

On-road traffic emissions of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and their oxy- and nitro- derivative compounds measured in road tunnel environments

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4	ON-ROAD TRAFFIC EMISSIONS OF POLYCYCLIC
5	AROMATIC HYDROCARBONS AND THEIR OXY-
6	AND NITRO- DERIVATIVE COMPOUNDS
7	MEASURED IN ROAD TUNNEL ENVIRONMENTS
8 9	
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25 HIGHLIGHTS

- Polycyclic aromatic compounds including PAH, oxy- and nitro-derivatives
- Includes several compounds not previously measured in road tunnels
- Measured in road tunnels and urban background
- Large decline in PAH, but not nitro-PAH since 1992-96
- 30 1-Nitropyrene promising specific marker of diesel exhaust

32 ABSTRACT

Vehicular emissions are a key source of polycyclic aromatic compounds (PACs), including 33 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and their oxygenated (OPAH) and nitrated (NPAH) 34 derivatives, in the urban environment. Road tunnels are a useful environment for the 35 characterisation of on-road vehicular emissions, providing a realistic traffic fleet and a lack of direct 36 sunlight, chemical reactivity and non-traffic sources. In the present investigation the concentrations 37 of selected PAHs, OPAHs and NPAHs have been measured in the Parc des Princes Tunnel in Paris 38 (PdPT, France), and at the Queensway Road Tunnel and urban background site in Birmingham 39 (QT, U.K). A higher proportion of semi-volatile (3-4 ring) PAH, OPAH and NPAH compounds are 40 associated with the particulate phase compared with samples from the ambient environment. A 41 large (~85%) decline in total PAH concentrations is observed between 1992 and 2012 42 measurements in OT. This is attributed primarily to the introduction of catalytic converters in the 43 U.K as well as increasingly stringent EU vehicle emissions legislation. In contrast, NPAH 44 concentrations measured in 2012 are similar to those measured in 1996. This observation, in 45 addition to an increased proportion of (Phe + Flt + Pyr) in the observed PAH burden in the tunnel, 46 is attributed to the increased number of diesel passenger vehicles in the U.K during this period. 47 Except for OPAHs, comparable PAH and NPAH concentrations are observed in both investigated 48 tunnels (OT and PdP). Significant differences are shown for specific substances between PAC 49 chemical profiles in relation with the national traffic fleet differences (33% diesel passenger cars in 50 U.K. vs 69 % in France and up to 80% taking into account all vehicle categories). The dominating 51 and sole contribution of 1-Nitropyrene observed in the PdPT NPAH profile strengthens the 52 promising use of this compound as a diesel exhaust marker for PM source apportionment studies. 53 54

Capsule Abstract: Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and their oxy- and nitro-derivatives have
been determined in a road tunnels and an external background site to elucidate sources and temporal
trends.

58 Keywords: Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; Nitro-PAH; Oxy-PAH; Vehicular emissions, Diesel
59 exhaust.

60

61 1. INTRODUCTION

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are a class of atmospheric pollutant, identified as being carcinogenic in humans (IARC, 2010). Exposure to PAHs is associated with excess risk of lung cancer (WHO, 2000) as well as other adverse health effects including bronchitis, asthma, heart disease and reproductive toxicity (Choi et al., 2010). PAHs therefore contribute to poor ambient air quality, particularly in urban areas and require careful monitoring and investigation to understand their concentrations, behaviour and fate in the environment.

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The PAH congener benzo[a]pyrene (BaP) is widely used as a marker for PAHs in the atmosphere as BaP constitutes a substantial proportion of the total carcinogenic potential of the total PAH burden (Delgado-Saborit et al., 2011). The European Directive 2004/107/EC sets a target value of 1 ng m⁻³ in the PM₁₀ fraction for the annual mean concentration of BaP. In the United Kingdom (U.K.), an air quality standard of a 0.25 ng m⁻³ annual average is included in the National Air Quality Strategy.

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The World Health Organisation (WHO) has recommended guidelines for concentrations of BaP producing excess lifetime cancer risks of 1/10 000, 1/100 000 and 1/1 000 000 of 1.2, 0.12 and 0.012 ng m^{-3} , respectively (WHO, 2000). It is estimated that 20% of the population of the EU is exposed to BaP levels higher than the EU target of 1 ng m⁻³ and 88% is exposed to levels higher than the reference level of 0.12 ng m⁻³ (EEA, 2015).

80

PAHs are typically generated as by-products from the incomplete combustion and pyrolysis of
fossil fuels and wood as well as the release of petroleum products. PAHs can therefore originate
from domestic, industrial, transport and accidental combustion sources as well as natural processes
(Ravindra et al., 2008; Jang et al., 2013; Alam et al., 2015). Anthropogenic sources are expected to

dominate the PAH burden in the ambient air over the naturally occuring component (Wild and
Jones, 1995). PAHs are chemically reactive with atmospheric lifetimes of hours to days (Keyte et
al., 2013). Consequently, urban PAH concentrations are primarily influenced by local and regional
emissions and processes.

89

A range of compounds receiving increasing interest are PAH derivative compounds such as
oxygenated (OPAH) and nitrated (NPAH) polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. NPAH and OPAH are
also shown to exert cytotoxicity, immunotoxicity and carcinogenicity (IARC, 2012, 2013; Durant et
al., 1996; WHO, 2000), and are a particular concern due to their direct acting mutagenicity (Bolton
et al., 2000; Fiedler and Mücke, 1991).

95

OPAHs and NPAHs result from primary emission from combustion processes (Gullet et al., 2003;
Shen et al., 2012b, c; Sidhu et al., 2005; Simoneit et al., 2007; Fine et al., 2002; Fitzpatrick et al.,
2007; IARC, 2012, 2013; Cho et al., 2004; Jakober et al., 2007; Tang et al., 2002; WHO, 2000)
although compared with primary PAHs, relatively few data are available. A comprehensive
overview of currently available data on primary combustion sources of individual OPAH and
NPAH compounds was recently provided by Keyte et al. (2013).

102

In addition to direct combustion sources, OPAHs and NPAHs also result from gas-phase and
heterogeneous reactions of primary PAH with atmospheric oxidants (e.g. OH, NO₃,N₂O₅ and O₃)
(Keyte et al., 2013 ; Atkinson and Arey, 1994; 2007). It has been shown that this atmospheric
processing of PAH can be an important secondary source of NPAH and OPAH congeners that
contributes significantly to their observed atmospheric concentrations (Albinet et al., 2007, 2008a;
Ringuet et al., 2012a; Reisen and Arey, 2005; Eiguren-Fernandez et al., 2008; Arey et al., 1990;
Atkinson and Arey, 2007).

111	Numerous studies have suggested PAHs can contribute significantly to the observed carcinogenicity
112	and/or mutagenicy of ambient air (Albinet et al., 2008a; Bethel et al., 2001; Durant et al., 1998;
113	Gupta et al., 1996; Hannigan et al., 1998; Pedersen et al., 2004; 2005; Tuominen et al., 1988;
114	Umbuzeiro et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011 ; Bonfanti et al., 1996; Harrison et al., 2004).
115	
115	However, it has been indicated in some studies that semi-polar fractions of atmospheric PM extracts
117	(likely to contain OPAH and NPAH compounds) can display higher direct acting mutagenicity than
118	non-polar extracts (likely to contain PAH compounds) (Jariyasopit et al., 2014a,b; Lewtas et al.,
119	1990; Nishioka et al., 1985; Pedersen et al., 2004; Umbuzeiro et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011).
120	These studies therefore suggest that NPAH and OPAH may pose more toxic hazard in the urban
121	environment than PAH.
122 123	Road traffic is considered a key primary source of PAHs, OPAHs, NPAHs in urban areas (Fraser et
124	al., 1998; Jakober et al., 2007; Lim et al., 1999; Oda et al., 1998; Rogge et al., 1993a; Staehelin et
125	al., 1998; Zhu et al., 2003). For example, it has been estimated that motor vehicle emissions account
126	for between 46 and 90% of total PAHs in ambient PM in urban areas (Nikolaou et al., 1984; Jang et
127	al., 2013).
128 129	There is therefore a need accurately to assess the relative and overall contribution of road traffic
130	makes to the concentrations of different PAHs, OPAHs and NPAHs in the ambient urban
131	atmosphere in relation to other primary combustion sources (e.g. industrial emissions and domestic
132	burning), secondary sources (e.g. reactive input and volatilisation from surfaces) as well as other
133	influencing factors such as reactive or photolytic loss processes.
10.6	
134 135	However, accurately measuring on-road vehicular emissions is complicated by the mixture of
136	engine and fuel types and emission control technologies present. Furthermore, experimental studies

in a laboratory will only yield data on specific vehicles, engine characteristics and/or fuel

138 formulations (e.g. Zielinska et al., 2004a,b).

139

140	Sampling in road tunnels is expected to provide a more realistic traffic profile than using
141	dynamometer tests (Oda et al., 2001; Wingfors et al., 2001). Road tunnels provide the advantage of
142	a realistic distribution of on-road vehicles ; relatively low rates of dispersion and chemical reactivity
143	; and a lack of inputs from other primary sources. Additionally, repeated monitoring in a tunnel
144	environment can assess historic changes in PAH emission profiles in response to changes in fuel
145	usage or emission control measures (Ravindra et al., 2008).

146

Relatively few studies have characterised the on-road emission profile of PAHs, NPAHs and 147 OPAHs in tunnel environments (Wingfors et al., 2001; Dimashki et al., 2000; Smith and Harrison, 148 1996; Ho et al., 2009; Fraser et al., 1998). Furthermore, many previous on-road emission studies 149 have sampled only the particle-phase component (Chen et al., 2013; Eiguren-Fernandez and 150 Miguel, 2012; Marr et al., 1999; Miguel et al., 1998; Phuleria et al., 2006) and a large number of 151 152 studies report results in terms of PAH emission factors i.e. mass emitted per unit volume/weight of fuel consumed (Marr et al., 1999; Miguel et al., 1998) or unit distance of vehicle travel (Fraser et 153 al., 1998; Kam et al., 2012; Staehelin et al., 1998). 154

155

In the present investigation, the total (gas + particle phase) concentrations of selected PAHs, OPAHs and NPAHs were measured in a road tunnel environment in central Birmingham, U.K and simultaneously at an urban background site in southwest Birmingham. Comparative measurements (only particle phase) were performed in a tunnel of the Paris ring road (France). The specific aims were to i) obtain realistic 'traffic signatures' for these compounds; ii) compare investigated tunnel concentrations and chemical profiles in relation to the national vehicle fleet compositions; iii) compare these tunnel concentrations with those observed in the ambient urban environment ; and

iv) assess the temporal trend of these compounds in the tunnel and relate this to observed changes intraffic characteristics during this period.

165

166 167 **2. EXPERIMENTAL**

168 2.1 Study Location

Sampling was conducted inside the Queensway Road Tunnel (QT) in Birmingham, U.K. in 169 September 2012 and inside the Parc des Princes Tunnel (PdPT) of the Paris ring road, France in 170 June 2013. The sampling locations are shown in Figures S1 and S2 of the Supplementary 171 Information (SI). The main differences between both sampling locations lie in the traffic fleet 172 composition. In UK, gasoline vehicles are dominant and diesel powered passenger cars accounted 173 for about 32% of total cars in 2012 (DfT, 2014) (Figure S3). In France among the 38 million 174 vehicles, 68.6% were diesel in 2013. Taking into account all vehicle categories including heavy 175 trucks, this proportion was about 80% for diesel (CCFA, 2014). 176

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The QT in Birmingham passes under the city centre, providing a main through route for a dual carriageway, which constitutes part of a major highway through the city. The tunnel is approximately 544 m long with natural ventilation, with the north- and south-bound traffic separated by a concrete dividing wall. The speed limit in the tunnel is 30 mph.

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Concurrent air sampling was conducted at a background site at Elms Road Observatory Site (EROS) on the University of Birmingham campus, approximately 3 km south of the city centre. These samples provide an 'ambient background' concentration to be subtracted from the tunnel concentrations to calculate a 'traffic' concentration. During the sampling campaign the average temperature was about 11.5±2.2 °C. A description and details of the background site have been discussed previously by Harrad et al. (2003) and Alam et al. (2015).

189

The PdPT is part of the Paris ring road which constitutes the major road around the French capital.
The tunnel passes under the Parc des Princes football stadium and is 580 m long with forced
ventilation. Is about 5 m high and 52 m wide divided into two carriageways separated by a wall,
comprising the internal (clockwise direction) and external ring roads (anticlockwise direction).
Tunnel speed limit in 2013 was 80 km h⁻¹.

195

Daily traffic flow data are not available for the QT itself and traffic counts were not performed during sampling. Traffic counts, supplied by the Department of Transport are available for sites on the same road at a distance of approximately 200m from either end of the tunnel. Daily traffic counts in 2012 at these sites were estimated at ~75 000 and ~25 000 vehicles per day for roads to the south and north east of the tunnel respectively. It is assumed, based on the number of potential traffic routes/origins available, that the latter of these traffic counts will be a better approximation of tunnel traffic flow for the sampling days conducted.

203

For PdPT, traffic data including vehicle counts, average speed and tunnel fill rate, were recorded during the sampling campaign and provided by the Paris city council (Marie de Paris). Total average daily traffic was about 210 000 vehicles per day with an equal distribution for the internal and external ring roads (Figure S5). Mean vehicle speed was slightly higher for the external ring road than for the internal one (69 and 57 km h⁻¹, respectively) and inversely for tunnel fill rate (12 and 18%, respectively). The latter is a measure of congestion and indicates freely flowing traffic.

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- 211 212

2.2 Sampling Procedures

Air samples were collected in QT, following a procedure utilised previously in air monitoring
studies in Birmingham by members of this research group (Smith and Harrison, 1996; Lim et al.,
1999; Dimashki et al., 2000; 2001; Harrad et al., 2003; Harrad and Laurie, 2005). A high volume air
sampler (PM₁₀, Tisch Environmental Inc., Cleves, Ohio, USA), adapted to sample both particle-

217	phase and gas-phase pollutants was deployed in an emergency breakdown lay-by in the southbound
218	section of the tunnel. 24 hour air samples were taken on four separate weekdays, in order to include
219	both morning and evening rush hour periods. Total air volume sampled during ~24 hour sampling
220	periods during this study varied from $\sim 800-1200 \text{ m}^3$.
221 222	In PdPT, PM_{10} particulate samples were collected on 9 consecutive days using a high volume
223	sampler DA-80 (with cooled sample storage, $\approx 10^{\circ}$ C) (Digitel, Hegnau, Switzerland) (sampling
224	duration 24 hours, started at midnight, 30 m ³ .h ⁻¹). The sampler was located in the middle of the
225	tunnel on an emergency exit of the internal ring road.
226	
227	Total particulate matter was collected on quartz fibre filters (for QT: Whatman, obtained from
228	VWR International, Lutterworth, Leicestershire, UK; dimensions, 8" x 10"; retention efficiency
229	>99%; for the PdPT: Tissu quartz Pallflex, $\emptyset = 150$ mm). For QT, Gas-phase sample was collected
230	using cylindrical polyurethane foam (PUF) plugs (dimensions 3" x 3 3/8", flame retardant-free,
231	Tisch Environmental Inc., Cleves, Ohio, USA). Two PUF plugs were loaded in series inside a
232	cylindrical metal tube (PUF holder) fitted downstream of the filter holder.
233 234	Prior to sampling, filters were heated at 450°C for 24 hours to reduce organic impurities. PUFs were
235	pre-cleaned by ultrasonication twice in a solvent mixture of DCM, hexane and methanol (1:1:1 by
236	volume) followed by ultrasonication in hexane only. After collection, samples were wrapped in
237	aluminium foils, sealed in polyethylene bags and stored at $< -10^{\circ}$ C prior to extraction and analysis.
238 239 240	2.3 Sample Extraction and Clean-Un
240	OT and EROS samples were analysed for 18 PAHs 4 OPAHs and 12 NPAHs (Table S1) using
241 212	similar methodologies to those described previously (Dalgado Saborit et al. 2012). DdD samples
242	similar incurodologies to those described previously (Dergado-Saborit et al., 2015). PdP samples
243	were analysed for 21 PAHs, 30 OPAHs and 32 NPAHs (Tables S2, S3, S4 and S5) using similar

procedures described in previous works (Albinet et al., 2006, 2007, 2008a, b, 2013, 2014; Ringuet
et al., 2012 a, b) and standard methods EN 15549 and TS 16645 for PAHs. All solvents
(dichloromethane, hexane, pentane, methanol) used in sample extraction and cleanup were HPLC
grade (purity >98%), obtained from Fisher Scientific or Aldrich. Filter and PUF samples were
extracted separately in order to determine particulate and gas phase analyte concentrations
independently.

250

Briefly, QT and EROS filters and PUFs were spiked with 1000 pg μ L⁻¹ deuterated internal 251 standards for quantification. Samples were placed in a glass flask, immersed in DCM and 252 253 ultrasonicated at room temperature (25°C) for 20 min. Sample extracts were then reduced under a gentle stream of nitrogen to a volume of 1 mL prior to sample clean-up. Due to the large volume of 254 solvent required for PUF extractions, these sample extracts were initially transferred to Turboyap 255 apparatus (Biotage Ltd, Uppsala, Sweden) and blown down under a gentle stream of nitrogen 256 (20°C) to 5 mL. Sample extracts were initially cleaned by filtration using a clean glass Pasteur 257 pipette chromatography column filled with a small amount of glass wool and 0.5 g of fine 258 anhydrous sodium sulphate (puriss grade for HPLC, Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., Gillingham, 259 U.K.). Sample extracts then underwent further concentration to almost dryness under a gentle 260 nitrogen flow and were made up to a volume of 1mL with hexane. Sample extracts were then 261 subject to a solid phase extraction step, based on the methodology described by Albinet et al. (2006) 262 and Cochran et al., (2012). An aminopropyl solid phase extraction tube (Sigma-Aldrich Company 263 Ltd., Gillingham, UK.) was pre-eluted with 3x 1mL aliquots of DCM followed by the same 264 measure of hexane. The sample was then passed through the column and target compounds were 265 eluted by the sequential DCM/hexane solvent gradient (3 x 1mL) of 20/80%, 35/65%, 50/50%. This 266 resulted in optimum recovery of PAH, NPAH and OPAH compounds in one sample extract for 267 analysis. 268

269

PdPT filters were cut into punches of 47 mm diameter. A punch was used for PAH analysis and 270 extracted using ASE 200, Dionex (3 DCM cycles: 120 °C, 140 bars, 6 min heat time, 6 min static 271 time). Extracts were then blow down under a gentle stream of nitrogen (Zymark, Turbovap II) and 272 273 redissolved in acetonitrile for UPLC/Fluorescence analysis. The second punch filter was used for NPAH and OPAH analysis. Filters were extracted using QuEChERS-like procedure developed 274 previously for particulate-bound PAH and PAH derivatives analysis (Albinet et al., 2013: 2014). 275 276 Briefly, punches were placed in centrifuge glass tubes and 7 ml of acetonitrile were added to 277 perform the extraction using a Multi-tube Vortexer (DVX-2500 Multi Tube Vortexer, VWR) during 1.5 min. After extraction, samples were centrifuged for 5 min at 4500 rpm (Sigma 3-16 PK 278 279 centrifuge). The supernatant extract was collected and reduced near to dryness under a gentle nitrogen stream. Reduced extracts were then dissolved in dichloromethane (100-200 µl). A clean up 280 step was applied for extracts dedicated to GC/NICI-MS analysis of NPAHs and OPAHs. The clean-281 up was performed on silica SPE cartridge (SiOH chromabond, Macherey Nagel, 3 ml, 500 mg) with 282 a first elution of pentane (1 ml discarded) and then the collection of eluted extract with 9 ml of 283 65:35 (v/v/) pentane-DCM. Purified extracts were then reduced near to dryness under a gentle 284 stream of nitrogen and then reconstituted in about 100 µL of acetonitrile. 285

286

287 2.3 Sample Analysis

QT and EROS samples were analysed for PAH compounds using Gas Chromatography (GC -288 6890N Agilent Technologies) fitted with a non-polar capillary column (Agilent HP-5MS, 30 m, 289 0.25 mm ID, $0.25 \mu \text{m}$ film thickness – 5% phenylpolysiloxane) in tandem with a Mass 290 291 Spectrometer (5973 N, Agilent Technologies) operated in electronic ionisation (EI) and selective ion monitoring (SIM) mode. For OPAH and NPAH analysis an Agilent Technologies GC-MS (GC 292 293 6890W and 5973 MSD) equipped with a Restek Rxi-PAH column (60 m, 0.25 mm ID, 0.1 µm film thickness) was operated in negative ion chemical ionisation (NICI) and SIM mode. Methane (99.9% 294 purity; Argo International Ltd, UK.) was used as the reagent gas for the NICI analysis. 295

Quantification of all target compounds was based upon the ratios of analyte response peak area to 296 that of an appropriate deuterated internal standard. Standards of perdeuterated and native PAH (all 297 compounds) and NPAH compounds (>98% purity in toluene or isooctane) (1-nitronaphthalene-d7; 298 3-nitrofluoranthene-d9; 1-nitropyrene-d9 and 6-nitrochrysene-d11) and p-terphenyl-d14 recovery 299 standard (>99% purity, in toluene) were obtained from Greyhound Chromatography, Merseyside, 300 UK, as pre-prepared solutions by Chiron AS, Trondheim, Norway. Perdeuterated (9-fluorenone-d8 301 and anthraquinone-d8) and native OPAH internal standards and 1-fluoro-7-nitrofluorene recovery 302 303 standard (purity >98%) were obtained initially as solids from Sigma-Aldrich Company Ltd., Gillingham, UK and solutions prepared by dilution with hexane. 304

305

PAHs of the PdPT samples were analyzed by UPLC/UV-Fluorescence (Thermo Scientific, Dionex 306 Ultimate 3000) using a C18 UPLC column (Zorbax Eclipse PAH, 2.1 mm x 150 mm x 1.8 um, 23 307 PAHs were quantified using external standard solution calibration. recovery control. Before 308 extraction a known amount of 6-methylchrysene was added to the samples and used as standard 309 extraction recovery control (Table S2). NPAHs and OPAHs were analyzed by GC/NICI-MS 310 (Agilent 7890A GC coupled to 5975C MS, methane as reagent gas) (Albinet et al., 2006, 2014) 311 using an Optima-5MS Accent column (30 m x 250 µm x 0.25 µm) and operated in SIM mode. 312 Quantification of OPAHs and NPAHs was performed by internal standard calibration using native 313 standards and deuterated surrogate compounds added before extraction (Table S3 and S4). 9-314 Fluorenone-d9 and 1-nitropyrene-d9 were used as surrogate standards. 315

316

Quality assurance experiments were performed to assess the accuracy, precision and reproducibility of the extraction, clean-up and analysis methods. Replicate analysis of Standard Reference Material 1649b (urban dust), provided by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), was conducted using the procedures outlined above. The mean concentrations of 6 (INERIS, PdPT) and 10 (University of Birmingham, QT and EROS) SRM samples were in good agreement with

reference concentrations provided by NIST for PAHs and those reported in the literature for NPAHs and OPAHs (Albinet et al., 2014 and references therein). Field blank filters and PUFs (n=1 for each phase, at each site) were collected in order to evaluate any contamination during the sampling and analytical procedures. Compounds showing field blank sample concentrations higher than 30% of mean tunnel sample concentrations were excluded. All results presented here were corrected for field blank concentration values.

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- 329

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

330 **3.1** Concentrations of PAHs, OPAHs and NPAHs

331 Mean concentrations of the same PAHs, OPAHs and NPAHs measured in the QT and PdPT and the

proportion of each compound present in the particle-phase for QT, are presented in Table 1.

Concentrations of additional NPAHs and OPAHs analysed in PdPT samples are presented in Table
S5. Compounds below quantification limit are not reported in the table.

335

Lower molecular weight (LMW) PAHs (MW<203) comprised ~93% of average total PAH mass

337 (QT, gaseous and particulate phases), consistent with previous measurements in tunnel and roadside

locations (Harrad and Laurie, 2005; Smith and Harrison, 1996; Benner et al., 1989; Ho et al., 2009;

339 Fraser et al., 1998; Khalili et al., 1995), and emission studies of gasoline and diesel vehicles

340 (Schauer et al., 1999; 2002; Zhu et al., 2003; Zielinska et al., 2004a,b). Focusing on compounds

mainly associated with the particulate phase (from BaA to Cor), results obtained for both tunnels

- 342 showed comparable individual PAH concentration levels.
- 343

Previous studies by Alam et al. (2013) and Harrad and Laurie (2005) have reported 'traffic

- 345 increment' concentrations of PAHs in Birmingham. These were derived by subtracting
- 346 concentrations at the Elms Road background site (EROS), from those measured simultaneously at a
- 347 nearby roadside location. The relative concentrations of individual PAHs in the tunnel are similar to
- 348 those of the 'traffic increment' reported in these previous studies.

349 In QT, 9F was the dominant OPAH compound measured. BaAQ was present at very low

350 concentration, indicating a relatively low traffic input of this compound, in agreement with previous

road tunnel measurements (Fraser et al., 1998). 9F was observed predominantly in the gas phase,

352 while AQ, MAQ and BaAQ were present mainly in the particulate phase. Interestingly, OPAH

353 concentration levels observed in the PdPT were significantly lower notably for AQ and MAQ.

354

1 and 2NNap isomers were the most abundant NPAHs compounds measured, predominantly present in the gas-phase (QT). The observed ratio of 1NNap/2NNap was ~1.8. This ratio is slightly higher than previously observed in the same tunnel by Dimashki et al. (2000). 1NPyr and 9NAnt were the dominant particle-phase NPAHs measured in both tunnels. These compounds have been identified as the two principal NPAHs present in diesel emissions (Campbell and Lee, 1984; Paputa-Peck et al., 1983; Ratcliff et al., 2010; Schuetzle et al., 1982; Zhu et al., 2003; Zielinska et al., 2004b).

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2NPyr and 2NFlt are found in relatively low levels in the tunnels. These compounds are generally not observed in vehicular emissions and are the principal products of gas-phase (OH and/or NO₃ initiated) reactions of Pyr and Flth respectively (Atkinson and Arey, 1994). The low concentration of these compounds in the tunnel is in agreement with previous measurements by Dimashki et al. (2000) and is consistent with the absence of direct sunlight and low oxidant concentrations resulting in negligible photochemical reactivity in the tunnels.

369 370

3.2 Comparison with Previous Tunnel Studies

Table 2 provides a comparison between PAH levels observed in the present study (QT) with three
previous road tunnel measurements of total (particulate + gas phase) PAH concentrations.

Considerable differences can be noted between these studies. Pollutant concentrations can be 374 expected to vary considerably in different tunnel environments due to differences in traffic fleet 375 composition (e.g. relative level of gasoline- and diesel-fuelled vehicles), level of traffic congestion, 376 377 fuel formulations, emission control measures (e.g. legislative requirements), tunnel characteristics (e.g. dimensions, level of ventilation) and meteorological conditions (e.g. relative humidity, 378 temperature). For example, the relatively high concentrations of PAHs observed in the Baltimore 379 380 Harbour Tunnel by Benner et al. (1989) compared with other studies may be attributed to the higher proportion of gasoline-fuelled vehicles in this location at this time. 381

382

The concentration of semi-volatile (3-4 ring) PAHs is considerably lower in the present study than 383 reported in previous studies. Semi-volatile PAHs Acy, Ace, Flo, Phe, Ant, Flt and Pyr have been 384 observed in relatively high concentrations in diesel emissions (Ratcliff et al., 2010; Rogge et al., 385 1993a; Schauer et al., 1999; Zhu et al., 2003; Zielinska et al., 2004b). The estimated proportions of 386 diesel heavy duty vehicles (HDVs) in the relevant studies were <3% (present study); 9% (Benner et 387 al., 1989); 8-24% (Wingfors et al., 2001); and 47% (Ho et al., 2009). The low relative contribution 388 of diesel HDVs may therefore be a contributing factor to the reported concentrations of LMW 389 PAHs in these tunnel studies. 390

391

The PAH concentrations measured in the QT were linearly regressed against corresponding road tunnel emission factors derived by Wingfors et al. (2001) and Ho et al. (2009). A very good correlation ($R^2>0.9$) was observed between measured concentrations in this study and the emission factors calculated by Wingfors et al. (2001) for a road tunnel in Gothenberg, Sweden. This can possibly be attributed to similarities in tunnel characteristics, sampling techniques, traffic fleet composition (vehicle types and fuel compositions) and emission controls measures present in the two locations.

399

400	No correlation was found between measured concentrations in the QT and the emission factors
401	derived by Ho et al. (2009) in the Shing Mun Tunnel, Hong Kong. This suggests very different
402	traffic fleet composition, emission control measures and/or fuel formulations exist between the two
403	locations and this causes considerable differences in PAH emission profiles.
404	
405	Measured concentrations of OPAHs and NPAHs in road tunnels are relatively lacking in the
406	literature. Gorse et al. (1983) measured 1NPyr concentrations in the Allegheny Mountain Tunnel in
407	Pennsylvania, USA in 1981. The maximum reported concentration was ~3 times lower than the
408	mean concentrations measured in the present investigation (QT and PdPT). Benner (1988)
409	measured mean concentrations of $\sim 0.3 \text{ ng/m}^3$ for 1NPyr and 9NAnt in the Baltimore Harbour
410	Tunnel in 1985, in good agreement with the levels observed in the present study.
411	
412	2.3 Comparison of abomical profiles of both investigated tuppals
413	5.5 Comparison of chemical profiles of both investigated tunnels
414	Particulate phase PAH, OPAH and NPAH chemical profiles obtained for both tunnels are presented
415	in Figure 1.
416	
117	
417	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of
417	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr
417 418 419	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor)
417 418 419 420	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor) and 9NAnt were lower than in the QT. Differences observed could be explained by the national
417 418 419 420 421	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor) and 9NAnt were lower than in the QT. Differences observed could be explained by the national traffic fleet differences between both tunnels with a significant higher proportion of diesel vehicles.
 417 418 419 420 421 422 	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor) and 9NAnt were lower than in the QT. Differences observed could be explained by the national traffic fleet differences between both tunnels with a significant higher proportion of diesel vehicles in France (PdPT, up to 80%) and, conversely, a larger proportion of gasoline cars in U.K. (QT,
 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor) and 9NAnt were lower than in the QT. Differences observed could be explained by the national traffic fleet differences between both tunnels with a significant higher proportion of diesel vehicles in France (PdPT, up to 80%) and, conversely, a larger proportion of gasoline cars in U.K. (QT, about 66%). Pyr (Ratcliff et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2003) and especially 1NPyr (Paputa-Peck et al.,
 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 424 	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor) and 9NAnt were lower than in the QT. Differences observed could be explained by the national traffic fleet differences between both tunnels with a significant higher proportion of diesel vehicles in France (PdPT, up to 80%) and, conversely, a larger proportion of gasoline cars in U.K. (QT, about 66%). Pyr (Ratcliff et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2003) and especially 1NPyr (Paputa-Peck et al., 1983; Hayakawa et al., 1994; Zielinska et al., 2004a,b; Schulte et al., 2015), are compounds mainly
 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 424 425 	OPAH chemical profiles were similar for both tunnels. Significant differences in the contribution of specific substances were observed for PAHs and NPAHs. For instance, larger contributions of Pyr and 1NPyr were observed for the PdPT while the contributions of heavier PAHs (BPy, IPy, Cor) and 9NAnt were lower than in the QT. Differences observed could be explained by the national traffic fleet differences between both tunnels with a significant higher proportion of diesel vehicles in France (PdPT, up to 80%) and, conversely, a larger proportion of gasoline cars in U.K. (QT, about 66%). Pyr (Ratcliff et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2003) and especially 1NPyr (Paputa-Peck et al., 1983; Hayakawa et al., 1994; Zielinska et al., 2004a,b; Schulte et al., 2015), are compounds mainly associated with diesel emissions while heavier PAHs are described in the literature as compounds

426 mainly emitted by gasoline engines (Li and Kamens, 1993; Miguel et al., 1998; Rogge et al.,
427 1993a).

Complete profiles obtained at PdPT taking into account all the quantified OPAHs or NAPHs are presented on Figures S6 and S7. 1-Naphthaldehyde and benzanthrone were the dominating compounds for OPAHs. Among all the quantified NPAHs, 1NPyr was the dominating and sole contributor to the NPAH chemical profile in such a highly diesel impacted environment. These findings suggest the use of this compound as specific diesel exhaust marker for aerosol source apportionment studies (Schulte et al., 2015).

434 435

436 **3.4** Gas-Particle Phase Partitioning of PAH, OPAH and NPAH

The phase partitioning behaviour of PAH, OPAH and NPAH in QT and ambient measurements aredifferent (Table 1).

439

For most LMW 3-ring compounds and HMW 5+ ring compounds, the proportion of compounds in the particle phase in the QT is similar to that observed at background site EROS. However, semivolatile compounds (e.g. Pyr, Flt, Ret, 9F, AQ, MAQ, 2NFlo) display markedly higher proportions in the particle phase in the tunnel than in the ambient atmosphere. The phase partitioning behaviour of PAH, OPAH and NPAH as a function of compound MW is therefore markedly different for the tunnel and ambient samples (Figure 2) with greater proportions of each compound class present in the particulate phase.

447

Higher particulate phase contributions may reflect the more dominant role of direct emissions from
vehicles in the tunnel, which may be associated to a greater extent with fine particles (Albinet et al.,
2008b). Zielinska et al. (2004a) suggest that Flt and Pyr emissions were predominantly in the gasphase when vehicles were idle or at low engine loads but at higher vehicle load, a much larger
proportion of these compounds were present in the particulate phase, particularly for diesel

vehicles. This could indicate vehicles in the tunnel were operating under relatively higher load, thus
contributing to higher particulate concentrations of these compounds. However, lower daytime
temperatures and higher particulate matter concentrations in the tunnel favour partitioning into the
condensed phase (Yamasaki et al., 1982) and this is a more likely explanation.

457

Retene (Ret) is not commonly associated with road traffic (Wingfors et al., 2001) and is typically a 458 marker for wood combustion (Ramdahl, 1983) and recently described as highly emitted during coal 459 combustion (Shen et al., 2012a). The lower Ret concentrations observed in the QT relative EROS 460 suggest non-traffic sources dominate and transportation of Ret from the ambient atmosphere outside 461 the tunnel may be responsible for observed tunnel concentrations. The higher proportion of Ret in 462 the particulate phase in the tunnel relative to EROS is therefore unlikely to be source-driven. This 463 observation supports the argument that temperature and particle loading are the dominant factors, as 464 suggested above. 465

466

467 **3.5** Comparison of QT and Ambient Concentrations

It is assumed that concentrations of PAHs, OPAHs and NPAHs measured in the tunnel result
entirely from on-road vehicular emissions (including exhaust and non-exhaust emissions).
Comparing levels of compounds measured in the QT with those observed at the background site
EROS (tunnel/ambient ratios) will allow the assessment of other influencing factors (e.g. non-traffic
sources, relative rates of atmospheric loss processes) to their overall and relative concentrations in
the urban atmosphere. The tunnel/ambient ratios measured in the present study are shown in Figure
It can be seen that these ratios vary considerably for different individual compounds.

475 476

477 Mean total PAH concentration was ~4.5 times higher in the tunnel than the mean concentration at 478 EROS. Similarly, Kim et al. (2012) noted that PAH concentrations were ~6 and 10 times higher in 479 the Bukak Tunnel in Seoul, South Korea, than were measured at an ambient roadside location 480 during spring and winter respectively. Wingfors et al. (2001) also noted total PAH concentrations in

the Ludby Tunnel in Gothenburg, Sweden were an order of magnitude higher than those measured in heavily trafficked urban areas. These observations are generally consistent with the lower rate of dispersion and lower chemical reactivity in the tunnel environment compared with the ambient atmosphere.

485

The considerable variability in tunnel/ambient ratios between different PAHs, can be attributed to differences in traffic source contribution at the ambient site, physiochemical properties, and/or relative reactivity rates of individual PAH compounds. The only PAH compound to exhibit a tunnel/ambient ratio of <1 was Ret. This is consistent with this compound resulting primarily from wood or coal combustion used for residential heating in this period rather than road traffic (Shen et al., 2012a; Bari et al., 2010; Fine et al., 2002; McDonald et al., 2000; Ramdahl, 1983).

492

LMW (3-4 ring) compounds Flo, Phe, Ant, Flth, Pyr display relatively low (3 to 4.5) tunnel/ambient ratios. Given that these compounds, are expected to be relatively abundant in traffic emissions this observation is somewhat surprising. For example, Phe, Flt and Pyr are the dominant PAHs in diesel exhaust (Ratcliff et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2003 and PdPT results) and therefore may be expected to display enhanced ratios. This observation suggests non-traffic sources (e.g. domestic wood and coal combustion or revolatilisation of pollutants from road and or soil/vegetation surfaces) may contribute significantly at the ambient site, resulting in relatively low tunnel/ambient ratios.

500

It has been previously been indicated that PAH concentrations measured in the U.K. atmosphere can be influenced by the secondary input due to volatilisation from soil, vegetation and/or road surfaces (Dimashki et al., 2001; Harrad and Laurie, 2005; Lee and Jones, 1999). For example, Lee and Jones (1999) noted a significant positive correlation between the concentration of Phe, Flt and Pyr and temperature in a semi rural site in northern England, indicating the possibility of temperature-driven evaporation from vegetation and/or soils influencing concentrations.

Evidence for secondary surface volatilisation at the Birmingham University site has been discussed by Dimashki et al. (2001) and Lim et al. (1999). It was indicated however, that volatilisation from surfaces was more significant in the city centre than at the University site. However, it is possible that PAH concentrations at the EROS background site are influenced by secondary input from surface volatilisation and that this has influenced the observed tunnel/ambient ratios of LMW PAHs.

513

Interestingly, the tunnel/ambient ratio of Flt is higher than that of Pyr, despite higher OH reactivity noted for Pyr relative to Flt (Atkinson et al., 1990; Brubaker and Hites, 1998). This may suggest Pyr concentrations at EROS may be 'buffered' by volatilisation from soil or vegetation surfaces to a much greater degree than Flt resulting in lower tunnel/ambient ratio.

518

The tunnel/ambient ratio of Acy is considerably higher than those of other PAHs. This is consistent with relatively high gas-phase OH reactivity of this compound (Brubaker and Hites, 1998; Reisen and Arey, 2002). The lack of direct sunlight inside the tunnel is likely to result in minimal reactivity, leading to enhanced ratios. However, while Ant is shown to display similarly fast reactivity towards OH (Brubaker and Hites, 1998), the observed tunnel/ambient ratio is lower than expected. This may suggest the ambient concentration of Ant is substantially influenced by nontraffic sources, either primary or non-combustion related.

526

527 Most HMW PAHs (MW>228) display relatively high tunnel/ambient ratios compared with LMW 528 PAHs. BaA and Chr display particularly high ratios compared with other PAHs, which may reflect 529 a relatively low contribution of non-traffic sources of these compounds at the ambient sites, and/or 530 low atmospheric reactivity.

531

The relative differences in tunnel/ambient ratios between HMW PAHs may arise in part from therelative stability of these compounds towards atmospheric degradation. For example, BaP displays a

relatively high tunnel/ambient ratio compared with other 5 ring PAH compounds. This may be attributed to greater susceptibility of BaP to heterogeneous reactivity in the ambient atmosphere (Jariyasopit et al., 2014a; Ringuet et al., 2012b; Cazaunau et al., 2010; Perraudin et al., 2007).

537

538 DBA displays a relatively low tunnel/ambient ratio. This is consistent with a relatively low input 539 from road traffic, as indicated by Jang et al. (2013) who assessed a 'traffic' profile at London 540 monitoring sites, and may indicate an alternative seasonally-dependent combustion source 541 influencing the ambient sites.

542

The low (<1) ratios observed for BaAQ indicate that this compound is not emitted to a significant degree by road vehicles and is present in higher levels in the ambient atmosphere. This suggests levels of this compound observed at EROS result primarily from a non-traffic combustion source such as natural gas home appliances (Rogge et al., 1993b), wood or coal combustion (Shen et al., 2013) or uncontrolled domestic waste combustion (Sidhu et al., 2005).

548

NPAHs generally display higher tunnel/ambient ratios than unsubstituted PAHs, although there is
wide variability between individual compounds. Relatively high ratios were observed for 1NNap,
2NNap, 2NFlo, 9NAnt, 3NFlt, 1NPyr and 6NChy. These compounds are expected to be
predominantly associated with diesel exhaust emissions (Ball and Young, 1992; Campbell and Lee,
1984; IARC, 2013; Paputa-Peck et al., 1983; Rappaport et al., 1982; Schuetzle et al., 1982;
Schuetzle and Perez, 1983; Zhu et al., 2003; Zielinska et al., 2004a,b with lower input from other
combustion sources (WHO, 2000).

556

The principal atmospheric loss process for NPAHs is expected to be photoreactivity including direct
photolysis (Atkinson et al., 1989; Fan et al., 1995; 1996a,b; Phousongphouang and Arey, 2003;
Ringuet et al., 2012b; Jariyasopit et al., 2014a). For example, Atkinson et al. (1989) noted

atmospheric lifetimes for 1NNap and 2NNap due to photolysis were ~38 and ~28 times shorter
respectively than the corresponding gas-phase reactions with OH.

Photolysis is not expected to occur significantly in the tunnel environment where direct sunlight is absent. It is expected that the principal source of NPAHs in the urban environment is diesel vehicle exhaust with a much lower input from other combustion sources (Ciccioli et al., 1989; WHO, 2000; Keyte et al., 2013). The very high tunnel/ambient ratios for a number of NPAH compounds may therefore reflect more rapid photolytic and/or reactive losses in the ambient atmosphere.

567

568 While Holloway et al. (1987) noted relatively long photolysis half lives for 1NPyr and 3NFlt of 1.2 569 to 6 days and 12.5 to >20 days respectively, other studies suggest this process can be a potentially 570 significant atmospheric sink for particle-bound NPAHs. Fan et al. (1996a) derived half-lives due to 571 photolytic decay for 1NPyr, 2NFlt and 2NPyr on diesel soot and wood smoke in an outdoor 572 chamber of 0.8 to 1.2 hr with faster reaction noted for 1NPyr on wood smoke particles.

573

The results of the present study suggest 1NPyr is degraded more rapidly than other NPAHs. While Fan et al. (1996a) indicated the structure of particle-associated NPAH compounds does not influence the rate of degradation, it has been suggested elsewhere that the isomeric structure of the compound does influence the rate of photolytic decay (Pitts, 1983). For example, Holloway et al. (1987) and Feilberg and Nielsen (2000) have indicated 1NPyr decays up to 10 times more rapidly than other MW 247 NPAHs.

580

581 Dimashki et al. (2000) observed levels of 1NPyr and 9NAnt in the tunnel ~6 and ~2 times higher in 582 the Queensway Road Tunnel than in the ambient urban atmosphere of Birmingham respectively. 583 This previous study was conducted in central Birmingham during winter. The QT/EROS ratio in the 584 present study is shown to be a factor ~10 and ~4.5 higher than the previous study for 1NPyr and 585 9NAnt respectively. This may partly be attributed to higher input of pollutants in the city centre compared to the background EROS site and the fact that sampling in the present study was conducted in the late summer leading to potentially faster rates of photolytic degradation in the ambient atmosphere.

589

The tunnel/ambient ratio of 1NNap is a factor ~ 2.2 higher than that of 2NNap. Experimental studies indicate 1NNap will exhibit a rate of photolysis $\sim 1.3 - 8$ times higher than that of 2NNap (Atkinson et al., 1989; Phousongphouang and Arey, 2003). This would suggest the observed difference in ratios for the two NNap isomers is due to differences in the rates of photolytic degradation and the relatively long exposure time of air samples collected at EROS.

595

The relatively low ratios observed for 7NBaA indicate only a minor contribution from traffic for this compound at the ambient site. 7NBaA has been measured in vehicular emissions (Karavalakis et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2003). However, the previous study in Birmingham did not detect this compound in the QT but did observe measureable levels in the city centre (Dimashki et al., 2000).

600

2NFlt and 2NPyr are expected to result from atmospheric reactions with minor input from road
traffic (Atkinson and Arey, 1994). A tunnel/ambient ratio of <1 was observed for 2NFlt, consistent
with little formation in the tunnel. However, 2NPyr displays a ratio of ~5 which is unexpected.

604

605 **3.6** Temporal Trend in PAH and NPAH in QT Concentrations

Previous measurements of PAH (Smith and Harrison, 1996) and NPAH (Dimashki et al., 2000)
concentrations have been made in the Queensway Road Tunnel. A comparison between the results
of the present study and these previous investigations could therefore provide an assessment of
temporal changes in emission profiles. Some caution is needed in interpreting theses changes as
both sets of data derive from relatively short periods of measurement and hence week-to-week

variability cannot be assessed. Concentrations of OPAHs have not previously been measured in thetunnel.

613

A comparison of total (gas + particle phase) PAH levels measured in the tunnel in 2012 and 1992 is
shown in Table 3. A decline of ~85% for total PAH concentration is noted between 1992 and 2012
measurements. This observation is in agreement with the historical reduction in PAH levels
reported in road tunnel studies in the Unites States (Benner et al., 1989; Eiguren-Fernandez and
Miguel, 2012). The magnitude of concentration reduction varies considerably between individual
compounds. The majority of compounds (Ace, Flo and HMW PAHs) exhibit a decline of >90%
while Phe, Flt and Pyr exhibit a decline of <80%.

621

A number of factors have been shown to be responsible for reduction of PAHs from road vehicles. 622 These include changes to fuel formulations (Westerholm and Egebäck, 1994) e.g. use of biofuels 623 (Ratcliff et al., 2010) or use of additives to enhance the cetane or octane number (Williams et al., 624 1986; Zhu et al., 2003); innovations in engine design e.g. use of three-way catalysts (Rogge et al., 625 1993a; Schauer et al., 2002; Westerholm and Egebäck, 1994; Zielinska et al., 2004b) and 626 improvement in exhaust emission control measures e.g. particulate filters (Hu et al., 2013), with 627 628 their implementation being principally driven by increasingly strict government legislation (Perrone et al., 2014). Other factors e.g. state of vehicle maintenance and ambient conditions (e.g. 629 630 temperature) are also shown to influence PAH emissions from road traffic (Zielinska et al., 2004b).

631

The observed reduction of PAH levels in the QT can be attributed, to a large degree, to the introduction of mandatory catalytic converters to the U.K in 1993. Catalytic converters have been shown to reduce the emissions of PAHs in gasoline-fuelled vehicles by 92-99% (Rogge et al., 1993a; Schauer et al., 2002; Westerholm and Egebäck, 1994; Zielinska et al., 2004b). For example, Benner et al. (1989) measured PAH concentrations in the Baltimore Harbour Tunnel, USA, a factor 5-10 lower than a study conducted 10 years earlier (Fox and Stanley, 1976). This was attributed tothe introduction of catalytic converters which were first used in the USA in 1974.

639

However, progressively stringent legislation pertaining to vehicular emissions of both gasoline and diesel vehicles is also likely to have contributed to PAH emission reductions. It is indicated that different stages of EU legislation on new vehicle emission limits (91/441/EEC) has resulted in progressively reduced PAH emissions since 1993 (Perrone et al., 2014).

644

The relative concentration of individual PAHs has changed significantly over this period. Indeed, the combined contribution of (Phe + Flt + Pyr) to ΣPAH burden has increased from ~44% in 1992 to ~72% in 2012. Gasoline-fuelled vehicles are shown to emit higher levels of HMW compounds e.g. BaP, IPy, BPy, Cor (Marr et al., 1999; Miguel and Pereira, 1989; Miguel et al., 1998) while diesel is generally shown to be a greater source of semi-volatile compounds such as Phe, Flt, and Pyr (Chen et al., 2013; Harrison et al., 1996; Miguel et al., 1998). This observation could therefore suggest a greater contribution of diesel emissions over the previous 20 years in the tunnel.

652

In the period 1994 to 2012, the number of gasoline-fuelled cars in the U.K decreased by \sim 500,000 while the number of diesel-fuelled passenger cars increased by \sim 7.8 million (DfT, 2014). This trend has seen the relative proportion of diesel cars in the U.K traffic fleet increase from \sim 7% in 1994 to \sim 33% in 2012 (see Figure S3).

657

The trend in the number of gasoline and diesel vehicles on the road is reflected in the volume of gasoline and diesel fuel supplied to the U.K market (see Figure S4) and national fuel sales. In the UK, sales of gasoline fuel decreased by ~43% between 1990 and 2011, from 33 billion litres to 19 billion litres. Meanwhile the sales of diesel fuel more than doubled over this period, from ~12 billion litres in 1992 to ~25 billion litres in 2011 (UKPIA, 2012).

A comparison in concentrations of four NPAHs measured in the present study in 2012 and those measured by Dimashki et al. (2000) in 1996 is shown in Table 4. The previous measurements were made on only one sampling day, while the current study is the average of four separate sampling days so comparison of results must be done with caution.

668

663

In contrast to the significant historical decline noted for PAH concentrations, little or no decline in NPAH concentration is noted. The mean levels of NNap isomers measured in the present study fall within the range of concentrations measured in 1996 while the concentrations of 9NAnt and 1NPyr were within 1 standard deviation of the the lower range of concentrations measured in 1996.

673

1NNap, 2NNap, 9NAnt and 1NPyr are all present in diesel exhaust emissions in relatively high
levels (Campbell and Lee, 1984; Draper, 1986; Paputa-Peck et al., 1983; Zhu et al., 2003) and are
present in low/negligible emissions from gasoline vehicles (Zielinska et al., 2004b). The increase in
relative contribution of diesel vehicles in the U.K traffic fleet from 1996 to 2012 may therefore
have a stronger influence on changes in observed NPAH concentrations relative to PAHs.

679

Evidence for the increased importance of NPAH in urban air over time has been indicated
previously. For example, Matsumoto et al. (1998) noted the concentration of BaP declined
significantly in the period 1975 to 1992 in the heavily trafficked region of Sapporo, Japan, while the
mutagenicity of collected particles remained unchanged. The authors suggested this could be
attributed to an increase in diesel traffic and the possible associated increase in NPAH
concentrations.

686

687 The lack of increase in observed NPAH levels in the tunnel over this time may suggest that while 688 the volume of diesel traffic has increased, the emissions of NPAHs from individual diesel vehicles 689 may have declined. Indeed, improved exhaust after-treatment (e.g. use of catalytic devices or

690 particulate traps) and fuel formulation has been shown to reduce NPAH and OPAH emissions

(Fiedler and Mücke, 1991; Marinov et al., 2009; Nielsen et al., 1999; Ratcliff et al., 2010;

692 Westerholm and Egebäck, 1994; Zhu et al., 2003).

693

The results of the present study therefore suggest that the temporal variation in PAH and NPAH concentrations in the QT have been influenced by both an increase in the number of diesel vehicles in the U.K traffic fleet and a net reduction in emissions from individual vehicles in response to changes in fuel formulation and engine/exhaust system design. The results suggest the NPAH/PAH ratio from on-road vehicular emissions in the U.K. has increased substantially in the last 20 years. This demonstrates the need to monitor more carefully the concentrations of NPAHs and their contribution to poor ambient air quality in urban areas.

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1224 TABLE LEGENDS

1225 1226	Table 1.	Mean±standard deviation of PAH, OPAH and NPAH concentrations measured in the Oueensway Road Tunnel (n=4). Parc des Princes Tunnel (n=9) and at EROS (n=4).
1227		
1228 1229	Table 2.	Comparison of total (P+V) PAH concentrations and percentage of concentration in the particulate phase (%P) in different road tunnel measurements.
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1232 1233		Queensway Road Tunnel in 1992 (Smith and Harrison, 1996) and 2012 (present study)
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1234	Tabla 1	Comparison of total (particulate + vancur) NDAU concentrations massured in the
1235	Table 4.	Comparison of total (particulate $+$ vapour) NPAH concentrations measured in the
1236		Queensway Tunnel in 1996 (Dimasnki et al., 2000) and 2012 (present study).
1237		
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1239	FIGURE L	EGENDS
1240		
1241	Figure 1.	Comparison of particulate phase PAH, OPAH and NPAH chemical profiles obtained
1242		for both investigated tunnel environments (Parc des Princes and Queenway road
1243		tunnels; n=9 and 4, respectively).
1244		
1245	Figure 2.	Plots of % of component in the particulate phase vs. molecular weigh for a) PAHs, b)
1246		OPAHs and c) NPAHs, measured in the tunnel (black dots, solid black line) and at
1247		EROS (white dots, dotted line).
1248		
1249	Figure 3.	Mean ratios of concentrations measured in the Queensway Road Tunnel to those
1250	8	measured simultaneously at the Elms Road background $(n=4)$.
1251		
1252		

Table 1. Mean±standard deviation of PAH, OPAH and NPAH concentrations measured in the

1254 Queensway Road Tunnel (n=4), Parc des Princes Tunnel (n=9) and at EROS (n=4).

1255

	Mean QT	% Particle-	Mean PdPT	Mean EROS	% Particle-
PAHs	$(ng m^{-3})^{a}$	phase	$(ng m^{-3})^{b}$	$(ng m^{-3})^{c}$	phase
Acy	10.0 ± 3.7	1	nm	0.2±0.1	2
Ace	3.3±1.6	3	0.1±0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.2$	4
Flo	12.0±13.0	1	0.2±0.0	3.8±1.1	1
Phe	81.1±25.7	5	3.8±0.6	25.8±1.3	4
Ant	8.0±3.4	7	0.6±0.1	2.0±1.0	5
Flt	13.6±2.9	49	6.8±1.0	3.0±1.0	10
Pyr	11.1±3.6	67	7.5±1.0	3.7±0.6	11
Ret	0.8 ± 0.4	67	0.6±0.0	2.0±0.3	18
BaA	1.0±0.1	72	0.7±0.1	0.1 ± 0.0	69
Chr	1.6±0.6	70	1.2±0.4	0.1 ± 0.0	75
BbF	0.8±0.2	88	0.8±0.2	0.4±0.2	71
BkF	1.2±0.2	79	1.0±0.3	$0.2{\pm}0.0$	72
BeP	0.8±0.1	90	0.8±0.2	$0.1{\pm}0.0$	77
BaP	0.9±0.3	91	0.8±0.3	$0.1{\pm}0.0$	80
IPy	0.8 ± 0.4	95	0.9±0.4	0.2±0.1	78
DBA	0.2±0.1	65	0.2±0.1	0.1±0.1	91
Вру	1.7±0.5	95	1.7±0.6	0.3±0.1	81
Cor	0.8±0.2	99	0.8±0.2	0.1±0.0	91
	Mean QT	% Particle-	Mean PdPT	Mean EROS	% Particle-
UI AIIS	$(n\sigma m^{-3})^{a}$	nhase	$(ng m^{-3})^{b}$	$(ng m^{-3})^{c}$	phase
	(ng m)	phase			
9F	7.1±1.9	18	0.1±0.0	1.1±0.4	6
9F AQ	7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3	18 94	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2	6 61
9F AQ MAQ	7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5	18 94 100	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1	6 61 78
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ	7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0	18 94 100 100	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0	6 61 78 95
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ	7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT	18 94 100 100 % Particle-	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0 Mean PdPT	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0 Mean EROS	6 61 78 95 % Particle-
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs	$(10 \text{ g m}^{-3})^{-1}$ 7.1 ± 1.9 3.7 ± 1.3 1.7 ± 0.5 0.0 ± 0.0 Mean QT $(10 \text{ g m}^{-3})^{-3}$	18 94 100 100 % Particle- phase	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0 Mean PdPT (ng m ⁻³) ^b	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0 Mean EROS (ng m ⁻³) ^c	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap	(ng m') 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438	18 94 100 100 % Particle- phase 2	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0 Mean PdPT (ng m ⁻³) ^b <ql<sup>d</ql<sup>	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0 Mean EROS (ng m ⁻³) ^c 118±58	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap	$(ng m')$ 7.1 ± 1.9 3.7 ± 1.3 1.7 ± 0.5 0.0 ± 0.0 Mean QT $(ng m^{-3})^{a}$ 1918 ± 438 980 ± 816	18 94 100 100 % Particle-phase 2 3	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0 Mean PdPT (ng m ⁻³) ^b <ql<sup>d <ql< td=""><td>1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0 Mean EROS (ng m⁻³) c 118±58 135±103</td><td>6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2</td></ql<></ql<sup>	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0 Mean EROS (ng m ⁻³) c 118±58 135±103	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo	(ng m') 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438 980±816 94±87	18 94 100 100 % Particle-phase 2 3 95	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0 Mean PdPT (ng m ⁻³) ^b <ql<sup>d <ql 31±5</ql </ql<sup>	1.1±0.4 0.7±0.2 0.4±0.1 0.1±0.0 Mean EROS (ng m ⁻³) c 118±58 135±103 13±10	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt	(ng m') 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438 980±816 94±87 294±154	18 94 100 100 % Particle-phase 2 3 95 88	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1 \pm 0.0 \\ 0.2 \pm 0.0 \\ 0.1 \pm 0.1 \\ 0.0 \pm 0.0 \\ \hline \textbf{Mean PdPT} \\ (ng m^{-3})^{b} \\ < QL \\ \hline < QL \\ 31 \pm 5 \\ 41 \pm 11 \\ \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \hline Mean EROS\\(ng m^{-3})^{c}\\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ \end{array} $	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50 59
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt	(ng m) 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438 980±816 94±87 294±154 1916	18 18 94 100 100 % Particle- phase 2 3 95 88 75	0.1±0.0 0.2±0.0 0.1±0.1 0.0±0.0 Mean PdPT (ng m ⁻³) ^b <ql<sup>d <ql 31±5 41±11 nm</ql </ql<sup>	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \hline Mean EROS \\ (ng m-3) c \\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ 13\pm15\\ \end{array} $	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50 59 79
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt 2NFlt	(ng m) 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438 980±816 94±87 294±154 1916 9±8	18 18 94 100 % Particle- phase 2 3 95 88 75 100	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1\pm 0.0 \\ 0.2\pm 0.0 \\ 0.1\pm 0.1 \\ 0.0\pm 0.0 \\ \hline \mbox{Mean PdPT} \\ (ng m^{-3})^{b} \\ < QL^{d} \\ < QL^{d} \\ 31\pm 5 \\ 41\pm 11 \\ nm \\ 19\pm 14^{e} \end{array}$	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \end{tabular} $ Mean EROS (ng m ⁻³) c 118\pm58 135\pm103 13\pm10 34\pm16 13\pm15 11\pm4	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50 59 79 83
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt 2NFlt 3NFlt	(ng m) 7.1 ± 1.9 3.7 ± 1.3 1.7 ± 0.5 0.0 ± 0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918\pm 438 980\pm 816 94\pm 87 294\pm 154 1916 9±8 18\pm 15	18 18 94 100 100 % Particle- phase 2 3 95 88 75 100 95	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1\pm 0.0 \\ 0.2\pm 0.0 \\ 0.1\pm 0.1 \\ 0.0\pm 0.0 \\ \hline \textbf{Mean PdPT} \\ (ng m^{-3})^{b} \\ $	$ \begin{array}{r} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \hline Mean EROS \\ (ng m-3)c\\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ 13\pm15\\ 11\pm4\\ 1\pm0\\ \end{array} $	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50 59 79 83 76
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt 2NFlt 3NFlt 4NPyr	(ng m) 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438 980±816 94±87 294±154 1916 9±8 18±15 8±0	18 18 94 100 % Particle- phase 2 3 95 88 75 100 95 88 75 100 95 89	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1 \pm 0.0 \\ 0.2 \pm 0.0 \\ 0.1 \pm 0.1 \\ 0.0 \pm 0.0 \\ \hline \textbf{Mean PdPT} \\ (\textbf{ng m}^{-3})^{\textbf{b}} \\ < QL^{\textbf{d}} \\ < QL^{\textbf{d}} \\ < QL \\ 31 \pm 5 \\ 41 \pm 11 \\ \textbf{nm} \\ 19 \pm 14^{\textbf{c}} \\ \textbf{nm} \\ 3 \pm 4 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \mbox{Mean EROS}\\ (ng m^{-3})^{c}\\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ 13\pm15\\ 11\pm4\\ 1\pm0\\ 2\pm1\\ \end{array}$	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 50 59 79 83 76 80
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt 2NFlt 3NFlt 4NPyr 1NPyr	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{(ng m)} \\ \hline 7.1\pm1.9 \\ \hline 3.7\pm1.3 \\ \hline 1.7\pm0.5 \\ \hline 0.0\pm0.0 \\ \hline \textbf{Mean QT} \\ \hline (ng m^{-3})^{a} \\ \hline 1918\pm438 \\ \hline 980\pm816 \\ \hline 94\pm87 \\ \hline 294\pm154 \\ \hline 1916 \\ \hline 9\pm8 \\ \hline 18\pm15 \\ \hline 8\pm0 \\ \hline 343\pm148 \\ \end{array}$	18 18 94 100 100 % Particle-phase 2 3 95 88 75 100 95 88 75 100 95 89 96	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1\pm 0.0 \\ 0.2\pm 0.0 \\ 0.1\pm 0.1 \\ 0.0\pm 0.0 \\ \hline \mbox{Mean PdPT} \\ (ng m^{-3})^{b} \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \hline \textbf{Mean EROS}\\ (\textbf{ng m}^{-3})^{c}\\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ 13\pm15\\ 11\pm4\\ 1\pm0\\ 2\pm1\\ 5\pm3\\ \end{array}$	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50 59 79 83 76 80 80 86
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt 2NFlt 3NFlt 4NPyr 1NPyr 2NPyr	(ng m) 7.1±1.9 3.7±1.3 1.7±0.5 0.0±0.0 Mean QT (ng m ⁻³) ^a 1918±438 980±816 94±87 294±154 1916 9±8 18±15 8±0 343±148 15±3	18 18 94 100 100 % Particle- phase 2 3 95 88 75 100 95 89 96 86	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1\pm 0.0 \\ 0.2\pm 0.0 \\ 0.1\pm 0.1 \\ 0.0\pm 0.0 \\ \hline \textbf{Mean PdPT} \\ (\textbf{ng m}^{-3})^{\textbf{b}} \\ < QL^{\textbf{d}} \\ < QL^{\textbf{d}} \\ < QL \\ 31\pm 5 \\ 41\pm 11 \\ \textbf{nm} \\ 19\pm 14^{\textbf{c}} \\ \textbf{nm} \\ 3\pm 4 \\ 287\pm 94 \\ < QL \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \hline \textbf{Mean EROS}\\ (ng m^{-3})^{c}\\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ 13\pm15\\ 11\pm4\\ 1\pm0\\ 2\pm1\\ 5\pm3\\ 6\pm3\\ \end{array}$	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 50 59 79 83 76 80 80 86 81
9F AQ MAQ BaAQ NPAHs 1NNap 2NNap 2NFlo 9NAnt 1NFlt 2NFlt 3NFlt 4NPyr 1NPyr 2NPyr 7NBaA	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{(ng m)} \\ \hline 7.1 \pm 1.9 \\ \hline 3.7 \pm 1.3 \\ \hline 1.7 \pm 0.5 \\ \hline 0.0 \pm 0.0 \\ \hline \textbf{Mean QT} \\ \hline (ng m^{-3})^{a} \\ \hline 1918 \pm 438 \\ \hline 980 \pm 816 \\ \hline 94 \pm 87 \\ \hline 294 \pm 154 \\ \hline 1916 \\ \hline 94 \pm 87 \\ \hline 294 \pm 154 \\ \hline 1916 \\ \hline 9\pm 8 \\ \hline 18 \pm 15 \\ \hline 8 \pm 0 \\ \hline 343 \pm 148 \\ \hline 15 \pm 3 \\ \hline 2 \pm 3 \\ \end{array}$	18 18 94 100 100 % Particle- phase 2 3 95 88 75 100 95 89 96 86 94	$\begin{array}{c} 0.1\pm 0.0 \\ 0.2\pm 0.0 \\ 0.1\pm 0.1 \\ 0.0\pm 0.0 \\ \hline \mbox{Mean PdPT} \\ (ng m^{-3})^{b} \\ $	$\begin{array}{c} 1.1\pm0.4\\ 0.7\pm0.2\\ 0.4\pm0.1\\ 0.1\pm0.0\\ \hline \textbf{Mean EROS}\\ (\textbf{ng m}^{-3})^{c}\\ 118\pm58\\ 135\pm103\\ 13\pm10\\ 34\pm16\\ 13\pm15\\ 11\pm4\\ 1\pm0\\ 2\pm1\\ 5\pm3\\ 6\pm3\\ 1\pm1\\ \end{array}$	6 61 78 95 % Particle- phase 2 2 2 50 59 79 83 76 80 80 86 81 96

1256 a - Gaseous + particulate phases, n=4

1257 b – Only particulate phase, n=9

1258 c - Gaseous + particulate phases, n=4

1259 d – below quantification limit

1260 e - 2+3-Nitrofluoranthene concentrations

1261 nm - not measured

	This s	tudy ^a	Ho e (200	<i>t al.</i> 9) ^b	Benner (198	: et al. 9) ^c	Wingfor (200	rs <i>et al</i> . 1) ^d
	ng m ⁻³	%P	ng m ⁻³	%P	ng m ⁻³	%P	ng m ⁻³	%P
Acy	10	1.2	645	0	nm	nm	12	4
Ace	3	3	1748	0	nm	nm	8	15
Flo	12	1.2	209	0.7	nm	nm	46	3
Phe	81	5	205	4	209	12	179	21
Ant	8	7	32	4	38	14	15	51
Flt	14	49	45	46	56	55	73	84
Pyr	11	67	45	59	58	51	87	87
Ret	0.8	67	nm	nm	nm	nm	0.3	100
BaA	1	72	5	99	8	99	3	100
Chr	2	70	8	74	14	85	4	97
BbF	0.8	88	1	100	11	100	1	100
BkF	1	79	0.3	100	11	100	0.1	100
BeP	0.8	90	0	n	5	100	1	100
BaP	0.9	91	1	100	6	100	1	100
IPy	0.8	95	0.2	100	5	100	0.5	100
DBA	0.2	65	0.3	100	nm	nm	0.2	100
BPy	2	95	0	nm	8	100	2	100
Cor	0.8	99	nm	nm	nm	nm	0.5	100

Table 2. Comparison of total (P+V) PAH concentrations and percentage of concentration in the particulate phase (%P) in different road tunnel measurements.

1264

1265 a – Queensway Road Tunnel, Birmingham; Sept 2012; estimated 25 000 vehicles per day

1266 b – Shing Mun Tunnel, Hong Kong; Weekday noon samples; summer 2003; 53 000 vehicles per day

1267 c – Baltimore Habor Tunnel, USA; 1985-86; mechanical ventilation; traffic flow unknown

1268 d – Ludby Road Tunnel in Gothenberg, Sweden; April 2000; 20 000 vehicles per day

1269 nm – not measured

- **Table 3.** Comparison of mean total (particulate + vapour) PAH concentrations measured in theQueensway Road Tunnel in 1992 (Smith and Harrison, 1996) and 2012 (present study).

	Tunnel concen		
	1992 (n=8)	2012 (n=4)	% Decline
Acy	95	10	90
Ace	114	3	97
Flo	167	12	93
Phe	333	81	76
Ant	51	8	84
Flt	48	14	71
Pyr	55	11	80
BaA	14	1	93
Chr	26	2	94
BbF	13	0.8	93
BkF	5	1	88
BaP	13	0.9	93
IPy	22	0.8	96
DBA	4	0.2	95
BPy	35	2	95
Cor	12	1	94
∑PAH	1122	158	86

Table 4. Comparison of total (particulate + vapour) NPAH concentrations measured in theQueensway Road Tunnel in 1996 (Dimashki et al., 2000) and 2012 (present study).

	Tunnel concentration (pg m ⁻³)		
	2012 (This Study)	1996 (Dimashki <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	
1NNap	1918±461	560-2120	
2NNap	980±820	620-1570	
9NAnt	294±165	370-760	
1NPyr	343±157	440-690	



Figure 1. Comparison of particulate phase PAH, OPAH and NPAH chemical profiles obtained for
both investigated tunnel environments (Parc des Princes and Queenway road tunnels; n=9 and 4,
respectively).



Figure 2. Plots of % of component in the particulate phase vs. molecular weigh for a) PAHs, b)
OPAHs and c) NPAHs, measured in the tunnel (black dots, solid black line) and at EROS (white
dots, dotted line).



Figure 3. Mean ratios of concentrations measured in the Queensway Road Tunnel to those measured simultaneously at the Elms Road background (n=4).