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Pollutant Constituents of Exhaust Emitted from the Light-Duty Diesel

- Vehicles 28
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ABSTRACT 34

Light-duty diesel exhaust particulate matter and its constituents, including 35 36 elemental carbon, organic carbon, water-soluble ionic species, elements, and 37 polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), were measured by a dynamometer study and following the driving pattern of federal test procedure-75 (FTP-75). Fuel 38 39 consumption of these light-duty diesel vehicles was in the range of 0.106-0.132 I km⁻¹, and the average emission factors of NMHC (non-methane 40 41 hydrocarbon), CO and NOx for light-duty vehicles were 0.158 (92% of total hydrocarbon), 1.395, and 1.735 g km⁻¹, respectively. The particulate emission 42 factor of light-duty diesel vehicles was 0.172 g km⁻¹, and PM_{2.5} contributed to 43 44 88% of particulate mass. Al, S, Ca, and Fe emission factors were about 0.83-1.24 mg km⁻¹ for PM_{2.5}, and the particulate mass fractions of these 45 46 elements ranged from 66-90% in PM_{2.5}. Nitrate, sulfate, ammonium and nitrite 47 were the major ionic species in diesel PM, and their emission factor ranged from 0.22-0.82 mg km⁻¹ for PM_{2.5}. The emission factor of total PAHs was 3.62 48 mg km⁻¹ in this study, with about 40% in the gas phase and 60% in the 49 particulate phase. Acenaphylene, naphthalene, fluoranthene, pyrene, and 50 anthracene were the dominant PAHs, and their emission factors were more 51 than 0.19 mg km⁻¹. The content of nitro-PAHs was low, with most less than 52

53 0.040 mg km⁻¹.

54 Keywords: diesel exhaust, particulate composition, emission factor,

55 **1. INTRODUCTION**

56 Chemical constituents are an important issue in the study of diesel exhaust emission. Exposure to air pollutants increases the risk of 57 58 cardiovascular disease. Numerous epidemiological studies have shown that 59 an increase in adverse cardio-pulmonary effects is associated with an increase in particulate matter level (HEI, 2003; Pope et al., 2004). Recent studies have 60 61 revealed that diesel exhaust particles could induce inflammation in cytokines 62 (Mazzarella et al, 2007), cytokine/chemokine response (Øvrevik et al, 2010), 63 cellular oxidative stress (Suzuki et al, 2008), mutation yield in human-hamster 64 hybrid cells (Bao et al, 2007) etc. Diesel exhaust particles have been identified as a class 2A human carcinogen (International Agency for Research on Cancer, 65 66 IARC) and related to an increase in the incidence of respiratory allergy, 67 cardiopulmonary morbidity and mortality, and risk of lung cancer (Kizu et al., 68 2003).

69 Generally, diesel vehicles contribute only a small fraction of particulate 70 matter (0.25-1.4% of PM_{2.5}) in the atmosphere (Hwang and Hopke, 2007; 71 López-Veneroni, 2009), but most people are concerned with the health effects of diesel exhaust particles (Alföldy et al, 2009). Therefore, elucidating the 72 73 chemical constituents of diesel exhaust is important to understand their toxicity 74 (Lin et al., 2008a; Lin et al., 2008b; Schneider et al., 2008; Cheng et al., 2010). 75 In addition, diesel fuel characteristics (i.e., sulfur content, fuel density, 76 distillation point, cetane index) and engine operation conditions (power loading, 77 exhaust temperature, engine speed, air/fuel ratio exhaust gas circulation) 78 could affect the exhaust compositions and particulate size distribution (Lim et 79 al., 2007; Lapuerta et al., 2007; Chung et al., 2008, Zhu et al., 2010). Most 80 studies in the literature have investigated the constituents of diesel exhaust

81 particles including carbon content (organic carbon and elemental carbon), 82 metal, inorganic ions, polyaromatic hydrocarbons, etc. (Kawanaka et al., 2007; 83 Maricq, 2007; Fushimi et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2008a; Cheng et al., 2010). Few 84 studies have investigated the comprehensive chemical constituents of diesel 85 exhaust particulate matter in detail. Typical mass fraction of diesel particle was mainly in accumulation mode, 0.050 μ m < Dp < 1.0 μ m, with a maximum 86 concentration between 0.1 and 0.2 µm and small mass peak in nuclei mode 87 and coarse mode (Kittelson, 1998; Kittelson, 2002). Significant and 88 89 fundamental changes have been made to the diesel engine combustion 90 process and associated after-treatment technologies (i.e., catalyst, diesel 91 particle filter, SCR catalyst) to meet stringent regulations and reduce emissions 92 of NOx and particulate matter (Biswas et al., 2008). However, diesel vehicles 93 are still a concern with regard to their pollution emission and health effects.

In general, two methods are used to measure vehicle emissions: the dynamometer test and real-world study (i.e., roadside and tunnel studies). The emission factors of specific engines can be determined by a dynamometer; measurements from individual cars are still the standard in dynamometer studies for many countries (Heeb et al., 2000, 2002, 2003; Nelson et al., 2008; Oanh et al., 2010).

Actual traffic emission data have been obtained from roadsides or road tunnels (De Vlieger, 1996; Lenaers, 1996; Pierson et al., 1996; Laschober et al., 2004; Stemmler et al., 2005; He et al., 2008); the emission factor has been determined by a mathematical method that does not reflect actual vehicle emissions. Because dynamometer testing is a standard method and determines tailpipe exhaust emission, it was selected in this work.

106 Detailed chemical constituents provide baseline information to 107 determine the effects of diesel vehicle exhaust. Many studies have focused on

diesel exhaust emission and composition using a dynamometer. However, detailed information about PM concentration and composition is still necessary to compare different areas. In this study, PM_{2.5} and its compositions including elemental carbon, organic carbon, water-soluble ionic species, elements, and polyaromatic hydrocarbons were measured to determine their emission factors.

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115 **2. EXPERIMENT**

116 2.1 Light-duty diesel vehicles and testing driving pattern

Six in-use light-duty vehicles were selected on the basis of accumulated mileage and produced year. All vehicles were without pollution control equipment, mileage ranged from 56,000 to 160,000 km, and the displacement volume ranged from 2184 to 2835 cc. **Table 1** presents more detailed information such as produced year, mileage, weight and engine capacity of all selected vehicles.

All selected vehicles were tested on a chassis dynamometer following test procedure FTP-75, which is used in Taiwan to certify new vehicles. The dynamometer is located in a certified laboratory located in ARTC (Automotive Research & Testing Center, Taiwan). All vehicles were visually examined for safety prior to testing on the following day. The distance and average speed of FTP-75 are 17.48 km and 34.1 km hr⁻¹, respectively.

129

130 2.2 Criteria pollutant sampling and analysis

All exhaust samples were taken from a constant volume dilution sampling system. The dilution system, designed to meet the specifications covered in the U.S. Federal Register (1986), was connected to a constant volume sampling system (Horiba, Japan) to dilute the exhaust flow rate to 9 m³

min⁻¹. Exhaust samples, taken at the end of the entire cycle of the FTP, were analyzed for CO, HC, NO_x and CO₂ by auto-monitors (HORIBA MEXA-9200). The background concentrations of those pollutants were also analyzed routinely and deducted from the test results. Background concentrations were about 2 ppm for CO, 6 ppm C for HC, 0.1 ppm for NO_x and 0.1% for CO₂. The analytical errors for CO, HC, NOx and CO₂ were approximately 0.01-0.08%, 0.01-0.17%, 0.02-0.06% and 0.25-0.38%, respectively.

142

143 2.3 Particle sampling

144 A dilution tunnel and a monitoring system were installed downstream of 145 the diesel exhaust to supply air for dilution and to measure particles and gas 146 pollutants. A cascade impactor (Graseby Anderson Mark III) with guartz filters (with diameters of 64 mm, Pallflex, Pall Corporation, USA) is installed 147 148 downstream of the dilution tunnel to collect size-resolved samples. These 149 impactors can effectively separate the particulate matter into eight size ranges 150 with the following equivalent cut-off diameters: 6.6-10.5 (stage 8), 4.4-6.6 151 (stage 7), 3.1-4.4 (stage 6), 1.9-3.1 (stage 5), 1.0-1.9 (stage 4), 0.6-1.0 (stage 152 3), 0.4-0.6 (stage 2), and <0.4 μ m (stage 1). A linear interpolation method was 153 employed to determine the mass concentration of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀. All quartz filters were baked at 900°C for 3h before use to ensure low concentrations of 154 155 organic compounds on the blank filter materials. In addition, polyurethane 156 foam (PUF) and an XAD-16 resin backup cartridge were utilized to collect 157 PAHs in the vapor phase, which is connected after the particle sampling 158 system.

159

160 2.4 Chemical analysis

161 2.4.1 Water-soluble ions

162 One-eighth of the particle filter sample of each stage was ultrasonically extracted for 2 h into 20 ml of deionized distilled water and passed through a 163 164 Teflon filter of 0.45 μ m nominal pore size. Ion chromatography (IC, Dionex, 120) was used to analyze the concentration of anions (Br, F, Cl, NO_2 , NO_3 , SO_4^{2-}) 165 and cations (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺). Anions were separated using an 166 167 IonPac AS 12A (4x200 mm) analytical column, an AG 14 guard column with a 168 10 μl sample loop, and an anion self-regenerating suppressor-ultra. A solution 169 of 2.7 mM Na₂CO₃/0.3 mM NaHCO₃ was used as an effluent at a flow rate of 1.5 ml min⁻¹. Cations were separated using an IonPac CS 12A (4×250 mm) 170 171 analytical column and a CG 14 guard column, with a 50 µl sample loop, and a 172 suppressor-ultra. А cation self-regenerating solution of 20 mΜ methanesulfonic acid was used as the eluent at a flow rate of 1 ml min⁻¹. The 173 174 recovery ranged from 87% (Na⁺) to 109%(F^{-}).

175 2.4.2 Elemental constituents in particulate matter

176 The one-eighth particle filter samples were mixed with a 20 ml acid 177 mixture (HNO₃:HClO₄:HF = 5:3:2, v/v) in a Teflon-lined closed vessel and 178 placed in a high-pressure digestion oven at 170°C for 5h. The digested acid 179 mixture was analyzed to determine the trace elements. A Perkin Elmer OPTIMA 3000 ICP-AES was used to determine the AI, Ca, Fe, K, Mg, Na, S, 180 181 Co and Zn concentrations. Additionally, a SCIEX Elan Model 5000 ICP-MS 182 manufactured by Perkin-Elmer was employed to determine As, Ba, Cd, Cr, Cu, Mn, Ni, Pb, Sb, Se, Sr and V concentration. Blank and duplicate samples 183 184 were also analyzed in this study.

185

186 2.4.3 Organic and elemental carbon in particulate matters

Particulate samples intended for carbon analysis were collected on quartz-fiber filters that had previously been heated in air at 900°C for 4h to lower their carbon blank level. The particle filter sample was stored below 4°C

190 until analysis. Total carbon (TC) and elemental carbon (EC) were measured 191 with a C/H/N elemental analyzer (Carlo Erba EA 1110). The procedure 192 performed in this study to determine particle carbon content is similar to the method described by Cachier et al. (1989). Samples one-eighth the amount 193 of each filter were heated in advance in a 340°C oven for 100 min to expel the 194 195 organic carbon (OC) content, then fed into the elemental analyzer to obtain the 196 EC content. Another one-eighth sample was fed directly into the elemental 197 analyzer without pre-treatment to obtain the TC concentration. EC could be determined by the difference of TC and OC. However, the EC fraction as 198 199 measured by this method can be overestimated, so the use of thermo-optical techniques is highly recommended by other studies (Turpin et al., 2000; 200 201 Schmid et al., 2001; Sillanpää et al., 2005).

202

203 2.4.4 Reference sample validation

204 To validate the analysis method, NIST Standard Reference Material SRM 205 1648 was used. About 10 mg of SRM 1648 and 1650a, which approximates 206 the composition of urban particulate matter and diesel particulate matter, 207 respectively, was used to examine the accuracy and reliability of the analysis 208 method. Al, As, Ba, Co, Cr, Cd, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, Na, Ni, Pb, S, Sb, Se, Sr, V, and Zn were recovered in the acceptable range (recovery: 82-108%). In 209 addition, the recovery of three water-soluble ionic species, F^{-} , CI^{-} , and SO_4^{2-} , 210 211 was 87-109%, which is in the acceptable range by the analysis method of ion 212 chromatography.

213

214 2.4.5 Polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)

The 16 PAH (polyaromatic hydrocarbons) and 10 nitro-PAH standards (purity of >99%) including Naphthalene (NaP), Acenaphthylene (AcPy), Acenaphthene (AcP), Fluorene (Flu), Phenanthrene (PA), Anthracene (Ant), Fluoranthene (FL), Pyrene (Pyr), Benzo(a)anthracene (BaA), Chrysene (CHR),

219 Benzo(b)fluoranthene (BbF), Benzo (k)fluoranthene (BkF), Benzo(a)pyrene 220 (BaP), Indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene (IND), Dibenzo(a,h)anthracene (DBA) and 221 Benzo(g,h,i)perylene (BghiP); and 2-Nitrofluorene (2-nFlu), 9-Nitroanthracene 222 (9-nAnt), 3-Nitrofluoranthene (3-nFL), 1-Nitropyrene (1-nPyr), 223 7-Nitrobenzo(a)anthracene (7-nBaA), 6-Nitrochrysene (6-nCHR), 224 1,3-Dinitropyrene (1,3-DnPyr), 1,6-Dinitropyrene (1,6-DnPyr), 1,8-Dinitropyrene (1,8-DnPyr) and 6-Nitrobenzo(a)pyrene (6-nBaP), were 225 226 purchased from Supelco Inc. (USA). Dichloromethane, n-hexane, acetone, 227 acetonitrile, silica gel (0.063-0.200 mm, activated at 150°C for 18 h prior to use), anhydrous sodium sulfate (baked at 400°C for 4 h prior to use) and other 228 reagents were pesticide analysis grade and/or residue analysis grade and 229 230 purchased from E. Merck, Germany.

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232 2.4.5.1 Sample extraction and cleanup

233 Combination samples of polyurethane foam (PUF) and XAD-16 resin 234 were extracted using the Soxhlet extraction procedure in an all-glass Soxhlet 235 system combined with an electro-thermal heating plate. The samples were 236 extracted for 16 h with 300 ml of mixed solvent (dichloromethane-acetonitrile 3:1, by volume) in a 500-ml flat-bottom flask. The filters (cut size was larger 237 238 than 1.9 µm) were mixed as one sample for consideration of low PAH content 239 in large particles to ensure that the concentration was higher than the method 240 detection limitation. Samples of quartz filter were extracted using sonication 241 with the above solvent three times (3×40=120 ml) for periods of 15 min. The 242 temperature of the sonication bath was maintained between 25 and 30°C. 243 The extracts from the various procedures were concentrated on a rotary 244 evaporator (EYELA, Japan) equipped with a water bath held at 40°C, and the solution volume was reduced to 1-2 ml. In the cleanup process, the residual 245 246 solution was introduced into a silica column (1 cm internal diameter and 25 cm 247 length), and the column was first eluted with 10 ml of n-hexane. About 2 cm

248 height of anhydrous sodium sulfate was packed at the fore-end of the cleanup 249 column to exclude water. The n-hexane fraction was discarded, and the 250 available fractions were then obtained by elution with 20 ml of dicloromethane-hexane 1:2 and then 30 ml of acetone-hexane 1:2. 251 The last two fractions were combined and concentrated just to dryness, then 252 253 quantified to 2 ml (PUF+XAD-16) or 1 ml (quartz filter) with solvent 254 acetone-hexane 1:2. The final solutions were analyzed with the gas 255 chromatography (GC) method.

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257 2.4.5.2. Gas chromatography method

258 PAHs were analyzed by GC-MS. The GC apparatus consisted of a Hewlett-Packard GC 6890 equipped with a mass (5973 N) and split/splitless 259 260 injector. An HP-5MS capillary column (5% phenyl methyl siloxane, 30 m, 261 internal diameter 0.32 mm, and film thickness 0.25 µm) was used. The injector program was set to 280°C at the pulsed splitless mode (12 psi for 1 262 min). The oven temperature program was 60°C for 1 min, 35°C min⁻¹ to 170°C, 263 8° C min⁻¹ to 210°C, 4°C min⁻¹ to 300°C, and 15°C min⁻¹ to 320, which was 264 265 held for 3 min. The carrier gas (99.9995% nitrogen) flow rate was held at 1.5ml 266 min⁻¹. MSD (mass selective detector) was operated in SIM (selected ion 267 monitoring) mode, with the electron energy at 70 eV, the EI (electron ionization) source held at 175 °C and the interface temperature at 300 °C. 268

To analyze the nitro-PAHs, a ⁶³Ni electron-capture detector (ECD) was 269 used for GC-ECD analysis under the same conditions as the PAH analyses. 270 The ECD temperature was 300°C, and the total gas flow rate was 30 ml min⁻¹ 271 272 (makeup plus column). In a preliminary investigation for the above conditions, 273 these PAHs and nitro-PAHs have a completely isolated chromatogram with 274 retention time ranging from 4.66 to 27.39 min. The mixed stock solution was 275 used to make five concentrations of mixed standard solution, which were required to establish calibration curves for PAH and nitro-PAH measurement. 276

277 The injection volume was 1µl for all samples. The spike was added to the blank sampling PUF+XAD-16 and quartz filter prior to extraction for recovery 278 279 analysis. The average recovery of PAHs based on QA/QC ranged from 68% (naphthalene) to 93% (pyrene) and 71% 280 (naphthalene) to 94% (Benzo(g,h,i)perylene) for the PUF+XAD-16 and quartz filter samples, 281 282 respectively. The nitro-PAHs had lower average recoveries for the PUF+XAD-16 and quartz filter samples, which ranged from 59% 283 (1,3-Dinitropyrene) to 87% (2-Nitrofluorene) and 61% (1,8-Dinitropyrene) to 284 285 89% (3-Nitrofluoranthene), respectively.

To validate the analysis method of PAHs in diesel particulate matter, NIST Standard Reference Material SRM 1650a was used. About 50 mg of SRM 1650a, which approximates the composition of diesel particulate matter, was used to examine the accuracy and reliability of the analysis method.

- 290
- 291 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
- 292

3.1 Exhaust gas characteristics

294 The diesel fuel characteristics included carbon: 86.0%, hydrogen: 12.4%, heat value: 10821 cal g⁻¹, aromatic content: 32.4%, sulfur content: 295 296 0.0341% etc. The fuel characteristics could affect the emission factors of particulate matter. CO, CO₂, NOx and HC for the entire cycle are summarized 297 298 in Table 2; some literature data are also included for comparison. The fuel 299 consumption of these light-duty diesel vehicles was in the range of 0.106-0.132 I km⁻¹. The average emission factors of light-duty diesel vehicles 300 were 0.171, 0.158, 1.395, and 1.735 g km⁻¹ for THC, NMHC, CO and NOx, 301 302 respectively. About 8% CH₄ contributed to THC.

In general, the PM emission factors are low for low-mileage vehicles, and the values increase with mileage accumulation and age. The average PM emission factor was 0.172 ± 0.071 g km⁻¹. High fuel consumption reflects high

306 CO₂ and high NOx emission. In addition, little methane was emitted from the 307 diesel exhaust. LDV-4 was the lowest reference weight, but high fuel 308 consumption (about 20-50% high) and high pollution emission, i.e., CO (about 1.5-3.9 times), NOx (about 2.4-4.0 times). Results indicated that weight was 309 310 not the main factor in high fuel consumption; engine characteristics are also 311 important (Ceviz and Akin, 2010). High fuel consumption could cause 312 incomplete combustion for high CO and high engine temperature for high 313 thermal NOx.

PM, THC, CO, and NOx concentrations were in the range of California test guidelines for 1998, which are based on the FTP driving cycle (Norbeck etal., 1998). The average concentrations of PM and THC were low in this study, which could be attributed to the age of the California vehicles (1977-1993). These vehicles were older than those used in our tests.

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320 **3.2 PM mass distribution**

321 Figure 1 shows the particle size distribution of the exhaust of light-duty diesel vehicles. Particulate matter concentration was 172 mg km⁻¹; 66% of 322 323 particulate mass fraction was less than 0.4 µm (near the range of ultrafine 324 particles). In addition, particulate size was 0.4-0.6, 0.6-1.0, and 1.0-1.9 µm 325 corresponding to mass fractions of 6, 8 and 6%, respectively. Other particle size fractions were less than 4%. About 80% of the mass fraction of diesel 326 particulate was less than 1.0 µm. Lin et al. (2008) indicated high mass fraction 327 328 at a particle size < 1.0 μ m, especially in the 0.166-0.52 μ m range, and low 329 mass fractions at particle sizes of > 0.52 μ m and < 0.166 μ m. Generally, the 330 high mass fraction was less than 0.4 µm for diesel vehicles; the smallest cut 331 size of the particulate sampler is about 0.4 μ m, which could not clearly describe the particle size distribution; it could be a limitation of this study. 332 333 Park et al. (2010) indicated that the mass concentration of diesel 334 nano-particles was in the range of 0.131-0.230 μ m. In addition, the average

sizes of particles emitted in diesel exhaust is higher than particles emitted in gasoline exhaust under similar operating conditions. The peak of particle concentrations for mineral diesel was never less 0.040 μ m; however, for gasoline engines, it could be as low as 0.020 μ m under most operating conditions (Gupta et al., 2010).

340

341 3.3 Particulate compositions

342 3.3.1 Carbon content

The emission factor of diesel particulate matter was about 172 mg km⁻¹. Based on the interception of particle size distribution, the emission factor of PM₁₀ was 167 mg km⁻¹ and PM_{2.5} was 151 mg km⁻¹. About 88% of particulate mass was less than 2.5 μ m in diesel exhaust. Generally, the percent of particulate mass less than 10 and 2.5 μ m was 99.4 and 95.1%, respectively (Norbeck et al., 1998), which was higher than the results of this study.

The carbon content was high, and its fraction was about 72% of particulate mass (**Table 3**). EC was about 66% of carbon content in particulate mass; the remainder was OC in PM_{2.5}. The fraction of EC was high compared to the results (EC and OC were almost the same level) of Norbeck et al., 1998. Generally, the EC content was higher than OC content in diesel particulate matter (Kleeman et al., 1999; Grieshop et al., 2006), which was similar to this study.

356

357 **3.3.2 Elemental compositions**

The emission factors of AI, S, Ca, and Fe were about 0.83-1.24 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5} and 1.07-1.77 mg km⁻¹ in PM₁₀, and the fractions of these elements were about 66-90% in PM_{2.5} and others were in PM_{2.5-10}. Sulfur content in fuel could affect the formation of new particles during engine combustion in exhaust gas. Sulfur could form sulfate after the cylinder gas, leaving as exhaust. In addition, sulfur can be a catalyst poison in the exhaust control

364 system of diesel motor vehicles. (Kozak and Merkisz, 2005). Therefore, the 365 fuel sulfur could affect the formation of nucleation particulate matter during the 366 combustion of diesel fuel (Schneider et al., 2005). Some studies have 367 indicated that high sulfur and the oxidation catalyst are mandatory conditions 368 for sulfate formation, which results in nucleation formation of particulate matter 369 for light-duty diesel vehicles (Maricq et al., 2002; Vogt et al., 2003).

K, Zn, Na, and Mg were in the range of 0.18-0.48 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5} and 0.29-0.82 mg km⁻¹ in PM₁₀. Some toxic elements, i.e., Ni, Cr, Pb, Cu, Cd, and As, ranged from 0.01-0.09 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5} and 0.02-0.22 mg km⁻¹ in PM₁₀. Others were trace, i.e., Sb, Sr, V, and Se (the emission factors were less than 0.04 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5}). The element content in PM could be attributed to the engine wear and tear, pipe erosion of the vehicle, and fuel compositions (Wang et al., 2003).

377

378 3.3.3 lonic species

Nitrate (0.82 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5} and 1.33 mg/km in PM₁₀), sulfate (0.69 mg 379 km^{-1} in PM_{2.5} and 0.85 mg km^{-1} in PM₁₀), ammonium (0.41 mg km^{-1} in PM_{2.5} 380 and 0.54 mg km⁻¹ in PM₁₀), nitrite (0.22 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5} and 0.49 mg km⁻¹ in 381 PM₁₀) were the major ionic species in diesel PM. Other ionic species were less 382 than 0.16 mg km⁻¹. Nitrate, nitrite and ammonium could be the result of the fuel 383 384 composition and high-temperature combustion causing thermal NOx formation. Sulfur content in diesel fuel could be an important reason for the presence of 385 386 sulfate in particulate matter (Maricq et al., 2002; Vogt et al., 2003). Shi and 387 Harrison (1999) indicated that sulfuric acid/water (emitted from the fuel sulfur 388 combustion) with subsequent condensation of organic substances in the diesel 389 exhaust and the other species (i.e., ammonia) could be involved in the 390 nucleation. In addition, Yu (2001) implied that chemiion could play a role in 391 diesel exhaust nucleation.

392

The ionic species contents were high in diesel PM compared to those

reported by Norbeck (1998). In addition, some alkali metals and alkali earth
metals (Na, K, Mg, and Ca) were less than 0.17 mg/km in diesel PM.

The determined composition fractions of $PM_{2.5}$ were taken from diesel exhaust shown as **Figure 2**. Carbon content was high in PM, with low elements (3.8%) and ionic species (1.6). In addition, the composition of about 22% of PM mass could not be determined; it is a limitation of this study.

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400 **3.3.4 PAHs**

401 The emission factors of PAHs are shown in Figure 3. Twenty-six PAHs including 16 PAHs and 10 nitro-PAHs were determined for diesel vehicle 402 exhaust. The toxicity and cancer effects of PAHs are of greatest concern after 403 404 exposure. The IARC identifies some PAHs to be probable human carcinogens 405 (Group 2A, i.e. Benz(a)anthracene, benzo(a)pyrene, Dibenzo(a,h)anthracene 406 etc.) and others to be possible human carcinogens (Group 2B, i.e. 407 Benzo(b)fluoranthene (BbF), Benzo (k)fluoranthene (BkF), 408 Indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene (IND), 2-Nitrofluorene (2-nFlu), 1-Nitropyrene (1-nPyr), 409 6-Nitrochrysene (6-nCHR), 1,6-Dinitropyrene (1,6-DnPyr), 1,8-Dinitropyrene 410 (1,8-DnPyr) etc.) (IARC, 1983 and 2010). In addition, some PAHs have been 411 classified in Group 3, a class of chemicals for which no human data is available 412 on carcinogenesis and there is only limited or inadequate data in animals (i.e. 413 Benzo(g,h,i)perylene (BghiP); 9-Nitroanthracene (9-nAnt), 3-Nitrofluoranthene (3-nFL), 7-Nitrobenzo(a)anthracene (7-nBaA), 1,3-Dinitropyrene (1,3-DnPyr), 414 415 6-Nitrobenzo(a)pyrene (6-nBaP) etc) (IARC, 1983 and 2010). Therefore, these 416 PAHs are of concern due to their volatilization in diesel exhaust, persistent 417 organic pollutants in the environment and toxicity in human health effect.

The emission factor of total PAHs was 3.62 mg km⁻¹ in this study; about 419 40% was in the gas phase and 60% in the particulate phase (20% was 420 determined in the particulate size > 1.9 μ m, and 10% was in the particulate 421 size less than 0.4 μ m). Naphthalene, acenaphylene, fluoranthene, fluorine,

422 anthracene, pyrene, acenaphthene and phenanthrene are dominant PAHs, and their emission factors were over 0.12 mg km⁻¹. Naphthalene and indeno 423 424 (1,2,3-cd) pyrene were dominant in the gas phase. We used the concept of toxic equivalent factor (TEF) to determine the carcinogenicity of chemicals. 425 426 TEF data was investigated by LaGoy and Nisbet's study. In many risk 427 assessments of complex pollutant mixtures, all carcinogenic PAHs have been 428 considered to be as carcinogenic as BaP (Marty et al., 1994). Sixteen PAHs 429 were transferred to TEF as BaP. Results indicated that the TEF of 16 PAHs was 0.24 mg-BaP km⁻¹ and the Dibenzo(a,h)anthracene and BaP was about 430 90% TEF in diesel exhaust. 431

432 The content of nitro-PAHs (shown as Figure 4) was low, with most less than 0.04 mg/km. The emission factors of 1,6-dinitropyrene, 2-nitrofluorene 433 and 1,8—dinitropyrene were in the range of 0.019-0.040 mg km⁻¹. The mass 434 435 fraction of nitro-PAHs in total PAHs was less than 4%. But some nitrated 436 1,6-Dinitropyrene, aromatic hydrocarbons--i.e., 1,8-Dinitropyrene, 437 6-Nitrochrysene, etc.--revealed high toxic potency, with the potential for 438 mutagenic and carcinogenic effects related to cell apoptosis of diesel exhaust 439 (Landvik et al., 2007).

Only PAHs and nitro-PAHs were determined in PM contributing to low mass fraction of organic carbon in this work. Generally, PM organic classes included the n-alkanes and acids from C_{13-30} , PAHs, oxygenated/sulfur containing PAHs, hopanes, steranes, methoxylated phenols and others (Mcdonald et al., 2004).

445

446 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

Six light-duty diesel vehicles were selected to determine the pollutant emission factor of exhaust and following the FTP-75 driving cycle in a dynamometer. Fuel consumption was 0.126 ± 0.022 l km⁻¹, and the high fuel consumption reflects high CO₂ and NOx emissions. The average emission factor of PM was

0.172±0.071 g km⁻¹, THC was 0.171±0.137 g km⁻¹, CO was 1.395±0.698 g 451 km⁻¹, and NOx was 1.735±1.127 g km⁻¹. Carbon content was about 72% of 452 particulate mass, and the EC portion was about 66% of carbon content, with 453 the remainder being OC. AI, S, Ca, and Fe were about 1.0 mg/km, and K, Zn, 454 Na, and Mg were less than 0.50 mg km⁻¹ in PM_{2.5}. Some toxic elements, i.e., Ni, 455 Cr, Pb, Cu, Cd, and As, were less than 0.1 mg km⁻¹ and others were trace; i.e., 456 Sb, Sr, V, and Se were less than 0.04 mg km⁻¹ in $PM_{2.5}$. Nitrate, sulfate, 457 ammonium, and nitrite were the major ionic species, and their emission factor 458 was 0.22 (nitrite)-0.82 (nitrate) mg km⁻¹ in diesel $PM_{2.5}$. The emission factor of 459 total PAHs was 3.62 mg km⁻¹, and their mass was about 60% in the particulate 460 Emission factors of naphthalene, acenaphylene, fluoranthene, 461 phase. fluorine, anthracene, pyrene, acenaphthene and phenanthrene were in the 462 range of 0.13-1.04 mg km⁻¹. The mass fraction of nitro-PAHs in total PAH was 463 464 less than 4%, and 1,6-dinitropyrene, 2-nitrofluorene and 1,8-dinitropyrene were in the range of $0.019-0.040 \text{ mg km}^{-1}$. 465

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688 Tables

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