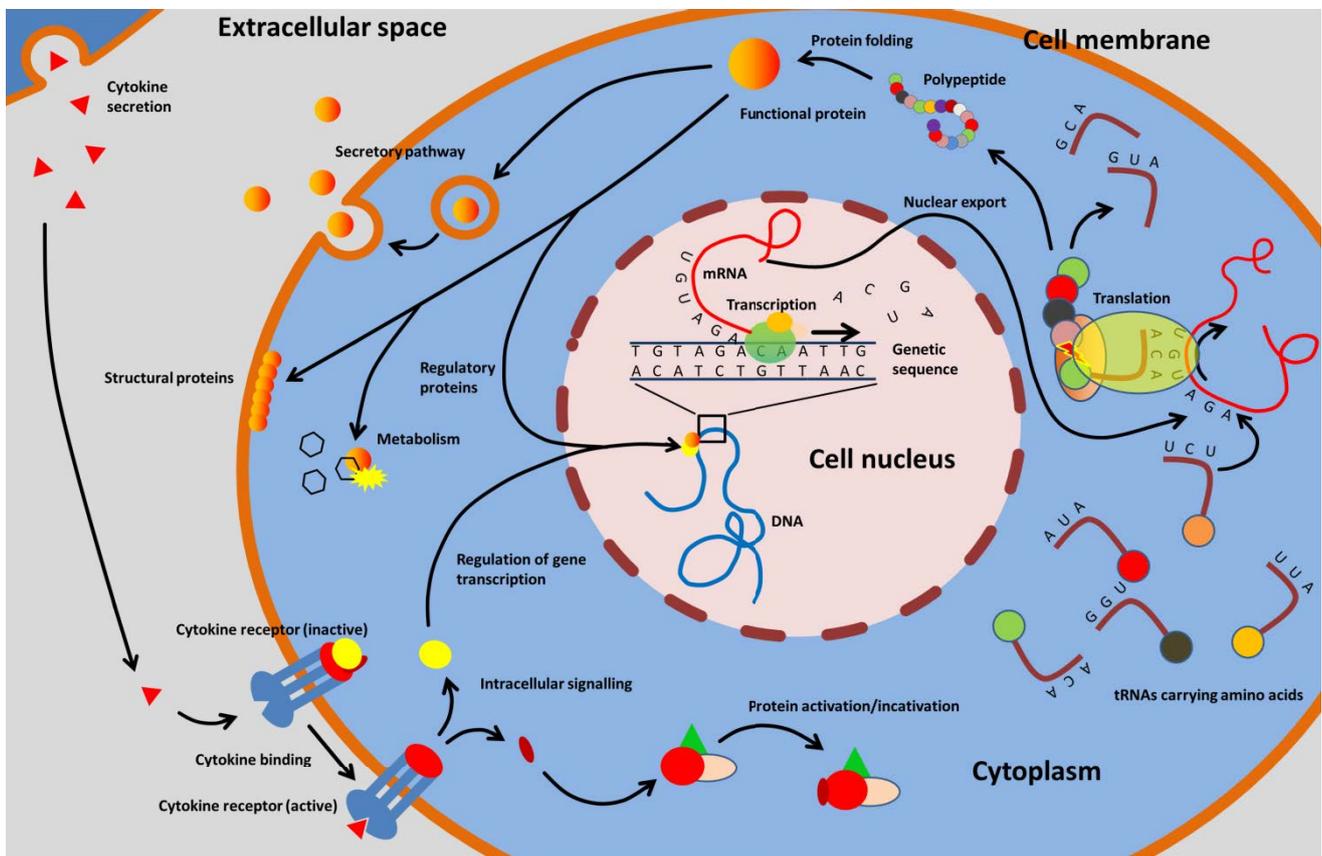


Biological background and term definitions

Cellular signaling, gene transcription and protein translation

A simplified scheme of cellular signalling as it occurs for example in course of pro-inflammatory stimulation: A cell (top left) secretes signal molecules, for example pro-inflammatory cytokines (red triangles) in response to certain stimulus. The cytokines diffuse through the surroundings and eventually bind to specific cytokine receptors on the surface of other cells. Cytokine binding activates the receptor which triggers an intracellular signal cascade, for example by stimulating the release of proteins from the intracellular domain of the receptor. Transcription factors (yellow sphere) are intracellular signal proteins that upon activation enter the cell nucleus where they bind to the genetic material. Binding of transcription factors regulates the expression of the genes they bind to, for example by activating their transcription. During the process of transcription, the genetic sequence stored in form of double stranded DNA is used by protein complexes as a template for the production of single stranded mRNAs (red string). mRNAs are exported to the cytosol, where they serve as templates for the synthesis of proteins, called translation. During translation, an mRNA sequence is translated into a sequence of amino acids, the building blocks of proteins. Amino acids are provided bound to transfer RNAs (tRNAs). tRNAs are identified by a codon, a sequence of three units, that identifies a given tRNA as the carrier of specific amino acid. tRNAs and mRNA bind to the protein synthesis machinery, where pairing of the codon on tRNAs with three units of the mRNA sequence assures that the correct tRNA has bound and that therefore the correct sequence of amino acids is built. The result of translation is a polypeptide, a chain of amino acids with a specific sequence. The functional proteins are formed by folding the polypeptides into three dimensional structures (orange sphere). The functional proteins are the molecular machines whose activity/function depends on their amino acid sequence. Among other things, proteins may enter the secretory pathway and serve for example as signal molecules like cytokines, they may have structural functions (building block of the cell), they may have metabolic activity and they may have regulatory functions, as shown here for example they may be transcription factors that regulate their own production.



AhR

The aryl hydrocarbon receptor is an intracellular protein that binds various xenobiotic compounds. Upon binding, the AhR translocates into the nucleus where it acts as a transcription factor (a protein that regulates gene transcription). The AhR controls the transcriptional activity of wide variety of genes whose gene products (the proteins they encode) are among other things involved in immunomodulation, anti-oxidant responses and the detoxification of xenobiotics.

The activation of AhR signaling indicates the presence of bioactive xenobiotics, (as for instance many exhaust components), that may affect a cell adversely and therefore trigger a battery of defence mechanisms. It is an early event in response to various xenobiotics and the final outcome of its activity depends on the environmental/biological context.

Ames-test

The Ames test is a standard approach for testing chemical and physical stimuli for their potential to damage DNA and hence act genotoxic. It relies on bacteria in which the his-operon, a group of genes needed for the biosynthesis of the amino acid histidine, was rendered nonfunctional by the insertion of point mutations. Since histidine is vital, his⁻ bacteria rely on the presence of histidine in the culture medium. When cultures of his⁻ bacteria are treated with a mutagen, mutations in the bacterial genome may occur, some of which may re-establish the functionality of the his-operon. The resulting revertant (his⁺) bacteria are able to synthesize histidine, hence they will grow in histidine free culture medium. Culturing exposed and non-exposed bacteria separately in histidine free medium and comparing their growth rate yields a direct measure for the genotoxicity of the test-substance.

The Ames-test is a highly sensitive, robust and efficient tool for genotoxicity assessment and it is highly accepted among toxicologists. It is important to note however, that since the test relies on bacteria, which because of various reasons may not be equally susceptible to a given genotoxin as human cells, their relevance for human toxicology may be questioned. The decision to still use this test in the present study was based on the lack of alternative (human cell based) approaches that, given the limited availability of bio-lab equipment at the exhaust gas control station, would have been suitable.

Apoptosis

A highly regulated process during which cells eliminate themselves from the surrounding tissue. Apoptosis occurs in response to sever stress as for example irreparable damages to the cellular genetic material, but also during normal development when cells that are not needed any more have to be eliminated. Pro-apoptotic stimulation can be detected on the gene expression level, on the protein level and morphologically by the presence of condensed cell nuclei and condensed.

CYP1A1

Is the gene encoding for Cytochrome P450 1A1, a protein that is involved in the detoxification of xenobiotic compounds. The protein oxidizes non-polar molecules in order to render them more polar, hence more water soluble and thereby easier to handle for the cell. *CYP1A1* transcription is activated by the aryl-hydrocarbon receptor (AhR).

Cytokine

Cytokines are signal molecules (proteins), *i.e.* they serve as means of communication between cells. They are secreted by certain cells in response to specific stimuli and by binding to specific receptors on the surface of another cell they convey a defined signal that triggers according responses.

Dendritic cells

Immune cells that engulf, process and present foreign material such as for example bacteria. By presenting the processed material to other immune cells, they trigger responses of the adaptive immune system. Dendritic cells are present in high numbers beneath the epithelium of the respiratory tract.

DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid)

Is the molecular material on which cells store their genetic information. DNA is basically made up of four molecules, the nucleotides (abbreviated A, G, C and T), that are linked together in highly specific orders, thereby providing the DNA- or the genetic sequence. This sequence serves as blueprint for the production of proteins, which are the molecular machines that provide all biochemical and regulatory functions in a cell.

GAPDH

Is the gene encoding for glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase, a protein involved in sugar metabolisms. Because of its continuous and high expression levels in all cell types it is frequently used as an internal standard for semi-quantitative measurement of gene expression.

Gene

The genome of living organisms stores the information that is necessary for the production of proteins – the molecular machines performing (almost) all biochemical, regulatory and structural functions - in form of DNA. For each protein an organism is able to synthesize, there is a gene in its genome, a string of DNA (usually several thousands of base-pairs long), that encodes for the protein. Proteins consist of amino acids linked to a string in a highly specific sequence and the sequence in which the building blocks of DNA (the four nucleotides A, T, G and C) are arranged in a gene can be translated into the sequence of amino acids in a protein.

Genotoxicity

The property of a chemical or physical stimulus to damage a cell's genetic material (DNA). Damages in a cell's DNA can result in the introduction of mutations in the genetic sequence, with the possible result of cancer formation.

Glutathione

Glutathione (GSH) is an anti-oxidative molecule that is continuously produced by any cell. It serves as scavenger for reactive oxygen species, which are present in the environment and are continuously formed by the cellular metabolism. ROS may oxidize any cellular components such as DNA, proteins and lipids, thereby rendering them non-functional. Anti-oxidative molecules such as GSH provide a substrate for ROS and thereby protect cells from oxidative damage. Under circumstance of severe oxidative stress, a cell is not able to replenish its GSH pool, GSH quantification of GSH therefore gives an estimate on the level of oxidative stress a cell suffers from.

GSR

Is the gene encoding for the protein Glutathione reductase, a protein needed for the restoration of the reduced form of glutathione GSH.

HMOX1

Is the gene that encodes for heme-oxygenase 1, a protein involved in the regulation of the cellular redox-balance. It acts via the production of biliverdin and bilirubin, both of which have potent antioxidant properties. The production of the protein, that is, the transcription of the gene HMOX1 is (among other stimuli) induced by oxidative stress.

IDO-1

Is the gene encoding for the protein Indoleamine 2,3-dioxygenase 1, which catabolizes the amino acid tryptophan. Its biological functions are so far poorly described, but it has been shown that it modulates the properties of immune cells.

IL8

Is the gene encoding for the cytokine interleukine-8 (IL-8).

LDH

Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) is a soluble protein that is frequently used as a marker for cytotoxicity. This use does not originate from its molecular function, which has no connection to cytotoxicity (it is involved in sugar metabolism), but relies on its high abundance in all cell types and its enzymatic activity that allows detecting it easily. Under normal circumstances, LDH is found exclusively inside a cell and its presence in the surroundings indicates leaky cell membranes. Membrane disintegration is a key marker of severe physical and/or chemical distortions of a cell.

Macrophages

Are immune cells, primarily responsible for engulfing and digesting foreign substances (e.g. bacteria, particles), and cellular debris. Upon discovering foreign material, they are involved in the onset of inflammatory responses by secreting pro-inflammatory cytokines. Macrophages are present in high numbers on the epithelium of the respiratory tract.

mRNA (messenger ribonucleic acid)

Is a molecule that serves as an intermediate in the process of protein production from genetic sequences. Proteins consist of small molecules (amino acids) that are linked together in highly protein-specific sequences. The blueprint of these sequences is stored in the cellular genome in form of DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid), which basically consists of a long sequence of four different molecules (nucleotides).

For each protein an organism is able to produce, there is a gene present in the genome providing the needed sequence. For the synthesis of a protein, the cell needs to copy the genetic sequence and convert it to the according protein sequence. In order to do so, in a process called gene transcription, cells produce copies of the genetic sequence in form of ribonucleic acid (RNA). These copies (called messenger RNAs, mRNAs) are then used as template for protein synthesis, a process called translation, in which three building blocks of an mRNA are translated into one building block (an amino acid) of a protein.

NFE2L2

Is the gene encoding for the transcription factor NFE2-related factor 2, a protein that (upon activation in the cytosol) binds to DNA and activates the transcription of a variety of genes. NFE2-related factor 2 signaling affects various processes, including the responses to oxidative stress, pro-inflammation, proteome maintenance and xenobiotic detoxification.

NQO1

Is the gene encoding for NAD(P)H dehydrogenase [quinone] 1, a protein that is involved in the detoxification of xenobiotics. The protein acts by conjugating molecular moieties to oxidized xenobiotics, which renders them more polar and easier to handle for the cell. It also has anti-oxidative functions. *NQO1* transcription is activated by the aryl-hydrocarbon receptor (AhR).

Nucleus

The structure in a cell where the genetic material (DNA) is stored.

Oxidative stress

An imbalance in the redox-equilibrium (the ratio of oxidized to reduced molecular moieties) in a cell, more precisely the presence of too high amounts of oxidizing species such as ROS. Oxidative stress is usually directly or indirectly induced by environmental conditions.

Pro-inflammation

Inflammation is a part of complex response of an organism to defend itself from harmful stimuli such as for instance pathogens. Pro-inflammation is the state of induction of inflammation and is characterized for example by the presence of pro-inflammatory cytokines.

Real-time RT-PCR

Reverse-transcriptase polymerase chain-reaction is a method for the analysis of gene expression, the process in which information encoded on genes is used to produce proteins. Real-time RT-PCR measures the abundance of specific mRNAs, intermediate molecules that provide the building plan of a protein. Information on gene/protein function (e.g. used against oxidative stress) and information about gene activity indicates cellular responses to certain stimuli.

SOD2

Is the gene encoding for superoxide dismutase 2, a protein which converts superoxide radicals to oxygen and hydrogen peroxide and thereby acts against oxidative stress. The production of the protein is rapidly induced by oxidative stress i.e. by a decrease in the concentration of cellular reducing equivalents.

TNF

Is the gene encoding for the cytokine tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α).

UGT1A6

Is the gene encoding for the protein UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1-6 that is involved in the detoxification of xenobiotics. The protein acts by conjugating molecular moieties to oxidized xenobiotics, rendering them more polar and easier to handle for the cell. *UGT1A6* transcription is activated by the aryl-hydrocarbon receptor (AhR).

Xenobiotic

Chemical compound that in its structure/composition cannot or only in very low amounts be found in living organisms (or ecosystems) under normal circumstances.

Programme PEAR : Résumé synthétique :

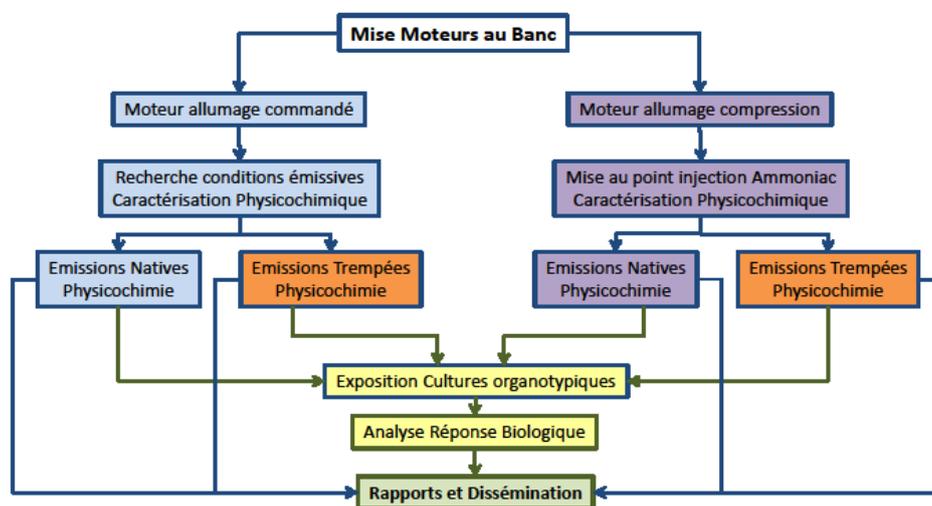
Dans ce programme nous avons étudié principalement les polluants dérivés de l'azote générés au cours des processus de combustion et de dépollution mis au service de la production d'énergie mécanique dans le domaine des transports. Parallèlement aux oxydes d'azote qui ont été très étudiés au cours de ces dernières années, deux polluants le NH_3 et le nitrate d'ammonium émergent avec la mise en œuvre de nouveaux systèmes catalytiques, que ce soit sur les moteurs à allumage commandé comme sur les moteurs à allumage par compression qui sont l'objet des tâches suivantes.

Moteur à allumage commandé : Caractérisation des niveaux de NH_3 derrière la catalyse trois voies en fonction des conditions d'exploitation d'un moteur à allumage commandé au banc

Moteur à allumage par compression : Modélisation de dysfonctionnement SCR (Catalyse sélective à l'Urée) sur moteur diesel avec filtre à particules au banc par dopage à l'ammoniac

Simulation du phénomène de trempe à l'échappement pour caractériser les teneurs en nitrate d'ammonium produit dans un échappement Diesel

Métriologie toxicologique avant et après trempe des émissions de moteurs à essence et diesel



Organigramme Technique Projet PEAR

Les codes couleurs utilisés dans cet organigramme se réfèrent à ceux utilisés dans le diagramme de Gantt
couleurs encadrement pour le partenaire P1 et P2 les couleurs de remplissage se rapportant aux tâches

En conclusion de ce travail, il apparaît clairement que les émissions de NH_3 sont susceptibles de se produire à l'échappement de véhicules équipés de moteurs thermiques. Nous avons démontré que les conditions de richesse de combustion sur les moteurs à allumage commandé sont un facteur important déterminant les émissions de NH_3 par les moteurs à allumage commandé. Ces émissions peuvent atteindre des concentrations de plusieurs centaines de ppm de NH_3 sur des transitoires de richesse en cycle mais aussi en conditions stabilisées pour de très faibles élévations de moins de 0.01% par rapport à la stœchiométrie (richesse 1). Ce polluant qui n'est actuellement pas réglementé pour les émissions automobile est considéré actuellement comme ayant une origine essentiellement agricole, mais risque de devenir un polluant à surveiller car potentiellement en émergence en proximité du trafic automobile.

Nous savons par ailleurs que des émissions de NH_3 sont susceptibles de se produire lors d'un dysfonctionnement de la catalyse sélective à l'urée, pour des conditions d'injection excessive d'urée, ou lors d'une inhomogénéité d'arrosage du pain de catalyseur par l'urée injectée. Dans ces conditions, il y a un risque d'émission conjointe de NH_3 et d'oxydes d'azote dont le NO_2 . Nous avons clairement montré à l'occasion de ce travail que le NH_3 était capable de réagir avec le NO_2 pour former un aérosol de nitrate d'ammonium.

La réactivité du NH_3 , **qu'il soit** émis par les moteurs à allumage commandé ou par les moteurs diesel équipés d'un dispositif de SCR, avec le NO_2 conduit potentiellement à la formation d'un aérosol secondaire de nitrate d'ammonium qui dans certaines conditions d'hygrométrie (hygrométrie relative élevée) et de température (températures inférieures à 10-15°C) et de pressions partielles est susceptible de contribuer aux PM_{10} et $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mesurées par TEOM/FDMS dans l'atmosphère. **L'émergence d'émissions de NH_3 par le trafic automobile risque donc de contribuer significativement aux particules atmosphériques en proximité du trafic.**

En matière de réponse toxicologique, le nitrate d'ammonium a été étudié en milieu professionnel et ne semble pas induire de pathologie spécifique. Cependant, par inhalation, le nitrate d'ammonium peut être un irritant des voies respiratoires. Le nitrate d'ammonium ne fait pas l'objet de VME ni de VLCT (source INRS).

Dans les conditions expérimentales que nous avons testées dans ce programme, Compte tenu des concentrations modérées (30 et 150 ppm en gaz bruts et au maximum une dilution de 10%, les **concentrations maximales d'exposition ont été de 15 ppm de NH_3 , la VLCT du NH_3 étant de 100 ppm de NH_3 pour 15 minutes chez l'homme (source INRS).**

Nous avons cependant observé un faible impact du NH_3 sur la viabilité cellulaire, que le NH_3 soit utilisé en gaz pur, ou en mélange avec des émissions de moteurs à combustion.

Le refroidissement rapide des émissions de moteur diesel lors du passage à travers l'échangeur thermique a permis une diminution de l'ordre de 150°C des émissions. Cette condition n'a montré que des effets d'ampleurs marginales. Il faut cependant noter que ce dispositif n'a pas permis d'atteindre la température ambiante température à laquelle la formation de particules de nitrate d'ammonium aurait été plus favorisée.

Recommandations

Les résultats de ce travail, montrant l'émergence du NH_3 et du nitrate d'ammonium comme polluants primaires du trafic automobile, doivent servir de point de départ à l'élaboration d'une stratégie de surveillance et de suivi des concentrations atmosphériques de NH_3 d'une part et de caractérisation de l'éventuelle formation de nitrate d'ammonium en proximité du trafic automobile par rapport au fond urbain, cela même en dehors des événements majeurs de pics de pollution printaniers au cours desquels de fortes quantités de nitrate d'ammonium d'origine agricole sont importés.

La question de l'impact sanitaire du nitrate d'ammonium devrait faire l'objet de travaux approfondis. En effet, sa contribution potentiellement importante lors d'évènements de pollution particulaire et les faibles impacts toxicologiques connus pour cette substance doit faire poser la question de sa prise en compte dans la métrologie des PM_{10} et $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pour les seuils d'information et d'alerte de la population. En effet, le nitrate d'ammonium n'était pas pris en compte par la métrologie TEOM avant 2009, ni par la mesure des fumées noires antérieures au TEOM, métrologie sur laquelle reposent essentiellement les travaux épidémiologiques sur l'impact sanitaire des particules. Il faut aussi rappeler que les seuils de concentrations particulières (PM_{10} et $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) préconisés par l'OMS et la communauté européenne n'ont pas été revus en 2009 avec l'introduction de la métrologie par TEOM-FDMS qui inclut la fraction semi-volatile pour laquelle le nitrate d'ammonium représente un fort contributeur. Ces seuils ont de plus été sévérés en 2011 sans prise en considération de ces évolutions métrologiques, ce qui pose une réelle question de pertinence en matière sanitaire de la non continuité de la métrique PM_{10} et $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.

Summary of the PHD-Thesis:

Diesel Engine Emissions and their Toxicity in Dependency of Engine Equipment

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Abstract

In order to reduce diesel engine emissions and to increase engine efficiency, new exhaust after-treatment systems, fuels, fuel additives, lubrication oils and oil additives are continuously developed, which may result in profound changes in the final exhaust composition and hence exhaust toxicity. This bears the risk of implementing new technologies which, whilst reducing the overall emissions of diesel engines, increase their toxicity. In order to prevent this, toxicological testing of exhaust toxicity needs to be performed prior to putting new technologies on the market, which requires efficient and reliable toxicological screening tools.

In the research project EngToxDi, a novel approach for exhaust toxicity assessment was used for testing diesel engine emissions for their toxicity *in vitro*. The aims of the project were i) to gain insight into how the toxicity of diesel engine emissions is influenced by a selection of settings at the engine such as exhaust after-treatment systems, different fuel types, different lubrication oils and fuel additives and ii) to generate an extended data package that allows estimating the efficiency, reproducibility, sensitivity and specificity of the experimental approach.

The experimental approach was to compare the toxicity measured for exhaust produced under defined reference engine settings to the toxicity measured for exhaust that was generated by the same engine, but under different settings, *e.g.* by installing a diesel particle filter or by fuelling the engine with biodiesel.

The project focused on the toxicity of emissions produced in urban centers. Therefore, a passenger diesel car, representative for a large fraction of the current diesel vehicle fleet in Switzerland, was used as a test-vehicle. As a biological test system, an *in vitro* model of the human epithelial airway barrier was used, based on the fact that the respiratory tract is the main site of interaction between the human body and air pollutants such as diesel engine emissions.

The results show that exhaust filtration by a non-catalyzed DPF, the use of particle filter additives, and the use of biodiesel may contribute to the reduction of exhaust toxicity. This does not apply however, if pure biodiesel is used and if the fuel additive is used without particle filter. Lubrication oil additives and NO₂ emissions appeared to have a minor effect on acute exhaust toxicity.

BioToxDi/EngToxDi was a collaboration between the Bern University of Applied Sciences (AFHB), the Adolphe Merkle Institute at the University of Fribourg (AMI), the Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI) Villigen and the Swiss Federal Laboratories for Materials Science and Technology (EMPA) in Dübendorf. As major

partners, AFHB provided technical know-how as well as the test-vehicle, the exposure system and the location for the exposure experiments and AMI provided the biological and toxicological know-how and the necessary biological laboratories. PSI and EMPA provided knowledge about exhaust chemistry and atmospheric chemistry and performed detailed chemical analyses of collected exhaust fractions. PSI further provided an exhaust aging chamber needed for experiments with aged exhaust samples.

Project outline

As depicted in Table 1, the project was made up of five basic work packages.

In work package 0, biological responses to a defined reference-setting (Ref) were measured in order to obtain a benchmark to which the results of all further tested settings could be compared.

In subsequent work packages (1, 2 and 4) a single parameter of the reference engine setting were changed. According to the original project matrix, this included:

- The installation of a non-catalyzed diesel particle filter (DPF).
- The use of alternative fuels. Two setups were tested: 100% rapeseed methyl-ester (RME, B100) and a blend of 20% RME in fossil (Ref) diesel (B20).
- The reference oil (high SAPS) in the oil circuit was exchanged for low- and zero SAPS lubrication oils (Low SAPS, Zero SAPS).
- The artificial addition of NO₂ (50ppm) to the exhaust (NO₂).
- The use of a fuel borne catalyst (FBC). As catalytically active fuel additive Satacen[®]3, developed by Innospec Inc. was used.
- The aging of the exhaust in a mobile aging chamber (Ageing).

Work package 3 was reserved for repetitions, cross-combinations and new tasks and its contents depended on the outcome of previous experiments. Repetitions of the DPF, B100, B20 and NO₂-exposure experiments

Table 1: Project outline. List and description of the engine settings tested for their effect on exhaust toxicity compared to the reference-setting (Ref).

Work package	Fuel ¹	Lubrication oil ²	Exhaust after treatment	Other
0	Ref	Ref	---	---
1	Ref	Ref	Silicium carbide DPF (non-catalyzed)	---
	B20	Ref	---	---
	B100	Ref	---	---
	Ref	low SAPS ³	---	---
	Ref	zero SAPS ³	---	---
2	Ref	Ref	---	50ppm NO ₂
3	B20/B100	---	---	---
		---	---	50ppm NO ₂
	Ref + 2% v/v DEA oil	DEA oil ⁴	---	---
	Ref + 2% v/v Ref oil	Ref	---	---
4	Ref	Ref	---	Exhaust ageing
	Ref + 40ppm Satacen [®] 3 ⁵	Ref	---	---
	Ref + 40ppm Satacen [®] 3 ⁵	Ref	Silicium carbide DPF (non-catalyzed)	---

1) Throughout the project, standard low sulfur petrodiesel (Greenery, <10 ppm sulfur, according to the Swiss standard SN-EN 590) from the same stock barrel was used as reference fuel.

2) Reference oil: Motorex, V10.237

3) SAPS: Sulfated ash, phosphorous, sulfur

4) DEA-oil: An additive free test oil, purchased by the Deutsche Erdöl AG

5) Satacen[®]3: A fuel borne catalyst, developed by Innospec Inc.

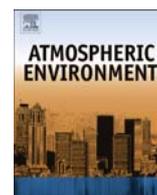
were included here. Additionally, two supplementary exposures were performed, in which lubrication oil was added to the fuel (2% v/v), simulating an engine with high oil consumption. An additive-free oil (DEA) and the oil used for the Ref-exposures (high SAPS) were used (DEA-fuel and High SAPS-fuel). For DEA, the oil in the oil circuit was exchanged for DEA oil. In a further set of experiments (not included in work package 3, but performed after FBC), FBC-exposures were repeated with inclusion of the DPF (FBC-DPF).

In parallel to each exposure experiment, diesel exhaust particles were collected on PallFlex filters for later detailed chemical analysis and/or for genotoxicity studies using particle suspensions or particle extracts (results not included in this report).



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Comparison of the toxicity of diesel exhaust produced by bio- and fossil diesel combustion in human lung cells *in vitro*[☆]



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H I G H L I G H T S

- Biodiesel (rapeseed methyl-ester) affects particle emissions by diesel engines.
- The blending ratio (bio-/fossil diesel) influences this effect.
- Quantitative effects on the gas-phase exhaust composition are weak.
- The pro-inflammatory potential of the exhaust is influenced by the changes.
- Strong changes in particle emissions translate into weak changes in exhaust toxicity.

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A B S T R A C T

Alternative fuels are increasingly combusted in diesel- and gasoline engines and the contribution of such exhausts to the overall air pollution is on the rise. Recent findings on the possible adverse effects of biodiesel exhaust are contradictive, at least partly resulting from the various fuel qualities, engine types and different operation conditions that were tested. However, most of the studies are biased by undesired interactions between the exhaust samples and biological culture media. We here report how complete, freshly produced exhausts from fossil diesel (B0), from a blend of 20% rapeseed-methyl ester (RME) and 80% fossil diesel (B20) and from pure rapeseed methyl ester (B100) affect a complex 3D cellular model of the human airway epithelium *in vitro* by exposing the cells at the air–liquid interface. The induction of pro-apoptotic and necrotic cell death, cellular morphology, oxidative stress, and pro-inflammatory responses were assessed. Compared to B0 exhaust, B20 exhaust decreased oxidative stress and pro-inflammatory responses, whereas B100 exhaust, depending on exposure duration, decreased oxidative stress but increased pro-inflammatory responses. The effects are only very weak and given the compared to fossil diesel higher ecological sustainability of biodiesel, it appears that – at least RME – can be considered a valuable alternative to pure fossil diesel.

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1. Introduction

The International Energy Agency reports that in the period from 2005 to 2011, the global consumption of alternative fuels in road

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transport has doubled from approximately 70–140 million tons of oil equivalents, which corresponds to approximately 8.8% of the total road transport consumption. The dominant alternative fuels are ethanol and natural gas, but with an estimated contribution of 3.5%, biodiesel is important as well (IEA advanced motor fuels, annual report 2011). Biodiesel is defined as the monoalkyl esters of vegetable oils or animal fat (American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) Standard D6751) and can be produced from various sources such as algae, used frying oil, soy beans, palm kernels, or rapeseed. The choice of feedstock thereby strongly

Test-Methods on the Test-Bench: A Comparison of Complete Exhaust and Exhaust Particle Extracts for Genotoxicity/Mutagenicity Assessment

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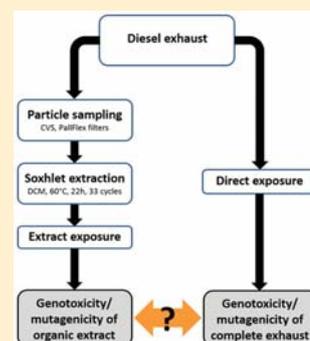
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: With the growing number of new exhaust after-treatment systems, fuels and fuel additives for internal combustion engines, efficient and reliable methods for detecting exhaust genotoxicity and mutagenicity are needed to avoid the widespread application of technologies with undesirable effects toward public health. In a commonly used approach, organic extracts of particulates rather than complete exhaust is used for genotoxicity/mutagenicity assessment, which may reduce the reliability of the results. In the present study, we assessed the mutagenicity and the genotoxicity of complete diesel exhaust compared to an organic exhaust particle extract from the same diesel exhaust in a bacterial and a eukaryotic system, that is, a complex human lung cell model. Both, complete exhaust and organic extract were found to act mutagenic/genotoxic, but the amplitudes of the effects differed considerably. Furthermore, our data indicate that the nature of the mutagenicity may not be identical for complete exhaust and particle extracts. Because in addition, differences between the responses of the different biological systems were found, we suggest that a comprehensive assessment of exhaust toxicity is preferably performed with complete exhaust and with biological systems representative for the organisms and organs of interest (i.e., human lungs) and not only with the Ames test.



INTRODUCTION

In June 2012, the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) classified diesel engine exhaust as a group 1 carcinogen to humans (IARC press release 213, June 12th, 2012). The IARC stated that with this new classification, “governments and other decision-makers have a valuable evidence-base on which to consider environmental standards for diesel exhaust emissions and to continue to work with the engine and fuel manufacturers toward those goals”. A large number of experimental studies in this field clearly supports the classification of diesel exhaust as carcinogen: Diesel exhaust or parts of diesel exhaust induce DNA damages or act mutagenic in cell cultures,¹ cell-free systems,² bacteria,^{3–5} or in vivo.⁶ But, as the IARC also stated: “it is not yet clear how the quantitative and qualitative changes” in exhaust composition “may translate into altered health effects” and that “research into this direction is needed”.

Diesel exhaust is a very complex mixture, consisting of gaseous, condensed (liquid), and solid particulate fractions, all of which contribute to genotoxicity,⁷ the potential of a substance to damage genetic material and hence to act mutagenic and cancerogenic (mutagenicity is a possible consequence of genotoxicity and is characterized by the

changes in the genetic material being permanent and hereditary). The gas phase consists of inorganic gases, such as carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, nitrogen oxides, and a variety of volatile and semivolatile organic compounds.

Among those, most notably heterocyclic aromatic compounds (HACs) and polyaromatic hydrocarbons and their nitrated forms (PAHs/NPAHs) may directly interact with DNA by intercalation between the stacked bases, DNA adduct formation or the formation of abasic sites.^{8,9} The ultimate result is the loss of bases or the incorporation of additional or wrong bases during DNA replication. Furthermore, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS/RNS), such as nitric oxide (NO), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), or the hydroxyl radical ([•]OH), which are present in the exhaust or can be formed intracellularly by the chemical activity or metabolism of organic components, may cause DNA strand breaks and the formation of DNA adducts.^{10–13}

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Effects of an iron-based fuel-borne catalyst and a diesel particle filter on exhaust toxicity in lung cells in vitro

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Norbert V. Heeb · Andreas Mayer · Alke Petri-Fink ·
Barbara Rothen-Rutishauser

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Abstract Metal-containing fuel additives catalyzing soot combustion in diesel particle filters are used in a widespread manner, and with the growing popularity of diesel vehicles, their application is expected to increase in the near future. Detailed investigation into how such additives affect exhaust toxicity is therefore necessary and has to be performed before epidemiological evidence points towards adverse effects of their application. The present study investigates how the addition of an iron-based fuel additive (Satacen[®]3, 40 ppm Fe) to low-sulfur diesel affects the in vitro cytotoxic, oxidative, (pro-)inflammatory, and mutagenic activity of the exhaust of a passenger car operated under constant, low-load conditions by exposing a three-dimensional model of the human airway epithelium to complete exhaust at the air–liquid interface.

We could show that the use of the iron catalyst without and with filter technology has positive as well as negative effects on exhaust toxicity compared to exhaust with no additives: it decreases the oxidative and, compared to a non-catalyzed diesel particle filter, the mutagenic potential of diesel exhaust, but increases (pro-)inflammatory effects. The presence of a diesel particle filter also influences the impact of Satacen[®]3 on exhaust toxicity, and the proper choice of the filter type to be used is of importance with regards to exhaust toxicity.

Keywords Exhaust exposures · Iron catalyst · Diesel particle filter · 3D lung cell model · Air–liquid interface

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Introduction

The popularity of diesel vehicles is continuously growing. For instance, ExxonMobil estimates that between now and 2040, diesel will account for 70 % of the growth in global transportation energy consumption (The outlook for energy: a view to 2040, ExxonMobil 2013). Partly, this trend can be assumed to be due to the high fuel efficiency and the robustness of diesel engines, both resulting in considerable economic advantages over gasoline-fueled engines.

Together with the high fuel efficiency, however, comes the production of large numbers of exhaust particles, mostly consisting of elemental carbon and adsorbed hydrocarbons [1]. Adverse health effects caused by these diesel exhaust particles (DEPs) have been described extensively in numerous in vitro, in vivo, and epidemiological studies [2–4], and consequently, emission legislations on diesel engine emissions including DEPs became more stringent. In order to cope with these regulations, a number of exhaust aftertreatment systems have been developed, among the most common ones being diesel particle filters, and among these, the most notable ones are the wall-flow filters [5, 6]. By forcing the exhaust stream

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C a r c i n o g e n i c a n d
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t r a p t e c h n o l o g i e s

final report

Peter de Haan, Mario Keller

03 October 2001 / B7048b1-02 / B7048b1-02 final report v00.doc



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5. Summary and conclusions

In this study, two different sets of weighting factors that are widely being used for the assessment of the human health impacts of exhaust gases have been extended with new factors to take into account individual PAH and nitro-PAH compounds. These new weighting factors aim at taking into account the carcinogenic effects of these pollutants. Data on their direct human carcinogenicity was not available. The carcinogenic effects of 20 PAH compounds and of 20 nitro-PAH compounds has been therefore been estimated using their mutagenicity as measured in bioassays with human cells (PAH) and Salmonella (nitro-PAH). These figures can only provide a rough estimate of their corresponding, but currently unknown, human carcinogenicity, however.

An assessment of the over-all effects of diesel exhaust on human health has been conducted using measurements from different configurations of a diesel engine with different fuel additives and/or particulate trap technology, which were performed at EMPA. Along with some regulated pollutants (T.HC, NO_x, CO), dioxins and the total sum of PAHs, five nitro-PAH compounds could be measured during the EMPA (2001) measurements and were above detection limits. Of these five compounds, 1-nitropyrene is clearly the compound with the highest expected carcinogenic effects.

The EMPA (2001) report clearly states that the measurements of the 1-nitropyrene concentration were difficult, and that in several cases it could be observed that part of the 1-nitropyrene formation took place not in the exhaust pipe, but in the laboratory. Moreover, the reported 1-nitropyrene emission factors appear to be somewhat inconclusive: if both using chlorinated fuel and the use of a fiber trap lead to higher 1-nitropyrene emissions (compared to the use of a platinum/cerium additive), the fact that no 1-nitropyrene could be detected when using both a chlorinated fuel and a fiber trap, is counter-intuitive. Nevertheless, the present figures suggest that 1-nitropyrene is a matter of concern with regard to carcinogenic effects on human health. In two configurations, the carcinogenicity of the 1-nitropyrene emissions clearly superseded those from their precursors, the sum of PAHs.

It therefore seems necessary to (i) measure more nitro-PAH compounds more accurately; (ii) improve the carcinogenicity weighting factors, for example by using laboratory animal studies which have been conducted for some of the more mutagenic PAHs, in order to confirm or reject the conclusion of the present report that 1-nitropyrene clearly seems to be the most dangerous nitro-PAH occurring in diesel exhaust gases.



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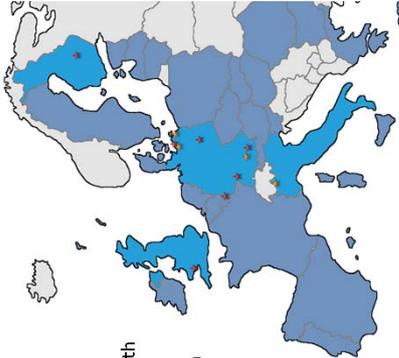
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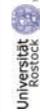
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Description

- Helmholtz Virtual Institute in Aerosol & Health Research
- Funded by the Helmholtz Association with 3.000.000 Euros
- Led by the Helmholtz Zentrum München and the University of Rostock
- Cooperation with eight partners and six associated partners
- Started in January 2012 as a five-year project
- www.hice-vi.eu






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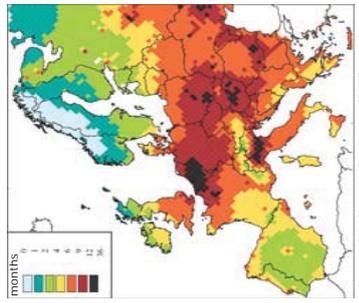




Motivation

“Exposure to particulate matter (PM) decreases the life expectancy of every person by an average of almost one year, mostly due to increased risk of cardiovascular and respiratory diseases, and lung cancer.” (WHO Europe)

HICE addresses the question: **Which aerosol component or property is responsible for the observed health effects?**



Reduction of life expectancy due to particulate matter (PM) exposure

months

0 2 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20

Sources: EU-Clean Air For Europe (CAFE, 2005)





Research Goals

- 1) Elucidation of the **molecular mechanisms** and **agents** in combustion aerosols relevant for the observed health effects
- 2) Identification of **biomarkers** for exposure and health effects
- 3) Evaluation of the relative toxicological potential of **different anthropogenic aerosol sources**

Scientific Hypotheses

- 1) Reactive **chemical compounds** in ambient aerosols, particles and gas are relevant for observed health effects
- 2) Health effects are related to **synergistic mechanisms** between compounds in gas and particulate phase
- 3) Expected increase of **biofuel & biomass** ("Energiewende") will change the composition and properties of aerosols and may lead to more or other aerosol-related health effect implications

Technical/Methodological Hypotheses

- 1) Health effect mechanisms can be studied by exposing human lung cells to freshly emitted aerosols → Determination of the **biological response** combined with a **comprehensive chemical and physical analysis** of the aerosol and a **joint statistical data analysis**
- 2) Application and improvement of highly sensitive **stable isotope-labeling methods** for the detection of biological responses and elucidation of the underlying mechanisms
- 3) State of the art exposure of human lung cell models at the Air-Liquid Interface (ALI) provides a realistic model for aerosols inhaled into the lung by **simulating the relevant primary effects** in the lung tissue and can replace animal tests

Results

Measurement campaign at University of Rostock (2012):

ship engine with Heavy Fuel Oil (HFO) and Diesel Fuel (DF) :

- HFO: emits more aromatic species and other organic compounds as well as more transition metals (e.g. V, Ni)
- DF: emits more black carbon ("soot")
- Cellular response revealed biological effects especially in inflammatory, oxidative stress and protein synthesis pathways
- The adverse biological effects of DF-emission particles on lung cells were of similar strength or even slightly stronger than those of HFO-emission particles at comparable doses

Future results

Ongoing data analyses from

- 1) Measurement campaign at Joint Research Centre in Ispra (2013): **passenger cars with gasoline and ethanol**
- 2) Measurement campaign at the University of Eastern Finland (2013): **wood combustion – beech and birch logwood, soft wood pellets**

Publications of Universities: Copenhagen, Aarhus & Danish Technological Institute

Recent publications on engine toxicity:

Raaschou-Nielsen O, Sørensen M, Ketzel M, Hertel O, Loft S, Tjønneland A, Overvad K, Andersen ZJ. Long-term exposure to traffic air pollution and diabetes-related mortality: a cohort study. *Diabetologia* 56: 36-46, 2013

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4th Information Report for IEA Implementing Agreement AMF, Annex XLII, international activities 2014 - Report from WNRI (Norway) on toxicity of exhaust emissions

Written by Otto Andersen, 24 June 2014

Contact: otto.andersen@vestforsk.no

Activities

WNRI has through the whole year 2013 been a partner in the EEA project "Influence of bioethanol fuels treatment for operational performance, ecological properties and GHG emissions of spark ignition engine" (BIOTRETH). WNRI has had the responsibility for the task "Toxicology assessment of emissions from bioethanol fuel blends".

WNRI has conducted a review of toxicology aspects of emissions from bioethanol fuel blends. The results of this work have been submitted in a manuscript titled "A review of emission products from bioethanol and its blends with gasoline. Background for new guidelines for emission control" that has been submitted to the international scientific journal *Fuel*.

An abstract and title "Exhaust emission components from bioethanol-based fuels: A review of toxicity of nanoparticles and aerosol compounds" has passed suitability check for submission to the "Nanotoxicology and Lung Diseases" special issue of *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*.

A software package for *in-silico* for early warning, providing input to the design of epidemiological studies, and prediction of toxicological impacts from the blending of bioethanol into gasoline has been acquired. Molecular dynamics simulations (MDS) on supercomputers are used for this task. From the knowledge that fossil fuel exhaust has significant presence of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and bioethanol exhaust contain high levels of acetaldehyde, we investigate interaction between these molecules to predict the formation of new emission compounds. The other participants are Fjordforsk Environmental Services AS, Oil and Gas Institute Krakow (Poland), and University of Applied Sciences in Biel (Switzerland).

Publications/presentations

The toxicology results from the project "Influence of bio-components content in fuel on emission of diesel engines and engine oil deterioration" (BIODEG) was presented as the session talk "Paths and degradation of PAHs in the Environment" at the conference "ISPAC 2013 - International Symposium on Polycyclic Aromatic Compounds" (Andersen et al, 2013). A detailed description of the toxicology effects of biodiesel blending was published as a chapter in the book "Unintended Consequences of Renewable Energy. Problems to be Solved" (Andersen, 2013):

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**Comparison of the Fuel Impact on Exhaust Emission Using Swedish
Environmental Class 1 (MK1) and Class 3 (MK3) diesel.**

AVL SWEDEN

On behalf of the the Swedish Transport
Administration

**Comparison of the Fuel Impact on Exhaust Emission Using Swedish Environmental
Class1 (MK1) and Class 3 (MK3) diesel.**

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**Comparison of the Fuel Impact on Exhaust Emission Using Swedish
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significant effects in most cases, especially in the presence of S9 indicating a significant contribution by PAH rather than nitro-PAH. Strain TA 100 gave a few significant responses. With these low effects it is difficult to draw any conclusions regarding fuel differences (hot start vs cold start or fuel differences MK1 vs MK3).

For the analyses of the EGR vehicle the concentrations were increased as much as possible with the amount of samples available. In this case much higher mutagenic effects were seen. Since the mutagenicity is given per meter driving distance it is clear from the table that not only the slightly more concentrated samples are responsible for the higher mutagenicity. The exhaust extracts from the EGR vehicle are significantly more mutagenic than the corresponding extracts from the SCR vehicle. The data are more robust and it is possible to compare the exhausts from the two fuels used. All samples are significantly mutagenic both in the presence and in the absence of a metabolizing system. With strain TA98 all samples were more mutagenic in the presence of S9 and therefore demonstrate the presence of both direct acting components and indirect mutagens (e.g. PAH). When the effects are lower in the presence of a metabolizing system, i.e. with TA100 it could still be the results of both types of mutagens, although it cannot be determined without further tests. Comparing the difference between the fuels especially with hot start the mutagenicity within each group is not significantly different indicating that the samples seem to be representative, but the MK3 fuel generates a more genotoxic exhaust in these cases. With cold starts the situation is not as clear.

Conclusions

The use of diesel fuelled vehicles for transportation shows no tendency to decline, rather the opposite. For heavy duty vehicles and non-road mobile machinery diesel is, and will be (at least in the near future), the dominating fuel. Since vehicles are expensive, the transport sector will always be a mix of different emission standards. This puts focus on the fuel, since improvement of the fuel is the easiest way to improve the emissions from all diesel vehicles.

In this study a comparison between two different diesel fuels have been made – the Swedish Environmental class 1 (MK1) and diesel fulfilling the European diesel standard EN590 (MK3). The main difference between these fuels is the content of aromatics and polycyclic aromatics (PAH), of which many are known or potential carcinogen. The MK3 fuel contains more than 10 times the amount of PAH in %m/m compared to the MK1 fuel.

Earlier studies have shown significant differences between these two fuels. There have however been improvements both regarding the fuels and engine technologies. The goal for this study was to see if the differences persist.

Two modern (emission standard Euro V) heavy duty vehicles, equipped with a SCR and an EGR aftertreatment systems, were tested with the two diesel fuels. The vehicles were driven according to the WHVC test cycle on a chassis dynamometer. Regulated exhausts, CO₂ and fuel consumption were measured. The gaseous components were sampled in bags as well as measured second-by-second. Particles were sampled on filters and analyzed gravimetrically. The size distribution of the

Comparison of the Fuel Impact on Exhaust Emission Using Swedish Environmental Class1 (MK1) and Class 3 (MK3) diesel.

emitted particles was measured with an ELPI instrument. Unregulated components such as olefins, PAH and aldehydes have been analyzed. Extract of the particulate and semivolatile phase has been used to carry out the Ames' bioassay test to analyze the level of mutagenicity in the exhausts.

This investigation has shown that there are still significant differences on emission level between these two fuel qualities even when tested on a modern, Euro V vehicle. There are discrepancies between the fuels regarding fuel properties and the effects on the emissions can depend on several parameters. The health effect of each of these parameters has however not been investigated in this study. For regulated components, the exhaust emission measurements have shown higher levels of NO_x, PM and CO for the MK3 fuel. Regarding the unregulated components there are also some differences between the fuels. The total amounts of aldehydes are emitted to a higher extent when MK3 is used. The olefins investigated in this study, together with emissions of benzene, were too close to the detection level and no significant differences could be observed. The difference regarding emitted aromatics and polyaromatics must however be highlighted, where the higher levels of these compounds in MK3 is reflected in the exhaust emissions. The extracts of PAH used for Ames' bio assay show higher mutagenic activity for the MK3 fuel.

The continuous development of engines and reduction of emissions is enforced through legislation. Since the first regulation was introduced, Euro I (effective from 1992), the limit value for NO_x and PM have been reduced by more than 95%. The emission limits in Euro VI for heavy duty vehicles, effective from 2013 (new registrations) and 2014 (all registrations), will lead to a more extensive use of aftertreatment systems (such as SCR and diesel particulate filters) in vehicles, in order to comply with the legislation limits. It is however of importance to point out that an SCR system has to work during suitable conditions, i.e. engine load and exhaust temperature, in order to reduce emissions in a satisfying way outside the test cell (one great challenge is emission reduction on buses in urban areas). The more extensive use of diesel particulate filter will probably have positive effects on emissions of particle matter, particle number as well as PAH emissions. For non-road mobile machinery there is however no enforcement for diesel particulate filters driven through legislated emission limits. The major benefit when improving the fuel quality is that this factor affects emissions from all existent vehicles and non-road mobile machinery, whereas the legislation can affect emissions in the future.

RESEARCH**Open Access**

Diesel exhaust modulates ozone-induced lung function decrements in healthy human volunteers

Michael C Madden^{1,4*}, Tina Stevens^{1,3}, Martin Case¹, Michael Schmitt¹, David Diaz-Sanchez¹, Maryann Bassett¹, Tracey S Montilla¹, Jon Berntsen² and Robert B Devlin¹

Abstract

The potential effects of combinations of dilute whole diesel exhaust (DE) and ozone (O₃), each a common component of ambient airborne pollutant mixtures, on lung function were examined. Healthy young human volunteers were exposed for 2 hr to pollutants while exercising (~50 L/min) intermittently on two consecutive days. Day 1 exposures were either to filtered air, DE (300 µg/m³), O₃ (0.300 ppm), or the combination of both pollutants. On Day 2 all exposures were to O₃ (0.300 ppm), and Day 3 served as a followup observation day. Lung function was assessed by spirometry just prior to, immediately after, and up to 4 hr post-exposure on each exposure day. Functional pulmonary responses to the pollutants were also characterized based on stratification by glutathione S-transferase mu 1 (GSTM1) genotype. On Day 1, exposure to air or DE did not change FEV1 or FVC in the subject population (n = 15). The co-exposure to O₃ and DE decreased FEV1 (17.6%) to a greater extent than O₃ alone (9.9%). To test for synergistic exposure effects, i.e., in a greater than additive fashion, FEV1 changes post individual O₃ and DE exposures were summed together and compared to the combined DE and O₃ exposure; the p value was 0.057. On Day 2, subjects who received DE exposure on Day 1 had a larger FEV1 decrement (14.7%) immediately after the O₃ exposure than the individuals' matched response following a Day 1 air exposure (10.9%). GSTM1 genotype did not affect the magnitude of lung function changes in a significant fashion. These data suggest that altered respiratory responses to the combination of O₃ and DE exposure can be observed showing a greater than additive manner. In addition, O₃-induced lung function decrements are greater with a prior exposure to DE compared to a prior exposure to filtered air. Based on the joint occurrence of these pollutants in the ambient environment, the potential exists for interactions in more than an additive fashion affecting lung physiological processes.

Keywords: Diesel exhaust, Ozone, Co-exposure, Lung function, Greater than additive effects

Introduction

Numerous epidemiological studies have demonstrated an association between short-term exposure to ambient airborne particulate matter (PM) and adverse cardiopulmonary effects including premature mortality, increased hospitalizations for lung problems including infections, exacerbation of asthma symptoms, chronic bronchitis, and hospitalization for clinical cardiac events including arrhythmias, myocardial infarctions, and congestive heart

failure [1,2]. The health effects are more strongly associated with PM that is smaller than 2.5 µm, i.e. PM_{2.5}, which typically is derived from human based activities such as vehicular emissions. PM_{2.5} is a complex mixture of organic and inorganic compounds absorbed onto carbonaceous material with the composition varying across space and time. In this complex mixture of ambient air substances, the ubiquitous pollutants ozone (O₃) and diesel exhaust (DE) can be major and important components. DE can have "hotspots" such as bus terminals and major streets [3]. Levels of DE PM_{2.5} reached transient concentrations of several hundred µg/m³ during drive-by studies [4]. O₃ levels have generally been decreasing in the US, but can reach over 0.1 ppm on a regular basis.

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Diesel and biodiesel exhaust particle effects on rat alveolar macrophages with *in vitro* exposure

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Petroleum diesel and biodiesel exhaust particle composition varies by species.
- Macrophage exposure to exhaust particles results in prostaglandin production/release changes.
- Biodiesel exposure induced increased prostaglandin release compared to same dose of petroleum.
- Detection of prostaglandin release not inhibited by particle sequestering.
- Macrophage inflammation initiating pathways correlate in response to dose not particle type.

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ABSTRACT

Combustion emissions from diesel engines emit particulate matter which deposits within the lungs. Alveolar macrophages (AMs) encounter the particles and attempt to engulf the particles. Emissions particles from diesel combustion engines have been found to contain diverse biologically active components including metals and polyaromatic hydrocarbons which cause adverse health effects. However little is known about AM response to particles from the incorporation of biodiesel. The objective of this study was to examine the toxicity in Wistar Kyoto rat AM of biodiesel blend (B20) and low sulfur petroleum diesel (PDEP) exhaust particles. Particles were independently suspended in media at a range of 1–500 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$. Results indicated B20 and PDEP initiated a dose dependent increase of inflammatory signals from AM after exposure. After 24 h exposure to B20 and PDEP gene expression of cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) and macrophage inflammatory protein 2 (MIP-2) increased. B20 exposure resulted in elevated prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) release at lower particle concentrations compared to PDEP. B20 and PDEP demonstrated similar affinity for sequestration of PGE₂ at high concentrations, suggesting detection is not impaired. Our data suggests PGE₂ release from AM is dependent on the chemical composition of the particles. Particle analysis including measurements of metals and ions indicate B20 contains more of select metals than PDEP. Other particle components generally reduced by 20% with 20% incorporation of biodiesel into original diesel. This study shows AM exposure to B20 results in increased production of PGE₂ *in vitro* relative to diesel.

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1. Introduction

Inhaled diesel exhaust particles deposit in the lungs where individual alveolar macrophages (AMs) engulf particles via phagocytosis. Phagocytosis initiates a response from AM to trigger an inflammatory response which includes release of cytokines, lipid

mediators and other signals to recruit neutrophils to deposit site. *In vivo* exposures to petroleum diesel exhaust particles (PDEP) with guinea pigs and rats revealed phagocytosis by AM and increased inflammation response (Chen et al., 1980; Yang et al., 1997). Previous studies indicate human macrophages release cytokines IL-6 and TNF α after exposure to coarse and ultrafine particles of diesel exhaust indicating a heightened inflammatory response (Becker et al., 2003). Exposure to filtered diesel exhaust and unfiltered resulted in both types causing similar inflammation responses from human AM from bronchoalveolar lavage fluid (BALF), suggesting the particle and its composition plays a leading role in AM re-

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Are urinary PAHs biomarkers of controlled exposure to diesel exhaust?

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Abstract

Urinary polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) were evaluated as possible biomarkers of exposure to diesel exhaust (DE) in two controlled-chamber studies. We report levels of 14 PAHs from 28 subjects in urine that were collected before, immediately after and the morning after exposure. Using linear mixed-effects models, we tested for effects of DE exposure and several covariates (time, age, gender and urinary creatinine) on urinary PAH levels. DE exposures did not significantly alter urinary PAH levels. We conclude that urinary PAHs are not promising biomarkers of short-term exposures to DE in the range of 106–276 µg/m³.

Keywords

Biomarker, diesel exhaust, PAHs, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, urine

History

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Introduction

Diesel exhaust (DE) was classified in 2012 as a group 1 carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) (Benbrahim-Tallaa et al., 2012) based on long-term occupational exposures. DE contributes to ambient particulate matter that has been linked to chronic cardiopulmonary and vascular effects (Sydbom et al., 2001; Wichmann, 2007). Yet, it has been difficult to quantify exposure–response relationships for DE due to the lack of quantitative data regarding exposures, which have primarily been classified by observational descriptors such as job title (Laumbach & Kipen, 2011; Pronk et al., 2009; Steenland et al., 1998). This reflects the complex nature of DE, which is comprised of both gaseous and fine particulate constituents.

Although gaseous DE contains predominantly small molecules such as nitrogen oxides and aldehydes, the particulate phase consists of elemental carbon coated with organic compounds (organic carbon), including particle-bound polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (Sobus et al., 2008a; Sydbom et al., 2001; Wichmann, 2007). The class of PAHs contains hundreds of chemicals with two or more

fused-aromatic rings that are formed from incomplete combustion of hydrocarbons. As a class, PAHs have been associated with human lung and bladder cancers, and several of the five-ring PAHs, such as benzo(a)pyrene (BAP), are potent animal carcinogens (IARC, 2010). Volatile or semi-volatile PAH molecules (two or three rings) are found primarily in the gas phase, while the larger compounds (four to six rings) reside primarily in the particulate phase.

Concentrations of gas-phase PAHs are much greater in DE than those of particulate-phase PAHs. For example, Sobus et al. (2008a) reported air concentrations of naphthalene (NAP, two rings) and phenanthrene (PHE, three rings) during controlled human exposure to DE that were about three orders of magnitude greater than the BAP concentration. Because air levels of NAP and/or PHE were highly correlated with those of organic carbon as well as semivolatile and particulate PAHs, the authors speculated that NAP and PHE could be suitable surrogates for exposures to all DE-derived PAHs – and to DE more generally – in studies of health effects (Sobus et al., 2008a). In a separate analysis, Sobus et al. (2008b) showed that the levels of unmetabolized NAP and PHE in urine were also positively correlated in workers exposed to coke-oven emissions, asphalt fumes and DE.

Urinary PAHs are biomarkers of exposure, which offer attractive alternatives to air monitoring for determining exposure–response relationships (Lin, 2005). Many PAHs have been detected in urine from urban populations exposed to air pollutants (Campo et al., 2007, 2009, 2011; Serdar et al., 2003; Sobus et al., 2008b; Waidyanatha et al., 2003) as well as from workers exposed to emissions containing PAHs

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Article

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Comparisons of Ultrafine and Fine Particles in Their Associations with Biomarkers Reflecting Physiological Pathways

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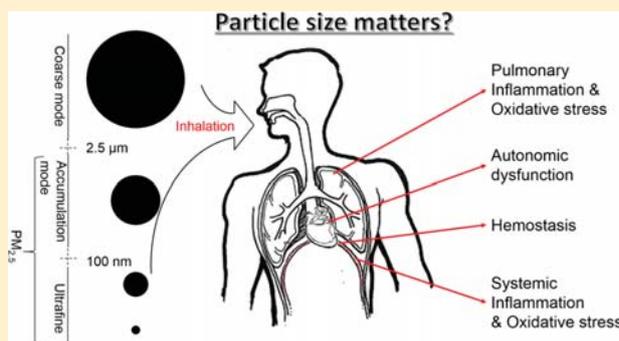
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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Using a quasi-experimental opportunity offered by greatly restricted air pollution emissions during the Beijing Olympics compared to before and after the Olympics, we conducted the current study to compare ultrafine particles (UFPs) and fine particles (PM_{2.5}) in their associations with biomarkers reflecting multiple pathophysiological pathways linking exposure and cardiorespiratory events. Number concentrations of particles (13.0–764.7 nm) and mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} were measured at two locations within 9 km from the residence and workplace of 125 participating Beijing residents. Each participant was measured 6 times for biomarkers of autonomic function (heart rate, systolic and diastolic blood pressures), hemostasis (von Willebrand factor, soluble CD40 ligand, and P-selectin), pulmonary inflammation and oxidative stress (exhaled nitric oxide and exhaled breath condensate pH, malondialdehyde, and nitrite), and systemic inflammation and oxidative stress (urinary malondialdehyde and 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine, plasma fibrinogen, and white blood cells). Linear mixed models were used to estimate associations of biomarkers with UFPs and PM_{2.5} measured 1–7 days prior to biomarker measurements (lags). We found that the correlation coefficient for UFPs at two locations (~9 km apart) was 0.45, and at the same location, the correlation coefficient for PM_{2.5} vs UFPs was -0.18. Changes in biomarker levels associated with increases in UFPs and PM_{2.5} were comparable in magnitude. However, associations of certain biomarkers with UFPs had different lag patterns compared to those with PM_{2.5}, suggesting that the ultrafine size fraction (≤100 nm) and the fine size fraction (~100 nm to 2.5 μm) of PM_{2.5} are likely to affect PM-induced pathophysiological pathways independently.



INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, a large body of literature has provided evidence for associations between exposures to ambient particulate matter (PM) and cardiorespiratory morbidity and mortality.^{1–3} The vast majority of the epidemiological studies have assessed the relationships between health outcomes and PM_{2.5} or PM₁₀ mass concentrations.^{4–6} Unlike a single gaseous pollutant, atmospheric PM is a mixture of heterogeneous components; and particles of different sizes may have different physicochemical and toxicological properties.⁷ In a simplistic and practical fashion, PM_{2.5} can be considered the sum of two distinct

components, namely ultrafine particles (UFPs, ≤100 nm in aerodynamic diameter) and accumulation-mode particles (AMPs, ~100 nm to 1.0 μm).⁸ UFPs make up a large number concentration but contribute little mass to PM_{2.5}.^{9–12} Furthermore, results from animal studies have suggested that inhaled UFPs deposit more deeply into the lung and may even

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Some Things We Know

- PM (plus gases?) adversely impact health
- Acute / chronic ...susceptible groups
- Respiratory / cardiac / cancer / other organs
- Mechanism(s) – composition / size / host factors
- Some PM sources may be worse than others
 - Combustion: fuels...oil, coal, nat. gas, biofuels, etc.
 - Stationary sources, moving vehicles, etc.
- Air pollution - is variable in composition and comprises a complex dynamic chemistry

Perhaps we know less than we think?!

A Foundation of Science for Informed Policy on Ambient PM

Daniel L. Costa, Sc.D.

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Health Effects of Fine Particles from Vehicle Emissions
April 1, 2014 Washington DC
(EFC, NIEHS)



Are We Missing Something... Ultrafine PM?

- Regulating by mass ignores constituent toxicities or unique physical attributes of UFPs
- UFPs contribute little to mass but some UFPs can possess high surface reactivity
- Lung deposition – mass vs number distribution
- Accumulation mode of PM comprises mostly UFP agglomerates that constitute much of PM_{2.5}
- Combustion and atmospheric chemistry constantly generate UFP
- High but uncertain exposure potential for UFPs

EPA Roadway-Related Research

- Emissions Characterization of Vehicles
 - Chassis dynamometers and on-board measurements
 - Analyses of direct and collected emissions
- Air Quality and Exposure Assessments
 - Fixed-site sampling strategies in near roadway campaigns
 - Mobile monitoring from specialized vehicles
 - Portable sensors for personal sampling
 - Computational Fluid Dynamics Modeling – emissions dispersion
 - Wind tunnel mock-ups for model testing
 - Inclusion into large area models
- Health Effects
 - Epidemiological and toxicological studies



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OXIDATIVE STRESS, INFLAMMATORY BIOMARKERS, AND TOXICITY IN MOUSE LUNG AND LIVER AFTER INHALATION EXPOSURE TO 100% BIODIESEL OR PETROLEUM DIESEL EMISSIONS

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Over the past decade, soy biodiesel (BD) has become a first alternative energy source that is economically viable and meets requirements of the Clean Air Act. Due to lower mass emissions and reduced hazardous compounds compared to diesel combustion emissions (CE), BD exposure is proposed to produce fewer adverse health effects. However, considering the broad use of BD and its blends in different industries, this assertion needs to be supported and validated by mechanistic and toxicological data. Here, adverse effects were compared in lungs and liver of BALB/cJ mice after inhalation exposure (0, 50, 150, or 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; 4 h/d, 5 d/wk, for 4 wk) to CE from 100% biodiesel (B100) and diesel (D100). Compared to D100, B100 CE produced a significant accumulation of oxidatively modified proteins (carbonyls), an increase in 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE), a reduction of protein thiols, a depletion of antioxidant glutathione (GSH), a dose-related rise in the levels of biomarkers of tissue damage (lactate dehydrogenase, LDH) in lungs, and inflammation (myeloperoxidase, MPO) in both lungs and liver. Significant differences in the levels of inflammatory cytokines interleukin (IL)-6, IL-10, IL-12p70, monocyte chemoattractant protein (MCP)-1, interferon (IFN) γ , and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α were detected in lungs and liver upon B100 and D100 CE exposures. Overall, the tissue damage, oxidative stress, inflammation, and cytokine response were more pronounced in mice exposed to BD CE. Further studies are required to understand what combustion products in BD CE accelerate oxidative and inflammatory responses.

Epidemiologic and occupational studies (PM) and diesel exhaust particles exert deleterious effects on human health, including demonstrated that ambient particulate matter

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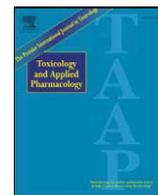
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Biodiesel versus diesel exposure: Enhanced pulmonary inflammation, oxidative stress, and differential morphological changes in the mouse lung



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ABSTRACT

The use of biodiesel (BD) or its blends with petroleum diesel (D) is considered to be a viable approach to reduce occupational and environmental exposures to particulate matter (PM). Due to its lower particulate mass emissions compared to D, use of BD is thought to alleviate adverse health effects. Considering BD fuel is mainly composed of unsaturated fatty acids, we hypothesize that BD exhaust particles could induce pronounced adverse outcomes, due to their ability to readily oxidize. The main objective of this study was to compare the effects of particles generated by engine fueled with neat BD and neat petroleum-based D. Biomarkers of tissue damage and inflammation were significantly elevated in lungs of mice exposed to BD particulates. Additionally, BD particulates caused a significant accumulation of oxidatively modified proteins and an increase in 4-hydroxynonenal. The up-regulation of inflammatory cytokines/chemokines/growth factors was higher in lungs upon BD particulate exposure. Histological evaluation of lung sections indicated presence of lymphocytic infiltrate and impaired clearance with prolonged retention of BD particulate in pigment laden macrophages. Taken together, these results clearly indicate that BD exhaust particles could exert more toxic effects compared to D.

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Introduction

Despite the widespread use of petroleum-based diesel (D) fuels, interest in vegetable oils as an alternative fuel source was reported in several countries as early as the 1920s and 1930s. The potential interest in alternative fuels was not evidenced until the fuel-energy crisis in the late 1970s and early 1980s, after which vegetable oil derived fuels gained their prominence as a potential alternative energy source (Hill

et al., 2006; Ragauskas et al., 2006). One of the key issues of biodiesel (BD) use is to reduce the emissions of particulate matter (PM) and greenhouse gasses (GHG). The combustion of vegetable oil-derived biodiesel fuels was proven effective in producing similar or less emissions compared to petroleum-based D (Koonin, 2006). Regardless of its broad use in different operational areas, including transportation (on- and off-road vehicles), and other manufacturing/production (mining, oil and gas industry) sectors, inadequate attention has been paid to the possible health hazards of BD (Bunger et al., 2007; Krahl et al., 2001; Swanson et al., 2007).

Exposure to diesel exhaust in humans has been shown to cause a number of adverse health outcomes. For instance, acute exposure to diesel particulate matter (DPM) was shown to facilitate pulmonary inflammation with influx of phagocytic cells (Holgate et al., 2003a, 2003b), while long-term exposure was strongly associated with a greater incidence of cough, phlegm, and chronic bronchitis (Pronk et al., 2009). Additionally, exposure to DPM has been associated with

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RESEARCH

Open Access

Ambient fine particulate air pollution triggers ST-elevation myocardial infarction, but not non-ST elevation myocardial infarction: a case-crossover study

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Abstract

Background: e and others have shown that increases in particulate air pollutant (PM) concentrations in the previous hours and days have been associated with increased risks of myocardial infarction, but little is known about the relationships between air pollution and specific subsets of myocardial infarction, such as ST-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI) and non ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI).

Methods: Using data from acute coronary syndrome patients with STEMI (n = 338) and NSTEMI (n = 339) and case-crossover methods, we estimated the risk of STEMI and NSTEMI associated with increased ambient fine particle (2.5 μm) concentrations, ultrafine particle (10-100 nm) number concentrations, and accumulation mode particle (100-500 nm) number concentrations in the previous few hours and days.

Results: e found a significant 18% increase in the risk of STEMI associated with each 7.1 μg/m³ increase in PM_{2.5} concentration in the previous hour prior to acute coronary syndrome onset, with smaller, non-significantly increased risks associated with increased fine particle concentrations in the previous 3, 12, and 24 hours. e found no pattern with NSTEMI. Estimates of the risk of STEMI associated with interquartile range increases in ultrafine particle and accumulation mode particle number concentrations in the previous 1 to 96 hours were all greater than 1.0, but not statistically significant. Patients with pre-existing hypertension had a significantly greater risk of STEMI associated with increased fine particle concentration in the previous hour than patients without hypertension.

Conclusions: Increased fine particle concentrations in the hour prior to acute coronary syndrome onset were associated with an increased risk of STEMI, but not NSTEMI. Patients with pre-existing hypertension and other cardiovascular disease appeared particularly susceptible. Further investigation into mechanisms by which PM can preferentially trigger STEMI over NSTEMI within this rapid time scale is needed.

eywords: Myocardial infarction, Acute coronary syndrome, Epidemiology, Air pollution

Previous studies investigating triggering of myocardial infarction by particulate air pollution (PM) concentrations have, in most cases, reported an increased risk of myocardial infarction associated with increases in PM on the same and previous day 1-9. Similar acute effects of fine particulate air pollution have been reported for

other cardiovascular outcomes 10,11. Some studies of myocardial infarction and PM have used symptom onset time, rather than the arrival time at the emergency room, to define myocardial infarction onset, thereby providing a better estimate of the myocardial infarction onset time and less exposure error 1,4,5,7. Although Peters et al. 4 reported a significantly increased risk of myocardial infarction associated with increased fine particle (particles 2.5 μm in diameter PM_{2.5}) concentrations in the preceding 2 hours,

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Simulation of Nanoparticle Permeation through a Lipid Membrane

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ABSTRACT A metric of nanoparticle toxicity is the passive permeability rate through cellular membranes. To assess the influence of nanoparticle morphology on this process, the permeability of buckyball-sized molecules through a representative lipid bilayer was investigated by molecular-dynamics simulation. When C_{60} was compared with a prototypical opened C_{60} molecule and a representative combustion-generated particle, $C_{68}H_{29}$, the calculated free-energy profiles along the permeation coordinate revealed a sizable variation in form and depth. The orientation of the anisotropic molecules was determined by monitoring the principal axis corresponding to the largest moment of inertia, and free rotation was shown to be hindered in the bilayer interior. Diffusion constant values of the permeant molecules were calculated from a statistical average of seven to 10 trajectories at five locations along the permeation coordinate. A relatively minor variation of the values was observed in the bilayer interior; however, local resistance values spanned up to 24 orders of magnitude from the water layer to the bilayer center, due primarily to its exponential dependence on free energy. The permeability coefficient values calculated for the three similarly sized but structurally distinct nanoparticles showed a significant variance. The use of C_{60} to represent similarly sized carbonaceous nanoparticles for assessments of toxicity is questioned.

INTRODUCTION

It is known that particle toxicity can scale inversely with size (1). Although the relative detrimental health effects of micrometer-sized particles have received significant attention over the past century, less is known about the potential toxicity of ultrafine particles (≤ 100 nm). Since nanometer-sized particles (NPs) that are capable of crossing cellular barriers can migrate into systemic circulation, attention is given to factors that influence the permeation process. Additionally, the presence of trapped, hydrophobic NPs can instigate changes in lipid packing and influence the phase behavior of the bilayer (2,3). Reciprocally, the permeability of molecular NPs into lipid bilayers is regulated by the fluidity and composition of the bilayers themselves, as well as the morphology and polarity of the permeant molecules (4,5). It is currently hypothesized that small molecules (molecular mass < 100 amu) hop from dynamic stochastic voids within the bilayer (4). The permeation of NPs larger than the free volumes would be expected to proceed by a different mechanism (6). A clear difference in the permeation of small molecules vis-à-vis NPs has been shown by computational simulation and calculation of the so-called local diffusion constant as a function of permeant depth, z , within the bilayer. Variability of the diffusion constant values of the small molecular permeants with respect to z has been asserted to correlate to membrane heterogeneity, i.e., differences in free volume as a function of permeant position along the bilayer norm. NP diffusion constant values, however, have been observed to be relatively independent of molecular position in bilayer interior (6).

One defined property of both the small molecule and NP permeation process is the tendency of anisotropic molecules to preferentially orient with the major axis aligned parallel to the bilayer norm. This alignment has been observed by NMR (7), fluorescence depolarization (8,9), x-ray diffraction (10), and second harmonic spectroscopic measurements (11), and matched by analysis of molecular-dynamics (MD) simulations (6,12). According to the free-volume model (13), the cross-sectional area of the permeant could then be a key parameter in the diffusion process, since the permeant advancement would be based on encounters with voids exceeding the areal dimensions. Assessment of the alignment also provides a connection to a thermodynamic description of the permeation process (12,14). Conventionally, the translocation of hydrophobic particles into lipid bilayers has been attributed to an overall entropically driven process (15,16), considered to be a consequence of the hydrophobic effect. The size of the permeant molecule, however, has also been shown to influence the physics of aqueous solvation. Simulations have demonstrated that larger solutes are capable of disrupting water hydrogen bonds in the first solvation shell (17). This in turn, can alter the contribution of enthalpy versus entropy to the free energy of permeation or solvation. In a more general sense, evaluation of the total free energy can be used to determine the probability of the permeation process (18) (i.e., the lipophilicity of the permeant), quantitatively map entry barriers (15,19), indicate equilibrated locations of the permeants in the membrane (15), and obtain temporal estimates for membrane/permeant dynamics (14). Partition coefficient values can also be determined by assessing free-energy differences within the rubric of the inhomogeneous solubility-diffusion model (20). As such, the influence of the lipid bilayer microstructure is directly reflected. Similarly,

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Unregulated emissions from diesel engine with particulate filter using Fe-based fuel borne catalyst

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ABSTRACT

The alteration and formation of toxic compounds and potential changes in the toxicity of emissions when using after-treatment technologies have gained wide attention. Volatile organic compound (VOC), carbonyl compound and particle-phase polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) emissions were tested at European Steady State Cycle (ESC) to study unregulated emissions from a diesel engine with a fuel-borne catalyst and diesel particulate filter (FBC-DPF). An Fe-based fuel-borne catalyst was used for this study. According to the results, brake specific emissions of total VOCs without and with DPF were 4.7 and 4.9 mg/kWh, respectively, showing a 4.3% increase. Benzene and n-undecane emissions increased and toluene emission decreased, while other individual VOC emissions basically had no change. When retrofitted with the FBC-DPF, total carbonyl compound emission decreased 15.7%, from 25.8 to 21.8 mg/kWh. The two highest carbonyls, formaldehyde and acetaldehyde, were reduced from 20.0 and 3.7 to 16.5 and 3.3 mg/kWh respectively. The specific reactivity (SR) with DPF was reduced from 6.68 to 6.64 mg/kWh. Total particle-phase PAH emissions decreased 66.4% with DPF compared to that without DPF. However, the Benzo[a]pyrene equivalent (BaP_{eq}) with DPF had increased from 0.016 to 0.030 mg/kWh. Fluoranthene and Pyrene had the greatest decrease, 91.1% and 88.4% respectively. The increase of two- and three-ring PAHs with DPF indicates that the fuel-borne catalyst caused some gas-phase PAHs to adsorb on particles. The results of this study expand the knowledge of the effects of using a particulate filter and a Fe-based fuel-borne catalyst on diesel engine unregulated emissions.

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Introduction

Engine emissions constitute an environmental and health hazard. Good alternative fuels including alcohols, liquefied petroleum gas and biodiesel have solved some environmental problems as well as some energy problems (Agarwal, 2007; Gong et al., 2011; He et al., 2010). However, more stringent regulations set forth in the United States, Europe, and other locations motivated the development of after-treatment devices for diesel engines. After-treatment technologies have led to a significant reduction in the emission levels

of particulate matter (PM) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x). Among PM control technologies, the diesel particulate filter (DPF), which can reduce PM mass emissions more than 90%, has become the most effective strategy for reducing PM emissions (Biswas et al., 2009; Shah et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2012). However, the collected particles must be removed by oxidation to prevent excessive pressure drop in the exhaust system, which would otherwise adversely affect engine operation. Therefore, the ability to regenerate the DPF on which particulates are deposited is considered one of the major issues in diesel engine applications of DPF systems (Song et al., 2006).

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การรับสัมผัสสารเบนซีนในพนักงานสถานีบริการน้ำมันเชื้อเพลิง: กรณีศึกษาเทศบาลนครขอนแก่น เมืองขอนแก่น

Exposure to benzene among workers in gasoline stations: a case study in Khon Kaen municipality, Muang Khon Kaen

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บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษาเชิงสำรวจนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาเส้นทางการรับสัมผัสสารเบนซีนในพนักงานสถานีบริการน้ำมันเชื้อเพลิง และประเมินความเข้มข้นของสารเบนซีนในบรรยากาศการทำงานของพนักงานสถานีบริการน้ำมันเชื้อเพลิง โดยใช้กรณีศึกษาในพนักงานบริการน้ำมันเชื้อเพลิง เขตเทศบาลนครขอนแก่น เมืองขอนแก่น (n=34) เก็บข้อมูลโดยใช้การสัมภาษณ์ สํารวจและตรวจวัดปริมาณสารเบนซีนในบรรยากาศ จำนวน 7 สถานี วิเคราะห์โดยใช้วิธีแก๊สโครมาโตกราฟี (GC-FID) พบว่า พนักงานทุกคนมีการสัมผัสไอระเหยน้ำมันที่มีสารเบนซีนผ่านทางเดินหายใจและรองลงมาเป็นทางผิวหนังและทางการกินที่ปนเปื้อนมากับอาหารเท่ากัน คือร้อยละ 97.06 พนักงานตำแหน่งเติมน้ำมันมีโอกาสสัมผัสด้วยความถี่สูงสุดผ่านเส้นทางการกินและการสูดดม ความเข้มข้นของเบนซีนในบรรยากาศการทำงานคือ 0.019 - 0.050 ppm (part per million) คิดเป็นร้อยละ 50.0 ของค่ามาตรฐานของ NIOSH (0.1 ppm) และพนักงานมีการใช้อุปกรณ์ป้องกันอันตรายส่วนบุคคลร้อยละ 26.47 จึงเสนอแนะให้มีอบรมพนักงานด้านความปลอดภัยในการทำงาน และส่งเสริมให้มีการเฝ้าระวังสุขภาพของพนักงาน

Abstract

The aims of this survey study were to investigate route of exposure to benzene and benzene concentrations in working environments of workers in gasoline stations by a case study in Khon Kaen municipality, Khon Kaen province (n=34). Data were collected by a structured questionnaire, a survey form and air monitoring for benzene concentrations from seven stations and analysis with Gas Chromatography (GC-FID). All workers potentially exposed to benzene through gasoline inhalation, followed by direct contact through a skin and food ingestion in an equal percentage (97.06%). Work position of fuelling had the highest frequency on benzene exposure through food ingestion and inhalation route. The concentrations of benzene in working environment were ranged between 0.019 - 0.050 ppm. Those levels did not exceed 50% of recommended exposure limit by NIOSH (0.1 ppm). Most workers did not use personal protective equipment (used mask = 26.47%). The suggestions were that there should be safety at work training provided to workers and employers should perform the health surveillance program among workers annually.

คำสำคัญ: เส้นทางการสัมผัส เบนซีน สถานีบริการน้ำมันเชื้อเพลิง สภาพแวดล้อมการทำงาน

Keywords: route of exposure, benzene, gasoline station, working environment



Effects of long-term exposure to air pollution on natural-cause mortality: an analysis of 22 European cohorts within the multicentre ESCAPE project

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Summary

Background Few studies on long-term exposure to air pollution and mortality have been reported from Europe. Within the multicentre European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects (ESCAPE), we aimed to investigate the association between natural-cause mortality and long-term exposure to several air pollutants.

Methods We used data from 22 European cohort studies, which created a total study population of 367 251 participants. All cohorts were general population samples, although some were restricted to one sex only. With a strictly standardised protocol, we assessed residential exposure to air pollutants as annual average concentrations of particulate matter (PM) with diameters of less than 2.5 µm (PM_{2.5}), less than 10 µm (PM₁₀), and between 10 µm and 2.5 µm (PM_{coarse}), PM_{2.5} absorbance, and annual average concentrations of nitrogen oxides (NO₂ and NO_x), with land use regression models. We also investigated two traffic intensity variables—traffic intensity on the nearest road (vehicles per day) and total traffic load on all major roads within a 100 m buffer. We did cohort-specific statistical analyses using confounder models with increasing adjustment for confounder variables, and Cox proportional hazards models with a common protocol. We obtained pooled effect estimates through a random-effects meta-analysis.

Findings The total study population consisted of 367 251 participants who contributed 5 118 039 person-years at risk (average follow-up 13.9 years), of whom 29 076 died from a natural cause during follow-up. A significantly increased hazard ratio (HR) for PM_{2.5} of 1.07 (95% CI 1.02–1.13) per 5 µg/m³ was recorded. No heterogeneity was noted between individual cohort effect estimates (*I*² p value=0.95). HRs for PM_{2.5} remained significantly raised even when we included only participants exposed to pollutant concentrations lower than the European annual mean limit value of 25 µg/m³ (HR 1.06, 95% CI 1.00–1.12) or below 20 µg/m³ (1.07, 1.01–1.13).

Interpretation Long-term exposure to fine particulate air pollution was associated with natural-cause mortality, even within concentration ranges well below the present European annual mean limit value.

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Introduction

Studies have shown the effects of long-term exposure to air pollution on mortality,^{1,2} with most, especially those in the USA, reporting on the mass concentration of particulate matter (PM) smaller than 10 µm (PM₁₀) or 2.5 µm (PM_{2.5}) in diameter. Few European studies have investigated PM_{2.5}, partly because of the low availability of routine monitoring data. However, some European studies have shown associations between mortality and nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) or nitrogen oxides (NO_x).^{3–8}

In urban areas, NO₂, NO_x, and PM_{2.5} absorbance (a marker for black carbon or soot) have larger spatial concentration contrasts than PM because they are more

closely related to motorised traffic. Interest in the health effects of coarse particles (2.5–10 µm in diameter) has also increased.⁹ However, the comparability of previous studies is limited by the different exposure methods used.¹⁰

In the framework of the multicentre European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution Effects (ESCAPE), we added standardised exposure assessment for PM, NO₂, and NO_x to health data from 22 ongoing cohort studies across Europe. The objective of ESCAPE was to investigate the association between long-term exposure to air pollution and mortality. In this Article, we report associations for natural-cause mortality. Cause-specific results will be published separately.

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Review

Ultrafine particles in cities



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ABSTRACT

Ultrafine particles (UFPs; diameter less than 100 nm) are ubiquitous in urban air, and an acknowledged risk to human health. Globally, the major source for urban outdoor UFP concentrations is motor traffic. Ongoing trends towards urbanisation and expansion of road traffic are anticipated to further increase population exposure to UFPs. Numerous experimental studies have characterised UFPs in individual cities, but an integrated evaluation of emissions and population exposure is still lacking. Our analysis suggests that the average exposure to outdoor UFPs in Asian cities is about four-times larger than that in European cities but impacts on human health are largely unknown. This article reviews some fundamental drivers of UFP emissions and dispersion, and highlights unresolved challenges, as well as recommendations to ensure sustainable urban development whilst minimising any possible adverse health impacts.

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1. Introduction

Whilst cities are facing challenges in addressing the problem of conventional air pollutants that are part of current regulatory frameworks, the emergence of unregulated pollutants, such as airborne ultrafine particles (UFPs; diameter less than 100 nm), has added an additional

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(Choi et al., 2009; Kumar et al., 2010c). Their unique, highly reactive physicochemical characteristics are of particular concern in terms of human health (Xia et al., 2009), but very little is currently known about their concentration levels in the European environment, and even lesser for Asian environments (Kumar et al., 2012). A proactive research approach is required to fully reveal their injurious effects and at the same time, targeted efforts are needed to quantify their ambient concentrations by developing instruments that are able to distinguish them from the UFPs produced by other sources, such as traffic.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2014.01.013>.

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18th ETH Conference on Combustion Generated Nanoparticles Zürich, Switzerland, June 2014

Session 6 A: Health Effects		16.40 – 18.30
Chair: Gehr P.		
1	Von Garnier Chr. / Inselspital Bern, Switzerland <i>Health Effects of Nanoparticles in Susceptible Persons</i>	
2	Gerlofs-Nijland M. / RIVM, The Netherlands <i>Health Effects of Combustion Sources in Perspective</i>	
3	Amini H. / Kurdistan University of Medical Science, Iran <i>Estimating Spatial Variability of Ambient Particulate Matter Using Land-use Regression in Tehran</i>	
4	Weise F. / NMI, Reutlingen, Germany <i>Toxic Effects of Nanoparticles from Biomass Combustion</i>	
5	Violi A. / University of Michigan USA <i>How Chemical Composition of Nanoparticles Affects Interactions with Biological Systems</i>	
6	Mayer A. / TTM Switzerland <i>PN versus PM: which Metric for Emission Limits and Air Quality Limits</i>	

Session 6 B: Health Effects		08.00 – 09.50
Chair: Rothen-Rutishauser B.		
7	Geiser M. / University of Bern, Switzerland <i>Responses of Healthy and Diseased Airway Epithelia to Aged Aerosols from Wood Combustion</i>	
8	Heeb N. / EMPA, Switzerland <i>Catalysis – a Key Property of Diesel Particle Filters to Lower Emissions of Genotoxic Compounds</i>	
9	Steiner S. / Adolphe Merkle Institute, Fribourg, Switzerland <i>In-vitro Genotoxicity of Diesel Exhausts: Impact of Filtration and Catalysis</i>	
10	Zarcone M. / Leiden University Medical Center and TNO, The Netherlands <i>Development of an Innovative in Vitro Inhalation Model for Studying the Effects of Diesel Exhaust</i>	
11	Peters A. / Helmholtz Zentrum München, Germany <i>Health Effects of Ambient Ultrafine Particles – Do we know enough?</i>	

FOCUS-Event

Field Inspection of Vehicle Emissions with Particle Number-based Instrumentation

Focus Event Part 1: PN-PEMS for Vehicle Type Approval	13.30 – 14.30
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Chair: Leuenberger Chr.

1 Kasper M.
Introduction

2 Riccobono F. / JRC
How to Extend the Real Drive Emission Test Procedure to Particle Number

3 Cachón L. / Matter Aerosol AG, Switzerland
The Golden PEMS: Technical Aspects and Outlook

COFFEE BREAK

14.30 – 15.00

Focus Event Part 2 : Portable PN Instrumentation for Field Inspection	15.00 - 16.40
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Chair: Leuenberger Chr.

4 Krähenbühl S. / Federal Office for the Environment, Switzerland
New Instruments for PN-based Periodic Inspection: Results of a First Measurement Campaign

5 Andres H. / METAS, Switzerland
Field Measurement Instruments Ordinance: Calibration, Certification, Measurement Cycle

6 Horn H.-G. / TSI, USA.
Field Measurement, Technical Aspects of the First Generation PN Field Instrument

7 Fierz M. / FHNW, Switzerland
Towards Hand-Held DPF Inspection

8 Leuenberger Chr.
Conclusions

Concluding Remarks: Burtscher H.	16.45
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End of the 18th ETH-NPC

17.00



WMA Statement on the Prevention of Air pollution due to Vehicle Emissions

Adopted by the 65th World Medical Assembly, Durban, South Africa, October 2014

Preamble

There are a number of ways in which the volume of harmful emissions can be reduced. These include encouraging fewer road traffic journeys, active transport for individuals undertaking relatively short journeys, the use of mass public transit in preference to individual vehicles, and alternative energy sources for vehicles, including electric and hybrid technologies. Where vehicle use is essential, means of reducing harmful emissions should be used.

Physicians around the world are aware of air pollution. It impacts the quality of life for hundreds of millions of people worldwide, causing both, a large burden of disease as well as economic losses and increased health care costs. According to WHO estimates, in 2012, urban outdoor air pollution was responsible for 3.7 million annual deaths, representing 6.7% of the total deaths (WHO, 2014).

Especially, diesel soot is acknowledged as a proven carcinogen (IARC, 07/2012). Furthermore, it has many other toxic effects, most prominently in the cardiovascular (Brook et al., 2010) and respiratory systems (ERS, 2010). Moreover, in the context of global warming, soot, along with methane, is identified as the second most important greenhouse driving force substance after CO₂ (Kerr, 2013).

Despite the fact that new vehicles will have to comply with stricter emission standards which take into account most harmful ultra fine particles too, a high-polluting in-use fleet, including off-road vehicles such as construction engines and ships, will continue polluting for many more years.

Background

In many densely populated cities around the world, fine dust concentrations measurable as aerosols exceed up to 50 times the maximum WHO recommendation. High volumes of transport, power generated from coal, and pollution caused by construction machinery are among the contributing factors. People living and working near major (high density volume traffic) streets are most affected by pollutants.

For fighting the health risks mentioned above, there exist a variety of highly efficient and reliable filter systems on the market (Best Available Technology (BAT) filters[1]). They are applicable to all internal combustion engines and they reduce even most harmful ultra-fine particles by a factor of over one hundred.

As soon as 90% of heavy duty vehicles, both, new and upgraded ones, satisfy this standard, health problems attributable to emissions of heavy duty traffic will be greatly reduced, and no further tightening of emission standards will be possible or even needed at all because of an almost total elimination of the pollutant as such.

In a variety of countries on different continents and under varying conditions retrofit or upgrading programs have been successfully performed. The UN's Working Party on Pollution Prevention and Energy in Geneva has just proposed a technical standard for regulation in their member states, which will be applicable worldwide.

The WMA supports these efforts and calls on policy makers in all countries, especially in urban regions, to introduce regulatory restrictions of access for vehicles without filter, and/or to provide financial assistance to support the retrofitting of in-use vehicles.

Recommendations

The WMA therefore recommends that all NMAs should encourage their respective governments to:

1. Introduce BAT standards for all new diesel vehicles (on road and off-road)
2. Incentivise retrofitting with BAT filters for all in-use engines
3. Monitor and limit the concentration of nanosize soot particles in the urban breathing air
4. Conduct epidemiological studies detecting and differentiating the health effects of ultrafine particles
5. Build professional and public awareness of the importance of diesel soot and the existing methods of eliminating the particles
6. Contribute to developing strategies to protect people from soot particles in aircraft passenger cabins, trains, homes and in the general environment. These strategies should include plans to develop and increase use of public transportation systems.

Abbreviations:

EPA: Environmental Protection Agency (US)

ERS: European Respiratory Society

IARC: International Agency for Research of Cancer

BAT Standards: Emission standards for passenger cars, heavy-duty vehicles and off-road machinery, based on count of ultrafine particles rather than mass and aimed at the protection of human health from the most hazardous soot particles, the lung and even cell membrane penetrating ultra-fines.

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[1] Euro 6/VI, US/EPA/CARB, Chinese and equivalent standards.



Executive Bulletin

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For MECA Members Only

May 27, 2014

SPECIAL REPORT

Health Effects Institute's 2014 Annual Conference in Alexandria, VA

The Health Effects Institute (HEI) held its annual conference on May 4-6, 2014 in Alexandria, VA. MECA's Jamie Song attended the conference.

Topics discussed at the conference included:

- *Update on HEI Research, Review Programs, and Publications (p. 1)*
- *Advanced Collaborative Emissions Study (ACES) Phase 3B (p. 2)*
- *Chronic Respiratory Disease and Air Pollution (p. 3)*
- *Multipollutant Research (p. 4)*
- *Draft HEI Strategic Plan 2015-2020 (p. 5)*

Presentation slides from this conference are available at:
<http://www.healtheffects.org/annual.htm>.

Highlights from the conference of interest to MECA members included:

- Rashid Shaikh, HEI, reviewed progress in HEI's activities. Shaikh noted that since 2010, HEI has initiated, conducted and/or completed 72 studies and 5 Special Reviews:
 - Multipollutant exposure, epidemiology and toxicology research
 - Measuring the health outcomes of air quality actions (accountability)
 - Assessing health effects of emerging fuels and technologies
 - An international perspective in the developed and developing world
 - Highlights of Progress (2010-2014):
 - NPACT: two major studies published on toxicity of PM components, by Lippman and Vedal (<http://pubs.healtheffects.org/view.php?id=410>)
 - ACES: Characterization of 2004 and 2010 heavy-duty diesel engines (<http://pubs.healtheffects.org/view.php?id=377>)
 - MOSES: rigorous testing of cardiovascular effects of ozone
 - SCET: report on emerging vehicle technologies and fuels
 - Ultrafines: review of sources, exposures and potential health effects published

- Diesel epidemiology: assessment of data from new epidemiology studies for risk assessment underway
- Health outcome/accountability: new research initiated
- Near-road exposure to traffic related pollution: new research initiated

- Jacob McDonald, Lovelace Respiratory Research Institute, presented the final results from the Lifetime Animal Exposures to a 2007-Compliant Diesel Engine (Advanced Collaborative Emissions Study Phase 3B).

○ ACES is a cooperative effort to characterize emissions and assess the possible health impacts of the new, advanced heavy-duty diesel-engines and emission control systems that have been entering the U.S. market since 2007. Results from the emissions characterization of 2007- and 2010-compliant engines in Phases 1 and 2 of ACES were published in 2010 and 2012. A team conducted a lifetime (up to 3 months) inhalation bioassay in Phase 3B, in which rats were exposed to emissions from one of the four diesel engines tested in Phase 1 of the study. In addition to assessing the possible carcinogenicity of whole diesel exhaust, the bioassay has provided information on chronic toxicity, in vivo mutagenicity, and changes in non-cancer health endpoints that have been associated with exposure to diesel exhaust in other studies. In Phase 3B, animals were exposed to 4.1, 0.8 and 0.1 ppm NO₂ (as part of the diesel exhaust mixture) 16 hours/day, 5 days/week for up to 28 months (males) or 30 months (females). Rats were evaluated by respiratory function, hematology, serum chemistry, bronchoalveolar lavage, lung cell proliferation, and histopathological assays. Results of the measurements made at 12, 24, and up to 30 months were as follows:

- Pulmonary lesions in the ACES study were dramatically different from the old technology diesel exhaust studies.
- Many of the centriacini appeared normal in the lungs of high-exposure ACES rats with minimal thickening of alveoli walls in some centriacinar (gas-exchanging) regions.
- Changes in the lungs of the ACES study were more similar to the Lovelace NO₂ study in which centriacinar thickening and occasional preterminal bronchiole hyperplasia was found.
- The most dramatic differences were between the new 2007 technology diesel study in which few and mostly minimal lesions were found and the old diesel studies in which the lungs were loaded with pigment.
- Concentrations of PM are generally very low and rise only during diesel filter regeneration, once or twice per 16-hour exposure period. Mild biological responses were observed, and were confined primarily to the respiratory tract and primarily at the highest exposure concentration. The primary histologic findings were minimal airway thickening in the central acinus. The severity of the lesions did not increase between 1 year of exposure and lifetime exposure.

The study concluded that the new technology diesel exhaust after a rodent lifetime study did not cause neoplastic lesions that were observed in the traditional diesel exhaust studies. The observed changes were consistent with exposure to gaseous

- One MSD intends to evaluate the effects of the climate-relevant criteria air pollutants on climate forcing
- The other intends to facilitate the evaluation of the body of health-related multipollutant research, allowing for a more comprehensive evaluation of the potential for mixtures to drive health effects
- Information provided in the MSDs, as well as in individual pollutant ISAs, will be considered to determine if there are opportunities to more effectively assess the effects of multiple pollutants on human health and the environment
 - Tentative peer input workshop in late 2014 to get additional input on the MSD for the effects of the Criteria Air Pollutants on Climate Forcing
- Air Quality Management Planning Initiatives:
 - Detroit Multipollutant Study: identified how multipollutant, risk-based planning could inform control strategies and address at-risk populations
 - Air Quality Management Plan (AQMP) Pilot Studies: partnered with states to facilitate exploring comprehensive air quality management planning (www.epa.gov/air/aqmp)
 - South Carolina Multipollutant Project: working to implement integrated ozone and PM Advance programs in 10 county areas in northwestern SC
 - Revised Implementation Guidance: encouraging multipollutant, risk-based planning
- An improved understanding of pollutant interactions could:
 - Better inform the NAAQS review process
 - Currently, available evidence focuses reviews on the contributions to health effects of individual pollutants
 - In the near future, reviews could consider how that unique contribution changes in the presence of other pollutants
 - In the longer term EPA could consider multipollutant standard-setting
 - Provide information to state and local policy makers to allow for choices made when implementing emissions reductions to more effectively improve air quality and reduce risk among pollutants
- Bob O'Keefe and Dan Greenbaum, HEI, presented the draft HEI Strategic Plan 2015-2020. HEI develops a strategic plan every five years to review what they've done, anticipate the policy and science challenges ahead and map out the most effective way for HEI to contribute to better decisions on air quality and health.
 - HEI has begun to identify key policy and science challenges for the coming years. Major areas the HEI might address going forward and are seeking public input are:
 - Informing challenging air quality standards decisions: targeted research into effects at low concentrations for PM and ozone and further examination of effects of different components of the PM mixture and potential short-lived climate pollutants (e.g. elemental and organic carbon, sulfate)
- Examining traffic and ports exposure and health: building on HEI's current traffic exposure studies to initiate new studies of outdoor/indoor exposures and health near traffic and port facilities, especially potential effects in environmental justice communities; examining effects of key components of traffic exposures (e.g. older diesel, ultrafine PM); and considering a potential major update to the HEI Special Report on Traffic
 - Improving science for decisions: transparency and accountability: completing and planning the next generation of HEI accountability/health outcomes studies on key regulatory actions; enhancing our ability to build data access from inception into all HEI work; and bringing diverse parties together to identify the opportunities, limitations, and best practices for engaging in data sharing going forward
 - Climate, air quality, and health: new emissions and health testing of vehicles/fuel combinations likely to be considered in meeting upcoming and future vehicle greenhouse gas requirements; informing developing world decisions on air quality and climate; and building the science base on the potential health effects of climate change (e.g. heat, allergens)
 - Policy challenges ahead:
 - How low could/should ambient standards go?
 - Continued science and regulatory pressure on "traffic" effects, especially new NO₂ and PM roadside monitors in U.S.
 - Increased scrutiny of the effectiveness of air quality rules
 - Actions in Europe, China, elsewhere
 - Climate, air quality, and health
 - Major HEI research opportunities:
 - Informing challenging NAAQS/limit values decisions including:
 - Estimating the effects of long-term exposure to low levels of air pollution
 - Exploring further analyses in the National Particle Component Toxicity (NPACT) and European Study of Cohorts for Air Pollution effects (ESCAPE) studies
 - Testing the cardiovascular effects of ozone at lower levels of exposure
 - Research into effects at low concentrations for PM and ozone
 - Detailed examination of effects of different components of the PM mixture
 - Health effects of short-lived climate pollutants (EC, OC, sulfate)
 - Examining traffic and ports exposure and health: requirements for cleaner fuels and technologies promise progress for the future as transportation fleets are replaced. The advent of increased monitoring and potential regulatory attention to continuing roadside exposures from older technology has increased the need for targeted, advanced, and innovative exposure and health research to inform future questions on reducing such exposures and effects. These trends pose several scientific challenges and opportunities:

- Enhanced and innovative exposure assessment: HEI has already launched 5 targeted studies to enhance exposure assessment. It will be especially important to ensure that these studies, and the next generation, can examine microenvironments and the relationship between outdoor and indoor exposure.
- New health studies of road and port exposures: this study will identify opportunities to apply emerging tools to new targeted health studies, especially in sensitive populations.
- Exposure components of special interest: within the mix of components in traffic exposures, some stand out as areas that may be especially important for further investigation:
 - Older diesel engine exhaust: for countries outside Europe and the US, older diesel vehicles will continue to be a significant component of exposure. HEI's *Diesel Epidemiology Project* is expected to provide important guidance on the suitability of the newest diesel epidemiology studies for quantitative risk assessment of effects at typical ambient levels.
 - Ultrafine Particles: HEI's 2013 Perspectives *Understanding the Health Effects of Ambient Ultrafine Particles* summarized current science on exposure to and health effects of ultrafine particles, and concluded "The current evidence does not support a conclusion that exposures to UFPs alone can account in substantial ways for the adverse effects that have been associated with other ambient pollutants such as PM_{2.5}." The perspectives also identified a number of continuing research needs, and questions continue to be raised about the potential role in effects observed in traffic exposure studies, especially because some new technologies, such as gasoline direct injection, emit UFPs. This set of issues continues to be of importance as decision makers in the U.S. and globally consider what, if any, action to take on particle number standards for light-duty and heavy-duty vehicles in light of European actions.
 - Non-tailpipe emissions: with a significant reduction of tailpipe PM emissions from new technology diesel vehicles, interest in non-tailpipe emissions of vehicles is increasing, and there is interest in understanding how the non-tailpipe emissions could affect exposures of individuals living near major roads. HEI issued a request for applications in early 2014 for studies to characterize such particulate emissions. Two or three studies will start early in the Strategic Plan 2015-2020.
 - Coarse Particles: While PM_{2.5} has been the focus of a large number of studies, the role of smaller, PM_{2.5}

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- (including ultrafine particles) and larger, coarse PM_{2.5-10} particles is not well understood. Both EPA and CASAC have emphasized the need for better understanding of possible associations between coarse particle exposure and health effects
- An updated HEI Traffic Special Review? Since HEI published their traffic review in 2010, a number of additional studies have been published and more are being published with some frequency. HEI is considering, and seeking input on, the value of updating that report
 - Improving science for decisions; transparency and accountability:
 - New methods: HEI will build on new statistical methods to enable direct evaluation of well-defined, long-term regulatory interventions using national databases such as Medicare or census data, explore progress measures of air quality (e.g. non-attainment status) and health outcomes at the state, regional, and national levels.
 - Specific study areas: HEI will seek to fund studies examining air quality and health outcomes of selected major rules at the national and state levels
 - Environmental justice: HEI will seek studies that focus on potential disproportional impacts among sensitive populations, focusing on communities which may be at greater risk due to ethnicity, socio-economic status, proximity to roadway and stationary sources, and the cumulative effects of multiple pollutants
 - Air quality and climate: HEI could also identify accountability opportunities among climate-directed actions at the city to state level intended to reduce GHGs
 - Improving data access: recently, interest in ownership and control of data underpinning scientific research has increased in Congress and the scientific and stakeholder communities and request for HEI involvement have returned. HEI's commitment extends to making data from studies funded by the Institute widely available for reanalysis, replication, and extended analysis by others.
 - Climate, Air Quality, and Health: HEI has been encouraged to consider expanding its role in climate change to understand important aspects of the complex interactions between climate, conventional air pollution, and health. Growing issues include:
 - The need, in response to tightening GHG vehicle emissions standards in many countries, to have the best available information on the emissions and health effects of a range of vehicle technologies and fuels, as well as enhanced life cycle analyses for these technology/fuel combinations

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- The potential effects on climate of different conventional pollutants such as ozone, carbon particles and sulfate particles; and the need to assess those actions for the potential benefits and potential dis-benefits
- The potential direct health effects of climate change and actions to address climate change

HEI sees several important ways that it could engage more directly in helping to inform decision on climate change actions during the next strategic plan:

- Choosing fuel efficient vehicles: In view of concerns about climate change and energy security, there is a need to find new solutions to enable mobility for the public while overcoming problems to climate, energy security, and costs, along with air pollution. This complex situation also provides the impetus for development and introduction of a broad range of new fuels, technologies, and sources of energy to meet the needs of the transportation sector. Over the next five years, concerns that may arise from the use of new fuels and technologies will remain a priority for HEI research including:
 - Toxicity of emissions from emerging vehicle technologies and fuels: 1) HEI will convene leading experts in biological testing, both in vitro and short-term in vivo assays for several end points. HEI will develop an agreed upon set of tests and appropriate protocols, and test these across several laboratories to assess the procedures and their reproducibility, as well as develop base parameters of the assays. 2) HEI will then work with experts in engines, vehicles, fuels, and operating conditions to select a modest but diverse group of engines or vehicles. The result will be a systematic, side-by-side comparison program that will provide useful data for policy decisions.
 - Ultrafine particles are encountered under a number of emissions scenarios. These are emitted from LD engines that use GDI. Though UFPs are not specifically regulated in the U.S, they are regulated in Europe under a particle number mandate. The understanding of the health effects of larger size particle is far from complete, but it is better than that for the effects of UFPs. This issue is also important in the context of human exposure to traffic related air pollution. HEI will explore the scientific investigations that may shed light on the role various UFP characteristics, such as mass, number, surface area, age, composition, solubility, may play in health effects.
 - Aromatics: there is evidence that the degree of hydrocarbon unsaturation in gasoline, including the contribution from aromatic compounds, is proportional to

PM emissions. The use of ethanol blends would be expected to dilute unsaturated hydrocarbons in the fuels, and reduce PM formation. However, recent data from EPA suggest that ethanol's effects on PM emissions is complex and that at least for certain vehicles, ethanol augments the effect of unsaturated HCs in terms of PM production. Given that the Energy Policy Act (2005) mandates the use of increasing amounts of renewable fuels in the coming years, the most recent data on unsaturation and PM is a potentially significant issue, PM emitted under these conditions has not been characterized, or have any health effects studies been performed with them. HEI stands ready to test the emissions from a small number of vehicles, fueled by various blend levels and characterize their emissions, and perform short-term health effects testing.

- Analysis of fuel/technology life cycle health impact: HEI is prepared to convene an expert panel to re-visit analysis of fuel/technology life cycle health impact, update it in light of newer data, and subject it to a rigorous peer review. This update would address two HEI Special Committee on Emerging Technologies' (SCET) recommendations: a better understanding of the impact of "displaced" emissions from electricity generation, and life-cycle impact of metals such as lithium widely used in batteries.
- Developing world decisions on air quality and climate: high current, and projected future increases in emissions of "traditional" pollutants and greenhouse gases in many parts of the developing world, and the decisions taken by governments to mitigate them, directly impact both health and climate. The *Global Burden of Disease* analysis found that extremely high levels of air pollution contributed to 2.1 million premature deaths in developing Asia in 2010. Transported SO₂, NO₂, and other pollutants contribute to increased ozone and particulate levels in neighboring Japan and as far as the western U.S. In Latin America and Eastern Europe emissions are lower, but in some areas pose concerns. HEI has established itself as a globally relevant, trusted provider of science.

The first draft Plan is released for public comments (requested by June 15, 2014). HEI plans to issue a revised plan for review by the sponsors in the June to October 2014 timeframe, with adoption by the HEI Board in February 2015. The Final HEI Strategic Plan will become effective on April 1, 2015. MECA will be providing HEI with comments on their draft plan by the June 15 request date. A copy of the draft Strategic Plan is available for public comments at: <http://www.healtheffects.org/Pubs/HEI-Draft-StrategicPlan2015-2020-May2014.pdf>.



STATEMENT

Synopsis of Research Report 179

HEALTH
EFFECTS
INSTITUTE

Development and Application of an Aerosol Screening Model for Size-Resolved Urban Aerosols

BACKGROUND

Dr. Charles O. Stanier, a recipient of HEI's Walter A. Rosenblith New Investigator Award, and Dr. Sang-Rin Lee developed, tested, and evaluated an aerosol screening model for estimating the number concentrations and size distribution of ultrafine particles, defined as particles less than 100 nm in aerodynamic diameter, in near-road environments with high spatial resolution (~10 m). In the urban atmosphere, ultrafine particles are derived primarily from motor vehicles, and their concentrations vary greatly because of steep concentration gradients near traffic sources. Thus assessing exposure to ultrafine particles is challenging, and there is a need for improved models.

APPROACH

The main goal of the study was to develop, test, and evaluate an aerosol screening model of hourly size-resolved number concentrations and distributions for particles in the size range of 3 nm to 2.5 µm. The aerosol screening model is an integrated model based on the Lagrangian modeling framework, which assumes columns of air parcels that move downwind with larger steps when far from receptors and smaller steps when close to receptors. The assumptions used by the aerosol screening model include rapid mixing of tail-pipe emissions, emissions evenly mixed horizontally across the road width and carried beyond the edge of the road by diffusion and advection with the wind (i.e., downwind transport), and rapid mixing into a predefined vertical distribution.

Model design and construction were guided by the desire for the model, first, to have the ability to model concentrations over short (1-hour) and longer (24-hour) periods at sites with various traffic volumes

and patterns and at various distances from roads and, second, to use a large database of road segments and emission factors derived from different data sources. It was also important that the model estimates could be compared with field measurements made with a condensation particle counter (CPC) and a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS), which have different lower size cutoffs.

What This Study Adds

- Stanier and Lee developed and tested an aerosol screening model to simulate the dispersion of ultrafine particles near roadways using a Lagrangian dispersion framework. The model estimated particle numbers and size distributions at 11 sites in Los Angeles and Riverside counties in California.
- The performance of the model was mixed. The model predictions for the 24-hour average number concentrations were close to the preset performance targets; the predictions for the 1-hour average number concentrations were poor and did not capture the diurnal variations observed at several sites. Particle size distributions also were not well represented by the model.
- The study demonstrates the challenges involved in modeling ultrafine particles in urban areas. Although it remains unclear what the most useful applications of this model will be, it offers promise for further improvements.

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The model was run to predict hourly and 24-hour concentrations and size distributions of particle number and mass at 11 sites in California where real-time measurements were made in previous studies. These included seven sites around the port of Long Beach (one of the busiest commercial ports in the United States) that were part of the Harbor Community Monitoring Study (HCMS) and four sites near retirement communities in Los Angeles and Riverside counties that were part of the Cardiovascular Health and Air Pollution Study (CHAPS).

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

The investigators assessed the performance of the aerosol screening model by comparing the 1-hour and 24-hour-average simulations with the corresponding measured concentrations. Correlations between the modeled and measured 1-hour and 24-hour average number concentrations differed.

For the 24-hour measurement, the model's performance was not far from the preset targets. For the 1-hour average number concentrations, the model's performance was poor and did not capture the diurnal variations observed at several sites. In general, the performance was better at the CHAPS sites, which were further from freeways and had a lower volume of heavy-duty vehicles compared with the majority of the HCMS sites. The investigators found that when the modeled values failed to fall in the specified ranges, the model typically underestimated the particle concentrations. Sensitivity analysis showed that the model was sensitive to traffic volume and type, as well as to road class.

The investigators compared modeled and measured size distributions at two of the Long Beach sites, LB4 and LB5. The modeled size distributions differed from the measured distributions for many of the simulations. The investigators concluded that the model underpredicts particle number concentrations for all particles sizes ≥ 15 nm and overpredicts concentrations for particle sizes < 15 nm.

CONCLUSIONS

Modeling the number and size distributions of ultrafine particles in epidemiologic studies is challenging, and only a few approaches have so far been tested. Thus the Committee thought that the study addressed an

important research need. This ambitious study was carefully planned and performed, and the work was of high quality. The Committee felt that Stanier and Lee had chosen a high level of complexity for a screening model, that the model would require additional simplifications for actual screening applications, and that additional information would be needed for more detailed applications.

The strengths of the model are its flexibility to incorporate additional processes, the automated procedure to process road network and traffic data, and the synthesis of emission data for particle number by size from various research groups (a complex task). Model limitations are implicit in the Lagrangian approach, which assumes that all the air parcels move downwind at the same rate and communicate by diffusion, but which does not allow any movement through their boundaries associated with changes in wind speed and direction.

Evaluation of the model indicated that the predictions of the 24-hour average number concentrations were close to the preset performance targets; the predictions of the 1-hour average number concentrations were poor and did not capture the diurnal variations observed at several sites. Particle size distributions were not well represented by the model, at least in part because of uncertainties in the emission factors.

The Committee agreed with the investigators' overall assessment that the performance of the model in predicting particle number and size distribution was mixed. The results suggest that the model might be more suitable for studies that require long-term (i.e., 24-hour or longer) averages.

The study reflected the challenges involved in modeling dynamic concentrations of UFPs in urban areas, including the complex behavior of UFPs in the atmosphere as well as our limited knowledge not only of size-resolved emission factors as a function of vehicle types and operating modes, but also of emissions from non-mobile sources. Given the complexity of the model and the limitations of the Lagrangian framework in modeling the behavior of ultrafine particles, it remains unclear what the most useful application of this model will be. However, the model offers promise for further improvements and has the flexibility of incorporating additional inputs such as fleet information and emissions from off-road sources.

HEI ACTIVITIES RELATED TO RESEARCH ON ENGINE EXHAUST GASES

(Prepared by Maria Costantini, Health Effects Institute)

RECENT PUBLICATIONS OF COMPLETED STUDIES

Characterization of emissions of heavy-duty diesel engines meeting the US EPA 2007 and 2010 emission standards

Khalek IA, Bougher TL, Merritt PM. 2009. Phase I of the Advanced Collaborative Emissions Study. Coordinating Research Council (CRC) Report ACES-Phase 1. Alpharetta, GA:CRC.

Khalek IA, Blanks MG, Sr, Merritt PM. 2013. Phase 2 of the Advanced Collaborative Emissions Study. Coordinating Research Council (CRC) Report ACES-Phase 1. Alpharetta, GA:CRC.

HEI reports on the exhaust characterization in the exposure chamber and toxicity of the exhaust of a 2007 compliant heavy duty diesel engine

Mauderly JL, McDonald JD. 2012. Advanced Collaborative Emissions Study (ACES) Phase 3A: Characterization of U.S. 2007-Compliant Diesel Engine and Exposure System Operation. Communication 17. Health Effects Institute, MA.

Advanced Collaborative Emissions Study (ACES.) 2012. Subchronic Exposure Results: Biologic Responses in Rats and Mice and Assessment of Genotoxicity Report # 166. Health Effects Institute, Boston, MA.

Part 1. Biologic Responses in Rats and Mice to Subchronic Inhalation of Diesel Exhaust from U.S. 2007-Compliant Engines: Report on 1-, 3-, and 12-Month Exposures in the ACES Bioassay.

McDonald JD, Doyle-Eisele M, Gigliotti A, Miller RA, Seilkop S, Mauderly JL, Seagrave J, Chow J, Zielinska B.

Part 2. Assessment of Genotoxicity After Exposure to Diesel Exhaust from U.S. 2007-Compliant Diesel Engines: Report on 1- and 3-Month Exposures in the ACES Bioassay.
Bemis, JC, Torous DK, Dertinger SD.

Part 3. Assessment of Genotoxicity and Oxidative Stress After Exposure to Diesel Exhaust from U.S. 2007-Compliant Diesel Engines: Report on 1- and 3-Month Exposures in the ACES Bioassay.
Hallberg LM, Ward JB, Hernandez C, Ameredes BT, Wickliffe JK.

Part 4. Effects of Subchronic Diesel Engine Emissions Exposure on Plasma Markers in Rodents: Report on 1- and 3-Month Exposures in the ACES Bioassay.
Conklin DJ and Kong M.

Results of the chronic bioassay (same studies as those listed above with exposure period up to 30 months) will be published at the end of the year.

Other studies

Zhu Yifang, Zhang Q, 2014. Characterizing Ultrafine Particles and Other Air Pollutants In and Around School Buses Report # 180. Health Effects Institute, Boston, MA.

Johnston MV, Klems JP, Zordan CA, Pennington MR, Smith JN. 2013. Selective Detection and Characterization of Nanoparticles from Motor Vehicles Report # 173. Health Effects Institute, Boston, MA.

Riedl MA, Diaz-Sanchez D, Linn WS, Gong H, Jr., Clark KW, Effros RM, Miller JW, Cocker DR, Berhane KT. 2012. Allergic Inflammation in the Human Lower Respiratory Tract Affected by Exposure to Diesel Exhaust Report # 165. Health Effects Institute, Boston, MA.

HEI Perspectives

Health Effects Institute. 2013. Understanding the Health Effects of Ambient Ultrafine Particles. Perspectives 3. Health Effects Institute, Boston, MA.

ON-GOING RESEARCH

Christopher Frey, *North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC*

Characterizing the determinants of vehicle traffic emissions exposure: Measurement and modeling of land-use, traffic, transformation and transport

Allison Fryer, *Oregon Health and Science University, Portland, OR*

Air pollution and systemic inflammation of autonomic nerves

Nga Lee (Sally) Ng, *Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA*

Composition and oxidative properties of particulate matter mixtures: Effects of particle phase state, acidity, and transition metals

Richard Peltier, *University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA*

Development of a new method for measurements of reactive oxygen species associated with PM_{2.5} exposure

Nga Lee (Sally) Ng, *Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA*

Composition and oxidative properties of particulate matter mixtures: Effects of particle phase state, acidity, and transition metals