

Endocrine disrupting compounds in gaseous and particulate outdoor air phases according to environmental factors

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Abstract

 This study investigated, for the first time in France, the spatial and temporal patterns of 55 endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) in ambient air at three sites (urban, suburban and forest) under two climatic periods (warm/cold) for 2 successive years. All EDCs, except tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA), were encountered with various frequencies of up to 100%. Phthalate diesters (PAEs) were the most abundant chemicals with total concentrations as the sum of compounds, ranging from 10 to $\,$ 100 ng m⁻³ of total air, followed by alkylphenols (APs) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), 29 which were both approximately 1 ng $m⁻³$. Polychlorinated biphenyl (PCBs) and bisphenol A (BPA) 30 concentrations were notably lower (approximately 0.1 ng $m⁻³$). Air concentrations, depending on the considered compounds, were from 1.2 to 2 times higher in the urban than the suburban area and from 2 to 5 times higher in the urban than the forest site. PAH emissions were higher in the cold period, due to combustion processes. This finding is contrary to the other EDCs that are more abundant in the summer and governed by volatilisation. Most of the EDCs were largely distributed in the gaseous 35 phase ($> 80\%$ in the summer). The octanol/air partition coefficient (K_{OA}) and vapour pressure (Vp) were relevant parameters for predicting EDC partitioning and direct relationships (p < 0.001) were 37 observed i) between log K particle/gas partitioning (log Kp) and log K_{OA} and ii) between EDC ratios in the gaseous phase and log vapor pressure (log Vp).

Highlights

- EDCs in the Paris area were similar to Western countries except PAHs and PBDEs
- PCBs and PAEs showed an urban signature
- AP, PAH and PBDE sources were more distributed along a urban-suburban transect
- EDCs prevailed in gaseous phase whatever the season except DEHP and heavy PAHs
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1. Introduction

 The continuous release of a number of endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs), such as bisphenol A (BPA), tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA), phthalate diesters (PAEs), alkylphenols (APs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDEs) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), to the environment generates new concerns regarding human exposure to low doses of toxic mixtures and possible subsequent effects on health [\(Benachour et al., 2007;](#page-22-0) [Woodruff, 2011\)](#page-25-0).

 The emission sources of these chemicals have greatly increased and diversified over the past decades [\(EEA, 2013\)](#page-23-0); and therefore, they have appeared as major air contaminants, particularly because of their semi-volatile properties [\(Rudel and Perovich, 2009\)](#page-25-1). Thus, PAEs, APs, PCBs and PBDEs that are not chemically bound to matrices might become easily dispersed by volatilisation [\(Palm et al., 2002;](#page-24-0) [Fujii et al., 2003;](#page-24-1) [Liang and Xu, 2014\)](#page-24-2).

 PAEs can be emitted into the atmosphere from commonly used products, plastics, detergents, building materials or furniture [\(Wormuth et al., 2006\)](#page-25-2). To date, despite a wide use of BPA in polycarbonate and epoxy resin production, emission sources and subsequent impacts upon ambient air quality remain poorly documented [\(Huang et al., 2012\)](#page-24-3).

 APs are by-products of alkylphenol ethoxylates largely used in household detergents. The European directive 2003/53/EC that came into force in January 2005 restrained the use of products containing more than 0.1% nonylphenols (NP) or nonylphenol ethoxylates. However, alkylphenol ethoxylates are still applied as dispersing agents in pulp and paper production, emulsifying agents in latex paints, glue and pesticides or in the preparation of antioxidants, curing agents and heat stabilisers for polymer resins and may be emitted to the environment from building materials [\(Saito et al., 2004\)](#page-25-3).

 PBDEs, a major class of flame retardants used in a number of manufactured goods to reduce their flammability, were composed of three major commercial formulations: penta BDE, octa-BDE and deca-BDE [\(de Wit et al., 2010\)](#page-23-1). Since 2003, penta- and octa-BDE were banned of use in all applications for the European Union market [\(Directive2003/11/EC\)](#page-23-2) Deca- BDE was registered under the "Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals" (REACH) in 2010 and thus its uses have been restricted to applications such as automotive equipment, textiles and construction and suppressed for electric and electronic equipment [\(Deca-BDE, 2012\)](#page-23-3). Tetrabromobisphenol A (TBBPA) is used as a reactive or additive flame retardant in polymers such as ABS, epoxy and polycarbonate resins, polystyrene, phenolic resins or adhesives [\(Who, 1995\)](#page-25-4).

 Chlorinated compounds such as hexachlorobenzene (HCB) and PCBs have been classified as persistent organic pollutants in the 1998 Aarhus Protocol (Aarhus, 24 June 1998), in the framework of the Geneva Convention on long-range transboundary air pollution. Dispersive uses of PCBs were banned in France by the Decree of 8 July 1975 and their uses were restricted to in-service equipment by a second decree in February 1986. Finally, in February 2003, a decree on the elimination of all equipment containing PCBs before the end of 2010 has been published. An unknown stock of PCBs is within now buried landfills and other waste-handling facilities as well as diffuse sources such as electrical wiring and paints 87 (Diamond et al, 2010). Most recently, new "non-aroclor" PCBs were detected as byproduct of diarylide yellow (Rodenburg [et al., 2010\)](#page-25-5) and other pigment production [\(Anezaki et al.,](#page-22-1) [2015\)](#page-22-1).

 Although HCB production has ceased since 1993, this compound is still being generated inadvertently as a by-product and/or an impurity in several chemical processes [\(Bonnomet et](#page-23-4) [al., 2011\)](#page-23-4) and pentachlorobenzene (PeCB) occurs as a by-product of HCB degradation [\(Brignon, 2005\)](#page-23-5).

 PAHs are continuously produced by combustion processes, mainly from domestic heating and automobile traffic [\(Katsoyiannis et al., 2011;](#page-24-4) Tobiszewski [and Namieśnik, 2012\)](#page-25-6). Despite PAHs are not considered as POPs, they were included to the Aarhus protocol. The objective was to reduce their emissions from stationary sources below their levels in 1990. For the emission inventories, the four indicator compounds shall be used: benzo(a)pyrene, benzo(b)fluoranthene, benzo(k)fluoranthene, and indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene.

 Consequently, EDCs might undergo local or long range transport and their residence time in the air depends on climatic conditions and pollutant partitioning between the gaseous and particulate phases [\(Wania, 2003\)](#page-25-7).

 This study investigated for the first time in France, the atmospheric fate of a wide variety of EDCs (n=55) including PCBs, PBDEs, PAHs, APs, PAEs, HCB, PeCB, BPA and TBBPA, and considering both their gaseous and particulate phases. The target compounds were selected according to suspicion of endocrine disrupting properties, to their classification as POPs and semi-volatile organic compounds and to their environmental occurrence. The concentration levels for the different EDC families were first considered, in order to highlight the general trends of EDC distribution in France and to compare with the contamination in other countries. As EDCs result from various sources, the spatial variations between three sites located respectively in urban, suburban and forest areas were studied. In addition, temporal variations between two contrasted seasons with and without domestic heating and between two successive years were investigated. Next, the particle/gas partitioning was examined on the basis of compound molecular properties. Last, relationships between outdoor temperature, suspended particles < 10 µm (PM10) and EDC air concentrations were explored at the most polluted site.

- **2. Material and Methods**
- **2.1 Sampling schedule**

The three sampling sites belonged to the local air monitoring network of the Ile-de-

France district (Airparif) (Fig. Supplementary Material – SM 1).

 Two sampling campaigns were carried out at the following 3 sampling sites in the Paris 123 region: urban centre residential (population density: 20 000 inhab km^{-2}) - Paris 13th (75013), 124 suburban residential area (population density 4 400 inhab km^{-2}) - Lognes (77185 – Seine et 125 Marne) and forest area (population density: 87 inhab km^{-2}) - Fontainebleau (77186 – Seine et Marne). The prevailing wind direction was W/NW. Because of logistical constraints, only two sites per year were simultaneously sampled: first, Paris/Fontainebleau (distance between the 2 sites, 56.5 km) and then Paris/Lognes (distance 20 km).

 The first campaign was carried out for two periods: summer 2010 and winter 2010/2011 130 at the urban (Paris $13th$) and the forest (Fontainebleau) sites. The second campaign was carried out in summer 2011 and winter 2011/2012 and was performed at the urban and the suburban sites i.e., Paris and Lognes.

 Each sampling period consisted of three successive and individual samples over 14 d, accounting for 42 sampling days. Sampling conditions are presented in Table SM.1. Air 135 sample volumes ranged from 276 to 555 m³.

2.2 Sample collection and treatment

 The particulate phases were sampled onto quartz fibre filters (porosity 0.3 µm supplied by Whatman) and gaseous phases onto XAD-2 resin (20-60 mesh). The resin from Sigma- Aldrich (Saint-Quentin Fallavier, France) was cleaned and dried under vacuum, and 75 g were introduced into two brass cartridges (2 cm diameter; 20 cm length). The filters were put on open aluminium filter holders (Ecomesure, Janvry, France) and used in total suspended particle mode [\(Granier and Chevreuil, 1997\)](#page-24-5). The sampler (filter and resin) was connected to a sampling pump (Busch, model SV1005GP) with a paddle dryer combined with a timer and an air flow meter (Hivolin, Germany). To secure the trapping of all EDCs, air speed through

146 the system was < 170 cm s⁻¹ as stated in the IEPA method [\(IEPA/APC/85-003, 1985\)](#page-24-6). The air 147 flow in the sampler remained constant, from 1.2 to 1.8 m^3 h⁻¹ (Table SM.1). The outdoor 148 temperatures and the concentrations of particulate matter $< 10 \mu m$ in diameter (PM10) were supplied by Airparif (Table SM.1).

 The entire experimental procedures (sampling + clean-up + fractionation) and validations for sampling, extraction and analytical methods (Tables SM.2 to SM.7) were previously described [\(Alliot et al., 2014\)](#page-22-2). The XAD-2 resins and filters were extracted separately. An aliquot of each extract was kept for AP analyses using a method previously developed [\(Cladière et al., 2013\)](#page-23-6). Laboratory blanks were run for each series with clean XAD-2 resins and clean filters (matrix blank). They were subtracted from sample values. Internal standards were added to samples prior to extraction and compounds were quantified by internal calibration. Syringe standards were added to vials prior to analyses to determine internal standard recoveries.

2.3 Presentation of the results

161 The results for each site are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation (n = 6) and as the 162 median. Mean gaseous and particulate phase concentrations $(n = 3)$ are calculated for each season. PAEs are expressed both as individual compounds and as the sum of 7 PAEs (∑7PAEs). APs are expressed as the sum of octylphenol and 4-nonylphenols (∑OP+NP). PCBs are expressed as ∑PCBi (the sum of 7 PCB indicators for the monitoring of PCBs in Europe: CB28, 52, 101, 118, 138, 153 and 180), ∑PCB-DL (the sum of CB77, 81, 126, 169 for the non-ortho polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins-like PCBs and CB105, 114, 118, 123, 156, 157, 167, 189 for the mono-ortho polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins-like PCBs) and ∑19PCBs. PBDEs are expressed as individual compounds and as ∑8PBDEs (the sum of BDE28, 47, 99, 100, 153, 154, 183 and 209). PAHs are expressed as the individual compounds of the French regulation (Decree of 02/02/1998) for atmospheric emissions [\(ATEP9870017A, 1998\)](#page-22-3): fluorene (FLU), phenanthrene (PHE) and benzo(a)pyrene (BaP), ∑8PAHs (the sum of fluoranthene – FTH, benzo(a)anthracene - BaA, benzo(b)fluoranthene - BbF, benzo(k)fluoranthene - BkF, BaP, indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene – IcdP, 175 dibenzo(a,h)anthracene – DahA, and benzo(g,h,i)perylene - BghiP) and as Σ 15PAHs (Table SM.6).

 The EDC groups were represented by compounds with low and high molecular weights to give a comprehensive view of their behaviour. Relationships between i) compounds as % in 179 the gaseous phase and log of their vapour pressure (log Vp, Pa at 25 °C) and ii) between log K 180 particle/gas partitioning (log Kp) and log octanol/air partition coefficient (log K_{OA}) were explored.

 Statistical analyses of spatial and temporal variations were performed with the non- parametric test of Mann-Whitney, and correlation significances were expressed by 184 Spearman's r coefficient at $\alpha = 0.05$. A principal component analysis - PCA (XLSTAT PRO software; Copyright holder CC-BY-SA-3.0, Addinsoft, Paris, France) was used for the Paris site with a diagram sorting out the main trends of the different EDC concentrations for the two campaigns. When the measured concentration was < the limit of quantification (LOQ), the LOQ value divided by 2 was used for the mean calculation and for the PCA analysis [\(Decree, July 08 2010\)](#page-23-7).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. General trends

 All of the targeted EDCs except for TBBPA were quantified in the ambient air at the urban, suburban and forest sites (Table 1 and Table 2). The patterns for each site and season 195 are shown in Fig. 1. In decreasing order, the overall concentration $(\sum$ of gaseous and

196 particulate phases) trends were similar and are as follows, $PAEs > APs \geq PAHs > PCBs >$ 197 $BPA > HCB > PeCB > PBDEs$.

 PAEs were encountered in all air samples, and their concentrations ranged from 6.8 to 199 165 ng m⁻³ as the Σ 7PAEs. The main compound was DEHP (from 0.1 to 156 ng m⁻³) 200 followed by DiBP (from 3.2 to 30 ng m⁻³) and DnBP (from 0.1 to 11 ng m⁻³). These compounds were detected at a frequency of 100%. DEHP concentrations are in accordance with those previously measured in Paris (France) [\(Teil et al., 2006\)](#page-25-8) and in the Netherlands [\(Peijnenburg and Struijs, 2006\)](#page-25-9).

204 APs and PAHs were the second most abundant EDC group (Fig. 1). OP and NP were 205 always detected and their concentrations ranged respectively, from 0.034 to 0.657 ng m⁻³ and 206 from 0.216 to 2.08 ng m⁻³. NP represented the major constituent of the total APs (72 to 88%). 207 This is consistent with literature data i.e., NP concentrations from 0.15 to 1 ng m⁻³ in the gas 208 phase and from 0.0017 to 0.117 ng m⁻³ in the particulate phase of ambient air in NE-Bavaria, 209 Germany ([\(Berkner et al., 2004\)](#page-22-4).

 The ∑8PAHs were quantified in all samples with concentrations ranging from 0.215 to 211 1.93 ng m⁻³. PAH concentrations in decreasing order were PHE > FLU > FTH (Table SM.8). A similar sequence was observed at a suburban site located nearby in Paris in 2010 [\(Motelay-](#page-24-7) [Massei et al., 2003\)](#page-24-7). Literature data are scarce for periods similar to this study. Our 214 concentrations remained lower than those of high volume air sampling $(5.3 \text{ to } 71.6 \text{ ng m}^{-3} \text{ as }$ ∑14 PAHs) at four locations in the Chesapeake bay (USA) in 1994 [\(Gustafson and Dickhut,](#page-24-8) [1997\)](#page-24-8). In Bursa (Turkey), for the period 2008-2009, residential and suburban sites showed 217 average concentrations of respectively, 77 and 30 ng m⁻³ as Σ 12PAHs, PHE and FLU being the predominant compounds (Birgul and [Tasdemir, 2015\)](#page-22-5).

219 PCBi were present in all samples with the concentration of the ∑PCBi ranging from 220 $\,$ 0.024 to 0.327 ng m⁻³ (Table 1 and Table 2). These values are consistent with those found in

 Northern France in 2002 [\(Blanchard et al., 2006\)](#page-23-8) but were much lower than those of the Paris area in the 1980s [\(Granier and Chevreuil, 1997\)](#page-24-5). Thus, after a significant drop linked to the French regulation since the 1970s, a steady state was observed due to the persistence of diffuse sources. Mean concentrations from high volume sampling in urban/industrial location 225 in Barcelona (Spain), in 2005, were similar to ours: 0.17 ng m⁻³ [\(Mari et al., 2008\)](#page-24-9)

226 The order of PCBi abundance was $CB52 > CB101 > CB28 > CB153 > CB138 > CB118$ $227 > CB180$ (Table SM.8). ∑PCB-DL represented only 8 to 12% of the total PCBs. Among the 4 non-ortho substituted congeners, that share a structural similarity and toxic mode of action with polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins, only CB77 and CB81 were detected at a few pg m⁻³ with a frequency approximately 10%. Both congeners were the most abundant coplanars, and this has been found to be the case in the commercial Aroclor and Clophen mixtures [\(Schulz et](#page-25-10) [al., 1989\)](#page-25-10) and in indoor air [\(Kohler et al., 2002\)](#page-24-10). However, toxic effects such as endocrine disruption are also associated with other congeners within the group [\(Caserta et al., 2008\)](#page-23-9).

 The occurrence of PBDEs depends on the congeners considered, and the concentrations 235 were low, from 0.001 to 0.016 ng m⁻³ as Σ 8PBDEs. PBDE concentrations were 10- to 30-fold lower than PCBs. These concentrations are in accordance with total air concentrations found in the Paris centre in 2008-2009 [\(Tlili et al., 2012\)](#page-25-11) and in Munich (Germany) in 2008 [\(Fromme et al., 2009\)](#page-23-10).

 BDE47 was quantified with a frequency up to 100%, whereas BDE209 was detected in only 50% of the samples. A higher LOQ for BDE209 compared to BDE47 could contribute to such results. Two different potential sources of PBDEs were reported in urban ambient air, in Taiwan: the lighter brominated PBDEs were mainly originated from indoor air, while their highly brominated ones were attributed to combustion sources, such as vehicles [\(Wang et al.,](#page-25-12) 2011).

HCB and PeCB were detected in 100% of samples and displayed low concentrations, <

 $\,$ 0.06 ng m⁻³. HCB production and commercialisation in Europe ceased in 1993, however it is still released into the environment as a by-product or impurity from the manufacture of chlorinated solvents, aromatics and pesticides. The European Chlorinated Solvent Association reported that 4 000 tons of HCB were produced in Europe for 1996, during the manufacture of tetrachlorethylene and that over 99% were incinerated at high temperature [\(Bonnomet et al.,](#page-23-4) [2011\)](#page-23-4). Another potential source of HCB to the environment is from the bioisomerization of lindane in agricultural soil [\(Waliszewski, 1993\)](#page-25-13).

 BPA was quantified in 75% of the samples and at low concentrations, ranging from 0.01 254 to 0.1 ng m⁻³. However, these results need to be confirmed because of low recoveries of the deuterated internal standard, owing to the deuterium/hydrogen exchange in hydroxyl groups 256 when BPA- D_{16} was dissolved into a protic solvent such as methanol/water [\(Ballesteros-](#page-22-6)[Gomez et al., 2009\)](#page-22-6).

3.2. Spatial trends

3.2.1. Urban centre/suburban area (Paris/Lognes 2011/2012)

261 Despite the high population density of 20 000 inhabitants per $km⁻²$ in the Paris area (urban) 262 versus 4 400 inhabitants per km^{-2} at Lognes (suburban; 20 km from the sampling site of Paris), differences between ambient air concentrations at the two sampling sites were minor (Table 1). No differences were observed for PAHs, APs, PBDEs, HCB and PeCB. For PCBi and PAEs, 265 the concentrations were two times lower at the suburban site than at the urban site ($p < 0.05$). Thus, PCBs and PAEs showed an urban signature, whereas AP, PBDE and PAH sources were more distributed along the urban-suburban transect. In the Great Lakes basin (USA), PCBs opposite to PAHs showed a strong urban signature [\(Hafner and Hites, 2003\)](#page-24-11).

 For PAHs, the source regions were less distinct as the molecular weight of the compounds increased. Indeed, the PAHs in gaseous phase are more susceptible than those 271 adsorbed on particles to degradation *via* reaction with OH-radical, ozone and NO_X or photolysis. For FLU, PHE, FTH and PYR well known to be emitted from gasoline engine, coal combustion and coke ovens, atmospheric lifetime under OH-reaction varied from 26 h (FLU), to 5.6 h (FHE) and 3-5 h (FLU and PYR) [\(Atkinson and Arey, 1994\)](#page-22-7). As a major source of OH-radicals in the atmosphere is the photolysis of ozone [\(Alvarez et al., 2013\)](#page-22-8), the degradation potentials were estimated by ozone concentrations at the urban and the suburban site. They remained very similar as no differences were observed in ozone concentrations (Table SM.1).

 For APs, wastewater treatment plants, usually located outside urban areas, were identified as a major source to ambient air during water-air exchange processes [\(Salgueiro-González et](#page-25-14) [al., 2015\)](#page-25-14).

 Population density is a major factor impacting semi-volatile organic compound emissions in urban area as reported in a study in USA that noted indoor sources as the predominant factor influencing outdoor ambient air concentrations in densely populated areas [\(Rudel and](#page-25-1) [Perovich, 2009\)](#page-25-1). Indeed, in a major UK conurbation, the principal contemporary source of PCBs appears to be the ventilation of indoor air [\(Jamshidi et al., 2007\)](#page-24-12). Moreover, emissions from indoor air to outdoors for BDE209 and sum of BDE28, 47, 99, and 153, were roughly estimated to represent close to 90% of total emissions to outdoor air in Sweden, indicating that contaminated indoor air is an important source of PBDE contamination [\(Björklund et al.,](#page-23-11) [2012\)](#page-23-11).

 However, Lognes is located under prevailing westerly winds (frequency > 25%) passing first over the Paris centre. Thus, recirculation of the contaminated air mass over the urban zone can also impact the contamination level at the suburban site located 20 km far from the urban site and under the air mass plume. Similarly, in the UK, a direct correlation between wind direction and PCB ambient air concentration was observed, in accordance with inputs from winds passing over the Birmingham city centre (3 km away from the sampling site) because the main source of tri- and tetra-chlorinated congeners is a non-equilibrium, short-range transport [\(Currado and Harrad, 2000\)](#page-23-12).

3.2.2. Urban centre/forest area (Paris/Fontainebleau 2010/2011)

 Spatial differences of compound concentrations were observed from the urban site to the forest site, 56.5 km apart (p < 0.05) (Table 2), with decreases ranging from 2- to 5-fold, according to the compounds.

 Differences were clearly shown for ∑7PAEs (concentration ratio between the urban and 305 the forest site = 5, p < 0.001, Mann-Whitney test) and APs (ratio = 3, p < 0.05) and at a lower 306 magnitude for ∑8PAHs and ∑PCBi (ratio = 2, p < 0.2). In contrast, no differences were observed for ∑8PBDEs, HCB and PeCB, as previously observed for the urban/suburban sites.

 Several processes might explain that spatial distribution. First, emissions related to high building density in urban areas might constitute the major source of PAEs and APs to ambient air. Indeed, in California (USA), of all of the chemicals studied in paired indoor and outdoor air samples, most supported the hypothesis of dominant indoor sources except for PAHs, which had a significant outdoor contribution [\(Rudel et al., 2010\)](#page-25-15). However, in Stockholm (Sweden) the indoor environment contributes only about 25% of BDE209 to the air pollution load [\(Cousins et al., 2014\)](#page-23-13) suggesting the existence of additional sources in the outdoor environment.

 Less marked variations in concentrations of PCBs and PBDEs between the urban and the forest area were consistent with their persistence far away from their emission sources, with half-lives under photo-degradation conditions ranging from 3 to 120 d for PCBs [\(Bunce et al.,](#page-23-14) [1989\)](#page-23-14) and from 2 to 94 d for PBDEs [\(Wania and Dugani, 2003\)](#page-25-16). In the Toronto area (Canada), data from PUF passive samplers showed that PBDEs were fairly uniform along an urban-rural transect, in accordance with our observations [\(Harner et al., 2006\)](#page-24-13). In the same area, 95% of PCB and 70% of PBDE emissions undergo atmospheric transport from the city, the urban air plume reaching about 50 km in the direction of prevailing winds [\(Csiszar et al.,](#page-23-15) [2014\)](#page-23-15).

 Opposite, PAEs and APs were characterised by short half-lives under photodegradation in ambient air, from 5 h to 18 d for PAEs, DEHP being more persistent than low molecular weight PAEs (Staples et al., 1997), and from 10 to 15 h for APs (Neamţu and Frimmel, 2006), leading to a decrease of their ambient air concentrations in the absence of local emission sources, which is documented by the detection of OP in rain and snow [\(Fries and Püttmann,](#page-23-16) [2004\)](#page-23-16)

 Concerning PAH concentrations, the small differences found between the 2 sites can be 332 supported by a higher degradation in urban site related to elevate OH-radical, ozone and NO_x concentrations compared to the forest site. As a matter of fact, for FLU, PHE and FTH, a major removal mechanism from the gaseous phase by reaction with OH radicals in temperate atmosphere has been reported (Halsall, 2001).

336 Moreover, we observed an increase spatial homogeneity in winter $(1.93 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ - urban 337 site/1.18 ng m⁻³ - forest site) compared to summer (0.918 ng m⁻³ - urban site/0.215 ng m⁻³ - forest site) (Table 2). A similar result was observed in Toronto (Canada) as emissions from domestic heating, with a large part played by natural gas (94%) in urban area, corresponded to relatively low PAH emissions, compared to gasoil or wood, and lead to a greater increase in the rural compared to the urban concentrations in winter (Melymuk, 2012). Last, the vicinity of main highways crossing the forest area could contribute to local PAH emissions.

343 For HCB a steady concentration of approximately 0.05 ng m^{-3} was found, suggesting that there is no major primary source of HCB in the Paris area. Opposite, a spatial variation of HCB in air from an urban-rural transect across Tianjin (China) was shown, related to

unintentionally in course of substantial chlor-alkali production ([\(Zheng et al., 2010\)](#page-25-17).

3.3. Temporal trends

3.3.1. Summer/winter variations

 Clear variations for the three sites were observed between summer and winter for PAHs, APs, PAEs and PCBs (Table 1 and Table 2). The most marked difference was found for BaP concentrations, with summer/winter increases up to 14-fold. For the ∑8PAHs, a 2- to 5-fold concentration increase in the winter of 2011 and a 2-fold increase in the winter of 2012 were found. The winter season corresponds to lower degradation processes and to high domestic heating activities, that contributes to explain the summer/winter differences. Photochemical reactions of PAHs may constitute important decay routes for these compounds in the atmosphere [\(Albaigés et al., 1991\)](#page-22-9). A main source of OH-radicals that oxidize compounds in the atmosphere, being the photolysis of ozone [\(Alvarez et al., 2013\)](#page-22-8), a 2- to 3-fold decrease of ozone concentration in winter due to the attenuation of solar radiation (Table SM.1) could result to a decrease in PAH photolysis.

 In contrast, OP concentrations decreased 4- to 7-fold in the winter, depending on the sites (p < 0.05). NP concentrations showed lower discrepancies than OP, with a 3- to 4-fold decrease in the winter of 2011 and no variations in the winter 2012. NP and OP exhibited seasonal dependence with higher gas-phase concentrations during summer than during fall and early winter in the lower Hudson river estuary (USA), suggesting that temperature is a driving factor for their atmospheric occurrence [\(Van Ry et al., 2000\)](#page-25-18)

 The variations of PCB and DEHP concentrations were similar to that of APs, with a 2- to 7-fold decrease in the winter. However, CB52 which represent a low molecular weight PCB displayed maximal decrease whereas CB153, a heavier and less volatile congener, showed minor variation. A highly significant relationship between temperature and partial pressure of PCBs, PBDEs and PAHs was reported in the ambient air of Toronto (Canada), their dominant emissions originated from temperature-controlled processes such as volatilisation from local sources under warm temperatures and condensation/deposition under cold temperature [\(Melymuk et al., 2012\)](#page-24-14).

 PBDE concentrations varied little. The restriction in uses for PBDEs which lead to a decrease in emission sources, coupled to their persistence in the environment could contribute to the background level observed, this result being confirmed by low variation of concentrations along the transect urban/suburban/forest area.

 Among the compounds emitted by combustion and industrial processes, only HCB, PeCB and FLU remained steady over the year at the three sites. This is consistent with the lack of a major primary source for HCB and PeCB, whereas FLU has been identified as a good marker of emission from diesel vehicles [\(Fang et al., 2004\)](#page-23-17) that prevail among road traffic in France and remain constant throughout the year. Moreover, degradation processes by atmospheric reactive species reported inside samplers [\(Menichini, 2009;](#page-24-15) [Melymuk et al., 2014\)](#page-24-16), even for compounds adsorbed on particles [\(Menichini, 2009\)](#page-24-16), can lead to underestimate EDC concentrations in the two phases, particularly for the summer period.

3.3.2. Pollutant phase partitioning

 The average distribution in the gaseous phase for the different compounds in summer and 390 winter is shown in Fig. 2. In the summer, the high outdoor temperature (approximately 20° C) 391 and low PM10 concentrations ($\langle 22 \mu g m^3 \rangle$, in contrast to the winter season with low 392 temperatures (< 6.5 °C) and high PM10 concentrations (up to 38 μ g m⁻³) (Table SM1), leads to the prevalence of most compounds in the gaseous phase. Thus, the proportions of the different APs and PCBs compounds in the gaseous phase were always > 50% of the total concentrations and were often up to 100%. Other compounds such as DEHP tended to increase in the particulate phase, up to 80% in the cold season (Table 1 and 2). However, in summer, the high proportion of DEHP in gaseous form was more linked to the increase of its gaseous phase concentration (up to 32-fold at the urban area) than to the decrease of its particle phase concentration (2-fold).

400 Because of their high volatility (vapour pressure, VP, 0.63 Pa at 25 °C for NP) compared to the other EDCs, APs prevailed in the gaseous phase in all seasons. A similar phase distribution was reported at an urban site of Germany, with NP concentrations ranging from 403 0.15 to 1.0 ng.m⁻³ in the gaseous phase and from 0.002 to 0.117 ng.m⁻³ in the particulate phase [\(Berkner et al., 2004\)](#page-22-4).

 PCBs occurred in the gaseous phase, from 97% for the lower chlorinated congeners to 12% for the highly chlorinated ones as they display a wide range of VP (from 5.8 to 0.00005 Pa) (Table SM.9). A prevailing occurrence in the gaseous phase associated with a decreasing concentration of the highly chlorinated congeners in winter was reported at an industrial location in North China [\(Li et al., 2015\)](#page-24-17).

410 HCB (VP: 2.3 x 10^{-3} Pa) was only detected in the gaseous phase, which confirms previous observations in Ontario (Canada) [\(Lane et al., 1992\)](#page-24-18).

 PBDEs were in the gaseous phase from 34% to 99%. These results are consistent with previous studies that indicated that tri- to hepta-BDEs dominated the gaseous phase, accounting for 77% of the total PBDE levels [\(Tlili et al., 2012\)](#page-25-11).

 Except for BaP, BaA and BghiP, which are mainly associated with particles, PAHs were predominantly in the gaseous phase (Fig. 2). In summer, the most volatile PAHs (VP from 4.1 417 Pa to 5.7 x 10^{-2} Pa) were found at rates up to 100% in the gaseous phase, whereas CHR was equally distributed in both phases. Compound occurrence in the gaseous phase decreased from summer to winter from 50% to 25% of the total concentration for CHR; whereas, for the most volatile PAHs, the gaseous phase remained the predominant phase. This is in accordance

 with literature data [\(Terzi and Samara, 2004;](#page-25-19) [Ballesteros-Gomez et al., 2009\)](#page-22-6). The molecular 422 weight of CHR (Mw 228 g mol⁻¹) corresponds to the dividing line for the distribution of PAH compounds preferentially in the gaseous or the particulate phase [\(Lu et al., 2008\)](#page-24-19).

424 Direct relationships were found between log Kp of EDCs and log K_{OA} ($R^2 = 0.335$, p < 425 0.001) and also between the EDC occurrence in the gaseous phase and their log Vp ($R^2 =$ 426 0.571, $p < 0.001$) for the summer period (Fig. 3, Table SM.9). Thus, Vp and K_{OA} are relevant parameters for predicting EDC distribution in ambient air, as reported in previous studies [\(Falconer and Bidleman, 1994;](#page-23-18) [Harner and Bidleman, 1998;](#page-24-20) [Paasivirta et al., 1999\)](#page-24-21).

 Other environmental parameters, such as UV index or sunshine duration, size and nature of the particles and hygrometry, might interfere with EDC partitioning in ambient air [\(Cousins and Mackay, 2001\)](#page-23-19). In addition, for FLU, PHE and FTH, a major removal mechanism from the gaseous phase, by reaction with OH radicals, in temperate atmosphere, has been reported, [\(Halsall et al., 2001\)](#page-24-22).

3.3.3. Two year variations at the Paris site – impact of ambient parameters

(temperature and PM10)

 Annual EDC concentrations in ambient air in the Paris centre (Table 1 and Table 2) were about two-fold lower for the second campaign (2011/2012) than for the first one (2010/2011) for PAEs, APs and PBDEs, and there was less variation for PCBs and PAHs. Inter-annual variations were mainly characterised by lower summer concentrations during the campaign 441 2011/2012. The average air temperature higher in summer 2010 (20.9 °C) than in summer 442 2011 (19.2 °C) was in favour of volatilisation particularly for the most volatile compounds like OP, NP, FLU, PHE and CB52, which presented higher gaseous phase concentrations (Table 1 and Table 2).

To enhance knowledge about the influence of ambient parameters upon EDC variability,

 a principal component analysis (PCA) was performed at a significance level of 95%. EDC concentrations in the ambient air of the urban area were examined in relation to outdoor temperature and PM10 concentrations. PM10 that are from 2 origins, local and regional, may increase with emissions, thermal inversion phenomenon, low wind speed, and air mass recirculation in continental environments and anti-cyclonic conditions with East/North-East wind direction. Two predominant compounds within each chemical group, one of low molecular weight and one of high molecular weight were considered to perform the PCA analysis. Two clusters were identified corresponding to winter and summer samples (Fig. 4). The correlation matrix for p < 0.05 (Table 3) showed a direct correlation between temperature and CB52 or CB153, OP and DEP. In the summer of 2011, the ambient temperature reached a higher value than in the summer of 2012, which can favour volatilisation from contaminated sites and materials and contribute to the explanation of higher air concentrations for PAEs, APs and PBDEs in 2011. On the contrary, a positive correlation between BaP and PM10 concentrations and a negative correlation between BaP and temperature were found. This result is a consequence of their high production and emission levels in winter and their tendency to be adsorbed upon particles. High PAH concentrations and high PM10 levels during poor vertical mixing associated with the strong barrier of surface inversions were reported in ambient air from rural residential areas in southern Germany [\(Bari et al., 2010\)](#page-22-10).

4. Conclusions

 This study, considering both the gaseous and particulate phases of ambient air, constitutes a first approach to examine multi-residue contamination of ambient air by 55 EDCs in France and provides useful insights into the growing concern regarding chronic exposure to these compounds. The human exposure to indoor air contamination in France was estimated *via* indoor air concentration data. But, due to the lack of data for outdoor air concentrations (more especially total and gaseous phase concentrations), most of the studies concerning the particles, it remains difficult to estimate the exposure from outdoor air.

 The high volume sampling conditions allowed the quantification of all EDCs except TBBPA. Our findings are consistent with molecular properties, environmental conditions and published literature.

 Environmental data about ambient air contamination improves the knowledge of distribution variability that depends on location characteristics (urban, suburban, forest) and mainly on temperature conditions (summer, winter). The general trend for seasonal variations was of lower concentrations in winter for most compounds, except for PAHs and in particular BaP, that depend i) on their lower photochemical reaction linked to the increase in the adsorbed form ii) on the decrease in atmospheric reactive species like ozone and iii) on the increase in combustion processes, during the cold season.

 Compound distribution between gaseous and particulate phases depends on compound 485 properties such as $log K_{OA}$ and on particulate aerosol concentrations and ambient air temperature. The EDCs studied are largely distributed in the gaseous phase, which leads to the ubiquity of these SVOCs, even far away from their emission source locations.

 Our study highlights priority SVOCs that may be considered for monitoring air quality or for the control of diffuse emission sources. Thus, molecules belonging to the PAE and AP families which are already listed as priority compounds for the protection of aquatic environments (DCE - 2000), are both ubiquitous and relatively abundant in the atmosphere. In Europe, PAHs are regulated both in ambient air and emissions. The objective of this regulation is to assess the population exposure to air pollution and to improve air quality. Therefore, some PAE compounds like DEHP and some APs could be associated with PAH monitoring.

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 Fig. 1: Concentrations as ng m⁻³ (mean \pm SD, n = 3) of EDCs at Paris, Lognes and

Fontainebleau in summer and winter.

719 Fig. 2: Compound distribution in the gaseous phase as % of total (mean \pm SD, n = 9), at the

three sites, during summer and winter.

723 Fig. 3: Log Kp against log K_{OA} (at 25 °C) and compound as % gaseous phase against log Vp

(Pa at 25 °C) for the summer period, all sites included.

Fig. 4: PCA projections of the 12 air samples corresponding to the two sampling campaigns at

728 the Paris location (\triangle summer and \bullet winter) and of the 14 variables (solid lines).

733 *<LOQ*: below the limit of quantification

734 Table 2: Concentrations of different EDCs as annual concentrations in total air (mean \pm SD), 735 as seasonal concentrations in the gaseous, the particulate phases and the total air (ng m⁻³) and 736 as gaseous (% of total air) at Paris and at Fontainebleau, during summer 2010 and winter 737 2010-2011.

738 *<LOQ*: below the limit of quantification

740 Table 3: Spearman'r coefficient between air temperature, PM10 and EDC ambient air 741 concentrations at Paris (bold: significant r values for $p<0.05$, n=14).

- Fig. SM.1: Location of the sampling sites of Airparif (1: urban site Paris 13th; 2: suburban site Lognes; 3: forest site Fontainebleau),
- prevailing wind direction and distance from the urban site.

Season	Sunshine duration (hours)	Period	Sites	Ozone μ g m ⁻³	Air sample volume $(m3)$ (mean $\pm SD$)	Air flow $(m^3 h^{-1})$ $(mean \pm SD)$	Air temperature $(^{\circ}C)$	PM10 concentrations Airparif $(\mu g \, m^3)$	Cumulative precipitation (mm)
Summer 2010	195	$06/01 - 06/16/10$	Paris	65.7 ± 36.9	276 ± 135	1.4 ± 0.3	20.9 ± 3.1	22.2 ± 3.2	90.3
		$06/16 - 06/30/10$ $06/30 - 07/13/10$	Fontainebleau	70.4 ± 34.4	357 ± 13	1.3 ± 0.1	19.2 ± 2.7	18.0 ± 0.9	95.6
Winter 2010/2011	36	$01/06 - 01/20/11$	Paris	23.5 ± 17.9	331 ± 79	1.2 ± 0.3	6.3 ± 3.4	28.7 ± 9.6	43.4
		$01/20 - 02/02/11$ $02/02 - 02/16/11$	Fontainebleau	44.8 ± 18.7	401 ± 7	1.4 ± 0.1	4.7 ± 3.3	24.5 ± 9.2	50.4
Summer 2011	158	$05/30 - 06/14/11$	Paris	57.9 ± 29.5	499 ± 82	1.7 ± 0.2	19.2 ± 1.0	19.3 ± 2.3	86.2
		$06/14 - 06/28/11$ $06/28 - 07/12/11$	Lognes	61.8 ± 32.5	555 ± 59	1.9 ± 0.1	18.4 ± 1.0	16.8 ± 1.7	98.9
Winter 2011/2012	107	$01/24 - 02/08/12$	Paris	19.8 ± 16.5	454 ± 38	1.5 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 4.1	37.9 ± 4.8	19.4
		$02/08 - 02/21/12$ $02/21 - 03/06/12$	Lognes	24.7 ± 18.5	475 ± 98	1.6 ± 0.2	3.0 ± 4.3	32.7 ± 1.8	27.4

747 Table SM.1: Sampling conditions for two campaigns at the urban (Paris), the suburban (Lognes) and the forest (Fontainebleau) sites.

749 Table SM.2: Specifications for the GC analyses

751

RT: Retention Time; Ce: Collision energy; ESI: Electro Spray Ionization

753 Table SM.4: Specifications for the GC-MS/MS analyses (Q: transition for quantification; q:

754 transition for qualification).

756 Table SM.5: Specifications for the GC/MS analysis.

758 Table SM.6: Calibration ranges, correlations of the linear responses and quantities of native 759 compounds for the spiked matrices.

761 Table SM.7: Instrument detection limits (IDLs - pg on column for the low standard 762 solutions, as the concentration with a signal/noise ratio of 3 peak to peak), limits of 763 quantification (LOQs - pg m⁻³), recoveries (as % in spiked XAD-2 and filter matrices) and 764 average blanks $(pg m^{-3})$ for gaseous and particulate phases. For LOQs and recoveries, XAD-2 765 resin and quartz filters were spiked, before extraction, with all native compounds. After 766 extraction, the ISs were added and the extract followed the entire procedure. The LOQ was 767 considered as the concentration (in pg m⁻³) with a signal/noise ratio of 9 (peak to peak). 768

769 *< LOQ :* under limit of quantification

770 Table SM.8: Annual compound concentrations as mean \pm SD (n = 6) and median for the

771 phthalates as compounds and ∑7PAEs, for the PAHs as compounds, ∑8PAHs (bold) and

772 ∑15PAHs and for the PCBs as compounds, ∑PCBi (bold), ∑PCB-DL (italic) and ∑19PCBs.

774 Table SM.9: EDC vapor pressure (Pa, at 25 °C), log K_{OA} (at 25 °C), EDC distribution (as % 775 of total concentration) in gaseous phase of the ambient air and Kp, considering the mean of 776 the three sites during summer (mean temperature 20° C) and winter (mean temperature 4.5 777 \degree C).

Compound	Vapor pressure	Log K _{OA} % in gaseous phase			Kp	
	Pa at 25°C	at 25°C	Summer	Winter	Summer	Winter
OP	6.27E-01	9.24	88.2	87.1	1.71E-01	2.10E-01
$\ensuremath{\mathbf{NP}}\xspace$	6.00E-01	8.62	88.2	80.6	1.85E-01	2.43E-01
CB28	5.81E+00	8.35	94.5	95.6	6.01E-02	7.12E-02
CB52	3.30E+00	8.68	93.2	97.1	7.99E-02	3.95E-02
CB101	5.55E-01	9.45	93.1	97	8.39E-02	3.64E-02
CB105	8.67E-04	9.88	91.8	91.3	1.03E-01	1.13E-01
CB110	9.50E-04	9.45	90	93	9.28E-02	1.02E-01
CB118	1.75E-01	9.88	91.5	94.4	1.02E-01	6.96E-02
CB138	6.85E-02	10.21	68	75.2	$1.01E + 00$	6.53E-01
CB153	9.11E-02	10.21	$71\,$	$80\,$	6.92E-01	1.25E-01
CB156	2.10E-04	10.65	83.2	67.7	2.70E-01	2.37E+00
CB157	2.10E-04	10.65	71.8	70.9	4.78E-01	2.64E-01
CB169	6.31E-05	11.08	80.3	69.5	2.65E-01	3.03E-02
CB180	1.73E-04	10.98	81.3	52.2	2.60E-01	3.30E+00
CB189	5.01E-05	11.41	72.9	12.1	$1.12E + 00$	$1.76E + 00$
HCB	3.07E-01	7.64	99.3	99.7	7.50E-03	2.70E-03
PeCB	$2.67E + 02$	6.46	99.7	98.4	1.70E-02	2.70E-03
BPA	5.33E-05	12.70	95.2	85	4.20E-02	1.38E-01
DMP	2.63E-01	7.01	89.7	77.8	1.56E-01	3.82E-01
DEP	1.47E-01	7.55	98.2	79.2	2.18E-02	1.58E-01
DnBP	4.73E-03	8.56	98.1	81.7	1.92E-02	6.99E-01
DiBP	4.73E-03	8.54	97.4	90.6	2.82E-02	1.34E-02
BBP	2.50E-05	8.78	92.4	88.9	1.17E-01	1.93E+00
DEHP	2.50E-05	10.53	89.7	29	1.08E-01	$4.61E + 00$
DnOP	1.84E-06	10.04	58.5	19.5	4.22E-01	3.11E+01
BDE28	2.70E-04	9.70	95.9	99.1	4.93E-02	5.50E-03
BDE47	3.30E-04	10.46	93.7	55.3	8.24E-02	$4.88E + 00$
BDE100	4.69E-05	11.40	85.5	51.4	9.17E-02	1.27E+00
BDE99	4.69E-05	11.20	50	34	$1.02E + 00$	$6.38E + 00$
BDE209	4.60E-06	15.73	70	80	4.62E-01	3.34E-01
Acenaphtene	4.14E+00		100	100		
Fluorene	4.50E-01	7.19	100	82.9	4.00E-04	4.70E-03
Phenanthrene	5.70E-02	7.90	99.2	94.8	5.00E-03	4.20E-02
Fluoranthene	5.60E-03	9.32	85.8	67.2	2.41E-01	3.33E-01
Benzo(a)pyrene	3.20E-06	9.32	49.5	4.4	3.71E-01	4.47E+01
Pyrene	4.10E-03	9.32	95.5	75.6	4.85E-02	4.45E-01
Benzo(a)anthracene	2.30E-04		46.6	12.2	7.29E-01	$1.53E + 01$
Chrysene	4.80E-05		50.6	25.4	5.97E-01	$1.16E + 01$
$Benzo(g,h,i)$ per ylene	1.10E-12		27.1	3.6	2.62E-01	5.66E+01

778 *PAH compounds detected only in winter and at low levels were not taken in account for the gaseous/particulate phase*

779 *distribution.*

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