

The Impacts of the Geographic Distribution of Manufacturing Plants on Groundwater Withdrawal in China

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Abstract

The overexploitation of groundwater in China has raised concern as it has caused a series of environmental and ecological problems. However, far too little attention has been paid to the relationship between groundwater use and the spatial distribution of water users, especially that of manufacturing factories. This study proposed a factory scatter index (FSI) that incorporates the latitude and longitude of each plant and calculates the distance between factories to characterize the degree to which manufacturing plants are scattered in China. It is found that counties and border areas between neighboring provinces registered the highest FSI increase. It seems that the degree of scattering of manufacturing plants is closely related to land planning and management of local governments. Further non-spatial and spatial regression models using 205 provincial-level secondary river basins in China from 2016 show that the scattered distribution of manufacturing plants played a key role in groundwater withdrawal in China, especially in fragile ecological-environment areas. The scattered distribution of manufacturing plants raises the cost of tap water transmission, makes monitoring and supervision more difficult, and increases the possibility of surface water pollution, thereby intensifying groundwater withdrawal. A reasonable spatial adjustment of manufacturing industry through planning and management can reduce groundwater withdrawal and realize the protection of groundwater. Our study may provide a basis for water-demand management through spatial adjustment in areas with high water scarcity and fragile ecological environment.

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37 **1. Introduction**

38 Groundwater is the world’s largest freshwater resource and accounts for 33% of the
39 annual global freshwater withdrawal. Globally, groundwater supplies drinking water to more
40 than 2 billion people and provides more than half of the irrigation water (Giordano, 2009; de
41 Graaf et al., 2019; Olea-Olea et al., 2020). In recent years, the increase in the global population,
42 urbanization, and rising demands from the industrial and agricultural sectors have led to the
43 excessive abstraction of groundwater, which in turn has led to an extreme lowering of water
44 tables. The overexploitation of groundwater has caused a series of environmental and
45 ecological problems, such as ground subsidence, seawater intrusion, and groundwater
46 pollution (Braadbaart, O. & Braadbaart, F., 1997; Koncagül, 2015; de Graaf et al., 2019; Shah
47 et al., 2000). Water demand must be managed to reduce groundwater consumption and hence
48 to control ecological and environmental risks caused by the overexploitation of groundwater.
49 As well as generic water-demand management measures such as developmental and technical
50 measures, market-based measures have been reported in the broader literature (Hamdy et al.,
51 2003; Yang et al., 2003; Gilg & Barr, 2006; Chang et al., 2017). However, the spatial
52 distribution of water users is rarely incorporated into water-demand management measures.

53 By using GIS and statistical models to analyze single-family residential water
54 withdrawal, Chang et al. (2010) found that the water withdrawal of communities with a high
55 degree of aggregation was less than that of scattered communities. Shandas and Parandvash
56 (2010) studied the relationship between land-withdrawal zoning and development-induced
57 water withdrawal in Portland, Oregon, USA. They argued that the coordination between

58 land-withdrawal planning and water demand management should be improved. Additionally,
59 Sanchez et al. (2018) found that the agglomeration patterns of water users have the potential to
60 improve water withdrawal efficiency. These authors showed that the spatial distribution of
61 water users has an important impact on water consumption. However, far too little attention has
62 been paid to the relationship between groundwater use and the spatial distribution of water
63 users.

64 Groundwater is a vital source of industrial water. In North China, 50% of industrial
65 water consumption is supplied by groundwater (Chinese Ministry of Environmental
66 Protection, 2011). China's manufacturing industries are considered to be characterized by
67 scattered distribution, which is mostly based on qualitatively studies of its status, forming
68 mechanisms, or background of political institutions (Zhu & Guo, 2014; Zhu, 2017; Zhang et
69 al., 2018). As has been found in this study, this scattered distribution often lead to more usage
70 of groundwater, not only because of the difficulties to lay water pipelines, but also because it
71 can lead to severe contamination of surface water and people have to shift to using more
72 groundwater (Brown & Halweil, 1998). However, what is the degree of scattering of China's
73 manufacturing industry? This issue has rarely been quantitatively measured, which limits our
74 ability to study the impacts of manufacturing plants distribution on groundwater.

75 Zheng et al. (2019) investigated the relationship between the dispersion of
76 manufacturing factories and groundwater withdrawal in Hebei Province in the North China
77 Plain. They revealed that, in Hebei Province, the manufacturing industry is relatively
78 dispersed, and the greater the dispersion of the manufacturing industry the greater the

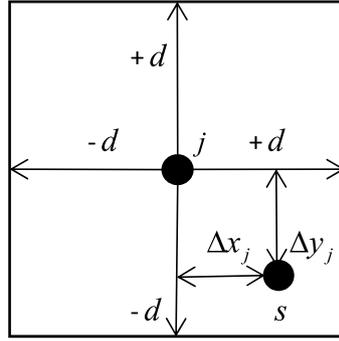
79 groundwater withdrawal. However, it is unclear whether the same relationship exists at the
80 national level, and this research gap limits the planning of groundwater resource demand
81 management.

82 In this paper, we quantitatively characterize the distribution of manufacturing plants
83 and examine the relationship between the spatial distribution of the manufacturing industry and
84 groundwater withdrawal in 205 provincial-level secondary river basins in China. The
85 remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the methodology; Section 3
86 presents the spatial distribution of manufacturing plants in China and empirically analyzes the
87 relationship between the distribution of manufacturing plants and groundwater withdrawal;
88 Section 4 discusses the results; and Section 5 presents the conclusions.

89 **2. Materials and Methods**

90 2.1. Factory Scatter Index (FSI)

91 Based on the address of each manufacturing factory in China derived from the Chinese
92 Industrial Enterprises Database, the address resolution method was used to determine the
93 latitude and longitude of each factory (Zheng et al., 2018). Then, using the spatial location of
94 the manufacturing factories, an index named the factory scatter index (FSI) was designed to
95 measure the degree of scattering of the manufacturing factories (Zheng et al., 2019). The FSI
96 was calculated as follows: using the geographic location information for each manufacturing
97 plant, grids were created with cell size d around factory j at the center of a square, as shown in
98 Figure 1.



99 **Figure 1.** The calculation of the average distance between factory j and factory s.

100 The average distances between factories in each unit were calculated as follows to
 101 quantify the extent to which factories were scattered.

$$d_j = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{m_j} \sqrt{\Delta x_s^2 + \Delta y_s^2}}{m_j} \quad (1)$$

102 where d_j is the average distance between factory j and all other factories in a study unit; j
 103 represents a factory; Δx_s and Δy_s are the differences in latitude and longitude between
 104 factory j and factory s, respectively; and m_j represents the number of factories that satisfy the
 105 conditions $j \in i$ and $-6 \text{ km} \leq \Delta x_j, \Delta y_j \leq +6 \text{ km}$.

106 The FSI of a study unit can then be defined as the average value of d_j as follows:

$$D_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{t_i} d_j}{t_i} \quad (2)$$

107 where D_i is the average distance between factories, i denotes a study unit, and t_i is the
 108 number of factories in study unit i.

109 According to the calculation of Zheng et al. (2019), the optimal value of d that most
 110 accurately characterizes the degree to which plants are scattered is 6 km. Areas within 6 km of

111 development are assumed to be hotspots for settlement (Zhang et al., 2009). Therefore,
 112 considering that it is difficult to obtain a uniform d value nationwide, we also chose 6 km as the
 113 cell size for this study.

114 2.2. Models and Variables

115 We used the following three models to study the influencing factors of groundwater
 116 withdrawal. The first model was the ordinary least squares (OLS), which uses all variables to
 117 fit a single linear regression. Its expression formula is:

$$\ln y_i = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_i x_i + \varepsilon_i \tag{3)}$$

118 where $\ln y_i$ is the dependent variable, x_i is the independent variables, and ε_i is the random
 119 error.

120 It was found that there were areas where the groundwater withdrawal was 0. So Tobit
 121 model was used to eliminate the influence of zero value. Its expression formula is the same as
 122 that of the OLS regression.

123 To further examine the relationship between independent variables and the dependent
 124 variable with the consideration of their spatial variations, Geographically Weighted Regression
 125 (GWR) model was also used to integrate the geographic coordinates of each observation into
 126 the linear regression model. The expression formula of the GWR model is:

$$\ln y_i = \beta_{0(u_i, v_i)} + \sum \beta_{k(u_i, v_i)} x_{ik} + \varepsilon_i$$

4)

127 where $\ln y_i$ is the dependent variable, β_0 is a constant term, (u_i, v_i) is the spatial position of
128 the sampling point i , $\beta_{k(u_i, v_i)}$ is the correlation coefficient between variables at point (u_i, v_i) ,
129 x_{ik} is the independent variables, and ε_i is the random error.

130 In all models, the logarithm of groundwater withdrawal was taken as the dependent
131 variable and the FSI of the same basin as the target independent variable. Since the
132 groundwater withdrawal data at the district and county level is not available, we take 205
133 provincial-level secondary river basins in China as samples.

134 Based on related literature, we considered both the natural and social-economic factors
135 as independent variables to examine their influence on groundwater withdrawal. In China, the
136 main types of water use are agricultural water, industrial water and residential water. Among
137 them, agriculture is the largest user of groundwater in China (Zhang et al., 2013). Since the
138 amount of water used in agriculture is closely related to the area irrigated, we characterized it
139 by the area of actual irrigated land. According to the results of a national water conservancy
140 census in 2011, in that year, high-water-consumption industries accounted for 3/4 of China's
141 total industrial water consumption. So we used the number of high-water-consumption
142 factories and the proportion of high-water-consumption factories to the total number of
143 factories to represent the industrial water usage. Residential water use is closely related to
144 population size and level of urbanization, so we adopted total population and urbanization rate.
145 At the same time, economic efficiency and water use efficiency can also affect water
146 consumption, so we chose GDP per capita and water withdrawal per GDP as indicators. In

147 addition, for natural factors, the average rainfall per year was used to control for the effect of
148 possible increased surface water, and the average temperature per year was used to control for
149 the effect of possible increased water demand. Moreover, considering the differences in factors
150 such as hydrology and climate between North China and South China, provinces were divided
151 into northern provinces and southern provinces according to the perspective of economic
152 geography of Sheng et al. (2018). Exactly, Beijing, Tianjin, Hebei, Shanxi, Shaanxi,
153 Heilongjiang, Jilin, Liaoning, Inner Mongolia, Ningxia, Gansu, Xinjiang, and Qinghai were
154 included in the northern region, and the remaining 18 provinces and cities (excluding Hong
155 Kong, Macao, and Taiwan) were included in the southern region. Based on that, a dummy
156 variable was constructed, namely whether the provincial-level secondary river basin is in South
157 China.

158 Groundwater withdrawal data, agricultural irrigation data, water use efficiency data and
159 annual average rainfall data were all collected from the Chinese Water Resources Bulletin
160 (2016) and were assigned to provincial-level secondary river basins based on certain rules.
161 Factory location and the number and proportion of high-water-consumption factories were all
162 obtained from the Chinese Industrial Enterprise Database. Since the Chinese Industrial
163 Enterprise Database is only updated to 2013, we use the latest 2013 enterprise data. For
164 population and urbanization data, we believe that census data is more comprehensive and
165 accurate than sample data. Therefore, we collected them from the latest China Population
166 Census in 2010. Data on GDP per capita was taken from China's County and City Economic

167 Statistics Yearbook for 2016. The annual average temperature data was acquired from the
 168 Climatic Research Unit Global Climate Dataset (version 4.03).

169 Table 1 reports the basic characteristics of each variable. Due to the differences in the
 170 units of each variable, we normalized all the original data. Table S1 reports the correlation
 171 coefficients between the independent variables (after normalization). Although there was a
 172 high correlation between temperature and rainfall, they did not affect the target variable.
 173 Additionally, the calculated variance inflation factor was less than 5. Therefore, there were no
 174 serious multicollinearity existing among independent variables.

175 Table 1

176 Variable Summary Statistics

| Variable | Observations | Mean | SD | Max | Min |
|---------------------------------------------------------|--------------|----------|----------|---------|----------|
| Groundwater withdrawal (10^4 m ³) | 205 | 5.1560 | 11.848 | 0.000 | 89.220 |
| Factory scatter index (FSI) (km) | 179 | 2.2330 | 1.165 | 0.000 | 5.065 |
| Area of actual irrigated land (10^4 m ²) | 205 | 425.6320 | 832.676 | 0.000 | 6840.100 |
| Number of high-water-consumption plants | 175 | 526.4630 | 1080.326 | 1.000 | 6457.000 |
| Proportion of high-water-consumption plants (%) | 175 | 30.7850 | 17.000 | 0.000 | 100.000 |
| Total population (x 10^4) | 205 | 673.7730 | 1078.268 | 0.000 | 6663.180 |
| Urbanization rate (%) | 190 | 44.1540 | 20.668 | 0.000 | 95.667 |
| GDP per capita (10^4 yuan/person) | 190 | 4.4080 | 2.985 | 0.000 | 17.387 |
| Water withdrawal per GDP (yuan/m ³) | 181 | 0.0129 | 0.016 | 0.001 | 0.123 |
| Rainfall (mm) | 204 | 815.7960 | 555.906 | 0.000 | 2540.349 |
| Temperature (°C) | 204 | 8.9610 | 8.023 | -20.494 | 22.798 |

177 *Note.* we used the factories above the designated size in China in the thermal power industry and other
 178 high-water-consumption industries as high-water-consumption factories. Among them, industrial
 179 enterprises above a designated size in China refer to the enterprises whose annual revenue of main business
 180 is more than 20 million yuan according to the National Bureau of Statistics of China.

181 **3. Results**

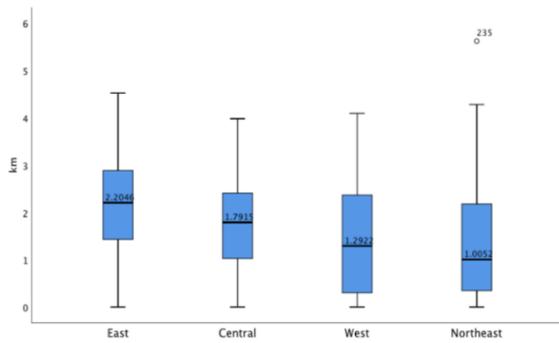
182 3.1. General Characteristics of the Distribution of Manufacturing Plants in China

183 In order to determine the general characteristics of the distribution of manufacturing
184 plants in China, we calculated the number of manufacturing plants and the FSIs in the four
185 geographic regions of East China, Central China, West China, and Northeast China,
186 respectively, and subdivided areas in the four regions into districts and counties—which were
187 classified based on the administrative division of China in 2015—in order to compare the
188 differences between urban and non-urban areas.

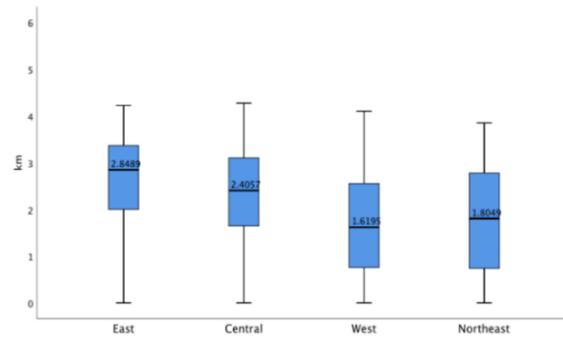
189 As shown in Table S2, from 2000 to 2010, the number of manufacturing plants in China
190 increased by nearly two times. Among the four regions, East China had the largest number of
191 manufacturing plants and the fastest growth rate of 223%. From the comparison of counties
192 and districts, in East China and North China, the number of manufacturing plants in districts
193 was found to be more than that in counties, both in 2000 and 2010; meanwhile, in Central
194 China and West China, the number of manufacturing plants in districts was always less than
195 that in counties. Additionally, in East, Central, and Northeast China, the growth rate of the
196 number of manufacturing plants in counties was higher than that in districts.

197 Figure 2 displays the FSIs in different regions of China in 2000 and 2010, and further
198 shows the FSIs by district and county. As shown in Figure 2(a) and Figure 2(b), in each region,
199 the FSIs increased from 2000 to 2010. Among them, the FSIs in East China and Central China
200 had relatively higher average values and shorter box lengths, which indicates that the FSIs in

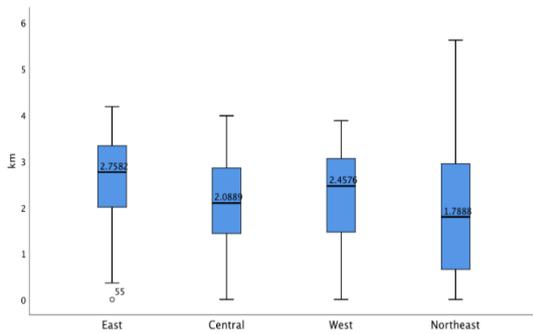
201 these two regions are concentrated at higher average values. In other words, the distribution of
 202 manufacturing plants is more scattered in these two regions than in other regions. In terms of
 203 districts and counties, it can be seen that in 2000 and 2010, the FSIs in districts were higher
 204 than those in counties and the average FSIs in districts in different regions of China were
 205 similar. Additionally, from 2000 to 2010, the average FSIs in counties increased more than
 206 those in districts.



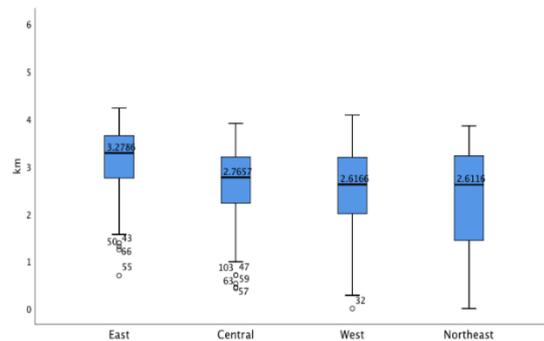
(a) FSI in four regions in 2000



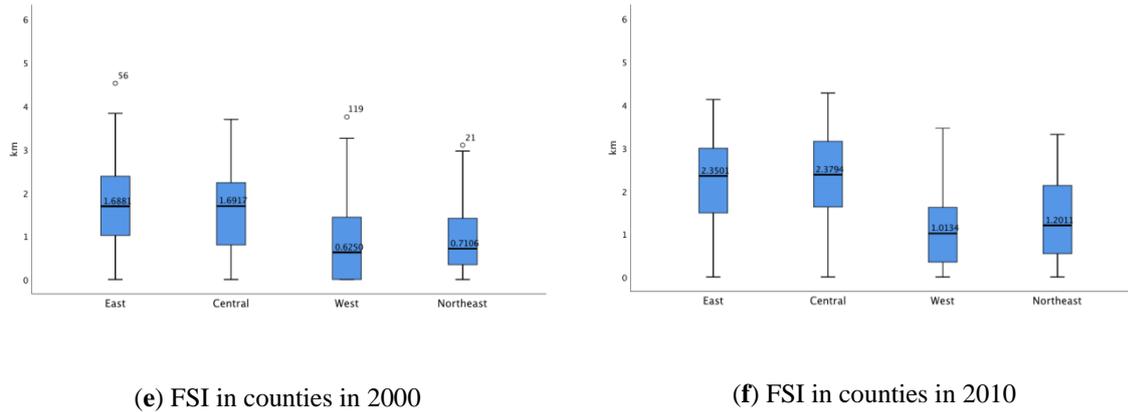
(b) FSI in four regions in 2010



(c) FSI in districts in 2000



(d) FSI in districts in 2010



(e) FSI in counties in 2000

(f) FSI in counties in 2010

207 **Figure 2. a** Values of the FSI in four regions of China in 2000. **b** Values of the FSI in four
 208 regions of China in 2010. **c** Values of the FSI in districts in four regions of China in 2000. **d**
 209 Values of the FSI in districts in four regions of China in 2010 (unit: km). **e** Values of the FSI in
 210 counties in four regions of China in 2000. **f** Values of the FSI in counties in four regions of
 211 China in 2010.

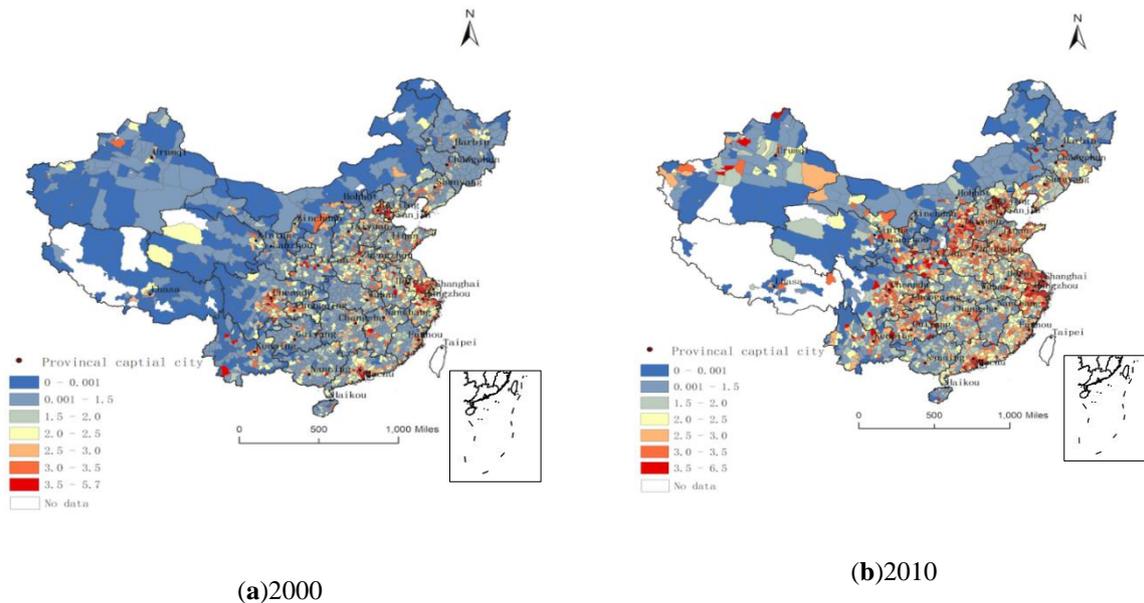
212 Finally, in order to present the distribution of manufacturing plants in different regions
 213 of China with different FSIs more intuitively, we calculated the FSIs by province and displayed
 214 the distribution of manufacturing plants in the four provinces with the highest FSIs in 2000 and
 215 2010, respectively, as shown in Figure S1.

216 3.2. The Evolution of the Spatial Distribution of Manufacturing Plants in China

217 Figure S2 shows the spatial distribution of manufacturing plants in China in 2000 and
 218 2010, respectively. It was found that, between 2000 and 2010, the manufacturing industry
 219 began to shift to Central and West China while continuing to develop in East China.
 220 Specifically, in 2000, a large number of manufacturing plants were concentrated in the Yangtze
 221 River Delta, Pearl River Delta, Shandong Peninsula, and other eastern coastal areas (see Figure

222 S2(a)); meanwhile, by 2010, the number of manufacturing plants in the coastal areas of East
 223 China had increased significantly, and some areas in Central and West China, such as eastern
 224 Hunan, eastern Hubei, Chengdu, and Chongqing, had also seen an intense growth in the
 225 number of manufacturing plants (see Figure S2(b)).

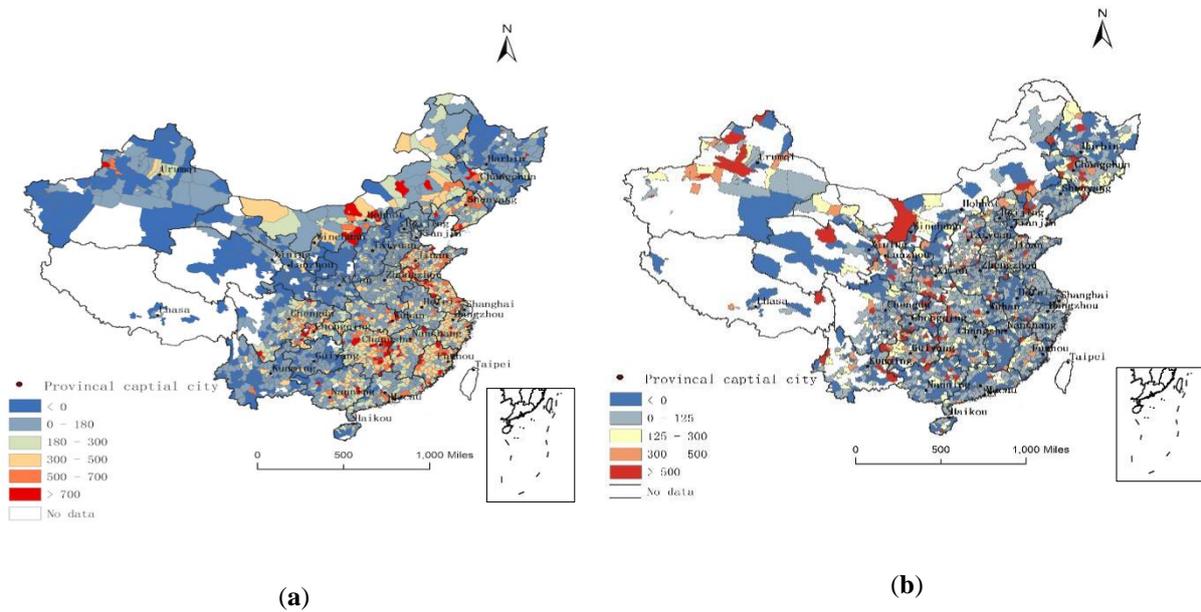
226 Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution of FSIs in China in 2000 and 2010, respectively.
 227 It was found that the scattering of manufacturing plants is relatively high in China, and that the
 228 value of FSIs increased from 2000 to 2010, with the degree of scattering being highest in 2010.



229 **Figure 3.** Values of the FSIs in districts and counties of China in 2000 and 2010.

230 Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution of the change rate of the number of manufacturing
 231 plants and FSIs in China between 2000 and 2010. It can be seen that the counties or districts
 232 with the largest increase in the number of plants were not necessarily those with the largest
 233 increase in FSIs. For example, Jiangsu and Zhejiang provinces in East China and Jiangxi
 234 provinces in Central China all had relatively large growth rates of the number of manufacturing
 235 plants and relatively lower rates of change of FSIs. Among them, the FSIs of most districts and

236 counties in Jiangxi Province showed a negative growth trend. Additionally, a very prominent
 237 feature is that the districts and counties with the largest growth rates of FSIs appeared at the
 238 boundary between adjacent provinces.



239 **Figure 4.** The change rate of the number of manufacturing plants (a) and FSI values (b) in
 240 districts and counties of China between 2000 and 2010.

241 In order to more clearly compare the degree of scattering of manufacturing plants in
 242 various regions, we calculated the change rate of FSIs and the number of manufacturing plants
 243 and its change rate in each province of China (Table 2). As shown in Table 2, the national
 244 average change rate of FSIs from 2000 to 2010 was 33%. Among the 26 studied provinces, 11
 245 had FSI change rates that were higher than the national average. By comparing the change rate
 246 of the number of manufacturing plants and the change rate of FSIs, it was found that the
 247 provinces with the largest increase in the number of manufacturing plants were not necessarily
 248 those with the largest change rate of FSIs. In other words, the increase in the number of

249 manufacturing plants does not necessarily lead to the spatial scattering of manufacturing
 250 plants, which is consistent with the above conclusion.

251 **Table 2**

252 *The Change Rate of the Number of Manufacturing Plants and the Change Rate of FSIs in*

253 *Different Provinces from 2000 to 2010.*

| Province | Manufacturin g plants in 2000 | Rank | Manufacturin g plants in 2010 | Rank | Change rate of the number of manufacturin g plants (%) | Rank | Change rate of FSIs (%) | Rank |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|------|-------------------------------------|------|--------------------------------------------------------------------|------|----------------------------|------|
| National average | 5887 | 11 | 17,293 | 9 | 147 | 13 | 33 | 12 |
| Jiangsu | 16,201 | 2 | 74,809 | 1 | 361.76 | 2 | 9.65 | 26 |
| Zhengjiang | 14,720 | 3 | 62,084 | 3 | 321.77 | 3 | 13.05 | 25 |
| Beijing | 4803 | 13 | 6404 | 18 | 33.33 | 22 | 14.3 | 24 |
| Fujiang | 6010 | 8 | 24,533 | 5 | 308.2 | 4 | 17.88 | 22 |
| Guangdong | 18,697 | 1 | 64,486 | 2 | 244.9 | 6 | 25.8 | 15 |
| Hebei | 7282 | 7 | 10,806 | 14 | 48.39 | 19 | 27.38 | 14 |
| Shanghai | 8771 | 6 | 15,102 | 11 | 72.18 | 18 | 37.51 | 11 |
| Hainan | 505 | 26 | 906 | 26 | 79.41 | 17 | 43.1 | 8 |
| Tianjing | 5313 | 12 | 6348 | 19 | 19.48 | 25 | 46.12 | 7 |
| Shandong | 11,670 | 4 | 38,062 | 4 | 226.15 | 8 | 58.79 | 3 |
| Jiangxi | 3598 | 17 | 12,077 | 13 | 235.66 | 7 | 9.17 | 27 |
| Anhui | 3685 | 16 | 8034 | 16 | 118.02 | 14 | 18.31 | 21 |
| Henan | 9856 | 5 | 19,588 | 7 | 98.74 | 15 | 24.08 | 17 |
| Hunan | 4687 | 14 | 21,896 | 6 | 367.16 | 1 | 37.84 | 10 |
| Hubei | 5919 | 10 | 17,618 | 8 | 197.65 | 10 | 41.66 | 9 |
| Shanxi | 3179 | 19 | 4477 | 20 | 40.83 | 21 | 65.51 | 2 |
| Chongqing | 1955 | 25 | 7974 | 17 | 307.88 | 5 | 17.88 | 23 |
| Shanxi | 2665 | 22 | 3366 | 22 | 26.3 | 23 | 18.38 | 20 |
| Sichuan | 4411 | 15 | 13,281 | 12 | 201.09 | 9 | 23.33 | 19 |
| Guanxi | 3246 | 18 | 8690 | 15 | 167.71 | 12 | 24.62 | 16 |
| Ningxia | 407 | 27 | 736 | 27 | 80.84 | 16 | 29.74 | 13 |
| Guizhou | 1984 | 24 | 2240 | 25 | 12.9 | 27 | 52.61 | 5 |
| Yunan | 2154 | 23 | 2694 | 24 | 25.07 | 24 | 54.96 | 4 |
| Liaoning | 5925 | 9 | 16,413 | 10 | 177.01 | 11 | 23.68 | 18 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|------|----|------|----|-------|----|-------|---|
| Heilongjian | 2695 | 21 | 3045 | 23 | 12.99 | 26 | 46.61 | 6 |
| Jilin | 2736 | 20 | 3937 | 21 | 43.9 | 20 | 88.73 | 1 |

254 *Note.* due to the incompleteness of the information about the plants in districts and counties of the
 255 provinces of Xinjiang, Tibet, Inner Mongolia, Gansu, and Qinghai, these areas are not discussed.

256 3.3. Empirical Results

257 Taking groundwater withdrawal as the dependent variable and FSIs as the target
 258 independent variable, OLS regression, Tobit regression, and GWR were carried out in turn to
 259 examine the relationship between the degree of scattering of manufacturing plants and
 260 groundwater withdrawal.

261 As shown in Table 3, of all the OLS regression results, column (4) performed best,
 262 explaining 52.2% of the groundwater withdrawal. Among them, the FSI showed a relatively
 263 high importance in the model, accounting for 17.85% of the groundwater withdrawal, ranking
 264 third among all the influencing factors (see Figure 5). Generally, the coefficients of FSI in all
 265 models were significantly positive, indicating that the degree of scattering of manufacturing
 266 plants had a significant impact on groundwater withdrawal. Additionally, the coefficients of
 267 the total population and the area of actual irrigated land were also significantly positive in all
 268 the models, which is consistent with reality. Furthermore, the urbanization rate was found to be
 269 significantly positively correlated with the groundwater withdrawal, meaning that the increase
 270 of the urbanization rate will aggravate groundwater withdrawal. Finally, there was a positive
 271 relationship between groundwater consumption and water withdrawal per GDP, which
 272 indicates that the lower the water withdrawal efficiency, the more groundwater is used.

273 Furthermore, the regression results of the Tobit model were basically consistent with
 274 those of the OLS model (see Table 3, column (5)-(8)); therefore, no further explanation of the
 275 results of this model were given. Table 4 shows the results of the GWR. The coefficient of FSI
 276 was stable to positive in all results of the GWR, with a minimum value of 0.1043 and a
 277 maximum value of 0.3782, confirming that the more scattered the spatial distribution of
 278 manufacturing plants, the greater the groundwater withdrawal.

279 Across all models, GWR outperformed OLS, as indicated by lower AIC values and
 280 higher global R-squared values (Table S3). The GWR model explained 60% of the variation in
 281 groundwater withdrawal. The important improvement in performance of the GWR relative to
 282 the OLS regression indicates spatial non-stationarity in statistical relationships across the study
 283 area. Therefore, we provided an in-depth analysis of spatial heterogeneity as represented by the
 284 GWR model. As shown in Figure A4, local R-squared values varied from 0.474 to 0.7267
 285 (Figure 6(a)) and the standard error varied from 0.0107 to 0.1471 (Figure 6(b)). We can also
 286 see that GWR coefficients varied significantly between different regions of China (Figure 7).
 287 Specifically, the coefficients of the FSI were relatively small in Hebei, Tianjin, Beijing, and
 288 Inner Mongolia, while large in West China which is ecologically fragile the most.

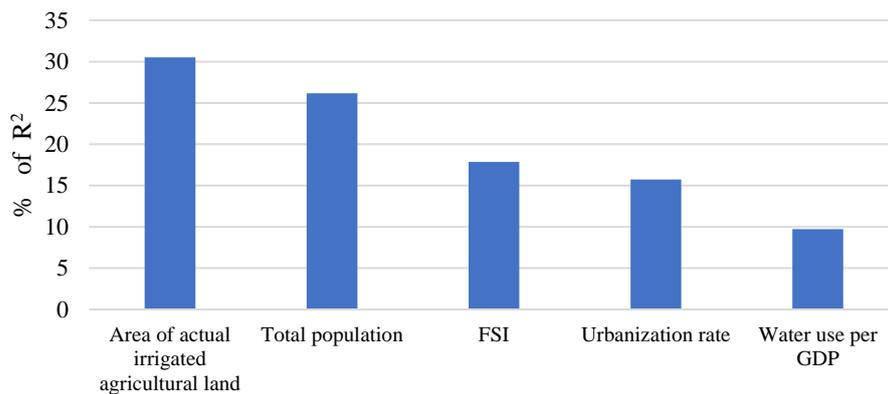
289 **Table 3**

290 *The Results of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) Regression and Tobit Regression*

| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Variable | OLS 1 | OLS 2 | OLS 3 | OLS 4 | Tobit 1 | Tobit 2 | Tobit 3 | Tobit 4 |
| FSI | 0.471*** (0.078) | 0.168** (0.0848) | 0.235** (0.0903) | 0.233** (0.0904) | 0.455*** (0.0723) | 0.179* (0.0721) | 0.236*** (0.0764) | 0.234*** (0.0764) |
| Area of actual irrigated land | | 0.643** | 0.586* | 0.582* | | 0.642*** | 0.573*** | 0.570*** |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|----|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | | (0.32) | (0.302) | (0.311) | | (0.143) | (0.145) | (0.146) |
| Number | of | | | | | | | |
| high-water-consumption plants | | -0.122 | -0.123 | -0.123 | | -0.125 | -0.121 | -0.12 |
| | | (0.11) | (0.123) | (0.126) | | (0.104) | (0.107) | (0.107) |
| Proportion | of | | | | | | | |
| high-water-consumption plants | | -0.0987 | -0.131 | -0.14 | | -0.0864 | -0.117 | -0.124 |
| | | (0.109) | (0.12) | (0.128) | | (0.0882) | (0.094) | (0.0951) |
| Total population | | 0.318 | 0.381* | 0.384* | | 0.296** | 0.364** | 0.366** |
| | | (0.202) | (0.207) | (0.208) | | (0.14) | (0.141) | (0.141) |
| Urbanization rate | | 0.250*** | 0.212** | 0.208** | | 0.213*** | 0.184** | 0.181* |
| | | (0.0852) | (0.0933) | (0.0933) | | (0.0741) | (0.0912) | (0.0918) |
| GDP per capita | | | 0.0207 | 0.0206 | | | 0.00793 | 0.00715 |
| | | | (0.0935) | (0.0962) | | | (0.0999) | (0.1) |
| Water withdrawal per GDP | | | 0.321* | 0.317* | | | 0.357** | 0.352** |
| | | | (0.174) | (0.175) | | | (0.167) | (0.17) |
| Rainfall | | | | -0.0749 | | | | -0.0517 |
| | | | | (0.15) | | | | (0.111) |
| Temperature | | | | 0.0679 | | | | 0.0518 |
| | | | | (0.127) | | | | (0.113) |
| dummy | | 0.179*** | 0.160*** | 0.174*** | 0.168*** | 0.174*** | 0.150*** | 0.163*** |
| | | (0.032) | (0.027) | (0.0276) | (0.0394) | (0.0335) | (0.027) | (0.0274) |
| Intercept | | 0.260*** | 0.254*** | 0.208*** | 0.196* | 0.276*** | 0.278*** | 0.233*** |
| | | (0.0408) | (0.0655) | (0.0793) | (0.104) | (0.0419) | (0.0556) | (0.0645) |
| N | | 182 | 160 | 153 | 153 | 182 | 160 | 153 |
| R ² | | 0.229 | 0.52 | 0.521 | 0.522 | | | |

291 Note. standard errors are in parentheses, * p < 0.1, ** p < 0.05, *** p < 0.01.

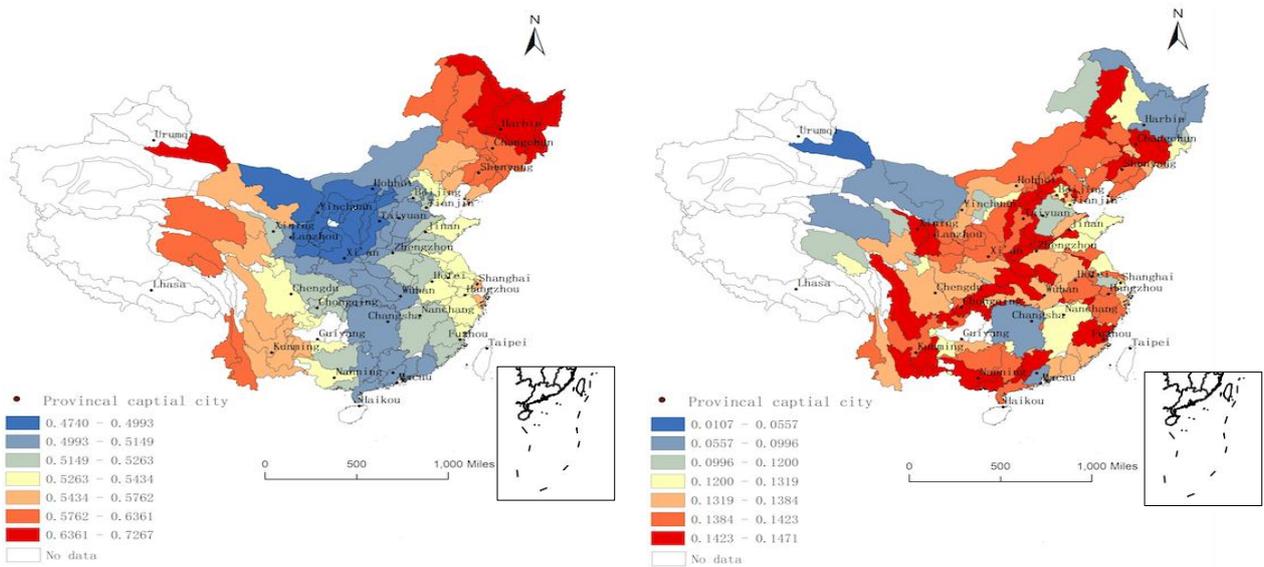


292 **Figure 5.** Measures of relative importance for ordinary least squares (OLS) regression
 293 influencing factors of groundwater withdrawal.
 294

295 **Table 4**

296 *The Results of Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR).*

| Variable | Min | Q(1/4) | Q(1/2) | Q(3/4) | Max |
|---------------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| FSI | 0.104 | 0.133 | 0.177 | 0.218 | 0.378 |
| Area of irrigated land | 0.264 | 1.088 | 1.281 | 1.391 | 1.532 |
| Number of high-water-consumption plants | -0.354 | -0.218 | -0.178 | -0.137 | 0.097 |
| Proportion of high-water-consumption plants | -0.287 | -0.247 | -0.181 | -0.046 | 0.137 |
| Total population | -0.160 | -0.070 | -0.004 | 0.057 | 0.453 |
| Urbanization rate | 0.130 | 0.187 | 0.228 | 0.334 | 0.597 |
| GDP per capita | -0.143 | -0.019 | 0.065 | 0.127 | 0.193 |
| Water withdrawal per GDP | -0.781 | -0.585 | -0.432 | -0.020 | 0.490 |
| Rainfall | -0.988 | -0.398 | -0.284 | -0.115 | 0.098 |
| Temperature | -0.307 | -0.126 | -0.012 | 0.059 | 0.611 |
| Intercept | 0.089 | 0.346 | 0.451 | 0.539 | 0.632 |



(a) local R-squared

(b) standard error

297 **Figure 6.** The spatial distribution of the local R-squared (a) and standard error (b) in the
298 Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) results.

299 **4. Discussion**

300 4.1. Regional Differences in the Degree of Scattering of Manufacturing Plants

301 As shown in Figure 2, the FSIs in districts were higher than those in counties and the
302 average FSIs in districts in different regions of China were similar, suggesting that factories
303 within a district are generally farther apart from each other. High land rents owing to high
304 levels of urban services and infrastructure in the districts often push manufacturing to the
305 fringes, where the distance between manufacturing plants are often far apart.

306 Additionally, from 2000 to 2010, the average FSIs in counties increased more than
307 those in districts. So recently, it was the counties, with relatively low land prices and weak
308 environmental management regulations, that have taken over most of the manufacturing
309 plants. In China, counties usually have fierce competition in attracting investment. Therefore,
310 local governments, especially those in less developed areas, are more supportive than regulated
311 to manufacturing plants. For example, when Foxconn moved to Jincheng, Shanxi province, the
312 local government provided the most favorable policies for land, labor recruitment, water and
313 electricity supply, and tax breaks (Geng & Lin, 2014). As a result, the lack of planning in site
314 selection often leads to a spatially dispersed distribution of regional manufacturing (Fan et al.,
315 2009).

316 Some researchers may argue that an increase in the distance between plants (i.e. FSI
317 value) is inevitable, especially when a large number of manufacturing plants enter with rapid
318 industrial development. However, our results found that the districts or counties with the
319 largest increase in the number of manufacturing plants are not necessarily those with the largest
320 increase in FSI values. In Jiangsu Province, the number of manufacturing plants increased
321 greatly between 2000 and 2010, but the growth rate of FSI during this period was small, which
322 means that the average distance between factories did not increase much. It seems that the
323 spatial pattern of plants can be adjusted by local government's planning and management (Fan,
324 1996). The FSI index can reflect the extent to which local government's planning and
325 management plays a role in formatting an appropriate spatial structure.

326 Interestingly, districts or counties with the largest increase in the scattering degree of
327 manufacturing plants appeared at the boundary between neighboring provinces. Plants located
328 there can often easily escape punishment for polluting because their emissions often affect
329 neighboring provinces. Disputes over pollution need to be reported to higher-level
330 government, which makes management more difficult. So, people there often choose to close
331 an eye on and local governments tend to implement loose land planning and management in
332 border areas (Duvivier & Xiong, 2013). Therefore, the plants there often located according to
333 their own requirements, e.g. large areas of single-story plants, which lead to a dispersed
334 distribution of manufacturing plants there.

335 4.2. Effects of the Scattering of Manufacturing Plants on Groundwater Withdrawal

336 The results of this study suggest that the degree of scattering of manufacturing plants
337 has a significant impact on groundwater withdrawal, that is, the more scattered the
338 manufacturing plants are, the larger the groundwater withdrawal. In China, areas of enterprise
339 clusters (such as industrial parks) are usually equipped with complete municipal waterworks
340 and facilities (Zhao et al., 2013). So, it is convenient to monitor and charge for the water
341 consumption of manufacturing plants, and it is also easier for local water resources department
342 to supervise water use in the cluster area. Since strict management can lead to the increase of
343 cost, manufacturing plants have to reduce their cost by improving the resource utilization
344 efficiency, such as saving water or upgrading technology (Wang et al., 2018). Therefore, the
345 manufacturing plants in the cluster area tend to reduce the use of groundwater.

346 However, scattered distribution of manufacturing plants increases the cost of pipeline
347 laying, making municipal works difficult. In addition, due to advances in water drilling
348 technology, scattered factories usually choose to drill on-site, especially when China did not
349 restrict well drilling in previous years (e.g., there were 58 counties with more than 10,000 wells
350 and 6 counties with more than 100,000 wells in Hebei Province in 2011) (Zheng et al., 2019).
351 Manufacturing plants scattered in rural areas may also share wells with villagers. In such cases,
352 the amount of water used by factories cannot be assessed quantitatively, and strict monitoring
353 cannot be performed (Zhang et al., 2014). The cost of water for scattered factories is relatively
354 low; factories that share wells with villagers usually pay only a small fee to the local village.

355 Therefore, with convenient well drilling and low water costs, manufacturing plants have weak
356 awareness of water conservation, and groundwater over-extraction and waste occur frequently.

357 Moreover, in the absence of environmental regulation, scattered manufacturing plants,
358 especially polluting ones, usually discharge more heavily (Schnaiberg, 1986; Cohen, 1997).
359 The discharge of sewage into local rivers leads to surface water contamination, leaving no
360 available clean surface water, which in turn causes the entire region to rely on groundwater
361 (Brown & Halweil, 1998). The discharge of wastewater has an important indirect but
362 non-negligible impact on the increase of groundwater use throughout China.

363 It is clear that the scattering of manufacturing plants and the corresponding water
364 management play an exceptionally significant role in groundwater withdrawal, which deserves
365 much attention.

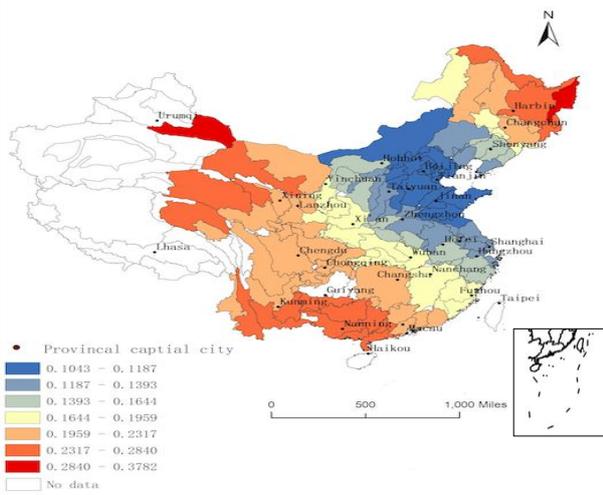
366 4.3. Regional Differences in the Effects of the Scattering of Manufacturing Plants on 367 Groundwater Withdrawal

368 The regression results of the GWR model (Figure 7) show that the impact of the degree
369 of scattering of manufacturing plants on groundwater withdrawal varies in different regions of
370 China. As such, when planning efficient water resources development, it may be more useful to
371 adopt different water conservation strategies in different regions according to the spatially
372 varying trends in groundwater withdrawal than to adopt a "one size fits all" strategy.

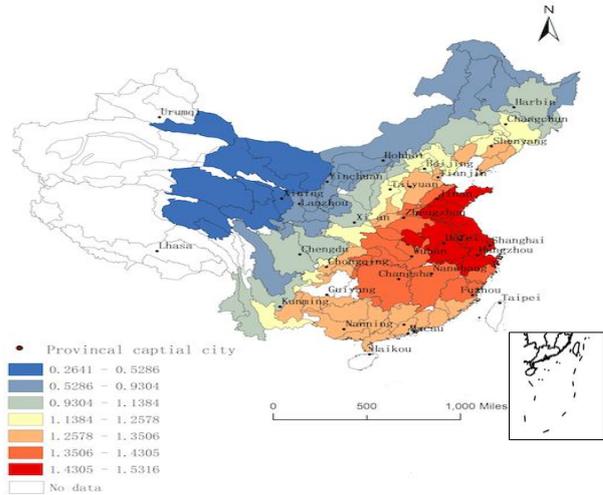
373 It is noted that the spatial scattering of manufacturing plants is not the most important
374 factor affecting groundwater withdrawal in North China (Figure 7(a)). The actual irrigated

375 agricultural area is the main variable affecting groundwater consumption there (Figure 7(b)).
376 This is consistent with the results of Tian et al. (2016), who found that agricultural irrigation is
377 the main factor affecting groundwater withdrawal in the North China Plain, and the greater the
378 dependence of agricultural irrigation water on groundwater, the more serious the groundwater
379 withdrawal is.

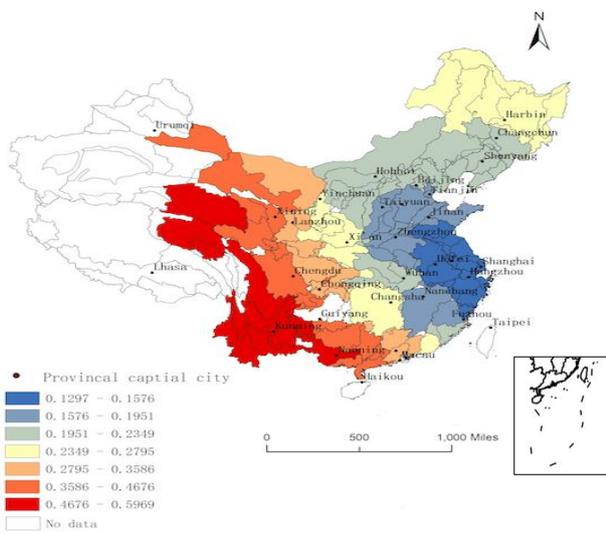
380 However, the spatial scattering of manufacturing plants has a great impact on
381 groundwater withdrawal in West China, especially in fragile ecological-environment areas
382 (Figure 7(a)). The reasons for this are as follows: First of all, groundwater is an important
383 source for industrial, agricultural, and domestic usage in West China due to severe shortage of
384 available surface water (Wu et al., 2020). Secondly, compared with East China, West China is
385 geographically vast and sparsely populated, so the cost of tap water transmission caused by the
386 scattered distribution of manufacturing plants is much higher. Additionally, the broad
387 jurisdiction of district and county governments in West China makes it more difficult to
388 regulate the use of water by scattered manufacturing plants. Therefore, in West China, factories
389 often choose to use groundwater, which is more convenient and available, to save costs.
390 Thirdly, due to the lack of unified water withdrawal planning in West China, the structure of
391 water use and industry is irrational, resulting in the low efficiency of water withdrawal (Liu et
392 al., 2016). The ecological environment of West China is extremely fragile, and groundwater
393 withdrawal will aggravate this vulnerability, thus affecting local sustainable development
394 (Zhou, 2015; Wang & Shao, 2016).



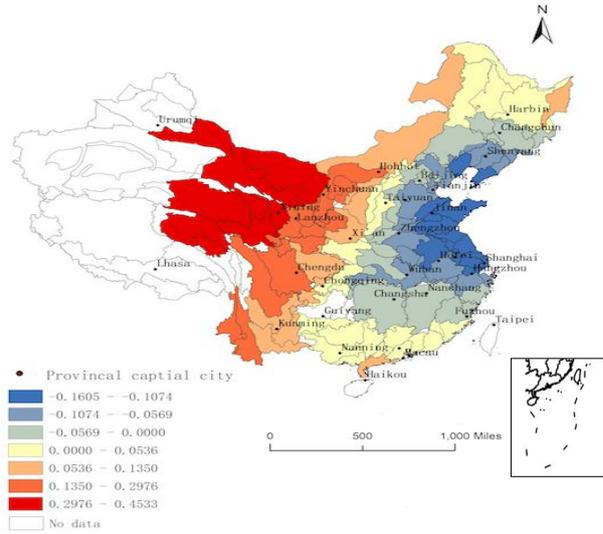
(a) FSI



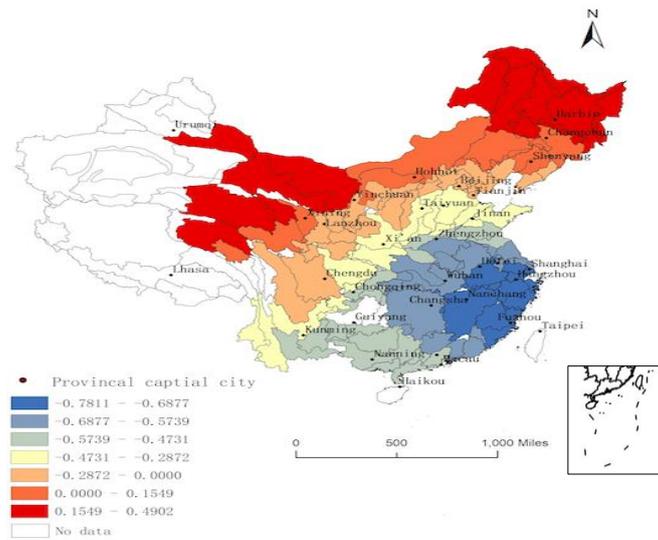
(b) Area of actual irrigated agricultural land



(c) Urbanization rate



(d) Total population



(e) Water withdrawal per GDP

395 **Figure 7.** The coefficients of some variables in the GWR model.

396 **5. Conclusions**

397 Our empirical research highlights the importance of introducing the distribution of
 398 manufacturing plants into the groundwater use analysis framework. We found that the
 399 scattered distribution of manufacturing plants played a key role in groundwater withdrawal in
 400 China, especially in fragile ecological-environment areas. The scattered distribution of
 401 manufacturing plants raises the cost of tap water transmission, makes monitoring and
 402 supervision more difficult, and increases the possibility of surface water pollution, thereby
 403 intensifying groundwater withdrawal. This indicates that it is particularly important to reduce
 404 groundwater withdrawal and realize the protection of groundwater through the reasonable
 405 adjustment of the spatial distribution of the manufacturing industry in areas with water

406 shortage, high dependence on groundwater, and fragile ecology, so as to effectively alleviate
407 the pressure on the regional ecological environment.

408 At present, China is in the middle stage of industrialization, and the scattering of
409 manufacturing plants is relatively high. Under increasingly severe resource and environmental
410 constraints, exploring the relationship between the spatial pattern of manufacturing
411 development and resource utilization is of great significance for solving problems related to
412 resources and the environment. As seen in this paper, planning and management can play a
413 very important role in the spatial distribution of manufacturing plants. Our conclusions provide
414 an important practical basis for the adjustment of the spatial distribution of manufacturing
415 plants in areas with fragile ecological environment and a severely scattered distribution of
416 factories.

417 However, given the data availability, the empirical part of this paper used only one year
418 of provincial-level secondary river basin data. The lack of accurate data made it impossible for
419 us to continue to measure the impact of the scattered distribution of manufacturing plants on
420 groundwater withdrawal at the district and county scale. With the availability of various
421 resource data in the future, we believe that we will be able to measure the impact of the FSI on
422 resource consumption and environmental pollution in a more detailed way, which is our next
423 research direction.

424 **Acknowledgments**

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429 Beijing Key Lab of Study on Sci-Tech Strategy for Urban Green Development, Beijing, China.

430 **Data Availability Statement**

431 Groundwater withdrawal data, agricultural irrigation data, water use efficiency data and
432 annual average rainfall data were all collected from the Chinese Water Resources Bulletin
433 (2016) (<http://www.mwr.gov.cn/sj/tjgb/szygb/>). Factory location and the number and
434 proportion of high-water-consumption factories were all obtained from the Chinese Industrial
435 Enterprise Database (<http://microdata.sozdta.com/login.html>). Population and urbanization
436 data are collected them from the latest China Population Census in 2010
437 (<http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/pcsj/rkpc/6rp/indexch.htm>). Data on GDP per capita was taken
438 from China's County and City Economic Statistics Yearbook for 2016
439 (<https://data.cnki.net/yearbook/Single/N2017050134>). The annual average temperature data
440 was acquired from the Climatic Research Unit Global Climate Dataset (version 4.03)
441 (http://www.ipcc-data.org/observ/clim/cru_climatologies.html).

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**The Impacts of the Geographic Distribution of Manufacturing Plants on
Groundwater Withdrawal in China**

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Contents of this file

Figures S1 to S2

Tables S1 to S3

Introduction

This supporting information reports additional results of spatial and empirical analyses.

Figure S1 shows the FSIs by province and displays the distribution of manufacturing plants in the four provinces with the highest FSIs in 2000 and 2010, respectively.

Figure S2 displays the number of manufacturing plants in districts and counties of China in 2000 and 2010.

Table S1 reports the correlation coefficients between the independent variables (after normalization).

Table S2 shows the number of manufacturing plants in different regions of China.

Table S3 is a comparison of the regression results of the OLS and GWR models, which shows that GWR outperformed OLS across all models, as indicated by lower AIC values and higher global R-squared values.

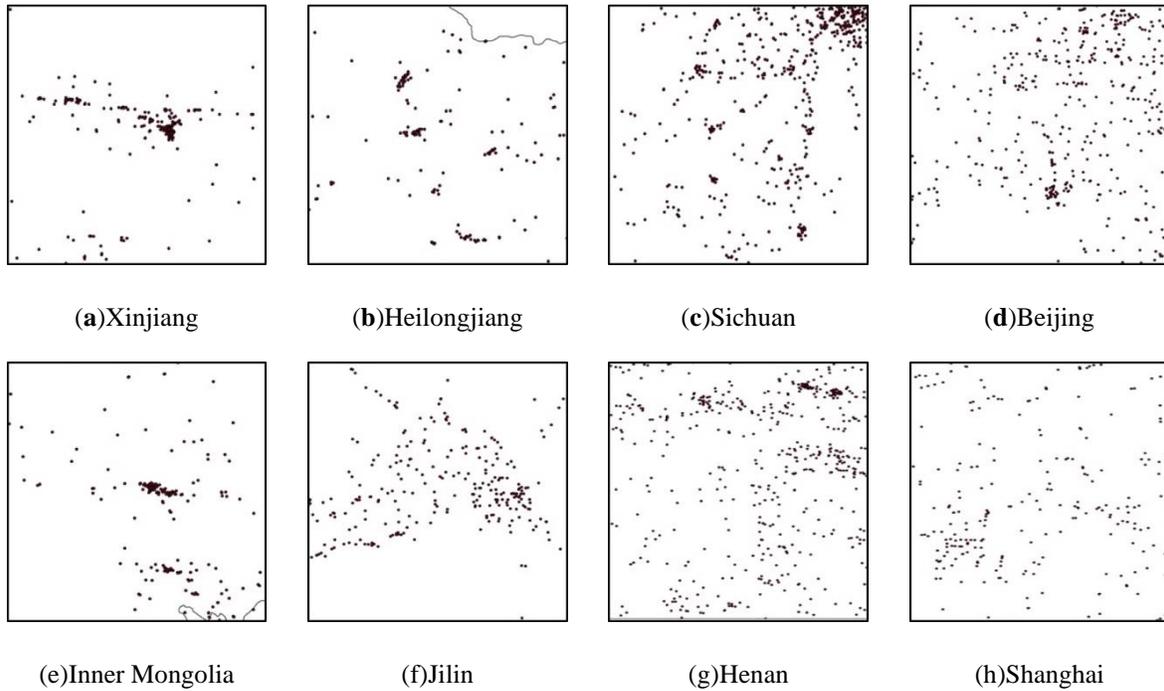


Figure S1. The distribution of manufacturing plants in Xinjiang (a), Heilongjiang (b), Sichuan (c), and Beijing (d) in 2000 (upper row) and in Inner Mongolia (e), Jilin (f), Henan (g), and Shanghai (h) in 2010 (lower row) (unit: km).

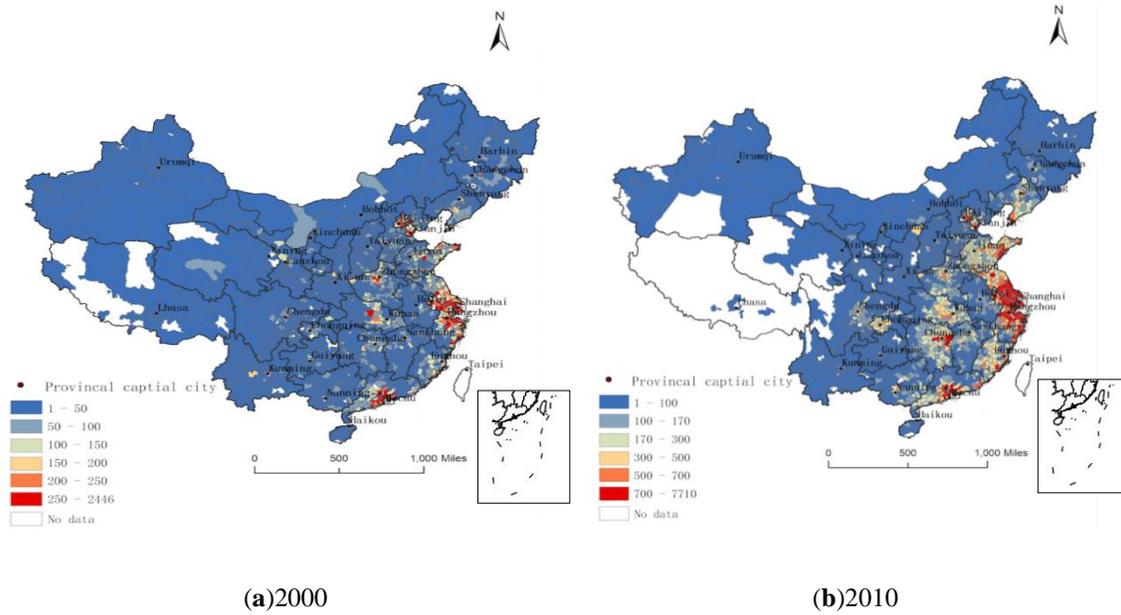


Figure S2. The number of manufacturing plants in districts and counties of China in 2000 and 2010.

| | Log of groundwater withdrawal | | Number of high-water-consumption plants | | Total population | | Area of actual irrigated land | | Proportion of high-water-consumption plants | | Urbanization rate | | GDP per capita | | Water withdrawal per GDP | | Rainfall | | Temperature | |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------|-----------------------------------------|---------|------------------|---------|-------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------------|--|-------------------|--|----------------|--|--------------------------|--|----------|--|-------------|--|
| | FSI | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Log of groundwater withdrawal | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| FSI | 0.3424 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number of high-water-consumption plants | 0.2825 | 0.3959 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Total population | 0.5058 | 0.3575 | 0.7042 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Area of irrigated land | 0.5143 | 0.1643 | 0.4513 | 0.7561 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Proportion of high-water-consumption plants | -0.0429 | -0.2284 | -0.0838 | -0.0618 | 0.0061 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Urbanization rate | 0.521 | 0.4653 | 0.3629 | 0.3846 | 0.2129 | -0.2442 | 1 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------|---------|---------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|--------|---|
| GDP per capita | 0.3382 | 0.432 | 0.4192 | 0.3261 | 0.144 | -0.0919 | 0.68 | 1 | | | |
| Water withdrawal per GDP | -0.2375 | -0.2001 | -0.209 | -0.2066 | -0.0636 | 0.1351 | -0.3529 | -0.2687 | 1 | | |
| Rainfall | -0.0281 | 0.3312 | 0.2605 | 0.2629 | 0.1477 | -0.0783 | 0.1646 | 0.2404 | 0.1175 | 1 | |
| Temperature | -0.031 | 0.2712 | 0.2447 | 0.2215 | 0.1446 | -0.0361 | 0.1249 | 0.2182 | 0.1836 | 0.8014 | 1 |

Table S1. Correlation matrix between the independent variables after normalization.

| TOTAL | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------------------|------------|---------------|------------|-----------------|---------|
| Region | East China | Central China | West China | Northeast China | China |
| Number of manufacturing plants in 2000 | 93,972 | 30,924 | 23,033 | 11,356 | 159,285 |
| Number of manufacturing plants in 2010 | 303,540 | 83,690 | 46,127 | 23,395 | 456,752 |
| Change rate (2000–2010) (%) | 223.01 | 170.63 | 100.26 | 106.01 | 186.75 |
| Counties | | | | | |
| Region | East China | Central China | West China | Northeast China | China |
| Number of manufacturing plants in 2000 | 37,769 | 20,226 | 12,196 | 4525 | 74,716 |
| Number of manufacturing plants in 2010 | 143,361 | 58,221 | 24,345 | 10,318 | 236,245 |
| Change rate (2000–2010) (%) | 279.57 | 187.85 | 99.61 | 128.02 | 216.19 |
| Districts | | | | | |
| Region | East China | Central China | West China | Northeast China | China |
| Number of manufacturing plants in 2000 | 56,203 | 10,698 | 10,837 | 6831 | 84,569 |
| Number of manufacturing plants in 2010 | 160,179 | 25,469 | 21,782 | 13,077 | 220,507 |
| Change rate (2000-2010) (%) | 185.00 | 138.07 | 101.00 | 91.44 | 160.74 |

Table S2. The number of manufacturing plants in different regions of China.

| Model | AIC | R² | Adjusted R² |
|--------------|------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| OLS | -94.49802 | 0.5222 | 0.4849 |
| GWR | -119.56729 | 0.6829 | 0.6045 |

Note. AIC: Akaike information criterion.

Table S3. A comparison of the regression results of the OLS and GWR models.