The interprovincial green water flow in China and its tele-

connected effects on socio-economy

- 3 Shan Sang^{1,2}, Yan Li^{1,2}, Chengcheng Hou^{1,2}, Shuangshuang Zi^{1,2}, Huiqing Lin^{1,2}
- 4 ¹State Key Laboratory of Earth Surface Processes and Resources Ecology, Beijing Normal
- 5 University, Beijing, China
- 6 ²Institute of Land Surface System and Sustainable Development, Faculty of Geographical Science,
- 7 Beijing Normal University, Beijing, China

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- 9 Corresponding Author:
- 10 Yan Li, Ph.D.
- 11 Institute of Land Surface System and Sustainable Development, Faculty of Geographical Science,
- 12 Beijing Normal University, Beijing, 100875, China
- 13 Email: yanli.geo@gmail.com

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Abstract: Green water (terrestrial evapotranspiration), flowing) flows from source regions—and, precipitates downwind via moisture recycling, generates surfacerecharges water resources, and sustains the socio-economy in sink regions. However, unlike blue water, there has been limited assessment of green water flows and their tele-connected effects on socio-economy. This study used the a climatology mean moisture trackingtrajectory dataset of produced by the Utrack model for 2008-2017 to quantify interprovincial green water flows in China and their socio-economic contributions. Results reveal a complexan interconnected flow network where green water of each province reciprocally exchanges with each other. Despite self-recycling, (ranging from 0.6% to 35%), green water—from source provinces mainly forms precipitation in neighboring provinces, with average interprovincial flow directions from west to east and south to north. About 56% of total green water exported from 31 mainland source provinces retains remains at home and contributes, contributing to 43% of precipitation in China. Our assessments show that The green water from source

provinces embodies substantial socio-economic values for downwind provinces—with regionally varying importance. Western, accounting for about 40% of water resources, 45% of GDP, 46% of population, and 50% of food production of China. Green water from western provinces are is the largest contributors contributor to surface—water resources, while green water from southwestern and central provinces embodyembodies the highest GDP, population, and food production. About 40% surface water resources, 45% GDP, 46% population, and 50% food production of China are supported by green water from 31 provinces. There is an overall increase in Overall, the embodied socio-economic valuevalues of green water flow increase from source to sink provinces, suggesting that green water from less developed provinces effectively supportsupports the higher socio-economic status of developed provinces through green water supply. The results emphasize. The assessment emphasizes the substantial tele-connected socio-economic values of green water flows and the need to incorporate it forthem toward a more comprehensive and effective water resources management.

1 Introduction

Terrestrial moisture recycling is a crucial process of the water cycle, whereby water evaporates from land into the atmosphere, travels with prevailing winds, and eventually falls back to the land as precipitation (Keys and Wang-Erlandsson, 2018; van der Ent et al., 2010; Zemp et al., 2014). Terrestrial evapotranspiration (i.e., green water(van der Ent et al., 2010; Keys and Wang-Erlandsson, 2018; Zemp et al., 2014). Terrestrial evapotranspiration (i.e., green water) (Falkenmark and Rockström, 2006) which includes evaporation and transpiration from land and vegetation, contributes to over half of the global precipitation on land (Rockström et al., 2023; Theeuwen et al., 2023; Tuinenburg et al., 2020)(van der Ent et al., 2010; Theeuwen et al., 2023; Tuinenburg et al., 2020). Green water flows from upwind source regions to generate precipitation and supply water resources for the social development of downwind sink regions through moisture recycling (Schyns et al., 2019; Wang-Erlandsson et al., 2022). Analogous to the upstream and downstream connection via blue water (referring to surface water and groundwater flow within a watershed (Gleeson et al., 2020)) flow within a watershed, the upwind source and downwind sink regions are connected via green water flow within the evaporationshed (i.e., downwind regions receiving precipitation from a specific location's evaporation) (Ent and Savenije, 2013). Changes in both blue and green water flow directly impact water resources availability,

thereby influencing regional water security and human societies (Keys et al., 2019).

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The blue and green water flows provide a mechanism through which ecohydrological upstream/upwind changes in and societal processes in upstream/upwind regions may affect the downwind/downstream supply of water resources, and, thus, ecological and societal systems of downwind/downstream regionstherein. Due to upstream water withdrawal and dams, global total blue water flow into oceans and internal sinks has decreased by 3.5% in 2002 compared to 1961– 1990 (Döll et al., 2009). The decline in water availability exacerbated water stress in downstream of transboundary river basins (Munia et al., 2016). Moreover, upstream vegetation restoration, soil and water conservation practices reduced water yield to downstream, as already happened in the Yellow River (Wang et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2015b). Numerous studies have investigated the causal linkageconnection of blue water flow between from upstream and downstream regions, yet research into the linkage connection of green water flow from upwind to and downwind regions and their impacts remains inadequate.

Unlike blue water flow primarily shaped by terrain with specific routes and regulated by human activities (e.g., reservoir, transfer) with specific routes,), green water flow originating is transported by atmospheric air movement in a pervasive manner from evapotranspiration to precipitation in downwind sink regions—is transported by atmospheric air movement in a pervasive manner (Schyns et al., 2019). This establishes a spatial linkage between source and sink regions for green water flow through the moisture recycling process, similar asto blue water flow does through the surface hydrological process. Therefore, evapotranspiration changes associated with land cover changes in source regions are likely to impact not only downstream rivers via blue water flow but also downwind precipitation via green water flow (Keys et al., 2012), with further implications on socio-economic development (Wang-Erlandsson et al., 2018). For example, vegetation greening reduced blue water but increased downwind water availability globally through green water (Cui et al., 2022)(Cui et al., 2022). Reduction in green water in Amazon decreased downwind precipitation in the United States (Lawrence and Vandecar, 2015), and reduction in key-green water source regions could decrease potential crop yields in fivekey global-key food-producing regions (Bagley et al., 2012).

Source regions supply water resources to support the sink regions' socio-economic development of sink regions through both blue and green water flows. Existing research

has extensively assessed the socio-economic valuevalues of blue water, e.g., the population dependency on runoff (Green et al., 2015; Viviroli et al., 2020), while seldom considering the tele-connected effects of green water on the socio-economy. In fact, green water is also closely tied to human society because green water traveling from source regions precipitates, forms surfacerecharges water resources, and ultimately sustains socio-economic activities, livelihoods, and ecosystems in sink regions (Arag ão, 2012; Keys and Wang-Erlandsson, 2018; O'Connor et al., 2021). These contributions should be quantified and recognized as the value of green water to socio-economy, which expands the scope of water management and water security maintenance (Keys et al., 2017; Rocksträm et al., 2023). Emerging moisture tracking technologies offer feasible ways to quantify green water flow across regions at large scale (Keys et al., 2019; Li et al., 2023; Theeuwen et al., 2023) and pave the way for assessing the socio-economic valuevalues of green water.

Recent studies analyzed green water flows at the national or regional scale to identify the source and sink areas of specific regions, like the Tibetan Plateau (Zhang et al., 2024) and Europe (Pranindita et al., 2022). However, green water flows from different regions are interlinked because different regions could become sources and sinks of each other, especially for large countries like China. Such green water transfer at a sub-national scale effectively forms a complex green water flow network, and highlights the mutual dependency of green water and its socio-economic contributions across different regions. Yet, the interprovincial green water flows in China and their socio-economic contributions remain unquantified.

The general spatial and seasonal patterns of moisture flows in China are determined by regional atmospheric circulation systems, including prevailing westerly winds (from the west toward the east) in most of China between 30° and 60° (Bridges et al., 2023), the East Asian monsoon in eastern China, and India monsoon in southwestern China. In summer, the East Asian and Indian monsoons supply moisture for precipitation in eastern and southwestern China (Tian and Fan, 2013). In winter, the East Asian monsoon drives northwesterly moisture transport across much of China and generates precipitation (Wu and Wang, 2002). Recent studies analyzed the large-spatial pattern of moisture recycling in China at the grid (Zhang et al., 2023), river basin (Wang et al., 2023b), and ecological regions scales (Xie et al., 2024), or for specific regions (Pranindita et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2024). However, green water flows from different regions are interlinked and become sources and sinks of each other. Such green water

transfer at a sub-national scale effectively forms an interconnected green water flow network. It highlights the mutual dependency of green water and its socio-economic contributions, especially for large countries like China. Few studies focus on green water flows at the administrative district scale, which is important for water management. Furthermore, the substantial regional disparities in socio-economic development add complexity to understanding the socio-economic contributions of green water among Chinese provinces. The western provinces with a weak economic status and sparse populations are abundant in water resources (Ya-Feng et al., 2020). In contrast, the economically developed and densely populated eastern provinces suffer from water scarcity (Varis and Vakkilainen, 2001). Therefore, quantifying interprovincial green water flows and evaluating the embedded socio-economic values offer new perspectives for optimizing water resource utilization and mitigating the imbalance in regional socio-economic development.

In this study, we used a high-quality moisture trajectory dataset from the UTrack model to quantify and visualize the interprovincial network of green water flows within China. We nextNext, we combined socio-economic statistical data to evaluate socio-economic values embodied in green water flow for economic production, population and food production. Our study aims to reveal the transboundary green water flows within China and their tele-connected effects on the socio-economy. By incorporatingThis study incorporates green water flow into water resources, this study extends extending water resources management beyond blue water toward a more complete understanding of the water cycle and its socio-economic implications, which is beneficial to assess and optimize regional water security.

2 Data and Methods

2.1 Data

 This study used the moisture trajectory dataset generated by the Lagrangian moisture tracking model "UTrack-atmospheric-moisture" driven by ERA5 reanalysis data. The model is the state-of-the-art moisture tracking model, producing more detailed evaporation footprints due to the high spatial resolution and reduced unnecessary complexity (Tuinenburg and Staal, 2020). The dataset provides monthly mean moisture flows at the global scale with a spatial resolution of 0.5° for 2008-2017, expressed as the fractions of evaporation from a source grid allocated to precipitation at a sink grid (Tuinenburg et al., 2020). It has been widely used in moisture recycling research with various spatial scales, such as precipitation source of the grid (Staal et al.,

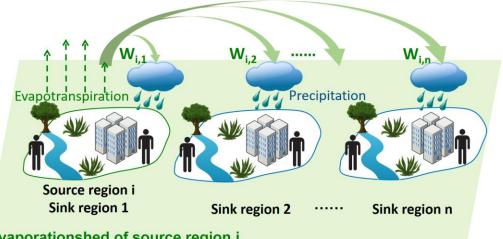
2023; Wei et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023) and basin scale (Wang et al., 2023b), and moisture transport between nations (Rockström et al., 2023). The moisture trajectory dataset was used in conjunction with the multi-year monthly mean ET of 2008–2017 from the ERA5 reanalysis dataset to estimate precipitation in a sink grid originating from a source grid.

The socio-economic statistical data in 2008-2017 from the China Statistical Yearbook were used to estimate the socio-economic values of green water in terms of water resources volume, gross domestic product (GDP), population, and food production for 31 provinces in mainland China, without Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan due to the data limitation. GDP was adjusted to price in the year 2020 to eliminate the effects of inflation.

2.2 Quantify green water flows in China

We quantified interprovincial moisture flows and their precipitation contribution following the workflow described in Fig. A1. At each sink grid, the ET to precipitation fractions from the moisture trajectory datasets were multiplied by ERA5 evapotranspiration (ET) to obtain monthly precipitation contribution by moisture from its source grids. Repeating the calculation for all grids within a sink province and summing them up yielded the precipitation in the sink province contributed by each source grid (Fig. A1 Step 1). Next, we employed zonal statistics to sum up precipitation in the sink province contributed by grids of each source province, and the precipitation contribution was converted to relative values, i.e., the fraction of precipitation in sink province j originating from green water of a source province i (denoted as W_{ij}) rather than absolute contribution to reduce the uncertainty in the latter (Fig. A1 Step 2). The fractions W_{ij} multiplied by the observed precipitation of the sink province restore the absolute precipitation contribution. This practice ensures that provincial precipitation is fully decomposed into different sources, avoiding the estimation bias of sink precipitation due to unclosed water balance by ET and precipitation data (De Petrillo et al., 2024). Finally, the interprovincial green water flows in China were derived after estimating each province individually.

The direction of green water flows can be represented by a vector starting from a source to sink province determined by their geometric centers and with its length denoting flow magnitude. Since green water flows have multiple destinations, each flow points to different sink provinces, and even outside of China. For each source province, all of their domestic green water flow vectors can be averaged to a composite to represent their net direction and magnitude, which are mainly determined by atmospheric wind conditions, source location and green water volume



Evaporationshed of source region i

Fraction of precipitation in sink region j originating from source region i: $\mathbf{W}_{i,i}$ Socio-economic statistics of sink region j: Si

Green water value of source region i: $GV_i = W_{i,1} \times S_1 + W_{i,2} \times S_2 + \dots +$ $W_{i,n} \times S_n$

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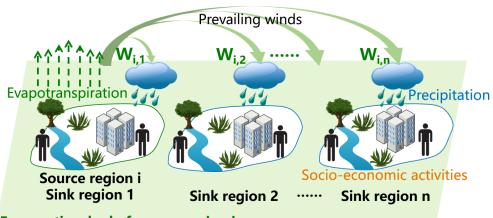
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2.3 Quantify socio-economic values embodied in green water



Evaporationshed of source region i

Fraction of precipitation in sink region j originating from source region i: Wili Socio-economic statistics of sink region j: $S_i W_{i,n} \times S_n$

Green water value of source region i: $GV_i = W_{i,1} \times S_1 + W_{i,2} \times S_2 + \dots +$



Figure 1. Conceptual figure A conceptual diagram depicts the teleconnection of green water flows from source to sink regions and their association with socio-economy.

This study used the moisture trajectory dataset generated by the Lagrangian moisture tracking model "UTrack-atmospheric-moisture" driven by ERA5 reanalysis data-(Tuinenburg et al., 2020). The dataset provides monthly moisture flows at the globalscale with a spatial resolution of 0.5° for 2008-2017, expressed as the fractions of evaporation from a source grid allocated to precipitation at a sink grid. The detailed

processing of the moisture trajectory dataset can be found economic contributions in Li et al. (2023), and here we focus on the quantification of interprovincial moisture flows and resultant precipitation. The fractions from the moisture trajectory were firstmultiplied by ERA5 evapotranspiration (ET) to obtain monthly precipitation at a given sink grid contributed by green water from all source grids. Repeating the calculation for all grids within a sink province and summing them up yielded the total precipitation contribution by a cascade manner. Evapotranspiration (green water. We nextemployed zonal statistics with sum method to estimate precipitation contribution in sink province by each of its source provinces, and the results were converted torelative contribution (dotted arrows) from source region i.e., the fraction of precipitation in sink province *i* originating from flows downwind with prevailing winds (green water of a source province i, denoted as W_{ii}) rather than absolute contribution to reduce the uncertainty in the latter. The fractions W_{it} multiplied by precipitation of sink province restore the absolute precipitation contribution. Finally, the interprovincial green water flows in China can be obtained after estimating each province individually thick arrows) and precipitates in sink region n, which recharges water sources and sustains socio-economic activities in sink regions.

Green water from upwind source provinces flows <u>and precipitates</u> downwind <u>and generates precipitation</u> to <u>sustainrecharge water resources</u>, and therefore <u>sustains</u> socioeconomic activities in sink provinces, <u>as depicted in Fig. 1</u>. Consequently, precipitation, <u>surface</u>—water resources, and socio-economic factors such as <u>economy</u>, <u>populationeconomic activities</u>, <u>human livelihood</u>, and <u>foodcrop production in sink provinces rely on green water exported from source provinces. <u>Changes in green water may affect water resource volume</u>, and then impact economic activities, livelihood, and <u>crop production through water supply</u>. We chose water resources volume, economic <u>output (measured by GDP)</u>, <u>population</u>, and food production as the four socio-economic indictors that are tightly related to water resources to evaluate the socio-economic <u>contributions of green water</u>.</u>

If we assume all socio-economic activities in sink province j are sustained by precipitation which constitutes surface—water resources and recharges groundwater, socio-economic statistics of sink province j can be partitioned to source provinces by their share of precipitation contribution (W_{ij}). Therefore, multiplying socio-economic statistics from China Statistical Yearbook (2008–2017)—in sink province j (S_j) by W_{ij} yielded the socio-economic value of green water from source province i (Fig. 1). The total socio-economic value of green water of source province i (GV_i) can be obtained by summing its contributions to all sink provinces, (Fig. 1), as equation (1):

$$GV_i = \sum_{j=1}^n (W_{i,j} \times S_j)_2$$
 (1)

Where where S_j is the average socio-economic value of 2008-2017 (i.e., surface water resources, volume (km³), GDP, (in unit of CNY, 1 CNY = 0.14 USD), population, (persons), and food production) (ton)) at sink province j, n is the number of sink provinces.

 Due to the different socio-economic development statuses, the same amount of green water may produce different socio-economic values between source and sink provinces. This means green water flow also involves changes in embodied socio-economic value from source to sink provinces. Since Eq. 1 shows socio-economic values of green water when consumed in sink provinces, we estimate socio-economic values if green water was retained and consumed in source provinces. We utilized used water productivity in the source province (WP_i) to quantifycalculate the socio-economic values of its exported green water if retained in the counterfactual scenario when it was all consumed in the source province without interprovincial transfer (GV'_i) (Eq. 2). The results were compared with the actual green water's socio-economic values (Eq. 2)-1) (namely socio-economic values of exported green water when it is consumed in sink provinces) as:

$$GV_i' = \sum_{j=1}^n (W_{i,j} \times WU_j \times WP_i)_{\underline{}}$$
 (2)

Where where WU_j is water use in sink province j, and WP_i is water productivity in source province i. (i.e., economic output, population, and food production per unit water use).

The changes in the socio-economic value of green water flow (ΔGV_i) from source province *i* to its sink provinces can be estimated by Eq. 3.

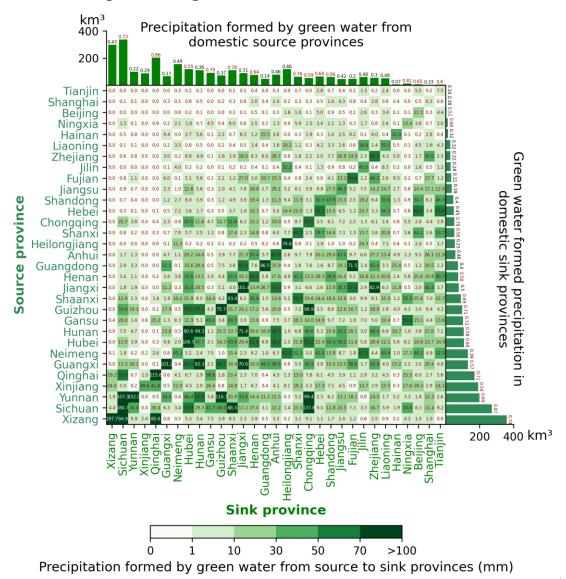
$$\Delta G V_i = G V_i - G V_i' \tag{3}$$

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \Delta GV_i$ is the net change in socio-economic values of all interprovincial green water flows in China.

Due to data limitations, we estimated the socio-economic value of green water in terms of surface water resources, GDP, population and food production for 31 provinces in mainland China, without Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. GDP was adjusted to constant prices in the year 2020 to eliminate the effects of inflation.

3 Results

3.1 The interprovincial green water flows in China and their directions



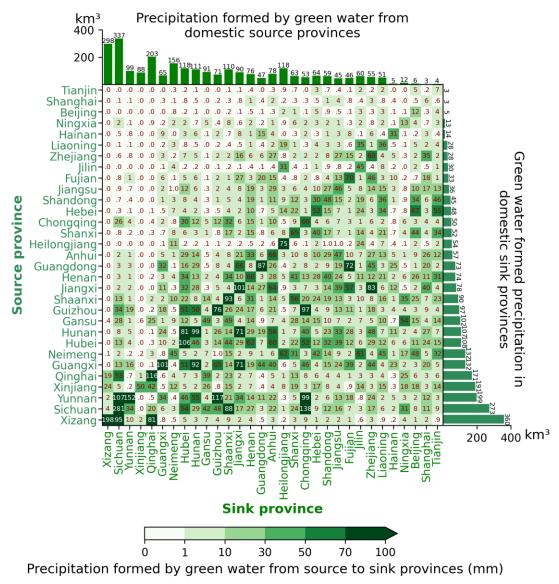


Figure 2. Interprovincial green water flows in China. Heat The heat map denotes precipitation in

sink province generated by green water from a source province (mm). The right bar shows domestic precipitation (km³) formed by green water from each source province, and annotations

represent fractions of green water formed precipitation within China to total exported green water.

The top bar shows precipitation in each sink province formed by green water from domestic source provinces (km³), and annotations represent fractions of precipitation generated by green—water from domestic source provinces to total precipitation.).

Green water exported from a source province forms precipitation in different sink provinces in China, and precipitation in a sink province originates from green water in different source provinces. Therefore, different provinces in China, acting either as sources or sinks, are interconnected through moisture recycling and established an interprovincial network (Fig. 2). For instance, green water from Xizang, the largest

exporter in China, not only precipitates locally (198 mm) but also contributes to precipitation in other 30 provinces with varying extents (0.2 to 95 mm). Simultaneously, Xizang imports green water from 31 provinces (including itself) to form its own precipitation, especially from Xinjiang (24 mm) and Qinghai (19 mm).

The A large fraction of green water of exported from each source province, apart from being is retained locally, predominantly flows and generates to generate precipitation (diagonal cells in neighboring provinces. Fig. 2). The precipitation recycling rateratio (PRR), defined as the ratio of precipitation generated by local green water to total precipitation, reflects how much green water of each source province contributes to its own precipitation. In most provinces, PRR is higher than the percentage of precipitation formed by green water from other provinces, suggesting the important role of self-recycling. Among provinces, (Fig. A2c). Xizang has the highest PRR of 34.5%,0.345, followed by Qinghai 34.1%,(0.341) and Sichuan 29.7% (Fig. A1). Apart from(0.297). Besides local recycling, green water predominantly flows generate significant and generates more precipitation in neighboring provinces and less in distant provinces. For example, green water from Sichuan forms high precipitation in neighboring provinces such as Chongqing (138 mm), far surpassing other distant sink provinces (< 88 mm).

Green Green

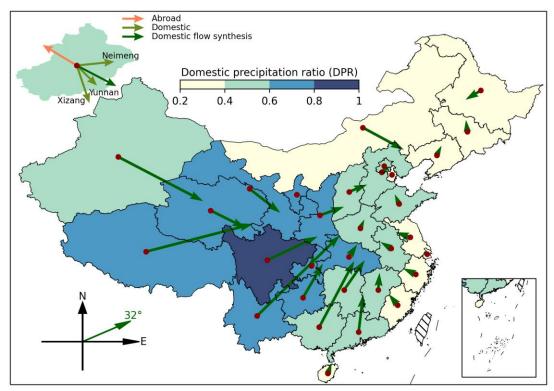


Figure 3. Direction of green water flows from each source province in China. Green arrows

indicate the average direction of domestic green water flows, denoted as a vector starting from a source (the geometric center in red points) to sink provinces and with its length representing the amount of precipitation formed by green water. The face colors on the map represent fractions of green water formed precipitation within China of each source province (DPR). The upper left corner is a schematic diagram for green water flows from Xinjiang. The lower left corner is the composite flow direction of interprovincial green water of all provinces.

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The direction of interprovincial green water flow can be visualized as a composite direction averaging all domestic green water flows from each source province, which are mainly determined by atmospheric wind conditions, source location, and green water volume (Fig. 3). Overall, the average direction of all interprovincial green water flows is at 32° northeastward (32° north off the east direction), suggesting green water within China is transported to the north and east directions owning to combined effects of monsoons and westerly.

Green water exported by source provinces of China contributes to precipitation both within and outside of China, depending on the spatial extent of its evaporationshed and volume of green water. China. We defined the domestic precipitation ratio (short for DPR-hereafter) as the ratio of green water that formed precipitation in China to the each province's total green water export of each province to represent their relative importance to China's precipitation (right bar on Fig 2). Xizang's green water produces the largest domestic precipitation (360 km³) with a high DPR of 0.74 because Xizang is located in the Fig. A2a). Green water from provinces in western and central China mainly flows eastward under the influence of prevailing westerlies, making its evaporationshed which extend their evaporationsheds eastward to cover a large territory of China, and generate more precipitation within China. (Fig. 3). For instance, green water from Xizang, the largest exporter in China, produces the largest domestic precipitation (360 km³) (right bar on Fig 2) with a high DPR of 0.74, contributing to precipitation in other 30 provinces with varying extents (0.2 to 95 mm). Similarly, the green water from southern provinces is affected by the Indian Ocean Monsoon (southwest monsoon), which drives green water flowing northeastward. With a substantial volume of green water, these southern provinces contribute significantly to domestic precipitation. In contrast, green water from eastern coastal or northwest border provinces with most of their evaporationshedgoes to the northwest primarily attributed to the East Asian Monsoon (southeast monsoon) (Cai et al., 2010). As a result, most evaporationsheds laid outside China generatesgenerate less domestic precipitation but more outside the country, resulting in a lower DPR, such as Fujian (DPR 0.31) and Heilongjiang (DPR 0.23). The northern provinces are influenced by westerly winds and winter monsoon from Siberia (Sun et al., 2012), causing predominantly southeastward flow of green water. However, evaporationsheds of these provinces mainly cover the Pacific Ocean, resulting in a relatively low DPR despite their substantial volume of exported green water.) near the coast or border. While some inland provinces have a high DPR because their evaporationsheds overlap with mainland China, the low green water volume (Fig. A4) limits their domestic precipitation contribution (e.g., Gansu and Ningxia with DPR of 0.72 and 0.66, respectively) (Fig. A3).

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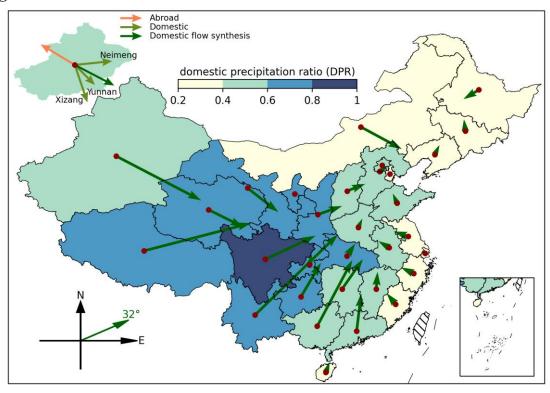
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Furthermore, precipitation in sink provinces originates from green water of both domestic and foreign green water sources. Sichuan (337 km³), Xizang (298 km³), and Qinghai (203 km³) are the top 3 provinces importing the largest volume of green water from domestic sources due to the large ET from themselves and neighboring provinces-(top bar of Fig 2). To quantify the relative importance of domestic sources, we defined the domestic source ratio (DSR) in each province as the sum of precipitation contribution from domestic sources divided by total precipitation (top bar of Fig 2).. A2 (b)). DSR is related to each province's precipitationshed (i.e., upwind region contributing evaporation to a specific location's precipitation) (Keys et al., 2014)) of each province and the included domestic green water exporters. The highest DSR found in Qinghai (0.86) and Ningxia (0.82) is because their precipitationsheds include large domestic green water exporters like Xinjiang and Xizang, which supply considerable green water traveling eastward. Conversely, Hainan (0.07) and Guangdong (0.14) in coastal areas have lower DSR because their precipitationsheds are primarily located in oceans and other countries due to the influence of the summer monsoon (Cai et al., 2010).

3.2 Direction of Socio-economic values embodied in interprovincial

green water flows in China



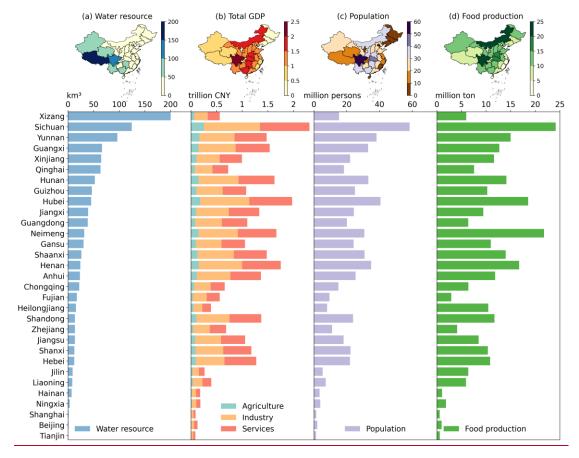


Figure 3.-Direction of green water flows from each source province. Green arrows indicate the

average direction 4. The embodied socio-economic values of green water flow from each source province. The length of arrows shows the amount of precipitation formed by green water. Redpoints are geometric centers of each province. The colors on map represent fractions of green water formed precipitation within China in each source province (DPR). The upper left corner is a schematic diagram for green water flows from Xinjiang. The lower left corner is the composite flow direction of interprovincial green water of all provinces.

The direction of green water flows can be represented by a vector starting from a source to sink province determined by their geometric centers and with its length denoting flow magnitude. Since green water flows have multiple destinations, each flow points to different sink provinces, and even outside of China. For each source province, all of their domestic green water flow vectors can be averaged to a composite to represent their net direction and magnitude, which are mainly determined by atmospheric wind conditions, source location and green water volume (Fig. 3).

The dominant direction of green water flow from most western and central provinces is eastward because of the prevailing westerlies. The exported green water generated precipitation along the movement to eastern coast of China, making their evaporationsheds cover large area of China and with a higher DSR. Moreover, these provinces produce a greater amount of domestic precipitation than other provinces due to their large volume of green water, as indicated by the longer arrows.

The green water from eastern provinces mainly goes to the northwest primarily attributed to the East Asian Monsoon (southeast monsoon) (Cai et al., 2010; Yihui, 1993). However, a significant portion of green water forms precipitation outside of China (not included in the interprovincial green water analysis), resulting in a lower DPR.

The green water from southern provinces is also affected by the Indian Ocean Monsoon (southwest monsoon), which drives green water flowing northeastward. With a substantial volume of green water, these southern provinces contribute significantly to domestic precipitation with long arrows.

The northern provinces are influenced by westerly winds and winter monsoon from Siberia (Sun et al., 2012), eausing predominantly southeastward flow of green water. However, evaporationsheds of these provinces mainly cover the Pacific Ocean, resulting in a relatively low DPR despite their substantial volume of exported green water.

The average direction of all interprovincial green water flows in China is at 32° northeastward (32° north off the east direction), suggesting green water within China

overall is transported to the north and east directions owning to combined effects of monsoons and westerly.

3.3 Socio-economic effects of interprovincial green water flows

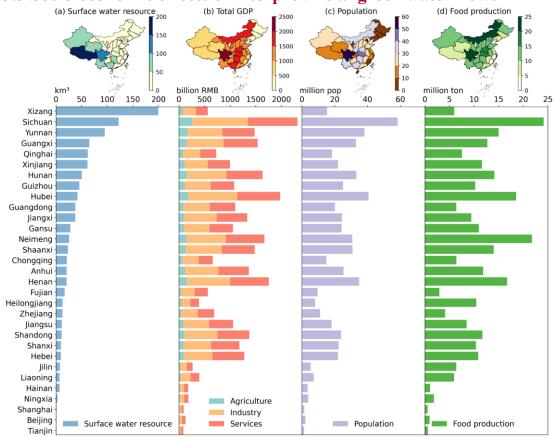


Figure 4. The tele-connected effects of green water flow from source provinces on surface for water resources, GDP, population, and food production (average value of 2008-2017) inof sink provinces of China.

Source provinces export green water and bringcreate precipitation to sink provinces through the moisture recycling process, contributing to surfacerecharging water resources and supportingsustaining the socio-economic development of downwind sink provinces (Fig. 4). The reliance of socio-economic activities in sink provinces on green water supply from source provinces for socio-economic activities of sink provinces indicates a tele-connection between source and sink provinces. It implies that the green water and socio-economy are intertwined through the interprovincial green water flow network—, indicating a teleconnection between source and sink provinces.

Our assessment of contribution of green water to surface water resources indicates that green water from western provinces generates recharges the highest volume of surface water resources. Xizang (200 km³), Sichuan (122124 km³), and Yunnan (9596 km³) are the top 3 contributors of surface water resources, makingwhose green water

export makes up to 46%, 5051%, and 5152% of their own total surface-water resources, respectively (Table. A1). They These regions also correspond to the top contributors to domestic precipitation, owing to the close linkage between precipitation and surface water resources. Although southern and eastern provinces are rich in surface-water resources due to the wet climate, most of their green water contributes to surface water resources outside of China or to the ocean since they are situated downwind of prevailing westerlies and proximate to the coast (e.g., Guangdong). In total, green water exported from 31 provinces together contributes 43% and 40% of precipitation and surface water resources in China (Table. A1).

The GDP, population, and food production embodied in green water export from source provinces are shown in Fig 5b-d, which reflects how much the socio-economy of downwind sink provinces is supported by green water of source provinces. Overall, the contribution of green water to selected socio-economic statistics shows similar rankings because food production and agriculture GDP (R = 0.79), population and total GDP (R = 0.85) are spatially correlated (Fig. A5A6).

Sectoral GDP embodied in green water from source provinces is highly related to the industrial structure in sink provinces. The <u>embodied</u> industry and service sector GDP values <u>embodied</u> in <u>green water</u> across provinces are relatively comparable, whereas <u>embodied</u> agricultural GDP values are lower due to the small <u>contribution percentage</u> of agricultural output to total GDP (Fig. A2A3).

Green water from southwest and central provinces (e.g., Sichuan, Hubei, Henan) embodies the most GDP, population, and food production, because of the large economic volume of these provinces and neighboring regions, as well as the high DPR. Specifically, green water from Sichuan supports the highest GDP (2312 billion RMB2.31 trillion CNY), population (58 million peoplepersons), and food production (24 million tons) (Table. A2), because Sichuan has a high GDP, population, and food production (Fig. A2). AlsoA3). Moreover, green water from Sichuan contributes significantly to its own precipitation in Sichuan (30%)%), and 87% of its green water generatedgenerates domestic precipitation. These factors together make green water in provinces like Sichuan embody the highest socio-economic values.

Provinces exported that export large volume volumes of green water and with have high DPR do not necessarily embody more socio-economic values if sink provinces importing that import their green water are less developed. Xizang is the highest green water exporter and the largest contributor of surface water resources (200 km³) but

ranks low in embodied GDP (561 billion RMB0.56 trillion CNY, 23rd), population (15 million, 20th), and food production (5.97 million tontons, 23rd) because provinces importing most the primary importer of its green water, such as Xizang and Qinghai, have low rankings in GDP (31st, 30th), population (31st and 30th), and food production (30th and 29th).

Green water from highly developed provinces (e.g., southeastern China) may not necessarily embody high socio-economic value if they have low DPR. For example, Guangdong ranks 1st in GDP and population and 17th in food production, but withonly has a small fraction of green water contributed contributing to domestic precipitation (DPR 0.4). The limited domestic precipitation contribution results in low rankings of cembodied socio-economic valuevalues (14th for GDP, 17th for population, and 21st for food production) cembodied in green water of for Guangdong.

4 Discussion

This study quantified the interprovincial green water flows in China using the moisture recycling framework and a moisture tracking model. The green water flow is established by the transport of evaporated moisture by atmospheric winds from a source province to precipitate in a sink province. The transferred green water exchanges among multiple provinces and creates an interprovincial flow network. The location of the source province and its flow direction largely determine to what extent green water formed precipitation retains within China. In our estimation, roughly 43% of green water forms precipitation in China, similar to 44% of PRR identified by Rockström et al. (2023). The average direction of all inter-provincial green water flows in China is from southwest to northeast, consistent with findings by Xie et al. (2024).

Since green water from source provinces contributes to water resources and supports 3.3 Changing socio-economy of downwind sink provinces, various economic values of green water flows

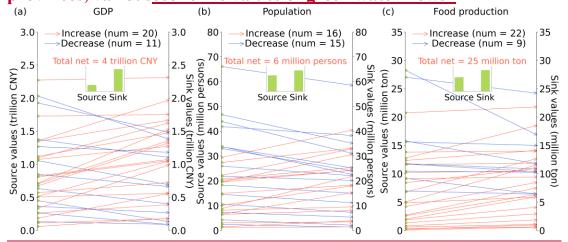


Figure 5. Changes in socio-economic activities of downwindvalues embodied in green water flow from source to sink provinces including economy, for GDP (a), population, (b), and food production are tele-connected to source provinces. This highlights the critical role of green water in sustaining(c). Thin arrows of different colors represent the socio-economy and implies economic value increase (in red) or decrease (in blue) from source to sink provinces.

Green bars represent the sum socio-economic value in China's 31 provinces.

<u>The</u> substantial socio-economic values embodied in interprovincial green water flows. When <u>highlight the teleconnection of green water travels</u> from source and sink provinces with different levels of socio-economic development, and the socio-economic values embodied in economy in sink provinces, including economy, population, and food production. Due to different socio-economic statuses, the same amount of green water will change.

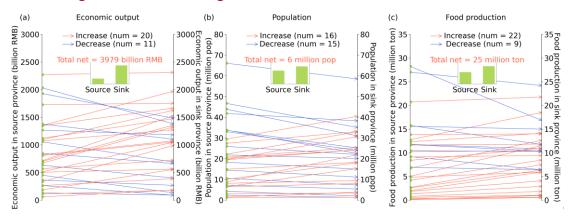


Figure 5. The economic output (a), population (b) and food production (c) value consumed water resources, which are recharged by green water, would sustain different socioeconomic values between source and sink provinces. Therefore, the socio-economic values embodied in green water flow and their changes would change when traveling

from source to sink provinces. Thin arrows of different colors represent the socio-economic value increase (in red) or decrease (in blue) from source to sink provinces. Green bars represent the sum socio-economic value in China's 31 provinces.

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The water resources generated by green water, either locally or remotely, affects the socio-economic development of province receiving green water. We investigated how the socio-economic value associated with green water flow would change when transferring from source to sink provinces. We found that the As shown in Fig. 5, the socio-economic values embodied economic output value, population and food production increased for 20, 16 and 22 out of 31 source provinces, with increases of 3979 billion RMBin green water flow increase from source to sink provinces by 4 trillion CNY for GDP, 6 million pop-for population, and 25 million tontons for food production, respectively. The increase in the embodied GDP, population, and food production from is observed in 20, 16, and 22 source to sink provinces (Fig. 5) among a total of 31. This indicates that green water tends to flow from less to more developed provinces, with per unit of green water supporting sustaining more economic production and, population, and food production per unit of green water. The largest economic output value increases of green water are found in Guangxi (+826 billion RMB0.83 trillion CNY, 54%). Xinjiang has the most added value in population (+13 million poppersons, 59%) and food production (+7 million tontons, 60%) because their green water flows to more developed provinces (Fig. A5). In contrast, decreased socioeconomic values of green water flow are also observed. A4). In contrast, decreased socio-economic values of green water flow are also observed. Shandong, Shaanxi, and Henan have the largest reductiondepreciation in green water values for the economy (-659 billion RMBGDP (-0.66 trillion CNY, 48%), population (-13 million poppersons, 42%)%), and food production (-12 million tontons, 72%) (Fig. A4A5) because their green water flows to provinces with lower socio-economic values.

The changing socio-economic values of green water flow reflect the regional disparity in socio-economic statuses between source and sink provinces. The exported green water for more than half of the source provinces in China (> 15) has increased socio-economic values when reaching sink provinces. This shows that green water from less developed provinces effectively supports the higher socio-economic status of developed provinces through the interprovincial flow network. Therefore, these provinces are vitally important green water providers to developed areas. This teleconnection of green water and socio-economy substantiates that changing land use in the source provinces that affect evapotranspiration is likely to influence water

resources availability and socio-economic development in the sink provinces (Dias et al., 2015; Weng et al., 2018). Hence, it is imperative to account for "invisible" green water flow and its cascade effect in large-scale water resources management.

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4 Discussion

This study quantified the interprovincial green water flows in China using the moisture recycling framework and a moisture tracking model. The green water flow is established by transporting evaporated moisture by atmospheric winds from a source province to precipitate in a sink province. The transferred green water exchanges among multiple provinces and creates an interprovincial flow network. The location of the source province and its flow direction largely determine to what extent green water formed precipitation retains within China. In our estimation, roughly 43% of green water forms precipitation in China, similar to 44% of PRR identified by Rockström et al. (2023). The average direction of all interprovincial green water flows in China is from southwest to northeast, consistent with findings by Xie et al. (2024).

Green water flow can fill the gap in land-atmosphere feedback in the traditional water resources management framework (Keys et al., 2017). Typically, water resources management only considers blue water changes while neglecting green water flow, even though the latter may compensate <u>for</u> the former (Hoek van Dijke et al., 2022). Human activities such as irrigation (Su et al., 2021), afforestation (Li et al., 2018), and reservoir construction (Biemans et al., 2011; Veldkamp et al., 2017) in upstream regions may markedly change blue water accessibility in downstream regions. Meanwhile, the resulting changes of ET in upstream regions (McDermid et al., 2023; Qin, 2021; Shao

et al., 2019) might offset the decline of water resources in downstream by moisture recycling. Similarly, increased vegetation coverage intercepts more rainfall, reducing runoff and consequently diminishing water resources availability (Sun et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2015a), but the rise of ET may compensate local and downwind water availability through increased green water flows (Wang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2021). Therefore, green water stands as one of essential paths of climatic and hydrological interactions for local and downwind water availability through increased green water flows (Wang et al., 2023a; Zhang et al., 2021). Therefore, green water is an essential path of climatic and hydrological interaction among different regions, providing a new angle for integrated regional resources management (Keys et al., 2018; te Wierik et al., 2021). Comprehensive comprehensive impact assessment of regional water security and optimization would benefit from combining both blue and green water flows (Schyns et al., 2019) by which upstream/upwind regions affect regional water resources availability (Creed et al., 2019).

With the recognition of the tele-connected effects of green water flows, maintaining regional water security requires both rational utilization of local water resources and appropriate land management in the upwind source regions. However, similar to blue water, resources water resource management across administrative boundaries has always been challenging due to conflicting interests among different regions (Rockström et al., 2023). The diverse strategies developed to enhance regional coordination of blue water management serve as a reference for green water management, such as the inter-basin water transfer or downstream beneficiaries paying upstream providers for clean water services (Farley and Costanza, 2010; Pissarra et al., 2021; Sheng and Webber, 2021). However, unlike blue water resources with wellestablished accounting and valuation methods, green water monitoring and valuation are challenging. Green water from a specific region flows to multiple regions, and the received green water can subsequently reevaporate and flow to other regions- (Zemp et al., 2014). This interconnected network and cascade complicate the quantification of how much green water from a source region contributes to human activities in sink regions. More importantly, it is difficult to measure green water flow through observations as those measurements made by hydrologic stations for blue water (Hu et al., 2023; Sheng and Webber, 2021). This study utilized a dataset from a moisture tracking model to construct an interprovincial green water flow within China, which offers valuable insights for understanding the quantity of green water flow. Our

attempts to quantify the socio-economy embodied in green water flow fill the gap in green water value assessment and provide reference for green water management.

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Due to the complex dynamics of the green water flow and limitations of the moisture tracking model, there are still major uncertainties in data and methods of this study. First, ET and precipitation datasets driving the UTrack model affect the tracked trajectories and magnitude of moisture flow. The resulting moisture trajectory is expressed as the fraction of ET to precipitation, and the exact amount of moisture is restored by the ET and precipitation datasets chosen by users. Different ET and precipitation datasets could lead to different precipitation contributions and PRR (Li et al., 2023). We used the ERA5 dataset to keep consistent with the original UTrack model. It is noted that the non-closure of the moisture balance from ERA5 (De Petrillo et al., 2024) and simplifications and assumptions introduced in the moisture tracking model also add uncertainty in the moisture tracking (Tuinenburg and Staal, 2020). First, ET and precipitation datasets that drive the tracking model affect the quantity of green water flow. The Moreover, the resulting moisture trajectory data only represent the climatologically average moisture trajectories and ET (Li et al., 2023), neglecting the inter-annual interannual variability in green watermoisture flow trajectory, e.g., those induced by the influence of extreme weather events or ENSO (Zhao and Zhou, 2021). Moreover, simplifications and assumptions introduced in the moisture tracking model also add uncertainty The interannual variations in green water flow may affect DPR and DSR in some provinces. Human adaptation tends to buffer the impacts of interannual variations on the socio-economy through water resource management such as reservoirs, dams, and other infrastructure. Accounting for interannual variations in green water flows and their socio-economic contribution is worth further investigation. Secondly, the socio-economic value assessment of green water in this study only considers green water flows within China, excluding flows moving abroad and to the ocean that may embody socio-economic value beyond the territory of mainland China. We mainly attribute socio-economic values to green water and generated precipitation because precipitation is the ultimate water source for recharging surface and groundwater of a region. Strictly speaking, such attribution needs to be more precise because socioeconomy also utilizes streamflow from upstream areas, which deserve separate attention.

Moreover, the interactions between blue and green water increase the complexity to evaluating green water's socio-economic contribution. For example, the blue water

extracted by irrigation increases ET in the source region, providing more moisture for downwind regions (Yang et al., 2019). Simultaneously, most of the blue water for local irrigation comes from the green water of upwind regions (McDermid et al., 2023). In addition, not all water resources replenished by green water-induced precipitation are accessible for human activities since part of them is used by the natural ecosystem (Keys et al., 2019). Therefore, it is necessary to distinguish water sources and consumption to account green water values more accurately. Despite the selected socioeconomic indicators closely linked to water resources, green water flows' socioeconomic contribution can manifest in other aspects such as livestock production and irrigated agriculture. In future studies, the dynamic linkage between green water, water resources and economic development can be assessed annually by using a long-term moisture tracking dataset with a separation of water sources consumed by socioeconomy (surface and groundwater). (Tuinenburg and Staal, 2020). Secondly, the socio-economic value assessment of green water in this study only considers green water flows within China, excluding flows moving abroad and to the ocean that may embody socio-economic value beyond territory of mainland China. We mainly attribute socio-economic values to green water and formed precipitation, because precipitation is the ultimate water source of a region (i.e., surface and groundwater). Strictly speaking, such attribution is not precise because socio-economy also utilizes stream flows from upstream areas which deserve separate attention. Nevertheless, our assessment serves as a useful first step to demonstrate the importance of the tele-connected green water flow in addition to blue water. Our attempts to quantify the socio-economy embodied in green water flow fill the gap in green water value assessment and provide a methodological reference for green water management.

5 Conclusion

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This study quantified the interprovincial green water flows in China and its teleconnected effects on the socio-economy. The green water exchanges among different
regions effectively form a complex flow network and embody socio-economic values.
The interprovincial green water in China flows primarily from west to east and to a
lesslesser extent from south to north, influenced by the co-control of westerlies and
monsoonmonsoons. Western provinces have significant contributions to precipitation
and surface—water resources in China, while southwestern and central provinces
embodyhave the most socio-economic values in terms of regarding GDP, population,
and food production. Green water flowing from less developed regions supports

substantial socio-economic values in more affluent regions, due to disparity in socio-economic development between source and sink regions. Given the embodied socio-economic benefits of green water, regional water resources management should consider water flow beyond blue water to integrate green water for a more comprehensive and effective management of resources and security. Our study provides a reference for understanding the "invisible" green water flow and its tele-connected benefits.

Data and code availability

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- 691 The moisture trajectory dataset is available at https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.912710 (Tuinenburg et al., 2020). The 692 693 evapotranspiration data from ERA5 reanalysis dataset is available 694 https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/#!/search?text=ERA5. The socio-economic statistics 695 data is available from China Statistical Yearbook (https://data.stats.gov.cn/index.htm).
- The Python codes <u>and data</u> used in this study are available at GitHub (https://github.com/sangshan-ss/GW-China)._

Author contributions

YL and SS conceived the study and performed data analysis. SS and YL wrote the manuscript with contributions from CCH, SSZ and HQL.

Competing interests

We declare no conflict of interest of this work.

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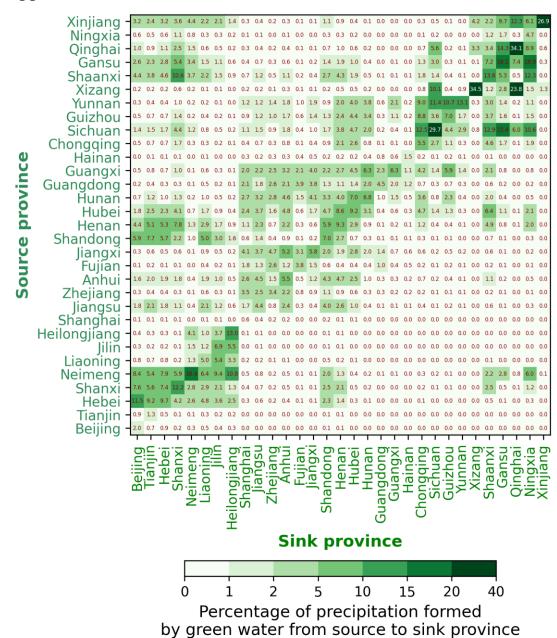
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Appendix A



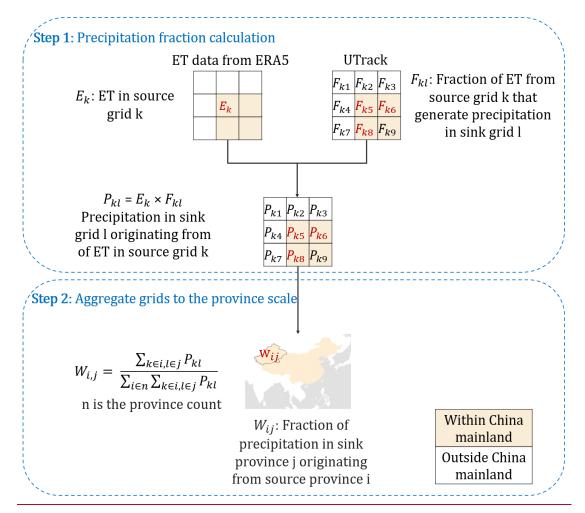


Figure A1. Green Workflow of estimating green water flow-from a source province to . Step 1:

calculate the precipitation in sink province. Red annotations represent the percentagegrids
originating from ET in source grids. Step 2: calculate the fraction of precipitation in sink
provinces originating from eertain source province to the total provinces.

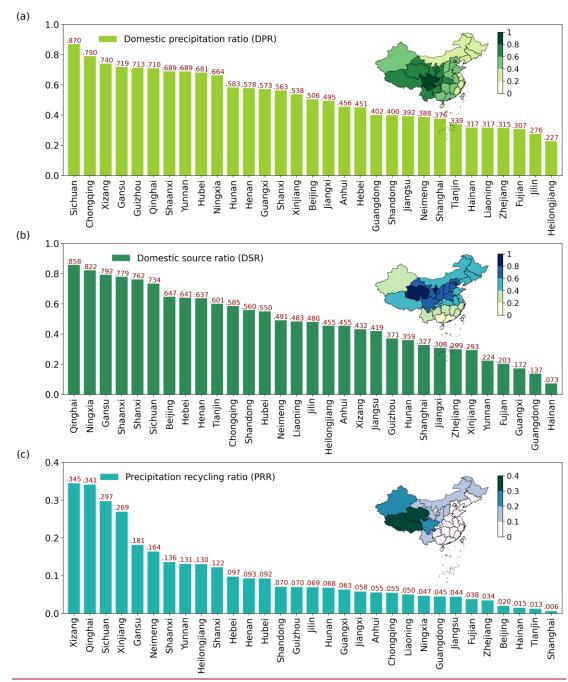
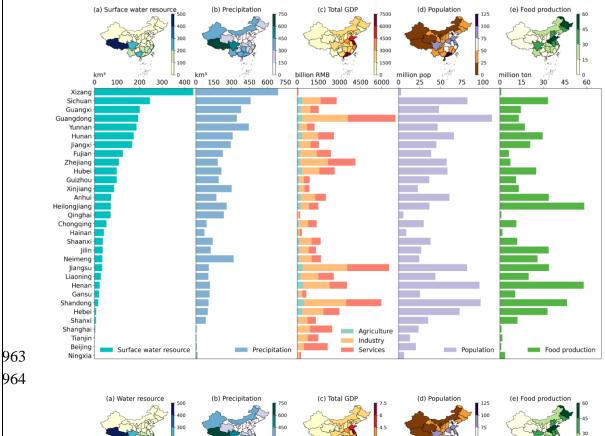


Figure A2. (a) Domestic precipitation in certain sinkratio (DPR), (b) domestic source ratio (DSR) and (c) precipitation recycling ratio (PRR) in each province.



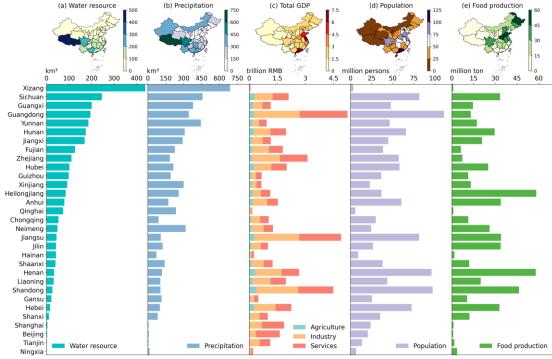


Figure A2. Surface water A3. Water resource (a), precipitation (b), GDP (c), population (d) and food production (e) in each province.

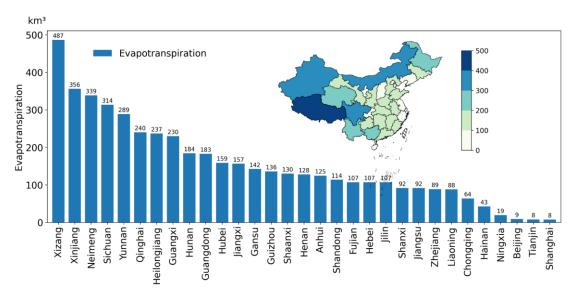
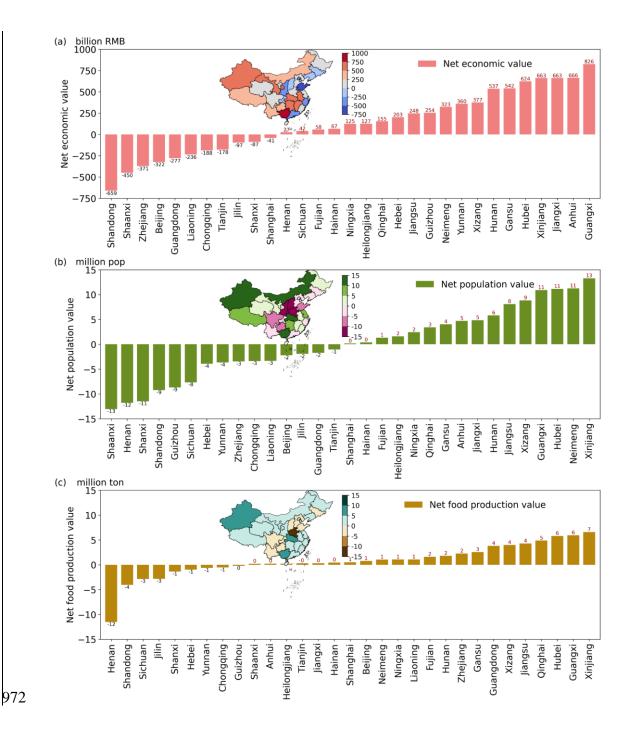


Figure A3. Evapotranspiration A4. Mean evapotranspiration of 2008 to 2017 in each province.



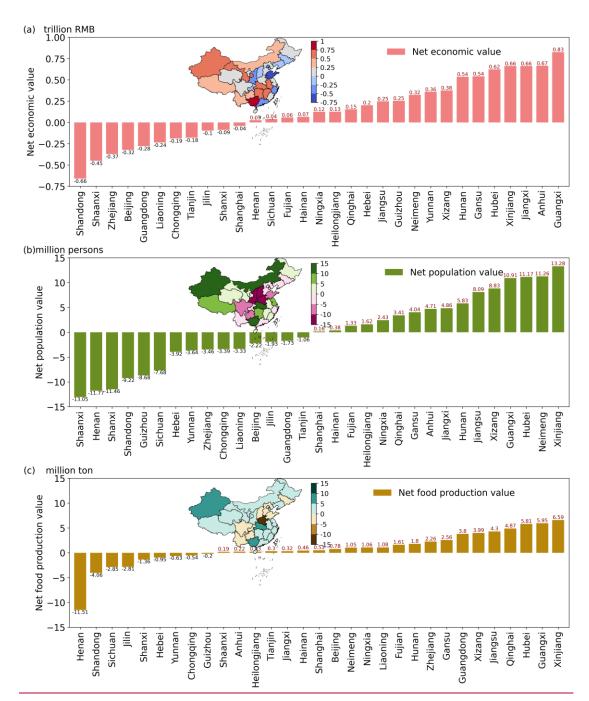


Figure A4A5. Net economic output (a), population (b), food production (c) value of green water flow in each province. Negative values represent these socio-economic values of water resource formed by green water increase by flowing from source to sink provinces. Positive values represent these socio-economic values of water resource formed by green water decrease by flowing.

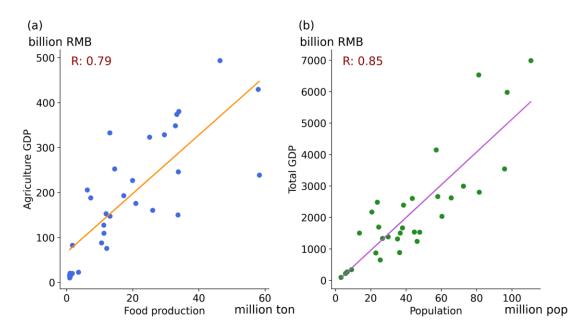


Figure A5. Pearson A6. Spatial pearson correlation coefficient between agricultural GDP and food production (a), population and total GDP (b).) across provinces in China.

Table A1. Surface Precipitation, water resource compareresources, and the contribution from green water in provinces of China.

9	85	green water in provinces of China.							
Provi	nce	Local	Precipitation	Percentage of	Local	Water resource	Surface Percent		
		precipitation	formed by	precipitation	surface	formed by	age of water		
		(km^3)	green water	contribution to	water	green water	resource		
			(km^3)	local	resource	(km ³)	formed by		
				precipitation (%)	(km^3)		green contributi		
							on to local		
							water		
							(km³) resource		
							<u>(%)</u>		
Beiji	ing	1.05 <u>9.47</u>	0.86 <u>4.53</u>	48	<u>2.</u> 82 .11	1.14	40		
Tian	jin	7.12	2.66	37	1. 18<u>62</u>	0. 54 <u>70</u>	45.74 <u>43</u>		
Heb	ei	6.95 100.50	9.38 48.35	135.11 <u>48</u>	15.98	12.26	77		
Shan	nxi	6.71 <u>82.88</u>	9.58 <u>51.69</u>	<u>142.79</u> <u>62</u>	10.91	12.38	113		
Neim	eng	<u>35.15</u> <u>317.11</u>	25.62 <u>131.57</u>	72.90 41	48.79	31.80	65		
Liaon	ning	28.15 <u>104.53</u>	7.07 <u>27.80</u>	25.11 <u>27</u>	31.92	8.40	26		
Jili	n	36.20 124.15	7.54 <u>29.55</u>	20.83 <u>24</u>	42.21	8.98	21		
Heilong	gjiang	72.21 <u>258.88</u>	17 <u>53</u> .75	21	85.40	15.44	18		
Shang	ghai	<u>3.388.02</u>	2.83	35	4.04	1. 06 <u>19</u>	<u>31.3329</u>		
Jiang	gsu	34.19 108.09	11.56 <u>35.93</u>	33 .82	44.27	13.43	30		
Zhejia	ang	109.17 <u>184.7</u>	27.98	15	110.66	13.46	12 .62		
		<u>2</u>							
Anh	nui	172.36	73 <u>56</u> .84	20.80 <u>33</u>	28.16 <u>79.67</u>	23.19	29		

Fujian	226.74	32.96	15	126. 26 <u>39</u>	16.85 <u>17.33</u>	13.35 <u>14</u>
Jiangxi	292.56	167 77.52	37.66 <u>26</u>	22.48 169.44	39.25	23
Shandong	16.34 <u>105.99</u>	10.87 <u>45.49</u>	66.51 <u>43</u>	25.99	13.56	52
Henan	22.97 118.83	20.50 73.87	62	33.73	89. 24 <u>.08</u>	71
Hubei	98.63 214.46	41.98 <u>108.13</u>	42.57 <u>50</u>	101.66	45.27	45
Hunan	173.62 <u>308.8</u>	50.20 107.25	35	174.33	<u>52.</u> 28 .91	30
	<u>7</u>					
Guangdong	193.81 <u>344.0</u>	37.66 <u>73.31</u>	19.43 21	194.77	38.54	20
	<u>5</u>					
Guangxi	379.82	131.63	35	200. 68 <u>76</u>	<u>66.</u> 32 .30	33
Hainan	72.47	13.50	19	41. 40 <u>86</u>	6.99 <u>7.13</u>	16.90 <u>17</u>
Chongqing	90.61	50.45	56	53.23	20.99 21.87	39.43<u>41</u>
Sichuan	458.97	272.93	59	245. 73 <u>86</u>	122.16 124.43	4 9.71 <u>51</u>
Guizhou	191.84	97.05	51	98.49	46. 12 <u>54</u>	47
Yunnan	444.68	199.06	45	185.99	95 96.34	51.26 <u>52</u>
Xizang	689.68	360.21	52	438.59	199.51 <u>200.33</u>	4 <u>5.49</u> 46
Shaanxi	37.43 141.21	23.00 89.70	61.44 <u>64</u>	39.82	26.14	66
Gansu	20.83 115.45	28.10 102.36	134.94 <u>89</u>	21.60	30.31	140
Qinghai	71.55 236.12	61.90 170.62	72	86 73.50	63.57	86
Ningxia	14.95	12.94	87	0. 76 <u>98</u>	2.92 <u>3.34</u>	384.55 <u>342</u>
Xinjiang	87.11 300.10	61.45 <u>191.37</u>	70.5 4 <u>64</u>	91.95	64.92	71
Total	2689.11 <u>6225</u>	1067.76 <u>2683</u>	39.71 <u>43</u>	2.82	1.14	40
	<u>.19</u>	<u>.84</u>				

Table A2. The tele-connected effectembodied socio-economic values of green water flow on from source provinces for water resources, GDP by industry, population, and food production. Socio-economic indictors are the average value of 2008-2017.

Province	Total GDP	Agriculture	Industry	Service	Population	Food
	(Billion	GDP	GDP	GDP	(Million	production
	RMB <u>Trilli</u>	(Billion	(Billion	(Billion	pop persons	(Million
	on CNY)	RMB Trilli	RMB <u>Trilli</u>	RMB Trilli)	ton)
		on CNY)	on CNY)	on CNY)		
Beijing	128.92 <u>0.13</u>	8.09 <u>0.01</u>	<u>51.70</u> 0.05	69.13 <u>0.07</u>	2.05-	0.97-
Tianjin	86.79 0.09	<u>5.16</u> 0.01	37.11 <u>0.04</u>	44.53 <u>0.04</u>	1.33-	0.61-
Hebei	1274.16 1.2	91.69 0.09	562.13 0.56	620.34 <u>0.62</u>	22 .00 -	10.82-
	<u>7</u>					
Shanxi	1180.10 1.1	88.42 <u>0.09</u>	542.78 <u>0.54</u>	548.91 <u>0.55</u>	22.36–	10.35-
	<u>8</u>					
Neimeng	1669.22 <u>1.6</u>	146.90 <u>0.15</u>	768.35 <u>0.77</u>	753.97 <u>0.75</u>	30.77-	21.78-
	<u>7</u>					
Liaoning	397.02 <u>0.40</u>	<u>38.00</u> 0.04	187.78 <u>0.19</u>	171.24 <u>0.17</u>	7.23-	5.92-

Jilin	266.65 0.27	<u>30.92</u> 0.03	123.63 <u>0.12</u>	112.09 <u>0.11</u>	5.34_	6.37-
Heilongjiang	389.73 <u>0.39</u>	48.85 <u>0.05</u>	173 <u>0</u> .17	167.71 <u>0.17</u>	8.04-	10.45-
Shanghai	90.33 <u>0.09</u>	5.73 <u>0.01</u>	41.93 <u>0.04</u>	42.67 <u>0.04</u>	1.41-	0.57-
Jiangsu	1056.16 <u>1.0</u>	80.80 <u>0.08</u>	506.93 <u>0.51</u>	468.43 <u>0.47</u>	18.13-	8. 50 - <u>5</u>
	<u>6</u>					
Zhejiang	<u>685.00</u> 0.69	44.54 <u>0.04</u>	<u>323.18</u> 0.32	<u>317.29</u> 0.32	11.08-	4.11-
Anhui	1365.58 <u>1.3</u>	111.59 <u>0.11</u>	659.27 <u>0.66</u>	594.72 0.59	25.42-	11.85-
	<u>7</u>					
Fujian	562.60 0.56	<u>38.98</u> <u>0.04</u>	268.58 <u>0.27</u>	255.04 <u>0.26</u>	9.46–	2.93–
Jiangxi	1331.84 <u>1.3</u>	102.18 <u>0.10</u>	637.82 <u>0.64</u>	591.84 <u>0.59</u>	24.34	9.43_
	<u>3</u>					
Shandong	1373.26 1.3	106.37 <u>0.11</u>	645.66 <u>0.65</u>	621.23 <u>0.62</u>	23.85-	11.72-
	<u>7</u>					
Henan	1753.29 <u>1.7</u>	150.86 0.15	848.59 <u>0.85</u>	753.84 0.75	34.94–	16.74–
	<u>5</u>					
Hubei	1975.71 <u>1.9</u>	180.31 <u>0.18</u>	958.26 0.96	837.13 0.84	40.57–	18.56–
	<u>8</u>					
Hunan	1630.74 <u>1.6</u>	147.89 <u>0.15</u>	780.74 <u>0.78</u>	702.11 <u>0.70</u>	33. 20 - <u>2</u>	14.13_
	<u>3</u>					
Guangdong	1099.02 <u>1.1</u>	82.01 <u>0.08</u>	522.65 0.52	494.36 <u>0.49</u>	20.09–	6.38–
	<u>0</u>					
Guangxi	1537.63 1.5	144.55 <u>0.14</u>	727.78 0.73	665.30 <u>0.67</u>	33.06–	12. 70- 7
	4					
Hainan	<u>179.27</u> 0.18	<u>14.56</u> 0.01	<u>83.86</u> 0.08	<u>80.85</u> 0.08	3.42-	1.05-
Chongqing	660.08 <u>0.66</u>	<u>64.18</u> 0.06	319.49 0.32	276.41 <u>0.28</u>	14.92–	6. 40 <u>4</u>
Sichuan	2312.68 <u>2.3</u>	250.83 <u>0.25</u>	1098.37 <u>1.1</u>	963.49 <u>0.96</u>	58.39–	24.16–
	<u>1</u>		0			
Guizhou	1076.17 <u>1.0</u>	108.05 <u>0.11</u>	510.34 <u>0.51</u>	4 57.78 0.46	25.05–	10.25–
	8					
Yunnan	1478.03 <u>1.4</u>	164.39 <u>0.16</u>	685.76 <u>0.69</u>	627.88 <u>0.63</u>	38.21-	14.98–
	8					
Xizang	560.89 <u>0.56</u>	65.71 <u>0.07</u>	262.50 <u>0.26</u>	232.67 <u>0.23</u>	15.32-	5.97-
Shaanxi	1478.25 <u>1.4</u>	126.34 <u>0.13</u>	711.26 0.71	640.65 <u>0.64</u>	30.87–	14 .00
	8	0046040	400 400 50		2.4.22	10.06
Gansu	1054.50 <u>1.0</u>	98.16 <u>0.10</u>	4 99. 48 <u>0.50</u>	4 56.87 0.46	24.22–	10.96–
	<u>5</u>	74.470.07	244 400 2 :	206.020.21	10.00.0	7.7.
Qinghai	724.98 <u>0.72</u>	74.47 <u>0.07</u>	<u>344.49</u> 0.34	306.020.31	18. 30 - <u>3</u>	7.56–
Ningxia	183.81 <u>0.18</u>	<u>15.82</u> 0.02	87.14 <u>0.09</u>	80.86 <u>0.08</u>	3.88–	1.85-
Xinjiang	995.82 <u>1.00</u>	106.22 <u>0.11</u>	456.23 <u>0.46</u>	433.370.43	22.03-	11. 60 - <u>6</u>
I Total (nercentage of total	30.56	2.74 (46%)	14.43	13.39	<u>629.28</u>	<u>293.67</u>
Total (percentage of total contribution to local	(45%)	217 1 (1070)	(45%)	(44%)	(46%)	(50%)

so	cio-economic value)			