

## Assessment of Air Quality in two Different Urban Localities

Al-Harbi, M.

Department of Environmental Technology Management, College for Women, Kuwait University,  
P. O. Box 5969, Kuwait, Safat 13060, Kuwait

Received 10 March 2013;

Revised 27 Aug. 2013;

Accepted 9 Sep. 2013

**ABSTRACT:** This study assesses the air quality of two urban localities, Fahaheel and Al-Rabia City, to assist local authorities to generate information supporting the planning of pollution control strategies to keep pollutants within safe limits in the long run. In terms of diurnal and seasonal variations, almost all measured pollutants exhibited two peaks: one in the morning and another in the afternoon. These two peaks resulted from numerous activities (schools, open stores, traffic, restaurants and markets, and central heating) practiced in these two cities during associated peaks hours. Nevertheless, there were noteworthy differences in air pollutants' magnitude (values) between the two cities. There were a number of exceedances of KUEPA air quality threshold values in both urban localities; the highest numbers were in NMHC and the lowest numbers were in O<sub>3</sub> and CO. No exceedances were found in SO<sub>2</sub> in Al-Rabia City. In an attempt to identify the most probable sources of air pollution, concentration roses were plotted for annual durations for both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia. Furthermore, the Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model was developed to quantify the contribution of each prevalent source to measured emission concentration. Results show that the main emission sources in Fahaheel were petroleum downstream facilities and highway traffic, which accounted for 69% and 17%, respectively. In Al-Rabia City, highway traffic and the area's commercial activity accounted for 79% and 13%, respectively.

**Key words:** Air Pollution, Diurnal variations, Monthly variations, Concentration roses, CMB model

### INTRODUCTION

It is well known that clean air is considered a key requirement for human health and well-being. Several chemicals are released into the air from natural and anthropogenic sources. Despite the fact that the introduction of cleaner technologies in both stationary and mobile sources has contributed to the reduction of air pollutants, air pollution remains a major health risk (Gryparis *et al.*, 2004; Pénard-Morand *et al.*, 2005). Thus, many environmental agencies around the world have imposed stringent emission regulations. The assessment of air quality in urban localities using available air quality data will help generate information supporting the long-term planning of pollution control strategies to keep pollutants within safe limits (Ozden *et al.*, 2008).

Several studies have investigated major gaseous pollutants such as tropospheric O<sub>3</sub>, CO, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, non-methane hydrocarbons (NM-HCs), and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). One study (Riga-Karandinos and Saitanis 2005), investigated the ambient air quality of two Greek coastal cities, Patras and Volos. Concentrations of NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> were found to be higher in Patras compared to concentrations in Volos;

this was attributed to bigger size, higher urban traffic volume, and the larger and busier harbor of Patras. In contrast, O<sub>3</sub> levels in Volos were higher than those in Patras, while no difference was found for CO levels between the two cities. Another study (Han 2010) compared the air quality data of two industrial cities, Fushun City, northeast of China, and Kokkola City, in Finland, during the period 2001-2006. Almost all the concentrated pollutants in Fushun were higher than those in Kokkola, which was ascribed to more traffic and less stringent regulation in Fushun City compared to Kokkola City. A recent study (Azmi *et al.*, 2010) were investigated the trend and status of PM<sub>10</sub>, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> at three different monitoring stations, namely, Petaling Jaya, Shah Alam, and Gombak, in the Klang Valley in Malaysia. Records show that concentrations of CO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> were higher at Petaling Jaya, which is possibly due to the impact of heavy traffic. Conversely, it was reported that concentrations of PM<sub>10</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> are related primarily to regional tropical factors, such as the impact of biomass burning and ultra violet radiation from sunlight. Moreover, Karaca *et al.* (2005) collected 86 daily aerosol samples in Istanbul between July 2002 and July 2003. Results show that the annual mean

\*Corresponding author E-mail: dr.meshari@ku.edu.kw

concentration of  $PM_{2.5}$  was  $20.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , which is higher than the United States EPA standard of  $15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ .

Numerous types of reactions are involved in the formation of air pollutants, and these reactions have engaged researchers' attention for many years. Tropospheric  $O_3$  and other photochemicals are known not only to have detrimental effects and threaten human health (WHO 2003; Mulholland *et al.*, 1998), but they also have a close association with increases in particle air pollution ( $PM_{10}$ ) (Meng *et al.*, 1997; Mulholland *et al.*, 1998; Ying and Kleeman 2003). Furthermore, the conversion of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_2$  to particulate sulfate and nitrate is the main characteristic of urban photochemical reaction (Monn and Shaepi 1993; Matsumoto *et al.*, 1998). Sulphate and nitrate are key precursors to nitric and sulfuric acids, which cause acidification of soil and water, a decrease in visibility, and an increase in respiratory diseases among the human population (Riga-Karadinos and Saitanis 2005). Dilution and dispersion of air pollution depends on various factors, including weather conditions (meteorological conditions), topography and the local situation (Wijeratne and Bijker 2006). These factors cause large variation, even in small areas and control numerous photochemical reactions in the atmosphere that wheels the life span and cycle of respective pollutants. Ghazali *et al.* (2009) investigated the transformation of  $NO_2$  into  $O_3$  in the urban environment of Malaysia using a time series plot. The authors found that variations in  $O_3$  amounts are closely related to temperature, with colder temperatures resulting in more polar stratospheric clouds and lower ozone levels. Another study (Khan and Al-Salem, 2007) also studied the impacts of meteorological conditions on three pollutants: methane ( $CH_4$ ), benzene ( $C_6H_6$ ), and  $NO_x$  for three years in an urban area in Kuwait. The study reported seasonal variations in the measured air pollutants, induced by changing meteorological conditions.

In the present work, the air quality of two different urban localities, Fahaheel and Al-Rabia, is assessed and a comparison is made between the two cities, particularly with respect to  $NO_2$ ,  $O_3$ , CO, NMHCs, and  $SO_2$ . The comparison is made based on the exceedances of the Kuwait Environment Public Authority (KUEPA) air quality threshold values, diurnal and seasonal variations, concentrations roses, and sources that contribute to emissions. The contribution of each prevalent source was quantified using the Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model.

## MATERIALS & METHODS

In this study, the air pollutant level and pattern for two cities, Fahaheel and Al-Rabia, are compared. The

two locations of observation are shown in Fig.1. Fahaheel City is situated south of Kuwait City and has a population of about 102,000. The city is significantly polluted by a large number of small, medium, and large industries and vehicular traffic. It is bounded in the west by one of the largest highways (Road No.30) in Kuwait, which connects central Kuwait to the southern parts of the city. On the east side, Fahaheel is surrounded by seashore, which encompasses Al-Ahmad harbor and shopping malls. It is bounded on the south side by three large petroleum refineries, one of which has the highest oil capacity in Kuwait. The nearest refinery is Mina Al-Ahmadi. Numerous small, medium, and large petrochemical industries are situated in the south. One of the most important pollution sources and the second-largest oil field in the world in the southern part of Fahaheel is the Greater Burgan field. Al-Rabia City is situated south west of central Kuwait and has a population of about 35,000. Two of the largest major highways surround Al-Rabia City: the fifth ring road from the north, and the sixth ring road from the south. Another highway to the east connects Kuwait International Airport to the rest of the city. The Shuwaikh industrial area, consisting mainly of car repair garages, glass and tire workshops, and other small workshops, is located north of Rabia. Rabia is surrounded by Doha Power Station on the northwest side and by a waste-water treatment plant on the southwest side, in Al-Ardiya. Kuwait International Airport is located on the southeast side of Al-Rabia.

All hourly concentrations of  $NO_2$ ,  $O_3$ , CO, NMHCs, and  $SO_2$  for the two urban localities, Fahaheel and Al-Rabia, for 2009 have been provided by the Air Pollution Monitoring Division of the Kuwait Environment Public Authority (KUEPA). KUEPA monitoring stations are located on the roof of polyclinic buildings in the center of Fahaheel and Al-Rabia cities.

The average diurnal profiles and seasonal variations were constructed for each pollutant along with their descriptive statistics using Statistica 6 software. Subsequently, the exceedances of the limits/threshold values set by KUEPA were calculated. Concentration roses of air pollutants and the Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model were performed using advanced Microsoft Excel add-ins programs.

## RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Table 1 lists the descriptive statistics, the maximum, minimum, average, and standard deviation (SD), and the coefficient of variation (CV), of  $O_3$ ,  $NO_2$ , CO, NMHC, and  $SO_2$  in both Fahaheel and Rabia cities. Measured concentration values of the selected pollutants have been compared with the limit and guide values specified



**Fig. 1. Image of two localities**

by guidelines of the KUEPA Law 210/2001 (KUEPA 2001) to estimate the number of violations. The numbers of exceedances were estimated and are listed in Table 1.

The annual average concentration of  $\text{NO}_2$  recorded in Fahaheel City was  $43 \pm 30$  (SD) ppb, with a maximum value of 485.8 ppb. In Al-Rabia City, the annual average concentration of  $\text{NO}_2$  was about  $25.4 \pm 20$  ppb, with a maximum value of 170.3 ppb. It is obvious from the

$\text{NO}_2$  descriptive statistics (Table 1) that the level in Fahaheel City was higher than that in Al-Rabia City. This is likely due to numerous activities that form  $\text{NO}_2$  in Fahaheel City compared to Al-Rabia City. This will be discussed in detail below. KUEPA has set a limit of 100 ppb as an hourly rolling average for ground level  $\text{NO}_2$  to reduce its detrimental health impact. In Fahaheel City, 320 exceedances per year were recorded during 2009 for the short-term (one hour) limit, while only 43 exceedances were observed in Al-Rabia City (Table 1).

**Table 1. Descriptive statistics, KUEPA limit, and number of exceedances of air pollutants in both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia cities**

| Pollutants                  |      | Fahaheel | Al-Rabia | KUEPA limit           | Number of exceedances* |          |
|-----------------------------|------|----------|----------|-----------------------|------------------------|----------|
|                             |      |          |          |                       | Fahaheel               | Al-Rabia |
| <b>NO<sub>2</sub> (ppb)</b> | Max. | 485.8    | 170.3    | 100 ppb <sup>a</sup>  | 320                    | 43       |
|                             | Min. | 0.08     | 0.08     |                       |                        |          |
|                             | Ave. | 43       | 25.4     |                       |                        |          |
|                             | S.D. | 30       | 20       |                       |                        |          |
|                             | C.V. | 0.71     | 0.8      |                       |                        |          |
| <b>O<sub>3</sub> (ppb)</b>  | Max. | 91.7     | 110.8    | 80 ppb <sup>a</sup>   | 3                      | 10       |
|                             | Min. | 0.08     | 0.083    |                       |                        |          |
|                             | Ave. | 16.5     | 15       |                       |                        |          |
|                             | S.D. | 14       | 12       |                       |                        |          |
|                             | C.V. | 0.9      | 0.8      |                       |                        |          |
| <b>CO (ppm)</b>             | Max. | 44.3     | 9.4      | 8 ppm <sup>b</sup>    | 3                      | 4        |
|                             | Min. | 0.02     | 0.01     |                       |                        |          |
|                             | Ave. | 1.1      | 1.1      |                       |                        |          |
|                             | S.D. | 0.9      | 0.9      |                       |                        |          |
|                             | C.V. | 0.9      | 0.9      |                       |                        |          |
| <b>NMHC (ppm)</b>           | Max. | 15.7     | 6.3      | 0.24 ppm <sup>c</sup> | 1227                   | 1039     |
|                             | Min. | 0.001    | 0.001    |                       |                        |          |
|                             | Ave. | 0.7      | 0.4      |                       |                        |          |
|                             | S.D. | 0.8      | 0.37     |                       |                        |          |
|                             | C.V. | 1.0      | 0.86     |                       |                        |          |
| <b>SO<sub>2</sub> (ppb)</b> | Max. | 272.3    | 141.8    | 170 ppb <sup>a</sup>  | 15                     | none     |
|                             | Min. | 0.08     | 0.08     |                       |                        |          |
|                             | Ave. | 13.3     | 4.9      |                       |                        |          |
|                             | S.D. | 17.9     | 6.7      |                       |                        |          |
|                             | C.V. | 1.3      | 1.4      |                       |                        |          |

a: Hourly, b: Daily, c: Set a daily permissible for the period 6-9 am.

In the case of O<sub>3</sub>, the annual average concentration of O<sub>3</sub> in both urban cities was below the hourly limit (80 ppb) set by KUEPA. The annual average concentration of O<sub>3</sub> was 16.5 ± 14 ppb in Fahaheel City, and 15 ± 12 ppb in Al-Rabia City. There was high seasonal variation in the concentration of O<sub>3</sub> in both urban cities; the coefficients of variation (CV) were 0.9 and 0.8 in Fahaheel and Al-Rabia, respectively. For O<sub>3</sub>, KUEPA has set an hourly limit of 80 ppb. Three exceedances per year were observed in Fahaheel City, while 10 exceedances per year were recorded in Al-Rabia City, as shown in Table 1.

As for CO, the annual average concentration in both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia cities was identical (1.1 ± 0.9 ppm) (Table 1). The maximum concentrations in both urban cities were observed in the winter months (December and January), while minimum concentrations were noticed in the summer months (June and July). The highest concentrations of CO in both cities were noticed at 6:30 am and 8:00 pm. This is attributed to the increase in vehicular traffic at these times (Lal *et al.*, 2000; Beig *et al.*, 2007). Similar

observations were made in both Kolkata and Haldia, in the northeast of India (Purkait *et al.*, 2009). To limit increases in the level of CO, KUEPA has set a limit of 8 ppm as a daily rolling average for ground level CO. Exceedances in the CO limit were the least compared with other pollutants. Three violations were recorded in Fahaheel City and four were recorded in Al-Rabia City in 2009 (Table 1).

The statistical measurements of non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC) are also listed in Table 1. The annual average concentration levels were 0.7 ± 0.8 ppm and 0.43 ± 0.4 ppm in both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia cities, respectively. The level of NMHC in Fahaheel was higher than that in Al-Rabia, mainly due to petroleum and petrochemical industries downstream of Fahaheel City. KUEPA has set a daily permissible limit (0.24 ppm) for the period 6-9 am for NMHC. The number of exceedances in NMHC was the highest among all other pollutants in both urban cities. The number of violations in Fahaheel was 1227 compared to 1039 violations in Al-Rabia City. Unlike other pollutants, NMHC needs special attention from local authorities to protect human health, animals, and vegetation.

The sulfur dioxide ( $\text{SO}_2$ ) level in both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia cities was also monitored, and statistical descriptions are listed in Table 1. The annual average concentration of  $\text{SO}_2$  was 13.3 ppb in Fahaheel City, and 4.9 ppb in Al-Rabia City.  $\text{SO}_2$  variations were the highest among other pollutants; CV was 1.3 in Fahaheel City and 1.4 in Al-Rabia City. The permissible KUEPA hourly rolling average for  $\text{SO}_2$  is 170 ppb. In terms of exceedance, 15 exceedances were observed for  $\text{SO}_2$  in Fahaheel City whereas no exceedances were recorded in Al-Rabia City. Again, Fahaheel City is bounded by petroleum and petrochemical industries downstream in addition to vehicular traffic sources. This would in turn increase the level of  $\text{SO}_2$  in Fahaheel City compared with Al-Rabia City.

Diurnal mean concentrations and monthly variations of  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , CO, NMHC, and  $\text{SO}_2$  have been assessed for both Fahaheel and Rabia cities for the sake of comparison. The results are shown in Fig. 2. In terms of diurnal patterns, it is evident from Fig. 2 that almost all measured pollutants exhibited two peaks: one in the morning and another in the afternoon. These two peaks originated from various activities (schools, open stores, traffic, restaurants and markets, and central heating), and occurred in these two cities during associated peak hours. For  $\text{SO}_2$ , there was a discrepancy in its diurnal patterns in both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia City. This could be ascribed to the different activities and sources in each city as will be illustrated in the CMB section below.

Differences in the magnitude of air pollutants between the two cities are, of course, clear and significant as illustrated in Fig. 2. Formation of  $\text{NO}_2$  in the atmosphere results from complex reactions between oxides of nitrogen,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and ozone (Leksmono *et al.*, 2006). The  $\text{NO}_2$  level in Fahaheel City (Fig. 2, left) was higher than that in Al-Rabia City. Such increases in the  $\text{NO}_2$  level in Fahaheel City could probably be ascribed to its bigger size and thus its bigger population of urban residents, and secondly and most importantly, its large and busier eastern harbor and neighboring industrial complex. The high level of  $\text{NO}_2$  in both cities was observed during cooler periods in Kuwait (January-March and October-December). This observation is consistent with previous studies (Riga-Karadinos and Saitanis 2005; Al-Salem 2007) as solar radiation intensity decreases in the cooler months, the extent of photochemical reactions would reduce  $\text{NO}/\text{NO}_2$  destruction. It is important to mention that similar observations were also noted for NO, but for the sake of brevity, only  $\text{NO}_2$  is discussed in this study.

CO results from incomplete combustion of natural gas, diesel, or gasoline in traffic engines, and point

sources include industrial processes, non-transportation fuel combustion, and natural sources such as wild forest fires. The diurnal patterns of CO along with monthly variations for both urban localities are shown in Fig. 2. Like  $\text{NO}_2$ , two CO peaks were observed at an exactly similar time to those observed with  $\text{NO}_2$ , and inversely to the ozone pattern. In contrast to  $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ , CO levels in Al-Rabia City were higher than Fahaheel. CO levels increased gradually throughout the year in the Al-Rabia urban area. The high level of CO in the Al-Rabia area could be likely due to the large number of road networks, resulting in high traffic congestion and then higher emission (Han and Naehar 2006). CO levels in Fahaheel City were also high, but less than in Al-Rabia City. Potential sources of CO in Fahaheel City are incomplete crude oil burning as well as emissions in upstream facilities and flaring, which result in such accumulations of CO in the ambient air. In both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia cities, CO levels reached a maximum in winter and a minimum in summer. This is mainly due to seasonal variations in the rates of CO production and removal (Lyman and Jensen 2001).

$\text{O}_3$  is a secondary pollutant, formed in the presence of sunlight,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and a pre-cursor VOCs. As mentioned above, the  $\text{NO}/\text{NO}_2$  concentration in Fahaheel City was higher than that in Al-Rabia City, and since  $\text{O}_3$  build-up is highly dependent on the  $\text{NO}/\text{NO}_2$  level, it would be expected that  $\text{O}_3$  formation is higher in Fahaheel City. As shown in Fig. 2, the  $\text{O}_3$  level was also found to be higher in Fahaheel City compared with Al-Rabia City. In both cities, two peaks for  $\text{O}_3$  were detected: the first peak was found at around 1:30-2:00 am, while the second peak was observed from 12:00-2:00 pm. The first  $\text{O}_3$  peak (1:30-2:00 am) is believed to have been the result of tropospheric oxidation reactions of CO in the presence of sufficient  $\text{NO}/\text{NO}_2$ . Comparing the diurnal patterns of  $\text{O}_3$  and CO (Fig. 2), it is apparent that depletion of CO induces the formation of  $\text{O}_3$  during non-photochemistry hours (1:30-2:00 am). As time passes and reaches about 7:00 am, the intensity of sunlight increases and gradually triggers photochemical reactions of ozone formation, until it reaches maxima at noon (12:00-2:00 pm), when maximum sunlight intensity is reached. This is the main cause of the second  $\text{O}_3$  peak observed in both cities, as shown in Fig. 2. Few discrepancies in the  $\text{O}_3$  diurnal pattern in Al-Rabia City could be attributed to high traffic emissions during traffic congestion compared with Fahaheel. The increased traffic emissions would induce competitive reactions, with more favorable reactions towards the higher concentration of pollutants. The high CO concentration in Al-Rabia City (Fig. 2) could explain discrepancies in the  $\text{O}_3$  diurnal pattern. It is

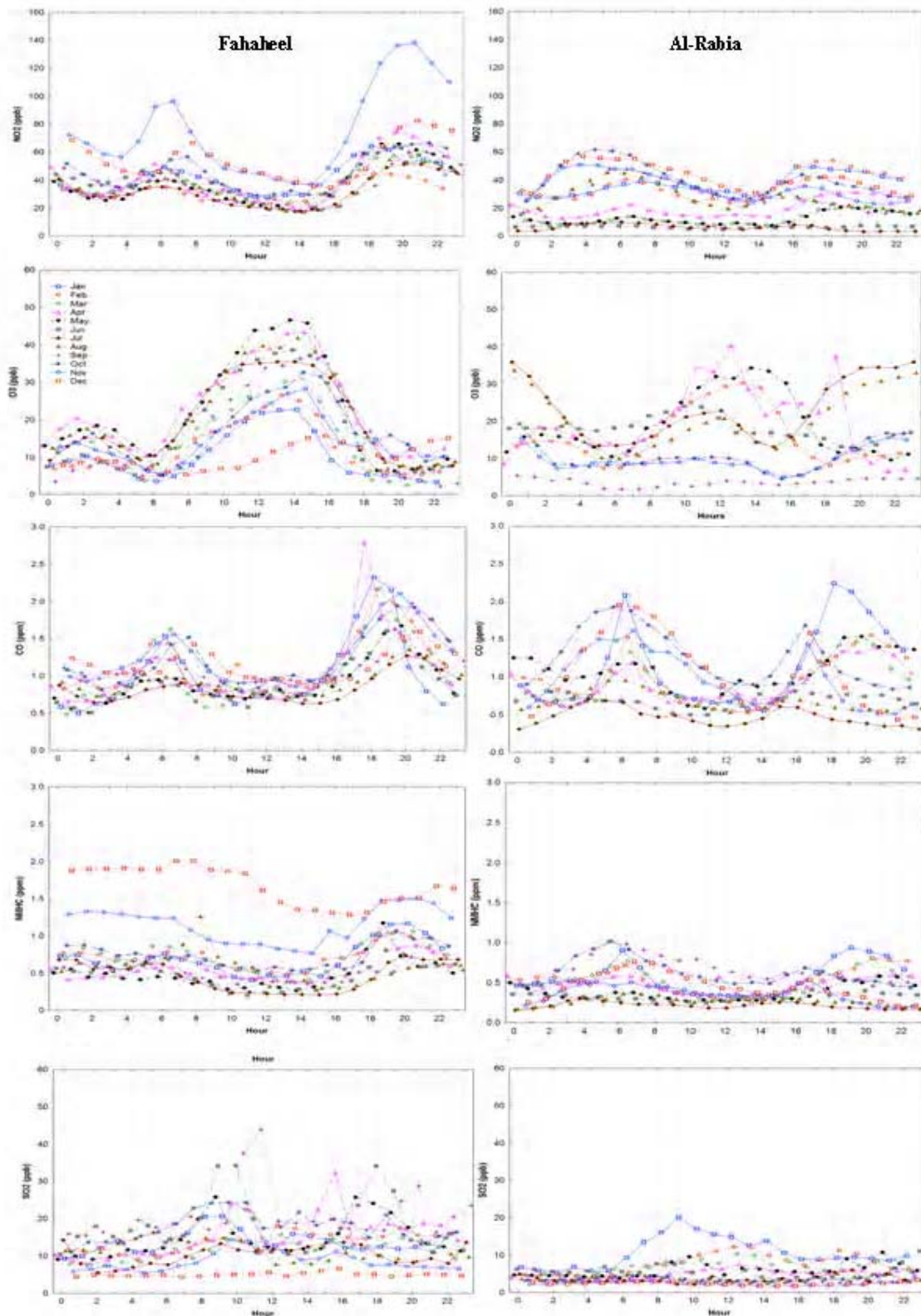


Fig. 3. Annual wind rose plot for year 2009 for (a) Fahaheel urban area, (b) Al-Rabia urban area

also important to note that CO levels revealed an inverse to O<sub>3</sub> seasonal fluctuation, with a maximum occurring in winter and a minimum in summer. These seasonal fluctuations could be enhanced by the seasonal variations due to lower temperature and a shallow planetary boundary layer.

NMHC forms from incomplete combustion of hydrocarbon fuels either from traffic engines and/or different petroleum and petrochemical activities. The diurnal variation NMHC for the 12 months for both urban cities is shown in Fig. 2. Similar to other pollutants, two peaks were a feature for both cities. The NMHC values in Fahaheel City were always higher than those in Al-Rabia City. This indeed was expected since Fahaheel City is surrounded by various petroleum and petrochemical industries beside highways. The concentration of NMHC in Fahaheel City starts increasing from October, attaining maxima in December, then decreasing and attaining minima in May. For Al-Rabia City, the concentration of NMHC starts increasing from September, attaining maxima in October, then decreasing and attaining minima in July. It is clear that maximum levels of NMHC in both cities were recorded in the cooler months, as high temperatures in hot months induce the dispersion of air pollutants, and hence the concentration at certain receptor points are quite low.

The diurnal patterns of SO<sub>2</sub> in different months of the year in both localities are shown in Fig. 2. The SO<sub>2</sub> levels in Fahaheel City were higher than those in Al-Rabia City. One plausible reason for the high SO<sub>2</sub> emission in Fahaheel City compared to Al-Rabia City may be the differences in emission sources. Another plausible reason is the high formation of O<sub>3</sub> inducing the formation of SO<sub>2</sub> levels. A study by Khoder (2002) shows that the oxidation processes and conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate depend on photochemical oxidation and that the sulfur conversion ratio increases with increasing ozone concentration. The higher O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in Fahaheel City may contribute to a higher conversion ratio of sulfur than in Al-Rabia, where higher values of SO<sub>2</sub> were observed. Moreover, downstream petroleum and petrochemical industries can both be potential causes for the increased levels of SO<sub>2</sub> in Fahaheel City compared to Al-Rabia City. In these facilities, chemical processes automatically release SO<sub>2</sub> from stacks in refineries, which eventually increase SO<sub>2</sub> levels in the atmosphere, which is indeed observed in this study.

In attempting to determine the most probable emission sources, a series of concentration roses for air pollutants were plotted based on hourly data for 2009 for the Fahaheel and Al-Rabia areas. Concentration roses were plotted in 16 sectors ( $\pi/8$  or 22.5°) based on

the predominant wind direction, which helped identify the most probable source. The concentration roses of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NMHC, and SO<sub>2</sub> in Fahaheel City have an identical pattern, which was also observed in Al-Rabia City. This is mainly due to the prevalent wind direction identifying the main contributors to the bulk of the concentration rose for year 2009. Thus, for the sake of brevity, only NO<sub>2</sub> concentration roses will be compared between Fahaheel and Al-Rabia.

Figs 3 a and b show the wind roses plotted for the residential areas of Fahaheel and Al-Rabia. The prevailing winds in both cities were strongly northwest winds (~28-32% of time) and mild south to southeasterly winds (~27-31% of time). NO<sub>2</sub> concentration roses for pollutants were plotted for both the Fahaheel and Al-Rabia areas, respectively, and are shown in Figs 4a and b. In the Fahaheel area (Fig. 4a), NO<sub>2</sub> emissions directions showed similar trends to wind. The south, southwest, and southeast of Fahaheel have all the petroleum downstream facilities in addition to background concentrations resulting from inner roads, vehicle emissions, and power station emissions. Residents of Fahaheel would be susceptible to high level concentrations from petroleum downstream facilities and power station emissions when winds are blowing from the southeast direction. While, people would be vulnerable to high vehicular emissions when winds are blowing from the northwest direction. In Al-Rabia (Fig. 4b), NO<sub>2</sub> levels reaching 136 ppb blew from the west and 127 ppb blew from the south. Low to medium strength winds blowing from the northwest direction, where power stations is located, towards highly populated residential areas of Rabia would definitely increase pollution levels that can ultimately have detrimental impacts on the health of the people living there. The most likely emission sources in Rabia include airplanes landing and taking off from the nearby runway, main highways connecting the area to other parts of the city, and traffic emissions from the 6<sup>th</sup> highway road.

Receptor modeling is a technique that uses the chemical speciation of air pollutants collected at a receptor to gain knowledge about the contribution of potential sources to the ambient concentration of air pollutants and their chemical composition (Pandolfi *et al.*, 2008). The Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model is among these effective receptor-oriented models that are widely used to evaluate the effects of source emissions (Hopke 1991; Mazzera *et al.*, 2001; Watson *et al.*, 2002; Samara *et al.*, 2003).

The CMB modeling procedure requires solving mass balance equations expressing measured ambient air pollutant concentrations as the sum of products

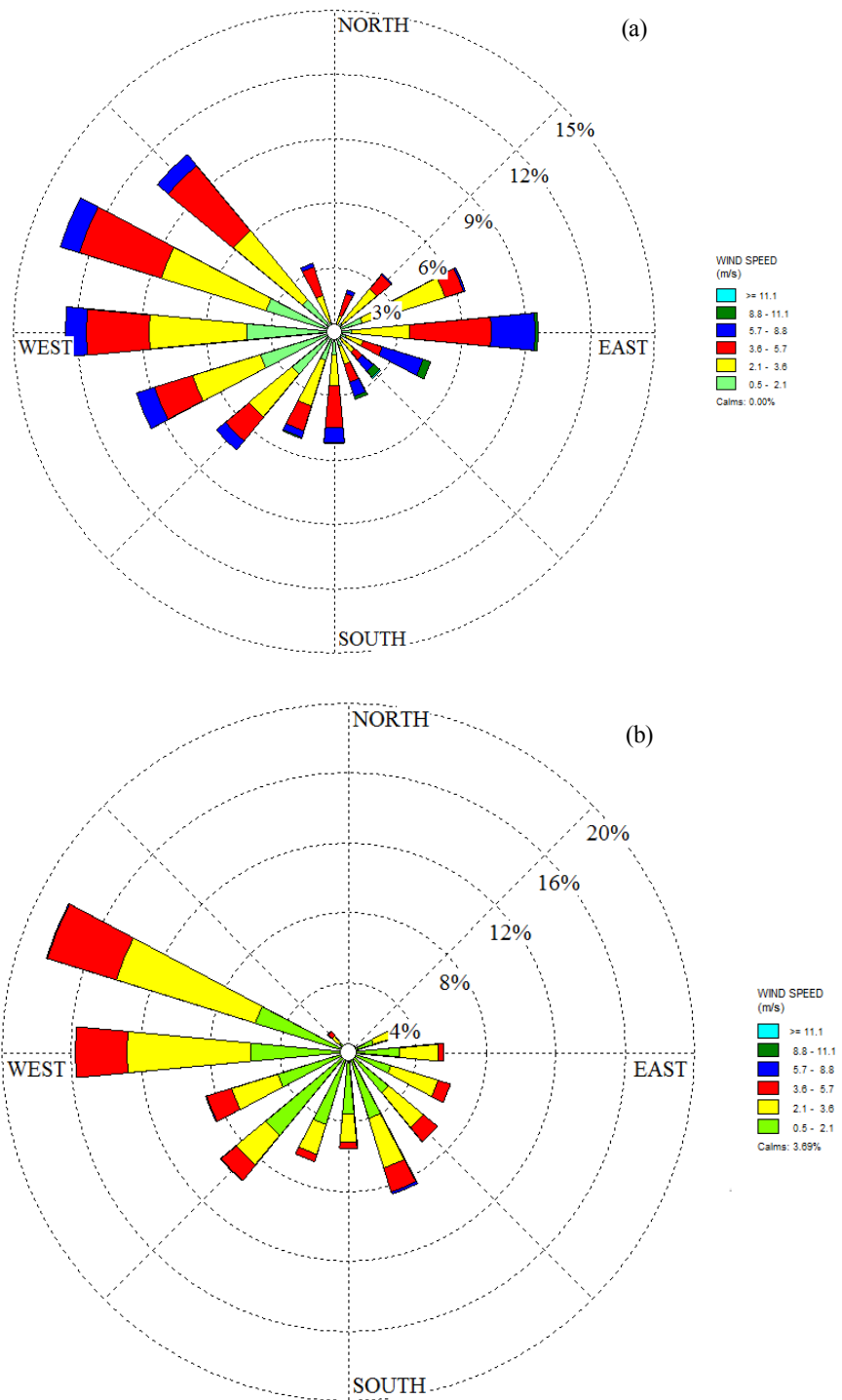


Fig. 3. Annual wind rose plot for year 2001 for (a) Fahaheel urban area, (b) Al-Rabia urban area



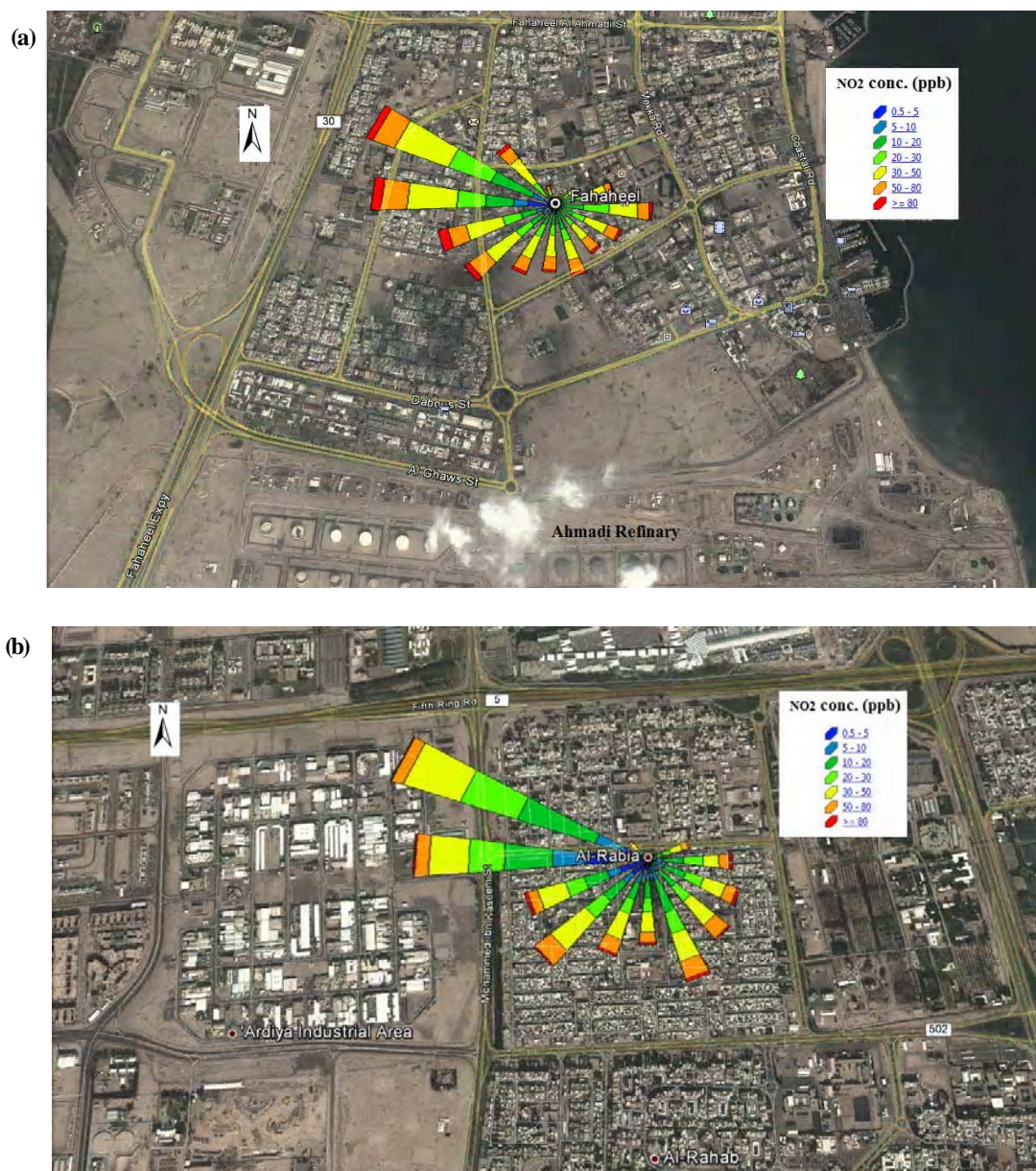


Fig. 4. Annual NO<sub>2</sub> (ppb) accumulated concentration rose plotted for the year 2009 for (a) Fahaheel urban area, (b) Al-Rabia urban area

between the source contributions and the air pollutant abundances in the source emissions. Equation 1 is used in the CMB model to express the relation between the concentrations of chemical species measured at the receptor point and chemicals emitted from the source.

$$\Delta C_i = \sum F_{ij} - S_i \quad (1)$$

Where  $\Delta C_i$  is the difference in concentration of chemical compound  $i$  at the receptor point;  $F_{ij}$  is the

fraction of concentration of species  $i$  starting from source  $j$ ; and  $S_i$  is the concentration of pollutant  $i$  at the receptor point. To ease the analysis part of the constructed CMB model, the sector's position distribution around both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia (receptor points) were identified and are shown in Table 2.

In addition to air pollutant abundances in the source emissions, wind speed and its direction are considered in the CMB model to estimate their

**Table 2. Position distribution around outdoor data collection point in Fahaheel and Al-Rabia urban areas**

| Fahaheel City       |  |
|---------------------|--|
| Position in degrees | Source   |
| 0-135               | Commercial area  |
| 136-255             | Refineries, petroleum, and petrochemical industries            |
| 256-300             | Oil production facilities (Burgan)                             |
| 301-360             | Traffic line sources (Highway), gas stations, and sports clubs |
| Al-Rabia City       |  |
| 300-130             | Commercial area  |
| 130-170             | Refineries, petroleum and petrochemical industries             |
| Others              | Traffic line sources (Highway), gas stations, and sports clubs |

percentage contribution. The contribution of wind speed to the source was estimated with the following equation

$$\%WS_i = (k_i / K) \times 100 \quad (2)$$

Where %WS<sub>i</sub> is the percentage contribution of wind speed with respect to source i; k<sub>i</sub> is the summation of wind speed points collected with respect to source i in (m/s); and K is the total summation of wind speed points in (m/s) excluding calm periods.

The CMB model serves as an effective-variance least-squares solution to the linear combination of the product of the source contribution and its concentration (Watson *et al.*, 1984).

A linear objective function (Eq. 3) is also used in the CMB model to match the concentrations at the major sources (receptor points) considered. Equation 3 represents the total cumulative concentration of a pollutant to be matched.

$$LF = \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^n C_i . WS_i . SC_i - \sum_{i=1}^n C_i . WS_i . SC_i \quad (3)$$

Where L.F. is the linear function set to match the percentage contribution of each source; C<sub>i</sub> is the concentration of airborne chemical i at a certain source or receptor point; %WS<sub>i</sub> is the percentage wind speed contribution at a certain wind direction range for source i; %SC<sub>i</sub> is the percentage source contribution for a source I; i represents pollutants; and j sources.

The source apportionment results from the CMB analysis, based on the measured concentration of air pollutants from the Fahaheel and Al-Rabia areas are briefly compared in Table 3.

According to the presented results in Table 3, petroleum refineries and petrochemical industries (petroleum downstream facilities) account collectively for 69% of the total air pollutants in Fahaheel City.

**Table 3. %source contribution in Fahaheel and Al-Rabia urban areas based on CMB model results averaged over the period of the study**

| Source                          | Fahaheel                | Al-Rabia                |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
|                                 | (% source contribution) | (% source contribution) |
| Petroleum downstream facilities | 69                      | -                       |
| Petroleum upstream facilities   | 3                       | -                       |
| Highway (Traffic)               | 17                      | 79                      |
| Area's commercial               | 6                       | 13                      |
| Miscellaneous sources           | 5                       | 8                       |

This indeed was expected due to the geographical location of Fahaheel City, which is bounded by petroleum refineries and petrochemical industries in the southern part. The lowest source contribution to total air pollutants in Fahaheel City was the upstream facilities of the Greater Burgan area (petroleum upstream facilities), which only contributed 3% of total air pollutants. This is possibly due to the far distance and strong winds, which ultimately disperse gaseous pollutants away from the selected urban area. As for Al-Rabia City, highway (traffic) was found to contribute the most (79%) to air pollutants, compared to 17% in Fahaheel City. Again, the high contribution of highway (traffic) in Al-Rabia City is truly expected. Al-Rabia City is an urban community surrounded by the main arteries of a road network that is intensely influenced by traffic pollution. It is bounded by the 5<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> ring roads from the north and south, respectively, and in the east, a highway connects Kuwait port to the rest of the city. These road networks around Al-Rabia City are characterized by traffic congestion, which is the ultimate source of air pollution.

Applying the CMB model enhances our knowledge about emission sources in Fahaheel and Al-Rabia. Such an approach would definitely help local authorities to pay more attention toward these sources in order to reduce human health impacts by these air pollutants as there is consensus in previous epidemiological studies about their human health effects.

## CONCLUSIONS

Diurnal and seasonal variations of NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, CO, non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC), and SO<sub>2</sub> of two urban cities, Fahaheel and Al-Rabia, were compared in this study for the entire year of 2009. Regarding diurnal patterns, it is apparent that almost all measured pollutants exhibited two peaks: one in the morning and another in the afternoon. These peaks, which occurred during associated peak hours in the two cities, originated from various activities (schools, open stores, traffic, restaurants and markets, and central heating). However, there were significant differences in the magnitude (values) of air pollutants between the two cities. In terms of exceedances of the Kuwait Environment Public Authority's (KUEPA) air quality threshold values, the number of exceedances in Fahaheel City was as follows: 320 for NO<sub>2</sub>, 3 for O<sub>3</sub>, 3 for CO, 1227 for NMHC, and 15 for SO<sub>2</sub>. This compares with 43 for NO<sub>2</sub>, 10 for O<sub>3</sub>, 4 for CO, 1039 for NMHC, and none for SO<sub>2</sub> in Al-Rabia City. To identify the most probable sources of air pollution concentration, roses were plotted for annual durations for both Fahaheel and Al-Rabia. The contribution of each prevalent

source was quantified using the Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) model. The major emission sources in Fahaheel were petroleum downstream facilities and highway traffic, which accounted for 69% and 17%, respectively. In Al-Rabia City, highway traffic and the area's commercial area accounted for 79% and 13%, respectively.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author would like to thank the Kuwait Environment Public Authority (KUEPA), Air Pollution Monitoring Division for help in data measurements and for their continuous support.

## REFERENCES

- Al-Salem, S. (2007). Methane dispersion modeling and source determination around Fahaheel urban area. MSc. thesis, chemical engineering department, Kuwait university, Kuwait.
- Azmi, S., Latif, M., Ismail, A., Juneng, L. and Jemain, A. (2010). Trend and status of air quality at three different monitoring stations in the Klang Valley, Malaysia. *Air Qual Atmos Health*, **3**, 53–64.
- Beig, G., Gunthe, S. and Jadhav, D. (2007). Simulations measurements of ozone and its precursor on a diurnal scale at a semi urban site in India. *Journal atmospheric chemistry*, **57**, 239-253.
- Ghazali, N., Ramli, N. and Yahaya, A. (2009). A study to investigate and model the transformation of nitrogen dioxide into ozone using time series plot. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, **37** (2), 192-205.
- Gryparis, A., Forsberg, B., Katsouyanni, K., Analitis, A., Touloumi, G. and Schwartz, J. (2004). Acute effects of ozone on mortality from the air pollution and health: a European approach project. *Am J Respir. Crit. Care Med.*, **170** (10), 1080–1087.
- Han, D. (2010). Air quality monitoring, Fushun-Kokkola. PhD Thesis. Central Ostrobothnia University of applied sciences.
- Han, X. and Naeher, L. (2006). A review of traffic-related air pollution exposure assessment studies in the developing world. *Environment International*, **32**, 106–120.
- Hopke, P. (1991). Receptor Modeling for Air Quality Management. Elsevier Science, Amsterdam.
- Karaca, F., Al-Agha, O. and Ertürk, F. (2005). Statistical characterization of atmospheric PM10 and PM2.5 concentration at a non-impacted suburban Site of Istanbul, Turkey. *Chemosphere*, **59**, 1183–1190.
- Karandinos, R., Nelly, A. and Constantine, S. (2005). Comparative assessment of ambient air quality in two typical Mediterranean coastal cities in Greece. *Chemosphere*, **59**, 1125-1136.
- Khan, A. and Al-Salem, S. (2007). Seasonal variation effect on airborne pollutants in an urban area of the state of Kuwait. *J. Environ. Res. Devel.*, **1** (3), 215-218.

- Khoder, M. (2002). Atmospheric conversion of sulfur dioxide to particulate sulfate and nitrogen dioxide to particulate nitrate and gaseous nitric acid in an urban area. *Chemosphere*, **49**, 675–684.
- KUEPA, (2001). KUEPA rules & regulations. Kuwait Al-Youm. Appendix 533, KWT Gov. Press, law 210/2001.
- Lal, S., Naja, M. and Subbaraya, B. (2000). Seasonal variations in surface ozone and its precursors over an urban site in India. *Atmospheric Environment*, **34**, 2713–2724.
- Leksmono, N., Longhurst, J., Ling, K., Chatterson, T., Fisher, B. and Irwin, J. (2006). Assessment of the relationship between industrial and traffic sources contributing to air quality objective exceedance: a theoretical modeling exercise. *Environmental Modeling & Software*, **21**, 494–500.
- Lyman, J. and Jensen, R. (2001). Chemical Reactions occurring during direct solar reduction of CO<sub>2</sub>. *Sci., Total Environ.*, **277**, 7–14.
- Matsumoto, K., Naggo, I., Tanaka, H., Miyaji, H., Iida, K., and Ikebe, Y. (1998). Seasonal characteristics of organic and inorganic species and their size distributions in atmospheric aerosols over the northwest Pacific Ocean. *Atmos. Environ.*, **32**, 131–1946.
- Mazzera, D., Lowenthal, D., Chow, J. and Watson, J. G. (2001). Sources of PM<sub>10</sub> and sulfate aerosol at McMurdo Station, Antarctica. *Chemosphere*, **45**, 347–356.
- Meng, Z., Dabdub, D. and Seinfeld, J. (1997). Chemical Coupling between Atmospheric Ozone and Particulate Matter., *Science*, **277**, 116–119
- Monn, C., and Shaepi, G. (1993). Concentrations of total suspended particulates, fine particles and their anionic compounds in ambient air and indoor air. *Environ. Tech.*, **14**, 869–875.
- Mulholland, J., Butler, A., Wilkinson, J. and Russell, A. (1998). Temporal and Spatial Distributions of Ozone in Atlanta: Regulatory and Epidemiologic Implications. *J. Air & Waste Management Association*, **48**, 418–426.
- Pénard-Morand, C., Charpi, D., Raheison, C., Kopferschmitt, C., Caillaud, D. and Lavaud, F. (2005). Long-term exposure to background air pollution related to respiratory and allergic health in school children. *ClinExp Allergy*, **35** (10), 1279–1287.
- Purkait, N., De, S., Sen, S. and Chakrabarty, D. (2009). Surface ozone and its precursors at two sites in the northeast coast of India. *Indian Journal of Radio and Space Physics*, **38**, 86–97.
- Samara, C., Kouimtzi, T., Tsitouridou, R., Kaniass, G. and Simeonov, V. (2003). Chemical mass balance source apportionment of PM<sub>10</sub> in an industrialized urban area of Northern Greece. *Atmospheric Environment*, **37**, 41–54.
- Watson, J., Cooper, J., and Huntzicker, J. (1984). The effective variance weighting for least squares calculations applied to the mass balance receptor model. *Atmos. Environ.*, **18**, 1347–1355.
- Watson, J., Zhu, T., Chow, J., Engelbrecht, J., Fujita, E. and Wilson, W. (2002). Receptor modeling application framework for particle source apportionment. *Chemosphere*, **49**, 1093–1136.
- Wijeratne, I. and Bijker, W. (2006). Mapping dispersion of urban air pollution with remote sensing. ISPRS Technical Commission II Symposium, Vienna, 12–14 July 2006. *International Archives of Photogrammetry, Remote Sensing, and Spatial Information Sciences Vol. XXXVI - Part 2*.
- WHO, (2003). World Health Organization, Health aspects of air pollution with particulate matter, ozone and nitrogen dioxide. Report on a WHO Working Group, Regional Office for Europe; Bonn, Germany, EUR/03/5042688.
- Ying, Q. and Kleeman, M. (2003). Effect of aerosol UV extinction on the formation of ozone and secondary particulate matter. *Atmospheric Environment*, **37**, 5047–5068.