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Projections of air pollutant emissions and its impacts on regional air quality in China in 2020

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Abstract. Anthropogenic emissions of air pollutants in China influence not only local and regional environments but also the global atmospheric environment; therefore, it is important to understand how China's air pollutant emissions will change and how they will affect regional air quality in the future. Emission scenarios in 2020 were projected using forecasts of energy consumption and emission control strategies based on emissions in 2005, and on recent development plans for key industries in China. We developed four emission scenarios: REF[0] (current control legislations and implementation status), PC[0] (improvement of energy efficiencies and current environmental legislation), PC[1] (improvement of energy efficiencies and better implementation of environmental legislation), and PC[2] (improvement of energy efficiencies and strict environmental legislation). Under the REF[0] scenario, the emission of SO_2, NO_x, VOC and NH_3 will increase by 17%, 50%, 49% and 18% in 2020, while PM_{10} emissions will be reduced by 10% over East China, compared to that in 2005. In PC[2], sustainable energy polices will reduce SO_2, NO_x and PM_{10} emissions by 4.1 Tg, 2.6 Tg and 1.8 Tg, respectively; better implementation of current control policies will reduce SO_2, NO_x and PM_{10} emission by 2.9 Tg, 1.8 Tg, and 1.4 Tg, respectively; strict emission standards will reduce SO_2, NO_x and PM_{10} emissions by 3.2 Tg, 3.9 Tg, and 1.7 Tg, respectively. Under the PC[2] scenario, SO_2 and PM_{10} emissions will decrease by 18% and 38%, while NO_x and VOC emissions will increase by 3% and 8%, compared to that in 2005. Future air quality in China was simulated using the Community Multi-scale Air Quality Model (CMAQ). Under REF[0] emissions, compared to

2005, the surface concentrations of SO_2, NO_2, hourly maximum ozone in summer, $PM_{2.5}$, total sulfur and nitrogen depositions will increase by 28%, 41%, 8%, 8%, 19% and 25%, respectively, over east China. Under the PC[2] emission scenario, the surface concentrations of SO_2, $PM_{2.5}$, total sulfur depositions will decrease by 18%, 16% and 15%, respectively, and the surface concentrations of NO_2, nitrate, hourly maximum ozone in summer, total nitrogen depositions will be kept as 2005 level, over east China. The individual impacts of SO_2, NO_x, NH_3, NMVOC and primary PM emission changes on ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations have been analyzed using sensitivity analysis. The results suggest that NO_x emission control need to be enhanced during the summertime to obtain both ozone and $PM_{2.5}$ reduction benefits. NH_3 emission controls should also be considered in order to reduce both nitrate concentration and total nitrogen deposition in the future.

1 Introduction

With the fast growth of the domestic economy and urbanization in China, the emissions of air pollutants from coal combustion, industrial production, and transport have been increasing at an unprecedented rate over the last decade. From 1995 to 2005, the annual growth rates of energy consumption, cement production, steel production, and the vehicle population, were 10%, 24%, 12%, and 10%, respectively. The observations from satellite remote sensing indicate that NO_x emissions in the Central and East China have accelerated by a factor of 2 during 2000–2006 (Richter et al., 2005). There is evidence that anthropogenic emissions of air pollutants in China are influencing not only local and regional,

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but also the global atmospheric environment (Wild and Aki-moto, 2001; Liang et al., 2004; Dickerson et al., 2007). A better understanding of the emissions of air pollutants and their impact on air quality is therefore of great interest.

In 2009, the total energy consumption in China reached 3.1 billion tons of coal equivalents (tce), of which 69% is from coal (NBSC, 2010). China has overtaken the United States to become the world's largest energy user. What is more important is that the growth of energy consumption will continue into future because the energy consumption on a per capita basis is still only about one-third of the OECD aver-age. Therefore, there are strong indications that emissions of air pollutants will keep increasing in the next decade. Future changes in air quality will be affected strongly by the ex-pected changes in anthropogenic emissions, which are con-trolled by economic growth, environmental policy, and the future implementation of emissions controls. In light of this situation, the projections of future emissions are essential to designing cost-effective mitigation strategies and to under-standing how the emissions affect the future air quality in China and Asia (Dentener et al., 2006; Unger et al., 2006).

Projections of Chinese (as part of Asia) emissions from fuel combustion and industrial sources have been made by van Aardenne et al. (1999) for NO_x, Streets and Wald-hoff (2000) for SO_2, NO_x, and CO, Klimont et al. (2001) for SO_2, NO_x, NH_3, and NMVOC, and Ohara et al. (2007) for SO_2, NO_x, CO, NMVOC, black carbon (BC), and organic carbon (OC). Some studies have also forecast surface ozone levels over East Asia for the year 2020, indicating that NO_x ($NO_x = NO + NO_2$) and ozone would be a potential issue (Yamaji et al., 2008). These early projections suffered from poor data availability and were too optimistic about the pace of the introduction and effectiveness of environmental legis-lation. These projections also underestimated the economic growth experienced in the last decade in China (Klimont et al., 2009).

Based on the most recent development plan for key in-dustries and on new information on local emission factors in China, this paper presents possible emission scenarios for SO_2, NO_x, non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), NH_3 and primary particles (PM), and the po-tential impacts of emission changes on the regional air qual-ity in China for the year 2020. Simulations on 2005 base-line and 2020 future emission scenarios have been conducted and analyzed using the Community Multi-scale Air Quality Model (CMAQ) for four months (January, April, July, and October). The next section describes the methodology used for the energy consumption forecast, the air pollution control legislation considered and the corresponding future emission scenarios. Section 3 presents the model output surface con-centrations of SO_2, NO_2, fine particles, ozone, total sulfur and nitrogen deposition based on emissions in 2005 (the base year) and in 2020. Conclusions and recommendations for fu-ture air pollution control policies are provided in Sect. 4.

2 Projection of SO_2, NO_x, PM, NMVOC and NH_3 emissions in China

The regions studied covered 31 Provinces, autonomous re-gions and municipalities over mainland China. Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan were not included. Their emissions in 2020 are assumed as same as the 2005 baseline scenario, which are taken from the INDEX-B datasets (Zhang et al., 2009). SO_2, NO_x, and PM with different size fractions (TSP, PM_{10}, and $PM_{2.5}$), NMVOC and NH_3 were the targeted pol-lutant species. All data were at the provincial level. For a given Province i, year y, and pollutant n considered in this paper, the emissions were calculated using the follow-ing equations:

$$E_{n,y} = \sum_{i,k,l} A_{i,k,l,y} \sum_{m} \left[ef_{i,k,l,n}(1 - \eta_{i,k,m,n}) X_{i,k,l,m,y} \right]$$
$$(0 < X \le 1) \tag{1}$$

$$E_{n,y} = \sum_{i,k,l} A_{i,k,l,y} ef_{i,k,l,n} \ (X = 0) \tag{2}$$

where, i represents the Province (administrative region); k represents the economic sector or combustion technology type; l represents the fuel type (if relevant for a specific k); m represents the abatement technology type; E is the na-tional annual emissions; A is the activity level (e.g. fuel con-sumption, industrial production, amount of biomass burned on-field); ef is the uncontrolled emission factor; η is the re-duction efficiency of the abatement technology; and X is the penetration of the abatement measure m expressed as a per-centage of total activity A.

To improve the emission estimates, data for emission factors are collected from the field measurements of Ts-inghua University and other published results, as described in Sect. 2.2. Unit-based methodology is applied to esti-mate emissions from large point sources including coal-fired power plants, iron and steel plants, and cement plants (Zhao et al., 2008; Lei et al., 2008). Detailed local emission in-formation aggregated from the bottom-up investigation of individual power plants, heating boilers, and industries in Beijing, Yangtze River Delta and Pearl River Delta are also incorporated into the national emission inventory (Li et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010). A detailed description about the 2005 base year emission inventory is given in Xing et al. (2010).

2.1 Projection of energy consumption

The energy consumption level was estimated in collabora-tion between the research groups at International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA) in Laxenburg (Austria), Tsinghua University and Energy Research Institute (ERI) in Beijing (China) (Amann et al., 2008).

The new projection are based in the provincial level, reflects current Chinese expectations with regard to the

population projections from the National Population Development Strategy and the national development targets for renewable energy sources in the "11th Five-Year Plan". The energy forecast (i.e., energy demand, energy efficiency estimation and technology selection) were estimated by IPAC-AIM/local model developed by ERI (Jiang and Hu, 2006; Jiang et al., 2009), a bottom-up model with sectors classification and more than 100 technologies. The model searches for the least-cost technology mix to meet the given energy service demand (including five major sectors such as industry, agriculture, service, residence, and transportation, which are further divided into sub-sectors). The up-to-date information on these technologies was collected from large number of literature. The details about the forecast of future activities are given as follows.

1. **Population**
   The national population projections for the year 2010 to 2020 were completely adopted from the Research Report on National Population Development Strategy (NPDSR, 2007), i.e., 1.36 and 1.45 billion in 2010 and 2020. The provincial populations were forecasted using the historical data from 1995 to 2005 through the logistic regression method. Minor adjustment was conducted to make the total of provincial populations to be consistent with the national population.

2. **Gross Domestic Product (GDP, in year 2000 prices)**
   The provincial GDP growth rates from 2006 to 2010 were attained from the 11th five-year plan enacted by the local provincial governments (http://www.gov.cn/test/2006-07/25/content_344715.htm, in Chinese). The provincial GDP growth rates from 2010 to 2020 were forecast using the logistic regression method according to the historical data from 1996 to 2005. The average annual growth rate of national GDP was calculated from the provincial data, which was in line with the Reference Scenario in International Energy Agency (IEA) report, i.e., 7.7% during 2005–2015 and 6% over 2015–2020 (IEA, 2007).

3. **Activity data**
   We developed two energy scenarios, a reference scenario (REF) which was based on current development trends, and a policy scenario (PC) which assumed that more sustainable energy development strategies would be adopted in the future. Baseline scenario gives a basic trend to describe future economic activities. Only existing legislations on energy and environment will be implemented. Various energy and emission control policies are assumed for the policy scenario. In the policy scenario, policies on energy conservation, renewable energy will be widely adopted by both regulation and financial incentives. Economic structure change is also considered. However, the application of abatement technologies is assumed same across all provinces

in this study. Scenario assumptions and key macroeconomic parameters are given in Table 1.

Projection of electricity generation considers the use of different energy and technologies. The development of renewable energy sources followed the national targets in the 11th Five-Year Plan (NDRC, 2008a). The future development of hydro power, nuclear power and other renewable resources, the improvement of thermal efficiency, as well as the fuel structure have been considered in the model. The annual nuclear generation will be 260–280 billion kWh in 2020, according to the 'long-term development plan of nuclear power' reported by NDRC (NDRC, 2007). The hydro power will be developed in west China. The west-east gas transmitting project will promote natural gas power plants in the future. But the coal will still be the dominant fuel, accounting for 95.3% and 93.6% of thermal power plants in 2020REF and 2020PC, respectively. The power generation technologies include sub-critical units with a thermal efficiency of 30–36%, super-critical units with a thermal efficiency of 41%, ultra-supercritical units with a thermal efficiency of 43%, and IGCC (Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle) with a thermal efficiency of 45–55%. Before 2005, sub-critical units are the dominant technology. Super-critical units are widely applied since 2005. Ultra-supercritical units and IGCC will be promoted in the next five years. Closing the small units is another policy to improve the energy efficiency of power sector. Considering the promotion new technologies, the thermal efficiencies are assumed to increase to 37.5% in 2020 REF and 38.5% in 2020 PC scenario.

Primary energy demand is related to energy service demand of each subsector driven by the socio-economic growth (i.e., population, GDP, lifestyle, etc), and also influenced by the technology progress, energy efficiency as well as the transition of energy and industry structure.

For industrial sectors, in general, the comprehensive energy consumption will reach the levels of developed countries in 2020. The comprehensive energy consumption in steel production, non-ferrous metal smelting, ethylene, ammonia synthesis, and cement production will decrease by 18%, 7%, 29%, 27% and 33% respectively in 2020, compared to that in 2000, according to the "energy-saving in long-term and special program" reported by NRDC (NRDC, 2004). The ratio of coal in energy structure will decrease, and the ratio of natural gas and electricity will slightly increase. The ratio of Circulating Fluidized-Bed (CFB) boiler used in industry will increase from 10% in 2005 to 15% in 2020, since CFB is more efficient and emits less SO_2/NO_x than grate boiler.

For domestic sources, along with the increase of the per capita income of rural residents, cleaner fuel will be promoted. In developed regions (e.g., Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai), coal will be replaced by nature gas and electricity. In less developed regions where biomass is the major energy type, the biomass is going to be replaced by coal or gas and

Table 1. Key parameters used in the development of energy scenarios.

	Scenario	2005	Reference Scenario [REF]	Policy Scenerio [PC]
Power plants (PP)	Electricity production (billion kW·h)	2055	5226 (annual growth rate: 6.4%)	4759 (annual growth rate: 5.8%)
	Thermal efficiency	32.0%	37.5%	38.5%
	Percentage of coal power	95.2%	95.3%	93.6%
Industry (IND)	Energy consumption (PJ)	30 678	70 528 (annual growth rate: 4.1%)	66 155 (annual growth rate: 3.5%)
	Energy structure (ratio of coal, oil, gas and electricity)	59%, 10%, 11% and 20%	57%, 9%, 14%, and 20%	54%, 9%, 16%, and 21%
Domestic (DOM)	Energy consumption (PJ)	16 333	21 786 (annual growth rate: 1.9%)	20 438 (annual growth rate: 1.5%)
	Energy structure (ratio of coal, gas, biomass, electricity and heat)	25%, 9%, 47%, 14% and 4%	16%, 11%, 41%, 25% and 7%	14%, 12%, 41%, 26% and 7%
Transport (TRA)	Vehicle population of truck, car, and motor cycle (million)	9.55, 21.33 and 75.8	21.29, 136.7 and 98.0	
	Fuel economy of car, truck, motorcycle, and agriculture transport machine		Increase by 30%, 25%, 30% and 15%	Increase by 40%, 36%, 36% and 23%

electricity. According to the "energy-saving in long-term and special program", energy saving in constructions, commercial and residential sectors has also been considered, including design of energy saving building and energy-saving appliances promotion.

For mobile sources, the vehicle populations of truck, car, and motor cycle, as well as passenger or freight traffic volume of inland water and railroad, are driven by the socioeconomic growth. The energy consumptions in transportation sector are also influenced by the changes of vehicle types and fuel economy. Those parameters are mainly referred to He et al. (2005), Wang et al. (2007) and IEA (2007). There is a continuous growth trend of larger trucks for long-distance freight transportation and a trend in rapid growth in light and mini vehicle fleets, while the medium-size trucks will decline greatly. Besides, the share of diesel vehicles in the Chinese vehicle fleet will increase, since diesel vehicles have better fuel economy than gasoline vehicles. Passenger car ownership will experience exploding growth due to rapid growth of private vehicles. To improve the fuel economy, Chinese government released a series of energy consumption standards for vehicles, such as the "limits of fuel consumption for passenger cars" in 2004, "limits of fuel consumption for light duty commercial vehicles" in 2007, "low-speed goods

vehicles – limits and measurement methods for fuel consumption" and "Tri-wheel vehicles – limits and measurement methods for fuel consumption" in 2008. Fuel economy of car, truck, motorcycle, and agriculture transport machine will increase by 30%/40%, 25%/36%, 30%/36%, and 15%/23% in 2020REF/PC scenarios, compared to that in 2005. According to the "energy-saving in long-term and special program" reported by NRDC (2004), the comprehensive energy consumption in railroad will reduce from 9.65 tce/(Mt km) in 2005 to 9.00 tce/(Mt km) in 2020.

The industrial process sector is forecast based on the population and GDP projections. The logistic model was used to forecast the total industrial production in China. The industrial production was considered to be related to the industrial development level represented by the industrial added value (Jiang and Hu, 2006). The model parameters were solved from the historical data from 1996–2005. The quantity of provincial industrial product was forecast by their respective ratios in the total industrial product. The renovation of technology has been considered. According to the 'Suggestions on speeding up the cement industry structure adjustment' released by NRDC (2006), the advanced precalcining kilns will take up 70% of total cement production by 2010. The units with out-of-date technology (i.e., Earth kiln) in lime plants

will be phased out (Liu and Yin, 2004; CLA, 2005). Chinese government has announced to phase out the indigenous coke production by 2010. Advanced technologies in nitric acid and sulfur acid plants are promoted in the future.

In 2020, total energy consumption is projected to be 134 165 PJ under the REF scenario and 122 493 PJ under the PC scenario, respectively. Compared to 2005, the energy consumption of power plants, industry and transportation in 2020 would increase sharply, as shown in Fig. 1a. From 2005 to 2020, energy use by power plants will increase by 117% under the REF scenario and 92% under the PC scenario, respectively. Jiangsu, Guangdong and Shandong are top power generation Provinces. From 2005 to 2020, energy consumption by industry will increase 82% under the REF scenario and 68% under the PC scenario, respectively. Shandong, Hebei and Shanxi are the top three industrial Provinces. Energy consumption by on-road transport in 2020 will increase 203% under the REF scenario and 190% under the PC scenario compared to that in 2005. Guangdong, Shandong and Beijing consume up to 30% of the total transport energy consumption in 2020. The sectoral fuel use by each Province and each scenario is given in Table 2.

The change of the fuel structure in each sector has also been considered in this study, as shown in Fig. 1b. Although coal will still be the most important fuel for power plants and industries, the percentage of oil and gas will grow at a much faster rate. Under the REF and PC scenarios, the annual growth rate of oil is 1.28 and 1.81 times that of coal used in power plants and 1.88 and 1.76 times that of coal used in industry, respectively. The percentages of the total energy consumption for coal, oil, gas and bio-fuel are 66%, 13%, 10% and 10% in 2005, 68%, 16%, 10% and 7% in the REF scenario, and 65%, 17%, 11% and 7% in the PC scenario.

2.2 Uncontrolled emission factors

Uncontrolled emission factors were obtained from recent references, which reported measurements from Chinese sources. The literature was thoroughly searched for published data for emission factors from domestic field measurements at power plants (Tian, 2003; Zhu et al., 2004; Yi et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2008, 2011), industrial boilers (Wang et al., 2008; Li et al., 2007; Lei et al., 2008), and biomass and bio-fuel burning (Li et al., 2007, 2009). A survey of the open burning of crop residues was conducted (Wang et al., 2008). Data on NMVOC emission characteristics measured in China were also collected, which included stoves burning bio-fuel and coal, road transportation, certain industrial and domestic sectors using solvent, fugitive emissions from oil exploration and distribution, and open burning of biomass (Wei et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2009). A dataset of emission factors has been documented based on these papers. All emission factors, and other assumptions used in this study can be viewed at the on-line version of the GAINS-Asia model (http://gains.iiasa.ac.at/), while a more detailed description is
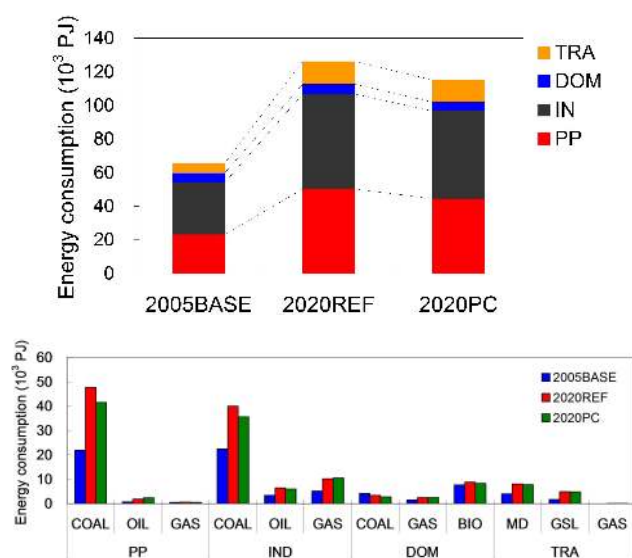

Fig. 1. Energy consumption in 2005 and 2020 (Sector: PP – Power plants; IN – Industry; DOM – Domestic; TRA – Transport; Fuel: COAL – raw coal, washed coal, coke, briquettes; OIL – fuel oil, diesel, kerosene, raw oil, gasoline, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG); GAS – nature gas, coal gas, other gas; BIO – straw, brushwood; MD – diesel, kerosene, raw oil; GSL – gasoline). **(a)** Energy consumption by sectors in 2005 and 2020. **(b)** Energy consumption by fuel type in 2005 and 2020.

also available in the methodology document (Amann et al., 2008).

2.3 Air pollution control legislation

Three potential air pollution control scenarios were designed for 2020, including a baseline scenario, a better implementation scenario, and a strict policy scenario. The baseline scenario (strategy-[0]) assumed that all current legislation and the implementation status of proposed legislation would be followed during 2005–2020. The better implementation scenario (strategy-[1]) considered the enhanced enforcement of current legislation and planned air pollution control measures. The strict policy scenario (strategy-[2]) assumed strict control policies and that more advanced control technologies would be implemented during 2005–2020. Tables 3–5 summarizes the progress of alternative technologies on air pollution control measures under the various scenarios.

2.3.1 Sulfur dioxides (SO$_2$)

Table 3 gives the penetration of SO$_2$ control measures assumed under the three control scenarios. In strategy-[0], the most important SO$_2$ control measure is the installation of flue gas desulfurization (FGD) in power plants. The Chinese government wants to reduce national SO$_2$ emissions by 10% in 2010 on the basis of that in 2005. To achieve this goal, FGD devices are now being widely installed in coal-fired power

Table 2. Sectoral fuel use by each Province in 2005 and 2020 scenarios (PJ).

Province	Power plant (PP)			Industrial boiler (IND)			Domestic (DOM)			On-road transport (TRA_RD)			Non-road transport (TRA_OTH)		
	2005	REF	PC	2005	REF	PC	2005	REF	PC	2005	REF	PC	2005	REF	PC
Anhui	700	1347	1195	799	1425	1315	756	617	562	99	229	218	128	164	162
Beijing	224	372	330	588	1193	1102	304	280	263	185	893	866	32	39	39
Chongqing	199	333	295	519	608	561	260	251	221	59	202	192	35	76	74
Fujian	445	1410	1251	722	1599	1474	131	236	210	80	252	242	33	35	34
Gansu	336	807	716	451	974	897	283	296	271	42	60	57	52	77	76
Guangdong	1801	5019	4451	1459	2484	2282	589	679	649	426	1382	1326	92	122	119
Guangxi	301	731	649	697	1956	1805	453	460	441	68	228	219	63	92	90
Guizhou	673	909	807	548	1629	1501	523	613	548	55	151	144	30	47	46
Hainan	74	235	208	85	173	160	164	136	128	19	76	72	8	11	10
Hebei	1498	3199	2837	3238	5038	4653	815	781	711	231	675	647	223	271	268
Heilongjiang	721	1096	972	926	949	876	476	365	347	97	225	216	67	95	94
Henan	1640	3363	2983	1487	3247	2993	754	681	622	173	461	442	209	241	239
Hubei	577	912	809	1175	1996	1842	728	591	540	102	252	241	94	137	134
Hunan	390	1126	999	1182	1032	953	617	501	458	93	211	202	98	142	138
Inner Mongolia	1346	4066	3607	970	2150	1983	476	690	622	78	210	201	59	64	64
Jiangsu	2137	5325	4723	2218	2627	2421	769	593	561	199	660	635	141	144	141
Jiangxi	392	922	818	521	1117	1030	278	245	221	60	196	187	53	77	76
Jilin	539	519	461	902	1112	1027	532	483	439	72	161	155	46	54	54
Liaoning	986	1731	1535	2185	2891	2669	609	753	682	153	394	378	80	112	110
Ningxia	318	1036	919	186	82	75	85	110	99	20	66	62	16	17	17
Qinghai	77	105	93	86	178	162	121	120	110	15	27	26	12	14	13
Shaanxi	530	1699	1507	368	368	339	394	365	332	70	210	201	49	55	54
Shandong	2198	4656	4129	3224	5592	5159	1533	1427	1314	273	956	917	244	284	278
Shanghai	782	1514	1343	695	1019	939	106	98	92	98	289	278	16	14	13
Shanxi	1395	2967	2632	1563	4634	4276	347	375	339	127	460	441	82	147	145
Sichuan	640	761	675	784	1493	1375	1255	1068	1000	153	411	394	74	134	130
Tianjin	366	426	378	552	1526	1408	121	105	98	66	213	206	27	36	35
Tibet	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	0	10	39	37	3	1	1
Xinjiang	319	678	601	815	2467	2280	256	301	270	66	158	152	32	48	47
Yunnan	449	634	562	771	1746	1611	368	333	304	127	247	237	45	66	64
Zhejiang	1098	2272	2015	1334	3263	3004	287	235	224	222	720	692	86	100	98
Total	**23 151**	**50 172**	**44 501**	**31 051**	**56 570**	**52 170**	**14 397**	**13 796**	**12 680**	**3539**	**10 712**	**10 281**	**2228**	**2914**	**2861**

plants. In 2005, only 15% of the power plants had FGD. By 2009, the percentage has increased to 71%. Considering that all newly-built power plants will install FGD, and some of the older plants will be retired, the percentage will continue to increase during 2010–2020. We project that in 2020, the power plants with FGD will account for 81%, 95% and 95% under strategy-[0], strategy-[1] and strategy-[2], respectively. Currently, there is no effective measure in place to control SO_2 emissions from industrial boilers. In strategy-[1], enforcement of legislation will be strengthened so that industries can meet the current emission standards, and 50% of the coal used in industries will be low sulfur coal or briquette. In strategy-[2], 30% of the industrial boilers will install FGD in order to meet emission standard. In all three strategies, Limestone Injection into Furnace (LIN) technology will be applied to all CFB Boiler. In the domestic sector, there are no control efforts being considered under baseline strategy-[0]. Under strategy-[1], we assume the application of low sulfur coal or briquette in domestic stoves will increase up to 80% in 2020. Under strategy-[2], we assume that new emission standards will be implemented for small

domestic boilers; therefore, 80% of domestic boilers will use low sulfur coal or briquette in 2020.

Industry processes including cement plants, lime plants, coking plants and sinter plants are important SO_2 sources as well. For cement plants, the units with out-of-date technology such as rotary kilns and vertical kiln will be shut down. As shown in Table 4, by 2020, the percentage of advanced precalcining kilns will increase to 91% in the cement industry, which decreases the SO_2 emission factor (EF) by 53% compared to that in 2005. The lime plants using early kilns will decrease from 70% in 2005 to 13% in 2020, while those using modern kilns will increase from 30% in 2005 to 87% in 2020. All the indigenous coke plants will also be closed before 2020. For sinter plants, desulfurization technology is not practical under strategy-[0] and strategy-[1]. In strategy-[2] we assume that from 2015, more effort will be made to improve the control technology used in sinter plants, and that EF will be decreased by 30% in 2020 compared to that in 2005.

Table 3. Penetration of selected air pollution control measures assumed under three control scenarios.

| Sector | Sub-sector | Control technology | 2005 | 2020 scenario | | |
				[0]-Baseline	[1]-Better implementation	[2]-Strict policy
Power plants	Old units	FGD(SO$_2$)	15%	45%	85%	85%
		LNB(NO$_x$)	46%	46%	100%	100%
	New units	FGD(SO$_2$)		100%	100%	100%
		SCR(NO$_x$)			45%	85%
		LNB(NO$_x$)		100%	100%	100%
	Grate boiler	CYC(PM)	40%	40%		
		WET(PM)	60%	60%	100%	
		ESP(PM)				85%
		FF(PM)				15%
	Pulverized	WET(PM)	8%			
	coal boiler	ESP(PM)	92%	85%	85%	85%
		FF(PM)		15%	15%	15%
Industrial combustion	Grate boiler	FGD(SO$_2$)				30%
		LSC(SO$_2$)			50%	50%
		LNB(NO$_x$)				32%
		CYC(PM)	23%	6%		
		WET(PM)	73%	93%	100%	43%
		FF(PM)				57%
	Circulating	LIN(SO$_2$)	100%	100%	100%	100%
	Fluidized-Bed	WET(PM)	100%	100%	100%	24%
	(CFB) boiler	FF(PM)				76%
Domestic	Stove	LSC(SO$_2$)			80%	80%
	Boiler	LSC(SO$_2$)				80%
		CYC(PM)	23%	10%		
		WET(PM)	63%	83%	100%	84%
		FF(PM)				16%
Transport	Car-gasoline	Uncontrolled	39%			
		EURO-I	38%			
		EURO-II	23%	6%	6%	6%
		EURO-III		17%	17%	17%
		EURO-IV		78%	78%	13%
		EURO-V				65%
	Car-diesel	Uncontrolled	2%			
		EURO-I	59%			
		EURO-II	39%	3%	3%	3%
		EURO-III		10%	10%	10%
		EURO-IV		87%	87%	11%
		EURO-V				76%
	Trucks-diesel	Uncontrolled	33%			
		EURO-I	40%			
		EURO-II	27%	4%	4%	4%
		EURO-III		12%	12%	12%
		EURO-IV		11%	11%	11%
		EURO-V		73%	73%	73%
	Agriculture,	Uncontrolled	100%	100%	100%	
	construction	EURO-I				13%
	machine	EURO-II				12%
		EURO-III				41%
	Inland water	Uncontrolled	100%	100%	100%	
		EURO-I				13%
		EURO-II				32%

Notes: FGD – Flue Gas Desulfurization; LSC – low-sulfur coal; LIN – Limestone Injection into Furnace; SCR – Selective Catalytic Reduction; LNB – Low NO$_x$ burner; CYC – mechanical dust collector; WET – wet dust collector; ESP – Electrostatic precipitation; FF – Fabric Filter.

Table 4. Technology changes of selected industrial processes.

Sector	Technology	2005	2020
Power plants	Grate boiler	3.9%	1.7%
	Pulverized coal boiler	96.1%	98.3%
Industry boiler	Grate boiler	90%	85%
	Circulating Fluidized -Bed (CFB) boiler	10%	15%
Cement plant	Rotary kiln	4%	1%
	Vertical kiln	49%	7%
	Precalcining kiln	47%	91%
Lime plant	Earth kiln	70%	13%
	Modern kiln	30%	87%
Coke plant	Indigenous coke	8%	0%
	Machine coke	92%	100%

2.3.2 Nitrogen Oxides (NO$_x$)

Current NO$_x$ emission control in China only involves power plants and on-road vehicles. By 2005, only about 46% of power plants had installed low NO$_x$ burners (LNB). Considering that all newly-built power plants will use LNB, the application of LNB will increase to 85% in strategy-[0] by 2020. On 27 January 2010, the Ministry of Environmental Protection of the People's Republic of China (MEP) issued their "Notice of Fossil-Fired Power Plant NO$_x$ Emission Prevention and Treatment Policy" (the "Notice"). This "Notice" sets the framework for NO$_x$ reduction actions to be taken under the nation's 12th Five-Year Plan, which begins 1 January 2011. In general, the policy set forth in the "Notice" applies to all coal-fired power plants and co-generation units that are 200 MW or larger, except those in designated "Focus Areas" (areas around Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangdong) where it applies to all units regardless of size. For the units covered by the "Notice", all new, or rebuilt units that have undergone expansion should install low-NO$_x$ combustion technologies (such as LNB and Over-Fire Air systems) as a first step. For operating units, if the NO$_x$ emission levels cannot meet the emission standard, then the unit should install flue gas de-NO$_x$ technology. Major flue gas de-NO$_x$ technologies mentioned in the "Notice" includes Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR), Selective Non-Catalytic Reduction (SNCR), and SNCR-SCR systems. Considering the implementation of this "Notice", we assume that in strategy-[1], Chinese government will promote SCR and SNCR installation in new or rebuilt power plants during 2010–2020. In 2020, the application of SCR will reach 30% under strategy-[1]. In strategy-[2], we assume stricter emission standards will be released and all new units will install SCR; therefore, the application ratio of SCR will increase to 55% in 2020.

Due to the lack of available control technologies, there are no controls on industrial boilers in both strategy-[0] and strategy-[1]. In strategy-[2], we assume that all newly-built industrial boilers will install LNB. The application ratio of LNB will increase to 32% in 2020.

For the transportation sector, both strategy-[0] and strategy-[1] will follow current mobile sources control policy, while strategy-[2] assumes that starting from 2012, Euro-V will be applied to light-duty cars, Euro-III will be applied to agriculture and construction machines, and Euro-I and Euro-II will be applied to inland water ships.

Cement plants are also an important source of NO$_x$. Strategy-[0] and strategy-[1] do not consider NO$_x$ emission control in cement production. Strategy-[2] assumes that SNCR will be applied to those cement plants with the precalcining technique after 2015.

2.3.3 Particulate Matter (PM)

In China, the control of particulate matter has achieved noticeable progress. A new, strengthened PM emission standard for power plants was published in 2003 (China standards GB13223-2003). Since then, all new and rebuilt units have to meet the PM emission standard with PM concentrations in flue gas less than $50 \, \mathrm{mg \, m^{-3}}$. As a result, over 92% of pulverized coal units installed electrostatic precipitators (ESP). In addition, fabric filters have been put into commercial use for the units with a capacity of over 600 MW. In future scenarios, the ratio of units with fabric filters will increase to 15%, as shown in Table 3. In addition, all grate boilers using wet scrubbers or cyclones will be phased out or shut down. The percentage of grate boilers will decrease from 3.9% in 2005 to 1.7% in 2020.

Currently, industrial boilers either installed wet scrubbers or cyclones to remove PM in the flue gas. In strategy-[0], we assume that new industrial and domestic boilers will be equipped with wet scrubber. Strategy-[1] assumes both new and old boilers will be renovated with wet scrubber. Strategy-[2] suggests stricter emission standards, and new industrial and domestic boilers will be equipped with fabric filters and wet scrubbers, respectively.

2.3.4 Non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC)

Up to 2009, the existing national legislation to limit NMVOC emissions covered road vehicles (China standards GB/14622, GB/14762, GB/17691, GB/18352, GB/19756), non-road diesel engines (China standard GB/20891), wood paints (China standard GB/18581), indoor decorative paints (China standard GB/18582), adhesives used in shoemaking (China standard GB/19340), and petroleum oil distributions (China standards GB/20950-GB/20952). In this study, strategy-[0] and strategy-[1] follow these current NMVOC control legislation. Strategy-[2] assumes further controls on VOC

Table 5. Penetration of selected NMVOC control technologies in industry and solvents.

Sector	Sub-sector	Technology	Removal efficiency	VOC reduction in strategy-[2] compared to that in [0]/[1]
Industrial process	Chemical industry	Reduction of vent losses	70%	−21%
	Crude oil refineries	Inspection and maintenance; Install vapor recovery units	95%	−10%
	Coking plants	End-of-pipe control technology		−70%
	Chemical pharmaceutical factory		90%	−85%
	Vegetable oil Extraction			−29%
Solvent use	Ink printing Paint use	Solvent management and substitution	50%–100%	−64% −38%
	Glues and adhesives	End-of-pipe technology applied on new plants	90%	−30%
Fuel transport, storage and distribution	–	Install vapor recovery units	95%	−50%

emissions from solvent use, the chemical industry, and oil refinery plants, as shown in Table 5. The application rate of end-of-pipe treatments for related industries is 40% in 2020, which is at a level similar to EGTEI (2008). The removal efficiencies of various measures are given in Table 5 (European Commission, 2001; EGTEI, 2008). Detailed assumptions made during the control policy design period are discussed in Wei (2009) and Wei et al. (2011). With the implementation of these measures, NMVOC emissions under strategy-[2] are 10%–85% less compared to that under strategy-[0] and strategy-[1].

2.3.5 Ammonia (NH$_3$)

Although NH$_3$ is one important precursor of inorganic fine particles, NH$_3$ emission control has not received much attention in the current air pollutant control strategy in China. Our previous studies indicated that NH$_3$ emissions have been increasing at an annual growth rate of 3.1% from 1994 to 2006 (Dong et al., 2010). The potential increase of NH$_3$ emission in the future will enhance the fine particle pollution. In strategy-[0], we project the future NH$_3$ emissions using a logistic method and historical emission data without considering any control in 2020. In strategy-[2], we assume the NH$_3$ emissions will be at same level as that in 2005.

2.4 Future emissions estimations

In this study, we calculated four emission scenarios based on the above energy scenarios and emission control strategies. These emission scenarios are REF[0] (with the REF energy scenario and Strategy-[0]), PC[0] (with the PC energy sce-

nario and Strategy-[0]), PC[1] (with the PC energy scenario and Strategy-[1]), and PC[2] (with the PC energy scenario and Strategy-[2]).

The predicted national SO$_2$, NO$_x$, and PM$_{10}$ emissions for different scenarios are given in Fig. 2. Changes in SO$_2$, NO$_x$, PM$_{10}$, NMVOC and NH$_3$ emissions by each province for different scenarios are shown in Fig. 3. The changes for regional emissions for 2020 scenarios are given in Table 6.

2.4.1 Future SO$_2$ emissions

The SO$_2$ emissions were 28.6 Tg in 2005. In 2020, SO$_2$ emissions will grow to 33.0 Tg under the REF[0] scenario or decrease to 22.9 Tg under the PC[2] scenario. SO$_2$ emissions decrease during the period 2005 to 2010, mainly due to FGD installations in power plants. The REF[0] scenario indicates a rapid increase of SO$_2$ emissions from industrial boilers after 2010. Industrial boilers will replace power plants to become the largest SO$_2$ emission sources. Under the PC[2] scenario, SO$_2$ emissions from industrial boilers are mainly reduced by the installation of FGD after 2015.

Different control measures have different emission reduction potentials. In PC[2], energy savings and the improvement of energy efficiency will reduce SO$_2$ emissions by 4.1 Tg. Application of low sulfur coal or briquettes in the industrial and domestic sectors will reduce SO$_2$ emissions by 2.9 Tg. Installation of FGD in industrial boilers may reduce SO$_2$ emissions by 3.2 Tg.

High SO$_2$ emission levels are found in east China including the North China Plain, the Yangtze River Delta (YRD), the Pearl River Delta (PRD), as well as in the Si-chuan basin. Comparing emission levels in 2020 with those in 2005, the

Table 6. Percentage changes of emission intensity in 2020 among regions and sectors (compared to 2005 level, %).

		North China Plain				Yangtze River Delta (YRD)				Pearl River Delta (PRD)				East China			
		REF	PC0	PC1	PC2	REF	PC0	PC1	PC2	REF	PC0	PC1	PC2	REF	PC0	PC1	PC2
SO_2	Power plant	−23	−33	−33	−33	−4	−17	−17	−17	37	22	22	22	−12	−23	−23	−23
	Industrial boiler	83	59	21	−11	134	100	54	14	143	92	67	46	98	69	29	−4
	Industrial process	2	2	2	−17	6	6	6	−11	−37	−37	−37	−41	4	4	4	−12
	Domestic	−24	−36	−41	−58	−76	−80	−80	−81	−56	−58	−58	−58	−22	−35	−39	−56
	Transportation	45	42	42	42	43	38	38	38	79	72	72	72	49	45	45	45
	ALL	**5**	**−7**	**−17**	**−27**	**36**	**19**	**5**	**−9**	**48**	**27**	**22**	**17**	**17**	**3**	**−7**	**−18**
NO_x	Power plant	65	45	20	−5	78	54	25	−1	126	101	66	33	81	59	32	4
	Industrial boiler	94	70	70	23	97	72	72	22	117	84	84	44	91	66	66	22
	Industrial process	35	35	35	22	36	36	36	22	31	31	31	17	34	34	34	21
	Domestic	−21	−30	−30	−30	−77	−80	−80	−80	−52	−54	−54	−54	−21	−31	−31	−31
	Transportation	0	−4	−4	−10	−1	−6	−6	−14	10	5	5	−3	1	−2	−2	−10
	ALL	**45**	**31**	**22**	**0**	**53**	**36**	**24**	**-1**	**62**	**47**	**35**	**14**	**50**	**35**	**25**	**3**
PM_{10}	Power plant	45	27	11	11	53	34	19	19	81	62	47	47	55	37	20	20
	Industrial boiler	91	70	64	79	60	56	9	87	70	68	55	80	60	55	0	
	Industrial process	−59	−59	−71	−72	−56	−56	−69	−71	−61	−61	−75	−75	−59	−59	−71	−72
	Domestic	−18	−26	−31	−34	−24	−35	−35	−35	−17	−22	−22	−22	−14	−23	−27	−29
	Transportation	−39	−40	−40	−43	−43	−45	−45	−49	−33	−34	−34	−40	−38	−39	−39	−41
	ALL	**−12**	**−19**	**−29**	**−42**	**2**	**−8**	**−17**	**−29**	**−16**	**−22**	**−31**	**−34**	**−10**	**−18**	**−27**	**−38**
VOC	Industry	141	141	141	35	148	148	148	55	162	162	162	50	139	139	139	43
	Domestic	−7	−7	−7	−15	93	93	93	58	2	2	2	−3	11	11	11	−1
	Transportation	−16	−16	−16	−16	−25	−25	−25	−25	−35	−35	−35	−35	−24	−24	−24	−24
	ALL	**50**	**50**	**50**	**5**	**87**	**87**	**87**	**34**	**47**	**47**	**47**	**4**	**49**	**49**	**49**	**8**
NH_3	**ALL**	**19**	**19**	**19**	**0**	**22**	**22**	**22**	**0**	**26**	**26**	**26**	**0**	**18**	**18**	**18**	**0**

SO_2 emissions will increase by 17% over east China, especially in southeast coastal provinces. Large increases are found in YRD and PRD, by 36% and 48% respectively. In PC[2], the SO_2 emissions will decrease by 18% over east China. However, SO_2 emissions in PRD will grow by 17% even in PC[2] because of the significant increase in future activities in the PRD area (NDRC, 2008b).

2.4.2 Future NO_x emissions

Compared to those in 2005, the national NO_x emissions in 2020 will increase 47% to 26.7 Tg in REF[0]. Even in the strict policy scenario PC[2], the NO_x emissions in 2020 will be 18.5 Tg, 2% higher than those in 2005. Power plants, industry and transportation are the most important sources of NO_x emissions, which contributed to 38%, 26%, 23%, respectively, to NO_x levels in 2005. In REF[0], NO_x emissions from power plants, industrial boilers and industrial process will increase by 73%, 92%, and 34% respectively, compared to those in 2005.

Of all the NO_x control measures in PC[2], energy savings and the improvement of energy efficiency may reduce NO_x emissions by 2.6 Tg; application of flue gas de-nitration technology in power plants reduce NO_x emissions by 1.8 Tg; Implementation of stricter emission standards for industrial boilers will result in an increase in the installation of LNB and may reduce NO_x emissions by 3.9 Tg.

NO_x emissions levels are highest in the east coastal regions, such as north China plain, YRD and PRD. In REF[0], the NO_x emissions in east China are 50% higher than those in 2005. After effective control measures are applied in PC[2], NO_x emissions will remain at 2005 emission levels in national level, while increases are still found in southeast coastal regions, west and northwest China where need strengthened control efforts.

2.4.3 Future PM_{10} emissions

In 2005, the PM_{10} emissions in China were 17.1 Tg. Future PM_{10} emissions will decrease to 16.0 Tg in REF[0] and 11.1 Tg in PC[2]. Industrial processes and the domestic sectors are the two major sources of PM_{10} emissions; they contributed 40% and 30%, respectively, to the total emissions in 2005. Compared to those in 2005, PM_{10} emissions from industrial processes, transportation, and domestic sources in REF[0] will decrease by 51%, 35%, and 11%, respectively, while power plants and industrial boilers will increase by 46% and 80%. In PC[2], installation of high efficiency dust collectors in industry will reduce PM_{10} emissions by 0.01 Tg and 5.0 Tg from industrial boilers and industrial processes, respectively, compared to those in 2005. The reduction of
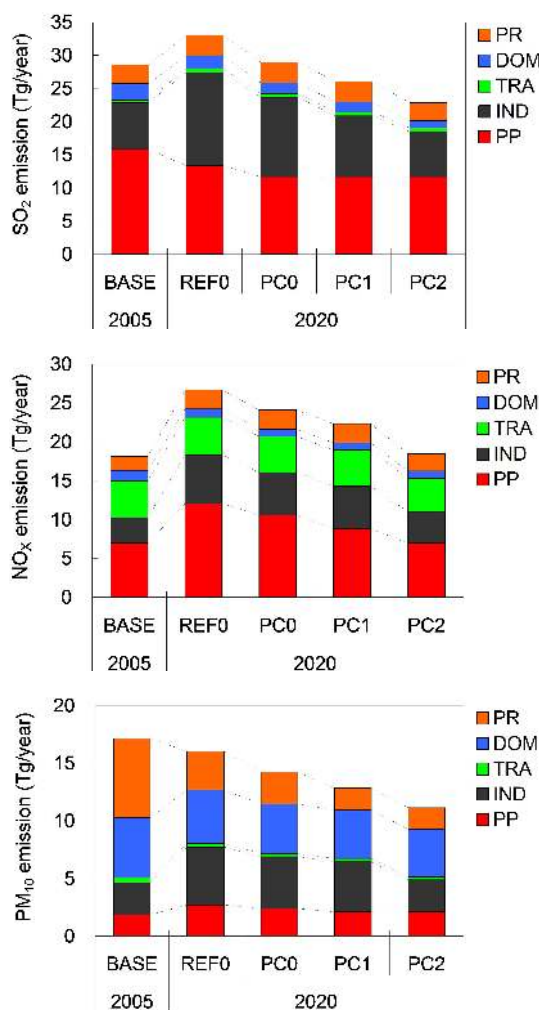
Fig. 2. Contribution of each sector to total emissions in China (PP – Power plants; IND – Industry; DOM – Domestic; TRA – Transport; PR – Industry process). **(a)** SO_2, **(b)** NO_x, **(c)** PM_{10}.

PM_{10} emissions by the installation of high efficiency dust collectors in industrial boilers are almost totally offset by the growth of coal combustion of this sector.

Of all the PM control measures in PC[2], energy saving and the improvement of energy efficiency may reduce PM_{10} emissions by 1.8 Tg; better implementation of emission standards may decrease the PM_{10} emissions by 1.4 Tg; Application of high efficiency dust collectors in industry may reduce PM_{10} emissions by 1.7 Tg.

High PM_{10} emissions are found in east China, including north China plain, YRD and PRD. But their emissions will be well controlled in both two 2020 scenarios. The PM_{10} emissions over east China will decrease by -10% and -38% in REF[0] and PC[2], respectively.

2.4.4 Future NMVOC emissions

The NMVOC emissions were 19.4 Tg in 2005. Future NMVOC emissions in China are predicted to be 26.5 Tg in REF[0] and 19.9 Tg in PC[2]. The control efforts applied in PC[2] will contribute to a 25% reductions of NMVOC emissions. Compared to those in 2005, the NMVOC emissions over east China will increase by 49% and 8% in REF[0] and PC[2], respectively.

2.4.5 Future NH₃ emissions

NH_3 emissions in China were 16.6 Tg in 2005. Future NH_3 emissions in China are predicted to be 19.3 Tg in 2020, 16% higher than those in 2005. Livestock and fertilizer applications are two major contributors, which account for over 90% of total NH_3 emissions. Predicted of NH_3 emissions indicate an increase in east coastal regions such as north China plain, YRD and PRD in 2020. The NH_3 emissions over east China will increase by 18% over east China, in REF[0]. NH_3 emissions will remain the same in 2020 as those in 2005, in PC[2].

3 Impacts of emission changes on future air quality

3.1 Air quality modeling system

The CMAQ model, which was developed by US EPA (Byun and Ching, 1999; Binkowski and Roselle, 2003), has been extensively evaluated by several modeling studies in Asia (Zhang et al., 2006; Streets et al., 2007; Uno et al., 2007; Fu et al, 2008; Li et al., 2008). CMAQ version 4.7 is applied in this study to simulate the air quality in China for the 2005 baseline and for the 2020 scenarios. The modeling domain covers most of China with a 36×36 km grid resolution and with nested simulations at 12-km over eastern China, as shown in Fig. 4. A Lambert projection with the two true latitudes of $25°$ N and $40°$ N is used. The domain origin is $34°$ N, $110°$ E. The coordinates of the bottom left corner are ($x = -2934$ km, $y = -1728$ km). The vertical resolution of CMAQ includes fourteen layers from the surface to the tropopause with denser layers at lower altitudes to resolve the planetary boundary layer (PBL). The Carbon Bond Mechanism (CB05) with aqueous and aerosol extensions and the AREO5 aerosol mechanism are chosen for the gas-phase chemistry and aerosol modules, respectively. A spin-up period of seven days is used for model simulations to reduce the influence of initial conditions on model results. The boundary conditions are based on nesting from the global chemical transport model GEOS-Chem (http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/).

The fifth-generation National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR)/Pennsylvania State University (PSU) Mesoscale Model (MM5), version 3.7, is applied to generate the meteorological fields needed for CMAQ simulations. In the MM5 simulations, 23 sigma levels are selected for
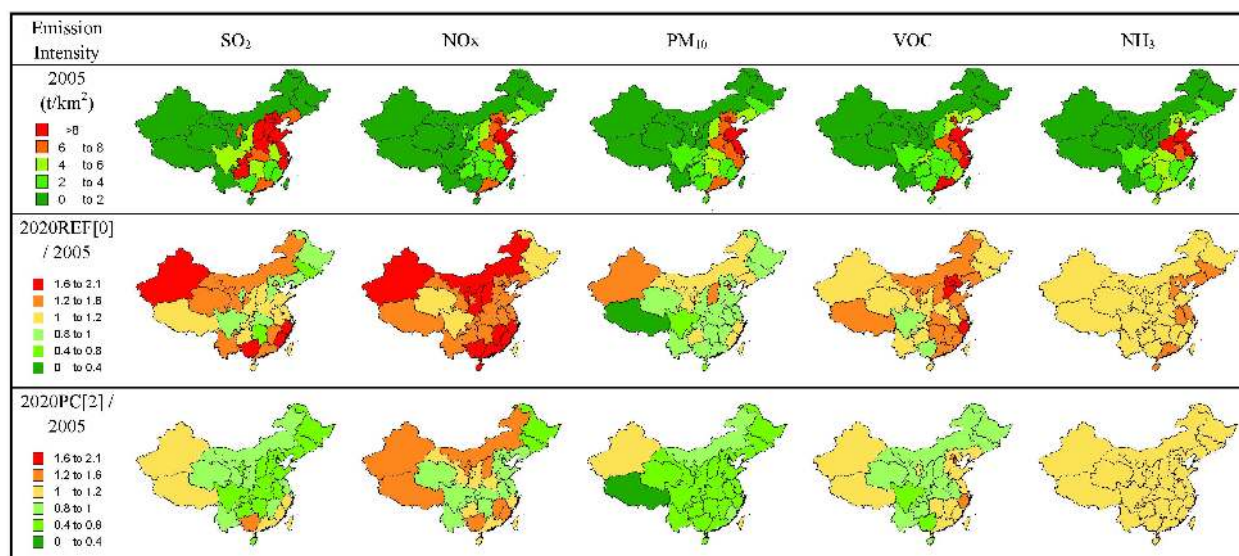
Fig. 3. Emission intensities of air pollutants in 2005 and 2020.
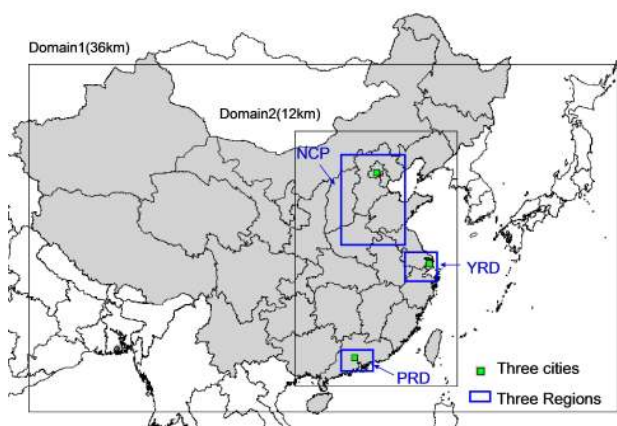

Fig. 4. Modeling domain and location of three regions.

the vertical grid structure with the model's top pressure of 100 mb at approximately 15 km. The height of the first 12 levels extends up to 2 km from the surface with the lowest level at approximately 40 m. The MM5 data sources and major physics options are the same as described in our previous paper (Wang et al., 2010). The Meteorology-Chemistry Interface Processor (MCIP) version 3.4 is applied to process the meteorological data in a format required by CMAQ.

The CMAQ simulations of the base year emission inventory were compared and validated with satellite and surface observation data, as given by Xing et al. (2010). Generally, the model reproduces both spatial distribution and seasonal variation of tropospheric NO_2 and SO_2 column densities and Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) in China that have been observed by OMI (Ozone Measurement Instrument), SCIAMACHY (Scanning Imaging Absorption SpectroMe-

ter for Atmospheric Cartography), and MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer). Surface concentrations of NO_2, SO_2, and PM_{10} given by CMAQ model are also comparable with those observed in Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. The results suggest that the anthropogenic emissions of SO_2, NO_x, and PM_{10} used in this study are in line with both satellite and ground observations therefore are of acceptable accuracy. The performances of CMAQ simulation on ozone concentration with the same emission inventories have been validated by Li et al. (2008) for Yangtze River Delta, and Wang et al. (2010) for Beijing in July and August 2008. However, there is overestimation SO_2 and underestimation for PM_{10} in some industry-intensive areas because of the inaccuracy of temporal allocations. CMAQ model also significantly underestimates $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in Beijing, mainly due to the underestimation of OC and EC. The absolute emission amounts may suffer from some uncertainties. So this study mainly focused on the impacts from the future emission trend which is driven by the development of future economy as well as the pace of control strategy.

Air quality impacts from emission changes for all species are calculated using the above MM5/CMAQ modeling system. The 2005 baseline scenario and two future scenarios (i.e., high-emission scenario REF[0] and low-emission scenario PC[2]) has been simulated. The simulated surface concentration of SO_2, NO_2, 1-h maxima O_3, $PM_{2.5}$, SO_4^{2-}, NO_3^- and total sulfur/nitrogen deposition in 2005 baseline scenario, as well as their changes in two future scenarios are given in Figs. 5, 6.

Besides, in order to explore the control benefit from each pollutant control, we have conducted 10 additional scenarios, where one pollutant is set to the two future scenario level (i.e., REF[0] and PC[2]) and the rest are held at the 2005
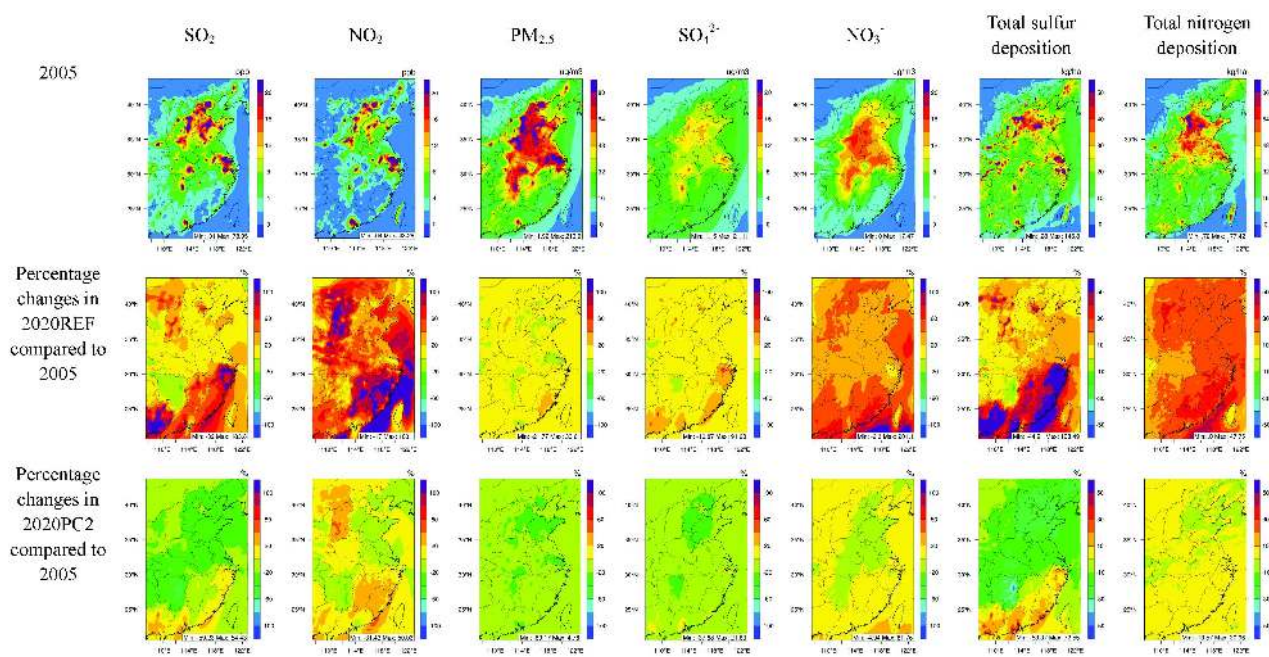
Fig. 5. Spatial changes of SO$_2$, NO$_2$, PM$_{2.5}$ concentration and total sulfur and nitrogen deposition in 2020 (4-month mean).
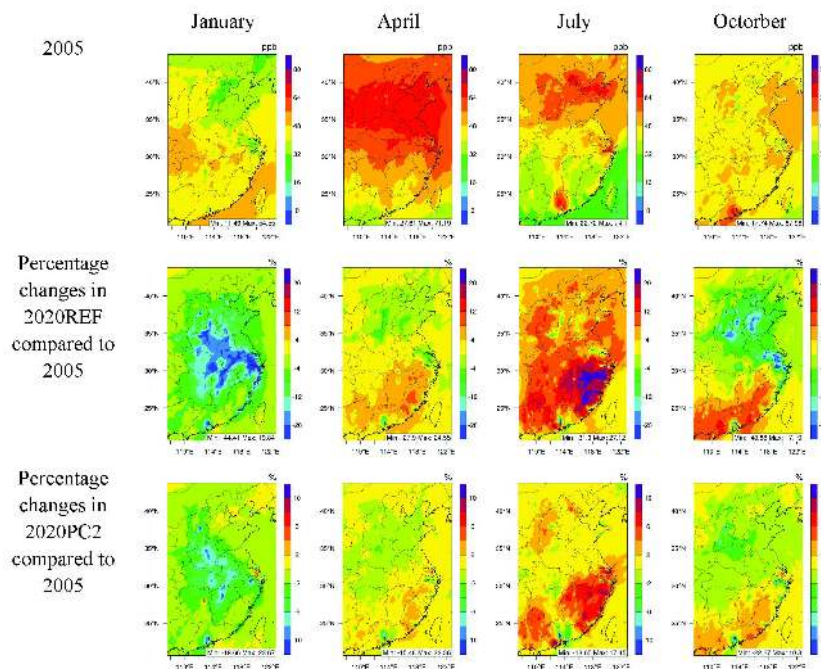

Fig. 6. Spatial changes of O$_3$ in 2020 (monthly mean of daily 1-h maxima).

level. The individual impacts of SO$_2$, NO$_x$, NH$_3$, NMVOC and primary PM emission changes have been analyzed using that sensitivity analysis for three fast-developing city clusters (i.e., north China plain, YRD and PRD), as seen in Figs. 7, 8 and 9. The air quality responses are defined as the percent change in 2020 scenarios relative to the 2005 scenario, at average regional level.

3.2 Surface concentrations of SO$_2$ and NO$_2$

Following the continual increase of SO$_2$ and NO$_x$ emissions in REF[0], compared to that in 2005, the SO$_2$ and NO$_2$ concentration will increase in most of areas (averagely by 28% and 41% domainwide), particularly higher in southeast coastal provinces, north west China which have large
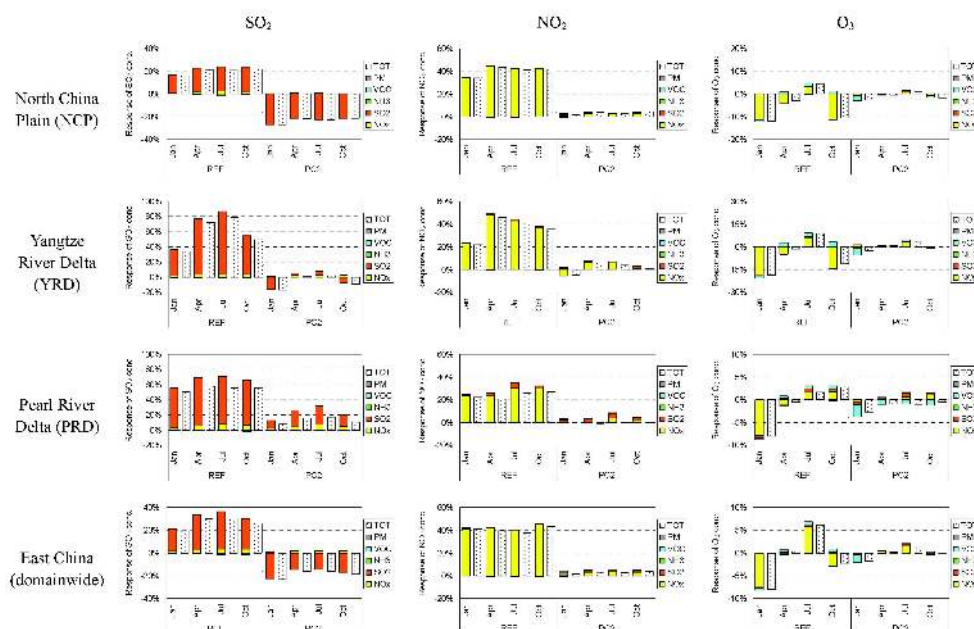
Fig. 7. Percentage changes of surface concentration of gas species relative to the 2005 scenarios in 2020 (monthly average for SO_2 and NO_2, monthly mean of daily 1-h maxima for O_3; TOT represent the differences between two future scenario with 2005 baseline, PM, VOC, NH_3, SO_2, NO_x represent the individual impacts of their emission changes in 2020).

increase of energy use in industrial boilers and transportation. The effects of control measures can be seen from the reduction of SO_2 and NO_2 concentration in PC[2]. In PC[2], the SO_2 concentrations in 2020 will decrease by 18% domainwide compared to that in 2005. As indicated in Sect. 2.3.2, China realized the rapid NO_x emissions in last 10 years and started to control its NO_x emissions in 2010. During 2010–2020, the control measures in PC[2] will reduce 30% of NO_x emissions. As a consequence, the NO_2 concentrations in 2020 in most of areas over east China are same as those in 2005. But slight increases are found in southeast coastal provinces. More strengthen policy should be conducted focused on those area.

Concentrations of SO_2 and NO_2 are mainly affected by their primary emissions, as shown in Fig. 7, which indicates that control of the relative primary emissions is an effective way to reduce these two pollutants.

3.3 Surface ozone concentration

The ozone concentrations have strong seasonal variations. Ozone concentration is higher in April and July for most of areas over east China. Besides, higher ozone concentration also appears in October in PRD. Due to the growth of NO_x and VOC emissions in REF[0], ozone concentrations in most of areas over east China increase significantly in July. Besides, ozone concentrations in south China also increase in April and October. In July, the combined effects of NO_x and VOC emission growth on ozone concentrations are 8% domain-wide, compared to that in 2005.

Because of the titration reaction of NO to NO_2 and the VOC-limited regime (excess NO_2 consumes OH to generate HNO_3), ozone concentrations decrease significantly in January for all areas and in April and October for north China and megacities (e.g., Guangzhou), see Figs. 6, 7. These results suggest that the effects of different ozone chemistry regimes in different seasons should be considered during NO_x control policy-making. It is better to strictly control NO_x emissions in summer (in summer and fall for PRD) to obtain maximal ozone reduction benefits.

3.4 Surface concentration of particulate matter

The future $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are significantly affected by the changes of its precursor emissions (i.e., SO_2, NO_x, NH_3, NMVOC and PM). In REF[0], the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in 2020 will slightly increase by 8% domainwide mainly because of the growth of SO_2, NO_x and NH_3 emissions, especially in April, July and October. Reduction of primary PM emission can compensate some increases of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration. Based on the stepped reductions from REF[0] to PC[2], the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration will decrease by 16% domainwide. Reduction of primary PM emissions plays the most important role in the decrease over east China, see Fig. 8.

Because of the increase of SO_2 emissions in REF[0], sulfate concentrations in 2020 increase by 7% domainwide. In PC[2], stricter controls of SO_2 emissions reduce sulfate concentration in 2020 by 14% domainwide, while sulfate concentration in PRD slightly increases 9% because of the
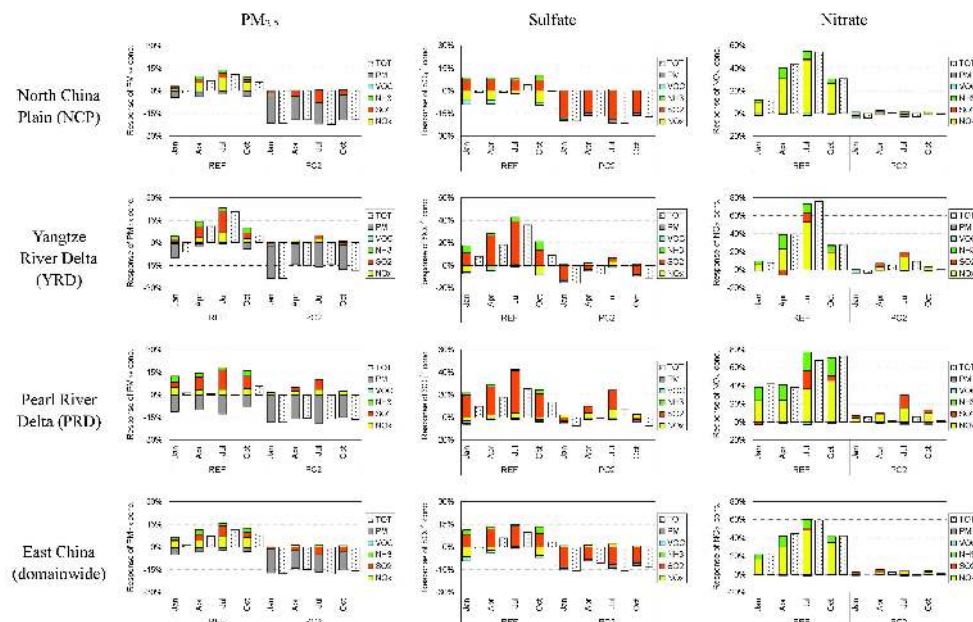
Fig. 8. Percentage changes of surface PM concentrations relative to the 2005 scenarios in 2020 (monthly average; TOT represent the differences between two future scenario with 2005 baseline, PM, VOC, NH_3, SO_2, NO_x represent the individual impacts of their emission changes in 2020).

increase of SO_2 emissions caused by the sharply growth of future activities. The growth of NO_x emissions has positive impacts on the sulfate reduction because of the ozone chemistry, especially in January, April and October when VOC-limited regimes are dominating. Extra NO_x emission will react with OH to obstruct its reaction with SO_2 to generate sulfate. Growth of NH_3 emissions contributes to a 3% increase in sulfate domainwide. It was reported that when pH is over 5, the reduction of 50% NH_3 emissions produced a decrease of the cloud pH which leads to a decrease of in-cloud production of SO_4^{2-}. In contrast, the growth of NH_3 emissions will increase pH which results in production of more SO_4^{2-} (Tsimpidi et al., 2007; Makar et al., 2009).

In REF[0], the growth of emissions will increase the nitrate concentration in 2020 by 40% domainwide, especially in April and July when atmospheric oxidization is strong and the biogenic VOC emission is large. NO_x emissions are the dominate contributor, and the growth of NH_3 and SO_2 emissions also contributes to some increases of nitrate concentration caused by the thermodynamic effect (Tsimpidi et al., 2007). In PC[2], which applies stricter controls on NO_x emissions, the nitrate concentration will be kept as the same level as 2005 over China, though slight increase shown in YRD and PRD.

3.5 Total sulfur deposition and nitrogen deposition

In this paper, the total sulfur deposition is defined as the wet and dry deposition of SO_4^{2-} and SO_2 (all counted by Sulfur);

the total nitrogen deposition is defined as wet and dry deposition of NO_3^-, HNO_3, NH_3, N_2O_5, NO, NO_2, peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN), HONO, organic nitrate (NTR) (all counted by Nitrogen).

Because of the increase of SO_2 emissions in REF[0], total sulfur deposition in 2020 will increase by 19% domainwide, especially higher in YRD and PRD. In PC[2], compared to that in 2005, stricter controls on SO_2 emission will reduce the total sulfur deposition by 15% domainwide, see Fig. 9.

Both NO_x and NH_3 emissions have large impacts on the total nitrogen deposition, see Fig. 9. In REF[0], the total nitrogen deposition will increase by 25% domainwide. In PC[2], which stricter controls on NO_x emissions are applied and NH_3 emissions are kept as 2005 level, the total nitrogen deposition will only present slightly increases by 2% domainwide.

4 Conclusions

Because of the rapid growth of the economy and population, China's energy consumption by power plants and industries is predicted to double, and on-road transport is expected to be triple by 2020. Improvement of air quality is a big challenge that China is facing. It's urgent for the government to find possible solutions to reduce the primary emissions in order to protect human health and the ecosystem.

Based on current control legislation and proposed control (as in REF[0]), the emission of SO_2, NO_x, VOC and NH_3
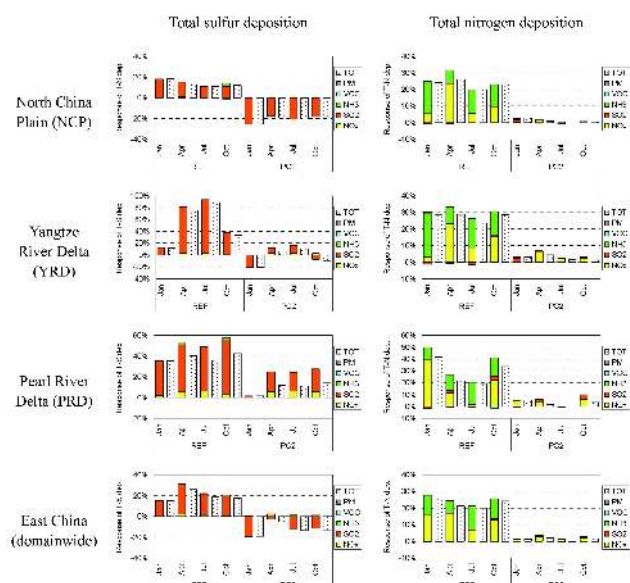
Fig. 9. Percentage changes of total S/N-deposition relative to the 2005 scenarios in 2020 (monthly total; TOT represent the differences between two future scenario with 2005 baseline, PM, VOC, NH_3, SO_2, NO_x represent the individual impacts of their emission changes in 2020).

will increase by 17%, 50%, 49% and 18%, respectively, in 2020, while PM will be reduced by 10% over East China, compared to those in 2005. That will lead to a significant impact on air quality. CMAQ simulations indicate that the concentration of SO_2 and NO_2 will increase by 28% and 41% domainwide in annual mean level. The daily 1-h maximum concentration of ozone in summer will increase by 8%. The concentration of sulfate and nitrate will increase by 7% and 40%. In addition, total sulfur and nitrogen depositions are predicted to increase by 19% and 25%, respectively.

A detailed step-by-step control implementation plan has been designed in this study. If a more sustainable energy development strategy is adopted to improve the energy efficiency, the emissions of SO_2, NO_x and PM_{10} will be reduced by 4.1 Tg, 2.6 Tg, and 1.8 Tg, respectively. If current control policies is well implemented and the pollution sources can meet the emission standard, SO_2, NO_x and PM_{10} emissions will be reduced by 2.9 Tg, 1.8 Tg, and 1.4 Tg, respectively. Furthermore, if stricter policy standards are adopted to promote the applications of advanced control technologies, the SO_2, NO_x and PM_{10} emissions will be reduced by 3.2 Tg, 3.9 Tg, and 1.7 Tg, respectively.

In the strict emission control scenario (PC[2]), the SO_2 and PM_{10} emissions will decrease by 18% and 38%, compared to those in 2005, while the NO_x and VOC emissions will increase by 3% and 8%, respectively. NH_3 emissions are kept at same level as those in 2005. After all the substantial emission controls, the future air quality is able to maintain as 2005

level, over East China, while the southeast coastal provinces and inter-Mongolia and Shanxi, need more strengthened control actions on the SO_2 and NO_x emisssoin in industry boiler and transportation.

While NH_3 has not been considered in the current air pollutant control strategy in China, its impact on $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations is important. In addition, NH_3 emissions have significant impacts on total nitrogen deposition in the future. NH_3 emission controls should be considered as well.

There are several limitations in this study. First, the absolute values in this study suffer the uncertainties in the emissions, e.g., previous studies indicate that the uncertainties (i.e., 95% confidence intervals around the central estimates) in our base year emissions are from -14% to 12% (SO_2), from -10% to 36% (NO_x), from -44% to 109% (NMVOC), and from -12% to 42% (PM_{10}), respectively (Wei et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2011). These uncertainties pose more difficulties for the accurate forecast of future air quality in China. Secondly, the model biases may affect the results of future projections on air quality. For example, the limitation of SOA formation mechanism used in the model may underestimate the impact from the future growth of VOC emissions, which is considered as another important species to fine particles (Xing et al., 2010). However, this study aims to project the relative changes of future emissions according to the development of future economy as well as the pace of control strategy and the potential impacts of future emission on regional air quality in China. Therefore the results can provide important reference for the air pollution control policy-making.

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