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## Correlation of Particulate Matter with Airborne Fungi in Schools in Greece

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### Abstract

The concentration levels of particulate matter (PM), airborne fungi, carbon dioxide as well as temperature and relative humidity were investigated in the indoor and outdoor environment of two schools in Athens, Greece during the period January to May 2011. The overall concentration ranges of the indoor measured pollutants were: PM<sub>10</sub>: 14.92-166.18 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>: 3.16-31.27 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, PM<sub>1</sub>: 0.72-9.01 µg/m<sup>3</sup>, UFP: 4188-63093 pt/cm<sup>3</sup>, total airborne fungi: 28-2098 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> and CO<sub>2</sub>: 389-1717 ppm. The relationships between PM and airborne fungi were mainly examined, and bivariate correlations of all the measured environmental parameters are also reported. The results indicate that PM of certain aerodynamic diameters significantly correlate to the total airborne fungi and their prevalent genera, *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium* and *Aspergillus*. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was conducted so as to cluster variables of common characteristics. Furthermore, simple and multiple linear regression models were developed to investigate several cases of dependent variables to be used for prediction purposes in health risk assessments.

**Key words:** indoor air quality, schools, particulate matter, airborne fungi, PCA, multiple linear regression models.

### 1. Introduction

The study of Indoor Air Quality (IAQ) has attracted the interest of the scientific community in recent years, especially since people spend approximately 85-90 % of their time in indoor environments (EPA 1995a; Jenkins et al, 1992; Long et al, 2001). Epidemiological studies have associated exposure to indoor air pollutants, such as particulate matter (PM) and airborne fungi, to human health effects (Chapman 1999; Pope III et al, 1995). The effects of PM include headaches, asthma symptoms, allergies, respiratory and cardiovascular diseases and even mortality (Brunekreef and Holgate, 2002; Dockery et al, 1993; Donaldson and Stone, 2003). The small size and relatively large surface area to volume ratio of particles in the ultrafine size range (UFP <100 nm in diameter) result in their ability to penetrate deeper into the lungs and alveoli and may have higher reactivity and toxicity compared to larger particles (Oberdörster, 2000). Effects of airborne fungi include irritations, infections, respiratory allergies and asthma (Adhikari et al, 2004; Burge and Rogers, 2000; Bush and Portnoy, 2001;

Pongracic et al, 2010). Children are more vulnerable to health problems compared to adults, due to the greater volume of air inhaled in proportion to their body weight. Owing to their developing lungs, they may be especially susceptible to particle inhalation (EPA, 1995b). Students, in particular, spend a substantial amount of their day time within school premises (Silvers et al, 1994). Internationally, several epidemiological publications report exposure to air pollutants in school environments in association to health impacts (Guo et al, 1999). Human activities and classrooms overcrowded for several hours, poor ventilation and infrequent cleaning constitute some of the most common sources of air pollutants in school environments. In addition, the indoor air is greatly affected by outdoor pollutant concentrations (Fromme et al, 2008). Degraded IAQ in school classrooms impacts on students' performance, attendance and comfort and may also lead to increased energy consumption, leading to massive societal and economic costs (EPA 1995b; Mendell and Heath, 2005; Wargoeki and Wyon, 2013). Therefore, the quality of air inside school classrooms is of primary concern.

Even though both particulate matter and airborne fungi constitute important indoor air pollutants that cause a great number of adverse health effects, there are only a small number of studies in the international literature reporting their simultaneous measurement, interrelationships and interaction (Adhikari et al, 2006; Degobbi et al, 2011; Grinn-Gofron et al, 2011; Hargreaves, 2003; Sousa et al, 2008). However, these studies have not been extensively evaluated due to the complex interrelation of the pollutants. In Greece, a quantitative evaluation of bioaerosol in comparison to particulate matter has been made in the ambient air and in residential, office and school buildings (Kalogerakis et al, 2005; Raisi et al, 2010; Dorizas et al, 2012). Nevertheless in school buildings, several studies have been carried out investigating concentration levels of only non-biological air pollutants such as PM, carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and Total Volatile Organic Compounds (TVOCs) (Diapouli et al, 2007; Lazaridis and Aleksandropoulou, 2009; Santamouris et al, 2008; Synnefa et al, 2003; Triantafyllou et al, 2008).

In this study, an experimental campaign was conducted in two high schools in Athens, Greece. Particulate matter of several size ranges (PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>1</sub>, UFP), CO<sub>2</sub>, temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH) were measured in school classrooms and the outdoor environment. Air sampling was simultaneously conducted for airborne fungi. The fungi were identified to genus level and the prevalent genera were *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium* and *Aspergillus*. The objectives of this work were to:

- (i) report the indoor and outdoor concentration levels of the aforementioned air pollutants;
- (ii) characterize the indoor environments of classrooms against proposed limit values by international certification bodies;
- (iii) examine the correlations between the measured parameters focusing on relationships between PM and airborne fungi;
- (iv) deliver simple and multivariate linear regression models.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Sampling Site Description

Measurements were carried out in two vocational high schools from nearby areas outside the city centre of Athens. The first school is in the

Kaisariani urban area, hereafter denoted by K. This school is located away from major highways and is next to a park. It was constructed in 2001 and has double glazed windows installed. The second school is in the Ymittos urban area, hereafter denoted by Y, where the traffic in the adjoining streets is moderate. This school was constructed in 1930 and all of the building's windows are single glazed. Central heating systems are used in both of the two schools and are oil-fired boilers that heat water to provide central heating via radiators. Both schools are naturally ventilated.

### 2.2 Sampling Strategy

The sampling period was from January until May 2011 and measurements were conducted once every two weeks in each school. Air samples were collected from eight sampling sites denoted by K1 to K8 and Y1 to Y8 for schools K and Y respectively. One of the measurement sites was the outdoor environment where the instruments were placed on the schools' roof-yards (positions K8 and Y8). The other seven sampling positions were classrooms and laboratories. Certain classrooms were occupied by students during sampling throughout the measurement period. The number of students before and during the measurements, the prevailing conditions such as open windows before the measurement or any detected odours was logged. The windows were kept closed while the measurements were carried out. The sampling apparatus were synchronized and were placed each time at the same location of 0.8 m above the floor.

### 2.3 Parameters Measured and Instrumentation

PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>1</sub> (where 10, 2.5 and 1 refer to the aerodynamic diameter of the particles in µm) were measured in units of mass per unit volume (µg/m<sup>3</sup>) using Osiris, an airborne particulate monitor (Turnkey Instruments Ltd). UFP concentrations were measured in units of number of particles per unit volume (particles/cm<sup>3</sup>) using P-Trak, a portable particle counter (TSI, Model 8525). The particle detection range of this instrument is from 20 nm to about 1 µm. Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) was recorded using IAQ-CALC, a portable instrument meter from TSI (TSI model 8732). Temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH) were recorded using self-contained sensors incorporated in Tinytag dataloggers (Gemini data loggers TGP-4500). All these parameters were monitored with a sampling step of 1 second and the duration of each measurement, per position, was 10 minutes.

Airborne fungi were recovered using a Burkard (Burkard Manufacturing Co. Ltd. Hertfordshire, UK), a portable air sampler for agar plates. Three plates with Malt Agar were exposed consecutively in each sampling site for 3 min/plate and then incubated for 2 weeks at 28 °C. The colony count was corrected and expressed as colony forming units per cubic meter (CFU/m<sup>3</sup>), a measure of viable spore concentrations. The fungal colonies were identified to genus level and *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium* and *Aspergillus* were the predominant genera.

#### 2.4 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the SPSS (SPSS Inc PASW Statistics 18) statistical software package as well as data analysis of Microsoft Excel 2007. The concentrations of the pollutants per measurement position and day were studied by temporal variation graphs, and the range of values which the PM concentrations laid are presented in box-plots. Furthermore, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed in order to cluster variables of common characteristics. In addition Spearman's correlation coefficients were calculated among all possible pairs of measured variables so as to investigate bivariate relationships. Simple and multiple stepwise linear regression analyses were also performed to examine combined and individual influence between the environmental variables.

### 3. Measurements Results

#### 3.1 Particulate Matter Concentrations

The variation in time of PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations, in units of µg/m<sup>3</sup>, in the course of the campaign is presented in Figure 1 (Figure 1, left is for school K and right is for school Y) (Dorizas et al, 2012). Each diagram contains 8 graphs (one for each sampling position). K8 and Y8 graphs refer to the measurements in the outdoor environment. The horizontal line denoted by LV corresponds to the 24-h limit value of PM<sub>10</sub> (50 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2005). The overall indoor PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations in both schools ranged between 14.92 and 166.18 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. In particular, the mean concentration of PM<sub>10</sub> indoors was 64.53 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and ranged between 18.27-166.18 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in school K (Figure 1 left), and 38.65 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and 14.92-116.14 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in school Y respectively (Figure 1 right). Higher concentrations appear at school K exceeding the limit values in many cases (Figure 1 left e.g. K3 graph, st.dev. = 46), whereas in school Y the concentrations are significantly lower in almost all measurement positions, with a few exceptions (Figure 1 right e.g. Y3 graph, st.dev. = 32). The intense indoor peaks for certain dates are possibly attributed to:

- (i) the increased presence of students being in the classrooms before and during the

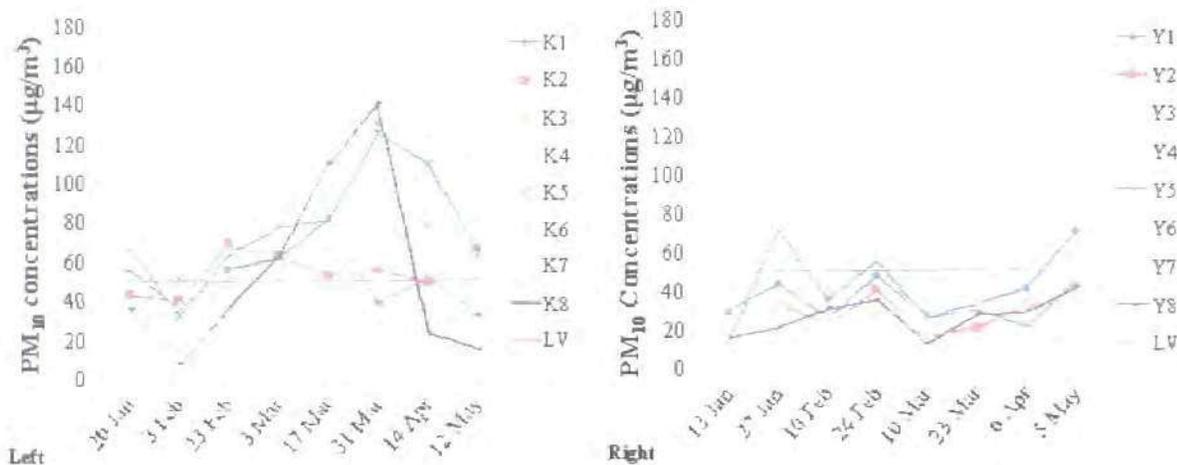


Figure 1. Temporal variation of PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations for all of the measurement sites for schools K (left) and Y (right).

measurements; since students' presence and physical movement in the classroom may cause re-suspension of coarse particles and therefore affect their concentrations (Guo et al, 2010);

- (ii) inadequate ventilation rates;
- (iii) infiltration of particles from construction works that were taking place outside school K in certain days. It should be noted that in most cases outdoor fresh air did not enter the classrooms so as to meet the ventilation requirements and to remove odours and contaminants.

The averaged  $PM_{10}$  concentrations at the 7 indoor sites (K1 to K7 and Y1 to Y7) are depicted versus the outdoor concentrations in Figure 2 (Figure 2, left is for school K and right is for school Y). The

outdoor concentrations ranged from 7 to  $139 \mu g/m^3$  in school K and from 12 to  $41 \mu g/m^3$  in school Y. Most indoor measurements were greater than the corresponding outdoor ones for both schools and they seem to follow the same trend, especially at school Y. The majority of the indoor measurements of school K, exceeded the limit value. The extreme outdoor  $PM_{10}$  concentrations on the 17<sup>th</sup> and 31<sup>st</sup> of March in school K are possibly linked to the increased levels of relative humidity, as in both of these days it was drizzling during the measurements. In addition, over these days a strong smell of smoke was detected outside school K, which could have also affected the concentrations. Average indoor and outdoor  $PM_{10}$  concentrations in school Y were below the recommended limit value, excluding the indoor measurements on the 5<sup>th</sup> of May.

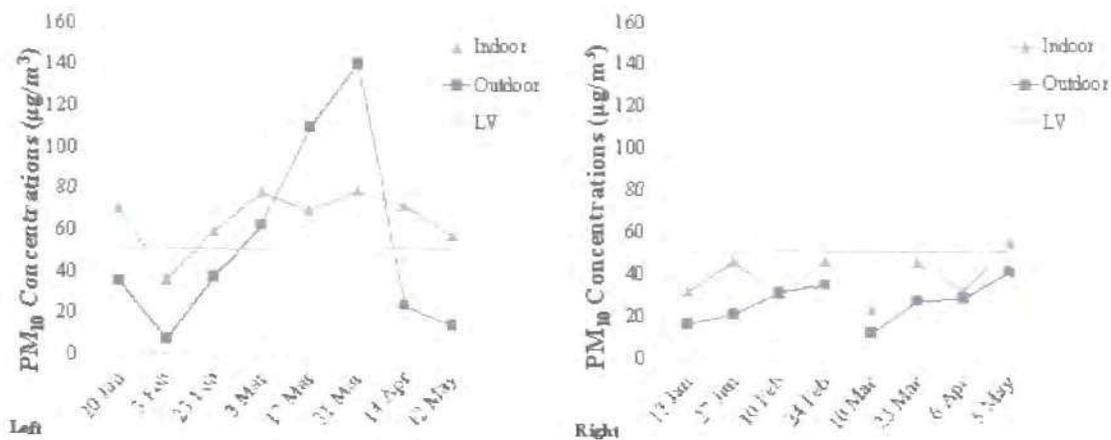


Figure 2. Averaged indoor versus outdoor  $PM_{10}$  concentration fluctuations for schools K (left) and Y (right).

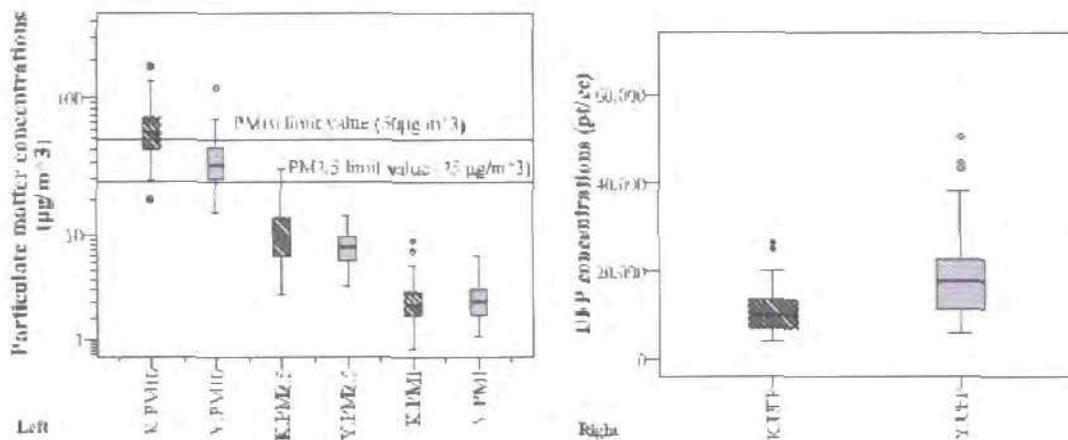


Figure 3. Concentration distributions of  $PM_{10}$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$ , and  $PM_1$  (left) and of UFP (right) in schools K (striped) and Y (grey), presented in box plots.

The indoor concentration distributions of PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>1</sub> (Figure 3, left) and of UFP concentrations (Figure 3, right) for both schools are illustrated as box plots. A percentage of 60% of the total average PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations in school K and of 17% in school Y, exceeded the limit value of 50 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. Although school K is more recently constructed compared to school Y, the increased PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations indoors may have been due to the increased concentrations outdoors (Figure 2 left). It is possible that PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations were influenced by construction works that were carried out on certain days outside school K, where dust clouds were frequently visible. Furthermore, in certain cases, the surface area per pupil in school K was smaller than in school Y and the intense movement and activity from the increased presence of students caused resuspension of particles of greater size, increasing their concentrations. PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations indoors ranged from 3.16 to 31.27 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in school K and from 3.75 to 18.05 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in school Y. The limit value of 25 µg/m<sup>3</sup> for PM<sub>2.5</sub> was only exceeded in school K by 5% (Figure 3 left). The UFP concentrations ranged from 4188 to 26518 pt/cm<sup>3</sup> in school K and from 5789 to 63093 pt/cm<sup>3</sup> in school Y (Figure 3 right). The UFP concentrations in school Y were greater than the corresponding ones of school K and also present a stronger dispersion around the mean value. The increased UFP concentrations in school Y were possibly linked to vehicle emissions from the adjoining streets. Furthermore, due to the single and unsealed glazed windows of the construction of school Y, outdoor air pollutants may infiltrate more easily into the indoor environment.

### 3.2 Airborne Fungi Concentrations

The temporal variation of the total airborne fungi concentrations for both schools, expressed in CFU/m<sup>3</sup>, is presented in a logarithmic scale in Figure 4 (Dorizas et al, 2012). Each diagram contains 8 graphs (one for each sampling site). K8 and Y8 graphs refer to the outdoor measurements. The overall indoor airborne fungi concentrations in both schools ranged between 28 and 2098 CFU/m<sup>3</sup>. In particular, the mean concentration of the total airborne fungi concentrations indoors was 191 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> and ranged between 28-2098 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> excluding 1 extreme peak (5685 CFU/m<sup>3</sup>) in school K (Figure 4 left) and 146 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> and 28-866 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school Y respectively (Figure 4 right). School K presents higher concentrations of airborne fungi as is the case for PM. There does not exist a universally acceptable threshold limit value for fungal concentrations.

The averaged total airborne fungi concentrations at the 7 indoor sites (K1 to K7 and Y1 to Y7) are presented versus the outdoor concentrations in Figure 5. The outdoor concentrations of the total airborne fungi ranged from 51 to 410 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school K and from 69 to 236 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school Y. In most of the measurements, the indoor concentrations follow the trend of the corresponding outdoor ones. In the case of school Y (Figure 5 right), the indoor concentration levels seemed to be mostly affected by the outdoor concentrations, which probably indicates the absence of major indoor sources.

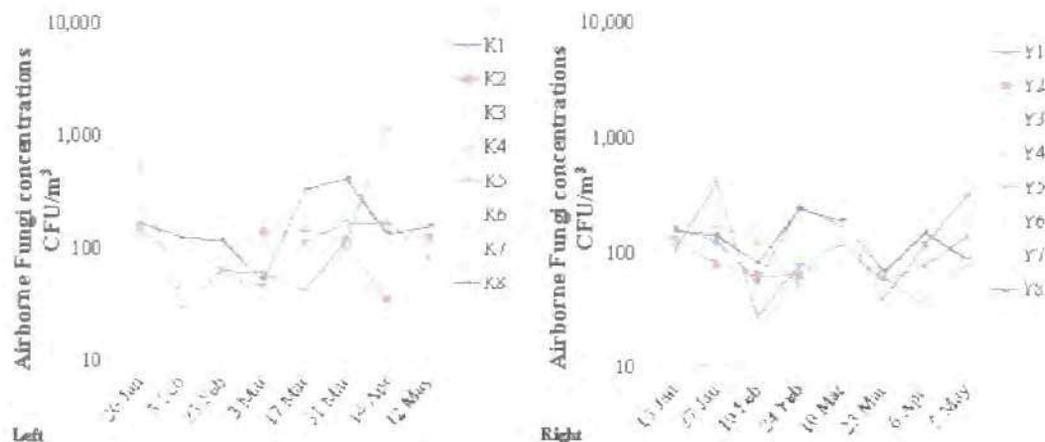


Figure 4. Temporal variation of airborne fungi concentrations in all of the measurement sites, for schools K (left) and Y (right).

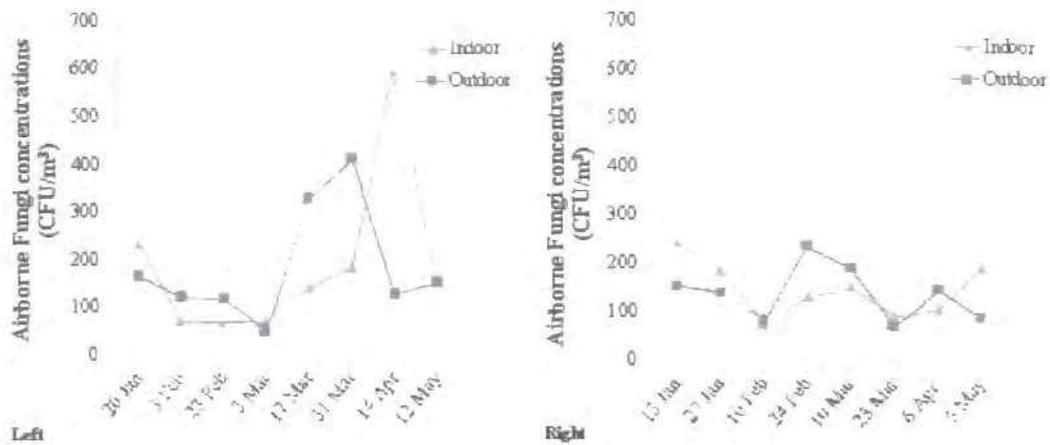


Figure 5. Averaged indoor versus outdoor airborne fungi concentration fluctuations for schools K (left) and Y (right).

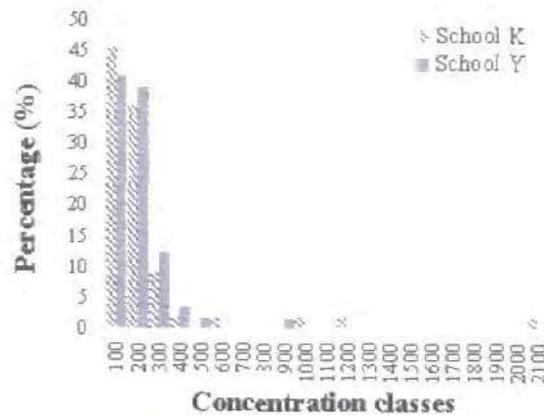


Figure 6. Frequency distribution of the total airborne fungi concentrations in classes of 100 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in schools K (striped) and Y (grey).

The frequency distribution of the total airborne fungi concentrations in the two schools is indicated in Figure 6, along 21 classes of 100 CFU/m<sup>3</sup>, ranging from 100 to 2100. More than 90% of the total airborne fungi concentrations are between 100 and 300 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> for both schools. However, there was a small percentage, especially in school K, which distributed from 400 to 2098 CFU/m<sup>3</sup>.

The predominant genera found in the indoor environment of the classrooms were *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium* and *Aspergillus*. *Penicillium* concentrations ranged from 0 to 872 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school K and from 6 to 476 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school Y. The concentration ranges for *Cladosporium*, were from 0 to 585 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school K and from 0 to

134 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in school Y. *Aspergillus* concentrations extended from 0 to 17 and 0 to 176 CFU/m<sup>3</sup> in schools K and Y respectively.

### 3.3 CO<sub>2</sub> Concentration

CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are often used as an indicator of ventilation efficiency and the assessment of indoor air quality and the excess of occupancy (Mumovic et al, 2009, Santamouris et al, 2008). In this case, CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations ranged from 389 to 1717 ppm in school K and from 460 to 1377 ppm in school Y throughout the measurement period. On every sampling day the number of students occupying the classrooms was marked down. The linear correlation between indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and

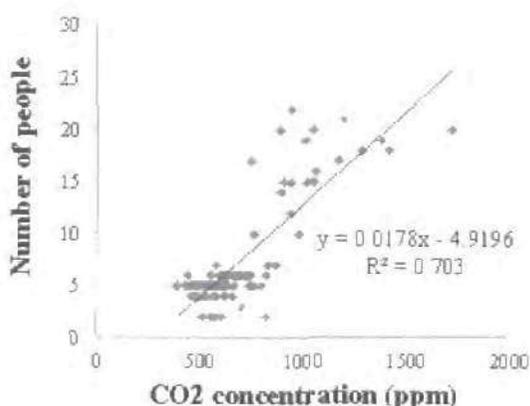


Figure 7. Scatter plot of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations versus number of people.

the number of people being present during sampling for both schools in all indoor sites of measurement is presented in Figure 7. As expected CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are highly correlated to the number of occupants ( $r^2 = 0.703, N = 112$ ). In many cases CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations exceeded the more recent recommended standards of ASHRAE (62-2001 and 62-2004) of 700 ppm indicating inadequate ventilation rates and overcrowded classrooms. Insufficient ventilation contributes to the inhibition of the removal of larger particles from the indoor to the outdoor environment (Almeida et al, 2010).

#### 4. Common Data Set of Measurements of the Two School

The areas to which the datasets of the measured parameters in the two schools extend, are visualized in a rose diagram in Figure 8. The maximum values of each variable have been used as input for the design of the diagram. The area where the variables of school K occur, is presented in black and for school Y is shown in grey. The common area of the data is where the data from the two schools overlap, and is presented in dark grey. The common area represents a percentage of approximately 66% of the total number of measurements from both schools.

Descriptive statistics of all the indoor measured environmental parameters of schools K (N=55), Y (N=56) and of the common area (denoted by C, N=73) of the dataset are summarized in Table 1. Both mean PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations of the

common area were below the recommended WHO limit values. The extreme values (outside the common area of Figure 8) were filtered out and hereafter any statistical analysis refers to the data set of the common area of size N=73.

#### 5. Results and Discussion

This study primarily investigated correlations between particulate matter and airborne fungi concentrations, as well as further correlations such as PM<sub>10</sub> versus temperature. To this end, a four-step analysis procedure was applied as follows:

Step 1. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied to the entire set of variables of the common area so as to identify hidden pattern correlations in the data. These were categorized according to the amount of information stored in the data set they represent.

Step 2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients were calculated amongst all the pairs of variables.

Step 3. Linear regression models were developed from all the statistically significant pairs of values.

Step 4. Several multiple linear regression models were further delivered aiming to be used for prediction purposes. According to the findings from PCA, certain variables were excluded from the regression models in each case.

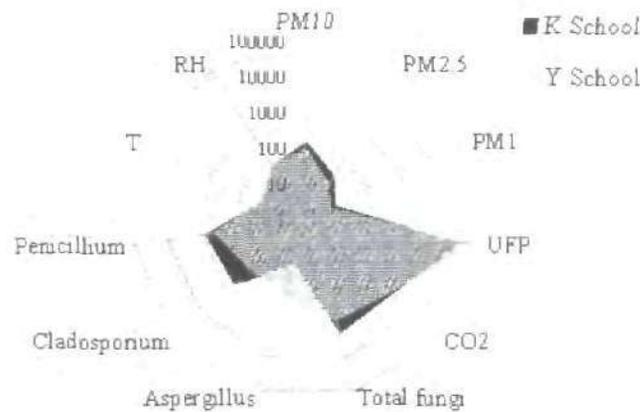


Figure 8. Rose diagram created from the maximum values of each variable in each of the two schools.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the indoor environmental parameters of Schools K, Y and of the common filtered area (denoted by C).

Variables	School	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation
PM <sub>10</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	18.27	188.18	64.53	55.94	32.07
	Y (N=56)	14.92	116.14	38.65	33.74	19.35
	C (N=73)	14.92	116.14	47.83	43.69	20.66
PM <sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	3.16	31.27	10.90	9.76	5.52
	Y (N=56)	3.75	18.05	8.19	7.81	2.78
	C (N=73)	3.16	17.58	8.71	7.99	2.97
PM <sub>1</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	.72	9.01	2.83	2.42	1.58
	Y (N=56)	1.09	6.81	2.94	2.75	1.29
	C (N=73)	0.72	6.81	2.59	2.39	1.08
UFP (pt/cm <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	4188	26518	10853	9774	4895
	Y (N=56)	5789	63093	19333	17530	11392
	C (N=73)	4188	26518	12365	10059	5885
CO <sub>2</sub> (ppm)	K (N=55)	389	1717	666	588	265
	Y (N=56)	480	1377	674	601	187
	C (N=73)	389	1377	613	570	166
Total Fungi (CFU/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	28	2098	191	104	329
	Y (N=56)	28	866	146	123	128
	C (N=73)	28	310	102	80	67
Aspergillus (CFU/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	0	17	3	0	4
	Y (N=56)	0	176	15	6	34
	C (N=73)	0	17	3	0	4
Cladosporium (CFU/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	0	585	43	23	85
	Y (N=56)	0	134	22	17	24
	C (N=73)	0	116	22	17	21
Penicillium (CFU/m <sup>3</sup> )	K (N=55)	0	872	99	40	177
	Y (N=56)	6	476	76	66	75
	C (N=73)	0	227	51	34	45
T (°C)	K (N=55)	15.83	22.19	19.67	20.18	1.51
	Y (N=56)	11.95	23.23	18.84	18.88	2.21
	C (N=73)	14.83	22.19	19.37	19.82	1.8
RH (%)	K (N=55)	47.14	66.90	53.88	53.20	4.67
	Y (N=56)	26.31	75.48	50.87	52.17	12.85
	C (N=73)	26.31	65.14	51.44	52.42	7.53

### 5.1 Principal Component Analysis

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a method of reducing the dimensionality of the dataset while keeping the information and variability of the data. It is a mathematical procedure which transforms a set of possibly related variables into a set on uncorrelated variables. The new variables are called principal components (PCs) and are linear correlations of the initial set of variables. The first PC has the largest possible variability and each next PC has the largest proportion of the variability that has not been explained by the first component (Gaitani et al, 2010; Jolliffe 2002). PCA also gives a

hint concerning the correlations between parameters.

PCA was applied on the eleven parameters of the data set of the common area (N=73). These parameters were PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>1</sub>, UFP, CO<sub>2</sub>, Total Fungi, *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium*, *Aspergillus*, temperature and relative humidity. In order to identify the number of significant PCs, the Varimax Rotation method was applied. Four components which had eigenvalues greater than one were examined (Table 2). The four component solution accumulates 71.848% of the total variance.

Table 2. Rotated component matrix.

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
PM <sub>10</sub>	.162	<b>.755</b>	.169	.138
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	.066	<b>.586</b>	.086	<b>.737</b>
PM <sub>1</sub>	-.041	-.082	.059	<b>.952</b>
UFP	.278	-.104	<b>.848</b>	.100
CO <sub>2</sub>	-.124	.194	<b>.793</b>	.018
Total fungi	<b>.960</b>	.139	.094	-.043
<i>Aspergillus</i>	.098	.493	.202	-.066
<i>Cladosporium</i>	<b>.828</b>	.183	-.183	.000
<i>Penicillium</i>	<b>.876</b>	-.044	.238	.026
T	.025	<b>.808</b>	-.151	-.022
RH	-.041	<b>.506</b>	-.302	.302
Eigenvalue	2.950	2.195	1.595	1.164
% of variance	26.816	19.952	14.500	10.581
Cumulative %	26.816	46.768	61.268	71.848

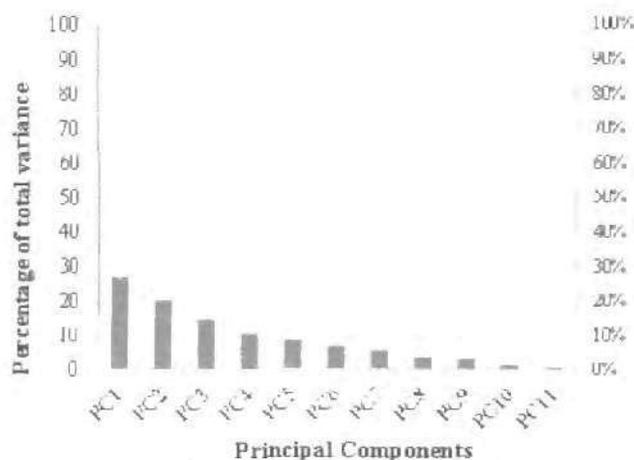


Figure 9. Percentage of the total variance of all the principal components.

The first component accounts for 26.816% of the total variance and presents strong positive contribution from total fungi, *Penicillium* and *Cladosporium*. This component represents the biological agent.

The second component is associated with loadings of coarse particulate matter (PM<sub>10</sub> and

PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and environmental parameters (T and RH) explaining 19.952% of the total variance.

The third component representing 14.5% of the variance is highly correlated with UFP and CO<sub>2</sub>

Finally the fourth component, which explains 10.581% of the variance, is associated with high

Table 3. Correlation matrix of Spearman's rank correlation coefficients between the measured environmental variables (N=73).

Variables	PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	PM <sub>1</sub>	UFP	CO <sub>2</sub>	Total fungi	Aspergillus	Cladosporium	Penicillium	T	RH
PM <sub>10</sub>	1	0.584**	0.012	-0.006	0.157	0.240*	0.301**	0.210	0.120	0.423**	0.354**
PM <sub>2.5</sub>		1	0.636**	0.098	0.199	0.038	0.318**	0.149	-0.008	0.408**	0.434**
PM <sub>1</sub>			1	0.097	0.156	-0.110	0.104	0.047	0.010	-0.047	0.182
UFP				1	0.558**	0.261*	0.068	0.061	0.364**	-0.116	-0.075
CO <sub>2</sub>					1	0.076	-0.038	-0.151	0.190	-0.107	0.085
Total fungi						1	0.194	0.782**	0.832**	0.118	0.086
Aspergillus							1	0.162	0.136	0.309**	0.157
Cladosporium								1	0.547**	0.216	0.015
Penicillium									1	-0.075	0.002
T										1	0.389**
RH											1

\* Correlation is significant at the level 0.05, \*\* Correlation is significant at the level 0.01

loadings of fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>1</sub>). This component represents the agent of fine particulate matter (Table 2).

The percentage of the total variance of all the principal components (11 PCs) created is presented in Figure 9. The curved line corresponds to the cumulative proportion of the total variance when selecting a certain number of components to be kept.

## 5.2 Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficients

Bivariate correlations of pair wise associations between the variables were calculated. In particular, Table 3 presents a correlation matrix of Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. Statistically significant positive correlations at the 0.01 level were found for the following cases:

### 1. PM<sub>10</sub> versus PM<sub>2.5</sub>, *Aspergillus*, temperature and relative humidity.

Statistically significant positive correlations between both PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> with temperature and *Aspergillus*, at the 0.01 level of significance, are consistent with the findings of Adhikari et al, (2006). Additionally, Srimuruganandam and Nagendra (2011) and Raisi et al (2010) found associations between PM<sub>10</sub> with PM<sub>2.5</sub> ( $R_{\text{Pearson}}^2=0.54-0.76$  and  $R^2=0.77$  respectively) similar to results obtained in this work. PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> are also correlated with relative humidity, a fact that confirms the extreme outdoor PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations on the 17<sup>th</sup> and the 31<sup>st</sup> of March in school K of Figure 2 (left) in which rainfall was observed.

### 2. PM<sub>2.5</sub> versus PM<sub>1</sub>, *Aspergillus*, temperature and relative humidity

Deggobi et al (2011) also report significant positive correlation between PM<sub>2.5</sub> and *Aspergillus* ( $R^2=0.186$ ,  $p<0.05$ ). Srimuruganandam and Nagendra (2011) found stronger correlations between PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>1</sub> ( $R_{\text{Pearson}}^2=0.92-0.98$ ).

### 3. UFP versus CO<sub>2</sub> and *Penicillium*

UFP were found to be positively correlated with *Penicillium* at the 0.01 level. According to Hargreaves et al (2003) the similarities between airborne fungi and supermicrometre particles can be attributed to the fact that they are both measured in units of number. Particle concentrations are expressed in units of number per unit volume (pt/cc) and airborne fungi are expressed in number of colony forming units (CFU). UFP also correlated to

CO<sub>2</sub>. This certain relationship was also examined by Weichenthal (2008), however the correlation they found was not significant ( $R^2=0.04$ ).

### 4. Total fungi versus *Cladosporium* and *Penicillium*

### 5. *Aspergillus* versus temperature

Adhikari et al. (2006) and also Hammel et al. (2012) report statistically significant correlations between *Aspergillus* and temperature.

### 6. *Cladosporium* versus *Penicillium*

Correspondingly, according to Table 3 statistically significant positive correlations at the 0.05 level were found for the following cases:

#### 1. PM<sub>10</sub> versus Total fungi.

Contrary to the findings of Lin and Li (2000) in which PM<sub>10</sub> correlated with *Penicillium*, in this case PM<sub>10</sub> significantly correlated with the total airborne fungi at the 0.05 level.

#### 2. UFP versus total fungi

Relative humidity for the period of measurement did not have any linear correlation neither to the total airborne fungi nor the prevalent genera, a fact which is in agreement to the findings of Sousa et al, (2008).

Several of the above mentioned correlations are also confirmed with the findings of PCA.

## 5.3 Linear Regression Models

Linear regression models that were developed from the statistically significant pairs of variables of Table 3 at the 0.01 level of significance are presented in Table 4. Dependent and independent variables,  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  values (of linear regression equation:  $y = \beta x + \alpha$ ),  $r^2$  values,  $r_{\text{adj}}^2$  (adjusted) values and F values of the linear models are shown in Table 4. The  $r^2$  values ranged from 0.044 to 0.748 and p-values were all below 0.05, rejecting the null hypothesis  $H_0$  which supports no actual correlation between the variables.

## 5.4 Multivariate Linear Regression Models

Multivariate linear regression models were further developed to investigate several cases of dependent variables. Backward stepwise multiple regression analysis was used so as to examine the predictive strength of each variable (Table 5).

Table 4. Linear regression models of the statistically significant pairs of measured environmental variables at the 0.01 level of significance (N=73).

Dependent variable	Independent variable	$\beta$	$\alpha$	N	$r^2$	$r_{adj}^2$	F	p
PM <sub>10</sub>	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	4.311	10.30	73	0.385	0.376	44.398	0.000
PM <sub>10</sub>	<i>Aspergillus</i>	1.261	44.62	73	0.057	0.044	4.303	0.042
PM <sub>10</sub>	T	4.783	-44.81	73	0.174	0.162	14.941	0.000
PM <sub>10</sub>	RH	0.668	13.42	73	0.059	0.046	4.488	0.038
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	PM <sub>1</sub>	1.668	4.38	73	0.371	0.362	41.829	0.000
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	<i>Aspergillus</i>	0.190	8.22	73	0.062	0.049	4.725	0.033
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	T	0.694	-4.74	73	0.177	0.165	15.245	0.000
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	RH	0.143	1.33	73	0.132	0.120	10.798	0.002
UFP	CO <sub>2</sub>	16.748	2095.89	73	0.225	0.214	20.612	0.000
UFP	<i>Penicillium</i>	50.917	9761.54	73	0.151	0.139	12.647	0.001
Total Fungi	<i>Cladosporium</i>	2.371	50.57	73	0.581	0.575	98.467	0.000
Total Fungi	<i>Penicillium</i>	1.289	35.89	73	0.751	0.748	214.545	0.000
<i>Aspergillus</i>	T	0.560	-8.29	73	0.066	0.053	5.041	0.028
<i>Cladosporium</i>	<i>Penicillium</i>	0.240	9.33	73	0.252	0.242	23.967	0.000

Table 5. Stepwise multivariate linear regression models of several combinations of the measured environmental variables.

Multivariate regression models	N	$r^2$	$r_{adj}^2$	F	p
1. UFP = 22840.979 + 360.269 × PM <sub>2.5</sub> + 16.584 × CO <sub>2</sub> - 821.626 × T - 217.655 × RH + 25.644 × Total fungi + 282.739 × <i>Aspergillus</i>	73	0.476	0.429	10.009	0.000
2. PM <sub>10</sub> = -51.87 + 4.895 × T + 0.095 × <i>Penicillium</i>	73	0.216	0.194	9.669	0.000
3. PM <sub>2.5</sub> = -10.516 + 0.00012 × UFP + 0.592 × T + 0.121 × RH	73	0.289	0.259	9.37	0.000
4. Total fungi = 57.9 + 0.868 × PM <sub>10</sub> + 0.004 × UFP	73	0.181	0.146	5.089	0.003
5. <i>Aspergillus</i> = -11.784 + 0.00016 × UFP + 0.639 × T	73	0.121	0.095	4.8	0.011

According to the findings of PCA certain independent variables were excluded from certain models which were straightforwardly related to the dependent variable (see Table 2). For instance, PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>1</sub> were excluded from the 2<sup>nd</sup> model in which PM<sub>10</sub> was the dependent variable, and *Penicillium*, *Cladosporium* and *Aspergillus* were excluded from the 4<sup>th</sup> model that had the total airborne fungi as dependent variable (Table 5). The

presence of these variables would account for most of the variance in the model, restricting by far the variability of the other parameters.

The p-values of every model were found to be less than 0.05, indicating that the variation of the models is not due to chance, and the models are useful. The  $r^2$  values ranged between 0.121 and 0.476 (Table 5). Temperature was present in most of the linear

regression models. A rather moderate correlation stands for the prediction of UFP concentrations given  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $CO_2$ , temperature, relative humidity, total airborne fungi and *Aspergillus*. It is anticipated that this model can be used in the future for prediction purposes (Table 5, model 1).

## 6. Conclusions

The findings from an experimental campaign conducted in two schools in Athens measuring air pollutants were evaluated in this paper. The indoor concentrations of PM and airborne fungi were in many cases similar to the corresponding outdoor values indicating that, in the absence of major indoor sources, the indoor concentrations are greatly affected by the outdoor concentrations. However, in certain cases the indoor concentrations outreached the outdoor ones, possibly due to inadequate levels of ventilation and to overcrowded classrooms. The overall concentration range of the pollutants indicates a rather good indoor air quality with the exception of overload in certain sites. Increased levels of UFP may be linked to vehicle emissions from adjoining streets.

In order to analyse these findings, the total measured environmental parameters were presented in a rose diagram where the common area of the data represented approximately 66% of the total measurements. Statistical analyses were performed on the filtered from extremes common area of data. PCA was conducted in order to cluster variables of common characteristics. It was found that almost 72% of the total variance was explained by four principal components. Findings of PCA were further used for the removal of certain parameters from certain multivariate regression models. Spearman's rank correlation coefficients were also calculated for all pairs of the measured data. Significant positive correlations were found between  $PM_{10}$  and total fungi as well as  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  with *Aspergillus*. UFP positively correlated to total fungi and *Penicillium*. From the statistically significant bivariate correlations, linear regression models were created where p-values for all relationships were below 0.05. Multivariate regression models with different cases of dependent variables were also developed using stepwise regression analysis. Weak correlations do exist between particulate matter and airborne fungi concentrations. Moderate correlation stands for the prediction of UFP given  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $CO_2$ , meteorological parameters and airborne fungi. It is anticipated that these multivariate regression models

can be used in the future for prediction purposes. Further measurements are necessary as well as further evaluation of the developed models, in order to improve the understanding of the environmental health risks.

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