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Influence of Petrochemical Installations Upon PAH Concentrations at Sites in Western Saudi Arabia

Harrison, Roy; Alam, Mohammed; Dang, Juan; Basahi, J; Alghamdi, A.; Ismail, I.M.; Khoder, M.; Hassan, I.A.

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4	INFLUENCE OF PETROCHEMICAL
5	INSTALLATIONS UPON PAH
J	CONCENTRATIONS AT SITES IN
6	
7	WESTERN SAUDI ARABIA
8	
9	Roy M. Harrison ^{1,2,3*} , Mohammed S. Alam ¹ , Juan Dang ^{1†} ,
10	J. Basahi ² , Mansour A. Alghamdi ³ , I.M. Ismail ² , M. Khoder ^{2,3}
11	and I.A. Hassan ^{2,4}
12	
13	(<u>r.m.harrison@bham.ac.uk; m.s.alam@bham.ac.uk;</u> <u>JXD507@bham.ac.uk;</u>
14 15	<u>djsdu2012@126.com; jbasani@kau.edu.sa; mans99@gmail.com;</u> jabal30@botmail.com: kboder, 55@yaboo.com; jbassan, eg@yaboo.com)
15	<u>iquaso e notinan.com</u> ; <u>knouci_55 e yanoo.com</u> ; <u>massan_eg e yanoo.com</u> ;
10	¹ School of Geography, Earth and Environmental Sciences
18	University of Birmingham, Edgbaston, Birmingham, B15 2TT
19	United Kingdom
20	
21	² Center of Excellence in Environmental Studies, King Abdulaziz
22	University, Jeddah, 21589, Saudi Arabia
23	3
24	³ Department of Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Meteorology
25	Environment and Arid Land Agriculture, King Abdulaziz University
26 27	Jeadan, Saudi Arabia
∠/ 28	⁴ Faculty of Science, Alexandria University
29	21526 El Shatby, Alexandria. Egypt

⁺ Also at: Environment Research Institute, Shandong University, Jinan 250100, P.R. China ^{*} To whom correspondence should be addressed Tele: +44 121 414 3494; Fax: +44 121 414 3708; Email: r.m.harrison@bham.ac.uk

30 ABSTRACT

Measurements of 16 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) congeners (particles and vapour) have 31 been made at three sites over a distance of 230 km on the Red Sea coast of Saudi Arabia. The data 32 33 have been pooled with an earlier dataset from three sites in the city of Jeddah, with one urban site common to both studies. The concentrations and congener profiles are broadly similar for the two 34 measurement campaigns at the common site. Coefficients of Divergence have been calculated and 35 36 show more substantial differences between the sites within the city of Jeddah than are found 37 between the sites to the north of the city which emphasises the strong concentration gradients within Jeddah in comparison to those found in the atmosphere of the coastal sites to the north of the city. 38 39 A sub-set of data corresponding to days on which the air mass travelled from the northwest parallel with the Red Sea coast, hence linking the three sites, showed a progressive reduction in 40 concentrations as the air mass travelled towards the southeast, which is attributed to emissions from 41 a large source area to the northwest of the sampling sites and either atmospheric dilution or 42 chemical reaction accounting for a progressive reduction in concentrations with advection of the air 43 44 mass. The congener profile is very similar to that identified in earlier work relating to oil refinery emissions and is consistent with the major petrochemical installation at Yanbu contributing 45 substantial emissions to the atmosphere which are advected to downwind sites. 46

47

48 **Keywords:** Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; spatial analyses; atmospheric concentrations;



50

51 **INTRODUCTION**

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons are a group of compounds emitted to the atmosphere from a wide 52 range of combustion processes. There are many compounds within the group, but conventionally a 53 54 small number are commonly analysed - most often the 16 compounds specified by the US Environmental Protection Agency (Sun et al., 1998). The main driver for measurement is concern 55 over the health risk posed by the PAH mixture, which is listed by IARC as a Class 1 human 56 57 carcinogen (IARC, 2010). Several congeners within the group contribute to that toxicity and 58 relative potency factors have been proposed by a number of workers (reviewed by Delgado-Saborit et al., 2011). Both the World Health Organization and the European Commission use 59 60 benzo(a)pyrene (BaP) as a marker for the mixture, as this compound typically accounts for a substantial proportion of the carcinogenic potential of the entire mixture (Delgado-Saborit et al., 61 2011). While the WHO publishes slope factors relating cancer risk to exposure concentrations but 62 no guideline value (WHO, 2000), the European Union has adopted a target value of 1 ng m⁻³ of 63 BaP. A review of the health risk of PAH exposure in the context of indoor air (WHO, 2010) has 64 highlighted health outcomes other than cancer for which there is strong evidence of a contribution 65 from PAH. Bae et al. (2010) have shown an association between PAH exposure, measured by a 66 biomarker, and oxidative stress, which is a precursor to disease. According to Trasande et al. 67 68 (2015), children living close to an oil refinery, which was a known source of PAH, showed a significant increase in symptoms of pre-hypertension. Kim et al. (2013) reviewed the human health 69 effects of airborne PAH exposure, discussing both acute and chronic health effects. 70

71

As the PAH mixture is a genotoxic carcinogen, there is no wholly safe level of exposure and a consequent need exists to minimise exposure from all sources. PAH emissions derive from combustion sources such as gasoline and diesel engine exhaust, wood smoke and food cooking, as well as from industrial processes such as steel production and anode baking in aluminium production, and from the evaporation of fossil fuels (Baek et al., 1991; Mastral and Callen, 2000).

Since the development of cost-effective abatement strategies requires a sound knowledge of 77 individual source contributions to ambient concentrations, there is a pressing need for source 78 79 apportionment studies, such as that conducted by Jang et al. (2013) using data from the United 80 Kingdom PAH monitoring network and Wang et al. (2015) using a large dataset collected at a megacity in China. In addition to the application of Positive Matrix Factorization to a multi-site, 81 82 multicomponent dataset, Jang et al. (2013) used spatial distribution analysis to infer source 83 contributions. The differences in concentrations between paired sites were used to infer source 84 contributions, which could be compared with emissions inventory data. Site pairs included roadside/urban background pairs and industrial/urban background pairs of sites. Mari et al. (2010) 85 86 also made a qualitative comparison of congener profiles between urban and rural sites, and compared a road traffic profile with an urban background concentration profile, but did not use 87 quantitative measures of difference. 88

89

A factor to consider in analysing ambient air measurements of PAH is that the compounds are 90 91 reactive in the atmosphere at differing rates leading to degradation, and a consequent change occurs in the ratios of compounds from those emitted at source (Keyte et al., 2013). A further 92 93 consideration is that PAH are semi-volatile compounds which actively partition between the vapour 94 and condensed phases, and to fully understand their airborne concentrations it is necessary to measure both phases (Yamasaki et al., 1982). Receptor modelling is also likely to generate 95 misleading results unless the sum of both phases is used in the model (Harrison et al., 1996; Xie et 96 al., 2013; Gao et al., 2015). 97

98

99 There have been relatively few measurements of PAH in countries from the Middle Eastern region.
100 Alghamdi et al. (2015a) review data from Assiut, Egypt (Abdallah and Atia, 2014), Giza, Egypt
101 (Hassan and Khoder, 2012), Tehran, Iran (Halek et al., 2010), Kuwait (Gevao et al., 2006) and
102 Zonguldak, Turkey (Akyuz and Cabuk, 2010) as well as measurements from two locations in Saudi

Arabia: Makkah (Habeebullah, 2013) and Riyadh (El-Mubarek et al., 2014). These show a huge 103 diversity in concentrations, with concentrations reported from Egypt and Iran far exceeding those 104 from sites in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia (measured by Alghamdi et al., 2015a), and those from Kuwait 105 106 falling below the Jeddah data. Both the studies of Habeebullah (2013) and El-Mubarak et al. (2014) report very high PAH concentrations; the latter reported average benzo(a)pyrene of 400 ng m⁻³, 107 which is so high as to require independent confirmation. Due to the very different climate, and 108 109 availability of fuels, it is anticipated that PAH sources may be very different in the Middle Eastern 110 region from that in temperate western countries. It is anticipated that there would be little use of coal or wood as fuels, but greater dependence upon petroleum-based products. 111

112

The anticipated dominance of petroleum based sources is borne out by a receptor modelling study 113 conducted in Saudi Arabia. In a study of PAH measured at three sites in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, 114 Alghamdi et al. (2015a) used PMF to apportion PAH to three factors representing traffic emissions, 115 industrial sources, especially an oil refinery, and oil combustion. The purpose of this research is to 116 117 extend the geographic coverage of PAH concentrations and source attribution well beyond Jeddah and Riyadh for which data are already available into that part of the western coast which contains 118 extensive petrochemical industry activity. In this paper we report further measurements from one 119 of the sites used by Alghamdi et al. (2015a) – Site C in that paper – and over the same campaign 120 period from two further sites up to 230 km to the north of Jeddah. These new data include 121 measurements from two sites which substantially increase the spatial coverage, and were collected 122 so as to test for spatial trends in concentration within the prevailing air mass movements from 123 north-west towards south-east along the Red Sea coast (see Figure 1). They also include a rural site 124 125 for which very few data are available in this region.

126

127

129	EXPERIMENTAL
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130	Sampling Sites
131	These are shown in Figure 1.
132	
133	FIGURE 1 HERE
134	
135	Site A (Refinery) (21.4439°N; 39.2005°E) is a primary school situated in a highly populated
136	economically disadvantaged residential area in the south of the city of Jeddah, about 700 metres
137	east of the Jeddah oil refinery, and close to the Port of Jeddah.
138	
139	Site B (Ring Road) (21.4727°N; 39.2755 °E) is also a primary school in the eastern part of Jeddah,
140	about 150 metres from the heavily trafficked Al-Haramian ring road.
141	
142	Site C (Abhur) (21.7572°N; 39.1147°E) is located in the grounds of a research institute on the Red
143	Sea coast to the west of major roads. It is in the northern suburbs of the major city of Jeddah
144	(population 5 million), with the King Abdulaziz international airport to the east (inland). The site is
145	approximately 130 km to the SE of Rabegh.
146	
147	Site D (Rabegh) (22.8122°N; 39.0664°E) is a site located about 1 km from the residential areas of
148	this substantial city, which has appreciable local industry. The sampling site is ca. 500 metres east
149	of the coastal road. It is approximately 100 km SSE of Rayes.
150	
151	Site E (Rayes) (23.5756°N; 38.6058°E) is a sparsely developed area with little road traffic and no
152	appreciable local sources. The sampling site is located about 950 metres inland (east) of the coastal
153	road, and 25-50 km SSE of the large industrial complex in the region of Yanbu.
154	

Wind trajectories in western Saudi Arabia often travel parallel to the coast from an approximately 155 north-westerly direction. Consequently, three sites were selected for air sampling spaced along the 156 coast, to the south east of the major petrochemical plant located south of Yanbu. Thus, air masses 157 158 travelling parallel to the coast after Yanbu would firstly cross the site at Rayes, some 25-50 km southeast of the industrial activities around Yanbu (see Figure 1). Rayes is in a sparsely developed 159 160 area and would be expected to experience predominantly regionally polluted air masses, as well as possibly being influenced by emissions from the Yanbu industrial complex. The second site along 161 the coast is Rabegh which is located within a major urban area, with both local road traffic and 162 industrial influences. It is 100 km from Rayes. The third site, Abhur is in the northern suburbs of 163 164 Jeddah city, about 130 km from Rabegh. Southerly air masses would carry the pollution load from the city, while air masses following the coast from the north-west would cross few areas of 165 population between Rabegh and Abhur. The area is mainly residential with local traffic influences, 166 but no industry, other than that to the south within Jeddah. The city of Jeddah has both high traffic 167 density and major fixed emission sources including an oil refinery and a desalination plant which 168 169 burns fuel oil.

170

In order to carry out an effective Lagrangian test of compositional change, the sampling of air
masses at Sites E, D and C was staggered to allow for the atmospheric transport of air masses.
Samples were hence initiated sequentially at 05.00 (Site E), 11.00 (Site D) and 17.00 (Site C) local
time, and each continued for 24 hours.

175

176 Dates of Sampling

177 The first campaign was at Sites A, B and C, and daily 24-hour samples were collected

simultaneously at all sites between 23 February 2013 and 23 April 2013. Peak daily temperatures

179 over this period ranged from 26 to 30°C. The data from that campaign have been reported as part of

a study of brachial artery distensibility in relation to pollutant exposure by Trasande et al. (2015), a

receptor modelling study by Alghamdi et al. (2015a), and a study of urinary PAH metabolites by
Alghamdi et al. (2015b). The second campaign took place at Sites C, D and E from 16 June 2013 to
7 July 2013 and 17 September to 1 October 2013 (summer) and 23 December 2013 to 30 January
2014 (winter). Peak hourly temperatures ranged from 38-47°C (summer) and 23-30°C (winter).

185

186 Sampling Instruments

Samples were collected using a "pesticide" sampler (TE-PUF, Tisch Environmental Inc.) which
draws air (240-300 m³ per day) through a TSP inlet onto a quartz microfibre filter (TE-QMA4;
10.16 cm) to collect particulate matter, followed by an adsorbent polyurethane (PUF) substrate to
collect vapour phase compounds.

191

192 Chemical Analysis

Prior to sampling, the filters were preheated at 400 °C for 48 h in a box furnace, wrapped in a clean 193 preheated foil, placed in a cardboard box and sealed in an airtight metallic container. The PUF 194 substrates were pre-cleaned prior to their use in the field by immersing in 100 mL of 195 dichloromethane (DCM) and ultrasonicating at 20°C for 30 min. The solvent was then drained and 196 the PUF substrates were left to dry in a sealed metal container under a stream of nitrogen. The clean 197 and dry PUF substrates were subsequently sealed in airtight plastic bags and stored in the freezer. 198 Once exposed, the filter and PUF substrates were wrapped separately with a clean preheated foil, 199 enclosed in airtight plastic bags and stored at approximately -18°C. 200

201

Samples were analysed for 16 PAH using the methodology described previously (Delgado-Saborit et al., 2010; 2013). Briefly, filter and PUF substrates were spiked with 1000 pg μ L⁻¹ deuterated internal standards for quantification. Nine deuterated compounds were used, covering the volatility range from acenaphthylene-d₈ to benzo(ghi)perylene-d₁₂. A recovery standard, p-terphenyl-d₁₄ was also added using a solution of 2000 pg μ L⁻¹. Filters were immersed in dichloromethane (DCM) and

207 ultrasonicated for 15 min at 20°C. The extract was subsequently dried and cleaned using a 208 chromatography column filled with 0.5 g of anhydrous sodium sulphate (puriss grade for HPLC). 209 The extract was further concentrated to 50 μ L under a gentle N₂ flow. PUF substrates were 210 immersed in 100 mL of DCM and ultrasonicated for 20 min at 20°C. The sample was then 211 concentrated to 10 mL using N₂ and subsequently dried and cleaned as outlined for the filters 212 above.

213

214 Samples were analysed for PAH compounds using Gas Chromatography (6890, Agilent Technologies) equipped with a non-polar capillary column (Agilent HP-5MS, 30 m, 0.25 mm ID, 215 216 0.25 µm film thickness — 5% phenylpolysiloxane) in tandem with a Mass Spectrometer (5973 N. Agilent Technologies). The precision of analysis was 8±4% (range: RSD, 0.3-9.7%) and the 217 accuracy, expressed as the difference between the measured and true value as a percentage of the 218 true value was $6\pm4\%$ (range: -6 to 25%). The analytical detection limits varied widely between 219 congeners, and sample detection limits estimated from analysis of blank filters and PUFs all lay 220 well below 1 pg m⁻³ for the 24-hour air samples. Further information regarding the analytical 221 procedure can be found in Delgado-Saborit et al. (2010; 2013). Some of the PUF substrates 222 showed contamination in the later part of the chromatogram making quantification of compounds 223 from benzo(e)pyrene to coronene unreliable. As these compounds are typically > 90% particulate 224 (Alghamdi et al, 2015a) the vapour component has not been quantified, therefore implying an 225 underestimation of up to 10% in concentration of these compounds. 226

227

228 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

229 Mean concentrations of PAH for each congener and each site appear in Table 1, and

230 diagrammatically in Figure 2. Phase partitioning was considered in detail in our earlier study

- (Alghamdi et al., 2015a), and was found to be similar in this dataset. The bars marked Site A, B and
- C in Figure 2 derive from data from the first campaign, while the data for Rayes (site E), Rabegh

(site D) and Abhur (site C2) are from the second campaign. This shows a clear spatial pattern, with
highest concentrations at Site A which is strongly influenced by the Jeddah refinery and port, and
second highest at Site B where the main influence is from road traffic. Concentrations at Site C,
Abhur on the northern boundaries of Jeddah, can be compared between the first and second
campaign. It can be seen from Figure 2 that concentrations at the Abhur site (C1 and C2) were
broadly similar in the two campaigns.

239

240 There are indications in Figure 2 of a concentration gradient in the sense of Rayes (Site E) > Rabegh (Site D) > Abhur (Site C). This was explored further by selecting a sub-set of data 241 242 corresponding only to those days when the air mass back trajectory ran from north-west to southeast parallel to the Red Sea coast of Saudi Arabia, as in the example trajectory shown in Figure 3. 243 This sub-set corresponds to a total of 14 samples which included all 12 from the summer campaign 244 and 2 from the winter campaign measurements. When averaged (Figure 4), these show a marked 245 gradient in most PAH congeners from Site E (Rayes) > Site D (Rabegh) > Site C (Abhur). This is 246 247 despite the different characteristics of the sites and the fact that Rabegh may have local source influences, and Abhur is in an area with light local urban traffic. The fact that the highest 248 concentrations are observed at remote Site E (Rayes) is clearly indicative of a major source to the 249 250 north-west of that site, which is presumably the major petrochemical complex at Yanbu. As the air mass is advected along the Red Sea coastline towards the south-east, concentrations are reduced 251 progressively through atmospheric dispersion/dilution processes and chemical reactions of the PAH 252 (Keyte et al., 2013). 253

254

255 TABLE 1 HERE

256

FIGURE 2, 3 AND 4 HERE

258

259 The Coefficient of Divergence is defined as:

$$COD_{fh} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{x_{if} - x_{ih}}{x_{if} + x_{ih}}\right)^2}$$

In which x_{if} and x_{ih} are the respective concentrations for sampling period i at sites f and h
respectively and n is the number of observations. Values of COD for the site pairs measured
simultaneously in this study appear in Table 2. Small values of COD are indicative of only small
differences in concentrations between sites, while values approaching the theoretical maximum of
one reflect large inter-site differences. Comparisons are based upon total (particulate plus vapour)
concentrations.

266

Data from the first campaign appear in Table 2(a), and show a large divergence between both Site A, close to the Jeddah refinery, and Site B, close to the major highway, and Site C in the relatively unpolluted northern suburbs. Differences between the more polluted Sites A and B are much smaller. With respect to the second campaign and the three more northerly sites, COD values are typically intermediate. The lowest values, representing the greatest similarity between sites are between Site D (Rabegh) and Site C (Abhur). Not unexpectedly, the largest differences are seen between Sites E and C which have the largest spatial separation.

274

275 TABLE 2 HERE

276

One sample, collected on 29 September 2013 showed a major elevation in concentrations of all PAH. This was seen both in the particulate and vapour forms, and hence it is considered to reflect a genuine atmospheric phenomenon, and not laboratory contamination of a single sample. It is thought likely to be the result of a single major contribution event close to the Rayes sampling site (E), which showed the greatest elevation in concentrations. For many of the congeners, a lesser elevation was seen on the same sampling date at the downwind Rabegh sampling site. The same general pattern of concentrations at Rayes (site E) > Rabegh (site D) > Abhur (site C) was repeated
in this sample, and it has been retained in the averaging process as it does not affect the overall
pattern of absolute or relative concentrations appreciably.

286

Diagnostic ratios are widely used in source attribution of PAH, although where multiple sources are 287 present, their use is extremely limited (Galarneau, 2008). Diagnostic ratios are also influenced by 288 289 atmospheric degradation processes (Tobiszewski and Namiesnik, 2012). There appear to be very 290 few published data concerning PAH from petrochemical complexes, but Zhao et al. (2015) report data from eight villages surrounding a large petrochemical complex in Guangzhou, China. They 291 292 report that ratios of ANT/(ANT + PHE) which fall below 0.1 are typical of a petrogenic source such as a petrochemical works and their data showed ratios within this range. They cite Ravindra et al. 293 (2008) as the source of this information but that paper does not appear to refer to petrochemical 294 sources. There is however support for this ratio to distinguish petrogenic from pyrogenic sources of 295 PAH in the work of Yunker et al. (2002) and Pies et al. (2008). In a recent paper, Dominguez-296 297 Morueco et al. (2015) report PAH concentrations measured with passive air samplers in the petrochemical area of Tarragona, Spain. They report a predominance of 3-ring compounds and 298 ratios of ANT/(ANT+PHE) of <0.1. It is notable that ratios of ANT/(ANT + PHE) fell below 0.1 at 299 300 all of the measurements sites used in our study. This is unsurprising for the sites in Jeddah where there is a petroleum refinery within the boundaries of the city, and Site A was located close to it. 301 The fact that the ratios fell well below 0.1 at the Rayes site, which is downwind of the 302 petrochemical complex at Yanbu is strongly suggestive of the petrochemical complex being the 303 source of the elevated PAH concentrations at Rayes. Alternatively, because of the greater chemical 304 305 reactivity of anthracene relative to phenanthrene, it may simply be due to degradation of anthracene during airmass transport. Alam et al. (2013) examined ANT/(ANT + PHE) ratios from two sites in 306 Birmingham, UK, one located at roadside and the other at urban background and also calculated a 307 traffic increment from the difference in concentration between the sites. They examined diagnostic 308

ratios and report values for ANT/(ANT + PHE) which are all in excess of 0.1 for the traffic
increment. The majority are in excess of 0.1 for the roadside site, but all of the values of this ratio
fall below 0.1 for the urban background site which they interpret as due to the atmospheric
reactivity of anthracene being greater than phenanthrene and reducing the ratio as the air ages.
Consequently, we feel that diagnostic ratios do not give us a definitive indication of the sources of
elevated concentrations of PAH at Rayes but that the elevation is consistent with a petrogenic
source such as the petrochemical complex upwind at Yanbu.

316

There were insufficient samples to carry out a further PMF analysis from the second campaign. However, the congener profile of the PAH can be compared with those of the three source-related factors identified by Alghamdi et al. (2015a). The industrial (oil refinery) factor has substantial concentrations of phenanthrene > pyrene > fluoranthene > anthracene with only very minor amounts of other congeners. This is very similar to the profile seen in Figure 4 for the three sites during the second campaign, when winds were parallel to the coast.

323

324 CONCLUSIONS

The results of the Coefficients of Divergence calculations show strong gradients in concentration 325 326 between the heavily polluted sites in southern Jeddah and the background site (Site C, Abhur) in the northern suburbs of the city. This is consistent with conclusions in our earlier work that Sites A and 327 B in the south of Jeddah were heavily influenced by local sources, a refinery and a major highway 328 respectively. Concentration gradients between the sites on the Red Sea coast to the north of Jeddah 329 generate much smaller Coefficients of Divergence indicative of lesser concentration gradients. The 330 331 steady decline seen in Figure 4 for those days in which the air mass moved from northwest, southeast along the Red Sea coast are consistent with a major source of PAH to the north of the 332 Rayes sampling site. The congener profile is consistent with that source being the large 333 petrochemical works in the vicinity of Yanbu. Figure 4 also shows a steady decline in 334

concentrations as the air mass moves towards the southeast which might be attributable either to
progressive dilution with cleaner air or alternatively to reduction in concentrations due to chemical
reactions. Without further supporting information, it is not possible to clearly identify the causal
factor. Such supporting information might include measurements of a passive (unreactive) tracer
compound from which to assess the extent of dilution during transport.

340

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490	TABLE LE	CGENDS
491 192	Table 1•	Total concentrations of PAH congeners at all sites (ng m^{-3})
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494	Table 2:	(a) Coefficients of Divergence (COD) values for total PAH for sites A, B and C1
495		(first campaign); (b) COD values for total PAH for sites D, E and C2 (second
496		campaign).
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500	FIGURE L	EGENUS
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508		mb showing the air mass running parallel to the Red Sea coast.
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511		only air samples when the air mass travelled from north-west to south-east parallel to
512		the Red Sea coast.
513		

Table 1: Total concentrations of PAH congeners at all sites (ng m⁻³).

Conconor	Site A		Site B		Site C1		Site C2		Site D		Site E	
Congener	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range	Mean	Range
Fluorene	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.47	0.20-1.54	0.90	0.45-1.92	1.13	0.36-6.98
Phenanthrene	21.15	11.63-41.55	16.83	5.75-29.67	8.65	2.71-21.91	6.03	2.57-12.09	7.97	4.51-14.41	9.58	3.24-29.92
Anthracene	1.43	0.40-4.14	1.63	0.57-3.13	0.71	0.17-1.65	0.31	0.14-0.79	0.46	0.20-1.30	0.82	0.19-7.53
Fluoranthene	3.47	1.01-7.77	2.69	1.22-4.79	1.11	0.40-2.42	0.94	0.50-1.67	1.23	0.69-2.53	1.18	0.40-5.86
Pyrene	6.23	1.43-15.30	4.15	1.85-8.06	0.82	0.32-1.44	0.89	0.43-1.50	1.45	0.79-2.51	1.11	0.27-7.08
Retene	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.56	0.05-1.14	0.47	0.16-1.09	0.52	0.21-1.75
Benzo(a)anthracene	0.23	0.07-0.79	0.24	0.08-0.33	0.06	0.02-0.23	0.26	0.05-0.59	0.37	0.04-1.00	0.37	0.02-1.48
Chrysene	0.65	0.20-2.27	0.61	0.26-1.03	0.17	0.06-0.60	0.26	0.07-0.47	0.28	0.02-0.61	0.39	0.06-1.91
Benzo(b)fluoranthene	0.57	0.17-1.11	0.47	0.22-0.81	0.12	0.03-0.42	0.12	0.01-0.25	0.16	0.05-0.25	0.23	0.04-1.53
Benzo(k)fluoranthene	0.60	0.19-1.24	0.42	0.23-0.71	0.11	0.03-0.37	0.12	0.02-0.23	0.15	0.02-0.25	0.24	0.04-2.08
Benzo(e)pyrene	0.60	0.17-1.30	0.50	0.24-0.82	0.13	0.04-0.42	0.10	0.01-0.27	0.11	0.02-0.29	0.19	0.03-1.68
Benzo(a)pyrene	0.39	0.09-1.01	0.30	0.12-0.56	0.09	0.02-0.30	0.07	0.00-0.16	0.09	0.01-0.14	0.16	0.01-1.53
Indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene	0.63	0.22-1.21	0.47	0.26-0.75	0.11	0.02-0.38	0.09	0.01-0.17	0.09	0.02-0.29	0.18	0.03-1.89
Dibenz(a,h)anthracene	0.15	0.04-0.27	0.09	0.04-0.14	0.02	0.01-0.07	0.03	0.00-0.08	0.04	0.01-0.12	0.08	0.01-0.67
Benzo(ghi)perylene	1.27	0.46-2.38	1.03	0.51-1.61	0.17	0.03-0.64	0.11	0.02-0.32	0.18	0.04-0.69	0.24	0.04-2.32
Coronene	0.79	0.29-1.59	0.61	0.32-0.88	0.09	0.01-0.36	0.09	0.03-0.21	0.16	0.04-0.45	0.20	0.06-1.54

Note : Sites A, B and C1 refer to the first campaign (Alghamdi et al. 2015a). Sites C2 (Abhur), D (Raybegh) and E (Rayes) refer to the second campaign. : n.d. = not determined

Table 2: (a) Coefficients of Divergence (COD) values for total PAH congeners for sites A, B and C1 (first campaign); (b) COD values for total PAH for sites C2, D and E (second campaign).

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Species	COD _{A&B}	COD _{A&C1}	COD _{B&C1}
Phenanthrene	0.250	0.459	0.433
Anthracene	0.313	0.464	0.518
Fluoranthene	0.374	0.543	0.493
Pyrene	0.406	0.728	0.676
Benzo(a)anthracene	0.399	0.611	0.691
Chrysene	0.348	0.607	0.654
Benzo(b)fluoranthene	0.227	0.685	0.674
Benzo(k)fluoranthene	0.272	0.724	0.677
Benzo(e)pyrene	0.269	0.671	0.680
Benzo(a)pyrene	0.296	0.675	0.677
Indeno(1,2,3- cd)pyrene	0.237	0.749	0.723
Dibenz(a,h)anthracene	0.356	0.769	0.677
Benzo(ghi)perylene	0.227	0.806	0.793
Coronene	0.238	0.828	0.810

(b)

Species	COD _{C2&D}	COD _{C2&E}	COD _{D&E}
Fluorene	0.430	0.398	0.314
Phenanthrene	0.250	0.474	0.253
Anthracene	0.261	0.413	0.316
Fluoranthene	0.188	0.456	0.361
Pyrene	0.291	0.480	0.447
Benzo(a)anthracene	0.414	0.471	0.342
Chrysene	0.485	0.558	0.453
Retene	0.292	0.402	0.331
Benzo(b)fluoranthene	0.155	0.305	0.374
Benzo(k)fluoranthene	0.196	0.388	0.387
Benzo(e)pyrene	0.287	0.465	0.370
Benzo(a)pyrene	0.320	0.472	0.332
Indeno(1,2,3-cd)pyrene	0.273	0.468	0.385
Dibenz(a,h)anthracene	0.364	0.564	0.408
Benzo(ghi)perylene	0.376	0.482	0.353
Coronene	0.363	0.462	0.333
COLOHEHE	0.505	0.402	0.335



- 2 Figure 1: Locations of sampling sites and the city of Jeddah. The sites are: A-refinery; B-ring
- 3 road; C-Abhur; D-Rabegh and E-Rayes.
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Figure 2: Average congener profile of PAH from both sampling campaigns at the five sites,
including both campaign data for Site C. The site C data refer to the first campaign (1) and the
Abhur data refer to the second campaign (2).



Figure 3: Air mass back trajectories to the three sites for 17 September 2013 ending at 950 mb showing the air mass running parallel to the Red Sea coast.



Figure 4: Average congener profile of PAH from the second sampling campaign including only air
samples when the air mass travelled from north-west to south-east parallel to the Red Sea coast.