



- 1 Considering the future of anthropogenic gas-phase organic compound
- 2 emissions and the increasing influence of non-combustion sources on urban air
- 3 quality
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- 9 SVOCs), ozone, secondary organic aerosol (SOA), urban air quality, consumer products,
- 10 building materials
- 11

12 Abstract

13 Decades of policy in developed regions has successfully reduced total anthropogenic emissions of 14 gas-phase organic compounds, especially volatile organic compounds (VOCs), with an intentional, 15 sustained focus on motor vehicles and other combustion-related sources. We examine potential secondary organic aerosol (SOA) and ozone formation in our case study megacity (Los Angeles), 16 and demonstrate that non-combustion-related sources now contribute a major fraction of SOA and 17 ozone precursors. Thus, they warrant greater attention beyond indoor environments to resolve 18 19 large uncertainties in their emissions, oxidation chemistry, and outdoor air quality impacts in cities 20 worldwide. We constrain the magnitude and chemical composition of emissions via several bottom-up approaches using: chemical analyses of products, emissions inventory assessments, 21





theoretical calculations of emission timescales, and a survey of consumer product material safety 22 datasheets. We demonstrate that the chemical composition of emissions from consumer products, 23 and commercial/industrial products, processes, and materials is diverse across and within 24 product/material-types with a wide range of SOA and ozone formation potentials that rivals other 25 prominent sources, such as motor vehicles. With emission timescales from minutes to years, 26 27 emission rates and source profiles need to be included, updated, and/or validated in emissions 28 inventories, with expected regional/national variability. In particular, intermediate-volatility and 29 semivolatile organic compounds (IVOCs and SVOCs) are key precursors to SOA but are excluded or poorly represented in emissions inventories, and exempt from emissions targets. We present an 30 expanded framework for classifying VOC, IVOC, and SVOC emissions from this diverse array of 31 sources that emphasizes a lifecycle approach over longer timescales and three emission pathways 32 that extend beyond the short-term evaporation of VOCs: (1) solvent evaporation, (2) solute off-33 gassing, and (3) volatilization of degradation by-products. Furthermore, we find that ambient SOA 34 35 formed from these non-combustion-related emissions could be misattributed to fossil fuel combustion due to the isotopic signature of their petroleum-based feedstocks. 36

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38 1. Introduction

Anthropogenic emissions of gas-phase organic compounds, including volatile organic compounds (VOCs), are of direct concern as toxic or carcinogenic air pollutants in indoor and outdoor environments (Cohen et al., 2005; Nazaroff and Weschler, 2004; Weschler and Nazaroff, 2008). Often they are more important for air quality as reactive precursors to the formation of outdoor tropospheric ozone and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) as well as indoor SOA, and thus play a central role in the elevated mortality and morbidity rates caused by fine mode particulate matter





(i.e. PM_{2.5}) and ozone in both developed and developing regions (Destaillats et al., 2006; Jerrett et al., 2009; Lim et al., 2012; Nazaroff and Weschler, 2004; Pope and Dockery, 2006; Sarwar et al., 2004; Singer et al., 2006; Weschler, 2011). In urban and downwind areas globally, 20-70% of PM_{2.5} is organic aerosol (OA), with SOA comprising 58% of OA in urban areas and 82% downwind on average (Zhang et al., 2007).

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51 Yields of SOA and ozone are strongly dependent on precursor molecular size, volatility, structure, and moieties/functionalities as well as environmental conditions (Gentner et al., 2012; Kroll and 52 Seinfeld, 2008). SOA models have struggled to reproduce observations due to incomplete 53 knowledge on SOA precursors and their sources (Hallquist et al., 2009; Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008). 54 Gas-phase organic compound measurements and emissions data have historically focused on 55 VOCs (i.e. C_2 - C_{12} alkanes and VOCs with equivalent volatilities), but research has demonstrated 56 57 the prevalence and importance of larger, intermediate-volatility and semivolatile organic 58 compounds (IVOCs and SVOCs, respectively) (Gentner et al., 2012; Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; 59 Robinson et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2014). With greater SOA mass yields, IVOCs and SVOCs are key for modeling and mitigating SOA but are less-studied due to measurement difficulties 60 61 (Gentner et al., 2012; Goldstein and Galbally, 2007). While their emissions from motor vehicles 62 have received more attention, emissions from most other sources are poorly constrained.

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In recent history, motor vehicles, power plants, and residential combustion have been dominant drivers of detrimental air quality (e.g., VOCs, nitrogen oxides (NO_X), PM_{2.5}, ozone, sulfur dioxide (SO₂)), with automobiles dominating anthropogenic VOC emissions in major cities (Gentner et





al., 2017; Hao et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2013, 2015; Warneke et al., 2012; Zhou et al., 2003). 67 68 Yet due to the success of combustion-related emissions control policies over the past 60 years, motor vehicle VOC (and other pollutant) emission factors have decreased by orders of magnitude 69 in route to today's diesel and gasoline vehicles, albeit with some recent on-road diesel NO_X 70 compliance issues (Hao et al., 2007; Kirchstetter et al., 1999; U.S. Environmental Protection 71 72 Agency, 2011; Warneke et al., 2012). In no other place has this been more studied than Los 73 Angeles, CA, where PM_{2.5} and ozone still exceed standards, and OA comprises 41% of PM₁, 66% 74 of which is SOA (Hayes et al., 2013; Warneke et al., 2012). Recent work has suggested that motor vehicle emissions in L.A. cannot fully explain observations of reactive precursors and SOA 75 76 (Ensberg et al., 2014; Hayes et al., 2015; McDonald et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2014). In L.A. and beyond, the role of motor vehicles in degrading air quality will decline further with the newest on-77 road emissions standards (e.g. Tier 3/LEV-III, Euro 6/VI) (Figure 1), use of electric-powered 78 79 vehicles, and stricter regulations on emissions from off-road vehicles and other engines (Gentner et al., 2017; Giannouli et al., 2011; Gordon et al., 2013; Platt et al., 2014; Tessum et al., 2014; 80 Weiss et al., 2011). 81

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The main objective of this paper is to evaluate anthropogenic sources of gas-phase organic compounds that are gaining prominence as motor vehicles and other combustion-related sources become cleaner in the developed and developing world. We demonstrate that consumer products and commercial/industrial products, processes, and materials are important, widely-distributed area sources of VOCs, IVOCs, and SVOCs with variable source profiles making their emissions and impacts difficult to observe and constrain. Our demonstration builds on relevant indoor air quality studies observing emissions and substantial SOA formation from ozone-initiated reactions





with emissions from consumer products, building materials, and cleaning products (Chang et al.,
2011; Destaillats et al., 2006; Gold et al., 1978; Lewis, 2001; Mitro et al., 2016; Nazaroff and
Weschler, 2004; Singer et al., 2006; Weschler, 2011; Weschler and Nazaroff, 2008; Wilke et al.,
2004) as well as secondary emissions from oxidative degeneration of indoor paints, varnishes, and
materials (Knudsen et al., 1999; Poppendieck et al., 2007a, 2007b; Salthammer and Fuhrmann,
2007).

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We outline a holistic framework to assist future research in the field, and then use a multi-dataset 97 approach to constrain emissions, which includes the most detailed emissions inventory available, 98 laboratory analysis of product composition, a survey of consumer product material safety 99 datasheets (MSDSs), and calculations of emissions timescales from theory. Specifically, we (a) 100 evaluate the pathways, chemical composition, and magnitude of VOC, IVOC, and SVOC 101 102 emissions from prominent types of products, processes, and materials; (b) calculate their potential 103 to form SOA and ozone; and (c) compare their emissions and potential air quality impacts to other prominent sources. We identify major knowledge gaps in emission rates and composition, 104 105 including I/SVOCs, which we explore via two examples: pesticides and asphalt-related emissions.

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107 2. Defining a comprehensive framework for non-combustion-related emissions

There is a wide body of work on some aspects of emissions from products, processes, and materials
in indoor or outdoor environments, but outdoor-focused emissions inventories are mostly focused
on evaporative emissions of VOC solvents at the time of application. Here we outline the current





- scope of emissions and expand on it to define a comprehensive framework to guide future studies
- 112 on this class of emissions.

113

114 Volatility: Emissions of gas-phase organic compounds can and should be differentiated by their 115 volatility: VOCs, IVOCs, and SVOCs, or further by their n-alkane-equivalent volatility (Murphy 116 et al., 2014). One can broadly refer to compounds emitted from products and processes via the 117 prefix 'pp-' (e.g. pp-VOCs), which is consistent with existing conventions for volatility basis set 118 and aerosol abbreviations (e.g. pp-SOA) (Murphy et al., 2014).

- Source categories: While the spectrum of sources is very diverse, they are often grouped by use.
 The following source categories are consistent with the most detailed VOC inventories for
 consumer products, but are extended to include materials/products used in commercial and
 industrial processes (shown with * below):
- Paints (indoor and outdoor),
- Industrial adhesives,
- Consumer adhesives,
- Sealants,
- Pesticides (consumer and agricultural),
- General cleaning products,
- Targeted cleaners,
- Personal products (e.g. beauty and hygiene),
- Building materials,*





133	• Paving and roofing asphalt-related materials,
134	• Solid consumer products and packaging (e.g. plastics, elastomers), and their additives (e.g.
135	plasticizers, flame retardants).*
136	However, the volatility range of most of the existing categories needs to be expanded to completely
137	include I/SVOCs. We discuss I/SVOC-containing pesticides and asphalt-related
138	products/processes as examples that are not sufficiently included in inventories (see Section 4.1.3).
139	Notes: we exclude gasoline evaporation (from vehicles or fuel stations) and fossil fuel
140	extraction/processing given their close connection to combustion. We briefly discuss food-derived
141	cooking emissions for comparison, which are important and classified separately.
142	
143	Emission pathways: We propose three general pathways of product/process-related emissions:
144	1) Evaporation of solvent from a product or during a process;
144 145	 Evaporation of solvent from a product or during a process; Volatilization of solute or active compounds from an applied coating or a solid
144 145 146	 Evaporation of solvent from a product or during a process; Volatilization of solute or active compounds from an applied coating or a solid product/material (i.e. off-gassing); and
144 145 146 147	 Evaporation of solvent from a product or during a process; Volatilization of solute or active compounds from an applied coating or a solid product/material (i.e. off-gassing); and Volatilization of by-products from the degradation or transformation of solute or active
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144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153	 Evaporation of solvent from a product or during a process; Volatilization of solute or active compounds from an applied coating or a solid product/material (i.e. off-gassing); and Volatilization of by-products from the degradation or transformation of solute or active compounds. The first is the principal pathway previously considered and often occurs over faster timescales (minutes-days) from liquids like cleaners, paints, and other solvents. The second acts over longer timescales (weeks-years), is not always included in inventories, and is a key potential source of I/SVOCs (see Section 4.1.3). SVOC pesticides, flame retardants, and off-gassing plastics are examples studied for indoor air quality (Batterman et al., 2009; Brodzik et al., 2014; Clausen et





155	and Nazaroff, 2008). The third is due to the generation of degradation by-products via thermal or
156	photochemical stress, exposure to oxidants (i.e. OH, O ₃ , or NO ₃), or other reactive chemical
157	processes. These emissions are largely understudied with the exception of asphalt-related
158	emissions and ozonation of indoor materials (Poppendieck et al., 2007a, 2007b; Salthammer and
159	Fuhrmann, 2007; Toftum et al., 2008).
160	
161	A lifecycle approach: Emissions during application or immediate use are most commonly studied,
162	but many emissions related to products, process, and materials occur over much longer timescales.
163	In the future, emissions studies need to include all three potential emissions pathways across full
164	lifecycles of:
165	• Storage,
166	• Transport,
167	• Application,
168	• "Curing",
169	• Active use,
170	• Weathering,
171	• Restoration,
172	• Removal and disposal.
173	There are too many facets within the lifecycles of each source category to discuss in this paper,
174	but our case study on asphalt-related emissions in Section 4.1.3 demonstrates several aspects.
175	Production methods are not explicitly included here since they may fall under the purview of

industrial point sources, but with small, distributed production it may be appropriate to consider





the industrial/commercial processes as area-wide sources. Chemical transformations of materials 177 178 or products across their lifetimes need to be considered since they can influence the chemical 179 composition and rates of emissions. For example, transformations can occur during a wide variety of in-use conditions or during the storage of unused or partially-used products/materials, both of 180 which can be over long storage periods in a variety of environmental conditions. Application 181 methodology is a determining factor in both emission rates and composition during application. 182 183 For example, common methods include direct liquid application or aerosolization, either via a 184 pressurized can or a nozzle and air compressor, and aerosolization provides a direct emission pathway for all components and subsequent evaporation of aerosol droplets. Finally, emissions in 185 186 latter parts of lifecycles (i.e. weathering/deterioration, restoration, removal, and disposal) all need to be considered. 187

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189 **3. Methods**

190 We constrain the magnitude, chemical composition, and potential air quality impacts of emissions using multiple bottom-up approaches: chemical characterization of a selection of 191 192 consumer products via gas chromatography-mass spectrometry and carbon isotope mass 193 spectrometry; a detailed assessment of emissions inventories and estimation of source 194 contributions to potential SOA and ozone formation; theoretical calculations of emission 195 timescales; and a survey of reported chemical composition in consumer product MSDSs. Details 196 on the emission timescale calculations can be found in Appendix B, and other additional 197 methods details can be found in the supporting information.

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Chemical speciation of consumer products: We selected 17 consumer products across a range of 199 product types with attention to those with unresolved alkane or aromatic mixtures (Table 1). Top-200 201 selling products from major commercial providers were selected in order to make a realistic 202 assessment of products that are currently in significant public use, and to avoid biasing the analysis 203 towards less-common products. With a limited sample size, only 1 water- and 1 ethanol-based product were included. Diluted samples were prepared at a concentration of 1000 ng μ L⁻¹ in either 204 205 hexane or toluene depending upon the product composition provided in their MSDS. The chemical 206 composition of the emittable fraction of products was determined using gas chromatography with 207 electron ionization-mass spectrometry (GC-EI-MS) (Agilent 7890B/5977). A 1µL syringe 208 (Hamilton) was used to directly inject the sample onto the GC column through an inlet held at 320 209 °C. During each injection, the column was initially held at 40 °C for 2 minutes, then ramped at 10 °C min⁻¹ to 325 °C and lastly held at 325 °C for 5 minutes. Mass spectra of background subtracted 210 211 individual ion peaks were used to identify compounds in a sample using the NIST mass spectra library. Calibration curves were drawn for five different concentrations of authentic standards 212 (AccuStandard) for diesel range alkanes (C_{10} - C_{28}), purgeable aromatics, and terpenes. The 213 214 emittable organic fraction of raw products is defined by volatility and approximated as VOCs + IVOCs via our chemical analysis and reported MSDS data (Note: SVOCs excluded in this analysis 215 to focus on compounds that are fully partitioned to the gas-phase at equilibrium under typical 216 217 conditions). A carbon isotopic analysis was also carried out at the Keck Carbon Cycle Accelerator Mass Spectrometer (AMS) facility at U.C. Irvine to measure carbon-14 ($\infty \Delta^{14}$ C) and carbon-13 218 219 (‰ d¹³C) relative to carbon-12 via a 0.5MV Compact AMS (National Electrostatics Corp.), and 220 estimate the fossil carbon content in individual products.





Urban emissions inventories: We used the California Air Resources Board (CARB) Almanac 222 223 emissions inventory and the U.S. EPA SPECIATE 4.4 source profiles to generate the total and compound-specific emissions for our California and Los Angeles (Cox et al., 2013; U.S. 224 Environmental Protection Agency, 2014). The CARB emissions inventory is the most detailed 225 available with respect to source categories and basin-level rates. Los Angeles is our case study 226 megacity given its historical role in air quality research and policy with a multi-decadal record of 227 228 emissions data, ambient measurements, field campaigns, and publications (Bishop and Stedman, 229 2008; Fortin et al., 2005; Neligan, 1962; Warneke et al., 2012). In addition, the U.S. National Emissions Inventory and Global Emissions Initiative (GEIA) inventories were used for nationwide 230 231 and worldwide comparison of VOC emissions respectively from solvents and on-road motor vehicles. 232

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234 We estimated total daily potential ozone and SOA formation in greater Los Angeles from the 235 product/process-related emissions included in the CARB inventory. Values were also calculated 236 for exhaust and evaporative emissions from on-road motor vehicles using CARB's EMFAC model 237 database and literature ozone and SOA yields for each source pathway and LEV generation 238 (Gentner et al., 2013, 2017; Zhao et al., 2017). Potential ozone formation values are based on 239 maximum ozone incremental reactivity (MOIR) values from the SAPRC-07 inventory (Carter, 2007; Gentner et al., 2013). The very diverse range of compound classes used in products, 240 materials, and processes remain largely understudied with respect to their SOA yields (e.g. esters, 241 242 siloxanes). Hence, literature SOA yields were used wherever possible (Algrim and Ziemann, 2016; Chacon-Madrid et al., 2010; Chan et al., 2010; Gentner et al., 2012; Kwok and Atkinson, 1995; 243 Ng et al., 2006; Pankow and Asher, 2008; Sadezky et al., 2006; Tsimpidi et al., 2010), and 244





estimated for other unstudied compounds (Table S6). SOA yields are estimated at 10 μ g OA m⁻³ 245 in urban, "high-NO_X" conditions (approx. >5 ppb). Ozone and SOA yields for each analyzed 246 247 consumer product and product categories are compared to other key sources. The SOA yields provide a conservative, lower estimate of potential SOA without aqueous SOA despite studies 248 showing that aqueous pathways to SOA increase SOA yields for small oxidized precursors or their 249 oxidation by-products (Daumit et al., 2016; Jia and Xu, 2014). For the case study city Los Angeles 250 251 (and Mexico City), aqueous SOA formation was relatively small during major field studies 252 (Dzepina et al., 2009; Hayes et al., 2015; Washenfelder et al., 2011). However, future work in 253 other cities should consider aqueous SOA given the magnitude of oxygenated fraction in 254 product/process-related emissions (see section 4.1.2).

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Survey of material safety datasheets (MSDS): We obtained the MSDS data by surveying a set of 256 257 88 MSDS entries from the websites of major home improvement stores focusing on their top-258 selling products. Five product categories were chosen including paints, adhesives, cleaning 259 products, sealants and pesticides. Chemical composition information was extracted from the 260 "composition/information on ingredients" section reported in the datasheets. MSDS entries for 261 commercial products frequently report 30% to 60% of product composition as "proprietary 262 mixtures", so this survey only identifies the presence and establishes general ranges for current 263 product types (Table 2).

264

265 4. Results and Discussion

266 4.1 Composition and magnitude of product/process-related emissions





The organic composition of consumer products and commercial/industrial products, materials, and 267 268 processes are very diverse, which leads to similar diversity in emissions, and further region/nation-269 specific heterogeneity can be expected. We calculate the magnitude and average chemical composition of emissions from source categories included in the CARB inventory (Figure 2a) with 270 the goal of assessing the distribution of emissions across organic compound classes and product 271 272 types (i.e. source profiles) in a megacity with the most representative inventory available. We find 273 that the consumer products and commercial/industrial processes that comprise product/process-274 related sources are large emitters of a diverse suite of VOCs, but view these results as a lower 275 estimate given likely missing emissions, such as those discussed in Section 4.

276

277 4.1.1 Chemical composition

Laboratory analysis of consumer products: Our results summarized in Table 1 demonstrate the 278 279 prevalence of non-benzene, single-ring aromatics and C_6 - C_{12} alkane mixtures as solvents, and the 280 presence of IVOCs and SVOCs in consumer products. The emittable fraction of products ranged 3-100%, and the single-ring aromatic and IVOC content ranged 3.5-93% and 0.77-95%, 281 282 respectively. Another key result of this analysis is the frequency of many functionalized aliphatic 283 or aromatic VOCs and IVOCs that are not traditionally measured in atmospheric monitoring (e.g. esters, acetates, siloxanes), which is echoed in the MSDS survey results. More detailed speciation 284 285 results with a breakdown of alkanes and single-ring aromatic compounds can be found in Table 286 S1. Validation of real-world product/process-related emission rates/timescales is necessary to 287 advance the field but will require examining a wide range of products and geographic conditions.





Analysis of emissions inventories: Figure 3(a) shows the estimated overall composition of 289 290 product/process-related emissions in Los Angeles averaged over the years 2005 to 2020 291 determined by combining SPECIATE source profiles with the CARB emissions inventory for the South Coast Air Basin (SoCAB). Alcohols and miscellaneous emissions together make up 50% of 292 the total product/process-related emissions with ethanol as one of the largest individual species 293 294 emitted, which is consistent with SoCAB ethanol observations that were substantially greater than 295 what would be expected with gasoline vehicles as the only source (de Gouw et al., 2012). 70% of 296 the miscellaneous emissions are made up of mineral spirits whose composition varies greatly with application but are generally comprised of acyclic and cyclic C₇₋₁₂ alkanes with variable amounts 297 298 of aromatic content. The remaining 30% includes unresolved asphalt mixtures, oxygenates, fragrances, and undefined petroleum distillates/oils/spirits, some of which also fall into the 299 I/SVOC category discussed below. Single-ring aromatics are estimated at 13% of total emissions 300 301 with a mix of 43% toluene, 38% C₈, 3% C₉, and 1.5% C₁₀ aromatics, and minor PAH emissions. Carbonyls represent 10% of total emissions, 36% of which is acetone. Anthropogenic terpenoid 302 emissions in the inventory, while highly reactive, are small relative to other sources and biogenic 303 304 contributions (see section S.4 in SI).

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Figure 3(b) shows the distribution of organics in the SoCAB emissions inventory from major product/process-related source categories. Paints emerged as the highest VOC emitter, ~21% of which is single-ring aromatics (Figure S4). Targeted cleaners, pesticides, and general cleaners were the next largest source types in the inventory. A more detailed breakdown of emissions broken up by source category and compound class can be found in Table S3.





MSDS survey: Summarized in Table 2, the greatest single-ring aromatic content was observed in 312 313 adhesives (8%) and sealants (9%), while the 30 surveyed paints did not have aromatic VOC content in contrast to the SPECIATE source profiles. In comparison, the chemical speciation of 42 major 314 solvents (across C_{6-13}) in 2002 reports a wide range of total aromatic content (0-100%) and an 315 average of 41% ($\pm 46\%$) with the remainder comprised of acyclic and cyclic alkanes (Censullo et 316 al., 2002). Differences when compared to our present-day laboratory and MSDS paint speciation 317 show reductions in aromatic content due to increasingly stringent regulations. However, for other 318 locations, it highlights the likely, continued prevalence of single-ring aromatics in solvents, 319 especially for developing regions. We also found that MSDSs did not report I/SVOCs content in 320 321 the composition of pesticides while our laboratory speciation found a 8%-95% IVOC content in the emittable fraction of the analyzed pesticides samples. For all of the product categories 322 examined, and especially for pesticides, the amount of compositional information provided by the 323 324 MSDSs is limited and hinders our ability to constrain the average aromatic or I/SVOC content since compounds outside the VOC range are often not disclosed due to proprietary claims or 325 regulatory exemptions, and where provide all compound concentrations are usually provided as a 326 327 wide range. For example, under "fragrance exemptions" VOCs and IVOCs are often not disclosed and can even be labeled as "VOC-free". 328

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330 4.1.2 Emission rates

While motor vehicles are still major sources in developed regions, their total gas-phase organic compound emissions have been gradually declining with the continued implementation of stricter emissions standards (Gentner et al., 2017), increasing the relative importance of other sources (Figures 1, 2a). At a global scale, the MACCity and ACCMIP emissions inventories estimate





global solvent-related VOC emissions of 15 Tg yr⁻¹ in 2000 and year-over-year increases since 335 336 1960 (speciated by aromatics, C_{6+} alkanes, ketones, alcohols, and other VOCs), and emissions of aromatics from solvents are expected to outweigh those from transportation in 2020 (7.5 vs. 6.7 337 Tg yr⁻¹) (GEIA, 2017). The 2014 U.S. National Emissions Inventory (NEI) data reports that VOC 338 emissions from solvent-related sources are just 25% less (300 tons day⁻¹) than those from on-road 339 mobile sources nationally, while they exceed on-road emissions by 25% (21 tons day⁻¹) in 340 341 California (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2011). Figure S1 shows California's statewide bi-decadal emissions estimates from CARB where product/process-related VOCs will reach 450 342 tons day⁻¹ in 2020, exceeding motor vehicles by 116 tons day⁻¹. A similar picture may emerge in 343 developing nations, as the control of motor vehicle emissions is greatly accelerated by the 344 advancements and knowledge of developed nations; such that emission standards in major 345 emerging economies employ either U.S. or E.U. policies, and are generally only one generation 346 347 behind (Kodjak, 2015). International studies over the past 2 decades show highly varying contributions (~5-45%) to the total anthropogenic VOC emissions from just "solvent" use at both 348 regional and national scales (summarized in SI) (van den Born et al., 1991; Caserini et al., 2004; 349 350 Chen et al., 2009; Deguillaume et al., 2008; Lu et al., 2007; Markakis et al., 2009; Menut, 2003; Nielsen et al., 2008; Piccot et al., 1992; Song et al., 2007; U.S. Environmental Protection Agency 351 and Office of Air Quality Planning and Standards, 1991). 352

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Emissions inventory data for Los Angeles demonstrate that anthropogenic emissions have consistently decreased over the last four decades (Figure 2a), which is consistent with ambient observations (1960-2010) (Warneke et al., 2012). As the contribution of on-road motor vehicles to total anthropogenic emissions has declined, product/process-related sources have become a





major contributor of VOCs. Based on the CARB emissions inventory, contributions of 358 359 product/process-related sources are the largest single contributor of VOC emissions in the basin 360 and state (Figures 2a & S1), and are growing with population (i.e. increased in-basin usage). While consumption volume is low compared to combustion fuels, emission factors are higher given that 361 most of the volatile components are emitted whereas fuels are burnt at $\geq 99\%$ efficiency. Yet, no 362 region can be fully representative of product/process-related emissions on a larger scale, and 363 364 regional/national specifics will influence the magnitude and composition of emissions. For example, California's extensive regulations will modify the composition of products sold in CA, 365 and likely elsewhere in the U.S. 366

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368 4.1.3 Emissions of intermediate- and semi-volatile organic compounds (IVOCs and SVOCs)

Despite representing only a small to moderate amount of emissions, IVOCs and SVOCs from motor vehicles are key precursors to urban SOA (Gentner et al., 2012; Robinson et al., 2007). Similarly, we conclude that consumer products and commercial/industrial processes are also large sources of unspeciated IVOCs and SVOCs, some of which are included in the CARB inventory, while there is evidence that some other source pathways are not.

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Many common products/materials (e.g. pesticides, fragrances, foams, plastics) have IVOCs or
SVOCs that partition to reach equilibrium and evaporate over long timescales (Figure 4)
(Batterman et al., 2009; Clausen et al., 2004; Mitro et al., 2016; Weschler and Nazaroff, 2010).
Our chemical analysis revealed IVOCs or SVOCs in 10 of the 17 products (Tables 1 & S1).
Including the MSDS survey, we found composition ranging from 0% to 95% I/SVOCs, with





I/SVOCs present in 23% of cleaners, 20% of adhesives, 24% of paints, and 46% of sealants (Table
Aliphatic or aromatic I/SVOCs are frequently used in some types of pesticides and are
sometimes replaced with biogenic oils (e.g. neem oil, fish oil), such that the bulk of the pesticides
in our MSDS survey were comprised of < 1 - 10% active compounds and a balance of undisclosed,
"non-hazardous" ingredients.

385

The SPECIATE profiles and CARB emissions inventory include some estimates of unspeciated 386 "low-vapor pressure VOCs (LVP-VOCs)" in consumer products that are defined as larger than 12 387 carbon atoms (or equivalent volatility), which is roughly consistent with the beginning of the IVOC 388 range (California Air Resources Board, 2015b). While poorly constrained, non-aromatic I/SVOCs 389 included in the inventory constitute $\sim 3\%$ (6 tons day⁻¹) of total SoCAB emissions estimates in the 390 CARB/SPECIATE case study, 90% of which is classified as unspeciated "LVP-VOCs". Consumer 391 392 product pesticides, general purpose cleaners, and targeted cleaners (e.g. laundry) are the largest sources of I/SVOC contributions emitting 3.6, 1.0 and 0.4 tons day⁻¹ of I/SVOCs, respectively. 393 394 Consumer product pesticide emissions had the highest fraction of I/SVOCs (29%).

395

While CARB's consumer products inventory includes I/SVOCs due to manufacturer reporting requirements, I/SVOCs are exempt from limits on VOC content except for multipurpose solvents and paint thinners, and there are known limitations in their coverage, especially of oxygenated species (California Air Resources Board, 2000a, 2015b). We conclude there are other anthropogenic sources of IVOCs and SVOCs that have not been considered due to their long emission timescales (i.e. days-years; Figure 4, Table S9) (de Gouw et al., 2011; Weschler and





402 Nazaroff, 2008). We present evidence for two such examples in this paper: I/SVOC-containing 403 pesticides and asphalt-related products, materials, and processes, but other examples include the 404 volatilization of I/SVOC solvents, solutes, or solids (e.g. coatings, flame retardants) and materials 405 that may degrade to form compounds with volatilities of C_{13-26} n-alkanes (e.g. construction 406 materials/coatings, including materials with petroleum distillates/residues, mineral oil, coal tar, or 407 similar).

408

Example 1: Emissions of IVOCs and SVOCs from pesticides: We have several pieces of evidence 409 that demonstrate pesticides (including herbicides, insecticides, and fungicides) contain I/SVOCs, 410 but they also highlight the fact they are poorly documented and regulated. We analyzed the 411 chemical composition of three pesticides available as consumer products and they were comprised 412 of 8%, 20% and 95%, IVOCs in the C_{14-17} range (Table 1, Figure S3), with trace levels of larger 413 414 compounds. Our MSDS survey (Table 2) was inconclusive for pesticides since the majority of 415 consumer pesticides are not disclosed in MSDSs due to claims of proprietary mixtures, nonregulated components outside of the VOC range, and/or because they use naturally-derived oils 416 (e.g. neem oil). Studies have shown such naturally-derived oils are comprised of aliphatic and 417 418 aromatic I/SVOC-range compounds (Isman, 2000; Kumar and Parmar, 19996). Our emissions 419 inventory analysis shows that non-aromatic I/SVOCs are the largest inventoried source of I/SVOCs (Figure 3), but the lack of data in MSDSs and VOC exemptions from regulations suggest 420 421 this is a lower estimate of actual emissions. To examine commercial/industrial products, we also 422 analyzed the composition of three petroleum-based pesticides used in agriculture (Figure S2), which are comprised of C_{16} - C_{26} cyclic and acyclic alkanes mostly in the SVOC range that are 423 424 applied as thin films via a sprayed water emulsion. These can partition to the gas phase and be re-





- 425 emitted on the timescales in Figure 4 and may impact urban (or downwind) areas in agricultural
- 426 regions, with 18-29 Gg applied yr^{-1} in California.
- 427

Example 2: Emissions of IVOCs and SVOCs from asphalt-related products, materials, and 428 429 processes: We propose asphalt-related products/processes as important sources of IVOCs and SVOCs whose emissions are currently underestimated in inventories and require better 430 quantification. Asphalt-containing materials are used in road paving and repair (and similar 431 applications for roofing or other surfaces), and are comprised of petroleum-derived organic 432 compounds; predominantly non-distillable (i.e. non-volatile) asphalts sometimes with smaller 433 amounts of VOCs, IVOCs, and/or SVOCs. They are used as sealers, coatings, and binders; mixed 434 with aggregates to pave roads; and applied using either high application temperatures, water 435 436 emulsions, and/or solvent.

437

The three paving/roofing-related products we analyzed contained aliphatic and aromatic VOCs 438 439 and IVOCs up to C_{18} present as solvents, with minor SVOC content (Figure S3). Similarly, there were no I/SVOCs declared in the asphalt-containing products in our MSDS survey. Non-solvent 440 emissions during the hot storage, application, or resurfacing of these asphalts are caused by the 441 442 degradation (i.e. fragmentation) of larger asphalts to form smaller compounds (C_7 - C_{30}), which include cyclic and acyclic alkanes, single-ring aromatics, PAHs (2-, 3-, and 4-ring), and sulfur- or 443 444 nitrogen-containing species (i.e. benzo- and dibenzo- thiophenes and furans), all of which were 445 not present in the asphalt prior to heating (Cavallari et al., 2012b; Gasthauer et al., 2008; Kitto et al., 1997; Kriech et al., 2002; Lange et al., 2005; Lange and Stroup-Gardiner, 2007; The Asphalt 446





- 447 Institute & European Bitumen Association, 2015). The total mass and composition of emissions is
- 448 dependent on production methods, asphalt grade, and increases in magnitude and maximum
- 449 molecular weight with storage/application temperatures (i.e. more SVOCs at high temperatures),
- 450 which ranged 100-240 °C, or higher for roofing asphalts (Cavallari et al., 2012b; Gasthauer et al.,
- 451 2008; Kitto et al., 1997; Kriech et al., 2002; Lange et al., 2005; Lange and Stroup-Gardiner, 2007;
- 452 The Asphalt Institute & European Bitumen Association, 2015).

453

Emissions of aromatic and aliphatic VOCs, IVOCs, and SVOCs from heated asphalt mixtures 454 ("hot mix") during application have also been documented in occupational health studies on 455 "asphalt fumes" (Cavallari et al., 2012a, 2012b; Kriech et al., 2002; Lange et al., 2005; Lange and 456 Stroup-Gardiner, 2007). Yet, current emissions inventories do not include emissions of VOCs, 457 IVOCs, and SVOCs from the degradation of larger compounds during and after the application of 458 459 asphalt mixes. Estimation methods focus solely on the evaporation of VOC solvents from "cutback 460 asphalt", included as an area source in the "solvent evaporation" category in Californian, U.S., and 461 E.U. inventories (California Air Resources Board and Sonoma Technology Inc., 2003; San Joaquin 462 Valley Air Pollution Control District, 2008; U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, 2014; U.S. 463 EPA, 1995). Road paying solvents are prohibited in non-attainment areas in California (Table S4). so emissions in the SoCAB case study are minor (1 ton day⁻¹) and mostly smaller than C_{10} in the 464 SPECIATE source profiles (Table S5) (Cox et al., 2013). 465

Emission factors of degradation byproducts don't exist, so we approximate lower limits on emission factors only for the period immediately during application using limited published data





(see section S.3 in SI), but longer timescale experiments are necessary. Calculated lower limits 469 range from 100-2000 mg kg⁻¹ of asphalt (not including aggregate) with a strong dependence on 470 application/storage temperature. This is on the same order as motor vehicle emission factors and 471 is greater than CARB's current emission factor for hot-mix asphalt (District, 2012; Gentner et al., 472 2017; San Joaquin Valley Air Pollution Control District, 2008). Yet, California's asphalt 473 consumption of 1,540,000 tons liquid asphalt year⁻¹ (Table S4) represents statewide I/SVOC 474 (+VOC) emissions of 0.5 - 8 tons day⁻¹ during application alone (The Asphalt Institute, 2015). 475 This does not overwhelm current solvent-VOC emissions from paving/roofing (33 tons day⁻¹) but 476 emphasizes the need for further research since the poorly-constrained emissions largely include 477 I/SVOCs emitted over long timescales which are known to have high SOA yields. 478

479

Asphalt-related emissions exemplify the stated need for lifecycle-focused approaches, with 480 481 potential emissions across storage, transport, application, curing, weathering (e.g. degradation due 482 to climate or UV radiation), and resurfacing. Their magnitude and composition will vary with 483 production/handling methods, geologic source, and application type and location (esp. climate). 484 Emission pathways (from Section 2) include (1) volatilization of application solvents and (3) the 485 production and release of degradation byproducts while (2) does not apply due to negligible off-486 gassing from extremely low volatile un-degraded asphalt constituents. The emission of asphalt degradation products may peak during construction-related activities primarily due to asphalt's 487 exposure to high temperatures during its storage, application, or resurfacing. Still, seasonal highs 488 in surface temperature (summer pavement maximums are 47-67 °C and up to 70 °C for roofs 489 (Parker et al., 1997; Pomerantz et al., 2000)), will likely affect the rate of internal transport and 490 diffusion out of the "cured" asphalt layer resulting in emissions extended over its lifetime. (Note: 491





- 492 paving solvents are currently assumed to be emitted over several months (California Air Resources
- 493 Board and Sonoma Technology Inc., 2003)).
- 494

495 4.2 Potential SOA and ozone formation of product/process-related emissions compared to

496 other major sources

497 Products and processes emit a diverse array of organic compounds (Figure 3). Some are of low direct concern for human health (terpenoids, siloxanes etc.), while others present issues as primary 498 emissions, especially in indoor or concentrated workplace environments (aromatics, ethers, 499 PAHs). Yet, most are reactive and will oxidize in outdoor or indoor environments to form oxidized 500 VOCs with unknown, but large potential health effects (Pöschl and Shiraiwa, 2015). This section 501 focuses on their impacts on air quality via SOA or ozone formation. However, the health or 502 environmental effects of the primary emissions should be especially considered in developing 503 regions where primary VOC emissions are larger, or for specific compound classes near sensitive 504 505 natural environments.

506

A comparison of the SOA yields and ozone formation potentials for major source categories (Figure 5) demonstrates that product/process-related emissions have SOA yields and ozone formation potentials that are on par with other major urban sources such as motor vehicles and are strongly dependent on composition. Gas-phase cooking emissions from food represent an additional uncertain source in urban air quality along with cooking POA which has been more studied (Bruns et al., 2017; Hayes et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2016).





SOA formation potential: The potential SOA from on-road gasoline vehicles in greater Los 514 515 Angeles region has decreased by ~65% between the years 1990 and 2015. By 2020, further reduction by 25% is expected relative to the 2015 value of 3.3 tons day⁻¹. These numbers for diesel 516 vehicles are 75% and 1.3%, respectively. If the emissions inventory is accurate, then the 2015 517 potential pp-SOA in the SoCAB basin is nearly equal to the SOA formation potential of on-road 518 gasoline and diesel vehicles, and is estimated to surpass them by 2020 with an increasing share of 519 520 SoCAB's total anthropogenic emissions (Figure 2b). While single-ring aromatics and PAHs 521 constitute only 11% of the total product/process-related emissions, they are responsible for ~80% of the potential SOA from those sources in the region (4% PAHs and 76% single-ring aromatics, 522 523 largely toluene and xylenes). Existing emission inventories badly underestimate emissions of I/SVOCs and their contributions to SOA. They are shown to be responsible for 0.18% of pp-SOA, 524 but this excludes 87% of the total I/SVOCs emissions which are labeled as unspeciated "LVP-525 526 VOCs" in the inventory and thus have no assigned SOA yield in calculations. Additionally, our calculations do not include "missing" emissions or their potential SOA. Anthropogenic terpenoids, 527 including lemon oil, pine oil, orange oil, orange terpenes, D-limonene and α -pinene, are 528 529 responsible for ~8% of the total product/process-related SOA.

530

Ozone formation potential: Over the past several decades, potential ozone has been dominated by emissions from gasoline motor vehicles. Yet, in 2015 potential ozone from gasoline vehicles was only 30% greater than product/process-related sources, and by 2020 product/process-related emissions will surpass on-road motor vehicle contributions in the basin (Figure 2c). Potential ozone from on-road diesel vehicles is only ~5% of that from product/process-related sources. Contributions to potential ozone from product/process-related sources are 33% alcohols, 29%





aromatics, and 12% alkanes (not including unspeciated "LVP-VOCs") (Table S2). A recent ozone
formation sensitivity analysis of solvent-related emissions speciation with 22 lumped species
demonstrated that using input source profiles that are more detailed in terms of contributing
compound classes would improve ozone model performance (von Schneidemesser et al., 2016).

541

Contributions from off-road combustion-related sources to potential SOA and ozone: Off-road 542 mobile sources are also significant sources of reactive precursors to SOA and ozone across a very 543 diverse mix of vehicles, boats, equipment, and other engines, and sometimes operate on specialized 544 fuels (e.g. aviation gasoline, jet fuel, jet naphtha, fuel oil) (Cox et al., 2013; Gordon et al., 2013; 545 May et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2016). These sources have received greater regulatory attention in 546 the past 20 years, and control policies (e.g. CARB, EPA) will add additional variance to the 547 magnitude and composition of gas-phase organic compounds they emit (California Air Resources 548 549 Board, 2017; Miller and Facanha, 2014; U.S. EPA, 2017). Given the limited information on their 550 diverse source profiles, and thus their SOA and ozone yields (Gordon et al., 2013; McDonald et 551 al., 2015), we constrain their uncertain contributions independent from on-road sources. Their 552 fraction of anthropogenic VOC emissions in the SoCAB leveled off after 2005 and started to 553 decrease (Figure 2a), and in 2015 the ratio of on- to off-road emissions in the ARB inventory 554 almanac is 1.5:1 and 1:2 for gasoline- and diesel-powered engines, respectively, when including equipment, recreational vehicles, boats, trains, and aircraft that use either gasoline or diesel (Cox 555 et al., 2013). So, given similar ozone and SOA yields to on-road gasoline or diesel vehicles, off-556 557 road emissions could approximately increase potential SOA and ozone contributions from gasoline-related sources by 67% and diesel-related sources by 200% for the year 2015 in the 558 SoCAB, but are subject to the uncertainty from the wide range of engines, fuels, and emissions 559





560 controls affecting the composition of emissions. These results are generally consistent with the 561 relative source contributions of on- and off-road sources to total OA reported by McDonald et al. 562 (2015) for 2010 in the SoCAB. The current outsize impact of off-road sources, despite using a 563 relatively small amount of fuels, is due to the fact that emission factors are much higher for off-564 road sources, such as 2+ orders of magnitude higher for gasoline off-road compared to on-road 565 sources (Gordon et al., 2013; McDonald et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2016).

566

The inclusion of off-road sources does not affect our conclusion in this section that noncombustion sources and motor vehicles (on- and off-road) contribute similar amounts of potential SOA and ozone in our case study megacity around the 2015-2020 period, with a rapidly growing role for non-combustion sources as combustion emissions are further controlled. In all, this highlights the importance of continued assessment and regulation of off-road combustion-related sources as part of a holistic air quality management plan along with non-combustion sources and on-road vehicles.

574

Modifying factors for SOA and ozone formation chemistry: Relative VOC to NO_X ratios have been shown to affect the chemistry and production rates of SOA and ozone (Hallquist et al., 2009; Sillman, 1999; Zhao et al., 2017). For many cities outside Los Angeles, urban air quality develops within a backdrop of biogenic emissions of VOCs and IVOCs, which is critical to keep in mind as we pursue stricter emission targets for reactive organics. In some cases, such as in the Southeast U.S., biogenic emissions dominate over anthropogenic gas-phase organics, and emissions of SO₂ and NOx are large drivers of biogenic SOA formation (Xu et al., 2015).





582

583 4.3 Empirical ambient evidence for IVOC and SVOC emissions, and their SOA contributions Ambient measurements (2010) of I/SVOCs in our case study city are consistent with our findings; 584 they demonstrate that IVOCs are important contributors to SOA in the region and other urban 585 586 areas, but major uncertainties persist regarding the sources of primary IVOC emissions (Hayes et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2014). Recent model results estimate that 70-86% of urban 587 SOA in Pasadena come from the oxidation of primary I/SVOC emissions (Ma et al., 2016). Zhao 588 et al. (2014) state that unidentified non-vehicular sources contribute 'substantially' to these 589 emissions but no clear fraction is yet established. A major fraction of SOA cannot be explained 590 without the inclusion of IVOCs or other unspeciated organics (Gentner et al., 2012, 2017; Hayes 591 592 et al., 2015; Jathar et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014). Other results indicate that fossil-related sources contribute approximately half of OA and a majority of fresh, urban SOA in Los Angeles (Gentner 593 594 et al., 2017; Hayes et al., 2013; Zotter et al., 2014). Yet, bottom-up estimates and top-down 595 assessments of the SOA produced from gasoline and diesel vehicles (on- and off-road) cannot 596 explain all of the observed fossil SOA in LA in 2010, which supports our conclusions and suggests 597 the presence other major sources of fossil-derived SOA precursors (Ensberg et al., 2014; Gentner 598 et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2016; McDonald et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2014).

599

600 4.4 Isotopic carbon content and interpreting ambient isotopic data

The isotopic carbon content (i.e. ${}^{14}C$ vs. ${}^{13}C$ vs. ${}^{12}C$) of organic aerosol has been used directly, and in tandem with source apportionment of bulk aerosol data from an aerosol mass spectrometer, to infer fossil vs. non-fossil origin of carbonaceous aerosols and their SOA precursors at several





locations (Ceburnis et al., 2011; Hayes et al., 2013; Zotter et al., 2014). We tested the potential 604 605 effect of their emissions on the interpretation of isotopic measurements of ambient SOA, and our isotopic analysis of 12 products demonstrates that their VOC and I/SVOC emissions and thus SOA 606 will be depleted in Carbon-14 (Table 1). 8 of the 12 contained 97% or more fossil carbon, while 607 the remaining 4 contained 57-81% fossil carbon. Asphalt-related sealants, solvents (e.g. paint 608 thinner, naphtha), and pesticides were found to have the highest fossil carbon content. This is 609 610 consistent with the fact that petrochemical feedstocks derived from petroleum and other fossil fuels are used in the products, materials, and processes discussed throughout this work. 611

612

Studies in greater Los Angeles (Pasadena) report that fossil-fuel driven emissions appear to 613 contribute 68%-74% of the observed afternoon increase in SOA formed from urban sources with 614 the remaining ~25% coming from non-fossil sources, principally regional biogenic and local 615 616 cooking sources (Hayes et al., 2013, 2015; Zotter et al., 2014). The observed fossil SOA and its 617 potential precursor sources have been analyzed across several studies with differing conclusions 618 (Bahreini et al., 2012; Gentner et al., 2017; Hayes et al., 2013; Zotter et al., 2014). The studies 619 agree that on-road diesel vehicles are a relatively minor contributor to fossil SOA (Bahreini et al., 620 2012; Hayes et al., 2013, 2015; Zotter et al., 2014), and along with other papers, have highlighted 621 the importance of other anthropogenic sources (Ensberg et al., 2014; McDonald et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2014). Other evidence suggests a fossil source other than on-road diesel since concentrations 622 of IVOCs show only minor weekday vs. weekend variation with changes in diesel traffic (Zhao et 623 624 al., 2014). Based on our results and the evidence in the literature, we conclude that fossil-derived urban SOA precursors are emitted from product/process-related sources, and are responsible for 625 some of the fossil SOA observed in the SoCAB. The isotopic signature of products, materials, and 626





627 processes is due to their petrochemical feedstocks, and this has led to their misattribution to

- 628 combustion-related sources in the past.
- 629

630 5. Conclusions and future research needs

631 Using multiple bottom-up approaches, we demonstrate the growing importance of non-combustion 632 emissions of gas-phase organic compounds from anthropogenic sources. Yet, our understanding has been inhibited due to the chemical diversity of emissions across a myriad of source types, their 633 fossil isotopic signatures, and in many cases their prolonged emission timescales, which occur 634 over full lifecycles and a broader range of emissions pathways than is typically considered. 635 636 Emission timescales can extend over months or longer (Figure 4) in the case of: thick layers of materials/coatings; sources of I/SVOCs, or the formation and emission of degradation by-products. 637 The implications of these prolonged timescales are a legacy of unreleased potential emissions built 638 up or "banked" in the products and materials spread across urban areas. 639

640

It is critical to emphasize that these results do not justify deviating attention from, or relaxing 641 emission standards for, combustion-related sources since they are still prominent factors in urban 642 643 air quality in the developed and developing world, and remain dominant contributors of carbon dioxide. For the foreseeable future in many locations, they remain principal contributors of reactive 644 organic precursors and other criteria pollutants, especially in near-source hotspots, such as 645 roadways. Rather, we conclude that in order to support the coming decades of policy, modern air 646 quality research needs to holistically consider the full portfolio of anthropogenic (and biogenic) 647 648 sources that impact urban air quality. We highlight key research needs to support this objective.





649

A broad perspective on non-traditional sources of reactive carbon: This analysis highlights the 650 importance and further consideration of VOC, IVOC, and SVOC sources that have not received 651 652 sufficient attention to effectively support policy. With the successful control of "low-hanging fruit" where single source types dominated emissions, the control of a broader array of disparate sources 653 becomes necessary. It is likely that there are other non-vehicular sources of reactive gas-phase 654 655 organics in urban areas (e.g. food-derived cooking emissions), which need to be better included in inventories and models. Monitoring, studies, and inventories need to comprehensively include 656 functionalized compound classes rather than just traditional classes. 657

658

Validation of existing emissions inventories: Our results based on exiting emissions inventories 659 are subject to uncertainties in their methodology. Given the results, further research is needed to 660 review, evaluate, and validate both the emissions factors and source profiles in emissions 661 662 inventories. A lifecycle approach should include lifetime emissions over the three pathways in Section 2. Such emissions will be seasonally-dependent on factors such as air velocity, relative 663 humidity, and temperature (Wolkoff, 1998). A large survey of products and materials with 664 665 attention to national/regional differences is warranted to ensure that source profiles accurately represent product/process-related emissions. Single-ring aromatics are a key example: the current 666 667 CARB inventory using the SPECIATE source profiles reports large emissions of single-ring 668 aromatics, 72% of which comes from paints. Yet, this is in contrast to our MSDS survey that 669 observed little aromatic content in current-day U.S. paints (Table 2).

670





Inclusion of IVOCs and SVOCs in emissions inventories: There is a clear need for more detailed 671 672 emissions inventories of I/SVOCs from all sources. Further research should support the evaluation of the I/SVOC exemption in strategic air quality management plans and composition reporting 673 requirements in MSDSs and similar databases. More detailed speciation is required to accurately 674 determine the SOA (and ozone) formation potential of unresolved I/SVOC mixtures. Emerging 675 measurement methods will enable a more robust update of the currently unresolved I/SVOCs in 676 677 existing source profiles, which sometimes stem from outdated survey data (California Air 678 Resources Board, 2000b). In the process, attention should be paid to heterogeneity in products containing petroleum distillates and similar components, which are very broad and can result in an 679 680 equally broad range of emissions.

681

The off-gassing of I/SVOCs (and VOCs) from materials was not experimentally tested in this study and is not included in inventories. Yet, recent studies have shown plastics, foams, and building materials off-gas I/SVOCs and VOCs, such as aromatics, aliphatics, halocarbons, terpenes, organophosphates, and oxygenated species (Brodzik et al., 2014; Faber et al., 2013; Kemmlein et al., 2003; Toftum et al., 2008; Wensing et al., 2005). Similarly, detailed lab and field characterization of asphalt-related emissions over long timescales is needed to constrain emission factors, source profiles, and the effect of modified asphalts (e.g. Superpave).

689

Understanding the application method and environment is key to determining air emissions of
I/SVOCs since some products may be used with water and disposed of into wastewater, described
as *down-the-drain factors*. For example, a recent ozone modeling study modeled the fate of 23





693 oxygenated I/SVOCs (e.g. glycols, glycol ethers, esters, alcohols) present in cleaning and personal 694 products that are used with water found that most of the compounds that go down-the-drain do not 695 volatize and are biodegraded at wastewater treatment plants, while >90% of compounds that 696 volatize outdoors will react with OH and contribute to ozone formation (Shin et al., 2015).

697

698 *Quantifying outdoor transport of indoor emissions:* Similar to *down-the-drain* factors, we 699 highlight the need for a similar factor to determine fractions of indoor emissions that are 700 permanently lost to indoor sinks via chemical or physical deposition (*fraction lost to indoor sinks*). 701 Similarly, models will need factors to account for the increase in characteristic emission timescales 702 when products/materials used on indoor surfaces remain indoors longer due to generally lower 703 vertical transport coefficients and subsequent re-partitioning other surfaces prior to transport 704 outdoors.

705

Inter-location variability in the developed and developing world: While we present annual trends 706 for our case study megacity Los Angeles, a similar situation is evolving elsewhere in developed 707 urban areas where emissions of anthropogenic organics are key drivers of SOA and ozone 708 709 formation, especially in megacities. We expect substantial heterogeneity between locations in the 710 composition of emissions from products, materials, and processes due to national/regional regulations governing formulation, as well as climate, application specifics, and consumer 711 712 preferences and options. In particular for this work, California's advanced regulatory program may 713 have led to the phase out of some components in U.S. products. So globally the composition and magnitude of product/process-related emissions may contain a much greater fraction of reactive 714





species, such as single-ring aromatics. Top-down ambient studies and bottom-up studies for other 715 716 locations are needed to confirm the importance of product/process-related emissions, and air 717 quality modeling studies should support these efforts. The situation in urban areas of developing regions and emerging economies is uncertain since they have motor vehicle emissions 718 719 standards/technologies that may be much more advanced than the rest of their air quality management plans (Kodjak, 2015). In such locations, non-combustion sources may be important 720 721 sources, but the combustion of fossil fuels or biomass for home heating/cooking and agricultural 722 waste disposal will play a larger role than in developed regions. In all locations, the magnitude of 723 regional biogenic emissions and SO_2/NO_X emissions will affect the impact of anthropogenic 724 organics on SOA.

725

726 Understudied oxidation pathways and products: The oxidation pathways and products for many

of the functionalized compound classes discussed in this work (e.g. Figure 3) are largely

vunderstudied, with a lack of experimental or theoretical studies to constrain the generation of

729 SOA, ozone, and oxidized gases. Such oxidation products/pathways are also particularly

important in indoor environments, so research on their precursor emissions and subsequent

731 oxidation is also important for indoor air chemistry.

732

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- manuscript and the reviewers whose comments helped improve this manuscript.
- 739
- 740 Supporting Information. Please see the supplemental material for additional details on relevant
- regulations, methods, Tables S1-S9, and Figures S1-S4.
- 742

Appendix A: Current and historical regulations and policy on non-combustion products and processes

745

746 Emissions from consumer products and industrial processes received some attention in pre-2000 747 outdoor air quality research and policy, especially in the cases of toxic components, highly-reactive 748 volatile solvents that fueled rapid ozone production (e.g. alkenes), and stratospheric ozonedepleting chemicals. Emissions of a select few hazardous air pollutants (HAPs) (e.g. benzene and 749 vinyl chloride) were first broadly regulated under the U.S. Clean Air Act (1970). Subsequent 750 751 amendments through 1990 required the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) to regulate key sources of precursors to ozone production and emissions of 189 newly-designated HAPs (now 752 "air toxics"), some of which were used in products and processes (National Research Council, 753 754 2004). Less well-known, the 1990 amendments also required the EPA to identify priorities and 755 guidelines to mitigate emissions from consumer and commercial products (National Research Council, 2004). Several categories of paints and solvents were subsequently identified based on 756 757 results from paint drying and chamber experiment studies conducted during early 1970s through late 1990s (Chang et al., 1997; Clausen et al., 1993, 1990, 1991; Hansen, 1974; Sparks et al., 1999; 758 759 Sullivan, 1975), and regulations were established for half of the product categories, but actions 760 were ultimately halted as these sources were not viewed as central to ozone or other criteria





pollutant mitigation at the time (National Research Council, 2004). Despite large uncertainties
about emissions and ambient contributions from products/processes, this strategy reflects the
magnitude and impact of motor vehicle emissions in 1990 (Figures 1-2); the keen focus on ozone
production; and the lack of knowledge on SOA formation chemistry and I/SVOCs.

765

U.S. state or air basin-level regulations vary with region and attainment status. California's air 766 767 quality policy and regulations have been the most inclusive and detailed with respect to emissions from consumer products and some industrial processes. The California Air Resources Board 768 (CARB) started the Consumer Products Regulatory Program in 1991, and a similar Coatings 769 Program, to address outdoor and indoor air quality problems associated with their emissions by 770 placing product type-specific limits on VOC content, and total reactivity limits (i.e. ozone 771 potential) specifically for aerosol coatings (California Air Resources Board, 2015b). CARB is also 772 773 required to maintain statewide and county/basin-level emissions inventories for 72 source 774 categories, available 1975 to 2020. Within these categories, the product/process-related sources include consumer products, architectural coatings, pesticides, cleaning and surface coatings, and 775 776 asphalt paving/roofing. Chemically-speciated emissions profiles for sources within these 777 categories are in the US EPA's SPECIATE repository, some of which are used by the European 778 Union (EU) (Pernigotti et al., 2016). In the 2015 California code of regulations report, CARB has further updated regulations focusing on VOC emissions from antiperspirants and deodorants, 779 780 hairsprays, other consumer products (both aerosol and non-aerosol), and aerosol coating products 781 (California Air Resources Board, 2015a).



The Economic Commission of Europe employs market-based mechanisms to reduce regional 783 784 emissions of VOCs. The National Emissions Ceilings directive sets country-specific reduction 785 targets on organic gas emissions ranging from 10% up to 60% from 2010 to 2020 (European Environment Agency, 2010). The EU has two relevant policy directives: the 'VOC Solvents 786 Emissions Directive' to limit industrial VOC emissions resulting from processes such as printing, 787 surface cleaning, vehicular coating, and dry cleaning; and the 'Paints Directive' to reduce VOC 788 789 content in paints and varnishes (European Commission, 2014). In China, in addition to restrictions 790 on criteria pollutants including both PM10 and PM2.5, the Chinese Air Pollution Control Action 791 Plan 2013 also limits VOC emissions from paints, adhesives and petrochemical industry, and 792 promotes the use of low-volatility water-based paints (Ministry of Environmental Protection, 793 2012).

794

795 Appendix B: Calculating characteristic timescales for emissions from surface layers

796 The timescale for emission is defined by the simple relation:

797
$$au_{emission} = \frac{M_{applied}}{R_{emission}}$$
 (1)

The mass applied ($M_{applied}$) and rate of emission ($R_{emission}$) are defined as in Weschler and Nazaroff (2008), as a function of emission velocity (v_e) refers to the airborne mass transfer from the surface of the applied layer to the free-stream air, which is the rate-limiting step compared to diffusion within the thin layer (Weschler and Nazaroff, 2008). The gas-phase saturation concentration immediately above the surface (C_{sat}) is determined by molecular structure, C_0 is the concentration of a compound in the layer, A is the exposed surface, and d is the depth of the layer.

$$804 R_{emission} = v_e A C_{sat} (2)$$

$$805 \qquad M_{applied} = C_0 A d \tag{3}$$

Plugging in Eqns. 2-3 into Eqn. 1, and substituting in the partitioning coefficient between octanol and air (K_{OA}), one gets Eqns. 4 and 6: Octanol is chosen as the proxy for the mixed organic layer that is applied. K_{OA} is available for a wide range of species and is consistent with previous modeling of SVOC partitioning from surfaces (Weschler and Nazaroff, 2008).

810
$$\tau_{emission} = \frac{c_0 A d}{v_e A c_{sat}} = \frac{c_0 d}{v_e c_{sat}}$$
(4)

811 since:
$$K_{OA} = \frac{C_o}{C_{sat}}$$
 (5)

812
$$\tau_{emission} = \frac{\kappa_{OA}d}{v_e} \tag{6}$$

 v_e is a function of aerodynamic and boundary layer resistances (r_a and r_b), and can vary 813 814 dramatically across indoor and outdoor environments. Given the diversity of compositions, applications, and environments that products and materials will be applied, constraining v_e is 815 uncertain and highly variable. Calculations in Table S9 and Figure 4 are shown for a range of v_e 816 from 10 m hr⁻¹ to 50 m hr⁻¹, which covers a mix of moderately stable to neutral meteorological 817 conditions. Higher values regularly occur for transport from in/out of some plant canopies. Urban 818 819 values are strongly dependent on the urban landscape and regional meteorology; vertical transport velocities in built up urban areas like Paris range 5-20 m hr⁻¹ (Cherin et al., 2015). Indoor values 820 can decrease to < 5 m hr⁻¹ due to lower friction velocities, which is still fast enough to for the 821 emissions and chemistry that drive indoor air quality (Weschler and Nazaroff, 2008). 10 - 50 m hr⁻ 822 ¹ was chosen as a daytime range, but we acknowledge that slower vertical velocities and thus 823 824 longer persistence on surfaces (i.e. lifetimes) may exist for some locations, especially indoors.

Equations 7-11 to calculate v_e , r_a , and r_b are reproduced below for location/condition-specific

analyses.

827
$$v_e = \frac{1}{r_a + r_b} \tag{7}$$

828
$$r_a = \frac{1}{\kappa u^*} \ln\left(\frac{z_r}{z_0}\right) \tag{8}$$

829
$$r_b = \frac{5Sc^{2/3}}{u^*}$$
 (9)

$$830 \qquad Sc = \nu/\mathcal{D} \tag{10}$$

831
$$u^* = \kappa U_r \left[\ln \left(\frac{z_r}{z_0} \right) \right]^{-1}$$
(11)

where u*: friction velocity, z_0 : roughness length, z_r : reference height, U_r : reference velocity, κ : von Karman constant, Sc: Schmidt number, ν : kinematic viscosity, \mathcal{D} : gas diffusivity. Depending on the relative impact of r_a vs. r_b , decreases in diffusivity with larger molecules may affect transport.

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1313	Figure captions
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1315	Figure 1. Characteristic evolution and modernization of in-use motor vehicle fleets. Trends in motor vehicle
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1322	from product/process-related emissions compared to on-road motor vehicles, with uncertainties based on the ranges
1323	of compound class-specific SOA yields, and (c) Ozone formation potential via compound-specific maximum ozone
1324	incremental reactivity values (SAPRC, no uncertainty given). Product/process-related results are produced using
1325	CARB emissions data and EPA source profiles; see methods for further detail. Note: None of the panels include
1326	VOCs, IVOCs, or SVOCs, from products/processes that we identify in Sections 2 and 4 as missing from emissions
1327	inventories, but SOA and ozone formation from motor vehicle emissions does include I/SVOCs. Maximum potential
1328	SOA from gasoline vehicles in 1990 was ~41 tons day ⁻¹ (off graph). Pre-1990 potential SOA and ozone for motor
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1332	inventory and SPECIATE database as a function of (a) compound class (shown with standard deviations) and (b)
1333	major product/process-related source categories in the inventory (values in Table S3). "Miscellaneous" contains
1334	70% mineral spirits (C7-12 hydrocarbons). I/SVOCs does not include an estimate of the missing emissions identified
1335	in Section 2 and 4.
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1337	Figure 4. Emission timescales for single-ring aromatics, alkanes, and prominent solvents: ethanol (a), ethylene
1338	glycol (b), and acetone (c). Based on applied layers of 0.01-1 mm and vertical transport coefficients for

1339 neutral/stable outdoor conditions (10-50 m hr⁻¹), with longer timescales in indoor environments or thicker layers

- 1340 (e.g. asphalt, building materials). The left axis is reproduced on the right in days. Timescales are limited by gas-
- 1341 phase transport from the surface, but absorption into polymeric or porous substrates could extend timescales
- 1342 (Weschler and Nazaroff, 2008). Volatility range boundaries for VOC-IVOC and IVOC-SVOC occur between C₁₂-
- 1343 C₁₃ and C₁₉-C₂₀, respectively, for n-alkanes or compounds with equivalent volatilities. See Appendix B for
- calculations and Table S9.
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- 1346 Figure 5. Comparison of (a) SOA yields and (b) Ozone formation potential of five major sources. Blue markers
- 1347 represent average yields of the product/process-related source categories in Figure 3, and do not include "missing"
- 1348 emissions. The red markers show yields of sampled consumer products calculated from speciation obtained after
- 1349 GC-MS analysis. All are shown as a function of mass emitted, not product composition.

1350 FIGURES & TABLES

1351 Table 1. Composition and emittable fraction of twelve commercially available consumer products, and results of

1352 their carbon isotope analysis. Please see Table S1 for detailed mass distribution profiles and Table S7 for detailed

1353 carbon isotopic analysis results.

Product name	Percent Fossil	IVOC	Aromatic	Emittable	d ¹³ C	$\Delta^{14}C$
	Origin	Content	Content	Fraction	(‰)	(‰)
	0001			1000/	20.0.0.1	0004 0.5
Naphtha cleaner	>99%	-	-	100%	-29.0 ± 0.1	-999.4 ± 0.5
Non-polar solvent	>99%	-	93%	100%	-27.4 ± 0.1	-998.5 ± 0.5
Fogging Insecticide [†]	>99%	95%	-	95%	-26.7 ± 0.1	-999.1 ± 0.5
Semi-gloss furniture coating	56%	-	6%	30%	-29.9 ± 0.1	-565.4 ± 0.7
Multipurpose solvent ^a	>99%	-	-	100%	-30.6 ± 0.1	-997.8 ± 0.7
Furniture coating ^{\dagger}	65%	-	1%	40%	-30.2 ± 0.1	-650.0 ± 0.6
Roof paint ^b	>98%	-	-	-	-22.7 ± 0.1	-985.0 ± 0.5
Sealant ^{c, §}	97%	0.77%	21%	25%	-27.4 ± 0.1	-969.9 ± 0.5
Paint thinner [†]	>99%	2%	3%	100%	-29.1 ± 0.1	-999.7 ± 0.5
Asphalt coating ^{d, §}	>99%	4%	3%	25%	-27.6 ± 0.1	-994.8 ± 0.6
Detergent ^e	81%	3.5%	4%	25%	-27.9 ± 0.1	-807.8 ± 0.6
General purpose cleaner ^{f, \dagger}	81%	1%	-	3%	-27.7 ± 0.1	-811.1 ± 1.3
Multipurpose lubricant	-	39%	-	97%	-	-
Aerosol Coating Productg, †	-	-	12%	17%	-	-
Flashing cementh.§	-	0.2%	3.5%	27%	-	-
Crawling Insecticide 1 ^{i, †}	-	20%	-	20%	-	-
Crawling Insecticide 2 ^{j,†}	-	8%	-	8%	-	-

*Crude oil and plant-derived ethanol were used for multiple reference blanks (Table S8).

[§]Asphalt-related products.

[†]Applied as aerosols.

^a Largely consists of acetone (80%) with the rest as cyclotetrasiloxanes and aryl halides.

^bWater based product. Other components include titanium dioxide, silica and aluminum hydroxide.

^c Largely consists of petroleum asphalt, clays and cellulose.

^d Largely consists of petroleum asphalt.

° 46% of the emittable fraction (EF) consists of mostly esters, 70% of which have less than 12 carbon atoms. Terpenes including limonene, eucalyptol and α -terpineol form 37% of the EF.

 f Water-based product. Also has terpenes including camphene, d3-carene, α -pinene, linalool and δ -limonene. 60% of terpene fraction is δ -limonene.

^g Contains 35% acetone and 25% hydrocarbon propellants not included in the EF. *25% of EF is 75% acetate + 25% ketones. ^h Largely consists of petroleum asphalt, kaolin, cellulose and aluminum magnesium silicate.

ⁱContains 15% hydrocarbon propellants not included in the EF.

^jContains 25% hydrocarbon propellants not include in the EF.

Note: Emittable fraction is confirmed with MSDS where possible.

Table 2. Analysis of material safety data sheets commercially available with products.

1356

Product Category	Fraction of products with aromatic content	MSDS Aromatics %wt. Mean (range)	Fraction of products with I/SVOC content	MSDS I/SVOCs %wt. Mean (range)
Paints*	0%	0	24% ^a	2.5 (1-5)
Adhesives	27%	8 (1-30)	7% ^b	20 (10-30)
Cleaning Products	8%	5 (1-10)	23% ^c	3.5 (1-7)
Sealants	53%	9 (1-30)	7% ^d	4 (1-10)
Pesticides**	NS	NS	NS	NS

 a Consists of benzoates. Log K_{OA}=7.75 which puts them in the IVOCs range.

^bDoes not include potential emissions from petroleum asphalt which on average constitutes 36% in 13% of the surveyed products. 50% products contain 38% limestone on average.

'Includes C9-C14 ethoxylated alcohols.

^dDoes not include potential emissions from petroleum asphalt which on average constitutes 40% in 33% of the surveyed products. 60% products contain 36% limestone on average.

*20% of MSDSs include 'non-hazardous' or 'proprietary' component in composition ranging from 60%-100%. **MSDSs do not present sufficient information on the composition of pesticides (NS: not sufficient).

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