

1 **Mismatched social welfare allocation and PM<sub>2.5</sub>-related health**  
2 **damage along value chains within China**

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27 **Competing Interest Statement:** The authors declare no competing interests.

28

29 **Abstract**

30 Value chains have played a critical part in growth. However, the fairness of the social  
31 welfare allocation along the value chain is largely under-investigated, especially when  
32 considering the harmful environmental and health effects associated with the production  
33 processes. We used fine-scale profiling to analyze the social welfare allocation along  
34 China's domestic value chain within the context of environmental and health effects and  
35 investigated the underlying mechanisms. Our results suggested that the top 10% regions in  
36 value chain obtained 2.9 times more social income and 2.1 times more job opportunities  
37 than the average with much lower health damage. Further inspection showed a significant  
38 contribution of the "siphon effect": major resource providers suffer the most in terms of  
39 localized health damage along with insufficient social welfare for compensation. We found  
40 that inter-region atmosphere transport results in redistribution for 53% health damages,  
41 which decreases the welfare-damage mismatch at "suffer" regions but also causes serious  
42 health damage to more than half regions and populations in total. Specifically, around 10%  
43 of regions have a lower social welfare and also experienced a significant increase in health  
44 damage caused by atmospheric transport. These results highlighted the necessity of a value  
45 chain-oriented, quantitative compensation-driven policy.

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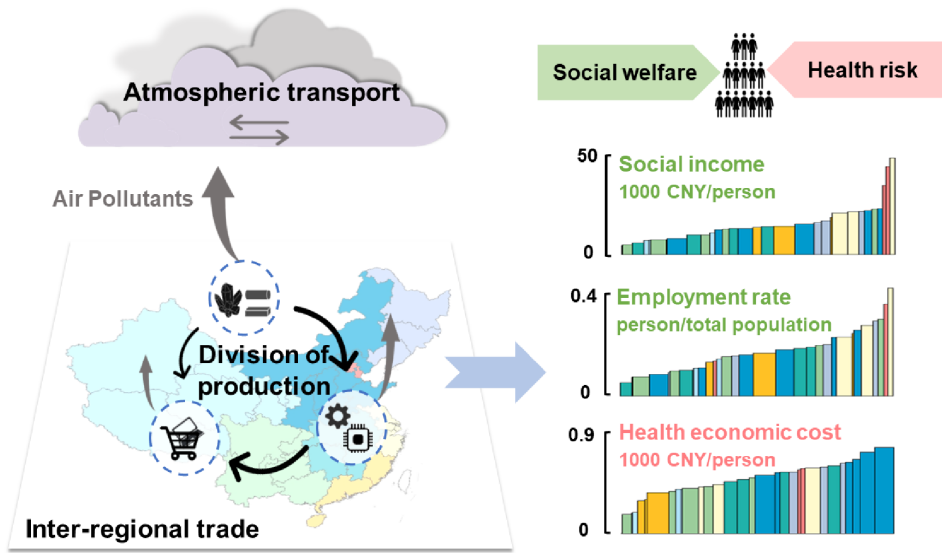
47 **Synopsis**

48 The different value chain roles led to significant mismatches between social welfare gains  
49 and health damage across regions. The mismatches were partially reduced with the effects  
50 of atmospheric transport at the expense of increase in health damage in densely populated  
51 and lower polluted regions.

52

53 **Keywords:** value chain, health damage, social welfare, equity, atmospheric transport.

54



## 57 **1. Introduction**

58 During recent decades, emerging inter-regional trade with the expansion of global  
59 value chains led to an increasingly complex inter-regional production network <sup>1,2</sup>. Entities  
60 at different positions along the value chain provide diversified products and services (i.e.,  
61 raw material and intermediate products for further production, manufacturing, and services  
62 for final products) <sup>3</sup>. It is suggested that participating in value chain promotes social welfare  
63 growth (such as higher salary, more job opportunities, and more public revenue) by  
64 improving the efficiency and quality of production and supply <sup>4,5</sup>; while the social welfare  
65 gains are not allocated evenly among different participants<sup>6</sup>, and varying degree of external  
66 losses (e.g., environmental damage) also occur in various production stages<sup>7</sup>, delivering  
67 the uneven gains and losses allocation along value chain.

68 Previous studies have revealed several common uneven environmental and health  
69 burdens associated with inter-regional trade <sup>8,9</sup>, such as carbon <sup>10,11</sup> and pollutant flows <sup>12,13</sup>  
70 and health damage <sup>14,15</sup> transfer. However, they focused on the flowing between producer  
71 regions and final consumer regions, mostly falling short in modeling the uneven  
72 environmental and health impacts within inter-regional production processes. It leads to  
73 crucial knowledge gap how inequity is emerged in the division of production by  
74 distributing environmental and health burdens among producers for their different  
75 producing activities along the value chain. Meanwhile, previous studies have investigated  
76 the imbalanced environmental burdens and economic gains in the inter-regional trade<sup>16</sup>,  
77 while few have considered the mismatch between welfare gains and health damage, leading  
78 to an incomplete understanding of the real allocations of people-oriented gains and losses  
79 given to the inconsistent spatial distribution of pollution emissions and health damage  
80 owing to atmospheric physicochemical transport process, uneven population density, and  
81 etc.

82 China is a vast country with 31 provincial regions on the mainland. As one of the  
83 countries with the most complete industrial chain, and competitive markets among  
84 provincial regions <sup>17</sup>, China's domestic value chains now have remarkable inter-regional  
85 product and service flows as well as considerable social welfare, environmental pollutant  
86 <sup>16,18</sup>, and health damage flows <sup>19-21</sup>. Under the significant transition towards "common

87 prosperity”, China has a strong motivation to realize the win-win target for the  
88 improvement of people’s social welfare and environmental quality along with reduction of  
89 health burdens<sup>22</sup>.

90 In this study, we aimed to quantify the accompanying features of social welfare gains  
91 and associated health damage for 31 provincial regions along the domestic value chain,  
92 and thus to decode how the inequity occur in division of production. To do so, we chose  
93 China’s mainland in 2017 as a case, and established a comprehensive framework with a  
94 combination of the value chain method, a multi-regional input–output model, and an  
95 extended response surface model with polynomial functions and exposure–response  
96 functions. Compared to widely applied consumption-based accounting, the value chain  
97 approach with more complex mathematical formulas further decomposes the production  
98 network, allowing to trace how the environmental and health burdens, and social welfare  
99 gains allocate among producers who serving as different roles in the inter-regional  
100 industrial chain. The results empirically showed the contribution of the regions’ “value  
101 chain role” and atmospheric transport to the mismatched social welfare gains allocation  
102 and health damage impact, which highlight the necessity of a value-chain-oriented, inter-  
103 regional compensation policy.

104

## 105 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 106 **2.1 Tracing social welfare and air pollutant emissions along the domestic value chain**

107 We used the updated 2017 multi-regional input–output table for 31 provincial regions  
108 in China’s mainland <sup>23</sup> to estimate the social welfare and air pollutants embodied in flows  
109 of products and services through the value chains. Thereinto, social welfare was quantified  
110 by social income and employment; and social income is the sum of compensation of  
111 employees, net taxes on production, and operation surplus, reflecting the income of  
112 residents, enterprises, and government. Air pollutants considered sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>),  
113 nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), volatile organic compounds (VOC), and primary  
114 PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

115 Multi-regional input–output analysis illustrates the linkages among provincial regions  
116 and sectors, and its row balance with G regions can be represented as follows <sup>24</sup>:

117 
$$X = (\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{A})^{-1} Y = \mathbf{B}Y \quad (1)$$

118 where  $X$  represents the total output vector;  $\mathbf{I}$  represents the identity matrix;  $\mathbf{A}$  represents  
 119 the direct consumption coefficient matrix;  $\mathbf{B}$  represents the Leontief inverse matrix;  $Y$   
 120 represents the vector of final demand.

121 To trace the flows of social welfare (social income and employment) and embodied  
 122 pollutants along the value chain, we involved the pollutant emission vector and social  
 123 welfare vector in equation (1):

124 
$$f = \mathbf{F}BY \quad (2)$$

125 where  $F$  is a vector that represents the pollutant emission intensity (i.e., the emission per  
 126 unit of total output), social income per unit of total output, or the number of employed  
 127 persons per unit of total output.

128 Based on equation (2), the pollution emissions, social income, and employment of  
 129 region  $s$  can be decomposed into four parts that correspond to different production links  
 130 and trading paths <sup>25-27</sup>:

131 
$$f_s = F_s L_{ss} y_{ss} + F_s L_{ss} \sum_{r \neq s}^G A_{sr} \sum_t^G B_{rt} y_{ts} + F_s \sum_{r \neq s}^G B_{ss} y_{sr} + F_s \sum_{t \neq s}^G B_{st} \sum_{r \neq s}^G y_{tr} \quad (3)$$

132 where  $F_s$  is a row vector of air pollutant emission intensity, social income per unit of total  
 133 output, or the number of employed persons per unit of the total output of region  $s$ ;  $A_{sr}$  is  
 134 the sub-matrix of  $\mathbf{A}$ , representing the direct consumption coefficient matrix from region  $s$   
 135 to region  $r$ ;  $B_{rt}$ ,  $B_{ss}$ ,  $B_{st}$  are sub-matrixes of  $\mathbf{B}$ ;  $L_{ss} = (\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{A}_{ss})^{-1}$  is the local Leontief inverse  
 136 matrix for region  $s$ , which reflects its internal production structure;  $y_{sr}$  represents the vector  
 137 of final demand in region  $r$  produced by region  $s$ , and  $y_{ss}$ ,  $y_{ts}$ ,  $y_{tr}$  are similar. On the right  
 138 side of the formula, the first term indicates the impact of intra-regional trade, the second  
 139 term denotes the impact embodied in imported products, and the last two terms are the  
 140 impact of region  $s$  exporting final and intermediate products, which are finally absorbed by  
 141 other regions. Note that the latter three terms refer to the impact of inter-regional trade  
 142 along the domestic value chain.

143 We further explored the local and upstream social welfare and air pollutant emissions  
 144 impacts of bilateral trade between region  $s$  and  $r$  within inter-regional trade. Based on  
 145 bilateral trade measures from the perspective of backward industrial linkage<sup>26</sup>, the impact  
 146 of product flows from region  $s$  to region  $r$  can be divided into local and upstream air  
 147 pollution and social welfare impacts:

$$148 \quad EX_{sr} = (F_s B_{ss})^T \odot (Y_{sr}) + (F_s L_{ss})^T \odot (A_{sr} \sum_{t \neq s}^G \sum_{u \neq s}^G B_{rt} Y_{tu}) \quad (4)$$

$$149 \quad FE_{sr} = \sum_{t \neq s}^G (F_t B_{ts})^T \odot (Y_{sr}) + \sum_{t \neq s}^G (F_t B_{ts})^T \odot (A_{sr} L_{rr} Y_{rr}) \quad (5)$$

150 where  $EX_{sr}$  and  $FE_{sr}$  represent the local and upstream impacts respectively. “T” means the  
 151 transpose matrix. The symbol “ $\odot$ ” represents the Hadamard product.

152 The overall impact of product and service flows from region  $s$  to all other regions can  
 153 be calculated based on equations (4) and (5):

$$154 \quad EX_s = \sum_{r \neq s}^G EX_{sr} \quad (6)$$

$$155 \quad FE_s = \sum_{r \neq s}^G FE_{sr} \quad (7)$$

156 where  $EX_s$  and  $FE_s$  represent the local and upstream impacts of the exporting activity of  
 157 region  $s$ .

## 158 2.2 Estimates of PM<sub>2.5</sub>-related mortality and morbidity

159 We used the extended response surface model with polynomial functions (pf-ERSM)  
 160 <sup>28,29</sup> to estimate the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations under different air pollutant emissions. The  
 161 response surface modeling (RSM) technology provides an efficient way to quantify the  
 162 response of air pollutant concentrations to emission changes. It does so by forming a “real-  
 163 time” relationship between the concentrations and precursor emissions based on a large  
 164 number of simulations of chemical transport models. The extended RSM (ERSM) renders  
 165 the model applicable to a much larger number of regions<sup>30,31</sup>. In the pf-ERSM, the  
 166 relationship between the concentrations and precursor emissions is developed by fitting a  
 167 set of polynomial functions, which substantially reduces the computational burden of

168 ERSM<sup>29,32</sup>. A more detailed description of the pf-ERSM has been provided in Ding et al.  
169<sup>29</sup>.

170 To construct the pf-ERSM prediction system for China, we conducted chemical  
171 transport simulations using the Community Multi-scale Air Quality (CMAQ) model  
172 version 5.2 over a domain covering East Asia with a grid spacing of 27 km × 27 km. The  
173 simulation periods were January, April, July, and October in 2017, which represent winter,  
174 spring, summer, and fall. Detailed configurations of the CMAQ model, as well as  
175 evaluation of the simulation results against observational data, have been described in Ding  
176 et al.<sup>33</sup> We performed 755 CMAQ simulations with randomly determined emission rates  
177 for each air pollutant in each province to establish the pf-ERSM system. The response  
178 variables (dependent variables) were annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in each province of  
179 China calculated from an average of the four months. The control factors (independent  
180 variables) were emission rates of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, VOC, and primary PM<sub>2.5</sub> in each  
181 province. In addition, we generated 50 independent scenarios for out-of-sample validation.  
182 We have proved in our previous study<sup>28</sup> that the pf-ERSM predicted PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations  
183 for the 50 scenarios agree well with the corresponding CMAQ simulated values.

184 We used the updated integrated exposure–response functions developed by Cohen et  
185 al.<sup>34</sup> to estimate premature deaths due to PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions<sup>35</sup>. The model considers five  
186 health endpoints: ischemic heart disease, stroke, bronchial and lung cancer, chronic  
187 obstructive pulmonary disease in adults, and lower respiratory tract infections in children  
188 and adults. A log-linear exposure-response function<sup>36,37</sup> was applied to estimate four  
189 health endpoints of morbidity (chronic bronchitis, cardiovascular, asthma attack, and acute  
190 bronchitis). The health damage was estimated by contrasting a specific counterfactual  
191 scenario, where pollutant emissions resulting from trade activity were eliminated, with a  
192 baseline case representing the emission of all pollutants as per usual. In the counterfactual  
193 case, it was assumed that the sector's size contracted, resulting in the cessation of its supply  
194 of intermediate and final products to other regions within the domestic value chain, but the  
195 goods for local use or international export remained.



196 We conducted uncertainty analysis on the parameter estimations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-  
197 related health damage with the Monte Carlo method, and compared the results under  
198 varying baseline PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration setting (5, 10, 15 µg m<sup>-3</sup>)<sup>38-40</sup> (see supporting  
199 information S1.1). For simplicity, the results analysis was shown as averages at 10 µg m<sup>-3</sup>  
200 baseline PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration level.

### 201 **2.3 Measuring the level of regional mismatch in social welfare gains and health** 202 **damage**

203 To better understand the regional imbalances, two indexes, coefficient of variation  
204 (CV) and Gini coefficient, were applied to quantify regional inequity. CV is the standard  
205 deviation divided by the mean, representing the degree of data dispersion. It describes the  
206 gaps of social income, employment opportunities, and health risks. Gini coefficient has  
207 been applied for illustrating the inequality of income distribution<sup>41</sup>. Given that the Gini  
208 coefficient considers population distribution across regions unlike CV, we introduced it to  
209 measure the level of population-weighted regional disparity in social welfare gains and  
210 health damage. The Gini coefficient can be determined by:

$$211 \quad \text{Gini} = \sum_{i \neq 1}^n P_i Y_i + 2 \sum_{i \neq 1}^n P_i (1 - T_i) - 1 \quad (11)$$

212 where  $P_i$  represents population proportion of region  $i$ , and  $Y_i$  and  $T_i$  refers to proportion  
213 and cumulative proportion of social income, employment, health damage for each region.  
214 The Gini coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, meaning from complete equality to complete  
215 inequality. Note that the calculation here can only reflect the level of difference across a  
216 provincial unit, while the income groups, urban-rural disparity, employment of various  
217 ages, genders, and educated level groups are not accounted for, meaning this result may  
218 underestimate the genuine level of inequality in this study.

### 219 **2.4 Data sources**

220 The 2017 multi-regional input-output table of China is compiled by Carbon Emission  
221 Accounts and Datasets (CEADs). The social income, deriving from value added, can also  
222 be obtained from the input-output table<sup>23</sup>. We acquired the number of employees in each

223 sector and provincial regions from the China Statistical Yearbook 2018 <sup>42</sup> and the China  
224 Population & Employment Statistics Yearbook 2018 <sup>43</sup>. The emissions of five air pollutants  
225 in 2017 were obtained from the ABaCAS-EI (Air Benefit and Cost and Attainment  
226 Assessment System Emission Inventory) developed by the School of Environment,  
227 Tsinghua University <sup>35</sup>. Multiple emission sectors are included in the inventory, allowing  
228 to map the emissions to sectors of input-output table, such as agriculture, chemical  
229 industry, metallurgy, nonmetal product, petroleum refining, coking, etc., electricity  
230 production and supply, construction, and, transport and storage, services. For the emissions  
231 from industrial boilers, we allocated it into industrial sectors according to sectoral energy  
232 consumption from CEADs. The detailed method to match the emission inventory with  
233 sectors of input-output table can be referred to previous study<sup>44</sup>. Data on population, aging  
234 structure, gender structure, and coefficients relevant to PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-related mortality  
235 estimation were consistent with previous work <sup>35</sup>. Data on the value of statistical life (VSL)  
236 of China varied. We collected and compared several VSL estimates of China from 14  
237 studies on 23 cases (see Table S3 in supporting information), and the most updated results  
238 <sup>45</sup> were adopted. We also conducted a reliability analysis <sup>46,47</sup> on the time conversion of  
239 VSL; please find it in the Table S5-6 in supporting information.

240

### 241 **3. Results**

#### 242 **3.1 Significant but diverse impact of inter-regional trade on health damage associated** 243 **with PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure and social welfare gains**

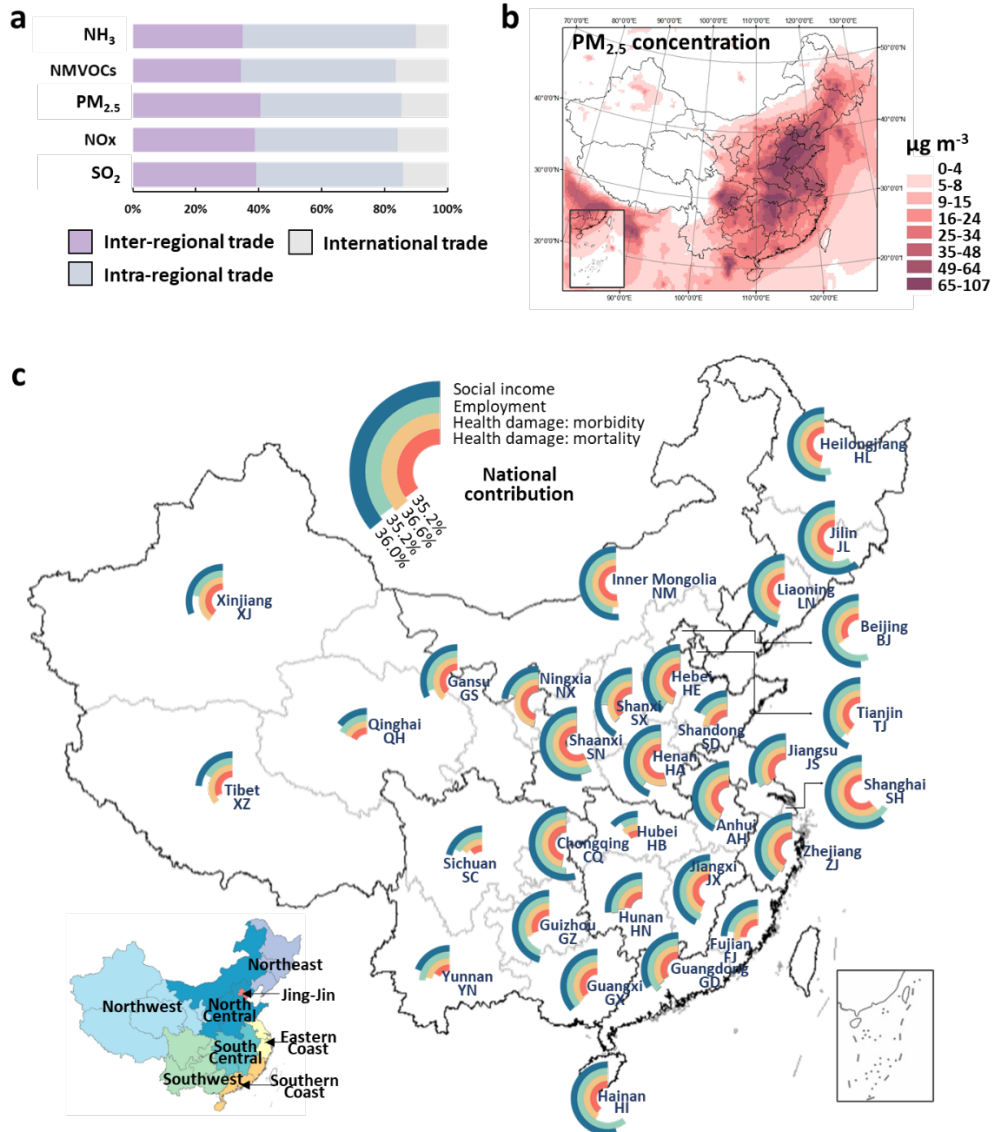
244 Inter-regional trade along the China domestic value chain contributed substantial  
245 impact on air pollutant emissions. In 2017, inter-regional trade triggered 4.1 Million tons  
246 (Mt for short), 7.3 Mt, 2.4 Mt, 7.3 Mt, and 3.2 Mt of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, primary PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NMVOCs,  
247 and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions respectively, contributing 34.3%~40.6% of total air pollutants  
248 emissions of the 31 provincial regions in China's mainland (Figure. 1a). The air quality  
249 level differed across regions, with a higher PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in middle and eastern areas  
250 of China (Figure. 1b). Among all the sources of emissions, inter-regional trade was one  
251 main contributor to the changes of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in various provincial regions. For

252 the 29 provincial regions (except Tibet and Qinghai), the range of maximum inter-regional  
253 trade impact is 2.8~26.8  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration (Figure. S4).

254 The  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration triggered pronounced pollution-related health damage. Inter-  
255 regional trade accounted for 35.2% (168.8 thousand people) of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ -related mortality and  
256 36.6% (9.1 million people) of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ -related morbidity of China's mainland in 2017  
257 (Figure. 1c), leading to a health economic loss of 760.6 billion CNY. The  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  exposure  
258 caused economic loss due to inter-regional trade was equivalent to 23.8% of the total  
259 medical expenditures in 2017. Meanwhile, inter-regional trade also contributed 35.2% of  
260 national employment, 34.8% of national household income, and 39.9% of total tax  
261 revenues (Figure. 1c).

262 The contributions to health damages and social welfare might differ for regions to  
263 participate in inter-regional trade, that some regions suffer damages more from it. Only  
264 one-sixth of regions have a lower  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ -related health damage by more than 30% (per unit  
265 social welfare gains, compared with intra-regional trade) from inter-regional trade.  
266 Meanwhile, interregional trade triggered more  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ -related health damage for 42% of  
267 provincial regions, making up 40.2% of the total population (Figure. 1c). Geographically,  
268 ~70% of the northern provincial regions and ~15% southern provincial regions triggered  
269 higher  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ -related health damage by participating in inter-regional trade (Figure. 1c).

270



271  
 272 **Figure 1. Air pollution, health damage and social welfare induced by participation in**  
 273 **the inter-regional trade in 2017.** a, Contributions of five air pollutant emissions by inter-  
 274 inter-regional trade at the national level. b, PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration distribution in basic scenario in  
 275 2017. c, Contribution to social welfare and health damage by inter-regional trade at the  
 276 national and provincial level. Provincial names and their abbreviations are labeled beside  
 277 doughnut charts. Provincial regions are classified into eight zones as shown in the bottom  
 278 left. Participation in inter-regional trade triggered more health damage to get to equal social

279 welfare in comparison to intra-regional trade when the contributions to health damage  
280 (yellow and red in doughnut chart) were higher than that to social welfare (blue and green).

281

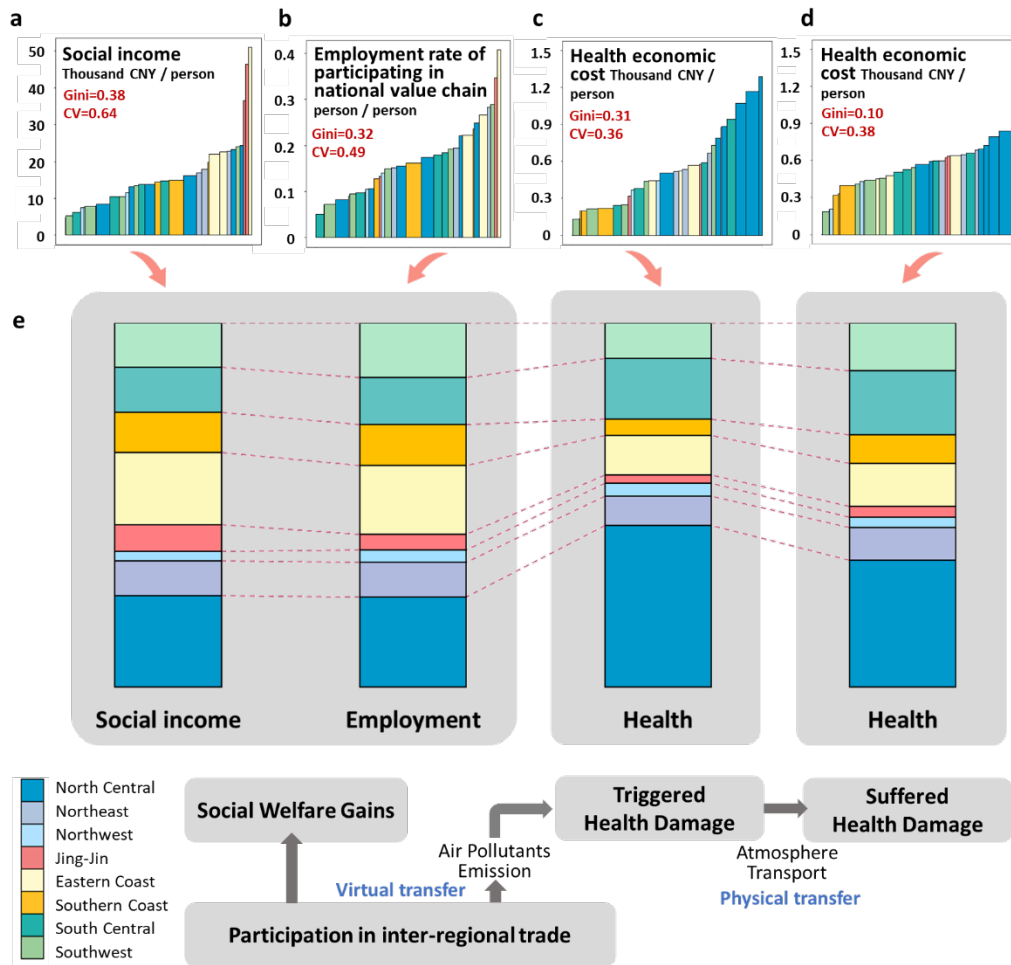
### 282 **3.2 Mismatch of social welfare gains and PM<sub>2.5</sub>-related health damage along the inter-** 283 **regional trade**

284 The significant inter-regional gaps further intensified the mismatch of social welfare  
285 allocation and environmental-health burdens among regions (Figure. 2). The high Gini  
286 coefficient of provincial employment rate (0.32) and social income per capita (0.38)  
287 suggested that the top 10% provinces with the highest social welfare per capita and less  
288 than 6% of population gained 2.9 times higher social income (Figure. 2a) and 2.1 times  
289 higher job opportunities (Figure. 2b) than the average level. Several regions with higher  
290 employment rate and per capita social income benefits in Figure. 2a and 2b were found at  
291 the left side of Figure. 2c, indicating that they also have an equal or even lower (0.8~1.0)  
292 health economic loss. In contrast, the top 10% regions with the highest health damage per  
293 capita suffered 2.1 times more than the national average health damage and gained only an  
294 average level of social welfare.

295 Most of the regions from the three coastal areas (i.e., Jing-Jin, Eastern Coast, and  
296 Southern Coast) enjoyed much higher employment rate (~20%) and social income (23.1  
297 thousand CNY/capita in average) from the inter-regional trade along the value chain,  
298 around 1.5~1.7 times the number for North Central and South Central. However, per capita  
299 health economic losses for the three Coastal areas (0.4 thousand CNY/capita in average) is  
300 only half of the number for North Central and South Central. Taking population effect into  
301 account, the three Coastal areas suffered 17.5% of health loss but obtained 34.4% and  
302 38.3% of job opportunities and social income, respectively. In contrast, North Central  
303 created around 25% social welfare at the expense of significant higher health economic  
304 losses (44.4%).

305 In addition to the “virtual” transfer embodied in products and services along the value  
306 chain, the inter-region atmospheric transport (i.e., the “physical” transfer) could cause the  
307 health damage suffering regions different from the ailment-triggering one (i.e. regions  
308 which produce pollution). The atmospheric transport process redistributed 53.0% of health

309 damage triggered by the inter-regional trade. While the atmospheric transport process  
 310 reduced the health damage of North Central and Northwest, which both triggered the  
 311 highest health damage, by 21.6% (73.1 billion CNY) and by 25.5% (7.0 billion CNY), all  
 312 the other regions experienced a significant increase in health damage by 20.3% on average.  
 313 Especially, it aggravated the damage at Jing-Jin, Southern Coast, and Southwest by  
 314 33.3%~77.3% (Figure. 2e); in addition, 58.1% of provincial regions with 65.0% of the  
 315 population suffered more serious health damage even with the seemingly decreased Gini  
 316 coefficient in the “suffer” regions (Figure. 2d). In particular, around 10% regions with a  
 317 lower social welfare (31.3%~66.8% of the national average level) experienced a  
 318 12%~116% increase in health damage after atmospheric transport.  
 319



320

321 **Figure 2. Social welfare allocation and health damage.** a, Allocation of social income  
322 shared by the individual. b, Allocation of employment triggered by participation in the  
323 inter-regional trade to the total population in each province. c, Allocation of triggered  
324 health damage shared by the individual. d, Allocation of suffered health damage shared by  
325 the individual. Width of bars are consistent with population scales of provinces or  
326 municipalities. The color of bars reflects regional classification. e, Regional contribution  
327 to social welfare gains and health damage. The allocation of social welfare and health  
328 damage in the inter-regional trade is virtual transfer, and the redistribution of health  
329 damage by atmosphere transport is the result of physical transfer of pollutants. The detailed  
330 data for 2a-d can be seen in Table S7 in Supporting Information.

331

### 332 **3.3 Flows of embodied social welfare and PM<sub>2.5</sub>-related health damage along the inter-** 333 **regional value chain**

334 We further investigated the underlying mechanisms accounting for the inter-regional  
335 trade-driven inequity by inspecting the inter-regional flow of social income, employment,  
336 and PM<sub>2.5</sub>-related health damage.

337 The model revealed significant driving flows among the eight economic zones within  
338 China's mainland. In particular, the three Coastal areas, which were beneficiaries of inter-  
339 regional trade, drive 38.3% of the health damage of China's mainland. For instance,  
340 Guangdong, Zhejiang, and Jiangsu, three typical regions from the Coastal areas, were the  
341 main drivers for health damage by the inter-regional trade along the value chain (24.4%).  
342 Also, these three regions propelled considerable damage to inland areas, such as accounting  
343 for 22.8%~33.5% of South Central, Southwest, and North Central's losses (Figure. 3a).  
344 Meanwhile, we also noticed significant flows between adjacent regions at different  
345 developmental stages. Relatively developed provincial regions (e.g. Beijing and Jiangsu)  
346 drove the pollutant emissions of their neighbors (e.g. Anhui and Hebei), while they suffered  
347 increasing health damage from their neighbors through atmospheric transport. For instance,  
348 the outflow paths from Anhui, Hebei, and Heilongjiang to their neighbors (Jiangsu,  
349 Beijing, and Jilin, respectively) were among the top "virtual" flow paths with the highest

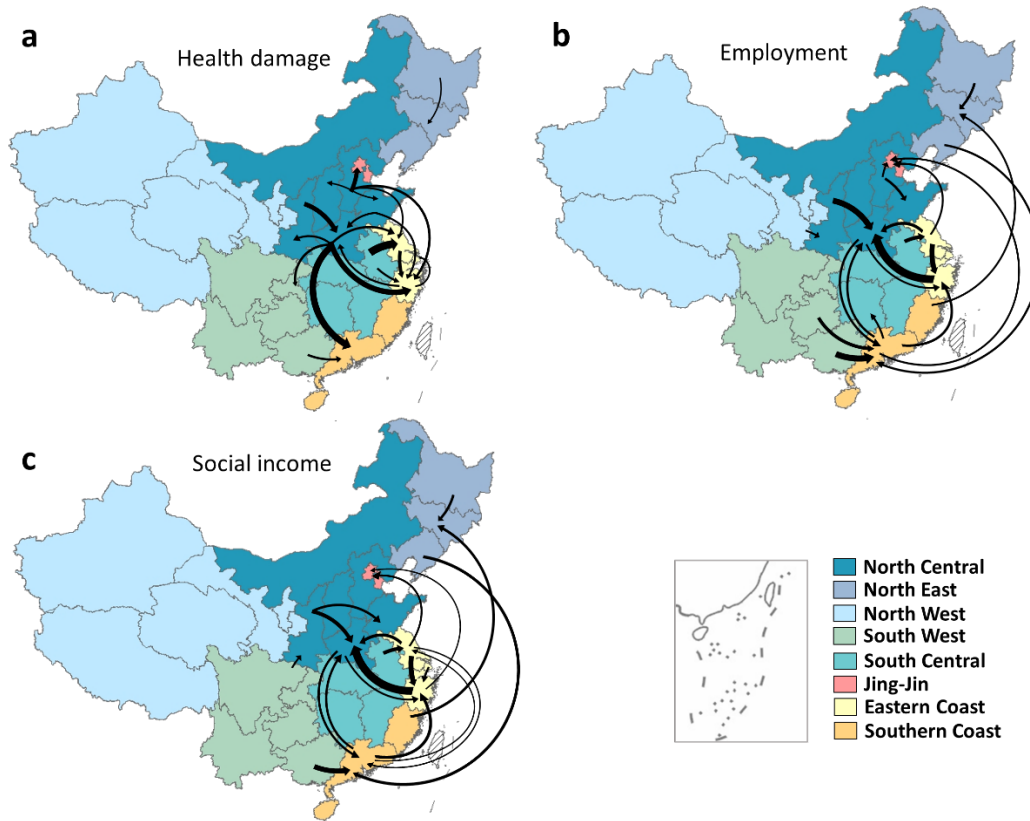
350 damages of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure (6.7 ~ 14.0 billion CNY). Of note, such driving direction is  
351 opposite to the impact of “physical” atmospheric transport.

352 The joint effects of “coastal pulls” and “neighboring exchanges” described above may  
353 further aggravate health risks of northern areas. The northern areas, centered on Henan and  
354 Hebei, suffered exaggerated health risks: Shaanxi, Shandong, and Hebei triggered 9.2, 4.7,  
355 and 4.6 billion CNY of health damage by outsourcing to their common neighbor Henan  
356 (Figure. 3a).

357 The conflicts between coastal areas and inland areas were further highlighted when  
358 taking the social welfare flows into account (Figure. 3b-c). While coastal regions drove  
359 less than a quarter of social welfare for inland regions along the value chain (23.3% of  
360 social income, 24.3% of employment), they “trigger” much higher health damage (31.4%)  
361 for Inland regions. In particular, three coastal regions drove 16.4% of health damage to  
362 North Central, nearly 2 times higher than its contribution to social welfare gains.  
363 Meanwhile, inland regions not only undertook polluted activity and high health loss, but  
364 also drove a lot of social welfare for the Coastal areas. For instance, Henan from North  
365 Central contributed 8.5% of social income and 8.8% of employment nationwide in the  
366 inter-regional trade along the value chain; particularly, it drove 12.4%~26.9% for Tianjin  
367 and Zhejiang, both coastal.

368





369

370

371 **Figure 3. Top 20 flows of embodied social welfare gains and health loss among**  
 372 **provincial regions driven by the inter-regional trade in 2017. a, Health damage flows.**  
 373 **b, Employment flows. c, Social income flows.** The arrow direction represents the flowing  
 374 direction of intermediate and final goods; and wider arrow means higher impacts triggered  
 375 by the flows. The widest arrows with highest flows are from Anhui to Jiangsu (14.0 billion  
 376 CNY), from Zhejiang to Henan (4.0 million person), and from Zhejiang to Henan (307.7  
 377 billion CNY) in terms of health damage, employment, and social income.

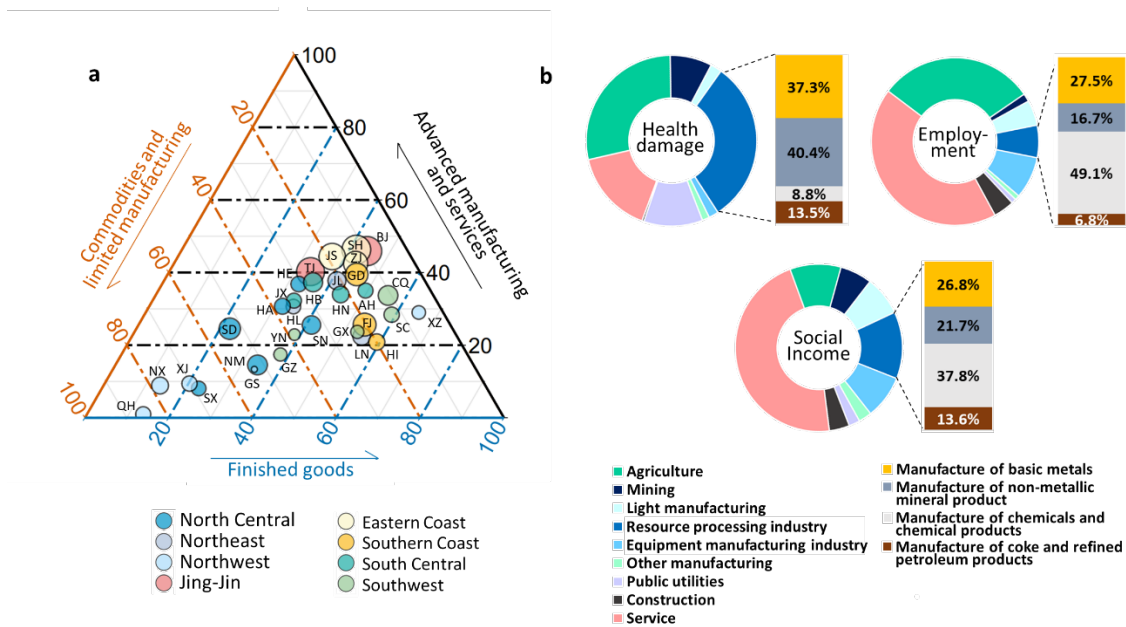
378

### 379 **3.4 The value chain role in the inter-regional trade determines the uneven degree in** 380 **social welfare gains and health damage**

381

382 The flow of intermediate products (which are unfinished goods or services being re-  
 383 input into the production system to be further processed rather than be finally consumed)  
 across regions plays an important role in the domestic value chain <sup>48,49</sup>, with significant

384 contributions to social income (59.5%), employment (59.1%), and health loss (71.1%).  
 385 While flows of resource and energy intermediate products created around a quarter of  
 386 social welfare (25.2% of social income and 23.7% of employment), it triggered half of the  
 387 health damage (49.2%) through the inter-regional trade. In contrast, flows of final goods  
 388 contributed only 28.9% of health damage with around 40% of social welfare along the  
 389 value chain. This highlights the significant contribution of a particular region's "value  
 390 chain role" to its social welfare gains and health damage impact via the inter-regional trade.  
 391 Consistently with earlier analysis, in the inter-regional trade, most of the final goods were  
 392 provided by coastal areas, while Northwest and North Central participated in supplying  
 393 more resource and energy intermediate products, which are of high health damage due to  
 394 intensive pollution and relatively lower social welfare gain (Figure. 4).  
 395



396  
 397 **Figure 4. Roles in participating in the inter-regional trade.** a, Proportions of three ways  
 398 participating in inter-regional trade. The size of the bubble is related to the gross domestic  
 399 product per capita, and a larger size means greater gross domestic product per capita.  
 400 Intermediate products are classified as two types, in which resource and energy  
 401 intermediate products include the intermediate products of agriculture, mining, resource  
 402 processing industry, and electricity, heat, gas, and water production and supply industry;

403 the remainder of the intermediate products refer to equipment and other manufacturing,  
404 construction, and service. b, Sectoral contributions to the social income, employment, and  
405 health economic loss. Provincial names and their abbreviations have been labeled in Figure  
406 1.

407

408 Regional differences in value chain roles were largely a result of diverse labor  
409 divisions of production in the inter-regional trade. The Central areas, especially North  
410 Central, are both primary suppliers and important drivers of resource and energy  
411 intermediate products in the inter-regional trade (Figure. 5a-d). In the flows of resource  
412 and energy intermediate products within China, 62.0% of raw mining and 40.4% of  
413 processing resource production activities occurred in North Central (as shown in Figure.  
414 S5). Meanwhile, 30.0% of the health economic loss, 30.9% of the social income, and 33.2%  
415 of the employment during raw minerals outsourcing were associated with Hebei, Henan,  
416 and Jiangxi.

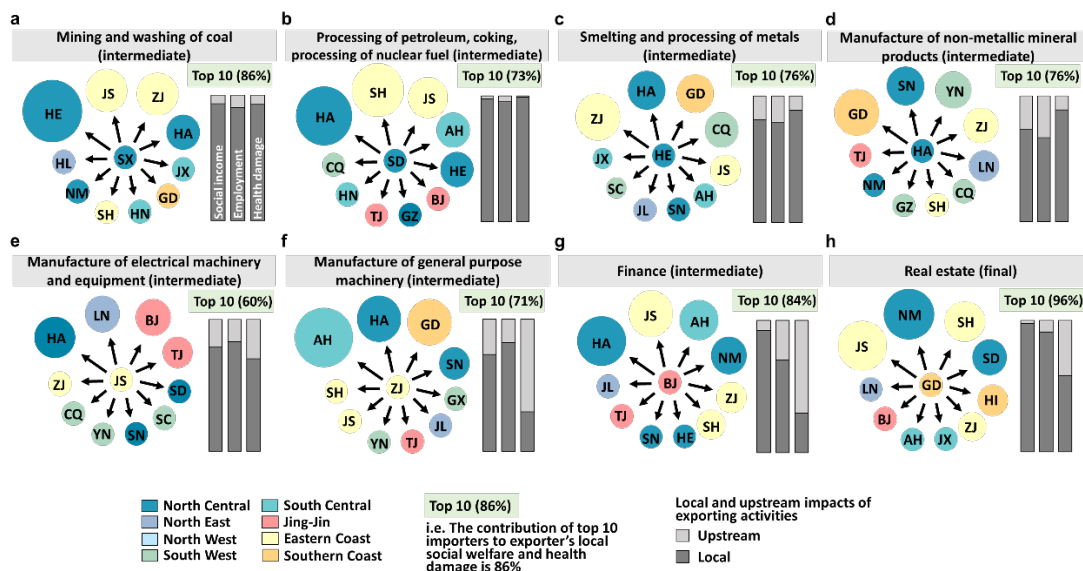
417 Mutual but diverse drives happened between the Coastal and Inland regions. The  
418 Coastal regions occupied downstream of value chains, which absorbs resource products of  
419 Inland areas; the Inland regions drove manufacturing and services of the Coastal regions  
420 (Figure. 5e-h). For example, Eastern Coast drove over 20% of resource and energy  
421 intermediate products of North Central with not only raw minerals (e.g., 31.4% of Shanxi's  
422 coal intermediate outflows) but also resource processing products (e.g., 24.6% of Hebei's  
423 metal smelting and processing intermediate outflows, 26.5% of Shandong's petroleum,  
424 coking, and nuclear fuel processing intermediate outflows). In addition, to support their  
425 production and processing activities, Eastern Coast and North Central were also the  
426 important drivers of services from coastal regions (e.g., 74.0% of Guangdong's real estate  
427 and 65.8% of Beijing's finance).

428 Considerable imbalances between social welfare allocation and health loss transfers  
429 were also found between the upstream and downstream components of the value chain. In  
430 particular, compared to intermediate manufacturing products and services and final goods,  
431 resource and energy intermediate product outflows led to a higher proportion of health  
432 damage borne locally with a lower level of social welfare gains (Figure. 5). For example,

433 the former four provincial regions in North Central bore 88.7%~98.9% of the health loss  
 434 when exporting raw minerals and resource processing products (Figure. 5a-d) in  
 435 comparison to 29.9%~70.1% for the latter four to exporting manufacturing and services  
 436 (Figure. 5e-h). In addition, there existed disparities in social welfare gains among different  
 437 types of resource intermediate products. Different from metal and non-metallic processing  
 438 products, raw mining and petroleum processing were heavily polluted but also highly  
 439 profitable. Shanxi and Shandong captured around 90.3~97.6% of social welfare when  
 440 exporting coal and exporting petroleum, coking, and nuclear fuel processing intermediate  
 441 products (Figure. 5a-b), whilst Hebei and Henan captured 66.9%~81.0% of social welfare  
 442 when supplying smelting and processing metal products and non-metallic mineral products  
 443 to other regions (Figure. 5c-d).

444 It should be noted that the “virtual” transfer of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-related health damage  
 445 occurred in parallel to the “physical” one. For instance, Hebei, as a producer and supplier  
 446 of smelting and processing metal products for Beijing and Tianjin, generated tons of air  
 447 pollution and triggered 631.6 million CNY of health economic loss, in which 41.8% of  
 448 health damage occurred in Hebei. On the other hand, as the close neighbors of Hebei,  
 449 Beijing and Tianjin also suffered from this self-inflicted dirty air, with 71.7 million CNY  
 450 health economic loss (about 11.3% of the total).

451



452

453 **Figure 5. Local and upstream social welfare and health damage.** Top 10 direct  
454 importers are presented on the left, and the impacts are on the right of exporting  
455 intermediate or final products or services on their local and upstream social income,  
456 employment, and health damage. Provincial names and their abbreviations have been  
457 labeled in Figure 1.

458

#### 459 **4. Discussion**

460 Social welfare (SDG1, 8), environmental quality, and human health (SDG3) are three  
461 main themes in sustainable developmental transition<sup>50</sup>. In this study, we quantitatively  
462 delineated social income, employment, and the health damage along the China domestic  
463 value chain. We identified regional imbalances in social welfare gains and PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-  
464 related health damage and its association with their distinct roles in the inter-regional trade:

- 465 ● Regions that are major producers and exporters of resource and energy products  
466 provide intermediate products to support downstream manufacturing and services  
467 in other regions end up suffering most of the health damage locally and fail to  
468 obtain commensurate social welfare in compensation.
- 469 ● Regions which focus on equipment and final-product manufacturing,  
470 construction, and services have more beneficial positions, as they obtain more  
471 social welfare by utilizing the intermediate materials which they import from the  
472 resource and energy producing provinces.
- 473 ● Atmospheric transport process makes health damage more even in overall, but it  
474 leads to secondary damage, particularly to several provincial regions mainly in  
475 South Central.

476 Equitable development across regions is critical for the “common prosperity” goal,  
477 which is proposed as a more rational and fair welfare distribution pattern and important  
478 development target for China<sup>22</sup>. We found a siphon effect in which resources were  
479 transferred between the coastal regions and the northern inland regions, as well as between  
480 neighboring provinces with different value chain roles, especially under different

481 development stages. Thus, at a national scope, it is necessary to take advantage of the  
482 positive role of the domestic value chain in driving social welfare improvements in China's  
483 Central and Western inland areas and to diminish the transfer of negative impacts such as  
484 pollution and health damage during inter-regional trade. It is becoming imperative to  
485 formulate stringent industrial standards to propel technical innovation. Since 2014, China  
486 has implemented ultra-low emission standards and introduced ultra-low emission  
487 technology retrofits for coal-fired power plants, resulting in effective control of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>,  
488 and particulate matter emissions<sup>51</sup>; Ultra-low emission retrofits are also currently being  
489 promoted for non-electric industries (e.g., steel, cement, coking, etc.) in key regions (e.g.,  
490 Shandong, Shanxi, Hebei of North Central, etc.)<sup>22</sup>. In addition, downstream enterprises'  
491 requirements of suppliers for higher standards (e.g., lower carbon footprint, higher energy  
492 efficiency, better safety) of materials and products will be conducive for greening transition  
493 of the whole supply chain. On a global view, there have been arising several regulations  
494 on the imported products in terms of environmental or ecological impacts in the past few  
495 years. For instance, the European Union commission proposed the Carbon Border  
496 Adjustment Mechanism in 2020 on certain products (i.e. iron and steel, electricity, cement,  
497 and etc.) with high carbon intensity and several precursors and downstream goods. The  
498 new battery regulation of the European Union proposed in 2022 also attempts to ensure the  
499 sustainability of battery production along the whole supply chain by raising standards on  
500 the carbon footprint and material recycling. Such initiatives on imported products put great  
501 pressure on the industries in the upstream, stimulating the exporters to cut emissions. China  
502 is the vital manufacturer and exporter (e.g. steel and battery) in the world, with many  
503 enterprises playing important roles in supplying intermediate and final products to other  
504 countries; thus, certain emitters would be bound by the higher standards as mentioned  
505 above. The international pressure may trigger ripple effects on China's domestic value  
506 chain and help with the transition of certain industries and its upstream to be cleaner and  
507 greener.

508         Meanwhile, a better cross-regional coordination mechanism that supports regional  
509 compensation needs built to ensure the costs and benefits of socioeconomic development  
510 are shared equitably. Pollution-intensive industries, represented in this study by resource

511 processing industries, were responsible for heavy air pollution and high PM<sub>2.5</sub>-related  
512 health damage but had limited capacity to create social welfare, yet their products were  
513 also required by downstream industries such as manufacturing. Some regions will  
514 inevitably have to perform resource-related production activities. Notably, existing major  
515 resource and energy provinces have played these roles for a long time because of their  
516 unique and irreplaceable natural endowments, historical socioeconomic development, etc.  
517 It is also a common phenomenon for some countries in the globe. How to compensate them  
518 for the damage the resource-related processes cause and how to find an effective path for  
519 making industrial areas more socially and environmentally sustainable will require  
520 additional research.

521 This study suggests that economic compensation and sharing among regions will be  
522 important, both in domestic and international trading systems. On the one hand, through  
523 capital and technology transfers, developed regions and emerging high-tech enterprises are  
524 encouraged to provide assistance for developing regions, thereby increasing the potential  
525 for sustainable development of less-developed economies and greening of global industrial  
526 chains. Focusing on resource-rich areas, China's central government has been aware of the  
527 importance to actively promote energy-saving, efficient and green resource extraction, and  
528 to support the development of clean energy and resource refining industries; and  
529 counterpart support and collaboration is encouraged, such as intellectual support in key  
530 fields across regions, east-west cooperation in education, and east-west labor  
531 collaboration<sup>52</sup>. On the other hand, in addition to coordination of the economy and  
532 employment, the health damage caused by embodied pollutant emission transfers deserves  
533 more attention; compensation mechanisms must be developed to mitigate the health  
534 impacts of product flows between regions. However, the existing environmental pollution  
535 related health damage compensation is identified and defined through a rigorous legal  
536 argumentation process, and not applicable for inter-regional compensation at a national  
537 level. In addition, given that air pollutants easily cross boundaries between regions, the  
538 health damage caused by PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure must be shared by the whole region, even if social  
539 welfare (such as income) is concentrated in a few areas or controlled by a few people. Low-  
540 income regions in heavily polluted areas are particularly vulnerable and require more

541 attention. In short, there exists great difficulty to construct compensation mechanism to  
542 relieve the inequality of mismatched allocation of health damage and social welfare.

543 Imbalances in social welfare allocation and the associated pollution transfers are a  
544 global problem<sup>53</sup>. Compared with the whole planet, the imbalances within a given country  
545 are more practical to manage, making it easier to coordinate compensation among regions  
546 to maximize the interests of residents of these regions. Taking China as an example, we  
547 provided insights that can guide the coordination and common development among  
548 regions. How to achieve common prosperity and reduce inequity of environment and health  
549 is not only a development topic for China but also of great significance to global sustainable  
550 development. The same approach could be extended in future research to promote  
551 cooperation among countries based on the perspective of a Community with a Shared  
552 Future for Mankind.

553

#### 554 **Data availability**

555 Multi-regional input–output table of China in 2017 used in this study is from CEADs  
556 <https://www.ceads.net/>. The MRIO table, satellite data including social income, pollutants  
557 emissions, and number of employments, and codes for value chain estimation are provided  
558 in supporting information. An online version of the pf-ERSM prediction system for China  
559 can be assessed by [http://abacas.see.scut.edu.cn/RSM\\_API/Help](http://abacas.see.scut.edu.cn/RSM_API/Help).

560

#### 561 **Supporting Information**

562 The Supporting Information is available free of charge to readers, including uncertainty  
563 analysis on the estimation of health damage and health economic loss, original source and  
564 data of VSL, the impacts of inter-regional trade on PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration variation,  
565 provincial regions' resource product exports in the national value chain, relevant  
566 references, and code (Figures S1-S5 and Tables S1-S8).

567

#### 568 **Acknowledgments**

569 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.  
570 7217040264).



571

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