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1	Mapping Inter-Industrial CO ₂ Flows within
2	China

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1	Abstract: Like inter-regional CO ₂ leakages, good CO ₂ emission performances from
2	downstream industries in the industrial chain often result in high direct levels of CO ₂
3	emissions in upstream sectors. Thus, it is necessary to rethink industrial carbon policies
4	from the perspective of consumer responsibility. As the largest emitter of CO ₂ in the
5	world, China has a very comprehensive industrial system. In this study, we traced fuel-
6	related CO ₂ flows between 30 Chinese industrial sectors in 2012 and explored the
7	specificities of these flows on aggregate CO2 emission abatement for the entire
8	economy. Previous studies have focused on carbon abatement policies instituted by
9	industries generating high direct CO2 emissions, but our results demonstrate that paying
10	more attention to CO ₂ importers better limits the consumption of energy-intensive
11	materials. The construction sector, a major CO ₂ flow destination because of the large-
12	scale infrastructure required to support rapid urbanization in China, exhibits the greatest
13	transfer of embodied CO ₂ from energy suppliers and from the producers of energy-
14	intensive materials. Our sensitivity analysis indicates that the construction sector shows
15	considerable carbon abatement potential, which is surprisingly much greater than what
16	is feasible for most high-carbon industries. Shifting more attention to industries that
17	consume large amounts of embodied CO2 may help achieve more cost-effective
18	decreases in CO ₂ emissions in absolute terms.

19 Highlights:

• The IO model and HEM are used to identify inter-industrial CO2 flows

• Fuel-related CO2 flows between all 30 industrial sectors in China are mapped

• Industrial carbon policies facilitating CO2 emission abatement are determined

• Construction sector shows considerable carbon abatement potential

Keywords: Carbon Emissions Embodied in Trade; Inter-Industrial Carbon Transfer;
 Hypothetical Extraction Method; Carbon Abatement Potential

1 1. Introduction

CO₂ emissions are closely associated with industrial activities [1]. Local climate 2 3 policy makers worldwide have always paid more attention to industries that generate high levels of direct CO₂ emissions (i.e., high-carbon industries, such as those of the 4 energy sector; hereafter considered the same) to achieve regional low-carbon 5 transformations. This largely reflects the production-based accounting principle, in 6 which the producer is responsible for abating CO₂ emissions [2]. Consequently, many 7 8 compulsory measures are being undertaken in regions and industries that emit large volumes of CO₂. International climate change negotiations have been based largely on 9 this production-based principle [3]. Thus, China has instituted industrial restructuring 10 11 by controlling the growth of high-carbon industries and by encouraging the 12 development of low-carbon industries (i.e., industries generating low levels of direct CO_2 emissions; hereafter considered the same) [4]. 13

14 However, such production-based policies may not always effectively decrease total CO₂ emissions throughout the entire economy. Developed countries/regions may 15 decrease CO₂ emissions within their territorial areas, while increasing their carbon 16 footprints in other countries/regions [5, 6]. Shifting the focus to low-carbon industries 17 within a region may decrease regional CO₂ emission intensity levels but may not 18 decrease total CO₂ emissions [7]. The economic system represents an interdependent 19 and integrated collection of various industries. Production behavior is believed to be 20 provoked or even determined by consumer demand on the industrial supply chain [8-21 10]. Embodied CO₂ emissions and consumption-based accounting principles have 22 therefore been proposed as ways to increase the range of CO2 emission mitigation 23 options [11-14]. CO₂ emissions embodied in products and intermediate goods travel 24 between regions and industries through upstream and downstream flows within the 25

1 economy.

The inter-regional CO₂ emission flows have been well identified over the past few 2 years, focusing on both international [9, 15-20] and domestic trade [6, 21-26]. These 3 studies show that the global economy has been closely interlinked through its complex 4 supply chain. Low CO₂ emissions in downstream industries often cause high direct CO₂ 5 emissions in upstream sectors. Similar to inter-regional CO₂ leakages, the transfer of 6 7 inter-industrial CO₂ flows embodied in products along the supply chain are also complicated. CO₂ emissions associated with complex links between industrial sectors 8 9 have not been well studied [27]. Although numerous studies emphasize the importance of production-based CO₂ emissions and their driving forces [28-37], it is argued that 10 industrial embodied CO₂ emissions better represent CO₂ burdens. Using a multi-11 regional input-output (IO) model, industrial embodied CO2 emissions have been 12 analyzed in many of the inter-regional studies mentioned above. To evaluate inter-13 industrial CO₂ emission transfers, an economic network model was used to trace CO₂ 14 emissions in global supply chains [27]; these models are typically limited in resolution 15 to global to regional scales. In addition, the CO₂ emissions embodied in the supply 16 chain of several specific sectors, such as services, manufacturing, and construction 17 industries, have also been discussed [38-40]. Several studies have demonstrated links 18 between CO₂ emissions across all different industrial sectors of a country, using a 19 hypothetical extraction method (HEM) [7, 41-43]. However, they have largely focused 20 on relationships between industrial clusters rather than CO₂ flows between sectors. In 21 developing countries like China, industrialization is a necessary pathway to economic 22 prosperity. Accurate knowledge of inter-industrial CO₂ flows can be a step toward 23 global climate change mitigation. Consequently, it is necessary for local climate policy 24 makers worldwide, especially those in developing countries, to rethink the appropriate 25

industrial strategies for climate mitigation from a consumer responsibility perspective. 1 As the world's second largest economy, reflecting a vast landmass, huge population, 2 3 and rich natural resources, China has built a comprehensive industrial system. We focus on China, as a key example, and attempt to identify industries that require large 4 embodied CO₂ emissions to satisfy consumer demands (referred to as primary 5 destinations of embodied CO₂ flows). Our aim is to determine whether policies focusing 6 7 on low-carbon industries more efficiently decrease CO₂ emissions than productionbased measures. To answer this question, we need to obtain a full understanding of CO₂ 8 9 emission abatement effects achieved through various industrial policies. This requires quantification of embodied CO₂ transferred between each pair of industrial sectors and 10 determination of the sensitivities of different industrial sectors to total CO₂ emissions 11 of the national economy. 12

In this paper, we trace embodied CO₂ flows between 30 industrial sectors and map 13 detailed inter-industrial CO₂ flows within China. To the best of our knowledge, it is the 14 first quantitative map of embodied CO₂ flow between pairs of industrial sectors in 15 China. Furthermore, based on the proposed map, we re-examine industrial CO₂ 16 emission abatement potentials and determine which industrial carbon policies could 17 best facilitate CO₂ emission abatement in absolute terms for the entire Chinese economy. 18 A sensitivity analysis is performed for each industrial sector to identify the most cost-19 effective industrial carbon policy. Our results can be used to facilitate the development 20 of Chinese industrial carbon policies and offer valuable guidelines for industrial 21 strategies for climate mitigation worldwide, especially for developing countries. 22

23 **2. Materials and methods**

1 2.1 Industrial Fuel-Related CO₂ Emissions

2 The fossil fuel-related CO₂ emissions generated by an industrial sector *i* (C_i)
3 can be calculated as follows:

 $4 C_i = \sum_{k=1}^8 p_{ik} v_k \eta_k$

$$T_i = \frac{C_i}{x_i}$$

5

where T_i is the direct CO₂ emission intensity of sector i (t/10⁴ ¥); x_i is the total output of sector i (10⁴ ¥); C_i is the direct CO₂ emissions generated by sector i(t/10⁴ ¥); η_k is the CO₂ emission factor for energy type k (t/TJ); p_{ik} is the amount of energy type k consumed by sector i (t); and v_k is the conversion factor for energy type k (TJ/tce). We considered the following eight fossil fuels: coal, coke, crude oil, diesel, fuel oil, gasoline, kerosene, and natural gas.

12 2.2 Hypothetical Extraction Method

The HEM has been used to explore the interdependent effects of changes in a sector or sectoral blocks [44-46]. This method assumes the target sector does not make inter-industrial transactions with other sectors in the hypothetical economic system. Data for the target sector are extracted to determine the influence of that sector on the entire economy, with a focus on the industrial linkages that define the target sector's relationship to the rest of the economy through direct and indirect intermediate purchases and sales made by the target sector.

In this method, an economy Z with n sectors can be described as follows:

x = Ax + f

 $x = (I - A)^{-1} f = Lf$

2 where
$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ M \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 is the total output of n sectors; $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}L & a_{1n} \\ MO & M \\ a_{n1}L & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$ is the technical

coefficients matrix, in which $a_{ij} = z_{ij} / x_j$ is the amount of input from sector *i* required directly to produce per unit output in sector *j*, and z_{ij} represent the intermediate output by sector *i* to sector *j*; $L = (I - A)^{-1} = [l_{ij}]$ is known as the Leontief inverse, in which l_{ij} is the amount of output from sector *i* required directly

7 and indirectly to produce per unit final demand from sector j; and $f = \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ M \\ f_n \end{bmatrix}$ is the

8 total final demand.

Because this paper focuses on the inter-industrial transactions within the domestic economy, we used the import similarity assumption to remove competitive imports. [47] In this case, the economy Z is divided into domestic transactions D and imports M. We assume that: if the fraction of a given input supplied by imports is the same for each sector, then the same fraction r_i of the total output in sector i is attributed to these imports, as follows:

15
$$r_i = \frac{m_i}{\left(\sum_{j=1}^n z_{ij}\right) + f_i} = \frac{m_i}{x_i + m_i},$$

16
$$a_{ij}^{d} = \frac{z_{ij}^{d}}{x_{j}} = \frac{(1-r_{i})z_{ij}}{x_{j}} = (1-r_{i})a_{ij}$$

 $\mathbf{17} \qquad A^d = \begin{bmatrix} a^d_{ij} \end{bmatrix}$

1 where m_i is the import to sector i; ${}^{a^{d}}{}_{ij}$ is the amount of domestic input from sector 2 i required directly to produce per unit output from sector j; ${}^{z^{d}}{}_{ij}$ is defined as the 3 domestic transactions by sector i to sector j; and A^{d} is the technical coefficients 4 matrix of the domestic intermediate input.

5 Next, if $\int denotes the target sector and <math>-\int denotes denotes denotes the target sector and <math>-\int denotes den$

7 $\begin{bmatrix} x_s \\ x_{-s} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{s,s} & A_{s,-s} \\ A_{-s,s} & A_{-s,-s} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_s \\ x_{-s} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f_s \\ f_{-s} \end{bmatrix}.$

8 If we define $\begin{bmatrix} l_{s,s} & l_{s,-s} \\ l_{-s,s} & l_{-s,-s} \end{bmatrix}$ as the Leontief inverse of this input-output model, then

9
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_s \\ x_{-s} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{s,s} & l_{s,-s} \\ l_{-s,s} & l_{-s,-s} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_s \\ f_{-s} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Because the target sector s is extracted and does not make inter-industrial transactions with -s in the hypothetical economic system, it is obvious that $A_{s,-s} = A_{-s,s} = 0$ and the hypothetical economy \overline{Z} is given by:

13 $\begin{bmatrix} \overline{x}_{s} \\ \overline{x}_{-s} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{s,s} & 0 \\ 0 & A_{-s,-s} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{s} \\ x_{-s} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} f_{s} \\ f_{-s} \end{bmatrix}$

14
$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{x}_{s} \\ \bar{x}_{-s} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (I - A_{s,s})^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & (I - A_{-s,-s})^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_{s} \\ f_{-s} \end{bmatrix}$$

The change in production, which reflects the influence of the target sector \$\$ on
the entire economy, is estimated by:

17
$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{s} - \bar{x}_{s} \\ \bar{x}_{-s} - \bar{x}_{-s} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{s,s} - (I - A_{s,s})^{-1} & l_{s,-s} \\ l_{-s,s} & l_{-s,-s} - (I - A_{-s,-s})^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} f_{s} \\ f_{-s} \end{bmatrix}$$

Carbon emissions associated with the target sector § can therefore be 1 deconstructed into four parts [46]: internal emissions (IE), which are CO₂ emissions 2 associated with production processes in sector S; mixed emissions (ME), which are 3 CO_2 emissions associated with the participation of sector s and -s, reflecting CO_2 4 emissions embodied in goods that are originally sold to -s by s after being 5 processed by -s and are consequently repurchased by s for production purposes; net 6 backward linkage emissions (NBLE), which are the net emissions imported by [§] from 7 -S to meet the demands of S; and net forward linkage emissions (NFLE), which are 8 the net emission exports from S (CO₂ emitted by S and used by -S to produce 9 f_{-s}). Taking competitive imports into account, IE, ME, NBLE and NFLE can be 10 11 calculated, as follows:

- 12 IE: $T_s (I A^d_{s,s})^{-1} f_s$
- 13 ME: $T_s[l_{s,s}^d (I A_{s,s}^d)^{-1}]f_s$
- 14 NBLE: $T_{-s}l^d_{-s,s}f_s$
- 15 NFLE: $T_{s}l^{d}_{s,-s}f_{-s}$.

16 2.3 Data Sources

17 China is heavily reliant on fossil fuels [48]; however, only CO₂ emissions 18 generated through the industrial consumption of fossil fuels are considered here. 19 Focusing on industrial CO₂ emissions, the Chinese economy is disaggregated into 30 20 industrial sectors, accounting for more than 96.9% of the national energy consumption 21 in 2012. Economic and energy-related data are taken from the *Input–Output Table of* 22 *China 2012* and from the *Energy Statistical Yearbook 2013* [49-50]. CO₂ emission factors are taken from the 2006 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
 Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories [2]. Measures for converting
 physical units into coal equivalents are from the *Energy Statistical Yearbook 2013*.

4 3. Results and Discussion

5 **3.1 Industrial CO₂ Emissions**

Net Forward Linkage Emissions. NFLE reflect the inter-industrial embodied CO2 6 exports from an industry, i.e., CO₂ emitted by an industry to meet the downstream 7 demand; these are referred to as CO₂ exports in this paper. As shown in previous studies, 8 the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector (abbreviated 9 10 names of all sectors are given in Table A.1) generates the largest amount of NFLE (3.47 Bt CO₂), accounting for ~36.2% of all emissions generated in China (Fig. 1). The 11 Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector is the primary energy 12 supplier and burns large amounts of fossil fuels to satisfy the energy demands of other 13 industries [51], thus dominating the supply chain of China's modern economy. 14 Industrial NFLE in China are centralized, with ~76.2% of NFLE being produced by the 15 following three sectors: The Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power 16 sector (~36.2% of total NFLE); the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector (~21.0%), 17 and the Metals Mining and Dressing sector (~19.0%). Thus, the top seven industries of 18 China generate more than 95% of its industrial CO₂ exports. 19

Net Backward Linkage Emissions. NBLE reflect inter-industrial embodied CO₂
imports; therefore, the NBLE of an industry reflect direct and intermediate purchases
from upstream sectors, which are later referred to as CO₂ imports in this paper. As is
shown in Fig. 1, *the Construction sector* is a major generator of NBLE, 'absorbing'
2.86 Bt of CO₂ in 2012 (~29.8% of all embodied CO₂ emissions in 2012). The rapid

1 urbanization of China has enhanced activity in *the Construction sector*, as shown in *Fig.* 2 *A.4*, and the growing demand for energy-intensive materials (e.g., iron and steel) by this 3 sector strongly affects inter-industrial CO₂ flows throughout the Chinese economy. The 4 second largest embodied CO₂ emission absorber is *the Service sector*, responsible for 5 ~15.5% of all embodied CO₂ emissions. This sector is also stimulated by the 6 urbanization boom in China. However, the values for NBLE from other sectors are 7 much lower, and no other sector accounts for more than 10% of the total NBLE in China.

Net Emission Transfers The difference between the NFLE and NBLE is defined 8 9 as the net emission transfer value. We found that 13 industrial sectors are net CO₂ exporters, while the other 17 industrial sectors are net CO₂ importers. Interestingly, 10 importers with large NBLE and exporters with large NFLE are very different (Fig. A.1). 11 Excluding the Transport, Storage, and Post sector and the Chemical Products sector, 12 which are the only balanced sectors, few industries exhibit high levels of both CO₂ 13 imports and CO₂ exports. As is shown in Fig. A.1, sectors having larger NBLE often 14 exhibit better CO₂ emission performances, while sectors having higher NFLE exhibit 15 much higher levels of carbon intensity. 16

17 **3.2 Industrial CO₂ Emissions Flows**

In this section, we trace CO₂ imports and exports (i.e., embodied CO₂ flows) between all 30 industrial sectors of China. Our data are shown as a chord diagram (Fig. 2). To better visualize key linkages, industries with few CO₂ transfer flows are removed, leaving 15 significant nodes in *Fig. A.2*. A complete flow dataset is given in *Table A.5*. As Fig. 2 shows, *the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector*, and *the Metals Mining and Dressing sector* are the most significant sources of industrial CO₂ flows in China. These

are all widely recognized as high-carbon industries and as key direct emitters of CO₂. 1 These sectors generate energy and manufacture energy-intensive materials, and high 2 3 NFLE associated with these sectors are caused by and are mainly transferred to their consumers (i.e., the Construction sector, the Service sector, and the Transportation 4 Equipment sector) (Fig. A.3a). Previous studies have focused on the roles of these 5 sectors in mitigating CO₂ emissions, as they are the largest net CO₂ exporters, have 6 7 powerful inter-industry effects, and less mixed effects can be achieved in these industries than in others [41]. It has been argued that promoting energy efficiency and 8 9 shifting to cleaner energy-use are the most important ways of decreasing total CO₂ emissions in these sectors [30-37, 52]. 10

Up to 17 industries are found to represent the main destinations of industrial CO₂ 11 flows, and they account for ~97.4% of total imports. The Construction sector is the 12 most important receiver of embodied CO₂, and so it is reasonably identified as being 13 the main CO₂ flow destination. The Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat 14 Power sector, the Metals Mining and Dressing sector, and the Petroleum Processing 15 and Coking sector are the main embodied CO₂ providers to the Construction sector, as 16 shown in Fig. A.3b. The Construction sector required ~2.86 Bt of CO₂ in 2012 from 17 electricity and heat suppliers, as well as building material manufacturers, although it 18 generated low levels of direct emissions. Of the total embodied CO₂ levels required for 19 the Construction sector, ~34.4% is generated from The Production and Supply of 20 *Electric Power and Heat Power sector* and ~23.6% is generated from *the Metals Mining* 21 and Dressing sector. The Chinese construction sector therefore strongly stimulates the 22 expansion of energy-intensive material producers, which are emitting increasing levels 23 of CO₂. It has been suggested that the amount of embodied CO₂ consumed by the 24 Construction sector increased following a quadratic curve between 1994 and 2012, and 25

that the use of energy-intensive materials has contributed to more than 80% of this
increase [33].

3 Meanwhile, the Service sector is the second important destination for Chinese industrial embodied CO2 flows. This sector consumes a large amount of electricity and 4 gasoline. Of the total embodied CO₂ levels (1.49 Bt of CO₂) required for the Service 5 sector in 2012, ~37.3% is generated from *The Production and Supply of Electric Power* 6 7 and Heat Power sector and ~26.6% is generated from the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector. The Transportation Equipment sector, the Electrical Machinery and 8 9 Apparatus sector, and the Communication, Computers and Other Electronic Equipment sector are also significant embodied CO_2 destinations, consuming ~0.74, ~0.57, and 10 ~0.51 Bt of CO₂ in 2012, respectively. High levels of embodied CO₂ consumption in 11 these equipment-manufacturing industries demonstrate the dominant role of Chinese 12 products in the global economy. 13

The CO₂ flow map shows that the Construction sector is the main source of 14 Chinese CO₂ emissions. Unfortunately, the Construction sector generates such low 15 levels of direct emissions that appropriate attention has not been paid to its potential 16 role in decreasing CO₂ emissions. For example, China's National Plan on Climate 17 Change (2014–2020) has imposed priorities to restrict high carbon industries other than 18 the Construction sector. Under a new paradigm, focusing on sectors generating high 19 NBLE could increase the number of CO₂ abatement options available to decision 20 makers. For example, reasonable measures focused on controlling the large-scale 21 expansion of infrastructure, construction activity workloads, and improving material-22 23 use efficiency in the Construction sector may generate better mitigation potentials than current measures. It is therefore worth identifying the specific effects that CO₂ 24 importers have on aggregate CO₂ emissions of the entire Chinese economy by assessing 25

1 their accumulative effects through the demand chain, as outlined below.

2 **3.3 Analysis of Carbon Abatement Potentials**

Previous studies have focused on origins (i.e., industries generating high NFLE, 3 such as the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, the Metals 4 Mining and Dressing sector, and the Coal Mining and Dressing sector) as primary drivers 5 of Chinese CO₂ emissions. However, we argue that CO₂ emission abatement may be 6 7 more effectively achieved by regulating demands from downstream industries. We conducted a sensitivity analysis based on a one-industry-at-a-time approach to identify 8 9 how industrial CO₂ emission abatement levels could be more effectively achieved in China than by applying regular climate policies. We took industrial scale adjustments, 10 energy efficiency improvements, and material efficiency into account. Assuming that 11 all inter-relationships between the 30 industrial sectors represented by the Leontief 12 inverse matrix coefficients are fixed, we estimated the volume of national total CO₂ 13 14 emissions that could be decreased (ΔTCE) through a 1% change in industrial scale (downsizing), or a 1% improvement in the efficiency of energy-use or material-use by 15 the target industry. 16

17

(1) Industrial Scale Adjustments

A change in total CO₂ emissions in China caused by an industrial-scale adjustment (ΔTCE_{scale}) involves decreased direct emissions (Scope I) and decreased indirect emissions (Scopes II & III), as described in the pragmatic ICLEI-Local Governments for Sustainability approach [54]. Downscaling any industry will decrease the level of fossil fuel consumption of that industry. The related decrease in CO₂ emissions is defined as ΔCE_{direct} and is calculated from internal emissions, mixed emissions, and NFLE associated with industry i [7]. This variable reflects the visible change within the target industry and has typically been the focus of previous policy-making processes. In addition to fuel combustion, secondary energy (e.g., electricity and heat) consumption and non-energy material-use will decline, causing all providers of embodied CO₂ (intermediate good suppliers) to decrease their direct emissions (i.e., $\Delta NBLE_i$). In this case, $\Delta CE_{indirect}$ reflects the industrial driving effect of the target sector's scale adjustments on the rest of the economy, especially on upstream industries. The equation used to calculate ΔTCE_{scale} is shown below.

$$\Delta TCE_{scale} = \Delta CE_{direct} + \Delta CE_{indirect} = (\Delta IE_i + \Delta ME_i + \Delta NFLE_i) + \Delta NBLE_i$$

9 where $\Delta NBLE_i$ is the change in embodied CO₂ imports for industry *i* from other 10 industrial sectors.

The abatement potential of a 1% decrease in industrial activity in each sector is 11 12 shown in Fig. 3a. Direct CO₂ emissions from the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector, and the 13 14 Metals Mining and Dressing sector are decreased by large amounts, while the Construction sector and the Service sector eliminate large volumes of indirect 15 emissions. The total abatement potential achieved by downscaling the Construction 16 sector by 1% is almost the same as that achieved by downscaling the Production and 17 Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector (currently recognized as the sector 18 having the greatest potential for CO₂ emission abatement) and is much greater than that 19 achieved by downscaling other high-carbon industries, such as the Petroleum 20 21 Processing and Coking sector and the Metals Mining and Dressing sector. The difference between these effects lies in the fact that downscaling the Production and 22 23 Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector will decrease CO₂ emissions directly generated by the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, 24

while downscaling *the Construction sector* will decrease emissions generated by many
other sectors. *The Chemical Products sector* and *the Transport, Storage, and Post sector*are special cases, as downscaling them will clearly reduce both direct and indirect
emissions. The total abatement potentials offered by *the Chemical Products sector* and *the Transport, Storage, and Post sector* are important because they generate large CO₂
export values.

7 Cost-benefit analyses of CO₂ emission decreases across all 30 sectors were also carried out, and their corresponding results are shown in Table A.10. The costs of 8 9 downsizing are roughly estimated by changing the target industrial export values. Unlike previous industrial CO₂ abatement cost-benefit analyses, we integrated 10 decreases in embodied CO₂ emissions into this calculation. The energy sectors, such as 11 the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector and the Petroleum 12 Processing and Coking sector, remain the most cost-efficient sectors to focus on, with 13 CO_2 emission abatement costs of <2000 ¥ per ton of CO_2 . However, it is concerning 14 that several so-called low carbon industries, such as the Construction sector, have more 15 cost-efficient carbon abatement effects than high-carbon sectors, such as the Metals 16 Mining and Dressing sector and the Gas Production and Supply sector. 17

18

(2) Energy Efficiency Improvements

Energy efficiency is generally measured as an average value regardless of the sectoral energy mix. This makes it difficult to identify actual carbon abatement effects related to energy efficiency improvements. We classify industrial energy consumption into fossil fuel combustion (which generates direct CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere) and secondary energy consumption (which generates indirect CO₂ emissions imported from energy product suppliers). To simplify the model, five sectors (*the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector, the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat* 1 Power sector, the Gas Production and Supply sector, the Petroleum and Natural Gas 2 Extraction sector, and the Coal Mining and Dressing sector) are defined as energy 3 product suppliers (related uncertainties are discussed in section 3.4). In this case, the 4 scale of the target industry is kept constant while the energy efficiency level is assumed 5 to increase by 1%. The carbon abatement effect associated with greater energy 6 efficiency (ΔTCE_{energy}) can be estimated using the following equation:

7
$$\Delta TCE_{energy} = \Delta CE_{direct} + \Delta CE_{indirect} = (\Delta IE_i + \Delta ME_i + \Delta NFLE_i) + \sum_{n=1}^{5} \Delta NBLE_{n,i},$$

8 where $\Delta NBLE_{n,i}$ is the change in embodied CO₂ imports for industry *i* from energy 9 product supplier *n*.

10 The CO_2 emission abatement potential related to a 1% improvement in energy efficiency for each industry was estimated. As is shown in Fig. 3b, improving energy 11 efficiency levels contributes considerably to CO₂ emission reductions in every sector. 12 Almost 38.5 Mt of CO₂ emissions can be prevented by improving energy efficiency 13 14 levels by 1% in the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, followed by the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector and the Metals Mining and 15 16 Dressing sector, with respective reductions of about 22.8 Mt and 20.3 Mt in CO₂ emissions. The majority of the total direct emission reduction can be attributed to these 17 sectors. Excitingly, ~17.2 Mt of CO₂ emissions can be eliminated by improving the 18 energy efficiency of the Construction sector. Unlike values for the Production and 19 Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, 98.0% of CO₂ emissions eliminated 20 21 from the Construction sector result from indirect emission reduction (Fig. 4), related to reducing the. large volumes of electricity and heat consumed during construction. 22 Although improving the energy efficiency of the Construction sector would have a 23 24 limited effect on direct emissions, it could considerably help reduce national CO₂

1 emissions.

It is worth mentioning that energy efficiency-related CO₂ emission abatements in 2 the Chemical Products sector and the Transport, Storage, and Post sector have hybrid 3 effects (Fig. 4). Reduction of indirect emissions in these two sectors could contribute 4 as much as 30% to the overall decrease in national CO₂ emissions, although actual 5 6 reductions will mainly occur in the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat 7 Power sector, the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector, and the Coal Mining and Dressing sector. Our results suggest that we should not solely focus on direct CO₂ 8 9 emissions, but consider measures aimed at decreasing indirect CO₂ emissions of high energy-use sectors. 10

11

(3) Material Efficiency

Decreasing the use of energy-intensive materials by promoting efficient material usage should abate direct CO₂ emissions in upstream industries. The CO₂ emission abatement potential of the entire economy achieved by promoting efficient use of nonenergy intensive materials in industry i ($\Delta TCE_{material}$) can be estimated by determining changes in volumes of embodied CO₂ imported by industry i from all industries supplying non-energy products, using the following equation:

18
$$\Delta TCE_{material} = \sum_{m=1}^{25} \Delta NBLE_{m,i} .$$

19 where $\Delta NBLE_{m,i}$ is the change in embodied CO₂ imports for industry *i* from non-20 energy product supply industry *M*. The non-energy product supply industries 21 encompass all 25 sectors, excluding the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector, the 22 Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, the Gas Production 23 and Supply sector, the Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction sector, and the Coal Mining 24 and Dressing sector.

1	As is shown in Fig. 3c, considerable volumes of CO ₂ emissions can be indirectly
2	evaded by improving the efficiency of non-energy material-use in downstream
3	industries. For instance, an ~11.8 Mt CO ₂ emission reduction can be achieved through
4	a 1% material efficiency increase in the Construction sector. This reduction stems from
5	the manufacturers of building materials, e.g., the Metals Mining and Dressing sector
6	which provides iron and steel and accounts for ~57.3% of reductions, the Non-metallic
7	Mineral Products sector supplying cement and glass which contributes ~12.8% to
8	reductions, and the Chemical Products sector providing architectural coatings and
9	plastics, which contributes $\sim 13.3\%$ (Fig. 5).

Overall, improving material efficiency accounts for more than 20% of the total 10 abatement effects for many industries having high NBLE, such as the Construction 11 sector and the Electrical Machinery and Apparatus sector (Table A.9). Fig. 3d shows 12 that the total carbon abatement effect associated with industrial scale adjustment, as 13 well as improved energy efficiency and material-use efficiency in the Construction 14 sector (~58.0 Mt) is surprisingly much greater than for the Petroleum Processing and 15 Coking sector (~45.7 Mt) and the Metals Mining and Dressing sector (~40.8 Mt), and 16 only slightly less beneficial than those of the Production and Supply of Electric Power 17 and Heat Power sector (~77.1 Mt). We conclude that improving energy and material-18 use efficiency in downstream industries to reduce consumption of energy-intensive 19 materials constitutes an efficient way of mitigating CO₂ emissions in China. 20

21 **3.4 Uncertainty Analysis**

The economic system comprises a complicated, interdependent, and integrated set of industries. To investigate such interdependence, we made some assumptions and simplifications to build our models. Because models are simplified representations of real-world systems, they typically do not mimic actual conditions. The major sources
 of uncertainties in our method are outlined below.

3 Uncertainties Associated with Activity Data. (a) Default data regarding CO₂ emission factors from the IPCC are used directly in this paper. Using the default data 4 without any correction leads to inherited uncertainties. (b) Uncertainties and errors 5 associated with the fossil fuel energy consumption data may stem from officially 6 7 published statistical yearbooks in China [55]. (c) Differences in industrial classifications between the Input–Output Table of China 2012 and the Energy Statistical 8 9 Yearbook 2013 of China resulted in the energy consumption data for several household sectors not being discussed separately. Because this study focuses on industrial CO₂ 10 emissions, we excluded the residential consumption sector and combined other sectors 11 into the Service sector to yield 30 industrial sectors describing the Chinese economy. 12 The residential consumption sector accounted for less than 3.2% of the total fossil fuel 13 consumption in 2012 in China, as is shown in Table A.11. The 30 industrial sectors 14 discussed in this paper provide a good overview of inter-industrial CO₂ flows in China. 15 Furthermore, we can easily compare our results with other relevant studies. For instance, 16 we estimated that the Construction sector absorbed ~2.86 Bt of CO2 and was 17 responsible for 29.8% of all Chinese embodied CO₂ emissions in 2012; this is roughly 18 consistent with estimates from previous studies [56-58]. 19

Uncertainties Related to Modeling. The methods used herein were developed based on several assumptions. (a) The HEM assumes that all inter-relationships between sectors (i.e., the Leontief inverse matrix coefficients) are fixed, while one specific industry is extracted to determine the influence of that industry on the entire economy. The nature of this method could lead to uncertainties in our results. (b) In section 3.1 dealing with carbon abatement, we assume that all the products of *the* Petroleum Processing and Coking sector, the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector, the Gas Production and Supply sector, the Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction sector, and the Coal Mining and Dressing sector are secondary energy types. Thus, these five sectors are defined as energy product suppliers. The other 25 sectors are assumed to only provide non-energy products. This simplification facilitated analysis of CO₂ abatement potentials; however, some uncertainty is introduced and would need to be evaluated in further studies.

8 4. Conclusions

The high direct CO₂ emission levels generated through manufacturing of energy-9 intensive materials have previously been examined to abate CO₂ levels. However, our 10 11 results indicated that paying more attention to technological improvements in CO₂ 12 importing sectors could more effectively decrease the consumption levels of energyintensive materials. Like inter-regional CO₂ leakages, industrial disparities create 13 14 complex inter-industrial embodied CO₂ flows. Strong CO₂ emission performances in downstream industries often occurs at the expense of unavoidably high CO₂ emissions 15 in upstream sectors to meet the demands of the downstream industries. We traced 16 embodied CO₂ flows between 30 industrial sectors in 2012 in China and re-explored 17 industrial CO₂ emission abatement potentials from a consumer responsibility 18 perspective. Uncertainties associated with the activity data and applied methods were 19 also discussed. 20

Our results showed that the most important CO₂ exporters are central to the Chinese industrial system. Two energy supplying sectors (*the Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector* and *the Petroleum Processing and Coking sector*) and one metallurgical industry sector (*the Metals Mining and Dressing sector*) were the three most significant sources of industrial CO₂ flows in China, contributing

approximately 80% of the total CO₂ exports. However, the Construction sector, the 1 main destination for CO₂ emission flows, was the most significant destination for 2 embodied CO₂. These CO₂ emissions were transferred not only from energy suppliers 3 but also from energy-intensive material producers, with ~34.4% derived from the 4 Production and Supply of Electric Power and Heat Power sector and ~23.4% derived 5 from the Metals Mining and Dressing sector. This demonstrated that the large-scale 6 7 expansion of infrastructure resulting from rapid urbanization can explain the tremendous increase in CO₂ emissions that has occurred in China. Sensitivity analyses 8 9 indicated that the Construction sector could make significant CO₂ emission abatement contributions through scale adjustments, and improvements in energy and material 10 efficiency. The CO₂ emission abatement potential of the Construction sector was 11 determined to be almost the same as that of the Production and Supply of Electric Power 12 and Heat Power sector, which is currently recognized as being the main sector in which 13 CO2 emission abatement should occur. The Construction sector's potential was shown 14 to be surprisingly much greater than that of other high-carbon industrial sectors. Non-15 energy material efficiency improvements accounted for ~20.3% of the Construction 16 sector CO₂ emission abatement potential, originating mainly from building material 17 manufacturers (e.g., the Metals Mining and Dressing sector, and the Non-metallic 18 Mineral Products sector). The same phenomenon was found for other industries 19 20 presenting high CO₂ import levels. In addition to promoting energy saving in energyintensive material manufacturing processes, future emission mitigation measures 21 should focus on decreasing consumption of energy-intensive goods in downstream 22 23 industries. For instance, to downscale construction activities, China should reform urban planning and design, avoid construction of repetitive infrastructure, and create 24 stronger incentives for more efficient, inclusive, and sustainable urbanization processes. 25

Lean construction methods should be adopted, while solid waste should be minimized
 and recycled to more efficiently use energy-intensive material.

3 Many official carbon policies in China are aimed at meeting the CO₂ peak target by setting requirements for decreasing CO₂ emissions on high-carbon industries [4, 59]. 4 However, net CO₂ exporters in the industrial chain will struggle to meet their targets in 5 absolute terms, if no measures are taken by importers of embodied CO₂ to optimize 6 7 consumption through scale adjustment or technological improvements. Several industries with low carbon intensity, such as the Construction sector and the Special 8 9 Purpose Machinery sector, have been found to have more cost-efficient carbon abatement effects than those achievable by high-carbon sectors, such as the Metals 10 Mining and Dressing sector and the Gas Production and Supply sector. It has been 11 suggested that embodied CO₂ emissions should be integrated into the industrial carbon 12 emission trading scheme, especially into industrial carbon credit allocations. Our results 13 showed that paying attention to the industries consuming the most embodied CO₂ and 14 promoting efficient material-use may help us achieve more cost-effective decreases in 15 CO₂ emissions in absolute terms. 16

17

18 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

19 Conflict of Interests

20 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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