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PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission factors for non-exhaust particles from road vehicles

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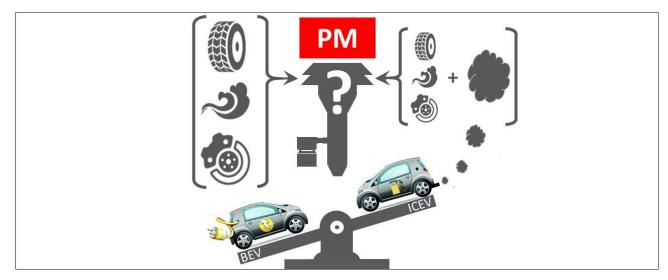
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6	PM ₁₀ and PM _{2.5} Emission Factors for Non-Exhaust
7	Particles from Road Vehicles: Dependence Upon
8	Vehicle Mass and Implications for Battery Electric
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22 GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT:



CAPTION: Question: Will the electrification of passenger cars reduce total PM emissions?

27 ABSTRACT

Governments around the world are legislating to end the sale of conventionally fuelled (gasoline and 28 diesel) internal combustion engine vehicles (ICEV) and it is assumed that battery-electric vehicles 29 (BEV) will take their place. It has been suggested that due to their increased weight, non-exhaust 30 emissions of particles from BEV may exceed all particle emissions, including exhaust, from an ICEV. 31 This paper examines the vehicle weight-dependence of PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ emissions from abrasion 32 33 (brake, tyre and road surface wear) and road dust resuspension and generates a comparison of the two 34 vehicle types. The outcome is critically dependent upon the extent of regenerative braking relative to use of friction brakes on the BEV, but overall there will be only modest changes to the total local 35 36 emissions of particles from a passenger car built to current emissions standards.

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38 Keywords: Vehicle emissions; non-exhaust; electric vehicle; regenerative braking

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43 INTRODUCTION

Road vehicles emit particulate matter from sources other than their exhaust. Such sources include
brake wear, tyre wear, road surface wear and resuspension of road surface dusts (Thorpe and Harrison,
2008; Amato et al., 2014; Amato, 2018). Emissions inventory estimates indicate that non-exhaust
emissions well exceed exhaust emissions by a large margin, both for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}, in the current
vehicle fleet (AQEG, 2019).

49

Many governments now have policies to steadily incentivise electrification of the vehicle fleet, and 50 hence emissions from BEV are a matter of concern. For example, in Britain EVs are exempt from 51 52 annual road taxes and there are subsidies available for electric and hybrid vehicles with carbon dioxide emissions below 50 g/km and range above 70 miles in electric mode. In America, there are 53 subsidies for EVs of 10% of the purchase price (<\$4000) and California implements a zero-emission 54 policy that requires all car manufacturers to produce a certain percentage of zero-emission vehicles; 55 otherwise, manufacturers will receive a huge penalty. Similar schemes have also been implemented 56 57 in Norway, Netherlands, France and Germany, amongst many countries (Li et al., 2019). Timmers and Achten (2016, 2018) have suggested that as battery electric vehicles would typically be heavier 58 than their internal combustion engine equivalent and, even allowing for far lower emissions from 59 60 regenerative braking (i.e. cutting power to the motor so that it acts as a generator), the non-exhaust emissions from a BEV might exceed all particle emissions from an equivalent ICEV. This study 61 seeks to evaluate available data concerning BEV in relation to non-exhaust emissions from ICEV and 62 to make projections where firm data are not available. Total emissions from both ICEV and BEV 63 passenger cars are evaluated to form a view as to whether electrification of cars will reduce PM 64 65 emissions within the fleet. The analysis is limited to passenger cars, as those are currently on sale, while battery-powered heavy duty vehicles are still under development, and vehicle weight statistics 66 67 are not yet available.

69 **METHODS:**

The approach to estimation of emission factors for BEV for comparison with both gasoline (petrol)
and diesel fuelled ICEV involved the following stages.

- Adopting a set of emission factors for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} for different vehicle types and road
 types which are widely used in national inventories.
- Associating a vehicle mass with each vehicle type.
- Determining separate relationships between emission factor and vehicle mass for each of
 brake wear, tyre wear and road surface abrasion.
- Estimating the typical masses of light duty BEVs and gasoline and diesel ICEVs from data on
 BEVs and ICEVs paired on the basis of engine power output.
- Using the typical vehicle masses to estimate emission factors for each vehicle type for brake,
 tyre and road surface wear.
- Estimating particle resuspension emission factors for BEVs, and gasoline and diesel ICEVs
 using the USEPA AP42 algorithm.
- Summing the emission factors for each vehicle type and road type, together with exhaust
 emission factors for the ICEVs to compare total emissions for typical light duty BEVs and
 gasoline and diesel ICEVs.
- 86
- 87

88 **RESULTS**

89 Emission Factors

Current emission factors (EF) are listed according to vehicle type rather than vehicle mass. However,
it was possible to derive relationships between EF and vehicle mass by attributing masses to the
vehicle types for which EF are available. Our starting point was the six aggregated vehicle classes in
the EMEP/EEA Guidebook as reported by AQEG (2019).

Table 1 provides emission factors for tyre, brake and road wear published in the EMEP/EEA 95 emission inventory guidebook, 2013 (Ntziachristos and Boulter, 2019). The values are for the six 96 aggregated vehicle classes (Two Wheeled Motor Vehicles - motorcycles, Cars, Light Goods 97 98 Vehicles - LGVs, both Rigid and Articulated Heavy Goods Vehicles – HGVs and Buses/Coaches) for a UK road fleet. These values are derived from emission factors reported in the literature and a 99 100 deeper understanding of their derivation can be sought from the Automobile Tyre and Brake Wear 101 website which supports the development of chapter B770 (SNAP 0707) of the EMEP/Corinair Emission Inventory Guidebook [https://www.eng.auth.gr/mech0/lat/PM10/]. We use these to 102 estimate a dependence of these aggregate emission factors (EF) on an estimated vehicle mass. The 103 104 means by which the values in Table 1 are calculated, including dependence on, vehicle speed, mass, load, axle number, are summarised in the Supplementary Information (Ntziachristos et al. 2019). 105

106

107 Vehicle Category Mass, W

108 Values relevant to the EMEP/EEA emission factors

In order to evaluate the effect of changing vehicle masses, it is first necessary to estimate the masses 109 of vehicles used in the estimation of our base emission factors in Table 1. These appear to derive 110 predominantly from data collected on vehicles around the year 2000 (Ntziachristos and Boulter, 2013, 111 2019). To assign a vehicle mass to each of the classes in Table 1, an aggregated vehicle mass was 112 selected based on the estimated values of Boulter et al. (2006). For motorcycles and cars, Boulter et 113 al. (2006) use values of 0.2 and 1.2 tonnes respectively. The car mass is roughly 200 kg less than the 114 mass used for our ICEV value which represents car weights closer to the year 2020. The LGV mass 115 was taken as 3 tonnes, whereas the rigid HGV, articulated HGV and bus masses were calculated as 116 117 the average across several categories. For example, the rigid HGV and bus masses were both taken as the average of vehicle HGV, buses and coach categories with 2 or 3 axles. Similarly, the articulated 118 HGV mass was taken as the average of the HGV categories with 4 or more axles. Estimated mass 119 values appear in Table 2. 120

121 Values relevant to the current vehicle fleet

For the car masses, the European Vehicle Market Statistic Pocketbook 2018/19 was used because it provides the average running order mass of vehicles in European countries which were weighted by the fleet number of vehicles for those countries (given by Eurostat) for the year 2000. Likewise, for motorcycles, Eurostat provided the fleet numbers of motorcycles with engine capacities less than and greater than 125 cm³ which were then weighted by typical masses of these two categories, taken to be 78 and 240 kg respectively. These values are in close agreement with those of Boulter et al. (2006).

128

129 Estimate of $\Delta W = W_{bev} - W_{icev}$

The change in vehicle weight $\triangle W$ due to electrification is mainly due to the increased weight of the 130 battery pack used to drive the electric motors in the BEV. While this may not be fully mitigated by 131 132 the substitution of the fossil fuel engine, transmission and sundries in the vehicle design, further weight saving can be made by the choice of weight saving parts and materials which otherwise would 133 make \triangle W much larger. To estimate a change in emission factor due to the overall increase in vehicle 134 mass due to the electrification of cars, BEV-ICEV car pairs were chosen with the same make and 135 model from an internet database (encyCARpedia) built up from various press materials and consumer 136 brochures by Chapple and Chapple (2017). For each of the chosen internal combustion engine and 137 battery electric vehicle pairs, their engine specifications were matched as closely as possible 138 according to power output (selected to be within 15% of each other) and their masses duly noted as 139 W_{icev} and W_{bev} respectively. Furthermore, owing the large number of matches on enCARpedia, an 140 increase in mass due to both the electrification of either petrol or diesel engines could be calculated. 141 Table S1 shows 20 such matches for petrol and 9 for diesel giving an average mass difference of 318 142 143 \pm 145kg and 258 \pm 125 kg respectively. As expected, there is less of an increase from the heavier diesel engine cars compared to petrol. 144

145

146 Data from the assessment of Faria et al. (2012), of electric vehicles gave a difference of kerb weight

of 256 kg (an increase of 20%) for ICEV and BEV vehicles and likewise, Timmers and Achten 147 (2016), reported a value of 280 ± 45 kg for their increase in weight from ICEV to BEV, (24% heavier). 148 The increase mass due to electrification of our whole vehicle sample is 300 ± 140 kg, corresponding 149 150 to a 21% increase which is in line with the aforementioned literature values. Accounting for diesel and petrol engines, petrol engine vehicles have an average mass of 1349 kg which rises by 318 kg 151 when compared to their electric equivalent ($^{petrol}W_{bev} = 1349 + 319$ kg). Likewise, diesel engine 152 vehicles have an average mass of 1550 kg which rises by 257 kg when compared to their electric 153 equivalent (^{diesel} $W_{bev} = 1550 + 257$ kg). 154

155

156 Main Calculation

157 *Regression of emission factors with vehicle mass*

The *EF* values in Table 1 were regressed against the *W* values in Table 2 and plotted in Figure 1 graphically for each road type (urban, rural and motorway) for tyre wear, brake wear and road wear. Figures S1 and S2 show all 16 regressions on separate plots (including error bars) for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}. A non-linear least squares fit of the data was done using equation 1, where $W_{ref} = W/1000 kg$ and *b* and *c* are parameters used to fit the equation (see Table 3).

$$EF = b \cdot W_{ref}^{\frac{1}{c}} \tag{1}$$

163

Parameters *b* and *c* do not have a physical significance however, regarding sensitivity, for a petrol car on a rural road EF is more sensitive to the fitted value of *c* than *b* (e.g. a 10% variation in *b* will produced a 10% variation in the value of EF, whereas a 10% variation in c will produce up to a 42% variation in the value of EF).

168

For tyre wear and brake wear, there are emission factors for all of the six vehicle categories whereas for road wear the number of data points was less. For road abrasion, a distinction between the articulated, rigid and bus category was not made for the HGVs and hence an amalgamated emission factor is used for both goods vehicles and buses. This approach was also applied to the LGV road
wear emission factor in that the same value is used for both light goods vehicles and passenger cars.
Hence an aggregated LGV emission factor and mass are used resulting in a 3-point fit (for the
motorcycles, LGV and HGV data).

176

177 Resuspension Emission Factors *EF^{resus}*

Resuspension is the term used to describe particles of road surface dust raised into the air by passing 178 traffic, due either to shear forces at the tyre/road surface interface, or air turbulence in the wake of a 179 moving vehicle. The EMEP/EEA Guidebook does not include the calculation of resuspended road 180 dust, and estimates are often not included in emissions inventories. However, resuspension emission 181 factors EF^{resus} can be calculated using the USEPA guidance in AP-42 and a review of past and 182 current paved road emission factors is given by the USEPA (2011). Based on various parameters – 183 s: surface material content silt (< 75 µm diameter); L: Surface material loading, defined as mass of 184 particles per unit area of the travel surface (g/m²); b: an exponent to which sL is raised ($sL_{rel} =$ 185 $sL/1g.m^{-2}$; k: base emission factor (g/VKT); W_{rel} : vehicle mass ($W_{rel} = W/1000 Kg$) and p: a 186 187 dimensionless exponent - the particulate emission factor (g/VKT) has been parameterised by 188 equation 2.

$$EF^{resus} = k \, (sL_{rel})^b \, W_{rel}^{P} \tag{2}$$

The extent to which resuspension emissions are related to vehicle mass is uncertain, and Venkatram (2000) critiqued the US EPA AP42 model for emission from paved roads (AP-42 paved road section 2011); (then equation 2 with k = 0.54 g km⁻¹; b = 0.65; p = 1.5). This has since been updated by similar models in 1995, 2002, 2003, and most recently in 2011 (equation (3)). A *k* value of 0.62 g km⁻¹ is used for the PM₁₀ fraction (scaled by a PM_{2.5}/PM₁₀ mass fraction ratio of 0.24 for PM_{2.5}), and the term (1-P/4N) accounts for the number of wet days P in a total of N measurement days.

$$EF_{resus} = 0.62(sL)^{0.91} W_{rel}^{1.021} \left[1 - \frac{1}{4} \frac{P}{N} \right]$$
(3)

196 This is an empirical equation, and a range of parameters is given by the USEPA (2011) report, namely; k = 0.62 g km⁻¹; sL = 0.03-0.6 g/m²; b = 0.85-1.19; p = 0.677 - 1.14. These equations are 197 for vehicles of mean weight between 2.0 and 42 tonnes travelling between 1 and 88 kph and caution 198 199 is advised in using the equation outside of the range of variables and operating conditions specified. Application to roadways or road networks with speeds above 88 kph and average vehicle weights of 200 <2 and >42 tonnes, result in emission estimates with a higher level of uncertainty. With regards to 201 202 the sensitivity of equation 3 to the variables considered, EF_{resus} is marginally more sensitive to the number of rain days in the year than the change of sL or $W_{rel.}$, e.g. a 10% change of of both sL and 203 $W_{\rm rel}$ produce ~ 10% variation in $EF_{\rm resus}$ whereas a 10% variation in the ratio of P/N produces a 14% 204 variation in EF_{resus}. 205

206

To consider the applicability of the AP-42 model to European roads, measurements carried out in 207 London and Paris were considered where PM₁₀ resuspension emission factors were calculated at 208 209 roadside for LGV, HGV and for the fleet. To evaluate the response of PM₁₀ resuspension to vehicle mass, the LGV and HGV emission factors estimated by Thorpe et al. (2007) from measurements on 210 Marylebone Road, London were allocated to aggregated LGV and HGV vehicle weights (Table 2) 211 and the vehicle weight dependence of AP-42 fitted to these values using equation (2). An additional 212 point was included from the Paris work of Amato et al. (2016), who derive a value of 9.2 mg km⁻¹ for 213 the mixed vehicle fleet. The three data points are plotted in Figure 2 and used together with the origin 214 as a fourth point to fit equation (2). This shows the plot of data for different values of the exponent, 215 b. Values of b of 1.02, 1.2, 1.5 and 1.7 give sL values of 8.2, 4.6, 1.8 and 0.9 mg m⁻² from equation 216 2, using a value of p = 0.91. 217

Harrison et al. (2012) reported the percentage of particle mass $>0.9 \,\mu m$ attributable to brake wear, 219 tyre wear and resuspension on Marylebone Road, London. Using the method previously adopted by 220 Jones and Harrison (2006) to estimate emission factors by ratios of concentrations to NO_x, for which 221 222 an aggregate emission factor was calculated, the measured masses attributed to the different nonexhaust source types were converted to emission factors listed in Table 4. The fleet-average emission 223 factors for resuspension for Marylebone Road estimated by difference of total non-exhaust particles 224 225 and brake, tyre and road surface wear reported by Thorpe et al. (2007) for years 2000-2003 ranged from 14.0-27.7 mg km⁻¹, somewhat higher than the value of 10.0 ± 1.8 mg km⁻¹ in Table 4 derived 226 from measurement data from 2009. Using equation 3, a resuspension emission factor for PM_{10} of 10 227 mg km⁻¹ translates to a value of sL = 4.2 mg m⁻², and the median of the values given by Thorpe et al. 228 (2007) gives a value of $sL = 8.0 \text{ mg m}^{-2}$. 229

230

In Table 5, road surface dust loadings derived from European studies are tabulated. These are very 231 variable. However, the values in Table 5 are for the PM₁₀ size fraction, and silt loading as used in 232 the USEPA equations describes particles passing a 200 mesh sieve, and hence of $<75 \,\mu m$. There is 233 only a small literature describing the size distribution of particles in road dust, which suggests that 234 the PM_{10} size fraction is about 10-50% of the <75 µm fraction (Lanzerstorfer, 2018; Lanzerstorfer) 235 and Logiewa, 2019; Padoan et al., 2017), and hence a sL of 8 mg m⁻² translates approximately to a 236 PM_{10} surface dust loading of 1-4 mg m⁻², which is line with many of the measured values in Table 5, 237 and consistent with the value estimated above. 238

239

240 Estimation of the PM₁₀ Emission Factor for Battery Electric Cars

Using the regressions presented in Figure 1, the increase in the emission factors are calculated due to the increase in car mass in converting from an internal combustion engine to a battery electric car $\Delta W = W_{bev} - W_{icev}$; these are shown in Table 6, and a comparison can be made with the work of Timmers and Achten (2016) using Table 7. Table 6 shows the non-exhaust (NEE) emission factors for both BEV cars and their petrol- and diesel-equivalent ICEV calculated for our sample of cars using the regressions shown in Figure 1 and Table 7 giving the resultant calculated increase in EF due to the electrification.

248

The increases in PM_{10} tyre, brake and road wear emission factors for urban, rural and motorway UK 249 250 roads range from 9.5 to 22% for petrol vehicles and 6.8 to 11% for diesels. Diesel vehicles have a 251 smaller increase due to the fact that the diesel vehicles are heavier than petrol and hence less of an increase emission factor can be expected when compared to their BEV equivalent. This is also shown 252 in the percentage increase of the PM2.5 emission factors for petrol and diesel vehicles 8.6-17% and 253 254 6.8-12% respectively. As expected, the values reduce from high to low for urban to rural to motorway although this is not reflected in the relative values which show a consistent increase for tyre emission 255 factors and increasing percentage for brake emission factors. There is very rough agreement between 256 our values and the ICEV values presented by Timmers and Achten (2016) for tyre and brake 257 emissions (Table 6). On average, both our tyre and brake wear emission factors are slightly higher, 258 259 whereas our resuspension values are notably higher. Conversely, Timmers and Achten (2016) has significantly higher values for road wear. Comparison of the increases in the non-exhaust emission 260 factors in Table 7 are closer for road wear and resuspension although our tyre emission factors are 261 roughly half those of Timmers and Achten (2016). 262

263

Using a value for sL of 8 mg m⁻², the resuspension model suggests that the increase in weight of a passenger car $W_{bev} - W_{icev}$ will increase the PM₁₀ resuspension emission factor by 16% and 22% (12.5 to 14.4 mg / VKT for diesel and 11.0 to 13.4 mg / VKT for petrol; for $\Delta W = 318$ and 258 kg respectively). The overall magnitude of these emission factors can be compared with those of Bukowiecki et al. (2010), Ketzel et al. (2007), Amato et al. (2010; 2016; 2017) and Gehrig et al. (2004) who derive fleet PM₁₀ emission factors (Table S2). Although the European LGV and HGV emission factors of Gehrig et al. (2004) are in line with the London measurements, the fleet average values are generally higher, although the large spread of these fleet values (i.e. 68% relative standard
deviation) reflects site differences and/or measurement uncertainties.

273

274 Tail Pipe Emissions

In order to make a full assessment of the change in PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ due electrification of passenger cars, a tail pipe emission factor is also required. For this, we used Euro 6 engine emissions as used in the UK National Atmospheric Emissions Inventory (Ricardo Energy & Environment, 2018) (Table 8). From this, the harmonisation in Euro 6 of previously higher diesel emissions to those of their counterpart petrol engine cars can be seen. Interesting to note is the lower emission for diesel cars under conditions of higher speed (rural and motorway).

281

282 Comparison of the Total Emission from ICEV and BEV Cars

The total emission factor for cars either powered by internal combustion engines or battery electric 283 motors are given by the sums in equations (4) and (5). The ICEV and BEV emission factors simply 284 differ by the inclusion of the exhaust emissions and the degree to which the brake emission factor 285 contributes. By specifying for BEV, a 0% (fully inductive brake, i.e. $EF_{bev}^{brake} = 0$) and 100% (fully 286 friction brake) contribution to the brake emission factor, we define a range of possible values within 287 which a regenerative braking system might operate: between $0\% \times EF_{bev}^{fric}$ and $100\% \times EF_{bev}^{fric}$. But 288 in this work, we assume that a BEV using regenerative brakes will emit a 10% fraction $frac_{brake}$ of 289 the brake emissions occurring when the vehicle relies fully on friction brakes ($frac_{brake} = 10\%$). 290

291

$$EF_{icev}^{petrol or diesel} = EF_{icev}^{tyre} + EF_{icev}^{road wear} + EF_{icev}^{resus} + EF_{icev}^{brake} + EF_{icev}^{exhaust}$$
(4)

$$EF_{bev}^{100\%\,fric} = EF_{bev}^{tyre} + EF_{bev}^{road\,wear} + EF_{bev}^{resus} + 1.0 \times EF_{bev}^{brake}$$
(5)

$$EF_{bev}^{10\%\,fric} = EF_{bev}^{tyre} + EF_{bev}^{road\,wear} + EF_{bev}^{resus} + 0.1 \times EF_{bev}^{brake}$$

$$EF_{bev}^{0\%\ fric} = EF_{bev}^{tyre} + EF_{bev}^{road\ wear} + EF_{bev}^{resus} + 0.0 \times EF_{bev}^{brake}$$

Figure 3 illustrates the total emission factors calculated for BEV and ICEV passenger cars, calculated using equations (4) and (5) respectively, for which, the following points can be made (see value in Table S3 and S4):

- The uncertainties associated with each of these total emission factors are a large fraction of the calculated values themselves. This uncertainty is by virtue of the variability of the values in the literature used in this study. More measurements are required together with studies to understand how to best parameterise each emission component.
- The total emission factors for all road types from the BEVs are ~7-12% greater than their euro 6 diesel and petrol equivalent (Figure 3) for PM₁₀ and, ignoring the petrol motorway, ~1-5% greater for PM_{2.5}. This is a marked difference from the case for pre-Euro 5 passenger cars where the particulate emissions from diesels are significantly higher than those for petrol engine cars.
- There is a significant increase from the total PM₁₀ emissions of an ICEV car to the heavier BEV car supporting 100% friction brakes. This suggests that in order to bring total BEV cars emissions in line with the emissions of a petrol equivalent ICE, regenerative braking needs to reduce brake dust emissions to 70% (i.e. 30% regen.) for urban roads and 43% (i.e. 57% regen.) for rural roads. In comparison, the critical values are higher for diesel equivalent BEV emissions. Regenerative braking needs reduce brake dust emissions of diesel equivalent BEV to 80% (i.e. 30% regen.) for rural roads. In comparison, the critical values are higher for diesel equivalent BEV emissions.
- The total PM₁₀ emission factor on rural roads is less than that of urban. Likewise, the total PM₁₀ emission on motorways is again lower than urban and rural roads and consequently, no amount of regeneration will bring the total PM₁₀ emissions of BEV cars in line with their ICEV equivalent cars, i.e. even with 100% regenerative braking the total emissions are still higher for BEV cars.
 For the total PM_{2.5}, the increase in emissions of the heavier BEV cars supporting 100% friction brakes is marginal (Figure 3). In order to decrease the total PM_{2.5} emissions of BEV cars to be

in line with their petrol equivalent ICE cars, regenerative braking needs to play a lesser role than for the case of PM₁₀. For petrol and diesel cars, the brake emissions need to be reduced respectively to 85% and 95% (i.e. 15% and 5% regen.) for urban roads and 74% and 86% (i.e. 26% and 14% regen.) respectively for petrol and diesel roads on rural roads. As with PM₁₀, motorways are a special case, requiring a reduction to 47% for diesel equivalent BEV on motorways, and no requirement for the petrol equivalent BEV cars to lower their total emissions below those of ICEV cars.

Focusing on urban and rural roads, in order to achieve any reduction in PM emissions in the 325 electrification of vehicles, regenerative braking plays a significant part in the reduction of vehicle 326 speed when used in place of friction braking. Hall (2017) compared the braking behaviour of a 327 BEV with that of an ICEV in Los Angeles in city driving conditions. Due to changes in driving 328 329 style, the number of braking events for the BEV was reduced by as much as a factor of 8. The energy dissipation by the friction brakes in the BEV was lower by a factor as large as 20-fold. 330 As alluded to in the previous point, using the model in this work, the critical $frac_{hrake}$ value 331 below which an overall reduction in total PM₁₀ emissions might be expected ranges from 43% to 332 70% for petrol and 60 to 80% for diesel equivalent BEV. For PM_{2.5} we might expect 333 frac_{brake} to be in the range 74% to 85% and 86% to 95% respectively for petrol and diesel. 334 This means in order to expect a reduction in PM emissions of a fleet of ICEV cars on urban and 335 336 rural roads by electrification, inductive braking has to reduce the brake emissions of PM₁₀ by at least 20 - 57% and PM_{2.5} by at least 5 - 26%. On motorways there remains a positive increase 337 in the total EF of PM₁₀ relative to both petrol and diesels even using 100% regen. Removal of 338 339 friction braking (e.g. through 100% regenerative braking) can provide up to 25-27% reduction of PM_{10} emissions in the urban environment (24-26% for $PM_{2.5}$). With a realistic regenerative 340 braking (using 10% friction brakes) we might expect up to 22-24% (21-23% for PM_{2.5}) reduction 341 342 in overall emissions (Tables S3 and S4). This potential reduction is less for motorway roads,

because the amount of brake dust contributing to the total is small, and hence there is less gainin the reduction of total emission by lowering/removing brake dust emission.

The increase in total PM₁₀ emissions for BEVs on motorways with full regenerative braking may 345 be recouped by weight saving measures. By reducing the weight of petrol-equivalent BEVs by 346 4% (3.5% for diesel-equivalent BEVs) the difference in total PM_{10} emissions is reduced to zero, 347 thus lowering the total urban and rural emissions further by $\sim 2\%$. Similarly, for a petrol-hybrid 348 with 90% regenerative braking, if it is assumed that the PM exhaust emissions are reduced by 349 80% (Lijewski, 2020) then it must be at most 88% of the weight of our petrol-equivalent BEV, 350 ${}^{p}W_{bev}$ (and 93% for our diesel-equivalent BEV, ${}^{d}W_{bev}$) for the increase in motorway emission to 351 be brought down to zero. In other words, a balance has to be found between the combined weight 352 of a light internal combustion engine and the weight of a reduced battery pack such that the 353 overall weight of the car is reduced to 88% of a petrol-equivalent BEV (and 93% for a diesel-354 equivalent BEV). Similar gains in the reduction of PM_{2.5} are expected due to the reduction of 355 weight. By reducing both the petrol and diesel-equivalent BEVs by 4%, the total PM_{2.5} can also 356 be expected to be reduced by 2% on either urban, rural or motorway roads. 357

The PM₁₀ emission factor averaged across different road types for the BEV without regenerative
 braking including brake, tyre and road surface wear without resuspension is 20.7 mg km⁻¹. This
 compares well with an average emission factor for battery electric vehicles of 22.3 mg km⁻¹
 introduced to COPERT in 2020.

362

363 CONCLUSIONS

In this study, published emission factors to model PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ emissions from brake, tyre and road wear and resuspension have been used to estimate the change in total emissions due to the electrification of cars. The question is addressed of *whether there is a reduction of total PM_{10} and* $PM_{2.5}$ emissions by electrification of cars or whether the gains made by removal of tailpipe emissions are replaced by the increased, non-exhaust emissions due to the increased weight of electric vehicles. There are still very high uncertainties which overshadow these findings, but the average values show that in order to make any reduction in PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ emissions from the electrification of vehicles, regenerative braking has to be operational in the vehicle design and/or a means of brake dust recovery used. Failing this, there is no reduction in PM_{10} in changing a euro 6 engine fleet to a fully electric drive chain and potentially an increase on motorways – so regenerative braking must be used.

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The benefit a regenerative brake BEV is shown by the reduction of up to 11.5 mg·km⁻¹·veh⁻¹ in the 375 urban environment, i.e. ~ 26% reduction in PM_{10} depending on the level of regenerative braking or 376 At higher speeds in rural environments this reduction falls to between 2.7-4.0 brake dust capture. 377 378 mg·km⁻¹.veh⁻¹, which is nonetheless a ~12% reduction. For motorway environments, our model shows no level of regenerative braking can mitigate against the increase in PM₁₀ due to increased 379 vehicle weight and that additional strategies are required, e.g. reduction of vehicle weight by at least 380 22%. In comparison, for PM_{2.5}, a reduction of up to 5.5 mg·km⁻¹·veh⁻¹ in the urban environment, i.e. 381 ~ 27% reduction can be achieved. Unlike for PM_{10} emissions, there is a reduction of $PM_{2.5}$ (1.9 to 382 27%) on all road types with at least 90% regenerative braking. 383

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385 DATA AVAILABILITY

- 386 Data supporting this publication are openly available from the UBIRA eData repository at
- 387 <u>https://doi.org/10.25500/edata.bham.00000481</u>
- 388

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- 391 Natural Environment Research Council (R8/H12/83/011).
- 392

393 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 394 Supporting Information provides further details of methods of estimation of emission factors and
- tables with additional information.

397 CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

398 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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532 **TABLE LEGENDS**

534 535 536 537 538	Table 1:	Emission factors $EF_{PM_{10}}$ and $EF_{PM_{2.5}}$ for brake and tyre wear by vehicle type and road type (from AQEG, 2019, derived from the EMEP/EEA emission inventory guidebook 2019). These are the values used in the calculation of national inventories and in numerical models for prediction of air quality.
539 540 541 542	Table 2:	Selected masses used to represent the aggregate vehicle categories in Table 1; based on Table 2 of Boulter et al. (2006). These values are used in the estimation of the vehicle weight dependence of emission factors.
543 544	Table 3:	Regression coefficient used to fit the $EF_{PM_{2.5/10}}$ vs W curves in the plots of Figure 1.
545 546 547	Table 4.	Mass increments and derived emissions factors calculated in Harrison et al. (2012) for: total mass, brake dust, tyre dust, and resuspension
548	Table 5:	Dust loading reported for European paved roads [*] . [Units: mg PM_{10} m ⁻²].
549 550 551 552 553 554	Table 6:	Emission factors for petrol and diesel ICEVs and their petrol and diesel <u>eq</u> uivalent BEVs. For BEV, the regressions shown in Figures 1 and 2 are used to estimate the emission factors based on the increase in the mass of BEV of 318 and 258 kg for petrol and diesel cars respectively. Values from Timmers and Achten (2016) are given for comparison. [Units: mg PM veh ⁻¹ .].
555 556 557 558	Table 7:	Increase (and percentage increase) in Emission Factor due to the increase of the weight of the average UK car of 318 and 258 kg for petrol and diesel cars respectively (and 300 kg across petrol and diesel) (Timmers and Achten, 2016) [eq – equivalent, units: mg PM veh ⁻¹ km ⁻¹].
559 560 561 562	Table 8:	Exhaust emission factors EURO 6 for cars (mg·km ⁻¹ ·veh ⁻¹) (from Ricardo Energy & Environment 2018). The NAEI currently uses the fraction of PM_{10} emitted as $PM_{2.5}$ of 1.0 for exhaust emissions, taken from EMEP (2016), implying that all the PM exhaust emissions are in the $PM_{2.5}$ mass range.
	FIGURE LE	GENDS
565 566 567 568	Figure 1:	Regression of tyre, brake and road wear EF_{PM} emission factors against vehicle mass (Table 1 and 2). The shaded green and black rectangles highlight the increase EF_{be} - EF_{ice} for comparisons with petrol and diesel fuelled engines. Nonlinear Least
569 570 571 572		Squares fit of $EF = bW_{ref}^{\frac{1}{c}}$ shown by black solid and dashed lines: dashed lines signifying the 3σ limits. (see Table 3 for fitted values of <i>b</i> and <i>c</i> and Figures SI 1 and 2 for the individual plots with error bars).
	Figure 2:	Effect on the AP-42 curve by the setting of the values of <i>b</i> and <i>sL</i> using equation 2. $EF^{resus} = 0.62(sL)^{0.912}(W)^{b}$.
	Figure 3:	Absolute and percentage change in the total emission factors shown in <i>without / with</i> regenerative braking. The upper panel shows the absolute values of total emission factor estimated for petrol, diesel and battery electric vehicles, the latter with 0%, 90% and 100% regenerative braking on different road types. The lower panels show

580	the change in emission factor from a diesel (left panel) or petrol (right panel) vehicle
581	to a battery electric vehicle with 0%, 90% or 100% regenerative braking.
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Table 1: Emission factors $EF_{PM_{10}}$ and $EF_{PM_{2.5}}$ for brake and tyre wear by vehicle type and road type (from AQEG, 2019, derived from the EMEP/EEA Emission Inventory Guidebook 2019). These are the values used in the calculation of national inventories and in numerical models for prediction of air quality.

mg PM km ⁻¹	Road type	Ту	vre	Bra	ake	Road a	brasion
		$EF_{PM_{2.5},T}$	$EF_{PM_{10},T}$	<i>EF_{PM2.5},B</i>	EF _{PM10} ,E	, ЕF_{PM2.5} , А	<i>EFPM</i> ₁₀ , <i>A</i>
	Urban	6.1	8.7	4.7	11.7		
Cars	Rural	4.8	6.8	2.2	5.5	4.2	7.5
	Motorway	4.1	5.8	0.5	1.4		
	Urban	9.7	13.8	7.3	18.2		
LGVs	Rural	7.5	10.7	3.4	8.6	4.1	7.5
	Motorway	6.4	9.2	0.8	2.1		
	Urban	14.5	20.7	13.0	51		
Rigid HGVs	Image: Second state12.217.427.127.120.Motorway9.6144.28.4	20.5	38				
		4.2	8.4				
	Urban	33.0	47.1	13.0	51		
Articulated	Rural	27.8	38.2	27.1	27.1	20.5	38
HGVs	Motorway	22.0	31.5	4.2	8.4		
	Urban	14.8	21.2	21.3	53.6		
Buses	Rural	12.2	17.4	13.7	27.1	20.5	38
	Motorway	9.8	14	4.4	8.4		
	Urban	2.6	3.7	2.3	5.8		
Motorcycles	Rural	2.0	2.9	1.1	2.8	1.6	3
	Motorway	1.7	2.5	0.3	0.7		

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Table 2: Selected masses used to represent the aggregate vehicle categories in Table 1; based on
Table 2 of Boulter et al. (2006). These values are used in the estimation of the vehicle weight
dependence of emission factors.

Vehicle Category	Num. of axles	Num. of wheels	Estimated weight range (t)	Estimated ave. weight W (t)
Motorcycles	2	2	-	0.187
Cars	2	4	≤ 2.5	1.2
LGVs	2	6	≤ 3.5	3
Rigid HGVs	2-3	6-10	3.5 - 32	14
Articulated HGVs	3-6	14-18	14 - 44	30
Buses	6-10	6-10	3.5 - 32	14

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	EF =	$bW_{rel}^{\frac{1}{c}}$; b (mg·veh ⁻¹ ·kr	n ⁻¹); c (no u	nit); $W_{rel} = \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{W}{1000}kg$	597
		Urban		Rural		Motorway	598
_		b	С	b	с	В	c 599
Tyre	PM _{2.5}	5.8 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.4	4.5 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.41	3.8 ± 0.3	2.3 ± 0.4
	PM_{10}	8.2 ± 0.6	2.3 ± 0.4	6.4 ± 0.5	2.3 ± 0.41	5.5 ± 0.42	2.3±9.4
Brake	PM _{2.5}	4.2 ± 1.1	1.9 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.9	1.5 ± 0.3	0.4 ± 0.4	1.3 ± 604
	PM_{10}	11 ± 2.7	1.9 ± 0.2	4.5 ± 2.4	1.5 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 1.0	1.3 ± 0.4
		Urban / Ru	ural / Motor	way			602
		В		с			600
Road	PM _{2.5}	2.8 ± 0.5		1.5 ± 0.1			603
	PM_{10}	5.1 ± 0.9		1.5 ± 0.1			604
Resus.	PM _{2.5}	2.0 ± 0.8		1.1 ± 0.4			
	PM_{10}	8.2 ± 3.2		1.1 ± 0.4			605

Table 4. Mass increments and derived emissions factors calculated in Harrison et al. (2012) for: total mass, brake dust, tyre dust, and resuspension.

	Roadside Increment	At Source Emission
	$X_{pol} [\mu g/m^3]$	<i>EF_{Tail.Pol}</i> [mg PM _{coarse} km ⁻¹]
Brake wear	2.8 ± 0.5	14.6 ± 2.6
Tyre wear	0.5 ± 0.1	2.8 ± 0.5
Road surface		
Resuspension	1.9 ± 0.5	10 ± 1.8

Note: Due to the method used, road surface wear is included in the resuspension category.

Table 5. Dust loading reported for European paved roads^{*}. [Units: mg PM_{10} m⁻²].

City	Road type	Dust loading	Reference
		(mean)	
Zurich	Various	0.2-1.3	Amato et al. (2011)
Barcelona	Various	3.7-23.1	Amato et al. (2011)
Girona	Various	1.3-7.1	Amato et al. (2011)
Barcelona II	ring road	12.8-73.7	Amato et al. (2011)
Utrecht	residential, <50h after rain	2	Amato et al. (2012)
Barcelona	medium traffic, >50h after rain	3	Amato et al. (2012)
Cordoba	medium traffic, >26h after rain	2.4-20.1	Amato et al. (2013)
Seville	low to medium traffic, >100h after rain	1.9-11.2	Amato et al. (2013)
Algeciras Bay	low to medium traffic, >46h after rain	1.9-3.0	Amato et al. (2013)
Malaga	medium traffic, >242h after rain	4.3-5.9	Amato et al. (2013)
Granada	low to medium traffic, >246h after rain	5.9-18.1	Amato et al. (2013)
Birmingham	medium traffic	9.3	Pant et al. (2015)

* Excludes samples collected close to construction sites

Table 6: Emission factors for petrol and diesel ICEVs and their petrol and dieselUrbanRuequivalent BEVs. For BEV, the	ral Motorway Timmers and Achten (2016)
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regressions shown in Figures 1 and 2 are used to estimate the emission factors based on the increase in the mass of BEV of 318 and 258 kg for petrol and diesel cars respectively. Values from Timmers and Achten (2016) are given for comparison. [Units: mg PM veh⁻¹.].**Tyre Wear**

	V V C	al						
		Petrol	PM _{2.5}	6.6 ± 0.7	5.1 ± 0.6	4.3 ± 0.5	2.9	
ICEV	<i>EE</i> ^{tyre}	reuoi	\mathbf{PM}_{10}	9.4 ± 1.0	7.2 ± 0.8	6.2 ± 0.7	6.1	
ICEV	EF_{icev}^{tyre}	Diesel	PM _{2.5}	7.0 ± 0.7	5.4 ± 0.5	4.6 ± 0.5	2.9	
		Diesei	PM_{10}	10.0 ± 1.0	7.7 ± 0.8	6.6 ± 0.7	6.1	
		Petrol-eq	PM _{2.5}	7.2 ± 0.8	5.6 ± 0.6	4.8 ± 0.5	3.7	
BEV	<i>EE^{tyre}</i>	renoi-eq	PM_{10}	10.3 ± 1.2	7.9 ± 0.9	6.8 ± 0.8	7.2	
DLV	EF_{bev}^{tyre}	Disselar	PM _{2.5}	7.5 ± 0.8	5.8 ± 0.6	5.0 ± 0.5	3.7	
		Diesel-eq	PM_{10}	10.7 ± 1.2	8.2 ± 0.9	7.1 ± 0.8	7.2	
	Brake	Wear		Urban	Rural	Motorway	<i>Timmers and</i> <i>Achten (2016)</i>	
		Datual	PM _{2.5}	5.0 ± 0.6	2.2 ± 0.4	0.5 ± 0.1	2.2	
ICEV	rrbrake	Petrol	PM_{10}	12.4 ± 1.6	5.5 ± 0.9	1.3 ± 0.2	9.3	
ICEV	EF_{icev}^{brake}	Diagal	PM _{2.5}	5.3 ± 0.6	2.4 ± 0.4	0.6 ± 0.1	2.2	
		Diesel	PM_{10}	13.4 ± 1.6	6.0 ± 0.9	1.5 ± 0.2	9.3	
		Petrol-eq	PM _{2.5}	5.5 ± 0.7	2.5 ± 0.4	0.6 ± 0.1	0	
BEV	EF_{bev}^{brake}	renoi-eq	PM_{10}	13.9 ± 1.9	6.3 ± 1.1	1.5 ± 0.3	0	
DLV	Lr _{bev}	Diesel-eq	PM _{2.5}	5.8 ± 0.7	2.6 ± 0.4	0.6 ± 0.1	0	
		Diesei-eq	PM ₁₀	14.5 ± 1.8	6.6 ± 1.1	1.6 ± 0.3	0	
	Resusp	ension		Urban	n / Rural / Mo	otorway	<i>Timmers and</i> <i>Achten (2016)</i>	
		D (1	PM _{2.5}		2.7 ± 0.6		3.1	
	r rresus	Petrol	PM_{10}		11.0 ± 2.6		7.5	
ICEV	EF_{icev}^{resus}		PM _{2.5}		3.0 ± 0.6		3.1	
		Diesel	PM_{10}		12.5 ± 2.7		7.5	
		Datual ag	PM _{2.5}		3.2 ± 0.8		3.8	
BEV	E E resus	Petrol-eq			13.4 ± 3.3		8.9	
DLV	EF_{bev}^{resus}	Diesel-eq	PM _{2.5}		3.5 ± 0.8		3.8	
		Diesei-eq	PM_{10}		14.4 ± 3.3		8.9	
	Road V	Wear		Urban	n / Rural / Mo	otorway	<i>Timmers and</i> <i>Achten (2016)</i>	
		Petrol	PM _{2.5}		3.3 ± 0.5		12.0	
ICEV	rroad wear		PM_{10}		6.1 ± 1.0		40.0	
ICEV	EF ^{road wear}	Diesel	PM _{2.5}	3.6 ± 0.5		12.0		
			PM_{10}		6.8 ± 1.0		40.0	
		Petrol-eq	PM _{2.5}		3.8 ± 0.6		14.9	
DEU	$EF_{bev}^{road\ wear}$			PM_{10}		7.0 ± 1.2		49.6
DEV					10.06		14.0	
BEV	EF_{bev}^{roua} wear	Diesel-eq	$PM_{2.5}$		4.0 ± 0.6		14.9	

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Table 7: Increase (and percentage increase) in Emission Factor due to the increase of the weight of

the average UK car of 318 and 258 kg for petrol and diesel cars respectively (and 300 kg across petrol

and diesel) (Timmers and Achten, 2016) $[eq - equivalent, units: mg PM veh^{-1} km^{-1}]$.

			Urban	Rural	Motorway	T&A(2016)
	Detuct to Detuct as	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}	0.6 (9.7%)	0.5 (9.8%)	0.4 (9.7%)	0.8 (30.7%)
T	Petrol to Petrol-eq	PM_{10}	0.9 (9.7%)	0.7 (9.5%)	0.6 (9.8%)	1.1 (18.0%)
Tyre	Dissol to Dissol an	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}	0.7 (6.9%)	0.4 (7.0%)	0.3 (7.0%)	0.8 (30.7%)
	Diesel to Diesel-eq	PM10	0.7 (6.9%)	0.5 (6.8%)	0.5 (7.0%)	1.1 (18.0%)
	Detucite Detucies	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}	0.6 (11.5%)	0.3 (15.0%)	0.1 (17.1%)	
Brake	Petrol to Petrol-eq	PM_{10}	1.4 (11.5%)	0.8 (15.0%)	0.2 (17.1%)	_
Бгаке	Diesel to Diesel-eq	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}	0.4 (8.2%)	0.3 (10.6%)	0.1 (12.1%)	
		<i>PM</i> ₁₀	1.1 (8.2%)	0.6 (10.6%)	0.2 (12.1%)	_
			Urbe	an/Rural/Moto	orway	T&A(2016)
	Detucito Detucio	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}		0.50 (14.8%)		0.7 (22.5%)
Road	Petrol to Petrol-eq	PM_{10}		0.9 (14.8%)		1.4 (18.7%)
Wear	Dissel to Dissel ag	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}		0.4 (10.5%)		0.7 (22.5%)
	Diesel to Diesel-eq	PM_{10}		0.7 (10.4%)		1.4 (18.7%)
	Detucito Detucio	PM _{2.5}		0.6 (22%)		2.9 (24.1%)
Degus	Petrol to Petrol-eq	PM_{10}	2.4 (22.0%)			9.6 (24.0%)
Resus.	Dissol to Dissol as	<i>PM</i> _{2.5}		0.5 (15.6%)		2.9 (24.1%)
	Diesel to Diesel-eq	PM_{10}		1.9 (15.5%)		9.6 (24.0%)

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Table 8: Exhaust emission factors EURO 6 for cars $(mg \cdot km^{-1} \cdot veh^{-1})$ (from Ricardo Energy & Environment 2018). The NAEI currently uses the fraction of PM₁₀ emitted as PM_{2.5} of 1.0 for exhaust emissions, taken from EMEP (2016), implying that all the PM exhaust emissions are in the PM_{2.5} size range.

		Urban	Rural	Motorway
ICEV Petrol Cars	$EF_{icev}^{exhaust}$	1.46	1.24	1.80
ICEV Diesel Cars	$EF_{icev}^{exhaust}$	1.49	1.11	0.90

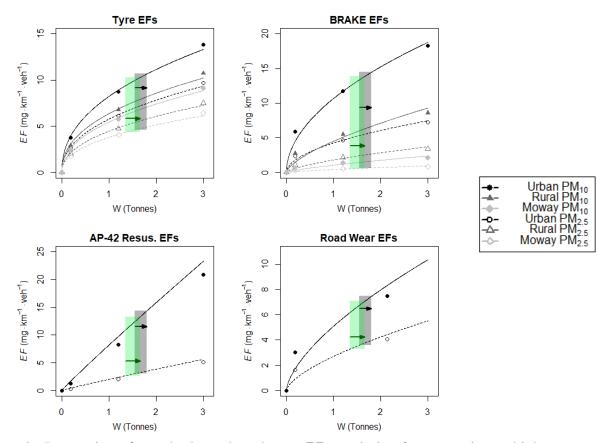


Figure 1: Regression of tyre, brake and road wear EF_{PM} emission factors against vehicle mass (Table 1 and 2). The shaded green and black rectangles highlight the increase $EF_{be} - EF_{ice}$ for comparisons with petrol and diesel fuelled engines. Nonlinear Least Squares fit of $EF = bW_{ref}^{\frac{1}{c}}$ shown by black solid and dashed lines: dashed lines signifying the 3σ limits. (see Table 3 for fitted values of *b* and *c* and Figures SI 1 and 2 for the individual plots with error bars).

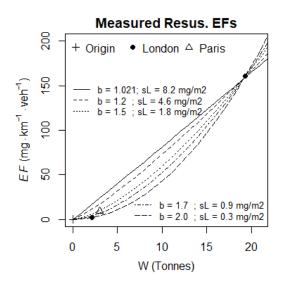


Figure 2. Effect on the AP-42 curve by the setting of the values of *b* and *sL* using equation 2. $EF^{resus} = 0.62(sL)^{0.912}(W)^{b}$.

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PM2.5 **PM10** 25 BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen Total EF [mg PM₁₀ km⁻¹veh⁻¹] Total EF [mg PM₁₀ km⁻¹veh⁻¹] ICE Petrol **PETROL ICEV to BEV** 22 ICE Petrol BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen 2 4 9 8 9 8 ю 9 0 0 **DIESEL ICEV to BEV** 25 Total EF [mg PM₁₀ km⁻¹veh⁻¹] Total EF [mg PM₁₀ km⁻¹veh⁻¹] ICE Diesel BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen 22 BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen ICE Diesel 8 40 9 8 9 2 9 ю 0 0 DIESEL ICEV to BEV PETROL ICEV to BEV ю 9 0 ю ∆**Total EF [%]** -20 -10 -5 φ 0 ∆Total EF [%] 9 From Petrol to: 29 From Petrol to: BEV 0% regen BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen ဗို 8 ю 9 0 ю φ 0 ∆Total EF [%] ∆Total EF [%] 9 ę Ŗ -20 From Diesel to: From Diesel to: BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen BEV 0% regen BEV 90% regen BEV 100% regen 8 -30 Urban Urban Rural Rural Motorway Motorway

Figure 3: Absolute and percentage change in the total emission factors shown in *without / with* regenerative braking. The upper panel shows the absolute values of total emission factor estimated for petrol, diesel and battery electric vehicles, the latter with 0%, 90% and 100% regenerative braking on different road types. The lower panels show the change in emission factor from a diesel (left panel) or petrol (right panel) vehicle to a battery electric vehicle with 0%, 90% or 100% regenerative braking.