Watching Paint Dry: I/VOC Emissions from Architectural Coatings and their Impact on SOA Formation

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12 Abstract

- 13 Emissions from volatile chemical products (VCPs) are emerging as a major source of
- 14 anthropogenic secondary organic aerosol (SOA) precursors. Paints and coatings are an important
- 15 class of VCPs that emit both volatile and intermediate volatility organic compounds (VOCs and
- 16 IVOCs). In this study, we directly measured I/VOC emissions from representative water-based
- 17 (latex) and oil paints used in the U.S. Paint I/VOC emissions vary over several orders of
- magnitude by both solvent and gloss level. Oil paint had the highest emissions (>10⁵ μ g/g-paint)
- 19 whereas low-gloss interior paints (Flat, Satin, and Semigloss) all emitted $\sim 10^2 \,\mu g/g$ -paint.
- 20 Emissions from interior paints are dominated by VOCs, whereas exterior-use paints emitted a
- 21 larger fraction of IVOCs. Extended emissions tests showed that most I/VOC emissions occur
- within 12-24 hours after paint application, though some IVOC-dominated paints continue to emit
- for 48 hours or more. We used the emissions measurements to estimate paint I/VOC emissions
- and subsequent SOA production in the U.S. Total annual paint I/VOC emissions are 168 +/- 15
- Mg. This amounts to 291 g/kg of paint used and 0.51 kg/person, which are significantly larger
- than comparable emissions factors from combustion systems. These emissions contribute to the
- formation of 8 Mg of SOA annually. Oil paints contribute ~90% of the I/VOC emissions and
- SOA formation, even though it only accounts for \sim 20% of paint usage.
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30 Synopsis

- 31 We find that paints are a major source of organic vapor emissions. Atmospheric oxidation of
- 32 these paint vapors is an important source of particulate matter.

33 **1 Introduction**

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PM_{2.5}, particulate matter with a diameter of less than 2.5 micrometers, has deleterious effects on human health and the environment.^{1,2} Exposure to elevated concentrations of PM_{2.5} is linked to increased risk of respiratory and cardiovascular disease, making poor air quality one of the leading preventable causes of death worldwide.³

39 A significant portion of PM_{2.5} mass (20-90%) is organic aerosol (OA). OA can be further classified as either primary (POA) or secondary (SOA).⁴ SOA forms through reactions in the 40 atmosphere and makes up a significant portion of ambient OA even in urban areas.^{5–8} SOA can 41 be formed when pollutants which are emitted as vapors such as volatile organic compounds 42 43 (VOCs) react with oxidants and the subsequent products condense into the particle phase. Here we define VOCs as organic compounds with effective saturation concentrations (C*) greater than 44 3.2 x 10⁶ μ g/m³. Less volatile Intermediate Volatile Organic Compounds (IVOCs, 3.2 x 10⁶ \ge C* 45 \geq 3.2 x 10² µg/m³) also can be important SOA precursors,⁹⁻¹¹ potentially contributing as much as 46 50% of urban SOA.¹² 47

Historically, mobile sources have been a large source of anthropogenic SOA precursors. 48 However, as vehicles have become cleaner due to regulations and new technologies¹³ the 49 importance of SOA formation from non-combustion volatile chemical products (VCPs) has 50 increased.^{14,15} VCPs contribute about a quarter of VOC emissions in the U.S.; that is about twice 51 as much as diesel and gasoline exhaust emissions combined.¹⁴ The majority of research on 52 anthropogenic sources of SOA has focused on emissions from combustion processes^{16–18} despite 53 the fact that VCPs are thought to have significant SOA yields.¹⁹ In order to address this gap, we 54 need to quantify the magnitude and composition of SOA-forming emissions from VCPs. 55

56	One challenge for understanding emissions from VCPs is that these products cover a
57	wide range of forms and functions including cleaning supplies, personal care products, paints
58	and coatings, and many other products. Emissions from some of these products are more
59	atmospherically relevant than others due to their timescales and modes of emission. Paints and
60	coatings, which made up 13% of the U.S. organic solvent consumption for 2012, are thought to
61	play a significant role in contributing to VOC emissions, with estimated emissions of > 50 tons
62	per day. ^{14,15} Seltzer et al. recently estimated paints and coatings contribute 33% of VCP VOC
63	emissions in the United States. ²⁰

Although many previous studies have characterized paint emissions^{21–25} there has been 64 little effort to understand their contribution to SOA formation. For example previous studies 65 have quantified emissions of hazardous VOCs,^{24,26,27} emissions of individual VOCs,^{28–30} their 66 impact on indoor air quality,³¹ and research on outdoor ozone reactivity.³² Recent research 67 hypothesizes that paints could be an important source of SOA precursors. However, we are not 68 aware of any published experimental work that has quantified I/VOC (IVOC + VOC) emissions 69 from paints and their contribution to SOA formation. This paper describes an experimental study 70 of I/VOC emissions from a wide range of architectural coatings. Ultimately, we calculate the 71 72 contribution of architectural coatings to VOC concentrations and SOA formation potential in the U.S. 73

- 74 **2 Instrumentation and Methods**
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76 **2.1 Materials**

The paint sector is very large. Under the US Census Bureau's classification of
"architectural coatings" (category#: 3255101) the mass of paints used per year, scaled to the
2021 population, is 3.1 Tg.³³ Variability across this large sector stemming from differences in

81	solvent (water versus oil), manufacturer, gloss level (high through low), indoor vs outdoor, etc.
82	One of the major differentiators between paints are whether they are oil (alkyd) or water
83	(acrylic/latex) based. Fifty years ago, most paints were oil-based because of their great resistance
84	to wear and ease of application. ³⁴ However, oil-based paints contain much higher levels of
85	VOCs, and over the past few decades there has been a dramatic shift to water-based paints. ³⁴ In
86	general water-based paints have <250 g/L of VOCs while oil-based paints are required to have
87	<380 g/L of VOCs. ³⁵ There are also "low-VOC" paints which are required to have $<$ 5 g/L of
88	VOCs. It is important to note that these requirements are tied to the VOCs in the solvent portion
89	of the paints and does not account for additional solvents that are used in the pigments and
90	binders.

Our approach was to sample across as much of this phase space as possible. The Census Bureau inventory includes 23 classifications of paint which can be grouped into five categories of latex paint (Flat, Semi-gloss Interior [SemiInt], Semi-gloss Exterior [SemiExt], High Gloss, and Satin) and oil-based paint. We tested commercially available paints from each of those categories. A full description of the paints selected can be found in Table S1 in the SI.

96 2.2 Procedures

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We conducted two types of experiments with each of the paints: (1) a headspace sample
and (2) an extended emission experiment. Each of these experiment types are described in detail
below. During extended emissions testing, each paint sample was applied to an approximately 58
cm² piece of drywall. Drywall was selected as the painting material as it is a commonly painted
surface material throughout the United States.

Headspace experiments were used to obtain a fingerprint of paint vapors. In these
experiments we sampled directly (~5 cm) above open paint cans that were placed in a fume
hood. Figure S1 shows a schematic of the headspace experimental setup.

Extended emission experiments used a 1.2 L aluminum flux chamber (Figure S1). At the start of each extended emission experiment a piece of pre-cut drywall was weighed. Following weighing the drywall was painted, re-weighed to determine the mass of the paint applied, and immediately placed into the chamber. As shown in Table S2, most experiments used $\sim 0.7 - 2$ g of paint. The chamber was then sealed, and sampling began. VOC-filtered air was pulled through the flux chamber at a flowrate of 0.37 slpm. This gave a residence time of 3.2 minutes.

We used multiple methods to comprehensively quantify the composition of paint I/VOCs in both the headspace and extended emissions experiments. VOCs and more volatile IVOCs (e.g., naphthalene) were measured with a quadrupole PTR-MS (Proton Transfer Reaction Mass Spectrometer).³⁶ The PTR-MS was operated in scan mode from m/z 21 to 155 and sampled continuously for the entirety of the extended emissions tests (typically 48 hours).

IVOCs were primarily quantified using Tenax sorbent tubes followed by thermal
 desorption GC-MS (gas chromatography-mass spectrometry) analysis. Tenax TA was selected as
 the sorbent material because it performs well while sampling in high moisture environments and
 is known to be effective at measuring I/VOCs.^{37–39} A full description of the GC-MS system as
 well as sorbent tube cleaning and analysis procedures can be found description section S.3 in the
 SI.

Tenax tube samples were collected over one-hour intervals. Tenax tubes were collected during approximately hours 0-1, 1-2 hours, 4-5 hours, 8-9 hours, after 24 hours, and 48 hours after paint application. Table S2 in the SI shows the exact sampling times for each experiment.



126 2.3 Analysis and Compound Identification

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Figure 1. Volatility binning and compound class grouping. (a) The total ion chromatograph of a Satin headspace sample is shown by the thick black line. Signal decomposed into compound class contributions using marker ions is shown with the colored shading. Vertical lines show logarithmically spaced C* bins determined from alkane volatility (e.g., Alkane Bin 7 corresponds to the C* = $10^7 \mu g/m^3$ bin). The relationship between retention time and volatility is shown for a series of n-alkanes (b) and esters (c). Panel (c) also shows the alkanes as light points to highlight the offset in ester volatility relative to alkanes. To estimate the SOA formation potential of paint emissions, we need to quantify the
I/VOC emissions by both volatility (C*) and composition. We did this by combining data from
the PTR-MS and GC-MS to comprehensively characterize the total I/VOC emissions per mass of
paint applied for all six of the tested paint types.

A challenge is that the complexity of paint emissions makes them hard to speciate at the molecular level. For example, IVOCs captured on the Tenax sorbent tubes cannot be fully speciated using traditional one-dimensional gas chromatography. Instead, most of the GC signal appears as an unresolved complex mixture (UCM). An example chromatograph is shown in Figure 1a. There are few well-defined peaks. Instead, most of the mass elutes as a broad UCM hump. Since SOA formation depends on volatility and molecular structure, one must quantify the total mass of emissions with enough chemical specificity to estimate SOA yields.

Analysis of GC-MS data. We need to characterize both the volatility and the chemical nature of the UCM. We use GC elution time to characterize volatility and the mass spectral data to characterize chemical composition. Previous work has used GC-MS analysis to quantify UCM emissions from combustion systems.^{40,41} We draw on and expand those methods here.

Previous work has used the retention time-volatility relationship to map the UCM to the volatility basis set for combustion emissions.^{42,43} An example of this binning is shown in Figure 154 Ib for a series of n-alkanes. There is a nearly linear relationship between $log(C^*)$ and alkane 155 retention time. This relationship can in turn be used to classify UCM into logarithmically spaced 156 C* bins, which are shown as vertical lines in Figure 1a and b.

157 IVOC emissions from combustion systems are generally dominated by aliphatic and 158 aromatic hydrocarbons.⁴⁴ Since variations in hydrocarbon volatility are mostly a function of 159 carbon number (rather than molecular structure),⁴⁵ in previous work a single relationship

between retention time and volatility has been sufficient. However, paint emissions contain
other, often more polar, compound classes (e.g., ketones, aldehydes, alcohols, and esters) that
may have different relationships between C* and retention time. Therefore, mapping the GC-MS
signal into C* bins requires classifying the UCM by composition.

An example of a different C*-retention time relationship is shown for a series of esters in 164 Figure 1c. While retention time and C* show a log-linear relationship for the esters, the esters are 165 offset relative to the alkanes. This means that we cannot use the C* bins defined by alkane 166 retention times for the esters; hence Figure 1c shows different boundaries for the C* bins for 167 esters. Thus, in order to bin the UCM mass emitted from the paints, we need to separately 168 quantify volatility for each compound class of interest. We calibrated the C*-retention time 169 relationship for nine classes of compounds (alcohols, aldehydes, alkanes, amides, amines, 170 aromatics, esters, ethers, and ketones) and defined separate retention time windows for each C* 171 bin. Full details are presented in Table S3. 172

173 Since the relationship between C* and retention time varies by compound class, mapping 174 the UCM volatility also requires apportioning the GC signal into the nine compound classes 175 shown in Figure 1a. This was done using marker ions in the mass spectra. We identified marker 176 ions using two basic rules: (1) the marker needed to be unique, or nearly unique, to the 177 compound class of interest and (2) the marker ion needed to make up a non-trivial amount 178 (ideally >5%) of the overall signal for the compound class.

179 While there are common marker ions routinely used to interpret mass spectra,⁴⁶ they are 180 not necessarily appropriate for use in our analysis given the complexity of the signal. For 181 example, m/z 57 is a common marker ion for hydrocarbons, but it is a poor marker ion for our 182 samples because m/z 57 appears in the mass spectrum for nearly every molecule with a long

183 carbon chain. Therefore, it is not specific enough to use as a marker ion for paint analysis.

Instead, we used the NIST mass spectral library to determine marker ions for each of our nine
compound classes. Marker ions and the percent contribution to their compound class are listed in
Table S4.

The GC-MS signal was therefore classified by both compound class and volatility. We 187 188 extracted the signal for each marker ion and scaled it by the corresponding volatility-dependent multiplier from Table S4. Signal was subsequently converted to mass using calibrations from 189 compound class and volatility bin specific representative compounds (Table S3). Volatility was 190 191 then apportioned using the predefined volatility bins described above. The net result of this 192 analysis is shown in Figure 1a, where the colors indicate contribution of different compound classes. Any unapportioned signal (the white area in Figure 1a) was assumed to have the same 193 volatility relationship and mass calibration as alkanes. GC-MS data for the headspace samples of 194 each paint type can be found in Figure S3. 195

Analysis of PTR-MS data. Our PTR-MS has unit mass resolution. It therefore is unable
 to separate isobaric ions, nor can it distinguish between compounds with the same elemental
 composition. We addressed this in several ways, as detailed below.

For most mass fragments compound identification relied on the PTR-MS library⁴⁷ to identify possible compounds for a given m/z. One exception was for m/z 45. This ion is traditionally identified as acetaldehyde, but it has been suggested that it is likely ethylene glycol in paint emissions.²³ For some mass-to-charge ratios there is only one suggested compound in the PTR-MS library, however there are many other mass-to-charge ratios which may have contributions from multiple compounds. For those m/z a search on PubChem was conducted to identify the most likely of the suggested compounds to be found in paints.

Not all mass-to-charge ratios that were detected in the PTR-MS were able to be identified 206 with the combination of the PTR-MS Library and PubChem. To aid in the identification, an open 207 208 headspace analysis of the paint samples was conducted with a high resolution ThermoFisher Scientific Exactive Plus Extended Mass Range (EMR) mass spectrometer. The orbitrap, operated 209 in the normal mass range, allowed for exact mass measurements using a resolution of 140,000 at 210 211 m/z 200. A custom atmospheric pressure chemical ionization (APCI) setup operated at 1400 V was used to generate the ions from the paint emissions. To improve the mass accuracy of 212 detected species, a lock mass calibration technique was utilized. The orbitrap data allowed us to 213 better constrain isobaric species that could not be separated by the PTR-MS. Table S5 shows a 214 full list of ions scanned by the PTR-MS, the compound assigned to that m/z, and the resources 215 used to make that determination (PTR library, PubChem, and/or ACPI Orbitrap). 216 217 Following complete identification of compounds measured by the PTR-MS with the help of the EMR measurements, the emissions were also classified into one of the nine compound 218 219 groups just as the GC-MS measurements were. Effective saturation concentrations (C^*) were calculated for each group using the SIMPOL method⁴⁵ to identify compounds as either IVOCs or 220 VOCs. Ultimately masses of I/VOCs measured by both the GC-MS and PTR-MS were added 221 222 together to obtain total I/VOC emissions per mass of paint applied $(\mu g/g)$ for the tested paint 223 types.

3 Results and Discussion

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226 **3.1 Total Emissions**

Figure 2 shows the results for the total mass emitted per mass of paint applied (μ g/g) over 48 hours during the extended emissions tests for each of the six paint types tested. Figure 2a

shows the total emissions split among VOCs and IVOCs, and Figure 2b shows emissions by





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Figure 2. Total I/VOC emissions ($\mu g/g$ -paint) over two-day extended emissions experiments. Based on repeat experiments the uncertainty of the total mass measured is +/- 9%. Panel (a) separates the emissions into IVOC and VOC and (b) separates by compound class. The magnitude and composition of emissions differ between the indoor, low-gloss paints (Flat, SemiInt, and Satin), the higher gloss paints (High Gloss and SemiExt), and the oil-based paint (Oil). The lower gloss paints emit mostly alkanes, alcohols, and aldehydes while the oil-based paint emits aldehydes, alkanes, and aromatics.

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Total I/VOC emissions varied by several orders of magnitude across the paint types.

235 I/VOCs emitted from the low-gloss, indoor, water-based paints (Flat, SemiInt, and Satin) are on

- the order of $10^2 \,\mu g/g$ of paint applied. The higher gloss, water-based paints emitted ~ $10^4 \,\mu g/g$ of
- 237 I/VOC. The oil-based paint emitted >10⁵ μ g/g of paint. This indicates that representing paint
- 238 I/VOC emissions in chemical transport models (CTMs) will require information on both the total
- mass of paint used and the types of paint used. From our findings we can make recommendations
- on the granularity of how many different types of paints should be tested for input into CTMs.

241	We recommend incorporating information on three categories of paints: 1) low-gloss, water-
242	based paints, 2) higher-gloss, water-based paints, and 3) oil-based paints.
243	The second major observation is that the distribution of IVOC versus VOC emissions
244	varies by paint type. The emissions from the lower gloss, indoor paints are mostly VOCs while a
245	significant fraction of the emissions from the High Gloss (98%) and SemiExt (87%) are IVOCs.
246	Furthermore, as we show in more detail below, the IVOC emissions from the lower gloss, indoor
247	paints are small and fall below our detection limits after the first hour following paint
248	application. This implies that emissions from the lower-gloss, indoor paints have little impact on
249	outdoor I/VOC concentrations and SOA formation.
250	By contrast, the high IVOC content of High Gloss and SemiExt emissions indicates that
251	they have larger SOA formation potential. In addition, since the SemiExt paints are exterior
252	paints, this means that 100% of their I/VOC emissions are released into the outdoor environment
253	and therefore impact ambient I/VOC concentrations and SOA formation.
254	The Oil paints have a closer to even split between IVOC and VOC emissions (36% and
255	64% respectively). Total I/VOC emissions from oil paints are about a factor of 10 larger than
256	emissions for SemiExt, and the Oil paint has the largest emissions of IVOCs among the paints
257	tested here. Oil paints are primarily used outdoors due to their hard-wearing properties.
258	Therefore, oil paints may also contribute significantly to ambient SOA formation.
259	Figure 2b shows that the distribution of compound classes emitted by the different types
260	of paints varies. Alkanes are a major component of the detected High Gloss and SemiExt
261	emissions (42% of the total mass for each). The low-gloss, indoor, water-based paints (Satin,
262	SemiInt, and Flat) and oil-based paint emit a wider spectrum of compounds. A significant
263	portion of emissions from the oil-based paints (12%) are aromatics. Aromatics typically have

high SOA yields⁴⁸ and are likely to significantly contribute to the SOA formation potential from
paints. Other important compound classes that are emitted by the paints are alcohols, aldehydes,
and ketones.

Using the measured emission rates (μ g/g) of I/VOCs as well as the usage of each of the six types of paints we were able to determine the total I/VOC emissions per mass of paint used in the U.S. (g/kg). We estimate emissions of 291 g total I/VOCs (TVOCs) per kg of paint applied. This estimate is in good agreement with prior literature. For example, McDonald et al. estimated 200 – 600 g TVOCs per kg of paint.¹⁴ This indicates that existing inventories may serve as an adequate estimator of I/VOC emissions from paints when laboratory tests are not feasible.

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3.2 Time evolution of emissions

One potential characteristic of VCP emissions is that they can serve as long-term, lowlevel emissions sources.^{15,49} Our extended emissions experiments examine how paint emissions evolved over time. Figure 3 shows how the fraction of emissions changed over the course of multiple days as measured by the PTR-MS (mostly VOCs) and Tenax tubes (mostly IVOCs).



Figure 3. Cumulative emissions measured by the (a) PTR-MS and (b) Tenax tubes as function of time elapsed after paint application. The colors of the legend apply to both panels. For these experiments, the PTR-MS operated

continuously with ~2-minute time resolution. Dashed lines in (b) are to guide the eye between the periodic Tenax samples. 280

Figure 2 shows that the emissions from the indoor paints (Flat, Satin, SemiInt) as well as 281 282 the Oil paint were primarily VOCs. Figure 3 shows that the emissions from these paints fall off rapidly. All four of these paints emit more than 50% of their total detected emissions within 12 283 hours after application. The temporal profile is most extreme for the Oil and SemiInt paints, 284 which emit >90% and >80% of their emissions within 12 hours, respectively. For low-gloss, 285 286 indoor paints there are no long term I/VOC emissions. Measurements of IVOCs using Tenax 287 tubes were below detection limits after one hour following paint application; the 0-1 hr tubes were above detection limit, but the 1-2 hour and subsequent tubes were below detection. 288 289 The extended emissions experiments were run for more than two days for the Oil paint. During preliminary tests, the Oil paint showed significantly larger I/VOC emissions compared to 290 291 the water-based paints. Therefore, a longer, one week (rather than two day) extended emissions experiment was conducted for the Oil paint. IVOC emissions from the Oil paint fell below limits 292 293 of quantitation by the second day indicating a lack of long term IVOC emissions. The majority of ions detected by the PTR-MS fell to background concentrations within the two-day drying 294 period. A list of ions that were still at concentrations greater than background levels after 48 295 hours of drying are included in Table S6. 296

While the total emissions from the Oil paint fall off rapidly, the emissions transition from
being VOC-dominated to IVOC-dominated over time. In general, the IVOCs are emitted more
slowly than the VOCs, as would be expected based on volatility. Figure 3b and Figure 4b show
that IVOC emissions from the oil paint persist for approximately one day after application.
Emissions from the SemiExt and High Gloss paints are dominated by IVOCs. Overall,
these paints emit more slowly compared to the other paints tested here. Figure 3a shows that

after 12 hours these paints emitted <50% of the total emissions detected by the PTR-MS. Most of 303 these emissions are IVOCs (e.g., naphthalene). For these paints all but two ions measured by the 304 PTR-MS reached background levels by the end of the two-day extended emissions experiment 305 (Table S6) but there were still IVOC emissions measured by the GC-MS at the end of the two-306 day experiment. 307



Figure 4. Headspace and extended emission samples of (a) High Gloss and (b) Oil paints measured with Tenax tubes. The total height of the headspace samples is matched to the emission rate for the Hour 0-1 samples to aid comparison.

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Figure 4 shows the temporal evolution of IVOC emissions for the Oil and High Gloss 310 paints. IVOC emissions from the High Gloss gradually and continually decline over the course 311 312 of two days. However, even after 48 hours, the High Gloss paint continued to emit IVOCs at a 313 rate of 15% of the original rate during hour 0-1. The paints with low IVOC emissions (Flat, 314 SemiInt, Satin) had a similar profile of declining IVOC emissions with time, with emissions falling below the detection limit within 1-2 hours after paint application. This suggests that some 315 316 paints can act as extended sources of IVOC emissions. 317 The composition of IVOC emissions changed over time. For example, for the high gloss paint, alkanes were an important component of the emissions over the entire two days, but they 318 increased from 28% of the emitted mass during hour 0-1 to 60% at hour 47-48. 319

The evolution of IVOC emissions from the Oil paint was different. Emissions increased relative to the hour 0-1 sample for hours 1-2, 4-5, and 8-9, before falling rapidly and eventually reaching zero. As with the High Gloss, the composition of the IVOC emissions from the oil paint also changed over time, with increasing aldehyde and ester fractions contributing to the higher emissions at hours 1-2, 4-5, and 8-9.

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3.3 Headspace samples as representative emissions fingerprints

One question our data can address is whether the headspace samples can serve as a fingerprint for the I/VOC emissions of paints. Figure S4 clearly shows that this is not possible for VOCs. Figure S4 shows the PTR-MS measurements of VOCs from both a headspace sample and an extended emission sample of High Gloss paint. The headspace sample is dominated by acetone (m/z 59) and methanol (m/z 33). In the extended emissions tests methanol and acetone contributed less than 10% of the total VOC emissions.

Similarly, the GC-MS measurements also demonstrate that a headspace sample does not 333 334 capture the total emissions profile of a paint over time. Figure 4 shows the headspace composition of the Oil and High Gloss paints next to the emission composition over the drying 335 period. The High Gloss headspace sample is enhanced in alkanes relative to the extended 336 337 emissions samples. The Oil headspace composition is similar to the emissions within the first hour following the application of the oil paint. However, as the oil paint dries the composition of 338 the emissions changes. Aldehydes become a more important part of the emissions for the 1-2, 4-339 340 5, and 8-9 hour samples. Low volatility esters are also emitted, but only after 8 hours following paint application. If headspace samples were used as an emission fingerprint these less-volatile 341 342 emissions would be underestimated.

344 3.4 Implications for SOA formation

345 Here we combine our new emissions data with literature SOA yields to estimate total 346 I/VOC emissions from paints in the U.S. and potential impacts on SOA formation. We used the 347 U.S. Economic Census to scale our measured I/VOC emission factors to a national scale.³³ We 348 mapped the US Economic Census' 23 different subcategories of "Architectural Coatings" to one 349 350 of our six paint types tested. Since the census reported paint usage for 2010 the usage was scaled by population growth to obtain estimated paint usage for 2021. The mass of paints used for each 351 of the six classes tested were multiplied by the measured I/VOC emission factors to estimate the 352 353 total expected I/VOC emissions from paints in the U.S. These total I/VOC emissions were then 354 multiplied by SOA yields to determine projected SOA formation.

Figure 5a and Table 1 summarize the paint usage. Flat, SemiInt, SemiExt, and Oil paints each contribute ~20-30% (~600-900 Gg) of annual paint usage in the U.S. Satin and High Gloss each contribute less than 10% of total paint usage. We estimate total paint I/VOC emissions of ~169 Gg/year. Most of these emissions (59%, Figure 5c) are VOCs, with the remainder being IVOCs.

Total I/VOCs emissions from paints are high on a mass of product used basis. Emissions are approximately 290 g I/VOC per kg of paint used. This corresponds to 0.51 kg/person of I/VOCs emitted per year in the US. This is one to two orders of magnitude greater than the I/VOC emission rates of gasoline and diesel related emissions (on a gram of I/VOC per kg of fuel used basis).¹⁴ Our per-person and per mass estimates of paint I/VOC emissions are similar to recent estimates by McDonald et al (200 - 600 g/kg of product)¹⁴ and Seltzer et al (0.67 kg/person per year).²⁰



Figure 5. (a) Total paint usage in the U.S. reported by U.S. Census Bureau (b) SOA mass formed, and (c) contributions of I/VOCs to paint emissions and SOA formation. The split between paint use by mass is fairly evenly divided between SemiInt, Flat, SemiExt, and Oil based paints. SOA mass is dominated by I/VOC emissions from Oil and SemiExt paints. The IVOCs are more important than VOCs for SOA formation.

- 369 Table 1 Paint usage and emissions. Total paint usage in the U.S. for each paint type, the total
- 370 I/VOC yearly emissions in the U.S. for each paint type, and the SOA mass formed each year in
- 371 *the U.S. by paints. Uncertainty in I/VOC emissions is based on precision in replicate*
- 372 *experiments. Uncertainty in SOA production is based on uncertainty in reported SOA yields.*

Paint Type	Paint Usage in US	IVOC+VOC	SOA Mass Formed
	2021 [Gg]	Emissions	[Mg]
		[Gg]	
Oil	584	152.6 [+/- 13.7]	6,947 [+/- 640.5]
Semi-Gloss Interior	892	0.09 [+/008]	2.1 [+/- 0.19]
(SemiInt)			
Flat	702	0.06 [+/005]	1.5 [+/- 0.14]
Satin	212	0.04 [+/004]	0.9 [+/- 0.08]
Semi-Gloss Exterior	701	15.9 [+/- 1.4]	1,042 [+/- 96.1]
(SemiExt)			
High Gloss	39	0.3 [+/03]	18.7 [+/- 1.72]

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While usage is somewhat evenly distributed across several paint types, I/VOC emissions

are dominated by two classes: Oil and SemiExt. These two classes have the highest emission

376 factors $(\mu g/g)$ shown in Figure 2, and together they contribute 98% of total emissions. In

particular, oil paints account for 90% of total paint I/VOC emissions.

378 We estimated the contribution of paint emitted I/VOCs to ambient SOA production. We

estimated SOA production by multiplying the total I/VOC emissions by SOA mass yields for

each compound class. The SOA yields (g/g) were calculated using the Statistical Oxidation
Model (SOM)⁵⁰ and are shown in Table S7.

382	We estimate annual SOA production of ~8 Gg from paint I/VOCs (Table 1) and an
383	overall SOA mass yield of 4.7% [+/- 2%]. Figure 5 and Table 1 show that SOA production is
384	dominated by Oil and SemiExt paints. The other four paint types contribute negligibly to
385	predicted SOA formation due to their comparatively low emissions. IVOCs account for 68% of
386	predicted SOA formation, underscoring the importance of lower volatility and high SOA yield
387	precursors.

To put the SOA production from paints in context, we compare to estimates of SOA formation from vehicle emissions. Jathar et al. estimated that on-road gasoline and diesel vehicle emissions generate ~120 Gg of SOA annually in the U.S.¹⁶ Our estimate of 8 Gg of SOA from paints is about 6.7% of the amount of vehicle-generated SOA. However, paints are just one subcategory of a subcategory (architectural coatings) of the entire VCP sector. Thus, these calculations highlight how important it is to understand SOA formation from the entire VCP sector especially as on-road sources become cleaner and emit less SOA precursors.

There are several potential sources of uncertainty in our estimates of paint I/VOC emissions and subsequent SOA formation. These include uncertainty in SOA yields, especially for UCM and oxygenated VOCs that have not been directly measured in the laboratory. There may be significant variation in paint emissions rate and composition across manufacturers that we did not capture here. Since our results suggest that emissions and SOA formation are dominated by paints that are often used outdoors, the role of sunlight-driven changes in emissions⁵¹ should be considered in future studies.

402	In this study, we have been able to reduce one potential source of uncertainty in the
403	contribution of paint I/VOCs to ambient SOA. The four paint types that are often used indoors
404	(Satin, SemiInt, Flat, and High Gloss) all had low emissions and negligible SOA contributions.
405	One potential confounder for the ambient impact of these emissions is indoor-to-outdoor transit
406	(i.e., paint fumes need to leave the building without being lost to walls or other surfaces). Our
407	data suggest that these indoor paints are a minor contributor to I/VOC emissions from the paints
408	and coatings sector, and that emissions and SOA formation are dominated by paints used
409	outdoors.
410	Deferences
411	

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579 Supporting Information

- 580 Supporting information is available free of charge. Additional description of experimental
- 581 procedures and two figures showing experimental setups; a table outlining specific experiments
- and sampling times; tables with lists of ion identification in the PTR-MS and marker ions used in
- the GC-MS; SOA yields used in the calculation of SOA formation potential; figures showing
- headspace samples for all paint types and the difference in VOCs measured in headspace and
- 585 extended emissions experiments.
- 586

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589

590 Data Availability

- 591 Experimental data are available on the KiltHub repository at
- 592 https://doi.org/10.1184/R1/14814813.v1