# **Revisions and responses to reviewers' comments**

First of all, we would like to thank the reviewers for their comments and suggestions which significantly improve the presentations and interpretations in our revised manuscript. Based on the reviewers' comments, we have made major revisions to the manuscript. The reviewers' original comments are shown in italics and our responses are given in normal fonts.

# **Response to Anonymous Referee #1**

This study demonstrates an increasing trend in  $SO_2$  over the northwestern region in China, in contrast to a well-established decreasing trend already reported for Eastern China. Shen et al., 2016 presented similar results before, however, here, the authors perform regression analysis/MK test, and 'a source detection approach to derive source strengths' using OMI-derived  $SO_2$  column density. They also report  $\sim$  30-50% contribution of  $SO_2$  emissions over the two northwestern regions from two energy industrial parks. This work can be accepted for publication upon addressing the following suggestions.

1. A more rigorous and thorough analysis is required to confirm that the OMI-retrieved SO2 column densities can be used to derive/estimate the increasing trend in SO<sub>2</sub> emissions/concentrations over these regions. Here, authors use Level-3 SO<sub>2</sub> data at a particular spatial resolution with a constant AMF of 0.35. I would suggest a more detailed and in-depth study using the satellite SO<sub>2</sub> column density dataset; in terms of AMFs, spatial resolutions, various data filtering methods, sampling, averaging etc. and its impact on the results demonstrated here. This sort of a scientific analysis is required in order to come within the scope of ACP (rather than describing the trend analysis and spatiotemporal pattern of SO<sub>2</sub> sources). McLinden et al., Fioletov et al., and Krotkov et al. papers are good references for this. Also, two years of in situ data over 188 sites offer a valuable piece of information (for example, L134:138: representativeness issues should have been addressed/described more carefully) to further test/evaluate satellite data (in addition to the supplementary figure and table). Also, describe in detail how the uncertainties in various datasets impact the results.

Response:

As we stated in our paper (line 119-122), we used Level-3  $SO_2$  data at a particular spatial resolution with a constant AMF of 0.36 but the  $SO_2$  column density was adjusted by AMF values in China. Following the Reviewer's suggestions, we have rephrased text regarding the satellite data applied in the present study. In revised section 2.1, we introduced more detailed descriptions of the source, spatial resolutions, and potential errors of satellite data (line 86-122). In new sections 2.4 and

2.5, we added more details in the source detection algorithm developed by McLinden et al. and Fioletov et al. The sources of errors in determining the overall uncertainty of the SO<sub>2</sub> emission estimation as well as their impact on the results were discussed (line 219-230). We further added the comments on the causes of the inconsistency between SO<sub>2</sub> VCD and monitored data (line 257-278 of the revised manuscript).

We have quantified the uncertainties in the  $SO_2$  emissions derived from OMI measurements in the two major point sources in northwestern China by running the source detection model repeatedly for 10,000 times using Monte Carlo method. Results show the standard deviation of -35 to 122 kt/yr for SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in NECIB and -29 to 95 kt/yr for SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in MEIB from 2005 to 2015 which are presented in Fig. 11a and b, respectively (line 219-230 of the revised manuscript)

2. Need to correct for grammatical mistakes throughout the paper (examples; L2: economic growth; L9: reduction of; L127: but the both; L133: such the inconsistence; L200: an significant; 412: desert and Gopi? : : :). Also, loose/empty sentences, and repetitions should be corrected while revising the paper. Change 'SO<sub>2</sub>' to 'SO<sub>2</sub>' for all the figures.

### Response:

We have made every effort to improve language and taken more careful proofreading of the revised manuscript. Those spells and language errors have been corrected (e.g. 'destert and gobi' changed to Gobi desert) . We have changed 'SO2' to 'SO<sub>2</sub>' in all the figures.

3. L81:82: try avoiding the point no.2, you can mention that, however, it's already an established point?

# Response:

We thank the Reviewer for his/her suggestion. We have rewritten the second objective of this paper as "identify main causes contributing to the enhanced  $SO_2$  emission in northwestern China" (line 81-82 of the revised manuscript).

4. Section 2.1: describe more details of satellite  $SO_2$  data, error sources etc. This is the most important part of this paper.

# Response:

As our above response to the Reviewer's comment, following the Reviewer's suggestions, we have rewritten the description of satellite data (section 2.1). We also added the source, spatial resolutions, error, and uncertainties of satellite data used in China in this study in two new sections 2.4 and 2,5.

5. L101:118: Better if you describe figures and tables in the results section. Describe just the 'materials and methods' in this section.

Response:

Following the Reviewer's suggestion, we have rearranged the structure of Data and Methods section. We added the new section 2.5 (satellite data validation), and moved the discussions on the results presented in Table S2, Figure S1. Figures 2 and 3 were presently presented in Supplement but moved to Data and Methods section following the suggestion from a reviewer.

6. L133:134 skeptical of in situ? So, first, describe the dataset, and associated errors, and then describe your figures/results in that context.

Response:

Following the Reviewer's comments and suggestions, in the revised manuscript, we have analyzed the causes leading to the inconsistence between  $SO_2$  VCD and monitored data (line 257-278 of the revised manuscript).

7. Column density and emissions are correlated (supplementary figure and table). However, describe briefly why there are not linearly related; also, cite some relevant papers relating column density to emissions and surface concentrations (for example, using atmospheric models).

Response:

We thank the Reviewer for his/her suggestion. We have conducted new analysis on the inconsistence between  $SO_2$  emission and satellite observations data (line 283-298 of the revised manuscript).

8. L134:139: how about using higher resolutions to address the issues of representativeness? Also, these are loose/empty sentences.

Response:

We agree that higher resolutions can reduce errors between  $SO_2$  VCD and monitored data. However, given the unavailability of data, only annual average monitored  $SO_2$  concentration in Urumqi city can be collected from the official data, which is spatially averaged concentration over several monitoring sites across the city. This disagreement is unlikely resulted from the spatial resolution of satellite and measured  $SO_2$  data because good agreements between  $SO_2$  VCD and monitored concentrations can be seen in other cities. As aforementioned, we have discussed the causes resulting

in the inconsistence between  $SO_2$  VCD and monitored data in the revised manuscript (line 257-278).

9. L150:153: Those publications report some uncertainty estimates; report them here; and describe your figure in that context; more carefully.

Response:

Following the Reviewer's suggestions. We have added the uncertainties of  $SO_2$  emission in China, and described Figure 3 (line 293-303 of the revised manuscript).

10. L153:156: revise/avoid this sentence.

Response:

This sentence has been rephrased in the revised paper (line 303-306).

11. L157:162: briefly mention the socioeconomic data? GDP? why per capita emissions used?

Response:

We have added the detail socioeconomic data in the revised manuscript (line 142-144). In general, higher SO<sub>2</sub> emissions are reported in those populated and industrialized regions. The use of per capita emission was to highlight the significance of SO<sub>2</sub> emission in northwestern China and the fairness in accounting for SO<sub>2</sub> emissions across China.

12. Results and discussion section is disorganized throughout. For the results section, first describe the decreases in  $SO_2$  over eastern China (as already reported in earlier publications), and focus more on the northwestern region (regions with increasing trend; this is the novel aspect of this paper?) in a separate sub-section.

Response:

Following the Reviewer's suggestion, we have reorganized Results and Discussion section. In subsection 3.1 'OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> in China', we briefly discussed spatial-temporal distribution and fluctuations of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in China with focus on eastern and southern China. In subsection 3.2 'OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> 'hot spots' in northwestern China', we highlighted two SO<sub>2</sub> contaminated 'hot spots' featured by increasing SO<sub>2</sub> VCDs in two large-scale energy industrial bases. In subsection 3.3 'OMI SO<sub>2</sub> time series and step change point year in northwestern China', we extended our discussions and analysis from the increasing SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the two 'hot spots' to entire northwestern China which might be linked with SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in those energy

industrial bases. To be consistence with the new paper flow in the section, we moved Fig. 8 to subsection 3.1 as Fig. 6.

13. Figure 4: color bar should have the units.

Response:

Done!

14. L385:393: describe 'source detection approach' (describe vertical column vs 'burden'; 'emission burden' a rate?) in the method section more clearly; and describe Figure 10/11 here in the results section itself. Better to overlay the column density data in figure 11. Also, a map of column density possible in figure 10 to see it in the context of these burden maps?

Response:

Detailed source detection approach has been added to Date and Method section in the revised paper. We also presented detailed descriptions of  $SO_2$  emission estimate in new section 2.4. There was an error in previous Fig. 10. In figure caption and corresponding discussions we talked about  $SO_2$  emission burden. In the revised paper Fig. 10 shows  $SO_2$  VCD. Corresponding discussions were also revised (line 487-494). The estimated  $SO_2$  emissions using the source detection algorithm (Fioletove et al. 2015, 2016), VCDs, and their respective fractions are illustrated in revised Fig. 11.

15. L462: mention about Particulate Matter (PM) in the introduction section itself.

Response:

We have deleted this phrase.

## **Response to Anonymous Referee #2**

The manuscript discusses  $SO_2$  changes observed by OMI and links them to the national regulations of  $SO_2$  emissions. The paper demonstrates again the usefulness of satellite monitoring of air pollutions in China, the world largest  $SO_2$  emitter. It is shown that major changes in OMI records are linked to the emission reduction legislation. In general, the paper is well written, although some places require clarification. It can be published after minor revisions.

1. It is difficult to follow geographical names used by the authors. For example, Midong appears on p. 8, l. 145, without any mentioning of its location. As I understand, it is a district, but then the authors are talking about Urumqi-Midong region (p. 12, l. 241) and Midong industrial park. Give more information about the cities and regions, provide cities coordinates, show all cities from Figure 2 in Figure 1.

# Response:

We have revised Figure 1. We also added the selected cities shown in Fig. 2 to Figure 1, and marked several "hot spots" regions, including Urumqi-Midong region and Energy Golden Triangle (EGT), Ningdong energy chemical industrial base (NECIB), and Midong energy industrial base (MEIB), in northwestern China in Figure 1.

2. P.7, l. 117, Figure 2. There is an explanation why the Urumqi plot is different from the others. Note that the measured  $SO_2$  concentration at Urumqi is the highest among all cities shown in Figure 2, while the OMI VCD values are the lowest. It suggests that the monitoring stations are located very close to the emission source (a power plant south of Urumqi?) and the emissions are not very large. The  $SO_2$  VCD values of about 0.1 DU are close to the noise level. The emission source is probably not large enough to produce elevated  $SO_2$  values in OMI data.

Response:

The measured SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in Urumqi is the highest among all cities as shown in Fig. 2. However, as the Reviewer noted, the OMI SO<sub>2</sub> VCD value in Urumqi was lower than other selected cities. This may be due to the error from systematic biases in OMI-retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> VCD. Here we used the level 3 OMI PBL SO<sub>2</sub> VCD data produced by the PCA retrievals to estimate the spatiotemporal variation in SO<sub>2</sub> pollution in China. The PCA retrievals have a negative bias over some highly reflective surfaces such as many places in the Sahara (up to -0.5 DU in monthly mean). The systematic bias of PCA retrieval is estimated at ~0.5 DU for regions between 30°S and 30°N and ~0.7-0.9 DU in relatively high latitude regions. Located in northwestern China and covered by Gobi desert in the surrounding regions of Urumqi, lower SO<sub>2</sub> VCD might be yielded by the PCA retrieval over Urumqi compared with other cities (line 264-278). This point has been added to the revised paper.

3. P.8, l. 145, Figure 2. SO2 emissions shown in Figure 2 for Midong are under 25 kt per year. OMI is not sensitive enough to see such emission sources, its sensitivity level is 30-40 kt per year (Fioletov et al., 2016). If there is a OMI hotspot in the area, that it is likely that the emissions from the source responsible for that hotspot are not in the emission inventory.

# Response:

We agree with the Reviewer's comments. As shown in Figure 3, the OMI measured  $SO_2$  VCD in Urumqi-Midong from 2008 to 2012 was approximately 0.2 DU that was comparable with that in the EGT. However,  $SO_2$  emission in Urumqi-Midong was only 4% of that in the EGT in 2012. In particular,  $SO_2$  emission in Urumqi-Midong was 0.5% of that in the EGT from 2008 to 2010. This is probably because  $SO_2$  emission sources were not reported in emission inventory. Atmospheric removal and advection processes may also contribute to the inconsistence between monitored and satellite observations. These arguments have been added to the revised manuscript (line 287-303).

4. P. 19, l. 388-393 and Figure 10. This part is not clear. Papers McLinden et al., 2016, and Fioletov et al., 2016, used OMI Level 2 data merged with the wind profiles to estimate emissions from point sources. As I understand, the authors used Level 3 gridded data. What wind data were used and how the time was determined for grid cells? What is actually shown in Figure 10? The legend is in molecules, i.e., it can be interpreted as total SO2 mass. The caption says that it is in DU. Or, is it the emission rate? If the authors estimated emissions, they should elaborate more on the results. Do the estimated emissions agree with the reported ones? Are there any other sources within the areas shows in the two squares of Figure 10? If so, why are they not on the plot?

# Response:

We thank the Reviewer to point out this confusion. There was an error in previous Fig. 10. In old figure 10 caption and corresponding discussions we talked about  $SO_2$  emission burden. In the revised paper Fig. 10 shows  $SO_2$  VCD. Corresponding discussions were also revised (line 487-494). The estimated  $SO_2$  emissions using the source detection algorithm (Fioletove et al. 2015, 2016), VCDs, and their respective fractions are illustrated in revised Fig. 11. In a new subsection 2.4, we presented the details of  $SO_2$  emission estimate using the source detection algorithm developed by Fioletov et al. (2015, 2016) in which wind speed data were used.

We estimated the SO<sub>2</sub> burden (in number of molecules in  $10^{26}$ ) which represents the total SO<sub>2</sub> mass. Again we thank the reviewer to indicate the error in the unit of SO<sub>2</sub> burden. Now the revised Fig. 10 shows SO<sub>2</sub> VCD with the unit of DU. Revised Fig. 11 shows the estimated SO<sub>2</sub> emission with the unit of kt/yr (Fig. 11a and b) and VCD with the unit of DU (Fig. 11c and d) in MEIB and NECIB, respectively.

5. P.19, l. 393 and p. 20, 398, also Figure 11. The authors are talking about "SO<sub>2</sub> burthen" and then "SO<sub>2</sub> emission burdens" both in molecules. Are these two terms the same? It they are in molecules, they represent the total mass integrated over an area and it is more convenient to show them in tones. If they represent emissions, they should be in units of mass per unit of time. Something is missing here.

Response:

Please see our last response to the Reviewer. Revised Fig. 11 now illustrates the estimated  $SO_2$  emission (Fig. 11a and b) and VCD (Fig. 11c and d) in MEIB and NECIB using the source detection algorithm. In text, "SO<sub>2</sub> emission burdens" have been changed to "SO<sub>2</sub> emission".

6. P. 35, Table 1. What are the units in the OMI SO<sub>2</sub> VCD column? Are the values in % per year for all columns except the last two where the values are in % per 5 years? Please clarify.

Response:

Table 1 presents the annual growth rate for OMI SO<sub>2</sub> VCD and economic activities for individual provinces and municipality during 2005-2014 (% yr<sup>-1</sup>). For OMI SO<sub>2</sub> VCD column, they represented annual growth rate of spatially averaged SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the individual regions. In Table 1, the last two columns represented SO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction plan during the 11th and 12th Five-Year Plan period, released by Chinese government every five years.

### OMI measured increasing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions due to energy industry

### expansion and relocation in Northwestern China

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#### 1 Abstract

2 The rapid growth of economy growth makes China the largest energy consumer and sulfursulphur dioxide  $(SO_2)$  emitter in the world. In this study, we estimated the trends 3 and step changes in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) vertical column density (VCD) 4 of SO<sub>2</sub> from 2005 to 2015 over China measured by the Ozone Monitoring Instrument 5 (OMI). We show that these trends and step change years coincide with the effective 6 date and period of the national strategy for energy development and relocation in 7 8 northwestern China and the regulations in the reduction of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Under the 9 national regulations in the reduction SO<sub>2</sub> emissions reduction in eastern and southern 10 China, SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) of southern China exhibited the largest decline during 2005-2015 at a rate of -7% yr<sup>-1</sup>, followed by the North China 11 Plain (NCP) (-6.7% yr<sup>-1</sup>), Sichuan Basin (-6.3% yr<sup>-1</sup>), and Yangtze River Delta (YRD) 12 (-6% yr<sup>-1</sup>), respectively. The Mann–Kendall (MK) test reveals the step change points 13 14 of declining SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in 2009 for the PRD and 2012-2013 for eastern China responding to the implementation of SO<sub>2</sub> control regulation in these regions. In 15 contrast, the MK test and regression analysis also revealed increasing trends of SO<sub>2</sub> 16 VCD in northwestern China, particularly for several "hot spots" featured by growing 17 SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in those large-scale energy industry basesparks in northwestern China. The 18 19 enhanced SO<sub>2</sub> VCD is potentially attributable to increasing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions due to the 20 development of large-scale energy industry bases in energy-abundant northwestern China under the national strategy for the energy safety of China in the 21st century. 21 We show that these large-scale energy industry bases could overwhelm the trends and 22

changes in provincial total SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in northwestern China and contributed increasingly to the national total SO<sub>2</sub> emission in China. Given that northwestern China is more ecologically fragile and uniquely susceptible to atmospheric pollution as compared with the rest of China, increasing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in this part of China should not be overlooked and merit scientific research.

28

### 29 1. Introduction

30 Sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) is one of the criteria air pollutants emitted from both anthropogenic and natural sources. The combustions of sulfur-containing fuels, such 31 32 as coal and oil, are the primary anthropogenic emitters, which contributed to the half of total SO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Smith et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2010; Stevenson et al., 2003; 33 Whelpdale et al., 1996).\_With the rapid economic growth in the past decades, China 34 35 has become the world's largest energy consumer accounting for 23% of global energy consumption in 2015 (BIEE, 2016). Coal has been a dominating energy source in 36 China and accounted for 70% of total energy consumption in 2010 (Kanada et al., 37 2013). The huge demand forto coal and its high sulfur content make China the largest 38 SO<sub>2</sub> emission source in the world (Krotkov et al., 2016; Su et al., 2011), which also 39 40 accounted for two-third of Asia's total SO<sub>2</sub> emission (Ohara et al., 2007). From 2000 to 2006, the total SO<sub>2</sub> emission in China increased by 53% at an annual growth rate of 41 7.3% (Lu et al., 2010). To reduce  $SO_2$  emission, from 2005 onward the Chinese 42 government has issued and implemented a series of regulations, strategies, and SO<sub>2</sub> 43 control measures, leading to a drastic decrease of SO<sub>2</sub> emission, particularly in eastern 44

#### 45 and southern China (Lu et al., 2011; Li et al., 2010).

Recently, two research groups led by NASA (National Aeronautics and Space 46 Administration) and Lanzhou University of China published almost simultaneously 47 the temporal and spatial trends of SO<sub>2</sub> in China from 2005 to 2015 using the OMI 48 retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> PBL column density after the OMI is launched for 11 years 49 (Krotkov et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2016). The results reported by the two groups 50 51 revealed the widespread decline of SO2 in eastern China for the past decade. Shen et al. 52 noticed, however, that, in contrast to dramatic decreasing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in densely populated and industrialized eastern and southern China, the OMI measured SO2 in 53 northwestern China appeared not showing a decreasing trend. This is likely resulted 54 from the energy industry relocation and development in energy-abundant 55 56 northwestern China in the past decades under the national strategy for China's energy 57 development and safety during the 21st century. Concern is raised about for the potential impact of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions on the ecological environment and health risk in 58 northwestern China because high SO<sub>2</sub> emissions could otherwise damage the rigorous 59 ecological environment in this part of China, featured by very low precipitation and 60 sparse vegetation coverage which reduce considerably the atmospheric removal of air 61 62 pollutants (Ma and Xu, 2017).

To assess and evaluate the risks of the ecological environment and public to the growing  $SO_2$  emissions in northwestern China, it is necessary to investigate the spatiotemporal distributions of  $SO_2$  concentrations and emissions. However, the ground measurements of ambient  $SO_2$  are scarce temporally and spatially in China,

67	and often subject to significantlarge errors and uncertainties. Owing to the rapid
68	progresses in the remote sensing techniques, satellite retrieval of air pollutants has
69	become a powerful tool forin the assessment of emissions and spatiotemporal
70	distributions of air pollutants. In recent several years, OMI (Dutch Space, Leiden, The
71	Netherlands, embedded on Aura satellite) retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> column concentrations have
72	been increasingly applied to elucidate the spatiotemporal variation of global and
73	regional SO <sub>2</sub> levels and its emissions from large point sources, and evaluate the
74	effectiveness of SO <sub>2</sub> control policies and measures (Krotkov et al., 2016; McLinden et
75	al., 2015, 2016; Ialongo et al., 2015; Fioletov et al., 2015, 2016; Wang et al., 2015;
76	Li et al., 2010). The decadal operation of the OMI provides the relatively long-term
77	$SO_2$ time series data with <u>a high</u> spatial resolution which are particular <u>ly</u> useful for
78	assessing the changes and trends in SO <sub>2</sub> emissions induced by national regulations
79	and strategies. The present study aims to (1) determineassess the spatiotemporal
80	variations of SO <sub>2</sub> and its trend under the national $\frac{\text{plan}\text{strategy}}{\text{plan}\text{strategy}}$ for energy industry
81	development in northwestern China by making use of the OMI-measured $SO_2$ data
82	during 2005-2015; (2) to identify leading causes contributing to the enhanced $SO_2$
83	emission in northwestern China.further examine the usefulness of the satellite remote
84	sensing of air quality.
85	
86	2 Data and methods

**2.1 Satellite data** 

88 The OMI Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) was launched on July 15, 2004,

89	on the EOS Aura satellite, which is in a sun-synchronous ascending polar orbit with
90	1:45 pm local equator crossing time. It is an ultraviolet/visible (UV/VIS) nadir solar
91	backscatter spectrometer, which provides nearly global coverage in one day, with a
92	spatial resolution of 13 km×24 km (Levelt et al. 2006a, 2006b). It provides global
93	measurements of ozone (O <sub>3</sub> ), SO <sub>2</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , HCHO and other pollutants on a daily basis.
94	The OMI uses spectral measurements between 310.5 and 340 nm in the UV-2 to
95	detect anthropogenic SO <sub>2</sub> pollution in the lowest part of the atmosphere (Li et al.,
96	2013). The instrument is sensitive enough to detect the near-surface $SO_2$ . Previously,
97	the OMI PBL SO <sub>2</sub> data were produced using the Band Residual Difference (BRD)
98	algorithm (Krotkov et al., 2006), which have large noise and unphysical biases
99	particularly at high latitudes (Krotkov et al., 2008). Subsequently, a principal
100	component analysis (PCA) algorithm was applied to retrieve SO <sub>2</sub> column densities.
101	This approach greatly reduces biases and decreases the noise by a factor of 2,
102	providing greater sensitivity to anthropogenic emissions (Li et al., 2013).
103	In the present study, we We collected the level 3 OMI daily planetary
104	boundary layer (PBL) SO <sub>2</sub> vertical column density (VCD) data in Dobson units (1
105	DU= $2.69 \times 10^{16}$ molecules cm <sup>-2</sup> ) produced by the principal component analysis (PCA)
106	algorithm (Li et al., 2013). The spatial resolution is 0.25°×0.25° latitude/ longitude,
107	available at Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services Center
108	(http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/Aura/data-holdings/OMI/omso2_v003.shtml). The systematic
109	bias of PCA retrievals is estimated as ~0.5 DU for regions between 30°S and 30°N. The
110	bias increases to ~0.7-0.9 DU for high latitude areas with large slant column $O_3$ but is still a

111	factor of two smaller than that from BRD retrievals
112	(https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/Aura/data-holdings/OMI/documents/v003/omso2readme-v120-2
113	0140926.pdf). As a result, the PCAThis algorithm may yield systematic errors for
114	anthropogenic emission sources located in different latitudes and under complex
115	topographic and underlying surface conditions. The air mass factors (AMFs) used to
116	convertyields one-step SO2 slant column density (SCD) into VCD are also subject to
117	uncertainties However, as Fioletov et al. (2016) revealed an overall AMF uncertainty of
118	28% which was created by surface reflectivity, surface pressure, ozone column, and cloud
119	fraction. As Fioletov et al. (2016) noted, the PCA retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> VCD was virtually derived
120	by <u>using</u> adoption of an effective air mass factor (AMF) of 0.36 which is best applicable in
121	the summertime in the eastern United States (US). The algorithm may cause systematic
122	errors if anthropogenic emission sources are located in different latitudes and under
123	complex topographic and underlying surface conditions. For instance, Wang (2014)
124	suggested adopting has shown that AMF ~0.57 in the estimate of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD distribution in
125	eastern China. In the present study, we have takenadopted the AMFs values in China
126	provided by Fioletov et al. (2016) to adjust OMI measured VCD in the estimation of the
127	$SO_2$ emission burden of the main major point sources in northwestern China.
128	2.2 SO <sub>2</sub> monitoring, emission, and socioeconomic data
129	Figure 1 is a China map which highlights 6 provinces in northwestern China,
130	including Shaanxi, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia, Xinjiang, and Inner Mongolia.
131	Traditionally, Inner Mongolia is not classified as a northwestern province in China.
132	Given that the most energy resources in Inner Mongolia are located in its western

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133	part of this province (Fig. 1), here we include this province in northwestern China.
134	North China Plain (NCP), Beijing Tianjin Hebei (BTH), Yangtze River Delta (YRD),
135	Pearl River Delta (PRD), and Sichuan Basin are also shown in the map. To evaluate
136	and verify the spatial SO <sub>2</sub> VCD from OMI, we collected ground SO <sub>2</sub> monitoring data
137	of 2014 through 2015 at 188 sampling sites (cities) across China (Fig.(Figure 1),
138	operated by the National Environmental Monitoring Center, available at
139	http://www.aqistudy.cn/historydata. The statistics between OMI retrieved SO2-VCD
140	and monitored monthly and annually averaged $SO_2$ air concentrations during
141	2014-2015 at 188 operational air quality monitoring stations across China are
142	presented in Table S1 of Supplement. Figure S1 is the correlation diagram between
143	SO₂ VCD and sampled data. As shown in <b>Table</b> _ Annually averaged S1 and Fig. S1,
144	the OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs agree well with the monitored ambient SO <sub>2</sub>
145	concentrations across China at the correlation coefficient of 0.85 (p<0.05) (Table
146	S1). Figure 2 further compared annually averaged $SO_2$ VCDs and $SO_2$ air
147	concentrations from 2005 to 2015 in 6 capital cities in Urumqi (Xinjiang), Yinchuan
148	(Ningxia), Beijing (BTH and NCP), Shanghai (YRD), Guangzhou (PRD), and
149	Chongqing (Sichuan Basin), respectively. The mean SO <sub>2</sub> concentration data were
150	collected from provincial environmental bulletin published by the Ministry of
151	Environmental Protection of China (MEPC)
152	( <u>http://www.zhb.gov.cn/hjzl/zghjzkgb/gshjzkgb</u> .— <mark>Results show that the annual</mark>
153	variation of mean SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs match well with the monitored data except for Urumqi,
154	the capital of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous region. The OMI retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs in

155	Shanghai and Chongqing are higher than the measured SO <sub>2</sub> concentrations from
156	2010 to 2015 but the both show consistent temporal fluctuation and trend The
157	measured SO2-concentrations peaked in 2013 in Yinchuan whereas the SO2 VCD
158	reached the peak in 2012 and decreased thereafter. OMI measured SO2 VCDs in
159	Urumqi show different yearly fluctuations compared with its annual concentrations.
160	The measured SO <sub>2</sub> -concentrations in Urumqi decreased from 2011 to 2015 whereas
161	the OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> -VCDs did not illustrate obvious changes. It is not clear the
162	causes leading to such the inconsistence. Measured concentrations might be subject
163	to errors or not properly reported. Since the monitored SO2 concentrations were
164	collected in the urban area spatially averaged over 8 monitoring sites across the city
165	whereas the OMI measured $SO_2$ VCD was averaged over all model grid points
166	(0.25×0.25 latitude/longitude resolution) in Urumqi city. This could also result in the
167	inconsistence between SO2 VCD and measured data. However, such the error
168	appeared not occurring in other cities.
169	— SO <sub>2</sub> anthropogenic emission inventory in China with a $0.25^{\circ}$ longitude by $0.25^{\circ}$
170	latitude resolution for every two years from 2008 to 2012 was adopted from Multi
171	resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) (Li et al., 2017, available at
172	http://www.meicmodel.org)The comparison between annual OMI SO2-VCD and
173	$SO_2$ emissions in China is presented in Fig. 3. As shown, the annual variation in $SO_2$
174	VCDs also agrees reasonably well with SO2 emission data except for Midong. The
175	OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the PRD and Sichuan Basin decreased from 2008 to
176	2012

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177	<u>but SO<sub>2</sub> emission changed little. Compared with the other five marked regions,</u>
178	the satellite measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in Midong declined in 2010 and inclined in 2012.
179	However, $SO_2$ emissions in Midong increased in 2012 at about factor of 11 and 8
180	higher than that in 2008 and 2010. It should be noted that the MEIC SO <sub>2</sub> emission
181	inventory from the bottom-up approach might be subject to large uncertainties due to
182	the lack of sufficient knowledge in human activities and emissions from different
183	sources (Li et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2011; Kurokawa et al., 2013). From this
184	perspective, the satellite remote sensing provides a powerful tool in monitoring $SO_2$
185	emissions from large point sources and the verification of emission inventories
186	(Fioletov et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2015).
187	——The socioeconomic data in China were collected from the China Statistical
188	Yearbooks and China Energy Statistical Yearbook, published by National Bureau of
189	Statistics of China (NBSC).
190	(http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/ndsj/;http://tongji.cnki.net/kns55/Navi/-
191	HomePage.aspx?id=N2010080088&name=YCXME&floor=1), as well as China
192	National Environmental Protection Plan in the Eleventh Five-Years (2006-2010) and
193	Twelfth Five-Years (2011-2015) released by MEPC (http://www.zhb.gov.cn). These
194	data include industrial GDP, coal consumption, thermal power generation, steel
195	production, and SO <sub>2</sub> emission reduction plan, and they are presented in Table 1.
196	2.3 Trends and step change
197	The long-term trends of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD were estimated by linear regressions of the

198 gridded annually  $SO_2$  VCD against their time sequence of 2005 through 2015. The

Formatted: Adjust space between Latin and Asian text, Adjust space between Asian text and numbers gridded slopes (trends) of the linear regressions denote the increasing (positive) or
decreasing (negative) rates of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (Wang et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2015;
Zhang et al., 2015, 2016).

The Mann-Kendall (MK) test was also employed in the assessments of the 202 203 temporal trend and step change point year of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD time series. The MK test is a nonparametric statistical test (Mann, 1945; Kendall, 1975), which is useful for 204 assessing the significance of trends in time series data (Waked et al., 2016; Fathian et 205 206 al., 2016). The MK test is often used to detect a step change point in the long term 207 trend of a time series dataset (Moraes et al., al, 1998; Li et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 208 <u>2015</u>).2016). It is suitable for non-normally distributed data and censored data which are not influenced by abnormal values (Yue and Pilon, 2004; Sharma et al. 2016; Yue 209 and Wang., 2004; Gao et al. 2016; Zhao et al., 2015). Recently, MK-test has also 210 211 been used in trend analysis for the time series of atmospheric chemicals, such as persistent organic pollutants, surface ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), and non-methane hydrocarbon 212 (Zhao et al., 2015; Assareh et al., 2016; Waked et al., 2016; Sicard et al., 2016). Here 213 the MK test was used to identify the temporal variability and step change point of 214 SO<sub>2</sub> VCD for 2005-2015 which may be associated with the implementation of the 215 216 national strategy and regulation in energy industry development and emission 217 control during this period. of time. Under the null hypothesis (no trend), the test 218 statistic was determined using the following formula:

219 
$$S_k = \sum_{i=1}^k r_i \ (k=2, 3, ..., n)$$
(1)

220 where  $S_k$  is a statistic of the MK test, and

$$r_{i} = \begin{cases} +1, (x_{i} > x_{j}) \\ 0, (x_{i} \le x_{j}) \end{cases} \quad (j=1,2, ..., i-1)$$
(2)

where  $x_i$  is the variable in time series  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_i, r_i$  is the cumulative number for  $x_i > x_j$ . The test statistic is normally distributed with a mean and variance <u>is given by</u>:

224 
$$E(S_k) = k(k-1)/4$$
 (3)

225 
$$Var(S_k) = \frac{k(k-1)(2k+5)}{72}$$
(4)

226 From these two equations, one can derive a normalized  $S_i$ , defined by

227 
$$UF_{k} = \frac{S_{k} - E(S_{k})}{\sqrt{Var(S_{k})}} \quad (k=1, 2, ..., n)$$
(5)

where  $UF_k$  is the forward sequence, the backward sequence  $UB_k$  is calculated using the same function but with the reverse data series such that  $UB_k$ =- $UF_k$ .

230 In a two-sided trend test, a null hypothesis is accepted at the significance level if  $|(UF_k)| \le (UF_k)_{1-\alpha/2}$ , where  $(UF_k)_{1-\alpha/2}$  is the critical value of the standard normal 231 distribution, with a probability of a. When the null hypothesis is rejected (i.e., when 232 any of the points in  $UF_k$  exceeds the confidence interval ±1.96; P=0.05), a 233 <u>significantly</u> significant increasing or decreasing trend is determined.  $UF_k > 0$  often 234 indicates an increasing trend, and vice versa. The test statistic used in the present 235 236 study enables us to discriminate the approximate time of trend and step change by 237 locating the intersection of the  $UF_k$  and  $UB_k$  curves. The intersection occurring within the confidence interval (-1.96, 1.96) indicates the beginning of a step change point 238 (Moraes\_et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2015). 239

240 <u>2.4 Estimate of SO<sub>2</sub> emission from OMI measurements</u>



258 decay time of SO<sub>2</sub>, and  $\sigma$  describes the width or spread of SO<sub>2</sub>.

259	The $f(x, y)$ function represents the Gaussian distribution across the wind direction
260	line. The function $g(y, s)$ represents an exponential decay along the y-axis smoothed
261	by a Gaussian function. Once $\sigma$ and $\underline{\tau}$ are determined, the SO <sub>2</sub> burden as a function
262	of x, y, and s (OMI SO <sub>2</sub> (x, y, s)) can be reconstructed. SO <sub>2</sub> emission strength from a
263	large point source can be estimated by $E=a/\tau$ . In the present study, following Fioletov
264	(2016) we choose a mean value of $\sigma$ =20 km and $\tau$ =6 h in the calculation of SO <sub>2</sub>
265	emission large point sources of interested. Wind speed and direction on a 1°×1°
266	latitude/longitude spatial resolution were collected from NCEP (National Centers for
267	Environmental Prediction) Final Operational Global Analysis
268	(http://dss.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/). These data were interpolated to the location of
269	each OMI pixel center on a 1/4°×1/4° latitude/longitude spacing.
270	There are several potential sources of errors which need to be taken into account
271	when determining the overall uncertainty of the SO <sub>2</sub> emission estimation. Fioletov et
272	al. (2016) have highlighted three primary sources of errors in the OMI-based emission
273	estimates, including AMF, the estimation of the total SO <sub>2</sub> mass as determined from a
274	linear regression, and the selection of $\sigma$ and $\tau$ used to fit OMI measurements. Based
275	on the coefficients of variation (CV, %) in these three error categories (McLinden et
276	al., 2014, 2016; Fioletov et al.; 2016) listed in Table S1 of Supplement, we estimated
277	uncertainties in the SO <sub>2</sub> emissions derived from OMI measurements in the two major
278	point sources in northwestern China by running the source detection model repeatedly
279	for 10,000 times using Monte Carlo method. Results show the standard deviation of

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280	-35 to 122 kt/yr for SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in NECIB and -29 to 95 kt/yr for SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in
281	MEIB from 2005 to 2015, respectively.
282	2.5 Satellite data validation
283	The OMI retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> PBL VCDs were evaluated by comparing with ambient
284	air concentration data of SO <sub>2</sub> from routine measurements by local official
285	operational air quality monitoring stations. The statistics between OMI retrieved SO <sub>2</sub>
286	VCD and monitored annually averaged SO <sub>2</sub> air concentrations during 2014-2015 at
287	188 operational air quality monitoring stations across China are presented in Table
288	<b>S2</b> of Supplement. Figure S1 is the correlation diagram between SO <sub>2</sub> VCD and
289	sampled data. As shown in Table S2 and Fig. S1, the OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs
290	agree well with the monitored ambient SO <sub>2</sub> concentrations across China at the
291	correlation coefficient of 0.85 (p<0.05) (Table S2). Figure 2 further compares
292	annually averaged SO <sub>2</sub> VCD and SO <sub>2</sub> air concentrations from 2005 to 2015 in 6
293	capital cities. These are Urumqi, Yinchuan, Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and
294	Chongqing, respectively. The mean SO <sub>2</sub> concentration data were collected from
295	provincial environmental bulletin published by the Ministry of Environmental
296	Protection of China (MEPC) (http://www.zhb.gov.cn/hjzl/zghjzkgb/gshjzkgb).
297	Results show that the annual variation of mean SO <sub>2</sub> VCD are higher than the
298	measured SO <sub>2</sub> concentrations from 2010 to 2015, but SO <sub>2</sub> VCD match well with the
299	monitored data except for Urumqi, the capital of Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous
300	Region. The OMI retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs in Shanghai and Chongqing are higher than
301	the measured concentrations in these two regions show consistent temporal

302	fluctuation and trend. The measured SO <sub>2</sub> concentrations peaked in 2013 in Yinchuan
303	whereas the SO <sub>2</sub> VCD reached the peak in 2012 and decreased thereafter. OMI
304	measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in Urumqi shows different yearly fluctuations compared with its
305	annual concentrations. The measured SO <sub>2</sub> concentrations in Urumqi decreased from
306	2011 to 2015 whereas the OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD did not illustrate obvious
307	changes. In particular, the monitored mean SO <sub>2</sub> concentration from 2013 to 2015
308	decreased by 75% compared with that from 2005 to 2012. This is partly attributed to
309	the change in air quality monitoring sites in Urumqi city. Before 2013, there were
310	only three operational air quality sites in Urumqi City, all located in the heavily
311	polluted downtown region. Since 2013, the air monitoring sites increased from 3 to 7.
312	The four new sites are located in less polluted suburbs of the city. As a result, the
313	spatially averaged SO <sub>2</sub> concentrations over 3 downtown air quality monitoring sites
314	before 2013 were higher than the mean concentrations averaged over 7 monitoring
315	sites (http://xjny.ts.cn/content/2012-06/05/content 6899388.htm). It is worth noting
316	that the measured $SO_2$ concentration in Urumqi is the highest among all cities as
317	shown in Fig. 2 whereas the OMI VCD value in Urumqi was lower than other
318	selected cities. This may be due to systematic biases in OMI-retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> VCD. In
319	the present study, the level 3 OMI PBL SO <sub>2</sub> VCD data produced by the PCA
320	retrievals were used to estimate the spatiotemporal variation in SO <sub>2</sub> pollution in
321	China. The PCA retrievals have a negative bias over some highly reflective surfaces
322	in arid and semi-arid lands, such as many some places in the Sahara (up to about -0.5
323	DU in monthly mean VCD )

324	(https://disc.gsfc.nasa.gov/Aura/data-holdings/OMI/documents/v003/omso2readme-
325	v120-20140926.pdf). Also, PCA retrievals is subject to the systematic bias of 0.7-0.9
326	DU in relatively high latitude regions. Located at a relatively high latitude in
327	northwestern China with a large surrounding area covered by Gobi desert, the PCA
328	algorithm might yield lower SO <sub>2</sub> VCD value in Urumqi than other cities shown in
329	<u>Fig. 2.</u>
330	SO <sub>2</sub> emissions data were further collected to compare with annual OMI SO <sub>2</sub>
331	VCD in selected regions. The results are presented in Fig. 3. As shown, the annual
332	variation in SO <sub>2</sub> VCD agrees reasonably well with SO <sub>2</sub> emission data except for
333	Urumqi-Midong region. The OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the PRD and Sichuan Basin
334	decreased from 2008 to 2012, but SO <sub>2</sub> emission changed little. Compared with the
335	other five marked regions (Fig. 1), the satellite measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in
336	Urumqi-Midong declined in 2010 and inclined in 2012. However, SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in
337	Urumqi-Midong 2012 are factors of 11 and 8 higher than that in 2008 and 2010,
338	respectively. It should be noted that air pollutants released in the atmosphere are
339	affected by physical and chemical processes. They may be transported over large
340	distances by atmospheric motions, transformed into other compounds by chemical or
341	photochemical processes, and "washed out" or deposited at the Earth's surface (Zhao
342	et al., 2017; Brasseur et al., 1998). The atmospheric removal and advection processes
343	may also contribute to the inconsistency between monitored and satellite observations.
344	In addition, the MEIC SO <sub>2</sub> emission inventory from the bottom-up approach might be
345	subject to large uncertainties due to data manipulation, and the lack of sufficient

346	knowledge in human activities and emissions from different sources (Li et al., 2017;
347	Zhao et al., 2011; Lu et al., 2011; Kurokawa et al., 2013). The uncertainties in the
348	<u>MEIC</u> estimated SO <sub>2</sub> emissions used in the present study are up to $\pm 12\%$ (Li et al.,
349	2017). As shown in Fig. 3, the OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCD from 2008 to 2012 in
350	Urumqi-Midong was about 0.2 DU which was comparable with that in the EGT.
351	However, the reported SO <sub>2</sub> emission in Urumqi-Midong was only 4% of the SO <sub>2</sub>
352	emission in the EGT in 2012 and 0.5% of that in the EGT from 2008 to 2010. It might
353	be subject to that part large SO <sub>2</sub> emission sources were not included in emission
354	inventory. From this perspective, the satellite remote sensing provides a very useful
355	tool in monitoring SO <sub>2</sub> emissions from large point sources and in the verification of
356	emission inventories (Fioletov et al., 2015, 2016; McLinden et al., 2016; Wang et al.,
357	<u>2015; ).</u>

358

### 359 3 Results and discussion

### 360 **3.1. Spatiotemporal variation in OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> in China**

Given higher population density and stronger industrial activities, eastern and southern China are traditionally industrialized and heavily contaminated regions by air pollutions and acid rains caused by SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. **Figure 4a** shows annually averaged OMI SO<sub>2</sub> VCD over China on a  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  latitude/longitude resolution averaged from 2005 to 2015. SO<sub>2</sub> VCD was higher considerably in eastern and central China, and Sichuan Basin than that in northwestern China. The highest SO<sub>2</sub> VCD was found in the NCP, including Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH), Shandong, Formatted: Font: Not Superscript/ Subscript

368	and Henan province. The annually averaged $SO_2$ VCD between 2005-2015 in this
369	region reached 1.36 DU. This result is in line with previous satellite remote sensing
370	retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in eastern China (Krotkov et al 2016; Lu et al., 2010;
371	Bauduin et al., 2016; Jiang et al 2012; Yan et al., 2014). However, in contrast to the
372	spatial distribution of decadal mean $SO_2$ VCD (Fig. 4a), the slopes of the linear
373	regression relationship between annual average OMI-retrieved $SO_2$ VCD and the
374	time sequence from 2005 to 2015 over China show that the negative trends
375	overwhelmed industrialized eastern and southern China, particularly in the NCP,
376	Sichuan Basin, the YRD, and PRD, manifesting significant decline of SO <sub>2</sub> emissions
377	in these regions. SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the PRD exhibited the largest decline at a rate of $7\%$
378	yr <sup>-1</sup> , followed by the NCP (6.7% yr <sup>-1</sup> ), Sichuan Basin (6.3% yr <sup>-1</sup> ), and the YRD (6%
379	yr <sup>-1</sup> ), respectively. Annual average SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the PRD, NCP, Sichuan Basin, and
380	YRD decreased by 52%, 50%, 48%, and 46% in 2015 compared to 2005 (Fig. 5),
381	though the annual fluctuation of $SO_2$ VCD shows rebounds in 2007 and 2011 which
382	are potentially associated with the economic resurgence stimulated by the central
383	government of China (He et al., 2009; Diao et al., 2012). The reduction of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD
384	after 2011 in these regions reflects virtually the response of $SO_2$ emissions to the
385	regulations in the reduction of $SO_2$ release, the mandatory application of the flue-gas
386	desulfurization (FGD) on coal-fired power plants and heavy industries, and the
387	slowdown in the growth rate of the Chinese economy (CSC, 2011a; Wang et al.,
388	2015, Chen et al., 2016).

389

Since As also shown in Fig. 4b, in contrast to widespread decline of SO<sub>2</sub>

390	VCD, there are two "hot spots" featured by moderate increasing trends of SO <sub><math>\frac{3}{2}</math></sub> VCD,
391	located in the China's Energy Golden Triangle (EGT, Shen et al., 2016, Ma and Xu,
392	2017) and Urumqi-Midong regions in northwestern China. The annual growth rate of
393	$SO_2$ VCD from 2005 to 2015 are 3.4% yr <sup>4</sup> in the EGT and 1.8% yr <sup>4</sup> in
394	Urumqi-Midong, respectively (Fig. 4b). Further details are presented in Table 1.
395	SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs in these two regions peaked in 2011 and 2013 which were 1.6 and 1.7
396	times of that in 2005 (Fig. 5). The raising SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs in the part of the EGT have
397	been reported by Shen et al. (2016). The second hot spot is located in Midong
398	industrial park, about 40 km away from Urumqi, the capital of the Xinjiang Uygur
399	Autonomous Region. The both EGT and Midong industrial parks-are featured by
400	extensive coal mining, thermal power generation, coal chemical, and coal
401	liquefaction industries. The reserve of coal, oil and natural gas in the EGT is
402	approximately 1.05×10 <sup>12</sup> ton of standard coal equivalent, accounting for 24% of the
403	national total energy reserve in China (CRGECR, 2015). It has been estimated that
404	there are deposits of 20.86 billion tons of oil, 1.03 billion cubic meters of natural gas,
405	and 2.19 trillion tons of coal in Xinjiang, accounting for 30%, 34% and 40% of the
406	national total (Dou, 2009). Over the past decades, a large number of energy-related
407	industries have been constructed in northwestern China, such as the EGT and
408	Midong chemical industrial parks in order to enhance China's energy security in the
409	21st century and speed up local economy. Rapid development of energy and coal
410	chemical industries in Ningxia Hui Autonomous region and Xinjiang of
411	northwestern China alone resulted in the significant demands to coal mining and coal

412	products. The coal consumption, thermal power generation, and the gross industrial
413	output increased by 2.7, 3.5, and 6.6 times in Ningxia from 2005 to 2015, and by 2.7,
414	4.2 and 6.6 times in Xinjiang during the same period (NBSC, 2005, 2015). As a
415	result, SO2 emissions increased markedly in these regions, as shown by the
416	increasing trends of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the EGT and Midong (Fig. 4b)Figure 6 illustrates
417	the fractions of OMI measured annual SO <sub>2</sub> VCD and SO <sub>2</sub> emissions averaged over
418	the 6 provinces of northwestern China in the annual national total VCD (Fig. 6a) and
419	emissions (Fig. 6b) from 2005 to 2015. The both SO <sub>2</sub> -VCD and emission fractions in
420	northwestern China in the national total increased over the past decade. By 2015, the
421	mean SO <sub>2</sub> -VCD fraction in 6 northwestern provinces has reached 38% in the national
422	total. The mean emission fraction was about 20% in the national total. It should be
423	noted that there were large uncertainties in provincial SO2-emission data which often
424	underestimated SO <sub>2</sub> -emissions from major point sources (Li et al., 2017; Han et al.,
425	$\frac{2007}{1}$ . In this sense, OMI retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> VCD fraction provides a more reliable
426	estimate to the contribution of SO2 emission in northwestern China to the national
427	<del>total.</del>
428	
429	well with per capita SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in China (Fig. 7). As aforementioned, while the
430	annual total SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in the well developed BTH, YRD, and PRD were higher
431	than that in northwestern provinces, the per capita emissions in all provinces of
432	northwestern China, especially in Ningxia and Xinjiang, were about factors of 1 to 6
433	higher than that in the BTH, YRD, and PRD, as shown in Fig. 7. In contrast to

435

declining annual emissions from the BTH, YRD, and PRD, the per capita SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in almost all western provinces have been growing from 2005 onward.

#### 436 **3.2 Trend and step changes in OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> by MK test**

Given that in the MK test the signs and fluctuations of  $UF_k$  are often used to 437 predict the trend of a time series, this approach is further applied to quantify the trends 438 and step changes in annually SO<sub>2</sub> VCD time series in those highlighted regions (a-f) 439 440 in Fig. 4b from 2005 to 2015. Results are illustrated in Fig. 6.8. As shown, the 441 forward and backward sequences  $UF_k$  and  $UB_k$  intersect at least once from 2005 to 2015. These intersections are all well within the confidence levels between -1.96 and 442 443 1.96 at the statistical significance  $\alpha$ =0.01. A common feature of the forward sequence  $UF_k$  in eastern and southern China provinces is that  $UF_k$  has been declining and 444 become negative from 2007 to 2009 onward (Fig. 6a-d),8a-d), confirming the 445 446 downturn of SO<sub>2</sub> atmospheric emissions and levels in these industrialized and well developed regions in China. In the EGT and Midong areas of northwestern China (Fig. 447 4b), however, the UF<sub>k</sub> values for SO<sub>2</sub> VCD are positive and growing, illustrating clear 448 upward trends of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD over these two large scale energy industry parks, 449 450 revealing the response of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the energy industry relocation and 451 development in northwestern China.- To guarantee the national energy security and to promote the regional economy, the EGT energy program has been accelerating since 452 2003 under the national energy development and relocation plan (Zhu and Ruth, 2015; 453 Chen et al., 2016), characterized by the rapid expansion of the Ningdong energy and 454 455 chemical industrial base (NECIB) which is located about 40 km away from Yinchuan,

456	the capital of Ningxia (Shen et al., 2016). By the end of 2010, a large number of coal
457	ehemical industries, including the world largest coal liquefaction and thermal power
458	plants, have been built and operated, and the total installed capacity of thermal power
459	generating units has reached 1.47 million kilowatts (Zhao, 2016)developed regions
460	in China. The step change points of OMI measured SO <sub>2</sub> VCDsUnder the same
461	national plan, the Midong industrial park in Xinjiang started to construction and
462	operation from the early to mid-2000s which has almost the same industrial structures
463	as those in the EGT, featured by coal fired power generation, coal chemical industry,
464	and coal liquefaction.

For those regions with declining trends of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD, their step change points in 465 the NCP, YRD and Sichuan Basin occurred between 2012 and 2013. These step 466 change points coincide with the implementation of the new Ambient Air Quality 467 468 Standard in 2012, which set a lower ambient SO<sub>2</sub> concentration limit in the air (MEPC, 2012), and the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan in 2013 by the State 469 Council of China (CSC, 2013a). This Action Plan requests to take immediate actions 470 to control and reduce air pollution in China, including cutting down industrial and 471 mobile emission sources, adjusting industrial and energy structures, and promoting 472 473 the application of clean energy in the BTH, YRD, PRD and Sichuan Basin. The step 474 change in SO<sub>2</sub> VCD over the PRD occurred in the earlier year of 2009-2010 and from this period onward the decline of SO2 VCD speeded up, as shown by the forward 475 sequence  $UF_k$  which became negative since 2007 and was below the confidence level 476 of -1.96 after 2009, suggesting significant decreasing VCD from 2009 (Fig. 6c).8e). 477

478	In April 2002, th	e Hong Kong	Special Admini	strative Regio	on (HKSAR) C	lovernment
479	and the Guangdo	ong Provincial	Government rea	ached a conse	ensus to reduce	e, on a best
480	endeavor basis,	the anthropog	enic emissions	of SO <sub>2</sub> by 40	0% in the PRI	O by 2010,
481	using	1997	as	the	base	year
482	(http://www.epd.	.gov.hk/epd/eng	glish/action_blue	e_sky/files/ex	summary_e.pd	lf). By the
483	end of 2010, all	thermal powe	er units produci	ng more that	n 0.125 million	n kilowatts
484	electricity in the	PRD were eq	uipped with the	FGD. During	g the 11th Five	e-Year Plan
485	(2006-2010), the	e thermal powe	er units with 1.2	2 million kilo	watts capacity	have been
486	shut down. SO <sub>2</sub>	emission was	reduced by 18	% in 2010 c	compared to th	at in 2005
487	(NBSC, 2006, 2	011). This lik	ely caused the	occurrence of	f the step char	nge in SO <sub>2</sub>
488	VCD over 2009-	2010.				
489	3.2. OMI measu	red SO <sub>2</sub> "hot	<u>spots'' in north</u>	western Chi	<u>na</u>	
490	<u>As also sho</u>	<u>wn in <b>Fig. 4b</b>,</u>	in contrast to w	videspread de	<u>cline of SO<sub>2</sub> V</u>	CD, there
491	are two "hot spo	ts" featured by	<u>moderate</u> incre	easing trends	of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD,	located in
492	the China's Ener	gy Golden Tria	angle (EGT, She	<u>en et al., 2016</u>	5, Ma and Xu, 2	<u>2017) and</u>
493	Urumqi-Midong	region in nort	hwestern China.	The annual	growth rate of	<u>SO<sub>2</sub> VCD</u>
494	from 2005 to 20	015 are 3.4%	<u>yr<sup>-1</sup> in the EG</u>	<u>Γ and 1.8%</u>	<u>yr⁻¹ in Urumq</u>	<u>i-Midong,</u>
495	respectively (Fig	g <u>. 4b). <mark>SO</mark>2 V</u>	CD in these tw	<u>o regions pe</u>	aked in 2011	and 2013
496	which were 1.6	and 1.7 times	of that in 2005	(Fig. 5). The	raising SO <sub>2</sub> V	CD in the
497	part of the EGT	have been rep	ported by Shen	<u>et al. (2016).</u>	. The second h	<u>ot spot is</u>
498	located in Urum	qi-Midong reg	<u>ion including M</u>	<u>IEIB that is a</u>	<u>about 40 km a</u>	<u>way from</u>
499	<u>Urumqi. The bo</u>	th EGT and M	<b><u>IEIB</u></b> are feature	ed by extensi	ve coal mining	<u>g, thermal</u>

500	power generation, coal chemical, and coal liquefaction industries. The reserve of
501	coal, oil and natural gas in the EGT is approximately 1.05×10 <sup>12</sup> ton of standard coal
502	equivalent, accounting for 24% of the national total energy reserve in China
503	(CRGECR, 2015). It has been estimated that there are deposits of 20.86 billion tons
504	of oil, 1.03 billion cubic meters of natural gas, and 2.19 trillion tons of coal in
505	Xinjiang, accounting for 30%, 34% and 40% of the national total (Dou, 2009). Over
506	the past decades, a large number of energy-related industries have been constructed
507	in northwestern China, such as the EGT and MEIB to enhance China's energy
508	security in the 21st century and speed up the local economy. The rapid development
509	of energy and coal chemical industries in Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region and
510	Xinjiang of northwestern China alone resulted in the significant demands to coal
511	mining and coal products. The coal consumption, thermal power generation, and the
512	gross industrial output increased by 2.7, 3.5, and 6.6 times in Ningxia from 2005 to
513	2015, and by 2.7, 4.2 and 6.6 times in Xinjiang during the same period (NBSC, 2005,
514	2015). As a result, SO <sub>2</sub> emissions increased markedly in these regions, as shown by
515	the increasing trends of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the EGT and Urumqi-Midong region (Fig. 4b).
516	The MK forward sequence further confirms the increasing SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the EGT
517	and Urumqi-Midong. As seen in Fig. 6e and 6f, the $UF_k$ values for SO <sub>2</sub> VCD are
518	positive and growing, illustrating clear upward trends of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD over these two
519	large-scale energy industry bases, revealing the response of SO <sub>2</sub> emissions to the
520	energy industry relocation and development in northwestern China. To guarantee the
521	national energy security and to promote the regional economy, the EGT energy

522	program has been accelerating since 2003 under the national energy development and
523	relocation plan (Zhu and Ruth, 2015; Chen et al., 2016), characterized by the rapid
524	expansion of the NECIB which is located about 40 km away from Yinchuan, the
525	capital of Ningxia (Shen et al., 2016). By the end of 2010, a large number of coal
526	chemical industries, including the world largest coal liquefaction and thermal power
527	plants, have been built and operated, and the total installed capacity of thermal power
528	generating units has reached 1.47 million kilowatts (Zhao, 2016). Under the same
529	national plan, the MEIB in Xinjiang started to construction and operation from the
530	early to mid-2000s which have almost the same industrial structures as those in the
531	EGT, featured by coal-fired power generation, coal chemical industry, and coal
532	liquefaction.
533	The statistical significant step change points of $SO_2$ VCD in the EGT and
534	Urumqi-Midong took place in 2006 and 2009 (Fig. 6e and 6f)., differing from those
535	regions with decreasing trends of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in eastern and southern China. The first
536	step change point in 2006-2007 corresponds to the increasing $SO_2$ emissions in these
537	two large-scale energy bases till their respective peak emissions in EGT (2007) and
538	Urumqi-Midong (2008). The second step change point in 2009 coincides with the
539	global financial crisis in 2008 which slowed down considerably the economic growth
540	in 2009 in China, leading to raw material surplus and the remarkable reduction in the
541	demand <u>forto</u> coal products.
542	<b>3.3 OMI SO<sub>2</sub> time series and step change point year in northwestern China</b>

western China ige p

The clearly visible "hot spots" featured by increasing OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> VCD 543

544	in the EGT/NECIB and MEIB raise a question: to what extent could these
545	large-scale energy industrial bases affect the trend and fluctuations of SO <sub>2</sub> emissions
546	in northwestern China? Figure 7 illustrates the fractions of OMI measured annual
547	SO <sub>2</sub> VCD and SO <sub>2</sub> emissions averaged over the 6 provinces of northwestern China
548	in the annual national total VCD (Fig. 7a) and emissions (Fig. 7b) from 2005 to
549	2015. The both SO <sub>2</sub> VCD and emission fractions in northwestern China in the
550	national total increased over the past decade. By 2015, the mean SO <sub>2</sub> VCD fraction
551	in 6 northwestern provinces has reached 38% in the national total. The mean
552	emission fraction was about 20% in the national total. It should be noted that there
553	were large uncertainties in provincial SO <sub>2</sub> emission data which often underestimated
554	SO <sub>2</sub> emissions from major point sources (Li et al., 2017; Han et al., 2007). In this
555	sense, OMI retrieved SO <sub>2</sub> VCD fraction provides a more reliable estimate to the
556	contribution of SO <sub>2</sub> emission in northwestern China to the national total.
557	The annual percentage changes in SO <sub>2</sub> VCD from 2005 onward are consistent
558	well with the per capita SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in China (Fig. 8). As aforementioned, while
559	the annual total SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in the well-developed BTH, YRD, and PRD were
560	higher than that in northwestern provinces, the per capita emissions in all provinces
561	of northwestern China, especially in Ningxia and Xinjiang where the NECIB and
562	MEIB are located, were about factors of 1 to 6 higher than that in the BTH, YRD,
563	and PRD, as shown in Fig. 8. In contrast to declining annual emissions from the
564	BTH, YRD, and PRD, the per capita SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in almost all western provinces
565	have been growing from 2005 onward.

Since almost all large-scale coal chemical, thermal power generation, and coal 566 liquefaction industries were built in energy-abundant and sparsely populated 567 northwestern China over the past two decades, particularly since the early 2000s, 568 those large-scale industrial parks and bases in this part of China likely play an 569 570 important role in the growing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in northwestern provinces. We further examine the OMI retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> VCD to confirm and evaluate the changes in SO<sub>2</sub> 571 emissions in northwestern China which should otherwise respond to these 572 573 large-scale energy programs under the national plan for energy relocation and expansion. Figure 9 displays the MK test statistics for SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the 6 provinces 574 575 in northwestern China from 2005-2015. The forward sequence  $UF_k$  suggests decreasing trends in Shaanxi and Gansu provinces and a moderate increase in 576 Qinghai province. In Xinjiang and Ningxia where the most energy industries were 577 578 relocated and developed for the last decade (2005-2015), as aforementioned,  $UF_k$ time series estimated using SO<sub>2</sub> VCD data illustrate clear upward trends. Compared 579 with those well-developed regions in eastern and southern China, the  $UF_k$  values of 580 SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in these northwestern provinces are almost all positive, except for Shaanxi 581 province where the  $UF_k$  turned to negative from 2008, and Gansu province where 582 583 the  $UF_k$  value become negative during 2012-2013.


588	purple line) can be identified in 2006 and 2007 in Ningxia and Xinjiang, respectively
589	corresponding well to the expansion of two largest energy industry bases from 2003
590	onward in Ningxia (NECIB) and Midong energy industry park in Xinjiang (MEIB).
591	The step change point of SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in 2012 in Gansu province coincides with
592	fuel-switching from coal to gas in the capital city (Lanzhou) and many other places
593	of the province initiated from 2012 (CSC, 2013b). The MK derived step change
594	point in Shaanxi province occurredoccurs in 2010 which wasis a clear signal of
595	marked decline of fossil fuel products in northern Shaanxi where, as the part of the
596	EGT (Ma and Xu, 2017) of China, the largest energy industry base in the province is
597	located, right after the global financial crisis.

It is interesting to note that the forward sequences  $UF_k$  of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (Fig. 9e and 598 f) in Ningxia and Xinjiang exhibit the similar fluctuations as that in Ningdong 599 (NECIB) and Urumqi-Midong (MEIB) energy industrial bases (Fig. 9e8e and f), 600 601 manifesting the potential associations between the SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in these two large-scale energy industrial basesparks (major point sources) and provincial 602 emissions in Ningxia and Xinjiang, respectively. This suggests that large-scale energy 603 604 industrial parks and bases might likely overwhelm or play an important role in the SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in those energy-abundant provinces in northwestern China. To assess 605 606 the connections between the major point sources in the two energy industrial parks 607 and the provincial emissions, we made use of OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> VCD to inversely simulate the SO<sub>2</sub> emission burdens in Xinjiang and Ningxia. We used the source 608 609 detection algorithm (McLinden et al., 2016) and the approach, which fits

610	OMI-measured SO <sub>2</sub> -vertical column densities to a three dimensional parameterization
611	function of the horizontal coordinates and wind speed, proposed by Fioletov et al.
612	(2015, 2016), to estimate the SO <sub>2</sub> source strength in the two industrial parks and its
613	contribution to the provincial total $SO_2$ burdens, Figure 10 illustrates mean $SO_2$
614	VCDburdens from 2005 to 2015 in northern Xinjiang (Fig. 10a) and Ningxia (Fig.
615	10b). The largest <u>concentrations</u> burdens can be seen clearly in the <u>MEIBMidong</u>
616	energy industrial base and the NECIB in these two minority autonomous regions of
617	China. Lower SO <sub>2</sub> concentrationsemission burdens are illustrated in mountainous
618	areas of northern Xinjiang. Based on inverse modelingFigure 11 illustrates the annual
619	variations of estimated SO <sub>2</sub> emission burdens ( <u>a</u> , $10^{26}$ molecules) in the source
620	detection model (section 2.4), we estimated SO <sub>2</sub> emission (E, kt yr <sup>-1</sup> ) in the NECIB
621	and MEIB from 2005 to 2015, defined by $E=a/\tau$ , where $\tau$ is a decay time of SO <sub>2</sub>
622	(section 2.4). Midong energy industrial parks (scaled on the left Y axis) and their
623	respective fractions (%, scaled on the right Y axis) in the total provincial SO <sub>2</sub> burdens
624	in Ningxia and Xinjiang, respectively, The results are illustrated in Fig. 11. As shown,
625	<u>the SO<sub>2</sub> emission</u> SO <sub>2</sub> -burden increased from 2005 and reached the maximum in 2011
626	in the NECIB and declined thereafter, in line with the annual SO <sub>2</sub> VCD fluctuations
627	(Fig. 5) in this energy industry base industrial park which is, as aforementioned,
628	attributable to the economic rebound in 2011 in China. Of particular interest is the
629	large fractions of the estimated $SO_2$ emission burden in the NECIB in Ningxia
630	Province (Fig. 11a) from 2005 to 2015. These large fractions suggest, showing that
631	this <u>energy industry</u> industrial park alone contributed <u>up</u> to <u>more than about 40-</u> 50%

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632	emission burdens to the provincial total $SO_2$ emission. Likewise, the <u>OMI</u>
633	SO <sub>2</sub> VCD derived SO <sub>2</sub> emissionsSO <sub>2</sub> emission burden enhanced from 2005 and
634	peaked in the MEIB also made an appreciable contribution (15-20%)2013 in Midong
635	energy industrial park (Fig. 11b). The emission burden in this park contributed about
636	$\frac{25-35\%}{25-35\%}$ to the provincial total SO <sub>2</sub> emission in Xinjiang.burden. Compared with the
637	NECIB, the SO <sub>2</sub> emission burden is higher in the Midong industrial park but has the
638	lower fraction in the provincial total emission burden. Covered by <u>a</u> large area of <u>Gobi</u>
639	desert and Gobi (Junngar Basin), underlying surfaces, there are only a few of SO2
640	emission sources in vast northern Xinjiang region (total area of Xinjiang is $1.66 \times 10^6$
641	$km^2$ ). This likely leads to the small fractions of SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in the MEIB in the total
642	SO <sub>2</sub> emission in Xinjiang. Figure 11c and 11d show SO <sub>2</sub> VCDs (the left y-axis) and
643	the ratios (the right y-axis) of the mean VCDs in NECIB and MEIB to the provincial
644	mean VCDs in Ningxia and Xinjiang from 2005 to 2015, respectively. It can be seen
645	that the maximum mean SO <sub>2</sub> VCD over the MEIB is about a factor of 4.5 greater than
646	the mean SO <sub>2</sub> VCD over Xinjiang province (Fig. 11d), This ratio is larger than the
647	ratio (2.9) of the SO <sub>2</sub> VCD in the NECIB to the SO <sub>2</sub> VCD averaged over Ningxia
648	province (Fig. 11c).km <sup>2</sup> ), leading to the small ratio of the major point source (Midong)
649	to total emission sources in Xinjiang. Nevertheless, overall our results manifest that,
650	although there were only a small number of SO <sub>2</sub> point sources in these two energy
651	industrial <u>bases, parks</u> , the SO <sub>2</sub> emissions from the <u>NECIB and MEIB</u> se parks made
652	significant contributions to provincial total emissions. Given that the national strategy
653	for China's energy expansion and safety during the 21st century is, to a large extent, to

develop large\_-scale energy <u>industry bases</u>industrial parks in northwestern China, particularly in Xinjiang and Ningxia (Zhu and Ruth, 2015; Chen et al., 2016) where the energy resources are most abundant in China, we would expect that the rising SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in northwestern China would increasingly be attributed to those large\_-scale energy <u>industry bases</u>industrial parks and contributed increasingly to the national total SO<sub>2</sub> emission in China.

Table 1 presents the annual average growth rates of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD, industrial 660 661 (second) Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and major coal-consuming industries in northwestern China and three developed areas (BTH, YRD, PRD) in eastern and 662 663 southern China. The positive growth rates of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD can be observed in the three provinces and autonomous regions (Qinghai, Ningxia, and Xinjiang) of northwestern 664 China. Although the growth rates of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in other two provinces (Gansu and 665 666 Shaanxi) are negative, the magnitudes of the negative growth rates are smaller than those in the BTH, YRD, and PRD, except for Zhejiang province in the YRD. This 667 668 regional contrast reflects both their economic and energy development activities, and the SO<sub>2</sub> emission control measures implemented by the local and central 669 governments of China. Although China has set a national target of 10% SO<sub>2</sub> 670 671 emission reduction (relative to 2005) during 2006-2010 and 8% (relative to 2010) 672 during 2011-2015 (CSC, 2007; CSC, 2011b), under the Grand Western Development Program of China, the regulation for  $SO_2$  emission control was waived in those 673 energy-abundant provinces of northwestern China in order to speed up the large-674 scale energy industrial bases and local economic development, and improve local 675

personal income. Also, In addition, although FGDs were widely installed in 676 coal-fired power plants and other industrial sectors since the 1990s, by 2010 as much 677 as 57% of these systems were installed in eastern and southern China (Zhao et al., 678 2013). The capacity of small power generators which were shut-down in western 679 680 China was merely about 10808 MW, only accounting for about 19% of the capacity of total small power plants which were eliminated in China (55630 MW) during the 681 11th Five-Year Plan period (2006-2010) (Cui et al., 2016). As shown in Table 1, the 682 SO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction plans virtually specified the zero percentage of SO<sub>2</sub> emission 683 reductions in Qinghai, Gansu, and Xinjiang and lower reduction percentage in the 684 685 emission reduction in Ningxia and Inner Mongolia as compared to eastern and southern China during the 11th (2006-2010) and 12th (2011-2015) Five-Year Plan. 686 As a result, the average growth rate for thermal power generation, steel production, 687 and coal consumption from 2005 to 2015 in northwestern China reached 14.1% yr<sup>-1</sup>, 688 35.7% yr<sup>-1</sup>, and 11.9% yr<sup>-1</sup>, considerably higher than the averaged growth rates over 689 eastern and southern China (5.9% yr<sup>-1</sup> in the BTH, 0.8% yr<sup>-1</sup> in the YRD, and 2.3% 690  $yr^{-1}$  in the PRD). 691

692

### 693 4 Conclusions

The spatiotemporal variation in SO<sub>2</sub> concentration during 2005-2015 over
China was investigated by making use of the PBL SO<sub>2</sub> column concentrations
measured by the <u>OMI.Ozone Monitoring Instrument</u>. The highest SO<sub>2</sub> VCD was
found in the NCP, the most heavily polluted area by SO<sub>2</sub> and particular matters (PM)

698	in China, including Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, Shandong, and Henan province. Under
699	the national regulation for $SO_2$ control and emission reduction, the $SO_2$ VCD in
700	eastern and southern China underwent widespread decline during this period.
701	However, the OMI measured $SO_2$ VCD detected two "hot spots" in the EGT
702	(Ningxia-Shaanxi-Inner Mongolia) and Midong (Xinjiang) energy industrial
703	bases, parks, in contrast to the declining SO <sub>2</sub> emissions in eastern and southern China,
704	displaying an increasing trend with the annual growth rate of 3.4% yr <sup>-1</sup> in the EGT
705	and 1.8% yr <sup>-1</sup> in Midong, respectively. The trend analysis further revealed enhanced
706	$SO_2$ emissions in most provinces of northwestern China likely due to <u>the</u> national
707	strategy for energy industry expansion and relocation in energy-abundant
708	northwestern China. As a result, per capita SO <sub>2</sub> emission in northwestern China has
709	exceeded industrialized and populated eastern and southern China, making
710	increasing contributions to the national total $SO_2\xspace$ emission. The estimated $SO_2$
711	emissions-burdens in the Ningdong (Ningxia) and Midong (Xinjiang) energy
712	industrial <u>basesparks</u> from OMI measured $SO_2$ VCD showed that the $SO_2$ emissions
713	in these two industrial <u>basesparks</u> made significant contributions to the <u>total</u>
714	provincial total emissions. This indicates, on one side, that the growing $\mathrm{SO}_2$
715	emissions in northwestern China would increasingly come from those large scale
716	energy industrial basesparks under the national energy development and relocation
717	plan. On the other side, this fact also suggests that it is likely more straightforward to
718	control and reduce $SO_2$ emissions in northwestern China because the $SO_2$ control
719	measures could be readily implemented and authorized in those state-owned

large-scale energy industrial bases. 720

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989			<b>Formatted:</b> Space After: 0.5 line, Line spacing: single, Adjust space between Latin and Asian toxt. Adjust space
990			between Asian text and numbers
991	Table 1 Annual growth rate for OMI SO <sub>2</sub> VCD and economic activities for		
992	individual provinces and municipality during 2005-2014 (%_yr <sup>-1</sup> ), and SO <sub>2</sub> emission		
993	reduction plan during the 11th and 12th Five-Year Plan period (%).		

Region		ONUSO	1	coal Industrial	Industrial Thermal power GDP generation	steel production	SO <sub>2</sub> emission reduction plan (%)	
		UMI SO <sub>2</sub>	coal					
		VCD	consumption	GDP			2006-2010 <sup>a</sup>	2011-2015 <sup>b</sup>
	Inner	0.04	11.20	20.48	14.07	0.20	2.0	2.9
	Mongolia	0.94	11.29	20.46	14.07	8.38	-3.8	-3.8
Northruget	Shaanxi	-3.41	13.14	19.96	13.01	14.48	-12	-7.9
Northwest	Gansu	-0.09	6.69	14.19	8.89	9.92	0	2.0
ern	Qinghai	0.69	11.20	18.70	9.88	12.37	0	16.7
	Ningxia	0.95	11.79	17.44	15.04	152.71	-9.3	-3.6
	Xinjiang	1.57	17.21	14.21	23.39	16.27	0	0
	Beijing	-3.59	-6.13	9.13	5.99	-48.52	-20.4	-13.4
BTH	Tianjin	-4.63	3.15	15.84	6.01	10.19	-9.4	-9.4
	Hebei	-5.05	4.16	12.37	6.22	10.70	-15	-12.7
	Shanghai	-7.65	-0.93	6.64	0.86	-0.92	-26.9	-13.7
YRD	Jiangsu	-5.93	5.39	12.51	7.49	13.35	-18.0	-14.8
	Zhejiang	-2.07	4.04	11.40	8.68	13.94	-15.0	-13.3
PRD	Guangdong	-4.55	6.15	12.03	5.92	6.87	-15.0	-14.8

994 a and b represents proposed reduction in SO<sub>2</sub> emission in 2010 relative to 2005, and 2015 relative

to 2010, respectively. The value for PRD refers to the proposed target for Guangdong Province.

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1004 1005 1006 1007 1008 1009 1010 1011 1012 1013 1014 1015 **Figure Captions** 1016 1017 1018 Figure 1 Provinces, autonomous regions, and selected regions in China in this 1019 investigation. Northwestern China, defined by pink slash, includes Inner Mongolia, 1020 Shaanxi, Gansu, Qinghai, Ningxia, and Xinjiang province. Light green shadings with 1021 cross highlight Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) and the light green color stands for the 1022 North China Plain (NCP, including BTH), defined by light green color, including 1023 BTH, Shandong, and Henan province. The Sichuan Basin, Yangtze River Delta (YRD), and Pearl River Delta (PRD) is defined by yellow, pink, and blue color. The 1024 1025 Urumqi-Midong region including Midong energy industrial base (MEIB) is defined by brick red. The Energy Golden Triangle (EGT), defined by purple color, including 1026 Ningdong energy chemical industrial base (NECIB) in Ningxia, Yulin in Shaanxi, 1027 1028 and Erdos in Inner Mongonia. Red triangles indicate 188 monitoring sites across China. Blue solid circles indicate 6 selected cities in Fig. 2.Red triangle indicate 188 1029 1030 monitoring sites across China. 1031 Figure 2 Annually averaged SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (DU), scaled on the right-hand-side 1032 1033 y-axis Y-axis and measured annual SO<sub>2</sub> air concentration ( $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>), scaled on the left-hand-side y-axis, Y axis, in Beijing, Shanghai, Chongqing, Guangzhou, Yinchuan, 1034 and Urumqi.

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1037Figure 3 Annually averaged SO2 VCD (DU), scaled on the right-hand-side1038y-axisY-axis1039y-axisY-axis1039y-axisY-axis1039in the NCP, YRD, PRD, Sichuan Basin, EGT, and Urumqi-Midong.

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**Figure 4** Annual averaging OMI-retrieved vertical column densities of SO<sub>2</sub> (DU) and their trends from 2005 to 2015 on  $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$  latitude/longitude resolution in China. (a). Annual mean SO<sub>2</sub> vertical column densities; (b). slope (trend) of linear regression relationship between annual average OMI-retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> VCD and the time sequence from 2005 to 2015 over China. The positive values indicate an increasing trend of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD from 2005 to 2015, and vice versa. The blue circle Formatted: Subscript

highlights the six selected regions where SO<sub>2</sub> VCD displayed dramatic change for
further assessment of the long term trends and step change points in SO<sub>2</sub> VCD.
These six regions are NCP (a), YRD (b), PRD (c), Sichuan Basin (d), Energy Golden
Triangle (EGT, e), and <u>Urumqi-Midong region</u> (f).

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Figure 5 Percentage changes in annual mean OMI SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the four highlighted
 regions in eastern and southern China and two large-scale energy industry
 <u>basesparks</u> in the EGT and <u>Urumqi-</u>Midong region in Figure 4b (relative to 2005).

 1056 Figure 6-Annual fractions of OMI retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> VCD and emissions averaged over 6 northwestern provinces in the national total SO<sub>2</sub> VCD from 2005 to 2015 and emission from 2005 to 2014. (a) fraction of annual mean SO<sub>2</sub> VCD; (b) fraction of annual mean emission. Fractions of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD are calculated as the ratio of the sum of annually averaged SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in northwestern China to the sum of annually averaged SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the national total from 2005 to 2015 (%).

1062 Figure 7-Per capita SO<sub>2</sub> emission in six provinces of northwestern China and three
 1063 key castern regions (tons/person). The value for PRD refers to the per capita SO<sub>2</sub>
 1064 emission for Guangdong province.

Figure 8 Mann-Kendall (MK) test statistics for annually SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in those 1065 highlighted regions (Figs. 1 and 4b) from 2005-2015. The blue solid line is the 1066 1067 forward sequence  $UF_k$  and the red solid line is the backward sequence  $UB_k$  defined by Eq (5). The positive values for  $UF_k$  indicate an increasing trend of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD, and 1068 1069 vice versa. Two straight solid lines stand for confidence interval between -1.96 1070 (straight green line) and 1.96 (straight purple line) in the MK test. The bold black line in the middle highlights zero value of  $UF_k$  and  $UB_k$ . The bold black line in the 1071 1072 middle highlights zero value of  $UF_k$  and  $UB_k$ . The intersection of  $UF_k$  and  $UB_k$ 1073 sequences within the intervals between two confidence levels indicates a step change 1074 point.

Figure 7 Annual fractions of OMI retrieved SO<sub>2</sub> VCD and emissions averaged over
 6 northwestern provinces in the national total SO<sub>2</sub> VCD from 2005 to 2015 and
 emission from 2005 to 2014. (a) fraction of annual mean SO<sub>2</sub> VCD; (b) fraction of
 annual mean emission. Fractions of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD are calculated as the ratio of the sum
 of annually averaged SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in northwestern China to the sum of annually
 averaged SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the national total from 2005 to 2015 (%).

Figure 8 Per capita SO<sub>2</sub> emission in six provinces of northwestern China and three key eastern regions (tons/person). The value for PRD refers to the per capita SO<sub>2</sub> emission for Guangdong province.

1087 Figure 9 Mann-Kendall (MK) test statistics for annually <u>averaged</u> SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in six 1088 provinces in northwestern China from 2005-2015. The blue solid line is the forward 1089 sequence  $UF_k$  and the red solid line is the backward sequence  $UB_k$  defined by Eq (5). 1090 The positive values <u>offer</u>  $UF_k$  indicate an increasing trend of SO<sub>2</sub> VCD, and vice 1091 versa. Two straight solid lines stand for confidence interval between -1.96 (straight 1092 green line) and 1.96 (straight purple line) in the MK test. The intersection of  $UF_k$  and 1093  $UB_k$  sequences within intervals between two confidence levels indicates a step 1094 change point.

Figure 10 <u>Annually averaging OMI-retrieved vertical column densities of Mean SO</u>2
(DU)burden estimated by the OMI measured SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (DU) using a new emission
detection algorithm (Fioletov et al., 2016). (a) SO<sub>2</sub> burden in two major point
sources, the MEIB innorthern Xinjiang (a), and the NECIB; (b) SO<sub>2</sub> burden in
Ningxia (b).

Figure 11 Annually averaged SO<sub>2</sub> emissions (kt yr<sup>-1</sup>) and SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (DU)<del>burdens</del> 1102 1103 (10<sup>26</sup> molecule) in the <u>NECIB and MEIB, Ningdong and Midong energy industrial</u> <del>parks</del> and their fractions in provincial total SO<sub>2</sub> emission and ratios between SO<sub>2</sub> 1104 VCD in these two regions and that in province. (a).  $SO_2$  emission<del>burden. (a).  $SO_2$ </del> 1105 1106 burden (blue bar) in the NECIBNingdong and its fraction (red solid line) in the total provincial SO<sub>2</sub> burden in Ningxia; (b). SO<sub>2</sub> burden (blue bar) in Midong and its 1107 1108 fraction (red solid line) in the total provincial SO<sub>2</sub> emission in Ningxia; (b). SO<sub>2</sub> emission (blue bar) in the MEIB and its fraction (red solid line) in the total 1109 provincial SO<sub>2</sub> emissionburden in Xinjiang. (c). SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (blue bar) in the NECIB 1110 1111 and the ratio (red solid line) between SO<sub>2</sub> VCD in the NECIB and that in Ningxia; (d). SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (blue bar) in the MEIB and the ratio (red solid line) between SO<sub>2</sub> 1112 1113 VCD in the MEIB and that in Xinjiang; The left y-axis  $\frac{1}{2}$  stands for SO<sub>2</sub> emission burden and the right y-axis Y-axis denotes the fraction (%) at the upper 1114 panel. The left y-axis stands for SO<sub>2</sub> VCD (DU) and the right y-axis denotes the ratio 1115 1116 at the lower panel. The error bars denotes the standard deviations of Source Detection Algorithm estimated SO<sub>2</sub> emission in two major point sources . 1117 1118

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