



1 **Spatial and temporal changes of SO₂ regimes over China in**
2 **recent decade and the driving mechanism**

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4 Ting Wang¹, Pucai Wang^{1,3}, Nicolas Theys², François Hendrick²,

5 Michel Van Roozendael²

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7 1 CAS Key Laboratory of Middle Atmosphere and Global Environment Observation,

8 Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

9 2 Belgian Institute for Space Aeronomy (IASB-BIRA), Brussels, Belgium

10 3 University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China

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17 Correspondence to:

18 Ting Wang, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing

19 100029, E-mail: wangting@mail.iap.ac.cn

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22 **Abstract:** The spatial and temporal changes of SO₂ regimes over China during 2005 to
23 2016 and their associated driving mechanism are investigated based on a state-of-the-
24 art retrieval dataset. Climatological SO₂ exhibits pronounced seasonal and regional
25 variations, with higher loadings in wintertime and two prominent maxima centered in
26 the North China Plain and the Cheng-Yu District. In the last decade, overall SO₂
27 decreasing trends have been reported nationwide, with spatially varying downward
28 rates according to a general rule—the higher the SO₂ loading, the more significant the
29 decrease. However, such decline is in fact not monotonic, but instead four distinct
30 temporal regimes can be identified by empirical orthogonal function analysis. After an
31 initial rise at the beginning, SO₂ in China undergoes two sharp drops in the periods
32 2007-2008 and 2014-2016, amid which 5-year moderate rebounding or stagnation is
33 sustained. Despite spatial coherent behaviors, different mechanisms are tied to North
34 China and South China, delimited roughly by the Yangtze River. In North China, the
35 same four regimes are detected in the time series of emission that is expected to drive
36 the regime of atmospheric SO₂, with a percentage of explained variance amounting to
37 81%. Out of total emission, those from industrial sector dominate SO₂ variation
38 throughout the whole period, while household emission fluctuates little until 2008 but
39 afterwards acts to partially offset the effect caused by industrial emission. In contrast to
40 North China, SO₂ emissions in South China exhibit a continuous descending tendency,
41 due to the gradual cuts of industrial emissions together with a sudden downward shift
42 of household emissions. As a result, the role of emissions only makes up about one third



43 of the SO₂ variation, primarily owing to the decoupled pathways of emission and
44 atmospheric content during 2009 to 2013 when the emissions continue to decline but
45 atmospheric content witnesses a rebound. Unfavorable meteorological conditions,
46 including deficient precipitation, weaker wind speed and increased static stability,
47 outweigh the effect of decreasing emissions and thus give rise to the rebound of SO₂
48 during 2009 to 2013.

49 **Key words:** SO₂, China, spatiotemporal regimes, mechanism

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53 **1 Introduction**

54 In recent decade, air pollution has persistently plagued China, especially in leading
55 economic and densely populated areas (Chan and Yao 2008; Ma et al., 2012; Chai et
56 al., 2014). In China, environmental protection agencies identify six major pollutants of
57 concern, including sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), ozone (O₃), carbon
58 monoxide (CO), fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and coarse particulate matter (PM₁₀).
59 Then, values of the six pollutants are transformed into a single number called Air
60 Quality Index (AQI) for effective communication of air quality status and
61 corresponding health impact (MEPC, 2012).

62 SO₂ is one of the six major pollutants in China (Ren et al., 2017). It is harmful to
63 human health, affecting lung function, worsening asthma attacks and aggravating
64 existing heart disease (WHO, 2018). It also leads to the acidification of the atmosphere,
65 and the formed sulfate aerosol is one of the most important components of fine particles
66 in cities (Meng et al., 2009). Overall, SO₂ is a key influencing factor for atmospheric
67 pollution, and it poses great threats to life, property and environment (Wang et al., 2014).

68 Compared to airborne and ground-based remote sensing, satellite platforms permit
69 near-global coverage on a continuing and repetitive basis, enabling quick and large-
70 scale estimation of pollution patterns (Yu et al., 2010). Since the world's first weather
71 satellite TIROS-I launched in 1960, satellites have become a crucial part of Earth's
72 observations and practical applications (Yu et al., 2010). Till now, SO₂ has been
73 measured globally by several operational satellite instruments, such as OMPS (Zhang



74 et al., 2017), GOME-2 (Munro et al., 2006; Rix et al., 2010) and OMI (Lee et al., 2011;
75 Li et al., 2013; Theys et al., 2015).

76 With the aid of satellite data, in the past decade, various attempts have been made to
77 explore the variation of SO₂ loadings in China. Lu et al. (2010) report that total SO₂
78 emissions in China have increased by 53% from 2000 to 2006, followed by a growth
79 rate slowdown and the start of a decrease. Li et al. (2010), Yan et al. (2014), and Zhang
80 et al. (2012) all highlight the prominent reduction of SO₂ during 2007 and 2008, as a
81 consequence of the widespread deployment of flue-gas desulfurization and the strict
82 control strategy implemented for preparation of the 2008 Olympic Games. Throughout
83 the past decade, 90% of the locations in China have shown a decline in SO₂ emissions,
84 as highlighted by Koukouli et al. (2016). Such widespread declines are ascribed to
85 effective air quality regulations enforced in China (van der A et al., 2017). Furthermore,
86 Krotkov et al. (2016) and Li et al. (2017) both compared the sulfurous pollution in
87 China and India, and pointed out their opposite trajectories. Since 2007, emissions in
88 China have declined while those in India have increased substantially. Nowadays, India
89 is overtaking China as the world's largest emitter of anthropogenic SO₂. In addition,
90 several studies conducted analyses on SO₂ in sub-regions of China, for example Jin et
91 al. (2016), Lin et al. (2012), Wang et al. (2015) and Su et al. (2011). All these studies
92 contributed to a better understanding of SO₂ changes in China. However, there are still
93 key issues to be addressed. First, with the pace of considerable progress made on SO₂
94 retrieval, updated data products are now available to accurately derive recent SO₂



95 variations in China. Second, although the general decreasing tendency has been
96 revealed, the specific spatial and temporal regimes remain unclear. Does the SO₂
97 decrease monotonically, or is there a complicated oscillation? How similar/different are
98 SO₂ variations in different parts of the country? Third, there is more to be learned about
99 the driving mechanisms that govern SO₂ variations. Previous studies have mainly
100 focused on the impact from amounts of emission. However, the SO₂ content is not only
101 dependent on emissions but also on atmospheric conditions. Therefore, how large is the
102 influence of atmospheric variability on the variation of SO₂?

103 The overall goal of this study is to quantify the spatial and temporal changes of SO₂
104 regimes over China in the last decade and to disclose the driving mechanism, based on
105 a new-generation of SO₂ retrieval dataset (Theys et al., 2015). The manuscript is
106 organized as follows. Section 2 describes the new SO₂ product, and statistical databases
107 of SO₂ emission and atmospheric data are introduced. In Section 3, we evaluate the
108 general patterns of SO₂ including mean distribution, long-term trends and seasonality.
109 Subsequently, Section 4 identifies the specific regimes of SO₂ variability and the
110 associated driving mechanisms. Finally, concluding remarks are presented in Section 5.

111

112 **2 Data**

113 The Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) is one of four sensors onboard the Aura
114 satellite launched in July 2004 (Levelt, J. et al., 2006). In recent years, Belgian Institute
115 for Space Aeronomy has developed a new scheme to improve the retrieval accuracy of



116 SO₂ in troposphere. A new SO₂ product is generated based on the improved algorithm
117 applied to OMI-measured radiance spectra (Theys et al. 2015). The retrieval scheme is
118 a based on a DOAS approach, including three steps: (1) a spectral fit in the 312-326 nm
119 range (other fitting windows are used for volcanic scenarios but are not relevant for this
120 study), (2) a background correction for possible bias on retrieved SO₂ slant columns,
121 (3) a conversion into SO₂ vertical columns through radiative transfer air mass factors
122 calculation, accounting for the SO₂ profile shape (from the IMAGES chemistry
123 transport model), geometry, surface reflectance and clouds. The dataset is made
124 available on a 0.25° and 0.25° regular latitude-longitude grid over the rectangular
125 domain 70-140°E, 10-60°N, and covers the period of 2005 to 2016 at monthly interval.
126 In addition, a cloud screening is applied to remove measurements with a cloud fraction
127 of more than 30%. Other details can be found in Theys et al. (2015).

128 The SO₂ emissions at national and provincial level are collected from the China
129 Statistical Yearbook on Environment, which is compiled jointly by the National Bureau
130 of Statistics, Ministry of Environmental Protection and other ministries. It is an annual
131 statistics publication, with industrial and household emissions listed separately. Note
132 that, in addition, the data for year 2016 are not available at present.

133 The large-scale meteorological conditions are taken from Japanese 55-year
134 Reanalysis (JRA-55) data, prepared by the Japan Meteorological Agency (Kobayashi
135 et al., 2015; Harada et al., 2016). The variables analyzed include total column
136 precipitable water, horizontal wind and temperature at pressure levels.



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138 **3 General patterns of SO₂ over China**

139 **3.1 Mean distribution**

140 Based on 12 years of SO₂ column data over China, Figure 1a shows the spatial pattern
141 of long-term mean. Overall, SO₂ distribution is of great inhomogeneity in China, with
142 two maximum centers: one is the North China Plain (NCP for short), and the other is
143 Cheng-Yu (CY) district in Southwest China. In particular, SO₂ amount in NCP exceeds
144 1.2 DU. There are two essential causes responsible for high SO₂ loading in the two
145 areas. On the one hand, combined effect of rapid economic and industrial development
146 as well as population growth leads to a high degree of anthropogenic SO₂ emission. It
147 is obvious in Figure 1b that the two regions release about 8.3 tons/km² SO₂ per year,
148 which is three times greater than the average level of China. On the other hand, as
149 shown in Figure 1c, either of the two regions is surrounded or partly surrounded by
150 mountains, which makes it difficult for the pollutants to dissipate.

151 In contrast, over the sparsely populated western part of China, low SO₂
152 concentrations of less than 0.2 DU are observed, except over some provincial capitals.
153 Since western part of China is less affected by human activities, anthropogenic sources
154 of SO₂ are much smaller than natural emissions including emissions from terrestrial
155 ecosystems and oxidation of H₂S to SO₂ (Wang et al., 1999). Between latitude 30-40°N,
156 for example, the SO₂ amount over the eastern regions (110-120°E) are 6-12 times
157 greater than western regions (80-110°E).



158 Furthermore, the annual total is decomposed into seasonal cycle, as shown in Figure
159 2. In eastern China, nearly half of the annual totals is released in winter when intensive
160 heating takes place, while SO₂ in summer only accounts for 10 percent. The remaining
161 40 percent is almost equally divided in spring and autumn. In western China, however,
162 there is more SO₂ amounts in summer than other seasons, because large natural
163 emissions occur in summer.

164 3.2 Long-term trends

165 Figure 3 depicts the spatial pattern of linear trends in annual and seasonal SO₂ from
166 2005 to 2016. Overall, apparent downward trends overwhelm most parts of eastern
167 China, while western China has experienced little change. In particular, the most
168 significant reduction occurred in the highly SO₂-polluted regions, with the decreasing
169 rates amounting to 0.1 DU/a. This result suggests that the governments and
170 communities in these economically developed regions have done its best to effectively
171 control environmental pollution, including energy saving, emission cut and adjustment
172 of energy consumption structure, shutdown of the most polluting factories, upgradation
173 of coal quality, etc. Besides, enforcement of environmental protection laws is becoming
174 more and more rigorous (van der A et al., 2017). Therefore, under collaborative efforts,
175 the SO₂ levels in these highly developed regions with high background concentration
176 have been decreasing markedly in the recent decade. Moreover, the pattern correlation
177 between mean (Figure 1a) and trends (Figure 2 top) of SO₂ reaches to -0.77 , implying
178 that the downward rate over China can be summarized into a general rule—the higher



179 the SO₂ loading, the more significant the decrease.

180 Figure 2a-d portrays the long-term trends of SO₂ on seasonal basis. On the one hand,
181 every season has witnessed SO₂ reduction, with the strongest decrease occurring in
182 winter and autumn. Consequently, it can be concluded that the SO₂ decrease in winter
183 and autumn contribute most to the reduction of annual SO₂. On the other hand, the
184 highly SO₂-polluted regions have experienced the most pronounced decrease across all
185 seasons, which is consistent with the annual outcomes.

186 **3.3 Features of the four hotspots**

187 Besides the NCP and CY regions with highest SO₂ loadings, this study is also
188 interested in Yangtze River Delta (YRD) and Pearl River Delta (PRD), the other two
189 economic mega-urban zones in China. These four identified hotspots NCP, CY, YRD
190 and PRD are outlined in Figure 1a and will be specially examined in the following
191 discussion.

192 In this part, we discuss the temporal behaviors of the four hotspots interested. Figure
193 4 depicts the SO₂ columns from 2005 to 2016 as a function of year (y-axis) and calendar
194 month (x-axis). The horizontal axis is the month of the year, the vertical axis is the year,
195 and the color is the SO₂ VCD for that month and year.

196 As regards seasonal cycle referenced to the x-axis on the bottom, the annual range of
197 SO₂ rises progressively from south to north. NCP has the greatest amplitude of up to 1
198 DU, while there is virtually no annual cycle in PRD. Larger amplitude for SO₂ cycles
199 in NCP arises from the reversed source-sink imbalance between summer and winter, in



200 the presence of intensive heating in winter and effective wet removal in summer. In
201 contrast, the climate in PRD is characterized by smoother transition over the whole year
202 and there is no heating season, which explains the insignificant seasonal variation of
203 SO₂ in PRD. The other two regions CY and YRD have approximately the same
204 amplitude of 0.6 DU, because they are on the same line of latitude. When looking at
205 year-to-year variations on the vertical axis, SO₂ VCDs exhibit a decreasing tendency
206 during the last decade, regardless of the time of the year.

207

208 **4 Specific regimes of SO₂ variability and causes**

209 **4.1 Specific regimes of SO₂ variability**

210 The above investigation presents SO₂ patterns and trends across China, but some
211 elusive non-monotonic behaviors are not fully understood. In this section, we aim to
212 detect the specific regimes of SO₂ variability and associated responsible mechanisms.

213 Spatiotemporal regimes of SO₂ over China are mapped by using empirical
214 orthogonal function (EOF) decomposition (Hannachi, 2004), which is a useful tool to
215 reduce the data dimensionality to two dimensions. One dimension represents the spatial
216 structure and the other the temporal dimension. Figure 5 illustrates the leading mode
217 (top) and the corresponding principal component (PC, bottom) obtained from EOF,
218 since only the first mode is statistically well separated. Compared to the first EOF mode
219 explaining 36.8% of the total variance, each of the other modes is characterized by less
220 than 6% contribution and thus discarded. On the one side, the variation of SO₂ is



221 dominated by a spatially uniform feature with large loadings in NCP and CY, suggesting
222 that SO₂ changes would be in the same phase but varying amplitude across the entire
223 region. On the other side, the corresponding PC exhibit overall declines during the 2005
224 to 2016. However, the result does not implicate a simple continuous decrease. In fact,
225 there appears to be a transient increase until a peak and thereafter two sharp drops occur
226 in the periods 2007-2008 and 2014-2016, amid which SO₂ concentrations are under the
227 process of slightly rebounding or stagnation. In short, the SO₂ variability is
228 characterized by four distinct temporal regimes.

229 Moreover, Figure 6 demonstrates the time series for each hotspot with linear
230 regression lines over the entire timespan and four sequential segments added. The green
231 fitting lines reveal that SO₂ in NCP, CY, YRD and PRD had undergone an overall
232 downward trend with a rate of 0.062, 0.059, 0.046 and 0.055 DU per year, respectively.
233 However, the SO₂ decrease is not monotonic, but varied in four stages: a short-lived
234 increasing period at the beginning, a steep drop period during 2007 to 2008, a continued
235 stagnation or slowly rebound period of 2009 to 2013 and another drastic drop period
236 during 2014 to 2016. Note that only PRD had experienced a persistent decrease in SO₂
237 since 2007.

238 Figure 7a depicts the temporal structure classification of SO₂ VCD for each province,
239 with red color implying non-monotonic decrease whereas linearly decline is colored by
240 green. Northeast China and Western China are excluded from the analysis, due to lots
241 of missing data during winter in the former domain and extremely low concentrations



242 in the latter one. From the map, it is clear that over most of China except Guangdong
243 and Guizhou provinces, SO₂ does not evolve in a monotonic way but shows either a
244 rebound or stagnation during 2009 to 2013.

245 **4.2 Causes**

246 In this section, we diagnose the likely mechanisms behind the observed SO₂
247 variability. Generally, emissions and meteorological conditions are two main factors
248 that essentially exert influence on atmospheric pollutant load. Despite spatially
249 uniformity in temporal-pattern classification of SO₂ VCD (Figure 7a), temporal
250 structure of emission demonstrates strong south-north contrast (Figure 7b). Thus, it is
251 advantageous to divide the Eastern China into north part and south part to examine the
252 causes. To this end, North China and South China are treated separately. Figure 8
253 presents time series and scatter plots of SO₂ VCD and emission, and Figure 9 is
254 designed to show the total emission generated by industries and households.

255 As shown in Figure 8a, the North China features a good correspondence between
256 amount and emission, with linear correlation of 0.9. Time series of emission also
257 indicate the existence of four distinct regimes that are likely to drive the regime of SO₂
258 VCD directly. This is confirmed by the scatter plot (Figure 8b), in which the points are
259 tightly clustered around the regression line. Based on variance analysis, emission
260 accounts for 81% fraction of SO₂ VCD variation over North China. Furthermore, as
261 shown in Figure 9a, the industrial emissions play a crucial role in SO₂ VCD variation
262 throughout the whole period in North China, while household emissions fluctuate little



263 until 2008. However afterwards it acts to partially offset the effect caused by industrial
264 emissions.

265 The close linear relationship observed in North China is not found in South China,
266 since the two curves appear to become no adherent in Figure 8c and the points in the
267 scatter plot Figure 8d are widely spread around the regression line. Variance analysis
268 suggests that only 36% of SO₂ VCD variability is forced by emissions, suggesting that
269 the SO₂ variations in South China cannot be explained by emission changes alone. This
270 is mainly ascribed to the decoupled pathways of emission and SO₂ VCD during 2009
271 to 2013, as the emission continues to decline but SO₂ VCD witnesses a rebound. Figure
272 9b suggests that the gradual cut of industrial emissions together with a sudden shift of
273 emissions in household sector collectively promote the continuous decrease of total
274 emission in South China, which is different from that in North China.

275 Why decreasing emissions do not cause a reduction of SO₂ VCD in South China
276 during 2009 to 2013? To answer this question, the atmospheric conditions during 2009
277 to 2013 are compared with those during the rest of the years, as depicted in Figure 10.
278 The period 2009 to 2013 is characterized by prolonged dry conditions in South China
279 with the precipitable water and precipitation being lower than usual (Figure 10a), which
280 weakens wet adsorption and scavenging. At the same time, this period is also associated
281 with relatively weaker wind speed (Figure 10b) and increased static stability (Figure
282 10c, d), reducing the ability of the atmosphere to diffuse leading to the accumulation of
283 SO₂ loads. In brief, unfavorable meteorological conditions produce the observed



284 rebound of SO₂ during 2009 to 2013, despite the continued decrease of emission.

285

286 **5 Conclusions**

287 In this study, the spatiotemporal variability of SO₂ columns over China and the
288 associated driving mechanisms are examined over the past decade. Based on a state-of-
289 the-art SO₂ retrieval dataset recently derived from the OMI instrument, we produce an
290 improved database suitable for the study of SO₂ changes in China and we elaborate on
291 the specific SO₂ regimes and underlying causes.

292 Climatological SO₂ in China has an uneven spatial distribution in space and time.
293 East China is far more exposed to SO₂ pollution than West China, with two maxima
294 centered in NCP and CY. From analysis of the annual cycles we conclude that half of
295 the annual totals are released in winter, while SO₂ in summer only accounts for 10
296 percent. In addition, the annual amplitude of SO₂ rises progressively from south to north.

297 From 2005 through 2016, most of eastern China presents a clear decreasing tendency
298 for SO₂, while western China has experienced little change. Spatially, the decreasing
299 rate is generally enhanced for high SO₂ loads. When computed seasonally, SO₂
300 reductions in winter and autumn contribute most to the reduction of annual SO₂.

301 Four stages of variation are identified by EOF analysis. The first regime (2005-2006)
302 features a transient increasing trend, the second (2007-2008) and the last (2014-2016)
303 regimes show sharp drops, and the third regime (2009-2013) manifests itself by 5-year
304 moderate rebounding or continued stagnation. Although temporal regimes of SO₂ are



305 coherent throughout the country, different driving forces are tied to North China and
306 South China delimited roughly by the Yangtze River. In North China, the atmospheric
307 SO₂ and emission varies essentially in the same way. Therefore, the atmospheric SO₂
308 variability is primarily associated with the emission variability, which accounts for 81%
309 of the total variance. Further, the emission generated by industrial sector is largely
310 responsible for the atmospheric SO₂ variability. The household emissions appears to
311 remain stable until 2008, but afterwards they act to partially offset the impact of
312 industrial emissions.

313 SO₂ emissions in South China exhibit a continuous decreasing tendency, due to the
314 gradual cuts of industrial emissions together with a sudden downward shift of
315 household emissions. As a result, the role of emissions only contributes one third of the
316 SO₂ variation, primarily owing to the decoupled pathways of emission and atmospheric
317 content during 2009 to 2013 when the emission continues to decline but atmospheric
318 content witnesses a rebound. It is found that such rebound occurs in response to the
319 joint effect of deficient precipitation, weaker wind speed and increased static stability
320 during 2009-2013.

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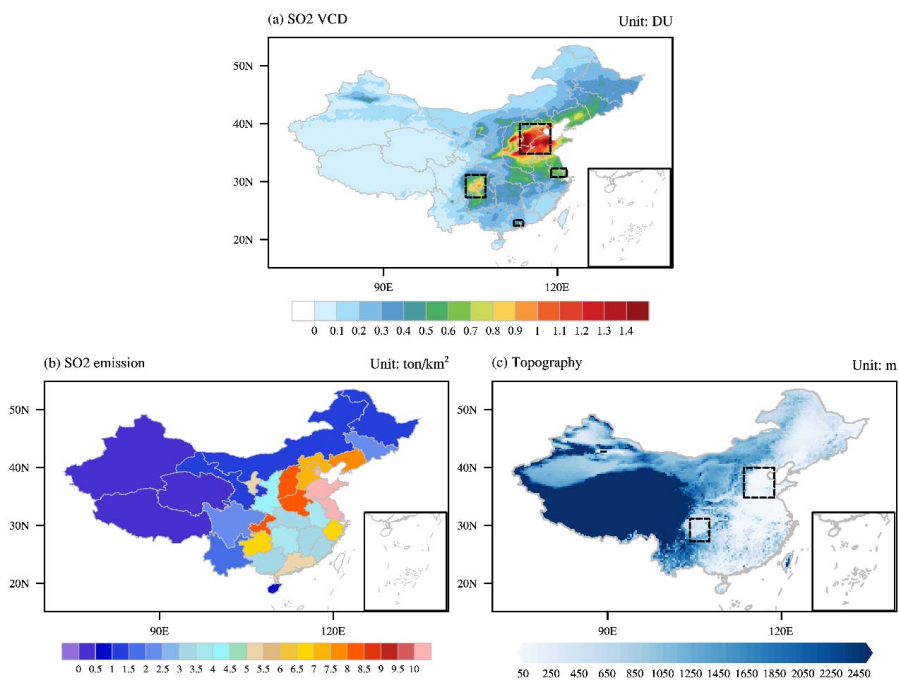
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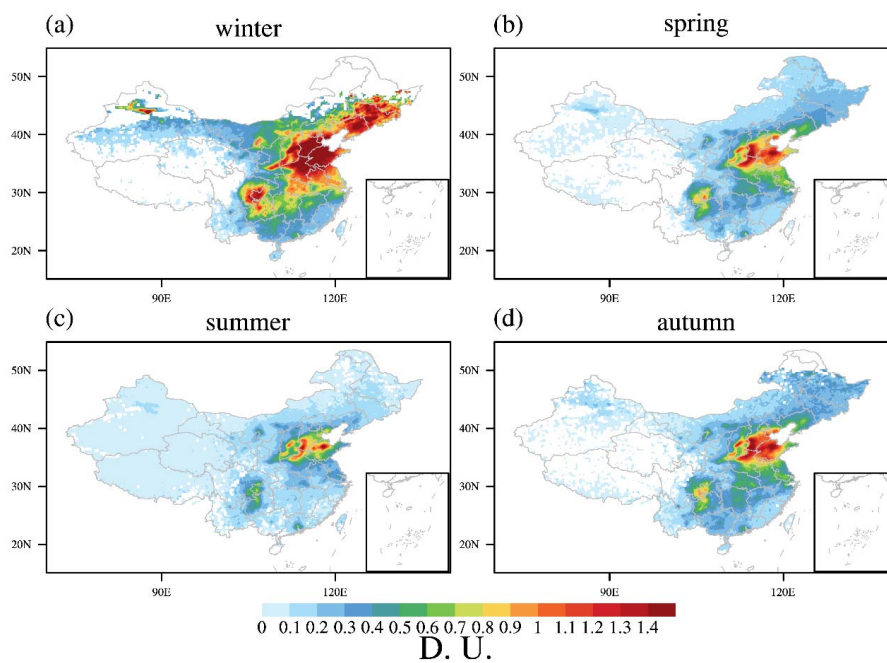
425 Figure 1 (a) Spatial distribution of 12-year (2005–16) averaged tropospheric SO₂ Vertical Column

426 Density (VCD) over China. (b) SO₂ emission per km² among Chinese provinces. (c) Topography of

427 China in meters.

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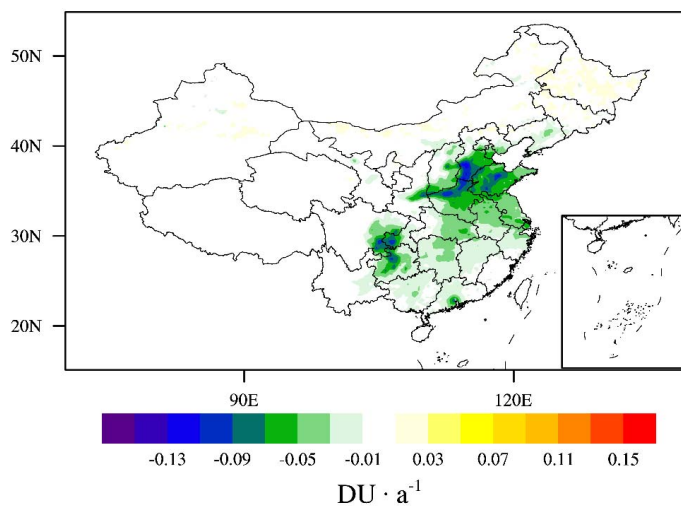


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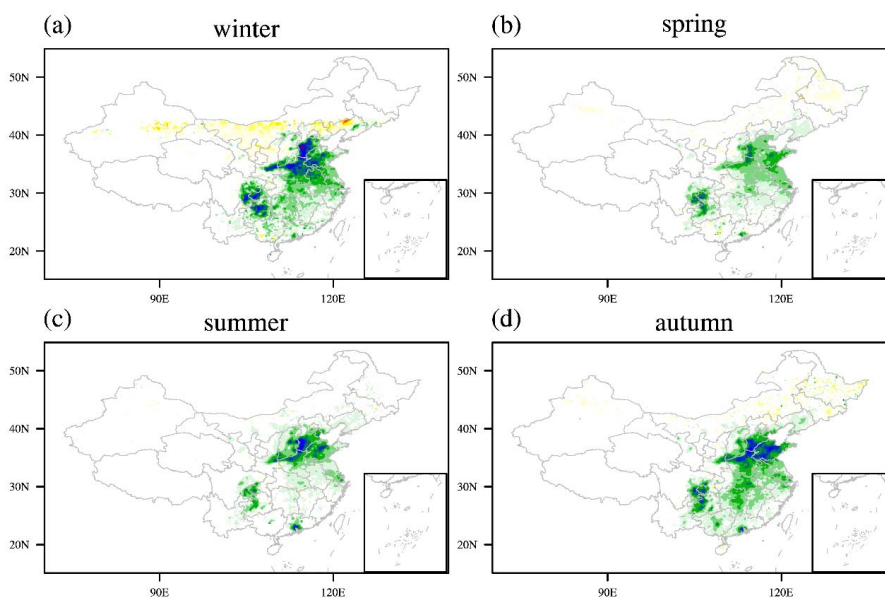
431 Figure 2 Seasonal tropospheric SO₂ over China: (a) winter, (b) spring, (c) summer and (d) autumn

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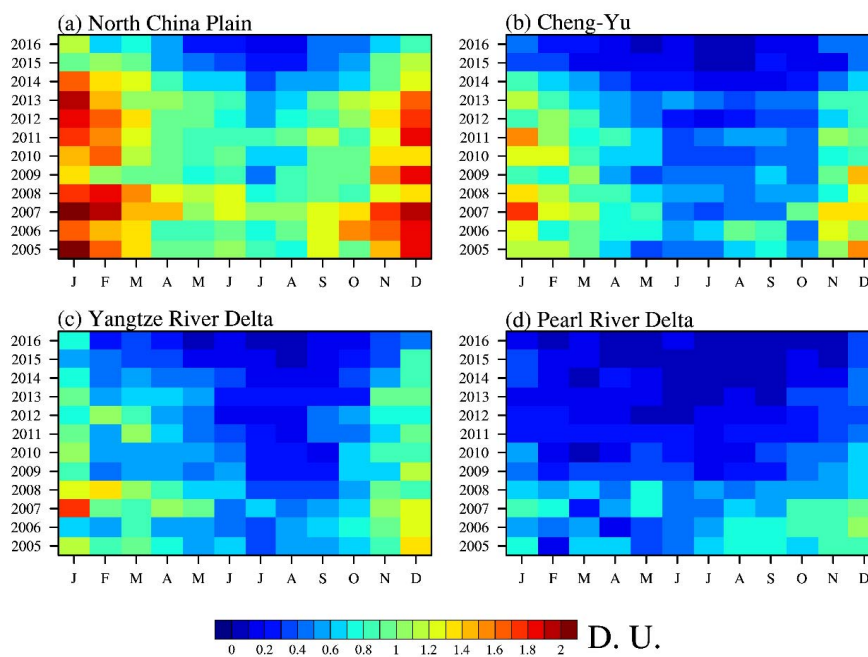
436 Figure 3 Spatial pattern of SO₂ linear trends (2005–16) in annual (Top) and seasonal values (a, b, c,

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d)

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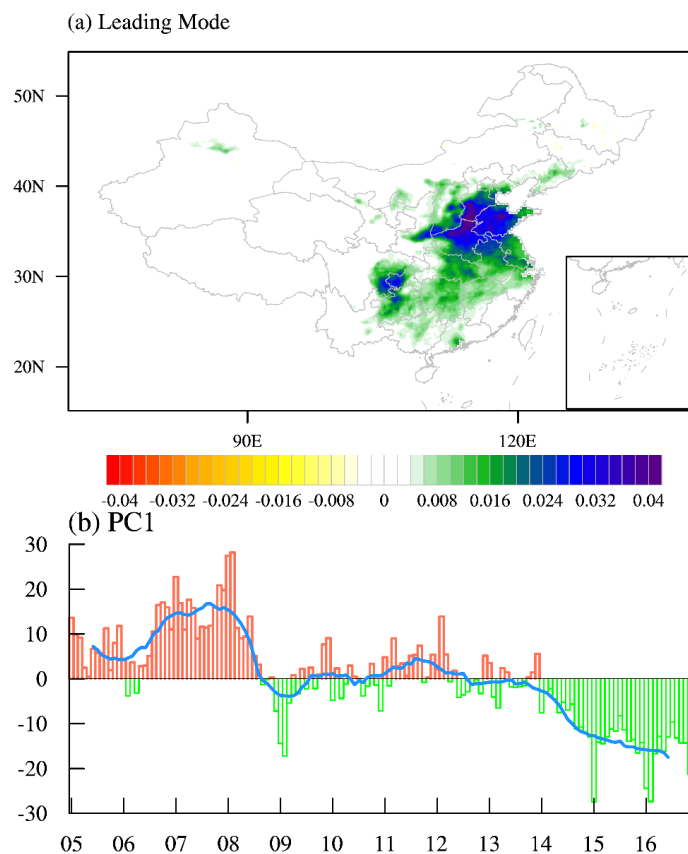
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441 Figure 4 SO₂ amounts from 2005 to 2016 as a function of year (y-axis) and calendar month (x-axis) for

442 NCP (a), CY (b), YRD (c) and PRD (d).

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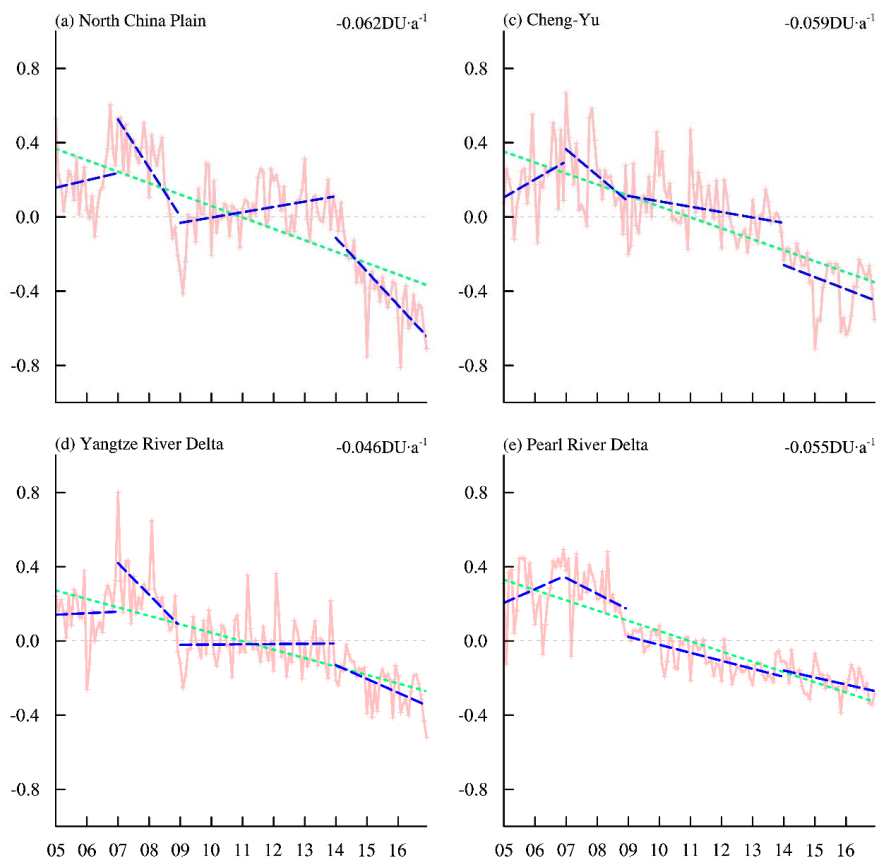
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446 Figure 5 The first leading EOF mode (a) and the corresponding principal components (b)

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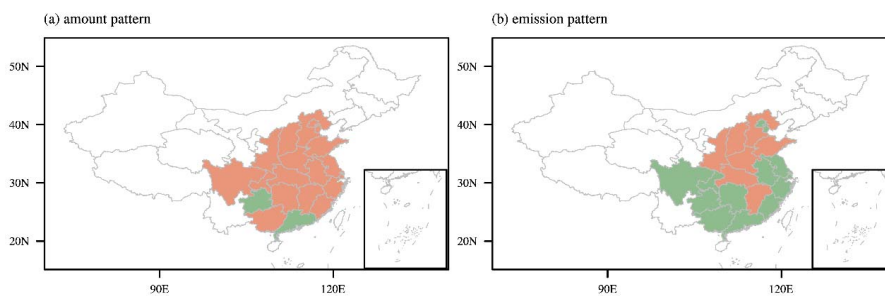
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451 Figure 6 Temporal evolution of SO₂ anomalies over four hotspots (a, b, c, d), with slope lines over

452 the entire timespan (green) and four sequential segments (blue) superimposed

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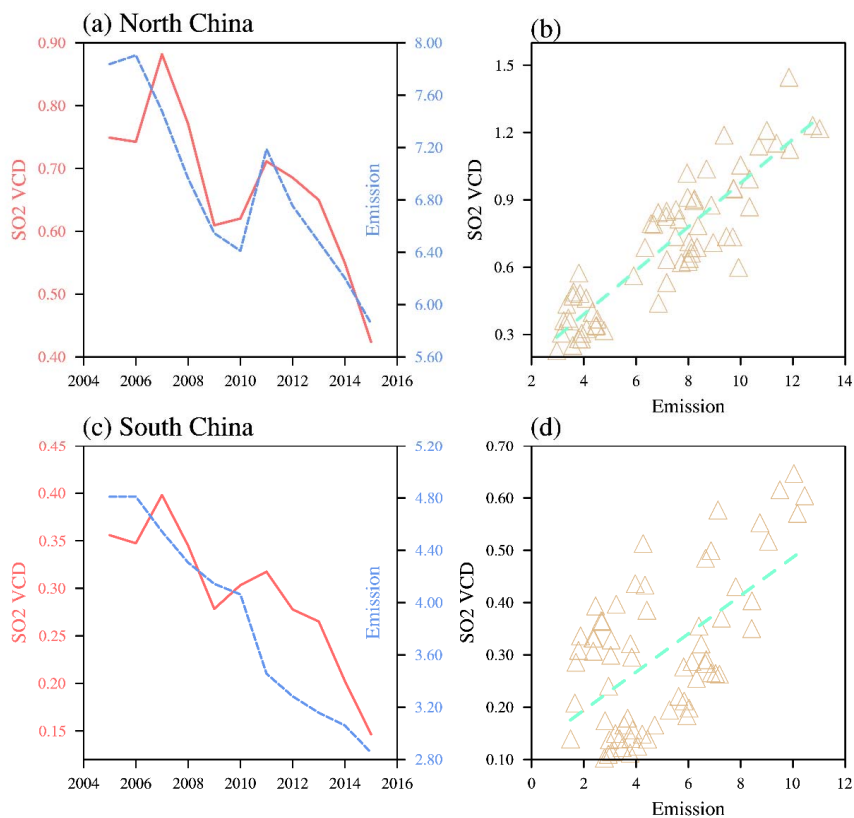
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456 Figure 7 Temporal structure classification of SO₂ VCD (a) and emission (b). Red color implies non-

457 monotonic decrease with either a rebound or stagnation in the middle, while monotonic decrease is

458 colored by green.

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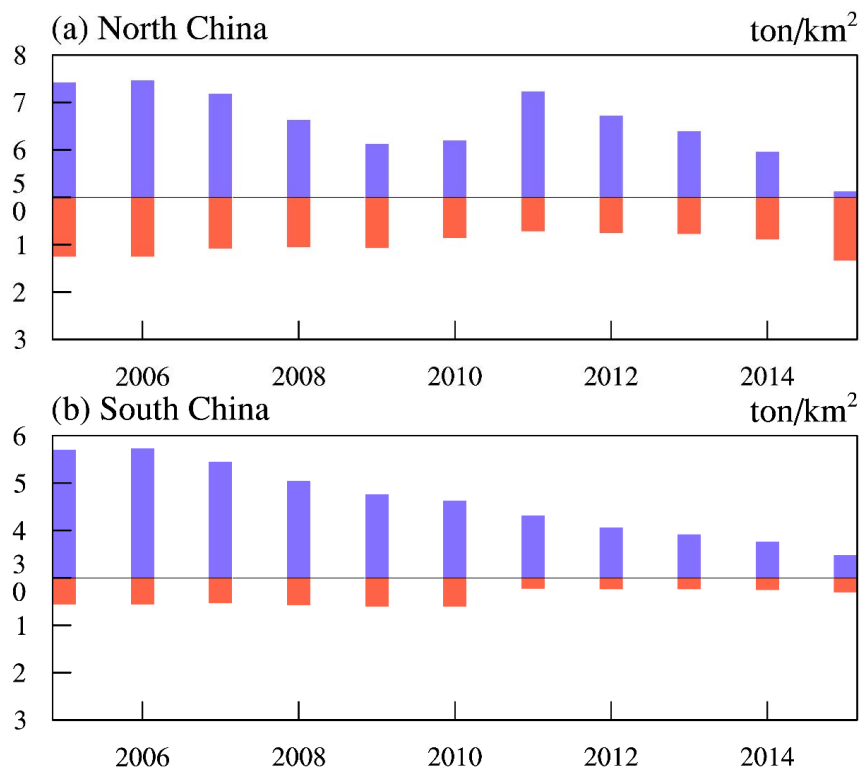
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461 Figure 8 Time series plots of SO₂ VCD and emission (a, c), and scatter plots with regression line of

462 SO₂ VCD and emission (b, d) for North China (1st Row) and South China (2nd Row)

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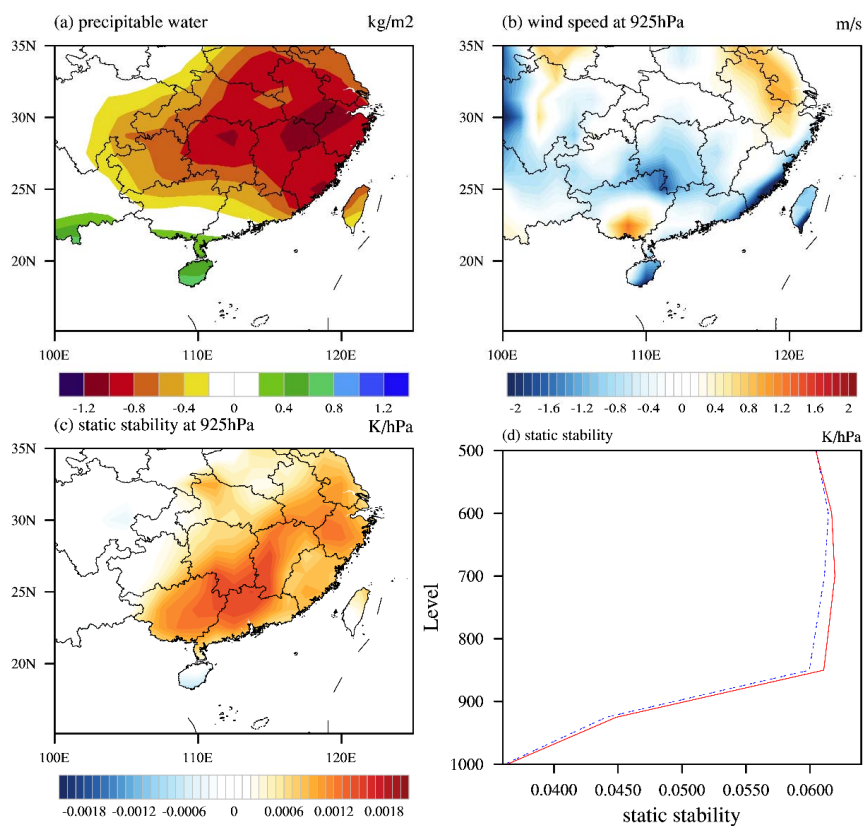
466 Figure 9 Annual SO₂ emission (ton/km²) generated by industries (upward blue bars) and households

467 (downward red bars) in North China (a) and South China (b). Notice that the Y-axis in a positive direction

468 does not start at zero.

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472 Figure 10 Comparison of atmospheric conditions between the period of 2009-2013 and the other years:

473 (a) composite difference in precipitable water (unit: kg/m²), (b) composite difference in wind velocity at

474 925hPa (unit: m/s), (c) composite difference in static stability at 925hPa (unit: K/hPa), and (d) averaged

475 vertical profile of static stability for the two episodes.

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