

Borillo, GC and Tadano, YS and Godoi, AFL and Pauliquevis, T and Sarmiento, H and Rempel, D and Yamamoto, CI and Marchi, MRR and Potgieter-Vermaak, S and Godoi, RHM (2018) Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs) and nitrated analogs associated to particulate matter emission from a Euro V-SCR engine fuelled with diesel/biodiesel blends. Science of the Total Environment, 644. pp. 675-682. ISSN 0048-9697 (In Press)

Downloaded from: http://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/621265/

Version: Accepted Version

Publisher: Elsevier

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.07.007

Please cite the published version

https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk

1	Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH) and nitrated analogs
2	associated with total particulate emissions from a Euro V engine fuelled
3	with Diesel/Biodiesel Blends
4	
5	Guilherme C. Borillo ¹ , Yara S. Tadano ² ; Ana Flavia L. Godoi ¹ ; Theotonio Pauliquevis ³ ;
6	Hugo Sarmiento ¹ ; Dennis Rempel ⁴ ; Carlos I. Yamamoto ⁵ ; Mary R. R. Marchi ⁶ ; Sanja
7	Potgieter-Vermaak ^{7,8} ; Ricardo H. M. Godoi ¹ *
8	
9	*Corresponding Author: Environmental Engineering Department, Federal University of
10	Parana, 210 Francisco H. dos Santos St., Curitiba, PR, 81531-980 Brazil. Tel.: +55 41
11	3361-3482. E-mail address: rhmgodoi@ufpr.br (R. H. M. Godoi)
12	
13	1- Environmental Engineering Department, Federal University of Paraná, Curitiba, PR, Brazil.
14	2- Mathematics Department, Federal University of Technology of Paraná, Ponta Grossa, PR,
15	Brazil.
16	3- Universidade Federal de São Paulo, Diadema, Brazil
17	4- Institute of Technology for Development, Lactec, Curitiba, PR, Brazil.
18	5- Chemical Engineering Department, Federal University of Paraná, Curitiba, PR, Brazil.
19	6- Analytical Chemistry Department, Institute of Chemistry, São Paulo State University -
20	UNESP, Araraquara, SP, Brazil.
21	7- Division of Chemistry and Environmental Science, School of Science and the Environment,
22	Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester M15 6HB, United Kingdom.
23	8- Molecular Science Institute, School of Chemistry, University of the Witwatersrand,
24	Johannesburg 2000, South Africa.
25	
26	
27	

28 ABSTRACT

29 Among the new technologies developed for the heavy-duty fleet, the use of SCR 30 (Selective Catalytic Reduction) after-treatment system in standard Diesel engines 31 associated with biodiesel and diesel mixtures is an alternative in use to control the 32 legislated pollutants emission. Nevertheless, there is an absence of knowledge about the 33 synergic behavior of these devices and the ratio of fuels regarding the emissions of 34 unregulated substances as the Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH) and Nitro-PAH, 35 both recognized for their carcinogenic and mutagenic effects on humans. Therefore, the goal of this study is the quantification of PAH and Nitro-PAH present to Total Particulate 36 37 Matter (TPM) emitted from the EuroV engine fuelled with ultra-low sulphur diesel and 38 soybean biodiesel in different percentages. Total PM sampling was performed using a 39 EuroV – SCR engine operating in European Stationary Cycle (ESC). The PAH and Nitro-40 PAH were extracted from TPM emitted using an Accelerated Solvent Extractor and 41 quantified by GC-MS. Our results indicated that the use of SCR system and the largest 42 fraction of biodiesel studied may have been the main factor responsible for the lowest 43 emission of total PAH. Individual emissions among the 16 priority PAH and 3 Nitro-PAH 44 quantified from the TPM did not show a significant difference for the studied conditions. 45 The total equivalent quotient (TEQ) was lower when using 20% biodiesel, in comparison 46 with 5% biodiesel on the SCR system, reaffirming the low toxicity emission with the use 47 of biodiesel. Our data also reveal that use of SCR system, on its own, suppress the Nitro-**48** PAH compounds. In general, the use of larger fractions of biodiesel coupled with the SCR 49 system showed the lowest PAH and Nitro-PAH emissions, meaning lower toxicity and, 50 consequently, a potential lower risk to human health. From the emission point of view, 51 the results of this work also demonstrated the viability of the Biodiesel programs, in 52 combination with the SCR systems, does not require any engine adaptation.

- 53
- 54

55 Keywords: Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR); Diesel Emissions; Biodiesel;
56 Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH); Nitro-PAH; Toxic Equivalents Quotients
57 (TEQ).

- 58
- 59

60 1. Introduction

61

62 Diesel engine exhaust emissions were classified as a carcinogen by the 63 International Cancer Research Agency (ICRA) in 2013, thereby increasing the prior 64 challenges that policymakers in several countries face (Diaz-Sanchez et al., 1994; Lighty 65 et al., 2000; Ravindra et al., 2008; Reșitoğlu et al., 2015; Zielinska et al., 2004)). PAH 66 and Nitro-PAH (nitrated PAH) are the most toxic compounds among the complex mixture 67 of gases and particles that comprise diesel engine exhaust aerosols (US HSS US, 2005; 68 Slezakova et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013; Yilmaz and Davis, 2016). 69 Composed of two or more fused aromatic rings, these organic compounds have been 70 tested for their carcinogenic activity by the ICRA, with Benzo[a]pyrene being classified 71 as a class 1 carcinogen (therefore carcinogenic to humans0. Dibenzo[a,1]pyrene is 72 considered as probably carcinogenic to humans (class 2A) and Dibenzo[a,i]pyrene and 73 Dibenzo[a,h]pyrene as possibly carcinogenic to humans (class 2B) (Zielinska et al., 2004; 74 WHO, 2013). When these compounds are associated with diesel/biodiesel blends exhaust 75 particle-phase emissions, it was found that the highest concentrations were in the fine 76 particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) (He, 2016; Guan et al., 2017). In addition therefore to the 77 increased risk of developing acute and chronic cardiopulmonary diseases upon exposure 78 to high PM 2.5 mass concentration, these findings seem to suggest an increased risk for 79 lung cancer (US HSS US, 2005; Ravindra et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2017).

80 Current emission regulations implemented in the U.S. and European Union (EU), 81 US 2010 and Euro VI, respectively, adopt a limit for NO_x and PM emission that is ten 82 times lower than the levels allowed in 2000. Countries where these emission limits are 83 enforced and implemented (U.S., EU, Canada, Japan and South Korea) project a 26-fold 84 reduction in PM emissions by 2045 (Posada et al., 2016). On the other hand, Brazil, 85 Russia, India, China, Australia and Mexico whose gross domestic product heavily 86 depends on heavy-duty vehicle transport, have yet to fully implement the equivalent 87 emission standards, even though the increased risks are acknowledged. These regulations 88 require extensive deployment of advanced engine tuning, the addition of two or more 89 after-treatment devices, and the use of low sulphur diesel content, therefore potentially fleet renovations. Instead, these countries still enforce the Euro V and equivalent 90 91 regulations where SCR (Selective Catalytic Reduction) or EGR (exhaust gas 92 recirculation) after-treatment systems remain the main strategies to reduce NOx and PM 93 emission (Du and Miller, 2017).

94 As an additional strategy to reduce pollutants from diesel vehicles, many countries 95 like Canada, Australia, Brazil, China and Germany are promoting the development, 96 production and use of alternatives fuels (biofuels and natural gas) seeking a better balance 97 to fuel economy and thereby improving green freight programs in the long term (Du and 98 Miller, 2017). Biodiesel is already used in several countries and seems to be a promising 99 alternative, as it can be used in diesel engines without major modifications. Despite the 100 high cost of production when compared to diesel, biodiesel can qualitatively and 101 quantitatively reduce regulated pollutant emissions (Ratcliff et al., 2010; He et al., 2010; 102 Tadano et al., 2014; Sadiktsis et al., 2014). Several researches successfully demonstrated 103 a consistent reduction for hydrocarbons (HC), total particulate matter (PM) and carbon 104 monoxide (CO) emissions while recognizing an increase in nitrogen dioxide (NO_x) when 105 biodiesel is used (Ravindra et al., 2008; Sadiktsis et al., 2014; Borillo et al., 2015; He, 106 2016). On the other hand, research evidence on the influence of alternative fuels on PAH 107 and Nitro-PAH emissions are sparce. Guarieiro et al. (2014) concluded that the biodiesel 108 additions decrease PAH emissions, which is in agreement with the conclusions made by 109 Yilmaz and Davis (2016), He et al. (2010) and Lim et al. (2014). Westphal et al. (2013) 110 tested PAH emissions using a turbo-intercooled engine with 6 cylinders operating in the 111 European Stationary Cycle (ESC) fuelled with hydrotreated vegetable oil and jatropha 112 methyl ester. The authors also demonstrated a slight reduction in PAH emission when 113 low percentages of biodiesel was added and showed that toxicological effects depends on 114 the biodiesel origin. Casal et al. (2014) tested a Euro III engine fuelled with standard 115 diesel (B0), B5 (5% biodiesel) and B20 (20% biodiesel) and concluded that biodiesel 116 mixed with diesel increases the production of PAH and Alkyl PAH in the engine exhaust 117 emissions.

118 Changes in fuel alone are however not sufficient to meet the new or the old 119 standards and use of after-treatment systems is crucial. The SCR system is still the most 120 widely used, due to its efficiency and selectivity to reduce NO_x emissions, (Tadano et al., 121 2014). The injection of urea and a catalyst ensures reductions of up to 90% in NO_x 122 emissions, through a reduction reaction of NO_x and NH₃ resulting in nitrogen and water 123 (Amanatidis et al., 2014; Bacher et al., 2014). Nevertheless, SCR technology is not 124 without its challenges, such as the emission of NH₃, stoichiometric disproportion of urea consumption, cost, and deactivation of the catalyst by deposition (Cheruiyot et al., 2017). 125 126 The best reported SCR efficiency are achieved at high engine loads and temperatures 127 (approximately 400 °C) (Cheruiyot et al., 2017). However, the added urea increases the

probability of unintended formation of Nitro-PAH thought PAH nitration (Liu et al.,2015).

130 The combination of low sulphur fuels (ultra-low sulphur diesel-ULSD), new 131 engine technologies, after-treatment systems (SCR, EGR, DOC - Diesel oxidation 132 catalyst, DPF – Diesel particulate filter) and the use of biofuels are the current strategy to 133 achieve the regulatory reductions worldwide (Ratcliff et al., 2010; Carrara and Niessner, 134 2013; Hu et al., 2013; Sadiktsis et al., 2014; Reşitoğlu et al., 2015; He et al., 2016). 135 However, there is insufficient knowledge and some disagreement in open literature with 136 regards to the potential synergistic effect on unregulated emissions by vehicles equipped 137 with SCR and the use of different biodiesel blends.

This paper describes the PAH and Nitor-PAH emission concentrations from an engine,
which is in compliance with the standard emissions determined in PROCONVE P7/Euro
V. Furthermore, the potential synergistic effect of the SCR after-treatment and the use of
diesel S-10 and different soybean biodiesel blends on emissions have been investigated.
Those pollutants are not regulated worldwide, even though they are proven to present
several harmful effects on human health.

- 144
- 145 2. Materials and methods

146 2.1. Sampling

147

148 The engine emission tests were performed at the Lactec Institute's Laboratory for 149 Vehicular Emissions in partnership with the Federal University of Paraná, Curitiba, 150 Brazil. The tested engine is currently used in trucks and buses around the world, and has 151 an individual four-valve cylinder head, cross-flow arrangement, common rail injection 152 and SCR after-treatment system. The test engine fulfils the European Union Rregulation 153 (EC - N° 595/2009 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 June 2009) 154 requirements for EuroV emission standards with a urea-SCR system and is in accordance 155 with the P7 phase of the PROCONVE (Vehicular Air Pollution Control Program) in 156 Brazil. The engine details are specified in Table 1.

157

158

Table 1. Engine specifications, model 2012.Specifications

Emission	EuroV "Heavy Duty"/Proconve P7
Configuration	4 cylinders, inline
Displacement	4.8 litters
Bore x Stroke	105 x 137 mm
Combustion System	Direct injection
Injection System	Common Rail Electronic
Aspiration	TGV Intercooler
Power Output	187 hp (139,7 kW) 2200 rpm
Peak Torque	720 Nm (73 kgf.m) 1200~1600 rpm
After-treatment	SCR

159

160 The engine works in conjunction with a dynamometer and a data acquisition 161 system, both from AVL (Graz, Austria) to perform the emission and engine parameters 162 measurements. The dynamometer can absorb power up to 440 kW at 6,000 rpm and a 163 torque of 2.334 N m at 1.200–1.600 rpm. The European Steady Cycle (ESC) was selected 164 as driving cycle for the dynamometer operation to allow PM sampling. It was designed 165 to achieve high load factors and very high temperature on the exhaust gas (Ericsson, 2001; 166 Mock et al., 2012). Sixty-five percent of the calculated emission responds to load and 167 engine speed above 50%. That is conservative and captures most of the stop-and-go 168 conditions of the drive cycle experienced by urban busses in rush hours (Tadano et al., 169 2014).

The PM sampling was performed using an AVL dilution system (Smart Sampler
SPC 472 - Graz, Austria). This system prevents filter saturation, reduces the exhaust
temperature and adjusts the dilution ratio. The sampling equipment has two filter
supports, arranged in sequence, to achieve higher PM retention.

For PAH and Nitro-PAH analysis, total PM was collected on two borosilicate glass fiber filters, 70 mm of diameter, coated with fluorocarbon (Pallflex T60A20 fiberfilm). The filters were weighted prior and after the sampling using a Sartorius microbalance (MSA2.7S-000-DF - Goettingen, Germany) following the NIOSH method 5000 and were stored below -18 °C in cleaned glass containers until analysis. The NO_x emissions were measured in-line by a SESAM i60 FT, Fourier transform infrared (FTIR)
multi-component measurement system from AVL (Graz, Austria). Table S2 shows the
experimental conditions set for the FTIR analysis.

182

183 2.2. Fuels

184 Ultra-Low Sulphur Diesel (ULSD - maximum of 10 ppm of sulphur) and soybean 185 biodiesel were used to prepare two mixtures: B5 (ULSD with 5% of biodiesel) and B20 186 (ULSD with 20% of biodiesel). The B5 and B20 fuels were collected in amber glass 187 bottles and stored protected from light at 25 °C. The fuel samples were previously 188 characterized according to methods and essays described on American Society for 189 Testing and Materials (ASTM) in Lacaut - Automotive Fuels Laboratory (certified on 190 ISO 9001, ISO 14001 and ISO 17025) of the Federal University of Paraná, Curitiba, 191 Brazil. Table 2 shows the fuel properties of the reference diesel fuels and the biodiesel 192 blend used in this research, as tested, according with Standard ASTM Test Methods.

193

Property	B5	B20	Method
Sulphur, mg/kg	4	6	ASTM D5453
Cetane number	53.8	51.0	ASTM D6890
Flash point (°C)	45.5	70.5	ASTM D93
Viscosity at 40 °C (mm ² s ⁻¹)	3.0	3.2	ASTM D445
Specific mass at 20 °C (kg m ⁻³)	830.5	848.1	ASTM D4052

194 Table 2. Fuel Properties of B5 and B20 blends

195

196 2.3. Extraction

All the sampled filters were extracted, using an Accelerated Solvent Extractor
(ASE – Dionex, USA), with dichloromethane and methanol (4:1) at a pressure of 1.500
psi and temperature of 120 °C in three static extraction cycles of 5 minutes each. The total
extracted volume was concentrated to near dryness with a slight nitrogen flow and

201 recovered with 1.5 ml of dichloromethane. This procedure has been optimized, using 202 different temperatures (100, 120, 150 and 180 °C) and extraction cycles (1, 2 and 3 cycles), based on the EPA' Standard Operation Procedure (California Standard Operation 203 204 Procedure, SOP No. 144 2006 for the determination of PAH in particulate matter using 205 GC-MS (gas chromatography with mass spectrometry). To assess the extraction 206 efficiency, Naphthalene-d8 and Benz[a]anthracene-d12 were used as recovery standards. 207 The recovery, in percentage, of Naphtalene-d8 was slightly lower (65-80%) than the 208 recovery of the Benz[a]anthracene-d12 (84-114%).

209

210 2.4. Analysis

211 Samples and standards were analysed in triplicate, using a gas chromatograph 212 (Perkin Elmer Clarus 680) coupled to a mass spectrometer (Perkin Elmer Clarus SQ 8 T 213 Perkin Elmer - Waltham, USA). A fused silica capillary column (MS-5 30 mx 0.25 mm 214 x 0.25 mm) from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, USA) was used to separate the PAH and Nitro-PAH. Helium was used as carrier gas at a constant flow rate of 1.0 ml min⁻¹. The 215 216 volume injected was 1.5 µl in splitless mode with a pressure pulse. The oven temperature 217 was programmed as follows: 1 minute at 40 °C, heated at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ to 200 °C and maintained for 5 min, heated in sequence at a rate of 6 °C min⁻¹ to 240 °C and 218 maintained for 10 minutes and, finally heated to 300 °C at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ and 219 220 maintained for 5 minutes. The injector temperature, GC-MS interface and detector were 221 maintained at 300, 270 and 260 °C, respectively. The mass spectrometer emission current 222 was set at 350 µA, the electron energy at 70 eV (nominal) and analysis occurred with 223 SIM (selected-ion monitoring) mode.

224 Acenaphthene-D10, Phenanthrene-D10 and Perylene-D12 (Sulpeco Analytical -225 Bellefonte, USA) were used as internal standards. Sixteen PAH recognised by USEPA (United States Environmental Protection Agency) as priority pollutants were analysed: 226 227 Naphthalene, Acenaphthene, Acenaphthylene, Anthracene, Phenanthrene, Fluorene, 228 Fluoranthene, Benzo[a]anthracene, Chrysene, Pyrene, Benzo[a]pyrene, 229 Benzo[b]fluoranthene, Benzo[k]fluoranthene, Dibenzo[a,h]anthracene, 230 Benzo[g,h,i]perylene, Indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene . In addition, Benzo[e]pyrene, Perylene, 231 1-Nitronaphtalene, 2-Nitrofluorene, 3-Nitrofluoranthene, 1-Nitropirene and 7-232 Nitrobenz[a]anthracene were also analysed (standards solutions supplied by Dr. 233 Ehrenstorfer - Augsburg, Germany). The list with all investigated compounds with their 234 respective molecular mass, quantification ion and quantification limits (LOQ.) can be found in Table S1 of the supplementary material. The method accuracy was verified using
the reference material SRM 1650b from NIST (National Institute Standards and
Technology).

The PAH and Nitro-PAH concentrations were tested for significant differences
using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). For this purpose "R" software was used and
significance was determined at a 95% confidence level.

- 241
- 242
- 243 3. Results and Discussion
- 244

Particle emissions from a EURO V engine, operating with and without selective 245 246 catalytic reduction after-treatment, and testing ULSD with 5% of biodiesel (B5) and 247 ULSD with 20% of biodiesel (B20), were analysed for their PAH and Nitro-PAH content. 248 The results of the different PAH and Nitro-PAH detected are presented in Tables 3 and 249 5, respectively. We reported in previous published work (Borillo et al., 2015) that the 250 SCR after-treatment reduced NOx emissions (90% reduction observed for both: B5 and 251 B20), as it was expected, and therefore this parameter was used to evaluate the 252 performance efficiency of the SCR system.

253

254 3.1. PAH concentrations in PM exhaust emissions

Table 3 displays the identity of the PAHs emitted from a Euro V engine operating
with an ESC cycle, using two different fuels and conditions, as well as their respective
concentrations (in µg kWh⁻¹). Of the 23 PAHs, eight were not detected or were found
below the quantification limit (Anthracene, Chrysene, Benzo[k]fluoranthene,
Benzo[e]pyrene, Benzo[a]pyrene, Perylene, Indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene,
Dibenzo[a,h]anthracene - Table S1).

	B5 SCR-off			B5 SCR-on			B20 SCR-off			B20 SCR-on		
PAH (µg kWh ⁻¹)	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n
Naphthalene *	0.076	-	1	0.036	0.010 (0.028 - 0.043)	2		< LoQ.			< LoQ.	
Acenaphthylene	0.047	-	1		< LoQ.			< LoQ.		0.043	0.004 (0.040 - 0.046)) 2
Acenaphthene	0.138	-	1	0.075	0.014 (0.065 - 0.084)	2		< LoQ.			< LoQ.	
Fluorene	0.841	0.045 (0.809 - 0.873)	2	0.845	0.240 (0.476 - 1.100)	5	0.759	0.144 (0.619 - 0.987)	5	0.867	0.060 (0.824 - 0.908)	2
Phenanthrene	0.786	0.072 (0.679 - 0.875)	5	0.642	0.081 (0.577 - 0.755)	4	0.669	0.124 (0.512 - 0.876)	8	0.658	0.076 (0.604 - 0.711)	2
Fluoranthene	0.317	0.247 (0.136 - 0.622)	5	0.319	0.124 (0.184 - 0.444)	5	0.225	0.128 (0.106 - 0.388)	9	0.128	0.016 (0.105 - 0.139)	4
Pyrene	0.738	0.559 (0.284 - 1.400)	5	0.724	0.283 (0.388 - 1.000)	5	0.587	0.314 (0.289 - 0.993)	9	0.307	0.043 (0.246 - 0.345)	4
Benzo[a]anthracene *	0.085	-	1	0.081	0.011 (0.074 - 0.089)	2		< LoQ.			< LoQ.	
Benzo[b]fluoranthene *	0.152	0.021 (0.122 - 0.173)	4	0.229	0.122 (0.143 - 0.315)	2	0.128	0.014 (0.109 - 0.150)	9	0.121	0.014 (0.105 - 0.130)	3
Benzo[g.h.i]perylene	0.188	0.012 (0.178 - 0.201)	3	0.183	0.002 (0.181 - 0.185)	2	0.176	0.002 (0.174 - 0.179)	3		< LoQ.	
\sum PAH (particles) 3.37 ± 0.62**		3.37 ± 0.62**		$3.13 \pm 0.42^{**}$			$2.54 \pm 0.39 **$			2.12 ± 0.11 **		
PAHsC - Possibly carcinogenic for Humans*		0.313 (9.2 %)		().347 (11.1 %)			0.128 (5.0 %)			0.121 (5.7 %)	

26D le 3 – PAH concentrations in PM exhaust emissions, in μ g kWh⁻¹.

263Number of valid samples; <LoQ. – Below quantification limit; SD – Standard Deviation; * IARC – group 2B; ** Uncertainties propagation for PAH sum (estimative). **264**

265

267 Considering the sum of all PAHs, the B5 SCR-off condition had the highest value 268 among the sampling conditions $(3.37 \pm 0.62 \ \mu g \ kWh^{-1})$, followed by B5 SCR-on $(3.13 \pm 0.42 \ \mu g \ kWh^{-1})$, B20 SCR-off $(2.54 \pm 0.39 \ \mu g \ kWh^{-1})$ and the B20 SCR-on $(2.12 \pm 0.11 \ \mu g \ kWh^{-1})$.

271 The results indicate therefore a slight reduction (7% and 16% respectively for B5 272 and B20) in total PAH emissions when the after-treatment technology is applied. Lee et 273 al. (2015) described a moderate decrease of particle emissions for EURO V vehicles 274 equipped with SCR system, in agreement to Mayer et al. (2007) and Czerwiski et al. 275 (2011), who reported a reduction of 15% in particle concentration. Pietkäinen et al. (2015) 276 studied the PM emissions from a turbocharged, intercooled, common rail, 4-cylinder non-277 road engine with SCR system and also reported a decrease in total particle number when 278 the SCR converter was used, but there was an increase of nanoparticles, increasing the 279 risk to human health. These findings therefore suggest that the SCR system reduces total 280 particle emissions and thus it is possible that this may be the reason for the observed 281 decrease in PAH emission.

282 What is more noticeable, however, is that the addition of 20% of biodiesel in the 283 fuel mixture resulted in a decrease of 25% in PAH emissions in the particle-phase for 284 SCR-off and 32% for SCR-on. Similar results were found by previous studies (Turrio-285 Baldassarri et al., 2004; He et al., 2010; Yilmaz and Davis, 2016; He et al., 2016; Martin 286 et al., 2017). Our results concur with the findings of He et al. (2010), who compared 287 several studies, concluding that, on average, a reduction of 23% in PAH emissions can be 288 expected with a 20% addition of biodiesel to the fuel. Additionally, He et al. (2010) 289 showed that PAH emissions from EURO II engines were two orders of a magnitude 290 higher than those we report, therefore enlightening a decrease in PAH emissions due to 291 the engine technology evolution.

Similarly, the PAHsC (possibly carcinogenic to humans PAH) were reduced by
59% and 65%, respectively, when B5 was replaced by B20, either with or without SCR.
These results clearly demonstrate the beneficial influence on PAH emissions if biodiesel
additions to fuel are made.

These results confirm the difference in combustion products between diesel and biodiesel, as highlighted by Ravindra et al. (2008), who stated that the pyrolysis and pyrosynthesis processes that diesel undergoes during combustion (in reduced oxygen conditions), will result in the formation of aromatic rings through condensation products. In the case of biodiesel combustion, PAH formation involves the thermal polymerization of the fatty acid methyl esters forming cyclohexane (Ratcliff et al., 2010), as there are no
aromatic organic compounds present. Therefore, the incorporation of biodiesel in the
mixture can lead to a reduction in PAH emissions due to the natural absence of PAH in
biodiesel, and to its higher oxygen content. The observed result represents the different
chemistry path of biodiesel combustion in relation to diesel and an improvement of the
combustion process, reducing the PAH generated by incomplete combustion of fuel and
lubricant oils.

308

309

On the other hand, this tendency is only observed when the B20 fuel was tested for PAHsC emissions and an increase (11%) was observed for the B5.

310 The average and standard deviation for the individual PAH associated with PM emission are presented in Fig 1. The major compound quantified in all the experimental 311 312 was Fluorene followed by Phenanthrene, Pyrene, conditions Fluoranthene. 313 Benzo[b]fluoranthene and Benzo[g,h,i]perylene. The latter compound presented 314 concentrations below the LoQ for B20 during the SCR-on condition. The high molecular 315 weight PAH with three or more aromatic rings, recognized for their toxicity, contributed 316 more to the total particle PAH emission, since they have a higher probability to condense 317 during the combustion process (Ballesteros et al., 2010). Benzo[a]pyrene, among the most 318 toxic PAH species, was not quantified for any of the conditions (LoQ - 3.36 ng ml⁻¹).

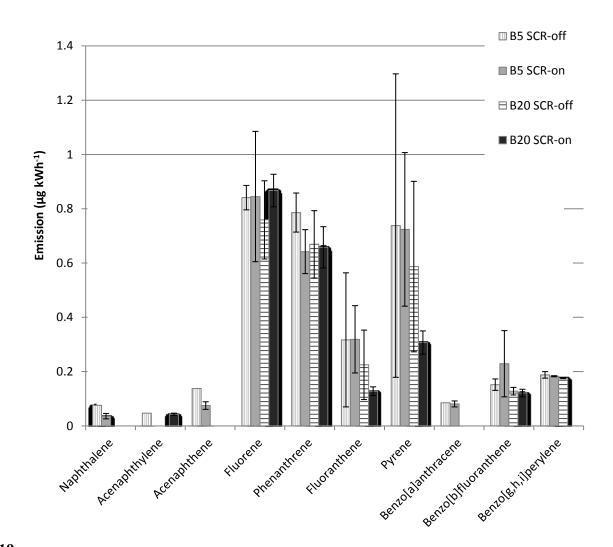


Fig 1. Average concentrations in μg kWh⁻¹ (columns) and standard deviation (bars) for individual PAH associated with total PM emission for all experimental conditions.

323 The ANOVA test was performed for the substances that present N > 2: Fluorene, 324 Phenanthrene, Fluoranthene, Pyrene and Benzo[b]fluoranthene. No statistical difference 325 (95% confidence level) was found for the conditions tested, except Benzo[b]fluoranthene 326 when comparing B5 SCR-off to B20 SCR-off and B5 SCR-on to B20 SCR-off. A similar 327 result was obtained by Shah et al. (2012) who found no significant difference in PAH 328 emissions considering the use of the SCR system and a low sulphur diesel. Liu et al. 329 (2015) and Zhao et al. (2014) indicated that the Diesel Particulate Filter (DPF) is better 330 to reduce the individual emissions of PHAs associated with PM, resulting in reductions 331 greater than 90%. They also pointed out high tendency of engine manufacturers to couple 332 more than one after-treatment system to achieve larger reductions in pollutants.

333 Considering biodiesel, Ballesteros et al. (2010) studied the particle-associated PAH 334 emission using three diesel (ULSD)/biodiesel mixtures (B30, B70 and B100) with a 4-335 cylinder, 4-stroke, turbocharged, intercooled, 2.2 L Nissan diesel engine without any after 336 treatment system operating in a transient cycle. The authors showed that the biodiesel 337 addition decreased the low molecular weight PAH concentration (three aromatic rings) in 338 relation to pure diesel and concluded that these emissions depend on the biodiesel origin. 339 In agreement, no significant difference was found in the individual PAH emission for the 340 present study. The same results were reported by Rojas et al. (Rojas et al., 2011) for 10 341 out the 16 priority PAH (as proposed by US EPA) when they monitored the particle 342 emissions from a 20 year old engine fuelled with pure diesel (1000 ppm of sulphur) and 343 B15. The authors also quantified high concentrations of Pyrene, Benzo[k]fluoranthene 344 and Benzo[g,h,i]pervlene when B15 was used. What I find missing here is talk about the 345 PAHs which are absent when B20 is used (or at least below quantification limit). I think 346 that is the more interesting bit. Discuss these and then also indicate what the health 347 consequence of the reduction of these are, if any.

348 The beneficial effects of the biodiesel/SCR system similarly can be confirmed by349 the Toxicity Equivalent Quotients (TEQ) values, presented in Table 4.

350

351 Table 4 – Toxicity Equivalent Quotient of total of PAH emission in relation to
352 Benzo[a]pyrene.

353

Fuel	B5 SCR-off	B5 SCR-on	B20 SCR-off	B20 SCR-on
TEQ (µg kWh ⁻¹)	0.029	0.036	0.017	0.014

354

355 356

357 The toxicity equivalent factors (TEF) for each PAH and the calculation 358 procedure were the same as those proposed by Nisbet & Lagoy (1992) and US EPA 359 (2006). The results indicate that the highest equivalent toxicity value was found in the B5 360 SCR-on combination and the lowest for the B20 SCR-on. The highest TEQ value, 0.036 361 μg kWh⁻¹, match the highest PAHsC, 0.347 μg kWh⁻¹ (Table 3), for the B5 SCR-on 362 condition, suggesting that Benzo[b]fluoranthene was mostly responsible for the increased 363 toxicity. Shah et al. (2012) tested the influence of the SCR system on the TEQ values and 364 concluded that the after-treatment increased the quotient due to the increase in PAH with 365 high TEFs.

366 The preponderant factor leading to the reduction of the TEQ was the fuel 367 variation. The reduction without using the SCR system from B5 to B20 was 41% and 368 from B5 and B20 using SCR was 60%. Yilmaz et al. (2016) found low particle-bound 369 PAH TEQ values and in the same order of magnitude for B10 and B20, comparing the 370 pure regular diesel. The authors also reported that compared to B100, the B10 reduced 371 toxicity by 49% and B20 by 46%. In addition to the discussion about the biodiesel life 372 cycle and the economical/environment sustainability, this biofuel is an alternative to 373 reduce PAH in particle-phase of Diesel engine emissions and toxicity.

- 374
- 375

376 3.2. Nitro-PAH associated to PM emissions

377

378 The concentration of five Nitro-PAHs associated with PM emissions from a Euro V 379 (SCR) engine using diesel/biodiesel blends as fuels were assessed in this research and the results are shown in Figure 2 and Table 5. The 1-Nitropyrene was quantified with only 380 381 sample of each experimental condition. 2-Nitrofluoranthene and 7one 382 Nitrobenzo[a]anthracene were below the quantification limit for all samples??. The Nitro-383 PAHs that were present in quantifiable amounts were XXXXXXX (name them). It is 384 observed that 2-Nitrofluorene was up to 8.5 times higher than the other nitro-PAHs 385 quantified and in general higher than any other individual PAH identified and quantified 386 as indicated in Table 3. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2003), both 387 2-Nitrofluorene and 1-Nitropyrene are found in diesel combustion particulate emissions 388 and are the major contributors to the increase in mutagenic emission potential. When 389 considering the Nitro-PAHsC sum (Table 5), it is observed that these compounds 87 -390 92% of the total nitro-PAH emissions and are therefore of concern, since these 391 compounds are currently classified as class 2B and 2A carcinogens by the ICRA.

392

NIG DALL (1307-1)	B5 SCR-off			B5 SCR-on			B20 SCR-off			B20 SCR-on		
Nitro-PAH (µg kWh ⁻¹)	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n	Average	SD (Min – Max)	n	Average	SD (Min – Max)	r
1-Nitronaphthalene	0.270	0.165 (0.153-0.387)	2	0.161	0.017 (0.148 - 0.180)	3	0.193	0.036 (0.168 - 0.219)	2	0.146	0.009 (0.140 - 0.152)	2
2-Nitrofluorene*	1.34	0.771 (0.519-2.50)	5	1.22	0.309 (0.836 - 1.50)	5	1.62	0.666 (0.984 - 2.40)	5	0.624	0.222 (0.467 - 0.781)	2
1-Nitropyrene**	0.408	-	1	0.542	-	1	0.360	-	1	0.350	-	
Nitro-PAH 2.02 ± 0.79*** Ditro-PAHsC -			1.93 ± 0.31***			2.17 ± 0.67***			1.12 ± 0.22***			
Possibly carcinogenic 1.75 (87 %) for Humans*			1.76 (92 %)			1,98 (91 %)			0.974 (87 %)			

39.4 le 5 – Nitro- PAH concentrations in PM exhaust emissions, in μ g kWh⁻¹.

for Humans* **395**Number of valid samples; <LoQ. – Below quantification limit; SD – Standard Deviation; * IARC – group 2B; ** IARC – group 2A; *** Uncertainties **396** agation for PAH sum (estimative).

404 Unlike the results obtained in the PAH analysis, in which the fuel had the greatest 405 reduction influence on the total emissions, the determining factor is a combination of fuel 406 composition and the use of the SCR after-treatment system. The SCR after-treatment 407 resulted in a 48% reduction when the B20 fuel was used and 5 % in the case of B5. This 408 suggests that the SCR after-treatment was more effective when larger biodiesel additions 409 are made. The only significant reduction was observed for B20 with after-treatment in 410 comparison to the other experimental conditions. It seems therefore that only in the case 411 of a combination of increased biodiesel additions and after-treatment a reduction of nitro-412 PAH emissions are observed. This is in contrast to Martin et al. (2017) who found that 413 biodiesel was capable of reducing overall Nitro-PAH concentrations in particle phase 414 emissions.

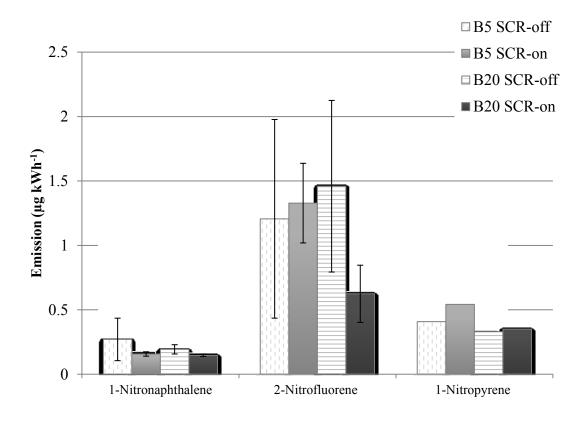




Fig 2. Average (columns) and standard deviation (bars) for individual Nitro-PAH associated to total PM emission for all experimental conditions in µg kWh⁻¹.
The analysis of variances for 1-Nitronaphthalene and 2-Nitrofluorene showed no significant difference (95% confidence level) among the results obtained with the addition of biodiesel in the mixture and the SCR system used. The same outcome was

423 determined for its precursor PAH, Naphthalene and Fluorene, that presented no424 significant difference (95% confidence level) in fuel and after-treatment variation.

425 The formation mechanism of Nitro-PAH through the nitration reaction during the 426 combustion process in the cylinder, has being investigated by several researches. 427 However the knowledge about this process remains inconclusive (WHO, 2003; Heeb et 428 al., 2008; Liu et al., 2015). After the combustion, Nitro-PAH can be formed by 429 electrophilic substitution reactions in the presence of NO_x and the combination of high 430 temperatures. The presence of precursor PAH and long residence times inside the 431 aftertreament system can promote the formation of these compounds (Heeb et al., 2008). 432 In a recent study, Liu et al. (2015) examined the emission of Nitro-PAH using various 433 types of after-treatment systems in different configurations. When testing DOC + SCR, 434 the emissions of PAH increased compared to the results of the engine without any after-435 treatment system. When studying only the SCR system, a reduction in the emission of 436 Nitro-HPAs was observed by Liu et al. (2015). However the authors also concluded that 437 the formation of Nitro-PAH by the SCR system is unlikely, since this system significantly 438 reduces NO₂ concentrations, decreasing their availability for the conversion of PAH into 439 their nitrated forms. In addition, the pores of the SCR system exclude large molecules 440 such as PAH, reducing their residence time and their interaction with NO_x . Hu et al. 441 (2013) evaluated the use of two SCR systems' composition (vanadium and copper) after 442 a DOC + DPF system and none appear to promote the nitration of PAH as a whole, but 443 may lead to the selective nitration of some PAH, such as phenanthrene. Inomata et al. 444 (2015) conclude that the SCR aftertreament suppress Nitro-PAH emission studying 4-445 Nitrophenol, 1-nitropyerene and 9-nitroanthracene compounds from 3 different Diesel 446 vehicles emission with DOC, DPF and SCR as aftertreament systems.

447 Considering the biodiesel effect on the Nitro-PAH emissions, Ratcliff et al. (2010) 448 and Guan et al. (2017) observed that the use of biodiesel and oxygenated fuels, 449 respectively, significantly reduces the emission of Nitro-HPAs associated to PM with 450 proportions above 20%. Comparing the results obtained in this study and those by Turrio-451 Baldassarri et al. (2004), it is concluded that despite advances in engine and fuel 452 technologies, Nitro-PAH emissions associated with PM increased. The authors do not list 453 any significant difference between the Nitro-PAH emissions comparing the fuel used 454 (diesel and B20), in agreement with the present results and also with Bagley et al. [48].

455 Sharp et al. (2000) studied the effects of biodiesel on unregulated emissions in 3456 different heavy duty vehicles (119, 205 and 176 kW) operating with a transient cycle.

457 Their results showed that Nitro-PAH emissions associated with PM were lower for 458 biodiesel (B100) compared to the S500 diesel. This result was expected since biodiesel 459 has low concentrations of aromatic compounds, the precursor PAH in its composition. 460 He (2016) described an increase in Nitro- and Oxy-PAH when using soybean biodiesel, 461 palm biodiesel and oxidized biodiesel from used fried oil. 1-Nitropyrene has been 462 reported by other studies and can be considered as a diesel emission marker (Bagley et 463 al., 1998; Karavalakis et al., 2010; He, 2016; Guan et al., 2017). Even with the injection 464 of a urea solution and the consequent formation of NH₃, there is no favouring of the 465 nitration process in the SCR after-treatment system. The results suggest that the opposite 466 occurs: the SCR system combined with biodiesel addition above 20% helps to reduce 467 Nitro-HPAs emissions by suppressing NO_x and improving the combustion process due to 468 the higher oxygen concentration in biodiesel.

This last section I think you should tighten up and rather focus on what really
contributes to your findings or showed contrast to your findings. Again, there is more on
what other people did than what you did and that makes your results look insufficient and
not worthy

473

474 4. Conclusion

475

476 This study brings an important contribution to a better understanding regarding the synergistic effects of new engine technologies, after-treatment systems and biofuels, on 477 **478** the unregulated PAH and nitro-PAH emissions from heavy-duty diesel engines still in 479 use in most developing countries. Total PAH emission reductions were observed (up to 480 28%) with the replacement of diesel fuel with biodiesel, which has been ascribed to the 481 different chemistry pathway during the pyrolysis of the biodiesel. These reductions were 482 more pronounced if the SCR after-treatment system was used. In addition, die fuel 483 composition also played a significant role in the amount of carcinogous PAHs emitted, 484 with an overall 50% reduction with the B20 fuel. The results were tested against the toxic 485 equivalent quotient (TEQ) and the lowest toxicity values were observed with the B20 486 SCR-on condition, followed by B20 SCR-off, B5 SCR-off and B5 SCR-on. The **487** combination of B20 and SCR after-treatment systems resulted in a consistent reduction **488** of Nitro-PAH emissions. There is no substantial evidence that the SCR system promotes 489 PAH nitration. Therefore, the higher oxygen content and the absence of aromatic

490 compounds in biodiesel together with PM emission reduction by the SCR system seem 491 to be able to reduce human health risks associated with PAH and Nitro-PAH exposure. 492 These findings can assist in policy making, especially setting new emission standards that 493 include limits for persistent organic pollutants such as PAHs and nitro-PAHs. In addition, 494 the authors recognise that the reduction of tailpipe emissions from diesel-type fuels is a 495 challenging task and therefore hope that the data from this study could help planning the 496 best pathway to assess and reduce vehicular emissions since it depends on fuel type, 497 experimental approaches, engines size and technologies, operating cycles, and after-**498** treatment systems.

499

500 5. Acknowledgement

501 This work was financially supported by the National Council for Scientific and502 Technological Development (CNPq).

503

504 6. References

Amanatidis, S.; Ntziachristos, L.; Giechaskiel, B.; Bergmann, A.; Samaras, Z., 2014.
Impact of Selective Catalytic Reduction on Exhaust Particle Formation over Excess
Ammonia Events. Environmental Science & Technology, 48 (11527–11534). DOI: 10.1021/es502895v.

509

Bacher, V.; Perbandt, C.; Schwefer, M.; Siefert, R.;Pinnow, S.; Turek, T., 2014. Kinetics
of ammonia consumption during the Selective catalytic reduction of NOx over an iron
zeolite catalyst. Applied Catalysis B: Environmental, 162 (158-166). DOI:
10.1016/j.apcatb.2014.06.039.

514

515 Ballesteros, R.; Hernãndez, J. J.; Lyons, L. L., 2010. An experimental study of the
516 influence of biofuel origin on particle-associated PAH emissions. Atmospheric
517 Environment, 44 (930-938). DOI: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2009.11.042.

518

519 Bagley, S. T.; Grantz, L. D.; Johnson, J. H.; McDonald, J. F., 1998. Effects of an oxidation
520 catalytic converter and biodiesel fuel on the chemical, mutagenic, and particle size

- 521 characteristics of emissions from a Diesel engine. Environmental Science and
 522 Technology, 32 (1183-1191). DOI: 10.1021/es970224q.
- 523 Borillo, G. C.; Tadano, Y. S.; Godoi, A. F. L.; Santana, S. S. M.; Weronka, F. M.; 524 Penteado Neto, R. A.; Rempel, D.; Yamamoto, C. I.; Potgieter-Vermaak, S.; Potgieter, J. 525 H.; Godoi, R. H. M., 2015. Effectiveness of Selective Catalytic Reduction Systems on 526 Reducing Gaseous Emissions from an Engine Using Diesel and Biodiesel Blends. Environmental Science and Technology, 49 (3246-3251). DOI: 10.1021/es505701r. 527 528 529 Carrara, M.; Niessner, R., 2013. Impact of a NO₂-regenerated diesel particulate filter on 530 PAH and NPAH emissions from an Euro IV heavy duty engine. Journal Environment 531 Monitoring, 13 (3373-3379). DOI: 10.1039/c1em10573f. 532 Casal, C. S.; Arbilla, G.; Corrêa, S. M., 2014. Alkyl polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons 533 534 emission in diesel/biodiesel exhaust. Atmospheric Environment, 96 (107-116). DOI: 535 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.07.028. 536 537 Cheruiyot, N. K.; Wang, L.; Lin, S.; Yang, H.; Chen, Y., 2017. Effects of Selective 538 Catalytic Reduction on the Emissions of Persistent Organic Pollutants from a Heavy-Duty 539 Diesel Engine. Aerosol and Air Quality Research, 17 (1558-1565). DOI: 540 10.4209/aaqr.2017.04.0129. 541 542 Czerwiski, J.; Stepie, Z.; Oleksiak, S; Otto, A., 2011. Combinations of Measures for 543 Reduction of NOx & Nanoparticles of a Diesel Engine. PTNSS-2011-SC-068. [Online 544 available at http://www.vestforsk.no/sites/default/files/migrate files/03-ptnss-2011-545 egr b100 v6. 2-col.pdf]. 546 547 Diaz-Sanchez, D.; Dotson, A. R.; Takenaka, H.; Saxon, A., 1994. Diesel exhaust particles 548 induce local IgE production in vivo and alter the pattern of IgE messenger RNA isoforms.
- 549 Journal of Clinical Investigation, 94 (1417-1425). DOI: 10.1172/ JCI117478.
- 550
- 551 Du, L.; Miller, J., 2017. Status of policies for clean vehicles and fuels in select G20
 552 countries. The International Council on Clean Transportation, Briefing. [Online available

- at: https://www.theicct.org/sites/default/files/publications/Status-of-policy-postTTG ICCT-Briefing 15082017 vF.pdf]
- 555
- **556** Ericsson E., 2001. Independent driving pattern factors and their influence on fuel-use and
- exhaust emission factors. Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment,
 6(5) (325–345). DOI: 10.1016/S1361-9209(01)00003-7.
- 559
- Guan, C.; Cheung, C. S.; Li, X.; Huang, Z., 2017. Effects of oxygenated fuels on theparticle-phase compounds emitted from a diesel engine. Atmospheric Pollution Research,
- **562** 8 (209-220). DOI: 10.1016/j.apr.2016.08.005.
- 563

564 Guarieiro, A. L. N.; Santos, J. V. S.; Eiguren-Fernandez, A.; Torres, E. A.; Rocha, G. O.

565 R.; Andrade, J. B., 2014. Redox activity and PAH content in size-classified nanoparticles

566 emitted by diesel engine fuelled with biodiesel and diesel blends. Fuel, 116 (490 – 497).
567 DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2013.08.029.

568

He, C.; Ge, Y.; Tan J.; You, K.; Han, X.; Wang, J., 2010. Characteristics of polycyclic
aromatic hydrocarbons emissions of diesel engine fueled with biodiesel and diesel. Fuel,
89 (2040-2046). DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2010.03.014.

572

573 He, B-Q., 2016. Advances in emission characteristics of diesel engines using different
574 biodiesel fuels. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, 60 (570-585). DOI:
575 10.1016/j.rser.2016.01.093.

576

Heeb, N.V.; Schmid, P.; Kohler, M.; Gujer, E.; Zennegg, M.; Wenger, D.; Wichser, A.;
Ulrich, A.;Gfeller, U.; Honegger, P.; Zeyer, K.; Emmenegger, L.; Petermann, J-L.;
Czerwinski, J.; Mosimann, T.; Kasper, M.; Mayer, A., 2008. Secondary effects of
catalytic diesel particulate filters: Conversion of PAH versus formation of nitro-PAH.
Environmental Science and Technology, 42(10) (3773 -3779). DOI: 10.1021/es7026949.
Hu. S.; Herner. J. D.; Robertson. W.; Kobayashi. R.; Chang. M. C. O.; Huang. S.;

584 Zielisnka. B.; Kado. N.; Collins. J. F.; Huai. T.; Ayala. A., 2013. Emissions of polycyclic

ses aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and nitro-PAH from heavy-duty diesel vehicles with DPF

and SCR. Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association, 63(8): 984-996. DOI:
10.1080/10962247.2013.795202.

588

Inomata, S.; Fushimi, A.; Sato, K.; Fujitani, Y.; Yamada, H., 2015. 4-Nitrophenol, 1nitropyrene, and 9-nitroanthracene emissions in exhaust particles from diesel vehicles
with different exhaust gas treatments. Atmospheric Environment, 110 (93 – 102). DOI:
10.1016/j.atmosenv.2015.03.043.

593

595

594 Karavalakis, G.; Fontaras, G.; Ampatzoglou, D.; Kousoulidou, M.; Stournas, S.; Samaras,

596 passenger cars. Part 3: impact on PAH, nitro-PAH, and oxy-PAH emissions.

Z.; Bakeas, E., 2010. Effects of low concentration biodiesel blends application on modern

597 Environmental Pollution, 158 (1584 – 1594). DOI: 10.1016/j.envpol.2009.12.017.

598

Lighty, J. S.; Veranth, J. M.; Sarofim, S. F., 2000. Combustion aerosols: Factors
governing their size and composition and implications to human health. Journal of the
Air & Waste Management Association, 50 (1565-1218). DOI:
10.1080/10473289.2000.10464197.

603

Lee, S. H.; Kwak, J. H.; Lee, S. Y.; Lee, J. H., 2015. On-road chasing and laboratory
measurements of exhaust particle emission of diesel vehicles equipped with aftertreatment technologies (DPF, Urea-SCR). International Journal of Automotive
Technology, 16 (551-559). DOI: 10.1007/s12239-015-0056-8.

608

Lim, C.; Lee, J.; Hong, J.; Song, C.; Han, J.; Cha, J., 2014. Evaluation of regulated and
unregulated emissions from a diesel powered vehicle fueled with diesel/biodiesel blends
in Korea. Energy, 77 (533-541). DOI: 10.1016/j.energy.2014.09.040.

612

Liu, Z. G.; Wall, J. C.; Ottinger, N. A.; Mcguffin, D., 2015. Mitigation PAH and NitroPAH emissions from nonroad diesel engines. Environmental Science and Technology, 49
(3662–3671). DOI: 10.1021/es505434r.

- 616
- 617 Martin, N.; Lombard, M.; Jensen, K. R.; Kelley, P.; Pratt, T.; Traviss, N., 2017. Effect of618 biodiesel fuel on "real-world", nonroad heavy duty diesel engine particulate matter

- emissions, composition and cytotoxicity. Science of the Total Environment, 586 (409418). DOI: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2016.12.041.
- 621
- 622 Mayer, A.; Kasper, M.; Legerer, F.; Czerwinsk, J.; Emmenegger, L.; Mohn, J.; Ulrich,
- 623 A.; Kirchen, P., 2007. Nanoparticle-emission of EURO 4 and EURO 5 HDV compared
- 624 to EURO 3 with and without DPF. SAE, Paper No. 2007-01-1112.
- 625
- Mock, P.; German, J.; Bandivadekar, A.; Riemersma, I, 2012. Discrepancies between
 type-approval and "real-world" fuel consumption and CO2 values. International Council
 on Clean Transportation, Working Paper. [Online available at:
 https://www.theicct.org/publications/discrepancies-between-type-approval-and-real-
- **630** world-fuel-consumption-and-co2-values-2001].
- 631

632 Nisbet, I. C.; Lagoy, P. K., 1992. Toxic Equivalency Factors (TEFs) for Polycyclic
633 Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAH). Regulatory Toxicology and Pharmacology, 16 (290–
634 300). DOI: 10.1016/0273-2300(92)90009-X.

635

636 Pietkäinen, M.; Väliheikki, A.; Oravisjärvi, K.; Kolli, T.; Huuhtanen, M.; Nimei, S.;
637 Virtanen, S.; Karhu, T.; Keiski, E. L., 2015. Particle and NO_x emission of a non-road
638 diesel engine with an SCR unit: The effect of fuel. Renewable Energy, 77 (377-385).
639 DOI: 10.1016/j.renene.2014.12.031.

640

641 Posada, F.; Chamnliss, S.; Blumberg, K., 2016. Cost of emission reduction technologies
642 for heavy-duty diesel vehicles. The Internacional Council on Clean Transportation, White
643 Paper. [Online available at: https://www.theicct.org/sites/default/files
644 /publications/ICCT_costs-emission-reduction-tech-HDV_20160229.pdf

645

Ratcliff, M. A.; Dane, A. J.; Williams, A.; Ireland, J.; Luecke, J.; Mccormick, R. L.;
Voorhees, K. J., 2010. Diesel particle filter and fuel effects on heavy-duty diesel engine
emissions. Environment Science and Technology, 44 (8434-8349). DOI:
10.1021/es1008032.

- 651 Ravindra, K.; Sokhi, R.; Grieken, R. V., 2008. Atmospheric polycyclic aromatic
 652 hydrocarbon: Source attribution, emission factors and regulation. Atmospheric
 653 Environment, 42: 2895-2921. FOI: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2007.12.010.
- 654

Reşitoğlu, I. A.; Altinişik, K.; Keskin, A., 2015. The pollutant emissions from dieselengine vehicles and exhaust after-treatment systems. Clean Technologies and
Environmental Policy, 17 (15-27). DOI: 10.1007/s10098-014-0793-9.

658

Rojas, N. Y.; Milquez, H. A.; Sarmiento, H., 2011. Characterizing priority polycyclic
aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) in particulate matter from diesel and palm oil-based
biodiesel B15 combustion. Atmospheric Environment, 45 (6158-6162). DOI:
10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.08.016.

663

Sadiktsis, I.; Koegler, J. H.; Benham, T.; Bergvall, C.; Westerholm, R., 2014. Particulate
associated polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon exhaust emissions from a portable power
generator fueled with three different fuels – A comparison between petroleum diesel and
two biodiesels. Fuel, 115 (573 – 580). DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2013.07.062.

668

Shah, A. N.; Ge, Y.; Tan, J.; Liu, Z.; He, C.; Zeng, T., 2012. Characterization of
polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons emissions from diesel engine retrofitted with selective
catalytic reduction and continuously regeneration trap. Journal of Environmental Science,
24 (1449–1456). DOI: 10.1016/S1001-0742(11)60974-1.

673

674 Sharp, C. A.; Howell, S.; Jobe, J., 2000. The Effect of Biodiesel Fuels on Transient
675 Emissions from Modern Diesel Engines, Part II Unregulated Emissions and Chemical
676 Characterization. SAE Technical Paper, Paper No.2000-01-1968. DOI: 10.4271/2000677 01-1968.

678

679 Slezakova, K.; Pires, J. C. M.; Castro, D.; Alvim-Ferraz, M. C. M.; Delerue-Matos, C.;
680 Morais, S.; Pereira, M. C., 2012. PAH air pollution at a Portuguese urban area:
681 carcinogenic risks and sources identification. Environmental Science and Pollution
682 Research, 20(6): 3932-3945. DOI: 10.1007/s11356-012-1300-7.

Tadano, Y. S.; Borillo, G. C.; Godoi, A. F. L.; Cichon, A.; Silva, T. O. B.; Valebona, F.
B.; Errera, M. R.; Penteado Neto, R. A.; Rempel, D.; Martin, L.; Yamamoto, C. I.; Godoi,
R. H. M., 2014. Gaseous emissions from a heavy-duty engine equipped with SCR aftertreatment system and fuelled with diesel and biodiesel: Assessment of pollutant
dispersion and health risk. Science of Total Environment, 500-501 (64-71). DOI:
10.1016/j.scitotenv.2014.08.100.

690

Turrio-baldassarri, L.; Battistelli, C. L.; Conti, L.; Crebelli, R.; Berardis, B.; Lamiceli, A.
L.; Gambino, M.; Lannaccone, S., 2004. Emission comparison of urban bus engine fueled
with diesel oil and 'biodiesel' blend. Science of Total Environment, 62 (327-147). DOI:
10.1016/j.scitotenv.2003.10.033.

695

696 US EPA - United States Environmental Protection Agency. Benzo(a)pyrene (BaP)
697 Chemical summary. Toxicity and exposure assessment for children's health, 2006.
698 [Online available at: https://archive.epa.gov/region5/teach/web/pdf/bap_summary.pdf].

699

700 US HSS - United States Department of Health and Human Services, 2005. Polycyclic
701 aromatic hydrocarbons: 15 listings; 11th report on carcinogens; [Online available at
702 http://ntp.niehs.nih.gov/ntp/roc/eleventh/profiles/s150pah.pd.

703

Wang, X-T.; Miao, Y.; Zhang, Y.; Li, Y-C.; Wu, M-H.; Yu, Gang., 2013. Polycyclic
aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) in urban soils of the megacity Shanghai: Occurrence.
source apportionment and potential human health risk. Science of Total Environment,
447: 80-89. DOI: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2012.12.086.

708

Westphal G. A.; Krahl, J.; Munack, A.; rosenkranz, N.; Schröder, O.; Schaak, J.; Pabst,
C.; Brüning, T.; Bünger, J., 2013. Combustion of hydrotreated vegetable oil and jatropha
methyl ester in a heavy-duty engine: emissions and bacterial mutagenicity. Environment
Science and Technology, 47 (6038–6046).DOI: 10.1021/es400518d.

713

WHO – World Health Organization, 2003. Environmental Health Criteria 229 – Selected
nitro- and oxy- polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons. Who library. [Online available at:

716 http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/42537/1/WHO_EHC_229.pdf]

- WHO World Health Organization. 2013. International Agency for Research on Cancer
 (IARC) Monographs on the Evaluation of Carcinogenic Risks to Humans List of
 Classification. volumes 1-113.
- 721

Yilmaz, N; Davis, S. M., 2016. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) formation in a
diesel engine fuelled with diesel, biodiesel and biodiesel/n-butanol blends. Fuel, 181
(729-740). DOI: 10.1016/j.fuel.2016.05.059.

725

726 Zhao, Z.; Ge, Y.; Zhang, T.; Zhang, J.; Tan, J.; Zhang, H., 2014. Unregulated emissions

729

730 Zielinska, B.; Sagebiel, J.; Arnott, J.; Rogers, C. F.; Kelly, K. E.; Wagner, D. A.; Lighty,

731 J. S.; Sarofim, A. F.; Palmer, G., 2004. Phase and size distribution of polycyclic aromatic

732 hydrocarbons in diesel and gasoline vehicle emissions. Environment Science

733 Technology, 38(9): 255767. DOI: 10.1021/es030518d.

<sup>from diesel engine with particulate filter using Fe-based fuel borne catalyst. Journal of
Environmental Sciences, 26 (2027–2033). DOI: 10.1016/j.jes.2014.08.004.</sup>