Measurement report: High Contributions of Halocarbon and Aromatic Compounds to Emissions and Chemistry of Atmospheric VOCs in Industrial Area

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Abstract. Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are key components for tropospheric chemistry and air
quality. We investigated ambient VOCs in an industrial area in Nanjing, China from-between_July 2018
to-and_May 2020. The totalsum of the suite of measured VOCs (TVOCs) concentration was 59.8±28.6
ppbv during the investigation period. About twice TVOCs concentrations were observed in autumn (83±20 ppbv) and winter (77.5±16.8 ppbv) seasons compared to those in spring (39.6±13.1 ppbv) and
summer (38.8±10.2 ppbv). Unlike-In_previous studies in Nanjing, oxygenated-VOCs (OVOCs) and
halocarbons were not_measured, the observed TVOCs was about 1.5 and 3-times higher than those
previously reported in the same study area and a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing, respectively
the current TVOCs concentration without halocarbons and OVOCs was similar to the previous
suburban area in Nanjing. Observed TVOCs concentrations were similar to those in metropolitan city

Beijing and Shanghai, however, it was about 1.5-3 folds higher than those in Lanzhou, Wuhan, Tianjin,
 Ningbo, Chengdu, London, Los Angeles, and Tokyo. Due to the industrial influence, halocarbons

 $(14.3\pm7.3 \text{ ppbv}, 24\%)$ VOC-group was the second largest contributor to the TVOCs after alkanes (21 ± 7) ppbv, 35%), which is in contrast with the previous studies in Nanjing and also in almost other regions in China. Relatively high proportions of haelohydrocarbons and aromatics were observed in autumn (25.7 and 19.3%, respectively) and winter (25.8 and 17.6%, respectively) compared to those in summer (20.4 30 and 11.8%, respectively) and spring (20.3 and 13.6%, respectively). According to the potential source contribution function (PSCF), short-distance transports from the surrounding industrial areas and cities were the main reason for the high VOC concentration in the study area. According to positive matrix factorization (PMF) model results, industry-related sources (23-47%) followed by vehicle-related emissions (2433-3448%) contributed the major portion to the ambient VOC concentrations. Whereas 35 aromatics Aromatics followed by alkenes were the top contributors to the loss rate of OH radicals (L_{OH}) (37 and 32%, respectively)., alkenes followed by aromatics contributed most to the ozone formation potential (OFP) (39 and 28%, respectively). Besides, the aromatics VOC-group was also the major contributor to the secondary organic aerosol potential (SOAP) (97%). According to the empirical kinetic modelling approach (EKMA) and relative incremental reactivity (RIR) analysis in assistance 40 with a photochemical box model, the study area was in the VOC-sensitive regime for ozone (O_3) formation during all the measurements seasons. Therefore, mainly alkenes and aromatics emissions chiefly from industries and automobiles should be reduced to decrease the secondary air pollution formation in the study area. Therefore, alkenes and aromatics emissions from automobiles need to be decreased to reduce the secondary air pollution formation in the study area.

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1 Introduction

Air pollution characterized by severe ozone (O_3) and haze pollution is a big problem in urban and industrial areas in China (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2016; Hui et al., 2019). In recent years, O_3 concentration above the national standard, and severe haze events are frequently reported (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2019; Sheng et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2016). As a precursor of O₃ and secondary organic aerosol (SOA), volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are largely responsible for the severe air pollution in China (Song et al., 2018; Hui et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; He et al., 2019). Unfortunately, anthropogenic VOC emissions

have been increasing over the last two2 decades in China and it is expected to do so in the future

55 (Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020, and references therein).

Atmospheric VOC has plenty of sources; it can be emitted from various anthropogenic and biogenic sources. Besides, it can also be formed in the atmosphere. Anthropogenic VOC sources mainly include industrial emission, vehicle exhaust, solvent usages, biomass burning, and fuel evaporation. On the other hand, vegetation is the main biogenic sources of VOC. In developed areas in China, vehicle exhaust and industrial emission are the 2-two major VOC sources (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; Hui 60 et al., 2019; Mo et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; An et al., 2014; Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020). Whereas Vyehicle-related sources are more dominant in the North China Plain (NCP), Central China (CC), and Pearl River Delta region (PRD) regions., But industry-related sources are more influential in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) area (Zhang et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2019; He et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018; An et al., 2017; Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020; Shao et al., 2016). Alkanes, 65 Alkenes, aromatics, oxygenated-VOCs (OVOCs), and halocarbons are the most common VOC-groups in the atmosphere (Hui et al., 2019; Hung-Lung et al., 2007; Song et al., 2018; Tiwari et al., 2010; He et al., 2019; Na et al., 2001; Hui et al., 2018). VOC concentration and composition changes depending on seasons, for example, the contribution from biogenic and solvent utilization increases in summer, and contribution from combustion sources increases in winter (Mo et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; An et al., 70 2014). The chemical reactivity of VOC depends on its chemical composition, for instance, alkenes and aromatics are generally more reactive than alkanes (Carter, 2010). To understand the chemical reactivity and secondary product formation ability of VOCs, Aanalysis of OH radical loss rate (LOH), ozone formation potential (OFP), and secondary organic aerosol potential (SOAP) are is commonly used to

75 <u>understand the chemical reactivity of VOCs</u> (Song et al., 2018; He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018); Hui et al., 2019).

Industries are an important source of VOC, and different reactive and hazardous VOCs emissions from industries are already reported in different areas on earth (Zhang et al., 2018; Na et al., 2001; Hung-Lung et al., 2007; Yan et al. 2016; Tiwari et al., 2010; Shi et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018b). For

instance, Zhang et al. (2018) reported a high concentration of alkanes ($21.3\pm17.8 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ out of the total 23.1±24.5 mg m⁻³-82%))-and lifetime cancer risk of different aromatics and halocarbons in a petroleum

refinery in Guangzhou, China. A high concentration of OVOCs (829.7±1076.7 ppbC out of the total 1317.3±1184.5 ppbC63%) was observed in an industrial area in Ulsan, Korea (Na et al., 2001). Hung-Lung et al.(2007) mentioned a high concentration of aromatics (~90 ppb out of the total ~160 ppb) in an industrial area in Taiwan. A high concentration of halocarbons (49%9590.2 mg m⁻³ out of the total 85 19652 mg m⁻³) was observed in an iron smelt plant in Liaoning, China (Shi et al., 2015). Zhang et al. (2018) mentioned a high concentration of alkanes (42%39.4 ppby out of the total 94.15 ppby) and aromatics (20%18.9 ppbv out of the total 94.15 ppbv) in a petrochemical and other industries affected area in Shanghai, China. High concentrations of aliphatic and aromatics were observed in a petrochemical industrial area in Yokohama, Japan (Tiwari et al., 2010). Therefore, VOC composition 90 variesd among the industries/industrial areas in different regions. Mostly short-term investigations were are performed to characterize the VOCs in industry-affected areas. In the current study, we carried out a comprehensive investigation on VOC in an industrial area in Nanjing between July 2018 and May 2020. Nanjing is located in the YRD region which is mainly affected by industrial emissions. Several VOC investigations have already been performed in the Nanjing industrial area but OVOCs and halocarbons 95 were not measured in those studies (An et al., 2017; An et al., 2014). However, OVOCs and halocarbons are already mentioned as one of the highest concentrated VOC -groups in other industrial regions (Na et al., 2001; Shi et al., 2015). In the current study area, a high concentration of alkanes (<u>19.6 ppbv out of the total 43.5 ppbv</u>45%) and alkenes (11.1 ppbv out of the total 43.5 ppbv25%) were observed in a previous investigation (An et al., 2014). Besides the incomplete VOC measurements, O₃ 100 formation sensitivity to its precursors was not investigated properly using a photochemical box model in Nanjing. Moreover, source apportionment of VOCs was not conducted for different seasons of a year.

In the current study, we report the variations in concentrations and compositions of VOC during the observation period. We present the possible source areas and potential sources of VOC based on 105 potential source contribution function (PSCF) and positive matrix factorization (PMF) model analysis. We also present the contributions of different sources to ambient VOC during the measurement period. We also report the chemical reactivity and secondary product formation capacity of the VOC using $L_{OH_{2}}$ OFP, and SOAP analysis. We also present the sensitivity analysis of O₃ formation using the empirical

110 kinetic modelling approach (EKMA) and relative incremental reactivity (RIR) analysis. Therefore, this study provides valuable information to the scientific community and policymakers.

2 Material and Methods

2.1 Sampling Site Description, Gases Analysis, and Meteorology Data

Field measurements were carried out <u>at Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology</u>
(32.1°N, 118.4°E) for about one month in winter, spring, and summer and three months in autumn from <u>between</u> July 2018 to <u>and</u> May 2020 at Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology
(32.1°N, 118.4°E), which is located in an industrial area in Nanjing, China. The sampling site was on the rooftop of a building (~20 m). The sampling site is surrounded by different chemical and petrochemical industries, steel plants, gas stations, high traffic roads, and residential areas. -A detailed description of the sampling site can be found elsewhere (Mozaffar et al., 2020).

We analysed ambient air VOCs using an online GC-FID/MS instrument (AC-GCMS 1000, Guangzhou Hexin Instrument Co., Ltd., China). FID detector analysed C2-C5 VOCs and MS analysed C6-C12 VOCs. The instrument analysed one sample at every hour. During the investigation period, we inspected and calibrated the instrument regularly to ensure the accuracy of the data (Mozaffar et al., 2020). We monitored the O₃ concentrations using a 49i O₃ analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA)₂₅ NO, NO₂ and NOx concentrations were measured using a 42i NO-NO₂-NOx analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA)₅₂ SO₂ concentrations were followed using a 43i SO₂ analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA)₅ and CO concentrations were measured using a 48i CO analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). We also measured temperature and relative humidity, wind speed, wind direction, and solar radiation by HMP155 (Vaisala, Finland), 010C (Met One Instruments, Inc., USA), 020CC (Met One Instruments, Inc., USA), and CNR4 (Kipp & Zonen, The Netherlands) analysers, respectively. A detailed description of the instrumentation, sampling procedure, analysis, quality control, and calibration procedure can be found elsewhere (Mozaffar et al., 2020).

2.2 Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) model and Potential Source Contribution Function 135 (PSCF)

We used the positive matrix factorization (PMF) model (US Environmental Protection Agency, USEPA, version 5.0) for the source apportionments of VOCs. A detailed description of the model can be found elsewhere (Hui et al., 2019; Song, Tan, Feng, Qu, Liu, et al., 2018). In this study, wWe used 620 potential VOC tracers (Fig. S1 - S4) in the PMF model to analyse the VOC sources for different seasons. The error fraction was set to 20% for the sample data uncertainty estimation. We explored the

PMF factor number from 4-8 to determine the optimal number of sources. Finally, we decided to choose an 7 to 8-factor solution $(Q_{true}/Q_{robust} = -1.0)$ for different seasons as Q_{true}/Q_{robust} was ~ 1.0 , $Q_{true}/Q_{expected}$ was ranging from 0.99-1.45 (Hui et al., 2019), and strong correlations (0.7-0.8) were observed between the concentrations extracted from the model and the observed concentrations of each compound (He et al., 2010)

145 <u>al., 2019</u>).

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We used the potential source contribution function (PSCF) to locate possible source areas of VOCs for different seasons during the investigation period. We used Zefir analysis software to do the PSCF analysis and the Hysplit4 model to cluster the backward trajectories (Petit et al., 2017). <u>Backward trajectories in the sampling site were estimated using the National Centers for Environmental Prediction</u>

- $\frac{\text{data}\text{Backward trajectories in the sampling site were estimated using the data provided by the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (ftp://arlftp.arlhq.noaa.gov/pub/archives/gdas1). We estimated 24$ <u>72</u> hr backward trajectories 24 times a day arriving at 500 m above the ground surface using the hysplit4 model. For the PSCF analysis, we divided the geographic region covered by the back trajectories into an array of 0. 1° × 0. 1° grid cells and used the mean TVOCs concentration as the VOC
- reference value. More details about the PSCF analysis can be found in previous studies (Chen et al., 2018).

2.3 OH radical loss rate (L_{OH}), Ozone formation potential (OFP), and Secondary organic aerosol potential (SOAP)

- 160 To evaluate the daytime photochemistry of VOCs, we estimated their OH radical loss rate (L_{OH}). The following equation was used to estimate the L_{OH} (s⁻¹) (Zhang et al., 2020).
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 $L_{OH} = [VOC]_i \times k_{OH,i} \tag{1}$

Where $[VOC]_i$ is the concentration of VOC species i (molecule cm⁻³), $k_{OH,i}$ (cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) is the reaction rate constant of i VOC with OH radical. The k_{OH} values for the VOCs are collected from Carter (2010) (Table S1).

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The Ozone formation potential (OFP) of the VOCs is their maximum contribution to the O₃ formation (Hui et al., 2018a). The OFP (ppbv) of the VOCs was estimated using the following equation. $OFP = [VOC]_i \times MIR_i$ (2)

170 Where MIR_i is the maximum incremental reactivity of the i VOC. The MIR values for the VOCs are also collected from Carter (2010) (Table S1).

The contribution of VOCs to the formation of secondary organic aerosol is estimated by secondary organic aerosol potential (SOAP) (Song et al., 2018). We estimated the SOAP (ppbv) of VOCs using the following equation.

 $SOAP = [VOC]_i \times SOAP_i^p \tag{3}$

Where $SOAP_t^{p}$ is the SOA formation potential of the i VOC on a mass basis relative to toluene (Derwent et al., 2010). In this study, the $SOAP^{p}$ factors of the VOCs are collected from Derwent et al.(2010) (Table S1).

180 2.4 Empirical Kinetic Modelling Approach (EKMA) and Relative Incremental Reactivity (RIR)

The empirical kinetic modelling approach (EKMA) is a well-known procedure to develop the O₃ formation reduction strategy by testing the relationship between ambient O₃ and its precursors (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; Vermeuel et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2018). In this study, we used the Framework for 0-D Atmospheric Model (F0AM v 3.2, Wolfe et al., 2016), a photochemical box model run by Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) v3.2 chemistry (Jenkin et al., 1997; 2003, 2015; Saunders et al., 2003), to get the data for the EKMA isopleth. The FOAM-MCM box model can simulate 16940 reactions of 5733 chemical species. The box model was run using the VOCs and gas concentrations and

the meteorological data as input. 61 VOCs were constrained in the model as the rest of the observed

VOC species reactions are not included yet in MCM. These constrained VOCs are listed in Table S1.

To generate the O_3 isopleth from the model simulated data, a total of 121 reduction scenarios (11 NOx × 11 VOC <u>concentrations</u>) were simulated and the maximum O_3 produced <u>in-at</u> each <u>model</u> scenario was saved.

The relative incremental reactivity (RIR, Cardelino & Chameides, 1995) is also used to test the O_3 formation sensitivity of its precursors. The O_3 formation sensitivity to its precursors' concentrations can

195 also be assessed by the relative incremental. We also utilized the FOAM-MCM box model data to estimate the RIR. The RIR is simply defined as the percentage change in O_3 formation per percentage change in precursor's concentration. In this study, we reduced the precursor's concentration by 10% for the RIR estimation. The RIR was estimated using the following equation.

$$RIR(X) = \frac{\left[\frac{P_{O_3}(X) - P_{O_3}(X - \Delta X)\right]}{P_{O_3}(X)}}{\left[\frac{\Delta X}{X}\right]}$$
(24)

Where [X] is the observed concentration of a precursor X, [ΔX] is the changes in the concentration of X. P_{O3}(X) and P_{O3}(X- ΔX) are the simulated net O₃ production with using the observed and the reduced concentration of the precursor X, respectively.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Overview of the metrological conditions and air pollutants concentrations

The time series of the hourly inorganic air pollutants, meteorological parameters, and TVOC concentrationsdata are shown in Fig. 1. The discontinuity of the time series data is due to the failure of the instruments and COVID-19 lockdowns. The data measured between July and August 2018 are termed summertime data. Similarly, data collected between September and November 2018 are autumntime data, December 2018 and January 2019 are wintertime data, and April and May 2020 are springtime data. The measured data from July to August 2018, September to November 2018, December 2018 to January 2019, and April to May 2020 are termed as summer, autumn, winter, and springtime data, respectively. Overall, the observed temperature and solar radiation gradually decreased from summer to winter and increased back to the summertime level in spring. The temperature ranged

between -5.7 and 41.4 °C during the measurement period. The relative humidity values varied from 18

- to 100%; and high values were generally observed in winter and autumn. During the observation period, wind speed ranged between 0.1 and 7.5 ms⁻¹. Wind prevailed at the sampling site from many directions during the measurement periods; more details about the wind direction will be discussed in Sect.3.3.2. The O₃ and NOx concentrations varied from 2 to 160 ppbv and 0.4 to 90 ppbv, respectively. Whereas high O₃ concentrations (>80 ppbv) were observed in summer and spring, high NOx concentrations were
 measured in winter and at the end of autumn. The CO and SO₂ concentrations ranged from 83 to 3398
- ppbv and 0.5 to 21 ppbv, respectively. Generally, high concentrations of CO and SO₂ were observed in winter and spring. The measured NO and NO₂ concentrations varied from 0.4 to 51 ppbv and 1 to 79 ppbv, respectively. In general, the high NO and NO₂ concentrations were observed in autumn and winter. The TVOCs concentrations <u>estimated with all the measured VOCs</u> varied between 9 and 393 ppbv during the observation period and the high values were measured in autumn and winter. More details about the abovementioned parameters will be discussed in the following section.
 - 3.2 Concentration and composition of VOCs

In total, 100 VOCs were observed in Nanjing industrial area, including 27 alkanes, 11 alkenes, <u>1-one</u> alkyne, 17 aromatics, 31 halocarbons, 12 OVOCs, and <u>1-one</u> other (carbon disulfide) (Table S2). 230 Ethane (5.8±2.5 ppbv), propane (4.2±1.5 ppbv), and ethylene (3±1.6 ppbv) were the most abundant VOCs in the study area during the observation period. However, we observed season-wise variations in the order of abundant VOC species (Table S2). For instance, acetone was the 3rd highest concentrated VOC in spring. The abovementioned 4 VOC species are also frequently mentioned as the most

abundant VOCs in different regions in China (Deng et al., 2019; He et al., 2019; J. Li et al., 2018; Ma et

- al., 2019). We compared the individual VOC concentrations with the available data presented in recent investigations. The individual VOC concentrations in the current observation were similar to those reported in the previous investigations in the same study area (An et al., 2017), however, they were almost twice of those found in a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2020) (Table S2). Some of the differences -may be due to the differences in the observation period. The reported yearly
- 240 concentrations (Wu et al., 2020) were probably estimated over continuous measurement data for a year.

However, in the current observation, the measurements were not continuously performed during all the days of a year. The autumn time individual VOC concentrations in the current observation were about 1.4 fold lower than those measured in Beijing during October-November (Li et al., 2015). The wintertime individual VOC concentrations were also about 1.4 fold lower than those measured in and

Shanghai during November-January (Zhang et al., 2018)., butBut, the yearly individual VOC 245 concentrations in the current observation were similar to those measured in Guangzhou from June to May (Zou et al., 2015). During the observation period, the concentrations of different VOC-groups were in the order of alkanes (21 \pm 7 ppbv, 35%)> halocarbons (14.3 \pm 7.3 ppbv, 24%)> aromatics (9.9 \pm 5.8

ppbv, 17%)> OVOCs (7.5±1.9 ppbv, 13%)> alkenes (5±1.9 ppbv, 8%)> alkynes (1.4±0.3 ppbv, 2%)>

- others (0.5±0.2 ppbv, 1%). However, we noticed relatively higher proportions of OVOCs (14% and 250 18%) than the aromatics (12% and 14%) in summer and spring (Fig. 2c & f). The relatively higher contribution of OVOCs in summer and spring could be related to the biogenic emissions (e.g. acetone, MEK from trees). Indeed, the relative contribution of acetone and MEK to the TVOCs were higher in summer and spring than those in autumn and winter (Table S2). Huang et al. (2019) reported that the
- industries, biogenic emissions, and secondary formation are the main source of OVOCs in southern 255 China. Relatively high proportions of healohydrocarbons and aromatics were observed in autumn (25.7 and 19.3%, respectively) and winter (25.8 and 17.6%, respectively) compared to those measured in summer (20.4 and 11.8%, respectively) and spring (20.3 and 13.6%, respectively) (Fig. 2f). The high proportions of helohydrocarbons and aromatics in autumn and winter It could be related to the burning
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- of biomass and fossil fuel for additional heating. Similar to the observation in the current study, the alkane is generally the most abundant VOC group in China (Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020). The relatively high contribution from of halocarbons to the TVOCs could be related to the industrial emissions in the study area. In previous studies in an iron smelt plant in Liaoning, China, a high concentration of halocarbons (49%) was observed (Shi et al., 2015). However, halocarbons and OVOCs were not
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measured in previous investigations in the same study area (An et al., 2014; An et al., 2017; Shao et al., 2016) and also in another suburban area in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2020). Either aromatics or alkenes was mentioned as the second most abundant VOC_-group in those studies in Nanjing, which is the 3rd and 5th most abundant VOC group in the current investigation. In Shanghai, a nearby city, alkanes (42%) and

alkenes (26%) were two major VOC-groups (Zhang et al., 2018). The TVOCs concentration estimated with all the measured VOCs was 59.8±28.6 ppbv over the whole observation period, and relatively 270 higher TVOCs concentrations were measured in autumn (83±20 ppbv) and winter (77.5±16.8 ppbv) compared to those observed in spring (39.6±13.1 ppbv) and summer (38.8±10.2 ppbv). The TVOCs concentration without halocarbons were 45.4±20.4, 61.7±14.6, 57.4±11.8, 31.6±10.9, and 30.9±8.2 ppbv during the whole observation period, autumn, winter, spring and summer, respectively. About 1.5times higher TVOCs concentration was observed relative to the previous investigation in the same study 275 area (An et al., 2014; An et al., 2017). Besides, we also found 3-times higher TVOCs concentration compared to the one in a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2020). As mentioned before, Hhalocarbons and OVOCs were not measured reported in the previous investigations in Nanjing (An et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2020). The current TVOCs concentration without halocarbons and OVOCs was similar to the previous investigation in the same study area, however, 2-folds higher than the one 280 reported in the nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing. those previous studies in Nanjing, it could be one of the reasons for the relatively high TVOCs concentration in the current study. Observed autumn and wintertime TVOCs concentrations were similar to those measured in urban Beijing (86.2 ppbv in autumn) and Shanghai (94.1 ppbv in winter) (Li et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). Similarly, observed summertime TVOCs concentration was similar to those found in urban Xi'an (42.6 ppby), Wuhan 285 (43.9 ppbv) (Zeng et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019). (Hui et al., 2018b)However, yearly TVOCs concentration was 1.5-3 folds higher than those in Lanzhou,-Wuhan, Tianjin, Ningbo, Chengdu, London, Los Angeles, and Tokyo (Jia et al., 2016; Hui et al., 2018; B. Liu et al., 2016a; Mo et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; von Schneidemesser et al., 2010; Warneke et al., 2012; Hoshi et al., 2008). The diurnal variation of the TVOCs, alkenes, aromatics, halocarbons, OVOCs, and alkanes concentrations 290 showed a double-hump structure (Fig. 2a, b, d, & e). This double-hump pattern indicates the contribution of traffic emission during the rush_-hours in the morning and evening. The lowest concentration of the TVOCs and different VOC_groups reached 12:00-16:00. Oppositely, the highest

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5 in winter which was consistent with the solar radiations.

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concentration of O_3 was reached at in that period (Fig. 3). The lowest O_3 concentrations were observed

3.3.1 Specific Ratios

The use of the toluene/benzene (T/B) ratio is one of the simplest ways to preliminary analyse the VOC sources. If the T/B ratio is < 2, the study area is mainly affected by vehicle emissions (Hui et al., 2018, 2019). If the T/B ratio is > 2, the study area is influenced by other sources (e.g. industry, solvent 300 utilization) beside vehicle emissions (Kumar et al., 2018; Niu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2019). Moreover, the T/B ratios are ranged between 0.2-0.6 in coal and biomass burning affected areas (Wang et al., 2009: Akagi et al., 2011). The diurnal variations in T/B ratios during different seasons are depicted in Fig. 4 (a, b, c, & d). The mean values of T/B ratios were ranged between 0.9-2 (1.4±0.3), 1.3-2 (1.7±0.2), 1.1-1.6 (1.4±0.1), and 1.4-2.7 (1.9±0.3) during summer, autumn, winter, and spring, 305 respectively. As the mean values of T/B ratios were around 2, the study area could be mainly affected by vehicle emissions. The double-hump pattern in the diurnal variations in T/B ratios also indicates that the rush-hour traffic had a significant influence on the VOCs concentrations in the study area. Besides, the 75th percentiles of T/B ratios were above 2 most of the investigation periods, therefore, the study area could also be influenced by industrial emissions. 310

Figure 4 (e, f, g, & h) shows the ratios of different alkanes and aromatics to acetylene. Acetylene is a tracer of combustion sources, the ratios of different alkanes and aromatics to acetylene are used to comprehend the contribution of other sources to combustion sources. The mean ratios of propane, n-butane, and i butane to acetylene were around 2. 0-4.0, 0.7-1.6, and 0.4-0.8, respectively during all the

seasons, which were smaller than those (11.5, 1.8, and 2.6, respectively) observed in Guangzhou city centre, which was affected by liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) emissions (Zhang et al., 2013). Therefore, LPG usages probably contributed a little fraction to the alkanes in the study area. The mean ratios of benzene, toluene, C8 aromatics, and C9 aromatics to acetylene were around 0.3-1.0, 0.4-1.1, 0.2-0.6, and 0.1, respectively during all the seasons. The observed ratios of benzene and toluene to acetylene were much higher than those found in Jianfeng Mountains in Hainan (0.2 and 0.1, respectively) but comparable to those measured in urban Guangzhou (0.4 and 0.4-1, respectively) (Tang et al., 2007). Besides, the observed ratios of C8 aromatics and C9 aromatics to acetylene were comparable to traffic

emission influenced urban Guangzhou (0.68 and 0.2, respectively) and Wuhan (0.5 and 0.2, respectively) (Zhang et al., 2013; Hui et al., 2018). Therefore, vehicle exhaust probably contributed significantly to the aromatics in the study area.

3.3.12 Potential Source Contribution Function (PSCF)

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Besides the local sources, both the long and short distance transports of air mass could bring VOCs to the study area. Figure 45 shows the wind cluster and PSCF analysis results for different seasons. During summer, the major air masses were short-distance transports from the southwest (4044%) direction and two long-distance types of transport from southeast (3931 and 25%) directions. A minor air mass (21%) 330 was transported from the east direction. High PSCF values were in the nearby southwest, and southeast, and east directions; therefore, VOC pollution in the study area was mainly affected by the short-distance transport from the south and east directions. During autumn, the dominant air masses were shortdistance transport from the northeast-northwest (5935%) and long-distance transport from the northwest (3034%) directions. However, according to the PSCF analysis, VOC pollution was mainly influenced 335 by the short distance transport from the south and east directions. During winter, short-distance transports from the northeast (46%) and northwest (3752%) directions were was the major incoming air masses to the study area. According to the PSCF values, the short-distance air masses from the south and east north directions were mainly transported VOC to the receptor site. During spring, air mass was mainly transported from the southwestern north (4950%) and eastern southwest (3032%) directions. A 340 minor long-distance air mass was transported from the northwest (18%) direction. Atmospheric VOCs to the study area were mainly transported by these two-air masses mostly from the nearby areas. Overall, the high PSCF values were concentrated around the measurement site, therefore, short distance transports from the surrounding areas and cities were the main reason for the high VOC concentration.

345 The above conclusion perfectly makes sense as the sampling site is surrounded by different chemical and petrochemical industries, steel plants, gas stations, high traffic roads, and residential areas.

3.3.23 PMF Model Analysis

Differences were observed among the source profiles of VOCs obtained for different seasons (Sect. S1). For instance, the biogenic source was identified in summer, biomass burning source was distinguished

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in autumn, and LPG/NG usage source was found in winter and spring. However, industry and vehiclerelated VOC sources were identified during all the measurement seasons. According to PMF model results, aromatics were emitted from solvent usages, vehicle, and industry related sources. Besides, industry and combustion processes were the main sources of halocarbons and OVOCs. Moreover, alkanes and alkenes were emitted from vehicle exhaust and fuel usage sources.

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Figure 6 shows the relative contributions of different sources to ambient VOCs during different seasons. Overall, industry-related sources contributed to the major portion of the ambient VOC concentrations followed by vehicle emission. Industrial emission accounted for about 32%, 47%, 45%, and 23% in summer, autumn, winter, and spring, respectively. The contributions of vehicle emission were about 34%, 26%, 24%, and 27% in summer, autumn, winter, and spring, respectively. The contribution of 360 vehicle emission remained similar during the 4 seasons, however, the contribution of the industrial emission increased in autumn and winter. Previous investigations performed in Beijing, Tianjin, Wuhan, Chengdu, and Shuozhou also found that the industry and vehicle are the two most important VOC sources (Zhang et al. 2017; Liu et al. 2016; Hui et al. 2018; Song et al. 2018) Jia et al., 2016). Besides these two sources, solvent usage (11%, 10%, 10%, and 4%, respectively) and gasoline 365 evaporation (17%, 10%, NA, 6%, respectively) were two important VOC sources during those 4 seasons. Moreover, source contribution from the biogenic source in summer (7%), biomass burning in autumn (7%), LPG/NG usage in winter (11%) and spring (18%), and multiple sources in winter (10%) and spring (23%) was observed.

370 According to the PMF model analysis, five VOC sources were common during all the measurement seasons. They were biomass/biofuel burning, LPG/NG usage, gasoline evaporation, gasoline vehicle exhaust, and paint solvent usage (Sect. S1). The biogenic source was distinguished only in summer. Figure 5 shows the relative contributions of different sources to ambient VOCs during different seasons. Overall, vehicle-related sources contributed the most to the ambient VOC concentrations. The total

375 contributions of vehicle-related emissions were about 39%, 33%, 48%, and 42% in summer, autumn, winter, and spring, respectively. The contributions of biomass/biofuel burning sources were about 19%, 21%, 17%, and 16.4% in summer, autumn, winter, and spring, respectively. Besides these two sources, LPG/NG usage (18%, 21%, 16%, and 18%, respectively) and paint solvent usage (8%, 12%, 11%, 5%, respectively) were two other important VOC sources during those four seasons.

380 **3.4 Chemical reactivity (LOH)** and contribution to O₃ and SOA formation

The estimated loss rates of OH radical (L_{OH}) with VOCs were about 2-fold high in autumn (13.7 s⁻¹) and winter (13.5 s⁻¹) compared to those in summer (7 s⁻¹) and spring (7.5 s⁻¹) (Fig. 67 a). The relatively high L_{OH} values in autumn and winter were due to the relatively high VOC concentrations in theese seasons (Fig.2). The average L_{OH} value was 10.4±3.6 s⁻¹ over the four seasons. It was in a similar range with the values determined in Guangzhou (10.9 s⁻¹), Chongqing (10 s⁻¹), Xian (1.6-16.2 s⁻¹), and Tokyo 385 (7.7-13.4 s⁻¹), however, higher than the values estimated in Shanghai (2.9-5 s⁻¹, 6.2 s⁻¹) and Beijing (7 s⁻¹ ¹) (Tan et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2019; Yoshino et al., 2012; Song et al., 2020). While alkene was the highest contributor to the L_{OH} in summer (3 s⁻¹, 43%) and spring (2.6 s⁻¹, 35%), aromatic was the maximum contributor in autumn (6.9 s⁻¹, 50%) and winter (5.9 s⁻¹, 44%) (Fig. 11-6 a & d). An increase in the OH loss rate by OVOCs was observed in spring (17%) compared to the other seasons (10, 8, and 390 9% in summer, autumn, and winter, respectively). Over the four seasons, the contribution of VOC_groups to L_{OH} exhibited the following trend: aromatics > alkenes > alkanes > OVOCs > halocarbons. Similar to the current study, aromatic is also mentioned as the maximum contributors to L_{OH} in different regions in China, however, the alkene is generally reported as the top contributor to L_{OH} (Zhang et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020; Hui et al., 2018; Song et al., 2020). Figure 7-6 also shows the top 10 VOCs 395 contributing to LOH for different seasons. Whereas isoprene was the highest contributor to LOH in summer, it was styrene was the largest contributor in autumn and winter. On the other hand, naphthalene was the main contributor to L_{OH} in spring. Overall, styrene, naphthalene, ethylene, and isoprene were the main contributor to L_{OH} in the study area. In previous studies in China, these compounds are also mentioned as one of the highest contributors to LOH (Zhao et al., 2020; Hui et al., 400 2018; Song et al., 2020).

The estimated O₃ formation potential (OFP) of VOCs were about 2-times high in autumn (170.8 ppbv) and winter (175.4 ppbv) relative to those in summer (86.2 ppbv) and spring (82.8 ppbv) (Fig. 8 a). The average OFP value was 128.8±51.2 ppbv during the measurement period. The springtime OFP was

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- similar to the one estimated in Beijing (80 ppbv) (Li et al., 2015). The summertime OFP was about 1.5 times higher than the one in Xi'an (Song et al., 2020), but, about 1.4-2 folds lower than those found in Shanghai (Liu et al., 2019). The average OFP was about 1.5 times higher than the one in Wuhan (Hui et al., 2018). Whereas alkene was the major contributor to OFP in summer (37.4 ppbv, 43%), winter (72.8 ppbv, 41%), and spring (31.6 ppbv, 38%), aromatics contributed the most to OFP in autumn (62.7 ppbv, 37%) (Fig. 12 a & d). During the measurement period, the contribution of VOC-groups to OFP 410 showed the following trend: alkenes > aromatics > alkanes > OVOCs > halocarbons. The alkene is also mentioned as the top contributor to OFP in Nanjing and the same observation is commonly found in China (An et al., 2014; Hui et al., 2018; Song et al., 2018; Song et al., 2020). The top 10 VOCs
- contributing to OFP for different seasons are also shown in Fig. 8 (b, c, e, & f). Ethylene was the major contributor to OFP during all the season. Followed by ethylene, cis-1,3-dichloropropene was the main 415 contributor to OFP from summer to winter. In spring, propylene was the second most contributors to OFP. Overall, different alkenes were the highest contributor to OFP in the study area. Alkenes are also mentioned as the top contributor to OFP in the previous investigations in Nanjing (An et al., 2014). Therefore, the reduction of these alkenes emissions in the study area could be one of the ways to reduce ambient O₃-concentration.
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The secondary organic aerosol potentials (SOAP) were about 3-times higher in autumn (1422 ppbv) and winter (1269 ppbv) than those in summer (466 ppbv) and spring (398 ppbv) (Fig. 9a). The average SOAP was 889±531 ppbv during the measurement period. The average SOAP was about 2-3 times higher than those estimated in Wuhan and Beijing (Hui et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). Aromatics was the main contributor to SOAP during all the seasons (95-97%) (Fig. 9 a & d) which was consistent with the 425 observations in Chengdu (Song et al., 2018), Beijing (Li et al., 2020), and Wuhan (Hui et al., 2019). During the measurement period, the contribution of VOC-groups to SOAP exhibited the following trend: aromatics > alkanes > OVOCs. Styrene, cumene, toluene, benzene, and o-xylene were the major contributor to SOAP during all the season (Fig. 9 b, c, e, & f). Therefore, the reduction of

430 these aromatics emissions in the study area could be one of the ways to reduce ambient SOA concentration.

3.5 Sensitivity analysis of O₃ formation

Figure <u>10-7</u> shows the EKMA isopleth diagrams of O_3 for different seasons. In all the diagrams, VOC and NOx = 100 % is the base case. The ridgeline divided the diagrams into two regimes, VOC-sensitive

- (above) the line and NOx-sensitive (below) the lineregimes. For all the seasons, the study area fell above the ridgeline. Moreover, a decrease in O₃ production was noticeddecreased with the decrease in VOC concentration. Therefore, the study area was in the VOC-sensitive regime for O₃ formation during all the seasons. As a case study, O₃ formation sensitivity to its precursors was tested on a high O₃ concentration day (July 29 2018, maximum 126 ppbv). During the high O₃ episode, the study area was also in the VOC-sensitive regime for O₃ formation (Fig. S5). We also employed the RIR analysis to
- evaluate the O₃ production sensitivity to VOC, NOx, and CO concentrations (Fig. <u>118</u>). The RIR value of VOC was the highest during all the seasons. It indicates that the O₃ production was more sensitive to the reduction of VOC concentration. This finding is consistent with the above results in the EKMA isopleth <u>diagrams</u> (Fig. <u>107</u>). Except for the spring, the RIR values of CO were very small relative to
- those for the VOC. It indicates that the CO concentrations were relatively less important for the O_3 formation during those seasons. The RIR values for NOx were negative during all the seasons, implying that the O_3 formation was in the NOx-titration regime in the study area. From the above analysis, it is evident that a reduction of VOC concentration in the study area will be the most efficient way to reduce the O_3 formation. The previous two studies performed in Nanjing also concluded the same finding
- 450 based on VOC/NOx ratios and RIR analysis (An et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017). Our findings are also consistent with the previous studies performed in other regions in China (Tan et al., 2018a; He et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2019). However, NOx-sensitive regions for O₃ formation are also found in China (Tan et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2016).

4 Conclusions

- Industries are an important anthropogenic source of VOCs. VOC plays a major role in tropospheric 455 chemistry and air quality. Nanjing is one of the biggest industrial cities in China. We performed a long term investigation of ambient VOCs in an industrial area in Nanjing. Compare to the previous investigation in the current study area similar TVOCs concentrations were observed. However, about 2folds high TVOCs concentrations were observed compared to the one previously reported in a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing. About 1.5 and 3-folds high TVOCs concentrations were 460 observed compared to those previously reported in the same study area and a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing, respectively. The relatively high TVOCs was due to halocarbons and OVOCs concentrations were not measured in those previous studies in Nanjing. Therefore, halocarbons and OVOCs were an important part of the TVOCs in Nanjing, and industrial emissions had a large influence on VOC concentration in the study area. Observed TVOCs concentration was also about 1.5-3 folds 465 higher than those reported in other cities in China and the world, but, similar to those measured in urban Beijing and Shanghai. This high VOC concentration in the study area needs to be reduced to decrease O₃-concentration and improve the local air quality. TVOCs concentrations were about 2-times high in autumn and winter compared to those observed in summer and spring. Generally, haze pollutions frequently happen in autumn and winter, therefore, VOC concentration reduction in these seasons is an 470 important step to reduce haze pollutions in the study area. Halocarbon was the 2nd largest contributor to the TVOCs following alkanes, it indicates the impact of industrial emissions on the local air. After alkane, halocarbon was the 2nd largest contributor to the TVOCs, indicating a high influence of industrial emissions. Generally, alkenes/aromatics/OVOCs are the 2nd largest contributor to the TVOCs in China, therefore, industries in Nanjing emitted a high amount of halocarbons into the atmosphere. As 475 halocarbons are carcinogenic, their emissions should need to be reduced. The short distance transports from the surrounding areas and cities were the main reason for high VOC concentration. PSCF analysis indicated that the short distance transports from the surrounding areas and cities were the main reason for high VOC concentration in the study area. Hence, local emissions should need to be reduced to decrease the haze and O₃ pollution in the study area. Industries Vehicle-related emissions were the 480

major VOC sources in the study area-followed by vehicles, thus, emission reduction from thisese two

sources should get more priority. Aromatics and alkenes accounted for mostwere the major contributors of to the L_{OH}, OFP, and SOAP, thus, these 2 kinds of VOC groups should get more priority in emission reduction policies and strategies. During all the seasons, the study area was in the VOC-sensitive regime

485 for O₃ formation. Therefore, VOCs especially aromatics and alkenes emission reduction is the most effective way to decrease the local O₃ formation.

Data availability

All the data presented in this article can be accessed through https://osf.io/bm6cs/.

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Author contribution

YLZ designed and supervised the project; MYF, FX, YCL, FC, and AM conducted the measurements; AM analysed the data and prepared the manuscript. All authors contributed in discussion to improve the article.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1: Time series of hourly meteorological parameters, inorganic air pollutants, and TVOCs_a and TVOCs without halocarbons concentrations during the observation period at Nanjing. The green, yellow, cyan, and light-green shaded areas indicate summer, autumn, winter, and spring seasons, respectively. The discontinuity of the measured data is due to the instruments failure.



Figure 2: Diurnal variations in TVOCs and different VOC-groups, TVOCs, TVOCs without <u>halocarbons</u> concentrations in different seasons (a, b, d, & e) and seasonal variations in average concentrations and proportion of <u>different VOC-groups</u>, TVOCs, TVOCs without <u>halocarbons</u>TVOCs and different VOC-groups (c & f).



Figure 3: Diurnal variations in weather conditions and NOx, O3, CO, and SO2 concentrations in different seasons. Note that the plotted CO concentrations and solar radiation values are reduced by 10-folds for a better visualization.



Figure 4: Diurnal variations in toluene/benzene ratios (a, b, c, & d) and in the ratios of different VOCs to acetylene in different seasons (e, f, g, & h). The pink-colored squares in the box-plots represent the average values.





Figure 54: Wind cluster and PSCF analysis during (a) summer (b) autumn, (c) winter, and (d) spring based on the 24-72 hours backward air mass trajectories from the study area.





Figure <u>65</u>: relative contributions of different sources to ambient VOCs in Nanjing industrial area during different seasons



Figure <u>76</u>: Contribution to OH loss rates of different VOC-groups and the top 10 VOC species in different seasons



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Figure 8: Contribution to ozone formation potential of different VOC-groups and the top 10 VOC species in different seasons



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Figure 9: Contribution to secondary organic aerosol formation potential of different VOCgroups and the top 10 VOC species in different seasons



Figure <u>107</u>: O₃ isopleth diagram for (a) summer (b) autumn, (c) winter, and (d) spring based on percentage changes in VOCs and NOx concentrations in Nanjing and corresponding modelled O₃ production.



Figure **11<u>8</u>**: The RIR values of the VOC, NOx, and CO for the different seasons in Nanjing