Accepted Manuscript

Patterns of CO₂ emissions in 18 central Chinese cities from 2000 to 2014

Xinwanghao Xu, Hong Huo, Jingru Liu, Yuli Shan, Yuan Li, Heran Zheng, Dabo Guan, Zhiyun Ouyang

PII: S0959-6526(17)32337-5

DOI: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.10.136

Reference: JCLP 10928

To appear in: Journal of Cleaner Production

Received Date: 7 August 2017

Revised Date: 2 October 2017

Accepted Date: 5 October 2017

Please cite this article as: Xu X, Huo H, Liu J, Shan Y, Li Y, Zheng H, Guan D, Ouyang Z, Patterns of CO₂ emissions in 18 central Chinese cities from 2000 to 2014, *Journal of Cleaner Production* (2017), doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.10.136.

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.



1 2	Patterns of CO ₂ emissions in 18 central Chinese cities from 2000 to 2014
3	Xinwanghao Xu ^a , Hong Huo ^b , Jingru Liu ^{a,*} , Yuli Shan ^{c,*} , Yuan Li ^{c,d,*} , Heran Zheng ^c , Dabo
4	Guan ^c , Zhiyun Ouyang ^a
5	
6	^a State Key Laboratory of Urban and Regional Ecology, Research Center for Eco-Environmental
7	Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, 100085 Beijing, China
8	^b Institute of Energy, Environment and Economy, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China
9	^c Water Security Research Centre, School of International Development, University of East Anglia,
10	Norwich NR4 7TJ, UK
11	^d State Key Joint Laboratory of Environmental Simulation and Pollution Control, School of
12	Environment, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China
12	Environment, Tsinghua Omversity, Beijing 100004, ennia
13	*Corresponding authors: Jingru Liu (liujingru@rcees.ac.cn), Yuli Shan (Y.Shan@uea.ac.uk),
15	Yuan Li (<u>y.li4@uea.ac.uk</u>)
16	
17	Abstract
18	With the Rise of Central China Plan, the central region has had a great opportunity to develop its
19	economy and improve its original industrial structure. However, this region is also under pressure
20	to protect its environment, keep its development sustainable and reduce carbon emissions.
21	Therefore, accurately estimating the temporal and spatial dynamics of CO_2 emissions and
22	analysing the factors influencing these emissions are especially important. This paper estimates
23	the CO_2 emissions derived from the fossil fuel combustion and industrial processes of 18 central
24	cities in China between 2000 and 2014. The results indicate that these 18 cities, which contain an
25	average of 6.57% of the population and 7.91% of the GDP, contribute 13% of China's total CO ₂
26	emissions. The highest cumulative CO_2 emissions from 2000 to 2014 were from Taiyuan and
27	Wuhan, with values of 2268.57 and 1847.59 million tons, accounting for 19.21% and 15.64% of
28	the total among these cities, respectively. Therefore, the CO_2 emissions in the Taiyuan urban
29	agglomeration and Wuhan urban agglomeration represented 28.53% and 20.14% of the total CO ₂
30	emissions from the 18 cities, respectively. The three cities in the Zhongyuan urban agglomeration
31	also accounted for a second highest proportion of emissions at 23.51%. With the proposal and
32	implementation of the Rise of Central China Plan in 2004, the annual average growth rate of total
33	CO ₂ emissions gradually decreased and was lower in the periods from 2005 to 2010 (5.44%) and
34	2010 to 2014 (5.61%) compared with the rate prior to 2005 (12.23%). When the 47 socioeconomic
35	sectors were classified into 12 categories, "power generation" contributed the most to the total
36	cumulative CO ₂ emissions at 36.51%, followed by the "non-metal and metal industry",
37	"petroleum and chemical industry", and "mining" sectors, representing emissions proportions of
38	29.81%, 14.79%, and 9.62%, respectively. Coal remains the primary fuel in central China,
39	accounting for an average of 80.59% of the total CO ₂ emissions. Industrial processes also played a
40	critical role in determining the CO_2 emissions, with an average value of 7.3%. The average CO_2
41	emissions per capita across the 18 cities increased from 6.14 metric tons in 2000 to 15.87 metric
42	tons in 2014, corresponding to a 158.69% expansion. However, the average CO2 emission
43	intensity decreased from 0.8 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in 2000 to 0.52 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in
44	2014 with some fluctuations. The changes in and industry contributions of carbon emissions were

- city specific, and the effects of population and economic development on CO₂ emissions varied.
 Therefore, long-term climate change mitigation strategies should be adjusted for each city.
- 48 Keywords: CO₂ emissions, central Chinese cities, emission intensity, per capita emissions

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Despite slowing economic activity and changing economic structure, China has remained the 51 world's largest energy consumer and accounts for 23% of global energy consumption (BP, 2016). 52 Nearly three-quarters of the growth in global carbon emissions from the burning of fossil fuels and 53 cement production between 2010 and 2012 occurred in China (Liu et al., 2015c). In 2013, China 54 released 25% of the total global CO₂, 1.5 times that released by the United States (Liu et al., 55 2015b; Mi et al., 2017). As China is the largest global source of CO₂ emissions, China's emissions 56 need to be accurately quantified and well understood (Liu et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012; Wang 57 and Cai, 2017), and China should prioritize climate change mitigation. In its 2015 Intended 58 Nationally Determined Contributions, China promised to decrease its CO₂ emissions per unit of 59 gross domestic product (GDP) by 60-65% (based on 2005 levels) by 2030 (xinhua, 2015). 60 However, in order to achieve China's national mitigation targets, sub-administrative regions, such 61 as cities, should be assigned responsibilities accordingly.

62 Cities are the centres of wealth and creativity, and with their high population densities and 63 economies, they are being recognized as major components in the implementation of climate 64 change adaption and CO₂ emission mitigation policies (Chavez and Ramaswami, 2014; Hoornweg 65 et al., 2011; Kennedy et al., 2012; Kennedy et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012). The inventory of CO₂ 66 emissions listed by the energy consumption of individual cities is a quantitative emissions 67 accounting method that allows for the visualization of change trends and serves as the basis for 68 analysing the potential to reduce emissions (Bi et al., 2011). Therefore, understanding the 69 emission status of individual cities is a fundamental step for proposing mitigation actions 70 (Hoornweg et al., 2011). Although numerous studies have been carried out to investigate CO_2 71 emissions at the community (Song et al., 2012), town (Feng et al., 2015), city (Cai and Zhang, 72 2014; Guo et al., 2012; Hillman and Ramaswami, 2010; Liu et al., 2012b; Shao et al., 2016b; 73 Wang et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2012), provincial (Bai et al., 2014; Geng et al., 2011b; Liu et al., 74 2012a; Zhang et al., 2017a), region (He et al., 2017), and national levels (Guan et al., 2008; Liu et 75 al., 2015c), the CO_2 emission inventories of Chinese cities have not been well documented when 76 compared with the global research. This knowledge gap is due to the various definitions of city 77 boundaries, the limited quality of the emission activity data, and non-unified research methods, 78 which together make it difficult to estimate city-scale carbon emissions (Kennedy et al., 2010; Liu 79 et al., 2015b; Wang and Cai, 2017). Complete energy balance tables and CO₂ emission inventories 80 are available for Chinese megacities (Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai, and Chongqing) (Geng et al., 81 2011b) and a few provincial capital cities (Shan et al., 2017). However, another 250+ cities of 82 various sizes and developmental stages lack consistent and systematic energy statistics, and the 83 accuracy of the existing data is not absolutely guaranteed (Liu et al., 2015c). Moreover, CO₂ 84 emissions are calculated as the product of activity data and an appropriate emission factor (Sugar 85 et al., 2012). Most previous studies have employed the emission factor recommended by the IPCC,

which might not be suitable for China's situation (Liu et al., 2015c). To accurately estimate CO_2 86 87 emissions, Liu et al. (2015c) utilized updated emissions factors that better accord with the situation in China to re-calculate the CO₂ emissions. These authors found that the revised estimate 88 89 for CO₂ emissions derived from fossil fuel and cement consumption was 2.49 GtC in 2013, 90 12%-14% less than that estimated by the UNFCCC and EDGAR. Some studies have examined 91 CO₂ emissions from a sectoral perspective, such as household carbon emissions (Allinson et al., 92 2016; Zhang et al., 2017b), commercial sector (Wang and Lin, 2017) and industrial processes (Liu 93 et al., 2014), which would also provide a basis for estimating carbon emissions for cities.

94 Generally, carbon accounting can be defined as having 3 scopes: (1) all direct CO₂ emissions 95 occurring within the city; (2) indirect CO_2 emissions related to purchased electricity and steam and 96 heating consumption; and (3) other life-cycle emissions excluded from scopes 1 and 2 (Chavez 97 and Ramaswami, 2014; Liu et al., 2015a). Due to China's large size and imbalanced levels of 98 development, the lifestyles, resource endowments and levels of economic development in different 99 provinces and cities are significantly different (Feng et al., 2012; Guan et al., 2017; Liu et al., 100 2012a; Wu et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2012). Consequently, a single mitigation action will not be 101 suitable for all of China's 30 provinces and autonomous regions (Liu et al., 2015b). In addition, 102 CO₂ emission mitigation policies should by adjusted according to the needs of the different cities. 103 In recent years, some cities have established CO₂ emission inventories, which can help the government advance and implement mitigation plans and propose pragmatic and effective 104 105 measures and schemes to reduce CO₂ emissions (Geng et al., 2011a). Based on the considerations 106 above, the newly constructed emission inventories are compiled using the definition provided by 107 the IPCC territorial emission accounting approach and cover 47 socioeconomic sectors, 20 energy types and 7 primary industry products, which in turn correspond to the national and provincial 108 109 inventories (Shan et al., 2017).

110 China's level of industrialization and urbanization has become remarkable since joining the 111 WTO in 2001 (Liu et al., 2012a). The nation's economy in 2014 was almost 4 times the size of 112 that in 2000 (Shan et al., 2016c). China's total energy consumption has also increased dramatically 113 from 1470 million metric tons coal equivalent (tce) in 2000 to 4260 million tce in 2014 (Shan et 114 al., 2017). The adoption of the Rise of Central China Plan in 2004 offered a great opportunity for 115 the central cities to develop. The central region has also borne a significant responsibility as the linkage between the eastern and western regions during the industrial structure transition. 116 Additionally, the central region is considered to be the production base of agriculture, energy and 117 raw materials, especially as the development in Shanxi and Henan has relied heavily on coal. Due 118 119 to imbalances in levels of economic development and resource distributions, the regional 120 characteristics of energy consumption in China also display distinct patterns (Li et al., 2016). As 121 such, local policymakers and researchers should work to understand the spatial and temporal 122 characteristics of CO₂ emissions and the methods that central China employs to avoid developing 123 its economy at the expense of the environment. Consequently, this study aims to estimate the CO_2 emissions of 18 central Chinese cities within six urban agglomerations from 2000 to 2014. 124 Moreover, we analyse and compare the characteristics of CO₂ emissions and examine similarities 125 126 and differences in CO_2 emissions in those cities and the cities located in the other regions of China 127 and abroad. The methodologies used in this study are presented in section 2, where we give a general overview of the construction of the CO_2 emission inventory, data sources, and research 128 129 objectives. In section 3, we describe the temporal and spatial variations of CO₂ emissions and

analyse the contributions of various sectors and energy types. In this section, emissions intensity and per capita emissions are also introduced to illustrate the relationships between energy consumption, economic development and population expansion. Finally, in section 4, we summarize our principal findings and present practical measures to mitigate CO_2 emissions.

134 **2. Methodology**

135 **2.1. Case choice**

136 In this study, we selected 18 cities from 6 central provinces (including Shanxi, Henan, Anhui,

137 Hubei, Hunan, and Jiangxi) and compiled a CO_2 emissions inventory for the period from 2000 to

138 2014. These 18 cities are affiliated with the Taiyuan Urban Agglomeration (TYUA), Zhongyuan

139 Urban Agglomeration (ZYUA), Wanjiang Urban Belt (WJUB), Greater Changsha Metropolitan

140 Region (GCMR), Wuhan Urban Agglomeration (WHUA), and City Cluster surrounding Poyang

141 Lake (CCPL) (NDRC, 2010) (Fig. 1). In addition, basic information about these cities is included

in Table 1.

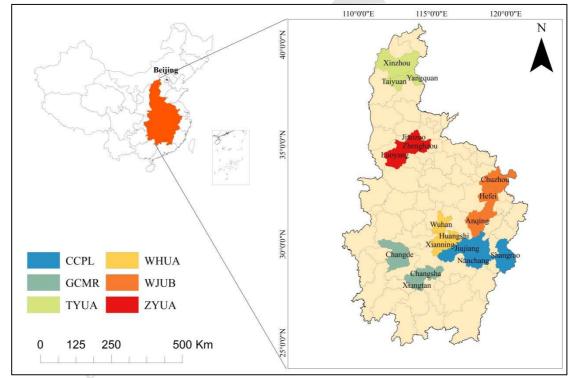




Fig. 1 The 18 central Chinese cities within six urban agglomerations in central China

Note: TYUA: Taiyuan urban agglomeration; ZYUA: Zhongyuan urban agglomeration; WJUB: Wanjiang Urban
Belt; GCMR: Greater Changsha Metropolitan Region; WHUA: Wuhan urban agglomeration; CCPL: City Cluster

147 surrounding Poyang Lake (The same below).

Regions	cities	GDP	Area	Population	GDP per capita	Population density
		(10^8Yuan)	(km ²)	(10 ⁴ persons)	(Yuan/capita)	(persons/km ²)
TYUA	Taiyuan	2531.09	6988	369.7425	68455	529
	Xinzhou	680.30	25152	312.8460	21746	124
	Yangquan	616.62	4570	139.2674	44276	305
ZYUA	Zhengzhou	6776.99	7446	937.7835	72266	1259
	Jiaozuo	1844.31	4071	368.4915	50050	905
	Luoyang	3284.57	15236	696.2300	47177	457
WJUB	Hefei	5180.56	11445	769.6000	67315	672
	Anqing	1544.32	15402	537.6000	28726	349
	Chuzhou	1214.39	13516	395.5000	30705	293
GCMR	Changsha	7824.81	11816	671.4121	116543	568
	Xiangtan	1570.56	5008	291.5000	53879	582
	Changde	2264.94	18910	608.6600	37212	322
WHUA	Wuhan	10069.48	8569	1033.0000	97478	1206
	Huangshi	964.25	4583	296.4600	32525	647
	Xianning	1218.56	9751	244.9200	49753	251
CCPL	Nanchang	3667.96	7402	517.7300	70847	699
	Jiujiang	1779.96	19078	513.1300	34688	269
	Shangrao	1550.20	22791	668.7968	23179	293

149 **Table 1** The socio-economic characteristics of 18 central Chinese cities in 2014

Source: GDP, Area, Population, GDP per capita, and Population density were derived from the statistical yearbookof corresponding city in 2015.

152 The total share of the population for these aggregated 18 cities compared to the nation's total 153 population has increased from 6.38% in 2000 to 6.85% in 2014. In addition, the percentage of GDP increased from 6.45% in 2000 to 8.73% in 2012 with some fluctuations (Fig. 2A). We further 154 compared the proportions of GDP and population for the three cities to those of the provinces (Fig. 155 156 2B and 2C). With the exception of TYUA, the growing concentration of GDP was observed in the other urban agglomerations. And in Hubei and Jiangxi province, more population was centered in 157 158 our research area, namely WHUA and CCPL. However, the percentage of population in ZYUA 159 accounted for an average of 17.76%.

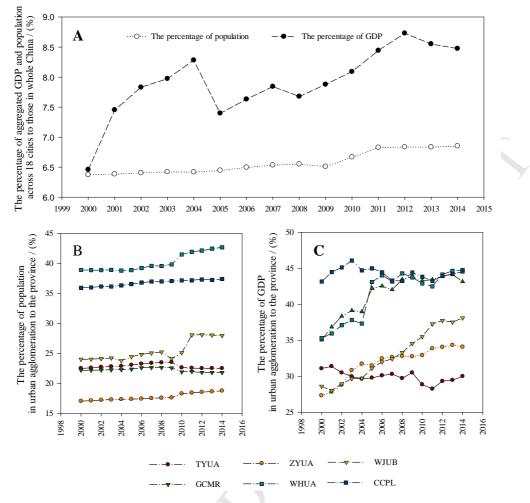


Fig.2. The percentage of aggregated 18 cities' GDP and population to the national's GDP and population (A) and
urban agglomeration's population (B) and GDP (C) to those from the province during the period from 2000 to
2014.

164 **2.2. Construction of CO₂ emission inventory**

160

165 The specific method used to calculate the carbon emissions for each sector was discussed in 166 our previous study(Shan et al., 2017), and only the most salient details are provided here.

167 To calculate the CO_2 emission inventory for each city, we need to define the boundary of the city (Bi et al., 2011; Cai and Zhang, 2014; Liu et al., 2015a; Satterthwaite, 2008). In this study, 168 administrative territorial boundaries were considered the boundaries for the city's CO₂ emissions. 169 These boundaries typically include urban centres, towns and rural populations (Dhakal, 2010; 170 171 Wang et al., 2012). The emissions generated from fossil fuel combustion and industrial processes 172 within the city are included. Energy consumed as chemical raw materials or lost during 173 transportation is removed from the total energy consumption to avoid double counting. Emissions 174 from electricity and heat generated within the city boundary are counted based on the primary 175 energy input used, such as raw coal(Shan et al., 2017). Our administrative territorial emission 176 inventory excludes emissions from imported electricity and heat consumption from outside the 177 city boundary, as well as the energy consumed in inter-city transportation. We only focus on fossil 178 fuel consumed within the city boundary(Shan et al., 2017).

179 **2.2.1. Energy consumption**

180 In this study, CO_2 emitted from energy consumption is calculated by multiplying the energy 181 consumption of different socioeconomic sectors and the corresponding emission factors (Wang et 182 al., 2012), as in Eq. (1).

183
$$CE_{energy} = \sum_{j} \sum_{i} CE_{ij} = \sum_{j} \sum_{i} (AD_{ij} \times EF_{i})$$
 Eq. (1)

184 CE_{energy} represents the total CO₂ emissions resulting from fossil fuel combustion. $j \in [1, 47]$ 185 indicates the socioeconomic sectors (see SI Table S1), which include primary industry (such as farming, forestry, animal husbandry, fishery and water conservation); secondary industry (such as 186 187 manufacturing and the construction sector); tertiary industry (such as transportation, storage, post and communications, wholesale, retail sales, catering, trade and others); and residential 188 consumption (such as urban and rural). Secondary industry was further decomposed into 40 189 190 sub-sectors, including mining, manufacturing, and electric power, gas and water production and supply. $i \in [1, 20]$ represents the energy types (Shan et al., 2017), and CE_{ii} denotes the CO₂ 191 192 emissions derived from energy *i* in sector *j*. AD_{ii} represents the activity data (energy consumption), 193 and EF_i refers to the emission factors of energy *i*. In this study, we adopt the emission factors 194 recommended by Liu et al. (2015c), which are now widely used by other scholars (Mi et al., 2017; 195 Shan et al., 2016a; Shao et al., 2016a).

196 **2.2.2. Industrial processes**

197 Carbon emissions from industrial processes mainly represent those emitted from the chemical 198 and physical transformation of materials during industrial production, such as cement 199 manufacturing and limestone consumption (Shan et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2012). In the current 200 study, the CO_2 emissions from industrial processes are emitted as the result of chemical reactions 201 in the production process, not as the result of the energy used by industry. The equation describing 202 these processes is shown in Eq. (2),

$$CE_{process} = \sum_{t} CE_{t} = \sum_{t} (AD_{t} \times EF_{t})$$
 Eq. (2)

where $CE_{process}$ refers to the carbon emissions generated from the industrial process (t \in [1, 7]), and EF_t represents the emission factor for an industrial product. Most of the emission factors for industrial processes were collected from the IPCC (2006), while the emission factor for cement production was collected from our previous study (Liu et al., 2015c).

208 2.3. Data sources

The energy balance table (EBT) is a summary of energy production, transformation and final consumption (Shan et al., 2017; Shan et al., 2016c). The activity data (AD_{ij} and AD_t) were mainly obtained from the EBT of the statistical yearbook on Industry, Energy and Transport of the corresponding city. However, not all the cities' statistical yearbooks contained all the required data. The detailed calculation process and the updated emission factors for 2000 to 2014 followed

previous research (Shan et al., 2017). The annual GDP data and city populations from 2000 to
2014 were derived from the statistical yearbooks of the corresponding cities. In addition, the GDP
data in this study were standardized to currency values for the year 2000.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Temporal and spatial variations in CO₂ emissions

219 Using the methodology described above and the data that we collected, we estimated the CO_2 emissions for 18 central Chinese cities for 2000-2014 (Fig. 3; Table S2). The results revealed that 220 221 the total CO_2 emissions due to fossil fuel consumption and industrial processes for the aggregated 222 18 cities increased from 396.66 million tons (Mt) in 2000 to 1,145.19 million tons (Mt) in 2014, 223 with an annual average growth rate (AAGR) of 7.87% (Fig. 3). The AAGR of CO₂ emissions in 224 central Chinese cities was roughly consistent with the national growth rate (7%) (Geng et al., 225 2011b; Liu et al., 2015b). Additionally, the growth rate was lower during the periods from 2005 to 2010 (5.44%) and from 2010 to 2014 (5.61%) compared with that from 2000 to 2005 (12.23%). 226 Trends were more evident in the provincial capital cities, where CO_2 emissions increased by 227 228 102.97%, 37.21%, and 18.49% from 2000-2005, 2005-2010, and 2010-2014, with AAGR values 229 of 15.21%, 6.53%, and 4.33%, respectively. The increasing trend of CO₂ emissions demonstrated 230 that with the ongoing economic development (the GDP increased from 640.85 billion Yuan in 231 2000 to 5458.39 billion Yuan in 2014) and technological progress, the consumption of fossil fuel 232 and industrial production processes gradually switched to high-efficiency and energy-saving 233 processes, resulting in the reduction of the AAGR.

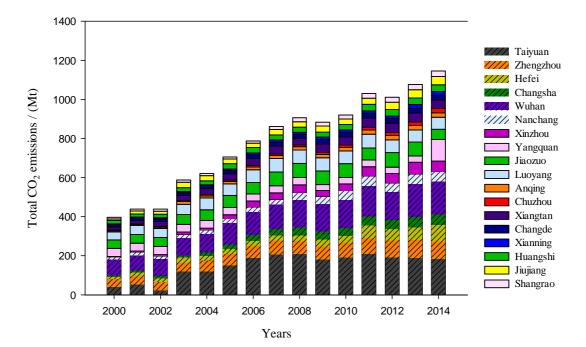


Fig. 3. Total CO₂ emissions for 18 central Chinese cities during the period from 2000 to 2014. Note: The legends

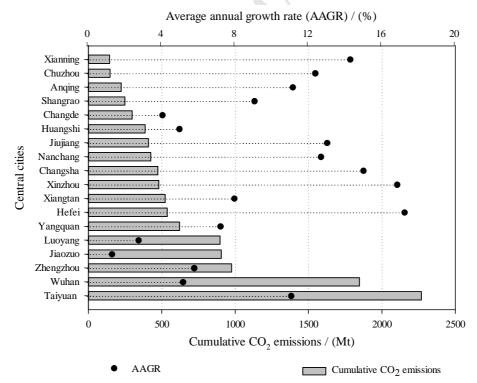
236 for provincial capital cities, including Taiyuan, Zhengzhou, Hefei, Changsha, Wuhan, and Nanchang, were filled

237 with slash and presented to the bottom part.

238 Among the 18 cities, clear differences were seen in the CO_2 emissions over time (Fig. 4). The 239 AAGRs for Hefei, Xinzhou, and Changsha increased rapidly, with values of 17.32%, 16.92%, and 240 15.08%, respectively (Fig. 4), due to rapid economic development and population centralization (Table 2). Conversely, Jiaozuo, Luoyang, Changde, Huangshi, and Wuhan developed with very 241 242 low growth rates, with AAGRs of 1.37%, 2.82%, 4.12%, 5.05%, and 5.25%, respectively (Fig. 4). 243 With the addition of Zhengzhou (5.85%) and Yangquang (7.29%), 7 of the 18 cities' AAGRs were below the average level (7.87%) (Fig. 4). However, the baseline CO₂ emissions for Wuhan and 244 Zhengzhou in 2000 were higher than those of the other cities (Fig. 2; Table S2), indicating a faster 245 246 industrialization process and an earlier awareness of environmental protection issues and CO₂ emissions mitigation and that strategies were proposed in these regions to control the vigorous 247 248 growth of CO₂ emissions.

More attention should be paid to the dynamics of the emissions of Taiyuan, which relied 249 heavily on coal and emitted the highest amount of CO₂. In 2000, the total CO₂ emissions varied 250 251 from 2.95 Mt in Xianning to 82 Mt in Wuhan (Table S2). However, in 2003, the CO₂ emissions of 252 Taiyuan (119.18 Mt) exceeded those of Wuhan (90.83 Mt) for the first time. After 2003, the 253 emissions of Taiyuan have been higher than those of the other 17 cities, reaching a peak of 211.16 254

Mt in 2011 and gradually decreasing to 183.53 Mt in 2014 (Fig. 3).



255

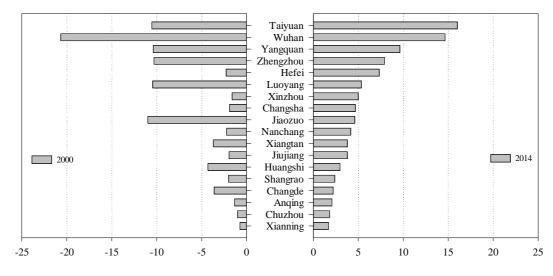
256 Fig. 4. The annual average growth rate (AAGR) and the cumulative CO₂ emissions of 18 central Chinese cities

258 The two cities with the highest cumulative CO_2 emissions were Taiyuan and Wuhan, totalling

²⁵⁷ over the study period.

2268.57 Mt (19.21%) and 1847.59 Mt (15.64%), respectively, during the investigation period (Fig. 259 4). The emissions of Zhengzhou (975.49 Mt), Jiaozuo (904.99 Mt), Luoyang (896.80 Mt) 260 accounted for the second highest proportions of the total among the 18 cities, with proportions of 261 8.26%, 7.66%, and 7.59%, respectively (Fig. 4). The overall percentage of CO₂ emissions for the 262 263 six provincial capital cities accounted for more than one-half of the total emissions of the 18 cities 264 after 2002, with the maximum proportion of 58.74% occurring in 2011 and the proportion 265 decreasing to 54.77% in 2014 (Fig. 3). The increasing proportion of CO_2 emissions from the provincial capitals indicated that energy consumption has been concentrated in the provincial 266 capitals with the progression of economic development. Furthermore, the share of CO₂ emissions 267 for the provincial capital cities relative to the urban agglomerations increased from 46.77% in 268 269 2000 to 52.29% in 2014 for the TYUA, 32.49% to 44.33% for the ZYUA, 48.95% to 65.37% for the WJUB, and 20.57% to 43.90% for the GCMR, 36.06% to 40.33% for the CCPL. A slight 270 271 decrease for the WHUA was observed, from 80.40% to 75.9% (Fig. 3). Additionally, the share of cumulative CO₂ emissions for provincial capital cities relative to their respective urban 272 agglomerations was highest in the WHUA, at 77.67%, followed by the TYUA (67.32%) and the 273 WJUB (59.13%), for the study period. However, not all CO₂ emission values were higher in 274 275 provincial capital cities than in non-provincial capitals, such as in the GCMR, where the 276 cumulative CO₂ emissions from Changsha (472.98 Mt) were lower than those of Xiangtan (523.20 277 Mt) (Fig. 3; Table S2). The CO₂ emissions of Changsha surpassed those of Xiangtan in 2008.

278 The spatial distribution of CO₂ emissions has remained nearly stable over the past 15 years 279 and is noticeably uneven among cities (Fig. 5). In 2000, Wuhan ranked the highest at 82 Mt of emissions, accounting for above one-fifth of the 18 cities' total CO_2 emissions. The other five 280 281 cities, including Jiaozuo, Taiyuan, Luoyang, Yangguan and Zhengzhou, primarily located in 282 ZYUA and TYUA, each emitted more than one-tenth of the total CO₂ emissions (Fig. 5). In 2014, the high-emission centres remained in the same places; however, between 2000 and 2014, the 283 percentage of CO₂ emissions for individual cities changed. Except for Taiyuan and Hefei, in which 284 285 emissions increased from 10.54% and 2.26% in 2000 to 16.03% and 7.33% in 2014, respectively, 286 the proportions of CO_2 emissions for the remaining four provincial capital cities declined overall. 287 In Wuhan, the proportion decreased from 20.67% to 14.56% (Fig. 5).



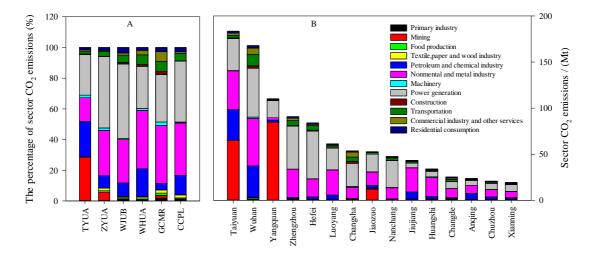
The percentage of single city's CO_2 emissions to the total CO_2 emissions/(%)

289 Fig. 5. The percentage of single city's CO_2 emissions to the total CO_2 emissions with the years of 2000 and 2014.

290 The emissions by sector and fossil fuel type, as well as by socioeconomic characteristics, are 291 discussed below to provide a deep understanding of the energy utilization structure and the factors 292 influencing carbon emissions.

3.2. Emissions by sector and fossil fuel type 293

294 Fig. 6A depicts the percentage of sectoral cumulative CO_2 emissions for six urban 295 agglomerations. To further analyse the amount and proportion of sectoral CO₂ emissions, Fig. 6B describes the distribution of CO_2 emissions by sector for different cities in 2014. To compare the 296 297 various sectors' CO_2 emissions at another scale, we merged 47 socioeconomic sectors into 12 298 categories (Table S1)). The results show that "power generation" represented the largest share of 299 the total cumulative CO_2 emissions, accounting for an average of 36.51% among the 18 cities. In 300 Beijing, the production and supply of electric power and steam power also accounted for 32% of 301 the total direct carbon emissions (Shao et al., 2016b). The "non-metal and metal industry", and "petroleum and chemical industry", and "mining" sectors accounted for the second largest 302 303 proportions of total CO₂ emissions, at 29.81%, 14.79%, and 9.62%, respectively. The CO₂ 304 emissions generated from "mining" in the TYUA, representing the highest contribution of 28.21% over the whole period, were higher than those derived from "power generation", especially in 305 Taiyuan and Yangquan (Fig. 6). In addition, with the progression of urbanization, the "petroleum 306 307 and chemical industry" and "mining" sectors gradually yielded to "power generation" in Taiyuan, with the percentages shifting from 30.74%, 31.83%, and 16.06% in 2003 to 22.91%, 28.21%, 308 309 26.39%, respectively, in 2014.



310

311

Fig. 6. The percentage of cumulative sectoral CO_2 emissions within six urban agglomerations over the whole

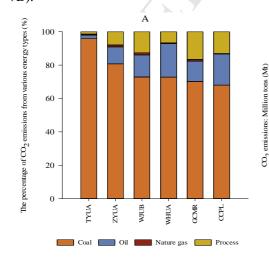
312 period (A) and CO₂ emissions by sector in different cities in 2014 (B).

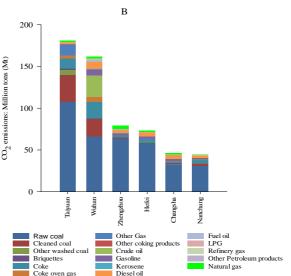
313 The average CO₂ emissions from SI (secondary industry) accounted for the largest share of the 314 total CO_2 emissions, ranging from 78.72% in Changsha to 95.01% in Taiyuan (Fig. S1). The 315 contribution of SI to the total GDP was 48.69% and 44.18% in Changsha and Taiyuan,

respectively, indicating that an industrial structure shift from SI to tertiary industry (TI) could be 316 317 beneficial not only in increasing the GDP but also in reducing carbon emissions. Three categories of relationships between the contributions of SI to the total GDP and CO₂ emissions were 318 observed. First, a decrease in the percentage of SI-related CO2 emissions occurred with increasing 319 320 contributions of SI to GDP. Cities in this category included Wuhan, Zhengzhou, and Changsha. 321 Second, the proportion of SI-related CO₂ emissions increased with SI contributions to GDP. Hefei 322 and Nanchang belonged to this category. Third, the industrial structure and the contribution of 323 SI-related CO₂ emissions remained roughly stable, such as in Taiyuan (Fig. S1).

324 Fig. 7A presents the proportion of CO_2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion and industrial 325 processes for six urban agglomerations for the study period. Fig. 7B presents the CO₂ emissions 326 from the different energy types for six provincial capital cities in 2014. The primary source of CO_2 emissions was the use of raw coal, which contributed an average of 60.93% of the total in the 327 328 central region, followed by clean coal, which represented an 8.25% contribution. The 329 contributions of coke and crude oil to the total CO_2 emissions were 6.22% and 4.54%, respectively. 330 Previous research also found that the share of CO₂ emissions from coal combustion was approximately 70% from 2005-2008 (Geng et al., 2011b) and 80% from 2000-2013 (Liu et al., 331 332 2015a). By merging 20 energy types into 3 categories, including coal, oil, and natural gas, we 333 further analysed the CO_2 emissions by energy type (Fig. S2).

334 It is well known that coal is a high-emission fossil fuel compared with crude oil and natural 335 gas since it emits more CO₂ to produce the same amount of heat compared with the other energy types (Li et al., 2010). In the TYUA, 95% of the CO2 emissions were generated from coal 336 337 combustion, while 0.53% were from natural gas (Fig. 7A), which is why Taiyuan, which largely 338 relied on coal, contributed the most to the total CO_2 emissions. Among the coal-related CO_2 339 emissions, the contribution of "mining" in Taiyuan accounted for 55% in 2014 followed by "power generation". In the other five provincial capital cities, the "power generation" sector 340 341 contributed the most to the raw CO₂ emissions, especially in Nanchang, where power generation 342 had the largest share at 95%. Taking 2014 as an example, the raw coal-related CO₂ emissions were 343 higher in Taiyuan than those of the other provincial capital cities, and the emissions from Taiyuan 344 were larger than the total CO₂ emissions from Zhengzhou, Hefei, Changsha and Nanchang (Fig. 345 7B).





- 347 Fig. 7. The percentage of CO₂ emissions by energy types and industrial process (%) during the investigation period
- 348 (A) and CO₂ emissions by energy types from six provincial capitals in 2014 (B).

349 Although the CO₂ emissions from coal gradually increased, the proportion of coal-related 350 emissions decreased due to improvements in the energy mix (Geng et al., 2011b). Similar results 351 were found in our study. Taking Zhengzhou as an example, the coal-related CO_2 emissions increased from 34.13 Mt in 2000 to 67.33 Mt in 2014. However, the percentage of coal-related 352 CO₂ emissions dropped from 94.14% to 85.69, oil-related CO₂ emissions increased from 5.78% to 353 354 9.7%, and natural gas-related CO₂ emissions increased from 0.07% to 4.61% (Fig. S2). In 2015, coal remained the dominant fuel, accounting for 64% of China's energy consumption, and this was 355 the lowest share on record, representing a decrease from a high of 74% in the mid-2000s. Coal 356 357 production fell by 2% compared to the 10-year average growth of 3.9%. However, the production of other fossil fuels grew: natural gas production increased by 4.8% and oil production increased 358 by 1.5%. China's CO_2 emissions from energy use declined by 0.1% in 2015, the first decline in 359 360 emissions since 1998 (BP, 2016).

361 Industrial processes also played a significant role in determining CO_2 emissions and 362 represented an average of 7.3% of the total emissions over the study period, which is consistent 363 with the results reported by Olivier et al. (2013). The percentage of emissions generated from 364 industrial processes varied from 0.96% in Xinzhou to 31.58% in Shangrao due to differences in 365 economic development and energy structure.

366 3.3. Preliminary analysis of factors influencing carbon

367 emissions

368 Generally, economic development and population expansion have increased CO_2 emissions 369 (Geng et al., 2011b; Li et al., 2010). To allow for comparisons among cities and to identify the 370 extent to which the economy and population depend on energy, we normalized the total CO_2 371 emissions on per capita and per GDP bases (Wang et al., 2012).

372 The average CO_2 emissions per capita across the 18 cities increased from 6.14 metric tons in 373 2000 to 15.87 metric tons in 2014, corresponding to a 158.69% expansion, which appeared higher 374 than the total values for China and the world (Fig. 8). This increase puts tremendous pressure on 375 local governments as they seek to realize their carbon emission reduction ambitions (Wang et al., 376 2012). The average per capita CO_2 emissions in this study were 2.27 times higher than those of China and 1.52 times higher than those of the world in 2000 and were 1.7 and 2.5 times higher, 377 378 respectively, in 2012 (Fig. 8). In addition, the per capita CO₂ emissions of central Chinese cities, 379 such as Taiyuan, Yangquan, Jiaozuo, Wuhan, were higher than those of highly urbanized cities as Shanghai, Beijing, Tianjin emitted 12.8, 10.7, and 11.9 t CO₂-eq/capita, respectively, in 2006 380 381 (Sugar et al., 2012). Therefore, reducing the per capita carbon emissions in the central region is 382 very important given the carbon mitigation targets of China and the world. The result of this 383 comparison reveals that some Chinese cities have already emitted more CO₂ than cities abroad, 384 not only in terms of total quantity but also per capita (Yu et al., 2012).

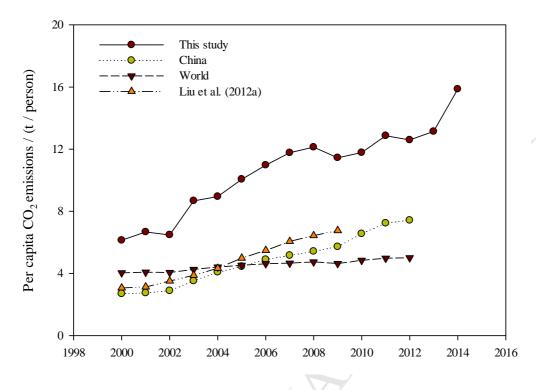
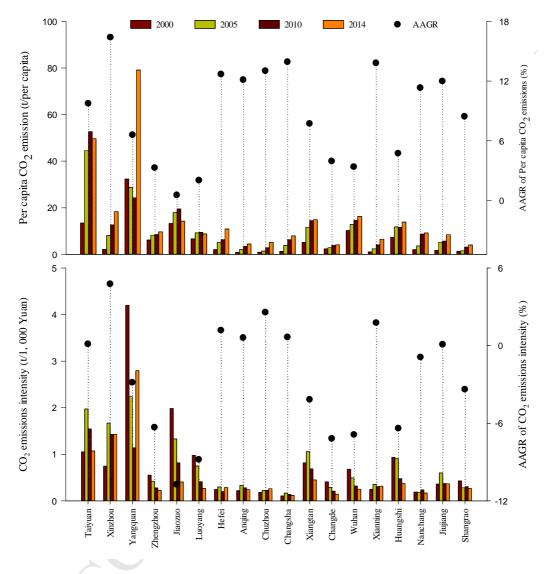


Fig. 8. The average per capita CO₂ emissions across various scales. Note: The data of China and world were obtained
 from Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center, Environmental Sciences Division, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Tennessee,
 and United States. The data of positive triangle of orange were obtained from Liu et al. (2012a)

385

389 The increasing tendency of per capita CO₂ emissions differed among individual cities due to differences in development stages and pathways. The AAGR of per capita CO₂ emissions 390 increased rapidly in Xinzhou (16.39%), Changsha (13.93%), Xianning (13.81%). However, the 391 392 per capita emissions in Jiaozuo exhibited a slow growth rate of 0.55% per year during the 393 observation period, which coincided with the lower growth rate of total CO₂ emissions (AAGR: 394 1.37%) (Fig. 4 and Fig. 9). Per capita CO_2 emissions represent not only an individual's lifestyle 395 choices but also the nature of local infrastructure and the structure of the economy in a given 396 geographical region (Hoornweg et al., 2011). Among the six provincial capital cities, the per 397 capita CO₂ emissions were consistently above average for Taiyuan and Wuhan and were below 398 average for the other four provincial capitals over the study period (Fig. 9). Taiyuan, the capital 399 city of Shanxi, is the headquarters of the China National Coal Group Corporation. In addition, 400 Wuhan is a critical industrial base in China and is home to many industries, including iron and 401 steel, automobile, electronics, chemical industry, metallurgy, textiles, shipbuilding, manufacturing, 402 medicine and other industrial sectors. Consequently, these two cities have the highest CO_2 403 emissions. Although Taiyuan and Wuhan emitted the largest amounts of CO₂ in 2014, and these 404 amounts were approximately the same at 183.53 Mt and 167.77 Mt (Fig. 2; Table S2), respectively, 405 the population of Wuhan was 2.8 times larger than that of Taiyuan (Table 1). In addition, the per 406 capita emissions from Taiyuan were 3 times higher than those from Wuhan (Fig. 9). Interestingly, 407 the per capita CO_2 emissions in Taiyuan decreased from a peak of 58.15 metric tons in 2008, 408 which was 3 times higher than the average level in 2014 (Fig. 9). However, the per capita CO_2

409 emissions in other foreign cities decreased. For example, the average rate of reduction in the per 410 capita emissions for six cities, including Berlin, Boston, Greater Toronto, London, New York City 411 and Seattle, was 0.27 t CO₂e/capita per year for the period of 2004-2009. In addition, this decrease 412 appeared in these six cities mainly due to changes in stationary combustion sources (Kennedy et 413 al., 2012).

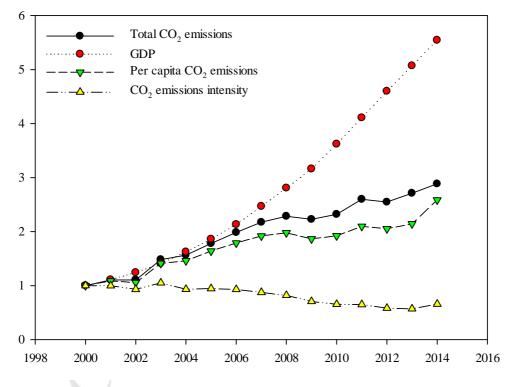


414

Fig. 9. The per capita CO₂ emissions, and CO₂ emissions intensity, and AAGR of these two factors for 18 central
Chinese cities with the years of 2000, 2005, 2010, and 2014.

417 The emissions intensity and AAGR for individual cities are shown in Fig. 9. Although total 418 CO_2 emissions have increased over the past 15 years, the average CO_2 emission intensity decreased from 0.8 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in 2000 to 0.52 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in 2014, with 419 420 some fluctuations (Fig. 9). The primary reason for the reduction in emission intensity is that the GDP grew faster than emissions (Fig. 10). The total GDP and CO₂ emissions increased by 454.61% 421 422 and 188.71%, with annual growth rates of 13.02% and 7.87%, respectively, during the period from 423 2000 to 2014 (Fig. 10). With the exception of the TYUA, the average CO_2 emission intensity 424 appeared to be lower than 0.5 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in the other 15 cities in 2014 (Fig. 9), with

425 values ranging from 0.11 to 0.45 metric tons/1,000 Yuan. The TYUA, located in Shanxi province, was recognized as the largest coal producing region. However, instead of retaining large profits, 426 the TYUA supplied coal to the other regions; therefore, although the GDP of this region was not 427 428 very high, the TYUA had the largest amount of coal consumption and consequently the highest 429 CO₂ intensity (Geng et al., 2011b). The results presented in this study align with those of Liu et al. 430 (2015a), who illustrated that developed regions possess both higher total emissions and per capita emissions with lower emission intensity. The national average CO₂ emission intensity in 2012 was 431 432 0.15 metric tons/1,000 Yuan, and the value in the central region was 0.2 metric tons/1,000 Yuan (Shan et al., 2016c). However, the value in this study was 0.46 metric tons/1.000 Yuan, which was 433 434 higher than that of the central region and of China as a whole. Consequently, more efforts should be taken to increase the use of low-carbon energy and clean energy and to reduce the carbon 435 emission intensity in these 18 cities, such as changing energy consumption. The emission 436 437 intensities of the PI, SI, and TI decreased from 2000 to 2014, especially for the SI in Wuhan and Zhengzhou, which had AAGRs of -10.58% and -10.29%, respectively (Fig. S1). 438



439

Fig. 10. The changes of total CO₂ emissions, GDP, per capita CO₂ emissions, and CO₂ emission intensity from
2000 to 2014. Levels for 2000 are set to 1 for all indicators.

Previous research has illustrated that different emission intensities in different regions are the result of critical differences in technology (Li et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2012a). Industrial structure and energy efficiency have also been found to be the primary factors determining emission intensity (Su et al., 2014). The share of tertiary industry has a positive effect in curbing carbon emission intensity (Zhang et al., 2014). The average CO_2 emission intensity in Taiyuan (1.53 metric tons/1,000 Yuan) was approximately 10 times higher than that of Changsha (0.14 metric tons/1,000 Yuan). As discussed above, the dependence on coal and oil and the utilization of clean

energy together resulted in higher CO_2 emissions in Taiyuan. In this study, the sectoral CO_2 emissions from "coal mining and dressing" and "petroleum processing and coking" amounted to 581 and 502 Mt for Taiyuan and 4.4 and 0.1 Mt for Changsha, respectively, in 2014 (Fig. 6).

452 China has adopted the target of reducing the CO₂ emissions per 1,000 Yuan of GDP by 40-45% 453 relative to 2005 levels by 2020 (xinhua, 2015). Previous research found that the CO_2 emissions 454 per unit GDP fell by 28.5% from 2005 to 2013 (Liu et al., 2015b). In addition, the achievement of 455 the carbon emission reduction targets proposed by national governments relies on provincial, state, 456 city and regional allocations and their actions (Bai et al., 2014). In this study, the average CO_2 intensity decreased from 0.75 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in 2005 to 0.52 metric tons/1,000 Yuan in 457 2014, a decrease of approximately 30% (Fig. 9). The national's CO₂ emission reduction targets 458 have not been achieved ahead of time across the 18 cities. In fact, eight of the 18 cities were above 459 460 the national average (40%).

461 **4. Policy implications and conclusions**

This study applies a practical methodology to construct territorial CO₂ emissions inventories 462 463 of 18 central Chinese cities located in six urban agglomerations for the period from 2000 to 2014. 464 The reasons for choosing central China are summarized as follows. First, with the proposal and 465 implementation of the Rise of Central China Strategy after 2004, the central region experienced rapid economic development. However, this region must ask how it can avoid the environmental 466 problems resulting from its extensive development. In other words, methods for controlling the 467 468 CO₂ emissions originating from fossil fuel combustion, especially in Shanxi, which relied heavily 469 on coal, should be taken into consideration. Second, a larger proportion of the population in central China, especially in Henan, consumed more energy. Thus, the development of methods for 470 471 reducing per capita emissions is both urgent and vital. Based on the above considerations, we found that the population and GDP for the selected 18 cities accounted for an average of 6.57% 472 473 and 7.91% of China's total population and GDP, respectively, during the investigation period (Fig. 474 2A). However, the share of the CO_2 emissions of these cities in various studies is on average 13.38% of China's total CO₂ emissions (Shan et al., 2016c), which is higher than the proportions of GDP 475 476 and population. Although the total CO_2 emissions increased from 396.66 Mt in 2000 to 1145.19 477 Mt in 2014 (Fig. 3), the AAGR of total CO_2 emissions gradually decreased, with values of 12.23%, 478 5.44% and 5.61% for 2000-2005, 2005-2010, and 2010-2014, respectively (Fig. 3). With respect 479 to the individual capital cities, the AAGR of total CO₂ emissions ranged from 17.32% in Hefei to 480 5.25% in Wuhan. The relationships between GDP, population, energy and industrial structures, 481 and CO₂ emissions are summarized as follows.

482 Economic development has positive effects on CO₂ emissions and vice versa (Guan et al., 483 2017; Wang et al., 2012; Zhang and Da, 2015; Zhang et al., 2014). For example, among the six 484 provincial capital cities, Wuhan has higher cumulative CO₂ emissions (Fig. 4), per capita GDP 485 (Table 1), and per capita CO₂ emissions (Fig. 9), while Nanchang has lower cumulative CO₂ emissions (Fig. 3), per capita GDP (Table 1), and per capita CO_2 emissions (Fig. 9). The base 486 487 amount of CO₂ emissions in 2000 for Wuhan was approximately 10 times that for Nanchang (Fig. 488 3-5; Table S2), at 82 and 8.85 Mt, while in 2014, the values reached 167.77 and 47.57 Mt, 489 respectively (Fig. 3-5; Table S2). In addition, the CO₂ emissions of Nanchang grew faster than

those of Wuhan (Table 2). The levels of economic and social activity, as well as the systems and 490 491 structures that enable such activities, provide data regarding the amount of CO_2 emissions (Sugar 492 et al., 2012). Although the contribution of SI-related GDP increased in Wuhan, the SI-related CO₂ 493 emissions decreased from 94.18% in 2000 to 86.34% in 2014 due to improvements in technology 494 and adjustments in industrial structures, while the share of TI-related CO₂ emissions increased from 5.35% in 2000 to 13.11% in 2014. Because of Wuhan's high-quality higher education, the 495 496 high-tech and new technology sectors, represented by the Optical Valley, have developed well. 497 Moreover, the number of listed companies within Wuhan reached 50 in 2015, ranking it eleventh among Chinese cities (Yicai, 2016), and these companies contributed the largest share of the GDP 498 499 of Wuhan. As discussed above, TI plays a significant role in improving energy efficiency and reducing carbon emissions (Guan et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2014), and the presence of these 500 industries is the reason why the AAGR of emission intensity in Wuhan greatly decreased during 501 502 the investigation period (9.55%) (Table 2). Consequently, Wuhan was able to maintain or even decrease its CO₂ emissions while increasing its economic development and population. Contrary 503 504 to Wuhan, the industrial structures of Nanchang changed from PI and TI to SI, which increased the share of SI-related CO₂ emissions. Furthermore, the AAGR of the GDP of Nanchang was also 505 506 lower compared to the other six capital cities. Thus, Nanchang was focused on quickly developing 507 its economy while controlling the growth of CO₂ emissions.

508 **Table 2** The AAGR of total CO_2 emissions, GDP, population, per capita GDP, Per capita emissions, and CO_2 509 emission intensity for six provincial capital cities during 2000 to 2014.

	Total CO ₂	GDP	Population	Per capita	Per capita	CO ₂ emission
	emissions			GDP	emission	intensity
Taiyuan	11.14	14.16	1.27	11.40	9.75	-2.64
Zhengzhou	5.85	17.16	2.48	14.31	3.30	-9.65
Hefei	17.32	20.76	4.10	16.57	12.69	-2.85
Changsha	15.08	18.63	1.01	17.18	13.93	-3.00
Wuhan	5.25	16.36	1.80	14.30	3.39	-9.55
Nanchang	12.76	15.89	1.29	14.28	11.33	-2.70

510 Economic development has a negative relationship with CO₂ emissions (Zhang and Cheng, 2009). For example, Taiyuan had higher CO₂ emissions (Fig. 3-5; Table S2) and per capita 511 emissions (Fig. 9) but a lower per capita GDP (Table 1). In contrast with Taiyuan, Changsha had 512 513 lower CO₂ emissions (Fig. 3-5; Table S2) and per capita emissions (Fig. 9) but a higher per capita GDP (Table 1). The cumulative CO₂ emissions of Taiyuan were 4.7 times higher than those of 514 515 Changsha (Fig. 4), and in 2014, these two cities emitted 183.53 and 53.61 Mt (Table S2), while 516 the GDP and permanent resident population were 3.1 and 1.8 times lower, respectively, than those 517 of Changsha (Table 1). Therefore, higher emission intensity and higher per capita CO₂ emissions 518 were found in Taiyuan (Fig. 9). The average SI-related CO_2 emissions in Taiyuan were largest 519 among the six provincial capital cities at 95.01%. The economic activities of Taiyuan relied 520 heavily on intensive resource mining, such as coal (97.44%; Fig. S2), resulting in the largest 521 amount of CO_2 emissions in the central region (Liu et al., 2012a). Thus, it is necessary to change 522 the energy structure and accelerate the process of industrial upgrades in Shanxi. For example, 523 shifting energy consumption from coal to a greater share of clean energy, such as natural gas,

hydropower, and solar, has been effective in controlling CO₂ emissions (Geng et al., 2011a; Li et al., 2010; Sugar et al., 2012). Additionally, large-scale coal mine construction should be
encouraged, electricity and grid construction should be accelerated and raw materials processing should be vigorously developed.

528 From the perspective of industry, the number of listed companies is one of the most important 529 indicators for measuring the competitiveness of a city and promoting the growth of GDP. In 2015, Changsha was home to 49 listed companies, ranking 12th in China followed by Wuhan. However, 530 Taiyuan ranked out of 50th (Yicai, 2016). Consequently, although the share of SI-related GDP for 531 Changsha increased from 40.8% in 2001 to 54.2% in 2014, the contribution of SI-related CO₂ 532 533 emissions decreased from 81.23% to 76.92%. Therefore, although the total CO₂ emissions were not as high as those for Taiyuan, this city still needs to control the growth of total CO₂ emissions 534 535 (Table 2) resulting from the concentration of the population into the provincial capital city (Fig. 536 2).

537 In terms of cumulative CO₂ emissions, Zhengzhou ranked third among the 18 selected cities, contributing 8.26% of the total CO₂ emissions, followed by Taiyuan and Wuhan (Fig. 4). The GDP 538 539 in Zhengzhou also ranked third in 2014, followed by Wuhan and Changsha (Table 1). As the 540 capital city of the most populous province, the permanent resident population of Zhengzhou 541 reached 9.38 million, ranked second among the 18 cities in 2014 (Table 1). Despite the lower AAGR of the CO₂ emissions of Zhengzhou (Table 2), the base amount of CO₂ emissions in 2000 542 543 was still high (Fig. 3; Table S1). Thus, Zhengzhou still needs to control its total amount of CO_2 544 emissions. The total amount of CO_2 emissions from coal use increased, with the share dropping 545 from 94.14% in 2000 to 85.69% in 2014 due to energy and industrial restructuring (Fig. S1). The three industry structures for Zhengzhou changed from 3.1:54.5:42.4 in 2010 to 2.1:49.5:48.4 in 546 2015, indicating that TI continued to rise, while the PI and SI declined to a certain degree. 547 548 Furthermore, the proportion of industrial value added for six energy-intensive industries to the 549 industrial enterprises above decreased from 51.4% in 2010 to 40.2% in 2015 (Zhengzhou, 2016). 550 In addition, in this study, the share of SI-related CO_2 emissions decreased from 94.09% in 2000 to 89.09% in 2014. The increasing share of tertiary industry and decreasing share of energy-intensive 551 industry together contributed to lower coal-related CO₂ emissions(Guan et al., 2017). Formally 552 553 approved by the state council, Wuhan and Zhengzhou were recognized as the national central 554 cities in 2016 (xinhua, 2017), likely because the per capita emissions grew slowly and because their CO₂ emission intensities rapidly decreased from 2000 to 2014 (Table 2). 555

The AAGRs of total CO_2 emissions, GDP, and population appeared to be the highest in Hefei among the six provincial capital cities (Table 2). Avoiding the fast growth of CO_2 emissions was clearly a primary objective for Hefei. The coal-related CO_2 emissions of Hefei increased from 7.9 Mt in 2000 to 63.67 Mt in 2014, among which raw coal contributed most. However, the share of raw coal increased until 2003, with a peak value of 96.96%, and then began to decrease. In 2014, the percentage contribution of raw coal was 87.65%. Conversely, the contribution of CO_2 emissions from gas increased over the investigation period (Fig. S2).

With regarding to the cities, like Zhengzhou and Wuhan, the baseline of CO_2 emissions were higher and the AAGR of CO_2 emissions were lower in the central regions. The primary mission was to further shift industry structure from second industry to tertiary industry, and adjust the energy types from coal to the clean energy types in order to keep the economy healthy growing under the premise of controlling the rapid growth of CO_2 emissions. For Changsha and Hefei, how

to control the vigorous growth of CO_2 emissions, was the main task. Consequently, it was urgent to improve the energy efficiency, change the extensive development pattern into intensive pattern. With respect to Taiyuan, high energy consumable industries should be effectively control, small-scale coal mine construction should be prohibited, electricity and grid construction should be accelerated and raw materials processing should be vigorously developed.

573 Acknowledgments

574 This work was supported by the Natural Science Foundation of China (71533005), the State 575 Key Laboratory of Urban and Regional Ecology, Chinese Academy of Sciences (SKLURE 576 2015-2-6), the joint Leverhulme Trust and Social Sciences Faculty Postgraduate Studentships at 577 the University of East Anglia.

578 **References**

- Allinson, D., Irvine, K.N., Edmondson, J.L., Tiwary, A., Hill, G., Morris, J., Bell, M., Davies, Z.G.,
 Firth, S.K., Fisher, J., Gaston, K.J., Leake, J.R., McHugh, N., Namdeo, A., Rylatt, M., Lomas, K.,
 2016. Measurement and analysis of household carbon: The case of a UK city. Applied Energy 164,
 871-881.
- Bai, H., Zhang, Y., Wang, H., Huang, Y., Xu, H., 2014. A hybrid method for provincial scale
 energy-related carbon emission allocation in China. Environ Sci Technol 48, 2541-2550.
- Bi, J., Zhang, R., Wang, H., Liu, M., Wu, Y., 2011. The benchmarks of carbon emissions and policy
 implications for China's cities: Case of Nanjing. Energy Policy 39, 4785-4794.
- 587 BP, 2016. BP Statistical Review 2016. China's energy market in 2015. <u>http://www.bp.com/cont</u>
 588 <u>ent/dam/bp/pdf/energy-economics/statistical-review-2016/bp-statistical-review-of-world-energy-20</u>
 589 <u>16-china-insights.pdf</u>.
- Cai, B., Zhang, L., 2014. Urban CO₂ emissions in China: Spatial boundary and performance
 comparison. Energy Policy 66, 557-567.
- Chavez, A., Ramaswami, A., 2014. Progress toward low carbon cities: approaches for transboundary
 GHG emissions' footprinting. Carbon Management 2, 471-482.
- 594 Dhakal, S., 2010. GHG emissions from urbanization and opportunities for urban carbon mitigation.
 595 Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability 2, 277-283.
- Feng, C., Gao, X., Wu, J., Tang, Y., He, J., Qi, Y., Zhang, Y., 2015. Greenhouse gas emissions
 investigation for towns in China: a case study of Xiaolan. Journal of Cleaner Production 103,
 130-139.
- Feng, K., Siu, Y.L., Guan, D., Hubacek, K., 2012. Analyzing Drivers of Regional Carbon Dioxide
 Emissions for China. Journal of Industrial Ecology 16, 600-611.
- Geng, Y., Peng, C., Tian, M., 2011a. Energy Use and CO₂ Emission Inventories in the Four
 Municipalities of China. Energy Procedia 5, 370-376.
- Geng, Y., Tian, M., Zhu, Q., Zhang, J., Peng, C., 2011b. Quantification of provincial-level carbon
 emissions from energy consumption in China. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 15,

605 3658-3668.

- Guan, D., Hubacek, K., Weber, C.L., Peters, G.P., Reiner, D.M., 2008. The drivers of Chinese CO₂
 emissions from 1980 to 2030. Global Environmental Change 18, 626-634.
- Guan, Y., Kang, L., Shao, C., Wang, P., Ju, M., 2017. Measuring county-level heterogeneity of CO₂
 emissions attributed to energy consumption: A case study in Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region,
 China. Journal of Cleaner Production 142, 3471-3481.
- Guo, S., Shao, L., Chen, H., Li, Z., Liu, J.B., Xu, F.X., Li, J.S., Han, M.Y., Meng, J., Chen, Z.-M., Li,
 S.C., 2012. Inventory and input–output analysis of CO₂ emissions by fossil fuel consumption in
 Beijing 2007. Ecological Informatics 12, 93-100.
- He, Z., Xu, S., Shen, W., Long, R., Chen, H., 2017. Impact of urbanization on energy related CO₂
 emission at different development levels: Regional difference in China based on panel estimation.
 Journal of Cleaner Production 140, 1719-1730.
- Hillman, T., Ramaswami, A., 2010. Greenhouse Gas Emission Footprints and Energy Use Benchmarks
 for Eight U.S. Cities. Environ Sci Technol 44, 1902-1910.
- Hoornweg, D., Sugar, L., Trejos Gomez, C.L., 2011. Cities and greenhouse gas emissions: moving
 forward. Environment and Urbanization 23, 207-227.
- 621 IPCC, 2006. IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories. Institute for Global
 622 Environmental Strate-gies (IGES), Hayama, Japan.
- Kennedy, C., Demoullin, S., Mohareb, E., 2012. Cities reducing their greenhouse gas emissions.
 Energy Policy 49, 774-777.
- Kennedy, C., Steinberger, J., Gasson, B., Hansen, Y., Hillman, T., Havranek, M., Pataki, D., Phdungsilp,
 A., Ramaswami, A., Mendez, G.V., 2010. Methodology for inventorying greenhouse gas emissions
 from global cities. Energy Policy 38, 4828-4837.
- Li, A., Hu, M., Wang, M., Cao, Y., 2016. Energy consumption and CO₂ emissions in Eastern and
 Central China: A temporal and a cross-regional decomposition analysis. Technological Forecasting
 and Social Change 103, 284-297.
- Li, L., Chen, C.H., Xie, S.C., Huang, C., Cheng, Z., Wang, H.L., Wang, Y.J., Huang, H.Y., Lu, J.,
 Dhakal, S., 2010. Energy demand and carbon emissions under different development scenarios for
 Shanghai, China. Energy Policy 38, 4797-4807.
- Liu, M., Wang, H., Wang, H., Oda, T., Zhao, Y., Yang, X., Zang, R., Zang, B., Bi, J., Chen, J., 2013.
 Refined estimate of China's CO₂ emissions in spatiotemporal distributions. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics 13, 10873-10882.
- Liu, Z., Dong, H., Geng, Y., Lu, C., Ren, W., 2014. Insights into the Regional Greenhouse Gas (GHG)
 Emission of Industrial Processes: A Case Study of Shenyang, China. Sustainability 6, 3669-3685.
- Liu, Z., Feng, K., Hubacek, K., Liang, S., Anadon, L.D., Zhang, C., Guan, D., 2015a. Four system
 boundaries for carbon accounts. Ecological Modelling 318, 118-125.
- Liu, Z., Geng, Y., Lindner, S., Guan, D., 2012a. Uncovering China's greenhouse gas emission from
 regional and sectoral perspectives. Energy 45, 1059-1068.
- Liu, Z., Guan, D., Scott, M., Henry, L., Z., L., Jun, S., Zhang, Q., D., G., 2015b. Steps to China's
 carbon peak. Nature 522, 279-281.
- Liu, Z., Guan, D., Wei, W., Davis, S.J., Ciais, P., Bai, J., Peng, S., Zhang, Q., Hubacek, K., Marland, G.,
 Andres, R.J., Crawford-Brown, D., Lin, J., Zhao, H., Hong, C., Boden, T.A., Feng, K., Peters, G.P.,
- 647 Xi, F., Liu, J., Li, Y., Zhao, Y., Zeng, N., He, K., 2015c. Reduced carbon emission estimates from
- 648 fossil fuel combustion and cement production in China. Nature 524, 335-338.

- Liu, Z., Liang, S., Geng, Y., Xue, B., Xi, F., Pan, Y., Zhang, T., Fujita, T., 2012b. Features, trajectories
 and driving forces for energy-related GHG emissions from Chinese mega cites: The case of Beijing,
 Tianjin, Shanghai and Chongqing. Energy 37, 245-254.
- Mi, Z., Wei, Y.-M., Wang, B., Meng, J., Liu, Z., Shan, Y., Liu, J., Guan, D., 2017. Socioeconomic
 impact assessment of China's CO₂ emissions peak prior to 2030. Journal of Cleaner Production 142,
 Part 4, 2227-2236.
- NDRC, 2010. Guidance on promoting the development of urban agglomerations in the central regio.
 http://www.gov.cn/gzdt/att/site1/20100826/001aa04acfdf0ddff91601.pdf (in Chinese).
- Olivier, j.G.J., Janssens-Maenhout, G., Muntean, M., Peters, J.A.H.W., 2013. Trends in Global CO₂
 Emissions: 2013 Report.
- 659 Satterthwaite, D., 2008. Cities' contribution to global warming: notes on the allocation of greenhouse
 660 gas emissions. Environment and Urbanization 20, 539-549.
- Shan, Y., Guan, D., Liu, J., Mi, Z., Liu, Z., Liu, J., Schroeder, H., Cai, B., Chen, Y., Shao, S., Zhang, Q.,
 2017. Methodology and applications of city level CO₂ emission accounts in China. Journal of
 Cleaner Production.
- Shan, Y., Liu, J., Liu, Z., Xu, X., Shao, S., Wang, P., Guan, D., 2016a. New provincial CO₂ emission
 inventories in China based on apparent energy consumption data and updated emission factors.
 Applied Energy 184, 742-750.
- Shan, Y., Liu, Z., Guan, D., 2016b. CO₂ emissions from China's lime industry. Applied Energy 166,
 245-252.
- Shan, Y.L., Liu, J.H., Liu, Z., Xu, X.W.H., Shao, S., Wang, P., Guan, D.B., 2016c. New provincial CO2
 emission inventories in China based on apparent energy consumption data and updated emission
 factors. Applied Energy 184, 742-750.
- Shao, L., Guan, D., Zhang, N., Shan, Y., Chen, G.Q., 2016. Carbon emissions from fossil fuel
 consumption of Beijing in 2012. Environmental Research Letters 11.
- Song, D., Su, M., Yang, J., Chen, B., 2012. Greenhouse gas emission accounting and management of
 low-carbon community. ScientificWorldJournal 2012, 613721.
- Su, Y., Chen, X., Li, Y., Liao, J., Ye, Y., Zhang, H., Huang, N., Kuang, Y., 2014. China's 19-year
 city-level carbon emissions of energy consumptions, driving forces and regionalized mitigation
 guidelines. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 35, 231-243.
- Sugar, L., Kennedy, C., Leman, E., 2012. Greenhouse Gas Emissions from Chinese Cities. Journal of
 Industrial Ecology 16, 552-563.
- Wang, A., Lin, B., 2017. Assessing CO₂ emissions in China's commercial sector: Determinants and
 reduction strategies. Journal of Cleaner Production 164, 1542-1552.
- Wang, H., Zhang, R., Liu, M., Bi, J., 2012. The carbon emissions of Chinese cities. Atmospheric
 Chemistry and Physics 12, 6197-6206.
- Wang, M., Cai, B., 2017. A two-level comparison of CO₂ emission data in China: Evidence from three
 gridded data sources. Journal of Cleaner Production 148, 194-201.
- Wu, J., Kang, Z.-Y., Zhang, N., 2017. Carbon emission reduction potentials under different polices in
 Chinese cities: A scenario-based analysis. Journal of Cleaner Production 161, 1226-1236.
- xinhua, 2015. Enhanced actions on climate change: China's intended nationally determined
 contributions <u>http://news.xinhuanet.com/2015-06/30/c_1115774759.htm</u>.
- kinhua, 2017. NDRC: Supporting the construction of wuhan, zhengzhou national center city.
 http://news.xinhuanet.com/fortune/2017-01/26/c_1120384031.htm (In Chinese).

- Yicai, 2016. Which city will be the leader in the new round of rise strategy of central China, Wuhan,
 Zhengzhou, Hefei, Changsha? <u>http://www.yicai.com/news/5193544.html</u> (In Chinese).
- Yu, W., Pagani, R., Huang, L., 2012. CO₂ emission inventories for Chinese cities in highly urbanized
 areas compared with European cities. Energy Policy 47, 298-308.
- Zhang, H., Sun, X., Wang, W., 2017a. Study on the spatial and temporal differentiation and influencing
 factors of carbon emissions in Shandong province. Natural Hazards 87, 973-988.
- Zhang, X.-P., Cheng, X.-M., 2009. Energy consumption, carbon emissions, and economic growth inChina. Ecological Economics 68, 2706-2712.
- Zhang, Y.-J., Bian, X.-J., Tan, W., Song, J., 2017b. The indirect energy consumption and CO₂ emission
 caused by household consumption in China: an analysis based on the input–output method. Journal
 of Cleaner Production 163, 69-83.
- Zhang, Y.-J., Da, Y.-B., 2015. The decomposition of energy-related carbon emission and its decoupling
 with economic growth in China. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews 41, 1255-1266.
- Zhang, Y.-J., Liu, Z., Zhang, H., Tan, T.-D., 2014. The impact of economic growth, industrial structure
 and urbanization on carbon emission intensity in China. Natural Hazards 73, 579-595.
- 708 Zhengzhou, 2016. The analysis of Zhengzhou industrial structure adjustment in the period of 1
- 2th Five-Year. Zhengzhou Statistics Bureau <u>http://www.zhengzhou.gov.cn/html/www/news4/20</u>
 <u>160503/172933.html</u> (in Chinese).
- 711