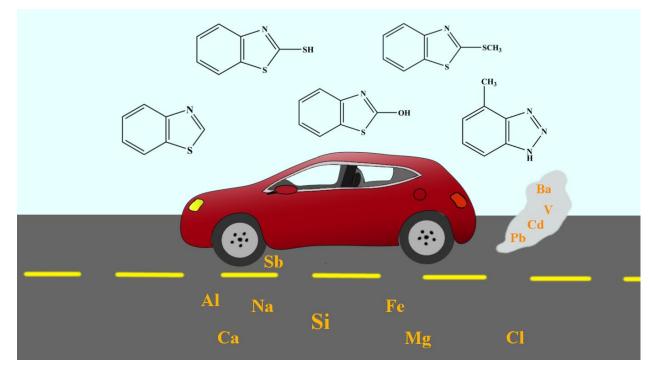
1	Benzotriazoles, Benzothiazoles and Trace Elements in an Urban Road Setting in
2	Trondheim, Norway: Re-Visiting the Chemical Markers of Traffic Pollution
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29	For submission to: Science of the Total Environment
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32 Graphical Abstract

33	HIGHLIGHTS

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34	• 79 chemicals were determined in a heavily trafficked urban road setting;	
35	• Concentrations between the studded and the non-studded tire season were presented	1;
36	• New chemical markers of metal corrosion, and tire tear or wear were proposed;	
37	• Benzotriazole-5-carboxyl acid was reported in the relevant environmental matrices:	
38	• Estimated daily intakes were calculated based on airborne particulate matter levels.	
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# 73 ABSTRACT

Road traffic emissions are known to contribute heavily to the pollution in urban environments. The 74 aim of this study was to establish specific traffic pollution markers in an urban road setting based 75 on the occurrence profiles of benzotriazoles, benzothiazoles and trace elements in road dust and 76 relevant matrices, including airborne particulate matter and core asphalt. Benzotriazoles and 77 78 benzothiazoles are high-production volume chemicals that are used as complexing and 79 anticorrosive agents for metals, act as vulcanizing accelerators for rubber materials, and possess 80 anti-freezing/anti-icing properties. In this study, six benzothiazoles (benzothiazole, 2-morpholin-81 4-yl-benzothiazole, 2-hydroxy-benzothiazole, 2-thio-benzothiazole, 2-methylthio-benzothiazole, and 2-amino-benzothiazole), seven benzotriazoles (1H-benzotriazole, 1-hydroxy-benzotriazole, 5-82 chloro-1H-benzotriazole, tolyltriazole, xylyltriazole, benzotriazole-5-carboxyl acid, and 5-amino-83 1H-benzotriazole), and 66 trace elements were determined in road dust samples from a sub-arctic 84 urban road setting in Norway, and seasonal occurrence profiles were assessed between the studded 85 86 and the non-studded tire season. The road dust was collected as suspended particulate matter in an aqueous phase with the introduced dust sampler in Scandinavia, the Wet Dust Sampler. The 87 concentrations of the sum of seven benzotriazoles ( $\Sigma(7)$ BTRs) and six benzothiazoles ( $\Sigma(6)$ BTHs) 88 89 in road dust ranged from 191 to 3054 ng/L and 93.4 to 1903 ng/L, respectively. To the best of our knowledge, 1H-benzotriazole and tolyltriazole are reported for the first time as suitable markers 90 91 of metal corrosion in vehicles. From the benzothiazole class, 2-thio-benzothiazole was found to be 92 a suitable marker of tire rubber particles, while its methylated derivative, 2-methylthiobenzothiazole, was found to be a marker of chemical leaching. In addition, different types of new 93 94 unused tires (summer, studded, and non-studded) were analyzed to assess their benzothiazoles and 95 benzotriazoles content. Based on the concentrations found for benzotriazoles and benzothiazoles

- 96 in airborne particulate matter, human exposure doses were calculated, and the estimated daily97 intake doses were found on the order of picograms per day.
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## 99 KEYWORDS

- 100 Benzotriazoles, Benzothiazoles, Metals, Dust, Markers, Pollution
- 101

# 102 ABBREVIATIONS

- 103 Benzothiazoles, BTHs; 2-mercaptobenzothiazole, 2-S-BTH; benzothiazole, BTH; 2-hydroxy-
- 104 benzothiazole, 2-OH-BTH; 2-morpholin-4-yl-benzothiazole, 2-M-BTH; 2-methylthio-
- 105 benzothiazole, 2-Me-S-BTH; 2-aminobenzothiazole, 2-ABTH; benzotriazoles, BTRs; 1H-
- 106 benzotriazole, BTR; tolyltriazole, TTR; 1-hydroxy-benzotriazole, 1-OH-BTR; benzotriazole-5-
- 107 carboxyl acid, BTR-COOH; 5-chloro-1H-benzotriazole, 5-Cl-BTR; xylyltriazole, XTR; 5-amino-
- 108 1H-benzotriazole, 5-ABTR; Lower Limit of Quantification, LLOQ; Limit of Detection, LOD;
- 109 Relative Standard Deviation, R.S.D.; Wet Dust Sampler, WDS; Particulate Matter, PM; Quality
- 110 Assurance/Quality Control, (QA/QC); High Density Polyethylene, HDPE; Airborne Particulate

111 Matter, APM.

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## 119 **1. Introduction**

The emissions of organic and inorganic chemicals from road traffic activity are established as the 120 main source of pollution in an urbanized road setting (Klint, 2001; Markiewicz et al., 2017; Pant 121 and Harrison, 2013). All vehicle tires contain a multitude of chemicals that are of potential 122 concern since a broad spectrum of those are released into the environment as they wear and tear 123 124 (Rogge et al., 1993). Thus, tire debris are significant sources of Zn, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Cd, and Pb (Thorpe and Harrison, 2008). It is documented that tire threads contain a high concentration 125 126 of Zn since ZnO is added as a vulcanization activator during the manufacturing process of tires 127 (Fukuzaki et al.; 1986). In addition, benzothiazoles (BTHs) are organic chemicals that also derive from tires (which account for 2/3 of the total rubber production) and their widespread occurrence 128 in the environment is well-documented (Liao et al., 2018). Of these, 2-mercaptobenzothiazole (2-129 S-BTH) is the main vulcanization accelerator used (Herrero et al., 2014; Leng and Gries, 2017), 130 while benzothiazole (BTH) and 2-hydroxy-benzothiazole (2-OH-BTH) are common breakdown 131 products of vulcanizing agents and antioxidants added to the rubber materials during 132 manufacturing (Reddy and Quinn, 1997). Moreover, 2-morpholin-4-yl-benzothiazole (2-M-133 BTH) is documented as an impurity in rubber (Reddy and Quinn, 1997), 2-methylthio-134 135 benzothiazole (2-Me-S-BTH) is a major methylation product of 2-S-BTH (De Wever and Verachtert, 1997) and 2-aminobenzothiazole (2-ABTH) has been widely used as a structural unit 136 137 in the synthesis of antioxidants and thermoplastic polymers (Sun et al., 2012). BTHs are also used 138 as corrosion inhibitors of metal surfaces and antifreeze agents in fluid systems of vehicles 139 (Asimakopoulos et al., 2013a). Benzotriazoles (BTRs) are another class of organic compounds 140 that are used as corrosion inhibitors for metal alloys and found widespread in environmental media 141 (Agafonkina et al., 2012; Breedveld et al., 2003; Cantwell et al., 2015; Downs, 1986; Felis et

al., 2016; Huntscha et al., 2014; Molloy and Partch, 2013; Park and Bell, 1984). Of these, 1H-142 benzotriazole (BTR) and tolyltriazole (TTR) are used as corrosion inhibitors for copper and brass 143 (alloy of Cu and Zn) (Cantwell et al., 2015), and it is reported that they are transformed aerobically 144 to 1-hydroxybenzotriazole (1-OH-BTR) and benzotriazole-5-carboxyl acid (BTR-COOH), 145 respectively (Felis et al., 2016; Huntscha et al., 2014). Other BTR derivatives such as 5-chloro-146 147 1H-benzotriazole (5-Cl-BTR) and xylyltriazole (XTR or 5,6-dimethyl-1H-benzotriazole) are also used as corrosion inhibitors (Agafonkina et al., 2012; Huntscha et al., 2014; Molloy and Partch, 148 2013), while 5-amino-1H-benzotriazole (5-ABTR) is applied for enhanced durability of adhesive 149 150 copper/epoxy joints (Park and Bell, 1984).

In 2008, the *Swedish National Road and Transport Research Institute* introduced the Wet Dust Sampler (WDS), a device for sampling particulate matter (PM) from road surfaces, regardless of particle size, with pressurized deionized water (**Jonsson et al., 2008**). The WDS is effective in collecting particulates, since it can collect 95 % of the PM according to performance tests (**Jonsson et al., 2008**). Currently, a limited number of WDS prototypes are distributed in Scandinavia, and Norway possess one prototype located at the Norwegian Public Roads Administration in Trondheim, Norway.

In this study, road dust samples were collected with the WDS from a central heavily trafficked urban road at Elgeseter street in Trondheim, Norway, with the objectives of establishing concentrations and profiles of 6 BTHs, 7 BTRs and 66 elements, and evaluate seasonal variations between the studded and the non-studded tire season. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that distribution coefficients ( $K_d$  values;  $L kg^{-1}$ ) were estimated in WDS-samples, and that BTR-COOH was documented in road dust and relevant environmental matrices. Studded tires are been used in Nordic countries for road safety purposes but are considered to have greater environmental impacts than the non-studded due to their significantly higher contribution to road
wear and emissions of particles (Gustafsson and Eriksson, 2015). Thus, new unused summer,
studded, and non-studded (winter) vehicle tires were analyzed to assess their BTHs and BTRs
content. In addition, core asphalt, bitumen, and airborne particulate matter (APM) sample(s) were
also collected from the urban road setting to investigate occurrence profiles and estimate human
daily intakes (EDIs) of BTHs and BTRs. This is the first study to establish traffic pollution markers
in an urban road setting based on concentration profiles of BTHs, BTRs, and trace elements.

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### 173 **2. Materials and methods**

### 174 **2.1. Chemicals and Materials**

Multielement stock solutions (*Elemental Scientific, Omaha, NE, U.S.*) that contained 66 elements, 175 including, Ag, Al, As, Au, B, Ba, Be, Bi, Br, Ca, Cd, Ce, Cl, Co, Cr, Cs, Cu, Dy, Er, Eu, Fe, Ga, 176 Gd, Ge, Hf, Hg, Ho, In, Ir, K, La, Li, Lu, Mg, Mn, Mo, Na, Nb, Nd, Ni, P, Pb, Pr, Pt, Rb, S, Sb, 177 178 Sc, Se, Si, Sm, Sn, Sr, Ta, Tb, Th, Ti, Tl, Tm, U, V, W, Y, Yb, Zn, and Zr were obtained. Two custom made sets of calibration solutions (CS; Elemental Scientific, Omaha, NE, U.S.) were 179 obtained for ICP-MS analysis from two independent producers. One of the sets was used as a CS 180 181 and the other for quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC). Standards of BTH ( $\geq$  97%), BTR ( $\geq$ 98%), XTR ( $\geq$  99%), TTR (4-methyl-1H-benzotriazole isomer;  $\geq$  90%), BTR-COOH (99%), 5-182 Cl-BTR (99%), 5-ABTR (Aldrich<sup>CPR</sup> grade), 2-S-BTH (97%), 2-OH-BTH (98%), 2-ABTH (97%), 183 184 2-Me-S-BTH (97%), 2-M-BTH (CPR), 1-OH-BTR ( $\geq$  97%) and BTR-<sup>2</sup>d<sub>4</sub> (10 µg/mL in acetone) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). Methanol (MeOH) and acetonitrile 185 186 (ACN) of LC-MS grade, and dichloromethane (DCM) of analytical grade were obtained from 187 Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Formic acid (98% v/v), hydrochloric acid (HCl), and ammonium

hydroxide were obtained from *Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany)*. Concentrated nitric acid
(UltraPure grade) was obtained by distillation with *Milestone SubPur (Sorisole, BG, Italy)*. Water
was purified with a Milli-Q grade water purification system (*Q-option, Elga Labwater, Veolia Water Systems LTD, UK*). Further detailed information concerning standard stock solutions and
other materials are presented in the *Supplementary data*.

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# 194 **2.2. Sample Collection**

The road dust, core asphalt and APM samples were collected from the urban road setting at Elgeseter street in Trondheim, Norway [63°25'10.5"N, 10°23'45.2"E; sub-Arctic region] during 2017. Elgeseter street is a heavily trafficked road with a daily average passing of 30.000 motor vehicles.

For the collection of road dust samples, two sampling campaigns were performed on two 199 different days on the same sampling site; on the 2<sup>nd</sup> of October that corresponds to the non-studded 200 tire season, and on the 23<sup>rd</sup> of November that corresponds to the studded tire season. These dates 201 were selected because the use of studded tires in Norway is strictly regulated by law from the 202 beginning of November to mid-April, while there are no limitations on the use of non-studded 203 204 (winter) tires (NRD, 2014). In each of the two campaigns, 16 road dust samples were consecutively collected from the same 15 m road stretch (1 sample per meter) near the pavement edge. The 205 206 collected road dust sample from the WDS consists of suspended particulate matter in an aqueous 207 phase, and therefore in this work referred to as "WDS-sample". The samples were collected in plastic bottles (high density polyethylene; HDPE) with a sample volume of approximately 2.1 L 208 209 per sample, and stored in the dark at 4°C.

Core asphalt columns with diameter of 10 cm and height of 50 cm were drilled out from 210 the road. The top layer of each core sample (3 cm) was obtained and stored in a water bath (at 4-5 211 °C). The cold-water bath simulates the saturated road conditions (raining conditions) that are 212 common in Norway and known to increase asphalt weathering (Klint, 2001). These core asphalt 213 samples were collected during the non-studded tire season to be subjected to the Asphalt Prall Test 214 215 (see Supplementary data) (Snilsberg et al., 2008). The suspended asphalt particles that were produced for every core asphalt sample by this process, were washed out and collected into HDPE 216 plastic bottles (Snilsberg et al., 2008); in this work referred to as "Prall-sample". 217

Fifty mL of the WDS- and Prall-samples were immediately filtered after collection for organic analysis. The particulate matter derived from filtration was dried in the fume hood at room temperature (20 °C) for 72-h, weighed, and thereafter stored at -20 °C until analysis. The obtained weight/amount of particulate matter was ~3.5-fold higher in the WDS-samples in the studded (median: 80.3 mg) than the non-studded season (median: 23.2 mg); more road dust is generated during the winter season (**Pant and Harrison, 2013**). The filtered dissolved phase of WDS- and Prall-samples were stored in the dark at 4 °C until analysis.

APM samples were collected during two consecutive sampling periods with the 225 226 instrumentation described in the Supplementary data. The first set of air filters was installed on the 9<sup>th</sup> of September, and the duration of the sampling was 10 days. The set was retrieved on the 227 19<sup>th</sup> of September, and thereafter, the second set of filters was installed. The duration of the second 228 sampling period was 14 days, and the filters were retrieved on the 2<sup>nd</sup> of October. In each sampling 229 campaign, 4 different APM filters (samples) were retrieved: PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>, volatile PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and 230 231 volatile PM<sub>2.5-10</sub>; and stored in the dark at -20 °C. During the sampling periods, the volatile PMs 232 were kept at 4°C, while the regular PMs were kept at 30°C.

Road asphalt is composed from mineral matter that is mixed together with bitumen, a crude 233 oil-based binding agent (Wess et al., 2004). The bitumen of the asphalt that is currently used at 234 Elgeseter street was provided by the Norwegian Public Roads Administration. Two triplets of new 235 tire samples that included a summer, studded (winter), and non-studded (winter) tire were obtained 236 for both light- (passenger) and heavy-(trucks) duty vehicles. In addition, a background soil sample 237 238 was collected from a forest location on the outskirts of the city, with the aim to establish background concentrations in the Trondheim area. Approximately 2 g from the soil sample was 239 dewatered by freeze-drying, thereafter ground into a fine powder using a mortar and pestle and 240 241 stored at -20 °C until analysis.

Overall, 32 (2 campaigns x 16 samples) WDS-, 4 Prall-, 8 APM, 6 tire, 1 bitumen, and 1 soil sample(s) were analyzed for BTRs and BTHs; 52 samples in total. For elemental analysis, 20 (2 campaigns x 10 samples) WDS-, 2 Prall-, 8 APM, and 1 soil sample(s) were analyzed; 31 samples in total.

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## 247 2.3. Sample Preparation for Organic Analytes in Dissolved Phase and PM

Extraction and isolation of target analytes from the environmental samples were performed by
Strata<sup>TM</sup>-X cartridges according to Asimakopoulos et al. (2013b) with minor modifications (see *Supplementary data* for details).

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## 252 2.4. Sample Preparation for Organic Analytes in Tires and Bitumen

A portion of 100 mg (±10 mg) of bitumen or tire sample was transferred into a 15 mL Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tube. The tire sample portions were removed with clean scissors and tweezers from the rubber surfaces of the tires and were dissolved with 1 mL DCM. Thereafter, 5 mL of acidified Milli-Q

water/MeOH solution (1:1 % v/v, adjusted with HCl solution to pH<3) were added. The bitumen sample was dissolved with 5mL DCM, and 100  $\mu$ L of bitumen solution was transferred into a new Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tube and 5 mL of acidified Milli-Q water/MeOH solution (1:1 % v/v, adjusted with HCl solution to pH <3) were added. Thereafter, sonication was performed for both matrices for 45 min, followed by centrifugation for 10 min. A volume of 1 mL of the supernatants was transferred for liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analysis.

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# 263 **2.5. Sample Preparation for Elemental Analysis in Dissolved Phase**

A portion of 10 mL of WDS- or Prall-sample was filtered into a 15 mL Eppendorf<sup>®</sup> tube using a syringe and a syringe filter. The filtered sample was acidified with purified concentrated nitric acid (pH<2) for conservation purposes and transferred for high-resolution inductively-coupled plasma mass spectrometry (HR-ICP-MS) analysis. The 2.5 mL extract that was obtained from each APM filter (see 2.4.) was diluted to 16.5 mL with Milli-Q water and acidified with nitric acid (0.1 M).

# 270 **2.6.** Sample Preparation for Elemental Analysis in Turbid Phase

A portion of 9 mL of unfiltered WDS- or Prall-sample was transferred to a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) vessel, and 2 mL pure concentrated nitric acid was added. A portion of 230 mg ( $\pm$ 10 mg) of soil sample was transferred to a PTFE vessel, and 9 mL of aqueous nitric acid (50% v/v) were added. Digestion of the samples was carried out in a high-pressure microwave system according to a step-temperature program. After the digested samples cooled down to room temperature, they were diluted with Milli-Q water and transferred for HR-ICP-MS analysis.

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## 278 2.7. LC-MS/MS Analysis

Instrumental analysis of BTRs and BTHs were performed according to Asimakopoulos et al. 279 (2013 a,b,c) with minor modifications. In the present study, two additional BTR derivatives were 280 added to the list of target chemicals (BTR-COOH and 5-ABTR). The chromatographic separation 281 was carried out using an Acquity UHPLC Thermo system (Waters, Milford, U.S.). The tandem 282 mass spectrometric system was a Xevo TQ-S, triple quadrupole mass analyser (QqQ), with a 283 284 ZSpray ESI function (Waters, Milford, USA). The LC column used was an Atlantis C18 T3 (150 mm  $\times$  2.1 mm, 3  $\mu$ m) connected to a Phenomenex C18 guard column (4.0 mm  $\times$  2.0 mm, 5  $\mu$ m). 285 286 The instrumental lower limits of quantification (LLOQs), and the limits of detection (LOD) of the 287 target analytes are presented in Table S1. Quantification of the target analytes was accomplished based on the internal standard method and with matrix-matched standard addition calibration 288 standards prepared by spiking target analytes into the specified matrices prior to extraction 289 (Asimakopoulos et al., 2013b). More details concerning the LC-MS/MS analysis are available in 290 Supplementary data (Tables S2-S4). 291

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## 293 **2.8. HR-ICP-MS Analysis**

Elemental analyses were performed using an *Element 2* instrument (*Thermo Finnigan model*; 294 295 Bremen, Germany). The samples were introduced using a combination of SC2 DX autosampler (with ULPA filter dust cover) and PrepFAST flow injection analysis system (*Elemental Scientific*, 296 297 Inc. Omaha, NE) with a total flow of 200  $\mu$ L/min. The instrument was equipped with a PFA-ST 298 nebulizer, spray chamber (PFA Barrel 35 mm), demountable torch, quarts standard injector, sample cone and skimmer cones. Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) was introduced into Argon (Ar) gas to avoid the 299 300 formation of oxides and provide enhanced sensitivity, especially for Se and As. The cool, auxiliary, 301 nebulizer and T-connection gas flow was set at 15.5, 1.10, 0.75, and 0.55 L/min, respectively. The LOQ of every element was set at the concentration where repeatability (RSD%) was 25 % (Table
S5).

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# **2.9.** Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC)

For the analysis, the contamination that arose from laboratory materials and solvents was evaluated 306 307 by the analysis of procedural blanks; and was found for all chemicals <LOD. For each batch of 25 samples analyzed for organics, one procedural blank was analyzed simultaneously, and a 308 calibration check standard was injected after every 20 samples as a check for drift in instrumental 309 310 sensitivity. In addition, a methanol blank was injected after every two samples as a check for carryover of target analytes between samples. For the elemental analysis, accuracy and reproducibility 311 of the ICP-MS instrument was ensured by measuring 9 replicates of certified calibration solutions 312 (see Supplementary data for details), and the frequent analysis of the customized reference soil 313 material GBW 07408 (GSS-8) (Chinese National Center for Standard Materials). Instrumental 314 315 repeatability of measurements was established for every individual sample by scanning it three consecutive times. 316

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### 318 **2.10. Data Analysis**

LC-MS/MS data were acquired with the *IntelliStart, MassLynx* and *TargetLynx* software packages (*Waters, Milford, U.S.*). HR-ICP-MS data treatment was performed with the built-in software of the *Element 2* instrument (*Thermo Finnigan model; Bremen, Germany*). Excel (*Microsoft, 2010*) and SPSS Statistics (*IBM, version 25*) were used for general descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation analysis. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed by the statistical software *R* (*https://www.R-project.org; 2018*). Data analysis did not include censored data (i.e., nondetects; NDs). The statistical significance was set at p < 0.01 (unless stated < 0.05). Log-transformed concentration values were used for the correlation analysis and PCA. Prior to the analysis, data columns with missing values were excluded while the data were centered and scaled.

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### 329 **3. Results and discussion**

### **330 3.1. Profile of BTRs and BTHs in WDS-samples**

All target organic chemicals were determined in the WDS-samples. The concentrations in PM 331 (ng/g dry weight (d.w.)) and the dissolved phase (ng/L) are given in Tables S6 and S7, 332 respectively. The total concentrations (sum of PM and dissolved phase) are given in Table 1 and 333 were found to be ~2 and ~3 fold higher in the studded than the non-studded season for BTRs and 334 BTHs, respectively. These differences correspond well to the ~3.5- fold higher particle amounts in 335 the WDS-samples in the studded season. However, the concentration profile differences between 336 seasons can be partially attributed to the different underlying environmental and weather 337 338 conditions between seasons (e.g., colder temperatures and significantly decreased sunlight during 339 the studded season). Different environmental conditions denote by-default differences in photochemical transformation processes, hydrolyses, and microbial degradation pathways 340 (AMAP, 2017). The median concentrations of the derivatives increased significantly in the 341 studded season, except for 5-ABTR and 2-S-BTH that demonstrated a decrease; for 2-S-BTH the 342 decrease was slight. In the non-studded season, 2-ABTH and 5-ABTR accounted for 13 and 42 % 343 344 of the  $\Sigma(6)$ BTHs and  $\Sigma(7)$ BTRs, respectively, while in the studded season their percentage decreased to 5 and 8 %, respectively. It is documented that 2-ABTH is rapidly degraded in the 345 presence of Cl (Nika et al., 2017), suggesting a similar degradation pathway for 5-ABTR. 2-OH-346 347 BTH and TTR were the predominant chemicals in both seasons. The total median concentrations

348	of BTR and TTR were 38.0 and 277 ng/L in the non-studded season, and 80.1 and 759 ng/L in the
349	studded season, respectively. BTR was used in the past as a corrosion inhibitor (for Cu) in
350	windshield fluid, patented by Shell Oil Co (1976), but there are reports that it is currently also in
351	use (Trico Products, 2016). Thus, it is unknown whether both BTR and TTR are used in anti-
352	icing/de-icing formulations for roads or/and windshield fluids (for vehicles) in Norway, but the
353	strong correlation of those during the studded season (r=0.99, p<0.01; <b>Table S8</b> ) suggests common
354	pollution sources or/and applications.
355	
356	(Insert Table 1)
357	
358	3.2. Occurrence of BTRs and BTHs in Prall-samples, Bitumen and Soil
359	All target organic chemicals except BTH and XTR were determined in Prall-samples (Table S9).
360	The concentrations in PM (ng/g d.w.) and the dissolved phase (ng/L) are given in <b>Tables S10</b> and
361	S11, respectively. The three significantly most abundant chemicals in Prall-samples are (in
362	decreasing order): 2-OH-BTH > 2-Me-S-BTH > TTR. In bitumen, only 2-S-BTH was determined
363	(1.86 ng/g d.w.), while in soil, only three chemicals were detected, namely, 2-S-BTH (3.55 ng/g
364	d.w.), 2-Me-S-BTH (1.78 ng/g d.w.), and 5-ABTR (28.2 ng/g d.w.). Therefore, the contribution of
365	soil and bitumen to the organic chemical content of Prall-samples was insignificant. The detected
366	BTHs and BTRs in Prall-samples potentially derive from either direct addition, impurities in other
367	asphalt additives such as mineral adhesives (amines and amides) and recycled tire granules
368	(Markiewicz et al., 2017; Llompart et al., 2013) or contamination during asphalt manufacturing
369	and installation. To our knowledge, only mineral adhesives have been added in the asphalt used at
370	Elgeseter street.

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373 samples K<sub>d</sub> values were calculated as the ratio of the concentration of each compound in particulate phase 374 (ng/kg), to the concentration of target compound in dissolved phase (ng/L). K<sub>d</sub> values are given in 375 376 **Table 2** for those chemicals with detectable concentrations in dissolved and particulate phases. These values show a trend in distribution, even though they demonstrate high uncertainties, as they 377 represent median values. Both BTRs and BTHs, except from 2-Me-S-BTH, presented significantly 378 379 higher affinity for particulates in the WDS-samples of the studded- than the non-studded season. In the non-studded season, 2-S-BTH demonstrated an ~3-fold increase in affinity for particulates, 380 while 2-Me-S-BTH demonstrated a decrease of the same level of magnitude. Furthermore, 2-S-381 BTH, 2-Me-S-BTH, 2-ABTH and TTR presented higher affinity to the particulates of Prall- than 382 WDS-samples. In addition, BTRs and BTHs demonstrated higher affinity to the road and asphalt 383 384 dust than wastewater sludge, as shown by comparing our  $K_d$  values with previous work on wastewater sludge (Stasinakis et al., 2013). 385 386 387 (Insert Table 2) 388 389 **3.4. BTRs and BTHs content in Tires** 390 All target BTHs, XTR and 1-OH-BTR were determined in tires (Table S12). The rank order of  $\Sigma(6)$ BTHs (average) concentrations in tires was (in decreasing order): non-studded (37 644) > 391 392 summer (16675) > studded (10265 ng/g). Interestingly, the BTH content was ~4-fold higher in

3.3. Distribution coefficient values (K<sub>d</sub>; in L kg<sup>-1</sup>) for BTRs and BTHs in WDS- and Prall-

the non-studded than the studded winter tires. BTH and 2-S-BTH concentrations were found

higher in all tires for light-duty vehicles, while 2-OH-BTH was found higher in all tires for heavy-394 duty vehicles. 2-S-BTH was the derivative with the higher abundance in tires, followed by BTH 395 396 and 2-OH-BTH; the predominance of 2-S-BTH agrees with previous literature (Herrero et al., 2014). 2-Me-S-BTH concentration was found 2-fold higher in the non-studded tires of heavy- than 397 light- duty vehicles. 2-M-BTH was detected only in the summer and studded tires for heavy-duty 398 399 vehicles. 1-OH-BTR was detected in half of the samples, while XTR was detected in traces (<1 ng/g) in summer and studded tires for light-duty vehicles. Our results confirm that the composition 400 401 of the tires found in vehicles is highly dependent on the type of the vehicle for which they are designed to be used (Markiewicz et al., 2017). 402

403

### 404 **3.5. Profile of BTRs and BTHs in APM samples**

All BTHs, except 2-M-BTH, BTR and TTR were detected in the APM samples (Table S13). The 405 highest amounts were found for 2-OH-BTH (302) and BTR (4065 pg) in the PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> and volatile 406 407 PM<sub>2.5</sub> filters, respectively. The results indicate the presence of BTRs and BTHs in PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> <sub>10</sub>. The rank order of  $\Sigma(7)$ BTRs amounts in APM samples was (in decreasing order): Volatile PM<sub>2.5</sub> 408 (4065) > Volatile PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> (1125) > PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> (50.1 pg) > PM<sub>2.5</sub> (not detected). The rank order of 409 410  $\Sigma(6)$ BTHs (average) amounts in APM samples was (in decreasing order): PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> (200) > Volatile  $PM_{2.5}$  (188) >  $PM_{2.5}$  (91.5) > Volatile  $PM_{2.5-10}$  (36.1 pg). The findings indicate higher volatility for 411 412 BTRs than BTHs; consequently, BTHs are more prone to re-suspend/bind to road dust than BTRs. 413

### 414 **3.6.** Trace Elements in soil, WDS-, Prall-, and APM sample(s)

- The minerals in the coarse aggregate at Elgeseter street mainly consist of plagioclase (Na(AlSi<sub>3</sub>O<sub>8</sub>)
- 416 and Ca(Al<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub>)), quartz (SiO<sub>2</sub>) and amphibole (Mg-Fe silicate) (Erichsen et al., 2004). The

elements that were found in higher concentrations in the soil (Table S14), WDS-, and Prall-417 samples (Table S15) were: Si, Al, Ca, Na, Fe and Mg; supporting the statement of Pant and 418 419 Harrison (2013), that the crustal dust is a main contributor to road dust. The concentrations of the crustal elements were significantly higher in the studded season, supporting that the winter-sanding 420 of the road, and the use of studded tires increases substantially the road surface weathering 421 422 (Schauer et al., 2006). The concentrations of all elements in filtered WDS- and Prall-samples, which contain only fine particles ( $< 0.45 \mu m$ ), were significantly lower as previously reported in 423 424 the literature (Table S16) (Schauer et al., 2006). In line with this, the coarse APM samples 425 demonstrated higher concentrations than the fine APM samples (Table S17). Most elements demonstrated higher concentrations in the volatile PM<sub>2.5</sub> and volatile PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> filters, indicating 426 considerable element volatility. As, Cu, Pb, S, Sn, Ni, P, W and Ti demonstrated equal or higher 427 concentrations in both the PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>2.5-10</sub> filters compared to their respective volatile filters, 428 429 indicating a higher tendency to re-suspend/bind to road dust. The concentration of Cl in WDS-430 samples was ~80-fold higher in the studded season due to the salt addition on the road surface during winter. This Cl concentration was correlated with Na (r=0.79; p< 0.05), Mg (r=0.92; p< 431 (0.01), and Ca (r=0.78; p< 0.01) concentration in the studded season since NaCl is added to 432 433 prevent/remove ice, while CaCl<sub>2</sub> and MgCl<sub>2</sub> are used as de-icing and dust binding chemicals at Elgeseter street. The concentration of Sb, which is a major component in brake dust (Fukuzaki et 434 435 al., 1986; Schauer et al., 2006), was similar in the non-studded (median: 10.6 ng/mL) and studded 436 (median: 11.3 ng/mL) season, indicating similar pollution sources independent of season. Ni and 437 V have previously been reported in exhaust emissions due to engine oil combustion and were 438 found ~ 4-5-fold higher in the studded season (Pant and Harrison, 2013). In addition, the 439 elements that are present in gasoline and diesel gas, including, Br, Zn, V, Cd, Pb, Ba, Cu, Mn and Sr (Cheng et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2005), demonstrated higher concentrations in the studded season. These increased concentrations in the studded season are attributed to the increased fuel consumption during winter due to colder temperatures. Numerous correlations were identified herein between the total concentrations of trace elements, BTRs and BTHs in all WDS-samples (independent of season) (Table S18); these correlations were attributed to BTRs and BTHs forming complexes with elements, particularly metals (Fatch et al., 2017).

446

### 447 **3.7. BTR and TTR as markers of metal corrosion**

Al, Cu, Fe, and Zn demonstrated strong positive correlations with Cl in the WDS-samples in the 448 studded season: Al (r=0.93; p<0.01); Cu (r=0.95; p<0.01); Fe (r=0.91; p<0.01); and Zn (r=0.97; 449 p < 0.01). The 4 metals, namely, Al, Cu, Fe, and Zn are reported in abundance in the brake linings, 450 chassis, wheels, and shocks of vehicles (Cole, 2017; Thorpe and Harrison, 2008) and it is 451 documented that road salt contributes to their corrosion (Kogel et al., 2006). Al, Cu, Fe, and Zn 452 453 demonstrated also strong positive correlations with BTR and TTR in both the non-studded and studded seasons (r=0.84-0.99, p<0.01), while BTR and TTR demonstrated strong positive 454 correlations with Cl (r>0.96, p<0.01) only in the studded season. These findings indicate that BTR 455 456 and TTR are valuable markers of metal corrosion that derive from vehicles.

457

# 458 **3.8.** Principal Component Analysis: "Fingerprinting" the sample matrices

PCA was applied to identify the patterns and associations within specific data sets. The points that are proximal in the loading plots denote similar variability in their data. On the basis of the data sets that were analyzed herein, 4 different PCAs were performed, and the scores and loadings plot for each PCA are presented combined in a biplot. Each variable can be depicted with an arrow, and the longer the length of the arrow, the greater the contribution of the variable to a givencomponent.

465

466 <u>Data Set I</u>-Total concentrations of  $\Sigma(7)BTRs$  and  $\Sigma(6)BTHs$  in Tires, WDS-, APM, and Prall-467 samples. For the creation of this data set we used pairwise sums of BTRs and BTHs concentrations, 468 and it was possible to group together the samples from different matrices (**Figure S1**). However, 469 only the tires were clearly separated from the other matrices on the basis of BTRs and BTHs 470 content. The loadings demonstrate differences in the applications or/and pollution sources of BTRs 471 and BTHs even though they are both anticorrosive/antifreeze agents with similar structures.

472

Data Set II-Total concentrations of Trace Elements in WDS-, APM, and Prall-samples. In this data 473 set, not only there was a clear separation of road dust between the studded and non-studded season, 474 475 but also between the road dust and APM samples (Figure S2). However, the Prall-samples that 476 were collected in the non-studded season were grouped together with the WDS-samples of the same season. This finding supports that elements from road dust, or other sources, can be 477 incorporated into the asphalt (road surface), as previously stated by **Thorpe and Harrison (2008)**. 478 479 From the PCA loadings it was demonstrated that due to the complexity of interactions between sources of elemental input in the urban road setting, it is not possible to pinpoint with certainty 480 481 specific markers of traffic pollution by assessing only the elements. However, one or more 482 element(s) formed 6 distinct groups that denote positive (co)variance (within each group): (1) B, Cl, Au; (2) Zn; (3) Cd; (4) S; (5) Ag, Ba, Br, Na, Cu, K, Ti, As, Bi; and (6) Ta. In group (1), B and 483 484 Cl are highly volatile elements, while Au is moderately volatile, and these variables contribute 485 positively to the APM samples (Benz et al., 1999). In group (2), Zn was previously proposed as a

tracer for tire wear, but it is not reliable when used solely, since it is emitted by several other 486 sources (crustal and anthropogenic) (Thorpe and Harrison, 2008). The elements Zn, S, Ba, Na, 487 Cu, K, Ti, and As (from groups 3, 4 and 5) derive from car brake dust (among other documented 488 sources), and according to the biplot, these variables contribute positively to the WDS-samples in 489 the studded season denoting higher metal wearing. The strong positive covariance of Zn and S in 490 491 the WDS-samples in the studded season denotes the presence of rubber particles in road dust (Schauer et al., 2006). The major source of Bi is from impurities of refining Pb, Cu, Sn, Ag and 492 493 Au ores (http://www.rsc.org/periodic-table/element/83/bismuth). In group (6), Ta is solely 494 separated from the other elements due to its uniquely high corrosion-resistance (Hampel, 1961). Thus far, numerous research studies have concluded to use simple diagnostic ratios to pinpoint 495 specific pollution sources of road traffic. For instance, the Cu:Sb concentration ratio is commonly 496 applied in an attempt to pinpoint metal surface wear from vehicles (e.g., brake wear) (Thorpe and 497 Harrison, 2008). Nonetheless, in the biplot, the loadings of Cu and Sb did not present the strongest 498 499 contributions, meanwhile they were found correlated with numerous other elements that provide similar contributions (e.g. Ti, Sr, Li) (Figure S2). 500

501

502 *Data Set III-Total concentrations of BTRs*, *BTHs and Trace Elements in WDS- and Prall- samples*. 503 By combining the inorganic and organic target chemicals in this dataset, new markers of traffic 504 pollution were identified based on positive covariances. In this data set, pairwise sums of BTRs 505 and BTHs concentrations were also used, and there was a clear separation in the score-plot between 506 the road dust and the Prall-samples (**Figure 1**).

507

508

(Insert Figure 1)

510	As in data set II, one or more target chemicals(s) formed 6 distinct groups: (1) 2-S-BTH, 2-ABTH,
511	$\Sigma(7)$ BTRs, Sb; (2) Sn, TTR, Bi, Pb; (3) BTR, 5-Cl-BTR, Mo; (4) Th, Br, Cr, Nb, Ba, Sr, K,
512	Σ(6)BTHs, 2-OH-BTH, Cl, Na; (5) 2-Me-S-BTH, 2-OH-BTH, Cl, Na; and (6) Ta. In group (1), 2-
513	S-BTH was strongly associated to Sb, since Sb is derived from brake wear (Thorpe and Harrison,
514	2008), while 2-S-BTH is the most abundant chemical found in tires (Table S12). In group (5), 2-
515	Me-S-BTH, the methylation product of 2-S-BTH, was strongly associated with Cl (and Na) which
516	is in abundance in the studded season. The conversion of 2-S-BTH to 2-Me-S-BTH is promoted
517	aerobically through bacteria in soil, sediments, and water isolates (De Wever and Verachtert,
518	1997), but also favored in the presence of alkyl (and acid) halides under specific oxidizing
519	environmental conditions. Narkhede et al. (2007) reported that under laboratory conditions,
520	energy-assisted alkylation was favored when 2-S-BTH reacted with alkyl halides on a setting
521	where $SiO_2$ and $Al_2O_3$ are in abundance (eq. S1). Thus, due to the highly reactive nature of the free
522	thiol group of 2-S-BTH, and the high abundance of the methyl radicals ( $CH_3$ ·) in the environment,
523	it can be hypothesized that 2-S-BTH partially converts to 2-Me-S-BTH (among other products)
524	once leached from the tires into the environment. This statement is supported by the occurrence
525	data, where 2-S-BTH and 2-Me-S-BTH concentrations were found (on average) in tires between
526	5038-13807 and 111-197 ng/g, respectively (Table S12), and in WDS-samples between 9.25-12.6
527	and 41.2-126 ng/L, respectively (Table 1); the concentrations of 2-Me-S-BTH were higher in the
528	road dust, but significant lower than 2-S-BTH concentrations in tires. Consequently, 2-Me-S-BTH
529	functions as a marker of tire chemical leaching, while 2-S-BTH serves as a marker for particle
530	emissions (physical tear/wear) from the tires. 2-ABTH was the derivative that demonstrated the
531	highest positive covariance to 2-S-BTH (Figure 1). In addition, in group (5) a co-variance of 2-

532 OH-BTH with Cl (and Na) was identified, denoting possible chemical leaching of hydrolyzed BTH 533 from tires. The presence of 2-OH-BTH indicates an aerobic degradation pathway of BTH (**Felis** 534 **et al., 2016**). In groups (2) and (3), there is an association of BTRs with Sn, Bi, Pb, and Mo that 535 denotes a likelihood for metal abrasion, while in group (4) the association of  $\Sigma$ (6)BTHs and 2-OH-536 BTH to the elements of this group could not be directly linked to either tire or/and metal abrasion. 537

Data Set IV- Concentrations of BTRs, BTHs and Trace Elements in the dissolved phase of WDS-538 539 and Prall- samples. Compared to the previous data set that was based on the total concentrations, 540 this data set was based on the dissolved phase concentrations found in WDS- and Prall-samples. Again, pairwise sums of BTRs and BTHs concentrations were used. The fine particulate matter 541  $(<2 \mu m)$  concentrations of WDS- and Prall-samples that were represented by the dissolved phase 542 concentrations, provided a clear separation of seasons on the score plots between the studded and 543 non-studded WDS-samples (Figure S3). To gain a better understanding of the loadings, we have 544 545 divided the variables into 18 distinct groups: (1) Fe; (2) Ti; (3) Ce, La, Nd, Y, Tb, Dy, Gd, Sc; (4) Pr; (5) Cu, Pb, Zr, Th, Cr, Ho; (6) Ni, Bi; (7) P, Zn; (8) Cd; (9) V; 10) Eu, Sr; 11) Ca, Si, Al, U, S; 546 (12) Na, Ga, Tl, Σ(6)BTHs, K, Cl, Br, Co, Mn; (13) Rb, Mg, Cs; (14) Li; (15) B; (16) W; (17) As, 547 548 Mo; and (18) Sn, Ba, Sb,  $\Sigma(7)$ BTRs. Groups (1) to (4) demonstrated a strong contribution to the Prall-samples, which indicates crustal element inputs. Group (6) contributed equivalently to the 549 550 Prall- and WDS-samples (in the non-studded season) denoting that Ni and Bi are possibly 551 attributed from both crustal abundance and traffic emissions. V contributed negatively to the Prallsamples, attributing this element to anthropogenic activities rather than crustal origin. Si, Ca, Na, 552 553 Mg, Al, S and Sr that are included in groups (10-13) are dust re-suspension markers [5] and 554 demonstrate a positive contribution alongside with Li, B and W, to the WDS-samples in the

555	studded-season. $\Sigma(6)$ BTHs are associated with the elemental dust re-suspension markers indicating
556	tire wear particles re-suspension. In group (17), the weak contribution of As with the strong
557	contribution of Mo indicates car brake lining wear (Thorpe and Harrison, 2008). $\Sigma(7)BTRs$ were
558	positively associated with Sn, Sb, and Ba loadings that are mainly linked to brake wear.
559	
560	3.9. Human Exposure Assessment to BTRs and BTHs through inhalation
561	The estimated daily intake (EDI; pg/kg-bw per day) of BTRs and BTH through road dust was
562	calculated based on the concentrations found in the APM samples. The exposure estimation for
563	BTRs and BTHs was performed on the basis of equation S2; a simplified version of the equation
564	used previously for BTHs by Zhang et al. (2018).
565	
566	(Insert Table 3)
567	
568	Children are assumed to weigh 15 kg and adults 70 kg, while the inhalation rate was set to 7.6 and
569	20 m <sup>3</sup> /day for children and adults, respectively (Zhang et al., 2018). The BTHs concentrations
570	reported here were significantly lower (pg range) than those reported in an urban road setting in
571	China, where they were found in the ng range (Zhang et al., 2018). The use of APM samples for
572	EDI through inhalation was considered a realistic exposure scenario. However, the
573	pharmacokinetics of BTRs and BTHs are thus far not well known; we assumed that BTRs and
574	BTHs are totally inhaled by humans. Our findings suggest that BTRs demonstrate higher EDIs
575	than BTHs; and BTRs concentrations are significantly higher in $PM_{2.5}$ than $PM_{2.5-10}$ (volatile),

### 578 **4. Conclusions**

In summary, all target BTHs and BTRs were determined in the WDS-samples, thus indicating 579 ubiquitous occurrence of these chemicals in road dust. This is the first study to report BTR and 580 TTR, as suitable markers of metal corrosion, while 2-thio-benzothiazole and 2-methylthio-581 benzothiazole, as suitable markers of tire rubber particles and tire chemical leaching, respectively. 582 583 Our findings suggest the need for further field studies to assess the effects on chemical markers of traffic pollution in an urban road setting during different weather conditions. Exposures of BTRs 584 585 and BTHs must be further studied in humans in order to provide an insight into the pharmacokinetics of BTRs and BTHs. The association of concentrations with underlying 586 environmental conditions between seasons was tempered in this study by the small sample size, 587 and, therefore, no further conclusions were drawn in this regard. The results of this study provide 588 baseline information on exposures to select environmental pollutants from a heavily trafficked 589 590 sub-Arctic road setting.

591

#### 592 Supplementary data

593 Details showing standards, materials and laboratory procedures. Tables showing the parameters 594 for the analysis, the analytical method performance characteristics, Pearson correlations among 595 target chemicals, and concentrations of target chemicals found in different dissolved phase and 596 PM matrices. Figures showing the PCA biplots. Equations showing the transformation conditions 597 of 2-S-BTH to 2-Me-S-BTH and the calculation of the EDI values.

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	WDS-samples from the Non-Studded Season				WDS-samples from the Studded Season					
Analytes	Median (ng/L)	Average (ng/L)	Min (ng/L)	Max (ng/L)	Detection rate	Median (ng/L)	Average (ng/L)	Min (ng/L)	Max (ng/L)	Detection rate
BTH	30.7	35.5	9.74	66.4	10/16	127	127	40.5	203	9/16
2-S-BTH	12.7	12.6	6.79	19.0	16/16	8.83	9.25	1.72	19.4	16/16
2-OH-BTH	197	232	26.6	522	16/16	692	729	245	1404	16/16
2-ABTH	42.4	52.0	27.0	162	16/16	52.8	59.1	26.9	134	16/16
2-Me-S-BTH	35.3	41.2	16.8	116	16/16	125	126	77.4	195	16/16
2-M-BTH	1.33	1.92	0.06	9.21	16/16	3.54	3.47	1.72	6.61	16/16
$\Sigma(6)$ BTHs	303	361	93.4	801	16/16	939	1006	360	1903	16/16
BTR	38.0	41.7	20.8	70.8	16/16	80.1	82.1	43.4	135	16/16
TTR	277	335	157	1239	16/16	759	761	386	1260	16/16
XTR	4.14	4.12	4.14	4.12	1/16	1.88	14.1	1.21	86.3	7/16
BTR-COOH	23.4	27.8	8.95	52.9	16/16	10.4	14.1	4.14	29.2	16/16
5-Cl-BTR	4.36	7.17	1.11	37.9	16/16	7.19	8.51	3.43	19.8	16/16
1-OH-BTR	4.43	6.68	0.77	22.2	10/16	51.1	67.3	14.5	213	16/16
5-ABTR	256	266	92.5	471	9/16	78.8	536	40.2	2251	5/16
$\Sigma(7)$ BTRs	529	557	191	1308	16/16	977	1106	473	3054	16/16

**Table 1.** Total Concentrations (ng/L; sum of the dissolved phase and PM) of BTHs and BTRs in WDS-samples.

	WDS-samples from the non-studded season		WDS-samples from	the studded season	Prall-samples	
Analytes	K <sub>d</sub> (L/Kg)	$\pm \text{SD}^*$	$K_d (L/Kg)$	±SD	$K_d (L/Kg)$	±SD
BTH	n.c.#	n.c.	93.9	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.
2-S-BTH	1953	1178	635	753	4114	2689
2-OH-BTH	23724	23231	450	4782	1077	1789
2-ABTH	642	286	174	80.1	931	409
2-Me-S-BTH	1355	2449	3005	3078	30122	24055
2-M-BTH	n.c.	n.c.	567	398	528	178
BTR	2608	895	368	174	929	n.c.
TTR	1682	610	295	118	4383	2183
XTR	n.c.	n.c.	523	442	n.c.	n.c.
BTR-COOH	5033	3653	417	253	n.c.	n.c.
5-Cl-BTR	2728	7598	2219	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.
1-OH-BTR	n.c.	n.c.	524	366	n.c.	n.c.
5-ABTR	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.	n.c.

 $\label{eq:Table 2. Distribution coefficient values, K_d \ (average; L \ kg^{-1}) \ for \ BTRs \ and \ BTHs \ in \ WDS- \ and \ Prall-samples$ 

\*SD: Standard Deviation; <sup>#</sup>Not calculated.

APMs	PM <sub>2.5</sub>		Volatile PM <sub>2.5</sub>		PM <sub>2.5-10</sub>		Volatile PM <sub>2.5-10</sub>	
Group population	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults	Children	Adults
$\Sigma(6)$ BTHs	0.16	0.09	0.33	0.19	0.35	0.20	0.06	0.04
$\Sigma(7)$ BTRs	-	-	7.15	4.03	0.09	0.05	1.98	1.12

Table 3. Estimated Daily Intake (pg/kg-bw/day) of BTHs and BTRs

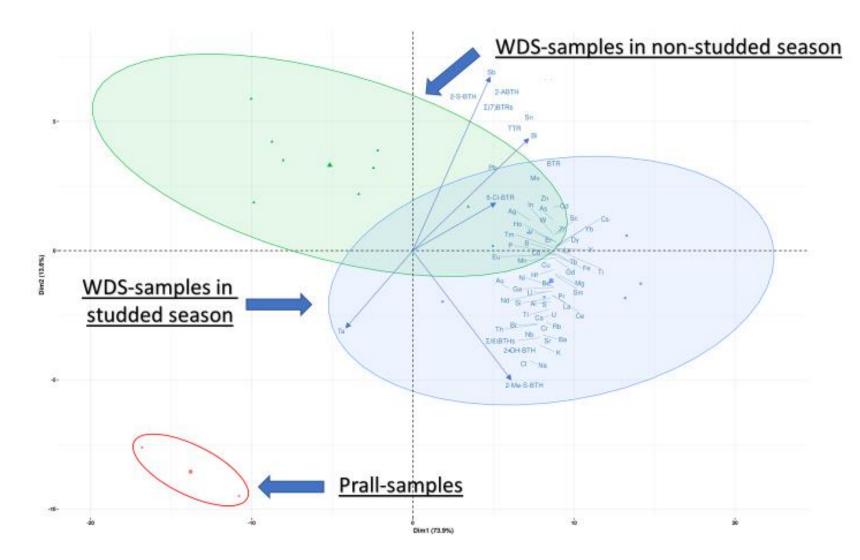


Figure 1. Principal component analysis biplot of classification of matrices based on the concentrations of BTRs, BTHs, and trace elements.