

Spatio-temporal Evolution Characteristics and Influencing Factors of Carbon Emission Reduction Potential in China

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1 Research Article

2 Spatio-temporal evolution characteristics and influencing 3 factors of carbon emission reduction potential in China

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7 Abstract

8 This study first attempts to use the parameterized quadratic Directional Distance Function (DDF) approach to calculate
9 China's provincial carbon abatement cost and carbon reduction potential (CRP) under different scenarios from 2000 to
10 2017. Afterward, considering three different scenarios, we analyze the Spatio-temporal characteristics and the dynamic
11 evolution pattern of CRP. We also conduct the spatial autocorrelation test and spatial Durbin model to analyze the spatial
12 spillover effects and influencing factors of CRP. The results are obtained as follows: CRP across the three scenarios varies
13 considerably across provinces and different-located groups. CRP higher areas are mainly located in the economically
14 developed eastern coastal regions, while most provinces with low CRP are concentrated in the western region. The spatial
15 autocorrelation test indicated that provinces with a similar CRP showed a significant geographic agglomeration, and the
16 agglomeration effect was strengthened first and then weakened. Simultaneously, the local spatial distribution of MCRP,
17 FCRP, and ECRP shows a slight spatial polarization feature. Finally, through the SDM analysis and spillover effect
18 decomposition, we find that improvement of regional CRP not only depends on economic development, industrial
19 structure adjustment, and energy efficiency elevation, but also involves energy structure optimization, low-carbon
20 innovation, and population. The low-carbon innovation provides critical support for local CRP under the efficiency
21 scenario but restrains the local CRP under the fairness scenario. Therefore, the central government should emphasize local
22 conditions and the ex-ante scenario assessment, strengthen regional interactive governance, optimize energy efficiency,
23 and promote the application of clean energy to enhance CRP.

24 **Keywords** Carbon emission reduction potential; Carbon abatement cost; Directional Distance Function; Policymaker
25 preference; Spatio-temporal evolution; Spatial Durbin model

26 Introduction

27 Economic development has always been closely related to natural resource consumption (Song et al. 2019). Extensive
28 resource utilization has brought about serious ecological damage and environmental consequences. Over the past 40 years,
29 China has experienced rapid economic growth and the speedy growth of energy demand, but the contradiction between
30 resource environmental constraints and economic development has become increasingly prominent (Wei et al. 2020;
31 Zhang et al. 2020). Faced with the severe challenge of environmental sustainability, the Chinese government has taken
32 many measures to promote green low-carbon development. For example, China has pledged to reduce CO₂ emissions per
33 unit GDP by 60%–65% in 2030 compared with 2005 levels at the 2015 Paris climate conference (Chen et al. 2019).
34 Furthermore, the government reiterated that China would increase its nationally determined contribution, strive to reach
35 the carbon peak by 2030, and achieve "carbon neutrality" by 2060 at the 75th UN General Assembly. Innovation-driven
36 and green, zero-carbon-oriented industrial changes have become the vane of China's modern economic system. However,
37 China has a vast territory and significant Interregional economic differences, which will inevitably lead to differences in
38 the spatial distribution of carbon reduction potential (CRP) in the process of green low-carbon development. Therefore,
39 to provide a theoretical basis for achieving high-efficiency carbon emission reduction in China, it is imperative to
40 accurately grasp the evolutionary characteristics of CRP and its driving factors.

41 In fact, exploiting regional carbon emission reduction potential and exploring new green low-carbon development
42 paths are common concerns worldwide. A low CRP would construct a significant barrier to environmental sustainability
43 in developed and developing countries. With the improvement of status in the world economy and fossil energy field (Wei
44 et al. 2020), China's CRP Spatio-temporal evolution characteristics and influencing factors are a vital epitome for other
45 developing countries.

46 This paper attempts to use the parameterized quadratic function of the Directional Distance Function (DDF) approach
47 to estimate the carbon abatement costs and evaluate the provincial CRP through setting three different scenarios. This
48 paper contributes to current literature in 3ways. First, this study innovatively evaluates the provincial CRP from the
49 perspective of policymakers' preferences. Few studies have examined the carbon emission reduction potential in China
50 from the perspective of policymakers' preferences against this background up to now. Moreover, differing from the
51 existing literature about the carbon emission reduction potential (Wei et al. 2012; An et al. 2018), the purpose of this paper
52 is to analyze each province's CRP and determine how to make regional environmental policies aimed at motivating carbon
53 emission reduction potential, rather than how to allocate CO₂ abatement responsibility among provinces or how much
54 CO₂ should be reduced. Second, we analyze the spatial-temporal evolution characteristics and the dynamic evolution
55 pattern of CRP and clarify the heterogeneous characteristics of CRP under three different scenarios. Third, we employ the
56 spatial econometric model to investigate the CRP's influencing factors in China, while spatial econometric models are
57 rarely used to study the influencing factors of CRP. Owing to CRPs have significant spatial dependence and econometric
58 models without considering the spatial dependence of variables often lead to inaccurate results. Therefore, our research
59 evaluates the changes in Chinese provinces' CRP and the effects of related factors on CRP more accurately since 2000,
60 which can provide more reference for policymakers to stimulate the potential of regional low-carbon transformation.

61 The rest of the paper is structured as follows. "Literature review" section presents the related literature. "Methodology
62 and data" section describes the CRP measurement approach, the DDF, spatial economic models, variables selection, and
63 data sources. "Spatio-temporal evolution characteristics of carbon reduction potential" presents the Spatio-temporal
64 characteristics and the dynamic evolution pattern of CRP under different scenarios. The empirical results are reported in
65 the "Empirical results" section. "Conclusions and policy implications" section summarizes and provides the
66 corresponding policy implications.

67 Literature review

68 Since scholars have gradually realized the importance of resources and the environment for human survival and
69 sustainable economic development, they have incorporated the environment as an essential factor into the economic
70 research framework. In the subsequent research, many early studies mainly investigated energy-related carbon emissions
71 and its influencing factors (Geng et al. 2013; Zhang and Da 2015), the law of Spatio-temporal evolution (Shi et al. 2014;
72 Ding et al. 2019) and driving mechanism (Tian et al. 2013; Jiang et al. 2017). In recent years, an increasing number of
73 studies have discussed the carbon emission reduction cost and reduction potential worldwide (Criqui et al. 1999; Guo et
74 al. 2011; Chen and Xiang 2019).

75 This section reviews the existing literature on the carbon emission reduction potential from the three aspects:
76 measurement of the abatement cost, the concept of the carbon emission reduction potential, and evaluation of the carbon
77 emission reduction potential.

78 Research on carbon abatement cost measurement

79 Shadow prices provide a critical way to estimate the marginal abatement cost of undesirable outputs (Zhou et al. 2014).
80 In literature related to the marginal abatement costs, most existing studies generally focused on estimating shadow prices
81 at the regional/sectors level (Lee 2011; Molinos-Senante et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2017; Chen and Xiang 2019). In previous
82 studies, various methods were employed to estimate the shadow price of pollutants. Färe et al. (1993) first derived the
83 shadow price of undesirable outputs based on the Shephard output distance function. Lee et al. (2002) estimated the
84 shadow prices of sulfur oxides (SOx), nitrogen oxides (NOx), and total suspended particulates (TSP) by formulating the
85 nonparametric production model specific to the directional distance function for the case of a single good output and
86 pollutant. Ke et al. (2008) used the Linear Programming (LP) approach to compute the shadow prices of SO₂ emissions
87 in China during the 1996-2003 period, found that the shadow price in the west region is the highest.

88 The estimation of the carbon shadow price shares the same shadowing pricing procedure as other greenhouse gases,
89 which shifted scholars' attention to estimating carbon shadow price Zhou et al. (2014). As for literature concerning the
90 carbon abatement cost measurement, there are, for instance, Choi et al. (2012) employed the dual model of the slacks-
91 based Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) model to estimate the abatement costs of CO₂ emissions. Wang et al. (2011)
92 estimated the marginal CO₂ abatement costs in China with the framework of the nonparametric method. Nevertheless, the
93 nonparametric DEA technique is not well-suited to derive the shadow prices due to its non-differentiability (Färe et al.
94 2005). By contrast, the DDF is thought to provide a more flexible method to evaluate the CO₂ marginal abatement costs.
95 The related studies include Tang et al. (2016) and Ji and Zhou (2020), among others. Furthermore, the quadratic DDF
96 model might be more suitable for a sample that faces mandatory CO₂ emissions reduction or prefer to conduct voluntary
97 CO₂ emissions reduction (Zhou et al. 2015). Therefore, the quadratic DDF model has been widely employed to evaluate
98 carbon abatement costs in recent years.

99 Research on carbon emission reduction potential

100 The CRP has different connotations. The existing studies on defining the carbon dioxide reduction potential from different
101 perspectives can be mainly classified into three categories according to their results. The first strand of literature mainly
102 focuses on the differences in emission reduction of different electricity structures vehicles in the transportation sector. For
103 example, Ketelaer et al. (2014) explored the CO₂ mitigation potential of German commercial transport based on the
104 difference of CO₂ emissions from conventional to electric light commercial vehicles. Zhang et al. (2019) used the
105 backward analysis to calculate the proportion limit of coal power consumption by urban rail transit, and then analyze the
106 emission reduction potential of rail transit under different combinations of electricity consumption structures.

107 The second strand of literature defines the gap between the CO₂ emissions for the base year and the estimated year
108 under different scenarios as the CO₂ emissions reduction potentials of various sectors. For instance, Lin and Xie (2014)
109 calculated the carbon mitigation potential in China's transport industry under moderate and advanced emission-reduction
110 scenarios. Lin and Ouyang (2014) investigate the reduction potential of CO₂ emissions in the Chinese non-metallic
111 mineral products industry by setting three scenarios. An et al. (2018) relies on four scenario analyses with the aim to
112 estimate the potential of CO₂ emission reduction in the iron and steel industry in China.

113 The third strand of literature defines the inefficiency level or excesses of carbon dioxide emissions as the CO₂
114 emissions reduction potentials. For example, Choi et al. (2012) employed the non-radial slacks-based measure(SBM)
115 framework to measure the excesses of undesirable output, and they defined the room for improvement in carbon emissions
116 as the CO₂ emissions reduction. Wei et al. (2012) established that the abatement potential of CO₂ reflects the inefficiency
117 level of carbon dioxide emission during the production process, the study expected that the richer provinces are normally
118 accompanied by lower CO₂ abatement potential.

119 Several scholars have devoted to evaluate the carbon emission reduction potential in China by using the
120 nonparametric DEA approach. For example, using the DEA model, Guo et al. (2011) evaluated the carbon emission
121 reduction potential in Chinese provinces, revealing that energy conservation technology promotion and inter-regional
122 technical cooperation can reduce carbon emissions in technically inefficient regions. Further, various extensions of the
123 basic DEA models have been proposed for estimation. Bian et al. (2013) took non-fossil energy as a fixed input and
124 proposed a non-radial DEA approach combining energy structure adjustment and DEA-based target setting together
125 to measure potential CO₂ emission reductions. Choi et al. (2012) employed the SBM of the non-radial DEA model to
126 develop the potential CO₂ emissions reduction (PCR) index. In addition, one special case is Wei et al. (2012), who take
127 both equity and efficiency principles into account in evaluating CO₂ abatement capacity. However, it is different from our
128 research. Specifically, we estimate CRP depends on the policymakers' preferences to analyze each province's CRP, rather
129 than how to allocate CO₂ abatement among regions or how much CO₂ should be reduced.

130 As discussed above, scholars have conducted extensive studies on the concept and evaluation of CRP and found that
131 many regions/sectors have the potential to reduce carbon emissions (Akimoto et al. 2010; Zhu et al. 2020), but still need

132 further exploration. First, existing literature mainly focuses on the excesses of carbon emissions, rather than a
133 comprehensive evaluation system include policymakers' preferences, which may lead to an incomplete understanding of
134 the regional CRP. Thus, it must be further explored with additional dimensions and based on the policymakers'
135 preferences. Second, there is a lack of discussion on the spatial-temporal characteristics of CRP and its influencing factors.
136 Finally, scholars mainly focus on the difference between the CO₂ emissions for the base year and the estimated year, but
137 ignore the spatial factors.

138 Therefore, this paper attempts to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the CRP in 30 Chinese provinces by setting
139 three different scenarios based on Wei et al. (2012) and clarify its determinants. This study also analyzes the Spatio-
140 temporal evolution characteristics of CRP under three scenarios. Then, we use the Moran'I index to test whether there is
141 spatial autocorrelation of CRP in various provinces. Lastly, based on the theoretical basis of the STIRPAT model, this
142 study constructs the spatial econometric model of regional development factors to investigate the effects of each factor
143 on CRP and estimates the spatially divergent features, with the purpose of providing theoretical support for making policy
144 of promoting regional carbon reduction.

145 Methodology and data

146 Measuring the carbon reduction potential

147 This paper uses a two-step approach to estimate the CRP under three scenarios from 2000 to 2017 in the study. First, we
148 apply the parameterized quadratic function of the DDF method to estimate the carbon shadow price in 30 Chinese
149 provinces from 2000 to 2016. Second, considering three different scenarios differentiated by different policy preferences,
150 we evaluate CRPs (MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP) since 2000. Following the idea of Wei et al. (2012), the calculation of the
151 CRP index is shown in formula (1):

$$152 \quad CRP = w \times Equity_{it} + (1 - w) \times Efficiency_{it} \quad (1)$$

153 Where w is weight reflects the policymakers' preferences, $Equity_{it}$ and $Efficiency_{it}$ are the index of the
154 development equity and carbon abatement efficiency of province i in year t , respectively. In terms of the development
155 equity index, per capita regional carbon emissions and per capita GDP indicators are both highly recognized fair
156 distribution indicators (den Elzen and Lucas 2005; Pan et al. 2017), in which the former can reflect the equal development
157 rights of the region, and the latter can reflect the ability of the region to pay. In terms of the carbon abatement efficiency
158 index, this paper selected carbon emission intensity and carbon abatement cost to reflect the overall efficiency of carbon
159 emission reduction, in which carbon emission intensity is often used to reflect carbon emission efficiency (Sun, 2005;
160 Zhang and Wei, 2015), and the carbon marginal abatement cost reflect the difficulty level of pollutant reductions (Färe et
161 al. 2006). Areas with high carbon emission intensity and low marginal emission reduction costs can be identified as key
162 pollution reduction areas in practice. All variables are normalized by the "Min-Max" method.¹

162 Scenarios analysis assumption

163 The CRP is a kind of objective reflection related to regional economic development and resource endowments, as well as
164 policymakers' own subjective constraints, as the policymakers' tolerance of regional inequity in carbon emissions impacts
165 carbon emission reduction pressure (Chen et al. 2016). Most existing literature has constructed a comprehensive indicator
166 system encompassing capability, equity, and responsibility (Qin et al. 2017; Dong et al. 2018; Ma et al. 2020), which
167 results in a new research angle that includes both fairness and efficiency simultaneously. Thus, this paper conducts the
168 evaluation of provincial CRP via three scenarios differentiated by policy preferences. In line with Wei et al. (2012), we
169 set three scenarios as follows: (i) *Moderation scenario*, of which fairness and efficiency of carbon emission reduction
170 responsibilities are equally important. A moderation scenario reflects the possible situation; however, the purpose of a

¹ The "Min-Max" normalization method converts z_i to s_i by $s_i = (z_i - \min z) / (\max z - \min z)$. The variable of the carbon shadow price is reverse transformed

moderation scenario is not to provide precise estimates of the regional reduction potential conditions but to clarify the significant factors that contribute to regional carbon emissions reduction in the future. Besides, it is the benchmark for setting the other two scenarios. (ii) *Fairness scenario*, of which policymakers more focus on the fairness of allocating responsibilities for carbon reduction. (iii) *Efficiency scenario*, of which policymakers pay more attention to carbon reduction efficiency, the province has a higher (lower) capacity to undertake more (less) reduction burden. The main advantage of the scenario analysis is that we can have a relatively accurate examination and a comprehensive analysis on the Spatio-temporal distribution of CRP. These features could yield valuable information to policymakers, helping them design better regional environmental policies compatible with low-carbon development.

Measuring the carbon shadow price

The DDF, developed initially by Shephard (1970) and applied by Färe et al. (1993) in empirical fields, has gained tremendous popularity in measuring the abatement cost of pollutants owing to its flexibility. The distance function does not require any assumptions concerning cost minimization or revenue maximization and information on input or output prices. The DDF method allows researchers to simultaneously expand desirable outputs and reduce undesirable outputs based on a given direction vector (Chung et al. 1997). Thus, this paper uses the parameterized quadratic function of the DDF to estimate the carbon shadow price before calculating the CO₂ abatement efficiency index. Following the idea of Chung et al. (1997) and Färe et al. (2005), the directional output distance function can be defined as follow :

$$D(x, y, b; g_y, -g_b) = \max \left\{ \beta : (y + \beta g_y, b - \beta g_b) \in F(x) \right\} \quad (2)$$

Where $(g_y, -g_b)$ is the direction vector that indicates the direction by which the output combination are scaled. Moreover, we assume that a joint-production process in which each observation uses a nonnegative vector of inputs denoted as x to produce a nonnegative vector of desirable outputs denoted as y and a nonnegative vector of undesirable outputs denoted as b . Then, production technology can be represented by the output possibility set $F(x) = \{(y, b) : x \text{ can produce } y, \text{ and } b\}$ describes the set of feasible input-output vectors.

In line with Chung et al. (1997), this paper chooses $g=(1,-1)$ as the direction vector to simplify the parameter estimation and satisfies the translation property of the DDF. In addition, we assume that there are $i=1,\dots,30$ provinces in $t=1,\dots,T$ years, three inputs (capital, energy consumption, and labor), one desirable output (GDP), and one undesirable output (carbon emissions). The parametric quadratic directional output distance function form can be shown as follow:

$$\begin{aligned} D(x_i^t, y_i^t, b_i^t; g_y, -g_b) = & \alpha_0 + \sum_{n=1}^3 \alpha_n x_i^n + \beta_1 y_i^t + \gamma_1 b_i^t + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^3 \sum_{m=1}^3 \alpha_{nm} x_m^n x_{ni}^t + \sum_{n=1}^3 \delta_n x_{ni}^t y_i^t \\ & + \sum_{n=1}^3 \nu_n x_m^n b_i^t + \frac{1}{2} \beta_2 (y_i^t)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_2 (b_i^t)^2 + \mu y_i^t b_i^t \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

Following Aigner and Chu (1968), this study uses a deterministic linear programming model to estimate the parameters $(\alpha_0, \alpha_n, \alpha_{mn}, \delta_n, \nu_n, \beta_2, \gamma_2, \mu)$. The constraint conditions cover the feasibility, monotonicity, linear homogeneity or translation property of distance function, which takes the following Eq. (4).

$$\begin{aligned} \min & \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{i=1}^{30} D^t(x_i^t, y_i^t, b_i^t; 1, -1) \\ \text{s.t.} & \\ \text{i)} & \partial D^t(x_i^t, y_i^t, b_i^t; 1, -1) / \partial b \geq 0, i = 1, \dots, 30, t = 1, \dots, T \\ \text{ii)} & \partial D^t(x_i^t, y_i^t, b_i^t; 1, -1) / \partial y \leq 0, i = 1, \dots, 30, t = 1, \dots, T \\ \text{iii)} & \partial D^t(x_i^t, y_i^t, b_i^t; 1, -1) / \partial x_n \leq 0, i = 1, \dots, 30, t = 1, \dots, T \\ \text{iv)} & \hat{\beta}_1 - \hat{\gamma}_1 = -1, \hat{\beta}_2 = \hat{\mu}, \hat{\delta}_n = \hat{\nu}_n \\ \text{v)} & \alpha_{nn} = \alpha_{nn}, n, n' = 1, 2, 3 \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Once the parameters are estimated, we can apply Shepard derivation to derive the relationship between the undesirable output price q and the desirable output p , see Eq.(5).

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{q}{p} &= -\frac{\frac{\partial D(x, y, b; g_y, g_b)}{\partial b}}{\frac{\partial D(x, y, b; g_y, g_b)}{\partial y}} \\
&= -\frac{\gamma_1 + \gamma_2 b + \sum_{n=1}^3 \nu_n x_n + \mu y}{\beta_1 + \beta_2 b + \sum_{n=1}^3 \delta_n x_n + \mu b}
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

202 **Measuring the carbon emission**

203 Carbon emissions of Chinese provinces need to be calculated before calculating the CO₂ abatement efficiency index.
204 According to the IPCC Guidelines for National the reduction potential of pollutants Inventories (IPCC 2006), the total
205 fuel-based carbon emissions are estimated according to the following formula (6).²

$$CE_i = \sum_{m=1}^{17} EC_{im} \times NCV_{im} \times CC_{im} \times O_{im} \times \frac{44}{12} \tag{6}$$

206 where CE_i denotes energy-related carbon emissions by fossil fuel's category m in province i , EC_{im} is the
207 consumption of fossil fuels m , NCV_{im} , CC_{im} and O_{im} are respectively denote net calorific value³, carbon content, and
208 oxygenation efficiency (Liu et al. 2015).

209 **Measuring the dynamic evolution characteristic**

210 Kernel density estimation (KDE) is an essential nonparametric estimation method used for point data density visualization,
211 which can describe the actual data distribution based on the data's intrinsic attributes without needing any prior
212 information. Therefore, this paper employs KDE to analyze the dynamic evolution of CRP in China. The KDE can be
213 defined as:

$$\hat{f} = (1/nh) \sum_{i=1}^n K((r - R_i)/h) \tag{7}$$

214 Where \hat{f} denotes the kernel density value, h denotes the bandwidth of KDE, $K(g)$ represents the Gaussian
215 kernel function, which is expressed in Eq.(8), g represents the estimating site, R_i represents the number i sample site.

$$K(g) = (1/\sqrt{2\pi}) \exp(-g^2/2) \tag{8}$$

216 **Spatial econometric model**

217 **Spatial autocorrelation model at the global level**

218 To test whether there is a spatial autocorrection in provincial CRP, we adopt the global Moran's I index to examines the
219 spatial correction of CRP in Chinese 30 provinces. The spatial autocorrelation index is calculated by Eqs. (9) to (11):

$$I = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j \neq i}^n W_{ij} (Y_i - \bar{Y})(Y_j - \bar{Y})}{S^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n W_{ij}} \tag{9}$$

$$S^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - \bar{Y})^2 \tag{10}$$

$$\bar{Y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^j Y \tag{11}$$

² Different from considering 7 energy types, it is found that the measurement accuracy is significantly improved after supplementing ten types of energy consumption data by constructing the accuracy improvement rate index, the results are presented as Supplementary material.

³ Liu Z (2015) pointed out that the carbon emission factor in the IPCC report is approximately higher than the value in China's "United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)" report. Therefore, we use the net calorific value provided in the China Energy Statistical Yearbook, which is more suitable for China's national conditions.

220 Where I represents the index of global spatial autocorrelation; Y_i and Y_j represent the values of CRP in province i
 221 and j ; n represents the total number of provinces; W_{ij} represents the spatial weight matrix, this paper sets 30
 222 provinces with neighbors that could be adjacent, $W_{ij}=1$ if two provinces are neighbors; otherwise, $W_{ij}=0$. The value
 223 range of Moran's I is $[-1,1]$, $I < 0$ indicates that there is a negative spatial autocorrelation, $I > 0$ indicates that there is a
 224 positive spatial autocorrelation.

225 Spatial autocorrelation model at the local scale

226 This paper uses the Local spatial autocorrelation proposed by Anselin (1995) to explore the statistically significant spatial
 227 clusters and dispersion of the provincial CRP. The Local Moran's I index can be calculated using Eq. (12):

$$228 I_i = \frac{Y_i - \bar{Y}}{S^2} \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n W_{ij} (Y_j - \bar{Y}) \quad (12)$$

229 Where I_i represents the Local Moran's I , and the other symbols represent the same as in Eqs. (9) to (11). when I_i is
 230 significantly positive, there exists High-High (H-H) or Low-Low (L-L) agglomeration, indicating that the province and
 231 its adjacent provinces have a high or low degree of CRP agglomeration. when I_i is significantly negative, there exists
 232 High-Low (H-L) or Low- High (L-H) agglomeration.

232 Spatial panel model

233 The spatial panel model predominantly including the spatial lag model (SLM), spatial error model (SEM), and spatial
 234 Durbin model (SDM). As a general form of SLM and SEM, SDM considers the spatial correlation of dependent variables
 235 and independent variables simultaneously. SLM mainly explores whether the independent variables in a region are
 236 affected by the dependent and independent variables in adjacent regions. Therefore, this study chooses SDM to examine
 237 the geographical space feature of CRP under moderation, fairness, efficiency scenarios. The model is constructed as
 238 follows:

$$239 CRP_{it} = \alpha + \rho \sum_{j=1}^n W_{ij} CRP_{jt} + \beta X_{it} + \theta \sum_{j=1}^n W_{ij} X_{jt} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (13)$$

240 Where X_{it} represents the independent variables; W_{ij} is the spatial weight matrix; ρ is the spatial lag
 241 autoregressive coefficient; β is the estimated coefficient of the independent variable; θ represents the coefficient
 242 of the space-lag term of the independent variable, and ε_{it} is a random perturbation term.

242 Variables and data

243 Variable selection in measuring carbon reduction potential

244 In terms of the variables in measuring carbon shadow price, input indicators are capital, labor force, and energy
 245 consumption. Besides, the actual GDP was adopted as a desirable output indicator, and carbon emissions were determined
 246 as an undesirable output indicator (see Table 1). In terms of the variables in measuring the CRP, we select per capita
 247 regional carbon emissions and per capita GDP to construct the development equity index. Besides, we select carbon
 248 emission intensity and carbon shadow price to construct the carbon abatement efficiency index (see Table 2).

249 Influencing factors of carbon reduction potential

250 Many factors influence CRP. Existing studies combined with the STIRPAT model show that population, economic
 251 development, industrial structure, research and development (Dietz and Rosa 1994; Cheng et al. 2020), energy structure
 252 (Yu et al. 2018), energy efficiency are the main factors influencing carbon emission. On the basis of the work of Shahbaz
 253 et al. (2016), the increase in domestic openness will attract more foreign investments and high energy demand for
 254 production (Wang and Zheng 2020), so we also consider openness and employ the ratio of total import and export to GDP
 255 to represent it, in which the total import and export volume are converted into RMB. Thus, we select population size,
 256 economic development, industrial structure, low-carbon innovation, energy structure, energy efficiency, economic
 257 opening rate as explanatory variables to analyze the influencing factors of CRP (see Table 3).

258 It is worth noting that low-carbon innovation plays a vital role in the process of carbon reduction (Zhang et al. 2017;

Du et al. 2019). The government could realize the emission reduction target by deploying clean energy technologies and encouraging investments in low-carbon projects (Jordaan et al. 2017). Considering patent data provide a number of valuable information on the patent's technological content and citations, patents are still the most commonly used proxy for studying innovation activities in the scientific literature (Park 2014; Albino et al. 2014). Besides, combined Patent Classification (CPC), jointly promulgated by the European Patent Office and the United States Patent Office, has become one of the most popular patent classification systems since 2013 (Wang et al. 2020). The Y02 section in the CPC system includes patents for technologies or applications that mitigate or adapt to climate change. Thus, here we use the number of CPC-Y02 patent applications to represent low-carbon innovation in different Chinese provinces; then, we collect the data of patent applications from the Incopat database⁴. To avoid heteroscedasticity and consider the low amount of low-carbon innovation applications in some regions, this study takes the logarithm of the number of patent applications plus one as the proxy variable.

270 Data sources

We collect data from many official sources. Such as the China Statistical Yearbook(2001-2019), the China Energy Statistical Yearbook(2001-2018), the China Environmental Statistics Yearbook, the Statistical Yearbook of each province(2001–2018), and the National Bureau of Statistics official website database(2001–2018). The number of patent applications was obtained from the Incopat patent search platform, and the search scope is in the low-carbon field applied for in the China Patent Office (SIPo) from 2000 to 2017. Based on data availability, this paper excludes Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan, and Tibet due to its data are missing. In summary, the data sample comprises panel data from 30 provinces and 18 years, which produces a balanced panel with 540 observations.

278 Spatio-temporal evolution characteristics of carbon reduction potential

279 Temporal characteristics of carbon reduction potential

280 Time series characteristics of carbon reduction potential

281 This paper conducts a temporal analysis of data to explore the Spatio-temporal differences and changes of CRP. We use
282 MATLAB software to classify and summarize the CRP and ranking of various provinces in China. We select 2001, 2006,
283 2011, and 2017 as typical years. In addition, the Chinese mainland is divided into three groups (eastern, central, and
284 western) to analyze the regional variations of average CRP under moderation (Table 4), fairness (Table 5), and efficiency
285 (Table 6) scenarios.

286 There are differences in the CRP among different provinces/regions under three different scenarios. (i) *Moderation*
287 scenario. The average MCRP in all regions decreased from 0.334 in 2001 to 0.312 in 2017, decreased significantly from
288 2006 to 2008, but volatility increased between 2008 and 2017. In terms of subregions, the MCRP in the three regions has
289 been increasing first and then gradually decreasing. The average MCRP in the eastern region is higher than that of the
other two regions. The average growth rate of MCRP found the lowest in the eastern region, followed by the central and
290 the western regions, with average annual growth rates of 0.10%, 1.40%, and 1.80%, respectively. In terms of provinces,
291 the provinces Shanxi, Inner Mongolia, and Ningxia were ranked as the top three places for the average MCRP with values
292 of 0.534, 0.431, 0.418, respectively. However, the bottom three provinces for the average MCRP were Guangxi, Hainan,
293 and Jiangxi, with values of 0.213, 0.221, and 0.222, respectively.

295 (ii) *Fairness scenario*. The average FCRP in all regions increased from 0.251 in 2001 to 0.331 in 2017, decreased
296 quickly from 2006 to 2008, and increased from 2008 to 2017. In terms of subregions, the FCRP in the three regions
297 showed a fluctuating upward trend. The FCRP in the eastern region found the highest, followed by the central and the
western regions. The eastern region had the fastest average growth rate of the three regions, with average annual growth
298 rates of 2.09%, 0.69%, and 0.52%, respectively. In terms of provinces, the provinces Shanxi, Inner Mongolia, and

⁴ <http://www.incopat.com>

300 Shanghai were ranked as the top three places for the average FCRP with values of 0.471, 0.404, and 0.398, respectively.
301 However, the bottom three provinces for the average FCRP were Guangxi, Jiangxi, and Yunnan, with values of 0.167,
302 0.175, and 0.180, respectively.

303 (iii) *Efficiency scenario*. The average ECRP in all regions decreased from 0.417 in 2001 to 0.296 in 2017. In terms of
304 subregions, the ECRP in the three regions showed a fluctuating downward trend. The ECRP in the eastern region showed
305 relatively lower degrees from 2000 to 2006, while it increased sharply and became the highest after 2008. The average
306 growth rate of ECRP found the highest in the eastern region, while the central and the western regions exhibited negative
307 growth, with average annual growth rates of 1.58%, -2.94%, and -3.56%, respectively. In terms of provinces, the provinces
308 Shanxi, Ningxia, and Inner Mongolia were ranked as the top three places for the average ECRP with values of 0.598,
309 0.466, and 0.459, respectively. However, the bottom three provinces for the average ECRP were Hainan, Guangxi, and
310 Jiangxi, with values of 0.257, 0.259, and 0.268, respectively.

311 Overall, the eastern region's economy is more developed, and its average CRP is obviously higher than that of the
312 other two regions, indicating that there is still a lot of space for reducing carbon emissions in the eastern region; meanwhile,
313 the relatively underdeveloped economy makes carbon reduction potential very low in most provinces in the central and
314 western regions. In terms of provinces, the above analysis demonstrates that the top two provinces for the average CRP
315 are Shanxi and Inner Mongolia; while Guangxi and Jiangxi have been the bottom two provinces in China, indicating that
316 the CRP shows a slight polarization in the central and western regions, the polarization may result from various factors
317 such as the level of economic development, the proportion of heavy industries, the consumption of high-carbon energy,
318 and production technology. Hence, it is necessary to research how to enhance carbon reduction capacity effectively in
319 most provinces and make more room for carbon emission reduction.

320 **Dynamic evolution analysis of carbon reduction potential**

321 The dynamic evolution analysis results provide information for the current distributions of CRP and the variation in the
322 provincial gap. Thus, we employ KDE to reveal the dynamic evolution of provincial CRP for 2001、2006、2008、2011,
323 and 2017. Fig.1-3 show the Kernel density estimations, drawn by Stata 15.0, for MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP, respectively.

324 According to Fig. 1-3, the following features are evident by comparing the dynamic evolution of the MCRP, FCRP,
325 and ECRP. Firstly, see from the trend of the KDE curve, the curves and their centers of three scenarios moved slightly to
326 the right from 2001 to 2006, and then moved to the left after 2006, suggesting that the CRP gradually increased first and
327 then gradually decreased during the study period. Secondly, see from the kurtosis of the KDE curve, the peaks and ranges
328 of three different scenario curves experienced varying degrees of change. The modes where the MCRP and ECRP were
329 low evolved from a wide to sharp one from 2001 to 2006, with the height ascending, revealing that the regional gap of
330 MCRP and ECRP was shrinking at this stage. Furthermore, the dispersion range slightly widened after 2006, with the
331 height descending, indicating that the gap among CRPs of different provinces was enlarging. Thirdly, see from the shapes
332 of the KDE curve, the curves of fairness and efficiency scenario for 2001, 2006, and 2008 were bi-modal and showed a
333 rise at the right end, while those for 2011 and 2017 were unimodal. Besides, the curve of the moderation scenario was
334 unimodal, and with several lumps in the long right tail, which means that the CRP shows slight polarization.

335 Overall, provincial CRPs in China were enhancing from 2001 to 2008, with the provincial gap of MCRP and ECRP
336 enlarged from 2001 to 2008 and bi-polarization tendency was weakened during 2011 and 2017. The peak of the curve in
337 2017 was the lowest and smoothest, which means that inter-provincial CRP level disparity in China was the narrowest in
338 2017.

339 **Spatial characteristics of carbon reduction potential**

340 **Global Spatial autocorrelation**

341 This study tests the spatial correlation of MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP from 2000 to 2017. Table 7 presents the results of
342 global Moran index, the global Moran indices of CRP are positive at least at the 5% level of significance, indicating a
343 significant positive spatial autocorrelation among the 30 provinces over time. The spatial dependence of MCRP, FCRP,

344 and ECRP has shown a significant growth trend since 2000, but after 2011, the Moran's I index began to decline fluctuant,
345 indicating that the spatial autocorrelation of regional CRP has weakened after 2011. Moreover, the spatial correlations in
346 2009, 2010, and 2011 were relatively large, which indicates that the spatial dependence of CRP has an inverted "U"
347 pattern, which first increases and then weakens.

348 Specifically, (i) The global Moran's I index of MCRP increased from 0.136 in 2000 to 0.296 in 2010, and then showed
349 a downward trend, which proves that strong geographic dependence and spatial autocorrelation in provincial CRP. (ii)
350 The global Moran's I index of FCRP had been fluctuant increasing from 2000 to 2009, and then showed a fluctuant
351 downward trend after 2009. (iii) The global Moran's I index of ECRP increased fluctuant from 0.135 in 2000 to 0.278 in
352 2011, and then showed a fluctuant downward trend.

353 **Local spatial autocorrelation**

354 To reveal the spatial local auto-correlation and distribution pattern of China's provincial CRP, we draw Moran scatter
355 plots for only 2009 and 2017 owing to the limited space available (see Fig. 4 to 6). The first and the third quadrant, with
356 H-H type provinces and L-L type provinces, respectively, indicate the province with high/low CRP is surrounded by
357 provinces with high/low CRP, while the second and the fourth quadrant, with L-H type provinces and H-L type provinces,
358 respectively, show the polarization characteristics.

359 It can be seen from the figure that most provinces with high CRP are located mainly in the eastern and central region
360 (quadrant I) under three scenarios, such as Shanxi, Tianjin, Liaoning and other provinces. These provinces poss abundant
361 natural resources and increasingly close regional cooperation mechanisms, all of which have a positive effect on the
362 surrounding province (Chen et al. 2020). Clusters provinces with low CRP are concentrated in the western region
363 (quadrant III), including Guansu, Yunnan, and other provinces, as may result from most provinces in the western region
364 have underdeveloped economies and lower emissions efficiency. L-H type was mainly distributed in Anhui, Jilin, and
365 Henan. For these provinces, technical exchanges and cooperation with neighboring provinces could be strengthened to
366 improve CRP. H-L type was prevalent in Guangdong and Jiangsu. These provinces are relatively rich in economy and
367 energy technology, so that they could help their neighboring areas to increase carbon reduction capability through regional
368 cooperation.

369 Specifically, (i)The sum of H-H type and L-L type provinces account for 73.3% (22 provinces) of the provinces in
370 2017, up from 63.3% (19 provinces) in 2009, which means that the spatial clustering is increasing, and the spatial
371 polarization feature of provinces' MCRP appeared. For instance, Shanghai transformed from H-L type in 2009 to H-H
372 type in 2017, as may result from Shanghai have a positive radiative effect and its neighboring developing new sustainable
373 clean technologies to increase CRP. (ii) The sum of H-H type and L-L type provinces account for 60% (18 provinces) of
374 the provinces in 2017, down from 70% (21 provinces) in 2009, which means that the spatial clustering of provinces'
375 FCRP is decreasing, and the spatial polarization feature weakened. (iii) The sum of H-H type and L-L type provinces
376 account for 73.3% (22 provinces) of the provinces in 2017, down from 76.6% (23 provinces) in 2009, indicating that the
377 spatial clustering of provinces' FCRP is increasing slightly.

378 **Empirical results**

379 **Model selection**

380 Before conducting spatial analysis, the first step is to focus attention on the selection of spatial econometric models. Firstly,
381 we employed the LM test to examine whether a spatially lagged dependent variable (LM spatial lag) or a spatially
382 autocorrelated error term (LM spatial error) should be included in the model. According to the LM test results (Table 8),
383 the LM-lag and LM-error test statistics are significant at the 1% level of significance, which indicates that the spatial
384 model is a more appropriate specification than the non-spatial model. Then, the robust LM-lag and the robust LM-error
385 statistic are significant, with a significance level of at least 1%, indicating that the factors affecting CRP include not only
386 independent variables and their lag terms but also some unobservable error terms. Secondly, this paper conducted the

387 likelihood ratio (LR) test to test further the existence of spatial effects. According to Table 8, the LR test results show
388 that the SDM is estimated as this study preferred specification. Finally, it essential to judge whether the correct panel data
389 specification is a random effect or a fixed effect model through the Hausman test. The Hausman test statistics is significant
390 at the 1% level of significance, which indicates that this paper should use the SDM of fixed effect (Table 8).

391 **Results of spatial Durbin estimation**

392 For a spatial econometric model, the estimated coefficients of independent variables are not of great significance. What
393 really needs to be explained are the direct effects, indirect effects of independent variables in space. As the estimation
394 coefficients of explanatory variables do not represent the marginal effects of the independent variables on the dependent
395 variable, we estimate the direct and indirect effects of independent variables on the dependent variable following LeSage
396 and Pace (2009). Table 9 reports on the results of the estimated coefficients of the influencing factors affecting CRP under
397 various scenarios, in which columns (1)-(3), columns (4)-(6), columns (7)-(9) represent the result under moderation,
398 fairness, and efficiency scenario, respectively.

399 According to Table 9, the regression coefficients of *GDP* on MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP are positive at the 1% level of
400 significance, *W_GDP* has a negative and significant effect. The direct effects of *GDP* are significantly positive, and the
401 indirect effects of *GDP* are significantly negative, which indicates that economic development has significant spatial
402 spillover effects. Improving regional economic development in local provinces can significantly increase local CRP, but
403 it may inhibit neighboring provinces' CRP, which may result from economic growth promotes the local accumulation of
404 various resource, and then siphon effect has caused the neighboring province to face the pressure of losing resources and
405 innovative elements, leading to the potential space for carbon emission reduction has been compressed. Thus, economic
406 development is the main factor for enhancing the local CRP.

407 The regression coefficient of *IND* is negative at the 1% level of significance, and the direct and indirect effects of *IND*
408 on MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP are negative and significant. We can conclude that adjusting the industrial structure in local
409 provinces can increase local and neighboring provinces' carbon reduction potential. Most Chinese provinces' development
410 mode is relatively rough and their industrial structure is relatively backward for a long time. Furthermore, many scholars
411 established that the secondary industry is the leading producer of carbon emissions (Cole et al. 2008; Cheng et al. 2018).
412 Due to many companies in the secondary industry are generally characterized by high energy consumption and high
413 carbon-emitting, improvement of industrial structure facilitates the flow of various factors from low-efficiency sectors to
414 high-efficiency sectors (Zhou et al. 2013), which additionally increasing the potential of carbon emission reduction.
415 Therefore, industrial structure optimization is an effective way to improve provincial carbon emission reduction potential
416 and reduce regional carbon emissions.

417 From the spillover effect decomposition analysis, *GREEN* has a negative effect on FCRP in local provinces, while
418 *GREEN* has a positive effect on ECRP in local and neighboring provinces. These results indicate that improving low-
419 carbon technologies can contribute to the local carbon emission reduction and provide critical support for local CRP under
420 the efficiency scenario; in contrast, enhancing low-carbon innovation capability could restrain the local CRP under the
421 fairness scenario. Low-carbon innovation can bring about an improvement in energy factor utilization and rapid
422 development in new products. Especially in the process of increasing CRP by low-carbon technological progress, it is the
423 efficiency-driven policy that plays the primary role. Therefore, we conclude that low-carbon innovation is a critical path
424 that the province uses to increasing local CRP and promoting low-carbon transformation in the adjacent provinces from
425 the perspective of efficiency.

426 The regression coefficient of *ES* is positive at the 1% level of significance, and direct effect coefficients of *ES* on
427 MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP are positive at the 1% level of significance, indicating that energy structure optimization has
428 significant spatial spillover effects. However, only under the efficiency scenario, the indirect effect coefficient is 0.197,
429 which is not significant, suggesting that adjustment of energy structure in local provinces has only marginally contributed
430 to adjacent provinces' ECRP. The energy consumption structure in China is dominated by coal (Lin and Wang 2020), coal
431 consumption is the major source of greenhouse gas emissions and environmental problems (Wang et al. 2012). The higher

432 consumption of the province will provide more room for carbon emission reduction. Hence, switching to renewable
433 energy and improving the coal-based energy structure would provide essential support for local carbon emission reduction.

434 According to Table 9, it can be seen that the increase in energy efficiency will significantly increase (1% significance
435 level) local CRP under three scenarios, while only under the fairness scenario, the indirect effect coefficient is 0.009,
436 which is not significant. The results show that energy efficiency has a significantly positive impact on the surrounding
437 areas' CRP except for the fairness scenario. The main reason is that the improvement of energy efficiency brings effective
438 energy utilization (Jin et al. 2017). Due to the demonstration effect on neighboring areas, provinces with low energy
439 efficiency usually strive to bring in technology promotion strategies, practical experiences of local policies of Provinces
440 with high efficiency (Song et al. 2018). Therefore, energy efficiency can be regarded as the vital factor of enhancing
441 carbon reduction potential.

442 The direct effects of OPEN and POP on MCRP, FCRP, and ECRP were not significant, the indirect effects of POP are
443 significantly positive under three scenarios, indicating that openness can not significantly increase CRP, especially the
444 openness that deviates from the green development orientation is not conducive to regional emission reduction. Moreover,
445 the effect of population size on CRP is not limited to local provinces, and can enhance carbon reduction potential across
446 provinces through population movement.

447 **Conclusions and policy implications**

448 **Conclusions**

449 This study evaluates the carbon shadow price and the CRP index under the three scenarios of moderation, fairness, and
450 efficiency. Based on the evaluation data, we analyze the spatial-temporal patterns and dynamic evolution of provincial
451 CRP from 2001-2017 in China. Then, we employ exploratory spatial data analysis and SDM to explore the influence
452 factors of CRP under three different scenarios. The main conclusions are as follows:

453 First, there are differences between different provinces/regions' CRP under three different scenarios from 2000 to 2017.
454 the average MCRP and average ECRP showed a gradual downward trend, while the average FCRP showed an upward
455 volatility trend. There also have substantial differences between the regions. MCRP and FCRP in the eastern region were
456 found the highest, whereas ECRP in the eastern region was the highest after 2008. Further, there exists a slight polarization
457 in the central and western regions.

458 Second, the spatial autocorrelation test indicated that the provinces with a similar CRP showed a significant geographic
459 agglomeration, and the agglomeration effect was strengthened first and then weakened over time. Besides, most provinces
460 with high CRP are located mainly in the eastern and central regions, such as Shanxi, InnerMongolia. These provinces
461 poss abundant natural resources and have a positive effect on the surrounding province. Clusters provinces with low CRP
462 are concentrated in the western region. These provinces have underdeveloped economies.

463 Lastly, through the SDM analysis and spillover effect decomposition, we conclude that improvements in regional CRP
464 not only depend on economic development, industrial structure adjustment, and energy efficiency elevation, but also
465 involve energy structure optimization, low-carbon innovation and population. It is noteworthy that there are differences
466 in the effects of low-carbon innovation under different scenarios. The low-carbon innovation provides critical support for
467 local CRP under the efficiency scenario but restrains the local CRP under the fairness scenario.

468 **Policy implications**

469 Based on the above conclusions, the policy implications for regional carbon reduction potential improvement are as
470 follows.

471 Firstly, The central government should fully consider the heterogeneity of factors such as economic development,
472 resource conditions, and carbon emission potentials in various regions when formulating carbon reduction policies. The
473 government must emphasize local conditions and make the ex-ante scenario assessment, pay more attention to areas with

474 high CRPs and appropriately control areas with low CRPs. For example, such as the leading coal production provinces
475 with low marginal abatement costs, Shanxi and Inner Mongolia etc., should assume higher carbon reduction targets to
476 unlock the carbon reduction potential. While underdeveloped provinces with slow energy structure adjustments, such as
477 Hainan and Qinghai, should assume looser carbon reduction constraints. Overall, the government should guide innovation
478 and human resources flow to the central and western regions and high-carbon areas with high emission reduction potential
479 to improve emission reduction efficiency while reducing total social costs.

480 Secondly, emphasize the cross-regional collaboration of carbon emission control. The "spillover" of social capital,
481 talents, low-carbon technology make it easy to achieve the goal of inter-regional coordinated development of carbon
482 reduction. To break the current situation of low carbon reduction potential among the western regions, carbon reduction
483 strategies should be established based on "joint prevention and control". Specifically, for H-L agglomeration areas,
484 strengthening the leading role in developed economic areas, such as Guangdong and Jiangsu, and reinforcing the spillover
485 of capital, environmental protection technologies, and other factors to enhance the radiation effect from the "center" to
486 the "periphery". For low-low agglomeration areas with underdeveloped economies, such as Guangxi and Gansu, CRP
487 could be enhanced by encouraging develop clean energy (e.g., photovoltaic, wind energy, tidal energy) and increasing
488 special fund support and guarantee to weaken the siphon effect.

489 Thirdly, explore the carbon reduction paths characterized by sustainable and low-carbon development governed in
490 multiple dimensions. The study shows that improvement in economic, industrial structure, and energy efficiency elevation
491 will not only effectively enhance the local CRP but also have a significant spatial spillover effect. Therefore, it is essential
492 to optimize energy efficiency and explore economic growth paths characterized by sustainable and low-carbon
493 development. On the one hand, through tax incentives and low-interest loans, the government can encourage and support
494 the local research institutes and enterprises in developed areas to carry out the production, transformation, and application
495 of low-carbon innovation, which is an indispensable strategy for advancing energy efficiency. Meanwhile, the government
496 could introduce voluntary energy efficiency standards for various sectors, especially high-carbon industries, to stimulate
497 industrial energy efficiency improvements. On the other hand, the government could vigorously promote the application
498 of clean energy in transport, industry, and construction through financial subsidies and pollution penalties to get rid of
499 coal dependence gradually. Simultaneously, we should formulate relevant policies to guide enterprises to transition toward
500 the tertiary industry to accelerate de-industrialization progress. In particular, the government should increase subsidies
501 for outstanding talents and foster regional knowledge collaboration.

502
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504 and interpreted the data, drafted the article or revised it critically for important intellectual content, and was a major
505 contributor in writing the manuscript. Caijiang Zhang revised it critically for intellectual content and approved the version
506 to be published. Yu Zhou acquired the data and made substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work.
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511 **Compliance with ethical standards**

512 **Competing interests** The authors declared that they have no conflict of interest.

513 **Ethics approval and consent to participate** Not applicable

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Figures

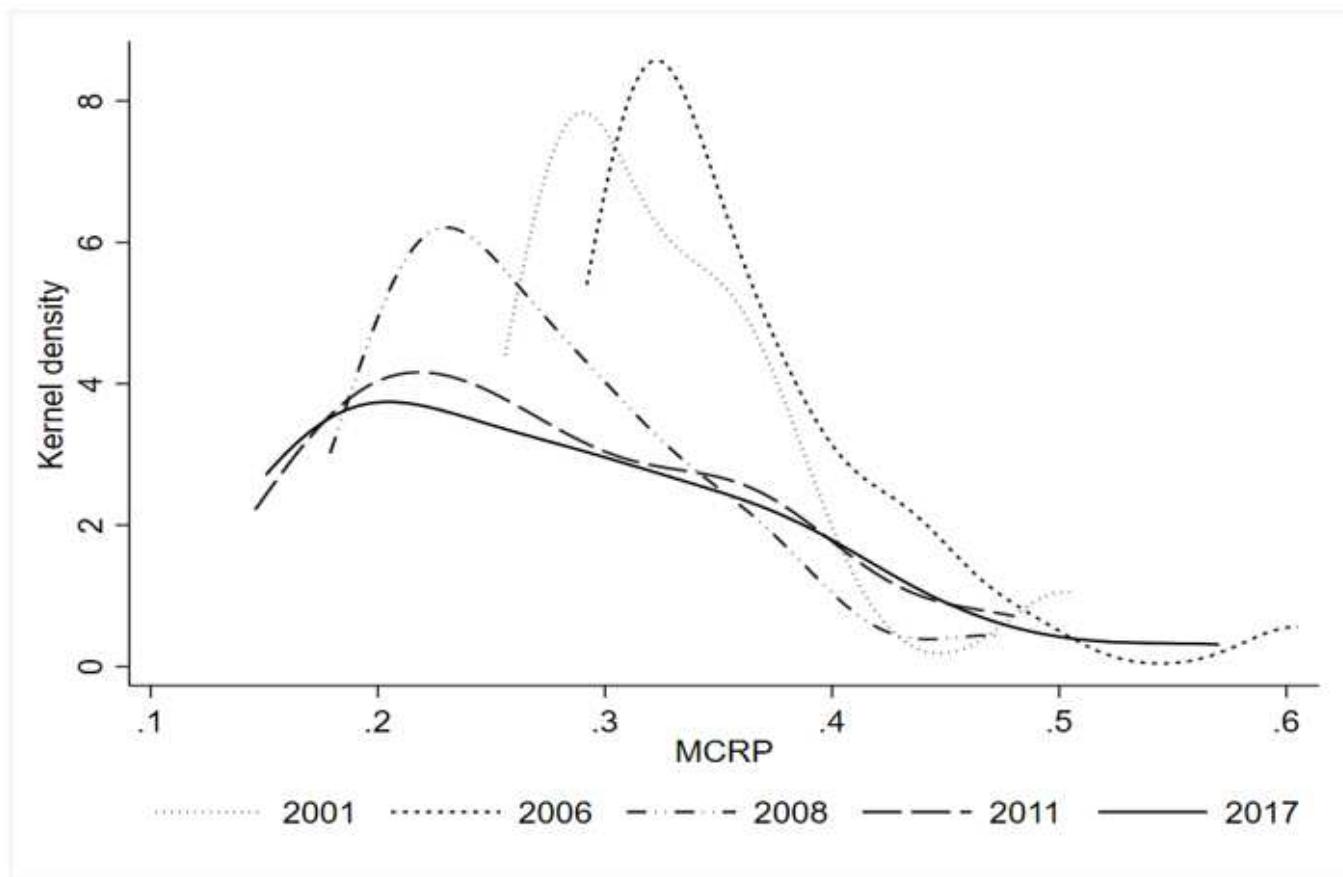


Figure 1

Kernel density plot of China's MCRP in selected years

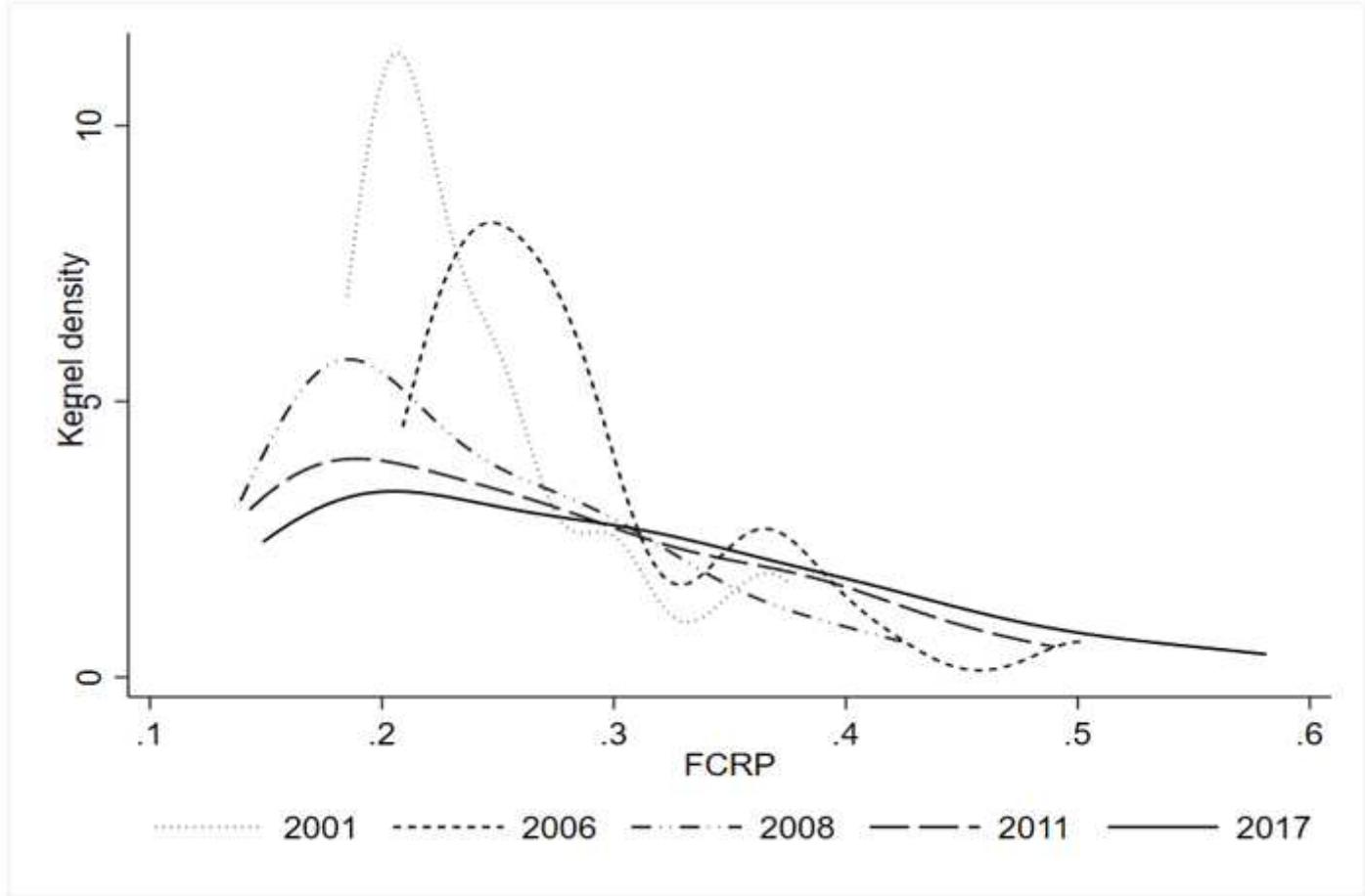


Figure 2

Kernel density plot of China's FCRP in selected years

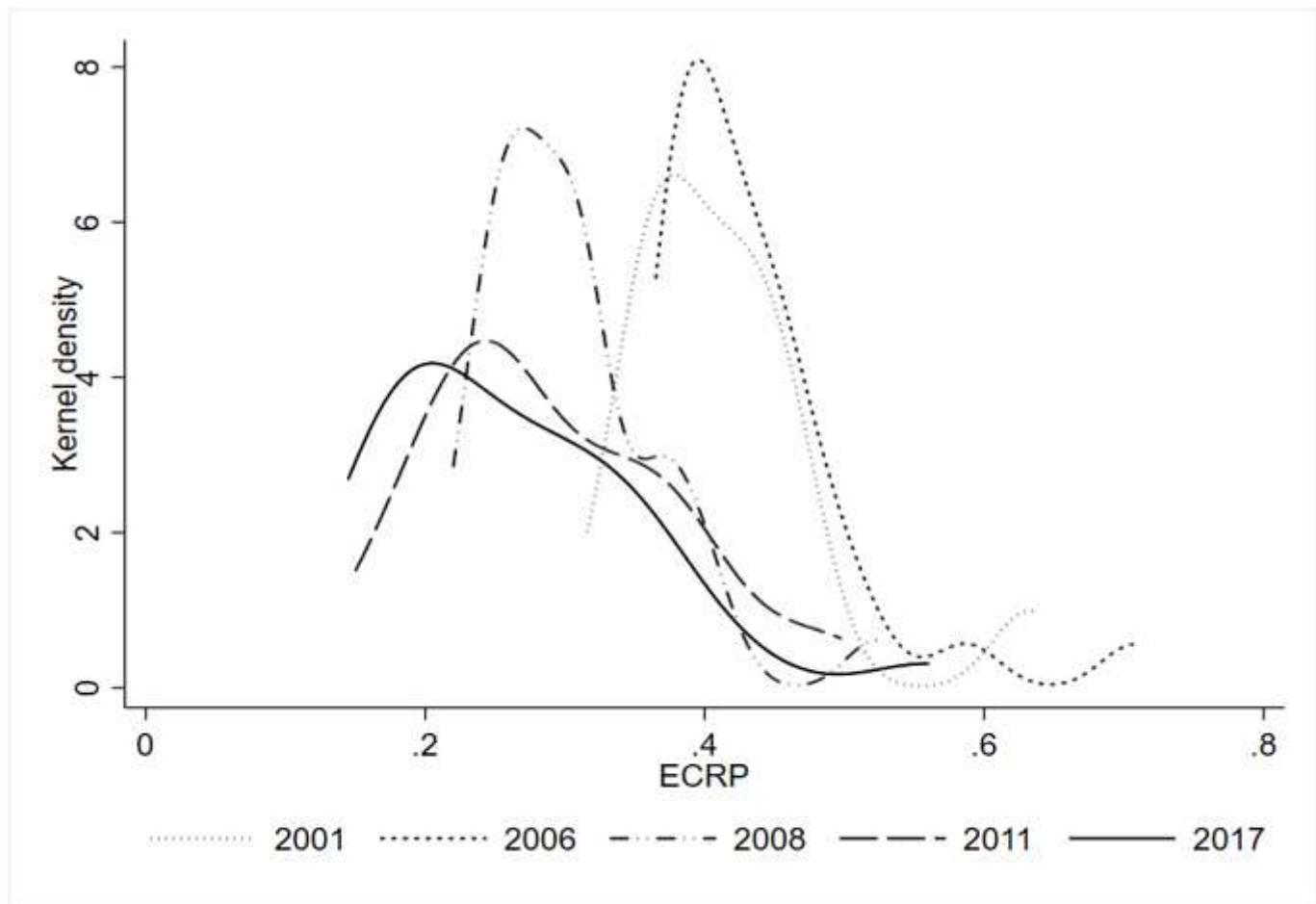


Figure 3

Kernel density plot of China's ECRP in selected years

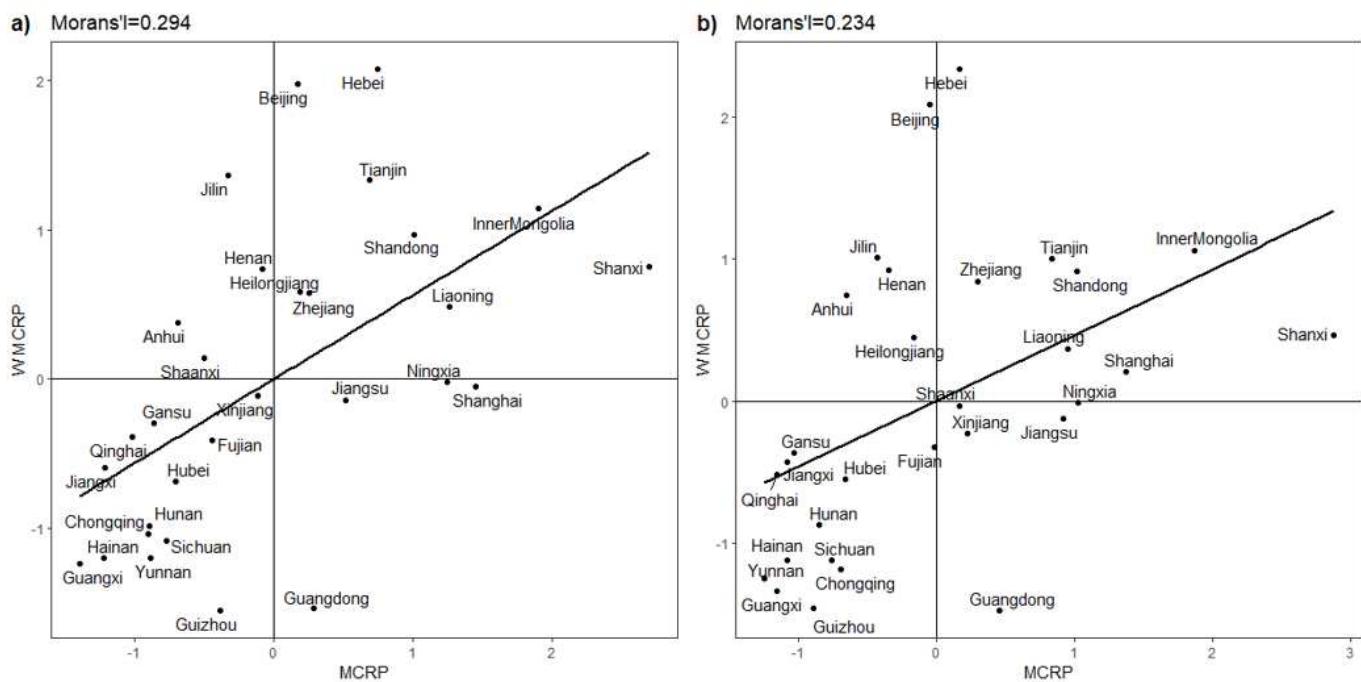


Figure 4

Moran scatter plots of MCRP in 2009 and 2017

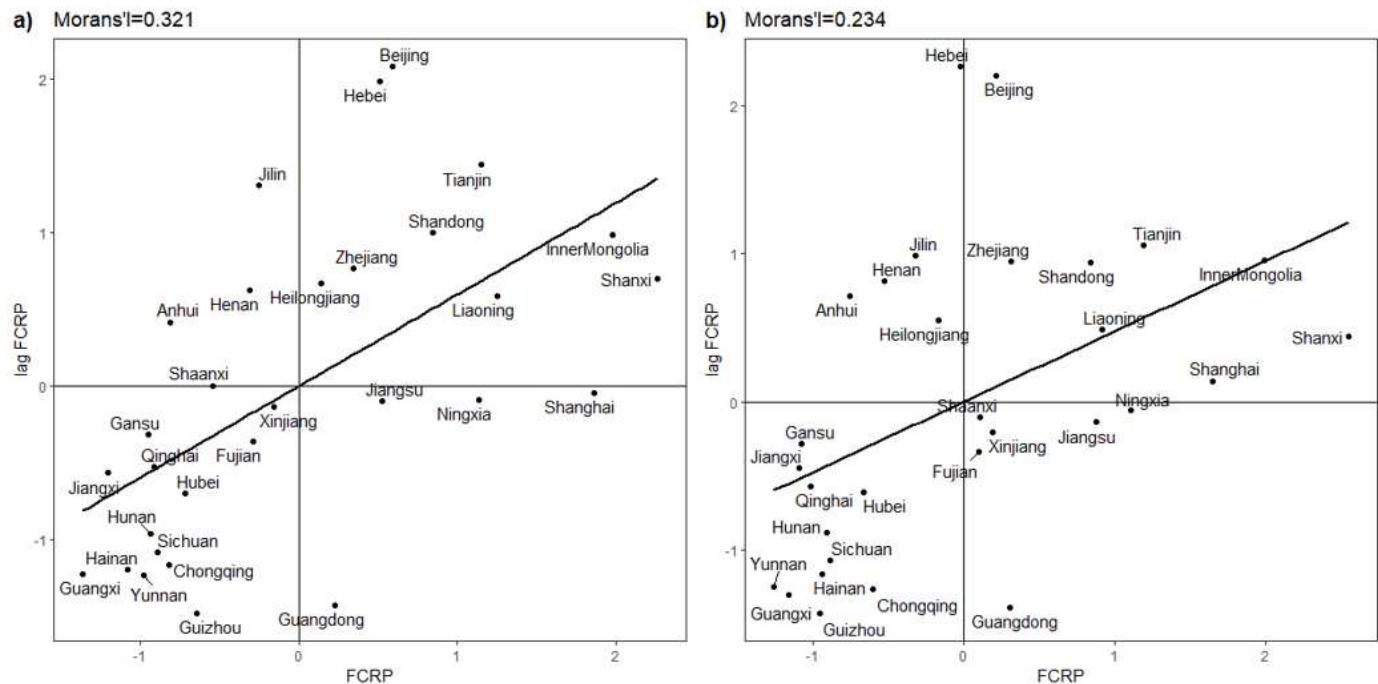


Figure 5

Moran scatter plots of FCRP in 2009 and 2017

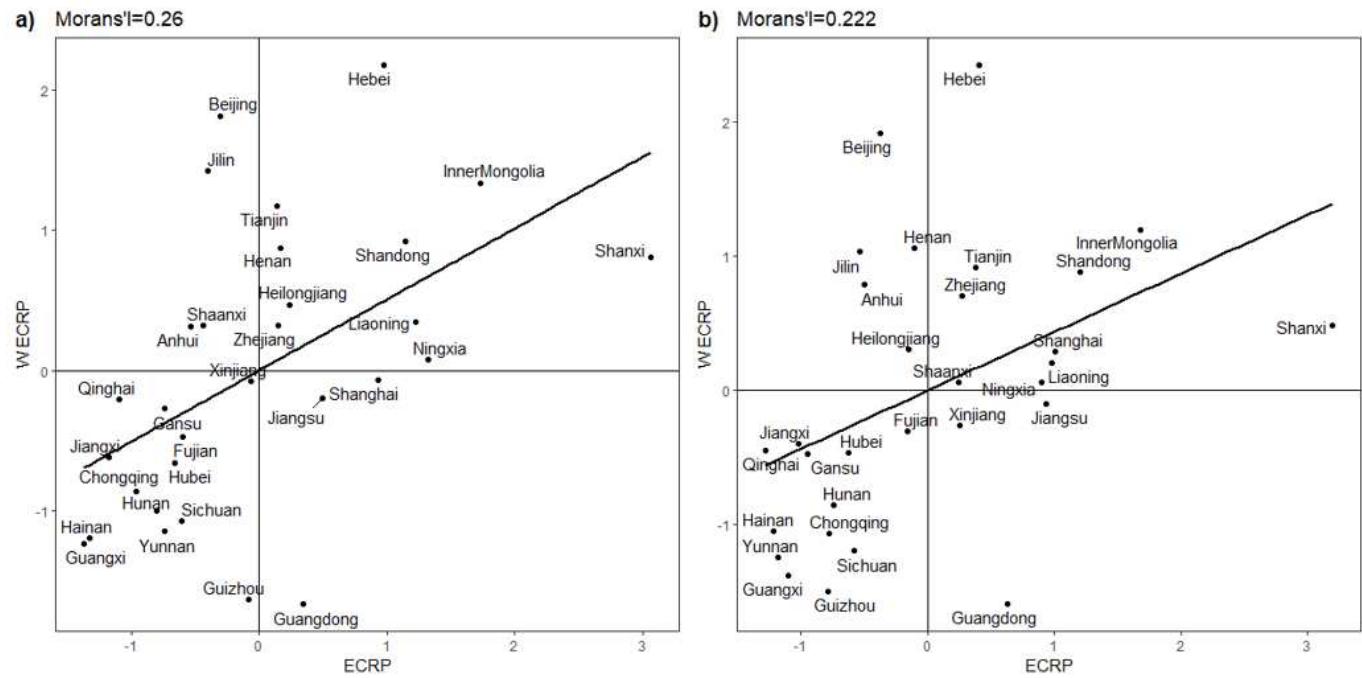


Figure 6

Moran scatter plots of ECRP in 2009 and 2017

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