

Province-level fossil fuel CO₂ emission estimates for China based on seven inventories

Pengfei Han^{1,14*†}, Xiaohui Lin^{2,14}, Ning Zeng³, Tomohiro Oda⁴, Wen Zhang^{2*}, Di Liu^{1*}, Qixiang Cai¹, Monica Crippa⁵, Dabo Guan⁶, Xiaolin Ma⁷, Greet Janssens-Maenhout⁵, Wenjun Meng⁸, Yuli Shan⁹, Shu Tao⁸, Guocheng Wang², Haikun Wang⁷, Rong Wang¹⁰, Lin Wu², Qiang Zhang¹¹, Fang Zhao¹², Bo Zheng¹³

¹State Key Laboratory of Numerical Modeling for Atmospheric Sciences and Geophysical Fluid Dynamics, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

²State Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Boundary Layer Physics and Atmospheric Chemistry, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, China

³Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Science, and Earth System Science Interdisciplinary Center, University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland, USA

⁴Goddard Earth Sciences Research and Technology, Universities Space Research Association, Columbia, MD, United States

⁵European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC), Ispra, Italy

⁶Department of Earth System Science, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China

⁷State Key Laboratory of Pollution Control and Resource Reuse, School of the Environment, Nanjing University, Nanjing, China

⁸Laboratory for Earth Surface Processes, College of Urban and Environmental

Sciences, Peking University, Beijing, China

⁹Energy and Sustainability Research Institute Groningen, University of Groningen,
Groningen 9747 AG, Netherlands

¹⁰Department of Environmental Science and Engineering, Fudan University, Shanghai,
China

¹¹Ministry of Education Key Laboratory for Earth System Modeling, Department of
Earth System Science, Tsinghua University, Beijing, China

¹²Key Laboratory of Geographic Information Science (Ministry of Education), School
of Geographic Sciences, East China Normal University, Shanghai, China

¹³Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement, CEA-CNRS-UVSQ,
UMR8212, Gif-sur-Yvette, France

¹⁴These authors contributed equally: Pengfei Han and Xiaohui Lin.

†Authors are listed alphabetically after Di Liu.

* **Correspondence:** pfhan@mail.iap.ac.cn; zhw@mail.iap.ac.cn; liudi@mail.iap.ac.cn

1 **Abstract**

2 China pledges to reach a peak in CO₂ emissions by 2030 and to make its best efforts
3 to reach this peak earlier. Previous studies have paid much attention to the total
4 amount of China's CO₂ emissions, but usually only one dataset is used in each
5 evaluation. The pledged national reduction target is administratively divided into
6 provincial targets. Accurate interpretation of province-level carbon emissions is
7 essential for making policies and achieving the reduction target. However, the
8 spatiotemporal pattern of provincial emissions and the associated uncertainty are still
9 poorly understood. Thus, an assessment of province-level CO₂ emissions considering
10 local statistical data and emission factors is urgently needed. Here, we collected and
11 analyzed 7 published emission datasets to comprehensively evaluate the
12 spatiotemporal distribution of provincial CO₂ emissions. We found that the provincial
13 emissions ranged from 20-649 Mt CO₂ and that the standard deviations (SDs) ranged
14 from 8-159 Mt. Furthermore, the emissions estimated from provincial-data-based
15 inventories were more consistent than those from the spatial disaggregation of
16 national energy statistics, with mean SDs of 26 and 65 Mt CO₂ in 2012, respectively.
17 Temporally, emissions in most provinces increased from 2000 to approximately 2012
18 and leveled off afterwards. The interannual variation in provincial CO₂ emissions was
19 captured by provincial-data-based inventories but generally missed by
20 national-data-based inventories. When compared with referenced inventories, the
21 discrepancy for provincial estimates could reach -57%-162% for national-data-based
22 inventories but were less than 45% for provincial-data-based inventories. Using
23 comprehensive data sets, the range presented here incorporated more factors and
24 showed potential systematic biases. Our results indicate that it is more suitable to use
25 provincial inventories when making policies for subnational CO₂ reductions or when
26 performing atmospheric CO₂ simulations. To reduce uncertainties in provincial
27 emission estimates, we suggest the use of local optimized coal emission factors and
28 validations of inventories by direct measurement data and remote sensing results.

29

30 **Keywords:** fossil fuel CO₂; provincial emissions; multiple inventories; climate
31 mitigations

32

33

34 **Abbreviations:**

35 ODIAC: Open-Data Inventory for Anthropogenic Carbon dioxide, EDGAR:
36 Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research, PKU: Peking University-CO₂,
37 MEIC: Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China, NJU: Nanjing University-CO₂,
38 CHRED: China High Resolution Emission Database, CEADs: China Emission
39 Accounts and Datasets, CDIAC: Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, GDP:
40 gross domestic production, NBS: National Bureau of Statistics of the People's
41 Republic of China, EF: emission factor, IPCC: The Intergovernmental Panel on
42 Climate Change.

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Anthropogenic CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion and industrial processes
45 are primarily responsible for global warming by increasing atmospheric CO₂
46 concentrations (Stocker et al., 2013). Over 2008-2017, the mean global fossil CO₂
47 emissions (FFCO₂) were $9.4 \pm 0.5 \text{ Gt C yr}^{-1}$ (Le Quéré et al., 2018). Currently,
48 stabilizing the concentration of atmospheric CO₂ has become one of the most urgent
49 challenges for humanity (Ballantyne et al., 2018). Efforts for climate change
50 mitigation are making progress after the implementation of the Paris Agreement,
51 which helps to regulate the total amount of CO₂ emitted into the atmosphere to limit
52 warming to below 2 °C in the long term (Rogelj et al., 2016; Schleussner et al., 2016).
53 China plays a crucial role in climate change mitigation due to its large contribution
54 (~30%) to global total CO₂ emissions (Le Quéré et al., 2018). The Chinese
55 government pledges to reach a peak in its emissions by 2030 and has established a set
56 of carbon emission reduction actions in the 13th Five-Year Plan (NDRC, 2016).
57 Therefore, an accurate assessment of China's CO₂ emissions is a vital step towards
58 formulating emission reduction policies.

59 More efforts have been made to estimate the amount of CO₂ emissions at the national
60 scale (Guan et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2013; Shan et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2014) and
61 from key emitting sectors in China (Guo et al., 2014; Liu, F. et al., 2015; Shan et al.,
62 2018a; Shan et al., 2016b; Zheng et al., 2014). However, large uncertainty still exists
63 due to the discrepancy between emission factors and energy statistics used by
64 different inventories (Berenzin et al., 2013; Hong et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2012). The
65 quality of energy statistics is considered the largest contributor to the accuracy of
66 emission estimates (Guan et al., 2012). The emissions estimated from provincial
67 energy statistics were generally higher than those from national statistics (Guan et al.,
68 2012; Shan et al., 2016a). The difference is mainly caused by the inconsistency
69 between national and provincial energy statistics. The energy-induced uncertainty
70 could be attributed to the different statistical standards, inadequacies in China's

71 statistical system and artificial factors (Hong et al., 2017; Shan et al., 2016a).
72 Furthermore, the discrepancy in energy data could result in a substantial effect on the
73 emission trends (Hong et al., 2017). However, we still have a limited understanding of
74 the influence of energy statistics differences on the spatiotemporal distribution of CO₂
75 emissions.

76 The carbon emissions in China have significant regional heterogeneity due to
77 differences in social conditions, economic development, urbanization level, industry
78 structure, and trade openness among regions (Bai et al., 2014; Dong and Liang, 2014;
79 Xu and Lin, 2016). To interpret the differentiated contributions of regions to CO₂
80 emissions, several researchers have focused on provincial-level carbon emissions in
81 recent years (Bai et al., 2014; Du et al., 2017; Shan et al., 2016a). This analysis can
82 improve the understanding of the spatial patterns of emissions and provide assistance
83 in allocating different responsibilities and setting emission targets (Shao et al., 2018).
84 To date, provincial-level CO₂ emission estimates have been developed on the basis of
85 provincial or national energy statistics. Verified provincial statistics have been shown
86 to better agree with satellite observations (Akimoto et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2012).
87 Emissions based on national statistics were downscaled from national totals to
88 province-level values according to provincial fractions or spatial proxies (Asefi-
89 Najafabady et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2012), such as PKU-CO₂ (Wang et al., 2013) and
90 the Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center (CDIAC). However, disaggregating
91 national emissions to the subnational or grid level using population and nightlight
92 maps as a proxy results in spatial biases in allocating emissions within a country
93 (Asefi-Najafabady et al., 2014; Rayner et al., 2010), especially in China (Liu et al.,
94 2013; Wang et al., 2013). Therefore, quantitative evaluation of emissions uncertainty
95 caused by different energy statistics and different proxies at the subnational level is
96 urgently needed, and the evaluation of provincial emissions will provide data that are
97 needed for local reductions and mitigations.

98 This study is a first attempt to comprehensively evaluate provincial emission
99 estimates using the most up-to-date inventories. The purposes were to estimate the

100 magnitude and uncertainty or differences in provincial CO₂ emissions based on seven
101 datasets, identify the commonalities and disparities of provincial carbon emissions in
102 terms of spatiotemporal variations among different estimates, and thus provide
103 support for policymakers to develop region-oriented emissions reduction policies.
104 This study also indicated that national-level data-based inventories may not be
105 suitable for local policy making. In the following sections, we first introduce the data
106 and methods (Sections 2.1 and 2.2) and then present the results in the following 5
107 sections (Sections 3.1 - 3.5): the provincial emissions and standard deviations (SDs);
108 temporal emissions changes from 2000 – 2018; fractions of the high emitting
109 provinces; correlations of inventories' estimates at the provincial level; and
110 differences between the estimates and the referenced inventories. Third, we discuss
111 the root causes (activity data at provincial and national levels, coal emission factor
112 and spatial proxies) that contribute to the differences and implications for inventory
113 use and improvement (Sections 4.1 - 4.4).

114 **2. Data and methods**

115 **2.1 Data**

116 The evaluation of provincial-level CO₂ emissions was conducted from 7 published
117 CO₂ emission estimates based on national and provincial energy statistics (Table S1).
118 Specifically, the global fossil fuel and industrial processes CO₂ emission datasets
119 included the year 2018 version of ODIAC (ODIAC2018), version v5.0 of EDGAR
120 (EDGARv5.0, <https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/overview.php?v=booklet2019>), and
121 version 2 of PKU-CO₂ (PKU-CO₂-v2), which are developed from the national energy
122 statistics of the International Energy Agency (IEA). The provincial-statistics-based
123 emission datasets were the data for the years 2007 and 2012 from CHRED, version
124 1.3 of MEIC (MEIC v1.3), NJU-CO₂ and CEADs, which used provincial energy
125 balance sheets from China Energy Statistical Yearbook (CESY) activity data. For
126 detailed methods and key features of the total emission estimates and spatial

127 disaggregation, please refer to the Supplementary Materials, Tables S2 and S3, and
128 Han et al. (2020). Data for the year 2012 were used in spatial analysis since it was the
129 most recent year for all data sets.

130 The Open-source Data Inventory for Anthropogenic CO₂ (ODIAC) is primarily based
131 on country-level emission estimates for three fuel types from the CDIAC and has used
132 the BP Statistical Review of World Energy for recent years (Oda and Maksyutov,
133 2011; Oda et al., 2018). The Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research
134 (EDGAR) was developed by the European Commission's Joint Research Centre (JRC)
135 based on IEA national statistics for fossil fuel combustion sources and other
136 international statistics as input activity data under the guidelines of the
137 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) and technology-specific emission
138 factors (Crippa et al., 2019; Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019). PKU-CO₂ (PKU) was
139 developed from the Peking University Fuel Inventories (PKU-FUEL), which used a
140 subnational disaggregation method (SDM) based on the combustion rates for different
141 fuel types compiled at the global/national level and emission factors, and for China, it
142 used NBS provincial consumption fractions to spatially distribute the IEA total energy
143 consumption amount (Wang et al., 2013). MEIC was developed by Tsinghua
144 University using a technology-based methodology built upon more than 700
145 anthropogenic sources and emission factors (Li et al., 2017; Liu, F. et al., 2015; Zheng,
146 2018). NJU-CO₂ was developed at Nanjing University using a sectoral approach
147 under the guidelines of the IPCC (Liu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2019). CHRED was
148 constructed by enterprise-level point sources from the First China Pollution Source
149 Census (FCPSC) survey and used local emission factors compiled by the NCCC (Cai
150 et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2014). The CEADs were calculated based on apparent energy
151 consumption data and the most up-to-date emission factors using the sectoral and
152 reference approaches under the guidelines of the IPCC (Guan et al., 2018; Shan et al.,
153 2016a).

154 Considering the differences in national and provincial energy statistics, the 7
155 inventories were classified into two groups: one includes ODIAC, EDGAR, and PKU,

156 and the other includes MEIC, NJU, CHRED, and CEADs. CHRED is based on the
157 most comprehensive enterprise-level data (1.5 million enterprises) from a national
158 pollution source census and regular pollution reporting systems in China (Cai et al.,
159 2019; Wang et al., 2014). The CEADs are based on apparent energy consumption data
160 and local optimized emission factors that are similar to China's fossil fuel quality
161 based on 602 coal samples and 4243 coal mines (Liu, Z. et al., 2015). Therefore, CO₂
162 emissions calculated from CHRED and CEADs were used as a reference to evaluate
163 the estimates from other emission datasets.

164 **2.2 Methods**

165 These inventories were first extracted by provincial mask (in shapefile format)
166 from the National Geomatics Center of China using ArcGIS 10.02 software (ESRI,
167 2012). To allocate the carbon emissions with ArcGIS when a grid spans more than
168 two provinces, we first change the grid data into polygon (shapefile) format, calculate
169 the area fraction of the irregular shape that falls within a certain province, and apply
170 this fraction to the total emissions of this polygon; this result is assumed to be the
171 emissions allocated to this province. This method produces a difference of 4% with
172 respect to the NJU products, which provide both tabular data and gridded data.
173 Emission intensity was calculated as CO₂ emissions divided by the gross domestic
174 product (GDP) (billion USD), which was derived from the National Bureau of
175 Statistics of the People's Republic of China (NBS). The GDP data were adjusted by a
176 purchasing power parity (PPP) conversion factor, defined as the number of local
177 currency units required to buy the same amounts of goods and services in the local
178 market that a US dollar would buy in the United States in the reference year 2010

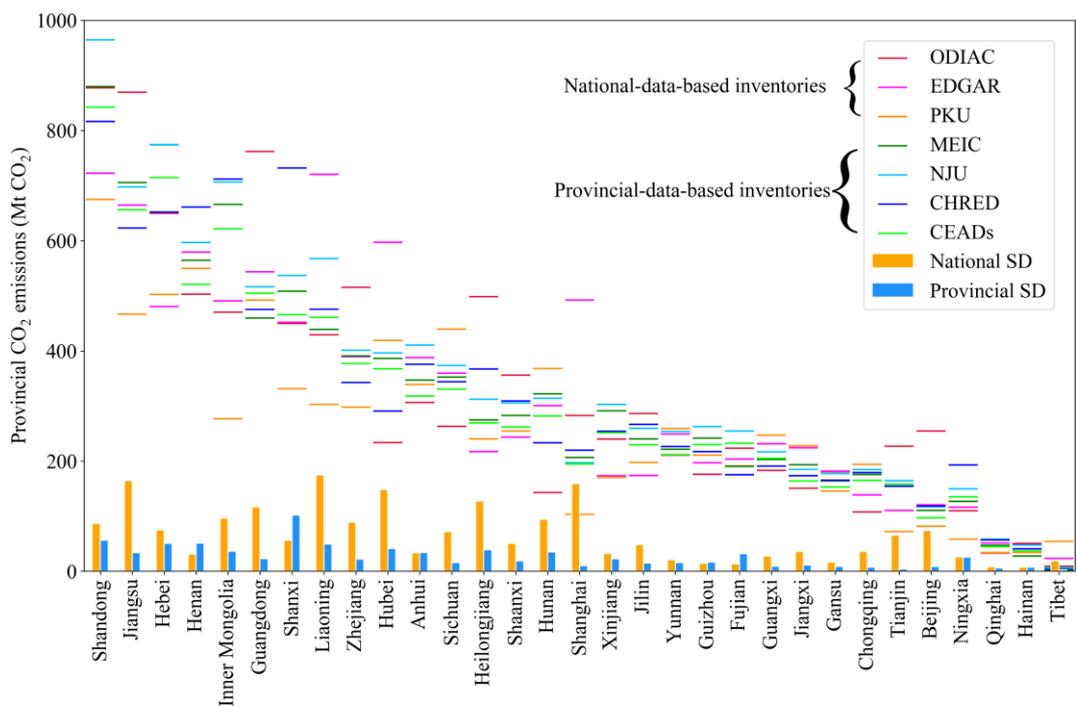
179 (Wang et al., 2019). Correlation relationships (R) were conducted using the Python
 180 Scipy package (Virtanen, 2020) between inventories, and figures were plotted using
 181 the matplotlib package (Hunter, 2007) and ArcGIS.

182

183 3. Results

184 3.1 Provincial CO₂ emissions derived from national and provincial energy statistics

185



186

187 Fig. 1 Provincial CO₂ emissions in 2012 for 7 inventories and standard deviations
 188 (SDs) based on national- and provincial-data-based inventories.

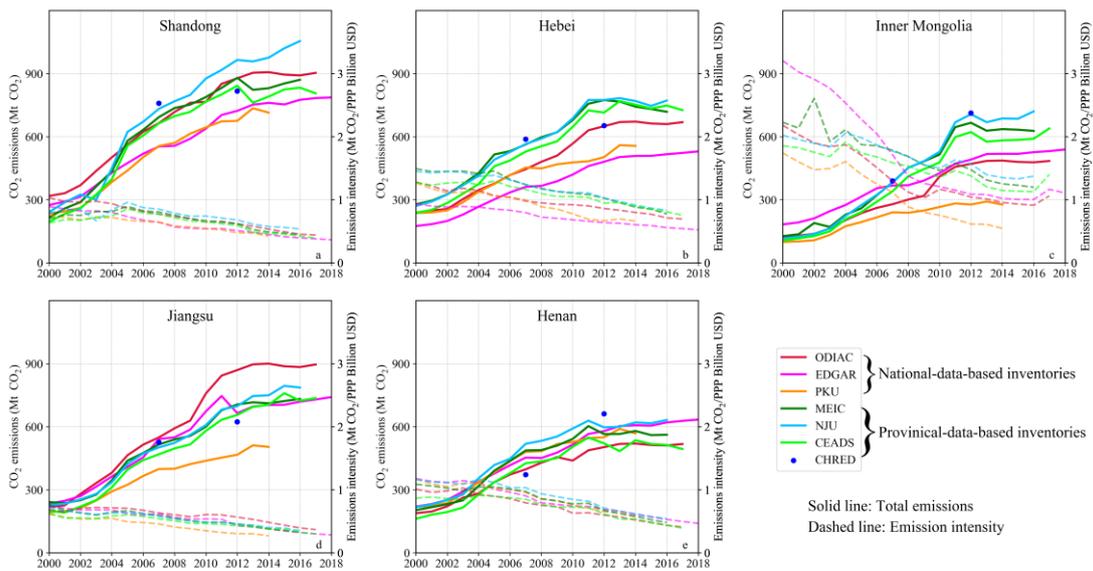
189

190 The CO₂ emissions of the 31 provinces in 2012 varied greatly, ranging from dozens of
 191 Mt to approximately 900 Mt (Fig. 1). The top 5 emitting provinces were Shandong
 192 (876±56 Mt CO₂), Hebei (729±50 Mt CO₂), Inner Mongolia (677±36 Mt CO₂),
 193 Jiangsu (671±33 Mt CO₂), and Henan (586±51 Mt CO₂) based on provincial energy
 194 statistics. Lower levels of emissions were observed in Qinghai, Hainan and Tibet

195 provinces (<100 Mt CO₂) (Fig. 1). The estimates for each province's CO₂ emissions
 196 in 2012 varied greatly, with differences ranging from 23% (Yunnan) to 232%
 197 (Ningxia). Moreover, the estimates for the top emitting provinces showed large
 198 uncertainties (Fig. 1). Specifically, the CO₂ emissions in the top 7 provinces
 199 (Shandong, Jiangsu, Hebei, Inner Mongolia, Guangdong, Liaoning, and Shanxi)
 200 account for nearly 50% of total emissions, with absolute differences ranging from 158
 201 to 435 Mt CO₂ in 2012. However, western provinces with low emissions, e.g., Gansu,
 202 Qinghai, Guizhou, and Hainan, had smaller discrepancies. The SDs of the inventories
 203 based on provincial statistics were generally less (26 Mt CO₂) than those based on
 204 national statistics (65 Mt CO₂) in 2012. For example, the emission estimates in
 205 Jiangsu and Shanghai based on national statistics showed obvious differences, with
 206 SDs exceeding 150 Mt CO₂, whereas those based on provincial inventories exhibited
 207 SDs of 33 and 10 Mt CO₂, respectively.

209 3.2 The temporal evolution of provincial-level CO₂ emissions and emissions per GDP
 210 derived from national and provincial energy statistics

211



212

213

Fig. 2 CO₂ emissions of the top 5 provinces from 2000 to 2018

214

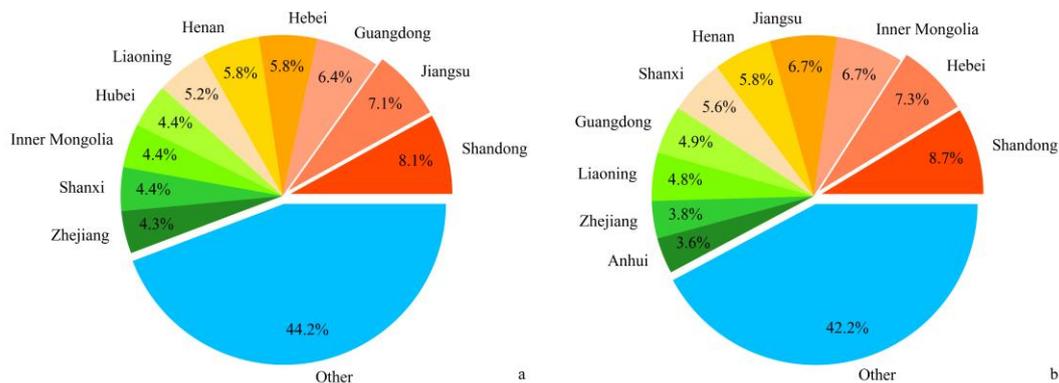
215 The temporal changes in the CO₂ emissions of the top 5 emitting provinces are shown
216 in Fig. 2. Despite differences in magnitude, all the estimates agreed that the emissions
217 of the top 5 emitting provinces increased from 2000 to approximately 2012 and
218 leveled off afterwards. The interannual variation in existing emissions derived from
219 provincial and national statistics is notably different, and these discrepancies
220 increased over time. For the average of all the provinces during the period of
221 2000-2016, the CO₂ emissions derived from provincial statistics increased by 217%,
222 and those derived from national statistics increased by 197% (Fig. S2). The total
223 difference in the top 5 emissions from national and provincial statistics was 39 Mt
224 CO₂ in 2000. However, it increased to 447 Mt CO₂ in 2016, with a peak difference of
225 636 Mt CO₂ in 2012. This trend was consistent with the findings of Guan et al. (2012).
226 The emissions estimated from provincial statistics showed relatively consistent
227 variations, which were able to detect apparent peak emissions in 2011 or 2012 and
228 then leveled off or went down. Compared to emissions derived from provincial
229 statistics, the variabilities of ODIAC, EDGAR, and PKU were relatively smooth and
230 were unable to capture the interannual variation in CO₂ emissions. Moreover, PKU
231 tended to underestimate emissions among existing estimates, except for Henan.
232 ODIAC showed a unique trend with emissions accelerating before 2010 and
233 subsequently leveling off in Jiangsu and Henan.

234 The local governments of Beijing and Shanghai have proposed clear timing targets for
235 peaks in total and per capita CO₂ emissions in 2020 and 2025, respectively (Shanghai
236 Municipal People's Government, 2018; The People's Government of Beijing
237 Municipality, 2016). The CO₂ emissions per GDP decreased dramatically (from 1-3 to
238 0.3-1 Mt CO₂ per PPP billion USD) during the study period (Fig. 2 and Fig. S2).
239 Specifically, the emissions per GDP decreased to 0.3-0.6 Mt CO₂ per PPP billion USD
240 for Shandong, Hebei, Jiangsu and Henan provinces. However, they decreased from
241 approximately 3 to 1 Mt CO₂ per PPP billion USD for Inner Mongolia. The spread of
242 CO₂ emissions per GDP among these datasets also decreased, mainly due to the

243 decoupling of CO₂ emissions and GDP increase, i.e., the leveling off of CO₂
 244 emissions and the increase of GDP.

245 3.3 The fractions of provincial-level CO₂ emissions derived from national and
 246 provincial energy statistics

247



248

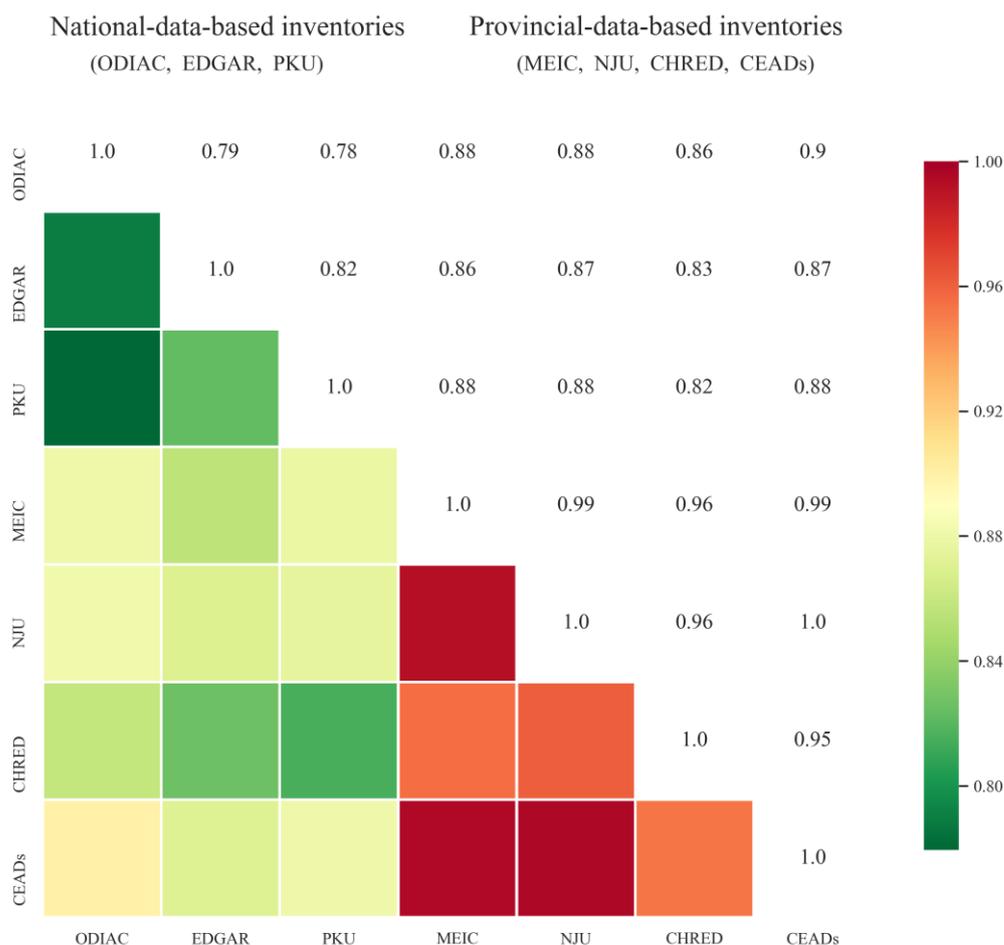
249 Fig. 3 The CO₂ emissions fractions of the top 10 provinces in 2012. Subplots (a) and
 250 (b) are the mean fractions of national- and provincial-data-based inventories.

251

252 The total fractions of the top 10 emitting provinces derived from national-data-based
 253 inventories (~56%) are rather close to those derived from provincial-data-based
 254 inventories (~58%) (Fig. 3); the remaining provinces contributed the other ~40%.
 255 However, the sequences of the top 10 provinces estimated from national statistics are
 256 quite different from those datasets calculated from provincial statistics. Shandong is
 257 the highest emission province, with mean values of up to 758 and 876 Mt CO₂ based
 258 on national- and provincial-data-based inventories, representing 8.1% - 8.7% of the
 259 total emissions. Moreover, there are substantial differences in other top emitting
 260 provinces. The estimated emissions in Hebei, Shanxi, and Inner Mongolia derived
 261 from provincial-data-based inventories were approximately 34%, 36%, and 64%
 262 higher than those from national-data-based inventories, respectively. Since
 263 national-data-based inventories do not include detailed provincial energy information
 264 and thus had larger SDs, we recommend that policymakers use provincial mean

265 results to allocate responsibilities and to develop reduction policies according to local
 266 realities.

267 3.4 The relationships of provincial-level CO₂ emissions derived from national and
 268 provincial energy statistics

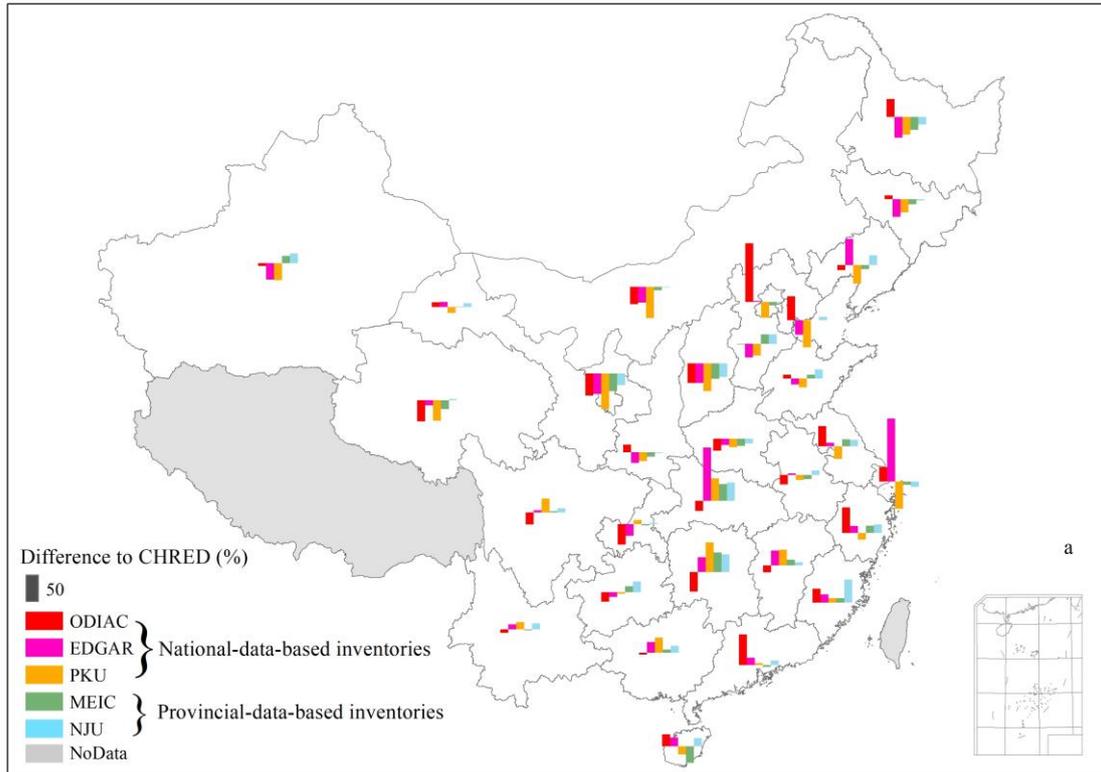


269
 270 Fig. 4 Correlations of multiple CO₂ emission datasets at the provincial level in 2012
 271
 272 To interpret the commonalities and differences in provincial emissions between
 273 national- and provincial-data-based inventories, the paired correlation relationship is
 274 shown in Fig. 4. The provincial-level CO₂ emissions developed from provincial
 275 statistics have a good correlation relationship, with correlation coefficients (R) greater

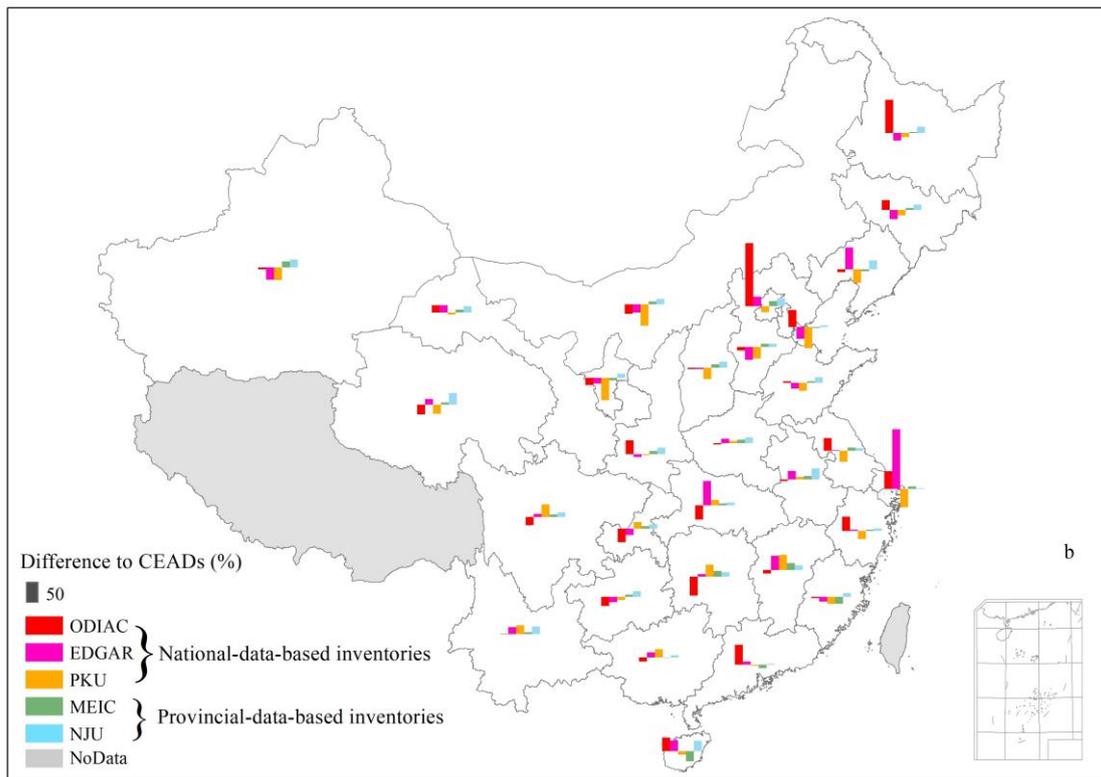
276 than 0.9. Emissions from MEIC, NJU, and CEADs are highly correlated, with a mean
277 difference of less than 40 Mt CO₂ in 2012. This implies that the energy statistics
278 played the main role in estimating emissions, albeit with differences in methodology.
279 However, the emissions derived from national statistics showed a relatively weaker
280 correlation ($R < 0.85$). The correlation between ODIAC and PKU was weakest among
281 all the estimates. This was probably due to the different energy statistic input data
282 (CDIAC for ODIAC and IEA for PKU) and spatial disaggregation proxies (nighttime
283 light for ODIAC and population and vegetation for PKU), producing the striking
284 contrast in provincial-level emissions between ODIAC and PKU, with differences
285 ranging from -225 to 403 Mt CO₂ in 2012 (Fig. 1). Although the emissions of
286 EDGAR and PKU were both mainly used in the IEA statistics, their correlation was
287 not strong. First, PKU used the IEA national total and provincial fractions to distribute
288 the emissions. Second, differences in spatial disaggregation proxies (nighttime light,
289 population density for EDGAR and population and vegetation for PKU) to reallocate
290 national total to provincial scale and sectoral differences could enhance uncertainties
291 in the final provincial-level emissions. Third, differences in the version used by each
292 dataset also produced some differences. PKU used version 2014, while EDGAR used
293 version 2017 (Table S2); these versions estimated coal production as 3637 and 3650
294 Mt, respectively, for the same year 2014. Moreover, EDGAR also used other activity
295 data, and for industrial processes, it included more sectors, such as the production of
296 lime, soda ash, ammonia, ferroalloys and nonferrous metals.

297 3.5 Spatial differences of provincial-level CO₂ emissions to CHRED and CEADs

298



299



300

301 Fig. 5 Spatial differences in provincial-level CO₂ emissions from CHRED (a) and

302

CEADs (b) in 2012

303

304 As CHRED used over 1.5 million enterprise-level point sources and CEADs adopted

305 measured emission factors that are closer to China's fossil fuel quality, they were used
306 as references to evaluate other datasets in 31 provinces. Compared to CHRED and
307 CEADs, the national-data-based inventories produced discrepancies in provincial
308 estimates of -57%-162%, whereas provincial-data-based inventories produced
309 discrepancies of less than 45%. In general, the provincial carbon emissions of ODIAC
310 and NJU were both higher than the references, while those of PKU were lower than
311 the references (Fig. 5). EDGAR and MEIC were comparable to CHRED and CEADs,
312 with mean differences of 3% and 8%, respectively. With respect to mean provincial
313 CO₂ emissions, the estimates of PKU were 14% and 11% lower than those of CHRED
314 and CEADs, respectively. Specifically, for Inner Mongolia, Tianjin, and Ningxia, the
315 emissions by PKU were 50% or more lower than those of CHRED and CEADs.
316 However, the emissions of ODIAC and NJU were 3% and 8% higher than those of
317 CHRED and 10% and 13% higher than those of CEADs, respectively. ODIAC
318 probably allocated more emissions to Beijing, resulting in 115% and 162% higher
319 emissions than CHRED and CEADs, respectively. Higher estimates by ODIAC were
320 also obvious in Heilongjiang, Tianjin, and Guangdong provinces, with differences of
321 35% to 85%. These differences can be attributed to the spatial mismatch between the
322 location of emissions and spatial proxies (Gurney et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2017).
323 Moreover, the spatial biases tended to increase with spatial resolution (Zheng et al.,
324 2017). The high spatial resolution of ODIAC (1 km) was found to underestimate the
325 emissions of areas that do not have strong nighttime light (e.g., rural areas and power
326 plants based on fossil fuels) (Wang et al., 2013). However, the saturated estimates
327 caused by nightlight data may result in overestimated emissions in urban areas (Wang
328 and Cai, 2017). In addition, the carbon emissions of MEIC are comparable to those of
329 CHRED and CEADs, with mean differences of 2% to 4%. However, EDGAR tends to
330 largely overestimate the emissions in Shanghai and Hubei, with differences of up to
331 123% and 105% compared to CHRED and 153% and 62% compared to CEADs,
332 respectively.

333

334 4. Discussions

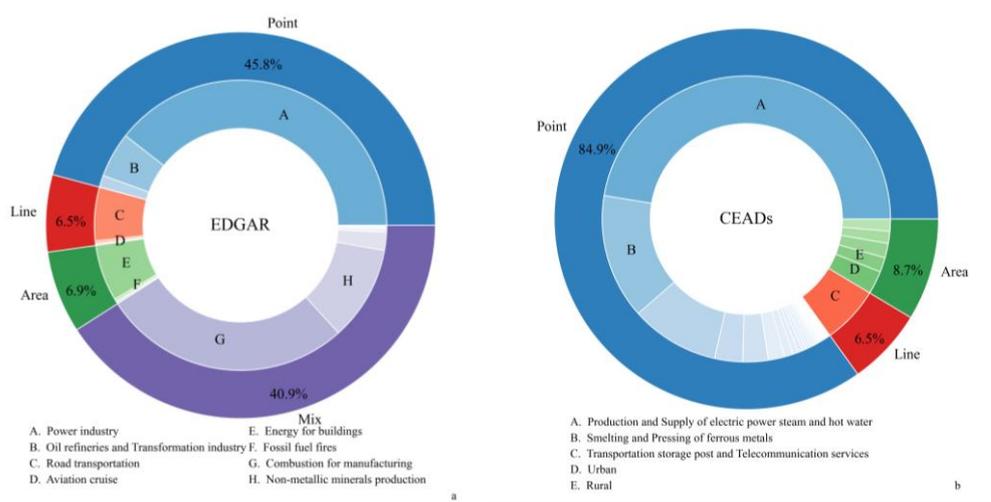
335 4.1 Reasons why the sum of the provincial data is greater than the national statistics

336 Since the national and provincial energy statistics were surveyed by two different
337 teams, namely, the National Bureau of Statistics and the provincial bureaus of
338 statistics, it is not surprising that the sum of the provincial energy statistics is not
339 identical to the national total (NBS, 2013). The sum of the provincial data is
340 systematically greater than the national statistics due to the differences in national and
341 provincial statistical systems and artificial factors (Hong et al., 2017). To ensure the
342 consistency between national emissions and the sum of province-level data, one
343 possible practical way might use the national total fossil fuel consumption and
344 provincial fractions to scale when distributing emissions to the grid and further use
345 field measurements and remote sensing data to validate inventories.

346 National statistical data are usually collected by the national survey team and reported
347 from the local level and key energy-consuming enterprises ($\geq 10,000$ standard coal
348 consumption), and it is difficult to validate the locally reported data (NBS, 2013).
349 Furthermore, data inconsistency and double counting exist in the provincial data
350 (Hong et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2007). Using coal data as an example, the sum of
351 interprovincial imports was 17.6% (or 339.2 Mt) higher than that of exports in 2015,
352 which is 27.2% that of the total coal final consumption amount (data from the energy
353 balance sheet of provincial-level statistics). The same phenomenon is observed in the
354 oil and natural gas data, which were 17.3% (or 81.4 Mt) and 3.3% (or $3.6 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^3$), or
355 15.6% and 2.3%, that of the total petroleum products and natural gas final
356 consumption amount, respectively. Additionally, double counting is common in
357 provincial statistics because some activities are counted by all provinces involved.
358 For small enterprises, the quality of the energy statistics reported to NBS is not as
359 well validated and monitored as those of large enterprises (Hong et al., 2017; NBS,
360 2013). Moreover, energy data may be modified for artificial purposes because it
361 correlates to GDP and thus the evaluation of the local governors (Guan et al., 2012;

362 Hong et al., 2017). Moreover, some of the provinces provided equal supply and
 363 consumption data, which implies that some local data were modified to achieve an
 364 exact balance. Overall, the provincial estimates are 8-18% higher than the
 365 CEADs-based national estimate after 2008. Province-based estimates (e.g., NJU and
 366 MEIC) are also higher than the CEADs (national) estimate. Hong et al. (2017) found
 367 that the ratio of the maximum discrepancy to the mean value was 16% due to different
 368 versions of national and provincial data in CESY.

369 4.2 Contributions of three emission types



370
 371 Fig. 6 Compositions for point, line and area sources for EDGAR and CEADs in 2012
 372

373 The spatial allocation of national or sectoral emissions is generally performed on the
 374 basis of three groups of data sources, i.e., point sources downscaled with geocoding
 375 locations, line sources downscaled with traffic networks, and area sources relying on
 376 spatial proxies. Characterizing the discrepancy in these three categories can help us
 377 understand the bias better. Comparison of these three emission types was conducted
 378 with respect to EDGAR and CEADs, both of which include detailed sectoral
 379 emissions data. According to the characteristics of sectoral emissions and insights
 380 from the data developers, the 20 sectors in EDGAR and 47 sectors in CEADs are
 381 classified into the three groups above (Table S4). Additionally, there is an additional
 382 group of mixed sources in EDGAR. For several sectors in EDGAR, the inventory

383 information includes multiple emission sources. CEADs presented a much larger
384 share of point source emissions than EDGAR (Fig. 6). EDGAR estimated that
385 approximately 46% of emissions were contributed by point sources, followed by
386 mixed sources (41%), and the remaining emissions were line and area sources (both
387 contributing ~7%). By contrast, CEADs assumed that point sources are the primary
388 sources (contributing 85%), followed by area sources (9%) and line sources (7%).
389 Both EDGAR and CEADs estimated the emissions of the sectors under the guidelines
390 of the IPCC (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019; Shan et al., 2017). However, there exists
391 a substantial difference in the point source emissions. The lower proportion of point
392 source emissions in EDGAR is partly due to the point sources it uses (CARMA)
393 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019), which neglected small point sources. Moreover,
394 EDGAR uses population-based proxies when no point source information is available.
395 Another reason is that some point sources cannot be separated individually from the
396 mixed sources.

397 Possible reasons for the differences between EDGAR and CEADs include activity
398 data from national and provincial energy statistics, spatially disaggregated approaches,
399 and point source emissions. The CEADs are based on sectoral fossil fuel consumption
400 from the corresponding provincial statistical yearbook, while EDGAR is primarily
401 based on IEA and other international statistics at the national scale. Guan et al. (2012)
402 and Hong et al. (2017) pointed out that the inconsistency of energy statistics,
403 especially coal consumption data, largely contributed to the emission discrepancy in
404 China. The emissions based on provincial energy statistics were higher than those
405 from national statistics, with a peak difference of 18% in 2014 (Shan et al., 2017).
406 This can be attributed to overreporting or double counting in energy statistics at the
407 provincial level by artificial factors (Guan et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2017). Meanwhile,
408 the absence of emissions from small enterprises at the national scale and the lack of
409 sectoral energy statistics in certain provinces both contributed to uncertainties in the
410 provincial emission estimates (Guan et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2017; Shan et al., 2017).

411 4.3 Impacts of emission factors

412 Since carbon dioxide emissions are calculated from activity data and emission factors
413 (EFs), differences in the EFs used by these datasets also produce large differences in
414 emission estimates (Table S2). Coal is the major energy type and represents ~80% of
415 the total energy consumption (Liu, Z. et al., 2015). The EF used for raw coal ranges
416 from 0.491 to 0.746 in this study. For example, the CEADs used 0.499 tC per ton of
417 coal based on a large number of measurements, and this coal EF is considered to be
418 representative of Chinese coal quality, while EDGAR used 0.713 (42.9% higher than
419 that of CEADs) based on the default value recommended by the IPCC
420 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019; Liu, Z. et al., 2015; Shan et al., 2018b). Hence,
421 differences arise due largely to the low quality and high ash content of Chinese coal
422 (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019; Liu, Z. et al., 2015). Furthermore, using the Monte
423 Carlo method, Shan et al. (2018b) showed that EFs contributed greater uncertainty
424 (-16 – 24%) than did activity data (-1 – 9%). We thus recommended substituting the
425 IPCC default coal EF with the CEADs measurement-based EF. Regarding emissions
426 from coal consumption at the plant level, the collection of their EFs measured in situ
427 is valuable for calibrating large point source emissions, and we call for such physical
428 measurements for the calibration and validation of existing datasets (Dai et al., 2012;
429 Kittner et al., 2018).

430 4.4 Implications for inventory use and improvement

431 The bottom-up inventories are used as prior emissions in atmospheric inversion
432 models to quantify CO₂ fluxes between land/oceans and the atmosphere. The errors in
433 either the location or timing of fossil fuel carbon fluxes are directly aliased into
434 inverse modeling (Asefi-Najafabady et al., 2014; Gurney et al., 2009). An accurate
435 fossil fuel CO₂ emission inventory provides invaluable and independent information
436 for inverse modeling and helps to reduce the uncertainty in land biosphere to
437 atmosphere fluxes (Oda et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2016).

438 Uncertainty in CO₂ emission estimates can have a large impact on the carbon budget
439 simulation since atmospheric inverse models use the bottom-up emission inventory as
440 a priori emissions. Given the targets of emissions reduction in China, it is crucial to
441 develop specific carbon emissions mitigation policies for different provinces (Shan et
442 al., 2019). The large discrepancy in provincial-level CO₂ emissions among datasets
443 produces great challenges in the allocation of emission reduction responsibilities.
444 Strategies for reducing emissions could be based on composited trends, and making
445 reduction policies for provinces needs the support of provincial-energy-based datasets
446 instead of national-energy-based ones. To reduce uncertainties in emission estimates,
447 verification of the energy statistics by ground-based measurements and remote
448 sensing data is urgently needed (Berezin, 2013; Yao et al., 2019).

449

450 **5. Conclusions**

451 We estimated China's provincial fossil fuel CO₂ emissions using seven of the most
452 up-to-date inventories. We found that: 1) the provincial emissions ranged from 20-649
453 Mt CO₂, with SDs ranging from 8-159 Mt; 2) temporally, the emissions in most
454 provinces increased from 2000 to approximately 2012 and leveled off afterwards; 3)
455 the top 10 emitting provinces derived from national-data-based inventories
456 contributed ~60% of the national total emissions; and 4) the provincial-level CO₂
457 emissions estimated from provincial statistics have a better correlation than the
458 national-data-based inventories. The root causes of the differences were differences in
459 activity data at the provincial and national levels within the statistical systems and the
460 low locally optimized versus higher default coal EFs used. Thus, for future
461 improvements, provincial activity data from national and global inventories should be
462 made publicly available. Locally optimized coal EFs are better than default ones in
463 inventories. Local governments need multiple highly detailed inventories when
464 making policies designed to reduce emissions. Moreover, policymakers should focus
465 on the top emitting provinces as high priorities when designing policies. In terms of

466 emissions intensity (emissions per GDP), provinces that are higher than 0.5 still have
467 room for improvement in industrial structure adjustment. To reduce uncertainties in
468 emissions estimates, verification of the energy statistics by ground-based
469 measurements and remote sensing data is urgently needed.

470

471 **Data availability.** The data sets of ODIAC, EDGAR, PKU and CEADs are freely
472 available from http://db.cger.nies.go.jp/dataset/ODIAC/DL_odiac2018.html,
473 https://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/overview.php?v=50_GHG,
474 <http://inventory.pku.edu.cn/download/download.html> and <http://www.ceads.net/>,
475 respectively. CHRED, MEIC and NJU are available from the data developers upon
476 request.

477 **Author contributions.** PFH, WZ and DL conceived and designed the study. PFH and
478 XHL collected and analyzed the data sets. PFH, XHL, WZ and DL led the paper
479 writing with contributions from all coauthors. NZ, TO and QXC helped in data plots
480 and improved the discussion. Data developers for each inventory, i.e., MC and GJM
481 for EDGAR, TO for ODIAC, DBG and YLS for CEADs, XLM and HKW for NJU,
482 WJM, ST and RW for PKU, QZ and BZ for MEIC, contributed to the descriptions and
483 discussions of the corresponding data sets.

484 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

485 **Acknowledgments** This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of
486 China (No. 2017YFB0504000). We thank Dr. Zhu Liu in manuscript discussion. We
487 thank Dr. Bofeng Cai from the Chinese Academy for Environmental Planning for
488 kindly providing CHRED data and suggestions for improving the manuscript.

489 **Supporting Information.** Basic information on the 7 datasets and supplementary
490 figures on provincial emissions.

491

492 **References**

- 493 Akimoto, H., Ohara, T., Kurokawa, J.-i., Horii, N., 2006. Verification of energy consumption in
494 China during 1996–2003 by using satellite observational data. *Atmospheric Environment* 40(40),
495 7663-7667.
- 496 Asefi-Najafabady, S., Rayner, P., Gurney, K., McRobert, A., Song, Y., Coltin, K., Huang, J., Elvidge, C.,
497 Baugh, K., 2014. A multiyear, global gridded fossil fuel CO₂ emission data product: Evaluation
498 and analysis of results. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres* 119(17), 10,213-210,231.
- 499 Bai, H., Zhang, Y., Wang, H., Huang, Y., Xu, H., 2014. A hybrid method for provincial scale
500 energy-related carbon emission allocation in China. *Environmental science & technology* 48(5),
501 2541-2550.
- 502 Ballantyne, A., Ciais, P., Miller, J., 2018. Cautious optimism and incremental goals toward
503 stabilizing atmospheric CO₂. *Earth's Future* 6(12), 1632-1637.
- 504 Berenzin, E., Konovalov, I., Ciais, P., Richter, A., Tao, S., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Beekmann, M.,
505 Schulze, E.D., 2013. Multiannual changes of CO₂ emissions in China: indirect estimates derived
506 from satellite measurements of tropospheric NO₂ columns. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*
507 13, 9415-9438.
- 508 Berezin, E.V., Konovalov, I. B., Ciais, P., Richter, A., Tao, S., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Beekmann, M.,
509 and Schulze, E.-D., 2013. Multiannual changes of CO₂ emissions in China: indirect estimates
510 derived from satellite measurements of tropospheric NO₂ columns. *Atmos. Chem. Phys.* 13,
511 9415-9438, <https://doi.org/9410.5194/acp-9413-9415-2013>.
- 512 Cai, B., Cui, C., Zhang, D., Cao, L., Wu, P., Pang, L., Zhang, J., Dai, C., 2019. China city-level
513 greenhouse gas emissions inventory in 2015 and uncertainty analysis. *Applied Energy* 253,
514 113579.
- 515 Crippa, M., Oreggioni, G., Guizzardi, D., Muntean, M., Schaaf, E., Lo Vullo, E., Solazzo, E.,
516 Monforti-Ferrario, F., Olivier, J.G.J., Vignati, E., 2019. Fossil CO₂ and GHG emissions of all world
517 countries - 2019 Report, EUR 29849 EN, Publications Office of the European Union, Luxembourg,
518 ISBN 978-92-76-11100-9, doi:10.2760/687800, JRC117610.
- 519 Dai, S., Ren, D., Chou, C.-L., Finkelman, R.B., Seredin, V.V., Zhou, Y., 2012. Geochemistry of trace
520 elements in Chinese coals: A review of abundances, genetic types, impacts on human health, and
521 industrial utilization. *International Journal of Coal Geology* 94, 3-21.
- 522 Dong, L., Liang, H., 2014. Spatial analysis on China's regional air pollutants and CO₂ emissions:
523 emission pattern and regional disparity. *Atmospheric Environment* 92, 280-291.
- 524 Du, K., Xie, C., Ouyang, X., 2017. A comparison of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission trends among
525 provinces in China. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews* 73, 19-25.
- 526 Guan, D., Liu, Z., Geng, Y., Lindner, S., Hubacek, K., 2012. The gigatonne gap in China' s carbon
527 dioxide inventories. *Nature Climate Change* 2(9), 672-676.
- 528 Guan, D., Meng, J., Reiner, D.M., Zhang, N., Shan, Y., Mi, Z., Shao, S., Liu, Z., Zhang, Q., Davis, S.J.,

529 2018. Structural decline in China' s CO2 emissions through transitions in industry and energy
530 systems. *Nature Geoscience* 11(8), 551-555.

531 Guo, B., Geng, Y., Franke, B., Hao, H., Liu, Y., Chiu, A., 2014. Uncovering China' s transport CO2
532 emission patterns at the regional level. *Energy Policy* 74, 134-146.

533 Gurney, K.R., Mendoza, D.L., Zhou, Y., Fischer, M.L., Miller, C.C., Geethakumar, S., de la Rue du Can,
534 S., 2009. High resolution fossil fuel combustion CO2 emission fluxes for the United States.
535 *Environmental science & technology* 43(14), 5535-5541.

536 Han, P., Zeng, N., Oda, T., Lin, X., Crippa, M., Guan, D., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Ma, X., Liu, Z.,
537 Shan, Y., Tao, S., Wang, H., Wang, R., Wu, L., Yun, X., Zhang, Q., Zhao, F., Zheng, B., 2020.
538 Evaluating China's fossil-fuel CO2 emissions from a comprehensive dataset of nine inventories.
539 *Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss.* 2020, 1-21.

540 Hong, C., Zhang, Q., He, K., Guan, D., Li, M., Liu, F., Zheng, B., 2017. Variations of China's emission
541 estimates: response to uncertainties in energy statistics. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics* 17(2),
542 1227-1239.

543 Hunter, J.D., 2007. Matplotlib: A 2D Graphics Environment. *Computing in Science & Engineering*
544 9(3), 90-95.

545 Janssens-Maenhout, G., Crippa, M., Guizzardi, D., Muntean, M., Schaaf, E., Dentener, F.,
546 Bergamaschi, P., Pagliari, V., Olivier, J.G., Peters, J.A., 2019. EDGAR v4. 3.2 Global Atlas of the three
547 major Greenhouse Gas Emissions for the period 1970-2012. *Earth System Science Data* 11(3),
548 959-1002.

549 Kittner, N., Fadadu, R.P., Buckley, H.L., Schwarzman, M.R., Kammen, D.M., 2018. Trace Metal
550 Content of Coal Exacerbates Air-Pollution-Related Health Risks: The Case of Lignite Coal in
551 Kosovo. *Environmental Science & Technology* 52(4), 2359-2367.

552 Le Quéré, C., Andrew, R.M., Friedlingstein, P., Sitch, S., Hauck, J., Pongratz, J., Pickers, P.A.,
553 Korsbakken, J.I., Peters, G.P., Canadell, J.G., 2018. Global carbon budget 2018. *Earth System*
554 *Science Data* 10(4), 2141-2194.

555 Li, M., Zhang, Q., Kurokawa, J.-i., Woo, J.-H., He, K., Lu, Z., Ohara, T., Song, Y., Streets, D.G.,
556 Carmichael, G.R., 2017. MIX: a mosaic Asian anthropogenic emission inventory under the
557 international collaboration framework of the MICS-Asia and HTAP. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*
558 *Physics* 17, 935-963.

559 Liu, F., Zhang, Q., Tong, D., Zheng, B., Li, M., Huo, H., He, K., 2015. High-resolution inventory of
560 technologies, activities, and emissions of coal-fired power plants in China from 1990 to 2010.
561 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics* 15(23), 13299-13317.

562 Liu, M., Wang, H., Oda, T., Zhao, Y., Yang, X., Zang, R., Zang, B., Bi, J., Chen, J., 2013. Refined
563 estimate of China's CO 2 emissions in spatiotemporal distributions. *Atmospheric Chemistry and*
564 *Physics* 13(21), 10873-10882.

565 Liu, Z., Guan, D., Wei, W., Davis, S.J., Ciais, P., Bai, J., Peng, S., Zhang, Q., Hubacek, K., Marland, G.,
566 2015. Reduced carbon emission estimates from fossil fuel combustion and cement production in
567 China. *Nature* 524(7565), 335-346.

568 NBS, t.N.B.o.S.o.C., 2013. *China's Main Statistical Concepts: Standards and Methodology (Second*
569 *Edition)*. China Statistics Press, 60-61.

570 NDRC, 2016. The 13th five-year plan for energy saving and emissions reduction of the People's
571 Republic of China (2016-2020).
572 http://www.ndrc.gov.cn/zcfb/zcfbqt/201701/t20170105_20834500.html.

573 Oda, T., Maksyutov, S., 2011. A very high-resolution (1 km× 1 km) global fossil fuel CO₂ emission
574 inventory derived using a point source database and satellite observations of nighttime lights.
575 *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics* 11(2), 543-556.

576 Oda, T., Maksyutov, S., Andres, R.J., 2018. The Open-source Data Inventory for Anthropogenic
577 CO₂, version 2016 (ODIAC2016): a global monthly fossil fuel CO₂ gridded emissions data
578 product for tracer transport simulations and surface flux inversions. *Earth System Science Data*
579 10(1), 87-107.

580 Rayner, P., Raupach, M., Paget, M., Peylin, P., Koffi, E., 2010. A new global gridded data set of CO₂
581 emissions from fossil fuel combustion: Methodology and evaluation. *Journal of Geophysical*
582 *Research: Atmospheres* 115(D19306), doi:10.1029/2009JD013439.

583 Rogelj, J., Den Elzen, M., Höhne, N., Fransen, T., Fekete, H., Winkler, H., Schaeffer, R., Sha, F., Riahi,
584 K., Meinshausen, M., 2016. Paris Agreement climate proposals need a boost to keep warming well
585 below 2 C. *Nature*, doi:10.1038/nature18307.

586 Schlessner, C.-F., Rogelj, J., Schaeffer, M., Lissner, T., Licker, R., Fischer, E.M., Knutti, R.,
587 Levermann, A., Frieler, K., Hare, W., 2016. Science and policy characteristics of the Paris
588 Agreement temperature goal. *Nature Climate Change*, doi:10.1038/NCLIMATE3096.

589 Shan, Y., Guan, D., Meng, J., Liu, Z., Schroeder, H., Liu, J., Mi, Z., 2018a. Rapid growth of petroleum
590 coke consumption and its related emissions in China. *Applied Energy* 226, 494-502.

591 Shan, Y., Guan, D., Zheng, H., Ou, J., Li, Y., Meng, J., Mi, Z., Liu, Z., Zhang, Q., 2017. Data Descriptor:
592 China CO₂ emission accounts 1997–2015. *Scientific Data* 5:170201, doi:10.1038/sdata.2017.1201.

593 Shan, Y., Guan, D., Zheng, H., Ou, J., Li, Y., Meng, J., Mi, Z., Liu, Z., Zhang, Q., 2018b. China CO₂
594 emission accounts 1997–2015. *Scientific Data* 5, 170201.

595 Shan, Y., Liu, J., Liu, Z., Xu, X., Shao, S., Wang, P., Guan, D., 2016a. New provincial CO₂ emission
596 inventories in China based on apparent energy consumption data and updated emission factors.
597 *Applied Energy* 184, 742-750.

598 Shan, Y., Liu, Z., Guan, D., 2016b. CO₂ emissions from China's lime industry. *Applied Energy* 166,
599 245-252.

600 Shan, Y., Zhou, Y., Meng, J., Mi, Z., Liu, J., Guan, D., 2019. Peak cement-related CO₂ emissions and
601 the changes in drivers in China. *Journal of Industrial Ecology* 23(4), 959-971.

602 Shanghai Municipal People's Government, S., 2018. Shanghai Master Plan (2017-2035).
603 <http://www.shanghai.gov.cn/nw2/nw2314/nw32419/nw42806/index.html#>.

604 Shao, L., Yuan, L., Feng, K., Meng, J., Shan, Y., Guan, D., 2018. Carbon emission imbalances and
605 the structural paths of Chinese regions. *Applied energy* 215, 396-404.

606 Stocker, T., Qin, D., Plattner, G., Tignorand, M., Allen, S., Boschungand, J., Nauels, A., Xia, Y., Bex, V.,
607 Midgley, P., 2013. IPCC 2013: the physical science basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the
608 Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge
609 University Press, Cambridge, UK.

610 The People's Government of Beijing Municipality, P., 2016. Beijing's "13th Five-Year Plan" for
611 energy conservation and consumption reduction and climate change.
612 [http://www.beijing.gov.cn/zfxgk/110001/szfwj/2016-08/07/content_c7607556c0e74fe58c1c85a](http://www.beijing.gov.cn/zfxgk/110001/szfwj/2016-08/07/content_c7607556c0e74fe58c1c85a5d25183b6.shtml)
613 [5d25183b6.shtml](http://www.beijing.gov.cn/zfxgk/110001/szfwj/2016-08/07/content_c7607556c0e74fe58c1c85a5d25183b6.shtml).

614 Thompson, R.L., Patra, P.K., Chevallier, F., Maksyutov, S., Law, R.M., Ziehn, T., Laanluijkx, I.T.V.D.,
615 Peters, W., Ganshin, A., Zhuravlev, R., 2016. Top-down assessment of the Asian carbon budget
616 since the mid 1990s. *Nature Communications* 7, 10724.

617 Virtanen, P., Gommers, R., Oliphant, TE, Haberland, M, Reddy, T, Cournapeau, D, Burovski, E,
618 Peterson, P, Weckesser, W, Bright, J, van der Walt, SJ, Brett, M, Wilson, J, Millman, KJ, Mayorov, N,
619 Nelson, ARJ, Jones, E, Kern, R, Larson, E, Carey, CJ, Polat, İ, Feng, Y, Moore, EW, VanderPlas, J,
620 Laxalde, D, Perktold, J, Cimrman, R, Henriksen, I, Quintero, EA, Harris, CR, Archibald, AM, Ribeiro,
621 AH, Pedregosa, F, van Mulbregt, P & SciPy 1.0 Contributors, 2020. SciPy 1.0: fundamental
622 algorithms for scientific computing in Python. . Nature Methods.

623 Wang, H., Lu, X., Deng, Y., Sun, Y., Nielsen, C.P., Liu, Y., Zhu, G., Bu, M., Bi, J., McElroy, M.B., 2019.
624 China' s CO2 peak before 2030 implied from characteristics and growth of cities. Nature
625 Sustainability 2(8), 748-754.

626 Wang, J., Cai, B., Zhang, L., Cao, D., Liu, L., Zhou, Y., Zhang, Z., Xue, W., 2014. High resolution
627 carbon dioxide emission gridded data for China derived from point sources. Environmental
628 science & technology 48(12), 7085-7093.

629 Wang, R., Tao, S., Ciais, P., Shen, H., Huang, Y., Chen, H., Shen, G., Wang, B., Li, W., Zhang, Y., 2013.
630 High-resolution mapping of combustion processes and implications for CO 2 emissions.
631 Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 13(10), 5189-5203.

632 Xu, B., Lin, B., 2016. Regional differences in the CO2 emissions of China's iron and steel industry:
633 regional heterogeneity. Energy Policy 88, 422-434.

634 Yao, B., Cai, B., Kou, F., Yang, Y., Chen, X., Wong, D.S., Liu, L., Fang, S., Liu, H., Wang, H., Zhang, L.,
635 Li, J., Kuang, G., 2019. Estimating direct CO2 and CO emission factors for industrial rare earth
636 metal electrolysis. Resources, Conservation and Recycling 145, 261-267.

637 Zhang, Q., Streets, D.G., He, K., Wang, Y., Richter, A., Burrows, J.P., Uno, I., Jang, C.J., Chen, D., Yao,
638 Z., Lei, Y., 2007. NOx emission trends for China, 1995–2004: The view from the ground and the
639 view from space. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres 112(D22).

640 Zhao, Y., Nielsen, C.P., McElroy, M.B., 2012. China's CO2 emissions estimated from the bottom up:
641 Recent trends, spatial distributions, and quantification of uncertainties. Atmospheric environment
642 59, 214-223.

643 Zheng, B., Huo, H., Zhang, Q., Yao, Z., Wang, X., Yang, X., Liu, H., He, K., 2014. High-resolution
644 mapping of vehicle emissions in China in 2008. Atmospheric Chemistry & Physics 14(18).

645 Zheng, B., Tong, D., Li, M., Liu, F., Hong, C., Geng, G., Li, H., Li, X., Peng, L., Qi, J., Yan, L., Zhang, Y.,
646 Zhao, H., Zheng, Y., He, K., and Zhang, Q., 2018. Trends in China's anthropogenic emissions since
647 2010 as the consequence of clean air actions. Atmos. Chem. Phys. 18, 14095-14111,
648 <https://doi.org/10.15194/acp-14018-14095-12018>, .

649 Zheng, B., Zhang, Q., Tong, D., Chen, C., Hong, C., Li, M., Geng, G., Lei, Y., Huo, H., He, K., 2017.
650 Resolution dependence of uncertainties in gridded emission inventories: a case study in Hebei,
651 China. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 17(2), 921-933.

652

653