

Composition of gaseous organic carbon during ECOCEM in Beirut, Lebanon: new observational constraints for VOC anthropogenic emission evaluation in the Middle East

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1 **Abstract:**

2 The relative importance of Eastern Mediterranean emissions is suspected to be largely
3 underestimated compared to other regions worldwide. Here we use detailed speciated
4 measurements of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) to evaluate the spatial heterogeneity of
5 VOC urban emission composition and the consistency of regional and global emission
6 inventories downscaled to Lebanon (EMEP, ACCMIP, and MACCity). The assessment was
7 conducted through the comparison of the emission ratios extracted from the emission
8 inventories to the ones obtained from the hourly observations collected at a sub-urban site in
9 Beirut, Lebanon during summertime and wintertime ECOCEM campaigns. The observed ERs
10 were calculated by two independent methods. ER values from both methods agree very well
11 and are comparable to the ones of the road transport sector from near-field measurements for
12 more than 80% of the species. There is no significant seasonality in ER for more than 90% of
13 the species unlike the seasonality usually observed in other cities worldwide. Regardless of
14 the season, ERs agree within a factor of 2 between Beirut and other representative worldwide
15 cities except for the unburned fuel fraction and ethane. ERs of aromatics (benzene excepted)
16 are higher in Beirut compared to northern post-industrialized countries and even the Middle

17 Eastern city Mecca. The comparison of the observed ER to the ones extracted from ACCMIP
18 and MACCity global emission inventories suggests that the overall speciation of
19 anthropogenic sources for major hydrocarbons that act as ozone and SOA precursors in
20 ACCMIP is better represented than other species.

21 The comparison of the specific road transport ER relative to acetylene derived from near-field
22 measurements to ER from ACCMIP and EMEP emission inventories for road transport sector
23 showed that ER of more reactive species are usually consistent within a factor of 2 with
24 EMEP while xylenes and toluene are underestimated over a factor of 2 by ACCMIP.

25 The observed heterogeneity of anthropogenic VOC emission composition between Middle
26 Eastern cities can be significant for reactive VOC but is not depicted by global emission
27 inventories. This suggests that systematic and detailed measurements are needed in the
28 Eastern Mediterranean Basin in order to better constrain emission inventory.

Keywords: emission inventory; sources; emission ratios; photochemical age;VOC; transport;
East Mediterranean

Highlights:

- No significant seasonality in ER regardless of the species
- The transport sector is the major source of 80% of the species
- Reasonable discrepancies, within a factor of two, between ER from observations and global inventories for the main precursors of ozone and SOA
- Consistency of ER from the road transport sector within a factor of 2 with EMEP but underestimations of xylenes and toluene over a factor of 2 by ACCMIP
- Spatial heterogeneity of VOC emission composition in MEA region especially for reactive species

29 **1. Introduction**

30 In the context of global climate change and growing urbanization, the East Mediterranean
31 Basin (EMB) and the Middle East as a whole is a highly sensitive environment under
32 considerable anthropogenic and environmental pressures. Future decadal projections point to
33 the EMB as a possible hot spot of poor air quality and predict a continual and gradual
34 warming in the region, much stronger than other regions (Gurjar et al., 2008; Lelieveld et al.,
35 2012, 2014; Pozzer et al., 2012). The increase and accumulation of anthropogenic emissions
36 of gaseous and particulate pollutants from surrounding urban areas, and on-road transport

37 emissions in particular, are suspected as one of the key compounding factors of those
38 environmental impacts (Konovalov et al., 2010; von Schneidmesser et al., 2011; Waked and
39 Afif, 2012; Hillboll et al., 2013). The EMB area includes two megacities: Istanbul (>12
40 million inhabitants) and Cairo (>15 million inhabitants), which experience extremely high
41 levels of pollutions (Kanakidou et al., 2011). Satellite images of NO₂ columns from
42 SCIAMACHY also point to the coastal urban areas of the Middle East as an important hot
43 spot of pollution in the region (Lelieveld et al., 2009).

44 Trend analysis from satellite and ground-based observations found decreasing trend of
45 primary pollutants in Western Europe and increasing trends from hydrocarbon ground-based
46 observations and NO_x satellite retrievals in other regions (Konovalov et al., 2010; von
47 Schneidmesser et al., 2011). Downward trends in pollutant emissions are a shared feature of
48 northern mid-latitude urban areas. The mixing ratios of volatile organic compounds (VOCs)
49 and CO have decreased by almost two orders of magnitude during the past five decades in
50 Los Angeles (Warneke et al., 2012). In UK, long-term trends show significant decreases for
51 VOCs reaching 26% per year as well as for CO up to 12% per year (von Schneidmesser et
52 al., 2010). Indeed, vehicle exhaust emission control has successfully reduced emissions of
53 nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, volatile organic compounds and particulate matter (Uherek
54 et al., 2010). In developing countries however, pollutants emissions have been growing
55 strongly. Waked and Afif (2012) have shown that the emissions of CO have rapidly increased
56 by a factor of 2.8 in the countries of the Middle East between 2000 and 2005, as a result of the
57 increase of fuel consumption. They also found that the road transport sector in the Middle
58 East region is a contributor to the global emissions of CO and NO_x as significant as road
59 transport in Western Europe and North America. These findings are consistent with results
60 reported by Uherek et al. (2010) for a larger range of pollutants (CO₂, CO, NO_x, and
61 NMVOCs).

62 The same picture is presented by emission inventories. Figure 1 compares the annual total
63 anthropogenic emissions of non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from three
64 reference emission inventories between the Middle East (MEA) region, Europe and North
65 America: ACCMIP (Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project),
66 EDGARv4.2 (Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research), and RCPs
67 (Representative Concentrations Pathways) (ECCAD database, 2015, <http://eccad.sedoo.fr>).
68 NMVOC emissions have been constantly increasing over the last thirty years reaching up to 18
69 Tg/year according to RCP 8.5 in 2010. In contrast, the NMVOC emissions have been strongly
70 decreasing in USA and Europe, with totals of 7 and 10 Tg/year in 2010 respectively according

71 to RCP 8.5 (Figure 1). While differences up to a factor of 2 can be found between ACCMIP
72 and EDGARv4.2 for the MEA in 2000 (Figure 1), all inventories suggest that NMVOCs
73 emissions from the MEA region are as significant as the ones from post-industrialized regions
74 or even higher. Finally no source regions clearly dominate global anthropogenic emissions
75 and therefore an accurate representation of anthropogenic emissions in developing country
76 regions like the MEA is of importance where highest uncertainties are expected.

77 The quantification of emission distribution is a challenge, and even more so in cities of the
78 EMB and the Middle East as a whole where local emission data are sparse. Indeed, emission
79 inventories usually combine bottom-up and top-down calculations to estimate emissions.
80 Comprehensive bottom-up calculations aggregate multiple local statistics on different
81 emission source categories where possible. Top-down calculations use regional or national
82 activity data and re-allocate emissions to finer scale by using spatial surrogates (e.g.
83 population statistics at the local level). Therefore, the uncertainties of numerous data sources
84 are cumulated in the overall estimation of emission amounts and along increasing scales (local
85 to regional to global). Granier et al. (2011) had assessed the evolution of anthropogenic and
86 biomass burning emissions of CO, NO_x, SO₂ and BC at global and regional scales from
87 several inventories during the 1980–2010 period and had concluded that there is still no
88 consensus on the best estimates for surface emissions of atmospheric compounds (Granier et
89 al., 2011).

90 Several studies in the literature have reported evaluations of emission inventories in
91 developed countries by the use of ambient pollutant observations at ground level, on-board
92 aircraft and from satellite retrievals (Martin et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2011). For instance urban
93 emission ratios of various VOC relative to a tracer of incomplete combustion (CO, acetylene)
94 have been used as high-quality field constraints to evaluate regional emission inventories in
95 cities of post-industrialized countries (Warneke et al., 2007; Coll et al., 2010; Borbon et al.,
96 2013). The most recent diagnostic studies reveal large discrepancies between observations
97 and inventories as large as a factor 4 for VOC in Paris and Los Angeles for instance (Borbon
98 et al., 2013). In-situ observations are therefore necessary constraints for the development of
99 reliable emission inventories. Moreover, they also provide direct indications on air pollution
100 exposure. While some highly resolved inventories have been developed at the regional scale
101 in the EMB area for Beirut (Waked et al., 2012) and Istanbul (Im et al., 2011; Markakis et al.,
102 2012), their uncertainties are unknown and speciation of NMVOC is usually disregarded. For
103 solely Lebanon, the atmospheric emission inventory of anthropogenic and biogenic sources

104 was established by Waked et al. (2012) for a base year of 2010 for CO, NO_x, SO₂, total
105 NMVOCs, NH₃, PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}, according to EEA/EMEP guidelines (EMEP/EEA, 2009).
106 The NMVOC total emissions in Lebanon were estimated to be 115 Gg for the year 2010.
107 According to this inventory, transport is the main source of NMVOC with a relative
108 contribution of 67% of total emissions of NMVOCs (Waked et al., 2012). In addition, there is
109 a strong need for developing better emission inventories in the Middle East region as a whole
110 (Waked et al., 2013a). The paucity of observations in this region, especially for VOCs and
111 PM composition, is a significant limitation to the achievement of evaluated and accurate
112 emission inventories. Finally, accurate modelling of individual NMVOCs and better
113 understanding of ozone precursors is also important for policy-makers and for the
114 improvement of air quality leading to better estimates of secondary organic aerosols (SOA)
115 formation and ozone levels.

116 The present paper aims at evaluating global VOC speciated emission inventories, in the
117 absence of regional emission inventories for MEA, by the use of detailed observations
118 recently collected in Beirut, Lebanon in the frame of ECOCEM project (Emissions and
119 Chemistry of Organic Carbon in the East Mediterranean) (Salameh et al., 2015). Those
120 observations include detailed near-source field measurements and ambient measurements at a
121 suburban site. We used regional (EMEP) and global (ACCMIP and MACCity) emission
122 inventories downscaled to Lebanon. Two independent methods already applied to Los
123 Angeles basin during the CalNex experiment (Borbon et al., 2013) that take into consideration
124 the effects of chemical removal were used to estimate the urban enhancement emission ratios
125 (ERs) of various NMVOC relative to CO and acetylene for winter and summer. First,
126 calculated ERs are compared to available ERs in other cities worldwide in order to assess the
127 spatial variability of emission composition. Second, calculated ERs are compared to the ones
128 derived from global emission inventories for all the anthropogenic sectors and for the road
129 transport sector. Finally perspectives for the whole Middle East region are discussed.

130

131 **2. Experiment**

132 The experimental strategy includes near field measurements close to major emission sources
133 and two intensive field campaigns conducted in summer 2011 and in winter 2012 in Beirut at
134 a suburban site, within the ECOCEM project. VOC have been measured by a combination of
135 on-line and off-line techniques (table 1). A set of eight speciated profiles of four major non-

136 methane hydrocarbons (NMHC) sources in Lebanon was proposed by Salameh et al. (2014)
137 by sampling close to emission sources in real-world operating conditions as far as possible.
138 Field sampling has been carried out in Beirut city and in the suburban area during March and
139 April 2012. The sampling was performed by canisters and the analyses were performed in the
140 laboratory by thermal desorption-gas chromatography (TD-GC) technique coupled to a flame
141 ionisation detector (FID) from Perkin–Elmer (Salameh et al., 2014; 2015).

142 The field campaigns were conducted on the roof of the Faculty of Sciences building of Saint
143 Joseph University located in the eastern suburbs of the city of Beirut from 2 to 18 July 2011
144 in summer and from 28 January to 12 February 2012 in winter. The site is appropriately
145 located in order to receive air masses coming from Greater Beirut Area which includes the
146 city of Beirut and close suburbs. The site is surrounded by a forested pine and high density
147 residential area. Beirut International Airport is located 8 km southwest of the site and one fuel
148 storage facility is located at 3.6 km North. More details are reported in Salameh et al. (2015).
149 During both measurement periods, NMHCs were continuously analyzed on an hourly basis
150 covering 30 min of ambient air sampling, by the same system (TD-GC-FID) used for canister
151 analysis. Additional measurements of trace gases concentrations including CO, NO_x and O₃
152 were provided on a 1-min basis by specific analyzers. Basic meteorological parameters (wind
153 speed and direction, temperature, relative humidity and atmospheric pressure) were measured
154 on a 1-min basis for the duration of the campaigns.

155 During the summer field campaign, the average temperature was around 25 °C ± 2 °C and the
156 average wind speed was low, 2 m s⁻¹, with maximum wind speeds (4-10 m s⁻¹) recorded
157 during the days under south-western wind regimes and under northern wind regimes. During
158 the winter measurement campaign, the temperature stayed mild with an average of 13 °C ± 2
159 °C. The average wind speed was still low at 2 m s⁻¹ and the wind direction was mostly south-
160 easterly and easterly.

161

162 **3. Regional and global emission database**

163 At the global and the regional scales, several emission inventories were developed during the
164 past few years in order to provide the distribution of surface emissions of different gaseous
165 and particulate compounds.

166 The EMEP regional emission inventory (European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme)
167 covers the period from 1980 to 2020, at a 0.5° resolution. It contains national total emissions
168 for Europe, sector data and gridded emission data for modelling purposes. The sectors follow

169 the SNAP categorization (Selected Nomenclature for reporting of Air Pollutants). Only the
170 emissions regarding road transport (SNAP 07) is included in this study.

171 Since there is no global emissions dataset available after 2000, the MACCity emissions have
172 been developed within two European Commission funded projects (MACC and CityZen) as
173 an extension of the ACCMIP and the RCP 8.5 emissions dataset. The emissions for each
174 compound were then linearly interpolated, for each sector and each year between 2000 and
175 2010. A seasonal cycle was applied for each sector, and the NMVOC species anthropogenic
176 emissions have been lumped to 13 species (excluding acetylene) using the same methodology
177 for the NMVOCs speciation as used in the ACCMIP dataset.

178 A large number of emission inventories only provide the distribution of total NMVOC
179 emissions by lumping organic species (alkanes, alkenes, alkynes, alcohols, aldehydes, ketones
180 and aromatic compounds) for chemistry modelling purposes (EDGARv4.2, ECLIPSE-
181 GAINS-4a). We rely on the ACCMIP inventory from ECCAD database which provides a
182 detailed speciation of VOCs including acetylene. ACCMIP global emission inventory covers
183 the historical period (1850–2000) in decadal increments at a horizontal resolution of 0.5° in
184 latitude and longitude, based on the combination of the best global and regional available
185 datasets. ACCMIP was developed mainly to provide consistent gridded emissions of reactive
186 gases and aerosols for use in chemistry model simulations needed by climate models for the
187 Climate Model Intercomparison Program 5 (CMIP5) in support of the Intergovernmental
188 Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fifth Assessment report (AR5) (Lamarque et al., 2010). 40
189 regions and 12 sectors were used to combine the various sources within this inventory and a
190 set of species including CO, NO_x, total and speciated NMVOCs is provided. Speciation of
191 NMVOC emissions is performed using the RETRO (REanalysis of the TROpospheric
192 chemical Composition) (Schultz et al., 2007) inventory and is kept constant for the whole
193 historical period because of the lack of additional information. For all NMVOC species of the
194 RETRO inventory, a factor was calculated only for the year 2000 by dividing the emission of
195 each individual species by the total NMVOC anthropogenic emissions for each sector in each
196 grid cell.

197 For comparison with observations, we extracted the emission fluxes (kg/m²/s) of 11 individual
198 NMVOCs as well as CO of 8 grids covering Lebanon surface area (ECCAD database). Target
199 sectors cover all anthropogenic sectors and the transport sector for 2000. Since the flux of the
200 8 grids is spatially homogeneous for all compounds, we calculated a mean flux for each
201 NMVOC to derive the emission ratio from the inventory. Comparing emission ratios from the

202 inventory to observations collected at one measurement site stays relevant. Indeed the sub-
203 urban site is far enough from strong direct emissions (industrial, road transport) since they can
204 hide the emissions from distant sources, and it receives air masses coming from Greater
205 Beirut Area which includes the city of Beirut and close suburbs.

206

207 **4. Emission and chemistry of gaseous organic carbon in Beirut on a seasonal basis**

208 The intensity of the emissions, chemistry, and atmospheric dynamics varying throughout the
209 day can affect the diurnal profiles of NMVOC absolute mixing ratios and as a consequence
210 the values of urban enhancement emission ratios (ER) (see section 5). We report in figures 2
211 and 3 for summer and winter, respectively, the average diurnal normalized profiles to the
212 midnight value of some NMVOC relative to a tracer to examine the relative importance of
213 these processes (Borbon et al., 2013). Acetylene was chosen as a less reactive combustion
214 tracer and its normalized diurnal profile is reported in each panel (grey shaded). The
215 NMVOCs extremely high concentrations have been filtered by removing the northern wind
216 direction events, referring to the identified gasoline evaporation episodic PMF (Positive
217 Matrix Factorization) factor (Salameh et al. 2016), in order to minimize the impact of the
218 local industrial source located in the northern part of the site (Salameh et al., 2015, 2016).

219 In summer all NMHCs including acetylene show the same bi-modal pattern with one midday
220 and one midnight maximum as a result of primary emissions from Greater Beirut transported
221 at the background receptor site between 09:00 and 10:00 and accumulation of emissions at
222 night in a shallower boundary layer. The degree of chemical removal during the day is k_{OH} -
223 dependent (k_{OH} : rate coefficient for the reaction with OH) and increases with k_{OH} as
224 illustrated for alkenes and aromatics. At night alkenes and aromatics follows the pattern of
225 acetylene due to common sources, dilution and less photochemistry. Then the importance of
226 daytime maximum and minimum concentrations becomes modulated by chemical removal
227 when k_{OH} is higher than $8.52 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molecule}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (rate coefficient of ethylene with OH).
228 Compensation of chemical removal at midday by fresh evaporative emission cannot be
229 excluded for aromatics like toluene.

230 In winter the diurnal profiles of NMHCs including acetylene show a unimodal pattern
231 characterized by maximum concentrations in the morning typical of traffic rush hours and a
232 slight decrease until late evening. Contrary to summer, the absence of a midday minimum of
233 normalized concentrations indicates a strong accumulation of primary emissions during the

234 day which is favored by poor dilution and negligible photochemistry. However, the diurnal
235 profiles of alkenes illustrated in figure 3 are characterized by a most pronounced enhancement
236 in the evening which can be related to additional combustion sources like domestic heating
237 since the measurement site is surrounded by a residential area (Salameh et al., 2015).
238 Aromatic and alkane diurnal profiles follow the shape of acetylene profile in general.
239 Nevertheless, one can see a strong enrichment of aromatics during the day originating from
240 the traffic related source where toluene and m,p-xylenes are significantly present (Watson et
241 al. 2001; Badol et al. 2008; Salameh et al., 2016).

242 In this section, we showed that some NMHC especially shorter-lived species like >C7-
243 aromatics, ethylene and propene could be affected by chemical removal in summer so that the
244 measured urban enhancement ratios can be different from the emission ratios. These results
245 are consistent with Salameh et al., 2015. The determination of ER in the next section will take
246 into account the potential effect of chemistry by applying temporal filters for the most
247 reactive species in summer. When NMHCs are not influenced by photochemistry, the
248 enhancement ratios will be estimated using all the data.

249 **5. Determination of urban enhancement emission ratios**

250 The emission ratio for NMVOC species is the ratio of a selected VOC to a reference
251 compound in fresh emissions without undergoing photochemical processing. We applied two
252 methods to determine emission ratios (ER) for each VOC species relative to CO and
253 acetylene. The first method consists in linear regression fits (LRF) on data applied to summer
254 and winter datasets and the other method relies on extrapolating the photochemical age to
255 zero which was applied to the summer data, photochemical removal being negligible in
256 winter.

257 **5.1. Linear Regression Fit (LRF) method**

258 A commonly applied method to determine emission ratios is the linear regression fit (LRF) by
259 calculating the slope of the scatterplot between a particular NMVOC versus acetylene or CO
260 (Borbon et al., 2013). These reference compounds have been chosen due to their low
261 reactivity and since they are two tracers of incomplete combustion. Additionally, according to
262 the national emission inventory (Waked et al., 2012) and to PMF results (Salameh et al.,
263 2016), the road transport is the dominant source of NMVOCs in Lebanon and Greater Beirut;
264 in urban areas as well, emissions of CO are also dominated by vehicular emissions (von
265 Schneidemesser et al., 2010).

266 During both campaigns, as shown in the discussion in section 4, photochemical processing did
 267 not play an important role in influencing NMVOC chemical compositions in ambient air of
 268 Greater Beirut except for the most reactive species during the day in summer (alkenes and
 269 aromatics). For the latter, emission ratios for NMVOC versus CO and for NMVOC versus
 270 acetylene were derived from slopes of LRF for measurements made between 23:00 and 07:00
 271 local time in summer when chemistry can be neglected. For isoprene, anthropogenic
 272 emissions can be derived from nighttime data in the absence of its light-dependent biogenic
 273 origin (Borbon et al., 2001). The LRF approach assumes that the composition of urban
 274 emissions relative to CO and to acetylene does not change between day and night. For other
 275 species, the emission ratios were derived from slopes of LRF for all the data in winter and
 276 summer since there is no effect of photochemistry even during the day in summer, and in
 277 order to cover the urban mixing of emissions from all the sources. The results are detailed in
 278 section 5.4 and summarized in table 2.

279 **5.2. The Photochemical Age method**

280 The photochemical method takes into consideration the photochemical processing of
 281 measured ratios of NMVOC with acetylene. We applied this method to all the summertime
 282 dataset. Following de Gouw et al. (2005), Warneke et al. (2007), and Borbon et al. (2013), we
 283 assume that the photochemical removal of NMVOC species is dominated by a reaction with
 284 the OH radical. In this method, the ratio of NMVOC with acetylene is plotted versus the
 285 photochemical age as shown in Figure 4.

286 The photochemical age of air masses, Δt , is estimated by using the NMVOC ratios following
 287 this equation:

$$288 \quad \Delta t = \frac{1}{[OH](k_{135TMB} - k_{benzene})} \times \left[\ln\left(\frac{[135TMB]}{[benzene]}\right)_{t=0} - \ln\left(\frac{[135TMB]}{[benzene]}\right) \right] \quad (1)$$

289 Where [OH] is the concentration of hydroxyl radical, fixed to $5 \times 10^6 \text{ molec.cm}^{-3}$; k_{135TMB}
 290 ($56.7 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3.\text{molec}^{-1}.\text{s}^{-1}$) and $k_{benzene}$ ($1.22 \times 10^{-12} \text{ cm}^3.\text{molec}^{-1}.\text{s}^{-1}$) are the reaction rate
 291 coefficients with OH radical of 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene and benzene, respectively; [135TMB]
 292 and [benzene] are the volume mixing ratios in ppb of benzene and 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene,
 293 respectively. The 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene/benzene ratio was chosen to investigate the
 294 photochemical age because these two compounds have similar sources but their lifetimes are
 295 significantly different and lower than air mass transport timescale. The ratio of [135TMB]

296 over [benzene] at time zero (t=0) defines the emission ratio at a photochemical age of zero.
297 This emission ratio was derived from a scatter plot of [135TMB] vs. [benzene], it corresponds
298 to the emission enhancement ratio at nighttime data where photochemical processing can be
299 neglected.

300 In figure 4, we report the ratios of measured benzene/acetylene, m,p-xylenes/acetylene, and
301 ethylene/acetylene as a function of the photochemical age. Calculated photochemical age is
302 usually lower than 1h. As expected, the benzene/acetylene ratio remains constant with
303 increasing photochemical age whereas a decrease of m,p-xylenes/acetylene and
304 ethylene/acetylene ratios is observed because they are more reactive. Surprisingly the
305 ethylene/acetylene ratio decreases faster than the (m,p)-xylenes/acetylene one while (m,p)-
306 xylenes are two times more reactive than ethylene. The decrease of the (m,p)-
307 xylenes/acetylene ratio might be modulated by additional evaporative emissions during the
308 day that counterbalance its chemical removal.

309 Following de Gouw et al. (2005) and Warneke et al. (2007), the equation used for
310 emission ratio determination illustrated in figure 4 is described as follows for primary
311 NMHCs (equation 2):

$$312 \quad \frac{[NMVOC]}{[C_2H_2]} = ER_{NMVOC} \times \exp[-(k_{NMVOC} - k_{C_2H_2})[OH]\Delta t] \quad (2)$$

313 where [NMVOC] and [C₂H₂] are the volume mixing ratios in ppb of the NMVOC and
314 acetylene respectively; ER_{NMVOC} is the emission ratio of the NMVOC relative to acetylene;
315 k_{NMVOC} and k_{C₂H₂} are the OH rate coefficients for the reaction of those compounds with OH
316 radical ([OH] = 5.10⁶ molecules.cm⁻³); and Δt is the photochemical age calculated by equation
317 1. The emission ratios of NMVOCs are estimated by extrapolating the photochemical age to
318 zero which is the intercept on the y-axis of the linear fit (figure 4).

319 Following Borbon et al. (2013) and Warneke et al. (2007), the emission ratios determined
320 with the photochemical age method are not affected when reducing or increasing the OH
321 values by a factor of 2.

322 **5.3. Performance of the different methods**

323 Figure 5 illustrates the performance of the ER determination methods for the summertime
324 data where ERs from the photochemical age and LRF methods are compared. There is an
325 overall very good agreement between the two methods (slope of the linear fit in red = 0.90

326 and correlation coefficient of 0.99) showing the robustness of the methods and confirming
327 that the selection of all the data for less-reactive species and nighttime data for more reactive
328 species for summer in the LRF method does not bias the results. The calculated determination
329 coefficients R^2 with acetylene and CO ranged from 0.3 for some species like ethane to 0.9 for
330 the majority of the species in winter, and with acetylene in summer from 0.5 to 0.9 showing
331 the importance of combustion related sources during both seasons. The standard deviation of
332 the ER determined by the photochemical method was low and varied between zero and 0.04
333 for propane, the coefficient of variation was below 3% for the majority of the species
334 indicating the robustness of the photochemical method.

335 **5.4. Emission ratios and seasonal variability**

336 The ER derived from all wintertime and summertime (nighttime dataset for most reactive
337 species) datasets by the LRF method as well as the ER from the road transport established by
338 near-field measurements (Salameh et al., 2014) are summarized in Table 2. ERs relative to
339 CO were not calculated in summer because CO data were not available for the whole
340 campaign.

341 The ER derived from the observations (summer and winter) are comparable at $\pm 50\%$ to the
342 ratios of road transport sector, during at least one season, for more than 80% of the species.
343 This shows that urban emission fingerprint is mainly driven by traffic emissions including
344 ethane which does not have any urban natural gas usage contribution in Lebanon. For other
345 species like C4 to C6-alkenes, styrene, and a few alkanes in winter the differences stay within
346 a factor of 2, except for propane where they are 5 in summer and 3 in winter. These
347 differences can be partly explained by the contribution of additional sources.

348 In general, the ERs in winter are slightly lower than in summer (Table 2). Figure 6 compares
349 the derived emission ratios of NMVOC species relative to acetylene at the measurement site
350 during summer and winter. The wintertime emission ratios for most NMVOC species agree at
351 $\pm 30\%$ (slope of 0.71) with the summertime ERs and within a factor of 2 and a high
352 determination coefficient of 0.94. Finally, there is no significant seasonality in ER regardless
353 of the species except for 1-pentene, cyclohexane, styrene, 2,2-dimethylbutane, and 1,2,3-
354 trimethylbenzene. Those species are associated with ER lower than 0.1. These results indicate
355 that the urban emission composition contributing to the ambient concentrations is not
356 significantly different between summer and winter. The sources usually affected by
357 seasonality are in winter related to combustion and to fuel evaporation in summer. Our results
358 based on ER are consistent with previous PMF results (Salameh et al., 2016), showing that the

359 road transport sector (combustion and gasoline evaporation) is the dominating source in both
360 seasons in Beirut.

361 These findings are different from the results usually found in recent studies. For instance,
362 Boynard et al. (2014) found that the emission ratios relative to acetylene in French cities
363 (Paris and Strasbourg) are slightly affected by the seasonality of emissions for benzene and
364 alkenes whereas other NMVOC species (alkanes and higher aromatics) exhibit 3 to 7 higher
365 emission ratios in summer. Moreover, Wang et al. (2014) reported lower wintertime emission
366 ratios for most NMVOC species than the summertime values by a factor ≥ 2 in Beijing,
367 China. This seasonal difference in emission ratios for most NMVOC species is possibly due
368 to the seasonal variations in NMVOC sources and in particular the modulation between
369 wintertime combustion and summertime evaporation.

370 **6. Comparison to other cities worldwide**

371 The NMVOC emission ratios relative to acetylene determined in Beirut by the LRF method
372 are compared to those recently determined in contrasted cities of North America (Los
373 Angeles, USA), Europe (Strasbourg, France), Middle East (Mecca, Saudi Arabia), and Asia
374 (Beijing, China) on a seasonal basis in figure 7.

375 Usually ERs agree within a factor of 2 except for aromatics (benzene excepted) and some
376 alkanes (C2 – C5). Those species are related to the unburned fuel fraction and natural gas or
377 liquefied petrol usage.

378 Among C2-C5 alkanes and regardless of the season, ER of ethane is much lower in Beirut
379 than Los Angeles, Beijing, and Strasbourg but similar to Saudi Arabia since the natural gas
380 source is not widely used in Lebanon and Middle East countries (Salameh et al., 2015).
381 Regardless of the season, ERs of aromatics are higher in Beirut compared to northern post-
382 industrialized countries and even the Middle Eastern city Mecca. One should note that
383 aromatic differences are quite significant between the two Middle Eastern cities, from a factor
384 of 3 up to a factor of 6 for (m,p)-xylenes. The maximum difference is observed between
385 Beirut and Strasbourg and reached a factor of 10 for m,p-xylenes in winter. Differences are
386 greater in winter than in summer as a consequence of a marked seasonal variability of ER in
387 other cities (Strasbourg and Beijing) in contrast to Beirut. In Beirut, the aromatics are emitted
388 from combustion related sources and from gasoline evaporation which accounts for more than
389 40% in winter as well as in summer (Salameh et al., 2016). ERs of alkenes, which are
390 combustion products, usually agree within a factor of two between Beirut, Los Angeles,

391 Beijing, and Strasbourg in both seasons, except for C4 and C5 alkenes with LA and Beijing;
392 whereas they are higher in Mecca due to their additional evaporative origin (Simpson et al.,
393 2014).

394 **7. Evaluation of global emission inventories for anthropogenic speciated VOC emissions**

395 The emission fluxes ($\text{Kg/m}^2/\text{s}$) extracted from ECCAD database are converted to mole
396 emission fluxes, then the NMVOC ratios relative to CO and relative to acetylene are
397 determined.

398 The comparison held here will consider the common compounds present in the ACCMIP and
399 MACCcity, when possible, global emission inventories and measured during ECOCEM
400 campaigns which are listed in table 3. Important NMVOC species are present within these
401 inventories as tracers of many anthropogenic sources, reactive species, and important
402 precursors of ozone and SOA (Table 3). We consider that the speciation is “reasonable” when
403 there is an agreement within a factor of two between observations and emission inventory.

404 **7.1. Emission inventory vs. observations: all anthropogenic sectors**

405 To analyze the consistency of the speciation of NMVOCs in the ACCMIP and MACCcity
406 global emission inventories, we compared the individual NMVOC relative to CO as well as to
407 acetylene ratios during summer and winter obtained by the LRF method. Figure 8 displays the
408 ratios from the anthropogenic emissions data (ACCMIP and MACCcity) and the observations
409 in a logarithmic scale for 11 individual NMVOC species color coded by the NMVOC groups.
410 Except benzene, xylenes to a less extent and long-lived alkanes, ER relative to acetylene
411 agree within a factor of 2 between observations and inventory suggesting that the VOC
412 speciation in ACCMIP is better represented for more reactive VOCs such as alkenes and
413 some aromatics. Regarding ER relative to CO, differences with ACCMIP are significant. A
414 global underestimation by the inventory by a shift towards lower ER over an order of
415 magnitude is observed suggesting an overestimation of CO emissions by ACCMIP.

416 In order to consolidate our conclusions regarding VOC speciation within ACCMIP, we
417 performed the systematic calculation of the ratios of every NMVOC to each of the other
418 NMVOCs (NMVOC_i) in the global emission inventory and in the observations (Coll et al.,
419 2010) separately, and then we reported in figure 9, the ERs obtained from ACCMIP versus
420 those obtained from the observations. From figure 9, it appears that benzene is systematically
421 overestimated up to a factor of 5 in ACCMIP and to a lesser extent, pentanes and butanes by a
422 factor >2 whereas xylenes are underestimated in the ACCMIP global emission inventory but

423 not systematically. The other compounds are closer to the line of the slope (= 1), below a
424 factor of 2. Finally, comparisons between ACCMIP and observations (figures 8 and 9)
425 suggest that the overall speciation of anthropogenic sources for major hydrocarbons that act as
426 ozone and SOA precursors in ACCMIP is better represented than the others species but it is
427 still need improvement.

428 **7.2. Emission inventory vs. observations: road transport sector**

429 Our study has shown that calculated ER are comparable to the ones of road transport sector
430 for more than 80% of the species (table 2) which is consistent with PMF results (Salameh et
431 al., 2016). In Lebanon, PMF results showed that the major sources of NMHCs were traffic-
432 related emissions (combustion and gasoline evaporation) in winter and in summer accounting
433 for 51 and 74 wt% respectively. Moreover, according to Parrish et al. (2009), the largest
434 source of emissions in most urban areas is road traffic, which includes tailpipe and
435 evaporative emissions. Therefore, it is also crucial to assess the emission inventories
436 regarding the road transport sector namely ACCMIP and EMEP SNAP 07.

437 We proceeded as in the previous section by comparing the road transport ER relative to
438 acetylene for all VOCs and individual VOCs from ACCMIP and EMEP emission inventories
439 to the ER from near-field measurements (figures 10 and 11) (Salameh et al., 2014). ERs of
440 alkenes from the road transport sector are usually consistent within a factor of 2 for the
441 regional emission inventory EMEP and the global inventory ACCMIP. In EMEP, benzene
442 and ethane are overestimated whereas butanes are underestimated; while xylenes and toluene
443 are underestimated over a factor of 2 by ACCMIP. At a more detailed level, by calculating the
444 ratios for individual NMVOC, figure 11 confirms that xylenes and toluene are underestimated
445 species by both inventories, and benzene is overestimated by EMEP.

446 **7.3. Perspectives for Middle East region (MEA)**

447 After a focus on Lebanon, the purpose of this last section is to provide some perspectives
448 regarding the whole MEA region. Figure 12 shows the comparison of ER relative to acetylene
449 from the ACCMIP emission inventory considering all the anthropogenic sectors of Lebanon
450 compared to the ones of four other Middle Eastern countries that are expected to be high VOC
451 emitters (Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Iran and Turkey). An overall agreement within a factor of 2 of
452 the ERs is observed between countries of the Mediterranean border (Lebanon, Turkey, and
453 Egypt). However, when comparing Lebanon to other Middle East countries, some gaps are
454 depicted: The emission inventory suggests that the ERs of benzene, toluene, as well as of C4-

455 C5 alkanes are lower in Lebanon compared to Iran and Saudi Arabia. For the latter those
456 observations are completely contradictory with the ones reported in figure 7. We have shown
457 that the anthropogenic emissions in Beirut were more enriched in aromatics and propane and
458 poorer in some alkenes than the ones of Mecca while benzene ER was consistent between
459 both countries. While the comparison here is limited by the number of species compared to
460 figure 7 this suggests that the global emission inventory does not reproduce the heterogeneity
461 of VOC anthropogenic emission composition between countries of the MEA. This could be
462 indicative for other MEA countries where emissions data and measurements are scarce.
463 Systematic and additional observations are needed in order to test the importance of such
464 spatial variability in anthropogenic VOC emission composition.

465 **8. Conclusions**

466 Detailed measurements of NMVOCs collected at a sub-urban site in Beirut, Lebanon, have
467 been used to evaluate regional and global emission inventories (ACCMIP, MACCity and
468 EMEP) downscaled to the studied domain. These data were collected during two intensive
469 field campaigns in summer 2011 and in winter 2012 within the framework of the ECOCEM
470 project.

471 The emission ratios (ER) of individual NMVOC species relative to CO and acetylene were
472 successfully derived from ambient measurements in summer and in winter as well as from
473 near-field measurements for the road transport sector by applying two independent methods:
474 the linear regression fit method and the photochemical age method. Emission ratios from both
475 methods show a very good agreement at $\pm 10\%$.

476 The ER derived from the observations (summer and winter) are comparable to the ratios of
477 the road transport sector for more than 80% of the species. There is generally no significant
478 seasonality in ER regardless of the species unlike the seasonality usually observed in other
479 cities. These results are consistent with the significant contribution of road transport sector
480 (combustion and gasoline evaporation) in winter and summer (Salameh et al., 2016).

481 Regardless of the season, ERs derived from observations agree within a factor of 2 between
482 Beirut and other representative worldwide cities except for the unburned fuel fraction and
483 ethane. Aromatics (benzene excepted) show the largest differences up to a factor of 10 for
484 m,p-xylenes compared to northern post-industrialized countries and even another middle
485 eastern city like Mecca in Saudi Arabia.

486 ER relative to CO and to acetylene as well as the ratios of every NMVOC to each of the other
487 NMVOCs (NMVOC_i), extracted from ACCMIP and MACCity global emission inventory

488 were compared with the corresponding observed ER during both seasons, for all
489 anthropogenic sectors. This comparison suggests that the overall speciation of anthropogenic
490 sources for major hydrocarbons that act as ozone and SOA precursors in ACCMIP is better
491 represented than other species but it is still need improvement.

492 The road transport ER relative to acetylene derived from near-field measurements are
493 compared to ER from ACCMIP and EMEP regional emission inventory for the road transport
494 sector. ERs of more reactive species (alkenes and aromatics except benzene) are usually
495 consistent within a factor of 2 for the regional emission inventory EMEP while xylenes and
496 toluene are underestimated over a factor of 2 by ACCMIP.

497 It should be emphasized that when a consensus is met between observed and inventory ER
498 (the ER lay around the ratio of 1), this does not necessarily mean that the absolute emissions
499 are correct. Indeed, Salameh et al. (2016) have shown that global inventories (ACCMIP,
500 EDGAR, MACCity) could underestimate the NMVOC emissions up to a factor of 10 for the
501 transportation sector. Both speciation and absolute emissions have to be taken into
502 consideration.

503 Finally, we have shown that the emission inventory is in disagreement with the observations
504 when comparing Lebanon with Saudi Arabia. The observed heterogeneity of anthropogenic
505 VOC emission composition can be significant for reactive VOC (factor of 6 for m,p-xylenes)
506 but is not depicted by global emission inventories. This suggests that systematic and detailed
507 measurements are needed in the MEA region in order to better constrain emission inventory.
508 VOC emission inventory is the fundamental input of air quality modelling, therefore it plays a
509 major role in characterizing secondary pollution and control policy formulation. To improve
510 the quality of future VOC emission estimates, more efforts should be made toward refinement
511 of source classification, development of representative local emission factors, comprehensive
512 collection of activity data, and more accurate spatio temporal characterization. Additionally,
513 comparison of available datasets will allow a quantification of the uncertainties on emissions.

514 At a regional and global level, long term and continuous studies integrating more than one
515 measuring site and more specific tracers are of great interest in order to provide more reliable
516 information and the use of surface observations from monitoring stations could help defining
517 better speciations.

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Table 1: Measurements during ECOCEM Campaigns.

Species	Instrument	Time resolution	Performances	References
On-line				
67 C2-C9 NMHC 29 alkanes 19 alkenes 2 alkynes 17 aromatics	TD-GC-FID	1 h	DL: 40 - 90 ppt, uncertainty: 4 - 35% for the majority of the NMHCs	Salameh et al., 2014, 2016
Off-line				
67 C2-C9 NMHC	Canister / TD-GC-FID	Sampling < 3 min / 1h analysis	DL: 40 - 90 ppt, uncertainty: 15%	Salameh et al., 2014, Sauvage et al., 2009

Table 2: Urban Emission Ratios of VOCs Relative to Acetylene and CO in Beirut in summer and in winter obtained by calculating a Linear Regression Fit to Data. The ERs from road transport by near-field measurements are also reported. Bold characters indicate the similarity at $\pm 50\%$ of the VOC/acetylene ER from the measurement campaigns to the one of near-field measurements.

NMVOC	$\Delta\text{VOC}/\Delta\text{C}_2\text{H}_2$ (ppb/ppb)			$\Delta\text{VOC}/\Delta\text{CO}$ (ppb/ppm)
	Beirut– summer 2011	Beirut– winter 2012	road transport-near field spring 2012 measurement (Salameh et al., 2014)	Beirut – winter 2012
ethane	0.23	0.18	0.21	1.50
propane	1.02	0.58	0.21	5.40
n-butane	1.14	0.95	1.87	6.70
i-butane	0.25	0.48	0.72	3.30
n-pentane	0.26	0.15	0.40	1.10
i-pentane	1.22	0.75	1.77	5.30
2-methyl-pentane	0.29	0.18	0.30	1.20
3-methyl-pentane	0.17	0.11	0.16	0.80
2,2-dimethylbutane	0.10	0.03	0.11	0.20
n-hexane	0.11	0.10	0.10	0.90
Methylcyclopentane	0.13	0.11	0.06	0.90
2-methyl-hexane	0.11	0.08	0.08	0.70
3-methyl-hexane	0.11	0.09	0.09	0.70
cyclohexane	0.04	0.01	0.01	0.10
n-heptane	0.07	0.05	0.06	0.40

2,3-dimethylpentane	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.20
Methylcyclohexane	0.04	0.03	0.03	0.20
3-methyl-heptane	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.20
n-octane	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.20
2,2,4-trimethylpentane	0.17	0.13	0.19	1.00
2,3,4-trimethylpentane	0.06	0.04	0.08	0.30
n-nonane	0.04	0.03	0.01	0.20
acetylene	-	-	-	8.20
propyne	0.05	0.04	0.04	0.40
ethene	1.59	1.02	0.97	9.30
propene	0.47	0.32	0.31	3.00
1-butene	0.10	0.09	0.20	0.70
cis-2-butene	0.13	0.08	0.15	0.60
trans-2-butene	0.16	0.11	0.19	0.90
isobutene	0.17	0.12	0.42	1.00
3-methyl-1-butene	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.10
2-methyl-1-butene	0.09	0.06	0.15	0.40
1-pentene	0.05	0.17	0.34	1.40
cis-2-pentene	0.05	0.05	0.11	0.40
trans-2-pentene	0.11	0.11	0.25	0.80
1,3-butadiene	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.50
isoprene	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.20
Cyclopentene	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.10
Methylcyclopentene	0.02	0.01	0.02	0.10
1-hexene	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.10
benzene	0.25	0.23	0.24	2.00
toluene	1.56	1.33	1.09	11.10
m,p-xylenes	0.81	0.57	0.61	4.80
o-xylene	0.27	0.19	0.19	1.70
Ethylbenzene	0.23	0.16	0.15	1.40
n-propylbenzene	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.20
Isopropylbenzene	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.04
m-ethyltoluene	0.14	0.09	0.09	0.80
p-ethyltoluene	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.30
o-ethyltoluene	0.04	0.03	0.04	0.30
styrene	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.20
1,3,5-trimethylbenzene	0.08	0.04	0.05	0.30
1,2,3-trimethylbenzene	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.08
1,2,4-trimethylbenzene&decane	0.24	0.16	0.19	1.40

Table 3: List of target species and their K_{OH} (Atkinson and Arey 2003; Atkinson 2007) and Y_{SOA} (SOA formation potential) (Derwent et al., 2010)

ACCMIP nomenclature MACCity*	Compounds considered from ECOCEM database	K_{OH} ($10^{-12} \text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{molécule}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)	Y_{SOA}
Ethane*	Ethane	0.25	0.1
Propane*	Propane	1.09	0
Butanes	Butane and isobutane	2.36 and 2.12	0.3 and 0
Pentanes	Pentane and isopentane	3.8 and 3.6	0.3 and 0.2
Ethene*	Ethene	8.52	1.3
Propene*	Propene	26.3	1.6
Acetylene	Acetylene	0.9	0.1
Benzene	Benzene	1.22	92.9
Trimethylbenzene	Sum of 1,2,3-1,2,4-,1,3,5-trimethylbenzene	32.7; 32.5; 56.7	43.9; 20.6; 13.5
Toluene	Toluene	5.63	100
Xylenes	Sum of m,p-xylenes and o-xylene	13.6; 23.1; 14.3	95.5; 84.5; 67.1
CO*	CO		

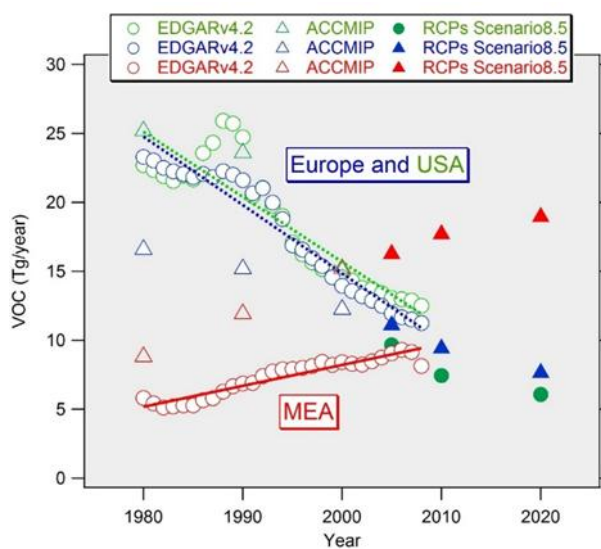


Figure 1: Evolution of the NMVOC anthropogenic total emissions (Tg/year) in the MEA, USA and Europe (OECD Europe and Eastern Europe) from 1980 to 2020 from reference global emission inventories (ECCAD database).

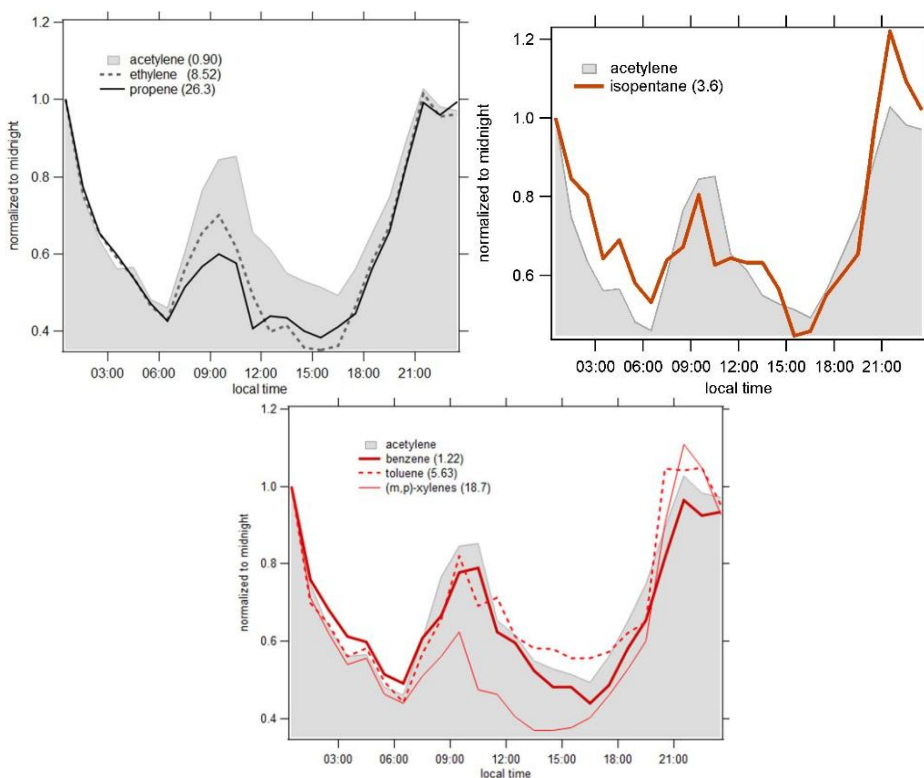


Figure 2: Normalized diurnal profiles of the mixing ratios of selected species to midnight values in summer. Numbers in parentheses are the rate coefficient with $\text{OH} \times 10^{-12} \text{cm}^3 \text{molecule}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson and Arey2003; Atkinson 2007).

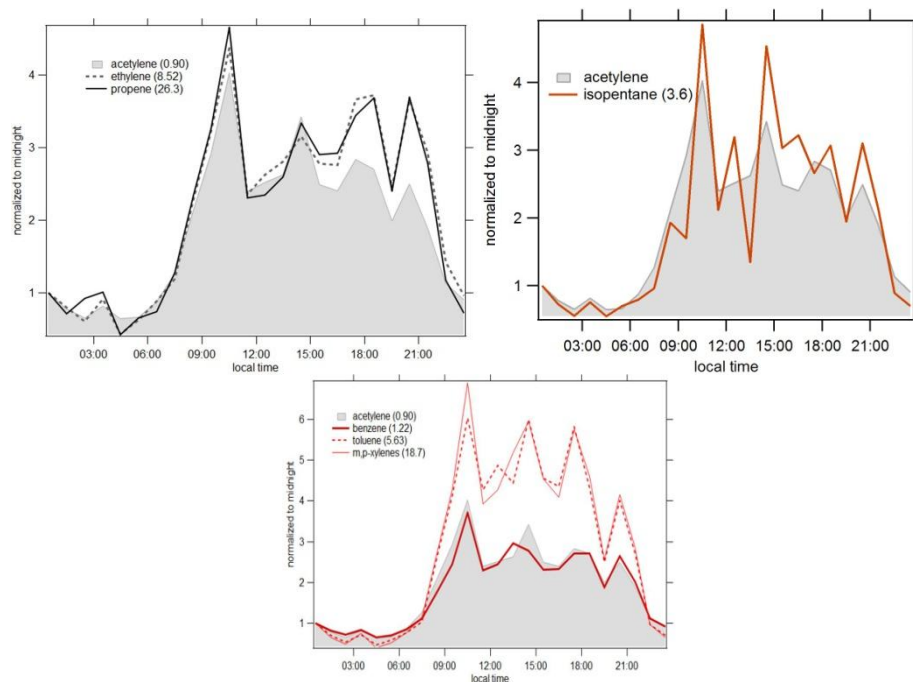


Figure 3: Normalized diurnal profiles of the mixing ratios of selected species to midnight values in winter. Numbers in parentheses are the rate coefficient with $\text{OH} \times 10^{-12} \text{cm}^3 \text{molecule}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Atkinson and Arey2003; Atkinson 2007).

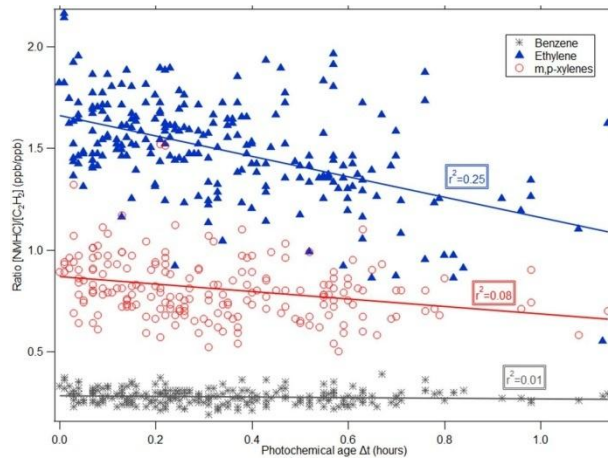


Figure 4: Measured ratios of benzene/acetylene, m,p-xylenes/acetylene, and ethylene/acetylene as a function of photochemical age (hours).

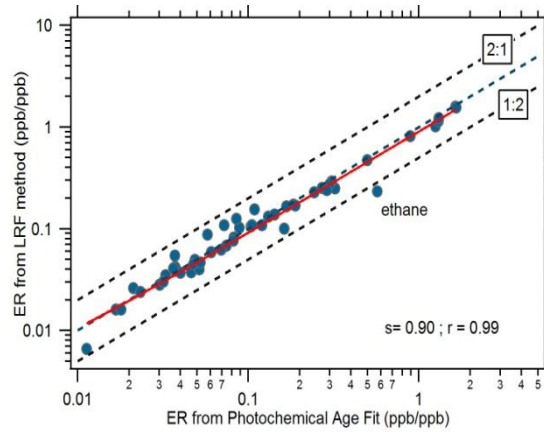


Figure 5: Comparison of the emission ratio (ER) estimated relative to acetylene by the nighttime linear regression fit and the photochemical age fit in summer.

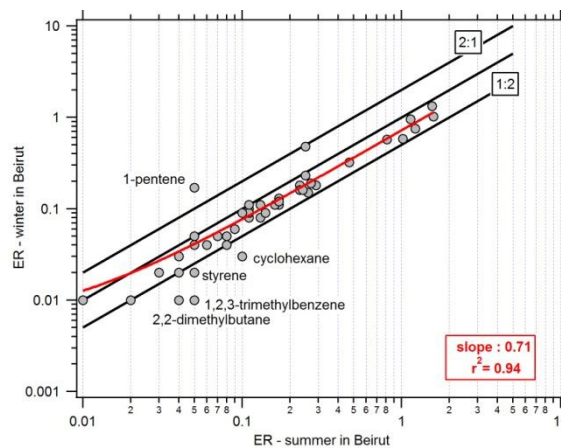


Figure 6: Comparison of summertime and wintertime emission ratios vs. acetylene in Beirut.

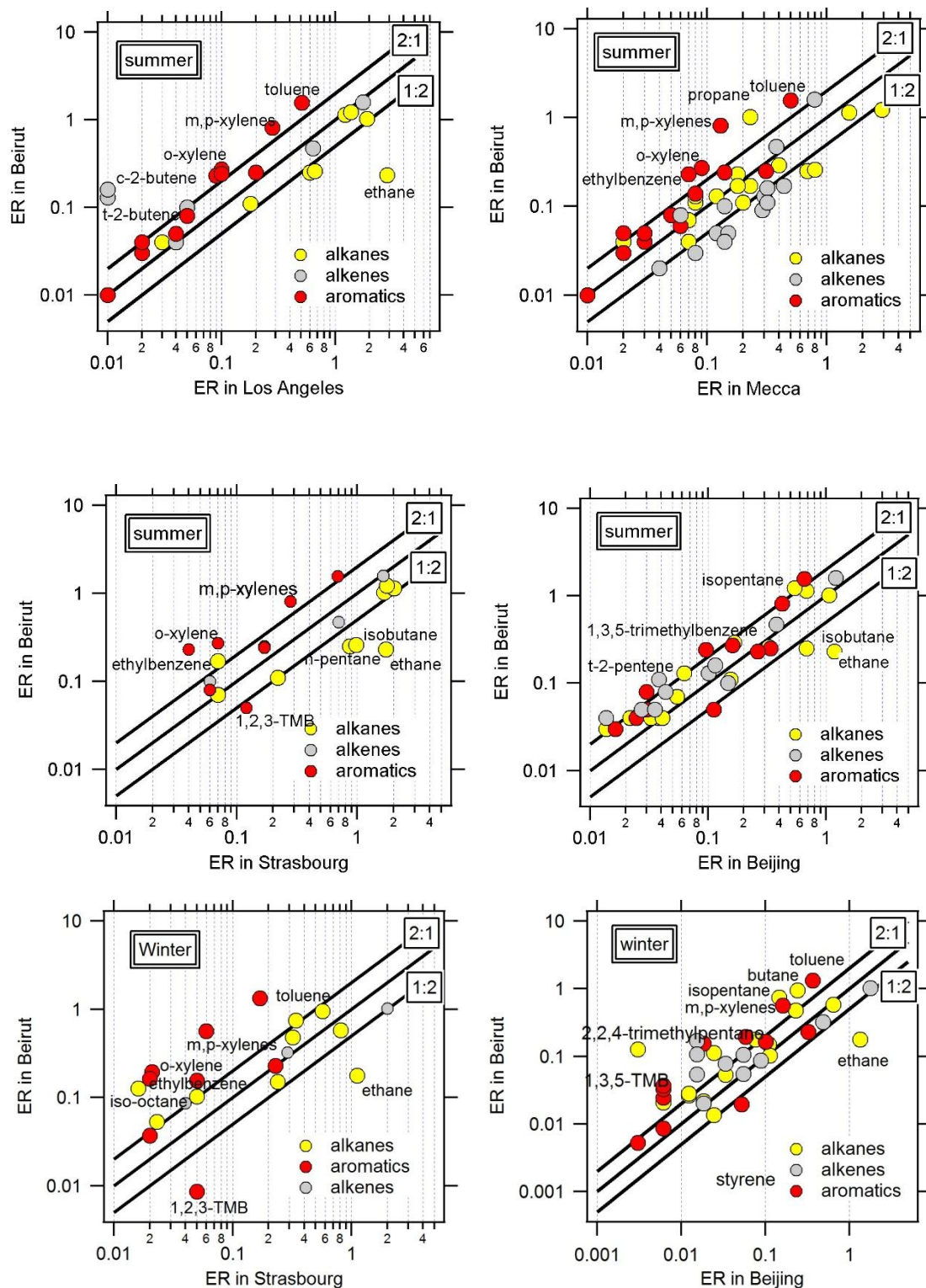


Figure 7: Comparisons of NMVOC emission ratios determined at the Beirut sub-urban site with those for Los Angeles, US (Borbon et al., 2013); Strasbourg, France (Boynard et al., 2014); Beijing, China (wang et al., 2014); and Mecca, Saudi Arabia (Simpson et al., 2014). (TMB: Trimethylbenzene)

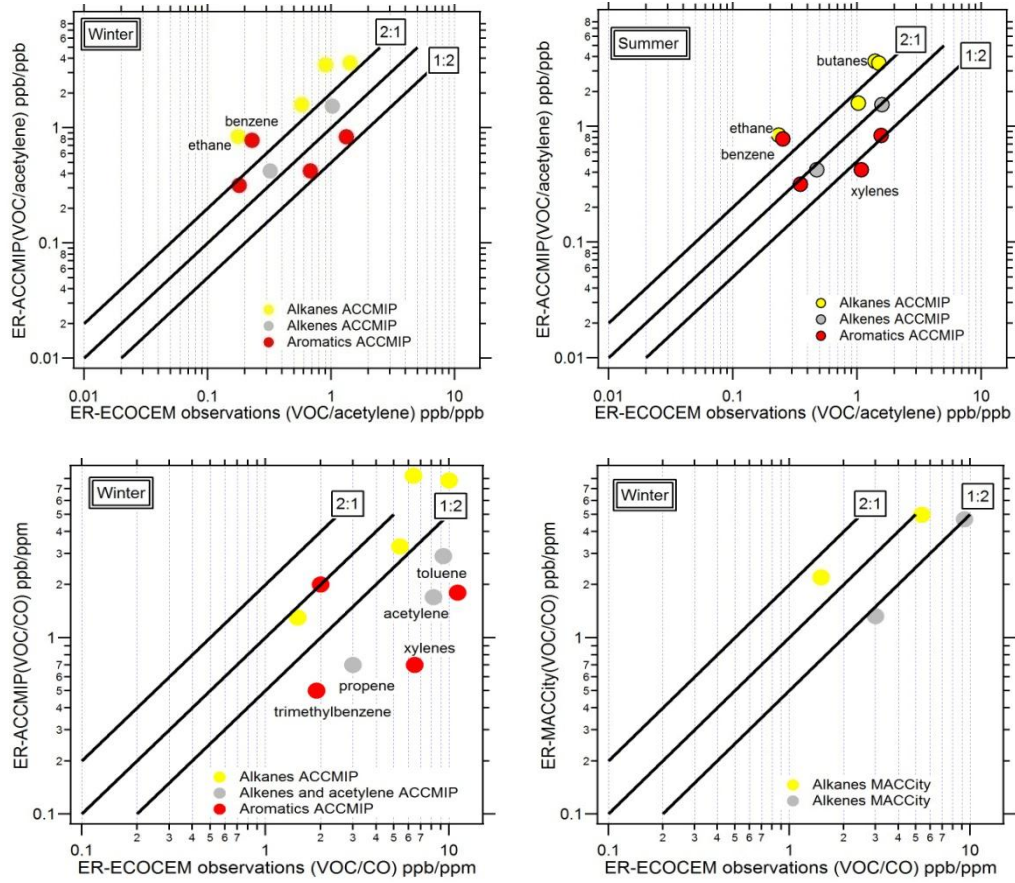


Figure 8: Comparison of the emission ratios from ACCMIP and MACCcity to the measured ones by LRF method, in summer and in winter, relative to CO and acetylene, for all the anthropogenic sectors.

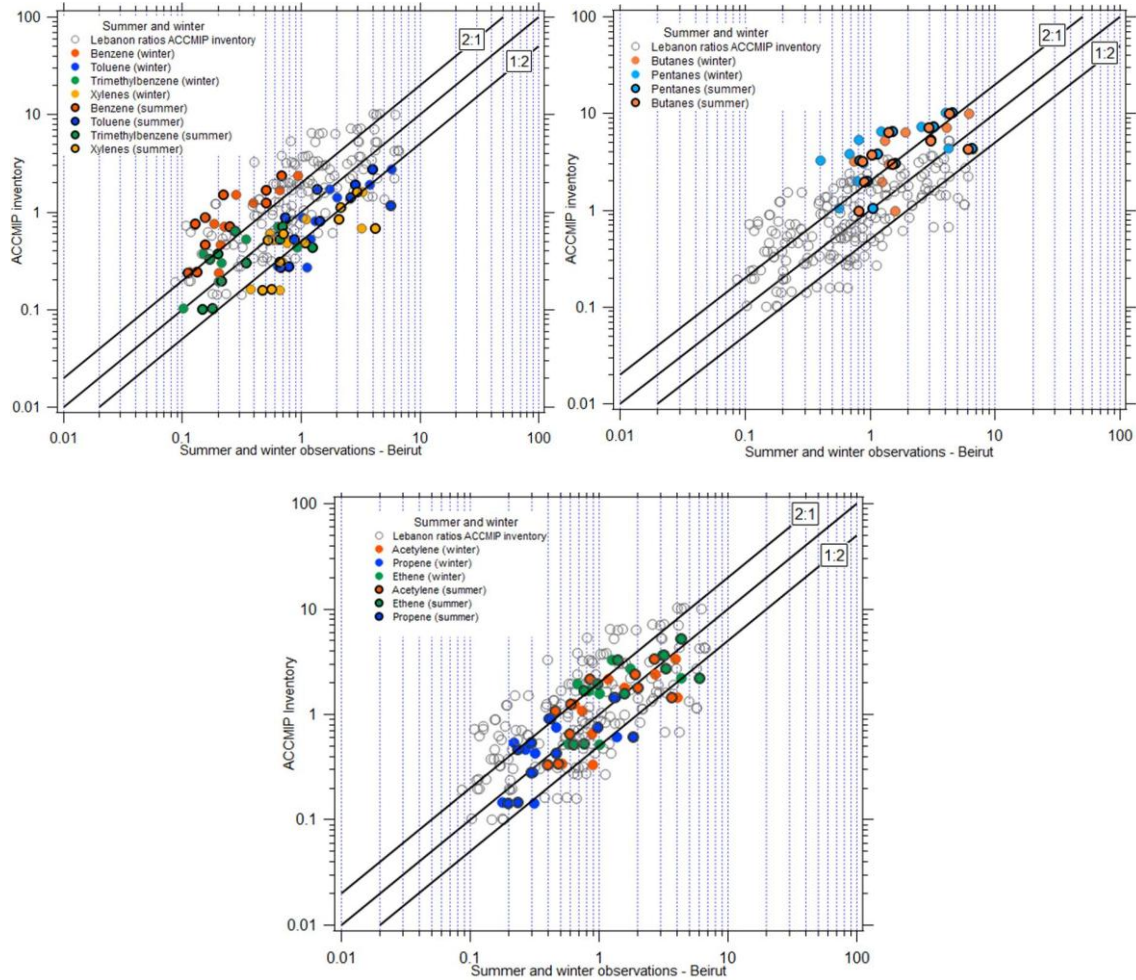


Figure 9: Comparison of the emission ratios of NMVOC vs. NMVOC_i from ACCMIP to the measured ones, in summer and in winter, for all the anthropogenic sectors, for all data of all compound classes (in grey dots) and for a given NMVOC (colored dots).

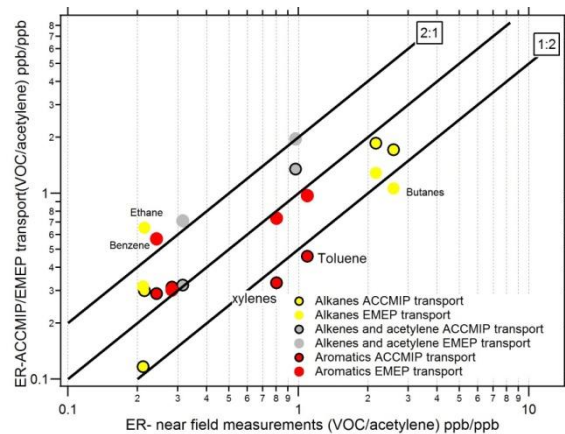


Figure 10: Comparison of the emission ratios relative to acetylene, from ACCMIP and EMEP emission inventories for road transport to the ER from road transport by near-field measurements.

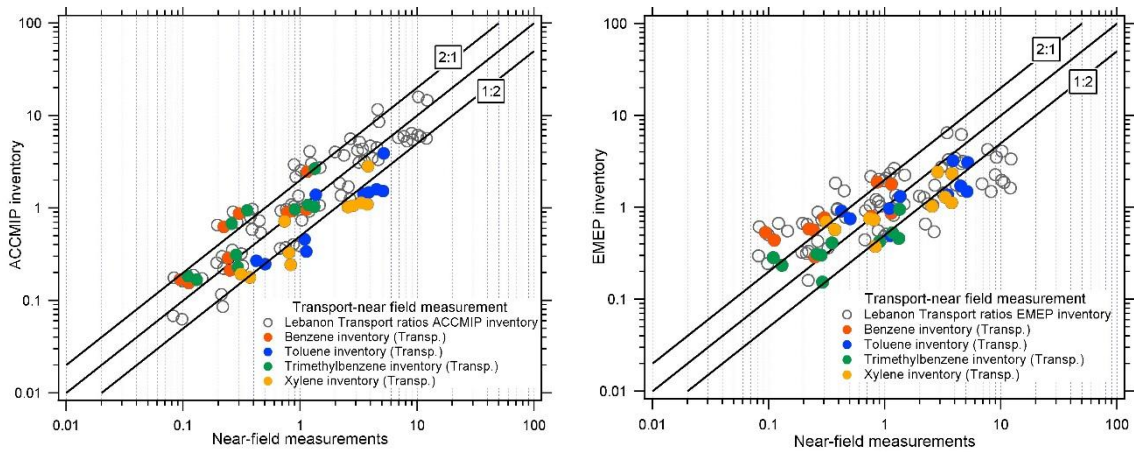


Figure 11: Comparison of the emission ratios of NMVOC vs. NMVOC_i from ACCMIP and EMEP to the ER from near-field measurements for the road transport sector, for all data (in grey dots) and for a given NMVOC (colored dots).

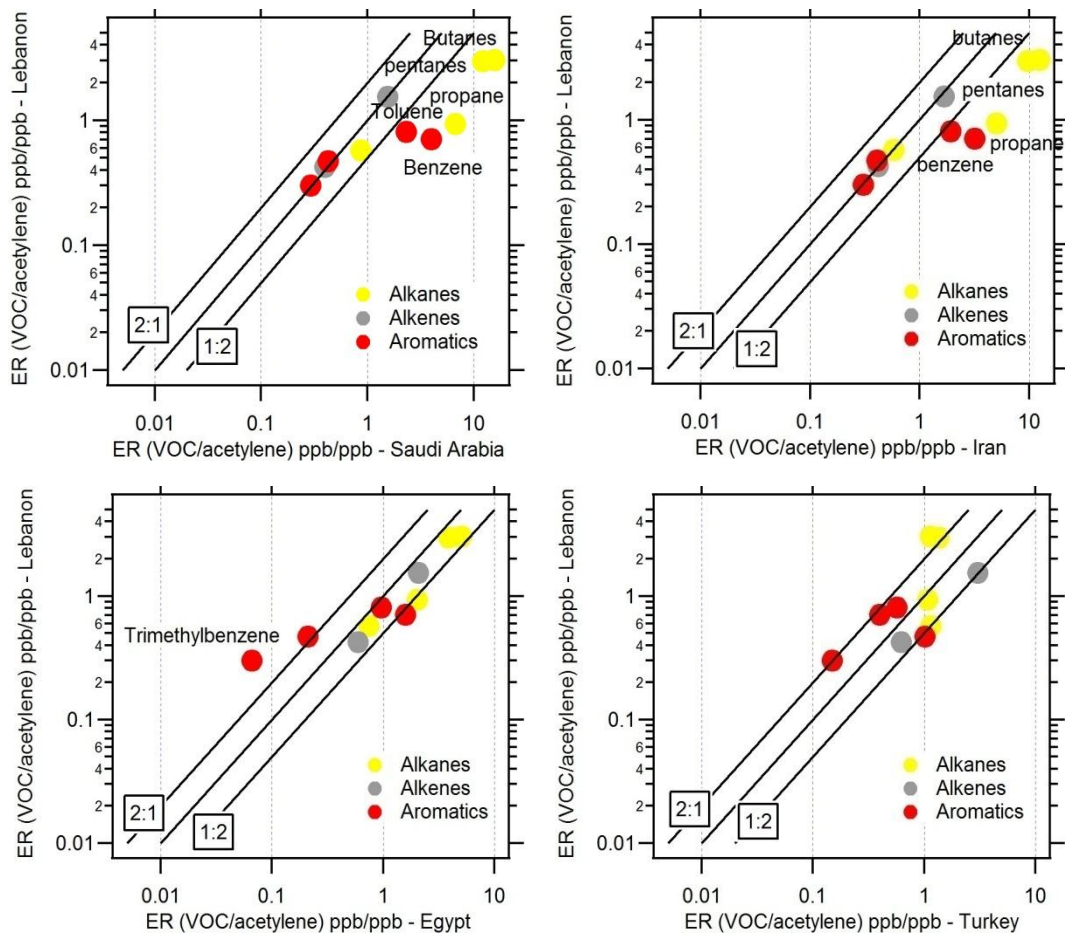


Figure 12: Comparison of the emission ratios from ACCMIP relative to acetylene for all the anthropogenic sectors for five Middle Eastern countries (Lebanon, Egypt, Turkey, Iran, and Saudi Arabia).