text{No} \)					
(4) Other:						
(5) Don't cook at home	B14. Do you use insecticide at home?					
B4. Does your kitchen have ventilation	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
equipment?	B15. What's the open conditions of your					
(0)	windows at home every day?					
→ B5. What kind of equipment? (Please	(0)					
select all suitable answers)	(1) \square Wide open > 3h					
(0) Kitchen smoke exhaust ventilator	(2) ☐ Half open < 1h					
(1) Kitchen ventilator	(3) ☐ Half open > 1h					
(2) Chimney	(4) Never open					
B6. Your kitchen area: m ²	B16. What tool do you use to clean house?					
B7. Do you usually make smoked fish?	(0) Broom and mop					
(0)	(1) Electric dust collector					
C. Travel habits						

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C1.	How mucl	h time do y	ou spend i	ndoors pe	r day, exce	pt sleeping	g?		
(0)	> 50%	(1) 🔲 =	50% (2) [< 50%	,				
C2. How	much slee	ep do you h	ave daily,	including	daytime ar	nd nighttin	ne?	_ h	
C3. Wha	t time of t	he day do y	ou stay in	your hous	e in gener	al? (Please	select all	suitable aı	nswers)
Mor	rning		Afternoon				Evening		
8-10 am	10-12 am	12-14 pm	14-16 pm	16-18 pm	18-20 pm	20-22 pm	22-24 pm	Next day	Nexr day
								0-4 am	4-8 am
C4 Wha	t time of t	he day do y	on stay at	vour worl	zina nlace	in general	? (Plassa s	elect all si	uitable
		ne day do y	ou stay at	your worr	ang place	m generai	. (Ticase s	cicci an si	панс
answers	rning		Afternoon				Evening		
8-10 am	10-12 am	12-14 pm	14-16 pm	16-18 pm	18-20 pm	20-22 pm	22-24 pm	Next day	Nexr day
		-	-	-	-	-	_	0-4 am	4-8 am
C5. What is your main travel style when you travel < 3 km from your house?									
(0) Walk (1) Bicycle (2) Motorcycle									
(3) Public bus (4) Car (5) Seldom travel									
C6. How	many hou	ırs do you s	spend on t	raveling ea	ch day?				
(0)	0 h (1) 🔲 0-0.5 ł	(2)	0.5-1 h (3) 🗌 1-1.5	h			
(4)	1.5-2 h	(5) 🗌 2-	3 h (6)	> 3 h					
					or longer t	han 30 mi	nutes per s	week?	times
	·	ransportat					_		
Co. Wila	it Killa of t	i ansportat	ion do you	use when	you go to	work (ii ai	1y). 110w 1	ong does i	it take.
(0)	Walk		aver	age time _	min	l			
(1)	Bicycle,	tricycle		average t	ime	_ min			
(2)	Electric	bicycles, m	otorcycles	ave	erage time	mi	in		
(3)	Bus, priv	ate car, tax	кi	averag	e time	min			
	(3) Bus, private car, taxi average time min								

The interview is over. Thank you for your cooperation again!

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Appendix B.

2016

Assessing Air Pollution Exposures in southern West Africa - Questionnaire for Students

1. Participant name:	<u> </u>
2. Interviewer name:	
3. Sampling site:	
4. Address of the interview place: _	
5. Address of the participant home	:
6. Interview date://_	(yyyy/mm/dd)
7. Interview start time:	End time:

This questionnaire is for research purposes only. Please think carefully and answer all the questions below. Your answers will be kept completely confidential and your personal information will not be disclosed or displayed in any way and any case.

Thank you for your cooperation!

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A. Basic Information	(7) Brick (8) Bare soil					
lacksquare Please choose by $igtoxtimes$ or fill in the answer $lacksquare$	A14. What is the material of the furniture in					
A1. Gender: (0) Male (1) Female	your house?					
A2. Age: years old	(0) Solid wood (1) Plastic					
A3. Height: cm	(2) Leather (3) Metal					
A4. Weight: Kg	(4) ☐ Stone (5) ☐ Glass					
A5. Grade:grade	(6) Cloth (7) Artificial board					
A6. The total number of family members	A15. Has your house been decorated in the last					
(including you):	year?					
A7. Number of adults (18 years or older):	$(1) \square Yes (1) \square No$					
A8. Your housing type:	→A16. What kind of decoration?					
(3) Apartment	(0) Paint					
(4) One-storey house	(1) Change the floor					
(5) Other:	(2) Add new furniture					
	(3) Other:					
A10. Residential area: m ²	A17. Does your house have ventilation					
(4) One room and one hall	equipment?					
(5) Two rooms and one hall	(1) Yes (1) No					
(6) Three rooms and two halls	→A18. What kind of equipment? (Please					
(7) Others	select all suitable answers)					
A11. How many years have you lived in this	(0) Hanging air conditioner					
house? (year)	(1) Cabinet air conditioner					
A12. What material is your house built?	(2) Uentilator					
(0) Brick (1) Armored concrete	A19. How far is your house from the main road?					
(2) Timber (3) Other materials	$(0) \square <20m \qquad (1) \square 20-100m$					
A13. What is the material of the floor in your	(2) \[>100m					
house?	A20. Does your classroom have ventilation					
(0) Cement (1) Marble	equipment?					
(2) Solid wood (3) Composite wood	(0) Yes (1) No					
(4) Tile (5) Plastic (6) Rock	→A21. What kind of equipment? (Please					

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select all suitable answers)	(0) Very good (1) Good					
(0) Hanging air conditioner	(2) Not bad (3) Not good					
(1) Cabinet air conditioner	A29. Do you have a family history of allergies?					
(2) Uentilator	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No (2) ☐ I don't know					
A22. How far is your classroom from the main	A30. Have you been allergic to flowers or					
road?	animals, food, etc.?					
$(0) \square <20m \qquad (1) \square 20-100m$	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
(2) \[>100m	A31. Have you ever had itchy skin and red					
A23. Do you smoke?	patches (rashes) lasting more than 6 months?					
(0) Yes (1) No	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
A24. Does your family member smoke (not	A32. Do your parents have asthma?					
including you)?	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
(0) Yes (1) Used to smoke	A33. Do you have asthma?					
(2) No	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
A25. In general, are you influenced by second hand smoke in the following environments often?	A34. Have you heard any noise or wheeze in your chest (whistle sound) during breathing?					
	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
(0) Your own home	A35. Have you had symptoms of sneezing, runny					
(1) Working environment	nose or stuffy nose in the absence of a cold?					
(2) Other' house	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know					
(3) Restaurants, bars, supermarkets,						
streets and so on						
(4) Other:						
(5) Rarely affected by second hand						
smoke						
A26. Do you often drink alcohol? (0) Yes (1) No (2) Not often						
A27. Mainly drinking type:						
(0) Alcohol (1) Beer						
(2) Wine (3) Other						
A28. Please describe your health status in						
general.						

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B. Environment	(0) Yes (1) No
【Please choose by ⊠ or fill in the answer】	B10. Do you grow flowers or plants at home?
B1. Do you cook at home?	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No
(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No	B11. Do you use insecticide at home?
· · · · · ·	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
→B2. Cooking frequency per day:	B12. What's the open conditions of your
(0) Once (1) Twice	windows at home every day?
(2) Three times	(0) ☐ Wide open < 1h
$(3) \square > \text{Three times}$	(1) \square Wide open > 3h
B3. What kind of fuel is used at home for	(2) ☐ Half open < 1h
cooking? (Please select all suitable answers)	(3) \square Half open > 3h
(0) Natural gas	(4) Never open
(1) Coal	B13. What's the open conditions of your
$(2) \ \square \ Liquefied \ petroleum \ gas \ (LPG)$	windows at classroom every day?
(3) Electricity	(0) Wide open $< 1h$
(4) Other:	(1) ☐ Wide open > 3h
(5) Don't cook at home	(2) ☐ Half open < 1h
B4. Does your kitchen have ventilation	$(3) \square \text{ Half open} > 3h$
equipment?	(4) Never open
(0) Yes (1) No	B14. What tool does your family use to clean
→ B5. What kind of equipment?	house?
(Please select all suitable answers)	(2) Broom and mop
(0) Kitchen smoke exhaust ventilator	(3) Electric dust collector
(1) Kitchen ventilator	B15. What tool does your class use to clean
(2) Chimney	classroom?
B6. Your kitchen area: m ²	(0) Broom and mop
B7. Does your family usually make smoked fish?	(1) Electric dust collector
(0)	B16. How far does dumps away from your house?
B8. How many times does your family eat	m
smoked fish per week?times.	Walking time:
B9. Do you raise pet at home?	(0)

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(1) 5-10min	(0) Yes (1) No
(2) 10-15min	B24. How to deal with your home waste?
(3) 15-20min	(0) Throwing to dumps
(4) 20-30 min	(1) Burning by yourselves
$(5) \square > 30 \text{ min}$	(2) I don't know
B17. How far does dumps away from your	B25. Does waste burning in dumps impact on
school? m	your live?
Walking time:	(0) Yes (1) No
(0)	□ B26. What specific performance?
(1) 5-10min	(Please select all suitable answers)
(2) 10-15min	(0) Road congestion, inconvenient
(3) 15-20min	travel
(4) 20-30 min	(1) Air odor, black smoke filled
$(5) \square > 30 \text{ min}$	(2) Air pollution, low visibility
B18. Can you see waste burning at home?	(3) Water pollution, fish and shrimp
$(0) \square \text{ Yes } \qquad (1) \square \text{ No}$	death
→ B19. How many times per week?	B27. Does waste burning in dumps impact on
times	your health?
B20. Can you see waste burning at school?	(0) Yes (1) No
(0) Yes (1) No	B28. What specific performance?
\hookrightarrow B21. How many times per week?	(Please select all suitable answers)
times	(0) Congestion, runny nose
B22. Can you smell smoke from waste burning	(1) Dry eyes, tears
at home?	(2) Skin allergies
(0) Yes (1) No	(3) Throat dry, inflamed
B23. Can you smell smoke from waste burning	(4) Difficulty breathing
at school?	(5) Other:
C. Travel habits	

C1. How much time do you spend indoors per day, except sleeping?

 \blacksquare Please choose by oxtimes or fill in the answer \blacksquare

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(0)	> 50%	(1) 🔲 =	50% (2		o ·				
C2. How	much slee	ep do you h	ave daily,	including	daytime ar	nd nighttin	ne?	_ h	
C3. Wha	at time of t	he day do y	ou stay in	your hous	se in genera	al? (Please	select all	suitable ai	nswers)
Mo	rning		Afternoon			·	Evening		
8-10 am	10-12 am	12-14 pm	14-16 pm	16-18 pm	18-20 pm	20-22 pm	22-24 pm	Next day	Nexr day
								0-4 am	4-8 am
C4. Wha	at time of t	he day do y	ou stay at	school in	general? (l	Please sele	ct all suita	ble answe	rs)
Mo	rning		Afternoon				Evening		
8-10 am	10-12 am	12-14 pm	14-16 pm	16-18 pm	18-20 pm	20-22 pm	22-24 pm	Next day	Nexr day
								0-4 am	4-8 am
C5. Wha	at is your n	nain travel	style wher	ı you trave	el < 3 km f	rom your l	nouse?		
((0) 🗌 Walk		(1) Bic	ycle	(2) \[\] \]	Iotorcycle			
(3	3) 🗌 Publi	c bus	(4) C	ar	(5)	Seldom tra	avel		
C6. How many hours do you spend on traveling each day?									
(0)									
(4)	1.5-2 h	(5) 🗌 2-	3 h (6)	$\supset 3 h$					
C7. How	often do y	ou perforn	n outdoor	exercises f	or longer t	han 30 mi	nutes per	week?	times
C8. Wha	at kind of t	ransportat	ion do you	use when	you go to	school? Ho	ow long do	es it take?	
_	_								
(0)	Walk		aver	age time _	min	l			
(1)	Bicycle,	tricycle		average t	ime	_ min			
(2)	Electric	bicycles, m	otorcycles	ave	erage time	m	in		
(3) Bus, private car, taxi average time min									

The interview is over. Thank you for your cooperation again!

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Appendix C.

2016

Assessing Air Pollution Exposures in southern West Africa - Questionnaire for Drivers

1. Participant name:	
2. Interviewer name:	
3. Sampling site:	
4. Address of the interview place	ee:
5. Address of the participant ho	ome:
6. Interview date:/	_/ (yyyy/mm/dd)
7. Interview start time:	End time:

This questionnaire is for research purposes only. Please think carefully and answer all the questions below. Your answers will be kept completely confidential and your personal information will not be disclosed or displayed in any way and any case.

Thank you for your cooperation!

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A. Basic Information	└A12Floor
igl[Please choose by $igl[igl]$ or fill in the answer $igl]$	A13. Residential area: m ²
A1. Gender: (0) Male (1) Female	(8) One room and one hall
A2. Age: years old	(9) Two rooms and one hall
A3. Height: cm; Weight: Kg	(10) Three rooms and two halls
A4. Marital status:	(11) Others
(0) Single (1) Married	A14. How long did you move in this house after
(2) Divorced (3) Widowed	it was decorated?
A5. Highest level of education:	$(0) \square < 3 \text{ months}$ $(1) \square 3-6 \text{ months}$
(5) Primary school	(2) \square 6-12 months (3) \square > 12 months
(6) Unior high school	A15. When was your house built?(year)
(7) High school	A16. How many years have you lived in this
(8) Undergraduate	house? (year)
(9) Above undergraduate	A17. What material is your house built?
A6. The total number of family members	(0) Brick (1) Armored concrete
(including you):	(2) Timber (3) Other materials
A7. Number of adults (18 years or older;	A18. What is the material of the floor in your
including you):	house?
A8. Family total annual income: West	(0) Cement (1) Marble
African Franc / Month	(2) Solid wood (3) Composite wood
A9. Which kind of car do you drive when you	(4) Tile (5) Plastic (6) Rock
work?	(7) Brick (8) Bare soil
(0) Motorcycle (1) Car	A19. What is the material of the furniture in
(2) Tricycle (3) Others	your house?
A10. As a driver, how long do you work per	(0) Solid wood (1) Plastic
day?	(2) Leather (3) Metal
$(0) \square < 1h$	(4) Stone (5) Glass
(1) 1-3h	(6) Cloth (7) Artificial board
(2) 4-6h	A20. Has your house been decorated in the last
(3) 7-9h	year?
(4) 10-12h	(2) Yes (1) No
$(5) \square > 12h$	→A21. What kind of decoration?
A11. Your housing type:	(0) Paint
(6) Apartment	(1) Change the floor
(7) One-storey house	(2) Add new furniture
(8) Other:	(2) Aud new lutinituit

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(3) Other:	A31. Mainly drinking type:
A22. Does your house have ventilation	(0) Alcohol (1) Beer
equipment?	(2) Wine (3) Other
(2) Yes (1) No	A32. Drinking frequency per week (If any):
\rightarrow A23. What kind of equipment?	times.
(Please select all suitable answers)	A33. Please describe your health status in
(0) Hanging air conditioner	general.
(1) Cabinet air conditioner	(0) \square Very good (1) \square Good
(2) Ventilator	(2) Not bad (3) Not good
A24. How far is your house from the main road?	A34. Do you have a family history of allergies?
(0) \square < 20m (1) \square 20-100m	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2) > 100m	A35. Have you been allergic to flowers or
A25. Do you smoke?	animals, food, etc.?
(0) Yes (1) No	(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No (2) ☐ I don't know
A26. Do you have a smoking history?	A36. Have you ever had itchy skin and red
$(0) \square \text{ Yes} \qquad (1) \square \text{ No}$	patches (rashes) lasting more than 6 months?
→A27. How long is your smoking	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
history? (year)	A37. Do your parents have asthma?
A28. Does your family member smoke (not	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
including you)?	A38. Do you have asthma?
(0) Yes (1) Used to smoke	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2) No	A39. Have you heard any noise or wheeze in
A29. In general, are you influenced by second	your chest (whistle sound) during breathing?
hand smoke in the following environments	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
often?	A40. Have you had symptoms of sneezing, runny nose or stuffy nose in the absence of a
(0) Your own home	cold?
(1) Working environment	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2) Other' house	A41. Are you diagnosed with high blood
(3) Restaurants, bars, supermarkets,	pressure by your doctor? (0) \(\subseteq \text{Yes} \) (1) \(\subseteq \text{No} \) (2) \(\subseteq \text{I don't know} \)
streets and so on	
(4) Other:	→ A42. Are you taking antihypertensive drugs every day?
(5) Rarely affected by second hand	$(0) \square \text{ Yes} \qquad (1) \square \text{ No}$
smoke	A43. Are you diagnosed with diabetes by your
A30. Do you often drink alcohol?	doctor?
$(0) \square \text{Yes} \qquad (1) \square \text{No}$	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know
(2) Not often (3) Already abstaining	A44. Are you diagnosed with a myocardial





infarction by your doctor?	
(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know	

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B. Environment	B10. Do you raise pet at home?				
igl[Please choose by $igl[igl]$ or fill in the answer $igl]$	(0) Yes (1) No				
B1. Do you cook at home?	B11. Do you grow flowers or plants at home?				
(0) ☐ Yes (1) ☐ No	(0) Yes (1) No				
B2. Cooking frequency per day:	B12. Do you use insecticide at home?				
	(0) Yes (1) No (2) I don't know				
$(0) \square \text{ Once } (1) \square \text{ Twice}$	B13. What's the open conditions of your				
(2) Three times	windows at home every day?				
$(3) \square > \text{Three times}$	(0)				
B3. What kind of fuel is used at home for	(1) \square Wide open > 3h				
cooking? (Please select all suitable answers)	(2) ☐ Half open < 1h				
(0) L Natural gas	(3) ☐ Half open > 1h				
(1) Coal	(4) Never open				
(2) Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)	B14. What tool do you use to clean house?				
(3) Electricity	(4) Broom and mop				
(4) Other:	(5) Electric dust collector				
(5) Don't cook at home	B15. What kind of road do you usually drive on?				
B4. Does your kitchen has ventilation equipment?	(Please select all suitable answers)				
(0)	(0) Unsurfaced road (1) Stone road				
→ B5. What kind of equipment?	(2) Asphalt road (3) Cement road				
(Please select all suitable answers)	(4) Others:				
(0) Kitchen smoke exhaust ventilator	B16. What kind of environment do you usually				
(1) Kitchen ventilator	drive on? (Please select all suitable answers)				
(2) Chimney	(0) \square Business district (1) \square Industrial area				
B6. Your kitchen area: m ²	(2) Residential area (3) Suburbs				
B7. Do you cook at home?	(4) Others:				
(0)	B17. What type of power does your motorcycle				
B8. Does your family usually make smoked fish?	use?				
(0)	(0) Diesel (1) Gasoline				
B9. How many times do you eat smoked fish at	(2) Manpower (3) Electricity				
home per week?times.	B18. When do you usually work with motorcycle?				

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(0) Daytime	(1) Nighttime		when driving every day?					
(2) Morning rush hour			$(0) \ \square \ \text{Very good} \qquad (1) \ \square \ \text{Good}$				od	
(3) Night ru		(2)	Not ba	ad ((3) Bad			
B19. What is the	main purpose of your d	riving	B22. Can	you s	smell th	e exhaust	when drivin	g
motorcycle?			every day	?				
(0) Treight	(1) Passenger		(0) Yes (1) No					
(2) Both of a	above (3) Others		B23. Do y	you we	ear a he	lmet when	driving ever	у
B20. How far do ye	ou drive motorcycle per	day?	day (if ap	plicabl	e)?			
Km			(0)		es ((1) No		
B21. How do you	feel about the surroundi	ng air						
C. Travel habi	ts							
【Please choose b	by $oxtimes$ or fill in the answe	r]						
C1. How much ti	me do you spend indoors	s per day	, except slee	eping?				
$(0) \square > 50\%$	$(1) \square = 50\% \qquad (2)$	< 50%)					
C2. How much sl	eep do you have daily, in	cluding o	laytime and	d night	time? _	h		
C3. What time of	the day do you stay in y	our hous	e in general	l? (Plea	ase selec	t all suitab	ole answers)	
Morning	Afternoon		Evening					
8-10 am 10-12 am	12-14 pm 4-16 pm 6-18 pm	18-20 pm	20-22 pm 22-2			Nexr day		
					0-4 am	4-8 am		
C4. What time of	the day do you drive ca	rs for wo	rk in gener	al? (Pl	ease sel	ect all suita	able answers)	
Morning	Afternoon		Evening					
8-10 am 10-12 am	12-14 pm 4-16 pm 6-18 pm	18-20 pm	20-22 pm 22-2	24 pm 1	Next day	Nexr day		
					0-4 am	4-8 am		
C5. What is your	main travel style when y	you trave		om vou	r house	?		
(0) ☐ Wa	`		otorcycle	JIII J OU	i nouse	•		
—	olic bus (4) \square Car		eldom travo	el				
	do you perform outdo				than 30	0 minutes	per week?	
times				_			_	

The interview is over. Thank you for your cooperation again!

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Appendix D.

2016

Assessing Air Pollution Exposures in southern West Africa

DETAILED TIME-ACTIVITY DIARY

Participant name:	
Start date://	Time::
MM/DD/YY	
End date://	Time::
MM/DD/YY	
Interviewer name:	

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DETAILED ACTIVITY DIARY FOR WOMAN

Time	Location (mark all that apply)	Activities (mark all that apply)
x:00 am-x:30 am*	Indoors Home	□ Cooking
Pollution sources Environmental tobacco smoke Cooking smoking fish no smoking fish	□ kitchen □ living room □ bedroom □ courtyard □ Work □ Other (specify):	☐ Smoking fish ☐ Cleaning room ☐ Washing the clothes ☐ Taking food ☐ Watching television ☐ Taking a rest ☐ Working at office
☐ Use of cleaning products ☐ House decoration ☐ Transportation emissions	Outdoors ☐ In transit (specify):	☐ Going out ☐ Taking exercise ☐ Shopping ☐ Visiting friends
Other (specify):	Other (specify):	Other (specify):

^{*}X refers to the hour.

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DETAILED ACTIVITY DIARY FOR STUDENT

Time	Location (mark all that apply)	Activities (mark all that apply)
x:00 am-x:30 am* Pollution sources Environmental tobacco smoke Cooking smoking fish no smoking fish Use of cleaning products House decoration Transportation emissions Other (specify):	Indoors ☐ Home ☐ kitchen ☐ living room ☐ bedroom ☐ courtyard ☐ School classroom ☐ Other (specify): ☐ Outdoors ☐ In transit (specify): ☐ Other (specify):	Cooking Smoking fish Cleaning room Washing the clothes Taking food Watching television Taking a rest Studying at school Studying at home Going out Taking exercise Shopping Playing Other (specify):

^{*}X refers to the hour.

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DETAILED ACTIVITY DIARY FOR DRIVER

Location (mark all that apply)	Activities (mark all that apply)
Indoors Home kitchen living room courtyard Other (specify): In transit (specify): Other (specify):	Cooking Smoking fish Cleaning room Washing the clothes Taking food Watching television Taking a rest Driving the MOTO Driving the car Going out Taking exercise Shopping Visiting friends Other (specify):
	(mark all that apply) Indoors Home kitchen living room courtyard Other (specify): Outdoors In transit (specify):

^{*}X refers to the hour.