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Emissions inventory of NO₂ and VOCs

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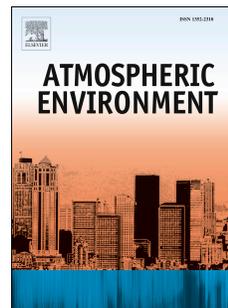
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Identifying the impact of Beirut Airport's activities on local air quality - Part I: Emissions inventory of NO₂ and VOCs

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1 Abstract

2 In Lebanon, the steady growth of aircraft movements at Beirut-Rafic Hariri International Airport
3 (RHIA) and its geographical characteristics, signifies the necessity to assess the impact of Beirut
4 airport on air quality. Up till now, no study has assessed the impact of Beirut-Rafic Hariri
5 International Airport (RHIA) on the air quality of Beirut. Hence, we produce the first emissions
6 inventory of Beirut airport activities (2012) - including emissions from aircraft landing and take-
7 off (LTO) operations, ground support equipment, stationary sources, as well as airside and
8 landside vehicles. This study, in which the first comprehensive emissions inventory in the
9 Middle East region is conducted, provides a methodology to assess airport emissions in a country
10 with no data. We estimated that in 2012, Beirut airport emitted 454.8 t of NO_x, 50.7 t of NO₂,
11 404.1 t of NO, and 24.4 t of VOCs. Results showed that aircraft emissions (Landing/Take-off
12 cycle and auxiliary power units) dominate the airport emissions for NO_x (91%), NO₂ (92%), NO
13 (91%), and VOCs (58%). Our emissions estimates will be used in identifying the contribution of
14 Beirut airport emissions to national emissions and in order to assess the airport's compliance
15 with environmental legislations and to assess mitigation options.

16 *Keywords:* Aviation Emission; Emissions Inventory Toolkit (EMIT); Nitrogen dioxide; Volatile
17 organic compound; Beirut

19 1. Introduction

20 Civil aviation is an integral part of the world economy providing 56.6 million jobs worldwide
21 and its economic impact is estimated at \$2.4 trillion, equivalent to 3.4% of world gross domestic
22 product (GDP) (ATAG, 2014). Commercial aviation activity is predicted to grow by 5% per year
23 over the next 10–15 years (CAEP 9, 2013). This would come at a cost, most notably a significant
24 increase in pollutant emissions. These emissions include nitrogen oxides (NO_x), Volatile Organic
25 Compounds (VOCs), carbon dioxide (CO₂), sulphur oxides (SO_x), particulate matter (PM) or
26 soot, etc. that have the potential to impact both the global climate and local air quality (LAQ)
27 near airports presenting risks to public health (nearby residents, airport workers and passengers)
28 (Jung *et al.*, 2011; Levy *et al.*, 2012; Schindler *et al.*, 2013; Yim *et al.*, 2013) and the
29 environment (FAA, 2015; Mahashabde *et al.*, 2011).

30 To implement mitigation measures and assess the potential health impacts of these aviation
31 activities on residents, evaluating the emissions of airport operations – the airport emissions
32 inventory – is necessary. Emission inventories are used as input for air quality modelling for the
33 assessment of compliance with environmental legislation. Few studies have addressed airport
34 pollutant emissions. At Dallas/Fort Worth International Airport, Nikoleris *et al.* (2011)
35 conducted a detailed estimation of fuel consumption and emissions (NO_x, hydrocarbons, carbon
36 monoxide); it was found that stop-and-go situations and taxiing at constant speed were the two
37 largest sources of fuel burn and emissions among the taxi phases. In the middle east region, only
38 few studies have addressed aircraft pollutant emissions at airports (Kesgin, 2006; Elbir, 2008;
39 Yılmaz, 2017). Elbir (2008) estimated atmospheric emissions (NO_x, HC, CO) from commercial
40 aircraft with gas turbine engines during the LTO cycle at a mid-sized Turkish airport – Adnan
41 Menderes Airport – as 197 t /y for NO_x, 21 t /y for hydrocarbons (HCs), and 138 t /y for carbon
42 monoxide (CO). Also, it was estimated that an increase of 1 min in taxiing time causes an
43 increase of 0.4%, 4.2%, and 4.6% in the amounts of NO_x, HC, and CO emissions respectively
44 (Elbir, 2008). A recent study conducted by Yılmaz (2017) estimated the total pollutant gas
45 emissions (NO_x, HC, CO) from aircraft during the landing/take-off (LTO) cycles for the year
46 2010 at Kayseri Airport – Turkey. Results showed that 102.6 t/y of NO_x, 8.4 t/y of HC, and 66.9
47 t/y of CO were emitted. However, these studies were just limited to determine pollutants from
48 aircraft emissions during the landing/take-off (LTO) cycle - not taking into account pollutant
49 emissions from the different airport activities (e.g. auxiliary power units (APU), ground support
50 equipment (GSE), power plants, landside vehicles, etc.). Also, only few studies took into account
51 the real time-in-modes for aircraft operations.

52 In Lebanon, the steady growth of aircraft movements (+5%) at Beirut-Rafic Hariri International
53 Airport (RHIA) makes sense from the geographic perspective. Beirut-RHIA is in the middle of a
54 populated area and upwind of the capital Beirut. Hence, the pollution from the airport is expected
55 to blow over the capital and its suburbs. This was supported by observations found in a previous
56 study conducted by Chelala (2008), which reported that 34% of the total nitrogen dioxide
57 concentrations at a measurement site located at the eastern part of Beirut (Pine Forest), was
58 coming from the southwest direction (where the airport is located). This makes us hypothesize
59 that the airport might be one of the reasons to explain this observation. Moreover, the airport's
60 location and layout is such that the approach jet trajectory is above the seashore area (see Fig. 1
61 (a)), which presents a significant emission source up to distances greater than 8 km away from
62 the airport. Also, the topography surrounding the airport as well as time-varying wind direction
63 and speed, can have a substantial influence on the dispersion of aviation emissions. It is
64 important to note that in our study, inhabitants and residential apartments surrounding the airport
65 are much closer to it than the population surrounding other international airports worldwide.

66 In Beirut, many studies have focused on road transport emissions (Chélala, 2008; Daher *et al.*,
67 2013; Waked *et al.*, 2012). Up till now, no study have assessed pollutant emissions from Beirut-
68 RHIA's activities *via* conducting an emissions inventory. The output of this inventory will be
69 later exported to ADMS-Airport model in a future study to assess the pollutants dispersion taking
70 into account the influence of meteorological factors. Conducting this emissions inventory was a
71 real challenge because no previous inventory has been done for airport-related emission sources
72 nor for road traffic around the airport. However, intensive work was dedicated to produce the
73 first emissions inventory for Beirut Airport (2012). Emissions data were calculated and stored in
74 the emissions inventory toolkit (EMIT) (CERC, 2015), requiring more than one year of
75 exhaustive work.

76 While aircraft engine emissions include non-volatile particulate matter that are harmful to human
77 health and the environment (Yim *et al.*, 2015; Stettler *et al.*, 2011; Barrett *et al.*, 2010), this work
78 mainly focused on gaseous species where also assessed in other complementary experimental
79 studies (outdoor and indoor) to be published later. We have focused, in particular, on the effects
80 of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) and VOCs, key ozone and PM precursors emitted from aircraft
81 exhaust. Nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) is the most significant local air quality pollutant emitted from
82 aircraft (ICAO, 2008a) and presents a health risk in the Lebanese capital (Badaro-Saliba *et al.*,
83 2013). On the other hand, VOCs are harmful pollutants for health (alteration of the airways,
84 cancer, and death) (Wood, 2008). The objectives of this paper are to: (i) provide a methodology
85 to conduct the airport emissions inventory, especially in countries where no data is already
86 available; (ii) develop the first emissions inventory for Beirut-RHIA's activities at the medium
87 approach for the base year 2012; and (iii) assess the contribution of the different activities at
88 Beirut airport to the total mass emitted for 2012.
89

90 2. Methods

91

92 2.1 Study Area

93 This study was conducted at Beirut-RHIA, the only operational commercial airport in
94 Lebanon, located about 8 km south of the capital's city center (see Fig. 1 (a)). The airport is
95 located on the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea making it affected by a Mediterranean
96 climate. To the east of the airport, Mount Lebanon - a mountain range sloping up to 2500 m - is
97 located (Daëron, 2005). Excluding its western side (Mediterranean Sea), Beirut Airport is
98 embedded in a very urbanized area.

99 The airport code number is 2E. Beirut-RHIA handles a wide range of flights including
100 international passenger, airfreight, military, and domestic air traffic, and is primarily utilized by
101 the Middle East Airlines (around 50% of the total fleet). The distribution of aircraft by type at
102 Beirut Airport for the year 2012 is shown in Fig. 2: the statistical results show that Airbus 320
103 (A320) (39%), Airbus 321 (A321) (13%), Boeing 738 (B738) (9%), Airbus 330 (A330) (9%),
104 Airbus 319 (A319) (4%), Embraer 190 (E190) (3%), Boeing 737 (B737) (3%) are the most
105 commonly used aircraft at Beirut - RHIA. Other aircraft types (< 20%) using Beirut - RHIA
106 include Embraer 170 (E170), Canadair Regional Jet CRJ-900 (CRJ9), Boeing 777 (B777),
107 Bombardier Challenger 605 (CL605), etc. (Lebanese DGCA, 2016, 2015).

108 Beirut airport has three runways and 14 taxiways (Fig. 2). The runways are named
109 according to their magnetic heading; and are runways 03/21, 16/34, and 17/35. Runway 21,
110 located to the east of the airport center, is the main departure runway due to the prevalence of
111 southwest wind conditions. It extends to 3800 m and is 45 m wide (Lebanese DGCA, 2017),
112 making it well equipped to accommodate a variety of aircraft. Runway 16 is the main landing
113 runway due to the prevalence of wind conditions; while runway 17 is mainly used for landing
114 and take-off of light private aircraft.

115

116

117 2.2 Generating an Emissions Inventory

118 An emissions inventory contains information regarding airport emissions (magnitude of
 119 emissions and the spatial allocation of emissions). Using appropriate input data, it calculates the
 120 total mass of emissions released into the environment from specific emission sources for a
 121 selected period of time (e.g. t/yr) to be used as input for modelling pollutant concentrations
 122 (ICAO, 2011). To minimize the uncertainty, the full range of sources (97% aircraft - engine
 123 combinations, 90% auxiliary power unit (APU), all generators and fuel tanks, all ground support
 124 equipment (GSE), etc.) which are important in assessing air quality in the vicinity of Beirut
 125 Airport, were included in the emissions inventory. These sources have been grouped into the
 126 following 5 categories: aircraft main engines (2.2.1), auxiliary power unit (2.2.2), aircraft ground
 127 support equipment (2.2.3), airport static sources e.g. fuel tanks (2.2.4), and other sources (2.2.5).

128 Emissions data were calculated and stored in EMIT (Emissions Inventory Toolkit),
 129 developed by CERC (2015); extra work was urged to be done in this regard due to the absence of
 130 any previous database (aircraft types and engine models, APU models, GSE, power plants, etc.).
 131 Within EMIT, the emissions inventory contains several groups. Each group contains only
 132 sources of the same source type, i.e. volume, point, area, road, etc. The magnitude of emissions
 133 for each source was calculated from source activity data using emission factor datasets stored in
 134 EMIT, using equation (1) below:

$$135 \quad E = A \times e_f \quad (1)$$

136 where A is the unit activity/yr and e_f is the emission factor in tonnes of pollutant/unit activity.
 137 These emission factor datasets are activity datasets i.e. for these source types the total emission E
 138 of a particular pollutant in tonnes per year (t/yr) is equal to the product of the activity (A) and the
 139 emission factor (e_f). For example, the activity A can be the number of LTO cycles per year or
 140 working hours of APU per year. EMIT holds the emission factors and thus calculates the
 141 emission rate E (t/yr) when the activity data are entered by the user. This is applied to point, area,
 142 line, and volume sources. These emission rates (t/yr) were then converted by EMIT to units of
 143 $g/m^3/s$ (volume source) or $g/m^2/s$ (area source) or g/s (industrial point source), etc. according to
 144 the dimensions of each source type used (Section 2.3). Uncertainty analysis of emission rates
 145 generated by EMIT are rarely reported in literature.

146 On the other hand, the spatial allocations were plotted in ArcMap based on the real locations of
 147 the operations taking place in Beirut Airport. In a future study, these emissions rates and spatial
 148 allocations will be exported directly to ADMS-Airport as input for air dispersion modelling.

149 2.2.1 Aircraft Main Engines

150 The assessment of aircraft main engine emissions for 2012 included ca. 63000 aircraft
 151 movements during the different modes of operation of the Landing/Take-off cycle. A standard
 152 LTO cycle is comprised of four modal phases that represent approach (30% thrust), taxi-in/idle
 153 and taxi-out/idle (7% of the total thrust), take-off (100% of the total thrust), and climb-out (85%
 154 of the total thrust). The landing phase was further broken down into arrival (approach (3000-
 155 1500 ft), approach (1500 ft-touchdown)) and landing roll to obtain more accurate results. Each
 156 phase has a duration or time-in-mode and thrust settings as assigned by ICAO (2011).
 157 There are various approaches or methodologies to quantify aircraft emissions, with varying
 158 degrees of accuracy and what determines the choice of approach (basic, medium, and complex)

159 is the availability of information (magnitude and spatial allocation) and the required accuracy of
 160 the concentration output (CERC, 2017). In brief, the basic approach requires basic knowledge
 161 with easily available data; the medium approach is more airport specific and requires additional
 162 information (e.g. volume sources for each of taxiing, take-off, climb-out, approach, and landing
 163 rather than representing all aircraft emissions as a single volume source (CERC, 2017)), whereas
 164 the complex approach requires in-depth knowledge (ICAO, 2011). In the complex approach,
 165 emissions generated are based on the actual performance of each aircraft i.e. a trajectory path and
 166 engine power setting is calculated for each aircraft-engine combination and specific aircraft
 167 weight, allowing accurate calculation. Hence, in the latter approach a more accurate TIM is
 168 known compared to the medium approach and the assumption that the aircraft power is set at a
 169 fixed level in a flight mode is not required (CERC, 2017). Despite the absence of any previous
 170 database or inventory for Beirut Airport, intensive work was performed to assess aircraft engine
 171 emissions using the medium approach for the year 2012. To achieve that, a detailed emissions
 172 inventory for about 63000 aircraft movements (31620 arriving and 31600 departing aircraft) was
 173 conducted covering 97% of aircraft-engine combinations. These movements included all
 174 commercial, cargo, and general aviation flights; however, it was impossible to access
 175 information regarding military fleet (2.5 % of the total fleet) due to security reasons.

176 The emissions inventory required detailed parameters, like aircraft-engine combination (e.g.
 177 B737-300 may have different engines installed: 2 × CFM-56-3B1, 2 × CFM-56-3B2, 2 ×
 178 CFM56-3C-1, or CFM56-5B6/P), thrust for each aircraft mode, annual number of LTO cycles for
 179 each aircraft-engine combination, and time-in-mode (TIM) for each mode in a single flight. For
 180 emission calculations, the ICAO dataset (year 2011) installed within EMIT was used along with
 181 activity data. The ICAO dataset provides the mode-specific emission factors (NO_x, NO₂, VOCs,
 182 etc.) for certified engines of every aircraft-engine combination in units of kilogram per min
 183 (kg/min), for the four power settings of the engine emissions certification scheme. For example,
 184 the general speciation for NO_x (NO and NO₂) according to ICAO's dataset (2011) for the
 185 aircraft-engine B737-CFM-56-3B1 are provided in Table 1. In comparison with the speciation
 186 (kg/LTO cycle) presented by Wood *et al.* (2008) for the same aircraft-engine combination and
 187 TIM presented in Table 2, the major difference in speciation was at idle power: the emission
 188 ratio (NO₂/NO_x) was equal to 91% (Wood *et al.*, 2008) versus 15% according to ICAO's
 189 datasheet (CERC, 2015). Also, the total LTO NO_x emissions presented by Wood (3.30 kg) was
 190 very similar to ICAO's total NO_x emissions (3.60 kg) presented by Wood *et al.* (2008). Hence,
 191 even the emission factors reported by ICAO at different times, i.e. 2011 and that presented by
 192 Wood *et al.* (2008), showed big discrepancies i.e. a factor of 2 (7.19/3.60). Of course, we
 193 implemented the most recent datasheet in our study (ICAO, 2011) since it takes into account the
 194 latest engine and aircraft technologies. Although NO is the major emitted pollutant; however, it
 195 is rapidly transformed to NO₂ which justifies why we focused on NO₂ in our emissions inventory
 196 and experimental field measurements.

197 Multiplying the mode-specific EF by the TIM yields a mode-specific emission rate in
 198 units of kilograms per LTO for each engine. The emission rates (kg/yr) were calculated using
 199 equation (2) (CERC, 2017).

$$200 \text{ Emissions (kg)} = \sum_{i=0}^n \text{LTO}_i \times [N_i \times \sum_{j=0}^3 \text{TIM}_{i,j} \times \text{EF}_{i,j}] \quad (2)$$

201 where i: airframe-engine type

202 j: aircraft mode (take-off roll, climb-out, approach, taxi-in or out)

203 n : number of different air frame-engine types (e.g. [A320-200, CFM56-5B4/3, (8CM055)],
 204 [Boeing 777-200 series, GE90-94B, (8GE100)], etc.)

205 $EF_{i,j}$: emission factor for airframe-engine type i in mode j (unit kg/min).

206 LTO_i : number of landings and take-off cycles of airframe-engine type i

207 N_i : number of engines installed on an airframe-engine

208 $TIM_{i,j}$: the time period (min) an airframe-engine type i spends at an identified power setting,
 209 pertaining to each of the four LTO operating modes j (i.e., take-off, climb-out, approach, and
 210 taxi/idle) of the operational flight cycle (ICAO, 2011).

211 Aircraft movements (timetable) for the year 2012 were obtained from the Directorate
 212 General of Civil Aviation (DGCA). Information regarding aircraft type and engine model were
 213 obtained by conducting field visits to airline companies, pilots, airport authority (Lebanese
 214 DGCA and Airlines, 2013), as well as from aircraft type certificate datasheets available online.

215 In general, times-in-mode differ depending on the characteristics of the airport. For
 216 example, the total time-in-mode for taxi-in and taxi-out is 26.0 min according to ICAO reference
 217 LTO (ICAO, 2011) (see Table 3); which is much longer than the actual duration for taxi at Beirut
 218 Airport. However, it was possible to determine more detailed times-in-mode to allow for a
 219 realistic emissions inventory through monitoring aircraft movements from the control tower. The
 220 taxi-out/idle duration was measured the moment the aircraft started its engine for taxiing until it
 221 entered the runway for take-off. The same procedure was used to measure TIM for taxi-in from
 222 the time the aircraft left the runway until reaching the gate. Thus, the total taxi time was
 223 estimated to be 10 min, which is less than the ICAO TIM by a factor of 2.6, which implies a
 224 significant reduction in emission estimations during taxi by a factor of 2.6. Similarly, real time-
 225 in-modes for the other LTO operational modes were determined as summarized in Table 3.

226 In fact, it was not feasible to obtain exact information regarding thrust settings at each
 227 site and for every aircraft. However, estimated thrust settings were used based on the ICAO
 228 (2008b) standard thrust settings; the thrust levels considered for idle, approach, take-off, and
 229 climb-out are respectively 7%, 30%, 100%, and 85% of the rated thrust (see Table 3). It is
 230 important to note that in real operation, the take-off thrust varies from aircraft to another
 231 according to the aircraft type and engine model, flight load, meteorological conditions, runway
 232 conditions, etc.

233 Regarding the spatial references of the different modes of the LTO cycle, information
 234 was obtained from monitoring the aircraft movements from the control tower as well as from
 235 pilots, air traffic controllers, and aircraft engineers to obtain representative values. The
 236 geographic coordinates for the arrival and departure sources were obtained from pilots and air
 237 traffic controllers using real aircraft observations and Standard Instrument Arrival Routes
 238 (STARs) that are published procedures followed by aircraft before reaching a destination airport,
 239 or Standard instrument departure (SID) routes that are published flight procedures followed by
 240 aircraft on an IFR flight plan immediately after take-off from an airport. Aircraft sources used in
 241 this study have the same location of emissions for all aircraft types i.e. all aircraft during climb-
 242 out are modelled within the same geographical extents although in reality there are differences in
 243 the trajectories. This is a simplification, and when modelling an airport more details can be given
 244 by assigning different geographical extents to different aircraft types. The depth and elevation
 245 used for each mode was adapted from ADMS-Airport Manual (CERC, 2017) for the medium

246 approach and is explained as follows: (i) Take-off and taxi are emissions for the main engines, so
247 the elevation used (1.75 m) represents typical engine heights (ii) the defaults (depth and
248 elevation) for approach were used to represent the descent of aircraft: the first volume source
249 assumes well-mixed emissions between 3000 ft and 1500 ft, and the second volume source
250 assumes well-mixed emissions between 1500 ft and ground-level. Because approach (elevated
251 source) has a relatively small impact on ground-level concentrations of gaseous pollutants, this
252 relatively simple approach can be used to represent the aircraft and its environmental impact
253 (Matthews, 2018; Peace et al., 2006).

254 **2.2.2 Auxiliary Power Unit (APU)**

255 APU emissions were also assessed to complement aircraft movements for about 63000
256 aircraft. These emissions, which take place at the gate prior departure or after landing, were
257 modelled as volume sources. The activity data for APUs (APU type and operation hours) were
258 obtained as follows: (i) An approximate time of 1.5 hr before departure and 1.5 hr after landing
259 was used, as estimated by several airport engineers and pilots in RHIA; (ii) the APU models
260 were obtained from several airline companies and by using several references (CERC, 2015;
261 European Environment Agency, 2009; Unique, 2005). The depth (12 m) and elevation (6 m)
262 were chosen according to ADMS-Airport manual values since APU units, typically located at the
263 back of an aircraft, are located around 6 m above ground-level. For emission calculations, APU
264 2004 dataset (CERC, 2015) installed within EMIT was used along with activity data. The APU
265 2004 dataset, compiled by FAA, includes emission factors (kg/unit) for 29 different APU types
266 which are associated to aircraft included in the inventory.

267 **2.2.3 Ground Support Equipment (GSE)**

268 Aircraft GSE included both GSE operating at the stand (e.g. GPU) and mobile sources
269 across the apron (called airside vehicles (e.g. crew buses)). For GSE at the stand, detailed
270 information about the working hours for each GSE type was obtained from the major handling
271 companies like Middle East Airlines Ground Handling (MEAG) responsible for the majority of
272 ground support equipment, Directorate General of Civil Aviation (DGCA) at Beirut Airport,
273 Mideast Aircraft Services Company (MASCO), Middle East Airports Services (MEAS),
274 Lebanese Air Transport (LAT), Trans Mediterranean Airways (TMA), Executive Air Services,
275 Beirut Wings, and others. This included information about the various types of GSE utilized (>
276 16 GSE types): baggage belt loader, air climate unit, aircraft tug, baggage cart tractor, cargo
277 loader, cargo loader main deck, catering truck, GPU, refuelling truck, forklift, lavatory truck,
278 narrow body towbarless aircraft tug, passenger stairs, refuelling dispenser truck, refuelling tanker
279 truck, water truck, etc. In section 3.1, the emissions of all GSE are grouped together according to
280 literature (Celikel et al., 2002; Kennedy et al., 2009; Stettler et al., 2011). Since the majority of
281 GSE emissions are from vehicles on the ground, lower values for the depth (2 m) and elevation
282 (1 m) are suggested by CERC. For emission calculations, AIRPORT GSE 2007 dataset (CERC,
283 2015) installed within EMIT was used along with activity data. This dataset includes emission
284 factors (kg/hr) for generic heavy GSE or based on equipment at Zurich airport (Unique, 2005).
285 To assess airside vehicles (i.e. road traffic within the airport vicinity), emission rates were
286 computed using the EMIT datasheet (EUROSCALED 03) with activity data related to traffic
287 (vehicles/hr classified as motorcycles/light/heavy, hourly speed). Due to the lack of any previous
288 assessment, activity data for airside vehicles was obtained by manually counting the vehicles on

289 the airport ramp and classifying them (light or heavy) at low, medium, and high traffic activities
 290 during different times of the week between July and October.

291

292 **2.2.4 Fuel Tanks**

293 Airport fuel farm emissions are mainly constituted of VOCs, which result from the
 294 evaporation of the fuel stored in the airport tanks (aircraft fuel, GSE fuel, and power plant fuel).
 295 Because emissions from fuel tanks are dependent on the type and location of the tanks as well as
 296 the ambient temperature, a single set of emission factors are not available for this source type, so
 297 are not included in EMIT.

298 Annual emission rates (t/yr) for VOCs were first calculated using *TANKS* (EPA, 2016), which is
 299 a software designed by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) to
 300 estimate emissions from organic liquids in storage tanks. *TANKS* allows users to enter specific
 301 information about a storage tank which include its dimensions (height and diameter in meters),
 302 turnovers/yr, construction, paint condition (roof and shell), roof type, radius, and height; the
 303 liquid contents (average and maximum liquid heights (ft), chemical components (chemical
 304 category and liquid temperature); and the location of the tank (ambient temperature, etc.), to
 305 generate an air emissions report. The combination of several parameters make the emission
 306 factor of a fuel tank as described by US EPA. Accordingly, the software *TANKS* calculates the
 307 total emission per year upon filling in all the required parameters (activity data). The detailed
 308 equations installed in the software are found in EPA's document (EPA, 2016). For example, for a
 309 fixed-roof tank (case of Beirut Airport), total losses are equal to the sum of the standing storage
 310 loss and working loss:

$$311 \quad L_T = L_S + L_W \quad (3)$$

$$312 \quad \text{Standing Storage Loss } (L_S) = 365 V_v W_v K_E K_S \quad (4)$$

313 Where the activity data is V_v (the vapor space volume) and the emission factor is $W_v K_E K_S$
 314

$$315 \quad \text{Working Loss } (L_w) = 0.0010 M_v P_{VA} Q K_N K_P \quad (5)$$

316
 317
 318
 319 All the parameters required for the 3 kerosene tanks found at Beirut Airport, as well as 20
 320 other tanks (related to generators and GSE) were obtained, and the calculated emissions (kg/yr)
 321 were manually entered into EMIT. Upon entering the yearly emission rates and the spatial
 322 allocation of each fuel tank, emission rates for fuel tanks (modelled as area sources) were
 323 calculated by EMIT.

324 **2.2.5 Other Sources (Power plants, urban sources)**

325 Airport power plants (19 power plants) were modelled as point sources. Activity data
 326 (working hours) were obtained from Middle East Airports Services (MEAS) and Mideast
 327 Aircraft Services Company (MASCO). Due to the lack of previous measurements, the power
 328 plant stack heights and diameters were manually measured (measuring tape) and their geographic
 329 coordinates were taken using a GPS tracking unit. For emission calculations, activity data were
 330 used with emission factors based on the UK Emission Factor Database (UKEFD) 2007 Energy
 331 dataset (CERC, 2015) installed within EMIT. This dataset, based on private communication from

332 UK Atomic Energy Authority, contains emission factors (kg/unit) for different combustion
333 sources.

334 Urban sources included airport landside traffic constituting road traffic at major roads
335 close enough or directly related to the airport to require explicit modelling - the airport's main
336 entrance road. Emission rates resulting from road traffic at the airport main entrance (landside
337 traffic) were computed using the EMIT datasheet (EUROSCALED 03) with activity data related
338 to traffic, i.e. vehicles/hr (motorcycles/light/heavy) and hourly speed. EURO SCALED 03 is a
339 year-dependent emission factor dataset for vehicle emissions including the effects of new fuels
340 and vehicle technologies (CERC, 2015). Spatial parameters included road width (m), elevation
341 (m), canyon height (m) and gradient, as well as spatial allocation (vertices). Due to the lack of
342 any information about these parameters, the flux of vehicles (count/hr) by vehicle category was
343 determined by manual counting, which took place at the road leading to the airport entrance at
344 different levels of activity (low, medium, high) and repeated several times a week to account for
345 all the traffic variations during the week.

346 2.3 Emission Source Models

347 All of the aforementioned sources were modelled as explicit sources as shown in Fig. 3.
348 Once calculated, these emissions were included in ADMS according to several types of sources
349 (volume, area, point, road). In brief, a volume source corresponds to a source where the
350 emissions are distributed in a volume, a point source (or industrial point source) represents
351 typically a stack emission, and an area source (or industrial area source) corresponds to an
352 industrial source that is too large to be treated as a point source and is distributed over a large
353 area at ground level (CERC, 2015). Fig. 3 depicts the different types of source models used. All
354 the aircraft sources, including APU, were modelled as volume sources. GSE was modelled both
355 as a volume source (GSE at the stand) and a road source (airside vehicles). It is important to note
356 that the GSE at the stand and APU are both located at the gates at the center of the airport, which
357 leads to the increase in the estimated emissions at this location, as will be seen later in the model
358 results. The other airport sources were considered as follows: fuel tanks were modelled as area
359 sources, generators or power plants as point sources, and the airport main entrance as a road
360 source as shown in Fig. 3.

361 3. Results and Discussion

362 3.1 Emissions

363 The emission rates calculated by EMIT are presented in Table 4 3. EMIT first calculates the
364 emission rates in t/yr and then converts them to units of g/s (point sources), g/m²/s (area source)
365 or g/m³/s (volume source) or g/km/s (road source) by dividing the emission rates in t/yr by the
366 product of the total volume or area with the total time (Fig. 4 and Fig S1 and S2 in supplementary
367 material). These converted emission rates will be used later in ADMS-Airport dispersion
modelling equations.

368 Fig. 5 shows the estimated annual airport-related NO₂ and VOCs emissions (t/yr) as a
369 function of major source category. The estimated total NO₂ and VOCs emissions for the year
370 2012 are 50.7 and 24.4 t respectively. As seen in Fig. 5, aircraft emissions (APU and LTO cycle)

371 dominate the airport emissions for both NO₂ (92%) and VOCs (68%). As expected, aircraft
372 emissions during the LTO cycle (37.4 t/yr) make the dominant contribution to airport NO₂
373 emissions, followed by aircraft APU emissions (9.3 t/yr), GSE (3.7 t/yr), whereas stationary and
374 road sources are minor contributors (see Fig. 5 (a)). This order of contribution, observed in other
375 studies (Celikel et al., 2002; Stettler et al., 2011), is due to the dependence of the total emissions
376 on the yearly activity data (e.g. working hours) and emission factors (section 2.2) which are
377 highest for aircraft engines. Similarly for VOCs, the major source is also the LTO cycle (11.5 t)
378 (see Fig. 5 (b)). The estimated VOCs emission from GSE are 5.5 t, followed by stationary
379 sources (3.8 t), and APU (2.7 t). In fact, the major contributors to these stationary source
380 emissions are fuel tanks (99.7%), especially the 3 kerosene fuel tanks located at the eastern part
381 of the airport which present a significant source of VOCs.

382 Aircraft NO₂ and VOCs emission are broken down further into emissions by the different
383 modes of the LTO cycle (see Fig. 6). It is important to differentiate between ground level
384 emissions and elevated emissions associated with aircraft where the former have the biggest
385 impact on local air quality, whereas the latter have less impact as they take place at increasing
386 heights. Aircraft ground NO₂ emissions (Landing roll, taxi-in, taxi-out, take-off) were
387 approximately 15.45 t in 2012 constituting 41% of total aircraft engine emissions, whereas the
388 corresponding Aircraft NO₂ and VOCs emission are broken down further were estimated to be
389 10.29 t constituting up to 90% (see Fig. 6). As shown in Fig. 6 (a), the 2 major contributors for
390 NO₂ emissions are the climb-out and approach (arrival) phases each contributing to 11 t/yr. In
391 fact, the emission rate per second for the climb-out phase (1.15×10^{-9} g/m³/s) is greater than the
392 approach phase ($4.7 - 5 \times 10^{-10}$ g/m³/s), but the total volume for the approach phase led to equal
393 emissions in tonnes per year. This is significant because this highlights the fact that the climb-out
394 phase has a higher impact on the concentrations generated by the dispersion modelling (future
395 study). Although the total duration for the take-off phase is 0.7 min, it contributes by 1.3 t/yr to
396 the total NO₂ emissions (14% of the total LTO) (see Fig. 6 (a)) with an emission rate of $3.53 \times$
397 10^{-7} g/m³/s (see Table 4). This is due to the fact that at high speed, the temperature within the
398 combustion chamber is higher, which leads directly to the increase in the emission of nitrogen
399 oxides (Dagaut et al., 2006; Penner, 1999). On the other hand, the taxi phase (taxi-in and taxi-
400 out) dominates the VOC emission sources with a contribution of 10 t/yr or 88% of the LTO cycle
401 contribution as seen in Fig. 6 (b). This is followed by the approach (7%), climb-out (3%), take-
402 off (1%), and landing roll (1%). This result is expected as the ICAO VOCs emission factors for
403 the taxi phase are the highest and those of the take-off phase are the lowest. VOCs emission are
404 higher at low power settings when the temperature of the air is relatively low and the fuel
405 atomization and mixing process is least efficient. This is also in accordance with ICAO databank
406 sheets for unburned hydrocarbons (UHC) for all modern turbine engines; all engines produce
407 less CO and NMHC emission per kg of fuel burned as their power levels are increased above idle
408 (Anderson et al., 2006).

409 3.2 Comparison with Other Airports

410 Table 5 compares the annual LTO emissions at Beirut Airport (2012) with two mid-sized
411 airports (Adnan Menderes Airport (AMA) (2004) and Kayseri Airport (2010)) in Turkey (Elbir,
412 2008; Yılmaz, 2017) which is a Middle Eastern country like Lebanon. Comparisons were also
413 done with Toronto Pearson International Airport – Canada (2007) (Kennedy et al., 2009) which
414 represents a busy airport in North America. The total emissions of VOCs from LTO activities at
415 Beirut Airport (11.5 t/yr) are comparable to emissions from Kayseri Airport (8.4 t/yr) and are

416 almost half the VOCs emission by AMA (21 t/yr). However, much higher VOCs emission are
417 produced by Toronto Pearson International Airport (TPIA) (222 t/yr) as summarized in Table 5.
418 These observations can be explained by the higher number of LTO movements in TPIA (182122
419 movements/yr) which was almost 6 times the number of LTO movements in Beirut Airport for
420 the year 2012. NO_x emissions exhibit the same relative variability among the airports listed in
421 Table 5, reaching up to 2265 t/yr which is around 6 times NO_x emissions at Beirut Airport. This
422 observation maybe explained by the higher number of LTO cycles in TPIA (182122 LTO
423 movements for the year 2007) which is interestingly also around 6 times the LTO movements at
424 Beirut Airport for the year 2012. As a comparison, we can see that the average VOCs mass
425 emitted per LTO movement at Beirut – RHIA (0.00036 t/yr) is much less than the mass emitted
426 by other airports (0.0012 – 0.0021 t/yr) listed in Table 5, which may be related to the fact that in
427 this study we used the real TIM of taxi which is less than the time assigned by ICAO by a factor
428 of 2.6 (see Table 3). On the other hand, NO_x emitted per LTO movement was in the same range
429 (0.012 – 0.013 t/yr) for Beirut Airport, Izmir, and Toronto Airport. This is probably attributed to
430 the use of similar TIMs for each of the take-off and climb phases (almost equal to ICAO TIMs
431 presented in Table 3), which are the major contributors among the various LTO phases to NO_x
432 emissions. It is important to note that while total pollutant emissions from Beirut Airport are
433 much lower than emissions from large international airports (e.g. Toronto Pearson International
434 Airport); however, the location of Beirut Airport in the middle of an urbanized area in very close
435 proximity to nearby residents, upwind of the capital Beirut, surrounded by the sea to the west and
436 mountains to the east – all make it a significant emission source.

437 **4. Conclusions**

438 A methodology to assess emissions from Beirut Airport's activities has been developed and
439 applied despite the absence of any data (activity data related to aircraft, airport stationary and
440 mobile sources, road traffic, etc.). This study provides the first emissions inventory for Beirut
441 Airport's activities using a European emission inventory toolkit in the medium approach. In fact,
442 it is the first study in the Middle East region to conduct a comprehensive emissions inventory for
443 all the airport-related sources. This detailed emissions inventory took into account operational
444 details for around 63000 aircraft movements for the year 2012, as well as detailed parameters for
445 most of the airport's emission sources. We estimate that in 2012, Beirut airport emitted 402.9 t of
446 NO_x, 50.7 t of NO₂, and 32 t of VOCs. This up-to-date and comprehensive emission inventory
447 will be used in a future study to assess the impact of Beirut Airport activities on air quality-by
448 providing emission rates for the dispersion model ADMS-Airport which uses a series of
449 dispersion equations that take into account emission rates, meteorological parameters (e.g. wind,
450 turbulence, and boundary layer), etc.

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Table 1: Mode-specific emission factors (kg/min) for the aircraft-engine Boeing 737 - CFM - 56 - 3B1 (ICAO, 2011)

Table 2: Comparison of the speciation of nitrogen oxides (kg/LTO) according to ICAO's dataset (2011) and Wood *et al.* (2008)

Table 3: Source details for aircraft taxiing, take-off, and climb groups. The realistic times-in-mode were determined in this work through monitoring aircraft movements, presented versus ICAO's (2011).

Table 4: EMIT emission rates calculated for Beirut Airport inventory (2012). Emission rates in t/yr are converted to units of g/s (point sources), g/m²/s (area source), g/m³/s (volume source), or g/km/s (road source).

Table 5: Comparison of annual LTO emissions (t/yr) at Beirut Airport and other airports worldwide

Table 1

Emission Factor (kg/min)	NO₂	NO_x
Idle	0.02	0.02
Approach	0.02	0.12
Climb-out	0.06	0.69
Take-off	0.09	1

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Table 2

Emission Factor (kg/LTO)	ICAO dataset, 2011			Wood <i>et al.</i> , 2008		
	NO ₂	NO _x	% (NO ₂ /NO _x)	NO ₂	NO _x	% (NO ₂ /NO _x)
Idle	0.52	1.39	15.0	0.53	0.58	91.4
Approach	0.17	1.16	37.5	0.08	0.49	16.3
Climb-out	0.17	3.24	5.3	0.13	1.53	8.5
Take-off	0.06	1.41	4.5	0.06	0.70	8.6
Totals per engine/LTO	0.93	7.19	12.9	0.80	3.30	24.2

*For the sake of comparison with Wood *et al.* (2008), NO₂ and NO_x emissions for ICAO (2011) were calculated by multiplying the time-in-mode presented by Wood *et al.* (2008) with the emission factors (kg/min) provided by ICAO (2011)

Table 3

Source Group	Source Name	Thrust (%)	TIM (min) ICAO	TIM (min) This study
Arrival	Approach (3000-1500 ft)	30	4.0	2.5
	Approach (1500 ft-touchdown)			2.5
	Landing roll			0.6
Taxi	Taxi-in	7	7.0	4.0
	Taxi-out			19.0
Take-off	Take-off	100	0.7	0.7
Climb	Climb	85	2.2	2.0

Table 4

Source Group	NO ₂		VOCs	
Volume Sources				
	t/yr	g/m ³ /s	t/yr	g/m ³ /s
Approach 3000 - 1500 ft	5.53	4.70×10^{-10}	0.39	3.32×10^{-11}
Approach 1500 - 0 ft	5.53	5.01×10^{-10}	0.39	3.57×10^{-11}
Landing Roll	1.33	8.81×10^{-8}	0.09	6.27×10^{-9}
Climb-out	10.95	1.15×10^{-9}	0.40	4.17×10^{-11}
Take-off	5.09	3.53×10^{-7}	0.17	1.16×10^{-8}
taxi in (1)	0.90	3.73×10^{-7}	1.00	4.14×10^{-7}
taxi in (2)	0.90	6.69×10^{-7}	1.00	7.43×10^{-7}
taxi in (3)	0.90	1.02×10^{-6}	1.00	1.13×10^{-6}
taxi in (4)	0.90	5.81×10^{-7}	1.00	6.45×10^{-7}
Taxi-in (total)	3.61	$3.73 - 10.2 \times 10^{-7}$	4.01	$4.14 - 11.3 \times 10^{-7}$
Taxi out (1)	0.90	1.13×10^{-6}	1.00	1.26×10^{-6}
Taxi out (2)	1.80	2.86×10^{-7}	2.01	3.19×10^{-7}
Taxi out (3)	0.90	9.94×10^{-7}	1.00	1.11×10^{-6}
Taxi out (4)	0.90	8.16×10^{-7}	1.00	9.08×10^{-7}
Taxi out (5)	0.90	1.67×10^{-6}	1.00	1.86×10^{-6}
Taxi-out (total)	5.41	$2.86 - 16.7 \times 10^{-7}$	6.03	$3.19 - 12.6 \times 10^{-7}$
APU	9.29	1.21×10^{-7}	2.65	3.45×10^{-8}
GSE (stand ¹)	3.64	3.90×10^{-7}	5.22	5.59×10^{-7}
Area Sources				
	t/yr	g/m ² /s	t/yr	g/m ² /s
Fuel Tank	0.00	0.00	3.79	$0.035 - 3990 \times 10^{-5}$
Point Sources (g/s)				
	t/yr	g/s	t/yr	g/s
Power plants (g/s)	0.11	$8.56 - 646 \times 10^{-6}$	0.02	$1.48 - 111.53 \times 10^{-6}$
Road Sources (g/km/s)				
	t/yr	g/km/s	t/yr	g/km/s
Main Entrance	0.15	0.01	0.95	0.07
GSE (airside vehicles ²)	0.05	0.0015 - 0.0017	0.25	0.007 - 0.008

*Emission rates in t/yr are converted to units of g/s (point sources), g/m²/s (area source), g/m³/s (volume source), or g/km/s (road source) by dividing them by the product of the total volume or area with the total time.

¹GSE at stand includes ground power unit (GPU), baggage belt loader, air climate unit, catering truck, forklift, lavatory truck, etc.

²Airside vehicles are mobile sources across the apron.

Table 5

Pollutants	This Study: Beirut Airport (2012)	Kayseri Airport, Turkey (2010)	Adnan Menderes Airport, Turkey (Izmir) (2004)	Toronto Pearson International Airport (TPIA) (2007)
VOCs	11.5	8.4	21	222
NO_x	402.9	102.6	197	2265
LTO movements*	31600	3944	14368	182122

*Landing and take-off movements are defined as an arrival and departure pair from the airport.

Fig. 1: (a) Study Area (Beirut - Rafic Hariri International Airport). The red dotted line reflects the main jet trajectory used for landing in Beirut-RHIA (b) Top view of Beirut Rafic Hariri International Airport, taken from Lebanese DGCA (2010) (Rwy: runway)

Fig. 2: Percentage of relative aircraft frequencies (2012) by aircraft type at Beirut Airport (Lebanese DGCA, 2015).

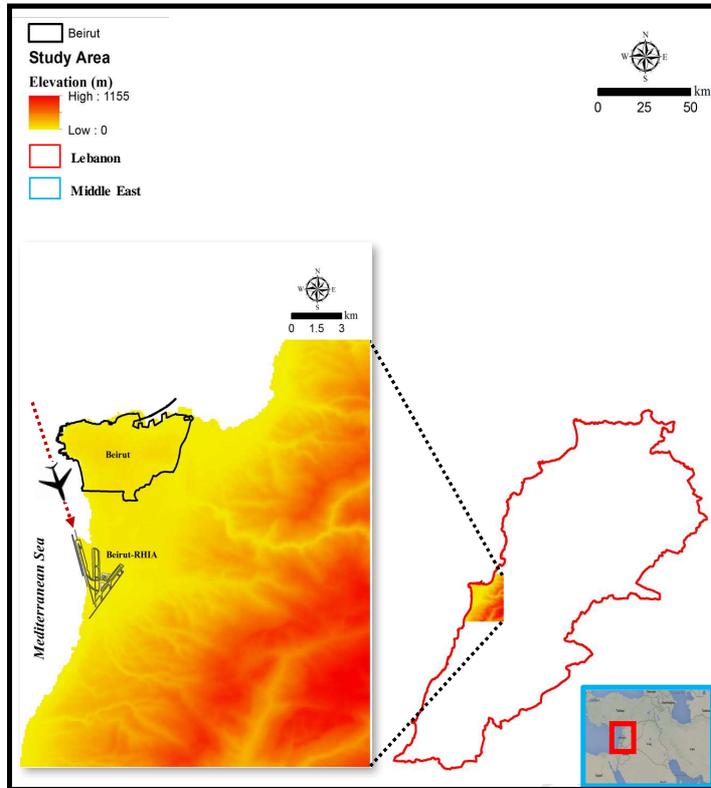
Fig. 3: 3-D geospatial emissions inventory created by exporting EMIT database to Arc Globe for the sources modelled at Beirut Airport in this study (year 2012)

Fig. 4 3-D geospatial emissions inventory (2012) created by exporting EMIT database to Arc Globe for volume sources (a) VOC, (b) NO₂

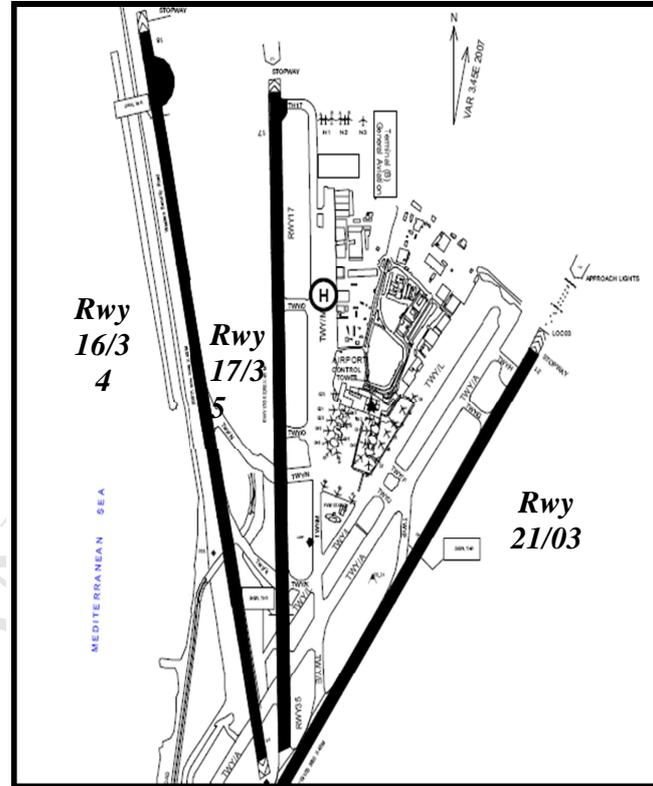
Fig. 5: Ground level airport-related emissions (in units of t) estimated in this work by EMIT from Beirut Airport in 2012 (a) NO₂ (b) VOCs

Fig. 6: Ground-level LTO emissions (in units of t) estimated in this work by EMIT from aircraft at Beirut Airport in 2012 (% by flight phase or mode of LTO cycle) (a) NO₂ (b) VOCs

Fig. 1



(a)



(b)

Fig. 2

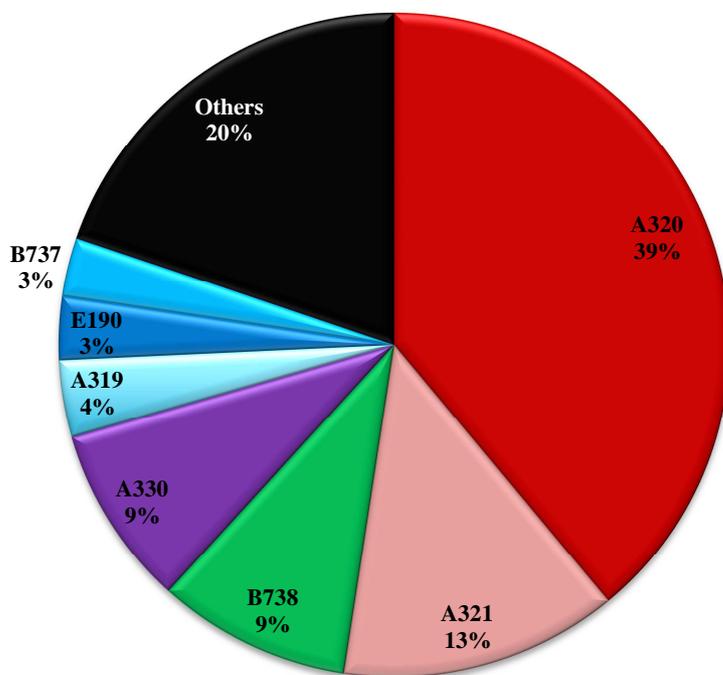
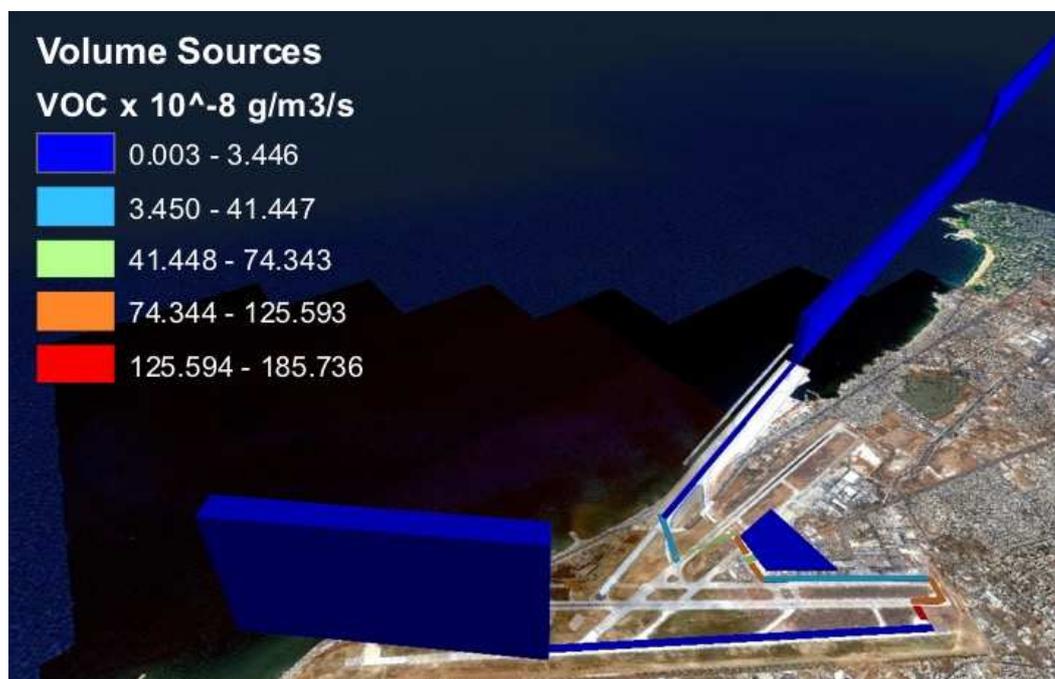


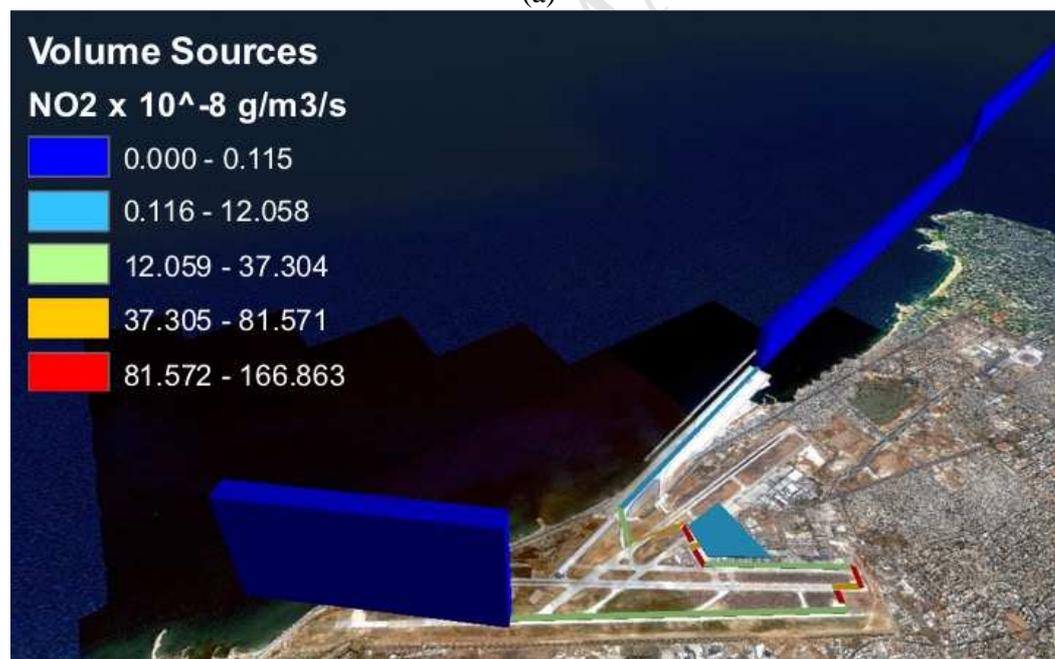
Fig. 3



Fig. 4

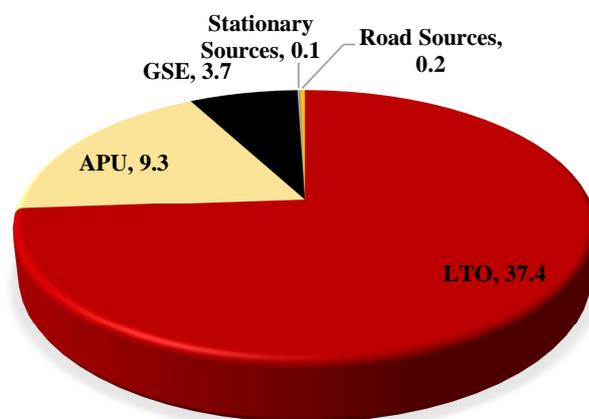


(a)



(b)

Fig. 5

(a) NO₂ Emissions Inventory (2012): 50.7 t/yr

(b) VOC Emissions Inventory (2012): 24.4 t/yr

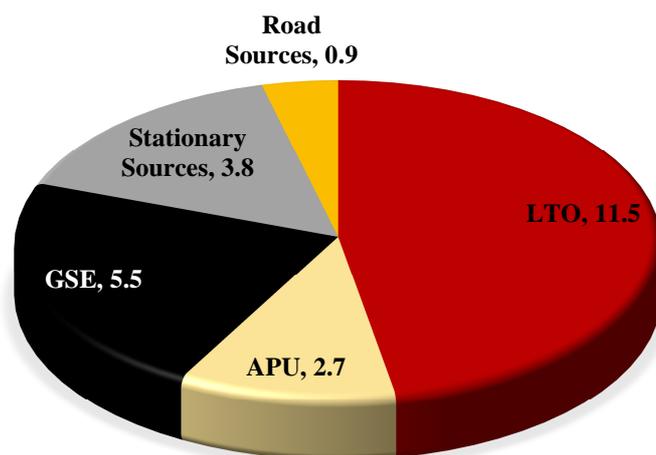
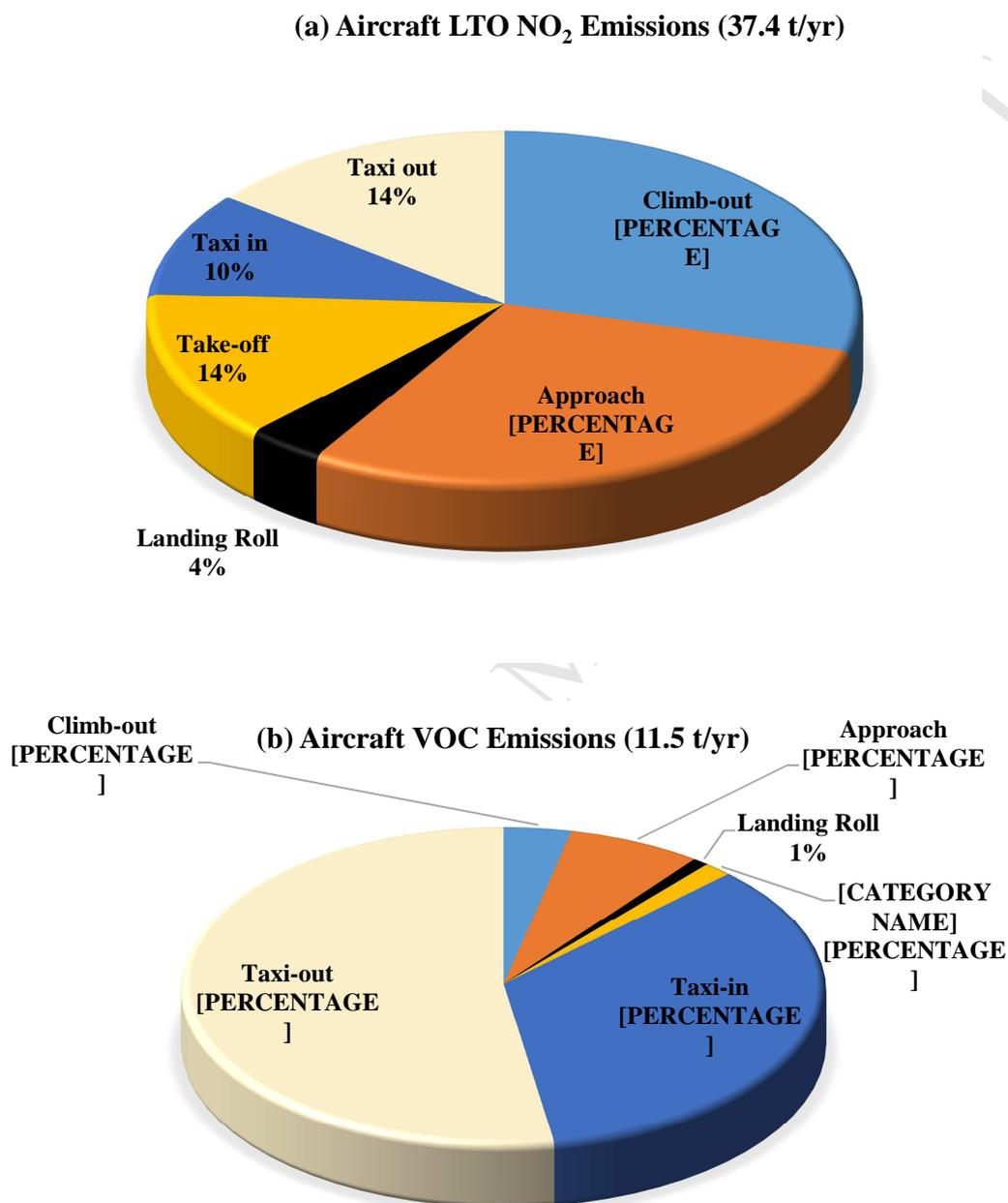


Fig. 6



- Beirut Airport is located between the sea and mountains within a populated area.
- A methodology to conduct airport emission inventories has been established.
- Beirut Airport activities emitted 454.8 t of NO_x, 50.7 t of NO₂, and 24.4 t of VOCs.
- The methodology allowed identifying emission factors from airport activities.

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