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1 **Dynamics of material productivity and socioeconomic factors based on**
2 **auto-regressive distributed lag model in China**

3

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 Material productivity (MP), measured as economic output (such as Gross Domestic Product,
13 GDP) per corresponding material input, is gained significant interest of becoming a widespread
14 environmental sustainability indicator. The study of MP's dynamics is very important for
15 policy-making on how to improve MP. This paper applies the auto-regressive distributed lag
16 (ARDL) model to investigate the dynamic impacts of energy intensity for secondary industry (SEI),
17 tertiary industry value added per GDP (TVA), trade openness (TO) and domestic extraction per
18 capita (DEC) on MP in the case of China during the period from 1980-2010. The validated and
19 robust results of the model confirm the existence of cointegration among the variables both in
20 the long and short run. The impacts of selected socioeconomic factors can be summarized as
21 follows: 1) In the long run, an SEI decrease driven by technology improvement is found to be the
22 main driver of MP, and a 1% decrease in SEI results in an 0.432% increase in MP; 2) The
23 magnitude of the impact of TVA on MP is higher over the short run than over the long run; 3) TO
24 can reluctantly promote MP both in the long and short run; 4) DEC exhibits fundamentally
25 different behaviors in the long and short run. DEC is not a strongly significant factor for MP, and
26 the magnitude of the impact is very weak in the long run. However, it has the greatest negative
27 impact on MP in the short run, as a 1% increase in DEC results in a 0.519% decrease in MP, which
28 demonstrates that the marginal revenue of resource input has already dramatically declined.
29 These insights from the study could be considerably helpful for sustainable resource

30 management and material productivity enhancement.

31

32 Keywords: material productivity, socioeconomic factors, ARDL (auto-regressive distributed lag),

33 China

34

Acronyms

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ARDL	Auto-regressive distributed lag
IDA	Index decomposition analysis
MFA	Material flow analysis
GCI	Growth competitive index
DMC	Domestic material consumption
EW-MFAcc	Economy-wide material flow accounting
ECM	Error correction model
UCB	Upper critical bound
LCB	Lower critical bound
SERI	Sustainable Europe Research Institute
NBS	National Bureau Of Statistics
VAR	Vector autoregression
T-Y	Toda-Yamamoto

Nomenclature

<i>MP</i>	Material productivity, US \$/ton
<i>SEI</i>	Energy intensity for secondary industry, 10000 ton of standard coal equivalent
<i>TVA</i>	Tertiary industry value added per GDP, %
<i>TO</i>	Trade openness, US \$
<i>DEC</i>	Domestic extraction per capita, ton/person

35 1. Introduction

36 The transformation and flow of natural resources function as the material foundation for the
37 world economy as well as the link between human activities and environmental impacts [1].
38 However, since industrialization, natural resource consumption has risen sharply and thus has
39 currently become a principal constraint to sustainable development. Meanwhile, excessive and
40 insufficient material utilization lead to serious environmental issues such as climate change, air
41 and water pollution, desertification, biodiversity loss and ecosystem degradation [2]. Material
42 productivity (MP), measured as economic output (such as Gross Domestic Product, GDP) per
43 corresponding material input, now becomes a widespread environmental sustainability indicator
44 for the measurement and description of national material utilization efficiency in academia [3].
45 And it has to be acknowledged that material productivity also has the limitations similar to other
46 efficiency indicators which may lead to the Jevons paradox [4, 5]. Nevertheless, as an integrated
47 quantitative evaluating indicator, it has been as a popular topic that recently gained significant
48 interest in societal and governmental documents [6-10]. Improving material productivity can
49 create more economic benefits with less natural resources which to some extent could be an
50 appropriate way to solve collisions between future increasing demand and limited natural
51 resources [11].

52 There is no doubt that energy as the most significant type of natural resource has an
53 extremely important strategic position in the national economy. Hashimoto et al. [12] have stated
54 that reduction in energy intensity means that goods and services must be produced with less
55 energy use and thus probably affected Japanese material productivity. Furthermore, a decline of
56 energy intensity can partly characterize technological improvements in a broader sense [12,13].
57 Economic structure, which generates very different amounts of value added per ton of resource
58 input, is another main factor in what might have changed national material productivity [11-16].
59 In addition to economic structure, Gilijum et al. [16] have also proposed that international trade
60 and resource endowments play a major role in material productivity on the national level. In
61 summarizing all of the available literature on examining the factors influencing material
62 productivity [3, 11-18], previous studies have fallen into two categories. On the one hand, simple
63 regression analysis has been used to elaborate on factors influencing material productivity based

64 on cross-sectional data with a single time point mainly in developed countries [3, 11, 13-18]. On
65 the other hand, index decomposition analysis (IDA) has been used to explain the influencing
66 dynamics of Japanese material productivity [12]. IDA is a technique that emphasizes the
67 decomposition of the indicator (for example, material productivity) into the different factors
68 described in a series multiplication equation. No previous studies have focused on estimating the
69 dynamic impacts among selected influencing factors on material productivity in China.

70 China, as the biggest emerging economy, has made remarkable achievements in social and
71 economic development with its unprecedented consumption of natural resources since the
72 initiated economic reforms in 1978 and, consequently, with a series of environmental issues. In
73 2008, China's total material consumption of 22.6 billion tons accounted for 32% of the world's
74 total and made it by far the world's greatest consumer of primary materials, nearly fourfold the
75 consumption of the USA, which was the second ranked consumer [19]. Therefore, it is urgent to
76 change the economic growth pattern from high growth of high consumption to a more
77 sustainable growth path. To accelerate the transformation, the Chinese government has already
78 proposed improving material productivity by 15% over the period of 2011-2015 [10]. The
79 improvement of material productivity in China also greatly promotes the world's efforts in
80 resource conservation and environmental protection.

81 The main objective of this article is to investigate the long- and short-run impacts between
82 material productivity and selected socioeconomic factors, such as energy intensity, economic
83 structure, international trade and resource endowment in the case of China by using the
84 auto-regressive distributed lag (ARDL) model over the period of 1980-2010. Compared to IDA,
85 ARDL is preferable for examining dynamics of material productivity due to its following two
86 advantages. First, ARDL, as an econometric tool, is relatively flexible in choosing explanatory
87 variable. Second, it can quantify the long- and short-run impacts on material productivity. In the
88 case of China, the selected time range reflects the rapid process of industrialization with a large
89 consumption of natural resources and reveals typical emerging economies' developmental
90 trajectories. There is no doubt that ARDL will be of vital importance during the transition of
91 China's future development patterns through studying what drives material productivity during
92 this period of time. Section 2 is the literature review. Section 3 describes the methodology and
93 data; this section introduces the definition of material productivity, choice of explanatory

94 variables, description of model and data sources. The empirical results are presented in section 4,
95 and following are our conclusions and discussions.

96

97 **2. Review of literature**

98 Previous studies have focused on methodological foundations and accounting methods of
99 Material Flow Analysis (MFA) [20-22]. Studies examining the factors influencing material
100 productivity are few, and this topic is relatively under-researched. For the methodology,
101 regression analysis is the main tool that has been used to elaborate on factors influencing
102 material productivity. Van der Voet et al. [15] presented the first regression analysis to estimate
103 the influences of socioeconomic variables on material productivity by using panel data from the
104 EU. They stated that the differences in material productivity can be attributed in large part to
105 income level (GDP per capita) and the structure of the economy. More recently, several authors
106 [3, 11, 17, 18] also have suggested income level as a critical factor for a nation's material
107 productivity due to associated technology improvements driven by economic development [23].
108 However, there is also an objection regarding income level as a factor for material productivity.
109 They believe that income level can mask the effects of others [9]. Bleischwitz et al. [13, 14] have
110 elucidated that energy use and economic structure are the main factors that have changed the
111 EU's material productivity. Energy use has a high significance for resource use per capita as well
112 as material productivity. The construction and service sectors also have an influence on the
113 resource intensity of economies. In addition to economic structure, Gilijum et al. [16] have
114 proposed that international trade and resource endowments play a major role in material
115 productivity on the national level. Bleischwitz et al. [13, 14] and Wiedmann et al. [18] have
116 identified that the growth competitiveness index (GCI) and population density are two additional
117 influence factors, respectively. Gan et al. [11] have illustrated eighteen potential variables from
118 six subgroups that could have affected material productivity and have demonstrated five
119 significant factors, including income level, population density, economic structure, energy
120 structure and raw material trade.

121 Index decomposition analysis (IDA) is another choice that can be used to explain the
122 influencing dynamics of material productivity. Hashimoto et al. [12] have elucidated four factors

123 that have changed Japanese material productivity by decomposition analysis. The analysis
124 emphasizes decomposing resource-use intensity into the factors of recycling, induced
125 material-use intensity, demand structure, and average propensity to import.

126 There are few studies on the dynamics of material productivity. Hence, this study conducted
127 empirical analyses to explain the dynamic impacts of material productivity by considering the
128 critical factors of energy intensity, economic structure, international trade and resource
129 endowment, which will contribute to the need for research on the dynamics of material
130 productivity.

131

132 **3. Methodology and data**

133 **3.1 The definition of material productivity**

134 The conception and notion of material productivity is relatively new, which illustrates the
135 amount of economic value generated per ton of materials used¹. When calculating a nation's
136 material productivity, the numerator is quite easy to determine, that is, GDP. However, there are
137 several indicators to measure resource input or use. In this study, the formula for material
138 productivity is as follows:

$$MP = GDP / DMC \quad (1)$$

139 Domestic Material Consumption (DMC), which is defined as the total amount of materials
140 directly used in an economy, is a major material flow indicator in the Economy-Wide Material
141 Flow Accounting (EW-MFAcc) standard framework [20, 21]. It is calculated as domestic extraction,
142 which measures the flows of materials that originate from the environment and physically enter
143 the economic system for further processing or direct consumption, added to physical imports and
144 subtracting physical exports. GDP/DMC is also the headline indicator of the EC's Roadmap to a
145 Resource Efficient Europe[24].

146

147 **3.2 The choice of potential explanatory variables**

148 When choosing potential influencing factors, this study focus on variables that can represent

¹ <http://www.materialflows.net/glossary/mfa/>

149 the current situation of the socioeconomic and technological system in China; in addition, these
150 factors should affect national material consumption. At the same time, combined with previous
151 research, this study includes factors from the following four categories:

152 ● Technological progress: Technology improvement is a key factor in material productivity
153 [3]. However, the measurement of the general status of scientific and technological
154 progress in a nation is inconclusive. Several previous studies have suggested that GDP
155 per capita[3, 11, 15, 17, 18], journal article publication (per 1000 persons), agricultural
156 machinery (tractors per 100 square kilometers of arable land)[9] and total number of
157 patent applications [25-27] might be appropriate to indicate national scientific and
158 technological progress. In this article, we chose energy intensity for secondary industry
159 (SEI) as the factor for two main reasons. First, there is a direct and strong connection
160 between technological improvement and energy intensity (or efficiency). Technological
161 improvement is crucial for promoting energy efficiency [28-30]. On the other hand, the
162 chosen variable is more realistic and controllable than other variables for the current
163 status of China over the study period. During the past few decades, China's GDP per
164 capita increased by 12 times with an annual growth rate of nearly 9%, which is mostly
165 attributed to a giant leap in industry and manufacturing. Therefore, energy intensity is
166 appropriate for representing technological progress over the study period. To measure
167 the relatively independent impact of technological improvement, we focus on energy
168 intensity as a secondary industry, which excludes the impact of a drop in energy
169 intensity resulting from structural adjustment from a secondary industry to a tertiary
170 industry.

171 ● Economic structure: Several authors have suggested that as the ratio of services and
172 manufacturing rises in a national economy and, meanwhile, as the ratio of
173 material-consuming agriculture and extractive industry declines, material productivity
174 rises [31]. This implies that economic structure apparently has a significant effect on
175 material productivity. Because Chinese secondary industry structure that is measured
176 as the added value of a share of GDP only changed slightly from 47.9% in 1980 to 46.2%
177 in 2010, in this study, we chose tertiary industry value added per GDP (TVA) to indicate
178 the structure of the economy.

- 179 ● International trade: There is also a vast body of studies investigating the impact of
180 trade openness on economic growth in the long run [32]. On the one hand, trade
181 openness can promote economic growth based on the comparative advantage of
182 international specialization in the international market in the case of many nations. On
183 the other hand, international trade can increase market competitiveness and thus
184 improve efficiency of material utilization in local countries [33]. Furthermore, trade
185 liberalization can promote the diffusion of technology from developed countries to less
186 developed countries [34]. In this study, we incorporate trade openness (TO) into our
187 empirical model to explore the nexus.
- 188 ● Resource endowment and pressure: China's rapid economic growth during 1980-2010
189 is accompanied by huge consumption of natural resources from either domestic
190 extraction or international trade. According to Sustainable European Resource Institute
191 (SERI), China's domestic extraction was 227 hundred million tons in 2010, 3.7 times the
192 volume of the US, which was the second largest county in resource extraction.
193 High-speed development requires high resource input and conversely leads to resource
194 pressure. In fact, there is a so-called phenomenon, the "curse of natural resources," in
195 which countries rich in natural resources tend to show poorer growth than those with a
196 relative scarcity of natural resources, that emerged in the late 20th century [35-37].
197 Although there is a question to whether natural resources are a curse for growth, the
198 jury is still out [38], as a nation's DE, which can measure the abundance of its natural
199 resources, should be an important factor for a nation's economic growth and thus its
200 material productivity. In this study, domestic extraction per capital (DEC) is selected to
201 represent the resource endowment and resource pressure of China.

202

203 3.3 The description of empirical model

204 The purpose of the present empirical investigation is to expose the relationship between
205 material productivity and selected influencing factors in the case of China using annual data over
206 the period of 1980-2010. Initially, unit root tests are used to check for the stationarity (or the
207 order of integration) of data to avoid spurious regression, and the results of the unit root test will

208 provide a basis for cointegration. This study employs the auto-regressive distributed lag (ARDL)
 209 bounds testing approach instead of other conventional cointegration methods, for example Engle
 210 and Granger (E-G) [39] and Johansen method [40]. E-G is a cointegration technique for bivariate
 211 analysis. Conversely, Johansen method is known as a system-based approach. This approach is
 212 more efficient than E-G approach as it offers multivariate analysis. Furthermore, the Johansen
 213 approach can reduce omitted lagged variables bias by including the lag in the estimation.
 214 However, this approach is also criticized because it is highly sensitive to the number of chosen
 215 lags [41]. Furthermore, it is also hard for interpretation when the model has more than one
 216 cointegration vector. More importantly, these approaches are only valid with the same order of
 217 integration. In the case of mixed orders of variables, the validity of both E-G and Johansen
 218 approach are challenged.

219 By comparison, the ARDL approach is preferable due to the following advantages [42]. On
 220 one hand, it is not strict in the integrating order of variables as long as no variable is stationary at
 221 order 2. On the other hand, Alfere [43] presented that this approach is superior and can provide
 222 consistent results for a small sample through Monte Carlo simulations. This method has been
 223 also commonly reported in recent literatures for examining the relationship among economic
 224 growth, energy emissions and other socioeconomic factors (such as income, trade and
 225 population) [44-48]. Furthermore, it has also been used in measurement for environmental
 226 quality related indicators (such as sandy desertification and deforestation) [49, 50].

227 The following is the basic mathematical representation of ARDL model.

$$Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_T T + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \gamma_j X_{t-j} + \mu_t \quad (2)$$

228 Generally, the ARDL model can convert into an error correction model (ECM) which are
 229 presented below:

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_T T + \beta_Y Y_{t-1} + \gamma_X X_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \gamma_j \Delta X_{t-j} + \mu_t \quad (3)$$

230 We transformed the regression model by investigating variables in our case in logarithm
 231 linear functional form, which is specified as follows:

$$\ln MP_t = a_0 + a_1 \ln SEI_t + a_2 \ln TVA_t + a_3 \ln TO_t + a_4 \ln DEC_t + u_t \quad (4)$$

232 Where MP is material productivity; SEI is energy intensity for secondary industry; TVA is
 233 territory value added per GDP; TO is trade openness; DEC is domestic extraction per capita; and
 234 the subscript t denotes the time period. a_0 is a constant, and U_t is a disturbance term
 235 supposed to be identically, independently and normally distributed. The constant parameters a_1 ,
 236 a_2 , a_3 and a_4 are the elasticities of output with respect to SEI, TVA, TO and DEC, respectively.
 237 Eq. (4) describes the possible long-run equilibrium relationship between material productivity
 238 and selected variables. Furthermore, the short-run dynamic behavior of these variables also
 239 suggests that past changes in the variables, including useful information that can be used to
 240 predict future changes in output, here comprise material productivity. The short-run dynamics
 241 and the long-run equilibrium relationships of the ARDL model can be colligated into a dynamic
 242 unrestricted ECM where we can test the cointegration relationship. The ARDL version of the
 243 unrestricted ECM can be specified as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta \ln MP_t &= \lambda_0 + \lambda_t t + \lambda_{MP} \ln MP_{t-1} + \lambda_{SEI} \ln SEI_{t-1} + \lambda_{TVA} \ln TVA_{t-1} + \lambda_{TO} \ln TO_{t-1} + \lambda_{DEC} \ln DEC_{t-1} \\
 &+ \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i \Delta \ln MP_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \lambda_j \Delta \ln SEI_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \lambda_k \Delta \ln TVA_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \lambda_l \Delta \ln TO_{t-l} + \sum_{m=0}^w \lambda_m \Delta \ln DEC_{t-m} + \mu_t
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{5}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta \ln SEI_t &= \theta_0 + \theta_t t + \theta_{MP} \ln MP_{t-1} + \theta_{SEI} \ln SEI_{t-1} + \theta_{TVA} \ln TVA_{t-1} + \theta_{TO} \ln TO_{t-1} + \theta_{DEC} \ln DEC_{t-1} \\
 &+ \sum_{i=1}^p \theta_i \Delta \ln SEI_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \theta_j \Delta \ln MP_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \theta_k \Delta \ln TVA_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \theta_l \Delta \ln TO_{t-l} + \sum_{m=0}^w \theta_m \Delta \ln DEC_{t-m} + \mu_t
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta \ln TVA_t &= \rho_0 + \rho_t t + \rho_{MP} \ln MP_{t-1} + \rho_{SEI} \ln SEI_{t-1} + \rho_{TVA} \ln TVA_{t-1} + \rho_{TO} \ln TO_{t-1} + \rho_{DEC} \ln DEC_{t-1} \\
 &+ \sum_{i=1}^p \rho_i \Delta \ln TVA_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \rho_j \Delta \ln MP_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \rho_k \Delta \ln SEI_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \rho_l \Delta \ln TO_{t-l} + \sum_{m=0}^w \rho_m \Delta \ln DEC_{t-m} + \mu_t
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{7}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta \ln TO_t &= \sigma_0 + \sigma_t t + \sigma_{MP} \ln MP_{t-1} + \sigma_{SEI} \ln SEI_{t-1} + \sigma_{TVA} \ln TVA_{t-1} + \sigma_{TO} \ln TO_{t-1} + \sigma_{DEC} \ln DEC_{t-1} \\
 &+ \sum_{i=1}^p \sigma_i \Delta \ln TO_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \sigma_j \Delta \ln MP_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \sigma_k \Delta \ln SEI_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \sigma_l \Delta \ln TVA_{t-l} + \sum_{m=0}^w \sigma_m \Delta \ln DEC_{t-m} + \mu_t
 \end{aligned}$$

254

255

(8)

$$\Delta \ln DEC_t = \zeta_0 + \zeta_1 t + \zeta_{MP} \ln MP_{t-1} + \zeta_{SEI} \ln SEI_{t-1} + \zeta_{TVA} \ln TVA_{t-1} + \zeta_{TO} \ln TO_{t-1} + \zeta_{DE} \ln DEC_{t-1}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^p \zeta_i \Delta \ln DEC_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \zeta_j \Delta \ln MP_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \zeta_k \Delta \ln SEI_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \zeta_l \Delta \ln TVA_{t-l} + \sum_{m=0}^w \zeta_m \Delta \ln TO_{t-m} + \mu_t$$

257

258

(9)

259

Where Δ is the differenced operator and μ_t is residual term in period t. Then, we can

260

compute the F-statistic depending on the appropriate selection of lag length of the variables to

261

compare with the critical bounds of Pesaran et al. [42] to test whether the long-run equilibrium

262

relationship exists or not. The critical bounds generated by Pesaran et al. are two asymptotic

263

critical values called the upper critical bound (UCB) and the lower critical bound (LCB). The null

264

hypothesis of no long-run relationship between the variables in Eq. (4) is H_0 :

265

$\lambda_{MP} = \lambda_{SEI} = \lambda_{TVA} = \lambda_{TO} = \lambda_{DEC} = 0$ against the alternate hypothesis of long-run relationship

266

H_1 : $\lambda_{MP} \neq \lambda_{SEI} \neq \lambda_{TVA} \neq \lambda_{TO} \neq \lambda_{DEC} \neq 0$. We should compute the value of F-statistic in turn

267

for Eq. (5)-(9), i.e., $F_{\ln MP}(\ln MP | \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$, $F_{\ln SEI}(\ln SEI | \ln MP, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$,

268

$F_{\ln TVA}(\ln TVA | \ln SEI, \ln MP, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$, $F_{\ln TO}(\ln TO | \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln MP, \ln DEC)$, $F_{\ln DEC}(\ln DEC | \ln SEI,$

269

$\ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln MP)$. The rules of decision of cointegration are as follows: if the computed

270

F-statistic is more than UCB, then we conclude there is cointegration between the variables. If the

271

computed F-statistic is less than LCB, then there is no cointegration among the variables. The

272

decision of integration is inconclusive if the computed F-statistic is between LCB and UCB. It is

273

worth mentioning that the critical value of Pesaran et al. [42] is not appropriate for a small

274

sample. Therefore, we have adopted the lower and upper critical bounds of Narayan [51].

275

Once it is confirmed that a long-run relationship exists among the variables, in the next step,

276

we should move to estimating the impacts among the variables. Taking an example of material

277

productivity as dependent variables, the long- and short-run dynamic equations can be specified

278

as follows:

$$\ln MP_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_T T + \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \ln MP_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \alpha_j \ln SEI_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \alpha_k \ln TVA_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \alpha_l \ln TO_{t-l}$$

$$+ \sum_{m=0}^w \alpha_m \ln DEC_{t-m} + \mu_t$$

279

280

(10)

$$\Delta \ln MP_t = \beta_0 + \beta_T T + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \Delta \ln MP_{t-i} + \sum_{j=0}^q \beta_j \Delta \ln SEI_{t-j} + \sum_{k=0}^r \beta_k \Delta \ln TVA_{t-k} + \sum_{l=0}^s \beta_l \Delta \ln TO_{t-l}$$

$$+ \sum_{m=0}^w \beta_m \Delta \ln DEC_{t-m} + \eta_1 ECT_{t-1} + \mu_t$$

281

282

283

(11)

284

Where Δ is the differenced operator and μ_t are residual terms and are assumed to be

285

identically, independently and normally distributed. η_1 is the coefficient of error correction

286

term (ECT), defined as:

$$ECT = \ln MP_t - \alpha_0 - \alpha_T T - \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \ln MP_{t-i} - \sum_{j=0}^q \alpha_j \ln SEI_{t-j} - \sum_{k=0}^r \alpha_k \ln TVA_{t-k} - \sum_{l=0}^s \alpha_l \ln TO_{t-l}$$

$$- \sum_{m=0}^w \alpha_m \ln DEC_{t-m}$$

287

288

289

(12)

290

ECT_{t-1} is the lagged residual term generated from the long-run relationship. The long-run

291

relationship can be further validated by the statistical significance of ECT_{t-1} . The estimator of

292

ECT_{t-1} also demonstrates the speed of convergence rate from the short run towards the long-run

293

equilibrium path.

294

295

3.4 Data sources

296

This article employs annual data for China over the period from 1980 to 2010. The data on

297

DMC and domestic extraction are from Sustainable Europe Research Institute (SERI) [52]. The

298

data on energy consumption for secondary industries is from the China Energy Statistical

299

Yearbook [53]. The data on secondary and tertiary industry value added per GDP are from the

300 National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) in China [54]. In addition, this study considers trade openness
 301 (TO), which is measured as the sum of the proportion of real exports and imports in GDP, and the
 302 data can be obtained from World Bank [55]. Finally, the data on GDP and population are also
 303 from World Bank [55]. All of our data using a model can be directly obtained from the
 304 above-mentioned authorities or can be simply calculated, as, for example, SEI.

305

306 4. Empirical results

307 4.1 Unit root tests and lag selection

308 Prior to testing for cointegration, this study applies augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF),
 309 Phillips-Perron (PP), Dickey-Fuller generalized least squares (DF-GLS) and the KPSS unit root tests
 310 to test the order of integration. The assumption of ARDL bounds testing requires that all variables
 311 should be integrated at purely order 0, purely order 1 or mutually cointegrated. Therefore, it is
 312 necessary to test the integrating order of all variables before applying ARDL bounds testing;
 313 otherwise, the calculation of the F-statistic of ARDL becomes invalid [56]. The results of the unit
 314 root test are shown in Table 1, which shows that the logarithmic form of all variables, whether
 315 they are with Intercept or Intercept and trend, are at the non-stationary level. However, these
 316 variables become stationary after considering the first difference, which is confirmed by the vast
 317 majority of our unit root test approaches. Thus, all variables are indicated at order 1.

318 **Table 1**

319 Results of ADF, PP, DE-GLS and KPSS unit root tests with Intercept and Intercept and trend

	Variables	ADF	PP	DF-GLS	KPSS
Level (Z_t)					
	lnMP	-1.701	-1.762	0.675	1.59
	lnSEI	-0.954	-0.868	0.046	1.07
Intercept	lnTVA	-2.086	-1.988	-0.152	1.47
	lnTO	-1.622	-2.012	-0.714	1.43
	lnDEC	0.943	1.257	1.308	1.12
Intercept and	lnMP	-1.022	-0.713	-0.890	0.271

trend	lnSEI	-1.871	-1.510	-2.233	0.148
	lnTVA	-2.335	-1.705	-1.445	0.245
	lnTO	-2.202	-2.092	-1.956	0.156
	lnDEC	-1.657	-1.165	-1.915	0.146
<hr/>					
1 st difference (Z_t)					
Intercept	Δ lnMP	-4.069***	-4.069***	-4.140***	0.399
	Δ lnSEI	-2.915*	-3.360**	-3.347***	0.133
	Δ lnTVA	-3.438**	-3.672**	-3.814***	0.258
	Δ lnTO	-4.737***	-4.737***	-4.235***	0.221
	Δ lnDEC	-2.593	-3.370**	-2.512**	0.271
Intercept and trend	Δ lnMP	-4.435***	-4.435***	-4.544***	0.0928
	Δ lnSEI	-2.898	-3.304*	-3.393**	0.105
	Δ lnTVA	-4.140**	-3.946**	-4.080***	0.0511
	Δ lnTO	-4.792***	-4.792***	-4.929***	0.0521
	Δ lnDEC	-2.797	-3.421*	-3.680**	0.0906

320 (***) , (**) and (*) indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

321

322 Lag selection is very important for the ARDL approach to cointegration. This study uses
 323 Schwarz information criterion to choose the optimum lag length. The results of lag length are
 324 reported in Table 2, which indicates that lag 1 is appropriate.

325 **Table 2**

326 Selection criteria of lag order of variables for the ARDL approach

Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	118.105	NA	2.1e-10	-8.07893	-7.84103	-8.0062
1	292.455	348.7	5.1e-15	-18.7468	-17.3194 ^a	-18.3104 ^a
2	321.196	57.482	4.8e-15 ^a	-19.014	-16.3972	-18.214
3	351.721	61.049 ^a	5.6e-15	-19.4086 ^a	-15.6023	-18.245

327 LR: sequential modified LR test statistic (each test at the 5% level), FPE: Final prediction error, AIC:

328 Akaike information criterion, SC: Schwarz information criterion, HQ: Hannan-Quinn information

329 criterion.

330 ^a indicates lag order selected by the criterion.

331

332 4.2 Hypothesis test of the model

333 This study applies a diagnostic and stability test to check the model. The values of R^2 and
 334 Adjusted R^2 are 0.9985 and 0.9980, respectively, which means the model is well fitted. Table 3
 335 reports the results of the diagnostic test of the ARDL model, showing that no serial correlation is
 336 found. Our empirical exercise also reveals that there are no problems of normality, functional
 337 error or heteroscedasticity.

338 Fig. 1 is the CUSUM (cumulative sum) and CUSUMQ (cumulative sum of squares) from a
 339 recursive estimation of the model. It shows that the model is stable, as the residuals are within
 340 the critical bounds at the 5% significance level.

341 **Table 3**

342 Diagnostic tests of the ARDL approach (1,0,1,0,1)

	T-statistic	p-value
A: Serial correlation CHSQ(1)	0.0057	0.941
B: Functional form CHSQ(1)	0.726	0.404
C: Normality CHSQ(2)	2.019	0.364
D: heteroscedasticity CHSQ(1)	0.398	0.533

343 A: Lagrange multiplier test of residual serial correlation

344 B: Ramsey's RESET test using the square of the fitted values

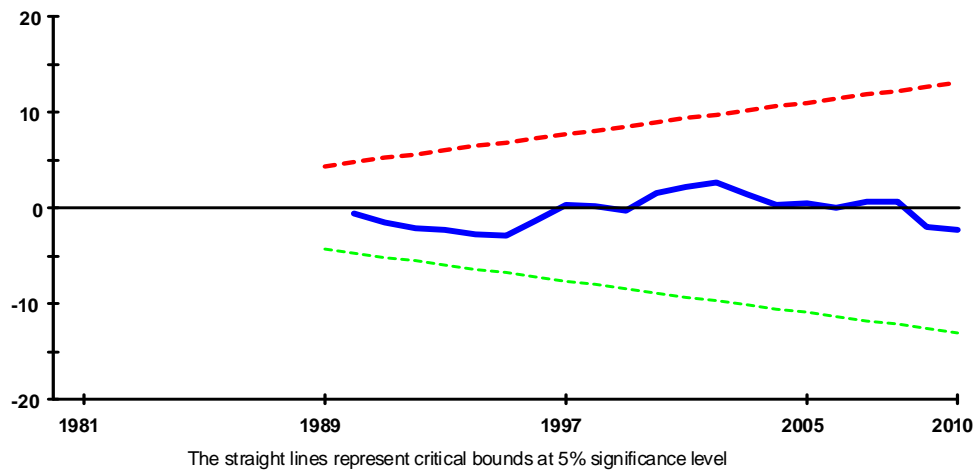
345 C: Based on a test of skewness and kurtosis of residuals

346 D: Based on the regression of squared residuals on squared fitted values

347

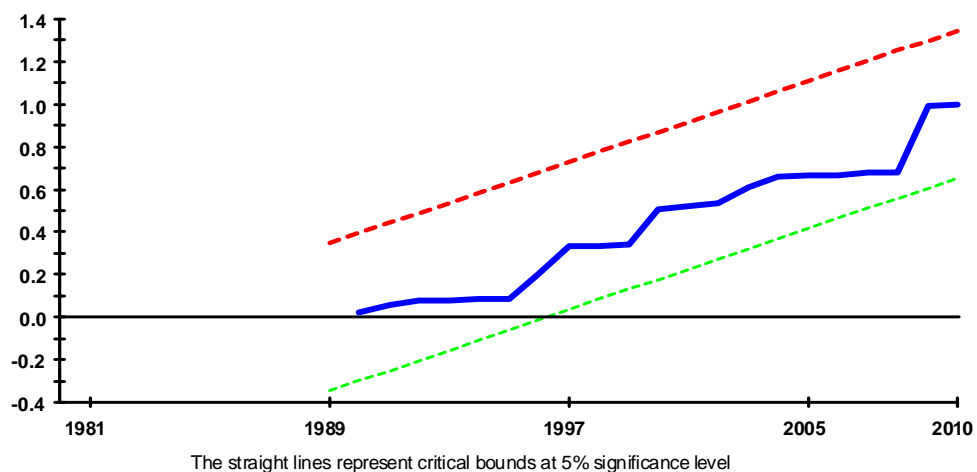
1a

Plot of Cumulative Sum of Recursive Residuals



1b

Plot of Cumulative Sum of Squares of Recursive Residuals



348

349

350

Fig. 1 Stability test of the ARDL model (1,0,1,0,1)

351

352 4.3 ARDL bounds test for cointegration

353 This study uses a Wald joint significance test (F-statistic) to examine the cointegration
 354 relationship. The results of the ARDL bounds testing and critical value according to Narayan [51]
 355 are reported in Table 3. The empirical evidence indicates that our computed F-statistics for
 356 $F_{\ln MP}(\ln MP | \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$, $F_{\ln SEI}(\ln SEI | \ln MP, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$, $F_{\ln TVA}(\ln TVA | \ln SEI,$
 357 $\ln MP, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$, $F_{\ln TO}(\ln TO | \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln MP, \ln DEC)$ and $F_{\ln DEC}(\ln DEC | \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln TO,$

358 lnMP) are 5.2694, 1.3884, 1.70, 3.91 and 2.9635, respectively. For MP as a dependent variable,
 359 the value of F-statistics is larger than the upper bound critical value at the 5% significance level. It
 360 rejects the null hypothesis of no cointegration, which means that there is a long-run relationship
 361 among the variables when MP is a dependent variable. Nevertheless, when SEI, TVA and DEC are
 362 considered dependent variables, respectively, the calculated F-statistic falls below the lower
 363 bound critical value, implying the non-existence of a cointegration relationship. Conversely, when
 364 TO is considered a dependent variable, the computed F-statistic falls between the lower and the
 365 upper bound critical values; hence, the existence of a cointegration relationship is inconclusive at
 366 the 5% significance level.

367 **Table 4**

368 Results of the ARDL bounds test (equation (5)-(9))

Dependent variables	SBC Lag length	F-statistics	Outcome
$F_{\ln MP}(\ln MP \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$	1,0,1,0,1	5.2694**	Cointegration
$F_{\ln SEI}(\ln SEI \ln MP, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$	1,1,1,0,1	1.3884	No cointegration
$F_{\ln TVA}(\ln TVA \ln SEI, \ln MP, \ln TO, \ln DEC)$	1,1,0,1,1	1.7000	No cointegration
$F_{\ln TO}(\ln TO \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln MP, \ln DEC)$	1,1,1,1,1	3.9100	Inconclusive
$F_{\ln DEC}(\ln DEC \ln SEI, \ln TVA, \ln TO, \ln MP)$	1,0,1,0,1	2.9635	No cointegration ²
Critical value	I(0)	I(1)	
1% level	4.768	6.670	
5% level	3.354	4.774	
10% level	2.752	3.994	

369 (***), (**) and (*) indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

370

371 4.4 Long-run and short-run coefficients

372 After identifying a cointegration relationship among variables, this study proceeds to
 373 estimate the marginal impacts of SEI, TVA, TO and DEC on MP in the long and short run. Table 4
 374 addresses long-run marginal impacts of the determinants of MP. Table 4 reveals a negative

² At the 5% significance level

375 relationship between SEI and MP at the 1% significance level. It indicates that a 1% decline in SEI
 376 spurs a rise in MP of 0.432%, while everything else remains constant. The impact of TVA on MP is
 377 positive and is statistically significant at the 5% significance level. Everything else is constant,
 378 while a 1% increase in TVA causes a rise in MP of 0.226%. The relationship between TO and MP is
 379 positive and is statistically significant at the 1% significance level. The 0.148% rise in MP is
 380 stimulated by a 1% increase in TO, while everything else remains constant. Additionally, there is a
 381 weak long-run relationship between DEC and MP. The elasticity of DEC of MP is only 0.051 and is
 382 statistically significant at the 10% significance level, which implies that economic growth patterns
 383 through high material input are not sustainable in the long term.

384 **Table 5**

385 Long-run coefficients using the ARDL approach (1,0,1,0,1) selected based on Schwarz Bayesian
 386 Criterion; the dependent variable is lnMP.

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio[Prob]
lnSEI	-0.432***	0.040	-10.889[0.000]
lnTVA	0.226**	0.095	2.374[0.027]
lnTO	0.148***	0.041	3.597[0.002]
lnDEC	0.051*	0.027	1.886[0.073]
C	3.780***	0.259	14.614[0.000]

387 (***) , (**) and (*) indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% level, respectively.

388

389 Table 5 reports the results of the short dynamics of SEI, TVA, TO and DEC on MP. Over a
 390 short span of time, all variables contribute to material productivity significantly at the 1% level. A
 391 1% decrease in SEI and DEC lead to a 0.236% and 0.519% increase in MP, respectively. Similarly, a
 392 1% increase in TVA and TO lead a 0.341% and 0.081% increase in MP, proving that the marginal
 393 impact of exorbitant domestic extraction leads to a larger decrease in MP. Thus, it is urgent to
 394 change the economic growth pattern from high resource input to a more sustainable growth path,
 395 such as raising energy efficiency, accelerating structural adjustment and enlarging opening
 396 transactions. The negative and highly statistically significant estimate of ECM(-1) implies that 54.7%
 397 changes in material productivity are corrected by deviations in the short run towards the

398 long-run equilibrium path for each year. In this model, short-run deviations in material
399 productivity take 30 years to converge to the long-run equilibrium path.

400 **Table 6**

401 Error correction representation for ARDL (1,0,1,0,1) selected based on Schwarz Bayesian Criterion;
402 the dependent variable is $\Delta \ln MP$.

Regressor	Coefficient	Standard Error	T-Ratio[Prob]
$\Delta \ln SEI$	-0.236***	0.037	-6.366[0.000]
$\Delta \ln TVA$	0.341***	0.073	4.664[0.000]
$\Delta \ln TO$	0.081***	0.018	4.461[0.000]
$\Delta \ln DEC$	-0.519***	0.081	-6.389[0.000]
ECM(-1)	-0.547***	0.083	-6.582[0.000]

403 *** indicates significance at 1% level.

404

405 **4.5 Toda-Yamamoto Granger causality analysis**

406 This study applies the Toda-Yamamoto approach [57] based on the vector autoregression
407 (VAR) model at various levels to investigate the direction of the causal relationship between
408 these variables. The reason that I chose the T-Y approach based on the VAR model to test for
409 Granger causality instead of a VECM Granger causality approach [58] depends on the following
410 two aspects. First, the former approach is more appropriate for a small sample, especially when
411 cointegration is a long-run phenomenon. On the other hand, the practice of pretesting for
412 cointegration can result in severe over-rejections of the noncausal null, whereas overfitting
413 (which is the T-Y approach chosen in our empirical case) results in better control of the Type I
414 error probability with often little loss in power [59]. The causality between SEI, TVA, TO, DEC and
415 MP, which would help policy makers in formulating a relative policy to improve material
416 productivity for the long run, has already been proposed as an anticipated target in the Outline of
417 the Twelfth Five-Year Plan for National Economic and Social Development [10]. Table 9 presents
418 the empirical evidence causality relationships among these variables. The results suggest that a
419 bidirectional causal relationship is found between TO and MP, DEC and MP, in the case of China
420 over the study period of 1980-2011. This shows that MP has an extraordinarily distinct feedback

421 to TO and DEC, combining the short- and long-run impacts of these two variables. The
 422 improvement of TO leads to an increase in MP, and MP can re-promote TO. Conversely, high
 423 domestic extraction leads to a decrease in material productivity in the short run and vice versa.
 424 Thus, it provides an effective “Forced” mechanism for China to accelerate the transformation of
 425 development patterns. There are also many unidirectional causalities when MP, TO and DEC are
 426 considered dependent variables. The most notable unidirectional causality is found running from
 427 SEI to MP because the variable has the largest (-0.432) negative impact on material productivity
 428 in the long run and also shows a stronger causal relationship compared to other variables. This
 429 implies that the government must concentrate more on launching a comprehensive energy policy
 430 and exploring new sources of improving energy efficiency. R&D and foreign direct investment
 431 activities should be encouraged in energy sectors. Structural adjustment should also be paid
 432 attention by the Chinese government for its relative strong short-run impacts (0.341) and causal
 433 relationship with material productivity.

434 **Table 7**

435 Results of the Toda-Yamamoto Granger causality test

Dependent variables	Direction of causality				
	lnMP	lnSEI	lnTVA	lnTO	lnDEC
lnMP	-	38.8177***	30.9349***	9.1432***	39.5099***
lnSEI	0.5010	-	0.4469	1.2650	0.8782
lnTVA	4.2325	0.5392	-	2.1086	1.4112
lnTO	13.5901***	9.8407**	14.1257***	-	1.5355
lnDEC	10.3885**	9.3986**	13.0056***	15.6127***	-

436 (***) and (**) indicate significance at the 1% and 5% level, respectively.

437

438 5. Conclusions and future research

439 The present study applied the auto-regressive distributed lag (ARDL) model to investigate
 440 the marginal impacts of four socioeconomic factors on material productivity in the long and short
 441 run in the case of China during the period of 1980-2010. The validity and robustness of model
 442 results were assessed through diagnostic tests, stability tests and the Gregory-Hansen

443 cointegration test under the assumption of structural breaks. The T-Y approach based on vector
444 autoregression (VAR) model at various levels was used to examine the direction of causal
445 relationship between these variables.

446 Our empirical results confirmed the existence of a long-run cointegration relationship
447 among these variables and have produced several interesting findings.

448 ● Energy intensity for secondary industry (SEI) is a significant factor for material
449 productivity both in the long and short run. Furthermore, it has the most remarkable
450 impact on material productivity in the long run, as a 1% decrease in SEI results in a
451 0.432% increase in MP. It has proven that an energy intensity decrease driven by
452 technological improvements enables better use of raw materials, which contributes to
453 higher material productivity. Additionally, a very strong unidirectional causality from SEI
454 to MP is found. Bleischwitz et al. reported that energy use has a high significance for
455 resource use per capita as well as material productivity. This study also found that
456 energy intensity has a direct link to material productivity. Therefore, it can be
457 concluded that some synergies exist between climate and resource policies. This
458 implies that the government must concentrate more on launching a comprehensive
459 energy policy and exploring new sources of improving energy efficiency. R&D and
460 foreign direct investment activities should be encouraged in energy sectors to promote
461 technological improvements.

462 ● Tertiary industry value added per GDP (TVA) also increases material productivity both in
463 the long and short run. The magnitude of its impact on MP is higher over the short run
464 than over the long run. Thus, this implies that structural adjustment of increasing
465 tertiary industry proportion in our case should be paid more attention by the Chinese
466 government in the short term. However, it should be paid attention to the transfer of
467 industries from the focal country to other neighbouring countries in the process of
468 structural adjustment. Recent studies have shown that the high material productivity in
469 industrialized countries often comes at the expense of industrial relocation to
470 neighbouring countries with laxer environmental regulation or cheaper labour costs
471 [60-62]. Hence, it is necessary to strengthen international or regional cooperation, and
472 jointly improve the material productivity.

- 473 ● Trade openness (TO) is also a significant factor for material productivity, but the
474 magnitude of its impact is weak both in the long and short run. It is worth mentioning
475 that there is a bidirectional causal relationship between TO and MP. This demonstrates
476 that the improvement of TO leads an increase in MP and that MP can re-promote TO.
477 Trade openness produces rebound effects in material productivity. Thus, the
478 government should enlarge opening transactions appropriately.
- 479 ● Last but not least, domestic extraction per capita (DEC) has an extraordinarily distinct
480 impact on material productivity in the long and short run. It is not a strongly significant
481 factor for MP, and the magnitude of its impact is very weak. However, it has the
482 greatest negative impact on material productivity in the short run, as a 1% decrease in
483 DEC leads to a 0.519 increase in MP. This implies that the marginal impact of exorbitant
484 domestic extraction leads to a dramatic decrease in material productivity. Therefore, it
485 is urgent to change economic growth patterns from the past path of high resource
486 input to a more sustainable growth path, such as raising energy efficiency, accelerating
487 structural adjustment and enlarging opening transactions. There is also a bidirectional
488 causal relationship between DEC and MP. The Chinese government has already
489 proposed improvement of material productivity by 15% in 2011-2015. The proposed
490 anticipated target provides an effective “Forced” mechanism for China to accelerate the
491 transformation of development patterns.

492 The current study chose macroeconomic indicators of economic system based on the
493 existing literature and theoretical framework, and constructed an econometric model to study on
494 the impacts of China’s material productivity. It can be augmented to investigate the impacts of
495 microcosmic behaviors on material productivity by agent-based modelling. There are many
496 theoretical models would be probably suitable for further research in an agent-based setting [63,
497 64].

498

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