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1 **Chemical profiles of PM_{2.5} emitted from various anthropogenic sources of**
2 **the Eastern Mediterranean: cooking, wood burning, and diesel generators**

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11 Abstract

12 The chemical profiles of PM_{2.5} emitted from a non-road diesel generator, wood burning and
13 cooking activities including chicken and beef charcoal grilling and general cooking activities
14 were determined. The characterization included the carbonaceous fraction (OC/EC), water-
15 soluble ions, elements, and organic species comprising n-alkanes, polycyclic aromatic
16 hydrocarbons, carboxylic acids, levoglucosan, dioxins, furans, and dioxin-like polychlorinated
17 biphenyls. The main component in the PM_{2.5} from the different sources was carbonaceous
18 matter with a mass contribution to PM_{2.5} of 49% for cooking activities, 53% for wood burning,
19 66% for beef grilling, 72% for chicken grilling, and 74% for diesel generator with different
20 OC/EC concentration ratios. The analysis of organic compounds contents using diagnostic
21 ratios and indexes showed differences between the sources and revealed specific source
22 markers. The water-soluble ions had the highest contribution in the cooking activities profile
23 with 17% of PM_{2.5} and the least in the chicken grilling profile (1.1%). Additionally, 29 analyzed
24 elements were identified, and their contribution varied with the sources (ranging from 1% to
25 11% of PM_{2.5}). These findings could be used to differentiate these sources and could assist in
26 the use of source apportionment methods.

27 Keywords: source profiles, PM_{2.5}, organic species, inorganic species, cooking, diesel
28 generator, combustion.

29

30 Introduction

31 Source profiles or chemical fingerprints refer to the average relative chemical composition of
32 the PM deriving from a pollution source, expressed as the mass ratio between each species to
33 the total PM or the total identified mass (Belis et al., 2019; Pernigotti et al., 2016). These
34 profiles are commonly used as input data for some receptor modeling approaches such as
35 Chemical Mass Balance (CMB) where the knowledge of the composition of the emissions is
36 crucial (Viana et al., 2008). They are also used to attribute output factors to specific sources in
37 multivariate factor analysis methods such as Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) (Bove et al.,
38 2018). Additionally, source profiles contribute to the chemical speciation of emission
39 inventories whether to estimate emissions of hazardous and toxic pollutants or in source
40 oriented modeling for policy makers (Chow et al., 2004).

41 Several source profile databases have been created across the globe. Source profiles have been
42 gathered since 1988 in the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA)
43 SPECIATE database (Simon et al., 2010). To date, the database contains more than 6700 PM,
44 gas and other profiles covering more than 2800 unique species. Recently, a European database,
45 SPECIEUROPE, was published in 2015 by the European Joint Research Centre consisting of
46 more than 280 profiles and reaching 250 species (Pernigotti et al., 2016). In 2017, researchers
47 from the Chinese Research Academy of Environmental Sciences (CRAES) developed a new
48 database of emission source profiles for PM in Chinese environments (Liu et al., 2017). The
49 China Source Profile Shared Service contains more than 500 profiles in its first version (CSPSS
50 1.0) (Liu et al., 2017). These databases were built following the shortage of local source profiles
51 that represented a true challenge for receptor modeling studies in terms of source identification
52 and comparability between studies (Pernigotti et al., 2016). Numerous source apportionment
53 studies have been carried out using the American, European, and Chinese databases not only in
54 their countries of development but also for most of the source apportionment studies in
55 developing countries despite the divergence in national circumstances (Chelani et al., 2008;
56 Gupta et al., 2007). Indeed, the chemical speciation of emissions from certain sources largely
57 depend on parameters such as geological substrate, local practices, emission control
58 technologies, as well as the fuel quality in the case of combustion sources and the combustion
59 efficiency, etc. which leads to higher uncertainty in source apportionment studies (Bove et al.,
60 2018; Colombi et al., 2010; Salameh et al., 2014; Weber et al., 2019). Hopke (2016) stressed
61 on the idea that no efforts were deployed to develop source profiles especially for stationary

62 sources and for many others in developing countries. The main obstacle to achieve effective
63 and accurate source apportionment remains in the lack of regional source profiles.

64 The Middle East is a vast region encompassing around 300 million inhabitants, different
65 countries including some of the East Mediterranean. Most of these countries are considered as
66 developing, with several cultures, traditions, and languages but mainly share common practices
67 such as some cooking techniques, lack of law enforcement in many cases, etc. Very few source
68 profiles were established in this region and presented chemical profiles from vehicular
69 emissions (Daher et al., 2013; Gaga and Ari, 2019). However, other important sources of
70 pollution can be of interest among which cooking, power generation, and wood burning. The
71 composition of PM_{2.5} emitted from these typical anthropogenic sources might differ from those
72 observed in other regions due to local traditions observed in the East-Mediterranean-Middle
73 Eastern region. The variety of products, seasoning, and cooking techniques make the
74 gastronomical rituals different in the Middle East from other regions. It is well established that
75 cooking plays a major role in the Middle Eastern culture, unlike anywhere else (Essid, 2012)
76 especially during family gatherings on weekends, holidays, and special occasions with outdoor
77 barbecue and several other cooking activities. Most of the literature studies related to emissions
78 from cooking focused on Indian (Bano et al., 2018), Chinese (He et al., 2004; Zhang et al.,
79 2017; Zhao et al., 2019), and fast food (Rogge et al., 1991) that have different cooking practices
80 than the Middle East and focusing on certain species and classes of compounds. Additionally,
81 it has been demonstrated that the inhalation of PM_{2.5} emitted from different cooking styles could
82 result in adverse human health effects (Bandowe et al., 2021).

83 On the other hand, diesel generators are reciprocating engines widely used in the world in
84 temporary projects or as stand-by power in developed countries at power sensitive facilities or
85 even as continuous backup power in developing countries due to power supply instability
86 (Klimont et al., 2016). The literature mostly present PM_{2.5} profiles for regulated diesel engines
87 (Liang et al., 2005; Yilmaz and Davis, 2016) like Tier 1 to 4 in North America, Stage 1 and
88 above in Europe, etc. Even with these lean combustion conditions, experimental and
89 computational evidence showed important emission of pollutants from the fuel burning such as
90 PAHs (Yilmaz and Donaldson, 2007). However, many countries especially developing ones do
91 not always effectively enforce the law when it comes to stack emissions (Waked et al., 2012),
92 do not have regulations on the import of regulated engines, and mostly allow the installation of
93 the generators in heavily populated areas without any pollution abatement.

94 Another combustion source commonly known in the region is the wood burning due to forest
95 fires but also used for cooking, residential heating, and outdoor activities such as camping. The
96 emission characterization of these sources in the region is still limited (Alves et al., 2010;
97 Kostenidou et al., 2013) and more focus should be given due to their impacts on air quality.

98 The objective of this paper is to determine, for the first time in the Middle Eastern region, PM_{2.5}
99 chemical source profiles for different anthropogenic sources such as cooking, wood burning,
100 and emissions from unregulated non-road diesel generator. While most of PM_{2.5} chemical
101 profiles found in the literature focus on specific chemical fractions or species, this study
102 presents for the first time, to the best of our knowledge, a full chemical characterization
103 including carbonaceous fraction, ionic, elemental, and organic species. The organic speciation
104 includes n-alkanes, Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons (PAHs), carboxylic acids,
105 levoglucosan, dioxins (PCDD), furans (PCDF), and dioxin-like polychlorinated biphenyls (DL-
106 PCBs). These exhaustive chemical profiles will be of utmost importance for future source
107 apportionment studies in the region and will add additional components to the pre-existing
108 source profiles such as carboxylic acids, sugars, PCDD/Fs and DL-PCBs. Furthermore, source
109 markers, diagnostic ratios, and indexes are presented in order to be used in source identification.
110 All of these results will be compared to available database in order to conclude whether the
111 differences are significant. Additionally, these results will provide valuable information for
112 source apportionment applications, speciated emission inventories, as well as for health impact
113 assessment studies.

114

115 1. Materials and methods

116 1.1 Sample collection

117 PM_{2.5} samples were collected onto 150 mm pure quartz microfibre filters (Fiorini, France)
118 using a high-volume sampler (CAV-A/mb, MCV S.A., Spain) operating at 30 m³/h in different
119 locations in Lebanon. Filters were pre-heated for 12 hours at 550°C before sampling to decrease
120 the level of organic impurities. The collected filters were sealed in aluminum foil and stored at
121 -20°C until analysis. It is worth noting that for combustion sources, the sampling was made at
122 a sufficient distance from the combustion process to let the plume cool down and to collect the
123 condensed fraction in the particulate phase.

124

125 1.2 Experimental design

126 The operating conditions, under which the sampling for the different anthropogenic sources
127 was conducted, were detailed in the sections below and were summarized in **Table 1**. All the
128 methods described below are representative of common practices in the East Mediterranean
129 region. Despite the limited number of samples, this paper will give an insight on the chemical
130 composition of PM_{2.5} emitted from these sources, especially for some species that are scarcely
131 presented in the literature. Variations between the replicates of the same source are related to
132 the fact that combustion and cooking sampling were done under real world conditions (variation
133 in humidity content, instantaneous variation of reciprocating engine load, etc.). High standard
134 deviations were generally observed between the replicates of the same source (Akbari et al.,
135 2021; Chantara et al., 2019; Salameh et al., 2014).

136

1.2.1 Wood burning (WB)

137 Hardwood combustion from different kinds of broad-leaved trees (oak, maple, beech trees, etc.)
138 is commonly observed in the East Mediterranean for heating and outdoor activities. The wood
139 combustion (open fire) experiment was conducted outdoor away from trees and other plant
140 materials. Dry wood branches of hardwood broad-leaved trees (oak and fruit bearing trees) were
141 added into the firepit in the shape of a pyramid, ignited using a lighter and burned with free air
142 supply.

143 The sampler was placed directly in the smoke plume and 3 filters (sample label: WB) were
144 exposed during the flaming combustion phase. Throughout the sampling, new pieces of wood
145 were added to keep the fire going. The sampling duration varied between 10 and 15 minutes
146 for each sample.

147

1.2.2 Diesel generator (DG)

148 The generator, with an engine capacity of 100 kVA, is placed in the basement of a residential
149 building. This type is representative of the most used category (below 250 kVA) of diesel
150 generators producing electricity for households in the region. The fuel type used is automotive
151 diesel oil. The generator has an extended exhaust pipe of about 18 m to release emissions above
152 the rooftop level. The sampler was placed at the same level as the top of the stack in order to
153 collect the particulate sample with minimal influence by ambient PM. No sample was taken

154 during the cold-start phase (the first 20 min of the engine operation). Four diesel generator
 155 samples (DG) were collected under the same operating conditions for 30 min each.

156

1.2.3 Cooking

157 In order to have exhaustive cooking source chemical profiles, 7 samples were collected from
 158 different cooking experiments: 2 for charcoal grilling and 5 for general cooking activities. The
 159 plumes emitted from the different cooking activities regroup mixed emissions released by food
 160 and the corresponding fuel used.

161

162 **Table 1:** Operating conditions under which the different anthropogenic samples were obtained

	Wood burning	Diesel generator	Cooking		
			Beef grilling	Chicken grilling	Cooking activities
Abbreviation	WB	DG	BG	CG	GCA
Main contents	Wood branches of broad- leaved trees (oak and fruit bearing trees)	Volvo Penta TAD531GE diesel generator, 100 kVA, four cylinders at 1500 rpm	Small pieces of beef grilled on both sides	Large pieces of skinned chicken grilled on both sides	Burger grilling, french fries frying, use of vegetables, daily dishes served
Combustible	Biomass	Diesel fuel	Charcoal	Charcoal	Natural gas liquid (LPG)
Sampling method	High volume sampler for PM _{2.5}				
Filter used	Quartz filters – 150 mm diameter				
Number of samples	4	3	1	1	5
Sampling time	10-15 min	30 min	20 min	20 min	75 min

163

1.2.3.1 Beef and chicken charcoaled experiments

165 The Mediterranean region is known for its tradition of charcoal grilling especially during
 166 weekends and holidays. The most commonly observed charcoal-grilled food in the region is
 167 mainly beef and chicken. The charcoal is made of oak wood. It was piled in a pyramid shape in
 168 the grill to help increase the contact between the charcoal and make the fire spread. A fire starter
 169 cube was inserted into the pyramid and lighted. After 20 min, the coal was covered in ash. It
 170 was then laid evenly in the grill and was ready to use. Two PM_{2.5} samples were taken during
 171 this procedure: the first one was sampled during beef grilling (BG) and the second one for

172 chicken (CG). The sampling duration was 20 min for each sample. First, the meat (BG) was
173 cooked over charcoal for 20 min and turned several times during the total cooking time. The
174 distance between the meat and the charcoal was approximately 10 cm. The sampler was placed
175 directly in the grill smoke plume. Then, the chicken (CG) was grilled.

176

177 1.2.3.2 General Cooking activities (GCA)

178 The sampling was carried out in a university kitchen cafeteria during the peak hour of work for
179 5 consecutive days. The cooking equipment mainly consists of gas deep frying machines, free
180 standing griddles, and steam tables for the daily dishes. The main cooking technique is gas-
181 grilling activity to make burgers or sandwiches (meat, chicken, etc.), and frying of French fries,
182 etc. The frying oils used are Canola and Soybean seed. There was no major outdoor ventilation
183 leading to the assumption that the PM_{2.5} mass collected was mainly due to the cooking activities.
184 The sampler was placed next to the steam tables, deep-frying machine, and grill and 5 samples
185 (GCA) were taken for 75 min each.

186

187 1.3 Chemical analysis

188 The chemical characterization included the analysis of the carbonaceous matter (OC, EC),
189 water-soluble ions, major and trace elements, and organic species for the collected samples and
190 for blank filters.

1.3.1 Carbonaceous fraction

191 The organic carbon (OC) and the elemental carbon (EC) were quantified on a punch of the
192 quartz filter (1 cm²) by a thermal optical transmission technique. It consists of a Sunset
193 Laboratory OC/EC analyzer implementing the EUSAAR2 protocol (Cavalli et al., 2010) with
194 a transmittance optical correction for pyrolysis.

195

1.3.2 Organic compounds

196 The organic compounds were quantified by gas chromatography (ISQ 7000, Thermo Scientific,
197 United States of America) coupled to a mass spectrometer (GC-MS) following the method
198 described in previous studies (Fadel et al., 2021; Waked et al., 2013; 2014). In brief, one quarter
199 of each filter was extracted with acetone and dichloromethane (1:1, v/v) by sonication for 30
200 min at 50°C after spiking it with two internal standards (bornylacetate and ketopinac acid). The

201 extracts were concentrated to 200 μL under a gentle flow of nitrogen gas. An aliquot of the
202 sample is injected directly in the GC-MS to quantify non-polar compounds such as n-alkanes
203 and PAHs while another aliquot was derivatized before injection to identify levoglucosan and
204 carboxylic acids. The detection limits (D.L) were evaluated for the different species and
205 correspond to the blank filter value plus 3 times the standard deviation calculated over 3
206 measurements. D.L. varied between 0.0003 and 0.25 ng/m^3 except for stearic acid with higher
207 detection limit (2.3 ng/m^3). Additionally, recoveries were determined by spiking blank filters
208 by standard solutions. The recovery values were estimated to be between 80 and 92% for the
209 different organic species.

210

1.3.3 Elements

211 Elements were analyzed by inductively coupled plasma (More detailed information on the
212 analysis are available in previous publications (Kfoury et al., 2016; Ledoux et al., 2006a). In
213 brief, for each sample, a 47 mm punch of the quartz filter was digested by an acid mixture of 4
214 mL nitric acid (HNO_3), 1 mL of hydrofluoric acid (HF), and 0.5 mL of perchloric acid (HClO_4)
215 in a PTFE flask at 120°C overnight. Then, the acid evaporation was made at 170°C to the last
216 drop followed by the addition of few milliliters of ultrapure water. The obtained solution was
217 then diluted to 15 mL by ultrapure water, acidified to 2% by HNO_3 and filtered on 0.45 μm
218 cellulose acetate filter prior to analysis. Mg, Mn, Al, Na, Ba, Ca, Fe, K, Ni, P, Pb, S, Sr, Ti, and
219 Zn were quantified by Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES,
220 iCAP 6000 series, Thermo Scientific, United Kingdom). V, Cr, Co, Cu, As, Rb, Nb, Ag, Cd,
221 Sn, Sb, La, Ce, and Bi were quantified by ICP-Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS, Agilent 7900,
222 United States of America). The analytical procedure by ICP-AES and ICP-MS was validated
223 by considering standard reference material NIST-SRM 1648a (National Institute of Standards
224 and Technology, United States of America). Recovery rates for all the elements varied between
225 89% and 103% with an exception for Cr (76%). The detection limits for the elements analyzed
226 by ICP-AES and ICP-MS corresponds to blank (water and acid blanks) values plus 3 times the
227 standard deviation calculated over 10 measurements. D.L. for the elements analyzed by ICP-
228 AES varied between 0.004 and 0.45 ng/m^3 . As for the trace elements analyzed by ICP-MS, it
229 varied between 0.0003 and 0.01 ng/m^3 .

230

1.3.4 Water-soluble ions (WSI)

231 The protocol for water-soluble analysis was detailed elsewhere (Kfoury et al., 2016; Ledoux et
232 al., 2006b). Briefly, three filter punches of 19 mm diameter each for every sample were
233 ultrasonically extracted by few milliliters of ultrapure water for 20 min. The obtained solution
234 is collected using a syringe, then filtered through a 0.45 μm porosity cellulose acetate
235 membrane previously rinsed with ultrapure water. The leachate containing the ions was placed
236 in a polyethylene flask of 20 mL. The filters were submerged with ultrapure water prior to 2
237 additional ultrasonic extractions and filtrations and then stored at -20°C until analysis. The
238 samples were analyzed by liquid ion chromatography (DionexTM ICS-900, Thermo Scientific,
239 United Kingdom) for the quantification of Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , K^+ , Na^+ , and NH_4^+ .
240 D.L. varied between 0.17 and 0.78 ng/m^3 for the different WSI.

241

1.3.5 Dioxins, furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls

242 Dioxins, furans and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls were quantified by MicroPolluants
243 Technology SA (Saint Julien Les Metz, France). The PCDD/PCDF and DL-PCB analysis
244 method was based on the US EPA method 1613 and 1688 respectively using a high-resolution
245 gas chromatography coupled to a high-resolution mass spectrometer (HRGC/HRMS). Detailed
246 information are found in Borgie et al. (2015).

247

248 1.4 Mass reconstruction of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

249 The reconstructed mass of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is calculated by summing the inorganic ions, elemental carbon,
250 geological minerals, organic matter (OM) and other elements calculated as follows (Eq.1):

$$251 \quad PM = OM + EC + [\textit{geological minerals}] + [\textit{inorganic ions}] + [\textit{other elements}] \quad (\textit{Eq. 1})$$

252

253 Organic matter (OM) is calculated by multiplying OC with an empirical coefficient (OM/OC)
254 to account the mass of unmeasured oxygen and hydrogen in the organic matter (Turpin and
255 Lim, 2001). In this study, the OM/OC ratio was chosen to be 1.7 for the wood burning
256 experiment (Reff et al., 2009; Reid et al., 2005), 1.32 for beef grilling, 1.36 for chicken grilling,
257 1.42 for general cooking activities (Mohr et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2007a), and 1.2 for diesel
258 generator emissions (Petzold et al., 2008; Sothea and Kim Oanh, 2019). Elemental carbon arises
259 from primary combustion sources and therefore no multiplication factor is needed, its mass is
260 used unchanged (Harrison et al., 2003). For the inorganic ions, a hydration factor of 1.29 was

261 applied to convert the concentration of these species (Na^+ , Cl^- , Mg^{2+} , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , and NH_4^+)
262 into hydrated ones to consider the bound water (Harrison et al., 2003; Sciare et al., 2005). The
263 geological minerals concentration was estimated by assuming that these elements exist as
264 oxides: Al_2O_3 , SiO_2 , K_2O , FeO and Fe_2O_3 in equal amounts, and TiO_2 . The formula used to
265 calculate the geological minerals concentration (Chow et al., 2015):

$$266 \quad [\textit{geological minerals}] = 2.2 \times [\textit{Al}] + 2.49 \times [\textit{Si}] + 1.63 \times [\textit{Ca}] + 2.42 \times [\textit{Fe}] + 1.94 \times [\textit{Ti}]$$

267 Elemental Si was not analyzed by the ICP method used, it was estimated using the (Si/Al) ratio
268 derived from Si and Al concentrations derived from field measurements near sources in other
269 studies. The Si/Al ratio used was 2.4 for wood burning (Sun et al., 2019), 0.5 for beef and
270 chicken grilling (Wang et al., 2020), 0.9 for general cooking activities (Sun et al., 2020), and
271 1.0 for diesel generators (Yayong et al., 2018). Other elements correspond to the sum of the
272 remaining elements.

273

274 2 Results and discussions

275 The chemical relative abundance of the different species in the carbonaceous, ionic, and
276 elemental fractions were calculated by dividing their mass by the reconstructed $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass.
277 They were presented in **Fig. 1**, and in details in **Table S1** and **Figure S1**. The organic species
278 were reported to the OM mass and were given in **Table S2**.

279 2.1 Carbonaceous fraction

280 In the different chemical profiles of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, OC was the main component, ranging from 40% of
281 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ for WB to 72% for CG (**Fig. 1**). EC ranged from 0.1% for CG to 20% for DG which
282 presents the second most abundant share in WB and DG profiles.

283 High differences in the distribution of the carbonaceous fraction (OC+EC) occur between
284 charcoal and general cooking activities profiles. GCA releases less carbonaceous matter (49%
285 of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) compared to BG (66%) and CG (72%). These differences were mainly attributed to
286 the cooking process and ingredients (Abdullahi et al., 2013). Many studies have compared
287 cooking styles and reported different chemical profiles for the emitted particulate matter.

288 The OC/EC ratio is an essential tool to differentiate combustion sources. This study determined
289 a value of 3.4 for wood burning, comparable to the findings reported by Sun et al. (2019) for
290 wood branches (2.69). As for cooking profiles, the highest ratio was found for CG (622),
291 followed by BG (45) and GCA (18). This large difference between CG and BG could be

292 attributed to the difference in fat content between the two types of food. Foods containing high
293 percentage of fat usually generate higher OC emission rates than those with a lower fat
294 percentage (Abdullahi et al., 2013).

295 The ratio for GCA was close to the value of 19.3 reported for samples collected from the exhaust
296 stacks of a university canteen in Portugal (Alves et al., 2014). The lowest ratio was found for
297 the diesel generator (2.9), slightly higher than 2.61 reported by Sothea and Kim Oanh (2019)
298 for a 92 kW backup generator in Cambodia. For comparison, values of 0.37 were reported for
299 tunnel studies (diesel and gasoline vehicles), 2.2-6.2 for urban areas, and 0.64 for diesel trucks
300 (El Haddad et al., 2009; Waked et al., 2014).

301

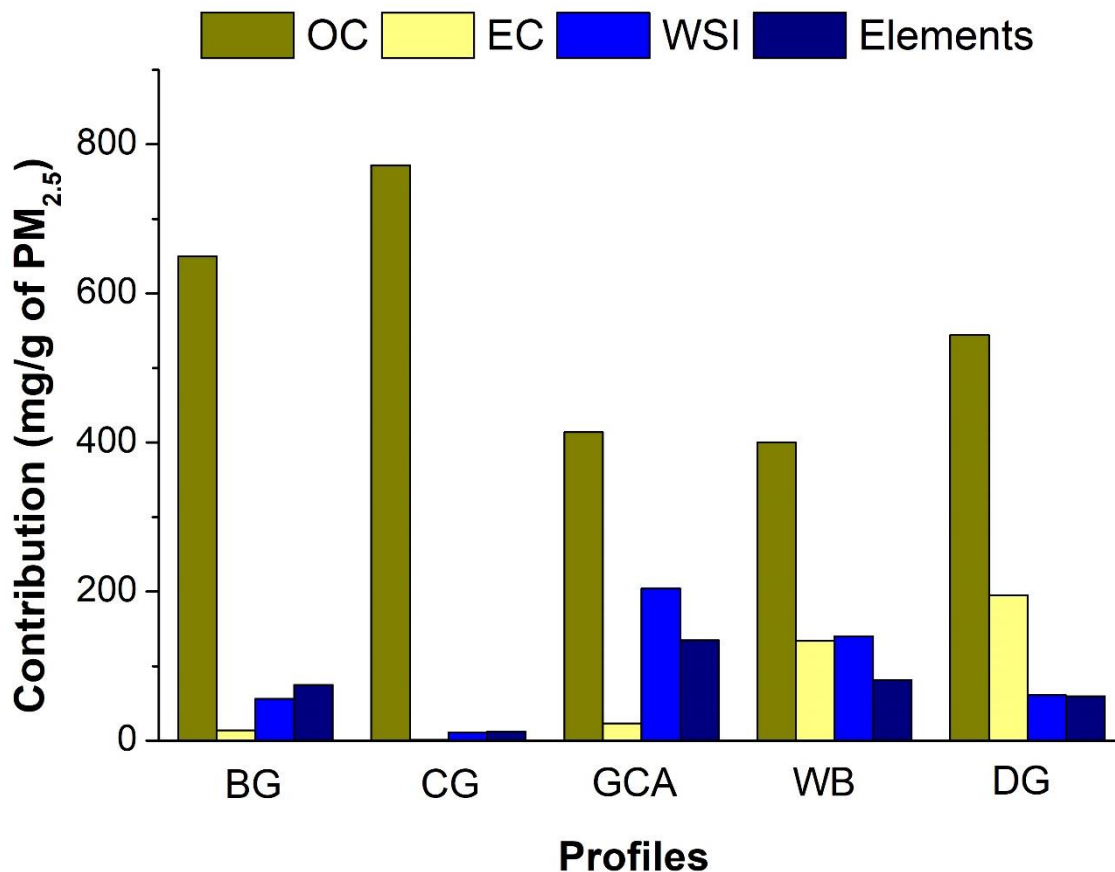
302 2.2 Organic compounds

2.2.1 N-alkanes

303 C₁₃-C₃₂ homologue series are presented for the different profiles in **(Fig. 2)**. Total C₁₃-C₃₂
304 average contribution to OM were 11%, 0.8%, 0.6%, 0.6%, and 0.3% for DG, BG, WB, GCA,
305 and CG, respectively. The high contribution of n-alkanes in the DG profile is mainly due to the
306 composition of the diesel fuel that comprises a large fraction of n-alkanes (Liang et al., 2005).

307 Different methods can be used to characterize the alkanes profiles (Fadel et al., 2021). Briefly,
308 the overall carbon preference index (Overall CPI) for C₁₃-C₃₁ is a measure of odd to even carbon
309 predominance with a value close to 1 for petrogenic sources, 2 to 5 for biomass and coal burning
310 and values higher than 6 for biogenic emissions. The wax ratio (Wax%) can be used to assess
311 the contribution of wax n-alkanes from plants. The n-alkanes distribution pattern can be used
312 to identify alkanes with the highest concentrations. For wood burning, the profile pattern shows
313 a predominance of high molecular weight n-alkanes especially C₂₇, C₂₉, and C₃₁ with a
314 maximum at C₂₉ **(Fig. 2)**. This pattern is considered as a plant epicuticular wax signature
315 leading to a high Wax% of 58%. C₂₇, C₂₉, and C₃₁ are considered as n-alkanes tracers for
316 biomass burning (Simoneit, 2002). The CPI value for WB (CPI=4) is in the range reported for
317 biomass activities of 2 to 5 (Simoneit, 2002). A distinctive pattern was observed for DG where
318 the n-alkane homologues partitioning exhibited a smooth hump-like distribution with the
319 highest contribution for C₂₀-C₂₁ **(Fig. 2)**. A similar profile was observed for diesel powered
320 engines (Rogge et al., 1993).

321



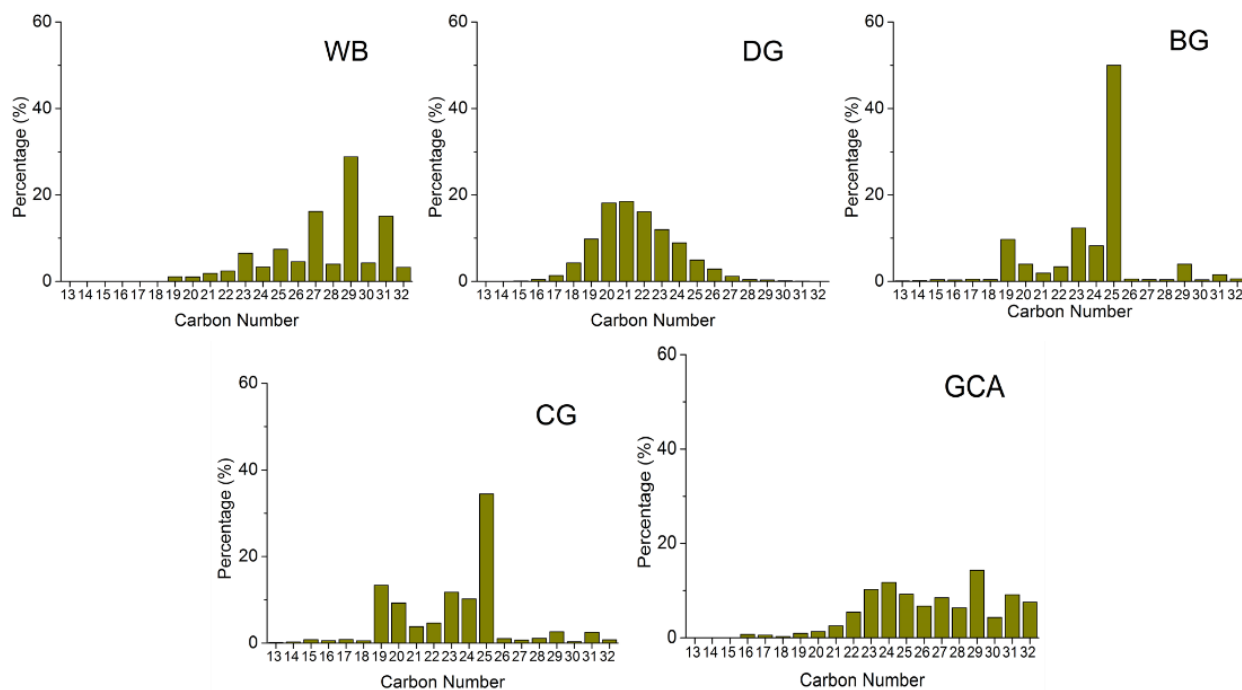
322
 323 **Fig. 1:** Contribution of OC, EC, water-soluble ions (WSI), and elements to reconstructed PM_{2.5}
 324 emitted from the different sources (BG: beef grilling, CG: chicken grilling, GCA: general
 325 cooking activities, WB: wood burning, DG: diesel generator).

326
 327 A CPI value (0.9) close to unity usually attributed for petrogenic sources and a very negligible
 328 Wax% characterizes the diesel emissions from non-road generators.

329 For charcoal cooking (BG and CG), the profiles are much alike with a maximum contribution
 330 for C₂₅. This observation can lead to the assumption that the n-alkanes are not predominantly
 331 emitted from the food itself but from the charcoal combustion. This hypothesis can be supported
 332 by CPI values of 2.5 and 4.5 for CG and BG respectively that are in the range of coal
 333 combustion. However, a different pattern was observed for GCA. The CPI value for this GCA
 334 profile (1.3) and the Wax% (22%) were relatively low compared to various Chinese cooking
 335 restaurants with calculated CPI and Wax% in the ranges of 2.3-4.6 and 40-64%, respectively
 336 (He et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2007a). These differences may be attributed to the different cooking

337 methods and frying techniques without forgetting the large consumption of vegetables in the
338 Chinese cooking causing higher CPI and Wax% ratios (Zhao et al., 2007b).

339



340
341 **Fig. 2:** N-alkanes profile patterns associated with PM_{2.5} for the different sources (WB: wood
342 burning, BG: beef grilling, CG: chicken grilling, DG: diesel generator, GCA: general cooking
343 activities).

344

2.2.2 Polycyclic Aromatic Hydrocarbons

345 The relative concentration profiles of the different PAHs are presented in **Table S2** with the
346 share (in mg/g of OM) of each one. Additionally, the distribution of these species with aromatic
347 ring number was also shown in **Fig. 3** to further characterize them in the profiles.

348 The wood burning experiment emitted at least 5 times more PAHs normalized to OM than the
349 other sources (2.64 mg/g for WB against 0.54 for BG, 0.35 for CG, 0.14 for GCA, and 0.44 for
350 DG). The higher PAHs share for WB compared to CG and BG can be attributed to the more
351 complete combustion of charcoal compared to wood. Furthermore, the volatilization and the
352 pyrolysis of the volatile matter during the production of charcoal, and its low water content
353 could also reduce the aromatic compounds formation (Oanh et al., 1999; Shen et al., 2011).

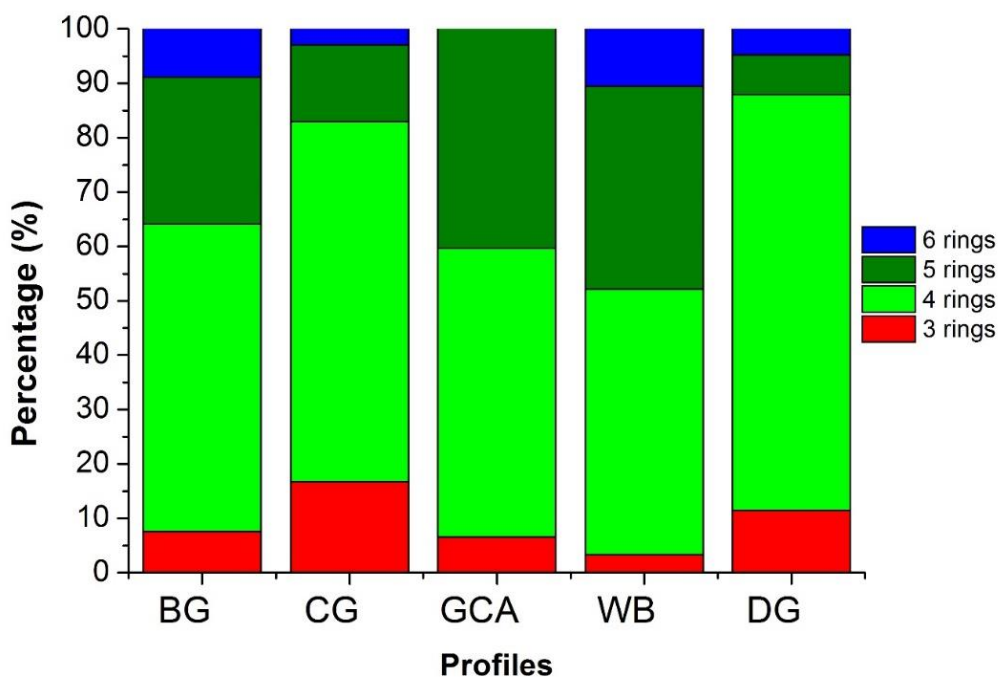
354 Low PAHs shares were observed for the different cooking profiles. McDonald et al. (2003)
355 suggested that the PAHs emitted during grilling activities were formed from the interaction
356 between the lipidic material in food and the cooking appliance since the temperature reached
357 on the surface of food was relatively low to form PAHs (maximum PAHs production occurs at
358 750 °C) and PAHs compounds were absent in the food chemical analysis. Furthermore, the
359 abundance of 4-rings PAHs in BG and CG profiles might be related to the coal combustion.
360 According to Vicente et al. (2018), fly ashes from charcoal combustion are rich in 4-rings PAHs
361 with fluoranthene and pyrene as the most abundant aromatics whereas raw charcoal is mainly
362 rich in 3-rings PAHs. As for GCA, several studies showed that 6-rings PAHs were rarely
363 generated during cooking processes especially during deep frying activities because high
364 temperatures can decompose high molecular weight PAHs (Sun et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2019).
365 The most abundant PAHs for GCA were benzo[b]fluoranthene (B[b]Fl), pyrene (Pyr), and
366 chrysene (Chr).

367 Like BG, CG, and GCA, 4-rings PAHs predominated the total detected PM_{2.5}-bound PAHs
368 emitted from WB with Fluoranthene (Fla), Pyr, benzo[a]anthracene (B[a]An) as the most
369 abundant compounds. This distribution pattern along with the dominant PAHs were consistent
370 with the data reported for the combustion of different types of biomass fuels (maize straw,
371 wheat straw, and wood branches) (Sun et al., 2019). Pyrene was the most abundant PAH in the
372 diesel generator profile, accounting for more than 50% of the sum of PAHs and highly
373 contributing to the 4-rings category that is the most abundant.

374 PAHs diagnostic ratios were usually used for source apportionment in different environmental
375 samples (Tobiszewski and Namieśnik, 2012). For every ratio, the species used should have
376 similar reactivity in the atmosphere: Fla and Pyr (Molecular Weight =202 g/mol), B[a]An and
377 Chr (MW = 228 g/mol), indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene (InPy) and benzo[g,h,i]perylene (B[ghi]Pe)
378 (MW= 278 g/mol), and anthracene (Anth) and phenanthrene (Phe) (MW= 178 g/mol). These
379 ratios could serve as markers for the different source profiles presented in this paper and were
380 reported in **Table 2**.

381 The values obtained for wood burning (0.49 for Fla/(Fla+Pyr), 0.57 for B[a]An/(B[a]An+Chr),
382 0.45 for InPy/(InPy+B[ghi]Pe), and 0.7 for Anth/(Anth+Phe)) are mostly in the ranges of ratios
383 reported in other studies for biomass burning (Gong et al., 2019; Tobiszewski and Namieśnik,
384 2012; Vicente et al., 2012).

385



386

387 **Fig. 3:** Distribution of PAHs for the different sources (BG: beef grilling, CG: chicken grilling,
 388 GCA: general cooking activities, WB: wood burning, DG: diesel generator) according to the
 389 number of aromatic rings in mass percentages.

390

391 As for grilling activities, the similarity in the ratios and the closeness to the values reported in
 392 the literature imply that these PAHs are mainly emitted from the charcoal combustion in the
 393 barbecue grills (Gong et al., 2019; Vicente et al., 2018). For GCA, Fla/(Fla+Pyr) and
 394 B[a]An/(B[a]An+Chr) ratio values are close to those reported for deep-frying activities and
 395 Chinese gas cooking (See and Balasubramanian, 2008; Wei See et al., 2006). A particular
 396 attention was given to the ratios determined for diesel generators emissions. The values present
 397 in the literature describe mostly diesel emissions from on-road vehicles (Gong et al., 2019;
 398 Ravindra et al., 2008; Riffault et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2014). Although many similarities exist,
 399 the modes of operation are different. Non-road diesel generators run at a certain rpm
 400 (revolutions per minute) and voltage and the amperage they produce can vary with the load
 401 while on-road diesel vehicles operate in transient conditions (Liang et al., 2005; Shah et al.,
 402 2006). These differences in the operation mode can potentially result in different emission
 403 characteristics and different diagnostic ratios for PAHs. On the other hand, Liang et al. (2005)
 404 studied the organic composition of diesel particulate matter from a non-road diesel generator
 405 and showed Fla/(Fla+Pyr) and B[a]An/(B[a]An+Chr) ratio values (0.28 and 0.5, respectively)

406 close to the values obtained in this study (0.24 and 0.41, respectively) while values for
407 InPy/(InPy+B[ghi]Pe) and Anth/(Anth+Phe) were different (**Table 2**).

408

2.2.3 Carboxylic acids

409 According to **Table S2**, carboxylic acids were the most abundant organic species in the
410 chemical profiles of cooking activities. The highest contribution was observed for GCA
411 explaining 24% of the OM mass followed by BG with 19% and CG with 11%. During high
412 temperature treatment of food, several chemical processes occur such as sugar degradation,
413 pyrolysis of proteins and amino-acids, and the degradation of fats. These mechanisms lead to
414 the production of free fatty acids, glycerol, and glycerides (Abdullahi et al., 2013). Additionally,
415 the use of oils in cafeteria cooking operations such as deep frying will increase fatty acids
416 emissions being the major constituents of triglycerides in seed oils (Schauer et al., 2002; Zhao
417 et al., 2007a). From the saturated fatty acids presented in this paper, the most abundant are
418 palmitic (C₁₆) and stearic (C₁₈) acids accounting for more than 80% of the total mass of fatty
419 acids in the three cooking profiles. These compounds are usually used as organic markers for
420 cooking activities in different source apportionment studies (Abdullahi et al., 2013). Carboxylic
421 acids were also found in biomass burning events and contribute to 5% of the OM mass. The
422 highest concentration was observed for palmitic acid (C₁₆) accounting for 33% of the sum of
423 carboxylic acids. These findings were in accordance with the results obtained from wildfires
424 organic speciation in central Portugal (Vicente et al., 2012) and with the combustion of
425 hardwoods (Oros and Simoneit, 2001). Long-chain fatty acids are mainly considered as basic
426 units of plant fats, oils, and phospholipids while short-chain species (C<16) are reported as
427 minor species of fungi and insects. As for the diesel generator, carboxylic acids contribute to
428 8% of the OM mass. Liang et al. (2005) determined the abundance of fatty acids in the engine
429 oil and the diesel particulate matter and found a strong similarity, bringing the conclusion that
430 fatty acids in diesel particles are not emitted from the combustion process itself but from the
431 evaporation of engine oil.

432

2.2.4 Levoglucosan

433 Levoglucosan or 1,6-anhydro-β-D-glucopyranose originates from the pyrolysis of cellulose and
434 hemicellulose at high temperature (Giannoni et al., 2012). It is considered as an organic
435 molecular marker for biomass burning due to its stability and its relatively high share in biomass

436 smoke (Chantara et al., 2019). This compound is the most abundant organic species in the WB
437 profile accounting for 17% of the OM mass. Levoglucosan/OC ratio is commonly used to
438 differentiate softwood and hardwood combustion. The value obtained in our study of 0.3 is in
439 the range of hardwood combustion (0.25-0.4) reported by Fine et al. (2004) compared to lower
440 ratios for softwood ranging between 0.1 and 0.23.

441

2.2.5 Dioxins, furans, and DL-PCBs

442 **Table S3** shows congeners contribution to OM of PCDD/F and DL-PCBs for each source. The
443 BG and CG were combined in one factor and will be presented as “charcoal grilling”.
444 1,2,3,4,6,7,8 HpCDD was identified in all emissions and was the only PCDD detected in GCA,
445 while OCDD contributed the most to the other profiles (73% of PCDD in WB, 76% in DG, and
446 70% in charcoal grilling, i.e., BG and CG). The DG emissions are 4.5, 3.7, and 2 more
447 concentrated in PCDD than GCA, charcoal grilling, and WB, respectively. However, charcoal
448 grilling showed the highest value when calculating the 2,3,7,8-TCDD equivalent (calculated by
449 summing the multiplication results of each congener by its corresponding toxic equivalent
450 factor- WHO-TEF(Van den Berg et al., 2006). As for furans, 6 species out of 10 were identified
451 in the grilling sample mainly HxCDF and HpCDF.

452 The highest concentrations were recorded for PCDF emitted from the diesel generator with also
453 the highest 2,3,7,8-TCDD equivalent. The PCDD/PCDF ratio is generally used to identify
454 emission sources. It was calculated for the different profiles and values are presented in **Table**
455 **2**.

456 A similar observation was made by Lee et al. (2005) showing higher PCDD/PCDF emission
457 factor ratio for domestic biomass burning (4.7) compared to coal combustion (2.1). Up to our
458 knowledge, there is no PCDD/F data reported for oil cooking activities. The ratio in our study
459 showed that the oil cooking source emits 2.4 times more PCDD than PCDF. The most abundant
460 DL-PCB was PCB 118 accounting for 46%, 51%, 52%, and 52% of the total PCB in charcoal
461 grilling, WB, GCA, and DG respectively followed by PCB 105. The total TEQ value expressed
462 in pg/g of OM was the highest for DG, followed by charcoal grilling, GCA, and WB.

463

464

465

466 **Table 2:** Experimental source diagnostics ratios and comparison with the literature (in brackets)
 467 when available

	Wood burning	Diesel generator	Cooking		
			Beef grilling	Chicken grilling	General cooking activities
OC/EC ratio	3.4	2.9	45	621	18
n-alkanes diagnostic indexes					
Overall CPI	4.00	0.94	4.48	2.53	1.34
Wax%	57.5%	1.4%	64.7%	46.1%	22.1%
PAHs diagnostic ratios					
Fla/(Fla+Pyr)	0.49 (0.2-0.7) ^a	0.24 (0.28) ^b	0.51 (0.47) ^a	0.56 (0.47) ^a	0.47 (0.53) ^c
B[a]An/(B[a]An+Chr)	0.57 (>0.37) ^e	0.41 (0.5) ^b	0.46 (0.47) ^a	0.43 (0.47) ^a	0.44 (0.28; 0.4) ^{c,f}
InPy/(InPy+B[ghi]Pe)	0.45 (>0.5) ^d	0.18 (0.68) ^b	0.56 (0.50) ^a	0.45 (0.50) ^a	-
Anth/(Anth+Phe)	0.70 (>0.1) ^e	0.85 (0.05) ^b	0.75 (>0.1) ^e	0.73 (>0.1) ^e	-
PCDD/PCDF ratio	3.27	1.16	1.95		2.44
Water-soluble ions ratios					
K ⁺ /EC	0.36	0.01	1.32	3.61	0.12
K ⁺ /OC	0.12	0.003	0.03	0.01	0.007
Cl ⁻ /SO ₄ ²⁻	3.96	-	1.34	0.4	-

468 ^a(Vicente et al., 2012), ^b(Liang et al., 2005), ^c(See and Balasubramanian, 2008), ^d(Tobiszewski
 469 and Namieśnik, 2012), ^e(Gong et al., 2019), ^f(Wei See et al., 2006)

470

471 2.3 Water-soluble ions (WSI) composition

472 Water-soluble ions have the highest share of PM_{2.5} in the GCA profile (17%), then WB (14%),
 473 then DG and BG (6%), and finally CG (1%) (**Fig. 2**).

474 GCA profile showed more than 85% of the ionic mass for SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺. This result
 475 was also observed by See and Balasubramanian (2008) for oil deep-frying activities. Although
 476 WSI contributed more to the total PM_{2.5} mass in BG compared to CG, they have a similar
 477 distribution in ions with K⁺, SO₄²⁻, and Cl⁻ having the highest contribution and accounting for
 478 more than 70% of the total WSI mass. McDonald et al. (2003) also reported these ions as the
 479 most abundant in the fumes of meat charbroiling. The high amounts of K⁺ and Cl⁻ in both

480 charcoal and wood burning are mainly due to their abundance in the fluid of plants ; they
481 volatilize during the combustion process and, after condensation or nucleation reaction (Alves
482 et al., 2010), become in the particulate phase. In the three cooking profiles, Ca^{2+} ions could
483 mainly be emitted from the cooking utensils and raw materials (Sun et al., 2020).

484 As for wood burning, K^+ and Cl^- have the highest share of WSI (74%) followed by SO_4^{2-} and
485 Ca^{2+} . These ions account for nearly 92% of the total soluble ions in the profile. Our results are
486 consistent with those reported for other biomass burning experiments (86-94%) (Chantara et
487 al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019).

488 The main water-soluble ions in diesel particulate matter were Ca^{2+} , SO_4^{2-} , and NO_3^- . SO_4^{2-} only
489 accounted for 27% of the total WSI mass which is lower than the 80% value reported by Sothea
490 and Kim Oanh (2019) for a 25 kVA and a 110 kVA diesel backup generators. However, the
491 main difference between the two experiments remains in the diesel sulfur content. The diesel
492 used by the latter study was assumed to have the same quality as the diesel oil used for
493 transportation and thus a sulfur content of 0.2% (2,000 ppm). On the other hand, since 2017,
494 Lebanon implemented stricter laws on the quality of the imported automotive diesel by
495 decreasing the sulfur content to 10 ppm and allowing higher sulfur content diesel to be delivered
496 only to the big industries (ex. cement plants, fertilizer industry, etc.) and power plants. Despite
497 that law enforcement is not always guaranteed, the sulfur content in automotive diesel did not
498 exceed the 200-300 ppm since 2014-2015. This difference in the fuel oil sulfur content might
499 explain the chemical composition differences since it has been established that sulfate in diesel
500 particulate matter is function of the engine operating mode and the fuel sulfur content
501 (Saiyasitpanich et al., 2005).

502 Different diagnostic ratios including water-soluble ions are used to distinguish emission
503 sources. For instance, K^+/EC and K^+/OC ratios can be used to distinguish biomass burning from
504 fossil fuel combustion. The ratios calculated from this study can be used as marker values for
505 the sources and are reported in **Table 2**.

506 DG exhibited low K^+/EC and K^+/OC (0.01 and 0.003, respectively) compared to WB (0.36 and
507 0.12, respectively). These findings were also reported by Benetello et al. (2017) that assigned
508 a range of K^+/EC and K^+/OC at the source of 0.025-0.09 and 0.01 for fuel burning, respectively
509 and 0.21-0.46 and 0.1 for biomass burning, respectively. Additionally, the $\text{Cl}^-/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ratio might
510 be used to differentiate wood and coal combustion. In this study, higher values were observed

511 for biomass burning (3.96) compared to coal combustion (0.4-1.34) and indicate that SO_4^{2-} is
512 less emitted from WB compared to CG and BG.

513

514 2.4 Elemental composition

515 Twenty-nine analyzed elements in the profiles present different fractions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$: the lowest
516 total contribution of the considered elements was observed for CG which accounted to 1.2%,
517 followed by DG (6%), then BG (7%), WB (8%), and GCA (11%) (**Figure S1**).

518 Ca is the most abundant element in the DG profile contributing to 56% of the sum of elements
519 and is classified as the third most abundant species after OC and EC contributing to 3.3% of
520 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. Other elements such as Fe, Al, Mg, K, and Zn were also abundant in the profile sharing
521 25% of their sum. These results are consistent with the ones from the composition of particles
522 emitted by a lab-designed engine (Mg, Na, Al, K, Ca, Fe, Zn) (Kerminen et al., 1997), and in
523 diesel PM composition reported by Yang et al. (1998) including Fe, Al, Ca, Na, Cr, Ba, Ni, Mg,
524 and K. However, some differences exist between the three profiles that might be caused by the
525 presence of organometallic additives in the diesel, the lubricating oil quality, and the operating
526 conditions. For instance, elements such as Ca and Zn can be used as markers of total lubrication
527 oil consumption and their contribution to the total mass of elements may vary depending on its
528 quality (Sippula et al., 2014).

529 In the WB profile, K shares 50% of the mass of the 29 analyzed elements and is identified as a
530 major metal in biomass burning since it is a major constituent of plants (Adam et al., 2021).
531 The other abundant elements in descending order were Ca, Al, S, Na, Fe, and Mg. These
532 findings were also observed during biomass burning events and in ash samples in a simulated
533 open combustion chamber (Akbari et al., 2021). Fe is considered as an important component in
534 vegetation and intervenes in physiological processes while Mg and Na play a major role in the
535 metabolism and the structure of the plant respectively (Alves, 2008; Brownell, 1979). Other
536 elements accumulated by trees were also present in WB such as Cu, Pb, Ti, Zn, and Mn.

537 Even though the total mass fraction of elements differs between BG, CG, and GCA, the most
538 abundant elements observed are S, Ca, Na, K, Al, Mg, and Fe. They account for about 98% of
539 the measured elements despite the cooking method used. Similar observations were made by
540 See and Balasubramanian (2008) showing high content in Ca, Na, Fe, Mg, and Al for different
541 cooking styles. This study showed sulfur as the dominant element for GCA in agreement with
542 other residential cooking experiments (Wang et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2019). This might be due

543 to the addition of organic sulfur compounds such as ethyl mercaptan to liquid natural gas used
544 for the detection of leak.

545 As for the other elements, Na is attributed to the salts and seasoning added to the food while Ca
546 which has an important contribution in the three cooking profiles could be released from raw
547 materials (Zhang et al., 2017). K showed a considerable abundance in BG and CG and is mainly
548 associated with charcoal combustion (Zhao et al., 2019). Although their contribution is
549 negligible to the total mass of the profile, trace elements are known to have harmful effects on
550 the human health. The GCA profile shows the presence of Pb and Mn that could be emitted
551 from cooking oil (peanut and canola oil) (Zhao et al., 2019). Other trace elements such as Cr,
552 Ni, Cu along with Fe are released from the interaction between the heating source and the
553 stainless steel wok used as cooking utensils in the different cooking profiles (Sun et al., 2020).

554

555 2.5 Organic and inorganic source markers

556 The knowledge of chemical profiles is an important tool to be used by receptor model users in
557 the source apportionment exercise. According to Galvão et al. (2020), for a better separation
558 between sources, the chemical speciation should include carbonaceous fraction, ions, elements,
559 and organic compounds with a focus on chemical markers. The latter are considered as
560 fingerprints that link the chemical profiles to the sources.

561 The markers of hardwood burning were OC, EC (with an OC/EC ratio of 3.4), potassium in its
562 ionic and elemental form, and Cl^- , accounting for 68% of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. Levoglucosan was the
563 major contributor to organic compounds along with the predominance of high molecular weight
564 n-alkanes, higher PAHs mass per gram of OM compared to the other profiles especially for
565 fluoranthene, pyrene, and benz[a]anthracene. The values of the characteristic PAHs ratios were
566 0.49 for fluoranthene/ (fluoranthene + pyrene) and 0.57 for benz[a]anthracene
567 / (benz[a]anthracene + chrysene). The K^+/EC and K^+/OC ratios were used to differentiate wood
568 from fuel combustion and were reported as 0.36 and 0.12 for wood burning, respectively. The
569 ratio between levoglucosan and OC for the hardwood combustion was equal to 0.3 in this study.

570 The major contributors to diesel generators profile were OC and EC accounting for more than
571 74% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ with an OC/EC ratio of 2.9, followed by SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Ca, Ca^{2+} , and S. N-alkanes
572 showed a high contribution to OC in this profile with a profile pattern maximizing at $\text{C}_{20}\text{-C}_{21}$,
573 a carbon preference index value close to unity (0.9) and very low wax percentage (1.4%).
574 Pyrene was the most abundant compound between PAHs. The PAHs ratios reported for the

575 diesel combustion in our study were 0.24 for fluoranthene/(fluoranthene + pyrene), 0.41 for
576 benz[a]anthracene /(benz[a]anthracene +chrysene), and 0.18 for indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene /
577 (indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene + benzo[g,h,i]perylene). The profile also recorded the highest relative
578 share of PCDD/F and DL-PCBs compared to the other profiles. The K^+/EC and K^+/OC ratios
579 were 0.01 and 0.003, respectively.

580 The three cooking profiles showed similarities with a high contribution of carboxylic acids,
581 especially palmitic and stearic acids, high OC contribution and low EC share. The presence of
582 food with different fat content and composition might increase the share of OC in the chemical
583 profile. Chicken grilling profile recorded the highest OC contribution of 72% of $PM_{2.5}$ with an
584 OC/EC ratio of 622. Beef grilling profile markers were OC, EC (with an OC/EC ratio of 45),
585 Cl^- , K, NO_3^- , and SO_4^{2-} . For both profiles, C_{25} having the highest contribution to n-alkanes,
586 carbon preference index values between 2 and 5, and high abundance of 4-rings PAHs with
587 fluoranthene/(fluoranthene + pyrene), benz[a]anthracene /(benz[a]anthracene +chrysene), and
588 (indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene + benzo[g,h,i]perylene) close to 0.5 were attributed to the charcoal
589 combustion. The general cooking activity profile presented an OC/EC ratio of 18, an important
590 contribution of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ (85% of WSI), and a high abundance of Al, Na, and Ca.
591 The n-alkanes pattern maximized at C_{29} , and the major emitted PAHs were
592 benzo[b]fluoranthene, pyrene, and chrysene.

593

594 3 Conclusions

595 This study is a first in the East Mediterranean and Middle East region presenting a full chemical
596 characterization of 5 $PM_{2.5}$ sources in the East Mediterranean region: hardwood burning, diesel
597 generator, beef and chicken charcoal grilling and general cooking activities. This
598 characterization included the analysis of the carbonaceous fraction, ions, elements, and organic
599 species comprising n-alkanes, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, carboxylic acids,
600 levoglucosan, dioxins, furans, and dioxin-like polychlorobiphenyls. The markers for the
601 profiles along with the different ratios will be of utmost importance for future source
602 apportionment and modeling studies. It would be also important for further studies to consider
603 other sources such as waste incineration, tire burning, etc. The results of this work will
604 contribute to further broaden our knowledge of the PM sources in the region by expanding the
605 database for the East Mediterranean - Middle Eastern region. It might be also interesting to
606 evaluate the impact of using these local profiles on the policy making in the region.

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626

627

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