



1 Field-tested emission factors and temporal allocation factors for air pollutants emitted from 2 industrial sources in China

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13 Abstract

14 High accuracy and hourly-resolved emission inventories of air pollutants rely on timely
15 updates of emission factors (EFs) and reliable temporal allocation factors, yet both remain poorly
16 constrained for industrial point sources. In this study, we combined a dilution sampling system with
17 online monitoring instruments to obtain 1-hour resolved mass concentrations of PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, PM₁,
18 black carbon (BC), NO_x, SO₂, and CO emitted from five industrial sectors (cement, medicine
19 manufacturing, glass production, textile, iron and steel) in China. Product- and fuel-based EFs were
20 updated, as well as sector-specific hourly allocation factors optimized for air quality modeling.
21 Their emission amounts were calculated using the revised product-based EFs and further compared
22 with those for widely adopted Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC). Our
23 measured EFs deviated from previously reported literature values by 1–4 orders of magnitude. BC
24 EFs ranged from 3.2×10^{-6} to 4.7×10^{-2} g kg⁻¹, which sharply contrasts with the default zero value
25 recommended by official technical guidelines for most industrial categories. The measured



26 BC/PM_{2.5} mass ratios were 0.0136 and 0.0104 for cement and iron and steel sectors, respectively,
27 both lower than literature-reported ratios, implying substantial overestimation of industrial BC
28 emissions in existing studies. Compared with the activity-adjusted 2024 MEIC inventory, PM_{2.5}
29 emissions estimated using our field-measured EFs were 29.6 and 255 times lower for cement and
30 iron and steel, respectively, reflecting the deployment of advanced air pollution control technologies
31 and the urgent need to update outdated EFs for industrial sources. Additionally, MEIC allocated
32 emissions across 7,720 iron and steel grid cells, which drastically overrepresents real factory
33 distribution. Our study adopted geolocated Point-Of-Interest data to identify only 216 actual sites,
34 partially explaining the overestimation for industrial emissions by MEIC.

35 Hourly temporal allocation factors exhibited two distinct pollutant-specific diurnal patterns:
36 with three distinct peaks for PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁ within a single day and a single peak for BC,
37 SO₂, NO_x, and CO. For PM_{2.5}, normalized hourly allocation factors ranged from 0.016 to 0.055
38 (averaged as 0.0417 ± 0.0074). Conventional uniform temporal allocation assumptions (e.g., fixed
39 1/24 hourly weight) fail to capture nighttime and short-duration emission spikes, especially for
40 particles. This work provides ground-truthed EFs and hourly allocation profiles for subcategory
41 industrial sources, which can improve the accuracy and reliability of high-temporal-resolution
42 emission inventories, and support the validation of industrial hourly-contribution partitioning from
43 receptor and air quality model simulations.

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45 **Keywords:** air pollutant, industrial source, emission factor, temporal allocation factor, emission
46 inventory

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53 1 Introduction

54 Industrial air pollutant emissions exhibit prominent hourly diurnal variability (Tang et al.,
 55 2023), while this variability is often inadequately represented in mainstream national emission
 56 inventories (Bo et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2023). Such intra-day emission fluctuation arises from
 57 differences in industrial processes (Bo et al., 2021), dynamic operating conditions (Brooks et al.,
 58 2025), variable fuel properties (Zhang et al., 2024), and air pollution control technologies and
 59 efficiencies (Liu et al., 2023). Widely used global and regional emission inventories, including the
 60 Emission Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) (Crippa et al., 2018; Olivier et al.,
 61 1994), Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) (Zheng et al., 2018), the Regional
 62 Emission Inventory in Asia (REAS) (Kurokawa et al., 2013; Ohara et al., 2007), predominantly
 63 adopt average, median or single fixed emission factors (EFs) alongside simplified literature-derived
 64 temporal allocation scheme for all air pollutants across industrial sectors. These generalized
 65 approximations contributed substantially to the uncertainty of emission inventories.

66 The EFs used in bottom-up industrial emission inventories are often derived from published
 67 literature, regulatory default values, or limited measurements, with infrequent updates. The inherent
 68 variability of these EFs directly propagated into emission estimates and dominates overall inventory
 69 uncertainty (Solazzo et al., 2021). For instance, an uncertainty range of -33% to $+92\%$ for BC
 70 emission estimates stemming from EF variability was reported (Cai et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2011).
 71 Uncertainty ranges also differ drastically across air pollutants and industrial sectors. For PM
 72 emissions from the cement and iron and steel sectors, uncertainty ranges of -3.1% to $+75\%$ have
 73 been reported (Hua et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018, 2021, 2024; Wang et al., 2019). The reported
 74 uncertainty ranges were beyond $\pm 28\%$ for BC (Tang et al., 2020), -3.9% to $+75\%$ for NO_x (Bo et
 75 al., 2021; Guo et al., 2022; Hua et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018, 2021, 2024; Tang et al., 2025; Wang et
 76 al., 2019; Yan et al., 2024), -0.2% to $+75\%$ for SO₂ (Bo et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2022; Hua et al.,
 77 2016; Liu et al., 2018, 2021, 2024; Tang et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2024), and -4.9%
 78 to $+75\%$ for CO (Chen et al., 2023; Hua et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018, 2021; Tang et al., 2020),
 79 respectively. Cross-inventory comparisons covering CO, NO_x, SO₂, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ reveal severe



80 inconsistencies driven by divergent EFs adopted in peer-reviewed literature and official inventory
81 guidelines (Kong et al., 2024; Saikawa et al., 2017). Literature-based EFs cannot capture the
82 differences in control technology, fuel types, and operational practices across facilities and regions
83 (Liu et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2008). Recent source-specific field measurements indicated that
84 dynamic and site-measured EFs reduce reliance on static average EFs and empirical assumptions in
85 conventional inventories (Tang et al., 2023). Nevertheless, direct stack measurement campaigns
86 remain scarce for most industrial sectors. To resolve temporal variability, former studies commonly
87 rely on pre-defined temporal allocation profiles to disaggregate annual/monthly total emissions into
88 a finer temporal scale (Crippa et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2024a). However, these profiles are mainly
89 built on aggregate activity statistics, regulatory guidelines, or empirical assumptions rather than
90 direct continuous emission observation (MEE, 2024; U.S. EPA, 2021). Uniform, oversimplified
91 diurnal patterns or even the same allocation profiles are commonly assigned to all industrial plants
92 and air pollutants indiscriminately (Crippa et al., 2020; Pham et al., 2008; Sowden et al., 2008).
93 Such simplifications fail to reflect pollutant-specific emission dynamics across diverse sub-type
94 industrial sources, introducing large uncertainties or even errors into hourly emission estimates
95 (Guevara et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2024a), which further introduce biases in simulating corresponding
96 air pollutant concentrations (Guevara et al., 2025).

97 Prior studies have utilized Continuous Emission Monitoring System (CEMS) data to develop
98 hourly NO_x emission inventories for coal-fired power plants (Gu et al., 2022) and industrial
99 facilities (Sun et al., 2023). However, CEMS dataset suffers notable data-quality limitations.
100 incomplete flue gas flow records often force researchers to substitute theoretical flue gas rates
101 (Tang et al., 2023). Independent validation with satellite observations has also indicated that
102 CEMS-reported SO₂ reductions at coal-fired power plants may not always correspond
103 proportionally to satellite-derived SO₂ changes, highlighting the necessity of independent validation
104 of CEMS data (Karplus et al., 2018). A more critical limitation of China's current CEMS network
105 is its limited monitoring scope, with only NO_x and SO₂ routinely monitored. Particles and other
106 gaseous air pollutants are not recorded, although exhibit unique diurnal emission cycles distinct
107 from NO_x and SO₂.



108 Without this hourly monitoring, former studies rely on proxy data including operating
109 schedules (Pham et al., 2008), energy consumption (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021),
110 industrial production (Crippa et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2024a), or electricity demand (Guevara et al.,
111 2021) to allocate hourly emissions. This method neglects inter-pollutant differences in emission
112 formation mechanisms, physicochemical transformation processes and pollution control efficiencies.
113 A fixed uniform hourly allocation factor of 1/24 was even adopted for air pollutants emitted from
114 industrial sources (Pham et al., 2008; Sowden et al., 2008), which are quite different from real
115 situations. The high nighttime emission concentrations of air pollutants from industrial processes
116 are easily smoothed out.

117 Recent datasets including the EDGAR temporal profiles and CAMS-TEMPO provide sector,
118 country, and pollutant-specific temporal profiles, yet they remain largely based on indirect proxy
119 variables and generalized temporal patterns (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021). Wu et al.
120 (2024a) emphasized that static daily/hourly allocation parameters introduce extra uncertainties by
121 failing to capture the variation with time or region. Biased temporal allocation profiles directly
122 distort simulated ambient pollutant concentrations and their diurnal cycles (Guevara et al., 2025).
123 Therefore, measurement-based and pollutant-specific temporal profiles are urgently required to
124 characterize real industrial emission fluctuations and improve both high-temporal resolution
125 emission inventories and air quality modeling performance.

126 To sum up, comprehensive field stack measurements were conducted here for cement,
127 medicine, glass, textile, and iron and steel sectors in China. A dilution sampling system coupled
128 with online analyzers was deployed to obtain hourly stack concentrations of PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, PM₁, BC,
129 NO_x, SO₂, and CO. The objectives are to: (1) derive field-measured EFs and compare them against
130 values from official guidelines and published literature; (2) develop concentration-weighted hourly
131 temporal allocation factors for them; and (3) quantify emission discrepancies between our updated
132 inventory and the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory and identify underlying driving factors. This
133 work provides observationally constrained parameters to advance high-temporal-resolution
134 industrial emission inventories and refine corresponding air quality modelling outputs.

135



136 2 Materials and methods

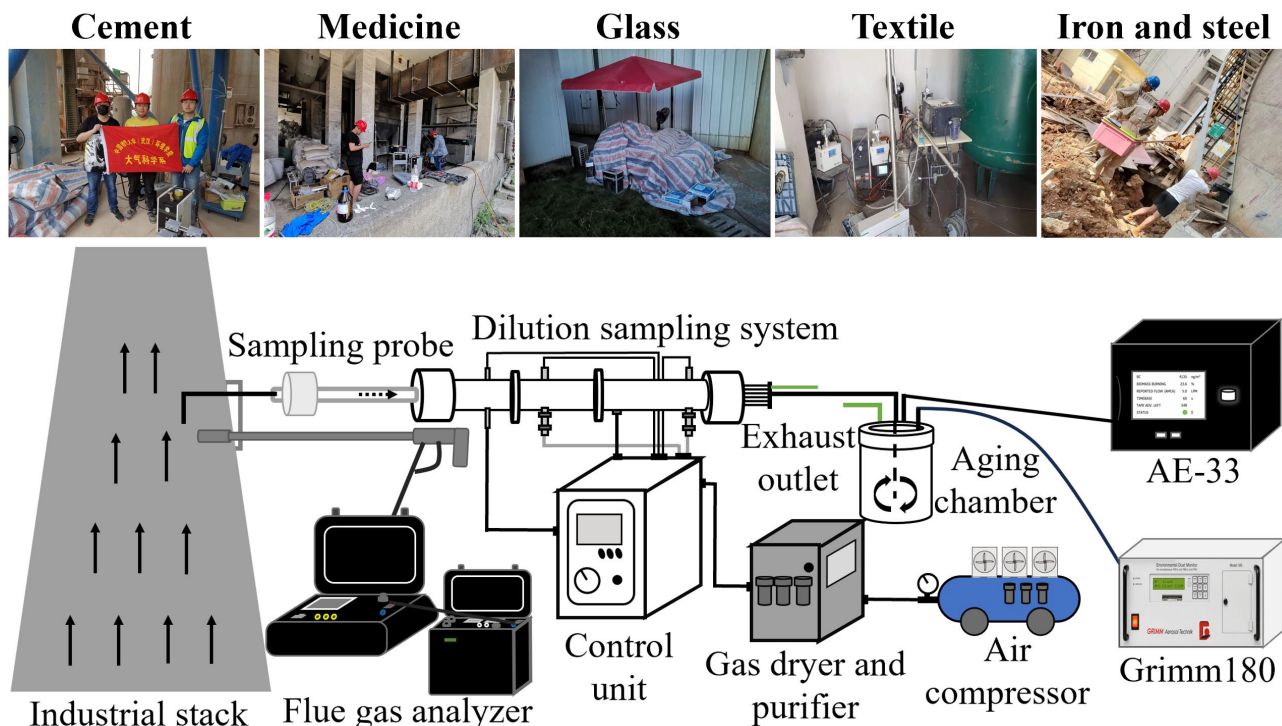
137 2.1 Sampling site and field measurements

138 In-situ stack sampling campaigns were carried out at facilities including cement, glass,
139 medicine, textile, and iron and steel sectors. Table S1 summarizes the production type and capacity,
140 fuel type, daily operating hours, stack height, sampling locations, and pollution-control devices for
141 flue gas. The medicine and glass facilities adopted natural gas-fired boilers, whereas cement, textile,
142 and iron and steel facilities used coal or coke as raw fuel. All sampled facilities except medicine
143 plant were equipped with dust-removal devices. Detailed descriptions are listed in Supplementary
144 Table S1.

145 The field sampling setup and dilution sampling system are illustrated in Figure 1. Flue gases
146 were sampled isokinetically via a stainless probe and introduced into a dilution channel for
147 dehumidification and uniform mixing with dry and purified air before instrumental detection
148 (Huang et al., 2021; Kong et al., 2013). The continuous monitoring of particulate matter (PM₁₀,
149 PM_{2.5}, and PM₁), black carbon (BC), and gaseous air pollutants (NO_x, SO₂, and CO) were measured
150 using a Grimm-180 optical particle analyzer (Yuan et al., 2016), an AE33 aethalometer (Drinovec
151 et al., 2015), and a TH-890C flue gas analyzer (Wuhan Tianhong Ltd., China; Qin et al., 2026),
152 respectively. Supplementary Table S2 provided monitoring duration, temporal resolution, data
153 availability rate.

154

155



156 Industrial stack Flue gas analyzer Control unit Gas dryer and purifier Exhaust outlet Aging chamber AE-33 Grimm180
 157 Figure 1. Field sampling setup for stack emission monitoring across the cement, medicine,
 158 textile, and iron and steel sectors. The upper panels show field sampling sites, and the lower panel
 159 illustrates the connection of the dilution sampling system and online measurement instruments.
 160

161 2.2 Calculation of concentration-derived temporal allocation factors

162 Pollutant-specific hourly allocation factors ($f_{i,k,h}$) were calculated by normalizing hourly
 163 measured pollutant concentrations against the total 24-hour cumulative concentration, assuming
 164 stable flue gas flow throughout each sampling period (Eq. 1):

$$165 \quad f_{i,k,h} = \frac{C_{i,k,h}}{\sum_{t=1}^{24} C_{i,k,t}} \quad (1)$$

166 where $C_{i,k,h}$ is the measured mass concentration of pollutant k , from enterprise i during hour h ,
 167 and t denotes the hour of the day. The concentration-derived hourly allocation factors derived here
 168 were compared with previously published temporal profiles (Supplementary Table S3).



169 2.3 Emission factor calculation

170 EFs for PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, PM₁, BC, NO_x, SO₂, and CO were calculated based on measured mass
 171 concentrations and production data via Equation (2).

$$172 \quad EF_{i,k} = \frac{C_{i,k} \times V_i}{A_i} \quad (2)$$

173 where $EF_{i,k}$ represents the emission factor for pollutant k from enterprise i (unit: g kg⁻¹ or g
 174 m⁻³); $C_{i,k}$ is the time-averaged measured mass concentration of pollutant k during sampling (unit: g
 175 m⁻³); V_i is the annual total flue gas volume of enterprise i (unit: m³); A_i is the corresponding annual
 176 activity level, expressed as fuel consumption amount or product output (unit: kg or m³). All
 177 sampling campaigns were conducted under routine stable operating conditions and measured data
 178 were considered representative of normal operational periods. Notably, measured SO₂ and CO
 179 concentrations at the cement stack fell below instrument detection limits, thus their EFs were
 180 referred to literature and international emission inventory guidelines values, as 0.25 and 1 kg t⁻¹
 181 clinker, respectively (EEA, 2023; Liu et al., 2024).

182 2.4 Total emission quantification and comparison with adjusted MEIC inventory

183 Provincial-level activity data for cement and iron and steel sectors were compiled from official
 184 statistical yearbooks and enterprise production records published by the National Bureau of
 185 Statistics of China (<https://data.stats.gov.cn/>, accessed on 15 June 2026). Sectoral total emissions of
 186 pollutant k from sector s were calculated as Eq. (3):

$$187 \quad E_{k,s} = EF_{k,s} \times A_s \quad (3)$$

188 where $E_{k,s}$ is total emissions of pollutant k from sector s , $EF_{k,s}$ is the emission factor of
 189 pollutant k for sector s , and A_s is the corresponding annual activity level, expressed as product
 190 output or fuel consumption. Comparative analysis was limited to cement and iron and steel
 191 industries due to matching sectoral emission data availability in the MEIC dataset. The latest
 192 publicly available MEIC inventory covers 2023 (<https://meicmodel.org.cn/>, accessed on 15 June



2026). The emissions were rescaled to 2024 levels using provincial activity growth ratios via Eq. (4):

$$E_{i,j,p,2024}^{adj} = E_{i,j,p,2023}^{MEIC} \times \frac{A_{j,p,2024}}{A_{j,p,2023}} \quad (4)$$

where $E_{i,j,p,2024}^{adj}$ is the activity-adjusted 2024 MEIC emission of pollutant i from sector j in province p ; $E_{i,j,p,2023}^{MEIC}$ is the raw 2023 MEIC emission; $A_{j,p,2023}$ and $A_{j,p,2024}$ represent the provincial annual activity levels of sector j in 2023 and 2024, respectively, i.e., cement output for cement sector and crude-steel output for iron and steel sector. A uniform activity scaling ratio was applied to all pollutants within each province-sector combination.

Pearson correlation coefficient (r) and normalized mean bias (NMB) were used to evaluate the consistency between our emission estimates and those from the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory. NMB was calculated by Eq. (5):

$$NMB(\%) = \frac{\sum_i (E_{this\ study,i} - E_{MEIC,i})}{\sum_i E_{MEIC,i}} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

Positive NMB values indicate higher emissions in this study relative to adjusted MEIC, and negative values denote lower emissions in our results. Uncertainties in emissions from cement and iron and steel sectors were quantified using Monte Carlo simulations with 20,000 iterations. Provincial activity levels followed normal distributions centered on official 2024 statistics with a 10% coefficient of variation, consistent with standard uncertainty treatment for Chinese industrial bottom-up emission inventories (Solazzo et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2011). Pollutant- and sector-specific EFs were sampled from distributions parameterized by measured means and standard deviations. Provincial emissions were calculated in each iteration using Eq. (3), summed to national totals, and reported as 95% uncertainty intervals based on the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles of simulated national emission totals (Li et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2011).



215 3 Results and Discussion

216 3.1 Real-time multi-pollutant stack concentrations

217 3.1.1 PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and PM₁

218 As shown in Figure 2, medicine industry exhibited the highest average PM₁₀ concentration of
 219 $5.34 \pm 0.88 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, followed by cement ($2.61 \pm 0.99 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$), textile ($1.02 \pm 0.45 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$), iron and
 220 steel ($0.71 \pm 0.28 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$), and glass industries ($0.19 \pm 0.13 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$). Our measured PM₁₀
 221 concentrations for cement and iron and steel sectors were markedly lower than previously reported
 222 ranges of 3.05–19.38 mg m⁻³ and 25.2–40.8 mg m⁻³, respectively (Guo et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2019).
 223 This sharp reduction can be attributed to tightened emission regulations and broad application of
 224 high-efficiency particulate control technologies, including baghouse fabric filters and electrostatic
 225 precipitators (Liu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2023).

226 Similar rankings were observed for PM_{2.5}, with the highest concentration for medicine industry
 227 ($5.17 \pm 0.84 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$). Cement PM_{2.5} concentration ($2.21 \pm 0.77 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) fell below the published
 228 range of 2.56–5.04 mg m⁻³ and the single value of 3.55 mg m⁻³ reported by Liu et al. (2019), yet
 229 slightly exceeded the 0.09–1.64 mg m⁻³ range documented by Guo et al. (2022). Iron and steel
 230 sintering outlet averaged $0.71 \pm 0.28 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ PM_{2.5}. For medicine, glass, and textile production,
 231 the measured values were 5.17 ± 0.84 , 0.19 ± 0.13 , and $1.02 \pm 0.46 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, respectively. These
 232 measurements fill critical gaps in stack-level PM_{2.5} observational dataset for understudied
 233 industrial sectors.

234 PM₁ concentration averaged $1.63 \pm 0.44 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ for cement industry, consistent with reported
 235 values for clinker production processes (Liu et al., 2019). Iron and steel sintering stack PM₁
 236 concentrations stood at $0.69 \pm 0.28 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$. Stack-level PM₁ data remain scarce for medicine, glass,
 237 and textile industries. Our field measurements report average PM₁ concentrations of 4.96 ± 0.77 ,
 238 0.19 ± 0.13 , and $0.97 \pm 0.47 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ for these three sectors, respectively. This dataset expands
 239 available stack-level PM₁ data for neglected industries and improves characterization of industrial
 240 particle emissions.

241 3.1.2 BC



Previous cement industry studies reported elemental carbon (EC) concentrations of 0.02–0.41 mg m⁻³ via thermal-optical analysis (Guo et al., 2022), while our optical BC measurements yielded a much lower mean concentration of $30.5 \pm 18.65 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Direct numerical comparison between EC and BC is invalid due to fundamentally different analytical principles (Petzold et al., 2013; Pileci et al., 2021). For iron and steel production, previous study indicated EC-based BC fraction of 1.4–2.3% of total PM₁₀ mass (Jia et al., 2018). Here, BC concentration was $7.25 \pm 3.63 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, contributing to $1.02 \pm 0.65\%$ of PM₁₀ mass. Notably, medicine and textile facilities exhibited BC concentrations comparable to or even exceeding heavy industries, demonstrating that light manufacturing sources cannot be overlooked in industrial BC emission inventories and require additional targeted field measurements and refined emission parameterization.

3.1.3 Gaseous pollutant concentrations (NO_x, SO₂, and CO)

Measured NO_x stack concentrations ranged in 81–227 mg m⁻³, broadly consistent with CEMS monitoring records for cement and iron and steel industries. Cement kiln tail NO_x concentration averaged $81.36 \pm 10.91 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, falling within the reported range of 80–171 mg m⁻³ after DeNO_x treatment (Guo et al., 2022). Iron and steel sintering stack NO_x concentration reached $227.24 \pm 5.42 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, marginally higher than the reported range of 95–200 mg m⁻³ (Tang et al., 2023). Medicine, glass, and textile boiler NO_x concentrations spanned 130–218 mg m⁻³, comparable to iron and steel, implying that light manufacturing industries represent a substantial and under-recognized source of industrial NO_x emissions, and should be improved in emission inventories.

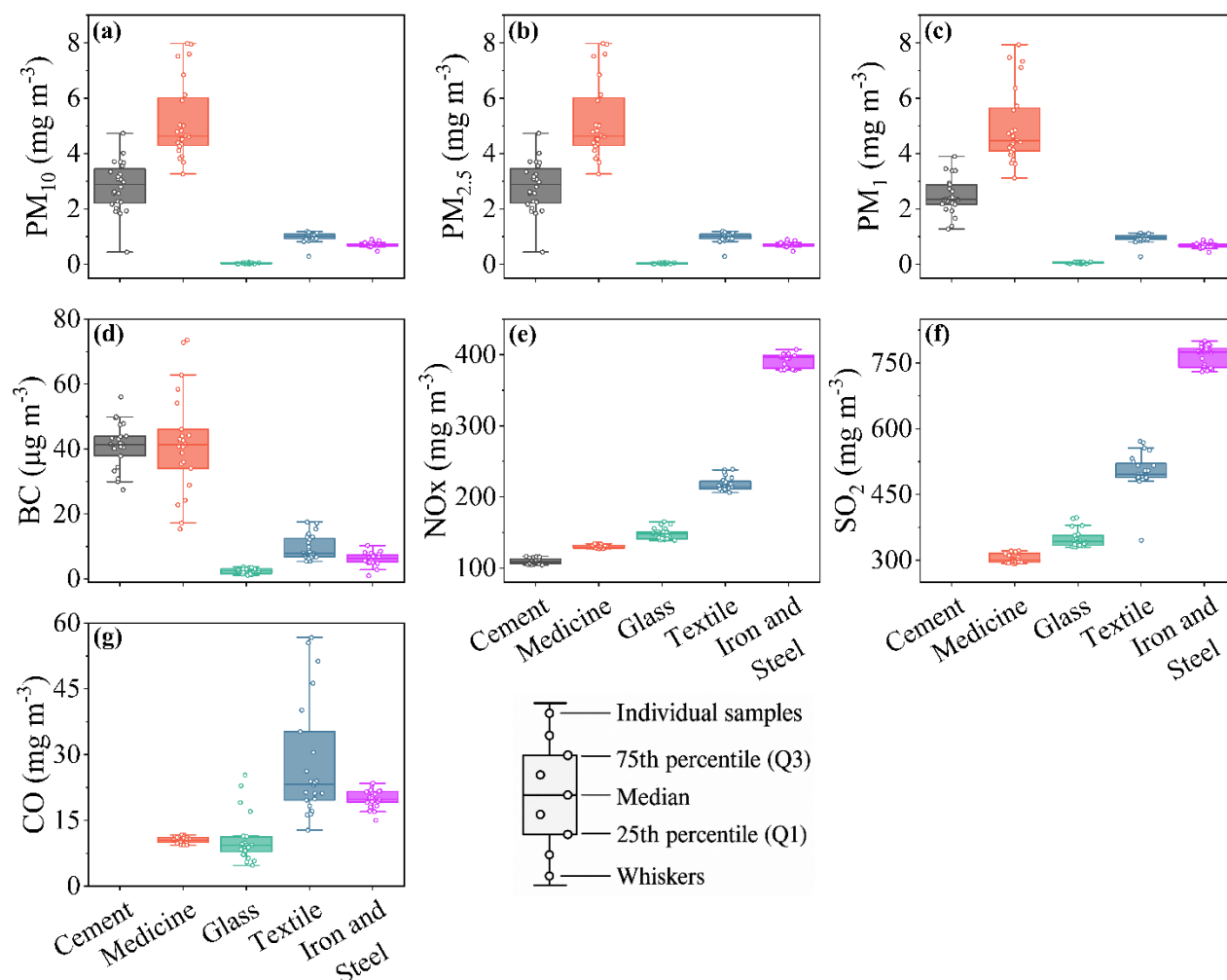
Published CEMS-based iron and steel sector SO₂ concentrations typically range from 30 to 150 mg m⁻³ (Bo et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2023, 2025; Yi et al., 2021). In contrast, sintering outlet SO₂ measured in this study reached $443.97 \pm 11.22 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, approximately 3–15 times higher than the previously reported range. CEMS concentrations are standardized to fixed reference oxygen levels and averaged over defined time intervals, which smooth short-term concentration spikes. This discrepancy suggests episodic peak SO₂ emissions from industrial point sources are substantially underestimated in CEMS-based assessments, consistent with satellite validation findings (Karplus et al., 2018).



269 Available stack CO concentration data for industrial sources remain scarce. Cement kiln
270 CEMS CO concentrations previously reported ranged in 12–146 mg m⁻³ (Guo et al., 2022). Our
271 field measured CO concentrations averaged as 20.23 ± 2.35 mg m⁻³ (iron and steel sintering), 10.97
272 ± 0.99 mg m⁻³ (medicine production), 10.43 ± 2.40 mg m⁻³ (glass production), and 26.39 ± 1.96 mg
273 m⁻³ (textile). All values were generally within or below documented cement kiln ranges, with
274 textile production showing the highest CO concentrations among the measured light manufacturing
275 sectors. The results provide stack CO concentrations for industrial sectors that have been less
276 frequently characterized in previous emission studies.

277

278



279

280 Figure 2. Emission mass concentrations of (a) PM_{10} , (b) $PM_{2.5}$, (c) PM_1 , (d) BC, (e) NO_x , (f) SO_2
 281 and (g) CO for the cement, medicine, glass, textile, and iron and steel industries. Boxes denote the
 282 interquartile range. The horizontal line within each box indicates the median value. Whiskers span
 283 the full range of observed data, and circles stand for individual samples. CO and SO_2 were not
 284 detected for cement, as their measured signals were below the detection limits.

285

286 Overall, our field measurements confirm all major industrial sectors directly emitted $PM_{2.5}$ and
 287 BC, in addition to NO_x , SO_2 , and CO. Although China has achieved substantial reductions in
 288 ambient $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations through clean-air actions (Geng et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2019a),



289 further improvements toward more stringent air-quality targets require refined quantification of
 290 industrial primary fine particles. Previous studies have identified BC and condensable particulate
 291 matter as key components of primary emissions from combustion and industrial sources (Cai et al.,
 292 2023; Wu et al., 2020). Future industrial emission inventories and pollution control strategies
 293 should prioritize improved parameterization of $PM_{2.5}$ including condensable particulate matter and
 294 BC.

295 **3.2 Concentration-derived hourly temporal allocation factors**

296 **3.2.1 PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5}$ and PM_1**

297 PM_{10} concentrations exhibited a clear trimodal distribution, with prominent peaks during late
 298 morning (09:00–12:00) and early evening (18:00–21:00) (Figure 3a). Normalized hourly allocation
 299 factors peaked 35% above the daily average at 18:00 and dropped 23% below average at 13:00
 300 (Figure 3h), indicating pronounced short-term emission variability driven by shifting production
 301 loads, raw material handling activities, and operating status and efficiency of particulate-control
 302 facilities (Tang et al., 2023).

303 $PM_{2.5}$ showed a sectoral distribution identical to that of PM_{10} , with elevated concentrations for
 304 medicine and cement industries (Figure 3b). Its diurnal fluctuation pattern broadly followed that of
 305 PM_{10} but with weaker amplitude. The evening peak $PM_{2.5}$ allocation factor rose ~30% above daily
 306 mean, while midday values decreased by 15%–20% (Figure 3i). Relative to previously smoother
 307 allocation factors (Crippa et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2024b), our field-measured $PM_{2.5}$ allocation
 308 factors exhibited far more pronounced short-term fluctuations (Figure 4). This contrast suggests
 309 generalized temporal allocation factors dampen actual hourly variability of industrial primary $PM_{2.5}$
 310 emissions.

311 PM_1 concentrations were consistently lower than PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ yet followed matching
 312 sectoral emission rankings (Figure 3c). The diurnal variability of PM_1 was relatively muted, with
 313 normalized hourly allocation factors generally varying by approximately 20%–30% around the
 314 daily average (Figure 3j). Compared with the former static generalized temporal profiles (Crippa et
 315 al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021), our measured PM_1 allocation factors showed discernible hourly



316 fluctuations (Figure 4). This finding suggests that although submicron particle concentrations were
 317 less variable than coarser particles, PM_{10} allocation factors were not temporally constant. The
 318 absence of PM_{10} -specific diurnal profiles in existing inventories leads to oversimplified
 319 representation of industrial submicron particle emissions.

320 3.2.2 BC

321 BC showed a distinct sectoral distribution, with the highest concentrations for medicine
 322 industry, followed by cement, textile, iron and steel, and glass facilities (Figure 3d). Normalized BC
 323 allocation factors peaked at 1.2–1.6 during 10:00–12:00 and declined to 0.75–0.85 during off-peak
 324 hours (Figure 3k), indicating that BC concentrations during peak production periods exceeded daily
 325 averages by up to 50%–60%. Compared with the smoother temporal allocation factors commonly
 326 used in existing inventory datasets (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2024a),
 327 measured BC factors featured far sharper intra-day fluctuations (Figure 4d). As BC is mainly
 328 formed during incomplete combustion, transient shifts in combustion conditions, air-fuel mixing
 329 ratios, thermal conditions, and process load can produce sharper hourly emission swings than total
 330 particulate mass (Bond et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2023). Generic static temporal allocation factors
 331 therefore smooth BC emission spikes and fail to capture short-term industrial BC variability.

332 3.2.3 Gaseous pollutants

333 NO_x concentration-weighted hourly allocation factors remained close to unity throughout the
 334 day, deviating within $\pm$ (5%–7%) from the daily average with a slight enhancement during the late
 335 morning (Figure 3l). Relative to temporal profiles implemented in high-resolution emission
 336 inventories (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2024a), measured NO_x curves
 337 showed a much flatter diurnal profile (Figure 4). This result underscores the necessity of source-
 338 specific NO_x temporal allocation factors to accurately represent stable continuous industrial NO_x
 339 emissions.

340 For SO_2 , the concentration-derived hourly allocation factor remained close to the daily mean
 341 across most monitoring periods, indicating relatively stable diurnal emission cycles (Figure 3m).
 342 Measured SO_2 diurnal profiles were far flatter than previously reported temporal curves for high-
 343 temporal-resolution emission inventories (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2024a)



(Figure 4f), demonstrating that universal profiles cannot fully capture source-specific SO₂ variability, especially for continuously operated industrial processes such as iron and steel sintering.

In stark contrast to NO_x and SO₂, CO showed strong intra-day variability in its normalized hourly allocation factor (Figure 3n), with pronounced late-morning emission enhancement particularly evident at textile and glass industries. CO formation is highly sensitive to transient incomplete combustion conditions, explaining its amplified hourly fluctuations. When compared with generalized inventory allocation profiles (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2024a), our measured CO allocation factors displayed much sharper short-term peaks. As CO is a direct tracer of incomplete combustion (Schiferl et al., 2024), generalized allocation factors substantially smooth short-term industrial CO emission peaks.

Overall, generalized universal hourly allocation factors cannot fully represent pollutant-specific industrial emission diurnal cycles. Relative to widely adopted allocation factors from EDGAR, CAMS-TEMPO, Chinese national technical guidelines, and US EPA profiles (Table S3) (Crippa et al., 2020; Guevara et al., 2021; MEE, 2024; Pham et al., 2008; Sowden et al., 2008; U.S. EPA, 2021), our concentration-derived allocation factors exhibit far stronger pollutant- and sector-dependent diurnal variability. These discrepancies carry critical modelling implications for highly variable pollutants including PM_{2.5} and BC, as inaccurate temporal allocation distorts both the timing and magnitude of simulated ambient concentration peaks (Du et al., 2020; Govardhan et al., 2019). Sector-specific and pollutant-derived hourly allocation factors are therefore required to faithfully represent industrial emission dynamics in high-temporal-resolution inventories and air quality models.

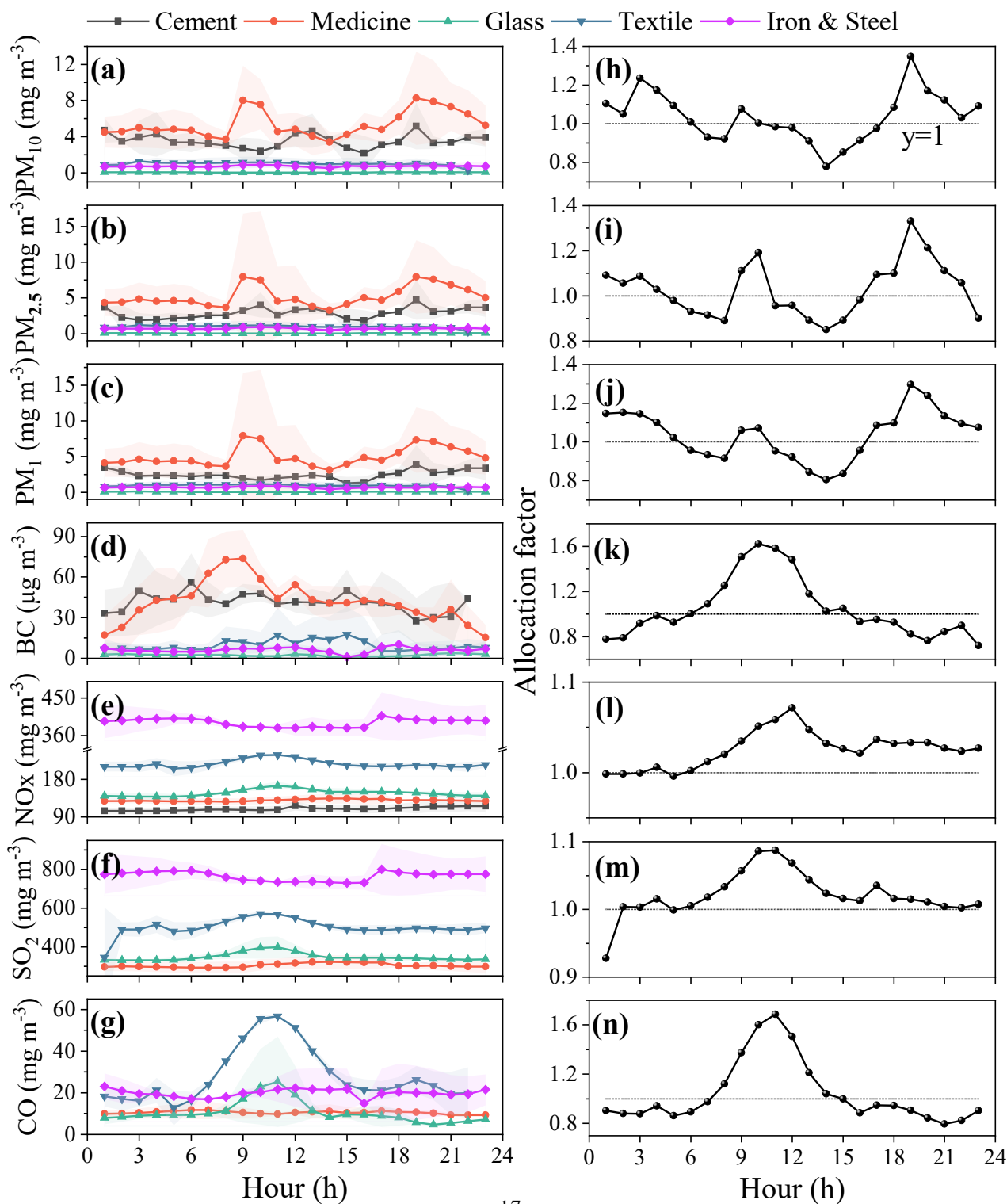




Figure 3. Temporal variations in air pollutant concentrations and normalized temporal allocation factors derived for the five industrial emission sources. Panels (a–g) display hourly average concentrations of PM_{10} , $PM_{2.5}$, PM_1 , BC, NO_x , SO_2 , and CO in sequence. Shaded regions represent the standard deviation of hourly pollutant concentrations. Panels (h–n) display the corresponding normalized temporal allocation factors, with the horizontal dashed lines indicating the reference line at unity (normalized factor=1).

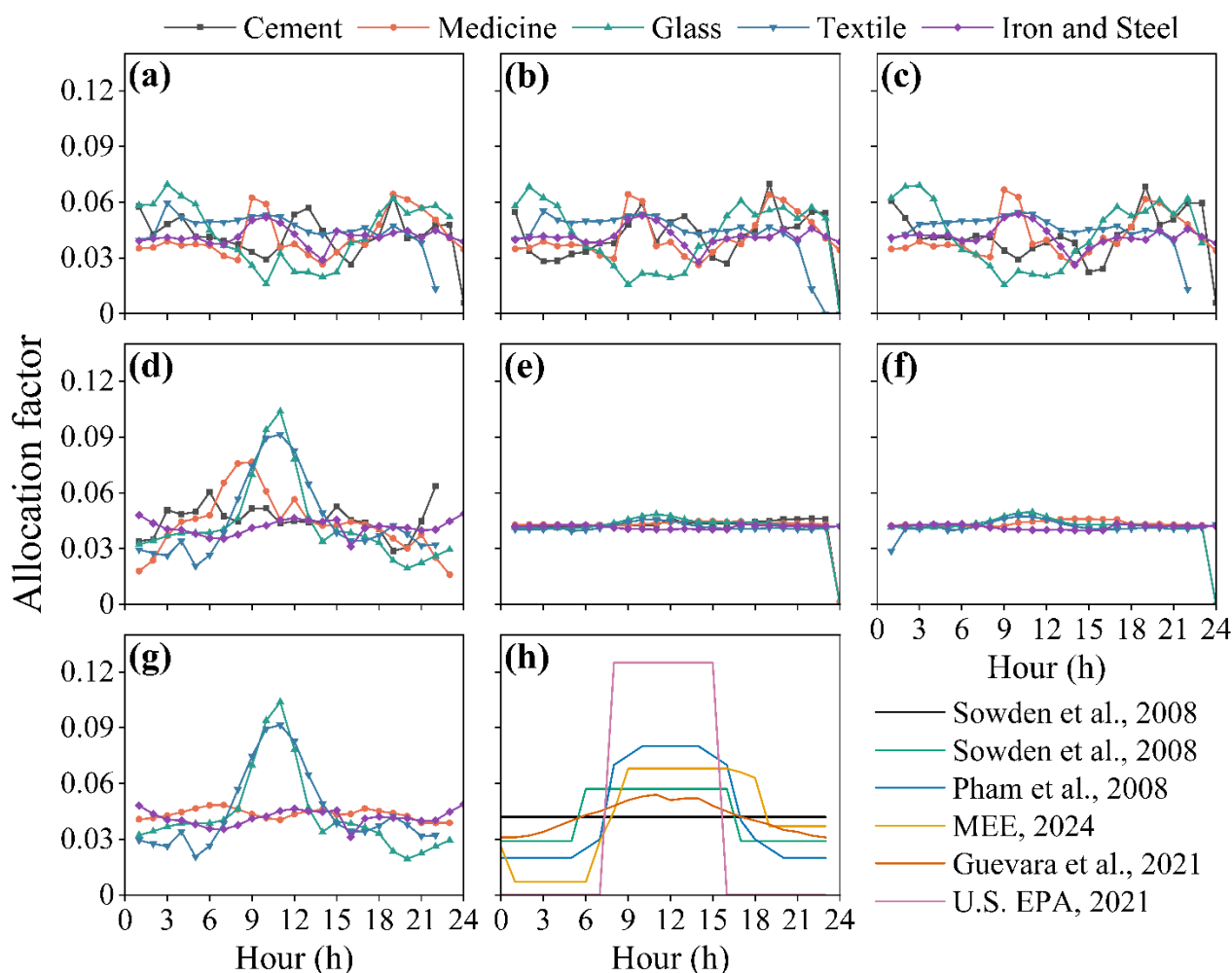




Figure 4. Hourly allocation factors for (a) PM₁₀, (b) PM_{2.5}, (c) PM₁, (d) BC, (e) NO_x, (f) SO₂, and (g) CO across the five industrial sectors in this study. Panel (h) presents reference hourly temporal allocation factors commonly used in emission models and high-time-resolution emission inventories, including those from Sowden et al. (2008), Pham et al. (2008), MEE (2024), Guevara et al. (2021), and U.S. EPA (2021). Detailed hourly allocation factors shown in this figure are provided in Table S3 in the Supplement file.

3.3 Updated field-measured EFs and comparison with published literature

EFs for PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, PM₁, BC, NO_x, SO₂, and CO across five industrial sectors obtained here were compared against literature and official technical guideline values (Figure 5, Tables S12–S19). Measured EFs ranged in 4.5×10^{-4} – 6.03 g kg^{-1} product for PM, 3.2×10^{-6} – $4.7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ product for BC, 0.32 – 146.88 g kg^{-1} product for NO_x, 0.25 – 343.43 g kg^{-1} product for SO₂, and 0.024 – 12.39 g kg^{-1} product for CO. The wide EF ranges highlight extreme pollutant and sector heterogeneity in industrial emission strengths.

For PM fractions (PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and PM₁), measured EFs spanned over four orders of magnitude. Relative to literature and guideline benchmarks (Table S13–S15), cement PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} EFs fell near the lower bound of published ranges, while cement PM₁ EFs remained within limited literature range. PM EFs for iron and steel clustered near or below the minimum values of corresponding literature distributions. Medicine sector showed the highest PM EFs (5.60 – 6.03 g kg^{-1} product), exceeding most official guideline EFs. Glass sector recorded the lowest PM EFs ($4.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ product), three to four orders of magnitude lower than literature and guideline values (MEE, 2024). These stark sectoral differences in particulate EFs align with previous evidence that industrial PM emissions depend primarily on production processes and end-of-pipe control efficiency (Liu et al., 2021).

BC EFs ranged from 3.2×10^{-6} to $4.7 \times 10^{-2} \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ product (Figure 5). For sectors with comparable literature data, particularly glass, cement, and iron and steel, our measured BC EFs were 2–4 orders of magnitude lower than corresponding literature-derived and guideline default EFs

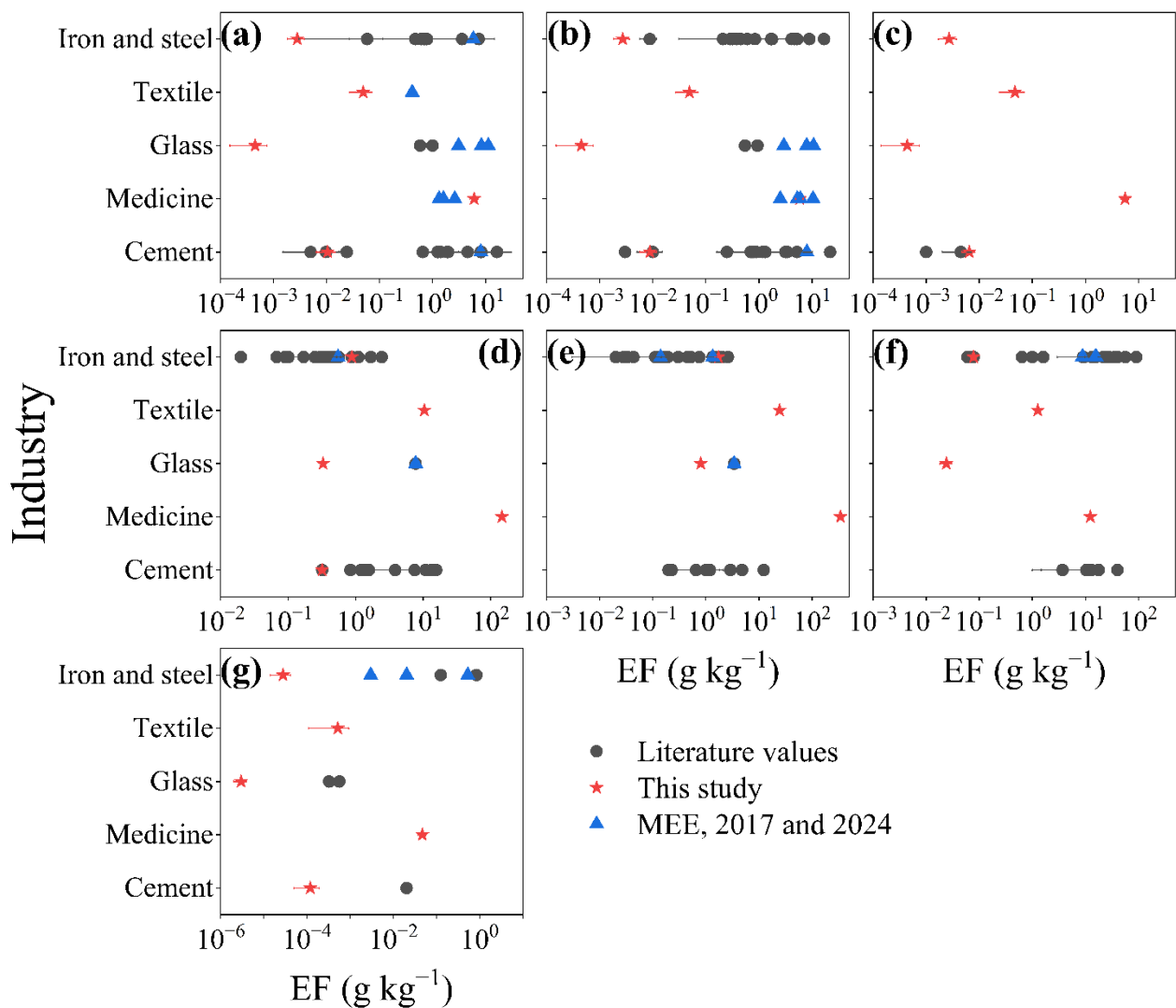


402 (Guevara et al., 2021; MEE, 2024; Tang et al., 2023). The medicine industry exhibited the
 403 maximum BC EF (4.7×10^{-2} g kg⁻¹ product), while glass sector yielded the minimum value (3.2×10^{-6} g kg⁻¹
 404 product). BC EFs for cement, textile, and iron and steel fell between 10^{-5} and 10^{-4} g kg⁻¹
 405 product. These low values are likely associated with complete fuel combustion and effective end-of-
 406 pipe particulate control systems (Klimont et al., 2017).

407 Gaseous pollutant EFs (NO_x, SO₂ and CO) also displayed substantial sectoral divergence
 408 (Figure 5, Tables S17–S19). Medicine industry recorded the highest NO_x and SO₂ EFs across all
 409 five sectors (146.88 g kg⁻¹ and 343.43 g kg⁻¹ product, respectively), implying medicine production
 410 as a poorly constrained yet significant gaseous pollutant source driven by complex chemical
 411 processes in medicine production (Hu et al., 2019). Glass sector exhibited relatively low NO_x and
 412 SO₂, and CO EFs, attributable to low-emission furnace technology and upgraded flue gas treatment
 413 systems. Remaining sectors generally exhibited intermediate EFs overlapping with published
 414 literature ranges, driven by variable fuel compositions, production processes, and emission control
 415 levels (Liu et al., 2021). Combined with low PM and BC EFs, these results demonstrate the critical
 416 value of updated measurement-based EFs to represent contemporary industrial emission conditions
 417 (Solazzo et al., 2021).

418 Collectively, these findings highlight the urgent need for measurement-refined EFs in
 419 industrial emission inventories, particularly for BC. Current Chinese inventory guidelines assign
 420 default zero BC EFs to most industrial categories (MEE, 2024), yet non-zero BC emissions were
 421 detected for all investigated sectors in this study. This practice leads to full omission or severe
 422 underestimation of industrial BC emissions, consistent with updated emission inventory
 423 frameworks that explicitly incorporate industrial BC sources (Li et al., 2023; McDuffie et al., 2020).

424



425

426 Figure 5. Emission factors (EFs) for (a) PM_{10} , (b) $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, (c) PM_1 , (d) NO_x , (e) SO_2 , (f) CO , and (g)
427 BC across major industrial sectors. Grey circles represent literature-reported values, blue triangles
428 denote values from the Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China (MEE), and red stars
429 indicate values derived this study, with horizontal error bars representing uncertainty ranges.
430 Detailed data are provided in Tables S13–S19 in the Supplement file. All EFs displayed here are
431 expressed in g kg^{-1} product.



3.4 Impacts of updated EFs and comparison with the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory

3.4.1 Cement industry

Correlation between our results and activity-adjusted MEIC inventory was strongly pollutant-dependent at provincial scale. High correlation coefficients were found as 0.95 for both PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$, 0.92 for NO_x , and 0.87 for SO_2 , indicating that the two inventories captured consistent provincial emission identities. The slightly weaker SO_2 correlation originates from differences in sulfur-content assumptions, fuel and raw-material properties, desulfurization efficiencies, or provincial allocation schemes (EEA, 2023; Liu et al., 2021).

Substantial negative bias (NMBs = -97%) was observed for both cement PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$, while NO_x exhibited moderate negative bias (NMB = -17%), and SO_2 displayed positive bias (NMB = $+56\%$). The large negative PM bias arises from three core differences: EF definitions, covered source categories, and temporal representativeness of EFs. MEIC separates cement PM emissions into three independent fractions including clinker production, cement grinding, and fugitive emissions (Liu et al., 2021), with unabated EFs further adjusted by static particulate removal efficiencies (Hua et al., 2016; Lei et al., 2011). In contrast, our EFs were derived from direct measurements at controlled stack outlets, exclusively representing post-treatment organized stack emissions under modern ultra-low emission standards. Ongoing ultra-low-emission retrofits in China's cement industry, together with tightened stack PM limits for cement kilns and kiln-tail waste-heat systems further reduce contemporary stack PM EFs relative to historical or inventory-average assumptions embedded in MEIC. Our lower PM emission estimates therefore reflect both narrower controlled-source coverage (only organized stack outlets) and updated measurement-based EFs representing current low-emission conditions.

Gaseous pollutants (NO_x and SO_2) exhibited contrasting bias directions. Moderate negative bias for NO_x (NMB = -17%) indicates that measured post-control kiln-tail NO_x emissions were broadly comparable to, but slightly lower than, the technology-based assumptions used in MEIC. Cement NO_x estimates are affected by kiln type, combustion conditions, low- NO_x combustion, and De NO_x removal efficiencies (Liu et al., 2021). Therefore, residual NO_x discrepancies reflect



mismatches between measured operating conditions and MEIC's average assumptions for kiln configuration and NO_x-control performance. In contrast, SO₂ displayed positive bias (NMB = +56%), indicating higher SO₂ emissions in this study than activity-adjusted MEIC. Cement SO₂ emissions are strongly affected by fuel sulfur content, raw-material sulfur fractions, sulfur retention in clinker or ash, and alkaline absorption inside kiln systems (Lei et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019b). The positive SO₂ bias likely originates from higher effective sulfur release or lower sulfur retention at our measured facilities relative to default assumptions in MEIC.

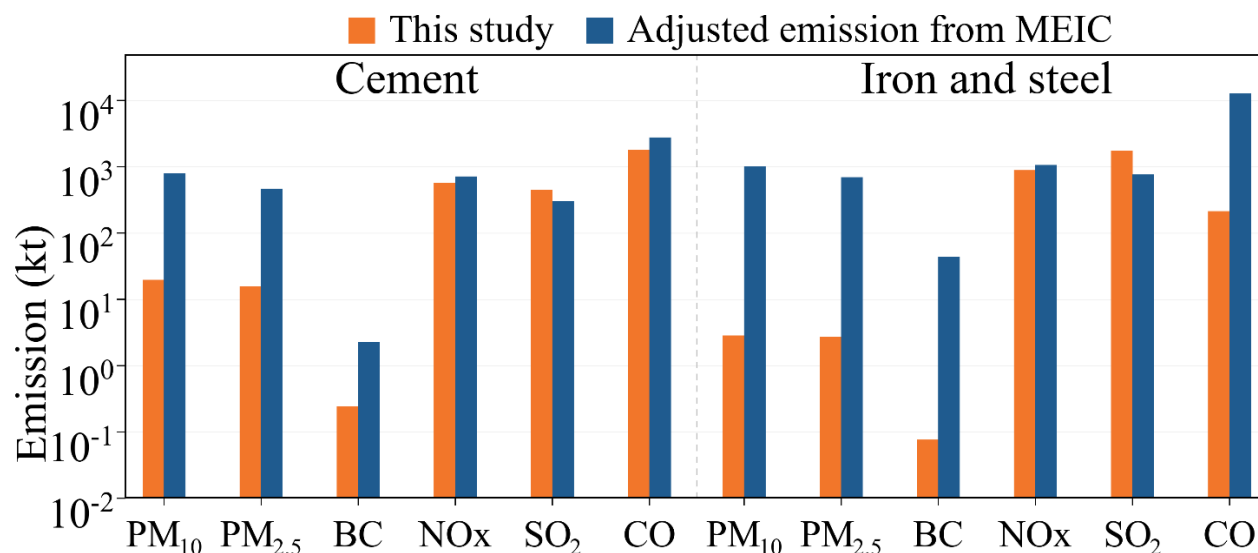
3.4.2 Iron and steel industry

Provincial correlation coefficients between our inventory and activity-adjusted MEIC inventory ranged from 0.94 to 0.98, with values of 0.98 for both PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}, 0.97 for NO_x, and 0.94 for SO₂. Our PM emission estimates were 2–3 orders of magnitude lower than MEIC outputs, driven primarily by post-control stack EFs under mandatory ultra-low emission standards, rather than outdated sector-average EFs embedded in MEIC. China's iron and steel ultra-low-emission regulations impose strict limits on organized stack emissions, fugitive dust, and raw material transport losses (MEE, 2019). Previous facility-level analyses confirm strengthened national standards have substantially reduced stack PM emissions for China's iron and steel plants (Bo et al., 2021). Therefore, our lower estimation of PM is dominated by updated measurement-based EFs and dust-control upgrades rather than activity-level differences alone.

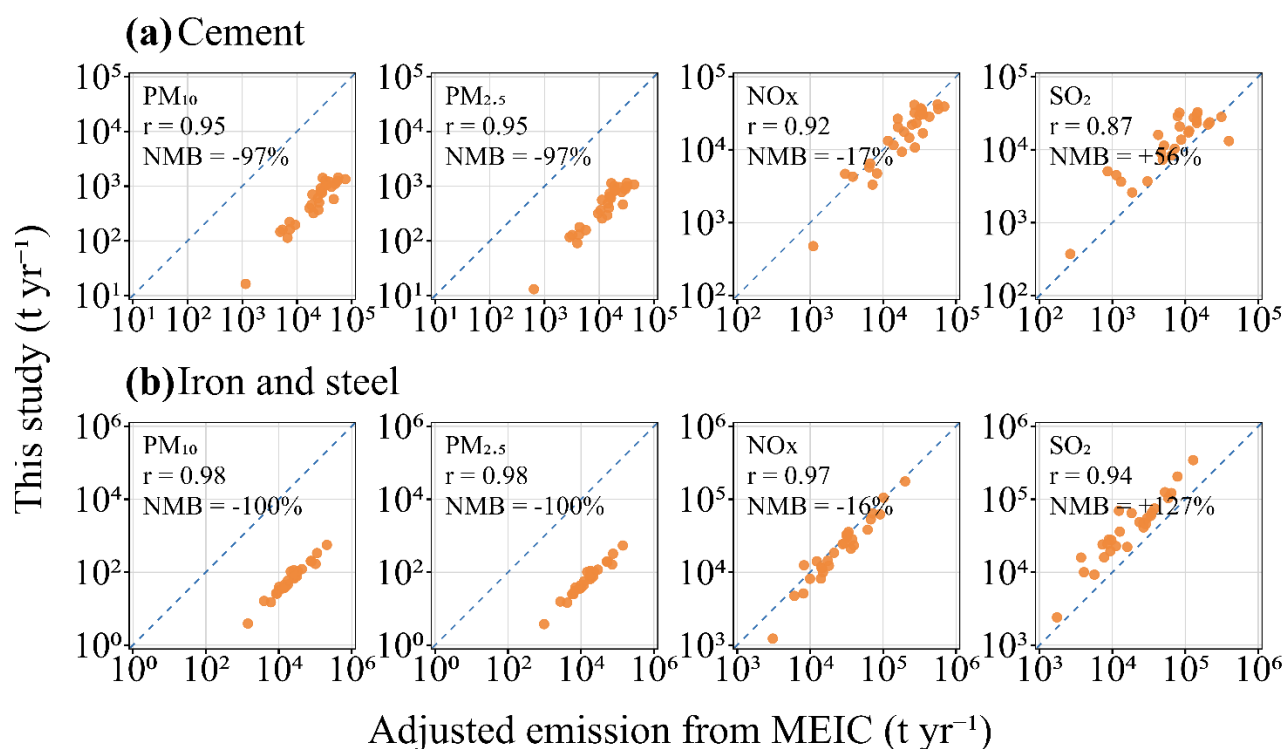
Gaseous pollutant bias patterns differed sharply from particulates. Minor negative NO_x bias (NMB = −16%) suggests measured NO_x emissions were close to MEIC's average technology assumptions, consistent with previous research showing NO_x reduction in iron and steel sector were less pronounced than PM and SO₂ reductions during earlier control stages (Bo et al., 2021). In contrast, SO₂ exhibited positive bias (NMB = +127%), indicating our stack SO₂ emissions far exceed activity-adjusted MEIC values. This gap could be related to sintering-dominated SO₂ formation, variable sulfur contents in iron ore, coke breeze, and other raw materials, and assumed desulfurization efficiency, because sintering is a major SO₂-emitting process within integrated steel plants (Wu et al., 2024b). Overall, PM discrepancies mainly reflect updated post-control EF



486 measurements, whereas SO₂ discrepancies are highly sensitive to sulfur-related process assumptions
 487 and desulfurization performance.
 488



489
 490 Figure 6. Comparison of air pollutant emission from the cement and iron and steel sectors in 2024.
 491 Emissions estimated using the updated EFs obtained in this study are compared with those derived
 492 from the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory.
 493



494

495 Figure 7. Provincial-level comparison of air pollutant emission amounts (t yr^{-1}) between this study
 496 and the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory for 2024. The x-axis represents emissions from the
 497 activity-adjusted MEIC inventory, and the y-axis represents emissions estimated in this study. The
 498 dashed blue line indicates the 1:1 line. The correlation coefficient (r) denotes the Pearson
 499 correlation coefficient between the two inventories, and NMB denotes the normalized mean bias
 500 relative to the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory.

501

502 Uncertainty analysis (Table S20) revealed that PM emissions generally carry wider uncertainty
 503 ranges than gaseous pollutants. The 95% uncertainty intervals were -68.6% to $+69.3\%$ and -69.8%
 504 to $+68.6\%$ for cement PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}, as well as -70.7% to $+70.1\%$ and -73.2% to $+72.4\%$ for
 505 iron and steel PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5}. By contrast, NO_x and SO₂ uncertainties narrowed to approximately
 506 $\pm 4\%$ to $\pm 25\%$. This contrast arises because PM estimates rely heavily on process-specific EFs, dust-
 507 removal efficiencies, and particle size partitioning assumptions-parameters carrying large sectoral



508 variability (Liu et al., 2021). NO_x and SO₂ emissions are far better constrained by stable
 509 combustion chemistry, fuel sulfur/nitrogen contents, and stack-level monitoring or control
 510 information, as shown by recent CEMS-based industrial emission datasets (Tang et al., 2023).

511 **3.4.3 Spatial emission comparison against activity-adjusted MEIC**

512 Figures 8 and 9 visualize spatial emission intensity distributions of PM_{2.5}, BC, NO_x, and SO₂
 513 estimated in this study and activity-adjusted MEIC inventory for cement and iron and steel sectors,
 514 respectively. Corresponding comparisons for PM₁₀ and CO are provided in Supplementary Figures
 515 S1 and S2. Broadly consistent high-emission hotspot locations were identified across both
 516 inventories, concentrated within the North China Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Sichuan Basin,
 517 Central China, and parts of Northeast China. However, grid-level emission magnitudes diverged
 518 sharply especially for particulate pollutants, indicating that matching regional hotspot locations do
 519 not guarantee consistent grid-scale emission intensities.

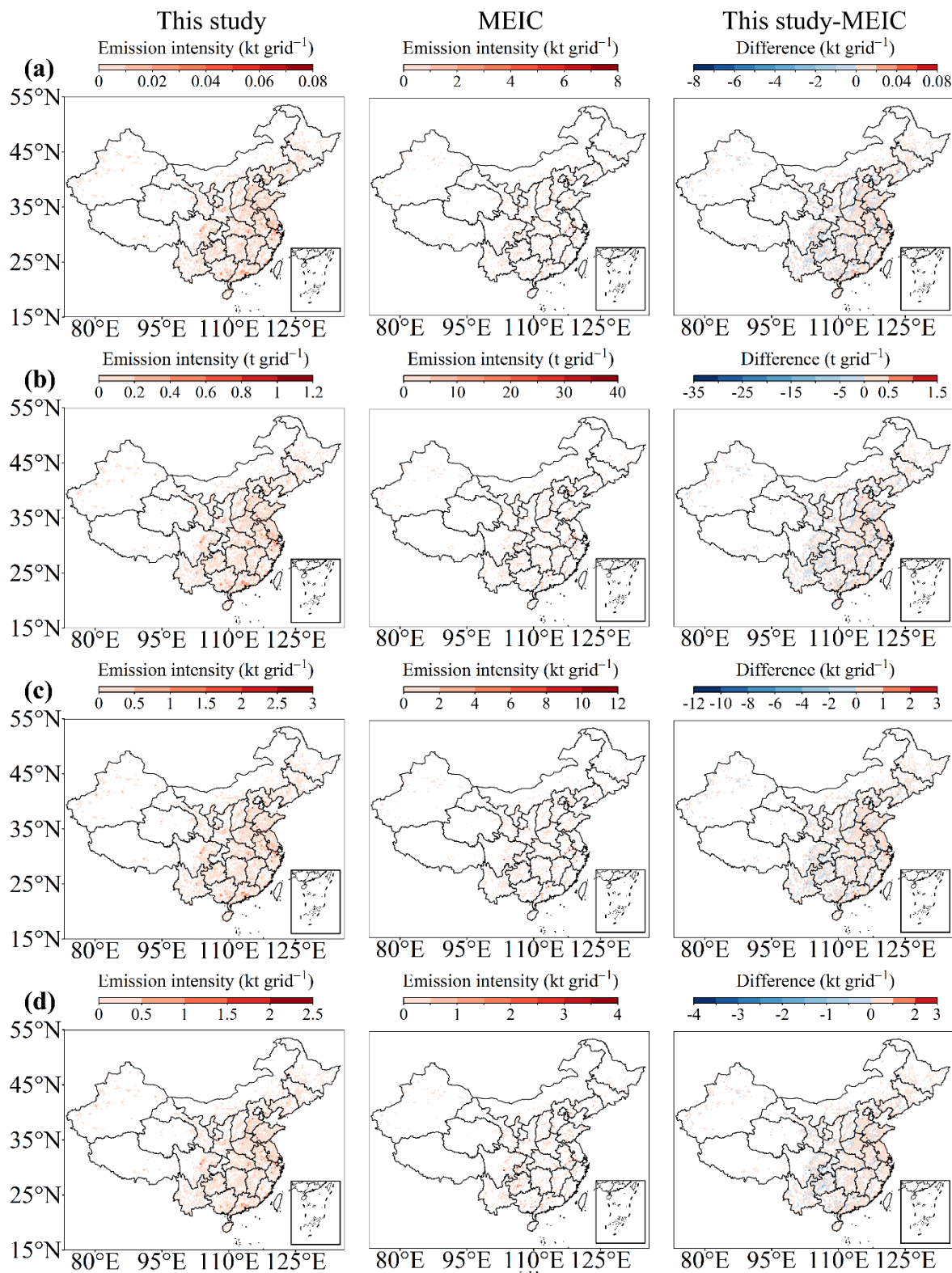
520 For the cement sector, this study generally estimated lower PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and BC emissions
 521 than the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory across most cement-producing regions, especially in
 522 eastern and central China. NO_x and SO₂ exhibited mixed positive and negative spatial biases,
 523 indicating highly heterogeneous regional discrepancies for them. For iron and steel sector, PM_{2.5},
 524 PM₁₀, BC and CO emissions were uniformly lower in our dataset across most major steel-producing
 525 regions, particularly in northern and eastern China, while NO_x and SO₂ spatial differences
 526 displayed strong regional variability.

527 Pollutant-specific parameter differences partly explain these spatial mismatches. Previous
 528 cement inventory research confirms that PM emissions are highly sensitive to process-specific EFs,
 529 PM size partitioning ratios, and dust removal efficiencies (Liu et al., 2021). Unit-based studies on
 530 iron and steel emissions also highlights the importance of sub-process parameters for accurate
 531 estimation (Wang et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2024b).

532 Differences in spatial allocation methodology provides another important explanation for grid-
 533 level discrepancies. This study allocated total industrial emissions to exact grid cells via Point-Of-
 534 Interest (POI) factory location datasets, assigning each cement and steel plant to its precise
 535 geographic point before gridding. In contrast, activity-adjusted MEIC inventory retained its original



536 proxy-based spatial distribution scheme, then the adjustment changed the activity magnitude
537 without relocating individual point sources according to updated POI geolocations. Even with
538 identical regional aggregate activity volumes, this mismatch shifts emission allocation across grid
539 cells. This spatial bias disproportionately impacts industrial point sources, as factory coordinates
540 often deviate drastically from population or other proxy-based spatial weightings. Zheng et al.
541 (2021) demonstrated that integrating industrial point sources into MEIC substantially increased
542 point-source contributions of SO₂, NO_x, PM_{2.5}, and PM₁₀ and improved local hotspot representation.
543 Recent INTAC inventory results similarly confirmed that replacing proxy-based allocation with
544 facility geolocations can reduce fine-scale spatial misallocation of industrial emissions in MEIC
545 (Wu et al., 2024a). POI geolocation frameworks have also been proposed to refine spatial
546 distribution of industrial energy consumption and associated pollutant emissions (Li et al., 2019).
547 Consistent regional hotspot patterns between the two inventories reflect matching regional
548 industrial activity, while residual grid-level intensity gaps originate from updated measurement-
549 derived emission parameters and divergent spatial allocation input datasets and methodologies.
550





552 Figure 8. Spatial comparison of air pollutant emissions from the cement sector between this study
553 and the activity-adjusted MEIC 2024 inventory. Rows correspond to (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) BC, (c) NO_x,
554 and (d) SO₂. The columns show the spatial distribution obtained in this study, the activity-adjusted
555 MEIC inventory, and the differences, respectively. Emissions are presented as gridded emission
556 intensities, with units shown in the colour bars. The difference panels represent this study minus the
557 activity-adjusted MEIC inventory.

558

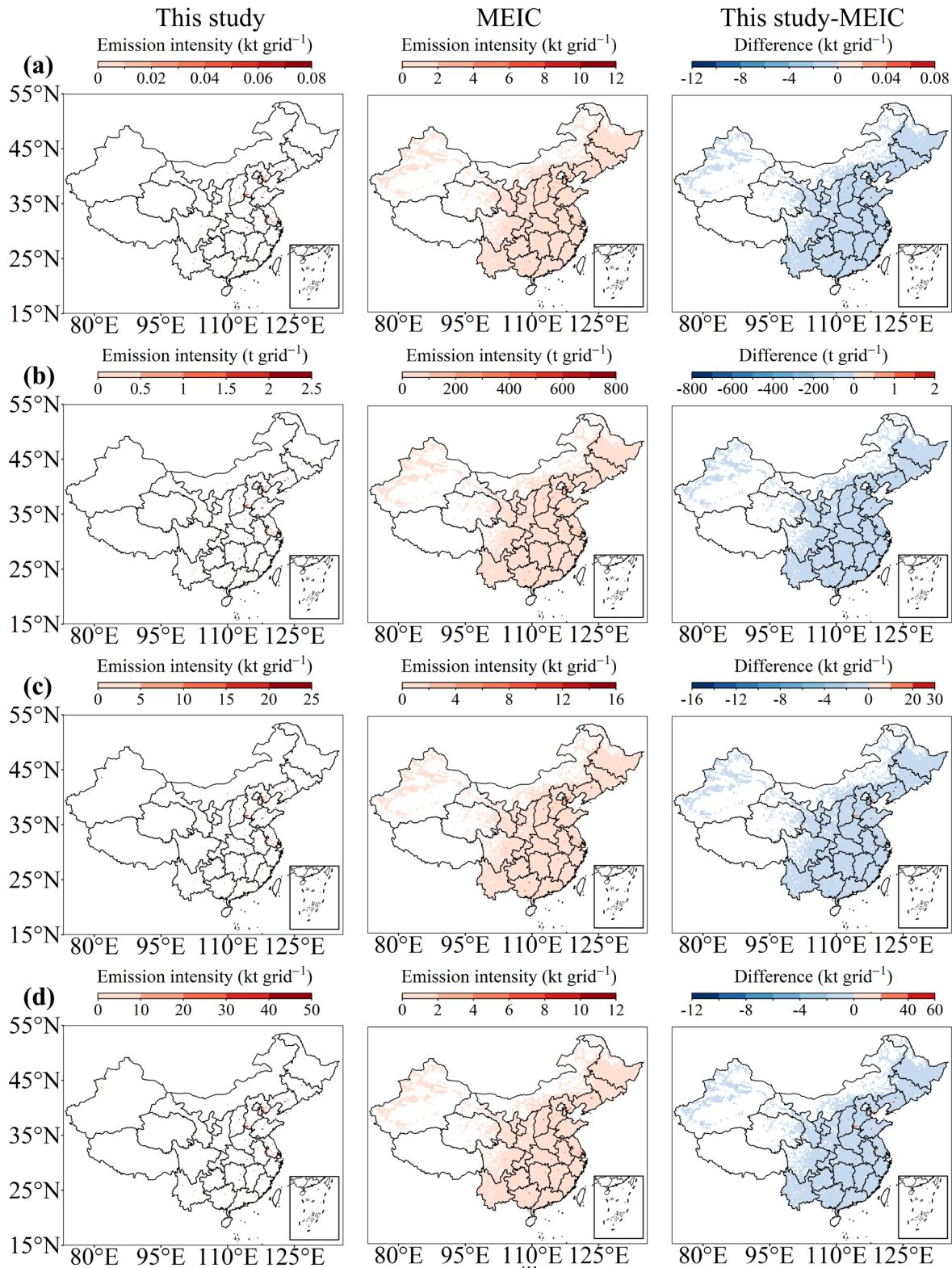




Figure 9. Spatial comparison of air pollutant emissions from the iron and steel sector between this study and the activity-adjusted MEIC 2024 inventory. Rows correspond to (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) BC, (c) NO_x, and (d) SO₂. The columns show the spatial distribution obtained in this study, the activity-adjusted MEIC 2024 inventory, and their differences, respectively. Emissions are presented as gridded emission intensities, with units shown in the colour bar. The difference panels represent this study minus the activity-adjusted MEIC inventory.

3.5 Limitations of this study

Several key limitations and inherent uncertainties associated with this study should be acknowledged. (1) PM mass concentrations were derived from optical particle measurements, which depend on assumptions regarding particle density, morphology, hygroscopicity, and refractive index. These assumptions introduce systematic uncertainties into measured PM concentrations and corresponding EFs (Hagan and Kroll, 2020). (2) Each industrial facility was monitored for only 3 consecutive days, so the measured EFs may not fully represent annual operating conditions. Seasonal changes in production load and periodic startup/shutdown alter stack pollutant emission concentrations and control equipment performance (Tang et al., 2023). (3) Field measurements covered selected post-control stack outlets rather than full emission boundaries of each sector. Unorganized fugitive emissions and other process outlets, especially for PM from raw material handling, storage, and transportation, were not fully captured here (Liu et al., 2021). (4) The POI data used for spatial allocation reflected facility information available at the time of collection rather than a historical snapshot for 2024. This temporal mismatch may introduce uncertainty into grid-level emissions because industrial point-source locations can strongly affect high-resolution gridded emission distribution (Li et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2024a; Zheng et al., 2021). Future research should extend continuous field measurements across multiple seasons, additional enterprises, diverse process outlets, and fugitive emissions, together with improved year-specific facility status and activity datasets to reduce the above uncertainties.



585 4. Conclusions

586 This study provides field-measured emission factors and hourly temporal allocation factors for
 587 seven stack air pollutants of five industrial sectors in China. Industrial EFs exhibit extreme facility-
 588 and pollutant-specific heterogeneity, with our measured values deviating from literature and official
 589 guideline values by 1–4 orders of magnitude. BC EFs ranged from 3.2×10^{-6} to 4.7×10^{-2} g kg⁻¹
 590 product across the five sectors, yet current inventory guidelines assign zero BC EFs to most
 591 corresponding industrial categories. Measured BC/PM_{2.5} mass ratios for cement and iron and steel
 592 reached only 0.0136 and 0.0104, respectively, suggesting that literature-derived ratios substantially
 593 overestimate BC emissions from modern well-controlled industrial stacks.

594 PM_{2.5} emissions estimated in this study with our updated EFs were 29.6 and 255 times lower
 595 than activity-adjusted MEIC for cement and iron and steel, respectively, whereas the discrepancies
 596 for gaseous pollutants were far smaller and displayed pollutant-dependent biases. These results
 597 confirm that industrial PM emissions are not solely determined by total production activity, but
 598 strongly modulated by field-measured EFs, particulate control efficiency assumptions, covered
 599 source categories, and spatial allocation methods. Our PM emission estimates strictly represent
 600 organized post-control stack emissions. Comprehensive sector-wide PM emissions still require
 601 better integration of fugitive and other non-stack sources. Measured hourly allocation factors
 602 displayed clear diurnal variability. PM_{2.5} hourly weights ranged from 0.016 to 0.055, corresponding
 603 to deviations of −61.6% to +32.0% relative to the uniform static allocation weight of 1/24. This
 604 demonstrates that constant temporal allocation assumptions fail to capture short-term emission
 605 spikes, particularly evening enhancements in particulate emissions.

606 The field-measured EFs and pollutant-resolved hourly diurnal profiles developed here provide
 607 robust observational constraints to improve high-temporal-resolution industrial emission inventories,
 608 and evaluate industrial contributions via receptor models or air quality simulations, and targeted
 609 short-term industrial pollution control policy evaluation.

610

611



612 **Data availability**

613 The dataset described in this manuscript (Wang et al., 2026) is available for anonymous peer review
614 through the temporary Zenodo review link:

615 <https://zenodo.org/records/21396152?preview=1&token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6ImRkZTBmN2Q5LTdiMmEtNDUzZC1hMDgwLWJkZDc3MzgwMGFmNCIsImRhdGEiOnt9LCJyYW5kb20iOiJhZjM4YmMwMzg5NzJlYjJjN2ZjYjAzYjNjNjgwODhkNCJ9.oDB98C00t1i0J3wsd9QP870sLLSC09qXQQOdaFwmV0r910apq2Lx7rr6MrxehSfVGYKFb11JQdBJHDcmHWeIzQ>.

619 The dataset will be made publicly available on Zenodo under the CC BY 4.0 licence, with the
620 reserved DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.21396152>, before final publication of the article.

621

622 **Author contribution**

623 TW conducted the investigation, curated and analyzed the data, prepared the figures, and wrote the
624 manuscript. SK conceptualized and supervised the study, acquired funding, and reviewed and edited
625 the manuscript. XQ, YZ, YF, YY, JW, WL, and FD contributed to the investigation and data
626 collection. All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

627

628 **Competing interests**

629 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

630

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