



- 1 Uptake Behavior of Polycyclic Aromatic Compounds during Field
- 2 Calibrations of the XAD-Based Passive Air Sampler Across Seasons and
- 3 Locations
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## ABSTRACT

Polycyclic aromatic compounds (PACs) continue to demand attention due to their widespread presence and well-established health implications. Given that incomplete combustion is a major contributor to PACs and inhalation constitutes a crucial human exposure pathway, a comprehensive understanding of the concentrations, spatial distributions, and fates of a broad range of PACs in the atmosphere is important. Passive air samplers (PASs) are a commonly utilized technique for PAC sampling and monitoring. In this study, we present the results from two one-year calibration experiments, one starting in summer and the other in winter, using a passive air sampler equipped with XAD resin as the sorbent (XAD-PAS). Throughout both experiments, PACs were consistently sorbed during the initial six-month period. However, the sorbed amounts for many PACs exhibited a decrease after half a year of deployment. Three hypotheses to explain this phenomenon were explored, including the uptake of atmospheric particles, evaporation from the sorbent, and reactions with photooxidants. All had to be rejected based on the obtained data, additional laboratory experiments and model results. Model simulations were further used to (i) confirm that a loss process must be invoked to explain the observed uptake behaviour and (ii) estimate the kinetics of that loss process for different PACs. Sampling rates (SRs) for 28 PACs derived from the linearized uptake curves during the first six months of deployment were comparable to those of other semi-volatile organic compounds obtained during the same calibration experiment, and they also demonstrate a consistent negative correlation with volatility.





# 1. INTRODUCTION

36 Approximately 4 million square kilometers of savanna, forest, grassland, and agricultural 37 ecosystems are burnt through both natural and controlled fires annually (Nolan et al., 2022). 38 These fire events have attracted global attention to the release of pollutants, including harmful 39 particles, organic vapors, and greenhouse gases, into the air as well as the related potential 40 health risks. In particular, the production and dispersion of polycyclic aromatic compounds 41 (PACs) in the environment have emerged as significant concerns. PACs comprise organic 42 molecules composed of fused aromatic rings, including unsubstituted polycyclic aromatic 43 hydrocarbons (PAHs), alkylated PAHs (alk-PAHs), and heterocyclic aromatic compounds 44 containing N, O, or S atoms in their structure (Moradi et al., 2022). PACs originate from a 45 multitude of sources, encompassing both natural and human-related activities, many related to 46 the incomplete combustion of organic matter. Natural sources include wild fires (Nolan et al., 47 2022; Environment Canada and Health Canada, 1994; Nikolaou et al., 1984; Wnorowski et al., 48 2021), volcanic eruptions (Nikolaou et al., 1984; Programme United Nations Environment, 49 2020), and biogenic processes (Wakeham et al., 1980). Anthropogenic activities contribute 50 substantially to the emissions of PACs into the environment (Environment Canada and Health 51 Canada, 1994), with vehicle emissions (Berthiaume et al., 2021; Muir and Galarneau, 2021), 52 cooking and heating (Shen et al., 2012; Environment Canada and Health Canada, 1994), wood 53 burning (Lima et al., 2005; Xu et al., 2006), industrial processes (Lima et al., 2005; Xu et al., 54 2006), and tobacco smoke (Holme et al., 2022) releasing numerous PACs into the atmosphere. 55 PAHs have been widely studied due to their ubiquitous presence in the environment and their 56 potential for eliciting adverse health effects, such as allergic potential, carcinogenicity, 57 teratogenicity, and genotoxicity (Rice and Baker, 2007; Boffetta et al., 1997; White, 2002; Kim 58 et al., 2013; Organization, 1998; ATSDR (Agency for Toxic Substances Disease Registry), 59 1995), PAHs are regulated and routinely monitored by numerous agencies and governments 60 across the globe. 61 With past research efforts mainly focused on PAHs, alk-PAHs have only recently started to 62 garner attention from researchers. The addition of alkyl groups alters the physicochemical 63 properties of PAHs, affecting their solubility, volatility, and toxicological properties. Certain 64 alk-PAHs may be more toxic than their non-alkylated counterparts (Golzadeh et al., 2021; 65 Hawthorne et al., 2006; Andersson and Achten, 2015; Grung et al., 2011; Kaisarevic et al., 66 2009; Pcchillips et al., 1979; Sarma et al., 2017), raising concerns about their potential 67 ecological and human health impacts. Whereas alk-PAHs have been identified at elevated



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68 concentrations, and in some cases, are even dominant among PACs in air (Wnorowski et al., 69 2022; Moradi et al., 2022; Jariyasopit et al., 2019) and food (Golzadeh et al., 2021), they have 70 not been widely studied, monitored, and regulated (Moradi et al., 2022). Studies in Canada are 71 particularly limited in number, with some data available for the Greater Toronto Area 72 (Jariyasopit et al., 2019; Moradi et al., 2022) and Athabasca oil sands region (Harner et al., 73 2013; Jariyasopit et al., 2018; Wnorowski et al., 2021; Mahoney et al., 2023; Cheng et al., 2018; 74 Rauert et al., 2020; Harner et al., 2018; Moradi et al., n.d.; Jariyasopit et al., 2021; Ahad et al., 75 2021). 76 Because inhalation is a critical human exposure pathway (Carl-Elis et al., 2002; Liu et al., 77 2007), achieving a comprehensive understanding of PAC concentrations, spatial distribution, 78 and fate in the atmosphere is important. As atmospheric PAC concentrations are related to 79 proximity to emission sources, urban areas, industrial zones, regions with high traffic density, 80 and places close to wildfire typically exhibit elevated PAC concentrations. Atmospheric 81 transport can disperse PACs widely, both while bound to particles and in the gas phase (Muir 82 and Galarneau, 2021; Zhou et al., 2019; Wnorowski et al., 2022; Masclet et al., 2000). Clearly, 83 there is a need for reliable air sampling techniques for a wide range of PACs. 84 Atmospheric PACs can be sampled using active air samplers (AASs) and passive air samplers 85 (PASs). In AASs, pumps are used to pull air through a sampling medium (e.g., a sorbent or/and 86 a filter) to capture atmospheric PACs in the gas or/and particle phase. While accurate sampling 87 volumes are usually easily obtained, the need for a stable electrical power supply and high 88 maintenance requirements and operational expenses limit the geographical scope of AASs, 89 especially in remote areas. Without using pumps, PASs sample and retain chemicals by relying 90 on chemical vapors' diffusing and sorbing to a sorbent. Low cost and maintenance 91 requirements expand their potential spatial applications, e.g., in areas close to wildfire regions. 92 However, obtaining accurate sampling volumes can be challenging. Confidently using a PAS 93 requires quantitative knowledge of the uptake kinetics and of the limits of linear uptake for the 94 targeted compounds, which is typically obtained by calibration studies using co-located AAS 95 and PASs. 96 Sorbents used for sampling PACs in PASs include polyurethane form (PUF) (Cheng et al., 97 2013; Domínguez-Morueco et al., 2017; Pozo et al., 2015), polyethylene (PE) (Bartkow et al.,

2004; Meierdierks et al., 2021), polydimethyl siloxane (PDMS) (Barthel et al., 2012; Bohlin-

Nizzetto et al., 2020), and styrene-divinylbenzene co-polymeric resin (commercial name XAD)

(Barthel et al., 2012; Lévy et al., 2018). Calibration studies have been conducted for PACs in





101 PAS based on PE (Meierdierks et al., 2021), PUF (Harner et al., 2013; Bohlin-Nizzetto et al., 102 2020; Tromp et al., 2019; Holt et al., 2017; Bohlin et al., 2014a; Melymuk et al., 2011), PDMS 103 (Tromp et al., 2019), and XAD(Ellickson et al., 2017; Armitage et al., 2013). However, due to 104 a relative low uptake capacity, some sorbents, such as PE and PDMS, are less widely used in 105 PAS. Even though PUF-PASs are widely used, they have some limitations: (1) the uptake 106 capacity of PUF is too small to sample more volatile PACs within the linear uptake regime 107 during longer deployment periods, which may lead to relatively high uncertainties and 108 difficulties in data interpretation (Li and Wania, 2021; Li et al., 2022). (2) Gas-phase 109 concentrations of PACs, especially of less volatile PACs, may be hard to obtain as the PUF-110 PAS samples both gaseous and particle-bound PACs (Melymuk et al., 2011), with sampling 111 rates for the latter suffering from high variability and uncertainty (Holt et al., 2017). 112 The significantly greater uptake capacity (Wania and Shunthirasingham, 2020; Hayward et al., 113 2011) of the XAD-PAS (Wania et al., 2003) results in a demonstrably longer linear uptake 114 period (Wania and Shunthirasingham, 2020; Li et al., 2023a, b) for many semi-volatile organic 115 compounds (SVOCs) compared to other PASs. Moreover, the XAD-PAS's shelter was 116 intentionally designed to mitigate the impact of wind and particle uptake. Although the XAD-117 PAS has been calibrated for PAC twice (Ellickson et al., 2017; Armitage et al., 2013), these 118 studies only targeted a limited number of PAHs and no alk-PAHs or heterocyclic aromatic 119 compounds. While Armitage et al. (2013) deployed AASs and PASs side-by-side, Ellickson et 120 al. (2017) positioned certain PASs at a considerable distance from the AASs, which could 121 potentially introduce heightened levels of uncertainty into the findings. The current study 122 sought to conduct a "gold standard" calibration for XAD-PAS with the following objectives: 123 (1) evaluate the uptake behaviors of a large number of PACs in XAD-PAS, including PAHs, 124 alk-PAHs, and the heterocyclic aromatic compound dibenzothiophene; (2) determine the linear 125 uptake regimes and obtain experimental sampling rates for these PACs; (3) assess the impact 126 of meteorological conditions and chemical properties on the sampling of these PACs.

## 2. METHODS AND MATERIALS

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Field Sampling. The main calibration experiment was conducted in 2020/2021 on the campus of the University of Toronto Scarborough in the eastern suburbs of Toronto (43.7837, -79.1903), with results for other SVOCs reported previously (Li et al., 2023b, a). For comparison, we also present the results of calibration experiments conducted in 2001/2002 in a forest (44.3184, -79.9341) and a nearby clearing (44.3270, -79.9169) site in Borden, Ontario, with air concentrations having been previously reported (Su et al., 2007a, b). The Borden sites





134 are approximately 85 km to the Northwest of the Toronto site. In each study, XAD-PASs were 135 deployed simultaneously ca. 1.5 m above the ground, and AASs, collecting particle and gas 136 phase separately, were placed side by side with the PASs. Both calibration experiments lasted 137 ~1 year, with the Borden experiments starting in November 2001 and the Toronto experiment 138 in June 2020. During the experiments, XAD-PASs were retrieved every four weeks in Toronto 139 and after 36, 60, 120, 181, 246, 323, and 365 days in Borden. Periodical 24-hour-long active 140 air samples in Borden and consecutive week-long active air samples in Toronto were obtained 141 using high-volume active air samplers (HV-AASs) and mid-volume active air samplers (MV-142 AAS), respectively. Detailed sampling information has been described in previous publications 143 (Su et al., 2007a, b; Li et al., 2023b, a). 144 Sample Treatment. Glass fiber filters (GFFs) and PUFs from the Borden experiment were 145 Soxhlet extracted with dichloromethane and petroleum ether, respectively. Extracts were 146 cleaned, fractionated, and concentrated as described previously (Su et al., 2006, 2007a). The 147 XAD from the PASs deployed at Borden was loaded to and extracted in an elution column with 148 250 mL of methanol, followed by 350 mL of dichloromethane. After removing methanol with 149 250 mL of 3% sodium chloride, extracts were concentrated and fractionated using the method 150 described in Wania et al. (2003) The fractionated extracts were solvent exchanged into iso-151 octane, and finally concentrated to 0.5 mL using nitrogen. More detail on sample treatment is 152 available in earlier publications (Su et al., 2006, 2007a; Wania et al., 2003). 153 For the samples from the Toronto experiment, one XAD-PAS cylinder from each retrieval date, 154 all blank samples, the PUF-XAD-PUF sandwiches, and GFFs were subjected to extraction 155 using an accelerated solvent extractor (Dionex 350). Prior to extraction, labeled standards 156 (Table S2) were spiked onto the samples as surrogates. The extracts were then concentrated 157 using rotary evaporation, water residues were removed using sodium sulfate columns, solvent-158 exchanged into iso-octane, and further concentrated to 0.1 mL for PAS and 0.5 mL for AAS 159 using nitrogen-blowdown. Prior to instrumental analysis, 2.96 ng and 14.8 ng injection 160 standards (Table S2) were added to PAS and AAS extracts, respectively. Detailed procedures 161 were reported previously (Li et al., 2023b, a). 162 Instrumental Analysis. Extracts from the Borden experiment were analysed for 16 PAHs with 163 an Agilent 6890 gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with an Agilent 5973 mass spectrometric 164 (MS) detector using electron ionization in selected ion monitoring mode. In extracts from the 165 Toronto experiment, a total of 22 PAHs, 22 alk-PAHs and dibenzothiophene were analyzed. 166 This analysis were carried out using an Agilent 7890A GC coupled with a 7000A triple





- quadrupole MS for PAS and PUF/XAD sanwich extracts and and an Agilent 8890 GC coupled
- 168 to with a 7010B MS/MS for the GFF extracts, using electron ionization in multiple reaction
- monitoring mode. Details on instruments, columns, temperatures, and other parameters are
- given in the Supporting Information (SI).
- 171 Ozone Exposure Experiment. A laboratory experiment was conducted to examine the
- potential of PAHs to undergo reactions with ozone while being sorbed to XAD. Approximately
- 173 150 g of pre-cleaned XAD-2 resin was added to ~300 mL of an acetone solution containing
- 174 ~3500-5000 ng each of acenaphthene, anthracene, phenanthrene, pyrene, and fluoranthene. To
- make sure the XAD-resin was well mixed, it was stirred continuously using a clean spatula
- until all acetone had evaporated (confirmed by repeatedly weighing of the PAC-loaded XAD-
- 177 resin). ~5.0 g of the spiked XAD resin was added to 10 mesh cylinders (2.0 cm diameter), as
- used in the XAD-PAS, reducing the amount of resin required by placing a smaller empty mesh
- cylinder (1.0 cm diameter) in their centre (Zhang et al., 2011). The exact weight of the XAD
- in each mesh cylinder was recorded and used for data normalization.
- 181 Five randomly selected spiked mesh cylinders were extracted and analyzed using the same
- 182 method as for the samples from the Toronto experiment mentioned above in order to investigate
- the variability of the PAHs in these cylinders. Three mesh cylinders were exposed to 1000 ppb
- 184 ozone at 0% relative humidity (RH) in a flowtube (Zhou and Abbatt, 2021) (Figure S1), two
- for 24 hours and one for 72 hours. As a control, two mesh cylinders were exposed to air for 24
- hours at 0% RH in the same flow tube. Upon retrieval, the five mesh cylinders from the flow
- tube experiments were extracted and analyzed as before.
- 188 Calculation of Sampling Rates (SR). During the linear uptake phase, the SR of a compound
- in the XAD-PAS is linearly related to the effective sampling volume  $V_{\text{eff}}$  (m<sup>3</sup>):

$$190 V_{eff} = \frac{M_{PAS}}{c_{air}} = SR \cdot t (1)$$

- where  $M_{PAS}$  (ng) is the field blank corrected amount of a PAC sorbed to the XAD-2 resin, and
- 192 Cair is the atmospheric gas phase concentration of the PAC (ng m<sup>-3</sup>) averaged over the
- deployment period t of a sampler (day).  $C_{\text{air}}$  is derived by averaging the concentrations recorded
- by the AAS during a PAS's deployment. The SR for each compound during the period of linear
- uptake is then obtained as the slope of the linear regression between  $V_{\text{eff}}$  and t.
- 196 Chemical Properties Compilation. The logarithm of the equilibrium concentration ratios
- between XAD-resin and air ( $K_{XAD/air}$ , L air  $g^{-1}$  XAD) at 20 °C (Table S4) and the internal





energies of phase transfer between XAD and the gas phase  $\Delta U_{\rm XAD/air}$  (J mol<sup>-1</sup>, Table S4) were calculated using solute descriptors for PACs from the UFZ-LSER database (UFZ-LSER database v 3.2.1 [Internet], 2022) and the poly parameter free energy relationships (ppLFERs) by Hayward et al. (2011) The log  $K_{\rm XAD/air}$  values at the mean temperatures over the entire deployment period of the Borden and Toronto calibration experiments (7.9 and 12.2°C, respectively) (Table 2) were obtained from log  $K_{\rm XAD/air}$  at 20 °C and  $\Delta U_{\rm XAD/air}$  using the van't Hoff equation (Atkinson and Curthoys, 1978; Goss, 1996).

**Model Simulations.** A mechanistic model develped by Zhang and Wania (2012) was used to simulate the uptake of PACs with different  $K_{XAD/air}$  during the two calibration experiments beginning in different seasons (June and November). This model describes the diffusion of chemicals from the atmospheric gas phase to the sorbent of a PAS and the kinetics of reversible sorption to that sorbent. It has been modified to consider degradation loss of chemical sorbed to the XAD-resin and to incorporate time-variant temperature and atmospheric ozone concentrations. The Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm was used to find the combinations of sorption rate  $k_{sorb}$  and degradative loss rate  $k_d$  that provide the best fit between predicted and measured uptake curves. The actual temperature measured during the two calibration experiments (Figures S2 and S3) were used in the simulations. Measured ozone concentrations reported for the vicinity of the sampling sites (Figures S4 and S5) were used as input for photooxidant degradation simulations only. The thickness of the stagnant air boundary layer was assumed to be 0.01 cm and the simulated deployment length was 336 days.

# 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Amounts Accumulated in PASs. Fifteen PAHs, twelve alk-PAHs and dibenzothiophene were reliably detected in the PAS extracts from the Toronto experiment (Table S6). Seven of these PAHs were also detected in the extracts from the Borden experiment (Table S7). The amounts of fluorene, naphthalene, and phenanthrene accumulated in the PASs are plotted versus deployment length in Figure 1. Plots for the remaining 25 PACs are provided in Figures S6 and S7 in the Supporting Information. These plots reveal that for only five of the 28 PACs in the Toronto experiment, namely, acenaphthylene, fluorene, 1-methylfluorene, chrysene, and benzo[b]fluoranthene, does the amount sorbed to the XAD increase relatively continuously with increasing deployment for the entire length of the experiment. The amounts of the remaining PACs either were largely constant (e.g., naphthalene in Figure 1) or decreased (e.g., phenanthrene in Figure 1) after approximately six-months of deployment. The observed uptake behaviour was consistent between the three study sites, i.e., was observed in Toronto and the

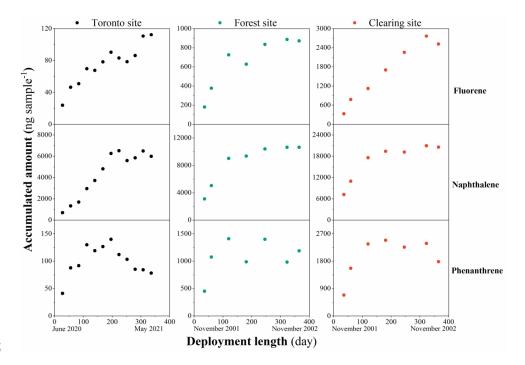




231 forest and clearing sites in Borden (Figure 1). This behaviour is in contrast to continuous uptake 232 observed for a large number of SVOCs targeted in the same calibration study in Toronto (Li et 233 al., 2023b, a). 234 Theoretically, the amount of a chemical taken up in a PAS should always increase with 235 deployment length (Wania and Shunthirasingham, 2020). A decrease with increasing 236 deployment length might occur if the chemical is degraded while being sorbed or if the rate of 237 evaporation from the sorbent exceeds the rate of uptake. The latter occurs only if a chemical's 238 air concentration decreases or temperature increases after the chemical has reached a state of 239 equilibrium between atmospheric gas phase and sorbent. Equilibrium is more easily established 240 for volatile chemicals, sorbents with low uptake capacity and long deployments. We explored 241 three hypotheses to explain these unexpected decreasing trends in the amounts accumulated in 242 PASs. 243 Can Uptake of Particle-bound Compounds Explain Decreasing Trends in the Amounts 244 Accumulated in PASs? The first hypothesis posits that the observed uptake behaviour was 245 caused by the potentially inconsistent and unpredictable uptake and accumulation of 246 atmospheric particles in the XAD-PAS. This hypothesis is based on previous studies showing 247 that some PASs do not efficiently block wind from carrying particle-bound substances to the 248 sorbent, as is, e.g., observed in the case of the PUF-PAS with double bowl shelters (Wania and 249 Shunthirasingham, 2020; Chaemfa et al., 2009; Bohlin et al., 2014b; Harner et al., 2013). Even 250 though there is currently no evidence of the uptake of particle-bound SVOCs in the XAD-PAS, 251 if such uptake were to occur, the accumulated amount of a chemical in the XAD-PAS would 252 be the sum of the amount taken up from the gas phase and the amount derived from sampled 253 particle phase. Consequently, the uptake amount could be influenced by the size, type, and 254 concentrations of particles in air and the wind exposure of a PAS during deployment.







**Figure 1:** The amounts of three representative chemicals accumulating in the XAD-PASs throughout the one-year deployment period. The black, green, and red markers indicate the blank-corrected measured values at the site in Toronto, and the forest and clearing sites in Borden, respectively. The deployment month and the month in which the last PAS was retrieved are also indicated at the bottom part of this figure.

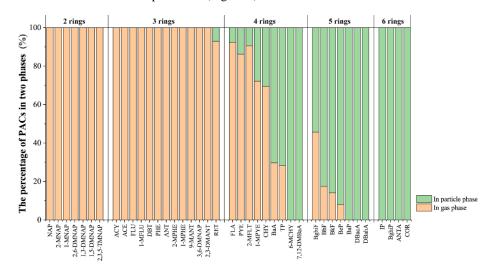
Seventeen PAHs and four alk-PAHs were reliably detected in the particles collected on the GFFs from the AASs in the Toronto experiment. Almost all two- and three-rings PACs were only detected in the gas phase, some four-rings and five-rings PACs could be detected in both gas and particle phase, and nine less volatile PACs were only found in the particle phase (Figure 2). This is consistent with previous studies (Lewis and Coutant, 2020; Ravindra et al., 2008; Terzi and Samara, 2004) indicating less volatile PACs with four or more rings mainly being associated with atmospheric particles, whereas volatile PACs are mostly in the gas phase.

Only PACs with at least four or more fused rings in their structure could be detected with a high percentage in the particle phase, whereas the chemicals taken up by the XAD-PASs were primarily more volatile PACs with three or fewer rings. The absence of these relatively volatile PACs in the particle phase (i.e., levels below the LOD) demonstrates that the variation of their accumulated amount in XAD-PASs in the second half of the year-long deployment cannot be associated with the uptake of atmospheric particles. Because concentrations of particle-bound





PACs in Ontario are much higher in winter than in summer (Su et al., 2007a), their hypothetical uptake would be expected to occur during the latter half of the Toronto experiment and the first half of the Borden study. However, the same deviations from continuous uptake are apparent in the second half of both experiments (Figure 1).



**Figure 2:** The average percentages of PACs detected in the particle (green) and gas phase (orange) of the 48 week-long active air samples taken during the Toronto experiment. PACs were grouped based on the number of rings in their structure.

In the case of the least volatile PACs with five and six rings that were only detected in the particle phase, their absence in PAS extracts provides further evidence that the XAD-PAS does not take up atmospheric particles. Daly et al. (2007) previously reported that involatile chemicals tend to have levels below the limit of detection in XAD-PAS extracts, which is also consistent with our previous studies indicating that no SVOCs with  $\log K_{\rm XAD/air}$  higher than 7.0 at 12.2 °C were detected in XAD-PASs (Li et al., 2023b, a). All evidence therefore refutes the first hypothesis that particle uptake may be the cause of the variation in the uptake amounts.

Can a Limited Sorbent Uptake Capacity Explain Decreasing Trends in the Amounts Accumulated in PASs? The second hypothesis is that the uptake capacity for XAD-PAS is too small to prevent some PACs from reaching equilibrium between sorbent and atmospheric gas phase after six months of deployment. A subsequent decrease in sorbed amount could then be attributed to a decrease in air concentration or an increase in temperature, both of which would allow evaporative loss to exceed uptake. Several pieces of evidence do not support this interpretation:



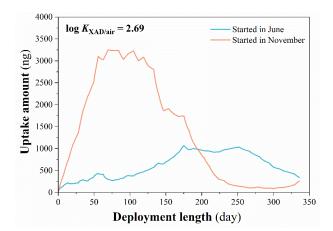


296 During the same calibration experiment in Toronto, we observed highly linear uptake over the 297 entire 48 weeks for SVOCs as volatile as hexachlorobutadiene and monochlorinated biphenyl, 298 with estimated log ( $K_{XAD/air}$  / (L air g<sup>-1</sup> XAD)) values of 2.95 and 3.56 at 20 °C, respectively. 299 Naphthalene, the most volatile of the PACs targeted, has an estimated  $\log (K_{XAD/air} / (L \text{ air g}^{-1}))$ 300 XAD)) of 2.69. It is implausible that some chemicals remain in the linear uptake phase, while 301 chemicals with a very similar or higher affinity for sorbing to XAD from the gas phase would 302 reach equilibrium in the same experiment. Furthermore, there is no indication that the extent 303 of loss of PAC from the PAS during the second half of deployment is related to compound 304 volatility. For example, whereas phenanthrene is less volatile than either naphthalene or 305 fluorene, i.e., has a higher  $K_{XAD/air}$  (Table 2), it was lost from the XAD-PAS to a greater extent 306 than either of these PACs (Figure 1). 307 The potential for evaporative net loss of a PAC from the XAD-PAS is largest in summer, when 308 PAC air concentrations tend to be lower and temperatures are highest. This implies that this 309 potential for evaporative loss during the second half of a one-year experiment would be higher 310 in the case of the Borden calibrations (starting in November) than in the Toronto experiment 311 (starting in June). Figure 3 displays simulated uptake curves for a compound that is volatile 312 enough to reach equilibrium between XAD and gas phase. Applying the seasonal variability of 313 naphthalene air concentrations and the temperatures measured in Borden and Toronto (Figure 314 S7), the model predicts widely divergent uptake curves for deployments starting in November 315 and June. The loss of sorbed naphthalene occurs earlier during an experiment starting in winter 316 (after ca. 120 days of deployment), and the extent of loss is more pronounced. In contrast, the 317 naphthalene uptake curves observed in the field calibration experiments are remarkably similar 318 (Figure 1). In summary, all evidence indicates that PACs did not reach equilibrium and a 319 limited XAD uptake capacity cannot explain the absence of continuous uptake. 320 Can Degradative Loss Explain Decreasing Trends in the Amounts Accumulated in PASs? 321 The third hypothesis posits that reactions of sorbed PACs with photooxidants present in the 322 atmosphere could account for the lack of continuous uptake (Jariyasopit et al., 2015; Melymuk 323 et al., 2017). It is well established that ozone can react with PAHs sorbed to solid phases 324 (Borrowman et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2019) and atmospheric particles (Van Vaeck and Van 325 Cauwenberghe, 1984; Kasumba and Holmén, 2018). While nitrogen dioxide may also react 326 with some PAHs, either no reactions were found (Grosjean et al., 1983; Pitts et al., 1980), or 327 only negligible percentages of PAHs were observed to react with nitrogen dioxide (Tokiwa et 328 al., 1981). Even though gaseous and sorbed PAHs can react with OH radicals (Brubaker and





Hites, 1998; Atkinson and Arey, 2007; Esteve et al., 2004, 2006; Bedjanian et al., 2010), such reactions are less likely to occur within the dark environment of a XAD-PAS housing. Consequently, we focused solely on the reaction between ozone and PACs.



**Figure 3:** Predicted uptake curves for a chemical with a log ( $K_{XAD/air}$  / (L air g<sup>-1</sup> XAD) value of 2.69 at 20 °C during calibration experiments starting in June and November, while assuming air concentration and temperature variability typical for Southern Ontario. The thickness of the stagnant air boundary layer was set to 0.01cm, the sorption rate was set as  $3\times10^5$  day<sup>-1</sup> and no degradation was assumed.

Specifically, we exposed PAC sorbed to XAD to high concentrations of ozone in a flow tube to probe the possibility of degradative loss. If the reaction rate of the PACs with ozone is assumed to be proportional to the ozone concentration, an exposure to ~1000 ppb of ozone for 24 and 72 hour is equivalent to two to four months of continuous exposure to atmospherically relevant ozone levels of ~25 ppb. During the sampling period in Toronto, the ozone concentration measured at an air monitoring station (43.7479, -79.2741) located ca. 8 km from our sampling site ranged from 10 to 50 ppb with an annual average of 26 ppb (Figure S4). The ozone concentration in the vicinity of the Borden site had a similar range (10 to 60 ppb) and

346 mean (27 ppb) (Figure S5).

We succeeded in obtaining a consistent loading of PAHs in the XAD-filled mesh cylinders: The amounts of five PAHs on the XAD, when normalized to the net weight of resin in a mesh cylinder, had a relative standard deviation (RSD) between 4.6 and 6.6% (Table 1). Neither extended exposure to ozone in the flow tube nor exposure to air in the control experiment resulted in a significant change (p > 0.05) in these amounts of PAHs in the XAD-filled mesh cylinders (Table 1). In other words, the experiments suggest that ozone did not react with the



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PACs sorbed to XAD resin. Interestingly, we did observe the continuous loss of ozone during the flow tube experiments (Figure S8). This loss was much larger than when no XAD was present in the flow tube, i.e., can be attributed to the resin. One potential explanation is that ozone reacts with the benzene rings in the XAD resin and because of the orders of magnitude higher abundance of these aromatic structures compared with the sorbed PAHs, this reaction may protect the sorbed PAHs from being attacked.

**Table 1** The amounts of spiked PAHs on XAD resin before and after ozone exposure

	The amount of PAHs on XAD resin (ng)					
	Acenaphthene	Anthracene	Phenanthrene	Pyrene	Fluoranthene	
<b>Loading Test</b>	$60.2 \pm 3.1$	84.1 ± 5.6	$66.9 \pm 3.1$	$120.3 \pm 6.6$	$63.2 \pm 3.4$	
Control Group						
0 ppb O <sub>3</sub> (1 day)	$64.5 \pm 1.3$	$87.1 \pm 8.1$	$68.1 \pm 4.8$	$126.4 \pm 2.6$	$65.5 \pm 3.0$	
Experimental Group						
1000 ppb O <sub>3</sub> (1 day)	$61.7 \pm 1.2$	$84.8 \pm 2.5$	$66.4 \pm 2.4$	$123.8 \pm 3.5$	$64.8 \pm 1.9$	
1000 ppb O <sub>3</sub> (3 days)	62.5	91.3	68.7	126.9	67.0	

Further evidence that reactions with photooxidants are not responsible for the loss of PACs from the XAD-resin is provided again by the expected seasonal variability in the importance of that process. In both Toronto and Borden, the ozone concentrations are seasonally variable with higher levels in late summer and early fall and lower levels in winter (Figures S4 and S5). It thus should affect the second half of a one-year deployment much more strongly in the Borden experiment than the Toronto experiment. No such difference is apparent. To simulate the influence of ozone on the uptake amount of a PAC, a model simulation was conducted for three representative PACs in the Toronto experiment using the model by Zhang and Wania (2012) modified to allow the sorbed PAC to react with atmospheric ozone. The results from simulations show that the  $R^2$  values of the best fitting uptake curves for these three PACs decrease when the actual time-variant ozone concentration is used as an input parameter (Figure S9). Finally, we note that PAHs that are known to have a higher reactivity with ozone than others, such as fluorene (Kasumba and Holmén, 2018), anthracene (Kasumba and Holmén, 2018), and benz(a)anthracene (Van Vaeck and Van Cauwenberghe, 1984), do not appear to show a higher rate of loss from the XAD-PAS when compared to the other PACs. Consequently, based on these discussions and analyses, we conclude that ozone was not the cause of the decreasing trend of these PACs in the XAD-PASs.

What Can Explain Decreasing Trends in the Amounts Accumulated in PASs? After rejecting all three of our hypotheses, we can formulate a number of constraints on any further potential explanations. We find that the phenomenon is affecting different PACs to a different



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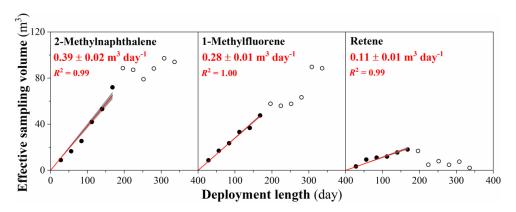
extent, but this extent is neither related to the PACs' volatility, e.g., as expressed through the  $K_{XAD/air}$ , nor to their relative reactivity with photo-oxidants. We further find that the phenomenon appears to be very similar in calibration studies started in early winter and early summer in a region with a strongly seasonal climate. This suggests that the strength of the process causing this phenomenon cannot be strongly affected by season. All three of our hypotheses relied on a seasonally variable process: PAC particle concentrations peak in winter, temperature and therefore evaporative loss potential is highest in summer, and photo-oxidant concentrations and degradative loss potential are also highest in summer. We used additional model simulations (Zhang and Wania, 2012) to further shed light on this issue. For 18 PACs we determined the combination of  $k_{\text{sort}}$  and  $k_{\text{d}}$  values that resulted in the best fit between model-predicted uptake curves and the uptake curves measured during the Toronto experiment ( $R^2 > 0.4$ ). The fits are shown in Figure S10 and the fitted parameters are summarized in Table S10. The  $k_{\text{sorb}}$  values range between 2,500 and 300,000 day<sup>-1</sup>, with higher values for more volatile PACs, as had been observed previously.<sup>62</sup> This range encompasses the range of k<sub>sorb</sub> values previously estimated for polychlorinated biphenyls (10,000 to 80,000 day <sup>1</sup>).<sup>62</sup> The k<sub>d</sub> values range from extremely low values for benzo[b]fluoranthene to 0.073 day<sup>-1</sup> for triphenylene, the latter corresponding to a half-life on the order of 9 days. For many of the PACs the fitted  $k_d$  values indicate a loss process with a half-life ranging from 10 days (2methylfluoanthene) to 100 days (phenanthrene). We further explored whether it is possible to obtain model results that describe the observation, if it is assumed that the sorbed PACs do not undergo loss. Uptake curves predicted using the  $k_{\text{sorb}}$  values in Table S10 and a  $k_{\text{d}}$  of zero, i.e., without degradative loss, deviate strongly from the measured ones (Figure 11). In other words, the model cannot find a best fit to the observations without a loss process. In summary, the evidence suggests the presence of a process that results in the loss of PACs from the XAD-resin with half-lives on the order of weeks to months. The kinetics of that loss process is different for different PACs, with the  $k_d$  values in Table 10 approximating the relative susceptibility of different PACs. We have to concede that we presently do not know the nature of that loss process. Microbial degradation could be a possibility, although reported relative rates of degradation for PAHs (Ghosal et al., 2016) are not consistent with our kd values, i.e., PAHs with shorter biodegradation half-lives do not appear to show a higher rate of loss from the XAD-PAS. Microbial degradation is likely to be very complex and potentially related to microbial species and communities, as well as environment conditions. More efforts are needed in future studies to further identify the process leading to the loss of PACs from the resin.





# Is It Possible to Still Derive Useful Kinetic Information from the Calibration Experiments?

 $V_{\rm eff}$  values calculated using Eq. (1) are provided in Tables S7 and S9. Remarkably, when  $V_{\rm eff}$  for 15 PAHs, 12 alk-PAHs and dibenzothiophene from the Toronto calibration experiment are plotted against deployment length, i.e., if we linearize the uptake curves from Figures 1 and S2, almost all of the data show good linearity for the first six months of deployment (most linear regressions have  $R^2 > 0.90$  and p values < 0.05, Table 2). Examples of such plots for 2-methylnaphthalene, 1-methylfluorene, and retene are shown in Figure 4, with the remainder being compiled in Figure S12. This is also true for fluoranthene and pyrene measured at the clearing site in Borden, but not at the forest site (Figure S13). As only PUF plugs were used in the AASs to sample PAHs from the gas phase in Borden, five light PAHs (i.e., naphthalene, acenaphthylene, acenaphthene, fluorene, and phenanthrene) suffered from breakthrough, yielded unreliable  $C_{\rm air}$  and therefore were excluded from the data analysis.



**Figure 4:** The effective sampling volume of three representative PACs throughout the 48-week deployment period for XAD-PASs in Toronto. The markers indicate field blank-corrected measured values, whereby data points marked with open symbols were excluded from the regression analysis. The red lines indicate linear regressions forced through the origin. The shaded areas represent the uncertainties of the calculated sampling rates obtained from the uncertainties of the slopes of these regressions. Sampling rates in m<sup>3</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> are obtained from the slope of these regressions.

As might be expected from the uptake curves, the  $V_{\rm eff}$  for most PACs is leveling-off or decreasing after six months (Figures 3, S11, and S12). Nevertheless, the linear uptake within the first half year of deployment suggests that the XAD-PAS can be used to sample PACs from the gas phase, even the most volatile one (naphthalene), as long as the deployment period does not exceed six months. Experimental sampling rates ( $SR_{\rm experimental}$ ) for 28 PACs, including 15





438 PAHs, 12 alk-PAHs, and dibenzothiophene, were estimated from the slopes of linear 439 regressions for the data points from the first six months of deployment and ranged from 0.05 440 to 0.53 m<sup>3</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. Uncertainties of the SR<sub>experimental</sub> values in the range of 2 to 15% were estimated 441 from the standard error of the slopes of these linear regressions. For fourteen compounds (2 442 PAHs, 11 alk-PAHs, and dibenzothiophene), these are the first SRs ever reported for the XAD-443 PAS. The SR<sub>experimental</sub> values for fluoranthene and pyrene from the Toronto and Borden 444 experiments are very close, lending support to the reliability of the two experiments. The actual 445 sampling rates ( $SR_{actual}$ ) for 18 PACs were obtained using the simulated no-degradation uptake 446 amounts in the first six months of deployment (Figure S11) and AAS data in our Toronto 447 experiment based on Eq. (1) (Table S11). 448 The SR<sub>experimental</sub> values in this study are lower than those reported for PAHs previously 449 (Armitage et al., 2013; Ellickson et al., 2017). The SR<sub>experimental</sub> values for various SVOCs 450 obtained from the same Toronto calibration experiment were also lower than those reported in 451 other literature (Li et al., 2023b, a). The difference between the SR<sub>experimental</sub> values calculated 452 in our study and those previously reported may be caused by the difference in ambient wind 453 speed (1.7, ~4.0, and ~8.0 m·s<sup>-1</sup> during our study, the study of Armitage et al. (2013), and the 454 study of Ellickson et al. (2017), respectively) and possibly also in the rates of degradative loss. 455 Other reasons for the relatively higher SRs in the study of Ellickson et al. (2017) may be due 456 to (1) break-through losses for more volatile PAHs during the high-volume AAS; (2) failure to 457 sample episodes of elevated air concentration when only sampling episodically with the AASs; 458 and (3) lower air concentrations at active air sampling sites than those at passive air sampling 459 sites. 460 The reliability of  $SR_{\text{experimental}}$  and  $SR_{\text{actual}}$  values for PACs presented here is supported by them 461 falling within a similar range as those for other SVOCs from the same calibration experiment 462 (Li et al., 2023b, a). Also, the SRs for PACs exhibit a consistent negative correlation with log 463  $K_{XAD/air}$ , mirroring the pattern observed for other SVOCs (Figure 5). However, the  $SR_{\text{experimental}}$ 464 for PACs are relatively lower than those of the PCBs and other SVOCs with similar  $K_{XAD/air}$ 465 values, presumably due to the degradative loss, whereas the SR<sub>actual</sub> for PACs have a 466 relationship with  $K_{XAD/air}$  that is very similar to that of the PCBs (Figure 5). A linear regression 467 with the log ( $K_{XAD/air}$  / (L air g<sup>-1</sup> XAD)) at 12.2 °C yields the following relationship:  $SR_{\text{experimental}} (m^3 day^{-1}) = -0.06(\pm 0.02) \log (K_{\text{XAD/air}}/\text{L g}^{-1}) + 0.55(\pm 0.08)$ 468 (2)

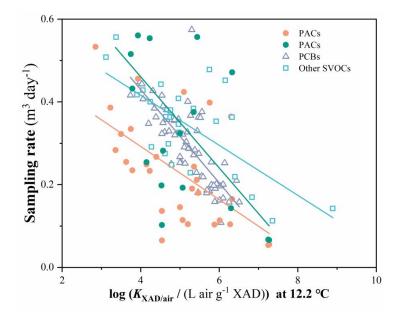
 $n = 30, p < 0.0005, R^2 = 0.35$ 





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$$SR_{\text{actual}} (m^3 day^{-1}) = -0.11(\pm 0.03) \log (K_{\text{XAD/air}}/\text{L g}^{-1}) + 0.90(\pm 0.17)$$
 (3)  
471  $n = 18, p < 0.0005, R^2 = 0.40$ 

Going forward, we recommend deployment periods for the XAD-PAS to be kept shorter than 6 months, if PACs are among the targeted SVOCs. We suggest that for such shorter deployments, the *SR*<sub>experimental</sub> reported in Table 2 can be used. For PACs not included in Table 2, their *SR*<sub>experimental</sub> and *SR*<sub>actual</sub> can be estimated using a predicted *K*<sub>XAD/Air</sub> value and Eqs. (2) and (3). A quantitative interpretation of PAC levels in XAD-PAS deployed for periods longer than half a year may be compromised by the variable degradation loss of PACs from the XAD-resin. This applies retroactively also to studies that have reported PAH levels in XAD-PAS deployed for one year; they should be considered to be semi-quantitative only (Daly et al., 2007; Lévy et al., 2018; Choi et al., 2009; Westgate et al., 2010; Abdul Hussain et al., 2019; Schummer et al., 2014; Schrlau et al., 2011).



**Figure 5:** The increase of the sampling rates of 120 chemicals with an increase in volatility. The markers in different colors indicate sampling rates of different chemical groups, and the lines in different colors indicate linear regressions between the sampling rate and  $\log K_{\text{XAD/air}}$  at 12.2 °C for different chemical groups. The dark green dots and line indicate the simulated sampling rates for PACs without degradation and linear regression for these PACs.





Table 2 Passive Sampling Rates (m3 d-1) of PACs Determined in Our Study and Reported in Literature

Chemicals	Abbreviation	$\frac{\log K_{\text{XAD/air}}}{\text{(L air g}^{-1} \text{ XAD) at}}$ 7.9 °C	log K <sub>XAD/air</sub> (L air g <sup>-1</sup> XAD) at 12.2 °C	SR experimental in our study	$R^2$	SR in literature
Two rings						
Naphthalene	NAP	2.95	2.85	$0.53 \pm 0.04$	0.97	1.23 (Armitage et al., 2013)
2-Methylnaphthalene	2-MeNAP	3.33	3.23	$0.39 \pm 0.02$	0.99	al., 2017), 0.75 (Ellickson et al., 2017)
1-Methylnaphthalene	1-MeNAP	3.46	3.36	$0.28 \pm 0.03$	0.93	
2,6-dimethylnaphthalene	2,6-DiMeNAP	3.73	3.63	$0.25 \pm 0.01$	0.99	
1,3-dimethylnaphthalene	1,3-DiMeNAP	3.85	3.75	$0.33 \pm 0.02$	0.97	
1,5-dimethylnaphthalene	1,5-DiMeNAP	4.03	3.93	$0.46 \pm 0.02$	0.99	
2,3,5-trimethylnaphthalene	2,3,5-TriMeNAP	4.34	4.23	$0.23 \pm 0.01$	0.98	
Three rings						
Acenaphthylene	ACY	3.60	3.50	$0.32 \pm 0.03$	0.97	
Acenaphthene	ACE	3.89	3.79	$0.23 \pm 0.01$	0.99	1.26 (Armitage et al., 2013), 0.60 (Ellickson et al., 2017), 0.48 (Ellickson et al.,
						2017) 1.05 (Armitage et al., 2013), 0.65
Fluorene	FLU	4.26	4.15	$0.25\pm0.01$	1.00	(Ellickson et al., 2017), 0.60 (Ellickson et al., 2017)
1-Methylfluorene	1-MeFLU	4.68	4.57	$0.28 \pm 0.01$	1.00	
Dibenzothiophene	DBT	4.64	4.54	$0.06 \pm 0.00$	0.98	
Phenanthrene	PHE	4.64	4.54	$0.14 \pm 0.01$	0.99	0.95 (Armitage et al., 2013), 0.55





ANT 2-MePHE 1-MePHE 9-MeANT RET
FLA 5.47
PYE 5.31
2-MeFLT 5.55
1-MePYE 5.87
BaA 6.40
TP 6.45
CHY 6.42





(Ellickson et al., 2017)

76.0	66.0	1.23 (Armitage et al., 2013), 0.15 (Ellickson et al., 2017)
$0.10 \pm 0.01$	$0.06 \pm 0.00$	0.05 ± 0.01
5.88	T.27	7.25
90.9	7.39	7.37
ene BghiF	e BbF	e BKF
Benzo(ghi)fluoranthene	Benzo[b]fluoranthene	Benzo[k]fluoranthene

\* Data for the clearing site from the Borden experiment. The originally calculated sampling rates are for the long version XAD-PAS, i.e., the length of XAD-2 mesh cylinders is 20 cm; thus, in this table, they were converted to the sampling rates of short version XAD-PAS (10 cm length) by dividing by two (Zhang et al., 2012).





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### 497 Code/Data availability

498 All data generated for this project are contained in the supplement.

### 499 **Author contribution**

- 500 YL and FZ performed measurements and analyzed samples from the Toronto experiment, YS
- 501 performed measurements and analyzed samples from the Borden experiment, both under the
- 502 supervision of YDL. CS analysed the atmospheric particle samples. YL performed the ozone
- 503 flow tube experiment with guidance by ZZ and JPDA. YL and FZ performed the model
- 504 simulations and YL interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript under guidance by FW. HH
- 505 coordinated the project. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

#### 506 **Competing interests**

507 The authors declare no competing interests.

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