

Carbon transfer within China: Insights from production fragmentation

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Abstract

Production fragmentation not only reshapes trade patterns but also reallocates trade-related emissions. This study employs China's multi-regional input-output tables for 2007, 2010 and 2012 to explore the effect of production fragmentation on virtual carbon trade derived from three trade patterns, i.e. final goods trade, intermediate goods trade for the final stage of production, and value chain-related trade. Results showed that inter-provincial trade within China reduced the national carbon emissions by 208 Mt and 114 Mt in 2007 and 2012. The first two trade patterns contributed to the reduction, while value-chain-related trade resulted in carbon growth. The four trillion yuan stimulus package promoted the development of energy intensive industries while inter-provincial trade increased national carbon emissions by 247 Mt in 2010. Moreover, this study revealed a list of provinces, trade patterns and sectors with the high carbon reduction potential.

Keywords: Production fragmentation; Carbon emissions; Multi-regional input-output analysis; Value chain

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25 **1. Introduction**

26 Due to the lower production cost and looser environmental regulations, the less
27 developed regions have become the destinations of the developed regions to outsource
28 the production process (Su and Ang, 2014). Similarly, the carbon emissions of some
29 provinces in China are affected by the outsourcing of environmental pollution (Feng
30 et al., 2013). At the 2015 Paris Summit, China committed to reducing the carbon
31 intensity by 60% - 65% in 2030 compared to the 2005 level. Meanwhile, China's 13th
32 Five-Year plan set a target to reduce the national carbon intensity by 18% by 2020
33 compared to the 2015 level (State Council of China, 2015). Regional reduction targets
34 of carbon intensity varies according to the economic development level during 13th
35 Five-Year period (2016-2020), ranging from 12% in the less developed western
36 provinces to 20.5% in the east coast provinces (Liu et al., 2016). However, carbon
37 emissions of a province is determined by a large number of factors. These include not
38 only its economic development, population, physical geography, industrial structure
39 and natural resources, but also its trade with other regions (Dietzenbacher et al., 2012;
40 Wang H, 2017). Hence, the local government should take the environmental effect of
41 inter-provincial trade into account when undertaking carbon reduction activities. With
42 the development of production fragmentation, trade patterns is reshaped and the new
43 trade patterns is bound to bring changes to carbon transfer among provinces (Meng et
44 al., 2013; Yune et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2015). The aim of this paper is to track the
45 carbon transfer derived from inter-provincial trade activities within China from the
46 perspective of production fragmentation.

47 This study builds on growing literature on the carbon emissions embodied in trade
48 within China (e.g., Dietzenbacher et al., 2012; López et al., 2013a; Meng et al., 2013;
49 Su and Ang, 2014; Su et al., 2012; Pei et al., 2012; Pei et al., 2017). Previous studies
50 mainly focus on the driving forces of carbon emissions induced by trade (e.g., Zhang,
51 2014) as well as the sources and destinations of carbon transfer (e.g., Feng et al., 2013;
52 He et al., 2007). A region's position and participation level in supply chains affect its
53 virtual carbon emissions trade (Meng et al., 2013). With the development of
54 production fragmentation, intermediate goods cross provincial borders many times
55 before they are delivered to the final users (Pei et al., 2015). Therefore, all participants
56 (rather than sources and destinations) in the production network may be responsible
57 for the environmental cost for the consumers of products. The main focuses of this
58 study are: to explore the new path of carbon transfer and to identify key sectors
59 responsible for environmental problem induced by trade.

60 Production fragmentation was firstly introduced to explore the environmental
61 effects of carbon flows (Taylor, 2005). Since then, there are two main research
62 streams on the production fragmentation in China. From the perspective of global
63 production networks, previous studies mainly focused on China's virtual carbon flows
64 in the global value chain (Wang et al., 2017a), carbon embodied in processing export
65 and normal export (Dietzenbacher et al., 2012; He, 2007). From the perspective of
66 domestic production networks, most studies concentrate on the virtual carbon flows of
67 Chinese regions in the domestic value chain (e.g., Meng et al., 2015; Pei et al., 2015).
68 For instance, Meng et al. (2015) suggested that most inland regions have been deeply

69 involved in domestic supply chains by providing a large amount of intermediate
70 products to other regions. As a result, the embodied CO₂ emissions in these regions'
71 outflow have also rapidly increased. Nevertheless, very few studies attempted to
72 examine the effects of the inter-provincial trade on the carbon emission of China. This
73 paper examines the role of inter-provincial trade in achieving the national target of
74 carbon emission (i.e. as a driver or a barrier).

75 Recently, China enters an era of “new normal” economic growth, in which the
76 production and consumption structure has changed considerably (Su and Ang, 2017).
77 Domestic trade within China has grown rapidly² which presents some new features.
78 For example, the carbon emissions embodied in China’s exports have declined and the
79 carbon transfer through inter-provincial trade in China have reversed since the global
80 financial crisis (Mi et al., 2017). The less developed regions, such as the Southwest
81 China, have shifted from being a net emission exporter to being a net emission
82 importer. Mi et al. (2017) explained this novel conclusion from the perspective of new
83 economic development patterns in China as well as the change of China’s role in the
84 global trade. This paper attempts to extend Mi et al.’s study by considering the effects
85 of changes to production fragmentation on the carbon transfer. We evaluate how the
86 global financial crisis affects the carbon emissions embodied in inter-provincial trade
87 from the perspective of different trade patterns over the period 2007-2012.

88 Closely related to López et al. (2013b) and Arce et al.(2012), this paper isolates
89 three trade patterns from the perspective of production stage, namely trade in final

² The volume of domestic trade in 2017 (36626billion Yuan) is more than four times that of 2007 (8921billion Yuan). Data sources: National Bureau of Statistics, <http://data.stats.gov.cn/easyquery.htm?cn=C01>

90 goods, trade in intermediate goods for the last stage of production and value chain
91 related trade. For the first two patterns, goods are absorbed by the importers. They are
92 also defined as traditional Ricardian trade and reflect the direct value added trade
93 pattern (Borin and Mancini, 2015; Wang et al., 2017b). For the last trade pattern,
94 imported intermediate goods are processed and then re-exported as inputs for other
95 region's production (Borin and Mancini, 2015; Dean and Lovely, 2010). In addition,
96 this paper introduce the Structural Decomposition Analysis (SDA) to evaluate the
97 carbon transfer from 2007 to 2012.

98 SDA is a widely used approach to analyze the driving forces of carbon emissions
99 embodied in trade (Ang et al., 2016; Su et al., 2012; Su and Ang, 2016; Su and
100 Thomson, 2016; Wang et al., 2017a; Yan and Dietzenbacher, 2014; Yan et al., 2015).
101 Various decomposition approaches have been proposed by previous studies, such as
102 D&L approach (Dietzenbacher and Los, 1998), the Logarithmic Mean Divisia Index
103 (LMDI) model (Ang et al., 2003; Su and Thomson, 2016), and two-polar
104 decomposition approach (Fan and Xia, 2012; Mi et al., 2017). According to the
105 guidelines on the selection in SDA approach proposed by Su et al. (2012), we employ
106 the LMDI method to examine the driving forces of embodied carbon emissions of
107 trade within China.

108 We also examine whether trade within China is harmful to the environment by
109 means of the Balance of Avoided Emissions (BAE), which was proposed by López et
110 al. (2013a). The BAE differentiates between provincial carbon emissions embodied in
111 exports with other provinces minus the emissions avoided by imports from other

112 provinces, the CO₂ emissions that would be emitted locally if the imported products
113 was produced by itself. A positive BAE indicates the trade within China would be an
114 incentive for China's carbon emissions and a negative BAE shows the production
115 fragmentation of trade allows emissions savings. One branch of previous studies
116 evaluate the balance of avoided emissions used bi-regional models (Arce et al., 2012;
117 Arto et al., 2014; Dietzenbacher and Mukhopadhyay, 2007; Liu et al., 2016; López et
118 al.,2013b; Hao et al., 2013; Peters et al., 2011). MRIO analysis were introduced to
119 examine the balance of avoided emissions driven by international trade which would
120 mitigate the underestimation problem by bi-regional model. Kanemoto et al. (2012)
121 and Turner et al. (2007) used a Global MRIO model were used to compute the BAE.
122 Chen and Chen (2011) divided the world in three regions; López et al. (2018)
123 estimated the effects of international trade on BAE of seven regions under free trade
124 agreement. Zhang et al. (2014) employed a Chinese MRIO model and clarified that
125 the interregional trade contributed to the decrease of national carbon emission for
126 1997 and 2007, while the results would be underestimated when considering
127 provincial positions and contributions in supply chain. To enrich the literature, this
128 paper applies Zhang et al.'s analysis method (2017) to assess the inter-provincial trade
129 on provincial and national carbon emissions from the perspective of production
130 fragmentation. The main conclusions are summarized as below.

131 First, we adopt the method proposed by Wang et al. (2017), which decomposes
132 the Leontief inverse matrix to distinguish the emission induced by pure local
133 consumption from three different trade production activities. The results show that

134 carbon emissions embodied in international export declined by 6% in 2010 compared
135 to the 2007 level, as a result of the global financial crisis in 2008. On the contrary, the
136 carbon emissions embodied in inter-provincial trade grew by 52% from 2007 to 2012,
137 among which, value chain related trade remains the largest contributor.

138 Second, this paper tracks the carbon transfer by inter-provincial trade within
139 China. Results showed that the carbon transfer is mainly concentrated in the south and
140 east of China, while the provinces in the northwest (except Xinjiang) and southwest
141 are less participated in the inter-provincial trade. In addition, the path of carbon
142 transfer varied according to trade patterns. For instance, one of the major paths of
143 carbon transfer by final goods trade is from Xinjiang to Beijing and Tianjin. This is in
144 accordance with the North Channel of West-East electricity transmission project
145 where power grid of Xinjiang lies in the headstream and Jing-Jin-Ji are destinations.

146 Finally, we evaluate how production fragmentation affect China's carbon
147 emission from inter-provincial trade depending on comparative emission advantages
148 of different provinces and sectoral composition of trade. This study revealed that
149 China's production fragmentation generates national emissions savings by 114Mt,
150 while the value chain related trade offsets this reduction. Moreover, stimulated by the
151 four trillion yuan stimulus package in 2008, the effect of production fragmentation on
152 China's carbon emissions shows a curve from negative (-208Mt) in 2007 to positive
153 (247Mt) in 2010. This result may be attributed to the infrastructure developments
154 which caused the growth of both energy consumption and carbon intensity in heavy
155 industries.

156 The reminder of this paper is as follows: Section 2 introduces the methodology and
157 data materials, and the main results of embodied emissions and the environmental
158 effects of different trade patterns are presented in Section 3. Section 4 draws the major
159 conclusion and policy implications.

160 **2. Methodology and Data**

161 2.1 Method of trade patterns decomposition

162 This section explains the methodology of decomposing different trade patterns
163 and tracing the balance of embodied emissions and avoided emissions, based on a
164 country composed of G provinces and N sectors. These provinces connected with
165 other provinces and foreign countries through trade. The economic linkage is
166 presented as a multi-regional input-output table (Table S.1). We distinguish the output
167 of domestic activity and different trade patterns by decomposing the Leontief inverse
168 matrix. The detailed method of decomposition of total output is presented in
169 Appendix A.

170 In terms of trade, the exports from province s to province r are
171 $T^{sr} = T_f^{sr} + T_i^{sr} + T_v^{sr}$, where $T_f^{sr} = Y^{sr}$ defines trade in final products.
172 The trade partner would directly absorb the exported products, and the exporter is
173 located in the last stage of productions. Trade in intermediate products for the last
174 stage of production is $T_i^{sr} = A^{sr} L^{rr} Y^{rr}$. A^{sr} is the input coefficient matrix that
175 represents the intermediate use in province r of goods produced in province s . T_v^{sr}
176 is the narrowly defined value chain related trade (Wang et al., 2017). The traded
177 products cross the provincial or national border more than once, which may be finally

178 absorbed by a domestic province or further processed and exported to foreign countries.

179 The former is $T_{-d}^{sr} = A^{sr} L^{rr} \sum_{t \neq r}^G A^{rt} B^{tr} Y^{rr} + A^{sr} \sum_{t \neq r}^G B^{rt} Y^{tr} + A^{sr} \sum_t^G B^{rt} \sum_{t \neq r}^G Y^{tu}$,

180 which named the domestic value chain related trade, and the latter is

181 $T_{-g}^{sr} = A^{sr} \sum_t^G B^{rt} EX^t$, which indicates the global value chain related trade.

182 We define the carbon intensity of the sector i of province s as $f_i^s = e_i^s / x_i^s$,

183 where e_i^s represents the carbon emissions of the sector i of province s , x_i^s represents

184 the final output of the sector i of province s ,. F^s is a diagonal matrix made up of f_i^s .

185 The gross carbon emissions of province s is

$$186 \quad E^s = F^s X^s = F^s L^{ss} Y^{ss} + F^s L^{ss} EX^s + F^s L^{ss} \sum_{s \neq r}^G T_{-f}^{sr} + F^s L^{ss} \sum_{s \neq r}^G T_{-i}^{sr} + F^s L^{ss} \sum_{s \neq r}^G T_{-v}^{sr} \quad (1)$$

187 The gross carbon emissions of province s are decomposed into five terms. The

188 first term represents emissions induced by economic activity within province s that

189 has no relation with the inter-provincial or international production fragmentation.

190 The second terms represents emissions induced by trade in final products, which are

191 absorbed by the foreign countries. The last three terms represent the emissions

192 induced by different trade patterns.

193 Consequently, the domestic emissions embodied in exports from province s to

194 province r is

$$195 \quad EEX^{sr} = F^s L^{ss} T^{sr} = F^s L^{ss} T_{-f}^{sr} + F^s L^{ss} T_{-i}^{sr} + F^s L^{ss} T_{-v}^{sr} \quad (2)$$

196 Equation (2) decomposes the emissions embodied in gross exports from province s to

197 province r into three terms by the trade pattern, the traditional final products trade, the

198 traditional intermediate products trade, the domestic value chain related trade and the

199 global value chain related trade. Therefore, the balance of embodied emissions (BEE)

200 can be revealed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
201 \quad BEE^{sr} &= EEX^{sr} - EEX^{rs} \\
&= \underbrace{(F^s L^{ss} T_f^{sr} - F^r L^{rr} T_f^{rs})}_{(3-1)} + \underbrace{(F^s L^{ss} T_i^{sr} - F^r L^{rr} T_i^{rs})}_{(3-2)} \\
202 & \\
203 &+ \underbrace{(F^s L^{ss} T_{-d}^{sr} - F^r L^{rr} T_{-d}^{rs})}_{(3-3)} + \underbrace{(F^s L^{ss} T_{-g}^{sr} - F^r L^{rr} T_{-g}^{rs})}_{(3-4)} \quad (3)
\end{aligned}$$

204 Term (3-1) represents the balance of emissions embodied in traditional final products
205 trade; term (3-2) represents the balance of emissions embodied in traditional
206 intermediate products trade; term (3-3) represents the balance of emissions embodied
207 in domestic value chain related trade; term (3-4) represents the balance of emissions
208 embodied in global value chain related trade. $BEE^{sr} > 0$ means the bilateral trade
209 promotes the carbon emissions of province s ; otherwise, the bilateral production
210 fragmentation contributes to a decrease in the carbon emissions of province s . The
211 effects of position in the production fragmentation on carbon emissions of province s
212 is $BEE^s = \sum_{r \neq s}^G EEX^{sr} - \sum_{r \neq s}^G EEX^{rs}$, which is defined as total emissions embodied
213 in exports of province s minus total emissions embodied in imports of province s .
214 $BEE^s > 0$ means the position in the production fragmentation contributes to an
215 increase in the carbon emissions of province s . $BEE^s < 0$ means the position in the
216 production fragmentation promotes a decrease in the carbon emissions of province s .
217 Nevertheless, it is impossible to use BEE to know the influence of interprovincial
218 trade on national emissions because the aggregation of BEE for all countries is
219 always zero ($\sum_s^G BEE^s = 0$).

220 The effects of production fragmentation on the national emissions are evaluated
221 by the difference between emissions embodied in exports and emissions avoided by
222 imports (balance of avoided emissions, BAE) (Dietzenbacher and Mukhopadhyay,

223 2007; López et al., 2013). The emissions avoided by imports of province s from
 224 province r through different trade patterns is $EAI^{sr} = F^s L^{ss} T^{rs}$. The balance of
 225 avoided emissions (BAE) is

$$\begin{aligned}
 226 \quad BAE^{sr} &= (EEX^{sr} - EAI^{sr}) + (EEX^{rs} - EAI^{rs}) \\
 227 \quad &= \underbrace{(F^s L^{ss} - F^r L^{rr})T_f^{sr} + (F^s L^{ss} - F^r L^{rr})T_i^{sr} + (F^s L^{ss} - F^r L^{rr})T_v^{sr}}_{4-1} \\
 228 \quad &+ \underbrace{(F^r L^{rr} - F^s L^{ss})T_f^{rs} + (F^r L^{rr} - F^s L^{ss})T_i^{rs} + (F^r L^{rr} - F^s L^{ss})T_v^{rs}}_{4-2} \quad (4)
 \end{aligned}$$

229 Term (4-1) explains the pollution haven hypotheses (PHH) from the perspective of
 230 production structure and carbon intensity of the exports from province s to province r ,
 231 which can be further divided into three trade patterns. Term (4-2) explains the PHH
 232 from the perspective of production structure and carbon intensity of the imports of
 233 province s from province r , which can also be further divided according to three trade
 234 patterns. The expression of gross balance of avoided emissions is presented as below.

$$235 \quad BAE = \sum_s^G \sum_{r \neq s}^G BAE^{sr} \quad (5)$$

236 A positive BAE means the pollution haven hypothesis holds; and a negative BAE
 237 means the interprovincial trade contributes to a decrease in gross emissions.

238 2.2 Data

239 Two main datasets were used in this paper: multi-regional input-output tables of
 240 China and corresponding carbon emissions data. The 2007, 2010 and 2012 Chinese
 241 MRIO tables are compiled by the Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural
 242 Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (Liu et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2014;
 243 Liu et al., 2018). The economics data in the 2012 MRIO model is updated to the year

244 2007 and 2010. Chinese MRIO tables 2007 and 2010 have only 30 regions, while
245 MRIO tables 2012 added Tibet and had 31 regions. In order to ensure the consistency
246 of the results, we calculated the carbon emissions embodied in trade using the MRIO
247 table 2012 with 31 regions, only kept the calculation results of 30 provinces and
248 dropped that of Tibet. To match the carbon emissions data with the MRIO data, the
249 MRIO tables are merged into 27 sectors from 30 sectors. The data of carbon
250 emissions of 30 regions in 2007, 2010 and 2012 were from emission inventories
251 compiled by CEADS (www.ceads.net) (Shan et al., 2017). IPCC Sectoral Emission
252 Accounting Approach was used and emission inventories were calculated based on
253 the data of energy consumption from Statistical Yearbook of regions and Energy
254 Statistical Yearbook of China for the target year.

255 **3. Results**

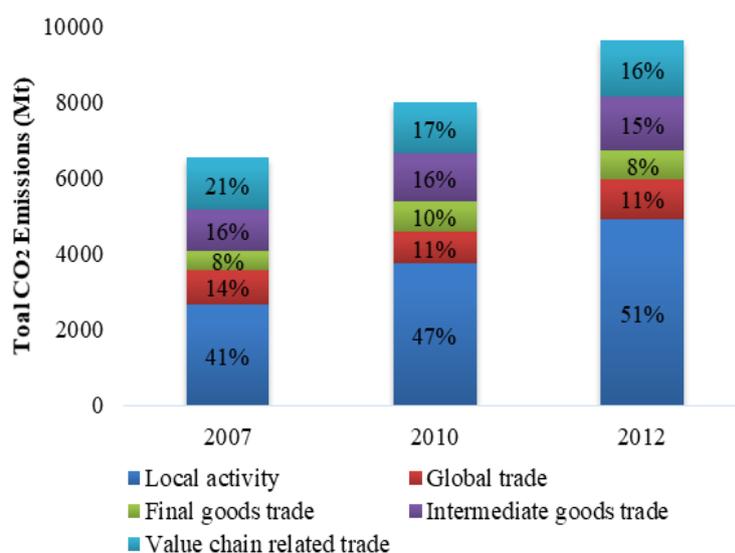
256 3.1 Preliminary results on embodied emissions

257 In this section, we decompose carbon emissions into pure domestic economic
258 activities, direct export to foreign countries and three trade patterns and presents the
259 driving factors of carbon emissions changes from 2007 to 2012.

260 3.1.1 Decomposition of China's emissions

261 China has been the largest carbon emitter in the world since 2006 (Liu et al.,
262 2015; Thompson et al., 2016) and is consequently present significant pressure on
263 carbon reduction domestically and internationally. Fig. 1 shows that China's carbon
264 emissions increased from 6,547Mt in 2007 to 9,647Mt in 2012 with an average rate of
265 9.5% per year. Global financial crisis erupted in 2008 and seriously affected the

266 export volume of China, which declined by 12.3% in 2009 as the level of 2007³. As a
 267 result, the carbon emissions embodied in China's export dropped from 917Mt in 2007
 268 to 883Mt in 2010. As a response to this crisis, the Chinese government introduced a
 269 four trillion yuan (approximately 586 billion USD) stimulus package in November
 270 2008 which mainly aimed at fixed assets and infrastructure developments, such as
 271 high-speed rail network, rural infrastructure and city electrical grid. The development
 272 of these carbon-intensive industries contributes to carbon emissions induced by
 273 domestic economic activity within China, which raise by 52% in 2012 compared with
 274 2007.



275
 276 **Fig. 1.** Decomposition of China's carbon emissions in 2007, 2010 and 2012

277 Notes: global trade indicates the final goods trade for foreign countries; final goods
 278 trade, intermediate goods trade and value chain related trade indicates different trade
 279 patterns of inter-provincial trade.

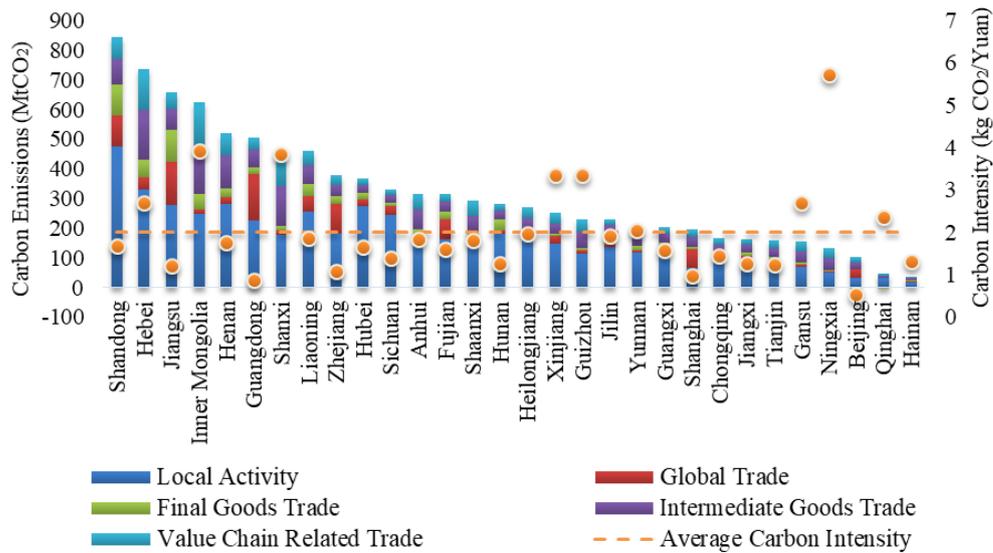
280 Carbon emissions embodied in inter-provincial trade maintained steady growth
 281 by 24% from 2007 to 2012. For different trade patterns, the carbon emissions

³ Data sources: National Bureau of Statistics of China, <http://data.stats.gov.cn/easyquery.htm?cn=C01>.

282 embodied in final goods trade, intermediate goods trade and value chain related traded
283 increased by 50%, 31% and 9% from 2007 to 2012, respectively. Value chain related
284 trade has always been the largest share among the inter-provincial trade. This
285 highlights the crucial role of value chain related trade in carbon emissions reduction.
286 Indeed, the responsibility of carbon reduction should be shared with all participants in
287 the value chain instead of the producer of final products. This paper further compares
288 the embodied emissions of each province as well as the role of production
289 fragmentation on national and provincial emissions through inter-provincial trade.

290 3.1.2 Decomposition of provincial emissions

291 Fig. 2 shows the decomposition of carbon emissions of 30 provinces in China in
292 2012. Among these 30 provinces, Shandong (843 Mt), Hebei (737 Mt) and Jiangsu
293 (657 Mt) are the top three emitters. The emissions of these three regions shows
294 different features. As a populous region, 66% of Shandong's total carbon emissions
295 are induced by local final demand. The main sources of carbon embodied in local
296 activities include the production and supply of electric power and hot power (45%),
297 metals smelting and pressing (16%) and transportation and warehousing (8%), among
298 which the heavy industry and metals digging are high-carbon-intensive industries.
299 Besides, Shandong is located in the coastal of Bohai Sea and the Yellow Sea and has
300 geographical advantage of maritime transportation for export. It was the fifth region
301 of total export volumes in China in 2016 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2017). Hence
302 carbon emissions induced by export of Shandong is the second largest part of the
303 provincial emissions (12%), which is up to 102Mt.



304

305 **Fig. 2.** Decomposition of carbon emission and carbon intensity of 30 provinces of
 306 China in 2012

307 The second largest carbon emitter is Hebei, the emissions of which is mainly
 308 induced by the domestic final demand and the trade in intermediate products, except
 309 the carbon emissions induced by local activities. Compared with Shandong, the higher
 310 proportion of the trade in intermediate products may be the results of industry
 311 structure, such as steel industry. Hebei is the largest steel producer in China and
 312 deliver 24% of national steel products to other provinces, like Liaoning, Beijing and
 313 Jiangsu, for further processing. Metals smelting and pressing sector accounts for 52%
 314 (82.6Mt) of carbon emission is induced by intermediate goods trade. Similar to Hebei,
 315 Shanxi and Inner Mongolia are also rich in mineral and metal resources which
 316 promote the trade in related intermediate products and increase the domestic carbon
 317 emissions.

318 Jiangsu is the third largest carbon emitter which has large volume of exports to
 319 foreign countries due to the geographical benefits along the coast. This has resulted in
 320 the growth of emissions induced by export trade. In addition to Jiangsu, the provinces

321 whose share of carbon emissions induced by export more than 20% are all the coastal
322 regions of China, such as Guangdong, Shanghai, Fujian and Zhejiang. Owing to
323 “Open and Reform” policy of China in 1980s and advantages of geographical
324 locations, China’s coastal cities have access to global markets. With development of
325 global production fragmentation, they become the most attractive locations for private
326 manufacturing firms (Feng et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2014). The coastal provinces of
327 China emit more carbon dioxide and suffer more serious environmental pollution due
328 to the foreign consumption (Zheng and Kahn, 2017).

329 We also analyzed carbon emission of each individual province from the
330 perspective of trade patterns. For example, the share of carbon emissions induced by
331 final goods trade of Chongqing and Jiangsu is more than 20% of the total provincial
332 emissions. Carbon emissions induced by the intermediate goods for the last stage of
333 production accounts for more than 25% of total carbon emissions in Ningxia and
334 Qinghai which are caused by their nature resources endowment. Taking Ningxia as an
335 example, the proven coal reserves is up to 30 billion tons, and the coal mining and
336 washing industry contributes to 4.4 Mt carbon emissions. The share of carbon
337 emissions induced by the value chain related trade is more than 30% in Inner
338 Mongolia and Shanxi. Both of these two regions are rich in coal and mineral products
339 which need further processing and provide these energy-intensive and
340 low-value-added products to coastal and developed provinces (Feng et al., 2013).

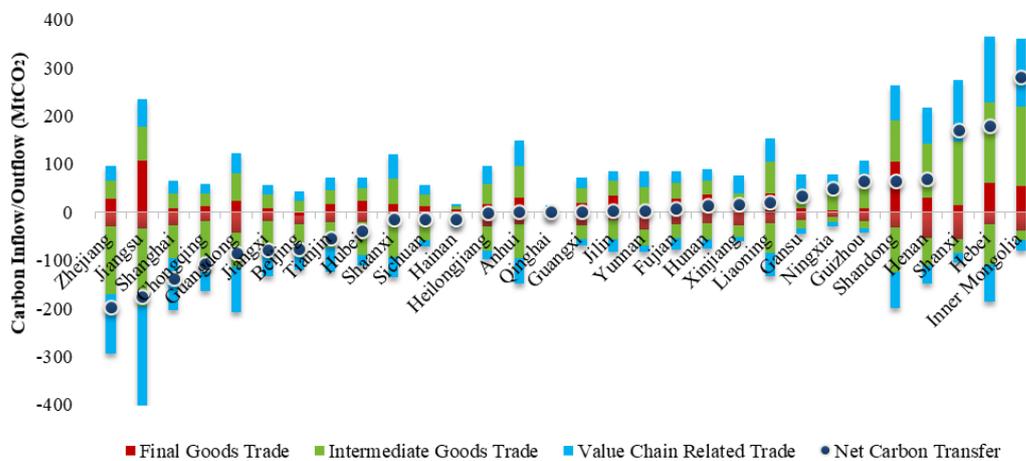
341 To discuss the driving forces of embodied CO₂ emissions, the SDA approach is
342 employed in this study to examine the changes in embodied emissions. From a

343 nationwide view, the embodied emissions of 30 provinces increased by 10% from
344 2007 to 2012 mainly due to change in export. While the carbon intensity and
345 production technology would have offset embodied emissions by 53% and 6%,
346 respectively, which is determined by the clean technology development. As the impact
347 of the global financial crisis on Chinese exports recedes, the growth of export raised
348 by nearly 5 times for the period between 2010 and 2012 as that of the first period.
349 National embodied emissions raised by 10% from 2010 to 2012. At the same period,
350 the dividend of carbon emission reduction brought by the adjustment of industrial
351 structure began to appear. Production technology offset the growth by 75%. From a
352 provincial perspective, results show that Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Shandong dealt with
353 the largest increases in emissions embodied in trade, which is mainly determined by
354 the changes in export. By contrast, some provinces enjoy a drop in emissions that is
355 embodied in trade over this period, such as Inner Mongolia from 2010 to 2012. The
356 main contribution is the change in carbon intensity and decline in export. For most
357 provinces, advanced production technology contributes a decline on the embodied
358 emissions. While the production technology change also stimulates the embodied
359 emissions for Beijing, Tianjin and Shanghai, etc., because the growth in the share of
360 intermediate inputs per unit of outputs (Xu and Dietzenbacher, 2014).

361 3.2 Provincial balance of embodied emissions by trade pattern

362 Considering the effect of production fragmentation, the carbon transfer by
363 different trade patterns reflects various directions. Fig. 3 shows the emissions induced
364 by imports and exports through different trade patterns of 30 provinces of China.

365 From the perspective of imports and exports, Zhejiang was the largest net importer
 366 with 196Mt embodied carbon emissions, of which 56% embodied carbon emissions
 367 was from the value chain related trade. Besides, it indicates that Zhejiang is in the
 368 intermediate link of production and products which crosses borders many times
 369 before they are delivered to the final users through inter-provincial trade and
 370 contributes most to carbon emissions of Zhejiang. Similarly, Jiangsu, Shanghai and
 371 Chongqing are the major importers who import more than 100Mt CO₂ through
 372 inter-provincial trade. All these provinces are consumption-oriented provinces with
 373 advanced technologies and booming economics. However, the direction of carbon
 374 transfer may be different in terms of trade patterns. For Beijing and Guangdong, they
 375 are always the importers. While for Jiangsu, it is an exporter of final goods.

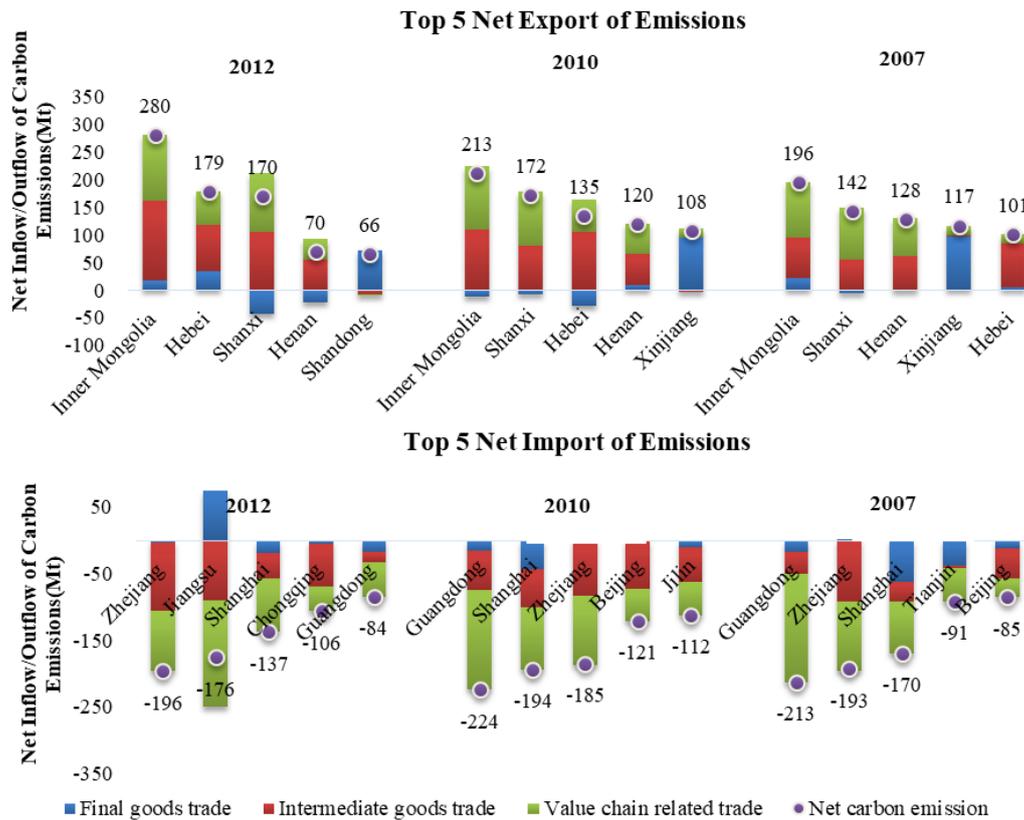


376
 377 **Fig. 3.** Decomposition of carbon emissions embodied in the import and export of 30
 378 provinces of China in 2012

379 In terms of net export, the largest net exporter was Inner Mongolia with 280Mt
 380 embodied carbon emissions, of which 64% embodied carbon is from the value chain
 381 related trade. Meanwhile, Hebei and Shanxi export more than 100Mt CO₂ as net

382 exporters. All of these regions are rich in natural resources, such as coal of Shanxi and
383 Inner Mongolia. These provinces carry out intermediate goods processing and
384 stimulate their local economy which leads to higher carbon emissions finally.
385 However, the direction of net carbon transfer may vary according to trade patterns.
386 For instance, although Shanxi is a net carbon exporter from the perspective of total
387 trade, it is a net carbon importer in terms of the trade of final goods.

388 We also compared the top 5 net exporters and importers in 2007, 2010 and 2012
389 (Fig. 4). For net exporters, Inner Mongolia has always been the largest net exporter
390 and its net carbon emissions has continued to grow during this period. The carbon
391 emissions embodied in value chain related trade accounts for more than 50% of its net
392 emissions. In addition, Hebei and Shanxi are always in the top 5, both of them are less
393 developed provinces with rich resources. For the top 5 net importers, all of them are
394 affluent provinces or coastal provinces including Zhejiang, Shanghai, Guangdong,
395 Beijing and Tianjin. It is worth noting that coastal provinces import products and
396 emissions from other provinces and further export products to foreign countries. In
397 general, most developed regions are net importers of embodied emissions from trade,
398 while developing regions are net exporters (Su and Ang, 2011).



399

400 **Fig. 4.** Top 5 net importer province (row 1) and net exporter province (row 2) in 2012,
 401 2010 and 2007

402 3.3 Bilateral carbon transfer by trade pattern

403 Further, this paper examined the effects of bilateral trade between provinces in
 404 China on provincial carbon emissions, respectively. Fig. 5 shows the top 10 net
 405 carbon flows of bilateral trade by different trade patterns in 2007, 2010 and 2012. Net
 406 carbon transfer in final goods trade maps the flows from northwest (Xinjiang) to north
 407 coast (Beijing-Tianjin) and east coast (Zhejiang, Jiangsu and Shanghai) (column 1).
 408 Xinjiang was the largest net exporter in 2007 and 2010 who mainly sent agricultural
 409 products and energy to Tianjin, Shanghai and Jiangsu whilst participated less in the
 410 national value chain. Jiangsu became the largest net exporter in 2012 and trade with

411 central (Hubei, Hunan) and south coast (Guangdong) regions. The top 10 net carbon
412 transfer by intermediate goods trade mainly concentrates in central regions, north
413 coast and east coast (column 2). Hebei and Inner Mongolia are two largest net
414 exporters who provide coal and metal products with developed provinces nearby, such
415 as Beijing, Zhejiang and Jiangsu. Inner Mongolia has been one of the major electricity
416 suppliers since the project of West-East electricity transmission implemented in 2001
417 and supply thermal power to Beijing-Tianjin. Similarly, the map of value chain related
418 trade centers in central and northeast coast regions. Besides, the south coast province
419 Guangdong is a large carbon importer by trading with southwest regions, such as
420 Yunnan, Guizhou and Guangxi. This bilateral trade flow also shows the south channel
421 of West-East electricity transmission project where power grid of Yunnan and
422 Guizhou lies in the headstream and Guangdong is the destination. Overall, bilateral
423 trades within China result in the growth of the carbon emissions in Xinjiang, Inner
424 Mongolia and Shanxi who produce products for the Beijing-Tianjin, north coast and
425 east coast provinces. It should be noted that bilateral trade within China is uneven
426 geographically and provinces in the northwest (except Xinjiang) and southwest
427 participated less in the trade.

428

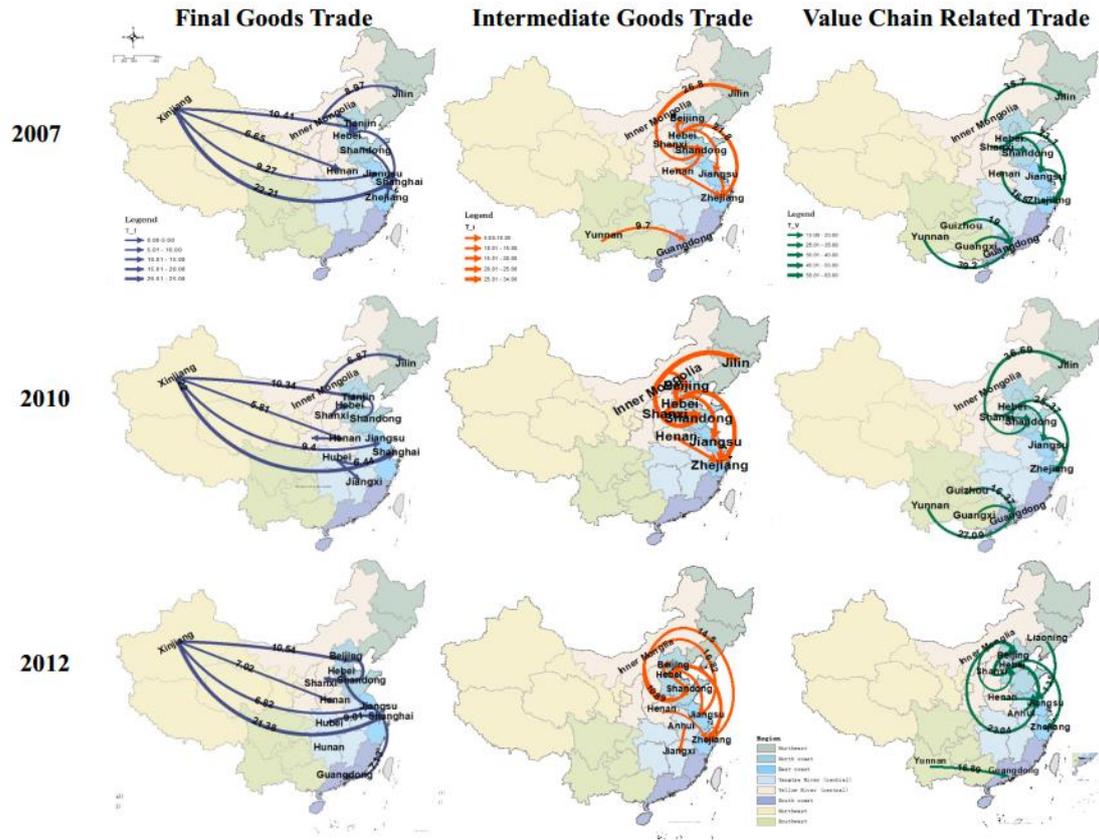


Fig. 5. The top 10 bilateral net carbon transfer flows by final goods trade,

intermediate goods trade and value chain related trade in 2007, 2010 and 2012

Notes: blue line represents the net carbon flows by final goods trade, red line represents the net carbon flows by intermediate goods trade, green line represents the net carbon flows by value chain related trade; the values in the line is the net virtual carbon transfer between two regions; the thickness of a line indicates the net virtual carbon trade amount.

The effects of bilateral trade by trade patterns on carbon emissions of China is evaluated as the balance of avoided emissions by formula (4). In the final goods trade, trade between Shanghai and Shandong decreased China's carbon emissions by 4.14Mt. Export from Shanghai to Shandong decreased national emissions by 6.64Mt, while export from Shandong to Shanghai increased national emissions by 2.50Mt. It indicates carbon embodied in production of products in Shanghai which consumed in

443 Shandong is less than the emissions that would be generated if the products are
444 produced in Shandong by 6.64Mt. This is because carbon intensity of Shanghai
445 (0.96kgCO₂/Yuan) is much lower than that of Shandong (1.68 kgCO₂/Yuan).
446 Therefore, import from provinces whose carbon intensity is lower than itself will
447 decrease national carbon emissions, actually. On the contrary, import from provinces
448 whose production technology is less advanced and carbon intensity is higher will
449 increase national emissions. For example, the bilateral trade between Shanxi and
450 Beijing contributes to a positive BAE by 11.66Mt. Export from Shanxi increase
451 national emissions by 11.79Mt, although export from Beijing contributes a decline by
452 0.13Mt. In short, import from a province whose carbon intensity is lower and
453 production technology is more advanced will be beneficial to the national carbon
454 reduction.

455 3.4 Effects of inter-provincial trade on national carbon emissions

456 Furthermore, it is imperative to investigate how production fragmentation affect
457 the national emissions through inter-provincial trade. In this section, we evaluate this
458 effect by balance of avoided emissions (BAE). A negative BAE means the
459 inter-provincial trade contributes to a decrease in carbon emissions of China, vice
460 versa. First, we analyze the change of BAE of different trade patterns in 2007, 2010
461 and 2012 (Table 1). In 2010, inter-provincial trade increased BAE by 455 MtCO₂
462 compared with 2007 which are contributed by final goods trade and intermediate
463 goods. This result may be attributed to the four trillion yuan stimulus package in 2008
464 which mainly aimed at infrastructure construction and caused the growth of both

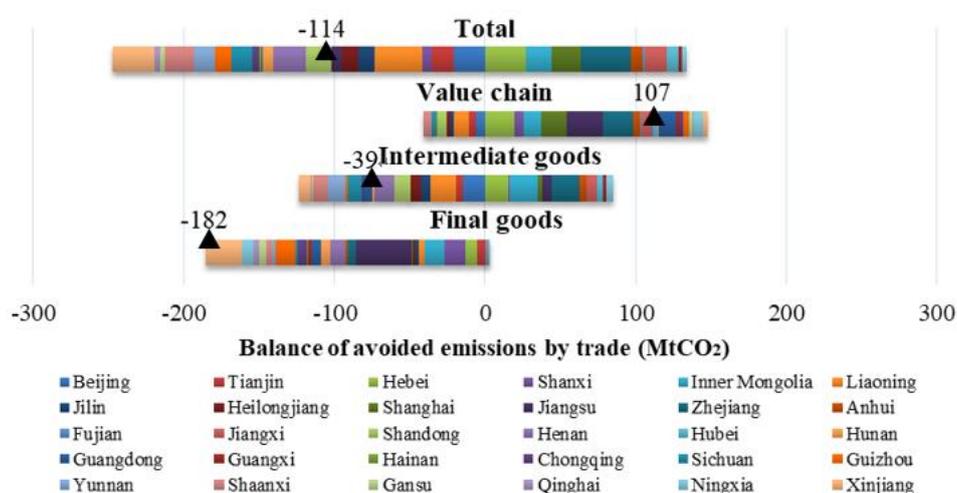
465 energy consumption and carbon intensity in heavy industries. Higher carbon intensity
 466 raised the carbon embodied in final goods and intermediate goods. These two trade
 467 patterns are less affected by production fragmentation, compared with the value chain
 468 related trade. In 2012, the impact of four trillion yuan on the growth of national
 469 carbon emissions showed a gradual weakening trend, not only in the carbon embodied
 470 in final goods trade, but also in the that of intermediate goods trade, which is
 471 consistent with the BAE in 2007. Nevertheless, BAEs of value chain related trade
 472 have always been positive for these years, which indicates the development of
 473 production fragmentation stimulates the national emissions.

474 Table 1 The effects of different trade patterns on national emissions (MtCO₂) in 2007,
 475 2010 and 2012

	2007	2010	2012
Final goods trade	-313	-18	-182
Intermediate goods trade	-128	59	-39
Value chain related trade	233	207	107
Total BAE	-208	247	-114

476 Second, we analyzed the contributions of each province to BAE by trade pattern
 477 in 2012 (Fig. 6). In general, inter-provincial trade contributes to a decrease in carbon
 478 emissions of China by 114Mt in 2012. This is contrary to findings of Feng et al. (2013)
 479 which reported that the interprovincial trade within China cost a higher environmental
 480 pollution potentially, as the overall emissions might be higher. Inter-provincial trade
 481 within central coastal and south coast provinces and affluent cities such as Beijing,
 482 Tianjin, Shanghai and Jiangsu are the largest contributor to national emissions
 483 reduction. This is mainly due to their cleaner production technologies and lower

484 carbon intensity. By contrast, northwest and central provinces (e.g. Xinjiang, Inner
 485 Mongolia and Hebei) contributed to the growth in national emissions. From the
 486 perspective of trade patterns, BAE of the same region may vary according to trade
 487 pattern. For example, export in final goods and intermediate goods from Beijing
 488 resulted in declines by -26Mt and -46Mt, while that in value chain related goods
 489 increased BAE by 22Mt.

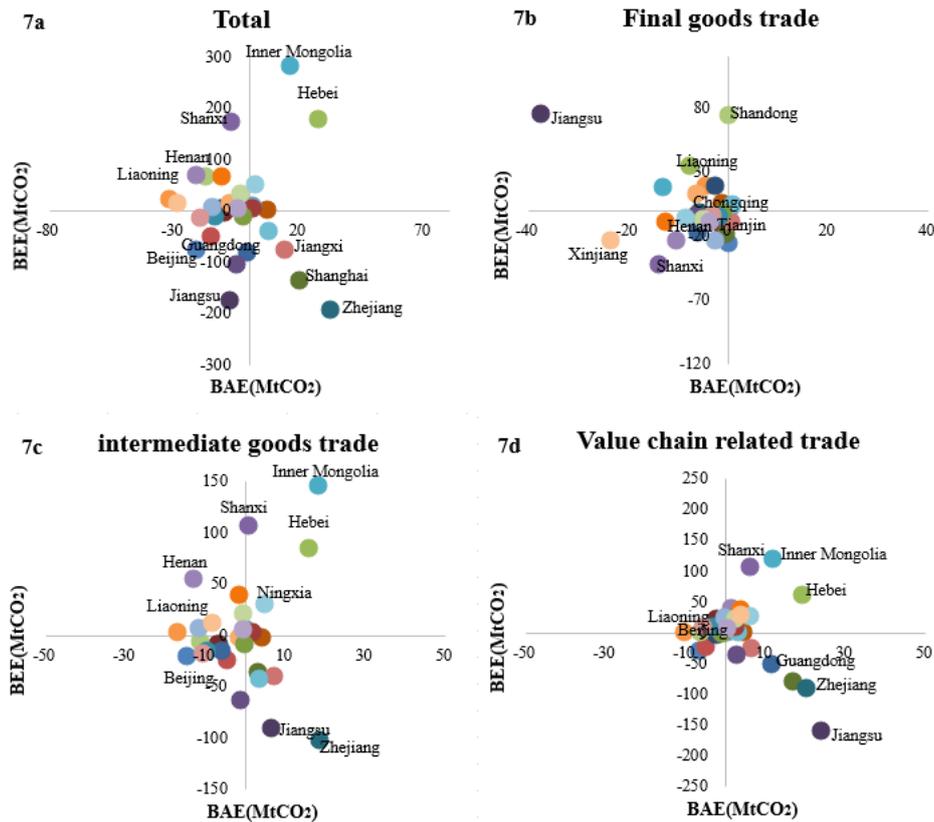


490
 491

Fig. 6. Balance of avoided emissions by trade pattern in 2012

492 Furthermore, we evaluate the environmental effects of interprovincial trade on
 493 national and provincial carbon emissions of 30 provinces. By selecting the balance of
 494 avoided emissions (BAE) as the horizontal axis and the balance of embodied
 495 emissions (BEE) as the vertical axis, 30 provinces are divided into four quadrants (see
 496 Fig. 7). Fig. 7a shows the environmental effects of gross trade activities of 30
 497 provinces. Six provinces are located in the first quadrant with a positive BAE and
 498 positive BEE which indicates the trade of these provinces with others promotes both
 499 local provincial and national carbon emissions. Inner Mongolia and Hebei as two
 500 representatives, both supply low-value-added and carbon-intensive products such as

501 coal and mineral products to other provinces in China. Just like China and Russia,
502 they become the manufactures to the world and also the pollution heaven (Zhang et al.,
503 2017). There are ten provinces in the second quadrant with negative BAE and positive
504 BEE. Most of them are less developed provinces in central and northeast regions. For
505 instance, Shanxi provides services and products to others and results in higher local
506 emissions. The most ideal provinces are in the third quadrant. Trade in these
507 provinces contributes to a decrease in both provincial and national carbon emissions.
508 Affluent cities includes Beijing, Tianjin and Jiangsu reduce carbon emissions by
509 interprovincial trade. The trade within provinces located in the fourth quadrant
510 reduced provincial emissions but increased national emissions. For example, Zhejiang
511 imports a great number of products in heavy industry from the less developed regions.
512 Similarly, US decrease domestic emissions by consuming carbon-intensive products
513 manufactured in other countries while global emissions is increased (Zhang et al.,
514 2017).



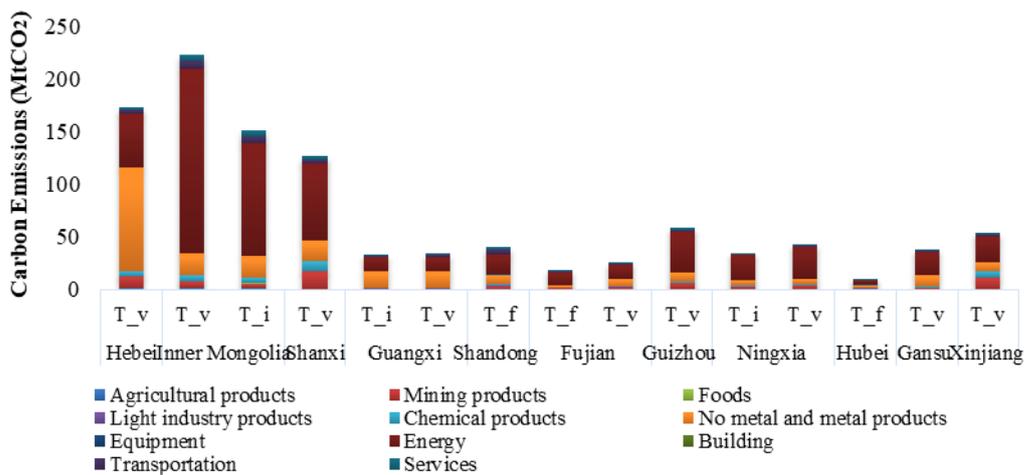
515

516 **Fig. 7.** Environmental effects of interprovincial trade (7a), final goods trade (7b),
 517 intermediate goods trade (7c) and value chain related trade (7d) on national and
 518 provincial carbon emissions (MtCO₂)

519 Attention needs to be paid to the regions located in the first quadrant of Fig. 7
 520 where these provinces contribute to a large amount of carbon emissions induced by
 521 trade patterns both locally and nationally. In six provinces, interprovincial trade
 522 increases carbon emissions of itself as well as national emissions, i.e. Hebei, Inner
 523 Mongolia, Guangxi, Fujian, Ningxia and Anhui. Therefore, these six provinces play a
 524 vital role in achieving the national target of carbon reduction. From the perspective of
 525 trade patterns, Hubei, Shandong and Fujian are crucial provinces in final goods trade.
 526 Inner Mongolia, Hebei, Guangxi and Ningxia are critical provinces in intermediate
 527 goods trade. For value chain related trade, focus should be placed on nine provinces,
 528 such as Hebei, Shanxi. Nevertheless, the effects of the same provinces on carbon

529 emissions varied according to trade patterns. For example, as the largest net carbon
 530 exporter, Inner Mongolia increases the most carbon emissions of China by 42Mt
 531 especially through the trade of intermediate goods and value chain. On the contrary,
 532 Hebei alleviates this situation in the trade of final goods.

533 Similarly, attention should be paid to the high-carbon-emission sectors of 11
 534 provinces in the first quadrant in Fig. 7, such as energy sector, non-metal and metal
 535 products and mineral products (Fig. 8.). For Inner Mongolia and Ningxia, carbon
 536 embodied in energy sectors contributes up to 74% of the total emissions embodied in
 537 trade. For Hebei, Guangxi and Hubei, non-metal and metal sectors should decrease its
 538 carbon emissions because 36-58% of these provinces' total emissions are from this
 539 sector. For Shanxi and Xinjiang, all of them are rich in mining products. Indeed,
 540 mining products should be given priority for those provinces with carbon reduction
 541 targets.



542 **Fig. 8.** Carbon emissions embodied in sectors of trade of the first type provinces
 543 Note: the first type provinces: 15 provinces located in the first quadrant of Figure 8
 544 contribute a large amount of carbon emissions induced by trade patterns to China and
 545 their own. T_f indicates trade in final products. T_i indicates trade in intermediate
 546

547 products for the last stage of production. T_v indicates the value chain related trade.

548 **4. Discussion**

549 This section compares the results of this paper with those of previous studies.
550 Comparison on carbon emissions embodied in interregional trade is made with Mi et
551 al.'s (2017) paper. In addition, comparisons are made on the effects of interregional
552 trade on national or regional carbon emissions with Zhang et al.'s (2012) study, Zhang
553 et al.' 2014 study and López et al.'s (2018) paper.

554 We find some similar results when comparing with previous studies on the
555 carbon transfer within China and the avoided embodied emissions.

556 Firstly, we adopt the same region classification of Mi et al.'s (2017) study and
557 compare interregional carbon transfer within China in 2012. As shown in Fig. S.1, our
558 results are similar with those of Mi et al.'s study, both of which indicate that the
559 Northwest region had the largest carbon outflows, Central and Central Coast regions
560 had the largest carbon inflows. The developed regions, such as the eastern coastal
561 provinces, outsource huge amount of carbon emissions related to goods and services
562 to the less developed Central and Western China.

563 Secondly, we compare the results about the effects of trade on national emissions
564 with previous studies. The results are shown in Table 2. It can be observed there is no
565 significant difference of the balance of avoided emissions between results of this
566 paper and that of previous studies. The differences of carbon emissions embodied in
567 national or regional export may be due to the difference on calculation results. For
568 example, the MRIO tables of Zhang et al. (2014) are from the Development Research

569 Center of the State Council, P.R.C. (Li et al., 2010; Xu and Li, 2008). MRIO tables
570 employed in this study are constructed by the Institute of Geographic Sciences and
571 Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences (Liu et al., 2012; Liu et
572 al., 2014). Besides, the different carbon emissions calculation may also lead to the
573 differ in embodied emissions in exports. Zhang et al. (2014) calculated the CO₂
574 emissions based on the emissions factors provided in IPCC (2006). While Shan et al.
575 (2016, 2017) pointed that the emission factors recommended by the IPCC are
576 frequently higher than the real emissions factors. In our study, we adopted the
577 emission factors provided by CEADs (Shan et al., 2017). We considered different
578 oxygenation efficiency for fossil fuels burnt in different sectors, as the combustion
579 technology level of sectors are different in China. While Zhang et al. (2014) assumed
580 that all the carbons in the fuel are completely combusted and transferred into the
581 carbon dioxide form. Thus the values of embodied emissions in exports in this paper
582 are lower than that of Zhang et al. (2014).

583 Table 2 Comparison with previous studies (million tons CO₂)

	Carbon emissions embodied in exports	Balance of avoided emissions
Zhang (2012)	1751 (2007, national)	712 (2007, national)
Zhang et al. (2014)	6226 (2007, regional)	-119 (2007, regional)
Lopez et al. (2018)	1987 (2009, national)	1228 (2009, national)
This paper	2967 (2007, regional)	-208 (2007, regional)
	3426 (2010, regional)	247 (2010, regional)
	4010 (2012, regional)	-229 (2012, regional)

584
585 Some differences between findings of this study and those of existing studies are
586 also highlighted, which mainly due to the impact of production fragmentation. For

587 example, the total carbon emissions embodied in interregional trade of this paper is
588 18% higher than that of Mi et al.'s paper. Part of the reason is that the estimation of
589 export could be greatly affected by different approaches due to interregional feedback
590 effects (Su and Ang, 2014). Mi et al. (2017) calculated the embodied carbon
591 emissions in interregional trade by the MRIO approach which is suitable for
592 calculating the emissions embodied by the final consumption. While this approach
593 could not identify the emissions induced by different trade patterns and not recognize
594 what's the spillover effects of interregional trade on national carbon emissions.
595 Without concerns on carbon transfer among regions, it would be difficult to identify the
596 responsibility for carbon reduction except to distinguish the final goods trade from the
597 intermediate goods trade. Therefore, this paper calculate the interregional export by
598 EEBT approach which would allocate some parts of the national carbon emissions to
599 interregional trade (Su and Ang, 2011) and identify the impacts of different trade
600 patterns between regions on national carbon emissions which is one of the
601 contributions of this paper.

602 **5. Conclusions and policy implications**

603 At the 2015 Paris Summit, China committed to decrease carbon intensity by 60%
604 - 65% in 2030 as compared to that in 2005. To achieve this target, carbon emissions
605 induced by trade should be focused on, which take accounts for 50% of national
606 carbon emissions. Over recent decades, interregional trade within China has evolved
607 with the growing fragmentation of production network. We enrich the existing studies
608 by examining the carbon transfer within China from the perspective of production

609 fragmentation with the MRIO analysis. The main conclusions of this study are
610 summarized below.

611 First, production fragmentation shape the CO₂ induced by different trade patterns.
612 With the growth of inter-provincial trade volume, carbon emissions embodied in
613 inter-provincial trade grew by 24% from 2007 to 2012. Among different trade
614 patterns, carbon emissions embodied in value chain related trade kept accounting for
615 the largest proportion and increased by 9% for these years. Provincial decompositions
616 show that provinces and sectors with large amount of embodied carbon emissions
617 mainly concentrated in inland provinces with rich resources and the carbon-intensive
618 sectors. There are significant differences in the share of emissions induced by
619 different economic activities, which is closely related to its position in production
620 fragmentation. With the rapid economic growth and development of production
621 fragmentation, trade scale will keep increase and production chain will be more
622 complicated in the future. This highlights carbon emissions induced by value chain
623 related trade should be given attention and the responsibility of carbon reduction
624 should be shared with all participants in the value chain instead of the producer of
625 final products. In order to alleviate the environmental effects of domestic trade, it is
626 necessary to monitor and control the CO₂ emitted in each production processes
627 throughout the supply chain. Green supply-chain management (GSCM) is one of the
628 options, which is committed to minimize the environmental impacts of a product
629 throughout the lifecycle by greener design, recyclable materials, cleaner production,
630 etc. (Ahi and Searcy, 2015). It is still at the early stage in China. The concept of

631 GSCM could be introduced into carbon reduction. The responsibility of carbon
632 reduction can be allocated to all participators in the supply chain, and the whole
633 process can be monitored from production to consumption.

634 Second, all stakeholders in the value chain should take responsibility for carbon
635 reduction. From the perspective of carbon transfer, most inland and less developed
636 regions, such as Inner Mongolia, Hebei and Shanxi, are typically net exporters of
637 embodied carbon emissions. Beijing, Tianjin and Yangtze River Delta are net
638 importers of embodied emissions who are also the relatively developed parts and have
639 advantages in economic and technology. Carbon transfer by bilateral trade within
640 China is uneven in geography, which mainly concentrates in North China and
641 southern coastal areas. Based on the prior studies on the consumption-based
642 responsibility of carbon reduction (Jiang et al., 2015), we inform that the provinces
643 involved in the interregional trade, especially in the value chain related trade (e.g.
644 exporters, importers, processors), and the final users, should bear the responsibility of
645 carbon reduction throughout the country. For example, to realize the Paris
646 Agreement's Chinese commitments, the government could use the percentage of
647 carbon emissions induced by value chain related trade of each province as part of the
648 basis for allocation of national carbon responsibility. Similar with the theory of
649 responsibility principle on climate change, the added-value in supply chain, the
650 environmental impacts, and all stakeholders should be involved in the compensation
651 framework.

652 Third, it is crucial to alleviate the negative effect on national carbon emissions

653 induced by production fragmentation. This study evaluates the effect of interregional
654 trade on national carbon emissions. In general, inter-provincial trade within China
655 generate national carbon emissions saving by 114 Mt in 2012. Trade in final products
656 and trade in intermediate goods products contributes a reduction by 182Mt and 39Mt,
657 respectively, because downstream production gradually shifted to provinces with
658 cleaner production technology and lower carbon intensities. While the value chain
659 related trade contribute a growth to national carbon emissions. This is because the
660 low-value-added process of productions are outsourced to the provinces with higher
661 carbon intensity. According to results of this study, trades between different provinces
662 have different effects on national and provincial carbon emissions. Based on their
663 effects, we divided the provinces into four types. The Type I provinces whose trade
664 increase carbon emissions of China and itself should be paid special attention, such as
665 Inner Mongolia. Due to the backward technology and carbon-intensive industry
666 structure, these provinces supply the low-value-added and high-carbon products with
667 importers in the supply chain. Governments should invest more in R&D in the Type I
668 provinces and promote the development of clean technology and renewable energy,
669 such as the solar power. Similarly, the Type IV provinces may be the importer of Type
670 I provinces whose trade activities drop the local emissions while raise the national
671 carbon emissions. For these two types of provinces, government could propose
672 market-oriented policies by means of enforcement or incentive and achieve shared
673 responsibly of climate change. Carbon tax is an economic means to internalize the
674 social costs of environmental pollution and ecological destruction into production

675 costs and market prices, and then distribute environmental resources through market
676 mechanism. Producers can pass on carbon taxes to importers by raising product prices
677 and realize shared responsibility. For Type II and Type III provinces, the carbon
678 emissions induced by trade haven't stimulated the growth of national carbon
679 emissions, which should not be controlled by the government, although the domestic
680 trade increase the carbon emissions of Type II provinces.

681 There are some limitations of this study which is similar to other papers utilizing
682 MRIO approach. First, due to the lack of product specificity within sectors, the
683 aggregation error may significantly affect our estimates of the carbon transfer among
684 provinces. Since the carbon emissions within a specific sector was assumed
685 homogeneity, the distinct differences within different industrial processes are not
686 taken into consideration. Second, this study didn't not distinguish production process
687 for final products from that for intermediate products. This is because the input-output
688 model assumed the output of each sector was homogeneous, which may influence
689 estimates on the carbon transfer derived from different trade patterns.

690

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700 **Supporting Information.** Additional details on approaches, figures and tables.

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