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# 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions outsourced by central coastal regions and drove the traded embodied CO<sub>2</sub> 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; CO<sub>2</sub>; Trade; intermediate products

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# 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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

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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 CO<sub>2</sub>  
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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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.

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## 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), CO<sub>2</sub>  
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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub>  
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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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

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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 CO<sub>2</sub> flows embodied in international trade from  
122 1995 to 2009. The novelty of this latter study is that it evaluates the CO<sub>2</sub> 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 (CO<sub>2</sub>/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.

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### 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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

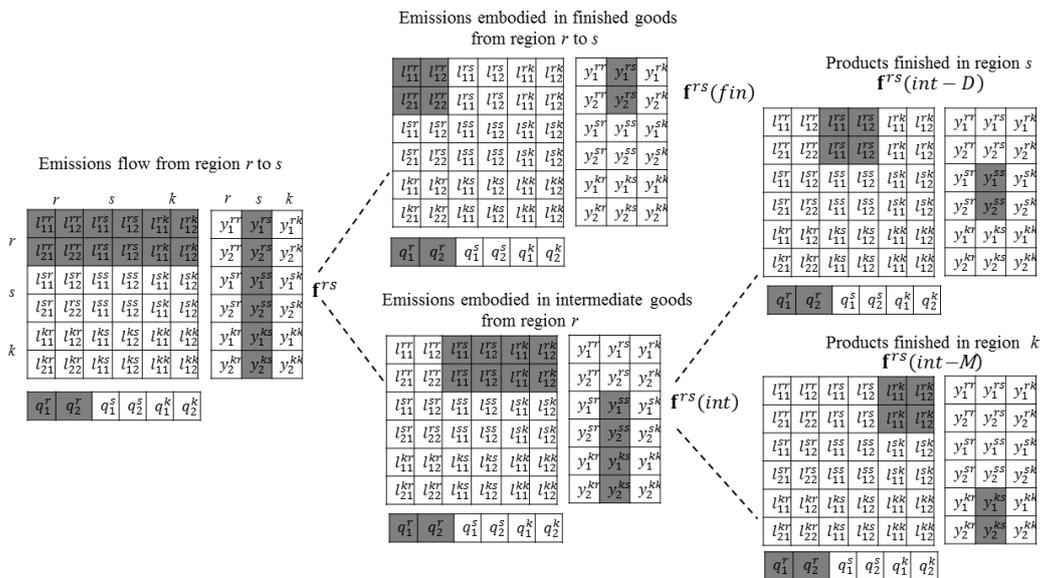
168 matrix, which captures both the direct and indirect inputs required to satisfy one unit of  
 169 final demand in terms of monetary value.  $g$  is the total number of the sectors in the  
 170 focused economies ( $m$  regions and  $n$  sectors in each region).  $\mathbf{L}^{rs}$  is a  $n \times n$  matrix. This  
 171 study aims to provide a framework to analyse the drivers of the changes in EIT and  
 172 focuses on interprovincial trade only.  $\mathbf{Y}$  is a  $g \times m$  final demand matrix. Using this  
 173 framework, CO<sub>2</sub> 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 CO<sub>2</sub> 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**

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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.

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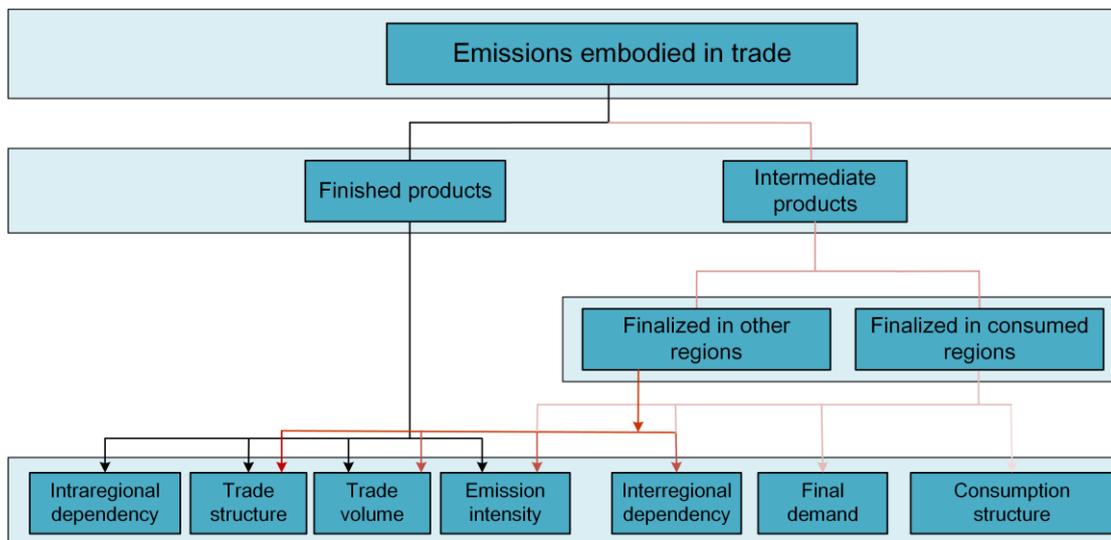
187 Notes:  $\mathbf{L}$  – Leontief inverse matrix, in which the element  $l_{11}^{rs}$  captures both the direct and  
188 indirect inputs from sector 1 in region  $r$  to satisfy one unit of final demand in sector 1 in region  
189  $s$ ;  $\mathbf{y}$  – final demand (MRIO);  $\mathbf{q}$  – direct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

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

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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:

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

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

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

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

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

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

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.

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### 3.3 Data sources

280 The underlying data in this case study implementing the framework includes data for  
281 26 provinces and 4 cities (30 regions in total). A multiregional input-output table (MRIOT)  
282 for China in 2007 was compiled by Liu et al. (2012) and has been widely used in previous  
283 studies (Li et al. 2016; Feng et al. 2013; Feng et al. 2014; Shao et al. 2016; Chen and Chen  
284 2016). The 2012 input-output tables (IOTs) for each of the 30 provinces of China except  
285 Tibet were compiled and published by the Chinese National Statistics Bureau. The 42  
286 industrial sectors in the official 2012 IOTs are aggregated into 30 sectors (Table S1 in  
287 Supporting Information) to maintain consistency with the 2007 MRIOT. We then link the  
288 Chinese MRIOT to global MRIO models which are derived from version 9 of the GTAP  
289 database (Aguiar et al. 2016). This linked table has been compiled built in our previous  
290 paper—this paper does not repeat the details here (Mi et al. 2017b). To improve the clarity  
291 of the analysis, the results for the 30 regions are aggregated into 8 regions (Table S2).  
292 We adopt the same method used in Liu et al. (2012) to derive the MRIOT for 2012 (Mi et  
293 al., 2017); details of this procedure are given in previous studies (Feng et al. 2013; Liu et  
294 al. 2012; Mi et al. 2017b). The MRIO table is publicly available online  
295 (<http://www.ceads.net/data/input-output-tables/>). To remove the impact of inflation on the  
296 monetary output, we use the producer price index (PPI) from the National Account  
297 Main Aggregates Database to convert the 2012 table, adjusting all of the monetary  
298 data based on prices in 2005 to provide a consistent analysis.

299 Since the Chinese government does not publish annual CO<sub>2</sub> emissions inventories,  
300 we estimate sectoral CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of the 30 provinces based on China's provincial  
301 energy statistics and the IPCC territorial emissions accounting approach (Shan et al.  
302 2016; Shan et al. 2017; Guan et al. 2018). All of the emissions data we use to construct  
303 the dependent variable of EEIT are freely available from the China Emission Accounts  
304 and Datasets (CEADs; <http://www.ceads.net/>). The CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for all other regions  
305 are from GTAP database (Narayanan et al. 2015).

## 306 4. Results

### 307 4.1 Changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade

308 We find that while emissions embodied in interprovincial trade witnessed a slight  
309 increase from 2007 to 2012, the pattern of EEIT flows within China changed  
310 dramatically. In 2007, 35.9% or 2211 Mt (million tons) of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions resulting from  
311 fossil fuel combustion were generated during the production of goods or services that  
312 were ultimately consumed in other provinces in China. Further, 24.2% or 1491 Mt were  
313 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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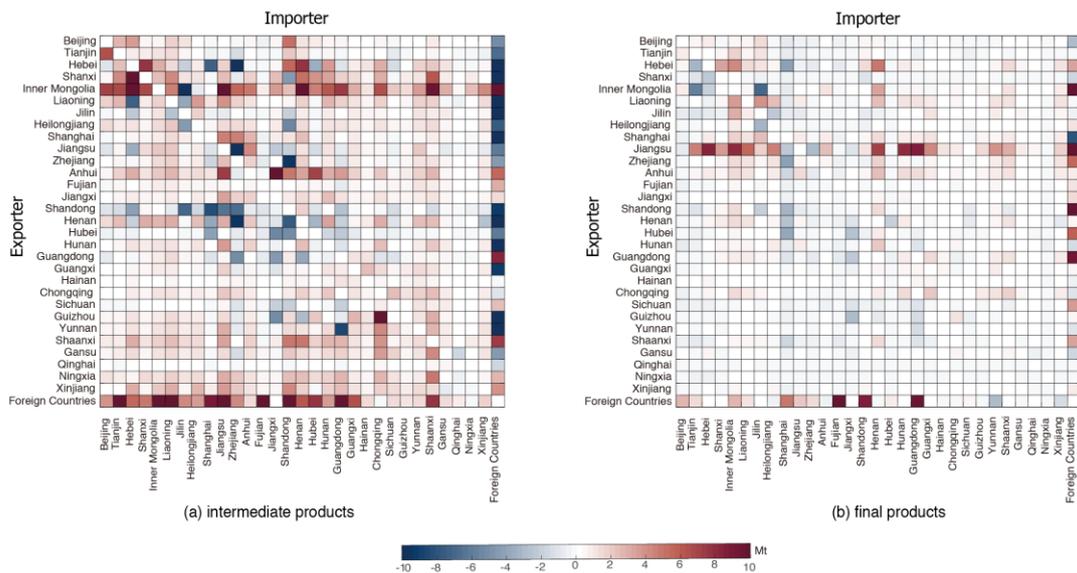
339 **Table 1**

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.

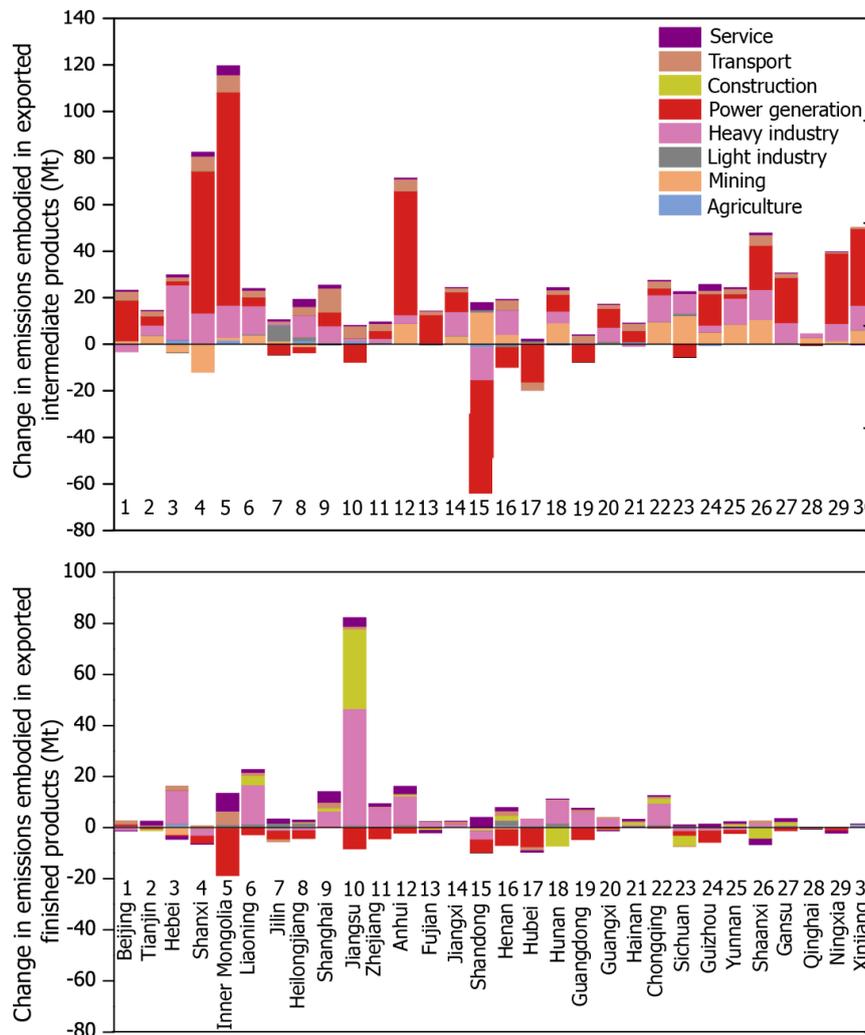


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**Figure 3. Changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade between exporters and importers. (a) Changes in emissions embodied in intermediate products; (b) changes in emissions embodied in final products.**

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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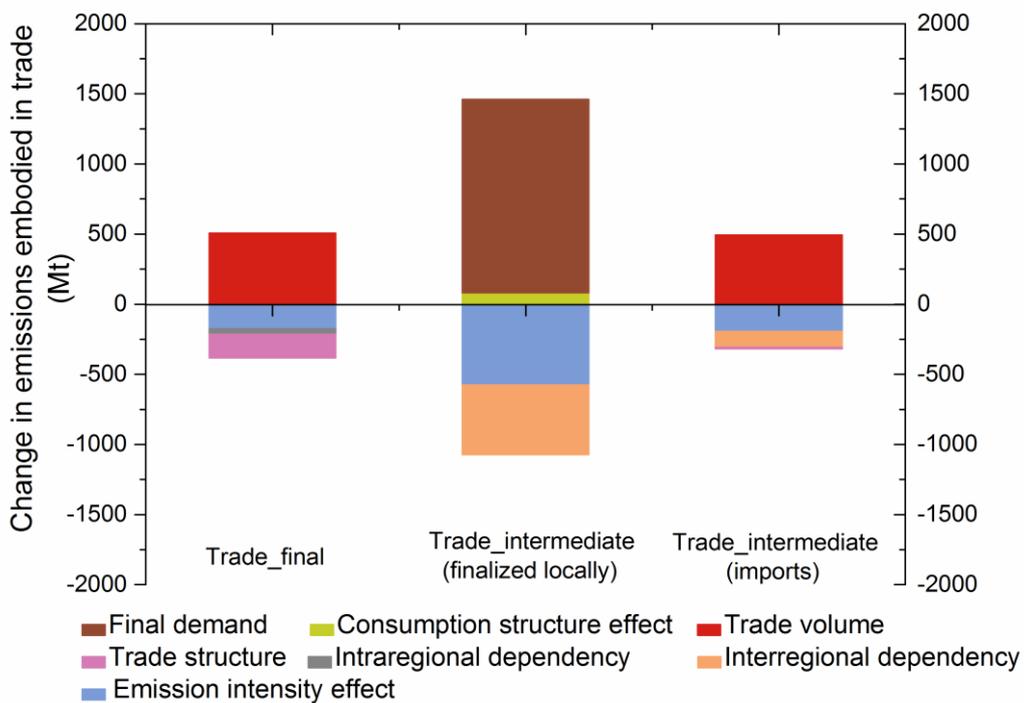


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 380 **Figure 4. Changes in emissions embodied in exported intermediate products (a) and**  
 381 **finished products (b) to other provinces by sector.**  
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383 **4.2 Socioeconomic contributions to 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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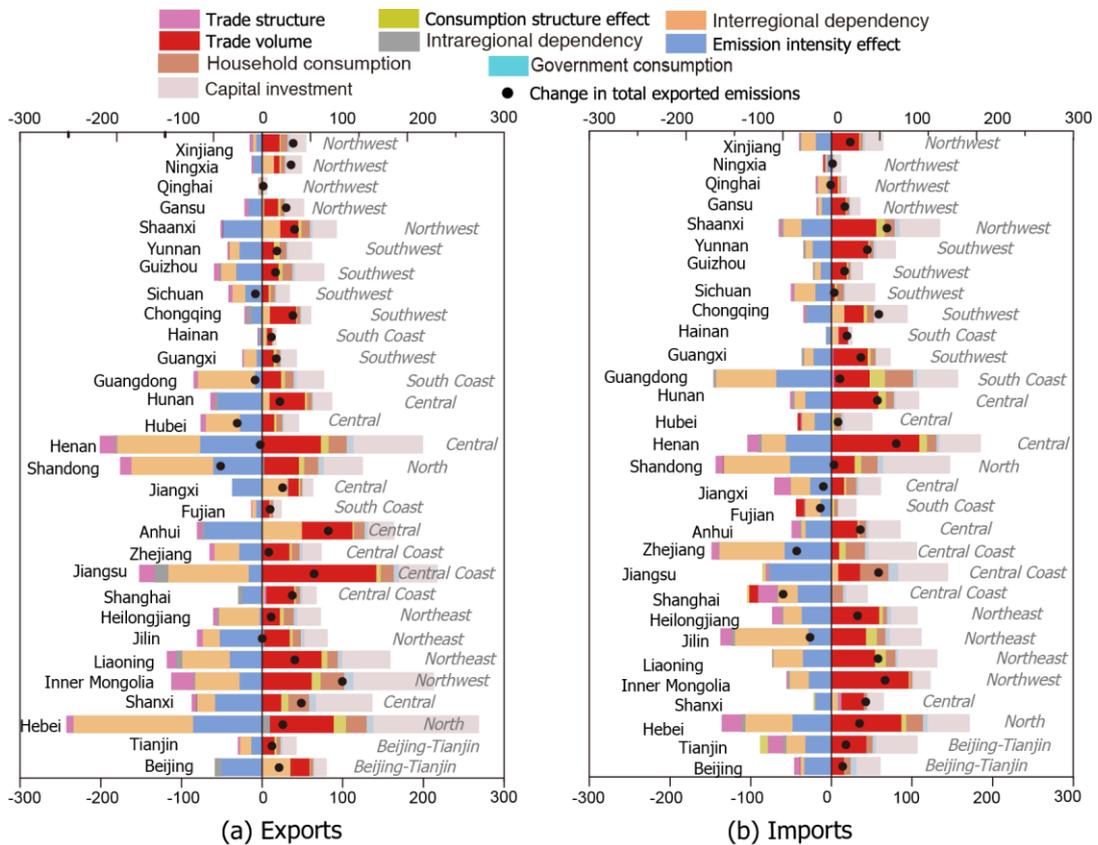


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 395 **Figure 5. Contributions to changes in emissions embodied in interprovincial trade in**  
 396 **China (Mt).**

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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 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of 98 Mt (98.5%) in Inner  
 404 Mongolia if other factors were constant. This increase occurred primarily in the power

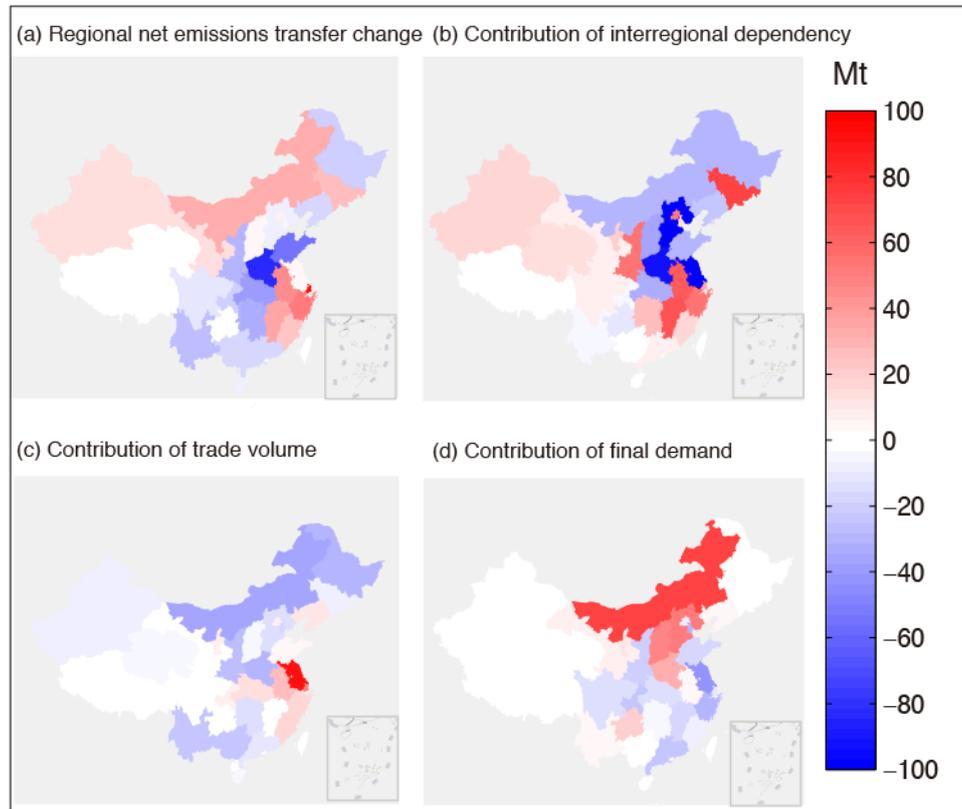
405 generation sector (Figure 4). The growth in exported emissions in Anhui is attributed  
 406 to changes in interregional dependency (49.6 Mt), trade volumes (63.1 Mt) and final  
 407 demand (49.1 Mt). In contrast, changes in trade volume (142.2 Mt) were the main  
 408 driver of the increase in 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.

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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.

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## 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 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions) relieved the pressures of emission reduction in  
479 China. The change in interregional dependency have driven increasing emission

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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 CO<sub>2</sub> relocation and total emissions in China.

496

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

505

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