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The challenges of using polyethylene passive samplers to determine dissolved concentrations of parent and alkylated PAHs under cold and saline conditions

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The challenges of using polyethylene passive samplers to determine dissolved concentrations of parent and alkylated PAHs under cold and saline conditions

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23 simulated marine oil spill in the laboratory, PE-based results were within a factor of 2 for the 24 most abundant PAHs compared to conventional sampling results.

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26 **INTRODUCTION**

27 The dangers of drilling for oil in the marine environment were recently realized in April 28 2010 when 4.9 billion barrels of oil were released into the Gulf of Mexico. Over a year later, it 29 is thought the majority of the oil has been cleaned up or degraded by bacteria that inhabit the 30 warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico.^{1,2} In contrast, the Exxon Valdez oil spill occurred in 1989, 31 releasing over 11 million gallons of crude oil onto the shores of the Alaskan coastline. It is 32 estimated that 21,000 gallons of oil still persist today, over twenty years after the spill occurred, 33 with contested remaining toxicity.^{3,4} The Arctic is a unique environment and it is still not 34 understood how spilled oil behaves there. As interest in expanding vessel traffic, as well as the 35 exploration of oil and gas reserves in the Arctic increases, so does the need to better understand the impact of oil spills to this unique environment.⁵ 36

37 Passive samplers have been proven to accumulate compounds, such as polycyclic 38 aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), in proportion to the truly dissolved concentration of the 39 compound present in the aquatic environment. $6-8$ In fact, passive samplers actually directly 40 reflect the compounds' chemical activity (which is routinely approximated by its truly dissolved 41 concentration). This can be used, among others, to elegantly measure gradients in the 42 environment, or contribution to mixture toxicity. $8-10$

43 Equilibrium partition coefficients between polyethylene (PE) and water (K_{PFW}) are 44 generally determined in the laboratory under standard conditions (298 *K*, no salt) and are used to

45 relate the passive sampler concentration (C_{PE}) to the dissolved concentration in the water column 46 $(C_w;$ equation 1):

$$
K_{PEw} = \frac{C_{PE}}{C_w} \tag{1}
$$

 48 *K*_{PEw} is the ratio of the concentration of the compound in the passive sampler (e.g., ng/ μ L) over 49 the concentration of the compound in the water (e.g., ng/uL) under standard conditions. 50 Once the K_{PEw} is known for a compound and a PE is equilibrated in the environment (or 51 corrected for non-equilibrium), the concentration of the compound in water (i.e., truly dissolved) 52 can then be calculated from equation (1). K_{PEW} can be corrected for a temperature other than 298 53 *K* by using the van't Hoff equation. To account for the effects of dissolved salts on K_{PEw} , the 54 empirical Setschenow constant (K_S) and the molar concentration of salt [*salinity*], present in the 55 water, are used. Both of these equations have been proven reliable at moderate temperatures 56 (30°C to 2°C)⁶ and salinities (0 to 36.7 psu)¹¹.

57 Passive samplers are a useful alternative to conventional direct measurement of 58 environmental phases (i.e. liquid-liquid extraction), such as water and sediment to derive 59 bioaccumulation and bioavailability. Unlike direct measurements, passive samplers only sample 60 the truly dissolved or bioavailable fraction present in the water. 8 Chemicals sorbed to particles 61 or colloids in the water column are not directly bioavailable (i.e., for passive uptake) and are 62 difficult to separate from the truly dissolved and bioavailable chemicals, such as $PAHs$ ¹². Thus, 63 when water is sampled for PAHs using conventional methods, the dissolved concentrations are 64 often overestimated due to the inclusion of PAHs associated with colloids. Passive samplers are 65 also a preferred method for measuring PAHs for their ease of sampling, lower detection limits in 66 the field, and minimization of contaminated blanks.^{12,13} Conventional methods of water analysis 67 take samples at a discrete point in time, representing the concentration only at that time, while

68 the time averaged concentration determined from passive sampling is a more appropriate 69 reflection of the longer-term exposure in the environment. Passive samplers can often be an μ inexpensive and reliable option compared to conventional methods.¹²

71 Polyethylene samplers (PEs) are passive samplers that have been proven effective at 72 assessing environmental concentrations of organic pollutants. $6,7,14$ Though passive samplers are 73 an excellent option for assessing dissolved PAH concentrations, their performance has not been 74 tested under the harsh conditions of the Arctic environment. Little is currently known how 75 passive samplers accumulate alkylated PAHs, which could be the majority of compounds 76 released during an oil spill. In this study, we (i) determined the K_{PEw} values of a wide range of 77 alkylated and parent PAHs; (ii) investigated the effect of varying salinities and temperatures on 78 equilibration and partitioning, simulating Arctic conditions; (iii) performed a mock oil spill in the 79 laboratory to evaluate their effectiveness; and (iv) deployed passive samplers in Narragansett 80 Bay, Rhode Island, USA in December 2012 to assess their usefulness in the field.

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82 **MATERIALS & METHODS**

83 **PAHs**

84 Forty-one native PAHs that are commonly present in oil were identified and used to 85 prepare a laboratory standard curve ranging from lower molecular weight components (e.g., 86 naphthalene) to compounds of higher moleculear weight (e.g., chrysene and benzo(a)pyrene) 87 (Table S1). These standards were prepared by from individual PAHs purchased from certified 88 laboratories (Table S2). Twenty-five of these were alkylated PAHs, as they are commonly found 89 in oil, however there is little research available for these compounds. Additionally, three 90 deuterated PAHs (naphthalene-d₈, pyrene-d₁₀, benzo[a]pyrene-d₁₂) were utilized as Performance 91 Reference Compounds (PRCs).

93 **PE samplers**

94 For all experiments, 25 µm thick PE, manufactured by a commercial sheeting company 95 (Carlisle Plastics, Inc., Minneapolis, MN, USA), was purchased from a local hardware store. 96 Passive samplers were pre-cleaned in dichloromethane (DCM) twice prior to use. The passive 97 samplers were enriched with PRCs with methods modified from Booij et al (2002) (see SI). ¹⁵ 98 For the laboratory portion of the study, PEs were cut into small pieces with a mass of 99 approximately 0.09 mg (ca. 1 cm²). Once samplers were retrieved from the various experiments, 100 they were extracted in DCM and hexane (1:1 v/v), with internal surrogates added at the time of 101 extraction. The extracts were then concentrated under a flow of nitrogen gas. Injection standard 102 (external standard) was added prior to analysis with gas chromatography/mass spectrometry 103 (GC/MS) (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) (see Supporting Information). To validate the 104 GC/MS analysis, a National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) PAH standard 2260a 105 was used to calibrate the in-house PAH standard curve (see Supporting Information). 106

107 **Polyethylene-water partition coefficients,** K_{PEx}

108 Experimental equilibrium partition coefficients were determined in the laboratory for 109 various PAHs (Table S3). In climate controlled rooms, tests were performed to cover the range 110 of temperatures and salinities commonly found in the marine environment, especially conditions 111 present in the Arctic environment and the brine present within ice (see SI and Table S3).¹⁶ Water 112 samples were prepared at various salinities (245, 100 and 35 psu) by using pure water (18.2 MΩ 113 cm^{-1} Milli-Q[®] filtered water) and Instant Ocean[®] or Sigma-Aldrich salt mixture, which both 114 mimic the composition of natural seawater. PEs were prepared in triplicate along with a blank

115 and placed in 1 L pre-cleaned amber jars filled with water of the various salinities. The six 116 replicate samples were then spiked with a mixture of the 41 oil components in nonane. To 117 facilitate faster equilibrium times, flasks with PEs were stirred to mimic a very turbulent 118 situation in the natural environment. After spiking with PAH mixture (approximately 10 to 90 119 ng depending on the PAH (Table S1)), each replicate was stirred for approximately 24 hours 120 prior to adding the PE sampler. Experiments were run for various time periods to determine if 121 equilibrium was reached (Table S4).

122 The concentrations of the PAHs in the passive samplers (Table S5) and the water were 123 determined and the K_{PEw} calculated for each compound in each experiment. Experimentally 124 derived K_{PEw} were compared to K_{PEw} found in the literature and corrected for changes in 125 temperature and salinity encountered in all experiments using the van't Hoff and Setschenow 126 correction, respectively. 17

127

128 **Mock oil spill experiment**

129 For the mock oil spill experiment, Statfjord crude oil was employed, the composition of 130 which had been previously studied. $18,19$ The water soluble fraction (WSF) of the oil was 131 prepared utilizing filtered natural seawater (Narragansett Bay) by the methods established by the 132 Chemical Response to Oil Spills: Ecological Effects Research Forum (CROSERF) proceedings 133 (see SI).^{18,19} To prevent biological alteration of the WSF, sodium azide was added to the sea 134 water to act as a biocide. The PE samplers were then exposed to the oil WSF at a temperature of 135 5°C in an environmental chamber and allowed to reach equilibrium for four weeks. The flasks 136 with PE samplers were stirred on stir plates to facilitate faster equilibrium times. The passive 137 samplers were removed from the water and the PAH concentrations in both PE and water were

- 144
- 146

145 **Sampling of Narragansett Bay Water for PAHs**

147 PE samplers were field tested in December 2012 over 3 weeks in a tank in the Aquarium 148 Building at the University of Rhode Island's Graduate School of Oceanography (URI-GSO). 149 Tanks were fed Narragansett Bay water pumped through an intake pipe originating under the 150 URI-GSO dock and passed through a sand filter to reduce particles. An in-tank chiller 151 maintained water temperature at 9 °C in the tank (outside temperature was 12 -13 °C). The tank 152 measured 1.2 m Dia x 0.6 m deep with a water level maintained at 0.3 m. The water was pumped 153 into the tank at a rate of 2.4 L/min. The tank was sampled for DOC daily at the same time each 154 day to track changes over the tidal cycle.

155 Polyethylene samplers measuring ca. 0.1 m x 0.40 m x 51 µm (ca. 2 g each) were 156 prepared as a single batch by first cleaning (24 hours in acetone and hexane each) and then 157 impregnating with performance reference compounds, as above. The samplers were each strung 158 on a stainless steel wire and wrapped individually in muffled aluminum foil until deployed. PE 159 samplers were suspended in the water on ropes in 3 groups of 3. One group of PEs was collected 160 at one week intervals for 3 weeks, rewrapped in the aluminum foil and stored in a freezer (-20 161 °C) until analyzed.

185 showed good agreement with the non-deuterated PAHs, indicating equilibrium had been reached 186 in the 20 \degree C at 0 psu experiments (Table S3).

187 To further validate the experimental log K_{PEw} values determined in this study, they were 188 compared to other published results (Table S6). The greatest difference between the published 189 results and the results reached in this study was evident for naphthalene, where other 190 publications determined an average log K_{PEw} of 2.8, 3 and 3.23 and this study log K_{PEw} of 3.7. 191 The remainder of values determined in this study compared well with previous results, varying 192 only 0.1 to 0.2 log units for most compounds. For some of the HMW PAHs, there was a large 193 spread in the log K_{PEw} , with the results from this study within the published range. K_{PEw} agreed 194 best with results from Smedes et al. $(2009)^{23}$. Fernandez et al. $(2009)^{24}$ included four alkylated 195 PAHs, three of which were similar to ones incorporated in this study, specifically 2- 196 methylphenanthrene (1-methylphenanthrene in this study), 3,6-dimethylphenanthrene, and 2- 197 methylanthracene (9-methylanthracene in this study). Log K_{PEw} values derived from the two 198 studies showed excellent agreement with 4.7 and 4.92 for methylphenanthrene, 5.2 and 5.36 for 199 3,6-dimethylphenanthrene, and 5.0 and 4.92 for methylanthracene, respectively. Choi et al. 200 (2013) included a suite of alkylated PAHs in their study, 12 of which were similar to those in this 201 study. ²⁵ The best agreement between the K_{PEW} s in both studies was for 9-methylanthracene, 202 with only 0.12 log units difference, 2-methylphenanthrene (1-methylphenanthrene in this study), 203 with 0.25 log units difference and 1-methylphenanthrene and 2-methylanthracene (9- 204 methylanthracene in this study), both 0.27 log units difference. The largest difference (0.58 log 205 units) between the alkylated K_{PEw} of these studies was 6-methylchrysene (1-methylchrysene in 206 this study). The remainder of the alkylated *K*_{PEw} values were separated by 0.3 to 0.42 log units.

207 The good agreement between parent and alkylated K_{PEw} values from this and other studies 208 corroborates the log K_{PEw} values determined in this study.

209 A recent review article combined the $\log K_{\text{PEw}}$ values (at 20 °C and 0 psu) of various 210 PAHs (n=65) from independent research studies and correlated them against their respective log 211 K_{ow} values ²⁶:

212 Log
$$
K_{\text{PEw}} = 1.22(\pm 0.046) \log K_{\text{ow}} - 1.22(\pm 0.24) \text{ (r}^2 = 0.92, \text{SE} = 0.27, \text{n} = 65) \tag{2}
$$

213 with a high R^2 of 0.92 and low standard error (SE) of 0.27.²⁶ Focusing only on the parent PAHs, 214 including those from this study, and utilizing $\log K_{ow}$ values from ²², the strong linear agreement 215 remains:

$$
216 \qquad \text{Log}K_{\text{PEw}} = 1.18(\pm 0.04) \log K_{\text{ow}} - 1.06(\pm 0.20) \text{ (r}^2 = 0.92, \text{SE} = 0.31, \text{ n} = 83) \tag{3}
$$

217 To include the alkylated PAHs studied in this data set, log K_{ow} values had to be determined.

218 Building upon the parent log K_{ow} values, values were added for each methyl group of the 219 alkylated compounds.²⁷ All the PAHs included in this study were then incorporated in the data

220 set, resulting in (Figure 1):

221 Log
$$
K_{\text{PEw}} = 1.14(\pm 0.04) \log K_{\text{ow}} - 0.95(\pm 0.21) \text{ (r}^2 = 0.89, \text{ SE} = 0.34, \text{ n} = 109) \tag{4}
$$

222 Incorporating all of the data from this study slightly decreases the correlation, with slightly 223 higher scatter. Overall, from both the plot and the regression line, it is clear that the log K_{PEw} 224 values determined in this study are similar to other researchers in the field.

225 The understudied alkylated PAHs were the particular interest to this study, as they could 226 be important contributors to the toxicity of oil.^{28,29} In a recent atmospheric field study, Khairy 227 and Lohmann (2012) reported that tri and tetra-alkylated PAHs partitioned differently into PEs 228 than predicted based on correlations with parent PAHs. 30 It was unclear at the time whether this 229 reflected inherent physico-chemical partitioning, was due to sampling bias or a higher reactivity 230 of the higher alkylated PAHs.

249 Log
$$
K_{\text{PEw, pred}} = 0.95(\pm 0.05) \log K_{\text{PEw, meas}} + 0.30(\pm 0.25) \text{ (r}^2 = 0.91, \text{ SE} = 0.40, \text{ n} = 41) \tag{5}
$$

251 Other approaches have been developed to correlate and predict passive sampler partitioning 252 values that go beyond an atom or fragment contribution approach, most notably the poly-253 parameter linear free energy relationships (pp-LFER). These are essential for understanding and 254 predicting the partitioning of (a)polar compounds with complex polymers (those with 255 interactions beyond van-der-Waals interactions). Yet in the case of PE, we note that the vast 256 majority of partitioning data has been reported for apolar or weakly polar molecules. This 257 renders pp-LFER approaches for PE difficult to derive. As PE can only interact via van-der-258 Waals interactions, we deem the above simple carbon addition model appropriate for the task of 259 predicting log K_{PEw} for (unknown) alkylated PAHs.

260

261 **Equilibration of PAHs in experiments**

262 Initial analysis of all of the experiments revealed log K_{PEw} of the lower molecular weight 263 (LMW) PAHs increased with increasing log K_{ow} , while compounds with log K_{ow} values above 264 4.5, depending on the experimental temperature and salinity, tended to level off and not continue 265 to increase as expected (Table S3 $\&$ S7). Since neither DOC nor solubility (Table S8) could 266 explain these results, we hypothesized that the higher MW (HMW) PAHs did not reach 267 equilibrium in these experiments. To verify this, the apparent PE-water distributions (K_{PEW} , 268 apparent) of the PRCs and native PAHs were compared (Figure 2). The observed % equilibrium 269 was determined as:

270
$$
\text{PE-w % equilibrium (obs)} = 10^{\frac{\left[\log K_{PEx, apparent}(native) - \log K_{PEx, apparent}(deuterated)\right]}{2}} \times 100
$$
\n(6)

271 Naphthalene was equilibrated in all experiments (as evidenced by similar $log K_{PEW}$ values 272 between the native and deuterated compound) regardless of temperature and salinity (Table S3).

273 Deuterated and native pyrene were in equilibrium for all experiments at 20 and 2° C, but started 274 to diverge to 0.8 log units (-4 \degree C, 100 psu) and 3.1 log units (-15 \degree C, 245 psu) under colder and 275 saltier conditions (Figure 2 and S1). Benzo(a) pyrene was in equilibrium at the 20 $^{\circ}$ C 276 experiments, while it did not reach equilibrium in colder and higher salinity experiments. The 277 difference between native and deuterated benzo(a)pyrene reached more than 4 orders of 278 magnitudes at the coldest experiment. This served as evidence that the HMW PAHs, such as 279 pyrene and benzo(a)pyrene, had not reached equilibrium (Figure 2). Lower temperature 280 experiments were analyzed at time intervals one week apart. Overall, the % equilibrium of 281 pyrene and benzo(a)pyrene gently increased with increasing length of the experiments, but the 282 increase was not significant. For example, at the -4 °C experiment, the % equilibrium for pyrene 283 increased from 16% (21 days) via 18% (28 days) to 19% (35 days). For benzo(a)pyrene, the 284 increase was from 5.6% via 6.7% to 8.4% after 35 days.

285 Both decreasing temperature and increasing salinity affect water viscosity. Assuming that 286 the equilibration of PAHs was limited by the aqueous boundary layer, increasing the water's 287 viscosity should delay equilibration of PAHs, as they have to diffuse across a thicker layer. The 288 experimental set-up allowed us to observe both the effects of salinity and temperature on 289 kinetics, and assess their relative importance. The effect of temperature is clearly visible in 290 comparing the $+ 2 \degree C$ and $-4 \degree C$ experiments, both performed at 100 psu. The 6 $\degree C$ temperature 291 decrease slowed down equilibration of pyrene from 100% to 40%, and that of benzo(a)pyrene 292 from 11% to 1% (SI Figure S1). Increasing salinity (e.g., at 20 °C from 0 to 35 psu) slowed 293 down partitioning such that benzo(a)pyrene was only 72% equilibrated at the higher salinity. 294 Likewise, increasing the salinity from 0 to 100 psu at 2° C reduced the equilibration of 295 benzo(a) pyrene from 56% to 11% (Figure 2).

296 We established a simple model to better understand the reasons for the slowed down 297 equilibration of PAHs at lower temperature and increasing salinity. The model is similar to 298 equation (22) in²⁶:

299
$$
\frac{1}{k_e} = \frac{1}{K_{PE-w} \times \delta_{PE}} \times \frac{1}{\frac{\delta_w}{D_w} + \frac{\delta_{PE} \times K_{PEw}}{D_{PE}}}
$$
(7),

300 where

301 *k*e is the *in situ* exchange rate constant (1/day),

302 δ_{PE} and δ_w are the thicknesses of the ½ PE sheet, and the water boundary layer (m), and

303 *D*_{PE} and *D*_w are the PAH's diffusivities in PE and water respectively (m²/s)

304 The predicted state of equilibrium was calculated as

$$
305 \t\t\t% equilibrium (pred) = (1 - e-ket)
$$
\t(8),

306 with time t in days

307

308 Our experiments were agitated with a stir bar, but as discussed elsewhere, this is not 309 necessarily sufficient to prevent diffusive control by an aqueous boundary layer. ²⁶ We initially 310 assumed $\delta_w = 10 \mu m$ (δ_{PE} was 12.8 μ m) as an approximation of the boundary layer thickness in a 311 well stirred experiment (see Lohmann, 2012).²⁶ Values of D_{PE} were taken from ²⁶ and K_{PE} from 312 this study. D_w was calculated based on the PAHs' molar volume, V_m , (from Fuller, in cm³/mol) 313 and the water's dynamic viscosity η (in centipoise)¹⁷:

314
$$
D_{w} = \frac{1.326 \times 10^{-4}}{V_{m}^{0.589} \times \eta^{1.14}}
$$
 (9)

315 The effect of temperature and salinity on η was calculated from equations (22) and (23) by 316 Sharqawy et al. (2010) for all experiments.³¹

335 These results suggest that changes in aqueous viscosity were the main driver slowing 336 down equilibrations in our experiments. We used equation (9) to assess the sensitivity of PAHs' 337 equilibration towards changes in their diffusivity in polyethylene. At 2 °C and below, the PAH's 338 diffusivity in polyethylene needed to decrease by 10^3 to 10^4 fold to significantly reduce 339 equilibration (i.e., outcompete limitation by δ_w). This suggests that the delay in equilibrating

340 PAHs in our experiments was entirely driven by changes in the water's viscosity, which in turn 341 affects both the PAHs' aqueous diffusivity and the thickness of the water boundary layer. The 342 PAH's diffusivity in the PE almost certainly decreased in the experiments (though it is unknown 343 by how much), but it was most likely not the rate-limiting step. We thus predict that PE 344 deployments in cold, saline water will have to deal with much increased equilibration times, and 345 that these are dictated by the properties of the water, much more so than by the PE properties 346 themselves. Lastly, we note that our experiments were stirred constantly, likely achieving fluid 347 movements well above those found in the oceans, suggesting that our equilibration times are 348 faster than can be observed in the field.

349

350 **Effects of Salinity and temperature on Equilibrium Partition coefficients**

351 Initially, we had performed these equilibration experiments to assess the effects of 352 temperature and salinity on equilibrium partition coefficients. Yet as detailed above, our results 353 highlighted the effect of water properties and severely impeded equilibrium in our experiments. 354 The corrections necessary to obtain equilibrium partition coefficients rendered any influences of 355 salinity and temperature difficult to tease out correctly., 356 More work is needed to confirm whether there is an effect of size on K_s values, as

357 postulated by Ni and Yalkowski $(2003)^{33}$, but not observed by Jonker and Muijs (2010).³⁴

358 Similarly, it is unclear whether K_{PEw} values always increase with colder temperatures, as reported

359 by Adams et al. (2007). At least Booij et al. (2003) observed a decrease in *K*_{PEw} at lower

360 temperatures for HMW PAHs.

361

362 **Mock Oil Spill Experiment**

363 After 4 weeks of stirring, the PEs had approached equilibrium (94% for d-pyrene, 75% 364 for d-benzo(a)pyrene); no further correction was performed. The WSF for Statfjord crude oil was 365 composed mainly of LMW compounds, such as phenolic compounds, naphthalenes and 366 methylated-naphthalenes, which were similar to reports from previous studies (Table S10).¹⁹ 367 Overall, 36 of the 41 compounds investigated in this study were detected. Naphthalene, methyl-368 naphthalenes and biphenyl were present in concentrations in the single to tens of µg/L range. 369 Phenanthrene, methylphenanthrene and fluorene were just below 1 µg/L. Very few HMW 370 compounds (>200 g/mol) were present in significant concentrations in the WSF of the Statfjord 371 crude oil, confirming previous results (Table S10).¹⁹ In contrast to other WSF studies, PAH 372 concentrations in our study were not above their subcooled-liquid solubilities in seawater at 5 373 $\,^{\circ}$ C.³⁵

374 Overall, there was good agreement for total PAH concentrations between the two 375 methods. Liquid-liquid extraction yielded 85 µg/L of total PAHs, while PE-based concentrations 376 were 66 µg/L. The difference was mostly due to naphthalene results between the two 377 approaches. A closer look at the results revealed an increasing underestimation of passive 378 sampler results with increasing MW of the PAHs (Figure 3; Figure S2). We used filtered 379 seawater, in which DOC was present at 5 mg/L in the experiments. The partitioning of PAHs to 380 DOC is defined as:

381
$$
K_{DOCw} = \frac{C_{DOC}}{C_w}
$$
 (10),

 382 where K_{DOC} is the equilibrium partitioning constant for PAHs between DOC and water, 383 and C_{DOC} is the DOC-bound PAH concentration. We corrected for this third phase effect by

384 assuming average partitioning of PAHs to DOC ($log K_{\text{DOC}} = 1.18 log K_{\text{ow}} - 1.56$)³⁶ according to 385 equation (11)

(11),

$$
C_{w,corr} = \frac{C_{w,app}}{1 + [DOC]K_{p,OC}}
$$

387 in which [DOC] is in kg/L, and

388 $C_{w,corr}$ is the DOC-corrected apparent dissolved PAH concentration $(C_{w,app})$.

389 For PAHs with a log $K_{ow} \leq 5$, both conventional sampling and PE sampling agreed mostly within 390 a factor of 2 (Figure SI 4). For almost all PAHs with a $\log K_{\rm ow} > 5$ (or MW > 200), PE-based 391 results accounted for less than 50% of liquid-liquid results. While the DOC correction improved 392 the comparison, it was not sufficient to align results for PAHs with higher MW (SI Figure S2). 393 Results in Figure 3 could imply that the estuarine DOC in our seawater displayed a 394 significant higher affinity for PAHs than the mostly freshwater DOCs included in Burkhard's (2000) review.³⁶ A similar conclusion was previously reached by Friedman et al. (2011) who 396 reported that polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) in the New Bedford Harbor estuary sorbed $5 - 20$ 397 times stronger to DOC than predicted.³⁷ We included results for the DOC-correction of apparent 398 dissolved PAH concentrations from liquid-liquid extraction assuming that DOC sorbed PAHs 5 – 1399 times stronger than predicted by Burkhard³⁶, resulting in better agreement between higher MW 400 PAHs from both methods.

401 Overall there was good agreement between the PE samplers and the (DOC-corrected) 402 extracted water concentrations for the most abundant PAHs (Figure 3), mostly within a factor of 403 2. Our experiments highlighted once more the challenge of having other phases, such as DOC 404 present, which greatly exaggerate apparent dissolved concentrations from liquid-liquid 405 extractions.

406

407 **Winter deployment in Narragansett Bay water, RI (USA)**

408 PE field deployments were carried out under quiescent water flow conditions in a tank 409 with flowing seawater to be able to easily sample the water on a daily basis. Unfortunately, this 410 resulted in much reduced sampling rates (R_s) compared to previous deployments in Narragansett 411 Bay (Table S11). The R_s was determined by evaluating the loss rate of the PRCs. Based on loss 412 of d_{12} -pyrene, R_s ranged from 3 – 7 L/day, while they were around 20 L/day (for pyrene) in 413 previous field deployments in Narragansett Bay.¹⁴ These low sampling rates effectively 414 prevented us from observing a significant loss of d_{12} -benzo(a)pyrene. The predicted loss of 415 benzo(a) pyrene based on a sampling rate of $3 - 7$ L/day is only around 1% after 3 weeks, or 416 much smaller than our analytical uncertainty. 417 Results from active sampling implied that apparently dissolved concentrations increased 418 after the first sampling week but remained fairly constant in weeks 2 and 3 (Table S12). Typical 419 concentrations were at or below 1 ng/L for fluorene, phenanthrene, and methyl-pyrene, 2 ng/L 420 for fluoranthrene and around 6 ng/L for pyrene (Figure 4), in line with previous results for 421 Narragansett Bay water.¹⁴ 422 Truly dissolved PAH concentrations calculated from PE-deployments decreased over 423 time, with increasing certainties of results (Table S13). For the three week deployments, we 424 deduced concentrations of below 1 ng/L for fluorene, phenanthrene and methyl-pyrene, 2.5 ng/L 425 for fluoranthrene and 8.6 ng/L for pyrene. For these 5 representative PAHs, the agreement 426 between active and passive sampling increased from a 30-fold difference (week 1) to 1.4 times

427 (week 2) to within a factor of 1.1. Clearly, deployment times of 2 weeks or more were needed

428 under these quiescent flow conditions to arrive at satisfactory results for the passive samplers.

429 Within a 3-week deployment window, though, very good agreement was observed between both 430 approaches.

431

432 **Implications**

433 Our results imply that PE samplers can be used to detect both the parent PAHs, as 434 observed in previous studies, but also a wide range of alkylated PAHs. K_{PEw} for unknown 435 alkylated PAHs can be approximated by adding $0.40 \ (\pm 0.24)$ log units per alkylated carbon to 436 the log *K*PEw of the parent PAH. Our experiments were aimed at verifying the use of passive 437 samplers in ice brine, but our results suggest that equilibration in brines below 0° C is extremely 438 slow. We investigated these results with a diffusion model. The results suggest that the 439 equilibration is limited by a decrease of the kinematic viscosity, rather than changes of the 440 PAHs' diffusivity in the PE itself. This in turn implies that it will probably affect all passive 441 samplers and most compounds of interest. In open ocean deployments, a decrease of the 442 kinematic viscosity will also lead to a marked slowing down of equilibrations. Including PRCs in 443 PE samplers prior to deployments proved essential for our laboratory work to determine the lack 444 of equilibration, and will be equally important to correct for non-equilibrium under field 445 conditions. The pre-loading of PRCs, as reported by Booij et al. (2002) works well in that regard. 15 Extra matrix and field blanks then serve to determine initial PRC concentrations, which are 447 used to fit a 1-dimensional loss model to the field data. Lastly, we validate the use of PE 448 samplers both for a mock oil spill in the laboratory and under field conditions. Our results 449 suggest that PE samplers are a valuable asset when studying areas without known PAH 450 contamination sources, representing low background concentrations, and can determine the PAH 451 concentrations present in the water column under unique conditions.

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- 460

461 **Supporting Information Available**

- 462 Additional information on results comparison, figures, and tables were included in the
- 463 Supporting Information section. This information is available free of charge via the Internet at
- 464 http://pubs.acs.org/.
- 465

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Table 1: Log *K***PEw (L/kg) of parent and alkylated PAHs (determined at 20 °C at 0 psu), number of aromatic and alkylated carbon, calculated individual aromatic and alkyl atom contribution to the log** *K***PEw values**

 Figure 1: log K_{PEw} (L/kg) versus log K_{ow} of selected PAHs from the literature^{6,7,23,24,38} and those measured **in this study at 20 °C, 0 psu for 28 days.**

Figure 2: Predicted versus measured (difference between native and deuterated) % equilibrium for pyrene and benzo(a)pyrene during PE experiments at decreasing temperature and increasing salinity

- 1 **Figure 3: Comparison of PAH concentrations from a mock oil spill (5 °C, 30 psu): PE-**
- 2 **based results versus apparent and DOC-corrected PAH concentrations from liquid-liquid** extraction.
- 4

- 6 **Figure 4: Concentrations of selected PAHs (ng/L) in Narragansett Bay water (December**
- 7 **2012) from PE-deployments versus weekly active sampling: (a) fluorene; (b) phenanthrene;**
- 8 **(c) pyrene; (d) fluoranthene**
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