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A comparison of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission trends among provinces in China

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Abstract

As the world leader in CO₂ emissions, China is a key focus for climate change mitigation. In this paper, we conducted a cross-province comparison of CO₂ emission trends in China from 2006 to 2012. We determined effects of CO₂ emission factor (EMF), energy mix change (EMX), potential energy intensity change (PEI), industrial structure (STR), economic activity (EAT), technological change (BPC) and energy efficiency change (EC) as underlying forces of CO₂ emission changes with production-based decomposition. Compared to other production-theory decomposition analyses (PDA), the method used in this paper can overcome the weakness of PDA on the measurement of structural changes and energy mix effect. The results provided strong evidence that EAT is the main driver behind rising emissions, while changes in PEI, EMX and EC have led to CO₂ emission reductions in most provinces/municipalities in China. In particular, we introduced the global benchmark technology to establish the relationship between CO₂ emissions and energy use technology. The potential CO₂ reductions in China were further measured under the scenarios of contemporaneous technology and global technology. The principal empirical implication is that the promotion of energy conservation technology and reductions in inter-regional technological disparity would be effective in reducing CO₂ emissions in technically inefficient regions.

Keywords: Decomposition; Shephard distance function; Production-theory decomposition analysis; Data envelopment analysis.

Highlights

- A combination of IDA and PDA is developed to investigate CO₂ emissions in China.
- Economic activity is the main driver behind China's rising CO₂ emissions.
- The less developed regions show large potential reduction of CO₂ emissions.

1 **1. Introduction**

2 As the world leader in CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion, China has
3 attracted worldwide attention with its accelerating CO₂ emissions over the past three
4 decades. Considering its critical role in global CO₂ emissions, China becomes a key
5 focus for effects in emission mitigations. In this context, a lot of efforts have been
6 made to identify and quantify the underlying driving forces that affect CO₂ emission
7 changes in China. In literature, factors that influence changes of China's CO₂
8 emissions have been widely discussed in previous studies ([1]; [2]; [3]; [4]; [5]).
9 However, CO₂ emission trends among different provinces in China have been less
10 systematically investigated ([6]).

11 It should be noted that significant diversity exists among eastern, central and
12 western areas in China ([7]). For example, indicators such as per capita GDP, carbon
13 emission intensity and energy efficiency differ greatly across regions in China ([8]),
14 and the differences are most prominent between the developed regions in eastern area
15 and the less developed regions in western area of China. In order to control
16 greenhouse gas emissions, the Chinese government established a set of carbon
17 emission reduction targets for different regions in the 11th and 12th Five-Year Plans
18 (FYP) for national economic and social development. However, how to reasonably
19 allocate regional CO₂ reduction targets based on the actual situations and reduction
20 potential of various regions is still worthy of discussion ([9]). Therefore,
21 understanding the key drivers behind China's growing CO₂ emissions and developing
22 regional emission reduction policies in China have theoretical and practical values for

23 decision makers.

24 CO₂ emissions in China have attracted increasing attentions in light of China's
25 decisive role in the global carbon emission mitigation. Technically, CO₂ emission
26 changes can be analyzed by attributing the changes in CO₂ emissions into several
27 pre-defined factors by adopting decomposition analysis ([10]). In literature, the
28 structural decomposition analysis (SDA) and the index decomposition analysis (IDA)
29 are the most commonly used decomposition techniques ([11]; [12]; [13]; [14]; [15];
30 [16]; [17]; [18]; [19]; [20])¹. In terms of data and methodologies, the SDA uses the
31 input–output framework and data, while the IDA uses only sector level data to
32 decompose changes in indicators. Therefore, compared to SDA, the method of IDA is
33 more flexible, easy to use, and has relatively lower data requirements for empirical
34 models. As a result, IDA has been widely used to decompose CO₂ emissions in
35 different countries and various time periods ([21]; [22]; [23]; [24]; [25]). Under the
36 framework of IDA, factors such as the carbon intensity of energy use, energy
37 intensity, structural change and economic activity were identified as the major factors
38 affecting CO₂ emissions, and the decline in energy intensity was identified as the
39 driving force for the considerable decrease in China's CO₂ emissions ([26]; [27];
40 [28]). However, IDA could not provide a quantitative analysis for the impacts of
41 technological change effect, substitutions between energy and other inputs (i.e.,
42 capital and labor), and the effect of technical efficiency change on sectoral intensity
43 change, because it simply regards the energy/emission intensity change as the effect

¹ A useful summary of the various methods of IDA can be found in Ang and Zhang (2000). In addition, Ang et al. (2010) also provides a systematic review on the existing IDA-based energy efficiency accounting systems. Additionally, Hoekstra and Van den Bergh (2003) provided a comparison between SDA and IDA.

44 of production technology ([29]; [30]). Therefore, the method of IDA is difficult to
45 provide reasonable explanations on the mechanism of sectoral energy/emission
46 intensity changes based on economic theories ([31]; [32]).

47 More recently, in order to analyze the impact of production technology,
48 decomposition analysis was improved and conducted within the production theory
49 framework. [33] proposed production-theoretical decomposition analysis (PDA)
50 based on Shephard output distance functions, which can be computed using data
51 envelopment analysis (DEA) techniques. Empirical analyses of CO₂ emission changes
52 based on the method of PDA include [34]; [35]; [36]; [37]; [38], etc. The proposed
53 methodologies can assess the effects of “technological change” and “technical
54 efficiency change”. The former measures the effect of best practice technology, and
55 the latter measures the effect of changes in production efficiency. PDA provides
56 detailed information about the influence of production technologies, which could be
57 used to evaluate the degree of “energy efficiency paradox” ([36]). However, its
58 measurement on energy mix effect and the industrial structure effect, which are
59 regarded as important factors of emission change, is possibly inconsistent with reality.
60 For example, when industrial structure transforms from energy intensive industries to
61 less energy intensive industries, it is expected that the industrial structure change
62 would reduce an economy’s overall energy intensity. However, results from PDA
63 indicates that such an industrial structure transformation has a negative effect on
64 energy intensity reduction ([39]). PDA has a similar problem for the measurement of
65 energy mix effect. When energy consumption structure has been improved, it is

66 expected that such improvement would promote energy intensity reduction or at least
67 would not have a negative impact on energy intensity reduction. However, results from
68 PDA demonstrate the inconsistency.

69 The main reason for the above problems of PDA is that the structural components
70 in output distance function are symmetrical. In other words, different properties of
71 industries and energies cannot be reflected in the PDA model. Specifically, the lower
72 energy consumption feature of the tertiary industry sector compared to the second
73 industry sector is not reflected in the distance function. Therefore, the PDA model
74 cannot provide information on the real effect of industrial structure transformation. In
75 the PDA model, the output proportions of three sectors (primary, secondary, and
76 tertiary) are all included in the output distance functions. The industrial structure was
77 assumed to change as follows: the share of primary industry remained constant, the
78 share of secondary industry declined, while the share of tertiary increased
79 correspondingly. On one hand, the declined proportion of secondary industry in
80 output would make the value of output distance function smaller; on the other hand,
81 the increased proportion of tertiary industry in output would make the value of output
82 distance function bigger. If the effect of the latter were bigger than the former, the
83 industrial structure transformation would have a negative impact on energy intensity
84 reduction, which is contrary to fact.

85 Based on the above analysis, we combined the advantages of IDA and PDA to
86 examine the influencing factors of China's CO₂ emission changes and compare CO₂
87 emissions among provinces in China. Specifically, we establish the decomposition

88 model based on the Shephard energy distance function to disaggregate the provincial
89 level changes of CO₂ emissions in China during 2006-2012, and then introduce the
90 global benchmark technology to establish the relationship between CO₂ emissions and
91 energy use technologies. The central idea of the combination is introducing Shephard
92 energy distance functions which captures the impacts from production technology in
93 the expression of the aggregate CO₂ emissions, and then conducting IDA (e.g., LMDI)
94 for this equation to identify the influencing factors driving change in the aggregate
95 CO₂ emissions. In this sense, PDA and IDA are embodied together to provide the
96 mechanism of CO₂ emission change. **The contributions of this paper lie in the**
97 **following aspects:** First, the decomposition method used in this paper can overcome
98 the weakness of PDA on the measurement of structural changes, and thus can produce
99 more reasonable results; Second, the proposed approach has been applied in the field
100 of investigating CO₂ emission trends among provinces in China; Third, from the
101 methodological perspective, this paper specifies a different production technology
102 setting which could be extended to other application areas.

103 The remainder of this article is organized as follows: [Section 2](#) describes
104 methodology and data; [Section 3](#) presents and discusses the empirical results; [Section](#)
105 [4](#) is conclusions and implications.

106 **2. Methodology and Data**

107 *2.1 The decomposition model*

108 The CO₂ emissions of country $n = 1, \dots, N$ can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
C_t^n &= \sum_{ij} C_{ij,t}^n \\
109 \quad &= \sum_{ij} \frac{C_{ij,t}^n}{E_{ij,t}^n} \frac{E_{ij,t}^n}{E_{i,t}^n} \frac{E_{i,t}^n / Y_{i,t}^n}{D_i^s(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)} \frac{Y_{i,t}^n}{Y_t^n} \frac{D_i^s(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)}{D_i^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)} D_{i,t}^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n) \quad (1)
\end{aligned}$$

110 where $E_{ij,t}^n$ denotes the consumption of the type- j energy in the sub-sector i of
111 country n at the period t , and $C_{ij,t}^n$ represents the CO₂ emissions from $E_{ij,t}^n$; $D_i^s(\cdot)$
112 and $D_i^c(\cdot)$ are the Shepard energy distance functions defined on the
113 contemporaneous benchmark technology and the global benchmark technology,
114 respectively. Specifically, the contemporaneous production technology for the
115 industrial sub-sector $i = 1, \dots, I$ at time period $t = 1, \dots, T$ can be expressed as:

$$116 \quad T_{i,t}^c = \{(E_{i,t}, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t}) : E_{i,t} \text{ can produce } (Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t})\} \quad (2)$$

117 The global benchmark technology for the industrial sub-sector i is defined as
118 ([40] and [41]):

$$119 \quad T_i^g = \{T_{i,1}^c \cup T_{i,2}^c \cup \dots \cup T_{i,T}^c\} \quad (3)$$

120 According to [42], the Shepard energy distance function relative to the
121 contemporaneous benchmark technology and the global benchmark technology can be
122 described as Eq. (4) and Eq. (5), respectively.

$$123 \quad D_{i,t}^c(E_{i,t}, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t}) = \sup\{\theta : (E_{i,t} / \theta, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t}) \in T_{i,t}^c\} \quad (4)$$

$$124 \quad D_i^g(E_{i,t}, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t}) = \sup\{\theta : (E_{i,t} / \theta, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t}) \in T_i^g\} \quad (5)$$

125 Using DEA-type linear programming technique, the Shepard energy distance
126 function can be estimated through the following optimization problems.

$$\begin{aligned}
& [D_{i,t}^c(E_{i,t}, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t})]^{-1} = \min \theta \\
& \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n E_{i,t}^n \leq \theta E_{i,t} \\
& \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n Y_{i,t}^n \geq \theta Y_{i,t} \\
& \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_n C_{i,t}^n = \theta C_{i,t} \\
& \lambda_n \geq 0, n=1, \dots, N, t=1, \dots, T
\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

127

$$\begin{aligned}
& [D_i^g(E_{i,t}, Y_{i,t}, C_{i,t})]^{-1} = \min \theta \\
& \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_{n,t} E_{i,t}^n \leq \theta E_{i,t} \\
& \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_{n,t} Y_{i,t}^n \geq \theta Y_{i,t} \\
& \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{n=1}^N \lambda_{n,t} C_{i,t}^n = \theta C_{i,t} \\
& \lambda_{n,t} \geq 0, n=1, \dots, N, t=1, \dots, T
\end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

128

129 Using the LMDI method, the change in CO₂ emissions between time period t and
130 time period τ can be decomposed as:

$$131 \quad C_{\tau}^n / C_t^n = D_{EMF} \times D_{EMX} \times D_{PEI} \times D_{STR} \times D_{EAT} \times D_{BPC} \times D_{EC} \tag{8}$$

$$132 \quad \text{where } D_{EMF} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_{\tau}^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{C_{ij,\tau}^n / E_{ij,\tau}^n}{C_{ij,t}^n / E_{ij,t}^n} \right\};$$

$$133 \quad D_{EMX} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_{\tau}^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{E_{ij,\tau}^n / E_{i,\tau}^n}{E_{ij,t}^n / E_{i,t}^n} \right\};$$

$$134 \quad D_{PEI} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_{\tau}^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{[E_{i,\tau}^n / D_{i,\tau}^c(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n)] / Y_{i,\tau}^n}{[E_{i,t}^n / D_{i,t}^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)] / Y_{i,t}^n} \right\};$$

$$135 \quad D_{STR} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_{\tau}^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{Y_{i,\tau}^n / Y_{\tau}^n}{Y_{i,t}^n / Y_t^n} \right\};$$

$$136 \quad D_{EAT} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_{\tau}^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{Y_{\tau}^n}{Y_t^n} \right\};$$

$$137 \quad D_{BPC} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_{\tau}^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{D_i^g(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n) / D_i^c(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n)}{D_i^g(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n) / D_i^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)} \right\};$$

$$D_{EC} = \exp \left\{ \frac{L(C_{ij,\tau}^n, C_{ij,t}^n)}{L(C_\tau^n, C_t^n)} \ln \frac{D_{i,\tau}^c(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n)}{D_{i,t}^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)} \right\}.$$

$L(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a weighting scheme called logarithmic mean weight which is expressed as follows:

$$L(x, y) = \begin{cases} (x - y) / (\ln x - \ln y), & x \neq y \\ x, & x = y \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

The decomposition model presented above is a modification of [36]. Unlike [36], we introduce the global benchmark technology to establish the relationship between CO₂ emissions and energy use technology. Our formulation avoids the introduction of the cross-period distance functions so that it can be free from the infeasibility issue.

Eq. (8) shows that the change in CO₂ emissions over times can be decomposed into seven components. The first component D_{EMF} is the CO₂ emission factor effect. The second component D_{EMX} refers to the effect of energy mix change. The third component D_{PEI} captures the energy intensity change under the scenario without energy inefficiency relative to the global technology. Following [42] and [36], we term this component as the potential energy intensity change. The fourth component D_{STR} is industrial structure effect, accounting for the impact from output composition change. The fifth component D_{EAT} refers to the impact from output scale change which is usually regarded as economic activity effect.

$D_i^c(E_i^n, Y_i^n, C_i^n) / D_i^g(E_i^n, Y_i^n, C_i^n)$ is a best practice gap the global technology (T_i^g) and the contemporaneous technology ($T_{i,t}^c$) measured along energy direction.

$\frac{D_i^c(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n) / D_i^g(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n)}{D_i^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n) / D_i^g(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)}$ indicates the contemporaneous technology gets

closer to (shifts further away from) the global benchmark technology. In other words,

159 the value of this ratio means technological change. Thus, the sixth component D_{BPC}
160 which is the weighting sum of the reciprocal of $\frac{D_i^c(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n) / D_i^s(E_{i,\tau}^n, Y_{i,\tau}^n, C_{i,\tau}^n)}{D_i^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n) / D_i^s(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)}$
161 describes the impact from technological change in energy use. $1 / D_{i,t}^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)$ is
162 the ratio of the minimum energy input (under the contemporaneous technology) to the
163 real energy input, which is usually defined as energy use efficiency (denoted as EC).
164 The last component D_{EC} is the weighting sum of the reciprocal of EC , thereby
165 indicating the effect of energy efficiency change.

166 In summary, the change in CO₂ emissions over time can be attributed into seven
167 indexes: emission factor change, energy mix change, potential energy intensity
168 change, output structure change, economic activity effect, the effect of energy
169 technological change and the effect of energy efficiency change. For any one of them,
170 it will contribute to the increase of (decline in) CO₂ emissions if its value is greater
171 (less) than one.

172 2.2 Data

173 A panel data set including China's 30 provinces/municipalities during the period
174 of 2006-2012 is collected for the empirical study¹. The whole economy for each
175 province is divided into six subsectors: "agriculture", "industry", "construction",
176 "transport, storage and post", "wholesale, retail, hotels and catering services", and
177 "financial intermediation, real estate and other tertiary industries". The output variable
178 is represented by value-added of the economic subsector. Data on value-added are

¹ Due to data unavailability, Tibet is not included in this study.

179 collected from China Premium Database¹. Data on different types of energy are
180 obtained from China Energy Statistical Yearbook (CESY)². Data on energy-related
181 CO₂ emissions are estimated by the method described in [43]. In addition, our
182 calculation of energy-related CO₂ emissions also includes the indirect emissions from
183 heat and power consumption of each subsector. Electricity emission factor is obtained
184 by dividing energy-related CO₂ emissions from electricity generation by the power
185 output. Heat emission factor is obtained by dividing energy-related CO₂ emissions
186 from heat generation by the heat output. Data in value terms are measured at the 2005
187 real 10⁸ Chinese Yuan (CNY).

188 **3. Results and discussion**

189 *3.1 Empirical results of decomposition*

190 **Table 1** reports changes in China's CO₂ emissions and contributions to CO₂
191 emission changes from effects of CO₂ emission factor (EMF), energy mix change
192 (EMX), potential energy intensity change (PEI), industrial structure (STR), economic
193 activity (EAT), technological change (BPC) and energy efficiency change (EC) in
194 different provinces in China during 2006-2012.

195 As shown in column (1), we can see that CO₂ emissions in all
196 provinces/municipalities in China increased during 2006-2012 except for Beijing. As
197 a political and economic center of China, Beijing is one of the world's most polluted
198 cities. Beijing made great efforts to reduce energy-related CO₂ emissions. For

¹ Available at: <http://www.ceicdata.com>.

² Available at: <http://tongji.cnki.net/overseas/engnavi/NaviDefault.aspx>

199 example, Beijing raised emission standards and promoted the use of electric
200 automobiles during the preparation for the Olympic Games in 2008. In 2011, Beijing
201 was identified as one of the pilots of the first batch of national carbon emission
202 trading, and its carbon emission trading scheme was launched in the late 2012.
203 Additionally, the local government used a series of measures to reduce CO₂ emissions:
204 first, shutting down or moving highly polluted factories to neighboring provinces (e.g.,
205 Hebei, Tianjin); second, promoting the emission reduction policies such as “using
206 electricity instead of coal” and “burning natural gas instead of coal”; third,
207 encouraging the transfer of energy saving technologies in energy intensive industries,
208 etc.

209 The values of CO₂ emission factor effect (D_{EMF}) in column (2) are almost smaller
210 than 1 except for those in provinces of Gansu, Hainan, Inner Mongolia and Xinjiang.
211 However, it can be seen that D_{EMF} has a trifling effect on emission changes.

212 The effect of energy mix change (D_{EMX}) in column (3) has led to the decline of
213 CO₂ emissions in 13 provinces in China. However, the energy mix change for 17
214 provinces contributes to their increase in CO₂ emissions. The findings are a little
215 different from the results of [44] which shows that the effect of energy mix change
216 play a negative role in CO₂ emissions in most of China’s provinces.

217 The effect of potential energy intensity (D_{PEI}) in column (4) measures the impact
218 of energy intensity change on CO₂ emissions under the scenario without energy
219 inefficiency relative to the global technology. The values of D_{PEI} in this paper are
220 almost less than one. The results are basically consistent with the findings of [38],

221 indicating that the change of energy intensity will contribute to the decline of CO₂
222 emissions when inefficiency of the energy-usage technology relative to the global
223 technology has been improved as much as possible. In particular, provinces such as
224 Hunan, Jilin and Anhui have experienced larger impacts of D_{PEI} compared to other
225 provinces. In contrast, provinces such as Hainan and Xinjiang have experienced
226 increased potential energy intensity that leads to increasing CO₂ emissions.

227 The values of industrial structure effect (D_{STR}) in column (5) were smaller than
228 one for most provinces/municipalities including Beijing, Gansu, Guangdong, Guizhou,
229 Hainan, Hebei, Heilongjiang, Jiangsu, Ningxia, Shandong, Shanxi, Shaanxi, Shanghai,
230 Tianjin, Xinjiang, Yunnan and Zhejiang. In which, 9 provinces/municipalities are
231 economically developed regions located in the eastern coast of China; 6 provinces are
232 the less economically developed regions located in the western China; and 2
233 provinces are from central China. It indicated that the industrial structure change has
234 changed such that CO₂ emissions have decreased in these provinces. However, the
235 values of D_{STR} were larger than one for provinces such as Anhui, Guangxi, Henan,
236 Hubei, Hunan, Jilin, Jiangxi, Liaoning, Inner Mongolia, Qinghai, Sichuan and so on.
237 It can be seen that most of the listed provinces are less economically developed
238 regions located in the central and western China. In addition, the economic transfer
239 (the transfer of energy-intensive industries) between East and West China may
240 accelerate the transfer of pollution between the two regions.

241 As shown in column (6), the values of economic activity change (D_{EAT}) in all
242 provinces in China are greater than one in this paper. Results indicated that D_{EAT} has

243 played the most dominant role in increasing CO₂ emissions in all provinces in China.
244 The changes for provinces/municipalities such as Anhui, Fujian, Guangxi, Guizhou,
245 Hubei, Hunan, Jiangxi, Liaoning, Inner Mongolia, Qinghai, Shaanxi, Sichuan, Tianjin
246 and Chongqing are greater than the geometric mean (2.0343), indicating that these
247 provinces have experienced higher increases in CO₂ emissions by economic activity
248 expansion. It can be seen that most of listed provinces are located in the central and
249 western China. These findings are in line with most previous studies, e.g., [35]; [38];
250 [44].

251 Columns (7) in Table 1 described the effect of technological change (D_{BPC}) on
252 CO₂ emission changes. The indicator reflected the capabilities for innovating new and
253 advanced technologies. In general, the impacts of technological improvement on CO₂
254 emission reductions were insignificant, implying that technological change has a
255 weaker influence on the reduction of CO₂ emissions compared to other indicators.
256 However, for China's wealthy coastal provinces or rich municipalities including
257 Beijing, Guangdong, Shanghai and Tianjin, the contributions of D_{BPC} to the abatement
258 of CO₂ emissions were significant. As the most developed metropolises in China, the
259 top research institutions were concentrated in Beijing and Shanghai. With the
260 advantage of location close to Beijing, Tianjin has recorded China's highest per-capita
261 GDP since 2013. Additionally, Tianjin was transforming into a hub city for research
262 and development ([45]). As the richest province which borders on Hong Kong,
263 Guangdong has experienced rapid technological progress in recent years ([35]).

264 Columns (8) in Table 1 described the effect of energy efficiency change (D_{EC}) on

265 CO₂ emission changes. Results indicated that most provinces decreased CO₂
 266 emissions due to the improved energy efficiencies. Meanwhile D_{EC} in
 267 provinces/municipalities such as Hebei, Hubei, Qinghai, Shaanxi, Shanghai, Sichuan,
 268 Tianjin and Chongqing slightly affected growing CO₂ emissions.

269 **Table 1 here**

270

271 3.2 The potential of CO₂ emission reductions

272 This subsection further measures the potential CO₂ reduction (PCR) in China.
 273 Under the contemporaneous technology scenario, the PCR for region n at the time
 274 period t can be calculated as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 PCR_{t,c}^n &= C_t^n - C_{t,bpc}^n \\
 C_{t,bpc}^n &= \sum_{ij} \frac{C_{ij,t}^n E_{ij,t}^n}{E_{ij,t}^n E_{i,t}^n} \frac{E_{i,t}^n / D_i^c(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)}{Y_{i,t}^n} Y_{i,t}^n
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{12}$$

276 We obtain the potential of nationwide CO₂ emission reduction by summing up
 277 the potentials of CO₂ emission reduction in different regions in China. Results of the
 278 potential CO₂ reduction under the contemporaneous technology scenario are shown in
 279 [Table 2](#).

280 **Table 2 here**

281

282 As shown in [Table 2](#), the nationwide potential CO₂ reductions (PCR) under the
 283 contemporaneous technology scenario showed an increasing trend overall.
 284 Specifically, the nationwide PCR increased from 15.70 billion tons in 2006 to 20.81
 285 billion tons in 2012 with an average growth rate of 4.93 per annum. The smaller the

286 numerical value of PCR is, the closer the technological gap between each
287 province/municipality's actual technology and the contemporaneous technology is. In
288 other words, PCR indicates the successfulness of the adoption of the
289 contemporaneous technology of each province/municipality. Therefore, results
290 showed that China's capabilities to improve production technical efficiency through
291 introducing international advanced technologies and international cooperation on
292 technological innovation have been weakened over the years.

293 The PCRs of provinces/municipalities including Beijing, Hainan, Shanghai,
294 Tianjin, Zhejiang and so on were relatively lower. This means that the diffusion of
295 production technologies of these provinces/municipalities were more efficient. Most
296 of the above provinces were economically developed regions located in East China.
297 Among which, the PCR of Hainan was the lowest, the average value of which was
298 0.0973 billion tons during 2006-2012. Particularly, the PCR of Beijing dropped
299 significantly from 0.2442 billion tons in 2010 to 0.0973 billion tons in 2011,
300 equivalent to a decrease of 60.16%. Moreover, Beijing, Guangdong and Shanghai
301 have experienced lower potential for mitigation over time. The results are consistent
302 with the analysis in section 3.1.

303 On the contrary, the PCRs of provinces such as Hebei, Henan, Liaoning,
304 Shandong and Shanxi were relatively higher. This means that the diffusions of
305 production technologies of these provinces/municipalities were less efficient. In
306 particular, the PCR of Hebei was the highest among provinces, the average value of
307 which was 2.0082 billion tons during 2006-2012, accounting for 40.69% of the

308 nationwide average value of PCR. In preparation for the 2008 Olympics, Beijing
 309 moved some highly polluted and high energy-consuming industries out of the city to
 310 Hebei province to control industrial pollution. With the integration of
 311 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, more energy intensive industries have been relocated in Hebei
 312 province. The simply relocation of these industries without technological upgrades
 313 might be the possible reason for the high PCR of Hebei.

314 Similarly, the PCR for region n at the time period t under the global technology
 315 scenario can be calculated as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 PCR_{t,g}^n &= C_t^n - C_{t,bpg}^n \\
 C_{t,bpg}^n &= \sum_{ij} \frac{C_{ij,t}^n}{E_{ij,t}^n} \frac{E_{ij,t}^n}{E_{i,t}^n} \frac{E_{i,t}^n / D_i^g(E_{i,t}^n, Y_{i,t}^n, C_{i,t}^n)}{Y_{i,t}^n} Y_{i,t}^n
 \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

317 Results of the potential CO₂ reduction under the global technology scenario are
 318 shown in [Table 3](#). Under the global technology scenario, PCR indicated the
 319 successfulness of the adoption of the global technology, which also reflected the
 320 degree of international cooperation on technological innovation and development.
 321 Results indicated that the nationwide potential CO₂ reduction (PCR) under the global
 322 technology scenario also showed an increasing trend overall. These can be interpreted
 323 to mean that the gaps between China's actual technology and the global technology
 324 have become larger over the years. In other words, China's capabilities to improve
 325 production technological efficiency through introducing international advanced
 326 technologies or international cooperation on technological innovation and
 327 development have been weakened in recent years, and thus resulted in the production
 328 technological efficiency of China trailed far behind the world. Although China has

329 become a global manufacturing center, most products made in China have low added
330 value. According to China statistical yearbooks, the dominant technological intensity
331 level of the Chinese manufacturing industry was low-tech (more than 40%). In the
332 current state of the global supply chain, China's manufacturing industry mainly plays
333 the role of "manufacturing, processing and assembly". In addition, the development of
334 the secondary industry was relatively extensive during the rapid urbanization process,
335 and the introduction of international advanced technology was relatively limited.
336 Therefore, upgrading manufacturing technology levels would be a big challenge faced
337 by China in a new phase of economic development.

338 Comparatively, the numerical values of PCR were larger under the global
339 technology scenario than those under the contemporaneous technology scenario. It
340 indicated that the technological diffusion under the global technology scenario among
341 provinces in China would be slower than that under the contemporaneous technology.
342 This means that the abilities of provinces/municipalities in China to adopting global
343 technologies related to energy usage were even weaker. Specially, provinces such as
344 Hainan, Beijing, Gansu, Ningxia, Qinghai, Tianjin, Shanghai and so on have lower
345 potentials for emission mitigation than provinces including Hebei, Henan, Hubei,
346 Liaoning, Shandong, Shanxi and Sichuan. On one hand, these can be interpreted to
347 mean that provinces/municipalities such as Hainan, Beijing, Gansu, Ningxia, Qinghai,
348 Tianjin, Shanghai and so on have made efforts to adopt the relatively latest production
349 technologies through international cooperation. On the other hand, these can also be
350 interpreted to mean that the spread of energy conservation technologies and

351 reductions in inter-regional technological disparity would be effective in reducing
352 carbon emissions in technically inefficient regions.

353 **Table 3 here**

354

355 **4. Conclusions and implications**

356 As the public concerns about environmental pollution increase and the global
357 concern about the increasing CO₂ emissions from China, how to control and mitigate
358 CO₂ emissions have become the priority of the Chinese government at the stage of
359 “new normal” economic development. Although the government has set reduction
360 targets of CO₂ emissions for different regions in China, the reasonable allocation of
361 regional CO₂ reduction targets based on the actual situations and reduction potentials
362 as well as the differentiated reduction strategies among regions still need further
363 research.

364 With a production-based decomposition approach ([36]), this study identified the
365 emission trends among different provinces/municipalities in China, discussed the
366 impacts of the driving forces behind CO₂ emissions, and evaluated the mitigation
367 potential of each province/municipality under the scenarios of contemporaneous
368 technology and global technology. Specifically, this paper introduced the global
369 benchmark technology to establish the relationship between CO₂ emissions and
370 energy use technology. Additionally, we combined the advantages of IDA and PDA to
371 examine the impacts of energy mix effect and the industrial structure effect on China’s
372 CO₂ emission changes, which made up for the defects of PDA that may result in

373 unreasonable results in the measurement of the above two kinds of effects.

374 The changes of CO₂ emissions for China's 30 provinces/municipalities were
375 decomposed into seven components for the time period 2006-2012. The
376 decomposition results showed that CO₂ emissions in all provinces/municipalities in
377 China increased during 2006-2012 except for Beijing. The results provided strong
378 evidence that the economic activity effect is the main driver behind rising emissions,
379 which is consistent with the conclusions of the existing literature, while changes in
380 potential energy intensity, energy mix and energy efficiency change have led to CO₂
381 emission reductions in most provinces/municipalities in China. In general, the impacts
382 of technological improvement on CO₂ emission reductions were trifling. However, for
383 provinces/municipalities including Beijing, Guangdong, Shanghai and Tianjin, the
384 contributions of technological change to the abatement of CO₂ emissions were
385 significant. These can be interpreted to mean that the above provinces/municipalities
386 showed stronger capabilities for innovating new and advanced energy saving
387 technologies.

388 Because of the increase in the service sector and a decrease in the secondary
389 sector, industrial structure changes have reduced CO₂ emissions in many
390 economically developed regions located in the eastern coast of China. However, the
391 growing proportion of secondary industry due to the economic transfer between East
392 and West China, the changes of industrial structure have resulted in the increase in
393 CO₂ emissions in many less economically developed regions located in western
394 China.

395 Based on the analysis of the potential of CO₂ emission reductions (PCR), we
396 determined that China have experienced higher potential for mitigation over time.
397 Additionally, the numerical values of PCR were larger under the global technology
398 scenario compared to those under the contemporaneous technology scenario.
399 However, the PCRs of economically developed regions located in East China were
400 relatively lower than the less economically developed regions located in central and
401 western China. This means that the diffusions of production technologies of
402 economically developed regions were more efficient. Results indicated that research
403 and development investment in production technology as well as the spread of
404 advanced technologies through international cooperation can effectively reduce the
405 potential for CO₂ emissions mitigation. In particular, the results revealed that energy
406 conservation technology (ECT) promotion and reductions in inter-regional
407 technological disparity would be effective in reducing carbon emissions in technically
408 inefficient regions. Therefore, this paper also provided insights into how the
409 underdeveloped regions in western area of China may develop a low emissions future.

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