

1 Interprovincial Reliance for Improving Air Quality in China: A Case 2 Study on Black Carbon Aerosol

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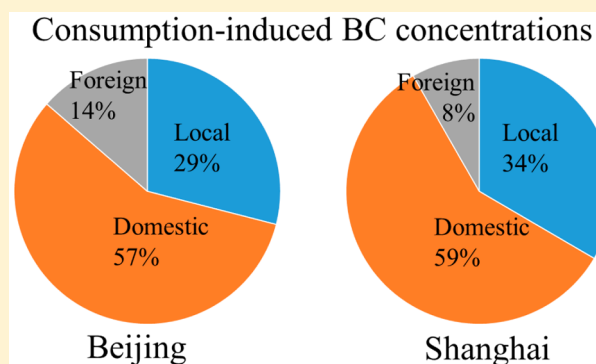
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8 **S** Supporting Information

9 **ABSTRACT:** Black carbon (BC) is of global concern because of
10 its adverse effects on climate and human health. It can travel long
11 distances via atmospheric movement and can be geographically
12 relocated through trade. Here, we explored the integrated patterns
13 of BC transport within 30 provinces in China from the perspective
14 of meteorology and interprovincial trade using the Weather
15 Research and Forecasting with Chemistry (WRF/Chem) model
16 and multiregion input-output analysis. In general, cross-border BC
17 transport, which accounts for more than 30% of the surface
18 concentration, occurs mainly between neighboring provinces.
19 Specifically, Hebei contributes $1.2 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ BC concentration in
20 Tianjin. By contrast, trade typically drives virtual BC flows from
21 developed provinces to heavily industrial provinces, with the
22 largest net flow from Beijing to Hebei (4.2 Gg). Shanghai is most
23 vulnerable to domestic consumption with an average interprovincial consumption influence efficiency of $1.5 \times 10^{-4} (\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/$
24 (billion Yuan $\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$). High efficiencies ($\sim 8 \times 10^{-5} (\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{billion Yuan}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$) are also found from regions including Beijing,
25 Jiangsu, and Shanghai to regions including Hebei, Shandong, and Henan. The above source–receptor relationship indicates two
26 **control zones: Huabei and Huadong.** Both mitigating end-of-pipe emissions and rationalizing the demand for pollution-intense
27 products are important within the two control zones to reduce BC and other pollutants.



28 ■ INTRODUCTION

29 Black carbon (BC), which is generated by the incomplete
30 combustion of carbonaceous fuels,^{1,2} is an important
31 combustion component of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}).^{3,4}
32 Moreover, the scientific community has been increasingly
33 concerned about its adverse impact on climate change, air
34 quality, and human health.^{5–7} BC aerosols influence climate
35 both regionally and globally by absorbing solar radiation, which
36 reduces the atmospheric lapse rate and burns off cloud
37 droplets.^{3,7} BC level varies consistently with carbon monoxide
38 (CO), nitric oxide (NO), and other traffic-related gaseous
39 pollutants and occupies roughly a fixed proportion of
40 particulate matter (PM) concentration in summer and
41 autumn.^{8,9} Additionally, pollution containing BC has been
42 proven to have a robust epidemiological association with many
43 types of mortality, particularly cardiovascular.^{10,11} Thus, it is
44 acknowledged that BC may serve as an effective indicator of air
45 quality and its health effects in helping to mitigate air pollution
46 including PM, CO and NO.^{4,11,12} Once emitted into the
47 atmosphere, BC has a lifetime of 2–10 days and can be
48 transported long distances by atmospheric movement,^{13–16}
49 indicating its well-mixed condition in lower troposphere and
50 regional, rather than local, character.¹⁷

China has been the world's largest emitter of anthropogenic 51
BC, organic matter (OM) and other PM_{2.5} precursors.^{18–20} In 52
2014, approximately 90% of the major cities in China failed to 53
meet the national air quality standard for PM_{2.5}.²¹ Emissions 54
from the industrial and transport sectors have been identified as 55
the major sources of BC and other combustion PM_{2.5},²² which 56
has led to the need for serious emissions control in China. 57
Recently, the “Law of the People's Republic of China on the 58
Prevention and Control of Atmospheric Pollution” has been 59
revised to emphasize the national target of air quality 60
improvement from a concentration-based perspective and the 61
supervision of pollution sources using emissions-based 62
strategies.²³ This law also calls for collaborative efforts across 63
administrative boundaries for emissions control and air quality 64
improvement. Consequently, a quantitative understanding of 65
the interprovincial source–receptor relationship of air pollution 66
transport and the underlying economic drivers is of great 67
importance.^{24,25} 68

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69 Previous studies have evaluated the possible sources of air
70 pollution for a target region.^{13,26} For example, Guo et al.
71 analyzed the observational data collected at Changdao Island
72 north of Shanghai and found that a significant amount of BC is
73 transported from Shandong and Jiangsu provinces.²⁷ Xue et al.
74 utilized particulate source apportionment technology (PSAT)
75 in the CAMx model and found that approximately 40% of
76 ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing, Shanghai and Jiangsu
77 are contributed by cross-boundary transport.²⁸ If the source–
78 receptor relationship were accepted by the relevant provincial
79 governments, it might be the basis for promoting **multiprovince**
80 cooperation on emissions control.²⁹

81 Apart from observed atmospheric transport, domestic trade
82 also affects the distribution of emissions to a large extent and
83 thus changes air pollution levels geographically.^{30,31} The
84 production of traded products increases local emissions while
85 reducing the emissions in consuming regions. This trade-
86 induced virtual emissions transfer among provinces in China
87 has been well documented for carbon dioxide (CO₂), sulfur
88 dioxide (SO₂), primary PM_{2.5} and other atmospheric pollutants,
89 which demonstrates that some developed provinces shift
90 emissions to less-developed provinces by importing prod-
91 ucts.^{25,30} As with atmospheric transport, this virtual transfer of
92 emissions and the degradation of air quality via trade also lead
93 to a source–receptor relationship. When considering the
94 location disparity between consumers and producers, the
95 emissions generated in one province might be significantly
96 driven by final consumption in a different province. Thus, for
97 purposes of cross-provincial action on air pollution control, it is
98 equally important to identify both the sources and the drivers
99 of air pollution.

100 In this study, we used BC as a proxy to establish the source–
101 receptor relationship involving the atmospheric transport and
102 trade-induced virtual transfer of primary pollution among 30
103 provinces in mainland China in 2007 (excluding only Tibet,
104 where reliable data are unavailable). BC was chosen as a
105 representative for cross-regional air pollutant mitigation
106 because of its impact on environment, regional character and
107 representative for other fine aerosol species. The model
108 simulation of BC transport was undertaken using the Weather
109 Research and Forecasting with Chemistry (WRF/Chem)
110 model. An explicit tagging method was implemented in the
111 WRF/Chem model to efficiently track the pathways of BC
112 transport.³² We also used multiregion input-output (MRIO)
113 analysis to examine the virtual transfer of BC emissions
114 resulting from trading goods and services.³³ By combining both
115 physical and virtual transfers of BC emissions, we quantified the
116 direct and indirect interprovincial linkages in terms of pollution
117 transport. This quantification leads to feasible suggestions on
118 the priority of BC reduction and the possibility of cooperative
119 responsibility for pollution mitigation in China.

120 ■ METHODOLOGY AND DATA

121 **Emission Inventory and Data Sources.** A production-
122 based emissions inventory was developed by multiplying the
123 energy consumption data and BC emission factors.^{34,35} Energy
124 consumption data for 30 provinces in China (as listed in Table
125 S1 in the [Supporting Information](#)) were derived from provincial
126 statistical yearbooks and energy balance tables from the 2008
127 Chinese Statistical Yearbooks (data were based on the
128 investigation of year 2007) for each province.³⁶ We aggregated
129 the provincial BC emissions into 17 sectors (listed in Table S2
130 in the [Supporting Information](#)) to conform with the Chinese

MRIO Table.³⁷ Emission factors for 8 types of energy (i.e., coal, 131
coke, gasoline, kerosene, diesel, fuel oil, liquefied petroleum gas 132
and natural gas) were obtained from previous studies (listed in 133
Table S3 in the [Supporting Information](#)).^{34,35} The derivation of 134
production-based BC emissions attributable to energy con- 135
sumption for province *f* is expressed as 136

$$C_p^f = \sum_{i=1}^{17} \sum_{m=1}^8 E_{i,m}^f \times EF_{i,m} \quad (1) \quad 137$$

where $E_{i,m}^f$ is the energy consumption of fuel *m* in sector *i*, 138
province *f*; $EF_{i,m}$ is the emission factor of fuel *m* in sector *i*. 139

Here, we considered only industrial BC emissions from all 17 140
aggregated economic sectors, because industrial emissions can 141
“flow” in interprovincial trade. According to the Chinese MRIO 142
Table, every particular sector has a more or less monetary 143
output to support nonlocal industry. By contrast, residential 144
energy consumption cannot “flow” in trade, and was thus 145
excluded in our analysis. We used the industrial BC emissions 146
in WRF/Chem modeling for consistency with the MRIO 147
analysis by mapping the emissions with high spatial 148
resolution.³⁴ We also conducted additional simulations using 149
revised all-source anthropogenic BC emission inventory from 150
Wang et al. for model evaluation.³⁴ 151

Model Description and Configuration. WRF/Chem is a 152
meteorological model that enables the simulation of atmos- 153
pheric phenomena across scales ranging from meters to 154
thousands of kilometers.³⁸ WRF/Chem includes chemical 155
processes such as emissions, gas/aqueous phase chemistry 156
and dry/wet deposition.³⁹ WRF/Chem has been widely applied 157
to simulate the transport of BC and its radiative impact.^{38,40,41} 158
Real meteorological data are used as the initial and lateral 159
boundary condition input for the WRF/Chem model to 160
simulate the physical transport of BC aerosols. Here, we applied 161
a data set from the NCEP FNL Operational Model Global 162
Tropospheric Analyses, which provide data every 6 h for the 163
period from December 16, 2006, to December 31, 2007, for 164
model simulation. The first 2 weeks of the simulation were used 165
for model spin-up. 166

To quantify source–receptor relationships among the 30 167
provinces, an explicit tagging technique was used in WRF/ 168
Chem to avoid modifying BC emissions.⁴² This method differs 169
from the traditional sensitivity approach to avoid reducing BC 170
emissions that may strongly disturb the local climate. Similar 171
approaches have been previously applied in global models to 172
estimate the long-range transport of BC, OC and PM_{2.5} 173
between continental regions.^{13,32,43} In this tagging approach, 174
two classes of BC tracers are used for each “tagged” region. One 175
is for hydrophobic BC, which represents freshly emitted BC 176
species, and the other is for hydrophilic BC, which represents 177
aged BC and has sufficient soluble coating to behave as cloud 178
condensation nuclei (CCN). Therefore, 30 nonoverlapping 179
geographical regions were tagged individually with additional 180
variables to track their transportation and transformation until 181
deposition. Tagged BC has the same physical and chemical 182
properties as untagged BC, and the model thus accurately 183
predicts the pathways of BC dispersion and its influence on 184
surface concentration. 185

We use the WRF/Chem model to track the interprovincial 186
source–receptor relationships for BC in 2007 with a 0.2 × 0.2° 187
horizontal resolution. In general, the model agreed within a 188
factor of 2 with the observations. (As shown by Figure S1 in the 189
[Supporting Information](#), observational data were collected from 190

191 published literature.^{44–57} The spatial distribution of the data is
 192 shown in Figure S2.) The output results were archived hourly
 193 and used to calculate the average surface concentrations for a
 194 province over a given period of time for analysis.

195 **Multiregion Input–Output (MRIO) Analysis.** Originat-
 196 ing from Leontief,⁵⁸ input–output analysis has been widely
 197 used to link global and regional environmental issues with final
 198 consumption.^{31,33} In the past decade, environmental MRIO
 199 analysis has been developed to quantify emissions transfer via
 200 inter-regional trade.^{33,59,60} Here, we used the Chinese MRIO
 201 Table from 2007 that was developed by Liu et al. to quantify
 202 BC emissions embodied in traded products.³⁷ The MRIO table
 203 consists of three parts. Part One is the intermediate input/
 204 output for 17 sectors in 30 provinces. Part Two consists of
 205 provincial final consumption (i.e., urban household consump-
 206 tion, rural household consumption, government consumption
 207 and investment) and international export. Part Three consists
 208 of production-based BC emissions for 17 sectors in 30
 209 provinces.

210 For the entire system covering all provincial economies, we
 211 have the following balance of monetary flows:

$$212 \quad X = AX + Y \quad (2)$$

213 where X is a vector representing total monetary output for
 214 every province, A is a matrix with its elements defined as
 215 intermediate input to produce a unit output, and Y is a vector
 216 representing the total output of final consumption and
 217 international export in each province.

218 Consumption-based BC emissions can be obtained by
 219 introducing emission intensity, EI :

$$220 \quad C_c = EI(I - A)^{-1}Y_c \quad (3)$$

221 where EI is a vector with its elements defined as the direct BC
 222 emissions per unit of economic output, $(I - A)^{-1}$ is the
 223 Leontief inverse matrix and Y_c is the final consumption.

224 This basic formula can be further used to quantify emissions
 225 from the production of traded products. For instance, BC
 226 emissions embodied in the products exported from province f
 227 to province s can be calculated as

$$228 \quad C_c^{fs} = EI^f(I - A)^{-1}Y_c^s \quad (4)$$

229 where EI^f is a vector of BC emission intensity for province f but
 230 zero for all others and Y_c^s is the final consumption of province s .

231 ■ RESULTS

232 Physical Transport of BC via Atmospheric Movement.

233 Figure 1 shows the major cross-boundary influence pattern of
 234 the area-weighted annual mean surface BC concentration
 235 caused by industrial emissions. The annual mean surface BC
 236 concentrations range from $0.025 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (Qinghai) to $5.7 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$
 237 m^{-3} (Shanghai). Shanghai and Tianjin ($4.2 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) have the
 238 highest BC concentration. Major local sources of pollution for
 239 these two coastal megalopolises are traffic and transport sectors
 240 (as suggested by Figure S3), while emissions in their
 241 contiguous provinces also exert considerable influence.
 242 Industry-dominant provinces including Shandong ($2.8 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$),
 243 Henan ($2.9 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) and Liaoning ($2.0 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$) also have
 244 heavy BC concentrations. Moreover, provinces with heavier BC
 245 pollution are likely to be located along or near the coastline.
 246 Provincial BC concentrations are profoundly influenced by
 247 trans-boundary transport. The reciprocal effect between two
 248 contiguous provinces whose emissions share resemblances is

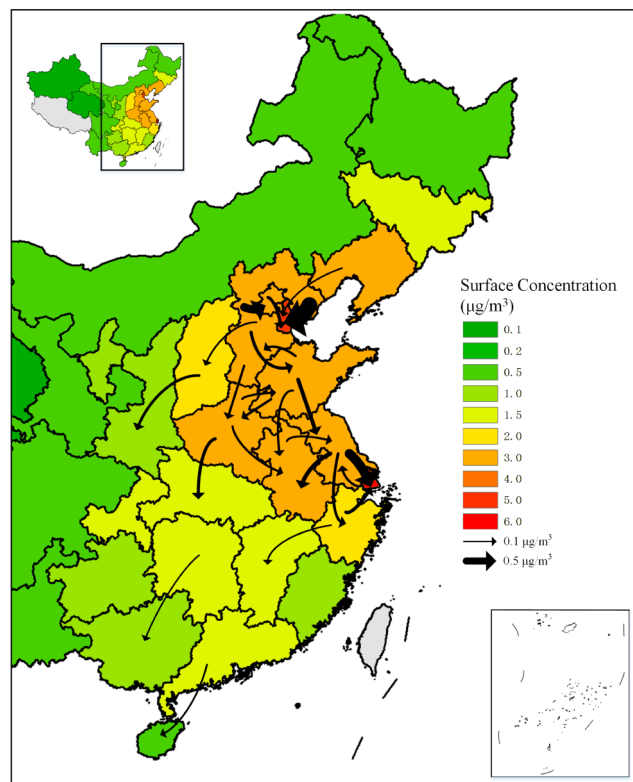


Figure 1. Largest surface BC concentration contribution via atmospheric transport within 30 provinces. The colors in the map indicate annual mean surface BC concentration. Arrows on the map reflect a typical contribution above $0.1 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$. The thickness of the arrows indicates the relative magnitude of the absolute interprovincial contribution of surface concentration.

generally comparable. It is particularly noticeable between 249
 Hebei and Shandong, Shandong and Henan, Jiangsu and 250
 Anhui, and Jiangsu and Shanghai, where approximately 10% of 251
 the BC concentrations in these provinces are contributed by 252
 one another. The northern provinces tend to be net 253
 contributors to the pollution load of the more southerly 254
 provinces in eastern China. Remarkably, Hebei is responsible 255
 for $0.59 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (24%) and $1.2 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (28%) surface BC 256
 concentrations in Beijing and Tianjin, respectively. It is also 257
 responsible for $0.13 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (7%) and $0.17 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (6%) of the 258
 BC concentration in Shanxi and Henan, respectively. Whereas 259
 Shanxi contributes $0.20 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (22%) BC in Shaanxi, and 260
 Henan contributes $0.23 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (19%) of the BC concentration 261
 in Hubei and $0.17 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ (8%) in Anhui. 262

Virtual Transfer of BC via Interprovincial Trade. Figure 263
 2(a) shows the comparison of total production-based and 264
 consumption-based BC emissions in 2007 for 30 Chinese 265
 provinces. Total industrial BC emissions amount to 894 Gg in 266
 China in 2007, which is consistent with previous studies.^{34,61,62} 267
 From the production perspective, Shandong ranks first with 268
 emissions of 79.7 Gg, followed by Henan (73.5 Gg), Shanxi 269
 (61.1 Gg) and Hebei (60.3 Gg). Provincial consumption-based 270
 BC emissions present a different distribution pattern, with 741
 Gg (83%) emissions induced by domestic demand. This 272
 percentage is comparable to previous results on primary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ 273
 and gaseous pollutants including SO_2 and NO_x .^{25,63} Except for 274
 Shandong (contributing 64.7 Gg emission), the southern 275
 provinces, including Zhejiang (57.2 Gg), Jiangsu (55.0 Gg) 276
 and Guangdong (51.2 Gg), hold the top positions. Remarkably, 277

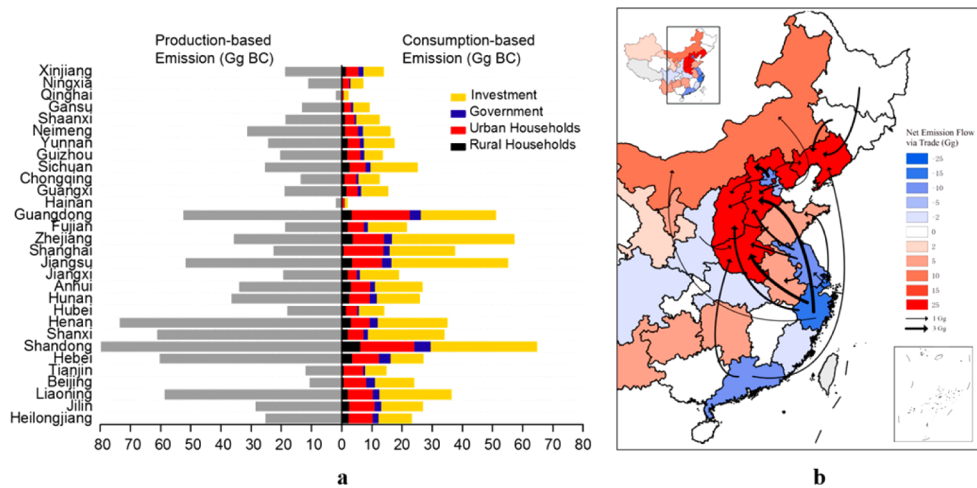


Figure 2. (a) Comparison between production-based and consumption-based BC emissions. Consumption-based BC emissions are categorized into four types based on final consumption. (b) Largest net fluxes in “traded” BC emissions among 30 provinces. Color in the map indicates total net emission budget (emission imports minus exports) via trade. Red indicates an emission importer, i.e., more BC is emitted due to the interprovincial trade. Blue indicates an emission exporter. The arrows reflect typical cross-border net emission flows above 1 Gg in interprovincial trade. The thickness of the arrows indicates the relative magnitude of the net BC emissions transferred between provinces.

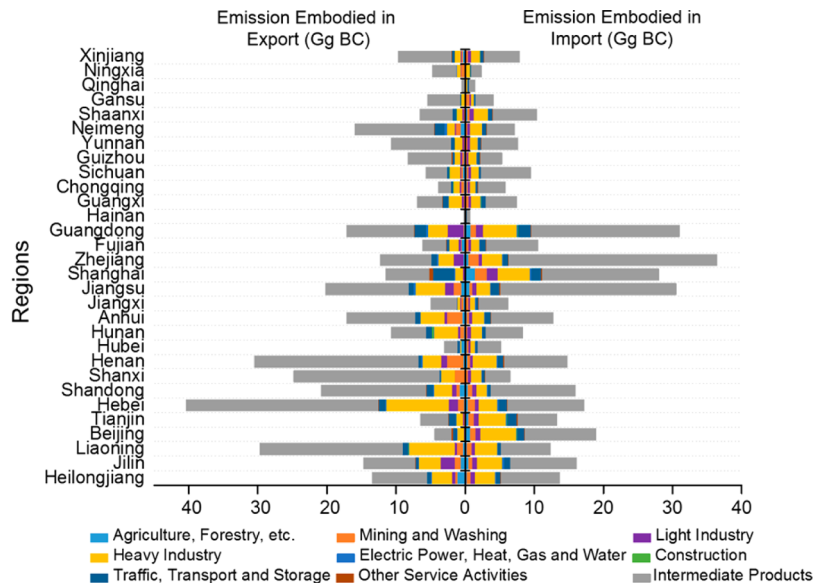


Figure 3. Sectoral BC emissions embodied in exported and imported products via interprovincial trade for 30 provinces; the 17 sectors in MRIO are sorted into 8 for clearer presentation and listed in Table S2. Intermediate products (dark gray) are embodied BC emissions used by industry.

278 the Yangtze River Delta contributes 20% of the total embodied
 279 BC emissions, although its domain area is less than 2% of the
 280 total area. Consumption-based emissions consist of emissions
 281 from four types of final consumption. Investment is the
 282 dominant motor driving industrial BC emissions for 29
 283 provinces (the exception is Xinjiang), contributing approx-
 284 imately 40–70% of the total consumption-based BC emissions.
 285 Urban household consumption is the second largest driver of
 286 BC emissions, ranging from 15% in Shanxi to 43% in Tianjin.
 287 Government consumption and rural household consumption
 288 account for the remaining 15%.

289 The difference between production-based and consumption-
 290 based BC emissions indicates that emissions are transferred via
 291 trade. Figure 2(b) illustrates net emissions transfer through
 292 trade (only the largest fluxes between provinces are shown).
 293 Thirteen of 30 provinces are net emissions importers, and the
 294 other 17 provinces are net exporters. Net importers are mainly

industry-dominant provinces such as Hebei (23.2 Gg), Shanxi
 295 (18.3 Gg), Liaoning (17.3 Gg) and Henan (15.7 Gg). Their
 296 industrial activities and associated emissions enhanced by trade
 297 support consumption across the country, particularly for a few
 298 developed provinces. Conversely, Zhejiang (24.1 Gg), Shanghai
 299 (16.4 Gg), Beijing (14.5 Gg) and Guangdong (13.8 Gg) are
 300 major BC exporters. They behave as exporters in trade with
 301 almost all other provinces, whereas the larger flows more often
 302 end up in Hebei and Henan.
 303

The pattern of major flows is from southeastern China to the
 304 North China Plain (NCP) geographically and from developed
 305 to less-developed provinces economically. The demand-driven
 306 flows can be categorized into three types based on the
 307 economic strength of emission exporter and importer, with the
 308 dominant pattern being from a province with abundant capital
 309 to a province owning heavy industry (Figure 2b). First, the
 310 largest BC emissions transfer occurs from Beijing to Hebei
 311

312 (with 4.2 Gg BC emissions being relocated), followed by a flow
 313 of 4.1 Gg emissions from Zhejiang to Hebei. Second, shifts in
 314 emissions between contiguous provinces of comparable
 315 economic strength are also noticeable. They occur noticeably
 316 within the Yangtze River Delta and northeastern provinces,
 317 including Heilongjiang, Jilin, and Liaoning, which indicate
 318 intimate economic relationships between contiguous provinces.
 319 The typical emission flows in this category are from Shanghai
 320 to Jiangsu (1.2 Gg) and from Jilin to Liaoning (2.7 Gg). The
 321 third type of flow is from industrial provinces to resource-rich
 322 but less-developed provinces, suggesting the need for inputting
 323 fundamental raw materials for industrial activities. For example,
 324 1.4 Gg of emissions are transported from Hebei to Shanxi. In
 325 general, trade-induced emission flows across China occur from
 326 south to north and coastal to inland, exhibiting a reversed
 327 source–receptor pattern to BC dispersion via atmospheric
 328 transport.

329 Apart from revealing emission flows from a regional aspect,
 330 MRIO can also explore the sectors that undertake the transfer
 331 of BC emissions in trade.³¹ Figure 3 shows the sector-specific
 332 BC emission transfer embodied in interprovincial trade. At the
 333 national level, nearly half of these trade-relevant emissions are
 334 caused by the production of intermediate products. This ratio is
 335 even higher in Shanxi, Gansu, Qinghai, Xinjiang, and Yunnan,
 336 where more than 80% of the emissions are caused by the
 337 massive quantities of low-value-added raw materials and energy
 338 that are produced for export. By contrast, Zhejiang and Jiangsu
 339 have the highest proportion of intermediate goods from the
 340 import aspect because these provinces lack natural resources
 341 but are advanced in processing capabilities.

342 Moreover, final use accounts for the remaining 15%–55% of
 343 trade-embodied emissions, in which heavy industry (including
 344 the petro-chemical, nonmetallic mineral products, and metallic
 345 mineral products) plays a dominant role in most provinces due
 346 to its intensive energy consumption. In addition to heavy
 347 industry, exporting agricultural products induces salient BC
 348 emissions in Hubei and Sichuan provinces; mining and washing
 349 are responsible for most trade-relevant BC emissions in Shanxi
 350 and Liaoning provinces. However, for Jiangsu and Zhejiang,
 351 light industry such as textile and timber processing is key to
 352 generating BC emissions. With regard to imported products,
 353 less-developed provinces tend to have a higher proportion of
 354 emission output in high-value products of light industry,
 355 whereas the provinces scarce in energy and raw materials are
 356 likely to depend on products of mining and washing in other
 357 provinces.

358 **Surface BC Concentrations from a Production and**
 359 **Consumption Perspective.** By combining atmospheric BC
 360 transport and emission flow in trade, the source of surface BC
 361 concentrations can be classified according to their on-site
 362 emission region and the final consumer of the relevant
 363 products. With regard to whether BC is emitted locally or
 364 from other provinces, BC concentration can be classified as
 365 either local or domestic production. Meanwhile, from a
 366 consumption-based perspective, BC concentration can be
 367 referred to as local, domestic or foreign consumption. We
 368 specify “domestic consumption” as the consumption from the
 369 other 29 provinces, and “foreign consumption” as the
 370 internationally exported products from the province where
 371 production-based BC is generated. From an on-site emission
 372 perspective, 9 provinces (i.e., Hubei, Anhui, Jiangxi, Hainan,
 373 Guangxi, Chongqing, Guizhou, Shaanxi, and Qinghai) have a
 374 share of domestic-production concentration (i.e., originated

from the other 29 provinces, namely the green, yellow, and
 light gray portions in Figure 4) over 50%. Others are typically

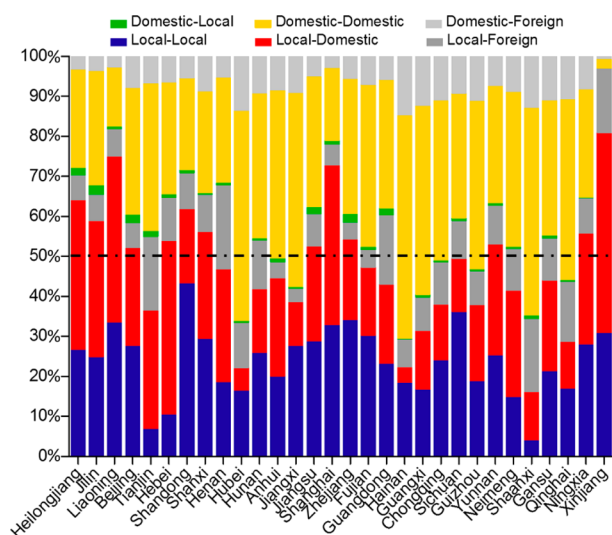


Figure 4. Contribution of surface BC concentration in 30 provinces from both production and consumption perspectives. Blue (local–local), red (local–domestic), dark gray (local–foreign) columns indicate the percentage of surface concentration in a province that is contributed by its own on-site emissions but induced by consumptions from its own province, the rest 29 provinces, and foreign countries, respectively. Comparably, green (domestic–local), yellow (domestic–domestic), and light gray (domestic–foreign) columns, respectively, indicate the percentage that is contributed by the emissions released in the other 29 provinces but induced by local, domestic and foreign consumptions. The dashed line at 50% marks the comparison between surface concentrations contributed by local and nonlocal on-site emissions.

within 30–50%, and the lowest (3%) is in Xinjiang. This
 indicates the importance of local emissions, but trans-boundary
 transport is also a noteworthy contributor. With regard to the
 key provinces for air pollution mitigation, Beijing has a
 proportion of domestic-production BC surface concentration
 equal to 42%, Tianjin 45%, Shanghai 22%, Jiangsu 39%,
 Zhejiang 41%, and Guangdong 40%. BC concentration
 originating from other provinces but induced by local
 consumption (i.e., the green portion in Figure 4) is very
 small (<3%) and mainly driven by neighboring provinces.

From the consumption perspective, final demands within
 mainland China on average induce 82% of provincial surface
 BC concentration across China. Domestic-consumption-
 induced concentration (i.e., the red plus yellow portions in
 Figure 4) is greater than local-consumption-induced concen-
 tration (i.e., the blue plus green portions in Figure 4) for all
 provinces, which indicates the profound influence of inter-
 regional trade and trans-boundary transport on concentration.
 The proportion of BC concentration generated locally but
 induced by domestic consumption ranges from 4% in Hainan
 to 50% in Xinjiang and reflects the comparative industrial scales
 for supporting local living standards or for securing economic
 growth via exports. This proportion is above 30% for typical
 emission importers. Particularly, 43 and 41% of the
 concentration in Hebei and Liaoning, respectively, is
 contributed by the local emissions induced by domestic
 consumption. Meanwhile, for emissions-exporting provinces,
 such as Beijing, Zhejiang and Guangdong, this proportion falls

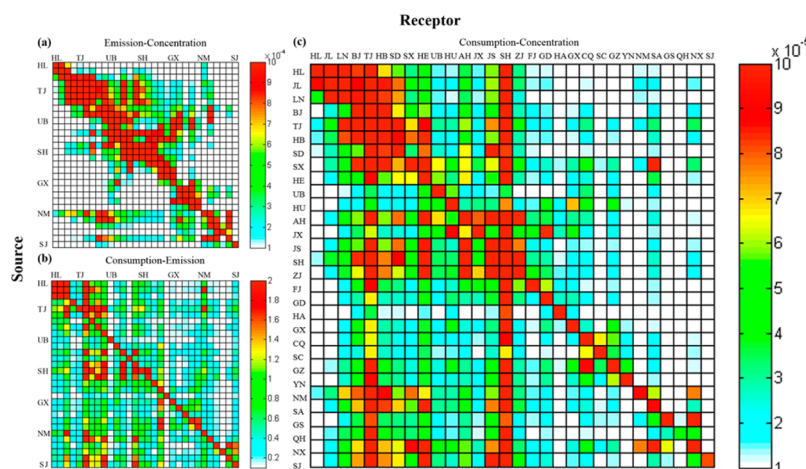


Figure 5. (a) Source-receptor relationship between provincial emission and BC concentration (area-weighted at the surface) among 30 provinces (unit: $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{Gg}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$). (b) Source-receptor relationship between provincial final consumption and on-site emission (unit: tons per billion Yuan). (c) Source-receptor relationship between provincial final consumption and surface BC concentration (unit: $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{billion Yuan}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$). Province abbreviations are HL, Heilongjiang; JL, Jilin; LN, Liaoning; BJ, Beijing; TJ, Tianjin; HB, Hebei; SD, Shandong; SX, Shanxi; HE, Henan; UB, Hubei; HU, Hunan; AH, Anhui; JX, Jiangxi; JS, Jiangsu; SH, Shanghai; ZJ, Zhejiang; FJ, Fujian; GD, Guangdong; HA, Hainan; GX, Guangxi; CQ, Chongqing; SC, Sichuan; GZ, Guizhou; YN, Yunnan; NM, Neimeng; SA, Shaanxi; GS, Gansu; QH, Qinghai; NX, Ningxia; SJ, Xinjiang (also, Table S1 in the Supporting Information).

405 to near 20%. However, Shanghai has a higher percentage (40%)
 406 of local-domestic concentration because of its considerable
 407 share of industry to support domestic consumption.

408 **Source-Receptor Relationship from Combined Pro-**
 409 **duction and Consumption Perspectives.** To combine the
 410 influence of atmospheric transport and interprovincial trade on
 411 surface BC concentrations and emissions, which is informative
 412 for judging the priority of cooperative action for pollution
 413 mitigation, we introduce three source-receptor indicators
 414 shown in Figure 5.

415 Figure 5(a) shows the emission-concentration relationship
 416 that is defined as the annual averaged surface BC concentration
 417 over a receptor resulting from a unit of emission in a source
 418 region (in $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{Gg}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$).²⁹ This atmospheric transport
 419 efficiency is calculated by dividing the source-produced
 420 concentration in a receptor by total annual emission in the
 421 source region. The colored chart shows a pattern in which a
 422 receptor is more sensitive to its own emissions than to
 423 domestic emissions and to upwind contiguously located sources
 424 than to remote ones. Normalized BC concentrations resulting
 425 from local emission range from 0.0047 $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{Gg}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$ in
 426 Xinjiang to 0.20 $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{Gg}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$ in Shanghai, which is
 427 mainly determined by the emission density. Nonlocal
 428 contributions to BC concentration from neighboring provinces
 429 is typically 1–2 orders of magnitude smaller than local
 430 emissions but more than 1–2 orders of magnitude larger
 431 than emissions from remote provinces. Provinces within Jing-
 432 Jin-Ji and the Yangtze River Delta share a close relationship in
 433 BC concentration through atmospheric transport. For instance,
 434 1 Gg annual emission in Beijing and Hebei can increase the
 435 surface BC concentration in Tianjin by 0.022 and 0.019 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$,
 436 respectively. Similarly, the bilateral influence between Jiangsu,
 437 Shanghai and Zhejiang ranges from 0.003 to 0.013 $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/$
 438 $(\text{Gg}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$.

439 Figure 5(b) shows the trade-induced consumption-emission
 440 relationship that is defined as the production-based BC
 441 emissions of a receptor associated with a unit of domestic
 442 consumption from a source (in tons of BC per billion Yuan), in
 443 which consumption includes the sum of four final con-

444 sumption.³⁰ This BC intensity is calculated by dividing the
 445 source-induced BC emission in a receptor by total annual final
 446 consumption in the source region. Unlike Figure 5(a), in which
 447 the pattern of atmospheric transport exhibits a diagonal
 448 distribution, the consumption-emission graph reflects a
 449 column-like distribution, which indicates that massive amounts
 450 of BC imported from almost all other provinces via trade into
 451 some industry-dominant provinces (e.g., Hebei, Henan, and
 452 Liaoning). Normalized production-based BC emissions induced
 453 by local consumption range from 3.4 tons per billion Yuan in
 454 Tianjin to 53.4 tons per billion Yuan in Shanxi. Generally, this
 455 value is higher in provinces with massive energy consumption
 456 than in developed provinces with strict environmental laws.
 457 However, those developed provinces relocate significant
 458 amounts of emissions to other provinces. The proportion of
 459 emissions caused in other 29 provinces is comparable to the
 460 proportion of local on-site emissions in developed provinces.
 461 Every billion Yuan of consumption in Tianjin produces 5.6 tons
 462 of BC emissions in Hebei, 1.6 times its own local emission
 463 intensity. Similarly, Hebei and Henan receives 2.4 and 2.1 tons
 464 of BC emissions, respectively, for every billion Yuan of
 465 consumption in the Yangtze River Delta. Heilongjiang and
 466 Jilin shift 7.2 and 8.4 tons of BC emissions, respectively, to
 467 Liaoning for every one billion Yuan of consumption.

468 Figure 5(c) shows the consumption-concentration relation-
 469 ship, that is, annual averaged surface BC concentration in a
 470 receptor resulting from a unit of domestic consumption in a
 471 source (in $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{billion Yuan}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1})$), which considers the
 472 joint influence of trans-boundary transport and inter-regional
 473 trade on surface BC concentration together. This consumption
 474 influence efficiency is calculated by concentration in a receptor
 475 caused by on-site emissions in 30 provinces that are induced by
 476 a unit of annual consumption in a source. The pattern of the
 477 graph is a combination of Figure 5(a,b), showing both
 478 aggregated groups along the diagonal and column-like
 479 distribution of eminent contributions. The bilateral influence
 480 of domestic consumption within Jing-Jin-Ji and the Yangtze
 481 River Delta is more than 8×10^{-5} $(\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3})/(\text{billion Yuan}\cdot$
 482 $\text{yr}^{-1})$. Northeastern provinces also show intimate internal

relationships regarding both atmospheric transport and interprovincial trade. Surprisingly, Tianjin and Shanghai are the two provinces most vulnerable to consumption-based emissions in other provinces despite being net BC exporters in interprovincial trade. The average surface BC concentration resulting from a unit of consumption in a nonlocal source region in Shanghai and Tianjin is 1.5×10^{-4} ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$)/(billion Yuan $\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$) and 1.4×10^{-4} ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$)/(billion Yuan $\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$), respectively. This phenomenon can be attributed to the considerably high BC concentration resulting from a unit of local-production emission and a prevailing proportion of local-production emission induced by domestic consumption than by local consumption. Although they are densely urbanized metropolises, Tianjin and Shanghai have a considerable scale of secondary industry, which induces a massive emission import (S3, Supporting Information). In addition, the source–receptor relationship between consumption and concentration is also noticeable within some emission exporters and importers in interprovincial trade. Per-billion Yuan annual consumption from a source province can lead to an approximately 8×10^{-5} $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ increase in BC concentration in a receptor province. In particular, BC concentrations in Liaoning and Hebei are largely affected by domestic-consumption emissions particularly from the Jing-Jin-Ji area and Shanxi, whereas the concentrations in Anhui and Jiangsu are affected by emissions from the Yangtze Delta area and Anhui. In Henan and Shandong, BC concentration is sensitive to consumption in all the source provinces mentioned above. These provinces may show a close relationship for air pollution control.

DISCUSSION

Using WRF/Chem modeling and environmental MRIO analysis, we quantified the source–receptor relationship of atmospheric transport and trade-induced geographical relocation of BC emissions. By combining the dual effects, we traced the influence from both producer and consumer perspectives on BC surface concentration for each province in China. The results can provide insights into collaborative efforts on air pollution control for policy makers.

The source–receptor relationship of physical BC transport among provinces is largely determined by both the amount of BC emissions and the direction of prevailing winds. Depending on locations, more than 20% of surface BC concentration may originate from a neighboring province, particularly for provinces such as Tianjin and Hubei, which are located downwind contiguously of major BC source provinces (such as Hebei and Henan). By contrast, provinces such as Hebei, Shanxi, Henan, Zhejiang, and Guangdong transport substantial BC pollution to their neighbor provinces. Notably, in inland China, where the north wind is dominant particularly in autumn and winter because of the influence of the Siberian High, BC transport typically occurs more usually from north to south. In southeastern coastal China, however, where airflow is driven by the Hawaiian High, BC transport occurs mainly northwestward during the summer. Combining these two factors, the proportion of surface BC concentration caused by the other provinces varies from 3 to 71%. Provinces such as Hubei, Shaanxi, and Hainan are vulnerable to nonlocal emissions because of their relatively small scale of industry compared with their neighbors with massive industrial production. Beijing, Shandong, Jiangsu, and other provinces with on-site emissions comparable to those of their neighbors are also sensitive to domestic-production emissions. Several

provinces, such as Xinjiang, Liaoning and Shanghai, have a percentage above 75% of the local-production surface BC concentration owing to their location and the total amount of BC emissions, which indicates a local-production dominant situation.

Unlike atmospheric transport, which is driven by natural forces, domestic trade relocates BC in a different way. Beijing, Tianjin, Guangdong and the Yangtze River Delta are more likely to outsource BC emissions via interprovincial trade to industrial provinces including Hebei, Henan, Shanxi, and Liaoning. For developed provinces such as Beijing and Shanghai, consumption-based BC emissions can be double the production-based BC emissions, whereas in industry-dominant provinces such as Hebei and Shanxi, net BC emissions transferred via trade amount to approximately 30% of their production-based emissions. Surface BC concentration generated by local emission but induced by domestic consumption can account for more than 30% of the total concentration in these provinces. In addition, three northeastern provinces show tight economic connections, and Liaoning plays the major role of emissions importer. This imbalance in interprovincial trade may be due largely to the enormous disparity in wealth and economic structure among provinces. Although emission transport via trade is bilateral, developed provinces are more likely to import low value-added commodities in the heavy industry, mining and washing, and agricultural sectors from less-developed provinces according to their mainstay industry, while exporting technology-containing commodities from light industry.

Combining these two aspects, it is reasonable to say that the patterns of atmospheric transport and interprovincial trade are the opposite of one another. Emission flows from Beijing and Tianjin to Hebei are transported in reverse to influence the local BC concentration. Similar patterns can also be observed from Shanghai to Jiangsu and Zhejiang. Moreover, consumption in developed provinces located along the southeastern coastline increases BC concentration and exerts adverse influence on air quality in those emission input industry-dominant provinces, mainly on NCP via trade. These phenomena may serve as a major motivation for the close cooperation between provinces on air pollution control as advocated in the “Law of the People’s Republic of China on the Prevention and Control of Atmospheric Pollution.” By introducing advanced technology from developed provinces to industry-dominant provinces and by taking cross-regional governance into consideration, the supportive provinces benefit in that their surface pollutant concentration caused by domestic-production emissions is reduced. Meanwhile, cooperation contributes to reducing surface BC concentration in the emission source, which may compensate for the pollutant transferred via interprovincial trade. Overall air quality in China can also be enhanced because downwind provinces suffer less from trans-boundary emissions. Generally, neighboring provinces have a more intimate relationship concerning both trans-boundary transport and interprovincial trade, which indicates their optimal prospects for joint efforts on mitigating air pollution. Two partly overlapping control zones for collaborative action on air pollution mitigation with prior concern are promoted according to our study. The Huabei control zone, led by the Jing-Jin-Ji area, together with Shandong, Shanxi, Liaoning, and Henan has a close relationship with respect to both trans-boundary transport and virtual transfer of emissions. Liaoning is also intimate with Jilin and Heilongjiang and may

608 implement multilateral supervision action. Meanwhile, for
609 Shandong and Henan, cooperation with the Yangtze River
610 Delta (i.e., Jiangsu, Shanghai, and Zhejiang) and Anhui can also
611 achieve enhanced efficiency in emission mitigation. These six
612 provinces comprise the Huadong control zone.

613 ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

614 ● Supporting Information

615 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the
616 ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.est.5b05989.

617 Provinces and sectors information, emission factors of
618 BC for eight fuel types, sectoral distribution of provincial
619 production-based BC emissions, and the evaluation of
620 model simulation with observations. (PDF)

621 Simplified Chinese MRIO Table (2007) for 30 provinces
622 and 17 sectors. (XLSX)

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628 Notes

629 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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