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# Title: Time-concentration profiles of tire particle additives and transformation products under natural and artificial aging

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Abstract: Tire and road wear particles (TRWP) are polymer-based microparticles that are emitted into the environment during tire usage. Growing efforts are currently being made to quantify these emissions, characterize the leachates and assess their environmental impact. This study aimed to investigate the effect of aging on TRWP composition. Cryomilled tire tread particles (CMTTP) and TRWP were exposed for different durations to three aging conditions: accelerated thermal and photochemical aging and natural outdoor aging. Particles were then extracted with cyclohexane/ethanol. The timeconcentration profiles of 23 additives and transformation products present in these extracts were determined by UHPLC-HRMS. Several chemicals, such as N-(1,3-dimethylbutyl)-N'-phenyl-pphenylenediamine (6-PPD) or 1,3-diphenylguanidine (DPG), decayed exponentially under all aging conditions, with half-lives of a few days under artificial photoaging versus dozens of days under pure thermal aging at 60 °C. The natural aging profiles lie between those 2 laboratory aging conditions. Other chemicals, such as 6PPD-quinone, presented bell-shaped concentration profiles within CMTTP when particles were exposed to UV light. 6PPD-quinone reached a maximal concentration within a month under natural aging. For TRWP, the initial load of 6PPD-quinone had already reached a maximum prior to the aging experiments and decreased exponentially under natural aging with a half-life below one month. Pure thermal aging induced a significantly slower decay of 6PPD-quinone within TRWP (half-life of half a year), emphasizing a greater stability and persistence in environmental compartments without light. This study highlighted that the more readily accessible CMTTP could be considered a reasonable proxy of TRWP to investigate the fate of chemicals within rubber particles, at least from a qualitative standpoint. Overall, the concentrations of 20 of the evaluated chemicals decreased by more than 50% within 50 days under natural aging.

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#### Highlights:

- Time-concentration profiles of 23 chemicals were determined for 3 types of aging
- Transformation products showed different aging-induced concentration profiles
- Concentrations of most chemicals were halved within 50 days under natural aging
  - The 6PPD-quinone half-life in TRWP was within a month when exposed to natural light
    - Cryomilled tire tread particles can be used as TRWP surrogates to assess aging
- Keywords: Tire and road wear particles (TRWP), aging, UHPLC-HRMS, N,N'-diphenylguanidine (DPG), N-(1,3-dimethylbutyl)-N'-phenyl-p-phenylenediamine (6PPD), 6PPD-quinone

#### Abbreviations:

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- 41 6QDI: N-Phenyl-N'-1,3-dimethylbutyl-p-quinonediimine (CAS: 52870-46-9)
- 42 6PPD: N-(1,3-dimethylbutyl)-N'-phenyl-p-phenylenediamine (CAS: 793-24-8)
- 43 6PPD-quinone: 2-anilino-5-[(4-methylpentan-2-yl)amino]-cyclohexa-2,5-diene-1,4-dione
- 44 BR: Butadiene Rubber
- 45 BT: benzothiazole (CAS: 95-16-9)
- 46 CBS: N-cyclohexylbenzothiazole-2-sulfenamide (CAS: 95-33-0)
- 47 CMTTP: Cryomilled tire tread particles
- 48 DPG: 1,3-diphenylguanidine (CAS: 102-06-7)
- 49 DT50: Dissipation time at 50%, the time required for the concentration to reach half of the initial value
- 50 ESI: Electrospray ionization
- 51 NR: Natural Rubber
- 52 PM2.5: particulate matter with a diameter less than 2.5 μm
- 53 PM10: particulate matter of diameter less than 10  $\mu m$
- 54 RT: retention time
- 55 SBR: Styrene Butadiene Rubber
- TMQ: poly(1,2-dihydro-2,2,4-trimethylquinoline) (CAS: 26780-96-1)
- 57 TRWP: Tire and road wear particles
- 58 UHPLC-HRMS: Ultra-High Performance Liquid Chromatography (UHPLC) coupled with High Resolution
- 59 Mass Spectrometry (HRMS)

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#### 1) Introduction

62 Tire and road wear particle (TRWP) emissions result from the friction of the tread band rubber surface with the road during the tire rolling usage phase<sup>1</sup>. The resulting particles consist of damaged rubber<sup>2</sup> 63 with exogenous mineral incrustations derived from road pavement or other sources<sup>3</sup>. Predictions of the 64 quantity of tire wear released every year were first calculated in the 1970s<sup>4</sup> and it is now roughly 65 estimated that the order of magnitude of tread wear is approximately 0.1 g/km per car, accounting for a 66 weight loss of 1 to 1.5 kg over a lifespan of 50 000 km for one tire<sup>1,5-7</sup>. The total amount of tire tread 67 wear released every year is thus predicted to be close to 6 million tons worldwide<sup>8</sup>. This significant 68 69 amount makes TRWP an important topic when assessing the environmental impacts of tires, considering that after their release, they are transported to different environmental compartments<sup>8-11</sup>. A transport 70 model approach applied to the Seine watershed recently showed that roadside soil would be the major 71 72 sink of TRWP, while 18% of the release would be transported to freshwater and 2% could reach the estuary<sup>12,13</sup>. Small TRWP can also be released into the air<sup>14–16</sup>. Within each compartment, tire particles 73 might be subjected to various types of aging and degradation due to exposure to solar radiation, 74 temperature, rainwater<sup>10,11</sup> and/or microorganisms<sup>10,11</sup>. Investigations of the environmental fate and 75 76 health aspects of TRWP were reviewed, and further research is needed with degradation assessment during long-term monitoring<sup>10</sup>. Photoaging and microbial degradation are considered the most 77 important aging processes of TRWP<sup>10,17</sup>. Several research efforts have been reported on the aging of 78 vulcanized rubbers to understand its impact on mechanical properties or tire performance 18,19. Similarly, 79 poly(cis-1,4-isoprene) elastomer biodegradation has been largely investigated over the last twenty years 80 for rubber waste management purposes and biotechnical solution development<sup>20</sup>. Nevertheless, detailed 81 knowledge of the degradation of TRWP is quite limited<sup>17</sup>. 82

The chemical composition of tire tread is complex. Approximately 30 to 60 wt% of the tire tread is elastomer material, typically in the form of styrene butadiene rubber (SBR), butadiene rubber (BR) or natural rubber (NR). Inert fillers, such as carbon black and silica, make up 25 to 35 wt% of the tire tread, and the remaining mass is a mix of plasticizers, oils, vulcanization agents and protective molecules. 1,21,22 Approximately 1 to 3 wt% of the tire tread consists of protective molecules (e.g., 6PPD, TMQ), and 1 to 4 wt% is attributed to vulcanization components (e.g., DPG, CBS)<sup>1,22,23</sup>. The manufacturing process and service life of tires<sup>17</sup> also lead to the formation of transformation products. For example, benzothiazole (BT) is one of the decomposition products of vulcanization accelerators that are present in tire treads immediately after the process<sup>24</sup>. Müller et al.<sup>25</sup> and Seiwert et al.<sup>26</sup> recently evaluated over a hundred chemicals found in tire leachates that consisted of transformation products of initial tire tread additives. Consequently, TRWP turned out to be a cocktail of hundreds of chemicals. This important number of molecules has been an emerging topic since the 1990s<sup>27–29</sup> and has received accelerating interest in the last two years after the work by Tian et al. 30,31 revealed that the transformation product 6PPD-quinone in tire leachates induces acute toxicity in Coho salmon. The discovery of this molecule raises concerns about the potential toxicity of tire leachates, especially due to the degradation products that could have different toxicity and persistence than the parent molecule. In this context, leaching studies from TRWP or tire cryogrinds have been receiving growing attention and have focused on various substances, including heavy metals and organic additives <sup>17,25,26,32-34</sup>. Collection and analysis of environmental samples also revealed the occurrence of several PPD-derived quinones in urban runoff, roadside soils, and air particles<sup>14</sup>.

Degradation of rubber additives can first occur during the tire production stage and usage phase and continue throughout tire particle lifespan, either *via* abiotic degradation pathways, such as thermo-oxidation and photooxidation, or sometimes *via* microbial degradation<sup>17</sup>.

TMQ and 6PPD are primarily reactive with UV light, oxygen and/or ozone<sup>35</sup>. These molecules migrate toward the surface of rubber and form a protective film<sup>35–37</sup> that reacts with free radicals and then forms stable molecules, thereby protecting the elastomer from ozonation and photolysis<sup>35,37–39</sup>. It is therefore expected that their degradation rapidly occurs during photoaging. The degradation pathways of 6PPD have previously been documented in the literature<sup>26,34,36</sup> and Seiwert *et al.*<sup>26</sup> identified 38 transformation products from 6PPD. 6QDI and 6PPD-quinone<sup>30</sup> are two well-known degradation products from 6PPD. 6QDI was described in the 1990s<sup>35,40–42</sup> and is present immediately after 6PPD's first interference with ozone<sup>26</sup>. Moreover, 6QDI is also sometimes used as an additional antioxidant<sup>40</sup> because it has the particularity to bind to the elastomer, giving a more efficient protective effect on the elastomer<sup>35</sup>. 6PPD-quinone was described more recently by Tian *et al.*<sup>30,31,43</sup> but was probably already evidenced in 1983 in 6PPD ozonation experiments carried out by Lattimer *et al.*<sup>36</sup>, who proposed the structure of the dinitrone isomer at that time. Recent studies on tire particle leachates in water runoff demonstrate the presence of 6PPD-quinone in the environment<sup>15,25,26,44,45</sup>. On the other hand, DPG degradation products are less known than 6PPD degradation products. Recently, Müller *et al.*<sup>25</sup> identified 13 possible degradation products from DPG.

However, studies on the thermal and photochemical degradation of tire particles are still rare. In 1980, Cadle and Williams<sup>46</sup> investigated the degradation of tire wear particles exposed to natural elements within either roadside soil or glass beads. The remaining elastomer fraction was quantified over time by pyrolysis-gas chromatography, and the authors estimated a half-life of the polymer in soil of 16 months, with a significant abiotic contribution. Klöckner *et al.*<sup>34</sup> investigated the accelerated degradation of

additives in tire particles after 72 hours of aging under UV light and 20-day aging at 80 °C, while Unice et al. 32 and Thomas et al. 33 proposed artificial UV light aging of 1 month equivalent to natural aging of 1 year. Klockner et al. 34 have identified three potential organic markers to evaluate the presence of TRWP in sediment and soil (i.e., 6-PPD-quinone, N-formyl-6-PPD and hydroxylated N-1,3-dimethylbutyl-Nphenyl quinone diimine). Nevertheless, the kinetics of degradation of tire tread additives under accelerated aging (thermal and photochemical) and under natural weathering conditions are not yet well known, and there is a lack of knowledge regarding their degradation within tire wear particles.

In the present study, a composition analysis was developed, and the amounts of organic chemicals in tire particles were evaluated prior to and after their aging either under accelerated or natural conditions. After various times of thermo and/or photoaging of particles, chemicals were extracted from cryomilled tire tread particles (CMTTP) and from tire and road wear particles (TRWP) with a mixture of cyclohexane/ethanol, and then chemicals were identified using UHPLC-HRMS. The mixture of apolar/polar solvents can efficiently extract a wide range of molecules and was thus used to estimate their fate under various exposures. However, this does not represent real environmental conditions. To do so, a comparison with water extraction was also proposed. Analyses focused on both tire additives, such as DPG and 6PPD, and on their transformation products, which were compared to those previously reported in the literature. This study allowed us to compare the kinetics of both the dissipation of parent molecules and the formation of intermediate degradation products. The results obtained with CMTTP under thermo and photoaccelerated aging are presented first and then compared to those obtained under natural weathering conditions and finally to a similar series of experiments conducted with TRWP.

#### 2) Materials and methods

#### 2.1) Materials

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### 2.1.1) Cryomilled tire tread particles (CMTTP)

Cryogenically milled tire tread particles (CMTTP) of size 0-60 mesh were provided by Michelin company from a batch produced in 2016. They were obtained from an assembly of several nonworn truck tire retreading bands (i.e., that never experienced any on-road solicitations). The tire treads were first ambient ground down to 2-3 cm chips using industrial scissors. Then, the rubber pieces were cooled using liquid nitrogen to make them brittle before entering a mill where they were shattered into a fine powder, which was finally sieved to obtain a specific size distribution. Particles were stored protected from the light at room temperature (20-25 °C) for 2 years after being provided by Michelin in July 2020. The particle size distribution was characterized via laser diffraction analysis (figure SI 1). Most particles were between 50 and 300 µm, similar to TRWP. Technical details are described in Section 2.4.1.

#### 2.1.2) Tire and road wear particles (TRWP) on-road driving collection system

Michelin Engineering Services developed and designed an on-road driving collection device<sup>47</sup> for a rearwheel-drive passenger car (BMW 530i, 2001) to collect TRWP and to capture PM10 and PM2.5. This device was positioned close to the rear left wheel, as the right side of roads is more contaminated with external pollution (i.e., vegetation, minerals, ...) than the left side. This device was composed of three nozzles attached to the brake caliper and connected to three vacuums (Easy-Clean 200, Aspilusa, 1400 W

- each), which were located within a trailer attached to the car. The collection system was powered using a power generating unit (GYW-9 M5, Genelec, 230 V, 6000 W) located within the trailer.
- 167 The nozzles (Figure SI 2) were designed by Eric Centre SAS (Riom, France) and produced by 3D printing.
- 168 The shape of the nozzles was optimized to avoid air turbulence and to maximize the air flow. To ensure
- that the collection system was not clogged during the test, the velocity of the air flow was systematically
- measured before and after each test at the entrance of each nozzle, and the drift did not exceed 5%. The
- air flow rate measured at the entrance of each nozzle was  $75 \pm 5 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ .
- 172 TRWP were collected in 2019 from a summer tire (Michelin Primacy 4, 225/45 R17 91 W, which was
- manufactured the same year and had already experienced a few hundreds of km of service prior to the
- 174 TRWP collection step) on the high-speed track (Figure SI 3) on the Michelin test center of Ladoux, near
- 175 Clermont-Ferrand, France. This track presents very smooth curves, and the test was made at constant
- speed (100 kph). Three filters (FESTO, MS9-LFM-B, pore size: 1 μm) located between the nozzles and the
- vacuums allowed us to collect all the particles resulting from the contact between the tire and the road,
- including TRWP of the target tire as well as other nontire particles and possibly TRWP that were
- previously emitted by other vehicles and resuspended by our testing vehicle. These particles were stored
- for approximately 1 year in the dark at room temperature before the following separation steps.
- The collected particles were then sieved with a 250 µm sieve. The preserved part consisted of particles
- under 250 μm and accounted for at least 90 wt% of the initial amount. TRWP were separated from the
- crude environmental sample by densitometry using a 500 mL separating glass funnel (Glassco). First, a
- NaCl aqueous solution with a density of 1.18 g cm<sup>-3</sup> was used to separate TRWP from the lighter biomass.
- The sample mass was  $5.0000 \pm 0.0005 \,\mathrm{g}$  for a total volume of 200 mL. Because the particles are
- hydrophobic, 100 mL of the solution was added after the particles were in a beaker. The sample was
- injurophobic, 100 mz of the solution was added after the particles were in a beaker. The sample was
- stirred vigorously for 2 minutes and was placed in an ultrasonic bath for 1 minute. Then, the sample was
- transferred to the separating funnel and agitated for 3 minutes. The last 100 mL of the solution was
- added, and the separating funnel containing the sample was again agitated for 3 minutes. It was then
- left to rest overnight (approximately 15 hours). After density separation, the higher density fraction was
- 191 recovered, filtered and rinsed using 250 mL of distilled water through a 10 μm nylon filter (70 mm,
- Merck Millipore). Then, a NaI aqueous solution with a density of 1.80 g cm<sup>-3</sup> was used to separate the
- 193 TRWP from heavier mineral particles. The same operating conditions were used except that the
- 194 recovered fraction was the lower density fraction. It was then filtered and rinsed following the same
- method as previously described. Approximately 2.6 g of the sample consisted of particles between 1.18
- 196 and 1.80 g cm<sup>-3</sup> and between 10 and 250  $\mu$ m.
- 197 After densitometry and before aging, extraction and analysis steps, particles were stored in the dark at
- 198 room temperature for several months.

### 2.1.3) Chemicals

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- 200 Analytical grade ethanol (GPR Rectapur, 99.8%) was purchased from VWR chemicals. Cyclohexane (ACS
- reagent grade, 99.8%) was purchased from Carlo Erba reagents. Ultra-pure water was obtained with a
- 202 Millipore Synergy device.
- 203 1,3-Diphenylguanidine (DPG, 99.5%, CAS number 102-06-7) and 1,3-benzothiazole (BT, 96%, CAS 95-16-
- 9) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Poly(1,2-dihydro-2,2,4-trimethylquinoline) (TMQ, 99%, CAS
- 205 26780-96-1) and N-(1,3-dimethylbutyl)-N'-phenyl-p-phenylenediamine (6PPD, 98.5% CAS 793-24-8) were

- acquired from Lanxess. N-Phenyl-N'-1,3-dimethylbutyl-p-quinonediimine (6QDI, CAS 52870-46-9) was
- 207 provided by Michelin with >99% purity and synthesized according to patent WO9921826 A1. N-(1,3-
- 208 Dimethylbutyl)-N'-phenyl-p-phenylenediamine-quinone (6PPD-quinone) was purchased from HPC with
- 209 97% purity. Molecules will be further described in 2.4.2.

#### 210 **2.2)** Aging

- 211 Three types of aging were investigated with both CMTTP and TRWP. Before aging, the particles were
- 212 stored at room temperature and protected from light. All aging experiments were performed under
- ambient atmosphere to be representative of outdoor conditions, where tire particles are found.

#### 2.2.1) Accelerated photochemical aging at 60 °C

- 215 Particles were aged in an Atlas SEPAP 12-24 photoaging chamber at 60 °C. SEPAP 12-24 is a closed
- 216 chamber with 4 mercury-vapor lamps. The spectrum of lamps can be seen in Figure SI 4. Generally,
- 217 polymer films are placed vertically into the SEPAP 12-24. For particle photodegradation, a sample holder
- with a mirror (45° angle) was used to allow the study of a sample placed horizontally. A picture is shown
- in figure SI 5. A quartz cover slide with a 185 nm wavelength cutoff was placed on the sample holder to
- prevent the sample from flying off in the chamber. Three sample holders were placed simultaneously in
- the SEPAP chamber for each exposure time for repeatability. A total of 0.0500 g of particles was placed
- in each sample holder and deposited evenly on the surface (11 cm<sup>2</sup>). Samples were aged for 2, 4, 6, 8, 15,
- 223 24, 48, 72, 120, 168 and 240 hours.

#### 224 2.2.2) Thermal aging at 60 °C

- 225 Thermal aging was conducted in a Binder Standard-Incubator E53 with natural convection at 60±2 °C at
- the same temperature as for photoaging. This temperature was chosen because it is expected to be
- reached on the surface of the road during summer, implying that tire particles would be subject to
- thermal degradation<sup>48</sup>. Particles were dry-aged in glass crystallizers covered with aluminum foil, and an
- aliquot of 0.0500 ± 0.0001 g was collected after 12, 25, 52, 80 and 101 days. This sampling was made in
- triplicate at the same time.

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#### 2.2.3) Natural outdoor aging

- The abovementioned artificially accelerated aging conditions were compared to natural weathering
- 233 conditions in Clermont-Ferrand, France, by exposing both CMTTP and TRWP to natural elements from
- 234 July 2021 to November 2021 in open glass jars with a diameter of 92.5 mm and a height of 95 mm.
- 235 Under this condition, most of the powder is directly exposed to natural sunlight. The jars were placed at
- localization 45°45'50"N, 3°06'50"E. The solar radiation and the temperature were collected from the
- Observatoire de Physique du Globe de Clermont-Ferrand data and are presented in Figures SI 6 and SI 7.
- 238 Cryomilled tire tread particle samples were initially prepared with 0.2000±0.0002 g of particles in 60 mL
- of water. CMTTP is hydrophobic and has a density of approximately 1.2 g.cm<sup>-3</sup>, and the powder tends to
- accumulate at the bottom of the jar during most of the experiment. The samples were stored without a
- lid; therefore, they were subjected to UV light and weather, e.g., rain and water evaporation. Twelve jars
- were exposed to natural elements on the 2<sup>nd</sup> of July 2021 and were successively removed in triplicate
- 243 after 21, 49, 98, and 133 days.

- A second experiment was carried out with TRWP. Samples were initially prepared with 0.1000±0.0002 g
- of particles in 30 mL of water in the same previously described glass jars. Six jars were exposed to natural
- elements on 23 July 2021, and jars were removed in triplicate after 56 days and after 112 days.
- 247 After each removal, if any water was present in the jar, it was collected, filtered, and stored at -20 °C.
- 248 Particles were collected and dried in open air at ambient temperature, stored at room temperature and
- protected from UV light until extraction, which was carried out after a maximum of 2 weeks.

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#### 2.3) Extraction from tire particles

- 252 After being aged in dry conditions, particles (TRWP or CMTTP) were immersed for 24 hours at room
- temperature (20 25 °C) in a solvent of choice (see 2.3.1 and 2.3.2). The 24-hour duration was chosen
- because the analyzed molecules did not show degradation over this period in the solvent, and the
- extraction from particles appeared to be maximal after 24 hours (figure SI 8). A ratio of 0.1000 g of
- 256 particles to 15 mL of solvent was used. The samples were agitated at 550 rpm and protected from UV
- 257 light during the 24 hours of extraction.
- 258 After the 24-hour extraction, the solvent was collected and filtered through a 0.45 µm pore size syringe
- 259 filter (Chromafil Xtra hydrophilic PTFE, 25 mm) and then stored in glass vials at -20 °C until analysis. A
- 260 maximum of 2 weeks was considered between aging and extraction. Extractions were made
- progressively as samples were taken out of aging. The extracts were stored for a maximum of 4 weeks
- 262 before they were analyzed at -20 °C. Furthermore, the stability of 6PPD under storage conditions at -
- 263 20 °C in cyclohexane/ethanol was verified (see SI paragraph 4.6 and Figure SI 12).

#### 264 **2.3.1) In water**

- 265 Extractions were made in ultrapure water. As the aqueous leachates concentrations were low and close
- to the UHPLC-HRMS detection limit, extracts were preconcentrated 10 times prior to further analysis.
- One milliliter of aqueous leachate was evaporated with a Labconco Centrivap 10436E at 35 °C, and the
- resulting pellet was redissolved in 100 μL of cyclohexane/ethanol prior to further UHPLC-HRMS analysis.

#### 269 2.3.2) In cyclohexane/ethanol

- 270 Extractions were made with a mixture of apolar/polar solvent cyclohexane/ethanol with a 50:50v ratio.
- 271 Each extract was analyzed by UHPLC-HRMS twice, one directly and one diluted 10 times in the same
- 272 solvent, because the expected concentration for some molecules was above the linearity limits of
- 273 concentration.

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#### 2.4) Analytical analysis

#### 276 **2.4.1) DLS (particle size)**

- 277 The CMTTP size distribution (figure SI 1) was measured using a Malvern Mastersizer 3000 particle size
- analyzer. The analytical method was set up via laser light scattering with a liquid dispersion of the sample
- in ethanol, and the wavelengths of the sources were a 632.8 nm red laser and 470 nm blue LED.

#### 280 **2.4.2) UHPLC-HRMS**

Samples and standards were injected with a volume of 5  $\mu$ L in ThermoScientific UHPLC Ultimate 3000 RSLC Ultra-High Performance Liquid Chromatography (UHPLC) equipment coupled with a ThermoScientific Orbitrap Q-Exactive mass spectrometer (HRMS). The column used was a Phenomenex Kinetex EVO C18 (100 x 2,1 mm; 1,7  $\mu$ m). Mobile phases, gradients and flow rates are described in the Supplementary Information. The electrospray ionization was in positive mode ESI +, and the detection ranged from 90 to 400 m/z. Details of the spectrometer conditions are described in SI paragraphs 4.1 and 4.2.

A majority of the analyses were grouped in batches for each kinetics. For each batch of analyzed samples, calibration curves of the 6 standard molecules were prepared with concentrations of 5, 10, 50, 100, 500 and 1000  $\mu$ g/L in cyclohexane/ethanol. DPG, BT, TMQ, 6PPD and 6QDI were prepared within the same calibration solutions, and 6PPD-quinone was prepared aside. The calibration curves were fitted with a linear function and verified that  $R^2$  was > 0.997. As the TMQ standard is a mixture of monomer and oligomers, calibration was carried out by correlating the monomer peak area to the total mass concentration of the polymer sample (assuming a constant monomer mass fraction). The matrix effects were considered non-significant via standard addition method for DPG, BT, TMQ, 6PPD and 6QDI, except for 6PPD-quinone as it will be discussed later (see SI Paragraph 4.5, Figure SI 11 and Table SI 4).

Analyses were made using Thermo Xcalibur software. Calibration curves were verified with the Quan Browser tool that was then used to quantify the concentration of each molecule in each extract using a target method that was looking for the analyzed molecules via their retention time and measured mass (shown in Table 1). This method was built by using molecular standards. Concentrations were calculated by the mean of the triplicates, and the considered error is the standard deviation 1 $\sigma$ .

Molecule	Structural formula	Measured	Retention	Neutral molecular
(CAS)		exact mass	time (min)	formula
		$[M\text{+H}]^{^{+}}$		
DPG	· · · · ·	212.1182	3.82	C <sub>13</sub> H <sub>13</sub> N <sub>3</sub>
	NH	212.1102	3.02	<b>C</b> 1311131 <b>V</b> 3
(102-06-7)	N N			
BT	S	136.0216	5.45	C <sub>7</sub> H <sub>5</sub> NS
(95-16-9)	N N			
(33 10 3)	, , ,			
TMQ		174.1277	8.63	C <sub>12</sub> H <sub>15</sub> N
(monomer)				
(26780-96-1)	$\downarrow$ N			
(20780-30-1)	/ `N´ 🍑			
6PPD	H	269.2012	7.27	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>24</sub> N <sub>2</sub>
	N			-10: -24: -2
(793-24-8)				
	N W			

6QDI (52870-46-9)	$\bigcirc_{N} \bigcirc^{N} \bigcirc^{N}$	267.1857	6.75	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>22</sub> N <sub>2</sub>
6PPD- quinone		299.1753	8.69	C <sub>18</sub> H <sub>22</sub> N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>

Table 1 Structural formula of 6 chemicals extracted from tires

Other molecules described by Seiwert *et al.*<sup>26</sup> and Müller *et al.*<sup>25</sup> were also investigated. A suspect screening of 6PPD and DPG degradation products was made based on the measured mass of ions reported by the previously mentioned authors. The hits were attributed to a retention time (RT), and the combination m/z-RT was used to look for these components in all the samples <sup>17,25,29,30</sup>. These molecular formulas, RT and m/z, are summarized in Tables SI 2 and SI 3.

Some components that showed peculiar kinetics during aging were specifically targeted for MS-MS fragmentation to have a better confidence level for these components. The selected m/z values of ionized components were 294, 310, 185, 205, 213, 281 and 186. The detailed parameters for the MS and MS-MS analyses were as follows: sheath gas flow rate ( $N_2$ ), 50 arbitrary units (AU); auxiliary gas flow rate ( $N_2$ ), 10 AU; capillary temperature, 320 °C; and spray voltage, 3.2 pos kV. For MS-MS, the resolution was set to 17500 at 200 m/z, and the collision energy was 35 AU. More information can be found in SI paragraph 4.3. The highest intensity fragment ions are summarized in Table SI 2.

The confidence levels of the different transformation products were attributed accordingly to Schymanski *et al.*<sup>49</sup> and are summarized in Tables SI 2 and SI 3.

#### 2.5) Data fitting models

Decay exponential models were used to fit the degradation kinetics of the studied molecules. Parameters were calculated using the minpack package for R and the function nlsLM, which fits data with a Levenberg–Marquardt least square type algorithm.

#### 3) Results and discussion

#### 3.1) Leaching of molecules in cyclohexane/ethanol or in water and influence of extraction time

Additives from tire particles were extracted from CMTTP in water and in cyclohexane/ethanol. Among the molecules present in the UHPLC-HRMS analytical footprint of the water or cyclohexane/ethanol extracts, six molecules were targeted first and identified in particular, the vulcanization agents DPG and BT, the antiozonants/antioxidants TMQ and 6PPD, and the 6PPD-derived 6QDI and 6PPD-quinone<sup>30,31,35</sup>. First, extraction kinetics were carried out for up to 24 hours (Figure SI 8). To verify whether higher

extraction yields could be reached or if some molecules could be unstable 36,37,39 under prolonged extraction time at ambient temperature, a complementary 7-day extraction was carried out (results not shown). After 7 days of extraction, the concentration of DPG was still slightly increasing, and the concentrations of BT, TMQ and 6PPD were stable, but for 6QDI and 6PPD-quinone, an increase in concentration was also observed between 24 h and 7 days. The increase in 6QDI and 6PPD-quinone concentrations could be linked to either further extraction of these molecules or degradation of the parent 6PPD molecule during the extraction. For all the subsequent aging experiments, it was therefore chosen to systematically extract chemicals from CMTTP and TRWP for 24 h in cyclohexane/ethanol.

 Water extraction experiments aimed at providing an order of magnitude of the leachability of molecules typically found in the tire particles in a closed-loop aqueous environment. Extractions in water were also carried out for 24 h. As expected, the concentrations of the 6 chemicals in water extracts were lower than those observed in cyclohexane/ethanol (Figure 1), with recovered concentrations below 100 µg/L for the 6 molecules. For instance, the TMQ concentration was approximately 1000 times lower in the water extracts than in cyclohexane/ethanol, while 6QDI and 6PPD-quinone were below the limit of detection. This can result from a lower extraction capacity in water, a poorer solubility and/or stability of the molecules in water. Among the 6 molecules investigated, DPG presents the highest concentration ratio between water and cyclohexane/ethanol, which is consistent with its higher polarity, based on log Kow or logD as calculated by Müller *et al.*<sup>25</sup> and its higher water solubility and stability (Table SI 1). Hence, provided water stability, the concentration ratio between water and cyclohexane/ethanol could provide insight into how the molecules share between the rubber and the water phase in environmental conditions and thus how potentially mobile they are toward the aqueous phase.

Overall, the total amount recovered for these 6 molecules in the cyclohexane/ethanol extracts of the native CMTTP represents approximately 46000 µg/L, i.e., ca. 0.7 wt% of the particles (Figure 1). In comparison, approximately 1 to 3 wt% of tire tread consists of protective molecules (e.g., TMQ, 6PPD), and 1 to 5 wt% is attributed to vulcanization components (e.g., DPG, CBS, BT)<sup>22,23,50</sup>. Therefore, based on the tread formulation, the 0.7 wt% recovered amount of these chemicals only represents a minor fraction (ca. 10 to 35 %) of the initial amount used for tire tread production. The degradation or reaction of these molecules during the manufacturing process (e.g., mixing, extrusion, curing) can explain the lower concentration of additives found in CMTTP<sup>51</sup>. This underlines the necessity to investigate degradation components in the analytical footprint of CMTTP. Further analysis of the measured mass of ions and the description of various chemical components by Müller et al.<sup>25</sup> or Seiwert et al.<sup>26</sup> make it possible to study other molecules in the following aging experiments with CMTTP.

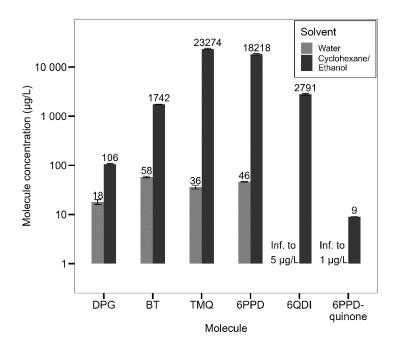


Figure 1: Concentrations of DPG, BT, TMQ, 6PPD, 6QDI, and 6PPD-quinone recovered from nonartificially aged CMTTP after a 24 h extraction in water or cyclohexane/ethanol. Extractions were made with 0.1 g of powder in 15 mL of solvent in the dark at room temperature.

#### 3.2) Thermal and photochemical aging of CMTTP under accelerated conditions

#### 3.2.1) Evolution of DPG, BT, TMQ and 6PPD concentrations upon aging

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The residual concentrations of DPG, BT, TMQ and 6PPD in CMTTP were measured at various stages of thermal or photochemical aging by cyclohexane/ethanol extractions and LC-MS analysis. Before aging, the CMTTP was kept at room temperature in the dark to limit degradation. The photoaging experiments carried out with Atlas SEPAP 12-24 allowed faster degradation than in the environment. An acceleration factor for polyolefins is estimated at approximately 12 between the SEPAP equipment and a continental climate of central France<sup>52</sup>. For thermoaging, the chosen temperature (60 °C) is the same as for photoaging. Kinetics of degradation were performed over 12 days and 101 days for photo- and thermoaging, respectively, and the given concentrations correspond to the amount of each chemical extracted by a mixture cyclohexane/ethanol for 24 h at room temperature under continuous stirring. Concentrations of DPG, BT, TMQ and 6PPD decrease with time (Figure 2) with both photo- and thermoaging (e.g., 6PPD reaches a nondetectable concentration under photo degradation after 7 days). In this discussion, the terms "thermoaging" and "photo-aging" refer to the aging treatment to which the particles were submitted, i.e., aging in an oven and in a SEPAP chamber. The terms "thermo degradation" and "photo degradation" refer to the degradation that the particle and additives undergo during aging. Photoaging is carried out at 60 °C and therefore can lead to a combination of both thermal and photodegradation. Degradation can refer to multiple types of mechanisms, such as photooxidation or thermooxidation<sup>38</sup>. In this discussion, degradation refers to the acknowledgment of a decrease in the concentration of additives with time.

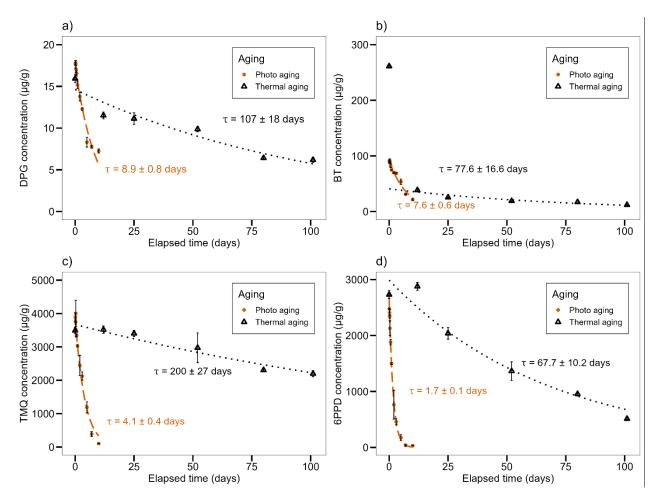


Figure 2: Evolution of the concentrations of a) DPG, b) BT, c) TMQ, and d) 6PPD extracted from CMTTP after various exposure times to thermo or photoaging. Extractions were performed in cyclohexane/ethanol in the dark at room temperature for 24 h. Concentrations are given in  $\mu$ g of the selected additive per g of CMTTP.

The concentration profiles were fitted with a single exponential decay [Equation 1].

$$C(t) = C_0 * e^{-t/\tau}$$
 [Equation 1]

where C(t) is the concentration of the molecule at a given time t,  $C_0$  is the concentration at the beginning of the degradation experiment and  $\tau$  is the time constant. $\tau$  calculated for both photo- and thermoaging are given in Figure 2 for each chemical.

Concentrations of DPG, BT, 6PPD and TMQ present different dissipation rates. In any case,  $\tau$  is lower than 10 days under accelerated photooxidative conditions, while a slower process was observed under purely thermooxidative aging conditions, with calculated  $\tau$  spanning from 67.7 and 200 days for 6PPD and TMQ, respectively.

A peculiar profile was noticed for BT under both types of aging, where a first drop in concentration was observed immediately after the first sampling point, with an initial fast decrease of approximately 40% followed by a slower dissipation profile. The experiment was conducted at 60 °C in both cases, and BT was volatile<sup>29</sup> (vapor pressure 0.95 hPa at 50 °C)<sup>53</sup>. This initial concentration decrease in BT could result from partial volatilization of the molecule. The rest of the kinetics being slower is probably induced by a

- 406 different dissipation mechanism. The choice was made for BT to take the first point out of the modeled
- 407 kinetics. The  $\tau$  of BT might thus be overestimated since it does not consider the initial drop in
- 408 concentration.
- 409 As thermoaging and SEPAP aging were operated at the same temperature, it was considered that the
- 410 comparison between both aging experiments provides insight into the specific contribution of
- 411 accelerated photooxidation.
- The purpose of 6PPD and TMQ is to inactivate radicals or to form stable radicals<sup>35,39</sup> and to protect the
- 413 elastomer phase from radical chain oxidation and ozonolysis. They react preferably with radicals formed
- 414 by UV radiation. Therefore, a high rate of degradation was expected for TMQ and 6PPD, which was
- verified under photoaging because they have <sub>tphoto</sub> values of 4.1 and 1.7 days, respectively. Moreover,
- these molecules degrade slower under thermal aging, as it was observed that  $\tau_{thermo}/\tau_{photo}$  of TMQ and
- 417 6PPD are approximately 50 and 40, respectively.
- 418 DPG is mainly used as a vulcanization agent. BT, on its side, is a decomposition product of CBS that is
- 419 present in the tire tread immediately after the manufacturing processes<sup>24</sup> and is considered an initial
- 420 product in this study. It was observed that DPG and BT have  $\tau_{\text{photo}}$  values of 8.9 and 7.6 days, respectively,
- 421 while  $\tau_{thermo}$ /  $\tau_{photo}$  values are 12 and 10. Therefore, the degradation of these molecules is also
- 422 considerably faster under accelerated photoaging than thermoaging.
- Because the experiments were made at the same temperature and the ratio  $\tau_{thermo}/\tau_{photo}$  is between 10
- and 50 for BT, DPG, TMQ and 6PPD, one could hypothesize that photochemical aging leads to a drastic
- loss of antioxidants and residual additives. The four additives are chromophore species reacting with
- 426 oxidizing species to give oxidation products, and these reactions may be enhanced by the UV radiation
- 427 provided in the SEPAP chamber. This leads to the formation of radicals that are unstable and highly
- 428 reactive, leading to the formation of transformation products. The degradation products of 6PPD after
- ozonation experiments are the most regularly described in the literature <sup>26,54</sup>. The case of DPG was
- 430 recently described<sup>25</sup>. BT<sup>55</sup> and TMQ<sup>56</sup> degradation, on the other hand, are not well studied.
- 431 Consequently, the presence of numerous degradation products for various initial additives is often still
- 432 unrecognized. The next section will thus discuss the detection of DPG- and 6PPD-derived products.

#### 3.2.2) Transformation products of DPG and 6PPD

- 434 A suspect screening of transformation products was performed where molar mass (m/z) of ionized
- 435 components were targeted and associated with a retention time. Components were then named after
- 436 the m/z of their ionized detected form, as retrieved in the chromatograms, e.g., Component 213 stands
- for m/z 213.1019, RT = 6.78 min,  $C_{13}H_{13}N_2O$ . Details (m/z, RT, molecular formula, highest intensity
- 438 fragment ions and confidence level) for all transformation products studied in this work can be found in
- 439 Tables SI 2 and SI 3.
- While the effects of the sample matrix on the ionization in the ESI source were non-significant for the 4
- 441 previously studied molecules (DPG, BT, TMQ and 6PPD), this could not be verified for all the
- 442 transformation products. The absence of matrix effect on 6QDI was verified (see figure SI 11). However,
- 443 the standard addition plot for 6PPD-quinone was slightly nonlinear (see figure SI 11). Therefore, the
- 444 absolute concentrations discussed below should be considered with caution from a quantitative
- standpoint for 6PPD-quinone and for other transformation products for which no standard molecule was
- 446 used.

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The transformation products studied here could be both produced and consumed during photo- and thermoaging. Various concentration profiles were observed depending on the chemicals (Figure 3). Several kinetic models have been proposed for intermediate products upon aging. The initial concentration corresponds to the amount of the chemical in the CMTTP after being stored in the dark at room temperature. When starting the additional aging, the reaction rates of the production(s) and consumption(s) of the different chemicals are modified, inducing a change in their concentrations. As observed for DPG and 6PPD, the concentration can decrease exponentially with time for both photo- and thermoaging, but some chemicals also present an initial increase in concentration in the photoaging experiment (e.g., 6PPD-quinone) or a continuous increase over the 101 days of the experiment in thermoaging (e.g., Component 213).

Out of the 38 6PPD-transformation products identified by Seiwert  $et\ al.^{26}$ , 17 matched with components present in our samples, including 6QDI and 6PPD-quinone. Eleven of them are presented in Figure SI 13, and 6 of them are presented in Figure 3 because of their distinctive degradation profiles. The nondetection of the other 21 6PPD-derived products reported by Seiwert  $et\ al.$  could be assigned to either sensitivity matter (i.e., concentrations below the limit of detection) or to distinct experimental setup (ozonation of pure 6PPD solutions or films<sup>26</sup> vs. aging of complex particles in this study). Similarly, a suspect screening list of DPG-transformation products was used based on those identified by Müller  $et\ al.^{25}$ , leading to 2 hits with Components 294 and 310, as presented in Figure 3.

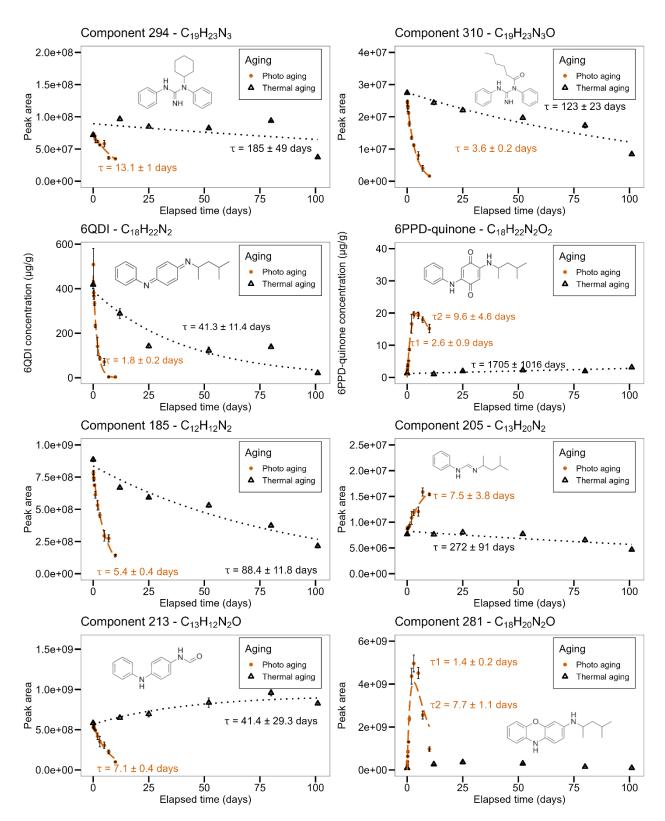


Figure 3: Evolution of the concentrations of different degradation products as a function of CMTTP exposure time to thermo or photoaging and measured after a 24 h extraction in cyclohexane/ethanol. Components 294 and 310 correspond to targeted degradation products of DPG as described by Müller<sup>25</sup>. Standards were used to quantify the concentrations of 6QDI and 6PPD-

469 quinone only. Components 185, 205, 213 and 281 correspond to the targeted degradation products of 6PPD, as reported by 470 Seiwert et al.<sup>26</sup> The molecular structure of Component 185 is not given due to a confidence level inferior to 3.

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- 472 Considering the different concentration profiles, other simple models were used to estimate the rate of 473 degradation/production. Molecules showing an increase followed by a decrease in concentration were
- fitted by a sum of two exponentials, with [Equation 2]: 474

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$$C(t) = C_x \left(-\exp^{-t/\tau 1} + \exp^{-t/\tau 2}\right) [Equation 2]$$

- 476 where  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  are the parameters describing the formation and dissipation rate of the molecule, 477 respectively, and  $C_x$  is a constant related to the concentration of the molecule.
- 478 Molecules showing only an increase in concentration were fitted with a single exponential, with 479 [Equation 3]:

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$$C(t) = (C_0 - C_f) * (exp^{-t/\tau}) + C_f [Equation 3]$$

where C<sub>0</sub> is the calculated initial value of concentration and C<sub>f</sub> is the calculated final value of 481 482 concentration.

#### **DPG-derived products**

Components 294 and 310 (Figure 3) were reported by Müller et al. as ions C<sub>19</sub>H<sub>24</sub>N<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> and C<sub>19</sub>H<sub>24</sub>N<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>, which would correspond to molecules  $C_{19}H_{23}N_3$  and  $C_{19}H_{23}N_3O$ , respectively. Müller et al.<sup>25</sup> described the former as one of the highest intensities leachable in their study. Both molecules are supposed to be DPGderived products (putatively N-cyclohexyl-diphenylguanidine and N-carbonyl-diphenylguanidine resp.) and show a rapid decrease in their concentrations under photoaging ( $\tau$  of 13.1 and 3.6 days) and a slower decrease under thermoaging, similar to the concentration profile of DPG (Figure 2). Müller et al. assumed that these molecules would form during the tire tread manufacturing process by condensing with other vulcanization agents<sup>25</sup>. This is consistent with the nonzero concentrations observed in this study for these molecules prior to the beginning of accelerated aging. Therefore, accelerated photo and thermal aging may not be the main reason why these molecules are forming, but they degrade themselves at rates similar to those of DPG ( $\tau_{DPG}$  = 8.9 and 107 days under accelerated photo and thermal aging).

#### 6PPD-derived products

The initial concentration of 6QDI was quite significant (420 µg/g) compared to the parent 6PPD concentration (2700 µg/g), and an equilibrium exists between these two molecules 26,40. 6PPD and 6QDI present similar dissipation rates under photoaging (ca. 1.7 days) and under thermal aging (67 and 41 days, respectively). The ratio 6QDI/6PPD remains approximately constant during accelerated aging experiments. A similar behavior was observed with Component 185<sup>32,36</sup>, although with slower dissipation rates by a factor of ca. 2 compared to 6PPD or 6QDI. The transformation from 6PPD to 6QDI involves a radical reaction followed by rearrangements, while the transformation from 6PPD to supposedly 4-ADPA (Component 185) involves the loss of the alkyl chain that leads to the formation of a primary amine.

On the other hand, the concentration of 6PPD-quinone initially increased upon both aging types with very different rates. The concentration increased from 1.3 to 20 μg/g under accelerated photoaging after 5 days. In comparison, the concentration of 6PPD decreased from 2700 to 175 μg/g after 5 days and to 30 µg/g after 10 days under accelerated photoaging. The formation rate of 6PPD-quinone is similar to the dissipation rate of 6PPD (2.6 days vs. 1.7 days). Based on the quinone formation pathway<sup>26</sup>, the 6PPD stock depletion induced by its degradation leads to a lower production rate of 6PPD-quinone, whose concentration reaches a maximum at 5 days. The concentration of 6PPD-quinone is always much smaller than the concentration of 6PPD; it is probably related to the numerous concurrent 6PPD degradation pathways leading to the production of molecules other than 6PPD-quinone but also to the degradation of 6PPD-quinone itself, which would be comparably fast compared to its production. With regard to the thermoaging experiment, 6PPD-quinone presented a slow and continuous concentration increase, with 3 μg/g reached after 101 days (compared to 20 μg/g under photoaging after 5 days), which is still 170 times lower than the 6PPD concentration within CMTTP at that time. In fact, the concentration of a few other transformation products, such as 6PPD-quinone, continuously increased during the 101 days of the thermal aging experiment, while it decreased under accelerated photo aged conditions. This is the case with Component 213, whose concentration is halved within 5 days under photoaging ( $\tau = 7.1$  days), while it increases at 60 °C in the absence of light. According to the hypothetical pathway reported by Seiwert et al.<sup>26</sup>, the formation of Component 213 would result from formaldehyde addition to 6PPD and then from the scission of the alkyl chain. The build-up of Component 213 observed under thermoaging shows that this pathway does occur at 60 °C, while the decrease in concentration observed at the same temperature under UV irradiation shows that its degradation becomes faster than its formation under these conditions. These molecules (6PPD-quinone, Component 213) are therefore mainly degraded in the presence of light and could persist in the environment while accumulating in a dark spot.

The reported Component 281<sup>26,34</sup> would consist of another transformation product derived from 6PPD ozonation via the same quinone pathway as the one leading to 6PPD-quinone. In the present study, its concentration profile was observed to be very similar to that of 6PPD-quinone, and both molecules reached their maximal concentration at 5 days under accelerated photoaged conditions.

As further evidence of the degradation of 6PPD-quinone, a suspect screening approach was also carried out by searching for the ozonation products of 6PPD quinone reported in the literature<sup>26</sup> and led to the detection of Component 205. Its increasing concentration profile under photoaging is similar to that of 6PPD-quinone but with a lag, i.e., higher time constant  $\tau$  and no bell-shaped curve observed within the 12-day duration of the experiment. These observations would be consistent with the assignment of Component 205 as a 6PPD-quinone putative transformation product.

The main conclusion of these accelerated aging studies is that additives of tire tread particles degrade under both photo- and thermoaging. In particular, DPG and 6PPD degradation leads to the appearance of several degradation products. While degradation of molecules such as DPG and 6PPD occurred within a few days in the accelerated photoaging experiment, their transformation products can have a longer persistence, such as Component 205, whose concentration is still rising after 12 days, while 6PPD decreased from 2700 to 30  $\mu g/g$ . These laboratory aging experiments were then completed with an outdoor aging study.

#### 3.3) Outdoor aging of CMTTP

Degradation of CMTTP over a 4-month outdoor aging period was assessed by using the same analytical protocol as the one used for accelerated aging (i.e., extraction in cyclohexane/ethanol and LC-MS). The data are given in Figures SI 14, SI 15 and SI 16, and the time constants ( $\tau$ ) obtained from simple models (Equations 1-2) are summarized in Table 2.

The concentration profiles obtained under outdoor weathering were similar to the artificial photoaging profiles for all the components discussed in the previous section (i.e., DPG, BT, TMQ, 6PPD and the abovementioned transformation products). In terms of kinetics, each outdoor profile was systematically comprised between the faster artificial accelerated photoaging degradation profile and the slower thermoaging profile of the corresponding molecule. However, for BT,  $\tau_{\text{outdoor}}$  was not between  $\tau_{\text{thermo}}$  and  $\tau_{\text{photo}}$ , which might be explained by the fact that the first point of the kinetics was removed from the calculation of  $\tau$ ; therefore, its estimation is less precise than for other molecules. The concentrations of TMQ and 6PPD decreased by > 98% in less than 50 days of weathering, while DPG and BT concentrations were reduced by 70% and 90%, respectively. Outdoor aging is thus faster than artificial thermoaging at 60 °C for these molecules, indicating that photodegradation is an essential degradation path under outdoor weathering for the additives studied in this work.

6PPD and 6QDI also presented similar degradation rates under outdoor aging with a time constant of 1 week. Formation then dissipation of both 6PPD-quinone and Component 281 was also observed under outdoor weathering, with a maximal concentration within CMTTP reached within 20 days for both molecules versus 5 days under artificial photoaging. Component 205 presented a bell-shaped profile similar to that of 6PPD-quinone under natural aging, while a decrease in concentration was not observed after 10 days under accelerated photoaging.

Molecule	τ <sub>photo</sub> (days)	τ <sub>thermo</sub> (days)	τ <sub>outdoor</sub> (days)	Ratio $ au_{thermo}/ au_{photo}$	Ratio $ au_{ m outdoor}/ au_{ m photo}$
DPG decrease	8.9 ± 0.8	107 ± 18	18.7 ± 5.3	12	2
BT decrease	7.6 ± 0.6	78 ± 17	126 ± 37	10	17
TMQ decrease	4.1 ± 0.4	200 ± 27	10.9 ± 0.2	49	3
6PPD decrease	1.7 ± 0.1	67.7 ± 10.2	7.1 ± 0.4	40	4
6QDI decrease	1.8 ± 0.2	41.3 ± 11.4	7.1 ± 0.8	23	4
6PPD-quinone increase	2.6 ± 0.9	1700 ± 1000	9.6 ± 5.8	>200	4

6PPD-quinone decrease	9.6 ± 4.6	-	26.2 ± 9.4	-	3
Component 294 decrease	13.1 ± 1.0	185 ± 49	78 ± 18	14	6
Component 310 decrease	3.6 ± 0.2	123 ± 23	11.9 ± 1.6	34	3
Component 185 decrease	5.4 ± 0.4	89 ± 12	13.7 ± 1.8	16	3
Component 205 increase	7.5 ± 3.8	-	27 ± 93	-	¤
Component 205 decrease	-	272 ± 91	45 ± 137	-	-
Component 213 increase	-	41.4 ± 29.3	-	-	-
Component 213 decrease	7.1 ± 0.4	-	13.1 ± 2.9	-	2
Component 281 increase	1.4 ± 0.2	*	15 ± 54	-	й
Component 281 decrease	7.7 ± 1.1	*	17 ± 58	-	й

Table 2: Comparison of concentration evolutions in CMTTP ( $\tau$ ) between accelerated photoaging (SEPAP at approximately 60 °C), thermoaging (60 °C in the dark) and natural aging. (-) Not observed in this aging condition. (\*) Not fittable. ( $\varkappa$ ) irrelevant to calculate due to uncertainty on the evaluation of  $\tau$ 

To our knowledge, this study is the first to provide an order of magnitude of the dissipation rate of tire tread additives and their transformation products (Table 2) as well as kinetic profiles of their degradation under natural outdoor weathering conditions, which could be representative of the ones encountered by TRWP on road or roadside soil surfaces. Concentrations of the studied additives (DPG, TMQ and 6PPD) are decreased by more than 50% within 20 days, and the concentrations of 17 out of 19 of their studied transformation products are also decreased by more than 50% within 50 days under natural aging conditions.

These results are consistent with Thomas *et al.*<sup>33</sup> who found that 6PPD and 6PPD-quinone could not be detected after artificial aging equivalent to 1 year in a natural environment. Concentration profiles observed by Unice *et al.*<sup>32</sup> are close to those observed under natural outdoor aging in this study for DPG and 6PPD. However, their experiments were carried out in an accelerated aging chamber for an equivalent of 3 years under natural conditions, and the kinetics observed in the present study are 10 times faster than those for DPG and 3 times faster for 6PPD. This could be linked to experimental conditions, since this study was conducted in actual natural conditions, whereas their study was conducted in an artificial aging chamber.

Furthermore, Klöckner *et al.*<sup>34</sup> suggested potentially identifying markers for tire particles in the environment. Their selected markers included 6PPD-quinone and N-formyl-6PPD (Component 297 – figure SI 15), which were still persistent in their study after an accelerated photoaging of 72 hours at 32 °C, corresponding to 7 weeks of sunshine duration in Germany. However, the present study showed that these two components are not stable under natural weathering, with Component 297 concentration undergoing, for instance, a 90% decrease in its initial concentration within 50 days, which raises the question of their relevance as persistent markers.

#### 3.4) Degradation of additives under accelerated and natural aging of TRWP

TRWP were collected immediately after emission *via* an in-vehicle embedded system and were then stored in the dark at room temperature for 2.5 years. TRWP were then separated with densitometry. Following the abovementioned steps, the concentration within TRWP of a molecule relatively well soluble in water, such as DPG (Figure 1), could be underestimated because it was partially extracted in the aqueous solution used during the densitometry step. However, this should not change the kinetics results, since the studied phenomenon consists of additional aging to particles that were already partially aged. Moreover, the history of the TRWP *before* artificial aging is significantly different from that of the CMTTP. The latter were obtained from a new tire tread, whereas TRWP consist of a rubber material that experienced severe damage induced by friction on the rough road surface during tire rolling conditions<sup>2</sup>. Both the rubber compositions and ages of the starting materials used to produce CMTTP and TRWP were different, which might also contribute to explaining why the initial concentrations are different between CMTTP and TRWP for some molecules (e.g., DPG and BT).

#### 3.4.1) Accelerated aging of TRWP

The TRWP were subjected to identical artificial and natural aging to CMTTP. Both types of particles presented similar results with regard to the dissipation rate of the additives and transformation products. The evolution of the amount of chemicals extracted from TRWP after thermo and photoaging is presented in Figure 4 and Figure SI 17. The time constants ( $\tau$ ) are summarized in table SI 5.

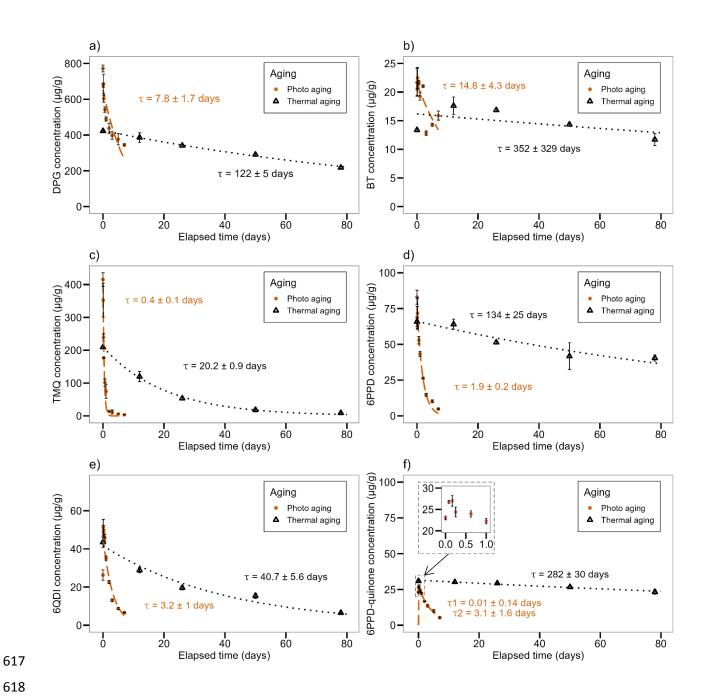


Figure 4 Evolution of the concentrations of a) DPG, b) BT, c) TMQ, d) 6PPD, e) 6QDI and f) 6PPD-quinone as a function of TRWP exposure time to photoaging and measured after a 24 h extraction in cyclohexane/ethanol in the dark.

For all the investigated molecules, the kinetics of degradation within TRWP showed similar behavior to the one observed within CMTTP, i.e., a faster degradation under accelerated photoaging with  $\tau_{photo}$  below 15 days. Degradation under thermoaging at 60 °C was slower, with  $\tau_{thermo}$  occurring between 20 days for TMQ and 282 days for 6PPD-quinone. The kinetics appeared to be similar to those observed with CMTTP for 6PPD, DPG and 6QDI; however, a large difference was observed with TMQ, whose kinetics of degradation were 10 times faster in TRWP than in CMTTP, both under accelerated thermo and photoaging. For transformation products (Figures SI 17 and SI 18), the differences mostly lied in products that had bell-shaped curves in CMTTP, which presented a higher starting concentration in TRWP and

only a concentration decrease, meaning that the maxima were probably reached before the start of the experiments, during the previous lifespan of TRWP. However, the kinetics of appearance/disappearance are similar to those observed with CMTTP with the same order of magnitude of characteristic time constants (τ).

Interestingly, the ratio of 6PPD and 6PPD-quinone concentrations at the beginning of the aging experiments (ca. 2700 and 1  $\mu$ g/g resp.) is >1000 in the case of CMTTP and is only approximately 3 with the TRWP used in this work (ca. 75 and 25  $\mu$ g/g, respectively). This is probably related to the different histories of both types of particles prior to our aging study and to the greater stability of 6PPD-quinone than 6PPD under the storage conditions (ambient atmosphere, room temperature and in the dark). This illustrates how degradation products are as important as the parent chemicals for the evaluation of the possible impact of TRWP on the environment.

#### 3.4.2.) Outdoor aging of TRWP

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Outdoor aging of TRWP (Figures SI 19, SI 20, SI 21 and Table SI 5) showed that degradation rates were slower for most of the chemicals within TRWP than within CMTTP under natural weathering. However, for most of the studied molecules, DT50 $_{\rm outdoor}$  was below 50 days, with the exception of BT, which had a slower rate of degradation. It was shown that the concentration of 6PPD-quinone decreased by 97% in 3 months under natural weathering, which includes solar UV radiation. Under natural sunlight,  $\tau_{\rm outdoor}$  of 6PPD-quinone is 26 and 20 days with CMTTP and TRWP, respectively.

One significant difference between CMTTP and TRWP concerns the initial concentration of 6PPDquinone. For CMTTP, despite a several-year-long storage period prior to this study, 6PPD-quinone was hardly detected at the beginning of our aging experiments, and its concentration increased from 1.3 µg/g to 20 µg/g after 5 days of photoaging or to 15 µg/g after 21 days of natural weathering. The DT50 was below 10-30 days under natural outdoor aging, while the concentration continuously increased under thermoaging (approximately 100-133 days were necessary to reach 5 μg/g). On the other hand, despite a shorter storage period prior to this study compared to CMTTP, the maximal concentration of 6PPDquinone in TRWP was already reached prior to our additional aging experiments, as no bell-shaped concentration profile could clearly be observed, and the starting concentration was approximately 30  $\mu$ g/g. The concentration of 6PPD-quinone decreased faster (DT50 = 14 ± 3 days) under natural aging (Figure SI 19) in the presence of light than in the dark (DT50 estimated approximately 180 days at 60 °C). These results might indicate that 6PPD-quinone could have been produced before the collection of TRWP, i.e., during the tire use and could thus be already available in TRWP for leaching even before the particles are submitted to additional UV radiation. The concentration of 6PPD-quinone can then be reduced in the presence of light, whereas it can persist in the environment in the dark. Nevertheless, as the driving circuit used for TRWP collection was not cleared off prior to testing, it cannot be excluded that older TRWP originating from previous vehicles passing by were collected together with the targettire TRWP. The former, having been exposed to on-road environmental aging for an undetermined period of time prior to collection, might be the actual source of the 6PPD-quinone initial concentration in our sample. Dosing 6PPD-quinone in the outermost layer of a tire treadband or TRWP collection from a road simulator laboratory free from any other polluting rubber sources would help to fill this knowledge gap.

This study also highlights that additives and transformation products should be used as markers only for fresh TRWP (< 3 months old). Indeed, TRWP composition evolves under aging toward a cocktail of

transformation products that are not well known. Therefore, assessing the quantity of older TRWP can be complex. On the other hand, TRWP might not necessarily be exposed to UV radiation in their lifespan in the environment because they might be quickly wiped away by rainwater runoff and remain in sediments or soils where only temperature or microbial action could degrade them. In this study, it was shown that thermoaging is less efficient than photoaging to degrade the additives and degradation products of TRWP. Therefore, buried TRWP could lead to a slower degradation of additive molecules and transformation products - via abiotic pathways at least - and thus represent for a longer period of time a source of potentially leachable molecules, whose environmental impact might be of concern.

The comparison of the CMTTP vs. TRWP results produced in this study is limited by the fact that both types of particles originated from different starting material compositions. A proper comparison would be worth future prospects to confirm that despite their different physicochemical characteristics compared to TRWP<sup>2,46</sup>, the more readily accessible CMTTP may be used as a good model to investigate the aging of TRWP, at least for studying the fate of chemicals, identifying transformation products, and estimating trends and orders of magnitude.

#### 4. Conclusion

- This study assessed the kinetics of abiotic degradation of various additives and transformation products within tire particles under three kinds of aging: accelerated photochemical and/or thermal aging and natural outdoor aging. Chemicals were extracted from aged particles with cyclohexane/ethanol solvent and analyzed using UHPLC-HRMS.
- Concentration-time profiles of 23 chemicals were established for each type of aging experiment and particle (CMTTP and TRWP), among which 3 tire tread additives (DPG, 6PPD, TMQ) and 20 transformation products (featuring 6PPD-quinone as well as 17 other 6PPD- or DPG-derivatives previously reported in the literature). DPG, 6PPD, TMQ and some transformation products decayed exponentially under the 3 types of aging. Their degradation rate was systematically higher under accelerated photoaging, with half-lives of a few days (1 to 9 days) versus dozens of days under pure thermal aging. The natural outdoor aging kinetics systematically lie between those 2 laboratory aging conditions.
  - Two chemicals reported as issued from the 6PPD ozonation putative quinone pathway, namely, 6PPD-quinone and Component 281, clearly presented bell-shaped concentration profiles within CMTTP when the particles were exposed to UV light. 6PPD-quinone concentration reached a maximal concentration within 5 days under artificial photoaging and after approximately 20 days under natural outdoor aging, whereas Component 205, supposedly formed from the parent 6PPD-quinone, presented similar but lagged concentration profiles. For TRWP, where the initial load of those 3 chemicals was higher than that in CMTTP, those bell-shaped profiles were hardly detected under artificial photoaging, and exponential decays were observed under outdoor aging (half-life ~2 days and 14 days, respectively). Under dark and purely thermal aging, the decay of 6PPD-quinone within TRWP was significantly slower (half-life ~195 days), emphasizing a greater stability and persistence in environmental compartments without light and at lower temperatures.
- From a qualitative standpoint, the more readily accessible CMTTP can be considered a reasonable proxy of TRWP to investigate the general fate of chemicals within rubber particles when the particles are

- exposed to various aging conditions. Indeed, both involve similar chemical species and similar aging kinetics trends and orders of magnitude. Nevertheless, this study was limited from the quantitative standpoint by the use of CMTTP and TRWP originating from different starting material compositions and by matrix effects on ionization in the UHPLC-HRMS analysis, induced by the complex nature of the sample itself, that probably impaired the absolute quantitation of 6PPD-quinone. This work should thus be completed in the future to fill these gaps.
- 718 In terms of environmental significance, this study highlighted that TRWP composition varies dynamically 719 over time and aging conditions, which could lead to potentially harmful effects (e.g., ecotoxicity induced 720 by emergence of a specific transformation product) or beneficial effects (e.g., disappearance of 721 components inhibiting biodegradation of other substrates or appearance of biodegradation promoters). 722 In future prospects, similar studies could be coupled to biodegradation or ecotoxicity assays to shed light 723 on the implication of the aging-induced variability of TRWP composition. This study also emphasized the 724 particular impact of UV light on TRWP composition. This can provide guidance for potential mitigation 725 strategies or help improve the modeling of particle environmental fate by accounting for the time spent 726 under light exposure. Finally, the leachability of the investigated molecules in water was not fully 727 addressed in this work and the assessment of the amount that could effectively leach in the environment 728 along with aging would be worth future prospects.

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#### **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interest that could have appeared to influence the reported work.

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