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Water footprint of Jing-Jin-Ji urban agglomeration in China

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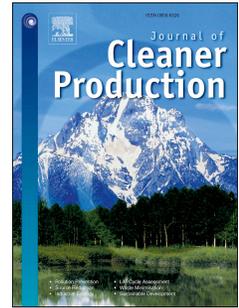
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1 Water footprint of Jing-Jin-Ji urban agglomeration 2 in China

3
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17 Abstract

18 A rapidly expanding economy and increasing water demand for agricultural and industrial
19 production is placing enormous stress on water quantity and the aquatic environment in Northern
20 China, especially the so-called Jing-Jin-Ji (Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei) urban agglomeration, home to
21 over 110 million people producing 10% of China's overall GDP. Several studies have focused on
22 energy consumption, air pollution, CO₂ emissions and regional blue water footprint (WF)
23 following release of the Jing-Jin-Ji Integration Strategy by the China government in 2013.
24 However, a comprehensive assessment distinguishing blue, green and grey WF amongst different
25 industrial sectors, ascertaining how WF transfers internally and beyond the region and final
26 demand consumption is not available. We consider this to be crucial in understanding and
27 addressing the deteriorating water situation in the Jing-Jin-Ji. In this study, we quantified the WF
28 and virtual water flow on a sectoral basis for the year 2010 through coupling the multi-regional
29 input-output model (MRIO) with WF assessment. The results showed that Beijing and Tianjin are
30 net importers of green, blue and grey water from Hebei and other China provinces to support their
31 needs. Conversely, Hebei exports all WF colors to Beijing, Tianjin and other provinces in China,
32 and more than 60% of WF is transferred as virtual water. For the overall Jing-Jin-Ji region a small
33 amount of blue water (2,086 million m³) is exported, but huge amounts of green water (15,573
34 million m³) and grey water (30,620 million m³) are outsourced. A "Virtual Water Strategy" is one
35 measure which could alleviate water stress at the regional scale, with consideration of financial
36 compensation from water receiving regions made to water supplying regions in the context of
37 achieving water management targets. We also found that physical water transfer to Jing-Jin-Ji
38 could not balance virtual blue water exports, not to mention compensating for internal water

39 consumption. Our research suggests that a continuation of an export-based economic development
40 model will worsen Hebei's water stress. Reducing the dependency of Hebei's sectoral economy on
41 export of water intensive and low value added agricultural products may be one strategy to reduce
42 the pressure on regional water resources. In addition, the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Integration
43 Strategy drives industrial transfer from Beijing to Hebei resulting in the transfer of enterprises
44 with low water utilization efficiency and producing heavy pollution. As a result, the government
45 should consider incentivizing corporations to adopt technologies that reduce water consumption
46 and pollution.

47 **Keywords:** water footprint; urban agglomeration; MRIO model; virtual water; industrial sectors.

48 1 Introduction

49 Freshwater availability is recognized as a limiting factor in economic and social development.
50 With rapid economic and population growth, global demand for freshwater has increased fourfold
51 in the last 60 years (Uitto and Schneider, 1997). Water consumption has increased twice as fast as
52 population growth during the last century (FAO and UN, 2007), and is predicted to rise by a
53 further 50% in developing countries and 18% in developed countries by 2035 (WWAP, 2006).
54 Some scientists forecast that half of the world's population will suffer the consequences of severe
55 water stress by 2030 (Oki and Kanae, 2006; Vörösmarty et al., 2010). This emerging water crisis
56 is becoming one of the most serious challenges faced by humanity in the 21st Century (World
57 Economic Forum, 2015).

58 Water consumption has also grown in China. In 2014 China consumed 609.5 billion m³
59 freshwater resource (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2015), equivalent to 15% of global
60 water withdrawal (FAO, 2016). A rapidly developing economy and increasing demand from
61 agricultural and industrial production has placed enormous pressure on the water environment.
62 This is particularly true for Northern China and the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei urban agglomeration
63 (the so-called Jing-Jin-Ji). To address this problem the China government made its top priority in
64 2011 the implementation of the most stringent water resource management plan, concretized by
65 the "three redlines" concerning total national water use, water use efficiency, and water pollution
66 (Liu et al., 2013). In this policy China's highest water demand area, Jing-Jin-Ji, is required to
67 reduce its total water use to 34 billion m³ (5.2 for Beijing, 4.2 for Tianjin and 24.6 for Hebei), and
68 95% of all freshwater bodies will need to reach or exceed the required water quality standard by
69 2030 (The State Council of China, 2013). In response, local governments have produced plans for
70 regional water security ranging from end-of-pipe control, to closing, restructuring and relocating
71 industry.

72 Economic activity and social provision require freshwater as one type of input element.
73 Water pollution and water consumption have placed huge pressure on the water environment
74 (White et al., 2015). Understanding the structure of the economy in relation to water flow from
75 production to household consumption is essential to solve finite freshwater resource scarcity. In
76 the past few years Jing-Jin-Ji has become one of the most important industrial areas of China
77 producing a wide range of products and services for other regions. For example, in 2014,
78 Jing-Jin-Ji accounted for 27% total steel and 6% total agricultural production in China (National
79 Bureau of Statistics of China, 2014). Products related to metal and agriculture comprised 13% and
80 4% respectively of Jing-Jin-Ji's total industrial output (National Bureau of Statistics of China,
81 2015). However, these underpinning industries also incur enormous water consumption and

82 produce significant water pollution. In 2014, Jing-Jin-Ji directly consumed 25.4 billion m³
83 freshwater (63% to agriculture and 14% to industrial sectors), and discharged nearly 5.5 billion
84 tons wastewater to the environment. Water pollution and other environmental issues have a
85 negative impact on freshwater availability and create a “choke point” in terms of sustainable
86 development. The region faces huge obstacles in achieving the “Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Integration
87 Strategy”.

88 Hoekstra and Hung (2002) introduced the concept of the water footprint (WF) as a
89 consumption-based indicator of water use. The WF is the total volume of freshwater used to
90 produce goods and services consumed by people, business, nations or economic regions both
91 directly and indirectly (Klaus Hubacek et al., 2009). In water footprint and virtual water flow
92 studies, water is typically classed as one of three types: blue, green or grey water (Chapagain and
93 Hoekstra, 2004). Allan (1998) introduced the concept of ‘virtual water’ as an alternative strategy
94 to alleviate water scarcity, specifically using virtual water import as a tool to reduce the burden of
95 domestically scarce water resources. Over time, the term ‘virtual water’ has expanded to mean the
96 volume of water that is required to produce any good or service.

97 Several studies have focused on the Jing-Jin-Ji since the Integration Strategy was announced
98 in 2013, for example ground subsidence (Zhang et al., 2016), energy consumption (Wang and
99 Chen, 2016), carbon emissions (Han et al., 2016), and air pollution (Zhao et al., 2016a). White et
100 al. (2015) estimated the blue WF and water stress in the Haihe River Basin for the year 2007.
101 Wang and Chen (2016) investigated the nexus between water and energy for urban
102 agglomerations, selecting Jing-Jin-Ji as a case study. Zhao et al (2010) calculated the blue WF for
103 the Haihe river basin based on the input-output analysis tool for the years 1997, 2002, 2007. Most
104 studies have focused on blue WF; a comprehensive water footprint assessment distinguishing blue,
105 green and grey water footprint amongst different industrial sectors and ascertaining how WF
106 transfers within and beyond the region and final demand consumption hasn’t been identified. We
107 consider such a study to be important in addressing the water situation in the Jing-Jin-Ji.

108 **2 Materials and Methods**

109 **2.1 Study site**

110 The Jing-Jin-Ji urban agglomeration is one of the key infrastructure development areas for
111 China. It is located on the coast of the Bohai Sea (Figure 1) with a total area of 21.67 million ha, is
112 home to greater than 110 million inhabitants (8% of China’s total population), and a GDP
113 equivalent to ca. 10% of that for China in 2014. Available freshwater volume is about 13.8 billion
114 m³, just 0.5% of China’s total, and the high population density of 500 persons per km², and low
115 water resource endowment of 125 m³ per person/year make the Jing-Jin-Ji highly water stressed.
116 Each part of the Jing-Jin-Ji plays a different role in regional water utilization. Currently, the
117 imbalance between economic development, administrative systems, and water scarcity severely
118 hinder further integration and cooperation.

119

120 **2.2 Multi-regional input-output model (MRIO)**

121 Multi-regional input-output modelling (MRIO) is a powerful tool for tracing the
122 environmental impact of consumption between sectors amongst different economic regions. The
123 tool was developed by Leontief in the late 1930s (Leontief, 1941, 1970). The MRIO approach was
124 chosen for several reasons: first, MRIO is based on final rather than apparent consumption

125 (production is assigned to the end-product) and, second, MRIO can comprehensively describe
 126 supply chain effects which is vital for allocating responsibility to the final consumer. Furthermore,
 127 MRIO is well recognized for calculating the WF of industrial sectors. As a result, we used an
 128 environmentally extended MRIO model to capture the water flows and their interconnections
 129 along the supply chain between industrial sectors within the Jing-Jin-Ji, and externally with other
 130 China provinces in 2010. We extracted a three-region input-output table for the Jing-Jin-Ji based
 131 on the latest China multi-regional input-output tables for 2010 compiled by Liu et al (Liu et al.,
 132 2014). Liu's model has been used in various studies (Feng et al., 2013), (Feng et al., 2014), (Zhao
 133 et al., 2015) and (Liang et al., 2014). Here, our three-region model of the Jing-Jin-Ji included
 134 detailed information for 30 industrial sectors (see table S1) of inter-provincial trade and export.
 135 The model structure is presented in table S2. For clarity we utilized some mathematical symbols,
 136 formulas and equations in the following sections. Scalars are denoted by italicized lower case
 137 letters (e.g. x), matrices are indicated by bold upright capital letters (e.g. \mathbf{X}), and vectors by bold
 138 upright lower case letters (e.g. \mathbf{x}). The monetary flow balance in each row can thus be written as:

$$\sum_{s=1}^3 \sum_{j=1}^{30} z_{ij}^{rs} + \sum_{s=1}^3 y_i^{rs} + \sum_{t=1}^{28} e_i^{rt} = x_i^r \quad (1)$$

141
 142 Where, z_{ij}^{rs} refers to inter-provincial industrial demand from sector i in province r to sector j in
 143 province s . y_i^{rs} indicates finished products of sector i produced in province r and consumed in
 144 province s . e_i^{rt} refers to exports from sector i in province r to the other 27 provinces in China and
 145 other countries, and x_i^r is the total output of sector i in region r .

146 According to the MRIO model, the technical coefficient from sector i in province r to
 147 produce unit output for sector j in province s can be formulated by:

$$a_{ij}^{rs} = z_{ij}^{rs} / x_j^s \quad (2)$$

148
 149
 150 Combining Eq (1) with Eq (2) yields Eq (3) as follows:

$$\mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{x} \quad (3)$$

151
 152
 153
 154 Where \mathbf{A} is a technical coefficient matrix, \mathbf{y} is a vector of total final demand by sector, \mathbf{e} is a
 155 vector of export by sector, and \mathbf{x} means total output of each sector.

156
 157
 158 The Leontief inverse matrix $(\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{A})^{-1}$ captures both direct and indirect inputs. Solving for \mathbf{x} results
 159 can also be expressed in terms of the well-known Leontief inverse equation (4):

$$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{e}) \quad (4)$$

160
 161
 162 Thus, the WF considering the supply chain in Jing-Jin-Ji can be calculated as:

$$\mathbf{wf}^s = \mathbf{d}^s * \mathbf{x}^s \quad (5)$$

163
 164
 165
 166
 167 Where, \mathbf{wf}^s is the vector of the total water footprint related to the production of goods and
 168 services along the whole national supply chain triggered by final consumption in each sector (blue

169 WF, green WF and grey WF) of province s ; \mathbf{d}^s is the vector of direct water use intensity, which
 170 means the water consumption directly discharged to increase one unit of total economic output in
 171 each sector; and \mathbf{x}^s is the vector of total economic output in province s .

172 Equation (5) captures the total direct and indirect water consumption associated with the final
 173 demand of a region. However, it isn't able to distinguish between the water for final consumption
 174 from domestic water resources (DWF) and virtual water trade. To calculate the Virtual Water
 175 Export (VWE) and Virtual Water Import (VWI) from province s to other provinces, equation (5)
 176 can be rewritten as:

177
 178
 179

$$\mathbf{vwe}^s = \mathbf{d}^s(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{ss})^{-1} \sum_{r \neq s} \mathbf{e}^{sr} \quad (6)$$

180 \mathbf{d}^s , \mathbf{A}^{ss} and \mathbf{e}^{rs} of region s are, respectively, direct water use intensity, technical coefficient of
 181 domestic intermediate inputs, and import from province s to province r .

182 The virtual water import of province s , \mathbf{vwi}^s , may be treated as the virtual water export from
 183 other regions to province s . So, \mathbf{vwi}^s is calculated by summing over the virtual water exports of
 184 other regions to province s , equation (7):

185
 186
 187

$$\mathbf{vwi}^s = \sum_{r \neq s} \mathbf{d}^r(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}^{rr})^{-1} \mathbf{e}^{rs} \quad (7)$$

188 \mathbf{d}^r , \mathbf{A}^{rr} and \mathbf{e}^{sr} of region r are, respectively, direct water use intensity, technical coefficient of
 189 domestic intermediate inputs, and export from province r to province s .

190 The Consumption-based water footprint (CWF) in province s is the sum of consumed
 191 domestic water resources (DWF) to meet the internal final demand of province s , and the
 192 consumption of external water resources via virtual water import from external provinces in goods
 193 and services (VWI). CWF can measure the impact that the final demand of one province has on
 194 another province's water resources (equation 8):

195
 196
 197

$$\text{CWF} = \text{DWF} + \text{VWI} \quad (8)$$

198 The Production-based water footprint (PWF) in province s is the sum of domestic water
 199 resources consumed for domestic demand (DWF) and exported to other provinces via embodied
 200 virtual water in goods and services (VWE) for external demands. This accounts for the use of the
 201 Jing-Jin-Ji's domestic water resources to meet internal and external demands (equation 9):

202
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 204

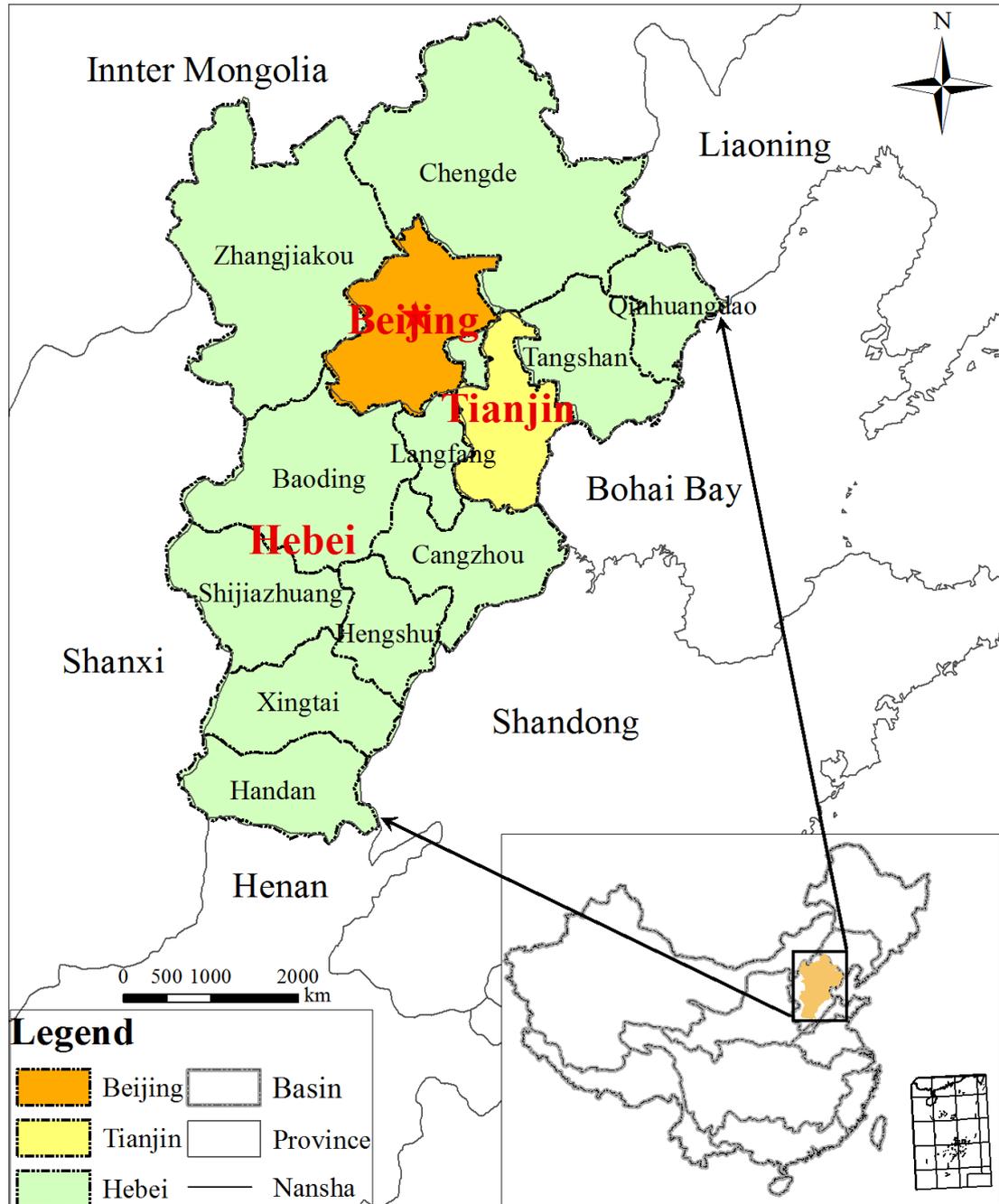
$$\text{PWF} = \text{DWF} + \text{VWE} \quad (9)$$

205 2.3 Data sources

206 In this research we used the GEPIC model (GIS-based Environmental Policy Integrated
 207 Climate model) (Liu, 2009) to simulate direct blue and green water footprint for the primary
 208 agricultural sector, particularly the main agricultural crops. The GEPIC model has been used to
 209 calculate water consumption in agriculture at the global, national and regional scales and several
 210 studies have shown it to have good performance in China (Liu et al., 2007b; Liu et al., 2007a; Liu
 211 and Yang, 2010; Zhao et al., 2014); we have therefore used the same parameters in our simulations.
 212 Detailed simulation processes for the GEPIC model may be found in Liu (2009) and Liu and Yang

213 (2010). Our results showed that blue WF and green WF of crop production in China was about
214 85,050 million m³ and 580,900 million m³ respectively, however Mekonnen and Hoekstra's (2011)
215 previously calculated these two indicators as 118,600 million m³ and 623,880 million m³
216 respectively; our simulations are therefore smaller by 28% and 7% of their study. One of the most
217 important reasons for this difference is that our calculations were focused solely on the
218 agricultural growing season, but Mekonnen and Hoekstra's results were calculated for the whole
219 year. Our study was concerned with the actual water consumption by agricultural output, thus the
220 water footprint during the growing season was considered more suitable for this purpose. The
221 AgMERRA climate forcing dataset was obtained from the AgMIP group (Ruane et al., 2015).

222 Blue water use of the secondary and tertiary sectors was obtained from the China Water
223 Resource Bulletin of different provinces (The Ministry of Water Resources of China, 2011). Water
224 use data in each sector was converted to blue WF by multiplying with the water consumption
225 coefficient, which was taken from the provincial Water Resource Bulletin (The Ministry of Water
226 Resources of China, 2011). Total blue WF at secondary and tertiary sector level was disaggregated
227 into 29 sectors based on water consumption per unit of economic output for 30 provinces in 2007,
228 which was estimated from the China Economic Census Yearbook 2008 (National Bureau of
229 Statistics of China, 2008). For the grey WF for each sector, Hoekstra et al. (2011) introduced a
230 global standard. In China, water quality is categorized into five grades (Ministry of Environmental
231 Protection of China, 2002), with Grade III and above indicating water suitable for fishery,
232 aquaculture, and recreational purposes. Water resources categorized below Grade III indicate
233 poorer quality which is deemed unsuitable for safe use. Grade V indicates water which is so
234 seriously polluted so as to be unfit for any beneficial use. Here, we estimated the grey WF
235 component according to these rules and calculated the volume of water needed to assimilate
236 nutrients so that they could achieve Grade III status. COD, NH₃-N, TN and TP discharges were
237 selected as water pollutant indicators to estimate the grey WF for each sector. We then selected the
238 maximum dilution water consumption as the grey WF for that sector; this practice has been
239 successfully applied by Zeng et al. (Zeng and Liu, 2013). Agricultural non-point source discharge
240 pollution data in 2010 was estimated based on agricultural non-point pollution datasets from the
241 China Economic Census Yearbook 2008. Annual water pollutant discharge data (measured in tons)
242 for each sector at national level is recorded in the Environmental Statistics Yearbook (National
243 Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011). We disaggregated this data into provincial scales based on the
244 province's economic outputs on a sector scale by assuming that the technology level and
245 efficiency in each area/province was homogeneous.



246
247 *Figure 1 Geographical location of the Jing-Jin-Ji national capital region.*

248 **3 Results**

249 **3.1 The water footprint of the Jing-Jin-Ji distinguishing between blue water, green water and** 250 **grey water**

251 In 2010, in terms of the consumption-based water footprint (CWF) for Jing-Jin-Ji, we found
252 there was a total of 15,292 million m³ blue water or 146 m³ per capita, and 36,477 million m³
253 green water or 349 m³ per capita consumed by domestic homes and businesses. This varied
254 between 2,964 million m³ blue WF in Beijing and 17,987 million m³ green water in Hebei. A
255 further 292,710 million m³ freshwater or 2,800 m³ per capita was used to dilute the resulting water
256 pollution discharged by business and household activities, which is significantly greater than the

257 sum of the blue WF and green WF (See Table 1). In the CWF account, virtual water imports made
258 an important contribution to the water footprint of all categories (55% for blue WF, 78% for green
259 WF, and 63% for grey WF). This was particularly true for Beijing and Tianjin, where more than 80%
260 of the total CWF was restricted to import from other provinces. Hebei mainly relied on its local
261 water resource rather than the import of blue WF and grey WF (See Figure 2).

262 For the production-based water footprint (PWF), 17,348 million m³ blue water or 166 m³ per
263 capita, and 20,903 million m³ green water or 200 m³ per capita, was used to produce goods and
264 services. This ranged from 750 million m³ blue WF in Beijing to 19,047 million m³ green WF in
265 Hebei. Dealing with water pollution consumed 262,089 million m³ freshwater or 2,507 m³ per
266 capita to achieve the Grade III water quality standard, which is greater than the total available
267 water resource in this area (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011). In the production-based
268 approach account, virtual water export also played a major role for all types of water footprint (60%
269 for blue WF, 64% for green WF, and 58% for grey WF). This was particularly the case for Hebei,
270 which accounted for almost 90% of total virtual water export. Overall, about 60% of water was
271 traded virtually and areas such as Beijing and Hebei imported and exported substantial proportions
272 of their water. The CWF approach to accounting for the Jing-Jin-Ji's green WF and grey WF led to
273 a higher estimate than the PWF approach because of the significant net import of virtual water,
274 however the region is a modest net exporter of virtual water in terms of blue WF.

275

276 *Table 1: Jing-Jin-Ji's regional water consumption. Domestic consumption refers to the*
277 *consumption of local water resources to meet the internal final demand of one zone; virtual water*
278 *import is the consumption of external water resource from other provinces to meet local final*
279 *demand; virtual water exports shows the consumption of local water resources to meet the final*
280 *demand of another province.*

		Blue WF [10^6 m^3]				Green WF [10^6 m^3]				Grey WF [10^6 m^3]			
		Beijing	Tianjin	Hebei	Total	Beijing	Tianjin	Hebei	Total	Beijing	Tianjin	Hebei	Total
Domestic	Absolute	502	488	5,898	6,888	544	528	6,928	8,001	15,306	13,215	80,322	108,843
Consumption water footprint (DWF)	Per capita (m^3)	26	38	82	66	28	41	96	77	780	1,017	1,117	1,041
Virtual Water Import (VWI)	Absolute	2,462	2,865	3,078	8,404	9,776	7,641	11,059	28,476	63,173	51,561	69,134	183,867
	Per capita (m^3)	125	221	43	80	498	588	154	272	3,220	3,969	961	1,759
Virtual Water Export (VWE)	Absolute	248	471	9,741	10,460	270	514	12,119	12,902	7,484	12,451	133,312	153,246
	Per capita (m^3)	13	36	135	100	14	40	168	123	381	958	1,853	1,466
Production-based water footprint (PWF)	Absolute	750	959	15,639	17,348	814	1,042	19,047	20,903	22,790	25,666	213,634	262,089
	Per capita (m^3)	38	74	217	166	41	80	265	200	1,162	1,976	2,970	2,507
Consumption-based water footprint (PWF)	Absolute	2,964	3,353	8,976	15,292	10,320	8,169	17,987	36,477	78,478	64,776	149,456	292,710
	Per capita (m^3)	151	258	125	146	526	629	250	349	4,000	4,987	2,078	2,800

281

282 3.2 The water footprint distribution among different industrial sectors

283 The WF component of different industrial sectors in the CWF account is summarized in
284 Figure 2. The ratios of VWI to total CWF in Beijing and Tianjin exceeded 80%, and for green WF
285 the proportion reached 95%. A further decomposition to VWI showed that Beijing and Tianjin
286 dependence on VWI from other provinces was mainly from food related sectors i.e Agriculture,
287 and Food and Tobacco Processing. Beijing's agricultural VWI was 1,329 million m^3 (54% of the
288 blue VWI), 5,866 million m^3 (60% of the green VWI), and 32,850 million m^3 (52% of the grey
289 VWI). This value was 1,518 million m^3 (53% of blue VWI), 3,897 million m^3 (51% of green
290 VWI), and 23,202 million m^3 (45% of the grey VWI) for Tianjin. Considering local and supply
291 chain water consumption, Food and Tobacco Processing was the second largest virtual water
292 importer for these two cities. These results suggest that Beijing and Tianjin were supporting their
293 populations through the importation of huge amounts of virtual water. In other words, Beijing and
294 Tianjin were largely supported by other external provinces. As for the third Jing-Jin-Ji region,
295 Hebei, we found that domestic water footprint played a major role in the blue CWF and grey CWF
296 categories, but only a minor role in the green CWF. In detail, Agriculture was the biggest water
297 consumption sector in all water lists, ranging from 44,177 million m^3 (55% of domestic grey CWF)
298 to 1,231 million m^3 (40 % of blue VWI), and Food and Tobacco Processing was the second largest
299 water consumption sector.

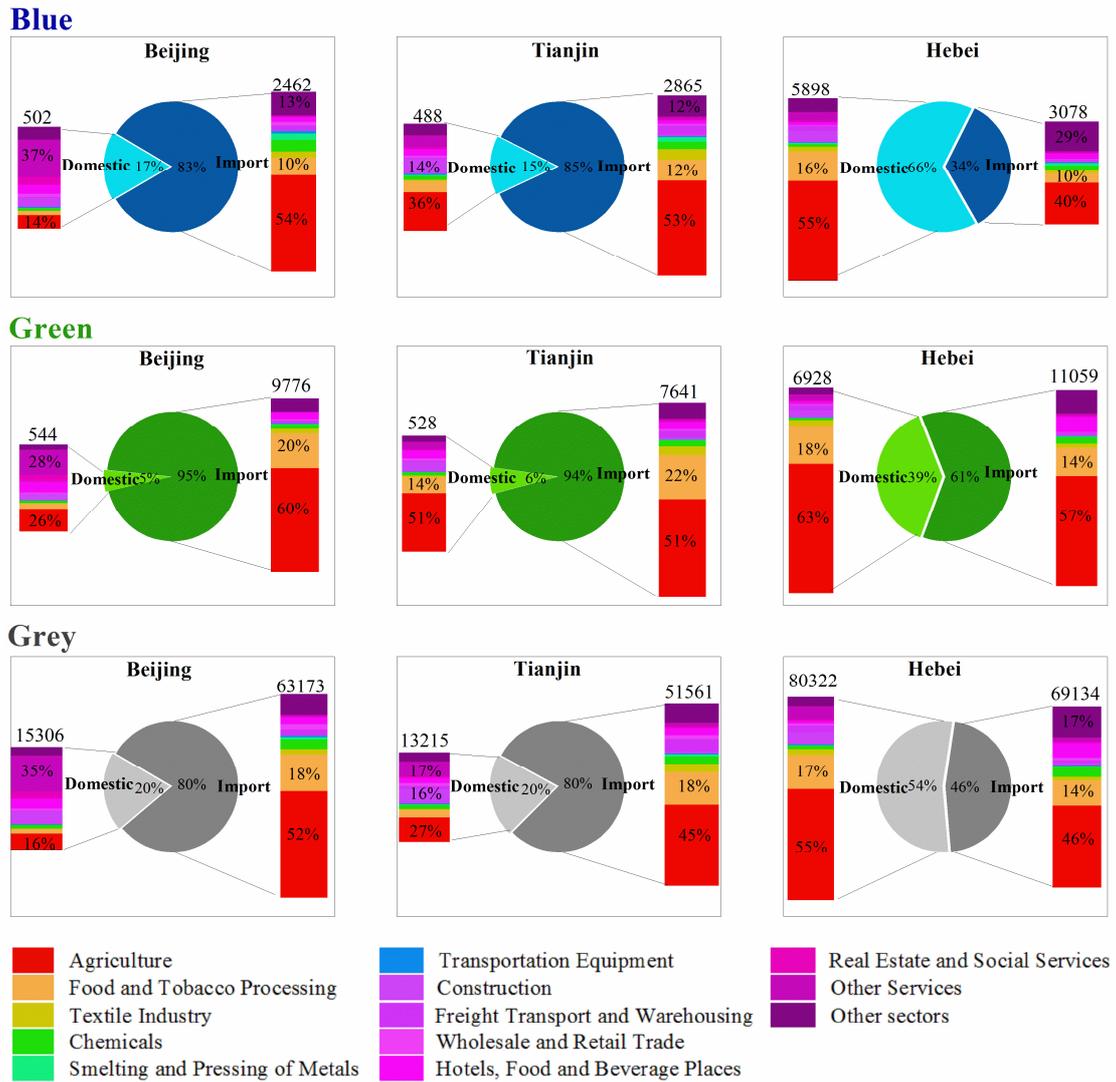
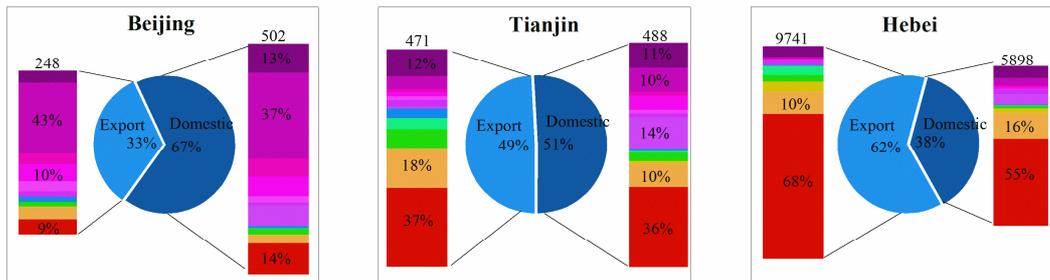


Figure 2 Consumption-based water footprint (CWF) [$10^6 m^3$]

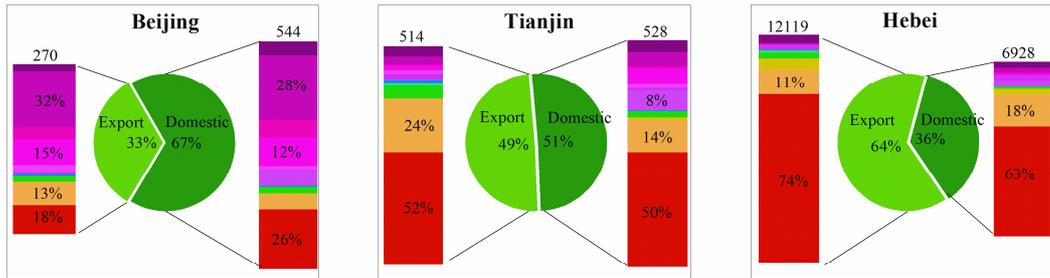
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Figure 3 shows the water footprint components for different industrial sectors contained in the PWF account. In Beijing, an interesting observation was that about two-thirds of the total PWF was consumed internally for all water footprint colors, which indicated mostly local water resource being used to meet local demand. A further analysis of the domestic PWF showed that nearly 35% was consumed in the Other Services sector: 170.68 million m^3 for blue PWF, 152.3 million m^3 for green PWF and 5,357 million m^3 for grey. The Agriculture, and Hotels, Food and Beverage Places sectors made an important contribution to domestic PWF. In Tianjin, half of the PWF was consumed by domestic demand, the other half being used for export in virtual water trade. In detail, the food related sectors accounted for 55% of the blue PWF, 70% of the green PWF and nearly 20% of the grey PWF. Water use and water pollution in the Construction sector could not be ignored: for the biggest area, Hebei, more than 60% of total PWF was used for export through virtual water flow. Furthermore, Hebei was the region that exported major water resource to other provinces. In particular, food related commodities contributed nearly 80% of PWF (70% for Agriculture, and 10% for Food and Tobacco Processing).

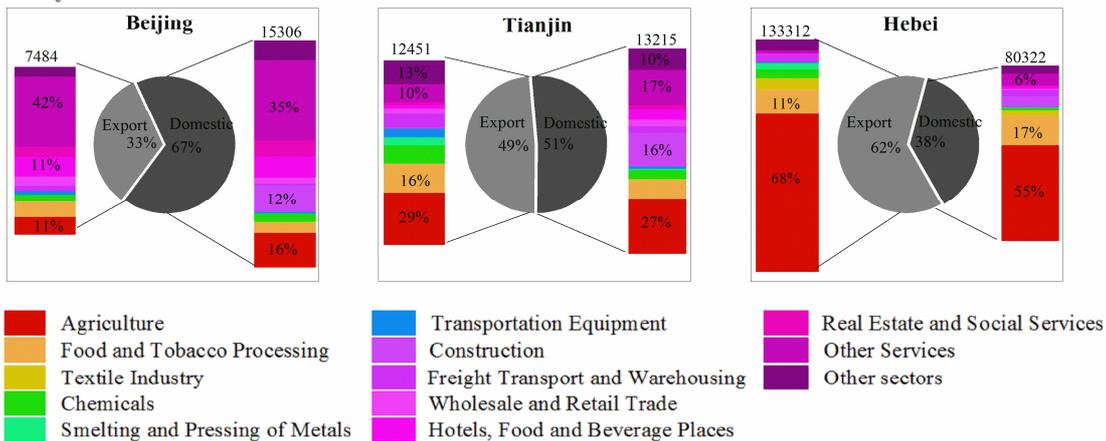
Blue



Green



Grey



317

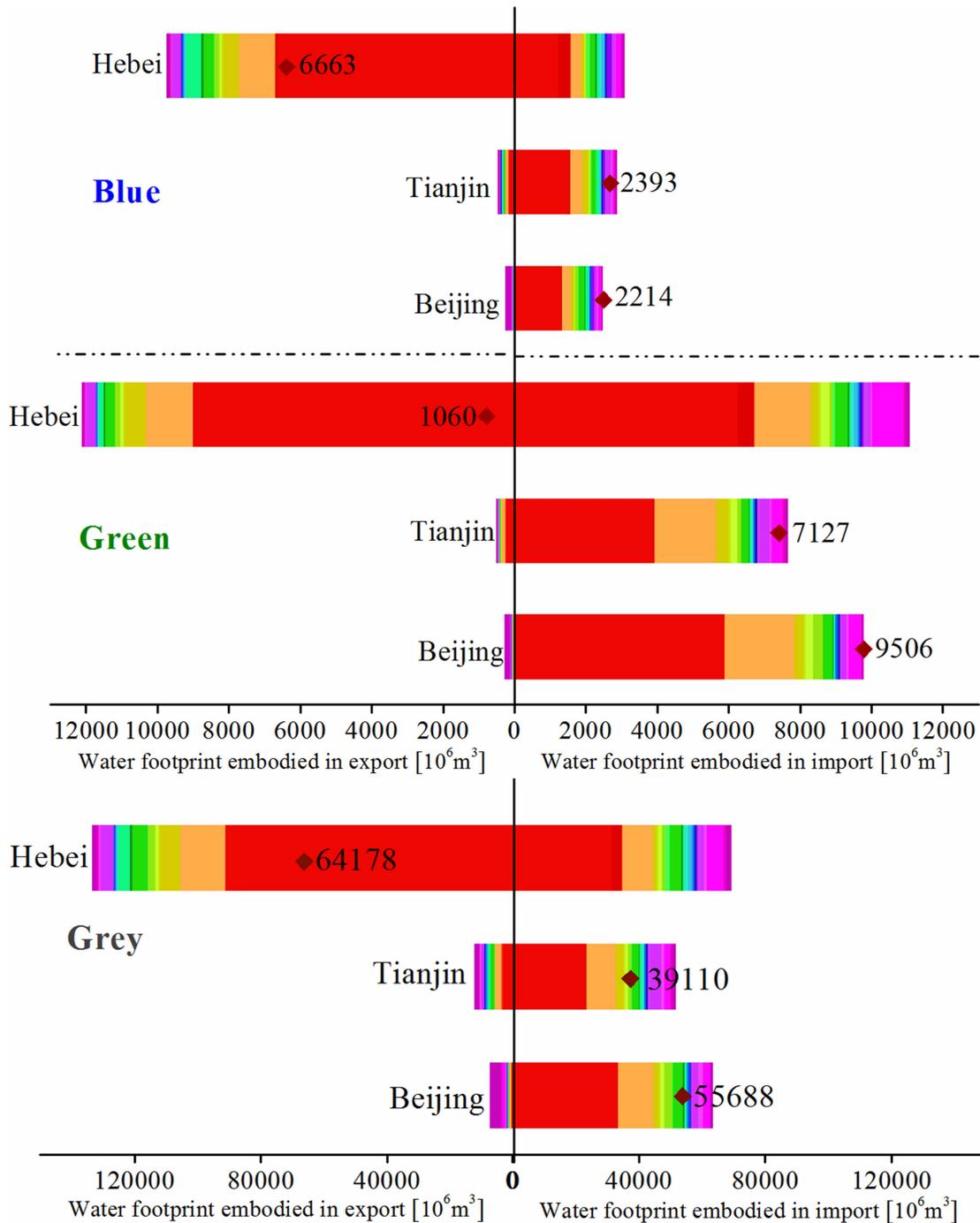
318

Figure 3 Production-based water footprint (PWF) [$10^6 m^3$]

319

3.3 Net virtual water flow

320 The Jing-Jin-Ji exported a total of 2,056 million m^3 blue virtual water, but imported 15,574
 321 million m^3 green virtual water, and 30,621 million m^3 grey virtual water (Figure 4). In particular,
 322 Hebei played a vital role in Jing-Jin-Ji virtual water flow, being the biggest exporter of water
 323 resource and also the biggest importer, accounting for more than 50% of virtual water trade within
 324 the area. In fact, Hebei was a net virtual water exporter of 6,663 million m^3 blue, 1,060 million m^3
 325 green, and 64,178 million m^3 grey virtual water. Conversely, Beijing and Tianjin were net virtual
 326 water importers of all colors. In other words, Hebei appeared to be a “Producer”, whilst Beijing
 327 and Tianjin were “Consumers”. Water intensive products from the Agriculture, and Food and
 328 Tobacco Processing sectors transferred about two-thirds of virtual water to other provinces from
 329 Hebei. Figure 4 also illustrates the predicament faced by Beijing and Tianjin, which imported a
 330 large amount of virtual water from other provinces compared to their exports, and are clearly
 331 out-of-balance.
 332



333

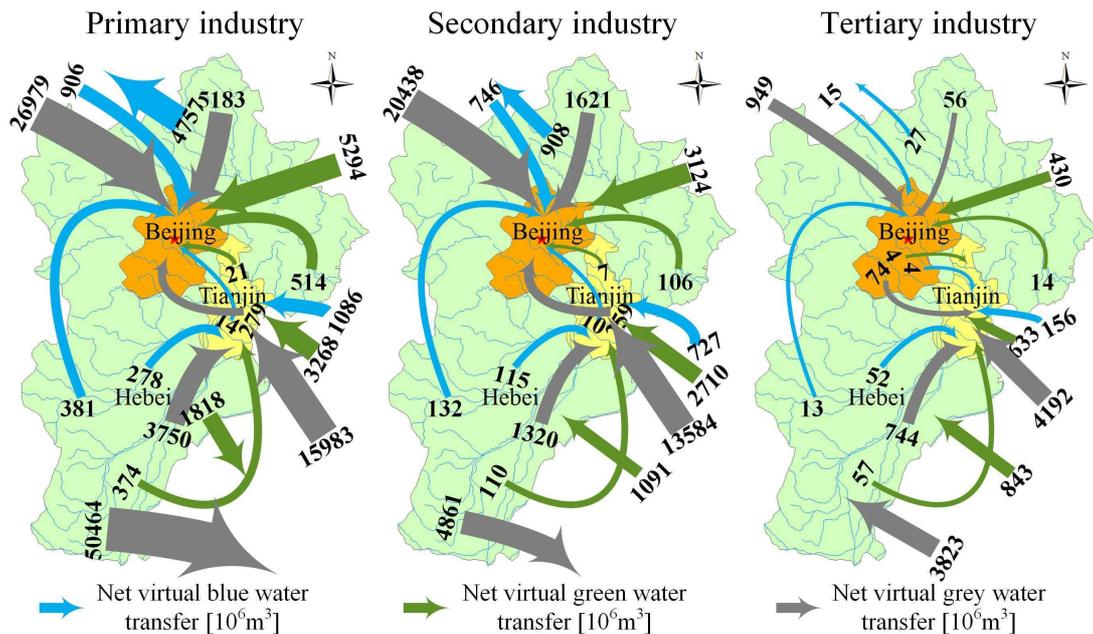
334 *Figure 4: net virtual water flows in the Jing-Jin-Ji by sector. The bar color indicates sector as in*
 335 *Table S1; the dot in the diagram shows the amount of net virtual water import or export.*

336

337 3.4 The inter-region net virtual water flow by region and sector

338 Virtual water transfers within the Jing-Jin-Ji and external regions for the main classes of industrial
 339 account (primary, secondary and tertiary) are summarized in Figure 5. Overall, Hebei transferred
 340 all virtual water colors to Beijing and Tianjin for all industrial sectors. For primary and secondary
 341 industries, Beijing imported virtual water from Tianjin, but in terms of tertiary industry it exported
 342 water to Tianjin. In detail, we found that virtual water flowed from the economically poor and less
 343 populated region (Hebei) to the more affluent and densely populated regions (Beijing and Tianjin).

344 There was a large difference in the amount of virtual water flow between Hebei and
 345 Beijing-Tianjin. The biggest value was 5,183 million m³ grey WF from Hebei to Beijing for
 346 primary industry, and the minimum was just 13 million m³ green WF for tertiary industry. In
 347 addition, Beijing plunders its water resources from Tianjin (24 million m³ blue WF, 28 million m³
 348 green WF, and 538 million m³ grey WF) for the development of primary and secondary industries,
 349 only compensating in small part to Tianjin in tertiary industries (4 million m³ blue WF, 4 million
 350 m³ green WF, and 74 million m³ grey WF). In terms of water resources, we found that 971 million
 351 m³ blue WF in total was transferred from Hebei to Beijing-Tianjin through goods and services,
 352 which is about 7% of available water resource in Hebei.



353

354 *Figure 5: Net virtual water flows within the Jing-Jin-Ji. The Agricultural sector was defined as*
 355 *primary industry; Coal Mining and Dressing through to the Construction sector was defined as*
 356 *secondary industry; and Freight Transport and Warehousing through to Other Services was*
 357 *defined as tertiary industry; as per Table S1.*

358 4 Limitations of this study

359 This study conducted a comprehensive water footprint analysis in production-based and
 360 consumption-based accounting among different industrial sectors within the Jing-Jin-Ji and
 361 between other provinces. We also addressed the importance of offset mechanisms in terms of
 362 virtual water trade. However, we would like to recognize some limitations of the study. First,
 363 because of data availability, we assumed that the technology level and efficiency in each
 364 area/province was homogeneous in order that we could decompose the water pollutant discharge
 365 into each province, and for each sector based on the province's economic outputs on a sector scale.
 366 This assumption can also be found in Hollanda et al. (2015) for the impacts of energy demand on
 367 global freshwater resources. Second, the boundary of our study was restricted to the Jing-Jin-Ji.
 368 We placed our emphasis on the internal impact induced by trade within the three areas, and less so
 369 on trade with other provinces; this gap should be taken into consideration in future studies. Due to
 370 data limitations we were also unable to calculate Jing-Jin-Ji's virtual water transfer to other
 371 countries; such boundary setting is commonplace, and can be seen in other work (Guan and

372 Hubacek, 2007; Zhang and Anadon, 2014; Zhang et al., 2011). Finally, our analysis framework
373 attributes bilateral trade only into final consumption without considering the impact of
374 intermediate imports. This phenomenon, whereby exporters import intermediate products (e.g.,
375 raw materials) from upstream industries and produce final products for re-export to final
376 consumers, cannot be traced clearly. The relevant discussion about these problems and their
377 possible solutions can be found in other papers (Lenzen et al., 2007; Zhao et al., 2016b; Zhao et al.,
378 2010).

379 **5 Discussion and Conclusions**

380 This study investigated the water footprint in the Jing-Jin-Ji region of China by
381 distinguishing blue, green and grey water. For the first time we have quantified virtual water
382 transfer in terms of water consumption and water pollution with four pollutant indicators in a
383 physically water scarce region. The results showed that the Jing-Jin-Ji exports only small amounts
384 of blue water but outsources huge amounts of green water and grey water (Figure 4). A
385 considerable amount of water footprint was transferred as virtual water. Our study demonstrated
386 that the quantitative targets of “the most stringent water resources management policy” for
387 Jing-Jin-Ji can only be met at the expense of exporting provinces which provide virtual water to it
388 and receive outsourced pollution in return. A “Virtual Water Strategy” is one measure which could
389 alleviate water stress at the provincial scale. On the one hand it will relieve the water crisis in the
390 receiving provinces, on the other hand it will impose pressure on the providing provinces through
391 their supply chains, especially for water stressed areas. As a result, financial compensation from
392 net water receiving provinces to water supplying regions could be considered in the context of
393 achieving water management targets.

394 Serrano et al. (2016) assessed water footprint based on the consumption-based approach for
395 the EU27 showing that the average blue WF is 398 m³ per capita, which is about 2.5 times bigger
396 than our result for China (143 m³ per capita in the Jing-Jin-Ji region). It is known that European
397 citizens consume large amounts of water-intensive food products in their diets, such as cheese,
398 butter and beef. Conversely, Chinese citizens are more likely to have food with a lower water
399 footprint, such as rice, vegetables and pork. Thus, a domestic diet distinction between these two
400 regions resulted in a large difference in demand for water resource. Zhao et al. (2015) analyzed the
401 virtual blue water transfer and internal domestic consumption for China’s 30 provinces for 2007.
402 He found that Beijing and Tianjin were net virtual blue water importers, and Hebei was a net
403 virtual blue water exporter; our findings for the blue WF account are consistent with this. However,
404 Zhao’s absolute blue water values for the Jing-Jin-Ji were about 52% higher than our results. One
405 reason for this is that Zhao selected water use as his basic blue water element; we also know that
406 water use refers to the quantity of water distributed to users, including water lost in transmission.
407 The blue water footprint used in our study was the volume of freshwater consumed to produce
408 goods or services. Distinct from water use, water footprint in its accounting treatment excludes
409 return flows which are a portion of a diverted water that is not used consumptively or returned to
410 its original source or another region (U.S. Geological Survey, 2016). This comparison indicates
411 that water footprint among supply chains could replace water use to obtain a more accurate picture
412 of overall water consumption.

413 In 2015, the middle route of the South-North-Water-Transfer-Project (SNWTP) transferred
414 1,320 million m³ physical water (822 million m³ for Beijing, 373 million m³ for Tianjin, and 125

415 million m³ for Hebei) (The State Council of China, 2015); just one-fifth of its targeted volume.
416 However, our results showed that the Jing-Jin-Ji exported 2,056 million m³ virtual blue water
417 which was nearly twice that of physical water flow and 12% of available water resource in the
418 region. For the Jing-Jin-Ji physical water transfers cannot balance virtual blue water export, not to
419 mention compensating for provincial water consumption. It is well known that over exploitation of
420 groundwater has been a serious problem in the region, and there is no doubt water scarcity will be
421 aggravated by huge virtual water export. In addition, as the biggest net virtual blue water exporter,
422 Hebei transferred 6,663 million m³, but only 14.5% of this was to the Beijing-Tianjin megacities
423 (526 million m³ for Beijing, and 445 million m³ for Tianjin). From our point of view, improving
424 the ratio of internalization of Hebei's virtual water flow will have positive impacts on water
425 management.

426 Blue water presents high opportunity costs due to its potential as an input element in the
427 value chain for high value added products and services, rather than its frequent use in intensive
428 primary industry irrigation. As a result, blue water is addressed through water resource policies in
429 China such as reservoir construction, water transfer projects, and flood management etc. However,
430 green water is often ignored due to its exclusive use in agricultural production and "invisibility" in
431 sustaining local ecosystems. Over exploitation of green water may lead to degradation of the local
432 environment, therefore careful planning for agricultural production is crucial to sustainable local
433 water management.

434 In 2010, Hebei exported huge amounts of water intensive and low value added products to
435 other provinces. Amongst its exports, the two most water-intensive sectors (Agriculture, and Food
436 and Tobacco Processing) accounted for 78% - 85% of Hebei's export-related water consumption,
437 but only contributed 7% to total economic output for the area. A continuation of an export-based
438 economic development model may further worsen Hebei's water stress, impair hydro-ecosystems,
439 and potentially crowd out internal production. Therefore, to reduce these unbalanced water losses,
440 reducing the dependency of this economy on export of water intensive and low value added
441 agricultural products may lead to a more sustainable virtual water balance and reduce the pressure
442 on internal water resources.

443 In 2010, 30,621 million m³ grey water was imported to the Jing-Jin-Ji. If there isn't virtual
444 water trade-off, water pollution in Jing-Jin-Ji will deteriorate, and about twice the amount of
445 Jing-Jin-Ji's annual watershed will be needed to dilute pollutants to the minimum Grade III reuse
446 standard. Food related sectors were the largest contributor to water pollution. In particular,
447 Agriculture sector non-point source pollution was the main polluting sector; products from this
448 sector were supplied internally for household consumption; Food and Tobacco Processing is
449 second with these products mainly consumed by urban households.

450 The central government's "Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Integration Strategy" will lead to a
451 reduction of industrial intensity in Beijing by 2030. Some businesses are likely to retain their
452 headquarters in Beijing, but relocate production facilities to Hebei and/or Tianjin. This will
453 decrease total water consumption in Beijing, and contribute large indirect water flows from
454 Beijing to Tianjin and Hebei. This helps to balance water flows among these areas, however the
455 strategy has also created some problems: the core benefit of the Jing-Jin-Ji is that the three areas
456 are integrated, thereby facilitating flow and potentially increasing efficiency. However, because
457 Beijing is the national capital it enjoys certain bureaucratic advantages over Tianjin and Hebei,
458 and industrial transfer from Beijing to Hebei also results in transfer of some businesses with low

459 water utilization efficiency and heavy pollution, without requiring these businesses to adopt new
 460 technologies that improve utilization efficiency and decrease water pollution in their new location.
 461 Therefore, the government must pay greater attention to encouraging businesses to adopt
 462 technologies that reduce water consumption and pollution.

463

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 472 working group “Water Scarcity Assessment: Methodology and Application”.

473

474 Appendix

475 *Table S1. Sector categories*

ID	Sectors	Legend
<i>Primary Sectors</i>		
1	Agriculture	
<i>Secondary Sectors</i>		
2	Coal Mining and Dressing	
3	Petroleum and Natural Gas Extraction	
4	Metals Mining and Dressing	
5	Nonmetal Minerals Mining and Dressing	
6	Food and Tobacco Processing	
7	Textile Industry	
8	Garments, Leather, Furs, Down and Related Products	
9	Timber Processing and Furniture Manufacturing	
10	Papermaking, Cultural, Educational and Sports Articles	
11	Petroleum Processing and Coking	
12	Chemicals	
13	Nonmetal Mineral Products	
14	Smelting and Pressing of Metals	
15	Metal Products	
16	General and Specialized Machinery	
17	Transportation Equipment	
18	Electric Equipment and Machinery	
19	Electronic and Telecommunications Equipment	
20	Instruments, Meters Cultural and Office Machinery	
21	Other Manufacturing Products	

22	Electricity and Heating Power Production and Supply	
23	Gas and Water Production and Supply	
24	Construction	
Tertiary Sectors		
25	Freight Transport and Warehousing	
26	Wholesale and Retail Trade	
27	Hotels, Food and Beverage Places	
28	Real Estate and Social Services	
29	Scientific Research	
30	Other Services	

476 Table S2. Three region input-output table for the Jing-Jin-Ji (modified from Guan et al (2014))

	Intermediate Demand			Final Demand				Total output	Water account		
	Beijing	Tianjin	Hebei	Final consumption	Capital formation	Interprovincial export	International exports		Direct blue water footprint	Direct green water footprint	Direct Grey water footprint
Beijing	z			y		e		x	D		
Tianjin											
Hebei											
Imports											
Total Inputs											

477

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Highlights

- Assessing water footprint (WF) is crucial in understanding water deterioration
- WF and virtual water flows are assessed with a multi-regional input-output model
- Jing-Jin-Ji region exported little blue water, but outsourced much green and grey water
- Joint efforts between water receiving and supplying regions are a key for management
- Corporations need to adopt technologies to reduce water consumption and pollution