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1 **Loadings, chemical patterns and risks of inhalable road dust particles in an Atlantic city**  
2 **in the north of Portugal**

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13  
14 **Abstract**

15 Road dust resuspension has a significant contribution to the atmospheric particulate matter levels in  
16 urban areas, but loadings, emission factors, and chemical source profiles vary geographically,  
17 hampering the accuracy of emission inventories and source contribution estimates. Given the dearth of  
18 studies on the variability of road dust, in the present study, an in-situ resuspension chamber was used  
19 to collect PM<sub>10</sub> samples from seven representative streets in Viana do Castelo, the northernmost coastal  
20 city in Portugal. PM<sub>10</sub> samples were analysed for organic and elemental carbon by a thermo-optical  
21 technique, elemental composition by ICP-MS and ICP-AES, and organic constituents by GC-MS.  
22 Emission factors were estimated to be, on average, 340 and 41.2 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup> for cobbled and asphalt  
23 pavements, respectively. Organic carbon accounted for 5.56±1.24% of the PM<sub>10</sub> mass. Very low  
24 concentrations of PAHs and their alkylated congeners were detected, denoting a slight predominance  
25 of petrogenic compounds. Si, Al, Fe, Ca and K were the most abundant elements. The calculation of  
26 various geochemical indices (enrichment factor, geoaccumulation index, pollution index and potential  
27 ecological risk) showed that road dust was extremely enriched and contaminated by elements from tyre  
28 and brake wear (e.g. Sb, Sn, Cu, Bi and Zn), while lithophile elements showed no enrichment. For As,  
29 the geochemical and pollution indices reached their maximum in the street most influenced by  
30 agricultural activities. Sb, Cd, Cu and As can pose a very high ecological risk. Sb can be regarded as  
31 the pollutant of highest concern, since it represented 57% of the total ecological risk. Hazard indices  
32 higher than 1 for some anthropogenic elements indicate that non-carcinogenic effects may occur. Except  
33 for a street with more severe braking, the total carcinogenic risks can be considered insignificant.

34  
35 **Keywords:** road dust, resuspension, PM<sub>10</sub>, metals, geochemical indices, health risk

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36

37 **Introduction**

38

39 According to data compiled by the World Health Organisation on particulate matter of diameter less  
40 than 10 ( $PM_{10}$ ) and 2.5  $\mu m$  ( $PM_{2.5}$ ) for about 3000 cities and towns worldwide (WHO, 2016), globally,  
41 only 16% of the assessed population is exposed to  $PM_{10}$  or  $PM_{2.5}$  annual mean levels complying with  
42 air quality guidelines (AQG). This increases to 27% for the interim target 3 (i.e. IT-3: 30  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for  
43  $PM_{10}$  and 15  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for  $PM_{2.5}$ ) of the AQG, 46% for interim target 2 (i.e. IT-2: 50  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for  $PM_{10}$  and  
44 25  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for  $PM_{2.5}$ ), and 56% for interim target 1 (IT-1: 70  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for  $PM_{10}$  and 35  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for  $PM_{2.5}$ ).  
45 Based on more than 400 source apportionment records from studies conducted in cities of 51 countries,  
46 Karagulian et al. (2015) estimated the average contributions to ambient particulate matter. It was found  
47 that road traffic remains the biggest source of urban ambient air pollution, accounting for 25% of the  
48 global levels of this pollutant. Regulatory programmes aimed at reducing air pollution from road traffic  
49 have exclusively focused on tailpipe exhaust emissions. However, it has been shown that the  
50 contribution of non-exhaust primary particles to the total traffic generated airborne particulate material  
51 is significant in urban areas (Amato et al., 2014, 2016a; Font and Fuller, 2016; Guevara, 2016; Gulia et  
52 al., 2019; Harrison et al., 2012; Hooftman et al., 2016; Kalaiarasan et al., 2018; Padoan and Amato,  
53 2018; Pant and Harrison, 2013; Yu et al., 2013). Non-exhaust emissions comprise tyre wear, brake  
54 wear, road surface wear and resuspension of road dust. A review by Denier van der Gon et al. (2013)  
55 found that the proportion between non-exhaust and exhaust particles strongly increased in the last two  
56 decades due to the successful implementation of exhaust emission control technologies and  
57 improvement of fuel quality. Aiming at quantifying exhaust/non-exhaust emissions, Lawrence et al.  
58 (2013) combined motorway tunnel sampling and source apportionment modelling. The application of  
59 principal component analysis and multiple linear regression analysis enabled to identify the emission  
60 sources for 82% of the total  $PM_{10}$  mass inside the tunnel. Among the identified sources, road dust  
61 resuspension was found to account for 27% of the  $PM_{10}$  mass. Weinbruch et al. (2014) quantified the  
62 contribution of the three traffic-related components (exhaust, abrasion, and resuspension) to curbside  
63 and urban background  $PM_{10}$  and  $PM_1$  levels in the urban/industrial Ruhr area (Germany), based on the  
64 analysis of individual particles by scanning electron microscopy. The total contribution of traffic to  
65  $PM_{10}$  was estimated to be 27% at the urban background station and 48% at the curbside station. Values  
66 for  $PM_1$  were 15% and 39%, respectively. The relative share of the various traffic emissions for  $PM_{10}$   
67 at the curbside station was 27% exhaust, 15% abrasion, and 58% resuspension (38%, 8%, 54% for  
68  $PM_1$ ). The relative shares for  $PM_{10}$  at the urban background were as follows: 22% exhaust, 22% abrasion  
69 and 56% resuspension (40%, 27%, 33% for  $PM_1$ ). In comparison with previous studies described in the  
70 literature, Weinbruch et al. (2014) observed a significantly lower proportion of exhaust particles and a  
71 significantly higher proportion of resuspension particles. The high abundance of resuspension particles

72 emphasises their importance to the observed detrimental health effects of traffic emissions and the need  
73 to devise specific mitigation measures.

74 A stochastic model based on empirical probability distribution functions has been applied by  
75 Jazcilevich et al. (2012) to estimate human exposure to emissions from the resuspension of road dust  
76 due to isolated wakes from moving vehicles. Results showed that children are at higher risk than adults  
77 due to their lower height and higher respiratory intake rates during periods of light and moderate  
78 activity. Khan and Strand (2018) carried out a systematic literature review of articles on road dust and  
79 its effects on health. Several components of road dust particles were found to be associated with multiple  
80 health effects, especially on the respiratory and cardiovascular systems. Chronic obstructive pulmonary  
81 disease, asthma, fungal infections, allergies, carcinoma, and cardiovascular-related hospital admissions  
82 have been listed among the health outcomes.

83 Since exposure to particulate matter has been linked to adverse health effects by numerous studies,  
84 official entities have been intensely incentivising the market to switch to electric passenger cars,  
85 especially in Europe. However, a literature review by Timmers and Achten (2016) concluded that  
86 electric vehicles may not decrease levels of PM as much as expected, because of their relatively high  
87 weight. Several studies have shown a positive correlation between weight and non-exhaust emissions,  
88 although further research is required into the exact impact additional weight has on emission factors.  
89 Based on the available data, Timmers and Achten (2016) found that, when accounting for the additional  
90 weight and non-exhaust PM factors, total PM<sub>10</sub> emissions from electric vehicles are equal to those of  
91 modern internal combustion engine vehicles, whilst for PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions, plug-in cars deliver only a  
92 negligible reduction in emissions. Nevertheless, these differences are likely to vanish totally as exhaust  
93 emission standards become even stricter.

94 Together with dust from other sources, part of the non-exhaust particles settles and accumulate on  
95 road surfaces to form road dust, which is then resuspended by several inducers, such as wind and the  
96 wake of vehicles. Resuspended dust episodes are a common problem in many Nordic cities every spring,  
97 when the snow and ice have melted, and the streets have dried to expose the sand that has been spread  
98 during the winter to avoid slipperiness. Studded tyres, which are commonly used on vehicles in  
99 Scandinavian countries, erode the road surface and grind the sand particles. A similar effect is also  
100 observed for soil-derived particles in late autumn, possibly because of the change to studded tyres before  
101 the following winter months (Gustafsson et al., 2019; Hosiokangas et al., 2004). On the other hand, in  
102 Mediterranean countries and in other regions, where long periods without precipitation can be recorded,  
103 the dry weather conditions favour the resuspension of road dust (Amato et al., 2011, 2014; Pant et al.,  
104 2015). In addition, dust loadings and the chemical source profile vary geographically, depending on  
105 other parameters besides meteorology, such as traffic (volume and pattern, fleet characteristics),  
106 pavement type, and geology of the region (Amato et al., 2014; Gulia et al., 2019). Thus, to correctly  
107 apportion the contribution of road dust to ambient particulate matter, chemical profiles for each region  
108 should be used. Region-specific emission factors are also a condition for improving the accuracy of

109 emission inventories. There is a clear lack of data in the field of dust resuspension to conclusively assess  
110 its importance for air quality and the impact on human health. In Portugal, the scarce information  
111 available concerns samples obtained in 5 streets of Oporto (Alves et al., 2018). With the aim of  
112 broadening the representativeness of the available information, a new sampling campaign was carried  
113 out in another Portuguese city to determine road dust loadings and the chemical properties. This paper  
114 presents and discusses estimates of emission factors and the detailed elemental and organic composition  
115 of the thoracic fraction (PM<sub>10</sub>) of road dust obtained from in situ measurements on pavements with  
116 different characteristics. Additionally, contamination indices and risks are assessed.

117

## 118 **Methodology**

119

### 120 *Sampling*

121

122 Road dust sampling took place in September and October 2018 on representative streets of Viana  
123 do Castelo (Fig. 1), the most northern Atlantic city in Portugal. The prevailing winds in this period are  
124 from the north, although in the end of October, the southern direction starts to dominate the records. To  
125 cause less disruption to traffic, sampling took place on Saturdays and Sundays, from 9:00 to 17:00,  
126 local time. With a population of about 90,000 inhabitants, Viana do Castelo lies between the estuary of  
127 the River Lima, the sea and the Santa Luzia hill. The city has a seaport with naval repairing and  
128 construction facilities and is home to a large cluster of wind green electricity and car-parts industries.  
129 These activities can represent sources of pollution, mainly of metallic constituents. Road traffic and  
130 some family farming in the vicinity of the city are other possible sources of pollution. Road dust samples  
131 were collected on the right lane of the street excluding the gutter where mass is not directly resuspended.  
132 To supervise traffic and ensure safety, all the sampling activities were conducted with the support of  
133 the police authorities. Sampling was carried out after a period of at least one week without rain. Unlike  
134 sweeping, street washing is not a routine practice in the city. However, to evaluate the effectiveness of  
135 water flushing in combination with sweeping on dust loadings, in one of the streets (Rua Alto Xisto,  
136 #1, with cobbled pavement), sampling was done before and repeated 24 hours after the cleaning  
137 operation.

138



139

140 Fig. 1. Map of the city of Viana do Castelo showing the location of the road dust sampling sites:

141 1 - Rua Alto Xisto - residential area on the outskirts of the city; cobbled pavement made of granite cubes

142 2 - Av. Capitão Gaspar de Castro - access road to the city centre and residential areas with various public facilities; stone  
143 mastic asphalt pavement

144 3 - Largo João Tomás da Costa - access to the city centre by the river front; stone mastic asphalt pavement

145 4 - Av. Combatentes da Grande Guerra - central artery connecting to the train station; cobbled pavement made of granite cubes

146 5 - Av. 25 de Abril - steep exit of a main thoroughfare that crosses the city to a residential neighbourhood; stone mastic asphalt  
147 pavement

148 6 - Av. do Atlântico - avenue of access to the main beach of the city, next to the shipyards; stone mastic asphalt pavement

149 7 - ESTG - local road within the campus of the Higher School of Technology and Management; stone mastic asphalt pavement

150

151 The thoracic fraction of road dust was directly vacuumed in situ, at an air flow rate of  $25 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ,  
152 using a rotary vane pump (VTE Series Picolino, Gardner Denver Thomas, Germany), which was  
153 connected to a field resuspension chamber (Amato et al., 2009a, 2011). With this apparatus, road dust  
154 is resuspended in a methacrylate deposition chamber, while particles small and/or light enough to be  
155 carried by the air stream continue their path through the system, entering a Negretti stainless steel  
156 elutriation filter that was designed to allow the passage of only  $\text{PM}_{10}$ . These are finally collected on a  
157 47 mm diameter filter (quartz fibre, Pallflex<sup>®</sup>), while particles with aerodynamic diameter  $> 10 \mu\text{m}$  are  
158 deposited in the methacrylate chamber and along the elutriation filter. Sampling was performed in  
159 surface areas of  $1 \text{ m}^2$  for 30 min. Aiming at minimising casual errors and obtaining enough material for  
160 the subsequent chemical analyses, in each street, at least three independent replicate samples were  
161 collected onto different filters. Before the gravimetric quantification, filters were calcined at  $500 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for  
162 6 h and conditioned for around 24 h in a room with controlled humidity (50%) and temperature ( $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ).

163 The weightings were performed with an analytical balance (RADWAG 5/2Y/F, Poland) and obtained  
164 from the average of six measurements (relative standard deviation < 0.02%).

165

### 166 *Chemical analyses*

167

168 Two punches of 9 mm were used to quantify the organic (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) content  
169 of each filter by a thermal optical transmission technique. The filter punches were first subjected to a  
170 controlled heating in a non-oxidising nitrogen atmosphere to volatilise the OC. The second step  
171 consisted of the EC oxidation in a nitrogen and oxygen atmosphere. The measurement of the light  
172 transmittance through the filter allows separating the EC formed by pyrolysis of the OC during the first  
173 step from the one that was originally present in the sample. The CO<sub>2</sub> released from the thermal  
174 volatilisation and oxidation of different carbon fractions was quantified by a non-dispersive infrared  
175 analyser.

176 Two 9 mm punches of each filter were used to analyse trace and major elements. The punches of the  
177 different replicate samples of each street were combined and digested together. The digestion was  
178 performed in closed Teflon 60 mL reactors by using a 1.25 mL HNO<sub>3</sub>: 2.5 mL HF: 1.25 mL HClO<sub>4</sub>  
179 mixture. Then, samples were subjected to evaporation, and final re-dissolution with HNO<sub>3</sub>, after which  
180 they were analysed for a total of around 60 elements. The international reference material NBS1633b  
181 was also digested to determine the accuracy of the analytical and digestion methods. Levels of trace  
182 elements in completely dissolved samples were determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic  
183 emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES, Thermo Scientific, iCAP 6500 Radial) and/or inductively coupled  
184 plasma mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS, Thermo Scientific, X-Series II). To create external calibration  
185 curves, three multi-elemental solutions (Spec® 1 - rare earth elements, Spec® 2 - alkalis, earth alkalis,  
186 and metals, and Spec® 4 - Nb) were used. To control the mean precision and accuracy, repeated  
187 analyses of 0.025 mg of NBS1633b (fly ash) reference material (NIST, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) were  
188 carried out. They fell in the ranges 3–5% and <10% for ICP-AES and ICP-MS, respectively. For most  
189 trace elements, the detection limits were 0.01 ng m<sup>-3</sup>.

190 For each road, the remaining portions of the filters were combined and extracted three times with  
191 dichloromethane in an ultrasonic bath (25 mL for 15 min, each extraction, with 5 min stops between  
192 them). After each extraction, the organic extracts of each composite sample were combined, filtered  
193 through pre-cleaned cotton and concentrated to a volume of 0.5 mL using a Turbo Vap® II evaporation  
194 system (Biotage, Charlotte, NC, USA). The concentrated samples were transferred into vials and dried  
195 under a gentle nitrogen stream. Polycyclic aromatic compounds (PAHs) and phthalates (plasticisers)  
196 were determined in a gas chromatographer-mass spectrometer from Agilent (GC model 7890B, MS  
197 model 5977A) with single quadrupole, a CombiPAL autosampler and a Tekno TRB-5MS (60 m × 0.25  
198 mm × 0.25 μm) column. Data were acquired in the electron impact (EI) mode (70 eV) using helium as  
199 carrier gas at 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. The oven temperature programme was as follows: 60 °C (1 min), 60–150 °C

200 (10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>), 150–290 °C (5 °C min<sup>-1</sup>), 290 °C (30 min). The quantitative analysis was performed by  
201 single ion monitoring (SIM). For the determination of PAHs, a mixture of deuterated internal standards  
202 (IS) was used: 1,4-dichlorobenzene-d4, naphthalene-d8, acenaphthene-d10, phenanthrene-d10,  
203 chrysene-d12, perylene-d12, fluorene-d10 and benzo[a]pyrene-d12 (Supelco). The IS used in the case  
204 of plasticisers were the deuterated diethyl phthalate-3,4,5,6-d4 and bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate-3,4,5,6-  
205 d4 (Supelco). Calibration was based on a total of 30 authentic standards (Sigma-Aldrich) in five  
206 different concentration levels. Additional details on standards and their quantification ions used in the  
207 SIM mode are given in Tables S1 to S4.

208

### 209 *Estimation of emission factors*

210

211 To roughly estimate PM<sub>10</sub> emissions from road dust resuspension, the empirical relationship derived  
212 by Amato et al. (2011) was employed:

213

$$214 \text{ EF} = 45.9 \times \text{RD}^{0.81} \quad (1)$$

215

216 where,

217 EF = PM<sub>10</sub> emission factor (milligrams per vehicle and kilometre travelled, mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup>),

218 RD = PM<sub>10</sub> road dust loadings (mg m<sup>-2</sup>).

219

### 220 *Geochemical indices*

221

222 Enrichment factors have been extensively used to determine the degree of enrichment due to  
223 anthropogenic activities in road dust, and separate possible natural from human sources. Enrichment  
224 factors of each element with respect to crustal material (Wedepohl, 1995) were calculated using Al as  
225 reference element:

$$226 \text{ Enrichment Factor} = (\text{X/Al})_{\text{air}} / (\text{X/Al})_{\text{crust}} \quad (2)$$

227 where (X/Al)<sub>air</sub> is the concentration ratio of the element X to Al in the PM<sub>10</sub> samples, and (X/Al)<sub>crust</sub> is  
228 the average concentration ratio of X to Al in the continental crust. In general, based on the enrichment  
229 factors, five contamination categories are considered: < 2 minimal enrichment, [2,5[ moderate  
230 enrichment, [5,20[ significant enrichment, [20,40[ very high enrichment, and ≥ 40 extremely high  
231 enrichment (Yang et al., 2016).

232 The contamination levels of heavy metals in road dust can also be evaluated by the geoaccumulation  
233 index (I<sub>geo</sub>):

$$234 I_{\text{geo}} = \log_2 \frac{C_n}{1.5B_n} \quad (3)$$



235 where  $C_n$  represent the concentration of an element in the dust, and  $B_n$  is the geochemical background  
 236 value of the same element. In this study, the mean concentration of elements in the upper continental  
 237 crust was used as  $B_n$  (Wedepohl, 1995), since standard background values for Portuguese soils or dusts  
 238 are not available. Based on the  $I_{geo}$  values, the contamination levels are classified into seven classes (Cai  
 239 and Li, 2019; Zgłobicki et al., 2019): class 0, uncontaminated ( $I_{geo} < 0$ ); class 1, uncontaminated to  
 240 moderately contaminated ( $0 \leq I_{geo} < 1$ ); class 2, moderately contaminated ( $1 \leq I_{geo} < 2$ ); class 3,  
 241 moderately to heavily contaminated ( $2 \leq I_{geo} < 3$ ); class 4, heavily contaminated ( $3 \leq I_{geo} < 4$ ); class 5,  
 242 heavily to extremely contaminated ( $4 \leq I_{geo} < 5$ ); and class 6, extremely contaminated ( $I_{geo} \geq 5$ ).

243 Like enrichment factors and  $I_{geo}$ , the pollution index (PI) is also employed in numerous studies to  
 244 assess the level of contamination of metals in soil or dust. It is given by the following ratio:

$$245 \quad PI = \frac{C_n}{B_n} \quad (4)$$

246 The pollution index is classified into five groups (Wu et al., 2014): low ( $PI < 1$ ), moderate ( $1 \leq PI < 3$ ),  
 247 considerable ( $3 \leq PI < 6$ ), very high ( $6 \leq PI < 12$ ) and extremely high ( $PI \geq 12$ ). In addition, to give an  
 248 assessment of the overall pollution status, the integrated pollution load index (PLI) can be employed,  
 249 where  $n$  is the number of elements analysed (Chen et al., 2015):

$$250 \quad PLI = (PI_1 \times PI_2 \times PI_3 \times \dots \times PI_n)^{1/n} \quad (5)$$

251 The integrated pollution load index is divided into seven levels from none to high pollution to specify  
 252 the contamination degree: background concentration ( $PLI = 0$ ), unpolluted ( $0 < PLI \leq 1$ ), unpolluted to  
 253 moderately polluted ( $1 < PLI \leq 2$ ), moderately polluted ( $2 < PLI \leq 3$ ), moderately to highly polluted ( $3$   
 254  $< PLI \leq 4$ ), highly polluted ( $4 < PLI \leq 5$ ), or very highly polluted ( $PLI > 5$ ).

255 The potentially harmful effects of heavy metals can be evaluated by calculating the potential  
 256 ecological risk factor of individual metals ( $E_{ri}$ ) and of multiple metals ( $RI = \sum E_{ri}$ ). The ecological risk  
 257 factor is defined as follows:

$$258 \quad E_{ri} = T_i \times PI \quad (6)$$

259  $T_i$  is the toxic-response factor for the metal. The values available in the literature are (Chen et al., 2019;  
 260 Wang et al., 2018; Zgłobicki et al., 2019): Cd, 30; As, 10; Sb, 7; Cu, 5; Ni, 5; Pb, 5; Co, 5; Cr, 2; V, 2;  
 261 Zn, 1; Mn, 1; Ba, 1. Five categories of pollution are distinguished (Chen et al., 2019; Zgłobicki et al.,  
 262 2019): low ( $E_{ri} < 40$ ), moderate ( $40 \leq E_{ri} < 80$ ), considerable ( $80 \leq E_{ri} < 160$ ), high ( $160 \leq E_{ri} < 320$ )  
 263 and very high ( $E_{ri} \geq 320$ ). The potential ecological risk (RI) is defined as the sum of the index of  
 264 ecological risk factors ( $E_{ri}$ ) for specific metals in a sample. Four categories are recognised (Chen et al.,  
 265 2019; Zgłobicki et al., 2019): low ( $RI < 150$ ), moderate ( $150 \leq RI < 300$ ), considerable ( $300 \leq RI <$   
 266  $600$ ) and high ( $RI > 600$ ).

267

268 ***Human exposure risk assessment***

269

270 Human exposure to metals and metalloids in road dust particles can occur via three main pathways:  
271 (a) hand to mouth ingestion, (b) dermal absorption, and (c) inhalation through the mouth and nose.  
272 Based on methodologies defined by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), the  
273 average daily dose through ingestion ( $ADD_{ing}$ ), inhalation ( $ADD_{inh}$ ) and dermal contact ( $ADD_{dermal}$ ) can  
274 be calculated as follows (Adimalla, 2020; and references therein):

275 
$$CDD_{ing} = \frac{C \times IR_{ing} \times ED \times EF}{BW \times AT} \times CF \quad (7)$$

276 
$$CDD_{inh} = \frac{C \times IR_{inh} \times ED \times EF}{BW \times AT \times PEF} \quad (8)$$

277 
$$CDD_{derm} = \frac{C \times SA \times SAF \times DAF \times ED \times EF}{BW \times AT} \times CF \quad (9)$$

278 where C is the mass fraction of each element in road dust ( $mg\ kg^{-1}$ ),  $IR_{ing}$  is the ingestion rate,  $IR_{inh}$  is  
279 the inhalation rate, ED is the exposure duration, EF is the exposure frequency, CF is a conversion factor,  
280 PEF is the particle emission factor, SA is the exposed skin surface area, SAF is the skin adherence  
281 factor, DAF is the dermal absorption factor, BW is the average body weight, and AT is the average  
282 time. Units and reference values for all these parameters are given in Table S5.

283 The hazard quotient (HQ) is typically used to assess the non-carcinogenic risk. It is calculated as the  
284 ratio of the chronic daily dose (CDD) and the reference dose ( $RfD$ ,  $mg\ kg^{-1}\ day^{-1}$ ) for a given substance  
285 (Table S6). The total non-carcinogenic risk for the three exposure pathways for a single element is  
286 represented by the hazard index (HI), which is the sum of  $HQ_{ing}$ ,  $HQ_{inh}$  and  $HQ_{derm}$ . HI values  $> 1$   
287 indicate a chance that non-carcinogenic effects may occur, whilst values  $< 1$  express low or no risk of  
288 non-carcinogenic effects on humans.

289 The carcinogenic risk represents the possibility of an individual developing any type of cancer in the  
290 whole lifetime due to exposure to carcinogenic hazards. The carcinogenic health risk (CR) for a specific  
291 heavy metal is obtained as follows:

292 
$$CR = CDD \times SF \quad (10)$$

293 where SF is the slope factor ( $mg\ kg^{-1}\ day^{-1}$ ) for carcinogenic metals (As, Cd, Co, Cr and Ni). The total  
294 carcinogenic risk (TCR) is the sum of CR values for single metals. According to USEPA, values  
295 between  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  and  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  are taken as acceptable or tolerable cancer risks, while values lower than  
296  $1 \times 10^{-6}$  indicate no significant health hazard. If  $TCR > 1 \times 10^{-4}$ , the risk is unacceptable. The reference  
297 values of carcinogenic risk through dermal exposure and ingestion are not provided by the USEPA, so  
298 the cancer risks for these two exposure pathways cannot be estimated. The cancer slope factors for  
299 inhalation are listed in Table S6.

300

301 **Results and Discussion**

302

303 ***Road dust loadings and emission factors***

304

305 According to what was previously observed in Paris (Amato et al., 2016b) and Oporto (Alves et al.,  
306 2018), granite cobblestone streets showed much higher RD loadings than asphalt pavements (Fig. 2).  
307 The higher roughness of cobblestones promotes the build-up of road sediments. In addition, the joints  
308 between granite cubes are filled with soil, which is prone to resuspension. Gustafsson et al. (2009) made  
309 measurements of PM<sub>10</sub> in a road simulator to study the influence of three pavements with different  
310 aggregate sizes (granite < 16 mm, quartzite < 16 mm and quartzite < 11 mm). The granite pavement  
311 produced PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations that were almost 70% higher in comparison to the quartzite pavement.  
312 The street paved with granite cobblestones in the city centre presented higher RD loading compared to  
313 the one located in a residential area on the outskirts. A higher number of vehicles in circulation and  
314 stop-and-go traffic at rush hours may have contributed to higher values on the downtown street. Among  
315 the asphalt roads, the one with the highest RD loadings ( $3.41 \pm 0.64 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ ), value up to 6 times higher  
316 than on other streets with similar pavement, is an exit route from a main artery to a residential area. The  
317 slope of the track forces to decelerate, leading to higher brake and tyre wear. Mean RD values from  
318 0.53 to 1.87, averaging  $1.06 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ , were obtained for the remaining asphalt paved roads. Loadings of  
319  $0.48 \pm 0.39 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$  were reported for this type of pavements in Oporto (Alves et al., 2018). RD values  
320 of the same order as those observed in Portuguese cities were measured in Paris ( $0.66\text{-}2.43 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ ,  
321 Amato et al., 2016b) and Zürich ( $0.2\text{-}1.3 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ , Amato et al., 2009a), while higher levels were  
322 recorded in the Spanish cities of Barcelona ( $3.7\text{-}23.1 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ ) and Girona ( $1.3\text{-}7.1 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ ) (Amato et  
323 al., 2009a). Average PM<sub>10</sub> mass loading on the road surface was found to be much higher in New Delhi  
324 compared to Birmingham:  $9.34 \pm 5.56 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$ ,  $12.1 \pm 9.3 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$  and  $72.9 \pm 24.3 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$  for sites A (UK  
325 roadside), B (UK road tunnel), and C (India roadside), respectively (Pant et al., 2015).

326

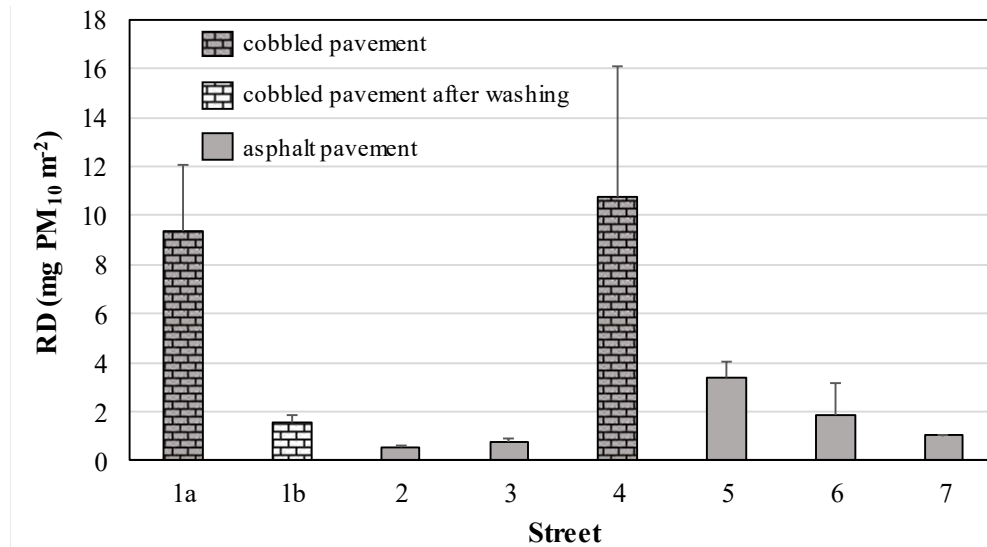


Fig. 2. Road dust loadings measured in the city of Viana do Castelo

327

328

329

330 High pressure washing in the early morning, in combination with sweeping, in one of the streets  
 331 (Rua Alto Xisto, #1), contributed to a decrease of the RD loadings from  $9.35 \pm 2.69$  to  $1.58 \pm 0.28$  mg m<sup>-2</sup>,  
 332 representing a reduction efficiency of 83%. Street washing has been considered by several studies as  
 333 able to reduce the mobility of dust load deposited on street surfaces and therefore being a potential  
 334 effective measure for abating dust resuspension (Amato et al., 2009b, 2010; Chang et al., 2005; Chou  
 335 et al., 2007; Karanasiou et al., 2011). When water adheres to deposited particles, it increases their mass  
 336 and surface tension forces, reducing the likelihood of suspension and transport, especially as cohesion  
 337 of wetted particles often persists after the water has evaporated due to the formation of aggregates  
 338 (Watson et al., 2000).

339 Based on Eq. (1), emission factors for the PM<sub>10</sub> fraction of road dust were estimated to be, on  
 340 average, 340 and 41.2 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup> for cobbled and asphalt pavements, respectively. Values from  
 341 12.0 to 29.4 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup>, averaging 18.6 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup>, were derived for asphalt roads of Oporto,  
 342 while an EF as high as 1082 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup> was obtained for a cobbled pavement in the same city (Alves  
 343 et al., 2018). Typical urban roads in Milan were found to have fleet-averaged emission factors in the  
 344 range 13-32 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup> (Amato et al., 2017). EFs of 14-23 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup> were documented for the  
 345 UK mixed fleet (Thorpe et al., 2007). Values up to more than 200 mg veh<sup>-1</sup> km<sup>-1</sup> have been reported  
 346 for Nordic conditions, although strong seasonal variations are observed due to studded tyres and the use  
 347 of sand/salt as anti-skid treatment (Ketzler et al., 2007). It is noteworthy, however, that the available  
 348 information is scarce and, in some cases, out of date, so additional measurements are required.

349

### 350 *PM<sub>10</sub> chemical composition*

351

352 Organic carbon accounted for  $5.56 \pm 1.24$  % of the  $PM_{10}$  mass (Table 1). A comparable mass fraction  
 353 of  $7.14 \pm 3.48$ % was obtained in  $PM_{10}$  from resuspended road dust sampled in Oporto (Alves et al.,  
 354 2018). Higher percentages (13-29%) were reported for the thoracic fraction of road dust in Bogota  
 355 (Ramírez et al., 2019) and for three European cities (Amato et al., 2011): Girona ( $10.9 \pm 5.2$ %),  
 356 Barcelona ( $11.7 \pm 1.8$ %) and Zurich ( $21.4 \pm 12.5$ %). In Viana do Castelo, irrespective of the road, EC  
 357 represented a minor mass fraction of  $PM_{10}$  (always  $< 0.40$ %). Small EC mass fractions were also  
 358 obtained in Bogota (0.2-1.9%). In the previous sampling campaign in Oporto, percentages of 0.4% and  
 359  $4.6 \pm 0.8$ % were determined for a cobbled street and for asphalt paved roads, respectively. It should be  
 360 borne in mind that, in the present study, the non-quantification of existing carbonate carbon may have  
 361 slightly biased the thermal-optical OC and EC determination. On the other hand, the presence of certain  
 362 minerals, such as Fe oxides, in samples may have complicated the laser correction for pyrolysis.

363 Elements, in the form of their most common oxides ( $SiO_2$ ,  $Al_2O_3$ , MgO, MnO,  $Fe_2O_3$ ,  $TiO_2$ ,  $K_2O$ ,  
 364 etc.) accounted for 70% of the  $PM_{10}$  mass, on average. Since quartz filters are made of silica fibres,  
 365 silicon has not been analysed.  $SiO_2$  was estimated as  $3 \times Al_2O_3$  (Brines et al., 2016). Si, Al, Fe, Ca and  
 366 K were the most abundant elements. Table S8 (Supplementary Material) provides information on the  
 367 minimum and maximum values for the mass fractions of each element in road dust samples. Figure S2  
 368 depicts the spatial distributions of some elements.

369

370 Table 1. Mass fractions of carbonaceous constituents, major and trace elements in road dust  $< 10 \mu m$   
 371 (mean  $\pm$  SD)

	%
OC	$5.56 \pm 1.24$
EC	$0.23 \pm 0.12$
$SiO_2$	$38.9 \pm 22.6$
$Al_2O_3$	$13.0 \pm 7.52$
Fe	$5.15 \pm 2.41$
Ca	$2.27 \pm 2.00$
K	$1.90 \pm 1.19$
S	$0.76 \pm 0.86$
Na	$0.74 \pm 0.39$
Mg	$0.52 \pm 0.25$
P	$0.22 \pm 0.09$
Ti	$0.63 \pm 0.30$
	$\mu g g^{-1}$
Li	$232 \pm 106$

Be	$3.56 \pm 4.58$
Sc	$18.3 \pm 9.86$
V	$105 \pm 52.0$
Cr	$296 \pm 281$
Mn	$1029 \pm 437$
Co	$18.4 \pm 9.70$
Ni	$110 \pm 123$
Cu	$1816 \pm 1138$
Zn	$2162 \pm 1151$
Ga	$33.6 \pm 17.7$
Ge	$7.86 \pm 7.59$
As	$100 \pm 48.0$
Se	$7.08 \pm 9.69$
Rb	$386 \pm 195$
Sr	$284 \pm 125$
Y	$24.5 \pm 10.2$
Zr	$232 \pm 149$
Nb	$33.2 \pm 14.4$
Sn	$314 \pm 231$
Sb	$135 \pm 134$
Cs	$35.5 \pm 16.7$
Ba	$1845 \pm 1263$
La	$59.0 \pm 37.2$
Ce	$110 \pm 70.5$
Pr	$11.9 \pm 11.0$
Nd	$51.9 \pm 31.9$
Sm	$19.1 \pm 9.36$
Gd	$17.1 \pm 9.98$
Dy	$6.31 \pm 2.51$
Er	$1.57 \pm 2.39$
Hf	$6.33 \pm 3.73$
Tl	$0.757 \pm 1.54$
Pb	$276 \pm 164$
W	$28.0 \pm 32.2$

Bi	19.8 ± 13.9
Th	29.1 ± 18.7
U	26.4 ± 9.04

372

373 Given the low OC concentrations, many of the organic compounds analysed showed levels  
374 equivalent to those detected in blanks (Table 2). PAH concentrations varied significantly from road to  
375 road. In addition to different source strengths, the variation may be due to diverse meteorological and  
376 atmospheric conditions. Degradation of PAHs accelerates with increasing temperature, sunlight and  
377 levels of atmospheric oxidants. High molecular weights with  $\geq 4$  rings represented, on average, 48.3%  
378 of total PAHs, whereas low molecular weights with 3 rings were more abundant (51.7%). This suggests  
379 a slight predominance of petrogenic over pyrogenic sources (Casal et al., 2014). Mutagenic (MEQ) and  
380 carcinogenic (TEQ) equivalents were calculated by multiplying the concentrations of each PAH with  
381 its mutagenic and carcinogenic equivalency factors (MEF and TEF) relative to benzo(a)pyrene,  
382 respectively. MEF and TEF values are provided in Table S7. On average, carcinogenic and mutagenic  
383 equivalents accounted for 12.8 and 13.9% of the total PAH concentrations. Benzo[a]pyrene was the  
384 compound that most contributed to the carcinogenic equivalent concentration, accounting for 91% of  
385 the total, followed by dibenzo[a,h]anthracene with a contribution of only 1.5%. Mutagenic equivalents  
386 were also dominated by benzo[a]pyrene (84%), while benzo[g,h,i]perylene had the second highest share  
387 (10%).

388 Various alkylated PAHs were present in road dust, among which dimethylphenanthrenes were the  
389 most abundant. The same semi-volatile alkyl PAHs have been detected in significant amounts in  
390 particulate matter samples from the emissions of engines employing standard diesel, commercial diesel  
391 and biodiesel B20 (Casal et al., 2014). Retene was also found in some road dust samples from Viana  
392 do Castelo. Although, in the past, this alkylated phenanthrene has been identified as a good tracer of  
393 coniferous combustion, it was recently associated with vehicle non-exhaust emissions (e.g. wear  
394 particles from the interaction between tyres and pavements), with a probable origin in the natural waxes  
395 and resins added as softeners and extenders to the rubbers (Alves et al., 2020). Benzothiazole, formerly  
396 pointed out as a good tracer for tyre wear particles (Wik and Dave, 2009), was detected at mass fractions  
397 ranging from 37.0 to 926  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$   $\text{PM}_{10}$ . This aromatic heterocyclic compound and its derivatives are  
398 commonly used as vulcanisation accelerators in rubber production and have been found in wear  
399 particles from different tyre brands (Zhang et al., 2018). Nevertheless, the partitioning between the gas  
400 and particulate phases is temperature dependent. Thus, the semi-volatility of these compounds raises  
401 questions about their suitability as tracers of tyre wear. Carbazole was another aromatic heterocyclic  
402 hydrocarbon present in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  from road dust. It has been identified as a product of tyre combustion  
403 (Wang et al., 2007). Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate stood out among plasticisers detected in the thoracic  
404 fraction of street dust. Plasticisers, such as phthalates, are extensively applied in building materials,

405 personal care products, food packaging materials and textiles to improve the ductility and plasticity of  
 406 products. Some plasticisers (synthetic organic oils and resins) are used as components or additives to  
 407 provide elasticity and stickiness to the tyre and have been detected in both road particles and tread wear  
 408 particles (Vogelsang et al., 2019).

409

410 Table 2. Organic compounds quantified in road dust samples (values in  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{PM}_{10}$ )

	min	max	avg
3 ring PAHs	nd	3.02	1.14
4 ring PAHs	nd	1.95	0.481
5 ring PAHs	nd	1.84	0.421
6 ring PAHs	nd	0.508	0.164
Methylnaphthalenes	nd	0.016	0.002
Dimethylnaphthalenes	nd	0.147	0.027
Methylfluorenes	0.061	6.33	0.597
Trimethylfluorenes	nd	0.042	0.009
Methylphenantrenes	0.006	2.16	0.524
Dimethylphenantrenes	0.299	11.9	2.76
Trimethylphenanthrenes	nd	16.2	2.50
Retene	nd	0.397	0.154
Carbazole	0.032	2.07	0.648
Benzothiazole	37.0	926	367
Di-n-butyl phthalate	nd	250	51.7
Benzyl butyl phthalate	0.248	20.2	7.37
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) adipate	nd	7.95	3.27
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate	286	1918	957
Di-n-octyl phthalate	nd	349	72.5
Diisononyl phthalate	nd	714	208

411 nd – not detected or of the same order of the blanks

412

413 ***Contamination indices and source ratios***

414

415 While minimal enrichments were always obtained for elements such as Mg, Na and K, very or  
 416 extremely high factors were registered for Cu, Zn, Sn, Sb, As, Se and Bi (Fig. S3). In the four most  
 417 central streets, Cd and Pb were also very highly enriched relative to naturally derived mineral dust.  
 418 Moreover, in the 3 streets closest to the shipyards, very or extremely high enrichment factors were  
 419 recorded for W. Emissions from this industrial activity may also have contributed to the sulphur  
 420 enrichment in road dust samples from the adjacent road.



421 Many of the anthropogenic elements with very high enrichment factors are emitted in tyre and brake  
422 wear processes. Despite the large variation in the chemical composition of commercial brake lining  
423 materials, most researchers have reported Fe, Cu, Zn and Pb as the most abundant metals (Grigoratos  
424 and Martini, 2015; and references therein). In the present study, Fe showed no enrichment in road dust  
425 from the two streets with less traffic intensity, suggesting a low anthropogenic influence and a  
426 significant geogenic contribution. Moderate enrichment factors in the busiest streets indicate that Fe  
427 particles from the abrasion of brake pads supplant the edaphic contribution. It has been found that brake  
428 linings and brake abrasion particles are also major sources of Sb. This element is used in the form of  
429  $Sb_2S_3$  as a lubricant to reduce vibrations and to improve friction stability. During the braking process,  
430  $Sb_2S_3$  is oxidised to  $Sb_2O_3$ , which has been described as a probable human carcinogen (von Uexküll et  
431 al., 2005). Other metal sulphides, such as SnS,  $Bi_2S_3$ , CuS,  $CuS_2$  and PbS, are frequently applied in  
432 brake pad formulations to provide friction stability and to reduce wear at elevated temperatures (Österle  
433 and Dmitriev, 2016). Several trace elements (e.g. Cd, Cu, Pb, Zn), which are employed in tyre  
434 manufacture, have been identified in wear particles from this vehicle component (Penkała et al., 2018).  
435 Among these, Zn has been extensively used as a marker for tyre wear (Klößner et al., 2019). Although  
436 manufacturers keep secrecy about the exact composition of the tyres, it is known that ZnO is the main  
437 vulcanisation agent. More than 50% of the ZnO global annual production (25 million tons annually) is  
438 used in rubber manufacturing with tyres representing its primary destination. Although in lesser  
439 quantities, a variety of organozinc compounds is also added to tyre tread rubber to facilitate  
440 vulcanisation (Mostoni et al., 2019). The enrichment of Se in many roads may result from atmospheric  
441 deposition of emissions from anthropogenic sources, which comprise combustion (coal, oil, wood,  
442 biomass, incineration, etc.), nonferrous metal melting, manufacturing and utilisation of agriculture  
443 products (Wen and Carignan, 2007). Bismuth was another element highly enriched in road dust. Among  
444 the countless uses, Bi is an ingredient in lubricating greases, a catalyst for making synthetic fibres and  
445 rubber, a constituent included in the formula for making dragon eggs firework stars, and a component  
446 of BSCCO (bismuth strontium calcium copper oxide), which is a high-temperature superconductor  
447 material applied in power cables, motors, generators, transformers, etc. (Sanderson, 2019).

448 Rare Earth elements (REE), such as La, Ce, Pr, Nd and Sm, showed very high correlations between  
449 them, with major elements of the Earth's crust (Al, K, Na and Mg), as well as with W, Th and P (Table  
450 S9). Phosphorus is found in the soil in organic compounds and in minerals. Thorium is a naturally  
451 occurring, slightly radioactive metal, found in small amounts in most rocks and soils. Tungsten is a rare  
452 metal found naturally on Earth combined with other elements. REE and major elements of the Earth's  
453 crust were also correlated with Ti, V and Cs. Despite being one of the most abundant elements in the  
454 Earth's crust, Ca correlated with Cu, Zn and Sn, suggesting an anthropogenic origin in brake and tyre  
455 wear. Sn, Sb, Fe, Cu, Ba, Zn, Bi, Er, Zr and Yb were strongly correlated between them pointing to these  
456 vehicle non-exhaust emissions as a common source.

457 Ratios between elements can be used to differentiate sources (Pant et al., 2015; Ramírez et al., 2019).  
458 Table 3 compares some ratios of the present study with those obtained for other regions. Cu/Sb ratios  
459 between 3.3 and 9.1 have been used to identify brake wear in PM collected in Cologne, London,  
460 Stockholm, Budapest and London (Dong et al., 2017; and references therein), while a ratio of 45 has  
461 been tabulated for the upper crust (Wedepohl, 1995). However, large discrepancies in this ratio due to  
462 variations in brake pad composition have been reported (Grigoratos and Martini, 2015). In fact, brake  
463 pad composition varies both geographically, and with time, so differences between locations are not  
464 surprising. Sb was not detected in disc brake pads used by several Japanese manufacturers, indicating  
465 substitution of Sb sulphides by Sn sulphides (Faullant, 2002). On January 21, 2015, EPA, states, and  
466 the automotive industry signed an agreement to reduce the use of Cu and other materials in motor  
467 vehicle brake pads. The agreement calls for reducing Cu in brake pads to < 5% by weight in 2021 and  
468 0.5% by 2025. Thus, attention should be given to the Cu/Sb ratio, as this will change in future source  
469 apportionment studies.

470 To derive chemical profiles for brake wear emissions in Europe, Hulskotte et al. (2014) analysed 65  
471 brake pads and 12 brake discs. A mean Fe/Cu ratio of 2.0 was obtained for brake pads, whilst the brake  
472 disc wear samples were composed almost exclusively of Fe and thus very high ratios were observed. It  
473 was concluded that, under real life conditions, the Fe/Cu ratio can vary significantly, depending not  
474 only on the brake formulations, but also on the proportion of wear between discs and pads, as well as  
475 on the driving conditions. In the present work, the Fe/Cu ratios ranged from 22 to 68, averaging 35. The  
476 maximum value was registered in the cobbled road of the outskirts before washing. Higher ratios have  
477 been documented for other cities (Table 3).

478 Some researchers have reported high Zn/Sb values, ranging from 23 to 7,000, for tyre-related  
479 particles (Hjortenkrans et al., 2007; Kreider et al., 2010) and lower values ( $Zn/Sb < 25$ ) for brake wear  
480 particles (Gietl et al., 2010; Hjortenkrans et al., 2007). In the present study, this ratio ranged from 8.4  
481 to 66. The lowest value was registered in road dust from street # 5 (Av. 25 de Abril), where the steep  
482 exit to a residential neighbourhood contributes to particles enriched in Sb from brake wear. The highest  
483 ratio was obtained in the cobble street # 1, located on the outskirts of the city, showing samples of road  
484 dust more enriched in tyre wear components.

485 The Fe/Al ratio ranged from 0.32, in the most peripheral street with more rural characteristics, to 1.7  
486 in the street next to the shipyards. The highest values were recorded in the streets with more traffic and  
487 braking. The same trends were observed for K/Al, Ca/Al and Ti/Al, for which values above those of  
488 the upper Earth's crust were generally found. Fe/Al, K/Al, Ca/Al and Ti/Al ratios in the upper crust of  
489 0.40, 0.37, 0.38 and 0.04, respectively, have been documented (Wedepohl, 1995).

Table 3. Ratios between elements in inhalable sizes of road dust from different regions (n.a. – not available)

Ratios	This study	Alves et al. (2018)	Ramírez et al. (2019)		Pant et al. (2015)		Chen et al. (2012)	Wang et al. (2005)		Amato et al. (2009a)	
	Viana do Castelo	Oporto	Bogota (residential)	Bogota (commercial)	Birmingham	New Delhi	Beijing	Taiwan Hsinchu Downtown	Taiwan Freeway Tunnel	Barcelona City centre	Barcelona Ring roads
Fe/Al	0.96	1.75	0.41	0.54	0.85	0.78	0.57	0.77	0.85	1.21	0.94
K/Al	0.27	0.40	0.11	0.15	n.a.	n.a.	0.08	0.34	0.30	0.33	0.36
Ca/Al	0.51	1.02	0.95	0.72	0.37	1.26	2.23	0.37	0.62	3.05	2.73
Ti/Al	0.10	0.05	0.06	0.06	<0.01	0.01	0.02	n.a.	n.a.	0.07	0.07
Cu/Sb	17.7	11.1	10.2	8.29	5.0	16.0	n.a.	5.59	12.5	6.96	7.56
Zn/Sb	27.3	14.6	40.6	26.3	10.1	68	n.a.	22.9	99.2	7.67	12.3
Fe/Cu	35.1	49.3	n.a.	n.a.	211	194	182	0.27	0.22	37.2	52.1

484 The minimum, maximum and mean values of  $I_{geo}$  and PI for each element are shown in Table 4.  
485 Lithophile elements (e.g. Al, Ca, K, Mg and Na) fell into class 1, showing no contamination. On the  
486 other hand, as suggested by the enrichment factor, it was observed that road dust of the study region is  
487 extremely contaminated by elements from tyre and brake wear, such as Sb, Sn, Cu, and Zn. Extreme  
488 contamination was also noticed for Bi. The highest  $I_{geo}$  (7.9) and PI (367) values for this chemical  
489 element were found in  $PM_{10}$  from street #5, where the steep exit to a residential neighbourhood requires  
490 braking. Road dust samples were heavily to extremely contaminated by As, as well. Arsenic is used in  
491 alloys of lead (e.g. car batteries), and in the processing of glass, pigments, textiles, paper, metal  
492 adhesives and semiconductor electronic devices. Arsenic and its compounds, particularly the trioxide,  
493 are used in the production of pesticides, treated wood products, herbicides, and insecticides. The peak  
494  $I_{geo}$  and PI values for As were found in samples from the street located in a residential area on the  
495 outskirts of the city. While one side of the street consists of terraced houses, the other side is flanked  
496 by a farm, where the use of agricultural chemicals may contribute to the accumulation of As in road  
497 dust. Background concentrations in soils have been reported to range from 1 to 40  $mg\ kg^{-1}$ , with a mean  
498 value of 5  $mg\ kg^{-1}$  (WHO, 2001), but a value of 165  $mg\ kg^{-1}$  was obtained in the thoracic fraction of  
499 road dust of this street. The second highest concentration (145  $mg\ kg^{-1}$ ) was registered within the  
500 campus of the School of Technology and Management, behind which there are fields of corn and  
501 potatoes. Tarvainen et al. (2013) documented As concentrations for the <2 mm fraction of soil samples  
502 from agricultural (Ap horizon, 0-20 cm) and grazing land (Gr, 0-10 cm), covering western Europe.  
503 Median As concentrations were 5.7  $mg\ kg^{-1}$ , for the Ap samples and 5.8  $mg\ kg^{-1}$  for the Gr samples.  
504 The median As concentration in the agricultural soils of southern Europe was found to be more than 3-  
505 fold higher than in those of northern Europe. The majority of As anomalies were linked to mineral belts  
506 or ore deposits. Coal is another known source of arsenic (Yudovich and Ketris, 2005). However, the  
507 geology of Viana do Castelo is granitic, there are no coal ores, nor use of this fuel for thermoelectric  
508 production or in the domestic sector. Thus, the high levels of As in road dust of some streets are likely  
509 related to the nearby agricultural activities.

510 The integrated pollution load index (PLI) ranged from 2.8 (moderately polluted) to 6.3 (very highly  
511 polluted). Based on this parameter, half of the sampled streets were classified as moderately to highly  
512 polluted. PLI values (aggregate of six heavy metals) of 3.65, 2.76, 1.68, 1.53 and 1.25 were obtained in  
513 street dusts (fraction passing a 2 mm sieve) in commercial, high traffic, industrial, urban park, and  
514 residential areas of Zahedan, Iran, respectively (Kamani et al., 2015). Based on the same six heavy  
515 metals (Zn, Ni, Cd, Cr, Cu and Pb), integrated pollution levels from high to extremely high (1.22 to  
516 13.1) were estimated for street dust samples collected from the central area of Tehran (Kamani et al.,  
517 2016). Based on the analysis of 10 elements in urban road dust samples below 2 mm (URD) from two  
518 populated agglomerations in Poland, geometric mean PLI values of 1.79 and 0.67 were determined for  
519 Katowice and Wrocław, respectively, showing the influence of abandoned industrial companies and  
520 coal-fired houses on the higher pollution levels in the first city (Rybak et al., 2020).

522 Table 4. Geoaccumulation and pollution indices for single elements in road dust samples

Elements	I <sub>geo</sub>				PI			
	min	max	avg	contamination	min	max	avg	contamination
Al	-2.0	0.2	-1.0	uncontaminated	0.4	1.7	0.9	uncontaminated
Ca	-5.4	0.2	-1.7	uncontaminated	0.0	1.8	0.8	uncontaminated
Fe	-0.8	1.2	0.0	uncont. to moderate	0.8	3.4	1.7	moderate
K	-2.7	-0.1	-1.4	uncontaminated	0.2	1.4	0.7	uncontaminated
Mg	-3.2	-1.2	-2.1	uncontaminated	0.2	0.7	0.4	uncontaminated
Na	-3.2	-1.3	-2.5	uncontaminated	0.2	0.6	0.3	uncontaminated
P	-0.1	1.8	1.0	uncont. to moderate	1.4	5.1	3.3	considerable
S	-0.1	4.2	1.7	moderate	1.4	28.5	7.9	very high
Li	1.9	3.6	2.7	moderate to heavy	5.5	18.7	10.5	very high
Be	-0.4	1.4	0.5	uncont. to moderate	0.0	4.0	1.1	moderate
Sc	0.0	2.2	0.9	uncont. to moderate	1.5	6.8	3.2	considerable
Ti	-0.5	1.4	0.3	uncont. to moderate	1.1	3.9	2.0	moderate
V	-0.4	1.4	0.3	uncont. to moderate	1.2	3.9	2.0	moderate
Cr	2.4	3.9	3.1	heavy	0.0	21.8	8.4	very high
Mn	-0.5	1.3	0.3	uncont. to moderate	1.1	3.6	2.0	moderate
Co	-2.1	0.8	-0.2	uncontaminated	0.4	2.6	1.6	moderate
Ni	1.2	3.5	2.4	moderate to heavy	0.0	17.1	5.9	considerable
Cu	4.8	7.8	6.1	extreme	43.1	327	127	extreme
Zn	3.6	5.6	4.6	heavy to extreme	0.0	73.5	36.4	extreme
Ga	-0.4	1.7	0.5	uncont. to moderate	1.1	4.9	2.4	moderate
Ge	-1.1	3.6	1.3	moderate	0.7	17.6	5.6	considerable
As	3.8	5.8	4.9	heavy to extreme	20.5	82.4	50.1	extreme
Se	5.1	7.9	6.2	extreme	0.0	353	85.3	extreme
Rb	0.2	2.1	1.1	moderate	1.7	6.2	3.5	considerable
Sr	-2.6	0.1	-0.9	uncontaminated	0.3	1.6	0.9	uncontaminated
Y	-1.6	0.5	-0.5	uncontaminated	0.5	2.1	1.2	moderate
Zr	-1.8	0.5	-0.6	uncontaminated	0.0	2.2	1.0	moderate
Nb	-1.1	0.5	-0.3	uncontaminated	0.7	2.2	1.3	moderate
Mo	5.5	9.0	7.2	extreme	0.0	782	106	extreme
Cd	3.9	7.3	5.6	extreme	0.0	232	31.8	extreme
Sn	4.9	7.7	6.1	extreme	45.3	313	126	extreme
Sb	5.7	9.9	7.6	extreme	76.4	1398	435	extreme
Cs	1.1	2.8	1.9	moderate	3.1	10.3	6.1	very high
Ba	-0.5	2.7	1.2	moderate	1.1	10.1	4.1	considerable
La	-1.0	1.5	0.1	uncont. to moderate	0.7	4.3	1.8	moderate
Ce	-1.1	1.4	-0.1	uncontaminated	0.7	4.0	1.7	moderate

Pr	-0.5	1.8	0.5	uncont. to moderate	0.0	5.3	1.9	moderate
Nd	-0.8	1.6	0.2	uncont. to moderate	0.8	4.6	2.0	moderate
Sm	0.2	2.4	1.3	moderate	1.7	7.8	4.1	considerable
Gd	0.5	3.0	1.8	moderate	2.1	11.9	6.1	very high
Dy	-0.6	1.3	0.4	uncont. to moderate	1.0	3.8	2.2	moderate
Er	-0.60	0.8	0.2	uncont. to moderate	0.0	2.6	0.7	uncontaminated
Yb	0.1	1.4	0.8	uncont. to moderate	0.0	4.1	1.1	moderate
Hf	-1.3	0.6	-0.4	uncontaminated	0.0	2.2	1.1	moderate
W	3.0	5.6	3.8	heavy	0.0	71.2	20.0	extreme
Tl	0.7	1.9	1.3	moderate	0.0	5.6	1.0	moderate
Pb	2.1	4.4	3.2	heavy	6.4	32.1	16.2	extreme
Bi	5.6	7.9	6.8	extreme	0.0	367	161	extreme
Th	-0.3	2.1	0.7	uncont. to moderate	1.2	6.6	2.8	moderate
U	1.8	3.3	2.7	moderate to heavy	5.1	15.0	10.5	very high

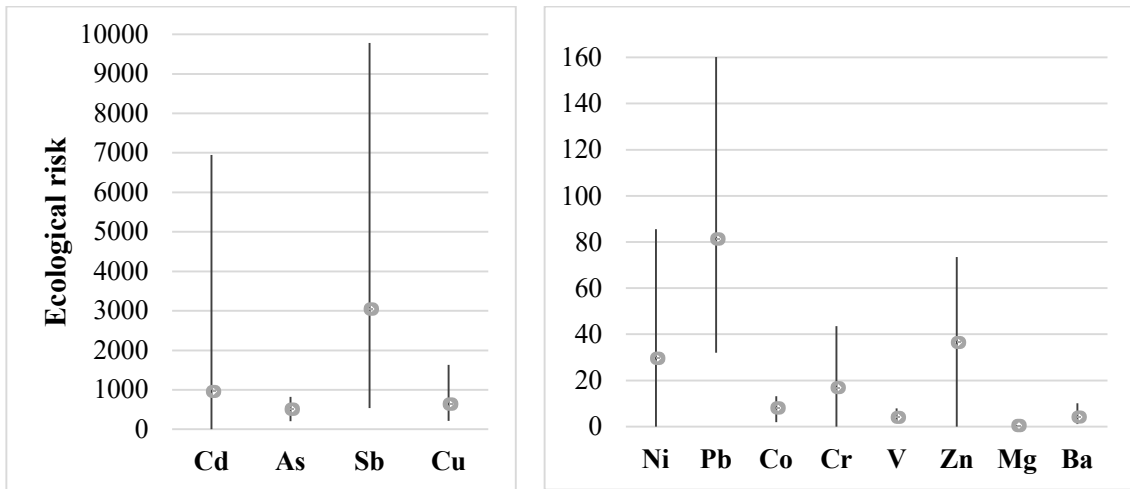
523

524 Note: Cr, Ni, and Se detected only in samples from 5 roads, Er and Yb in samples from 3 roads, Mo, Cd and Tl  
525 in samples from 2 roads

526

527  $E_i$  indicated the very high risk posed by Sb, Cd, Cu and As (Fig. 2). On average, a global RI value  
528 of 5316 was obtained, indicating that the thoracic fraction of road dust of Viana do Castelo may pose a  
529 significantly high potential ecological risk, and management procedures should be adopted. Sb can be  
530 regarded as the pollutant of highest concern, since it represented 57.3% of RI. Cd, Cu, As and Pb  
531 accounted for 18.0, 11.9, 9.4 and 1.5% of the potential ecological risk, respectively, while the  
532 contribution from other elements was low. RI values ranging from 82 to 50 (mean value of 234) have  
533 been reported for Tehran, with Cd representing a considerable potential ecological risk (Kamani et al.,  
534 2016). In Eslamshahr, another Iranian city, the highest monomial  $E_i$  values, ranging from 33.3 to 153,  
535 were also observed for Cd (Kamani et al., 2018). In road dust < 100  $\mu\text{m}$  collected in Beihai and  
536 Shanghai, China, the  $E_i$  values indicated the low risk posed by all metals. However, the ecological  
537 index in Beihai highlighted the considerable ( $E_i = 149$ ) and high ( $E_i = 254$ ) risks for Hg and Ni,  
538 respectively (Chen et al. (2019). In Lublin, Poland, the determination of Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb and Zn in  
539 street dust (< 63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) collected in 2018 indicated a moderate ecological risk for 84% of the samples,  
540 while the remaining 16% were assigned to the “considerable” class. Cd was the element with the  
541 strongest influence on the level of this index (Zgłobicki et al., 2019).

542



543

544 Fig. 2. Potential ecological risk factors of individual elements ( $E_{r_i}$ ) in road dust samples (minimum,  
545 maximum and mean values)

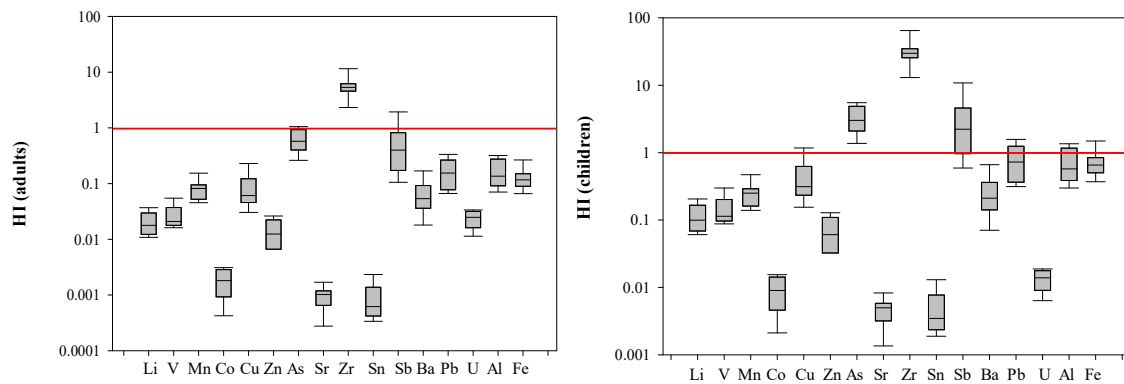
546

547 **Human health risk**

548

549 For some elements, the hazard index was higher than the safe value of 1 for both children and adults  
550 (Fig. 3). Li, V, Mn, Co, Zn, Sr, Sn, Ba and U presented HI values much lower than 1, thus suggesting  
551 that there were no significant non-carcinogenic risks to the public posed by these elements. The HI  
552 values for adults were approximately an order of magnitude lower than those for children. Therefore,  
553 children are potentially more susceptible to the health effects from exposure to metals in road dust. In  
554 some streets, the non-carcinogenic risk for children due to multiple elements is worrying, reaching HI  
555 values up to 65 (Zr), 11 (Sb), 5.5 (As), Cr (2.8), 2.2 (Mo), 1.6 (Pb), 1.5 (Fe) and 1.2 (Cu). The maximum  
556 values for Zr, Sb, Cr, Fe and Cu were obtained in samples from the street with a steep exit to a residential  
557 neighbourhood (street # 5), more prone to brake and tyre wear. The highest HI for As was registered in  
558 the street most impacted by agricultural activities.

559



560 Fig. 3. Non-carcinogenic risk (hazard index, HI) estimated for adults and children due to metals in road  
561 dust particles

562

563 The carcinogenic effects of Co, Cr, Ni, Cd and As were assessed through the inhalation exposure  
564 route only, owing to the shortage of SF values for the ingestion and dermal pathways. The total  
565 carcinogenic risks were all lower than  $1 \times 10^{-6}$ , except for road dust samples collected in street # 5,  
566 where a TCR value of  $1.88 \times 10^{-6}$  was obtained. These results indicate that, in general, the total cancer  
567 risk can be considered insignificant. However, in street # 5, the CR for Cr ( $1.84 \times 10^{-6}$ ), slightly  
568 exceeding the reference value, indicates potential carcinogenic risk in that sampling site.

569

### 570 **Conclusions**

571

572 Loadings and chemical patterns of inhalable road dust particles were investigated in a Southern  
573 European city. Since it has been shown that emission inventories and source apportionment  
574 methodologies should employ databases obtained locally, this study has the potential to contribute to  
575 new emission factors and chemical fingerprints to more accurately quantify the contribution of road  
576 dust resuspension to atmospheric levels.

577 Various geochemical indices were applied to the datasets to assess the degree of contamination.  
578 While minimal enrichments factors were always observed for elements such as Mg, Na and K, very or  
579 extremely high factors were registered for Cu, Zn, Sn, Sb, As, Se and Bi, reflecting the substantial  
580 environmental pollution caused by anthropogenic sources. The geochemical and pollution indices  
581 revealed that road dust of the study region is extremely contaminated by elements from tyre and brake  
582 wear. The highest contamination degrees were observed in a street where the steep exit to a residential  
583 neighbourhood requires braking. Road dust samples were also heavily to extremely contaminated by  
584 As, especially in the streets more impacted by agriculture activities. The integrated pollution load index  
585 ranged from 2.8 (moderately polluted) to 6.3 (very highly polluted). A very high ecological risk factor  
586 for multiple metals of 5316 was obtained, 57% of which was due to the contribution of Sb. Thus, brake  
587 wear represents a noteworthy input to the thoracic fraction of road dust of Viana do Castelo, and  
588 together with other traffic related emissions, may pose a significantly high potential ecological risk.

589 Although the total cancer risk was found to be insignificant for both children and adults, the  
590 assessment of non-carcinogenic health hazards of exposure to heavy metals indicated that the daily  
591 doses, especially due to hand to mouth ingestion of road dust particles, exceeded the reference values.  
592 Thus, exposure to elements such as Zr, Sb, As, Cr, Mo, Pb, Fe and Cu may trigger neurological and  
593 developmental disorders, and the heavy metals may accumulate in the body for a long time. The hazards  
594 of exposure to road dust cannot be overlooked, and the ecological and health implications require further  
595 detailed investigation. Additionally, preventive and corrective actions should be targeted.

596



597 **Credit authorship contribution statement**

598

599 **Célia Alves:** Funding acquisition, Project administration, Conceptualisation, Supervision, Data  
600 curation, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. **Estela D. Vicente:** Investigation,  
601 Formal analysis. **Ana M.P. Vicente:** Investigation. **Ismael Casotti Rienda:** Investigation, Data  
602 curation. **Mário Tomé:** Investigation. **Xavier Querol:** Investigation. **Fulvio Amato:**  
603 Conceptualisation, Validation, Writing - review & editing.

604

605 **Declaration of competing interest**

606

607 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships  
608 that may have influenced the present study.

609

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611

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624

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# Loadings, chemical patterns and risks of inhalable road dust particles in an Atlantic city in the north of Portugal

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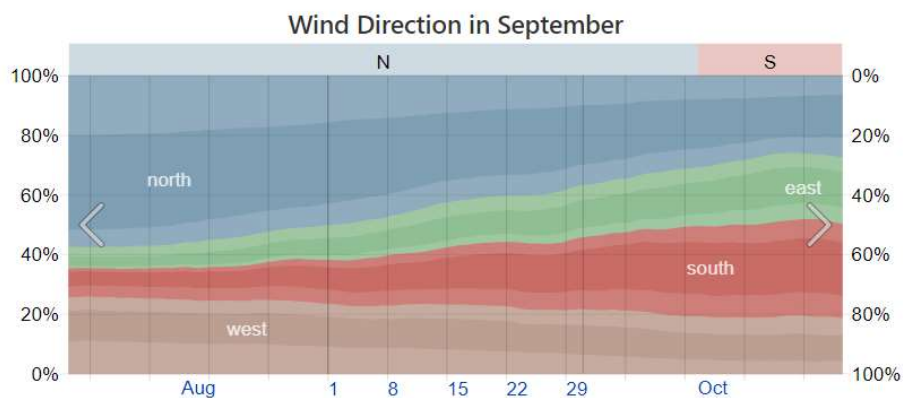
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## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

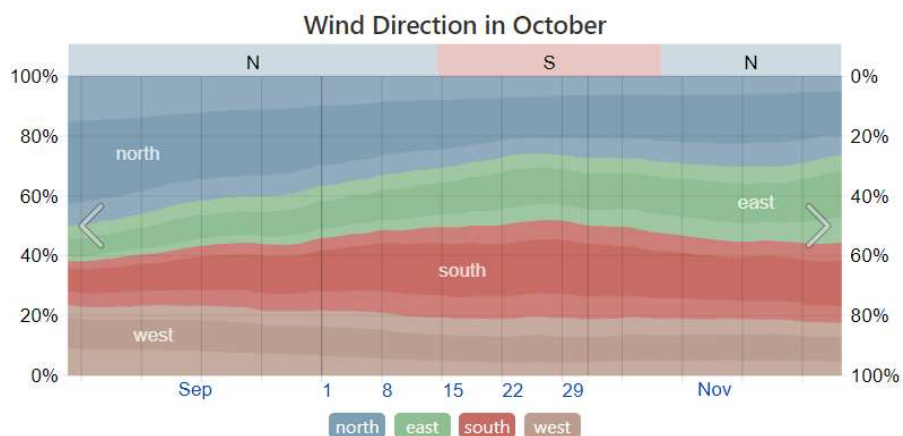
### • Meteorological information

Road dust sampling in Viana do Castelo was carried out in September and October 2018. The hourly average wind direction in this city throughout September is predominantly from the north. This direction represents approximately 50% of the total records. In October, the northern quadrant dominates until the middle of the month. The representativeness of this direction decreases in the second half, in which the prevailing winds blow from the south.



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**Fig. S1.** Percentage of hours in which the mean wind direction is from each of the four cardinal directions. Hours in which the mean wind speed is lower than 1.0 mph were not included. The lightly tinted areas at the boundaries are the percentage of hours spent in intermediate directions (northeast, southeast, southwest, and northwest). Data source: Weather Spark.

- **Analytical methods**

Table S1. Internal standards used in the quantification of organic compounds

Internal Standards	Quantification Ion (m/z)
1,4-Dichlorobenzene-d4	150
Naphthalene-d8	136
Acenaphthene-d10	164
Fluorene-d10	176
Phenanthrene-d10	188
Chrysene-d12	240
Benzo[a]pyrene-d12	264
Perylene-d12	264
Diethyl phthalate-3,4,5,6-d4	153
Bis(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate-3,4,5,6-d4	149
1-Chlorododecane	91
1-Chlorohexadecane	57
Tetracosane-d50	66

Table S2. Quantification ions for the determination of PAHs by GC-MS operated in the selected ion monitoring mode (SIM)

Rings	Compounds	Quantification Ion (m/z)
central benzene ring substituted with two phenyl groups	Terphenyl	230
2	Naphthalene	128
3	Acenaphthylene	152
3	Acenaphthene	153
3	Fluorene	166
3	Phenanthrene	178
3	Anthracene	178
4	Fluoranthene	202
4	Pyrene	202
4	Chrysene	228
4	Benzo[a]anthracene	228
5	Perylene	252
5	Benzo[b]fluoranthene	252
5	Benzo[k]fluoranthene	252
5	Benzo[a]pyrene	252
5	Dibenzo[a,h] anthracene	278
6	Indeno[1,2,3-cd]pyrene	276
6	Benzo[g,h,i]perylene	276

Table S3. Quantification ions for the determination of alkylated PAHs by GC-MS operated in the selected ion monitoring mode (SIM)

Alkyl-PAHs		Quantification Ion (m/z)
Retene		219
C1-naphthalenes	Methylnaphthalene	142
C2-naphthalenes	Dimethylnaphthalene	156
C1-fluorenes	Methylfluorene	180
C3-fluorenes	Trimethylfluorene	208
C1-phenanthrenes	Methylphenantrene	192
C2-phenanthrenes	Dimethylphenantrene	206
C3-phenanthrenes	Trimethylphenanthrene	220
C1-fluoranthenes/pyrenes	Methylfluoranthene/Methylpyrene	216
C3-dibenzothiophenes	Trimethyldibenzothiophene	226
Heterocyclic aromatics		
Carbazole		167
Benzothiazole		135

Table S4. Quantification ions for the determination of plasticisers by GC-MS operated in the selected ion monitoring mode (SIM)

Plasticisers	Quantification Ion (m/z)
Dimethyl phthalate	163
Diethyl phthalate	149
Di-n-butyl phthalate	149
Benzyl butyl phthalate	149
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) adipate	129
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate	149
Di-n-octyl phthalate	149
Diisononyl phthalate	149
Diisodecyl phthalate	149

Table S5. Definition and reference values of some parameters for health assessment of metal(loid)s in road dusts (Adimalla, 2020; and references therein)

Factor	Definition	Units	Adult	Children
IR <sub>ing</sub>	Ingestion rate	mg day <sup>-1</sup>	200	100
ED	Exposure duration	years	30	6
EF	Exposure frequency	days year <sup>-1</sup>	365	365
CF	Conversion factor	kg mg <sup>-1</sup>	1.00 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>	1.00 × 10 <sup>-6</sup>
BW	Body weight	kg	70	20
AT	Average time (non-carcinogenic)	years	365×ED	365×ED
	Average time (carcinogenic)	years	70×ED	70×ED
SA	Exposed skin surface area	cm <sup>2</sup>	4350	1600
SAF	Skin adherence factor	mg cm <sup>-2</sup>	0.7	0.2
DAF	Dermal absorption factor	–	0.001	0.001
IR <sub>inh</sub>	Inhalation rate	m <sup>3</sup> day <sup>-1</sup>	12.8	7.63
PEF	Particle emission factor	m <sup>3</sup> kg <sup>-1</sup>	1.36 × 10 <sup>9</sup>	1.36 × 10 <sup>9</sup>

Table S6. Reference doses (R<sub>f</sub>D) and slope factors (SF) for metal(loid)s (Adimalla, 2020; Faiz et al., 2012; Ferreira-Baptista and de Miguel, 2005; Li et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2015).

<b>Metal</b>	<b>R<sub>f</sub>D<sub>ing</sub></b> <b>(mg kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>R<sub>f</sub>D<sub>inh</sub></b> <b>(mg kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>R<sub>f</sub>D<sub>dermal</sub></b> <b>(mg kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>SF</b> <b>(mg kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>)</b>
As	3.00 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>		1.23 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	1.5 × 10 <sup>0</sup>
Zn	3.00 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>	3.00 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>	6.00 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	
Cu	4.00 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	4.02 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	1.20 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	
Pb	3.50 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	3.52 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	5.25 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	
Cr	3.00 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	2.86 × 10 <sup>-5</sup>	6.00 × 10 <sup>-5</sup>	4.20 × 10 <sup>1</sup>
Ni	2.00 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	2.06 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	5.40 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	8.40 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>
Cd	1.00 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	1.00 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	1.00 × 10 <sup>-5</sup>	6.30 × 10 <sup>0</sup>
Mn	4.6 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	1.43 × 10 <sup>-5</sup>	1.84 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	
Fe	7.0 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>			
Sb	4.0 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>			
Al	1.00 × 10 <sup>0</sup>	1.43 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	1.00 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>	
Co	2.0 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	1.43 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	4.9 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	9.8 × 10 <sup>0</sup>
Ba	7.00 × 10 <sup>-2</sup>	1.43 × 10 <sup>-4</sup>	4.9 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	
Mo	5.0 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>		1.9 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	
Sr	6.0 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>		1.2 × 10 <sup>-1</sup>	
V	7.0 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	7.0 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	7.0 × 10 <sup>-3</sup>	

Table S7. Mutagenic and carcinogenic equivalency factors for PAHs (Błaszczuk et al., 2017; and references therein)

	<b>Mutagenic equivalency factor</b> <b>(MEF)</b>	<b>Carcinogenic equivalency</b> <b>factor (TEF)</b>
Naphthalene	-	0.001
Acenaphthene	-	0.001
Fluorene	-	0.001
Phenanthrene	-	0.001
Anthracene	-	0.01
Fluoranthene	-	0.001
Pyrene	-	0.001
Benzo[a]anthracene	0.082	0.1
Chrysene	0.017	0.01
Benzo[b]fluoranthene	0.25	0.1
Benzo[k]fluoranthene	0.11	0.1
Benzo[a]pyrene	1.0	1.0
Benzo[g,h,i]perylene	0.19	0.01
Dibenz[a,h]anthracene	0.29	1.0
Indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene	0.31	0.1

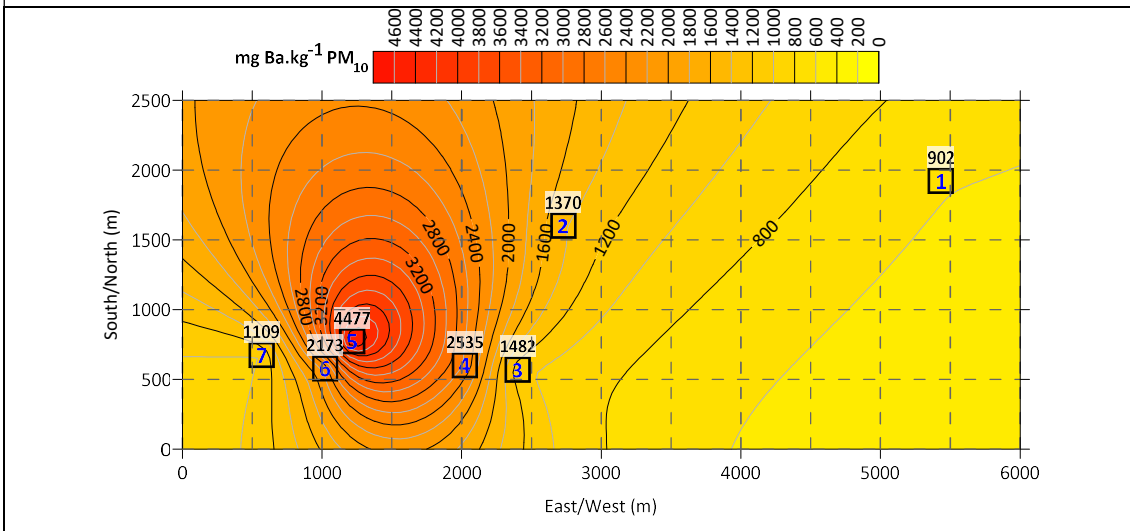
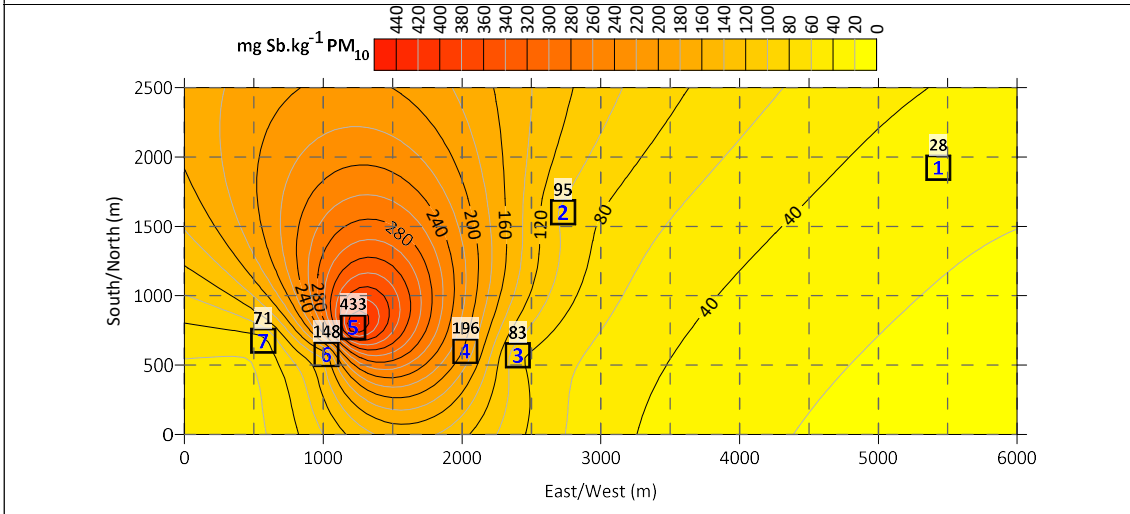
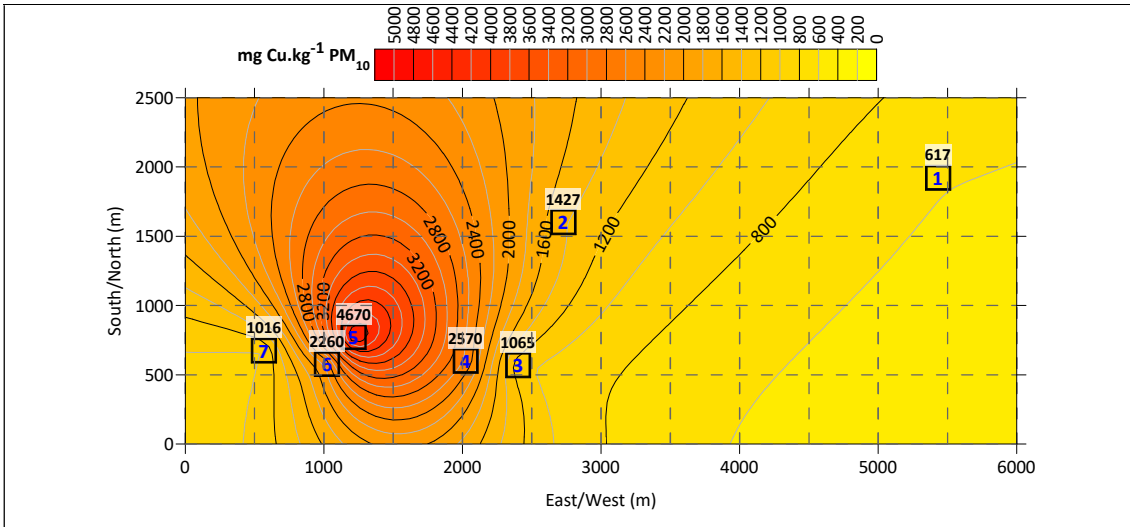
- **Results**

Table S8. Element mass fractions (mg kg<sup>-1</sup> PM<sub>10</sub>) in road dust samples. The dash indicates elements not detected or below the detection limit.

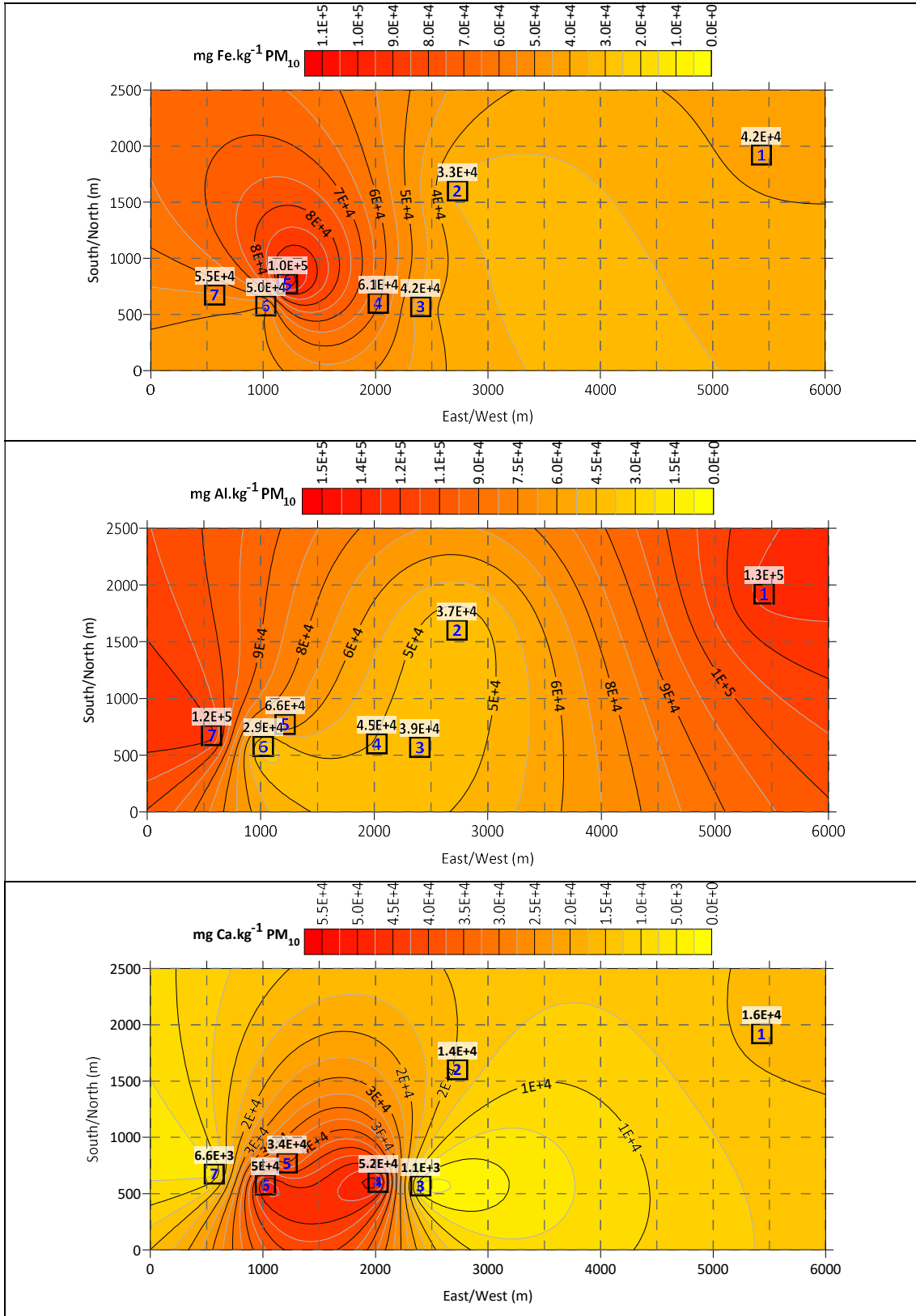
	<b>min</b>	<b>max</b>
<b>Li</b>	121	412
<b>Be</b>	-	12.5
<b>B</b>	-	-
<b>Sc</b>	8.67	39.4
<b>Ti</b>	3299	12,064
<b>V</b>	61.3	209
<b>Cr</b>	-	762
<b>Mn</b>	565	1921
<b>Co</b>	4.18	30.6
<b>Ni</b>	-	318
<b>Cu</b>	617	4669
<b>Zn</b>	-	3819
<b>Ga</b>	16.0	68.9
<b>Ge</b>	0.965	24.6
<b>As</b>	41.0	165
<b>Se</b>	-	29.3
<b>Rb</b>	190	687
<b>Sr</b>	80.5	493
<b>Y</b>	10.3	43.8
<b>Zr</b>	-	518
<b>Nb</b>	18.8	56.7
<b>Mo</b>	-	1095
<b>Cd</b>	-	23.6
<b>Sn</b>	113	782
<b>Sb</b>	23.7	433
<b>Cs</b>	18.1	59.9
<b>Ba</b>	476	4477
<b>La</b>	24.0	139
<b>Ce</b>	46.9	260
<b>Pr</b>	-	33.6
<b>Nd</b>	22.0	119
<b>Sm</b>	8.04	36.7
<b>Eu</b>	-	2.60
<b>Gd</b>	5.77	33.3
<b>Tb</b>	-	2.21
<b>Dy</b>	2.86	11.1
<b>Ho</b>	-	2.25
<b>Er</b>	-	6.01
<b>Tm</b>	-	-

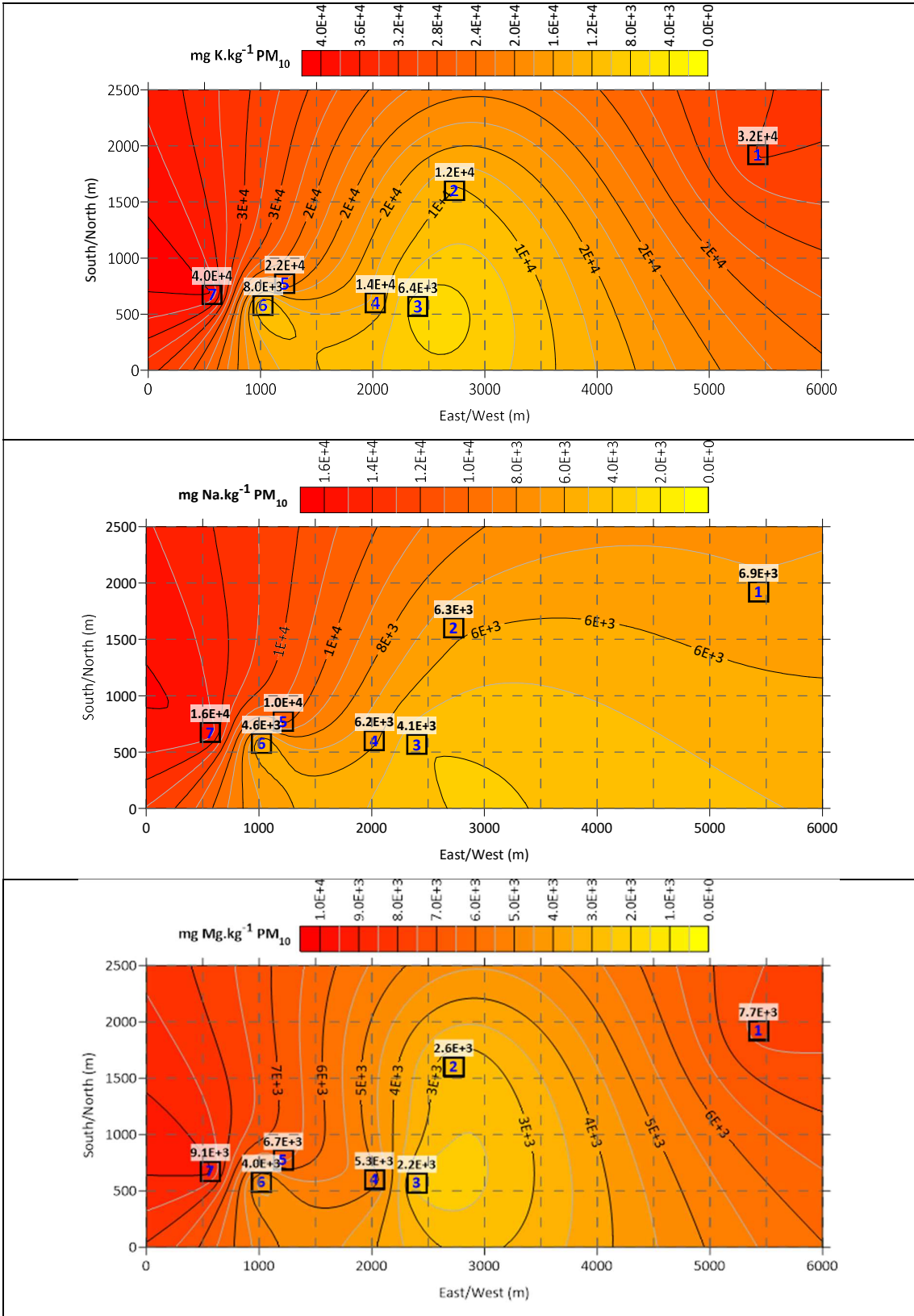
<b>Yb</b>	-	6.12
<b>Lu</b>	-	-
<b>Hf</b>	-	13.0
<b>Ta</b>	-	2.89
<b>W</b>	-	99.7
<b>Tl</b>	-	4.22
<b>Pb</b>	109	545
<b>Bi</b>	-	45.1
<b>Th</b>	12.1	68.5
<b>U</b>	12.7	37.6
<b>Al</b>	28,880	13,0749
<b>Ca</b>	1075	51,988
<b>Fe</b>	25,965	104,424
<b>K</b>	6446	40,185
<b>Mg</b>	2200	9119
<b>Na</b>	4103	15,719
<b>P</b>	947	3395
<b>S</b>	1317	27,161

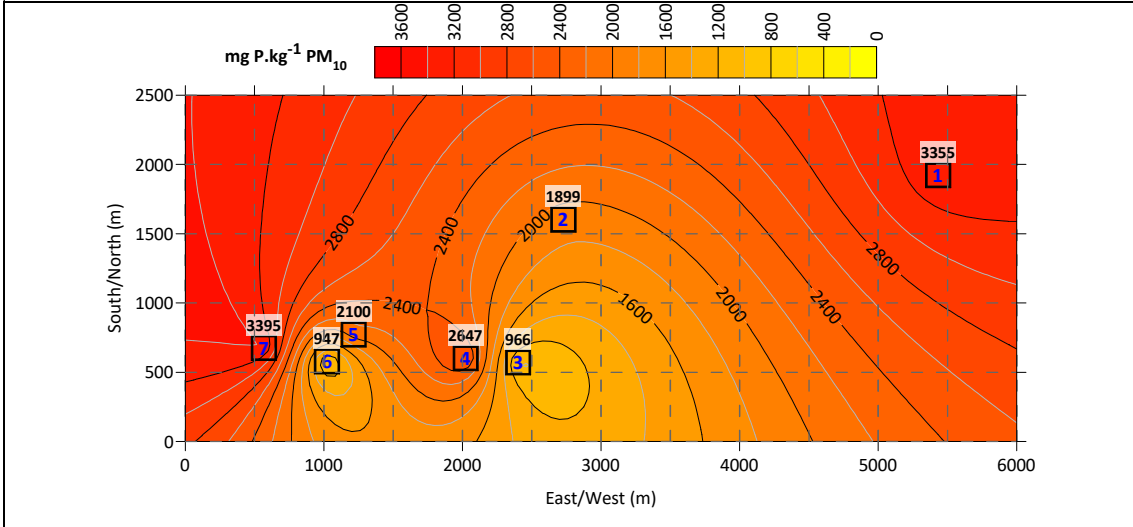
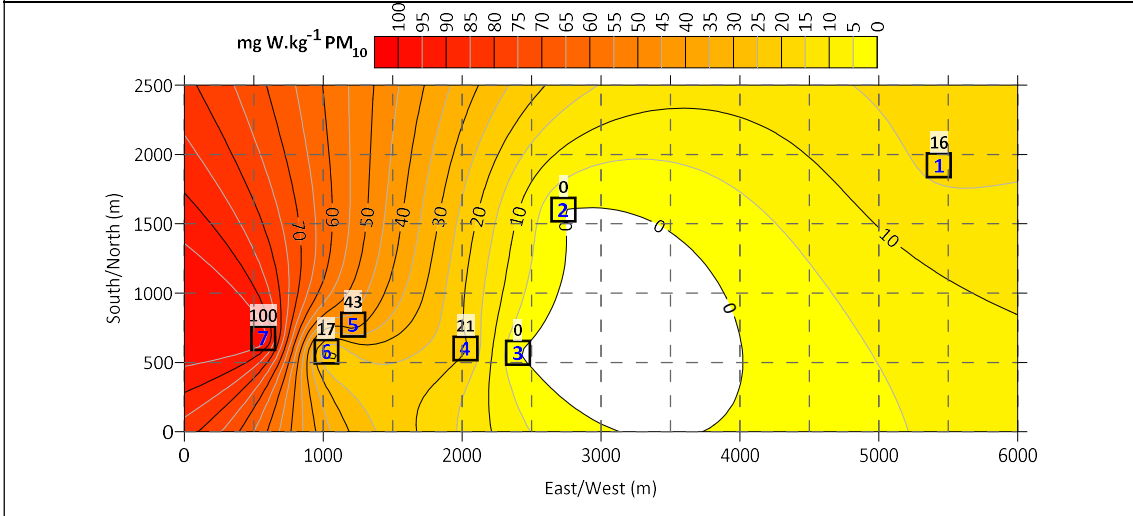
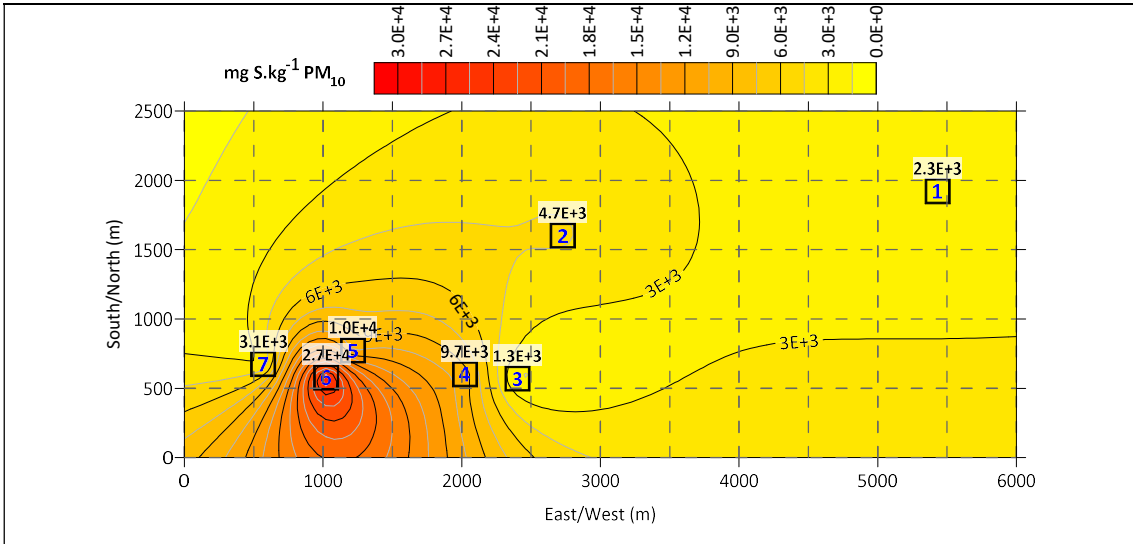


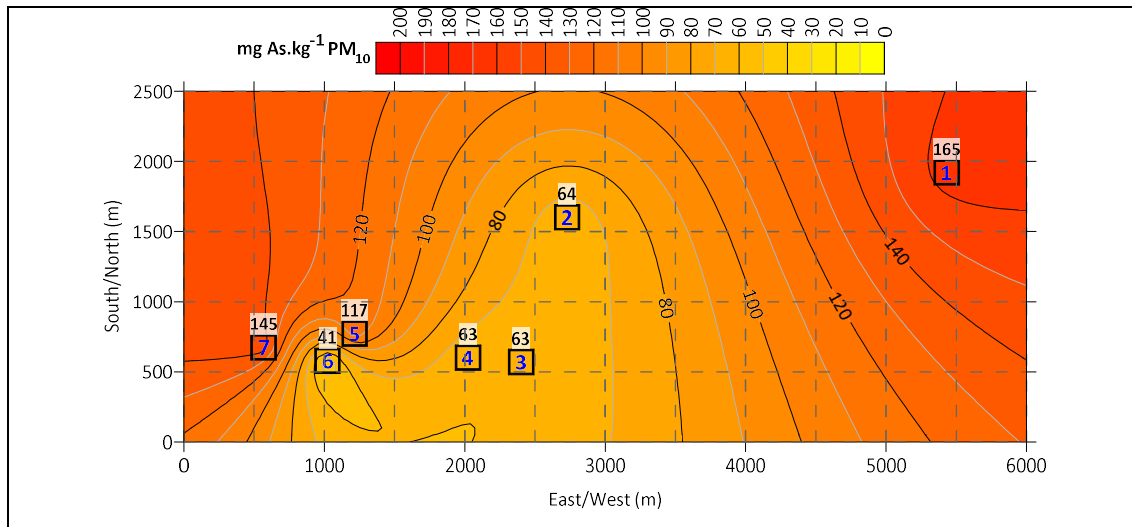






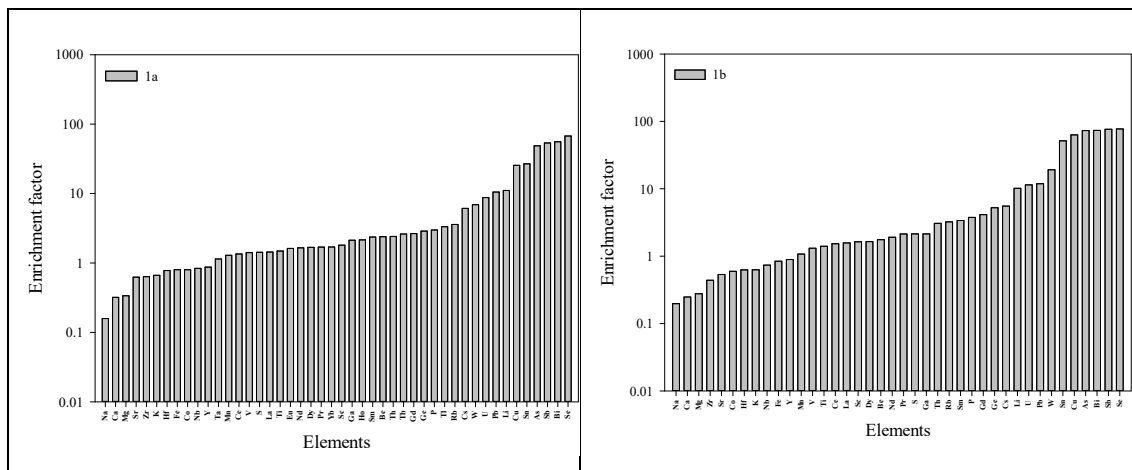


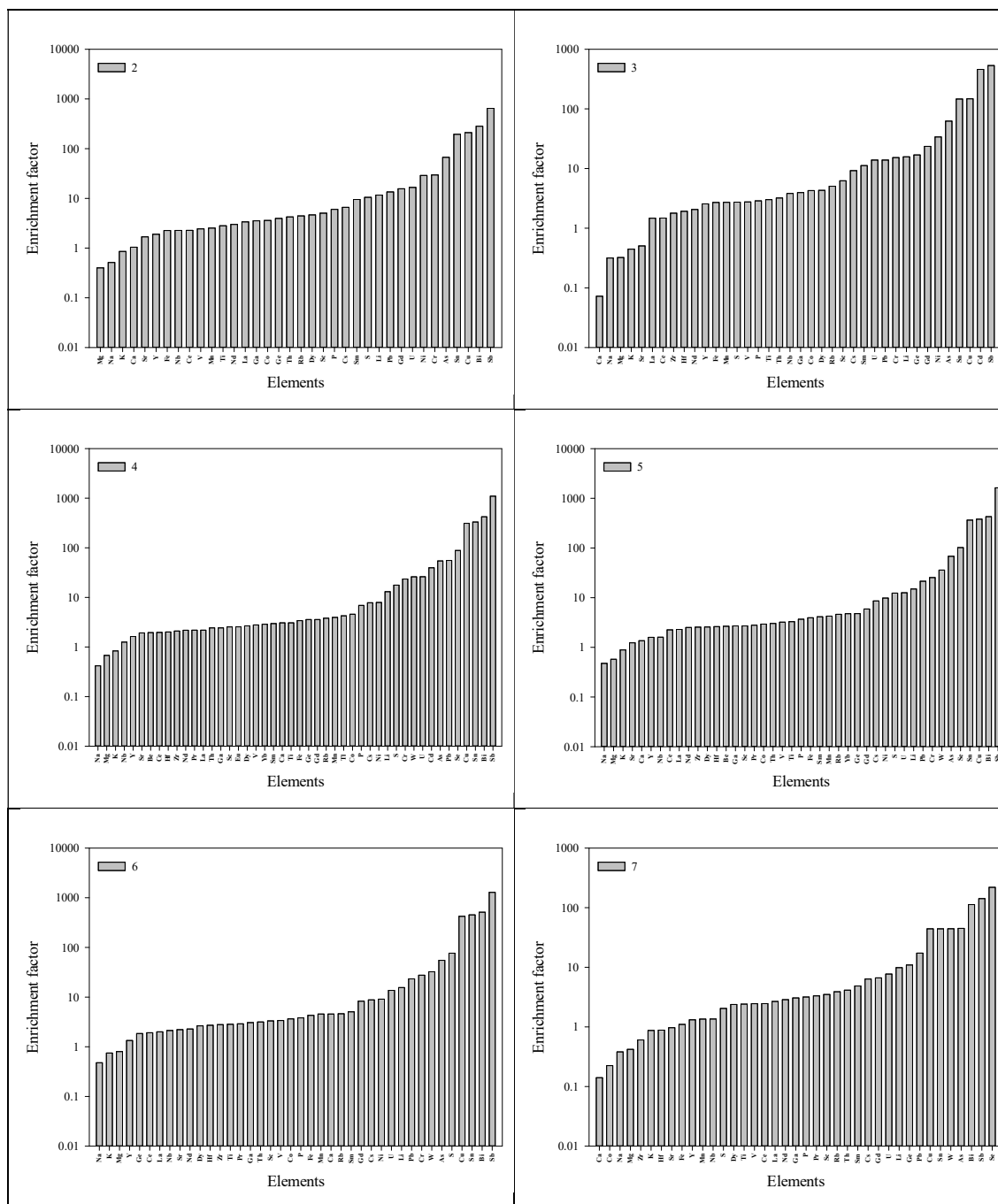




**Fig. S2.** Spatial distributions of mass concentration for some elements. Squares with blue numbers indicate the streets where sampling was performed:

- 1 - Rua Alto Xisto - residential area on the outskirts of the city; cobbled pavement made of granite cubes
- 2 - Av. Capitão Gaspar de Castro - access road to the city centre and residential areas with various public facilities; stone mastic asphalt pavement
- 3 - Largo João Tomás da Costa - access to the city centre by the river front; stone mastic asphalt pavement
- 4 - Av. Combatentes da Grande Guerra - central artery connecting to the train station; cobbled pavement made of granite cubes
- 5 - Av. 25 de Abril - steep exit of a main thoroughfare that crosses the city to a residential neighbourhood; stone mastic asphalt pavement
- 6 - Av. do Atlântico - avenue of access to the main beach of the city, next to the shipyards; stone mastic asphalt pavement
- 7 - ESTG - local road within the campus of the Higher School of Technology and Management; stone mastic asphalt pavement





**Fig. S3.** Enrichment factors for road dust samples. 1a - Rua Alto Xisto, cobbled pavement, before washing; 1b - Rua Alto Xisto, after washing; 2 - Av. Capitão Gaspar de Castro, asphalt pavement; 3 - Largo João Tomás da Costa, asphalt pavement; 4 - Av. Combatentes da Grande Guerra, cobbled pavement; 5 - Av. 25 de Abril - asphalt pavement; 6 - Av. do Atlântico, asphalt pavement; 7 – ESTG, asphalt pavement.

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