
The role of intermediate trade in the change of carbon flows within China

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, evaluating the emissions embodied in trade (EEIT) has become an important area of policy and research. Multiregional input-output (MRIO) analysis, which links producers and final consumers, is a widely-used method for quantifying the EEIT. However, the role of intermediate trade in driving changes in the EEIT is still not fully incorporated in MRIO analysis and as a result poorly understood. Here, we present a framework that separately identifies the drivers of the emissions embodied in the trade of final and intermediate products. We implement this framework in a case study in which we analyse the changes in CO₂ emissions embodied in interprovincial trade in China from 2007 to 2012. We find that the largest changes are a rising final demand, which is associated with increased emissions that are to some extent offset by decreasing emissions intensity and changing interregional dependency. Regionally, the rising imports and the growth in final demand in less developed regions in the north and central (e.g., Hebei and Henan) reduced the CO₂ emissions outsourced by central coastal regions and drove the traded embodied CO₂ flows between the central and western regions. The

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framework enriches our understanding of the role played by intermediate trade in the relocation of emissions.

KEYWORDS: Structural decomposition analysis; multiregional input-output analysis; CO₂; Trade; intermediate products

1. Introduction

Along with rapid growth in economic activity, humanity's demand for resource endowments (e.g., energy, water, land and biodiversity) has increased substantially, particularly over the past 20 years (Wu and Chen 2017; Yu et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2018). Since globalisation entails the separation of production and consumption, a key consideration when calculating national emissions is whether to use production-based or consumption-based accounting principles (Davis and Caldeira 2010a; Peters et al. 2011). The difference between these two accounting methods is given by the emissions embodied in trade (EEIT). It is increasingly recognised that changes in trade patterns and volume have considerable effects on regional resource consumption and EEIT (Meng et al. 2016; Lenzen et al. 2013; Lenzen et al. 2012; Oita et al. 2016). Thus, evaluating EEIT has become a hot issue in policy and research. The predominant approaches for measuring EEIT are the emissions embodied in bilateral trade (EEBT approach) and the multiregional input-output analysis (MRIO) approach (Peters 2008). The EEBT approach has the same geographic limits as single region input-output (SRIO) analysis cannot identify the final consumers of products (Peters and Hertwich 2008; Zhang et al. 2014; Su and Ang 2013). The MRIO approach endogenously determines intermediate trade for further processing and links the consumption of finished goods (i.e., final demand, as opposed to the intermediate products) to the original source of physical production. [The main difference between MRIO and EEBT, i.e., a country's indirect absorption patterns and its indirect trade balance of emissions from bilateral trade with other countries, has clearly been addressed by Su and Ang \(2011\). Recently, MRIO is widely used to measure the emissions that are generated to satisfy the needs of consumers in a region, regardless of the location of generation \(Davis and Caldeira 2010b\).](#)

Previous studies have reported that CO₂ emissions embodied in international trade and interregional trade changed dramatically in the past decade (Mi et al. 2017b; Peters and Hertwich 2008; Arto and Dietzenbacher 2014). Similar patterns have also been observed for many environmental issues, such as air pollution (Moran and Kanemoto 2016; Li et al. 2018; Malik et al. 2016), energy (Su and Ang 2012), and raw material (Weinzettel and Kovanda 2011). Thus, there have been attempts to quantify the contribution of socioeconomic drivers to the change in EEIT (Malik and Lan 2016; Arto and Dietzenbacher 2014) by using structural decomposition analysis (SDA) (Dietzenbacher and Los 1998). These studies typically considered the Leontief inverse matrix effect, which reflects the intra- and inter-regional dependency of sectors as one factor reflecting the entire supply chain. However, these decompositions considering Leontief inverse matrix as a factor provide insufficient information on the role of intermediate products in embodying and

37 driving the EEIT (Meng et al. 2016; Li et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2016; Davis and Caldeira 2010b)

38 In a world characterised by fragmented interregional production processes along the
39 value chain of final products, trade in intermediate products--the parts and materials
40 imported to make products for consumption domestically and abroad--reflects the
41 interregional dependency of production and is a growing force in interregional trade (De
42 Backer and Yamano 2011; Sturgeon and Gereffi 2009). More than half of the CO₂
43 emissions embodied in international and interprovincial trade in China have been attributed
44 to trade in intermediate goods (Davis and Caldeira 2010a; Feng et al. 2013). The growth
45 in intermediate trade has been boosted by localizing stages of production in different
46 regions and integrating them into global value chains (Meng et al. 2017). Lower trade
47 barriers and falling communication and transportation costs have enabled the unbundling
48 of factories and offices (Baldwin 2006), meaning that production and service activities can
49 be more broadly distributed within a country or traded globally. In turn, it is likely that if
50 there are increasing anti-globalisation and protectionist measures and if regional gaps in
51 labour cost or production efficiencies shrink, the growth of intermediate trade will slow down.
52 Thus, a better understanding of the CO₂ emissions embodied in intermediate trade can
53 provide insights into the environmental impacts of how production chains develop and of
54 government policies to shape such production chains. However, the MRIO framework
55 determines intermediate trade products endogenously as part of global supply chain. As a
56 result, it is difficult to distinguish the effect of changes in intermediate trade structures from
57 the whole production supply chain within the traditional MRIO approach.

58 To address this limitation in the MRIO framework, in this study, we quantify the
59 socioeconomic contributions to change in CO₂ emissions among 30 provinces in China
60 from 2007 to 2012, with a particular emphasis on the impact of changes in traded
61 intermediate products for further processing and final products. This approach involves two
62 steps. Focusing on the change in trade, we first split EEIT between regions (e.g., from r to
63 s) into three parts: (a) emissions released in region r due to the export of final products to
64 s (first part), (b) emissions from the exported intermediate products related to goods
65 consumed in region s , which are finalised in region s (second part), and (c) finalised in
66 regions other than r and s (third part)). The second step is to decompose the three parts
67 separately to quantify the driving forces of change in the emissions embodied in traded
68 intermediate and final products.

69 This paper is organised as follows. In Section 2, we conduct a brief literature review
70 on the MRIO-based SDA studies. In Section 3, we provide an introduction to MRIO-based
71 SDA methodology, including a detailed mathematical formulation of the framework. In
72 Section 4, we present the analysis of the drivers of changes in emissions embodied in
73 China's interprovincial trade from 2007 to 2012. Section 5 includes a discussion and
74 conclusions.

2. Structural Decomposition Analysis

76 Index decomposition analysis (IDA) and structural decomposition analysis (SDA) are
77 two methods to quantify the driving factors behind the evolution of a dependent variable.
78 SDA enables us to distinguish between a range of production effects and final consumption
79 effects that IDA fails to capture (Feng et al. 2012; Ang 2004; Ang 2005). Moreover, SDA is
80 capable of assessing both direct and indirect effects along entire supply chains (Miller and
81 Blair 2009). Therefore, SDA has been widely used for identifying the drivers of changes
82 involved in a range of environmental issues, such as energy use (Su and Ang 2012), CO₂
83 emissions (Guan et al. 2008; Mi et al. 2017a; Mi et al.), air pollution (Liang et al. 2013;
84 Guan et al. 2014a), water use (Roson and Sartori 2015), raw materials (Weinzettel and
85 Kovanda 2011), and nitrogen emissions (Wier and Hasler 1999). SDA breaks down
86 changes over time in a dependent variable into contributions from underlying factors, such
87 as technological change, affluence, and population growth. These factors can act as either
88 accelerators or retardants.

89 Most SDA-related studies have focused on changes in endowments in individual
90 regions (Su and Ang 2012), such as China (Mi et al. 2017a; Guan et al. 2008; Guan et al.
91 2009; Guan et al. 2014a; Chang and Lahr 2016), the United States (Feng et al. 2015; Liang
92 et al. 2016), the United Kingdom (Baiocchi and Minx 2010), Spain (Cansino et al. 2016)
93 and Norway (Yamakawa and Peters 2011). These studies typically explain changes in the
94 'national' budget of particular endowments as the sum of changes in underlying factors,
95 such as the use of endowments, the Leontief inverse matrix, the commodity shares of final
96 demand, the final demand category, the per capita total final demand and the population.
97 However, SDA approaches applied in single region input-output (SRIO) analysis come with
98 some limitations; e.g., it provides few insights into interregional trade.

99 To incorporate interregional trade, a series of recent studies have conducted MRIO-
100 based SDA to quantify the drivers of energy uses and CO₂ emissions (Arto and
101 Dietzenbacher 2014; Lenzen 2016). Within the MRIO framework, the changes in EEIT can
102 be decomposed both structurally and spatially, thus highlighting the effects of regional
103 industrial structure on interregional trade patterns. Jiang and Guan (2016), Lan et al. (2016)
104 and Malik and Lan (2016) identified the drivers of the global and regional energy and CO₂
105 footprints within an MRIO framework. They analyzed more than 180 countries, and
106 separated domestic and trade effects. However, they did not explore the relationship
107 between drivers and changes in bilateral energy or CO₂ transfer.

108 Recently, there have been some advances in the decompositions of emissions
109 embodied in intermediate and finished products or services (Meng et al. 2017). Xu and
110 Dietzenbacher (2014) and Wu and Wang (2017) quantified the contribution of
111 socioeconomic factors to changes in EEIT, in which the EEIT for a region means all the

112 emissions embodied in products finalised and exported from this region to final consumers
113 in other regions. This definition is different from that in the MRIO framework, which
114 attributes the emissions associated with consumed goods to the original source that
115 produced the emissions. In parallel, Hoekstra et al. (2016) evaluated the effects of changes
116 in trade patterns by separating the exporters and importers into several groups of countries.
117 This paper highlighted the importance of changes in outsourcing patterns and provided
118 evidence that exploring intermediate trade patterns can provide substantial insights into
119 the effect of different trade parts. Further, Zhang et al. (2017) divided the emissions
120 embodied in bilateral trade by the border-crossing frequency associated with traded
121 products, and decomposed the change in CO₂ flows embodied in international trade from
122 1995 to 2009. The novelty of this latter study is that it evaluates the CO₂ emissions flow
123 between the original emitters and the final consumers, which coincides the essence of
124 MRIO framework.

125 Our approach focuses on the factors shaping to the original source that produces the
126 emissions and the final consumers. Thus, we use SDA to disentangle the changes in
127 emissions embodied in three parts of interprovincial trade patterns from 2007 to 2012
128 in China (Dietzenbacher and Los 1998). These three parts include emissions from
129 producing finished goods ($\mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin)$) and emissions from producing intermediates for
130 further processing ($\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D)$ and $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M)$). $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D)$ and $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M)$ represents
131 the emissions associate with the products finalised in region s (domestic) and the third
132 regions (such as k), respectively. $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin)$ is decomposed into four factors, specifically
133 emissions intensity (CO₂/output), intraregional dependency (interaction of sectors
134 within the same region), trade volume (which includes only traded finished goods
135 unless otherwise noted) and trade structure (which includes only traded finished goods
136 unless otherwise noted). $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D)$ is decomposed into four factors, specifically
137 emissions intensity, the interregional dependency (i.e., intermediate exports for further
138 processing), the final demand and the consumption structure. $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M)$ is
139 decomposed into the four factors: emissions intensity, the interregional dependency,
140 trade volume and trade structure.

141

3. Methodological description

3.1 Emissions embodied in trade

Originally developed by Leontief (Leontief 1941), environmental input-output analyses (EIOs) (Leontief 1970) have been widely used to illustrate the economy-wide environmental repercussions triggered by economic activities (Meng et al., 2015). By extending EIOs to MRIO analyses, this method has been widely used to analyse the interconnection of sectors in different regions with respect to various environmental changes (Wiedmann 2009; Minx et al. 2009; Davis and Caldeira 2010b; Meng et al., 2018a, 2018b). This paper uses the MRIO framework, which endogenously determines interregional trade, to analyse the CO₂ emissions embodied in interregional trade in China. The MRIO framework with m regions and n sectors in each region begins with the accounting balance of monetary flows between industrial sectors and regions:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}^1 \\ \mathbf{x}^2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}^m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{11} & \mathbf{A}^{12} & \dots & \mathbf{A}^{1m} \\ \mathbf{A}^{21} & \mathbf{A}^{22} & \dots & \mathbf{A}^{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{A}^{m1} & \mathbf{A}^{m2} & \dots & \mathbf{A}^{mm} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}^1 \\ \mathbf{x}^2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}^m \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \sum_r^m \mathbf{y}^{1r} \\ \sum_r^m \mathbf{y}^{2r} \\ \vdots \\ \sum_r^m \mathbf{y}^{mr} \end{pmatrix} \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{x}^s is a vector ($n \times 1$) representing the sectoral total outputs in region s ($s=1,2, \dots, m$); \mathbf{A}^{rs} is a matrix ($n \times n$) representing the coefficients of industry requirements for inputs from region a to b to produce one unit of output. The element of \mathbf{A}^{rs} is calculated by $a_{ij}^{rs} = z_{ij}^{rs} / x_j^s$, where z_{ij}^{rs} ($i, j=1, \dots, n$) represents the inputs from sector i in region r to sector j in region s ; \mathbf{y}^{rs} is a $n \times 1$ matrix, representing the final supply demand from region r to s ($s=1,2, \dots, m$); when $r=s$, \mathbf{y}^{rs} means local consumption.

\mathbf{y}^{rs} can also be divided into urban consumption, rural consumption, government consumption, capita formation and inventory growing. Then we use \mathbf{X} , \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{Y} to represent the global economy matrix. Moreover, m is 158 in 2007 and 169 in 2010 and 2017, and n is 30 for Chinese regions and 57 for other regions, the equation (1) can be rearranged as,

$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{L} \mathbf{Y} \quad (2)$$

167 where $\mathbf{L} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}^{11} & \mathbf{L}^{12} & \dots & \mathbf{L}^{1m} \\ \mathbf{L}^{21} & \mathbf{L}^{22} & \dots & \mathbf{L}^{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{L}^{m1} & \mathbf{L}^{m2} & \dots & \mathbf{L}^{mm} \end{bmatrix}$ is a $g \times g$ ($g = m \times n$) Leontief inverse

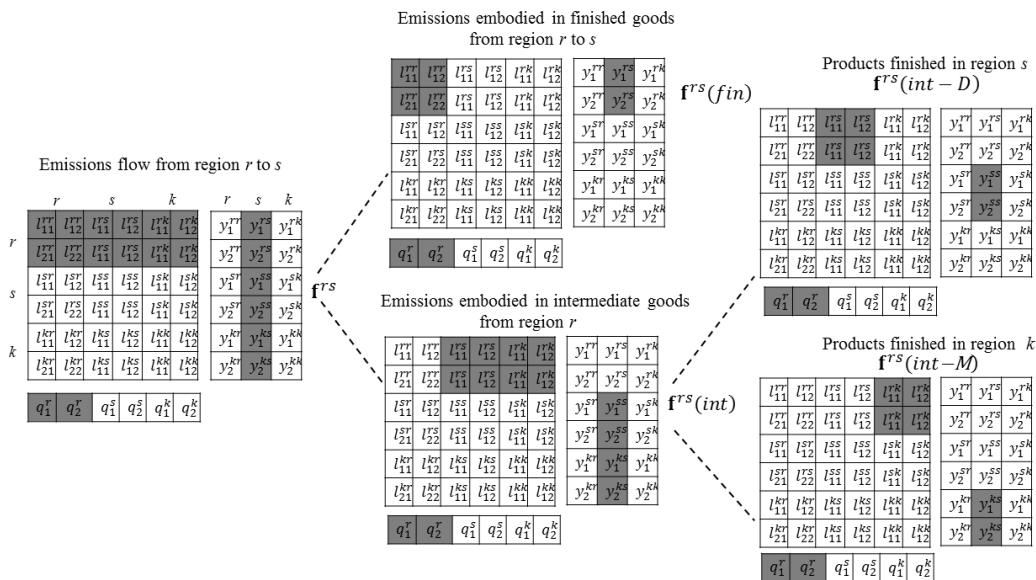
168 matrix, which captures both the direct and indirect inputs required to satisfy one unit of
 169 final demand in terms of monetary value. g is the total number of the sectors in the
 170 focused economies (m regions and n sectors in each region). \mathbf{L}^{rs} is a $n \times n$ matrix. This
 171 study aims to provide a framework to analyse the drivers of the changes in EEIT and
 172 focuses on interprovincial trade only. \mathbf{Y} is a $g \times m$ final demand matrix. Using this
 173 framework, CO₂ emission transfers from region r to region s can be calculated as
 174 follows:

175
$$\mathbf{f}^{rs} = \hat{\mathbf{e}}^r (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{y}^s = \sum_k^m \hat{\mathbf{e}}^r \mathbf{L}^{rk} \mathbf{y}^{ks} \quad (3)$$

176 where \mathbf{e}^r is a $n \times 1$ matrix, calculated as each sector's CO₂ emissions divided by that
 177 sector's total output (Lin et al. 2014), $\hat{\mathbf{e}}^r$ means direct emission intensity matrix. $\hat{\mathbf{e}}$ is
 178 a diagonal $n \times n$ matrix.

179 **3.2 Structural decomposition analysis**

180



181
 182 **Figure 1. Schematic diagram showing the splitting of EEIT in the MRIO framework for a**
 183 **three-region economy with two sectors.** The three regions are denoted by r, s and k and
 184 the two sectors are 1 and 2. The value of shaded elements is used throughout the matrix \mathbf{L}
 185 and \mathbf{y} algebra, while all other elements are zero in this stylized representation.

186

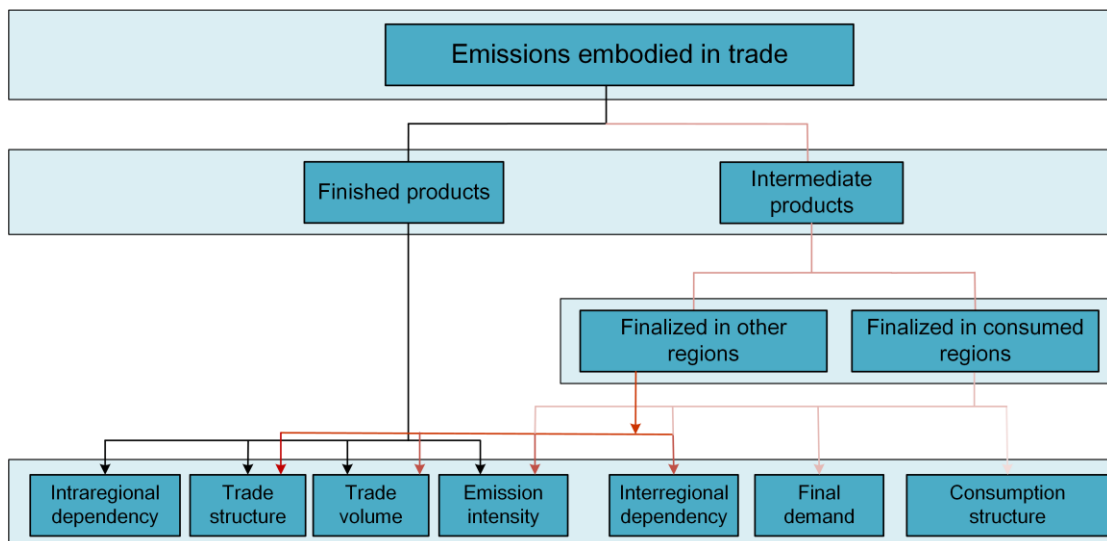
187 Notes: \mathbf{L} – Leontief inverse matrix, in which the element l_{11}^{rs} captures both the direct and
188 indirect inputs from sector 1 in region r to satisfy one unit of final demand in sector 1 in region
189 s ; \mathbf{y} – final demand (MRIO); \mathbf{q} – direct carbon emissions.

190

191 MRIO attributes the emissions associated with consumed goods to the original
192 sources of the emissions (Davis and Caldeira 2010b). Focusing on the role of different
193 trade patterns on the change in EEIT, we first split EEIT between regions (e.g., from r to s)
194 into three parts (Figure 1). Here, $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin)$ refers to the emissions embodied in the
195 products finalised in region r and imported by region s (i.e., the final demand). Note
196 that region r is the final producer, and these final products are directly used by region
197 s and do not enter any further production stages. $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int)$ refers to the emissions
198 embodied in the intermediate products exported by region r to other regions for further
199 production and finally consumed in region s . Region r is part of a supply chain, rather
200 than the final producer. According to the destination of the final producer in the supply
201 chain, $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int)$ can be further divided into $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D)$ and $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M)$. $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D)$
202 represents the emissions released in region r induced by products finalised in region s
203 and consumed in region s . $\mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M)$ represents the emissions released in region r
204 induced by products finalised in region k ($k=1,2, \dots, m$ and $k \neq r, s$) but consumed in
205 region s . Isolating the three parts of the EEIT allows us to assess the roles of
206 intermediate and final products in driving the EEIT.

207

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209

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Figure 2. Schematic of MRIO-based structural decomposition models in this study.

211

212 This study divides \mathbf{f}^{rs} into three parts (equation (5) and equation (6)) to study the
 213 emissions embodied in different production processes.

$$214 \quad \mathbf{f}^{rs} = \mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin) + \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int) = \mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin) + \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D) + \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M) \quad (4)$$

$$215 \quad \mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin) = \hat{\mathbf{e}}^r \mathbf{L}^{rr} \mathbf{y}^{rs} \quad (5)$$

$$216 \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int) &= \sum_i \sum_i \sum_{k \neq r} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rk} \mathbf{y}^{ks} \\ &= \sum_i \sum_i \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{re} \mathbf{y}^{ss} + \sum_i \sum_i \sum_{k \neq r, s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rk} \mathbf{y}^{ks} \\ &= \mathbf{f}^{ab}(int-D) + \mathbf{f}^{ab}(int-M) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

217 where \mathbf{L}^{rk} represents both the direct and indirect inputs from region r to satisfy one unit
 218 of final demand in region k ; \mathbf{L}^{rr} represents the local part of the supply chain, reflecting
 219 the intraregional dependency. As shown in Figure 1, to split the \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{Y} , we keep the
 220 values for the shaded elements in the matrix but make all other elements zero. The split of
 221 \mathbf{e} , \mathbf{L} and \mathbf{Y} changes the value of matrix rather than size of matrix.

222 The three parts of EEIT are decomposed separately as below:

223

$$224 \quad \mathbf{f}^{rs}(fin) = \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rr} \mathbf{T}_j^{rs} \mathbf{m}_j^{rs} \quad (7)$$

$$225 \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int) &= \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rs} \mathbf{C}_j^{ss} \mathbf{y}_j^{ss} + \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r, s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rk} \mathbf{T}_j^{ks} \mathbf{m}_j^{ks} \\ &= \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-D) + \mathbf{f}^{rs}(int-M) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

226 where \mathbf{T}_j^{rs} is the share of the exports of products in sector j in region s that are
 227 imported from region r , representing the trade structure (which includes only traded
 228 finished goods unless otherwise noted); \mathbf{m}_j^{rs} represent the import volume (final
 229 demand) for products in sector j in region s from region k ; \mathbf{C}_j^{ss} is the share of the
 230 final demand in region b for products in sector j in region k , representing the
 231 consumption structure (Figure 2). \mathbf{T}_j^{rs} and \mathbf{m}_j^{rs} characterize the final products that are
 232 directly imported from region r by region s (\mathbf{y}^{rs}). \mathbf{T}_j^{ks} and \mathbf{m}_j^{ks} characterize the final
 233 products imported from region k by region s (\mathbf{y}^{ks}) that also induce emissions in region
 234 r .

235 Thus, the growth in the emission transfers between two regions in two points in
236 time (indicated by the subscripts 0 and 1) can be expressed as $\Delta \mathbf{f}^{rs} = \mathbf{f}_1^{rs} - \mathbf{f}_0^{rs}$.
237 However, a unique solution for the decomposition is not available (Dietzenbacher and
238 Los 1998; Guan et al. 2014b; Peters et al. 2007; Hoekstra and Van den Bergh 2003).
239 For a case including m factors, the number of possible complete decompositions
240 without any residual terms is $m!$ (Dietzenbacher and Los 1998). We follow the methods
241 used in previous studies and use the average of the so-called polar decompositions to
242 approximate the average of all $m!$ decompositions (Dietzenbacher and Los 1998; Arto
243 and Dietzenbacher 2014). The two polar decompositions ($\Delta \mathbf{f}_\delta^{rs}$ and $\Delta \mathbf{f}_\beta^{rs}$) are as
244 follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{f}_\delta^{rs} (fin) &= \sum_i \sum_j (\Delta \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r) \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rr} \mathbf{T}_{j1}^{rs} \mathbf{m}_1^{rs} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r (\Delta \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rr}) \mathbf{T}_{j1}^{rs} \mathbf{m}_1^{rs} \\ &+ \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rr} (\Delta \mathbf{T}_j^{rs}) \mathbf{m}_1^{rs} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rr} \mathbf{T}_{j0}^{rs} (\Delta \mathbf{m}^{rs}) \\ &= \Delta \mathbf{E}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{P}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{T}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{M}_\delta \end{aligned} \quad (9a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{f}_\delta^{rs} (int-D) &= \sum_i \sum_j (\Delta \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r) \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rs} \mathbf{C}_{j1}^{ss} \mathbf{y}_1^{ss} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r (\Delta \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rs}) \mathbf{C}_{j1}^{ss} \mathbf{y}_1^{ss} \\ &+ \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rs} (\Delta \mathbf{C}_j^{ss}) \mathbf{y}_1^{ss} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rs} \mathbf{C}_{j0}^{ss} (\Delta \mathbf{y}^{ss}) \\ &= \Delta \mathbf{E}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{S}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{C}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{Y}_\delta \end{aligned} \quad (9b)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{f}_\delta^{rs} (int-M) &= \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} (\Delta \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r) \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rk} \mathbf{T}_{j1}^{ks} \mathbf{m}_1^{ks} + \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r (\Delta \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rk}) \mathbf{T}_{j1}^{ks} \mathbf{m}_1^{ks} \\ &+ \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rk} (\Delta \mathbf{T}_j^{ks}) \mathbf{m}_1^{ks} + \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i0}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rk} \mathbf{T}_{j0}^{ks} (\Delta \mathbf{m}^{ks}) \\ &= \Delta \mathbf{E}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{S}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{T}_\delta + \Delta \mathbf{M}_\delta \end{aligned} \quad (9c)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{f}_\beta^{rs} (fin) &= \sum_i \sum_j (\Delta \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r) \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rr} \mathbf{T}_{j0}^{rs} \mathbf{m}_0^{rs} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r (\Delta \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rr}) \mathbf{T}_{j0}^{rs} \mathbf{m}_0^{rs} \\ &+ \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rr} (\Delta \mathbf{T}_j^{rs}) \mathbf{m}_0^{rs} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rr} \mathbf{T}_{j1}^{rs} (\Delta \mathbf{m}^{rs}) \\ &= \Delta \mathbf{E}_\beta + \Delta \mathbf{P}_\beta + \Delta \mathbf{T}_\beta + \Delta \mathbf{M}_\beta \end{aligned} \quad (10a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{f}_\beta^{rs} (int-D) &= \sum_i \sum_j (\Delta \hat{\mathbf{e}}_i^r) \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rs} \mathbf{C}_{j0}^{ss} \mathbf{y}_0^{ss} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r (\Delta \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rs}) \mathbf{C}_{j0}^{ss} \mathbf{y}_0^{ss} \\ &+ \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rs} (\Delta \mathbf{C}_j^{ss}) \mathbf{y}_0^{ss} + \sum_i \sum_j \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rs} \mathbf{C}_{j1}^{ss} (\Delta \mathbf{y}_0^{ss}) \\ &= \Delta \mathbf{E}_\beta + \Delta \mathbf{S}_\beta + \Delta \mathbf{C}_\beta + \Delta \mathbf{Y}_\beta \end{aligned} \quad (10b)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\beta}^{rs} (int-M) &= \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} (\hat{\Delta \mathbf{e}}_i^r) \mathbf{L}_{ij0}^{rk} \mathbf{T}_{j0}^{ks} \mathbf{m}_0^{ks} + \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r (\Delta \mathbf{L}_{ij}^{rk}) \mathbf{T}_{j0}^{ks} \mathbf{m}_0^{ks} \\
&+ \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rk} (\Delta \mathbf{T}_j^{ks}) \mathbf{m}_0^{ks} + \sum_i \sum_j \sum_{k \neq r,s} \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{i1}^r \mathbf{L}_{ij1}^{rk} \mathbf{T}_{j1}^{ks} (\Delta \mathbf{m}_0^{ks}) \\
&= \Delta \mathbf{E}_{\beta} + \Delta \mathbf{S}_{\beta} + \Delta \mathbf{T}_{\beta} + \Delta \mathbf{M}_{\beta}
\end{aligned} \tag{10c}$$

251 The average of the polar decomposition is determined as follows (Dietzenbacher and
252 Los 1998):

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta \mathbf{f}^{rs} (fin) &= \frac{1}{2} [\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\delta}^{rs} (fin) + \Delta \mathbf{f}_{\beta}^{rs} (fin)] \\
&= \frac{1}{2} (\Delta \mathbf{e}_{\delta} + \Delta \mathbf{e}_{\beta}) + \frac{1}{2} (\Delta \mathbf{S}_{\delta} + \Delta \mathbf{S}_{\beta}) + \frac{1}{2} (\Delta \mathbf{T}_{\delta} + \Delta \mathbf{T}_{\beta}) + \frac{1}{2} (\Delta \mathbf{m}_{\delta} + \Delta \mathbf{m}_{\beta}) \\
&= \Delta \mathbf{E} + \Delta \mathbf{P} + \Delta \mathbf{T} + \Delta \mathbf{M}
\end{aligned} \tag{11a}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\Delta \mathbf{f}^{rs} (int) &= \frac{1}{2} [\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\delta}^{rs} (int-D) + \Delta \mathbf{f}_{\beta}^{rs} (int-D)] + \frac{1}{2} [\Delta \mathbf{f}_{\delta}^{rs} (int-M) + \Delta \mathbf{f}_{\beta}^{rs} (int-M)] \\
&= \Delta \mathbf{E} + \Delta \mathbf{S} + \Delta \mathbf{C} + \Delta \mathbf{Y} + \Delta \mathbf{T} + \Delta \mathbf{M}
\end{aligned} \tag{11b}$$

255 where $\Delta \mathbf{f}^{rs}$ is the growth in emission transfers between two regions from 2007 to
256 2012. This quantity is decomposed into seven determinants:

- 257 (1) $\Delta \mathbf{E}$, the effect of emission intensity change; technological changes or energy mix
258 improvements leading to changes in emissions per unit of output.
- 259 (2) $\Delta \mathbf{P}$, the effect of intraregional dependency, i.e., the inputs required in sector i in
260 region r to produce per unit of output in sector j in region r .
- 261 (3) $\Delta \mathbf{S}$, the effect of interregional dependency (i.e., intermediate trade) change; the
262 inputs required in sector i in region r ($r \neq s$), to produce per unit of output in sector
263 j in region s . A positive effect of $\Delta \mathbf{S}$ on the exports of region r indicates that more
264 products in region r are needed to produce unit output in other regions.
- 265 (4) $\Delta \mathbf{T}$, the effect of trade structure change (final products); the proportion of (final)
266 products produced in sector j exported from region r to region s in the (final) total
267 trade volume from r to region s . The trade structure in equation (11a) and (11b)
268 characterize different parts of trade.
- 269 (5) $\Delta \mathbf{M}$, the effect of trade volume change (final products); the trade volume of final
270 products from region r to region s . Unless stated otherwise, the trade volume
271 and trade structure reported hereinafter correspond only to finished products for
272 final consumption and do not include trade in intermediate goods that are used
273 in further production stages. The trade volume in equation (11a) and (11b)
274 characterize different parts of trade.
- 275 (6) $\Delta \mathbf{C}$, the effect of consumption structure change; the proportion of the final
276 demand for products in sector j in region s .
- 277 (7) $\Delta \mathbf{Y}$, the effect of local consumption change, we further split the consumption to
278 household consumption, government consumption and capital investment.

3.3 Data sources

The underlying data in this case study implementing the framework includes data for 26 provinces and 4 cities (30 regions in total). A multiregional input-output table (MRIOT) for China in 2007 was compiled by Liu et al. (2012) and has been widely used in previous studies (Li et al. 2016; Feng et al. 2013; Feng et al. 2014; Shao et al. 2016; Chen and Chen 2016). The 2012 input-output tables (IOTs) for each of the 30 provinces of China except Tibet were compiled and published by the Chinese National Statistics Bureau. The 42 industrial sectors in the official 2012 IOTs are aggregated into 30 sectors (Table S1 in Supporting Information) to maintain consistency with the 2007 MRIOT. We then link the Chinese MRIOT to global MRIO models which are derived from version 9 of the GTAP database (Aguiar et al. 2016). This linked table has been compiled built in our previous paper—this paper does not repeat the details here (Mi et al. 2017b). To improve the clarity of the analysis, the results for the 30 regions are aggregated into 8 regions (Table S2). We adopt the same method used in Liu et al. (2012) to derive the MRIOT for 2012 (Mi et al., 2017); details of this procedure are given in previous studies (Feng et al. 2013; Liu et al. 2012; Mi et al. 2017b). The MRIO table is publicly available online (<http://www.ceads.net/data/input-output-tables/>). To remove the impact of inflation on the monetary output, we use the producer price index (PPI) from the National Account Main Aggregates Database to convert the 2012 table, adjusting all of the monetary data based on prices in 2005 to provide a consistent analysis.

Since the Chinese government does not publish annual CO₂ emissions inventories, we estimate sectoral CO₂ emissions of the 30 provinces based on China's provincial energy statistics and the IPCC territorial emissions accounting approach (Shan et al. 2016; Shan et al. 2017; Guan et al. 2018). All of the emissions data we use to construct the dependent variable of EEIT are freely available from the China Emission Accounts and Datasets (CEADs; <http://www.ceads.net/>). The CO₂ emissions for all other regions are from GTAP database (Narayanan et al. 2015).

4. Results

4.1 Changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade

We find that while emissions embodied in interprovincial trade witnessed a slight increase from 2007 to 2012, the pattern of EEIT flows within China changed dramatically. In 2007, 35.9% or 2211 Mt (million tons) of CO₂ emissions resulting from fossil fuel combustion were generated during the production of goods or services that were ultimately consumed in other provinces in China. Further, 24.2% or 1491 Mt were related to the products finally consumed by foreign countries. The dominant feature

314 from the 2007 analysis is that the final consumption in Beijing-Tianjin, the Central
 315 Coast region, and the South Coast region relies on emissions generated in less
 316 developed regions in China through the imports of large amounts of products (Figure
 317 3) (Feng et al. 2013; Mi et al. 2017b). In 2012, the emissions embodied in
 318 interprovincial trade and international trade grew up to 2879 Mt, but accounted for a
 319 smaller share of national emissions (34.0% vs. 35.9% in 2007). In contrast, the
 320 emissions embodied in international trade declined to 1384 Mt (16.4% vs. 24.2% in
 321 2007).

322 The interprovincial emissions flow in China also changed dramatically from 2007
 323 to 2012. The net emissions outflow equals to the emissions embodied in exports (EEE)
 324 less the emissions embodied in imports (EEI). The net emissions outflow in Shanghai
 325 and Zhejiang increased from -106 and -118 Mt to -9 Mt and -65 Mt, respectively (Figure
 326 S1). As shown in Table 1, among the top 10 largest net emissions flow, five of them
 327 relate to the emissions imported by Central Coast in 2007, while that is only one in
 328 2012. The dominant feature is that net exported emissions from Central and Northern
 329 regions to Shanghai and Zhejiang declined substantially.

330 The net emission outflow between the Northern and Central regions increased
 331 substantially. In contrast, the Southwestern and South Coast regions tended to
 332 outsource larger amounts of emissions to Jiangsu and Inner Mongolia (Figure S1).
 333 The net emission outflow from Hebei to Henan, from Anhui to Jiangxi, and from Hebei
 334 to Shandong increased from 1.5 Mt, 2.4 Mt and 3.8 Mt to 15.9 Mt, 14.9 Mt and 15.1 Mt,
 335 respectively. Surprisingly, Henan ceased to be a net exporter and became a net
 336 importer; its net exported emissions decreased by 83 Mt. To explain the change of
 337 emission flows, we decompose the changes into several factors.

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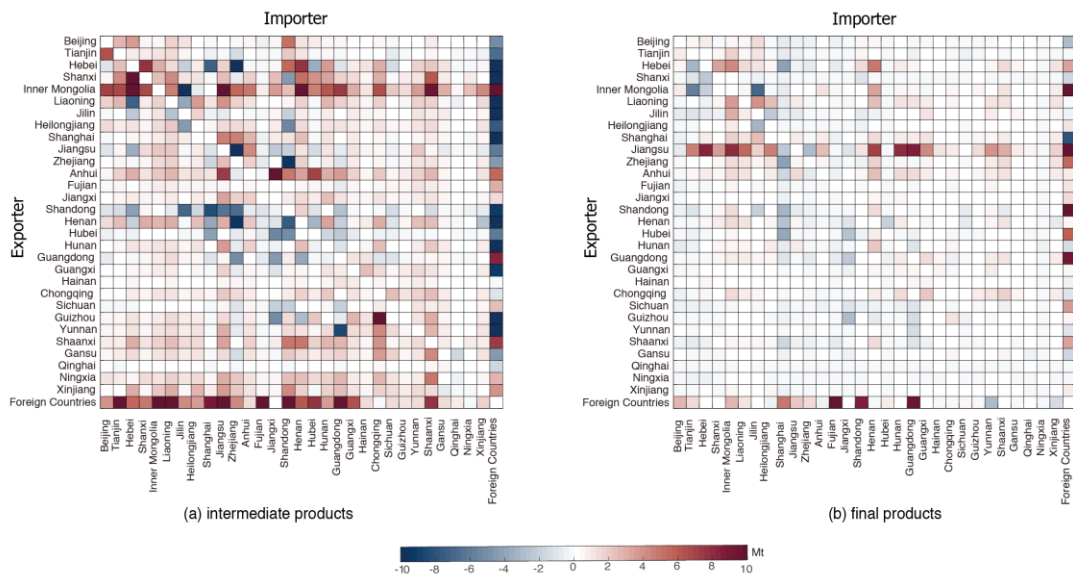
339 **Table 1**

340 Top 10 net emissions flow in 2007 and 2012 (Mt).

2007		2012	
From-To	Top Net Flow (Mt)	From-To	Top Net Flow (Mt)
Inner Mongolia-Jilin	39.7	Inner Mongolia-Shandong	20.2
Hebei-Zhejiang	27.5	Inner Mongolia-Beijing	19.3
Shanxi-Shandong	23.02.9	Shanxi-Shandong	16.5
Inner Mongolia-Shandong	19.3	Hebei-Henan	15.9
Henan-Zhejiang	18.6	Hebei-Shandong	15.1
Hebei-Beijing	18.20	Anhui-Jiangxi	14.9
Jiangsu-Zhejiang	17.4	Hebei-Beijing	13.3
Hebei-Shanghai	15.53	Hebei-Zhejiang	13.0
Hebei-Jiangsu	15.04.9	Inner Mongolia-Henan	12.9
Yunnan-Guangdong	13.1	Guizhou-Chongqing	11.9

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By isolating the trade patterns, the reversing interprovincial flows are mainly attributed to change in traded intermediate products. Totally, 82% (553 Mt) of the changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade are because of intermediate products. For the Central Coast region, emissions embodied in intermediate products in 2007 were closely related to final consumption in Shanghai (103 Mt) and Zhejiang (172 Mt), which declined to 679 Mt and 1317 Mt in 2012, respectively. The largest decreases were associated with the intermediate products exported by Shandong, Hebei and Henan (Figure 3a). In contrast, the southwestern and South Coast regions generally outsourced larger amounts of emissions to Jiangsu and Inner Mongolia (Figure 3 and Supporting Data). The emissions related to the production of intermediate exports in Inner Mongolia and Anhui increased from 164 Mt and 53 Mt in 2007 to 349 Mt and 155 Mt in 2012. More than half of the change in emissions embodied in finished products related to Jiangsu's exports, which increased from 38 Mt in 2007 to 110 Mt in 2012. For the emissions embodied in international trade, the rapid decline in emissions embodied in intermediate trade (-184.8 Mt) outpaced the increase in final trade (74.4 Mt). This indicates the shift of production of intermediate products from north and central regions in China to other countries (Meng et al. 2018). Notably, the emissions embodied in Shanghai's exports of final products also declined from 2007 to 2012.

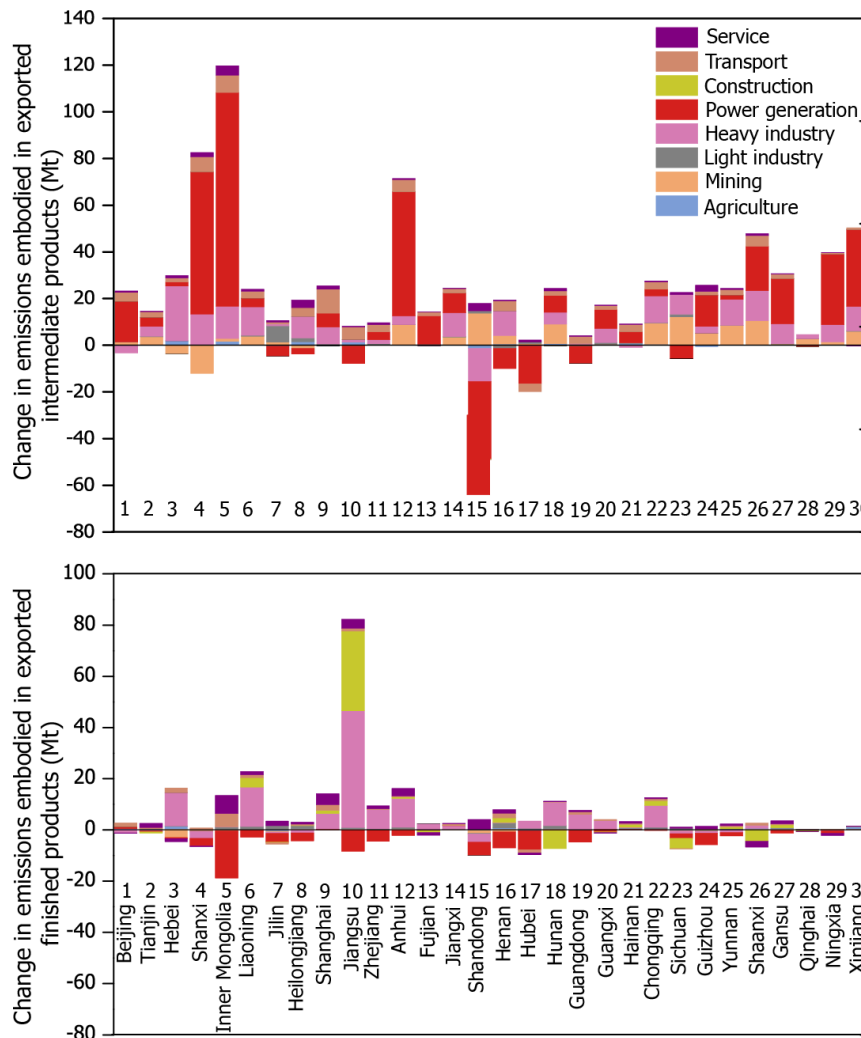


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Figure 3. Changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade between exporters and importers. (a) Changes in emissions embodied in intermediate products; (b) changes in emissions embodied in final products.

Figure 4 shows the sectoral contributions to reversing flows between provinces

367 within China. Electricity was one of the essential inputs for many industries. Changes
 368 in emissions related to intermediate trade were mainly attributed to power generation
 369 (Figure 4a). For example, 86.4%, 76.4% and 74.4% of the increase in emissions
 370 embodied in intermediate exports from Shanxi, Inner Mongolia and Anhui occurred in
 371 power generation sector. By contrast, majority of the change in emissions embodied
 372 in finished goods related to heavy industry, such as equipment and machinery.
 373 Moreover, 40% of the total increase in emissions embodied in exported finished
 374 products were in Jiangsu, because of the substantial increase in exported products in
 375 heavy industries and construction (Figure 4).
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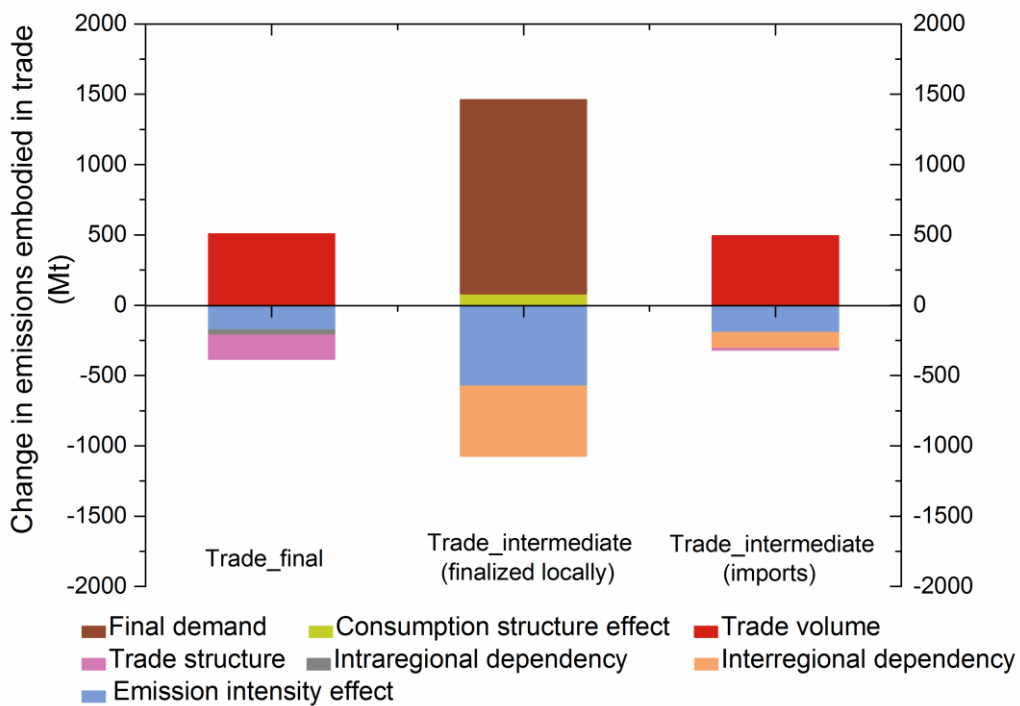


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 380 **Figure 4. Changes in emissions embodied in exported intermediate products (a) and**
 381 **finished products (b) to other provinces by sector.**
 382

383 **4.2 Socioeconomic contributions to Changes in regional exported**
 384 **emission**

385 The rising final demands for local finalised products had greater effect than
 386 imported products on the increase in emissions embodied in trade (Figure 5), which
 387 contributed 1379 Mt and 1000 Mt, respectively, if other factors were constant. The
 388 negative effect of interregional dependency change indicated that the fragmented
 389 production has upgraded or transferred to the regions with lower emission intensities.
 390 Overall, growth in the EEIT was mainly driven by increasing final demand and trade in
 391 final products and was partly offset by improvements in emission intensity.

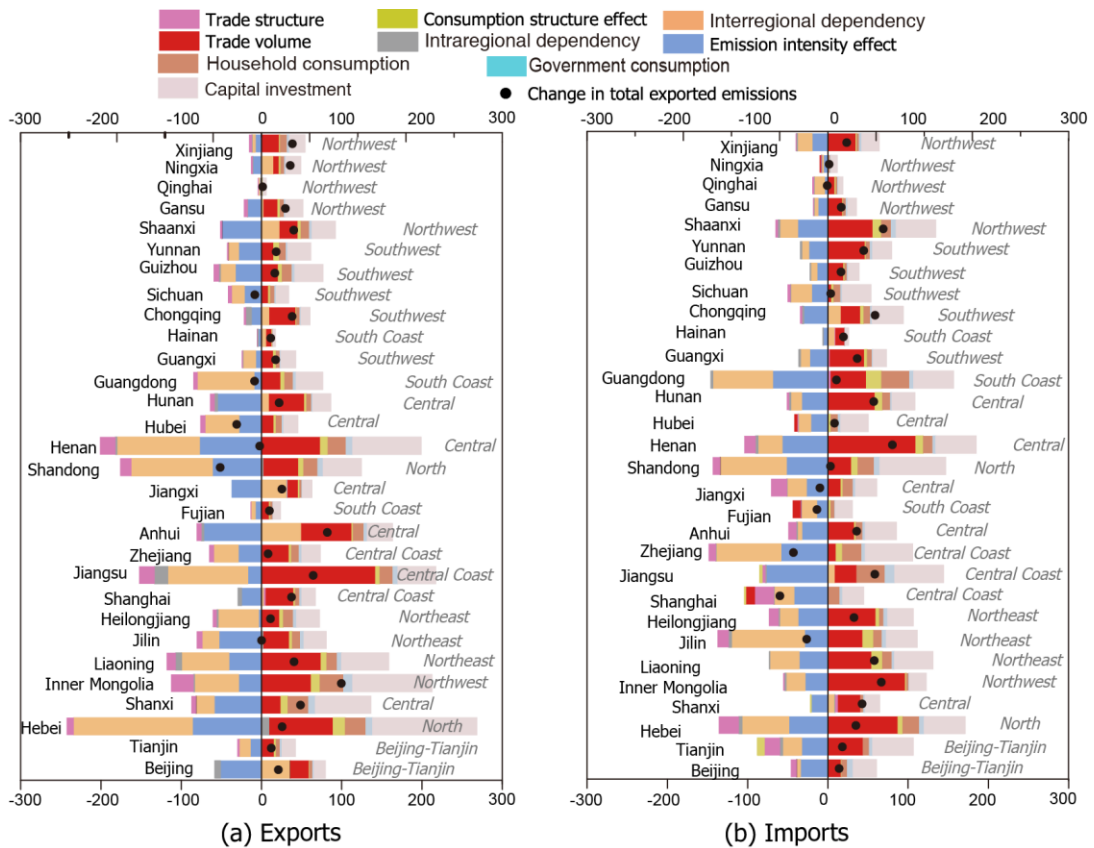
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 395 **Figure 5. Contributions to changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade in**
 396 **China (Mt).**

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 398 Regionally, the socioeconomic drivers exerted different effects across regions.
 399 Figure 6 shows the contribution of each factor to the changes in emissions embodied
 400 in exports (a) and imports (b). Inner Mongolia, Anhui, and Jiangsu witnessed the
 401 largest increases in emissions embodied in exports, but these increases occurred as
 402 a result of different driving forces. Rising local demand in other provinces (especially
 403 capital investment) caused an increase in CO₂ emissions of 98 Mt (98.5%) in Inner
 404 Mongolia if other factors were constant. This increase occurred primarily in the power

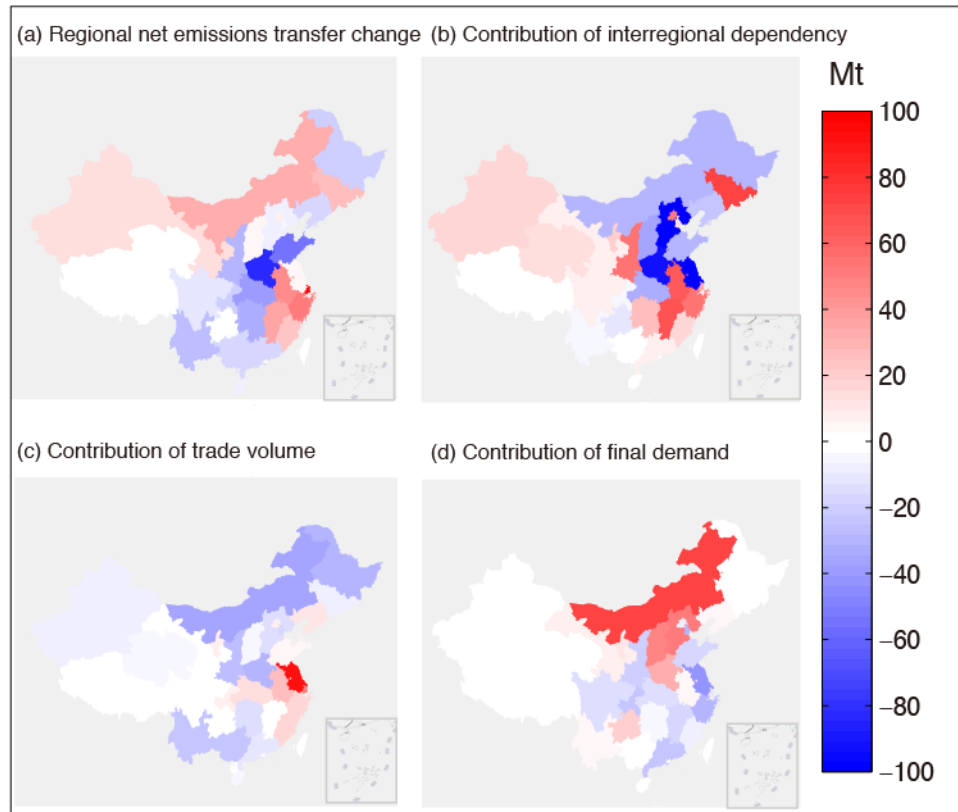
405 generation sector (Figure 4). The growth in exported emissions in Anhui is attributed
 406 to changes in interregional dependency (49.6 Mt), trade volumes (63.1 Mt) and final
 407 demand (49.1 Mt). In contrast, changes in trade volume (142.2 Mt) were the main
 408 driver of the increase in exported emissions from Jiangsu (Figure 6a). Shandong
 409 province, which is traditionally an exporter, witnessed the largest decrease in exported
 410 emissions, due to the negative effects of improvements in emissions intensity and
 411 changes in interregional dependency. The emissions embodied in the imports of
 412 Central and Northwest regions have considerable increase, because of the growth in
 413 trade volume, final demand and consumption structure. For example, increasing final
 414 demand contributed to 869.5, 68 and 24 Mt to increase in imported emissions in Henan,
 415 Shaanxi and Inner Mongolia, respectively. The contributions of consumption structure
 416 change were also noticeable. Notably, the contribution of capital investment to
 417 emissions embodied in trade in in North (Hebei, Shandong) and Central regions
 418 (Henan) is larger than developed regions (Beijing, Shanghai), which indicates a faster
 419 expansion of capital investment. Moreover, the residents in the Central Coast region
 420 (Shanghai and Jiangsu) tend to have low-carbon lifestyles, and the consumption
 421 structure effect contributed to the reductions in emissions embodied in imports (Figure
 422 6b).
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426 **Figure 6. Contribution of each factor to the changes in emissions embodied in**
427 **interprovincial exports (a) and imports (b).**

428 Note: trade volume and trade structure represent traded final products.

429



430

431 **Figure 7. Regional net emissions outflow (a) and the contribution of interregional**
432 **dependency change (b), trade volume change (c) and final demand change (d) (Unit: Mt).**

433

434 Figure 7 shows the total net emissions outflow change, and contributions of the
435 interregional dependency effect, trade volume effect and local demand effect. The
436 decrease in net emissions outflow in Central and Southwest were mainly attributed to
437 the change in interregional dependency, which in contrast drove the increase in South
438 coast. For example, the interregional dependency change contributed 66.2 Mt, 49 Mt
439 and 46.9 Mt to the increase in net emissions transfer in Jilin, Jiangxi and Anhui, and
440 reduced 103.1 Mt, 83 Mt and 69 Mt in Jiangsu, Hebei and Henan, respectively. The
441 substantial contribution of final demand change to Shanxi and Inner Mongolia were
442 because of rapid increase in exported electricity, while it was heavy industry (e.g.,
443 metal) in Hebei.

444 **5. Conclusions and discussion**

445 Knowledge of the endowments embodied in interregional trade is becoming
446 increasingly important in a globalised economy. [MRIO that includes the feedback](#)
447 [effects in the inter-regional trade \(Su and Ang, 2011\), has been a widely used method.](#)
448 [Furthermore, identifying](#) the driving forces of changes in the endowments embodied in
449 trade can provide significant help in the development of policies to curb regional and
450 global emissions and/or resource consumption. However, there is still a gap in our
451 quantitative understanding of the role of trade and distinguishing the effects of
452 intermediate and final products in relocating emissions and/or resource consumption.

453 In this paper, we first present a MRIO-based SDA framework for investigating the
454 emissions embodied in the final products traded between pairs of regions and the
455 emissions embodied in intermediate goods that are used in further processing stages.
456 By investigating the socioeconomic contribution to the reversing flows, we divide
457 emissions flow between the original producer and final consumer according to where
458 the products were finalised. The emissions embodied in final products are generated
459 from production of a country's GDP that are used to satisfied final demand of other
460 countries, while the emissions embodied in intermediate products are related to
461 fragmented interregional production processes. Our analysis shows that [82% \(553](#)
462 [Mt\)](#)of the changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade can be attributed to
463 intermediate products. The decomposition of emissions embodied in intermediate
464 trade can reveal the driving forces of the change in interregional supply chain related
465 emissions. The results in this study shed light on the following aspects.

466 First, the emissions flow among less developed regions will be new drivers in China.
467 The emissions outsourced from the Central to Central Coast regions tend to decline
468 and the consumption structure also offset part of the outsourced emissions. In contrast,
469 the faster expansion of capital investment, household consumption and import volume
470 in Henan, Shaanxi and Inner Mongolia have resulted in large increases in the
471 emissions embodied in imports for those provinces. Moreover, Henan has ceased to
472 be a net exporter and has become a net importer. This is because of the small catch-
473 up of economic development in less developed regions in China. Poverty eradication
474 is fairly carbon-intensive due to a larger carbon-footprint elasticity of consumption,
475 strongly driving local emissions as well as imported emissions (Wiedenhofer et al. 2017;
476 Hubacek et al. 2017).

477 Second, a slight shift of production activities from Central and North regions
478 (together with the CO₂ emissions) relieved the pressures of emission reduction in
479 China. The change in interregional dependency have driven increasing emission

480 outflow via China's interprovincial trade from southern and western provinces, where
481 the energy resources are richer and production efficiencies are lower. The exported
482 emissions are mainly embodied in exported intermediate products. Moreover, the
483 intraregional dependency has changed slightly in 2012 and contributed to the reduction
484 in EEIT.

485 Third, Central Coastal regions are still located in the downstream of the supply
486 chain. The growth of emissions embodied in the final products, contributes to the
487 increase in exported emissions from Central Coast regions. The exported emissions
488 are embodied in their finished products and imported emissions are mainly embodied
489 in intermediate products finalised locally. The Central Coastal regions use imported
490 intermediate products to produce and finalized products which are exported to other
491 regions. The emission embodied in China's total exports to other regions via
492 international trade has peaked after the global financial crisis, but further efforts on
493 emissions embodied in interprovincial trade are needed. Thus, improving emission
494 intensity in central and western regions or gradually upgrading the supply chain is
495 crucial in reducing the CO₂ relocation and total emissions in China.

496

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503 **Disclosure statement**

504 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

505

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