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# Temperature-dependent evaporation emission and gas/particle partitioning drive the seasonal dynamics of primary intermediate-volatility organic compounds

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**Abstract**

Intermediate-volatility organic compounds (IVOCs) serve as crucial precursors to secondary organic aerosol (SOA), yet their seasonal variations remain insufficiently characterized, impeding a comprehensive understanding of their atmospheric processing and impacts on air quality. To capture the seasonal dynamics of primary IVOCs and identify the key drivers governing their variability, four-season field campaigns were conducted at an urban site in Yangtze River Delta region. The total concentration of measured IVOCs was 1228.2 ± 132.7 ng $m^{-3}$ (average ± 95% confidence interval), dominated by long-chain alkanes. A distinctive summer-maximum and winter-minimum pattern was identified for measured IVOCs, contrasting sharply with typical seasonal trends of most primarily-emitted air pollutants. This pattern was driven by enhanced temperature-dependent evaporative emissions and efficient particle-to-gas partitioning of low-volatility IVOCs during warm seasons. Petroleum-related sources were confirmed as the dominant contributors to the measured IVOCs. Positive matrix factorization (PMF) model further revealed evaporative emissions as the largest contributor (38.9%), followed by vehicle exhaust (37.7%), gas/particle partitioning (14.8%), and industrial emissions (8.6%). Our findings elucidate the critical roles of temperature-dependent emissions and gas/particle partitioning in shaping the seasonal cycle of IVOCs, and highlight the potentially expanding contribution of evaporative sources to urban IVOC loads under future climate change scenarios.

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## 1. Introduction

Intermediate-volatility organic compounds (IVOCs) are defined as organic compounds with effective saturation concentrations (C*) ranging from 300 to $3\times10^6$ μg $m^{-3}$, roughly corresponding to the volatility of $C_{12}$–$C_{22}$ normal alkanes (n-alkanes) (Donahue et al., 20212; Zhao et al., 2024). As potent precursors to secondary organic aerosol (SOA), IVOCs exhibit high SOA mass yields upon atmospheric oxidation, thereby profoundly affecting air quality, regional climate, and human health (Robinson et al., 2007; McDonald et al., 2018). Cumulative evidence from bottom-up emission inventories and top-down observational studies has consistently demonstrated that IVOC-driven SOA production surpasses that from traditional SOA precursors, volatile organic compounds (VOCs), by 1–2 orders of magnitude (Fang et al., 2022; Manavi et al., 2022). During episodes of particulate pollution, IVOCs can contribute 35%−80% of the total SOA mass (Yang et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2021). Despite their pivotal role in SOA formation and atmospheric chemistry, research on IVOCs, particularly in complex real-world atmospheric matrices, remains notably insufficient compared to that on traditional VOCs (Ling et al., 2022).

Early efforts to quantify IVOC contributions to SOA formation have heavily relied on atmospheric models. However, the paucity of robust observational constraints has plagued these modeling frameworks. Most modeling studies derive IVOC emissions from scaling factor applied to VOC or primary organic aerosol (POA), yet the applicability of these factors is compromised by the spatiotemporal heterogeneity of emission sources and their strong dependence on emission type. This inherent variability inevitably propagates considerable uncertainty into SOA predictions (Pennington et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2024). Driven by the need for more accurate data inputs to models, recent studies have strived to directly characterize IVOC emissions from major anthropogenic sources, including vehicle exhaust (Drozd et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2021a), ship emissions (Huang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2022), gasoline evaporation (Wang et al., 2025), and residential solid fuel combustion (Qian et al., 2021). Undoubtedly, these measurement-based studies have provided crucial emission profiles of IVOCs and established real-world relationships between IVOCs and co-emitted pollutants, laying a foundation for model refinement and field-based source apportionment of IVOCs (Fang et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024; Scholz et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2025).

Nevertheless, investigations on ambient IVOCs remain scarce compared to emission source studies (Tang et al., 2023). While a handful of field observations have reported IVOC concentrations, chemical compositions, and estimated SOA formation potentials, sources and influential factors contributing to ambient IVOC variations were inadequately resolved and quantified (Zhao et al., 2014; Tanzer-Gruener et al., 2022; Wernis et al., 2022). More importantly, most existing observations have relied on short-term sampling limited to one or two seasons, leaving a critical gap in understanding the systematic seasonal patterns of

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ambient IVOCs (Tong et al., 2024; Hou et al., 2026). Modeling studies have already corroborated the seasonality of IVOC-derived SOA contributions. For instance, Yang et al. (2014) documented the highest fractional SOA contribution from IVOCs in winter (66.4%−80.7%), followed by spring (45.4%−65.8%), fall (41.3%−60.4%), and summer (35.8%−53.2%). In addition, seasonal temperature fluctuations could influence the gas/particle partitioning of low-volatility IVOCs (Fang et al., 2022), leading to the changes in their atmospheric abundance, phase distribution, and subsequent SOA formation. Consequently, a thorough investigation of the seasonal characteristics of ambient IVOCs is critical for elucidating their atmospheric processing and eventual contributions to SOA formation.

Herein, field campaigns covering four seasons were carried out at an urban site in the Yangtze River Delta region. We targeted 16 representative IVOC species, including 11 n-alkanes ($nC_{12}$ − $nC_{22}$), 2 branched alkanes, and 3 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). These species are well-recognized as key IVOC surrogates, with established utility for constraining IVOC emissions, facilitating source apportionment, and estimating SOA formation potential (Pye et al., 2010; Hodzic et al., 2016; Fang et al., 2021b; Tang et al., 2021; Galeazzo et al., 2024). By quantifying these species and analyzing their seasonal patterns, this study advances the understanding of IVOC behaviors in complex urban atmospheres. Our findings not only provide valuable implications for refining regional air quality modeling frameworks, but also underpin the formulation of seasonally tailored IVOC control strategies for urban areas.

## 2. Methodology

### 2.1 Field experiments

As illustrated in Figure S1, sampling was carried out at an urban site within the Yangtze River Delta, China, during 2024. Field campaigns covered four seasons: spring (April 21−27), summer (July 4−10), fall (October 9−15), and winter (December 14−20). The sampling location was a rooftop approximately 20 m above ground level, representative of a typical urban setting under the influence of mixed vehicular, commercial, and residential emission sources. This site was situated 100 m from a government-operated air quality monitoring station. For IVOC collection, an automated 12-channel sampler (JEC921, Jectec Science and Technology Co., Ltd., Beijing, China) equipped with Tenax TA/Carbograph 5TD sorbent tubes (Markes International, UK) was deployed. We placed a PTFE filter (47 mm diameter, Whatman, UK) upstream of the sorbent tubes to exclude particulate matter. The sampler operated at a constant flow of 600 mL $min^{-1}$, with daily collections scheduled in eight 2-hour windows from 04:00 to 20:00 local time. To account for potential contamination during field observation, two blank tubes were collected each season, processed identically to ambient samples except that the pump remained off. In total, 224 valid samples (including 8 field blanks) were obtained for subsequent laboratory analysis. Meteorological variables and other

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air pollutants ($PM_{2.5}$, CO, $SO_2$, $NO_2$, and $O_3$) were obtained from the monitoring station. Concurrently, VOC measurements were performed using an online GC-MSD/FID system (TH300B, Wuhan Tianhong Instrument Co., Ltd., China). Further details on the VOC analysis are provided in Text S1.

**2.2 Laboratory analysis**

The IVOC samples were analyzed using a thermal desorption system (TD-100, Markes International, UK) coupled to an Agilent 8890 gas chromatograph (GC) and a 5977C mass selective detector (MSD) (Agilent Technologies, Inc., CA, USA). First, each tube was heated to 320 °C for 15 min under high-purity helium (99.999%) to release the trapped analytes. Then the target compounds were cryo-focused on a cold trap maintained at −10 °C, followed by rapid thermal injection into the GC/MSD for chromatographic separation and mass spectrometric detection. Separation was achieved on an HP−5MS capillary column (30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 µm, Agilent Technologies, Inc., CA, USA). The column oven was temperature-programmed as follows: initial hold at 50 °C for 5 min, ramp to 280 °C at 5 °C $min^{-1}$, and final hold for 20 min. The MSD was operated in SCAN mode with electron impact ionization at 70 eV. Target IVOCs were identified by comparing their GC retention times and mass fragmentation patterns with those of authentic standards, and their concentrations were determined via external calibration.

**2.3 Quality assurance/Quality control (QA/QC)**

Prior to deployment, we conditioned all sorption tubes at 320 °C under a helium stream (100 mL $min^{-1}$, 99.999% purity). Each cleaned tube was subsequently analyzed by TD-GC/MSD to confirm the absence of residual IVOC contamination. Only tubes showing no detectable target species or concentrations below the established method detection limits (MDLs) were approved for field use. The MDLs for the IVOC species quantified in this work was 0.57–4.72 ng $m^{-3}$. We evaluated potential sampling breakthrough by connecting two sorbent tubes in tandem during ambient air collection and analyzing both tubes afterward. The rear-tube IVOC loading was below 3% of that in the front tube, confirming that breakthrough was negligible throughout the sampling periods. In addition, thermal desorption efficiency was assessed by subjecting selected sampled tubes to two successive thermal desorption cycles and computing the fraction of IVOCs quantified in the first cycle relative to the combined amount from both cycles. The average desorption efficiency was determined to be 98.6% ± 1.2% in this study.

**2.4 Positive matrix factorization (PMF) model**

To identify and quantify the main contributor to observed IVOCs, we applied U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (US-EPA) PMF 5.0 software to the dataset. Since PMF methodology has been detailed in earlier studies (Wang et al., 2016), only essential operational settings are summarized in the present work. A total of 19 species (13 alkanes, 3

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PAHs, CO, $SO_2$, and $NO_2$) were incorporated into the input matrix, with all concentration values exceeding their respective MDLs. For each data point, we computed the associated uncertainty using the formulation of $Unc = [(EF \times c)^2 + (0.5 \times MDL)^2]^{1/2}$, where EF and c denote the error fraction and the species concentration, respectively. Multiple model runs were conducted with factor numbers ranging from 3 to 8. Criteria including solution stability, consistency between modelled and observed IVOC concentrations, and the rationality of factor profiles were used to evaluate different solutions. On this basis, the 4-factor solution was judged to be the most physically meaningful. Additional procedural details are provided in Text S2.

### 2.5 Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS software. Since Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that IVOC data were not normally distributed, seasonal differences in IVOC concentrations were evaluated using the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test. Relationships between IVOCs and other variables were examined with Spearman's correlation. Statistical significance was determined at $p < 0.05$.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1 Ambient levels and volatility distributions of measured IVOCs

From Table S2, the total concentration of IVOCs measured during the sampling periods was 1228.2 ± 132.7 ng $m^{-3}$ (average ± 95% C.I.). As speciated IVOCs, this level substantially exceeded those reported in Pasadena, USA (2.0 − 81.0 ng $m^{-3}$) (Tanzer-Gruener et al., 2022), was comparable to that measured in megacity Guangzhou in fall (1532.2 ± 189.0 ng $m^{-3}$) (Fang et al., 2022), but significantly lower than wintertime observations in megacity Shanghai (~ 5265.0 ng $m^{-3}$) (Li et al., 2019). Long-chain alkanes constituted the dominant component of measured IVOCs throughout the campaign, accounting for over 85% of the total mass. It was noteworthy that gaseous long-chain alkanes (> $C_{12}$) have always been missed in previous field observations (Li et al., 2022). In fact, these compounds, particularly those falling within the volatility range of $nC_{12}$ − $nC_{22}$, predominantly existed in gas phase under ambient conditions (Fang et al., 2020; Tang et al., 2022). Although some earlier studies detected particle-bound $nC_{12}$ − $nC_{22}$ using quartz filter sampling, such measurements may have been influenced by positive sampling artifacts (e.g., adsorption of gaseous species onto filters) (Presto et al., 2012). Table S3 shows that the gaseous long-chain alkane concentrations measured here exceeded previously reported particle-phase values by 1−2 orders of magnitude. In terms of absolute levels, our observations were substantially higher than those in London, yet fell within the range reported for Chinese megacities like Beijing and Guangzhou. The measured gas-phase PAHs summed to 141.3 ± 12.3 ng $m^{-3}$, with naphthalene (Nap) being the most abundant species, sharing 73.9% ± 1.3% of the total PAHs. This aligns with earlier studies identifying Nap as the predominant species among gaseous PAHs (Huang

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et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020; Fang et al., 2021b; An et al., 2024; Hou et al., 2026). As shown in Table S2, the Nap concentration measured in this study was lower than that in the northern Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei region (0.73 ± 0.31 μg $m^{-3}$) (Tang et al., 2020), fell within the range reported for Shanghai (38.0 − 2400.0 ng $m^{-3}$) (Li et al., 2019; An et al., 2024), and was higher than that in Guangzhou (94.0 ± 23.1 ng $m^{-3}$) (Fang et al., 2021b).

Figure 1 shows the volatility distribution of measured IVOCs throughout the entire observation period. In line with previous studies, IVOCs were dominated by high-volatility species. Specifically, compounds with the $\log_{10}C^*$ of 6, 5, and 4, corresponding to the volatility ranges of $nC_{12}$ – $nC_{13}$, $nC_{14}$ – $nC_{15}$, and $nC_{16}$ – $nC_{17}$, respectively, accounted for 35.6 ± 2.3%, 28.3 ± 1.0%, and 22.5 ± 1.3% of the total IVOC mass. As shown in Figure S2, the stronger correlations among IVOCs of comparable volatility indicated that they shared similar sources and atmospheric processes. The volatility distribution of measured IVOCs, on the one hand, was subject to the influence of primary emission sources. IVOCs emitted from typical anthropogenic sources follow a volatility gradient: gasoline exhaust > diesel exhaust > heavy oil exhaust, which aligns with the volatility sequence of the corresponding unburned fuels (Fang et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). Gasoline exhaust is dominated by species with $\log_{10}C^*$ = 6 (Zhao et al., 2016), whereas diesel exhaust contains a higher proportion of compounds with $\log_{10}C^*$ = 5 and 4 (Zhao et al., 2015). In contrast, heavy oil combustion emissions exhibit relatively more low-volatility IVOCs ($\log_{10}C^* \leq 3$) (Huang et al., 2018). Moreover, previous studies have also reported that exhaust-IVOC volatility distribution was significantly governed by the properties of unburned fuels (Zhao et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2021). IVOCs in combustion exhaust generally exhibit higher volatility than their parent fuels, which could be the reason that combustion process fragments the long-chain carbons and shifts the volatility distribution of IVOCs toward higher values (Cui et al., 2022). On the other hand, atmospheric processes can further modify the volatility distribution of IVOCs following their emission into the ambient air. For instance, Fang et al. (2022) demonstrated that gas/particle partitioning exerted a pronounced influence on low-volatility IVOCs, with approximately 20% of these compounds repartitioning into the particle phase during their observational campaigns. This dynamic repartitioning process thus reduced the abundance of low-volatility IVOCs in the gas phase. Collectively, the observed volatility distribution of IVOCs was governed by three key factors: the intrinsic chemical composition of parent fuels, source-dependent IVOC formation pathways (e.g., combustion-derived exhaust emissions or direct volatilization from unburned fuels), and subsequent atmospheric processing.

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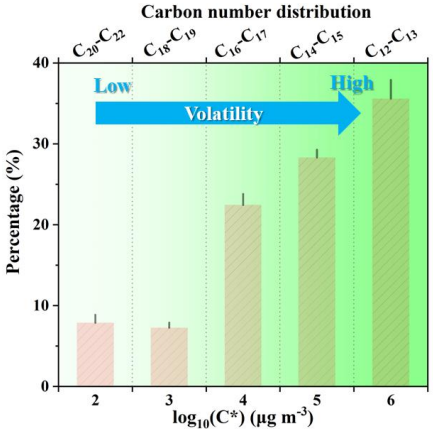


**Figure 1.** Volatility distributions of measured IVOCs based on the effective saturation concentration (C*, μg $m^{-3}$) and carbon numbers of normal alkanes. The error bar represents 95% confidence interval.

### 3.2 Seasonal variations

As shown in Figure 2, the concentration of IVOCs was significantly higher in summer than in the other three seasons ($p < 0.05$). No statistical difference in IVOC concentrations was observed between spring and fall. Unexpectedly, IVOCs reached its minimum in winter. This was contrary to the common winter-maximum pattern reported for primarily-emitted air pollutants. Table S2 illustrates such a pattern for $SO_2$, CO, $NO_2$, and $PM_{2.5}$, all of which demonstrated markedly elevated levels during winter relative to summer. Previous studies have reported that total IVOC concentrations during winter haze events were roughly double those observed in summer (Li et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2023). This elevated concentration in winter was mainly due to suppressed photochemical degradation and unfavorable meteorological conditions that limited pollutant dispersion. In contrast, as shown in Table S2, higher atmospheric boundary layer height (BLH) in summer facilitated dispersion of IVOCs detected in this study, while summer peak in Ox ($NO_2$ + $O_3$) levels further accelerated photochemical consumption of these compounds. Both processes would theoretically act to lower IVOC concentrations in summer. Consequently, the unexpected summer-maximum IVOC concentration pattern observed in this study, wherein target IVOCs consist of primary hydrocarbons, was most plausibly ascribed to enhanced emissions of temperature-sensitive sources. Furthermore, the total concentration of measured IVOCs exhibited a significant correlation with ambient temperature ($r$=0.44, $p$<0.01), providing direct observational evidence for the temperature-driven enhancement of IVOCs. Similarly, Ait-Helal et al. (2014) reported elevated concentrations of gaseous $nC_{12}$–$nC_{16}$ IVOCs in Paris during summer relative to winter, attributing this distinct seasonal pattern to variability in emission source

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strength and activity. As shown in Figure S3, IVOCs exhibited distinct diurnal profiles across both volatility fractions and seasons. In general, primarily-emitted air pollutants typically displayed a daytime minimum and nighttime maximum, a pattern driven by intensified photochemical degradation and elevated BLH during daylight hours. High-volatility IVOCs ($nC_{12}$–$nC_{13}$) conformed to this canonical diurnal trend across all four seasons (Figure S3). With decreasing volatility, however, IVOC diurnal patterns grew increasingly complex. For example, $nC_{16}$–$nC_{17}$ compounds showed elevated daytime concentrations in spring. The daytime-minimum and nighttime-maximum pattern was particularly pronounced in summer for most IVOC species, with the exception of low-volatility $nC_{20}$–$nC_{22}$. The divergent diurnal patterns observed across volatility fractions implied that ambient IVOC concentrations were controlled by a suite of volatility-dependent regulatory mechanisms.

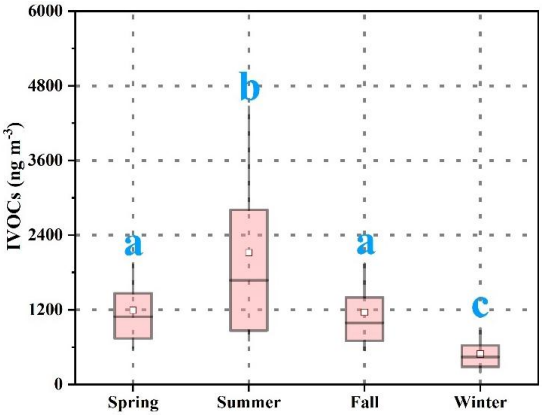


**Figure 2.** The total IVOC concentrations measured in different seasons. The squares and the central line represent the average and median values, respectively. The boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, and the whiskers represent the 10th and 90th percentiles. Different letters denote statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ among four seasons.

From Table S2, high-volatility IVOCs ($log_{10}C^* = 6$) were present at lower concentrations in summer relative to spring and fall. Conversely, the two methylnaphthalenes (MNs) attained seasonal maxima in summer. As displayed in Figure 3, the concentrations of $nC_{14}$–$nC_{18}$ IVOCs measured in summer were significantly higher than those in the other three seasons, with this fraction dominating summer maximum in total IVOC concentration. Low-volatility IVOCs ($nC_{19}$–$nC_{22}$) exhibited the greatest abundances in summer. Notably, these low-volatility species were nearly undetectable during the cold winter (Figure 3), which most likely resulted from favorable partitioning into the particle phase under low ambient temperature (4.9 ± 1.0 °C, Table S2) (Fang et al., 2022).

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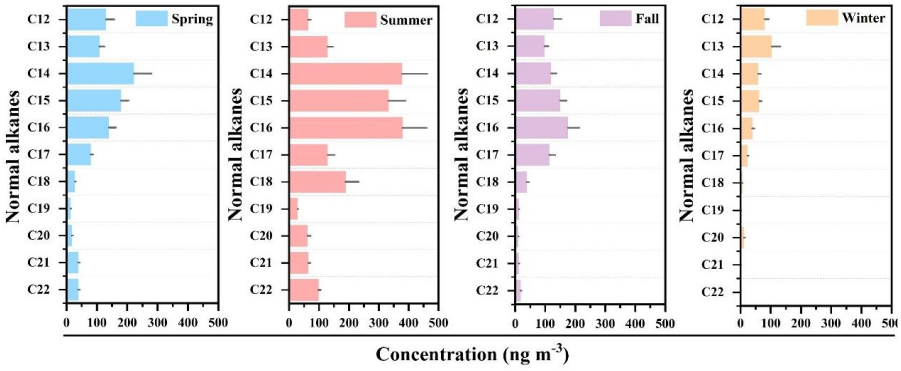


**Figure 3.** Concentrations of $C_{12}$-$C_{22}$ normal alkanes measured in different seasons. Error bar is 95% confidence interval.

As illustrated in Figure 4, IVOCs exhibited a clear volatility-dependent response to increasing $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Moderate- and low-volatility IVOCs (e.g., $nC_{14}$–$nC_{22}$) underwent a pronounced exponential decay with rising $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, and this trend intensified progressively as IVOC volatility decreased. However, concentrations of high-volatility IVOCs ($nC_{12}$–$nC_{13}$) showed no statistically significant correlation with $PM_{2.5}$. This exponential decline of $nC_{14}$–$nC_{22}$ from the gas phase was a direct consequence of their low saturation vapor pressures, which yield high gas/particle partitioning coefficients ($K_p$) (Gou et al., 2021; Lumiaro et al., 2021). As $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations increased, the partitioning equilibrium shifted decisively toward the condensed phase, driving a nonlinear decline in the gaseous abundances of these species. The enhanced sensitivity to $PM_{2.5}$ observed from $nC_{14}$–$nC_{15}$ to $nC_{20}$–$nC_{22}$ aligned closely with their decreasing volatility and corresponding increases in $K_p$ values. Conversely, the insensitivity of high-volatility $nC_{12}$–$nC_{13}$ to $PM_{2.5}$ variations was consistent with their high saturation vapor pressures and low $K_p$ values, such that their gaseous concentrations remained largely unaffected by aerosol loading (Figure 4). Overall, this distinct volatility-dependent pattern provided evidence that gas/particle partitioning constituted a key factor governing the atmospheric levels of low-volatility IVOCs in gas phase.

During the campaign, the IVOC concentrations, except for the high-volatility $nC_{12}$ − $nC_{13}$, increased exponentially with ambient temperature and the strength of this exponential dependence increased as compound volatility decreased (Figure 4). Previous laboratory evaporative experiments reported exponential increases in IVOC concentrations with rising temperature (Wang et al., 2025). Thus, our findings suggested that evaporative emissions could represent an important source of observed IVOCs, with enhanced emission strength under warmer conditions driving summer maximum in IVOC concentrations. Further

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corroborating this interpretation, isopentane, a typical gaseous tracer for evaporative emissions (Zhang et al., 2013), was also measured. As shown in Figure S4, isopentane did exhibit significantly higher concentrations in summer relative to other seasons ($p < 0.05$). In addition to direct evaporative emissions, warming conditions further elevated gaseous IVOC concentrations by promoting the volatilization of low-volatility species from particles into the gas phase (Chen et al., 2025; Kong et al., 2025). IVOC–temperature relationship exhibited substantial complexity across different temperature regimes. For instance, below 15 °C, $nC_{20}$ – $nC_{22}$ showed no significant temperature dependence, whereas $nC_{14}$ – $nC_{15}$ and $nC_{16}$ – $nC_{17}$ displayed positive correlations with temperature. In contrast, $nC_{12}$ – $nC_{13}$ exhibited a negative correlation within three temperature intervals (<15 °C, 15–30 °C, >30 °C), and the negative trend intensified at higher temperatures (Figure S6), primarily due to more vigorous photochemical degradation. Within 15°C – 30 °C range, only $nC_{20}$ – $nC_{22}$ maintained a robust positive correlation with temperature, while all other IVOC fractions exhibited negative correlations (Figure S6). The variable IVOC–temperature relationships observed across different temperature regimes arose from the combined and competing effects of temperature-dependent emissions (e.g., evaporative emission) and concurrent atmospheric processing (e.g., gas/particle partitioning and photochemical consumption).

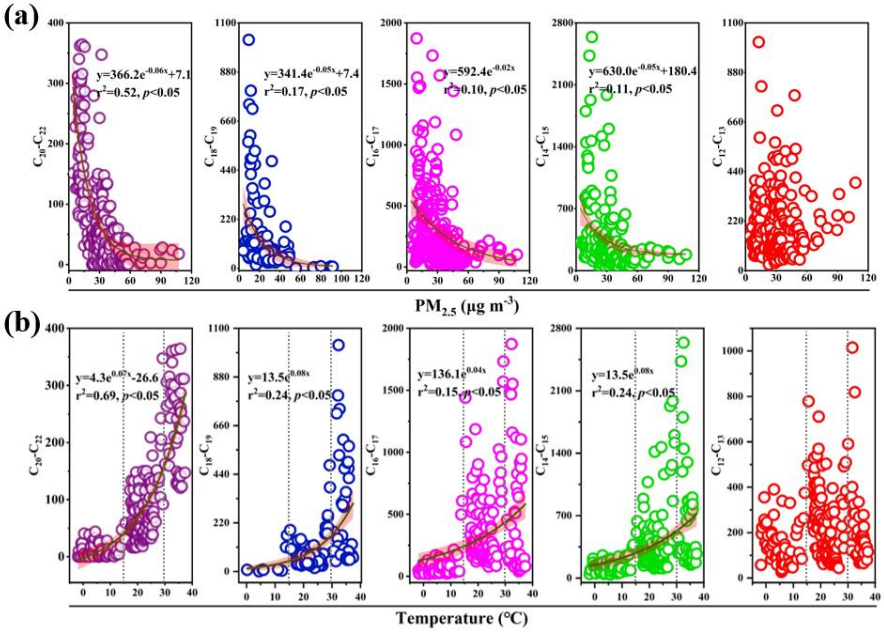


**Figure 4.** Concentrations of IVOCs (ng $m^{-3}$) in different volatility bins as a function of $PM_{2.5}$ levels (a) and ambient temperature (b). Shaded area represents 95% confidence interval.

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In summary, seasonal variations of IVOC species were controlled by a temperature–volatility dual-control framework. Ambient temperature acted as a key modulator, simultaneously regulating temperature-dependent emission intensities and the dynamics of atmospheric processes. Moreover, IVOC volatility determined the dominant response mechanism: high-volatility IVOCs were controlled mainly by photochemical processes, whereas medium- and low-volatility fractions exhibited high sensitivity to temperature-dependent emission and gas/particle partitioning processes.

**3.3 Source analysis**

As summarized in Table S2, the carbon preference index (CPI) derived from our field samples was 0.86 ± 0.03 across the entire sampling period. Prior studies have established that CPI values of n-alkanes sourced from biogenic emissions typically exceed 2, whereas those from petroleum-derived inputs cluster close to 1 (Mateus-Fontecha et al., 2022). On this basis, our results indicated that the measured IVOCs were predominantly from fossil fuel sources. Notably, the CPI exhibited pronounced seasonal variability, with the highest value recorded in winter (1.26 ± 0.25), followed by spring (0.91 ± 0.07), fall (0.87 ± 0.04), and summer (0.81 ± 0.06). This seasonal trend was attributable to shifts in the relative contributions of different emission sources across seasons. Combustion processes tend to yield higher CPI values compared to unburned fuels (Rogge et al., 1993; Zhu et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2015, 2016). Elevated winter CPI coincided with a significantly stronger correlation between IVOCs and CO, a tracer for incomplete combustion, in winter (Figure 5), collectively pointing to the enhanced contribution of combustion-derived sources to ambient IVOCs during the cold winter. Whereas, the lower CPI values observed during warm seasons were likely driven by the amplified influence of evaporative emissions from unburned fossil fuels. Furthermore, strong correlations between IVOCs and both pristane (Pr) and phytane (Ph), two molecular tracers indicative of fossil sources inputs (Zhao et al., 2014; Chan et al., 2016), were consistently observed across all four seasons, confirming that petroleum-related sources represented a key contributor to the measured IVOCs.

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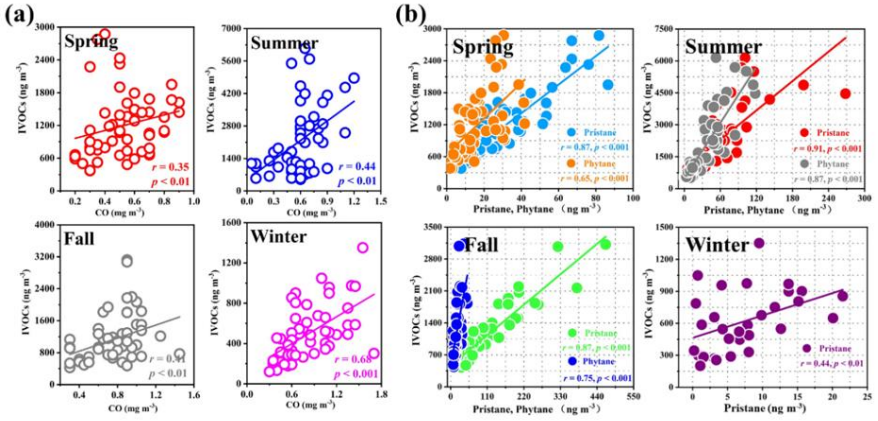


**Figure 5.** Correlations between total IVOCs and CO (a), and pristane and phytane (b) observed in four seasons.

### 3.4 Major contributing factors to observed IVOCs

To identify and quantify the specific contributors to the measured IVOCs, PMF model was applied in this study. As illustrated in Figure 6a, the PMF model resolved four dominant factors contributing to the measured IVOCs. Three of these represent direct emissions (vehicle exhaust, evaporative emission, and industrial emission), while one (gas/particle partitioning) reflects a key atmospheric process governing the phase distribution of the measured IVOCs, especially those with low volatility. Factor 1 exhibited a pronounced abundance of $nC_{12} - nC_{14}$, consistent with the IVOC emission profiles previously reported for vehicle exhaust (Zhao et al., 2015, 2016; Fang et al., 2021a; Zhao et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024). In addition, elevated concentrations of combustion tracers such as CO, $NO_2$, and Nap further indicated the influence of combustion processes (Fang et al., 2021b). Therefore, factor 1 was identified as vehicle exhaust. Factor 2 displayed high loadings of Pr and Ph, suggesting a linkage to petroleum-related sources. However, the extremely low levels of CO, $NO_2$, and Nap implied a non-combustion origin. The factor was consequently attributed to evaporative emissions. This interpretation was also corroborated by a statistically significant positive correlation ($p < 0.05$, Figure S7) between the IVOCs in factor 2 and isopentane. Moreover, the IVOCs apportioned to factor 2 showed a clear correlation with ambient temperature (Figure S8), supporting its identification as a temperature-dependent evaporative emission. Factor 3 was also characterized by minimal CO and $NO_2$ levels, indicating a non-combustion contributor. Notably, this factor was dominated by low-volatility IVOCs in the $nC_{19} - nC_{22}$ range. Furthermore, the IVOCs attributed to factor 3 exhibited a strong positive correlation with temperature ($r = 0.79$, $p < 0.01$, Figure S9). These patterns were consistent with the temperature-driven repartitioning of low-volatility organics from the particle phase to the gas

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phase (Zhou et al., 2024). Hence, factor 3 was interpreted as reflecting gas/particle partitioning processes. This factor did not represent a conventional primary emission source, but rather captured the net effect of gas/particle partitioning on observed gaseous IVOC concentrations. Factor 4 was characterized by significant amount of $SO_2$, CO, and $NO_2$, which are typical industrial pollutants (Klimont et al., 2013; Plauchu et al., 2024). The IVOCs apportioned to this factor also showed a strong correlation with $SO_2$ (Figure S10), further confirming the assignment of this factor to industrial emissions.

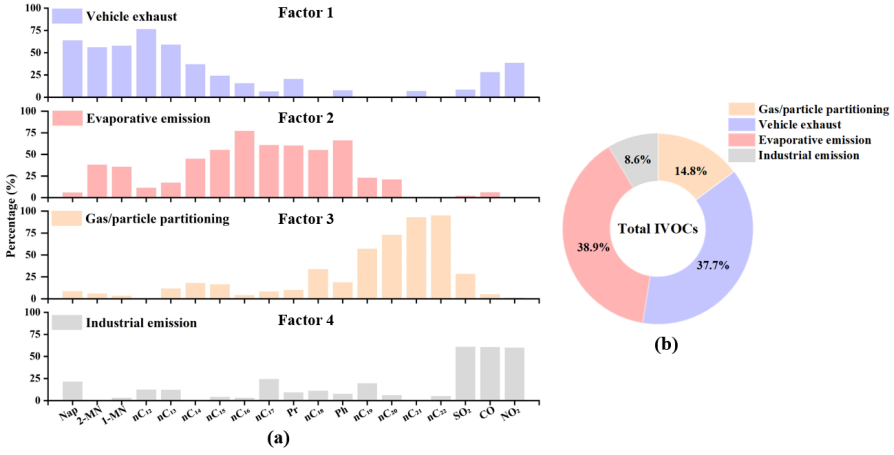


**Figure 6.** Factor profiles (% of the species) resolved by PMF (a) and relative contributions of various factors to measured IVOCs (b).

Figure 6b shows the relative contributions of four resolved factors to measured IVOCs. Notably, evaporative emission emerged as the predominant contributor, accounting for 38.9% of the total measured IVOCs. As displayed in Figure 6a, high loadings of Pr and Ph in the factor 2 indicated that the resolved evaporative emission was petroleum-related. As Figure S11 shows, the contribution of this factor exhibited pronounced seasonal variation, being the highest in hot summer (59.2%) and the lowest in cold winter (22.0%). The dominance of evaporative emissions aligned with a recent growing body of evidence underscoring their importance in the anthropogenic emissions. For example, Porada et al. (2016) demonstrated that fuel evaporation exceeded tailpipe exhaust as a source of VOCs in North America. Similarly, Yan et al. (2021) recently quantified that evaporative emission contributed 73% of total vehicle-related VOCs in China, in contrast to 27% from tailpipe exhaust. While the significance of evaporative emission for VOCs is increasingly recognized, their specific contribution to IVOCs remains poorly quantified in both field observations and emission inventories. Previous studies revealed that despite their relatively lower emission than VOCs, IVOCs from gasoline evaporation exhibited comparable ozone formation potential to that of

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VOCs, and their SOA formation (58%) even exceeded that of VOCs (42%) (Yang et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2025). Beyond fuel evaporation, asphalt and volatile chemical products (VCP) have recently been revealed to contribute evaporative IVOCs in the real atmosphere (Khare et al., 2020; Lasne et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024). Asphalt-based materials, used extensively in road paving and roofing, consist of approximately 85% I/SVOCs (Lasne et al., 2023), and have been found to emit substantial organic vapor, particularly at elevated temperatures and from aged asphalt (Khare et al., 2020). Given China's substantial annual asphalt consumption (e.g., 21.5 million tons in 2024, with over 90% used for road paving and roofing, https://www.yunliqing.com/public//static/uploads/files/pdf/2024/12/19/17345905736763c06debf64.pdf), this represents a significant and sustained source of evaporative IVOCs in urban areas. Moreover, emission inventories have identified VCPs as the dominant contributor to ambient IVOCs in China, accounting for 32.4% ± 4.9% of IVOC emissions from 2005 to 2019 (Zheng et al., 2023). In contrast to the significant progress in reducing traditional anthropogenic sources like vehicular and industrial emissions, evaporative sources (e.g., fuel evaporation, asphalt-related emission, and VCP), especially for IVOCs, have been challenging to quantify and remain largely uncontrolled. It was worth noting that these IVOC species are not yet explicitly considered in China's current air quality management policies. Given the strong temperature dependence of evaporative emission, rising global temperatures and frequent heatwaves are projected to significantly enhance the amounts of evaporative IVOCs in real atmospheres. As a result, uncontrolled evaporative emission may increasingly offset achievements in reducing traditional anthropogenic source emission, and increase urban background level of IVOCs, which could further worse urban SOA/$O_3$ pollution.

Vehicle exhaust was the second-largest contributor, accounting for 37.7% of measured IVOCs. Unlike the temperature-dependent evaporative emission, vehicular contribution peaked in the cold winter (Figure S11). This seasonal pattern was supported by stronger positive correlation observed between IVOCs and combustion tracer (CO, Figure 5a) in winter, as well as by a significant negative correlation between the vehicular IVOC fraction and ambient temperature ($r = -0.43$, $p < 0.01$; Figure S12). The elevated wintertime concentrations of vehicular IVOCs were likely attributable to enhanced incomplete combustion and reduced catalytic converter efficiency under cold temperature conditions, both of which could enlarge IVOC emissions from vehicles (Zhao et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2025). Vehicle exhaust has been previously reported as an important source for ambient IVOCs in urban China. Based on top-down observations and bottom-up emission inventories, vehicle exhaust accounted for 10% – 30% of atmospheric IVOCs in China (Wu et al., 2021; Chang et al., 2022; Cui et al., 2022; Fang et al., 2022; Tong et al., 2024). However, stricter vehicular emission standards have significantly cut IVOC emissions, albeit these regulations were not originally designed for such purpose. For instance, Qi et al. (2021) reported a 77.6% decrease in the IVOC emission factor from

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China II to China V gasoline vehicles. Furthermore, advanced after-treatment technologies have reduced IVOC emissions by a factor of 28 for diesel vehicles and 1.8 − 55.6 for gasoline vehicles (Zhao et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2024). These findings suggested that the contribution of vehicle exhaust to atmospheric IVOCs is expected to decline further with the continued modernization of vehicle fleets and emission control technologies.

Gas/particle partitioning explained 14.8% of the measured IVOCs (Figure 6b). This process predominantly influenced the low-volatility IVOCs ($nC_{19}$ − $nC_{22}$), promoting their volatilization from the particle phase under warm condition, elevating their gas-phase concentrations. Thus, these gaseous species were rarely detected in the cold winter in this study (Figure 3). As shown in Figure S9, the IVOCs apportioned to this factor was highly temperature-dependent ($r = 0.79$, $p < 0.01$), leading to higher contributions in warmer seasons (Figure S11). In view of the strong temperature dependence governing gas/particle partitioning, ongoing global warming is projected to further shift these low-volatility IVOCs towards the gas phase. In addition, the effective control of particulate pollution in China (Zheng et al., 2025) will reduce the available particle phase, thereby releasing more particle-bound IVOCs into the gas phase. Such a phase redistribution would alter their atmospheric fate and may enhance the role of gas-phase chemistry of IVOCs in future.

From Figure 6b, industrial emissions made a minor contribution (8.6%) to the measured IVOCs. This source contribution increased in cold winter, followed by spring, fall, and summer, as showed in Figure S11. Previous field observation also identified industrial emissions as a non-dominant source of atmospheric IVOCs. Even within industrial parks, industrial sources contributed less to IVOCs than combustion sources (19.5% vs. 61.5%) (Hou et al., 2026). A recent emission inventory revealed that industrially-emitted IVOCs have decreased significantly in China since 2015, accounting for less than 8% of total IVOCs during 2015−2019 (Zheng et al., 2023). It is worth noting that some earlier emission inventory studies have reported a substantial contribution from industrial sources to atmospheric IVOCs. Several factors may explain this apparent discrepancy. For example, earlier inventories often estimated IVOC emissions using ratios relative to other air pollutants (e.g., VOCs, POA, and Nap), an approach known to introduce considerable uncertainty (Lu et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2025). Additionally, industrial-related IVOCs could be dominated by other IVOC species such as oxygenated species (Liang et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2024) rather than the hydrocarbon IVOCs measured in this study. Therefore, more IVOC species are needed to be identified and quantified in future to comprehensively understand industrial sources contributing to ambient IVOCs.

## 4. Conclusions and implications

This study performed field observations at an urban site in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) to systematically investigate seasonal patterns of primary IVOCs and the key drivers behind

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their variations. Results showed that the total concentration of measured IVOCs was 1228.2 ± 132.7 ng $m^{-3}$, with long-chain alkanes as the dominant component. In contrast to typical primary air pollutants, IVOCs exhibited a distinct seasonal pattern characterized by a summer maximum and winter minimum. This pattern was driven by enhanced temperature-dependent evaporative emissions during warm seasons. Concurrently, gas/particle partitioning process also exerted a pivotal regulatory role in the seasonal variations of low-volatility IVOCs, which almost entirely sequestered in particles during the cold winter but re-volatilized into the gas phase in warm seasons. Petroleum-related sources were identified as key contributors to the measured IVOCs. Positive matrix factorization (PMF) resolved four contributors: evaporative emissions (38.9%), vehicle exhaust (37.7%), gas/particle partitioning (14.8%), and industrial emissions (8.6%).

Our results highlight that temperature-dependent evaporative emissions and gas/particle partitioning are the core drivers of the seasonal cycle of ambient IVOCs. This mechanistic insight is critical for the accurate parameterization of regional secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation models. The predominance of evaporative emissions and their strong temperature dependence indicate that these unregulated sources are emerging as dominant contributors to urban IVOC loads, particularly in warm seasons, given that regulatory measures have effectively mitigated combustion-related emissions (Khare et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2024). Under future global warming scenarios, intensified evaporative emissions may substantially elevate urban background IVOC concentrations, which may offset some of the air quality gains achieved through controls on traditional anthropogenic sources (e.g., vehicular and industrial emissions). Notably, such evaporative emissions are not currently incorporated into Chinese IVOC emission inventories (Zheng et al., 2023). Thus, integrating evaporative IVOCs into emission inventories and regulatory frameworks is indispensable for sustained air quality improvements. Furthermore, future climate warming and continued declines in aerosol concentrations across urban China are projected to amplify the gas/particle partitioning process of IVOCs, especially low-volatility species, shifting them more prominently toward the gas phase. This phase redistribution could fundamentally alter the atmospheric chemistry of IVOCs, underscoring the need for long-term ambient IVOC observations to constrain these dynamic processes. Although current work conducted a case study at an urban site in the YRD, evaporative processes are believed to occur widely in urban areas. Therefore, the contribution of this source to ambient IVOCs is equally important for other cities. Future studies are recommended to conduct multi-site observations and encompass a broader spectrum of IVOC species to better generalize seasonal patterns and quantitatively delineate the contributions of evaporative sources to regional IVOC budgets.

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**Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.

**Data Availability Statement**

Measured data used in this study can be found at https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/8rx9c3nr4p/1.

**Author contributions**

HF designed the experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote the paper. HX, JL, QJ, SM, XD, and HB collected and analyzed the samples. FX provided suggestions for this work. WT and XW provided suggestions for the study and revised the manuscript.

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