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Measuring the capacity utilization of China's regional construction industries considering undesirable output.

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1 **Measuring the capacity utilization of China’s regional construction industries**
2 **considering undesirable output**

3 **Abstract**

4 As most industries in developing countries still follow a relatively rough development model,
5 relying on expansionary investment and paying high environmental costs to promote
6 economic growth, they also face the predicament of excess capacity. Conducting capacity
7 utilization (CU) measurement research is the core of dealing with excess capacity. However,
8 most existing research into capacity utilization is concentrated in the manufacturing, coal, and
9 other industries. The quantitative evaluation of the construction industry capacity utilization is
10 very rare, and the environmental impact factors are neglected.

11 This study aims to develop a capacity utilization measurement index system and use it for the
12 measurement of the construction industry capacity utilization. In doing this, based on the
13 undesirable output perspective, it establishes a capacity utilization measurement index system
14 that considers energy consumption and undesirable output (CO₂) for the measurement of
15 construction industry capacity utilization. Two data envelopment analysis-based (DEA-based)
16 difference methods (the “no variable-link difference” and the “adding variable-link
17 difference” methods) are used to measure China’s construction industry capacity utilization
18 between 2011 and 2017.

19 The findings indicate that using the adding variable-link difference method is more accurate
20 than the no variable-link difference method. It is also shown that the underutilization of
21 capacity in China’s construction industry in 2011–2014 is more serious, but it has improved
22 in the past three years. In addition, with the exception of the Jiangsu and Guangxi provinces,
23 there is underutilization of capacity in the construction industry in other provinces and cities
24 in China.

25 This study extends the existing knowledge system of capacity utilization, including the
26 evaluation system, measurement, and assessment of capacity utilization, and management
27 implications. Based on the perspective of undesirable outputs, this study lays a foundation for
28 research into the capacity utilization in various industries by considering environmental
29 factors. This study has practical significance for China and other developing countries to
30 establish a nationwide capacity monitoring system.

31 **Keywords:**

32 Construction industry; capacity utilization; difference method; undesirable output

33 **1. Introduction**

34 Currently, the global economy is at a critical stage of development, change, and adjustment.
35 While promoting economic and technological progress and the development of social

36 productive forces, economic globalization is also facing opportunities and challenges.
37 Especially in recent years, the world economy has been in a state of continuous downturn, and
38 the problem of insufficient kinetic energy for world economic growth has been highlighted
39 (Song et al., 2011). Therefore, changing the existing economic development model has
40 become the consensus of all countries in the world. Industrial development is the source of
41 economic growth. Therefore, implementing industrial optimization and promoting
42 technological innovation is the key to break through the bottleneck of current economic
43 development (Zhao and Gu, 2009). Some developed countries have implemented new energy
44 and new technology measures. For example, the United States has implemented a new energy
45 strategy (Wiser et al., 2011) and Japan has formulated such emerging industry strategies as
46 environmentally friendly energy and information (Morozumi et al., 2008). However, for
47 developing countries, due to the lack of new technology development capabilities and the
48 limited ability of traditional industries to update, most industries still follow a relatively rough
49 development model. These industries rely on the expansion of production factors and high
50 environmental costs to obtain the “quantity and speed” of economic growth, while excess
51 capacity is also widespread. For example, excess capacity in such traditional industries as
52 steel, coal, and cement has become one of the major concerns of Chinese government
53 agencies (Zhang et al., 2018b). For India, due to the economic recession, the sluggish market
54 demand has also led to the excess capacity of the industrial and cement industries. Excess
55 capacity has a negative impact on industry competitiveness and the capital market. It not only
56 causes a large amount of idle production capacity and wastes resources, but also undermines
57 the normal order of the market economy and triggers systemic financial risks. Therefore, in
58 order to achieve the high-quality development of the industry and sustainable economic
59 growth, solving the problem of excess capacity has become extremely urgent.

60 Capacity utilization (CU) is the premise and basis for analyzing excess capacity, which
61 reflects the degree of utilization of production capacity. It is necessary to understand the CU
62 of various industries. For the manufacturing industry, the extent to which installed production
63 equipment produces output at a fixed time can most directly reflect its CU (Yang and
64 Fukuyama, 2018). For the coal industry, the capacity estimated by such factors as equipment
65 progress and resource reserves are considered, and then the ratio of actual coal output to
66 capacity is used to reflect the CU level(Wang et al., 2019). For the construction industry,
67 because the construction products are characterized by single-piece, large size and long cycle
68 (Gao, 2012; Staub-French and Nepal, 2007), the production capacity of the construction
69 industry can't be fully reflected from the perspective of the quantity of construction products,
70 thus determining the particularity of the CU problem in the construction industry. Combined
71 with the characteristics of the construction industry, according to Yang and Fukuyama (2018)
72 definition of CU, this study measures the production capacity of the construction industry
73 from an economic and environmental perspective, and defines the construction industry CU
74 as the difference between actual output and the maximum potential output that can be

75 produced by human and material resources. Further, with reference to Yang et al. (2018) and
76 Yang and Fukuyama (2018), this paper makes the following determinations of the
77 construction industry's degree of CU: when the actual output is equal to potential output,
78 production capacity is considered to be fully utilized; and when the actual output is less than
79 potential output, there is a problem of underutilization of capacity.

80 The measurement and assessment of CU is the core of the problem of excess capacity. Under
81 the influence of the resource environment, it is a very important research task to construct a
82 quantitative scientific evaluation standard to measure the CU of the construction industry and
83 reveal the influence of factor changes on CU. However, existing research also has the
84 following shortcomings: Firstly, the existing measurement of CU is mainly concentrated in
85 such traditional industries as manufacturing. Liu (2011) and Song et al. (2016) measure the
86 Chinese manufacturing industry and its sub-sector CU, but there is no attention paid to the
87 construction industry. Due to the rise of the economy in the construction and service
88 industries, Fevolden (2015) and Nightingale and Poll (2000) believe that it is very important
89 to pay attention to their CU issues, while Cadez (2015) only considers the CU of construction
90 management. Secondly, Wang et al. (2019) directly reflect the status of CU through the ratio
91 of actual production to theoretical production. However, this traditional quantitative
92 evaluation is only applicable to such single-output industries as coal and metallurgy, and not
93 to such complex industries as construction (Javed et al., 2018). Moreover, this method can
94 only reveal the fact of excess capacity, unable to analyze the causes of excess capacity, and
95 can't reveal the impact of factor changes on CU (Diane et al., 2002; Roger and Miguel, 1995).
96 Thirdly, as large-scale investments raise the risk of excess capacity, resources and the
97 environment are also severely damaged. Yang et al. (2018) pointed out that it is necessary to
98 incorporate environmental factors into the CU measure. Further, Wang et al. (2019) and
99 Zhang et al. (2018b) only consider the influence of such factors as technology and resources
100 in their CU study, while ignoring environmental factors (such as CO₂).

101 As an important material production source in China, China's construction industry makes a
102 very important contribution to the Chinese economy (Liu et al., 2013). At the same time, the
103 construction industry not only faces the problem of excess capacity, but also has a negative
104 external impact on the environment during the development process (Fu et al., 2014). The
105 industry accounts for approximately 30% of the country's total energy consumption, and its
106 greenhouse gas emissions account for more than 40% of all industries (Hossain and Poon,
107 2018). Therefore, this study aims to develop a CU measurement index system and use it for
108 the measurement of construction industry CU. Consequently, a construction industry CU
109 index system that takes into account energy consumption and undesirable outputs is
110 developed and used for the measurement of construction industry CU. Specifically, using two
111 DEA-based difference methods, China's construction industry CU between 2011 and 2017 is
112 analyzed, and the specific reasons for the underutilization of capacity are identified.

113 Additionally, the advantages and disadvantages of the two DEA methods are compared. This
114 study provides a scientific evaluation standard for the construction industry CU, and provides
115 a more scientific basis for formulating policies to improve the regional construction industry
116 CU. The research conclusions also provide a reference for the improvement of CU in other
117 industries. This study extends the existing knowledge system of CU, including the evaluation
118 system, the measurement and assessment of CU, and the management implications. Based on
119 the perspective of undesirable outputs, the study lays a foundation for research into CU in
120 various industries, considering environmental factors. It also provides practical guidance for
121 China and other developing countries to establish a nationwide capacity monitoring system.

122 The structure of the paper is as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature relating to
123 productivity, energy efficiency, and CU in the construction industry. Section 3 introduces the
124 DEA-based methods, the description of the CU indicators, and CU evaluation index system.
125 Section 4 analyzes the results of an empirical analysis of China's construction industry and
126 regional development layer. Section 5 provides a discussion of the results, with concluding
127 remarks contained in the final section.

128 **2. Literature review**

129 *2.1. Productivity in the construction industry*

130 Research into productivity in the construction industry is very expansive, especially that
131 which concerns the factors and trends affecting the industry's productivity. Ge et al. (2010),
132 for instance, find that there are significant regional differences in the impact of the ecological
133 environment. Zhang et al. (2018a) use the Hansen threshold regression model to test the
134 threshold effect of environmental regulation on regional construction industry productivity,
135 and finding that scale efficiency is the most affected. Yan et al. (2017) use the Ghosh model
136 to evaluate the sustainability and the sensitivity of China's regional differences in 2007,
137 finding Beijing and Hebei to be the most and least productive areas respectively. Liao et al.
138 (2012) and Tan et al. (2015) use the Malmquist method to analyze the growth characteristics
139 of China's construction industry productivity and its influencing factors, revealing that
140 technological progress has a major impact on productivity growth.

141 Researchers have also explored trends in construction industry productivity in China, with
142 Dai and Chen (2010), for instance, finding that the productivity growth rate of the
143 construction industry in 30 provinces and cities in China was relatively low in 1994–2006.
144 Some have also obtained different research results. For example, Lin et al. (2003) find that the
145 productivity of the construction industry in Shanghai and Zhejiang increased significantly
146 during 1999–2000, while the performance of the Guangdong industry with a larger production
147 scale is only moderate. Chancellor and Lu (2016) find that the productivity of China's
148 construction industry increased significantly from 1995 to 2012, with the highest and lowest
149 being in East and North China respectively. Hu and Liu (2018) explore the trends and

150 effectiveness of China's construction industry productivity from 1995 to 2014, also finding
151 that the country's overall productivity is rising, with productivity gains in the eastern region
152 being the most significant. Fan and Yu (2017) also obtain the same results. In short,
153 construction industry productivity is significantly different between China's provinces and
154 cities, with overall productivity increasing.

155 *2.2. Energy efficiency in the construction industry*

156 The rapid expansion of China's construction activities has increased the industry's energy
157 consumption and environmental pollution. Consequently, research has focused on the
158 industry's regional performance, mainly in terms of energy utilization and particularly
159 centering on energy efficiency and conservation potential. For example, Chen et al. (2016)
160 examine regional energy utilization rates and their changing trends, showing energy
161 management and utilization levels to be relatively mature. Based on the circular economy
162 method, Liu and Song (2013) find that the energy recycling rate of China's construction
163 industry had an upward trend during 2006–2010, but the growth rate was slow. Fu and Huang
164 (2010) analyze energy utilization rates in both residential and public buildings at different
165 stages of their life cycle, finding that the rate during construction and use has a greater
166 potential for improvement. Lu et al. (2015) use the Malmquist Productivity Index to measure
167 the industry's energy efficiency in China's provinces and cities during 2005–2012, finding
168 that energy efficiency has much potential for improvement.

169 To overcome the problem of inefficient energy use in China's construction industry, research
170 has focused on the solutions needed to reduce this and CO₂ emissions. Chen et al. (2013), for
171 instance, reveal the best way to reduce energy consumption is by controlling the energy
172 consumption of heating and ventilation. Feng et al. (2014) measure the energy efficiency of
173 China's construction industry from 2004 to 2011, finding that optimizing the energy
174 consumption structure is an effective way to save energy and reduce consumption. Lin and
175 Liu (2015) use the full-factor non-radial directional distance function to estimate the
176 industry's potential of energy saving, revealing that the decline in energy intensity is the main
177 factor reducing carbon dioxide emissions. Du et al. (2017) find that the energy rebound effect
178 of China's construction industry has a fluctuating downward trend, showing that the adoption
179 of appropriate energy tax and energy price reforms can effectively increase the potential to
180 save energy.

181 To summarize, therefore, there has been a considerable amount of research into the
182 performance of China's regional construction industries in terms of energy utilization and
183 productivity. In contrast, however, the body of knowledge concerning their CU performance
184 is still far from complete.

185 2.3. Capacity utilization

186 Chamberlin was the first to propose the concept of excess capacity in his study of productivity
187 under a monopolistic competition structure, pointing out that, when competitors develop to
188 equilibrium, judging where excess capacity occurs can be based on whether output is less than
189 that of a fully competitive manufacturer (Chamberlin, 1933). Subsequently, the academic
190 community has gradually carried out more research into CU and excess capacity. For
191 instance, measuring capacity utilization (CU) can now be divided into direct and indirect
192 methods. Phillips (1963) and Perry (1973) summarize research data from five institutions in
193 the United States, most of which use direct assays to obtain CU by collecting and analyzing
194 corporate data. The most notable feature of the direct measurement method is that it is
195 objective, but the true extent of the enterprise data affects the accuracy of the CU
196 measurement results. In addition, this method also requires a great deal of manpower and
197 resources to conduct long-term investigations covering a large number of enterprises. As a
198 result, direct measurement has not been widely adopted, and scholars usually prefer more
199 objective and indirect measurement methods.

200 Indirect measurement includes the peak, function, and DEA methods. The former is often
201 used for exploring CU problems. For instance, Cassels (1937) and Morrison (1985) employ
202 the peak method to reflect the CU of the automotive industry, while Klein (1960) uses it for
203 calculating the CU of cyclical fluctuations in actual output. For the function method, Klein
204 and Preston (1967) use it to estimate capacity output to obtain manufacturing industry CU.
205 Meanwhile, Charnes et al. (1978) use DEA to construct the production frontier and measure
206 its CU based on the fixed capital of the production unit; Färe et al. (1989, 1994) extend this to
207 obtain the CU of each variable input directly by estimation. Subsequently, some scholars use
208 the DEA method in the CU study of fishing vessels to identify the reasons for the inefficiency
209 of the fishery economy (Lindebo et al., 2007; Tsitsika et al., 2008).

210 Other studies examine CU from the perspective of the economic output capabilities of
211 different industries. Zhang et al. (2009), for example, find that the use of collaborative
212 optimization of off-site CU strategies can effectively improve the interests of airlines.
213 Karagiannis (2015) measures the CU of a sample of Greek public hospitals, revealing that the
214 underutilization of caregivers and doctors has led to an excess capacity in the hospitals. Yang
215 and Fukuyama (2018), based on the generalized CU index, find significant regional
216 differences in China's production potential. Liu (2011) argues that the impact of consumer
217 demand will increase China's manufacturing CU, while strong consumer demand is the basis
218 for large-scale investment. Song et al. (2016) measure the CU of 12 sub-sectors in China's
219 manufacturing industry through such factors as fixed assets, manpower, and energy
220 consumption, finding that excess capacity in the coal, oil, and nuclear fuel industries is the
221 most serious. Zhang et al. (2018b) estimate the Chinese coal CU from 1990 to 2014 by
222 considering such factors as technology, capital, manpower, and time, finding that the

223 decoupling effect of coal CU and China's economic growth is related to the decoupling index.
224 Similarly, Wang et al. (2019) measure the capacity of the coal industry through such factors
225 as equipment advancement and resource reserves, and reflects the CU by the ratio of actual
226 coal production to estimated capacity. However, despite this extensive research activity into
227 CU, it is mainly focused on the manufacturing industry, with no concern for the construction
228 industry.

229 *2.4. Gaps in the knowledge*

230 In summary, the existing research mainly has the following limitations: (1) it mainly assesses
231 the performance of the construction industry from the aspects of productivity and energy
232 efficiency, and research into the measurement of the construction industry's CU is lacking;
233 (2) an evaluation index system with multi-input and output is not used to measure CU, and the
234 influence of undesirable output is not known-causing large differences in the measurement
235 results; and (3) traditional quantitative evaluations, such as by the ratio method, can only
236 reveal the reality of excess capacity-it is unable to comprehensively analyze the causes of
237 excess capacity, and can't reveal the impact of factor changes on CU. In response, this study
238 addresses this gap in knowledge by: (1) establishing a multi-input and multi-output
239 construction industry CU evaluation index system that considers undesirable output and
240 energy consumption, and improves the accuracy of the CU measurement results; (2) utilizing
241 two DEA model-based methods to measure the CU of China's construction industry between
242 2011 and 2017, determine the degree of CU, and compare the advantages and disadvantages
243 of the two methods; and (3) identifying and analyzing the specific causes of underutilization
244 of capacity through factor decomposition of CU, and suggesting targeted management
245 implication.

246 **3. Methodology**

247 Both the "no variable-link difference" and the "adding variable-link difference" methods are
248 used to measure China's construction industry capacity utilization (CU). Both are based on
249 the DEA model, which characterizes the degree of utilization of the industry by estimating the
250 difference between the industry's potential and actual output. The adding variable-link
251 difference method increases the link between the variable input and undesirable output, to
252 reflect the industry's actual production process more realistically. In order to judge and
253 analyze the utilization status of each decision-making unit (DMU), the evaluation criteria of
254 the CU indicator are specified. 2011–2017 panel data is used in the analysis, obtained from
255 national, local, and industry statistical yearbooks (NBS, 2012–2018; NBSMEP, 2012–2018)
256 available at <http://cyfd.cnki.com.cn/>. To enhance the generalizability of study, the panel data
257 comprises of 30 provinces and cities, as listed in Table 3.

258 *3.1. Method I: the no variable-link difference method*

259 Yang and Fukuyama (2018) propose a differential method based on the DEA model and apply
 260 it to the measurement of the CU of China's manufacturing industry. On the basis of Yang et
 261 al.'s (2018) research, this paper improves the model, by assuming there are H decision-
 262 making units $DMU (H = 1, \dots, h)$, with the variable inputs $v = (v_1, \dots, v_N) \in R_N^+$, fixed
 263 inputs $f = (f_1, \dots, f_p) \in R_p^+$, desirable outputs $d = (d_1, \dots, d_M) \in R_M^+$, and undesirable
 264 outputs $u = (u_1, \dots, u_l) \in R_l^+$ set to establish the Production Possibility Sets:

$$265 \quad \{(v, f, d, u) | (v, f) \text{ can produce } (d, u)\} \quad (1)$$

266 This reflects the consumption of certain variable inputs and fixed inputs in the actual
 267 production process, which can produce both desirable and undesirable outputs. According to
 268 Shephard's (1974) joint weak disposability (JWD) attributes, the desirable and undesirable
 269 outputs are treated as:

$$270 \quad \text{JWD: } (v, f, d, u) \in T \text{ and } 1 \geq \varphi \geq 0 \rightarrow (v, f, \varphi d, \varphi u) \in T \quad (2)$$

271 where φ represents the abatement factors, which means that while the undesirable outputs are
 272 reduced, the desirable outputs are also reduced. Referring to Kuosmanen's (2005) study, the
 273 limitation of the common expansion factor in the hypothesis is relaxed, allowing the
 274 expansion factor φ to be varied in the different DMUs. Let $v_{nj}, f_{pj}, u_{lj}, d_{mj}$ be the observed
 275 variables of the DMU_j , under the assumption that the variable returns to scale (VRS; the DEA
 276 production possibility set can be expressed as

$$277 \quad T_1 = \left\{ (v, f, d, u) \mid \begin{array}{l} v_n \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} \lambda_j, \forall n; \\ f_p \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \lambda_j, \forall p; \\ d_m \leq \sum_{j=1}^J \varphi_j^h d_{mj} \lambda_j, \forall m; \\ u_i = \sum_{j=1}^J \varphi_j^h u_{ij} \lambda_j, \forall i; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j = 1; \lambda \geq 0; 1 \geq \varphi_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j \end{array} \right\} \quad (3)$$

278 Furthermore, based on Chung et al. (1997), the direction vector is set to $g = (g^a, g^b)$. This
 279 shows that, under the production technology T condition, the direction vector g is used to
 280 reduce the undesirable outputs while increasing desirable outputs, thereby improving the
 281 production status. The direction distance function of DMU_j is expressed as

$$282 \quad \theta_0(v_0, f_0, d_0, u_0; g) = \max\{\beta | (v_0, f_0, d_0 + \beta g^b, u_0 - \beta g^a; g) \in \hat{T}, \beta \text{ free}\}$$

$$283 \quad = \max \left\{ \beta \mid \begin{array}{l} v_{n0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} \lambda_j, \forall n; \\ f_{p0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \lambda_j, \forall p; \\ d_{m0} + \beta g_m^b \leq \sum_{j=1}^J \varphi_j^h d_{mj} \lambda_j, \forall m; \\ u_{i0} - \beta g_i^a = \sum_{j=1}^J \varphi_j^h u_{ij} \lambda_j, \forall i; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j = 1; \lambda \geq 0; 1 \geq \varphi_j^k \geq 0, \forall k \forall j; \beta \text{ free} \end{array} \right\} \quad (4)$$

284 The above nonlinear programming is transformed into a linear programming by introducing a
 285 linear rule of $s_j^h = \varphi_j^h \lambda_j \geq 0 (\forall h \forall j)$, $r_j^h = (1 - \varphi_j^h) \lambda_j = \lambda_j - s_j^h (\forall h \forall j)$, $r_j^h \geq 0$, $\lambda_j =$
 286 $\sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) \geq 0$, $\sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j = \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) = 1$. Under the condition that the
 287 variable inputs are certain (restricted), the directional output distance function can be
 288 expressed as

$$289 \quad \theta_0(v_0, f_0, d_0, u_0; g)$$

$$290 \quad = \max \left\{ \beta \mid \begin{array}{l} v_{n0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) \cdot \forall n; \\ f_{p0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) \cdot \forall p; \\ d_{m0} + \beta g_m^b \leq \sum_{j=1}^J d_{mj} \sum_{h=1}^H s_j^h \cdot \forall m; \\ u_{i0} - \beta g_i^a = \sum_{j=1}^J u_{ij} \sum_{h=1}^H s_j^h \cdot \forall i \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) = 1; r_j^h + s_j^h \geq 0; \forall h \forall j; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H s_j^h \leq 1, r_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j; s_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j, \beta \text{ free} \end{array} \right\} \quad (5)$$

291 Similarly, in line with Fare et al. (1989, 1994) and Kirkley et al. (2002), the constraints on
 292 variable inputs are removed, allowing them to change freely. Under the condition that the
 293 variable inputs are unrestricted, the directional output distance function can be expressed as

$$294 \quad \widehat{\theta}_0(v_0, f_0, d_0, u_0; g) = \max\{\beta \mid (v_0, f_0, d_0 + \beta g^b, u_0 - \beta g^a; g) \in \widehat{T}, \beta \text{ free}\}$$

$$295 \quad = \max \left\{ \beta \mid \begin{array}{l} \delta_n^v v_{n0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} (r_j^h + s_j^h) \cdot \forall n; \\ f_{p0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) \cdot \forall p; \\ d_{m0} + \beta g_m^b \leq \sum_{j=1}^J d_{mj} \sum_{h=1}^H s_j^h \cdot \forall m; \\ u_{i0} - \beta g_i^a = \sum_{j=1}^J u_{ij} s_j^h \cdot \forall i; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) = 1; r_j^h + s_j^h \geq 0; \forall h \forall j, \delta_n^v \geq 0, \forall n; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H s_j^h \leq 1, r_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j; s_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j, \beta \text{ free} \end{array} \right\} \quad (6)$$

296 Of these, δ_n^v represents the degree of change in variable inputs when the potential desirable
 297 outputs reach a maximum. Use * to indicate the optimal solution sought, according to the
 298 original variable inputs (v_{no}), the corrected optimal variable inputs (indicated by v_{no}^*) can be
 299 calculated by

$$300 \quad v_{no}^* = v_{no} * \delta_n^{v*} \quad (7)$$

301 $\theta_0(v_0, f_0, d_0, u_0; g)$ represents the actual production capacity of the construction industry
 302 when variable inputs are limited. $\widehat{\theta}_0(v_0, f_0, d_0, u_0; g)$ represents the maximum potential
 303 production capacity of the construction industry when variable inputs are unlimited, with

$$304 \quad CU = \widehat{\theta}_0 - \theta_0 \quad (8)$$

305

306 3.2. Method II: adding variable-link difference method

307 In the actual production process, the undesirable output of the construction industry is mainly
 308 derived from its energy consumption. Therefore, in order to better treat the actual production
 309 situation and improve the accuracy of the CU measurement, this study links the variable
 310 inputs directly related to the undesirable outputs in the model.

311 Also consider variable inputs v , fixed inputs f , expected outputs d , and undesired outputs u
 312 and Shephard's (1974) Joint Weak Dispositionability (JWD) attributes. Based on formula (4),
 313 the variable inputs $v_h^u (h = 1, \dots, H)$ directly related to the undesirable outputs $u_h^v (h = 1,$
 314 $\dots, H)$ are linked. Referring to the study of Chung et al. (1997), the direction vector $g =$
 315 (g^a, g^b) is introduced, and the direction distance function of the adding variable link DMU_j is

$$316 \quad D_0(v_0^u, u_0^v, v_0, f_0, d_0; g) = \max \left\{ \beta \mid \begin{array}{l} v_{h0}^u \geq \sum_{j=1}^J \partial_j^k v_{hj}^u \lambda_j, \forall h; \\ u_{h0}^v - \beta g_k^a = \sum_{j=1}^J \partial_j^k u_{hj}^v \lambda_j, \forall h; \\ v_{n0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} \lambda_j, \forall n; \\ f_{p0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \lambda_j, \forall p; \\ d_{m0} + \beta g_m^b \leq \sum_{j=1}^J d_{mj} \lambda_j, \forall m; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j = 1; \lambda_j \geq 0; \partial_j^k \geq 1, \forall k \forall j; \beta \text{ free} \end{array} \right\} \quad (9)$$

317 where $\lambda = (\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_j)$ is a vector of intensity variables and ∂_j^k is an amplification factor
 318 that enables the link between v_h^u and u_h^v . Following the advice of Kuosmanen (2005), ∂_j^k is
 319 allowed to change in different DMUs. Introducing the linear rules $r_j^h = \frac{1}{H} \partial_j^h \lambda_j (\forall h \forall j)$,

$$320 \quad s_j^h = (\lambda_j / H) - \frac{1}{H} \partial_j^h \lambda_j = (\lambda_j / H) - r_j^h (\forall h \forall j), \quad \sum_{H=1}^h s_j^h = \lambda_j - \sum_{H=1}^h r_j^h, \lambda_j =$$

321 $\sum_{H=1}^h (r_j^h + s_j^h) \geq 0$, under the condition that the variable inputs are certain (restricted), the
 322 linear directional output distance function can be expressed as

$$323 \quad D_0(v_0^u, u_0^v, v_0, f_0, d_0; g) = \max \left\{ \beta \mid \begin{array}{l} v_{h0}^u \geq H \sum_{j=1}^J v_{hj}^u r_j^h, \forall h; \\ u_{h0}^v - \beta g_h^a = H \sum_{j=1}^J u_{hj}^v r_j^h, \forall h; \\ v_{n0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) \forall n; \\ f_{p0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h), \forall p; \\ d_{m0} + \beta g_m^b \leq \sum_{j=1}^J d_{mj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h), \forall m; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) = 1; r_j^h + s_j^h \geq 0; \forall h \forall j; \\ r_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j; s_j^h \leq 0, \forall h \forall j, \beta \text{ free} \end{array} \right\} \quad (10)$$

324 Now release the constraints of variable inputs under the condition that the variable inputs are
 325 unrestricted, the directional output distance function can be expressed as

$$326 \quad \widehat{D}_0(v_0^u, u_0^v, f_0, v_0, d_0; g) = \max\{\beta | (v_0^u, u_0^v - \beta g^a, f_0, v_0, d_0 + \beta g^b; g) \in \widehat{T}, \beta \text{ free}\}$$

$$327 \quad = \max \left\{ \beta \mid \begin{array}{l} \delta_h^{vu} v_{h0}^u \geq H \sum_{j=1}^J v_{hj}^u r_j^h, \forall h; \\ u_{h0}^v - \beta g_h^a = H \sum_{j=1}^J u_{hj}^v r_j^h, \forall h; \\ f_{p0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J f_{pj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h), \forall p; \\ \delta_n^v v_{n0} \geq \sum_{j=1}^J v_{nj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) \forall n; \\ d_{m0} + \beta g_m^b \leq \sum_{j=1}^J d_{mj} \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h), \forall m; \\ \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{h=1}^H (r_j^h + s_j^h) = 1; r_j^h + s_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j \\ r_j^h \geq 0, \forall h \forall j; s_j^h \leq 0, \forall h \forall j; \delta_h^{vu} \geq 0, \forall h; \delta_n^v \geq 0, \forall n; \beta \text{ free} \end{array} \right\} \quad (11)$$

328 where δ_h^{vu} and δ_n^v represent the correction coefficients of the linked variable inputs and the
 329 variable inputs respectively. Use * to indicate the optimal solution sought, according to the
 330 link variable inputs and variable inputs (v_{h0}^u, v_{n0}), the corrected optimal link variable inputs
 331 and variable inputs (indicated by v_{h0}^{u*}, v_{n0}^*) can be obtained by

$$332 \quad \begin{cases} v_{h0}^{u*} = v_{h0}^u * \delta_h^{vu*} \\ v_{n0}^* = v_{n0} * \delta_n^{v*} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

333 Similarly, in the adding variable-link difference method, combined with the definition of CU
 334 in the construction industry, the CU indicator is defined as the difference between \widehat{D}_0 and D_0 ,
 335 i.e.,

$$336 \quad CU = \widehat{D}_0 - D_0 \quad (13)$$

337

338 3.3. Criteria of the CU indicator

339 CU = 0 means that the evaluated DMU can take advantage of the current fixed inputs to
 340 produce the maximum amount of output. On the other hand, CU > 0 indicates that the
 341 assessed DMU is experiencing underutilization of capacity, including production and excess
 342 capacity, in which the fixed input is not fully utilized and the production potential is not fully
 343 explored. A DMU with excess capacity indicates it is overused for fixed input.

344 According to the model, $\widehat{\theta}_0 \geq \theta_0$, and in line with Yang and Fukuyama (2018), we define CU >
 345 0, $\delta_h^{vu} \geq 1$ ($\forall h$) and $\delta_n^v \geq 1$ ($\forall n$) at the same time, indicating there is excess capacity in the
 346 corresponding DMU (Kirkley et al., 2002; Yang and Fukuyama, 2018). For an ineffective
 347 DMU without excess capacity, the formula (8) in the case of Method I can be rewritten as

$$348 \quad \widehat{\theta}_0 = CU + \theta_0 \quad (14)$$

349 where CU=0 means that the current DMU is facing a technical low problem, and CU > 0
 350 indicates that the current DMU has both underutilization of capacity and low technical
 351 problems.

352 *3.4. Data and variables*

353 As mentioned previously, a multi-input and multi-output construction industry CU evaluation
354 index system that considers carbon dioxide emissions is proposed. This consists of four parts:
355 fixed input, variable input, desirable output, and undesirable output. Table 1 summarizes the
356 existing input and output variables. For the input, the variables mostly involve fixed assets,
357 manpower, materials, and energy, while the output variables are mostly the total output value
358 of the construction industry, profits, and construction land. Very few studies consider CO₂ as
359 undesirable output. The input variables are further divided into fixed variable inputs, while
360 the output variable is further divided into desirable and undesirable output, all of which form
361 the construction industry CU evaluation index system (from the perspective of CO₂ being an
362 undesirable output), as shown in Table 2.

363 **4. Empirical results**

364 *4.1. Analysis of China's overall construction industry*

365 Taking the adding variable-link difference method as an example, the \hat{D}_0, D_0 of each
366 province/city are estimated by the model, and the capacity utilization (CU) value is obtained
367 according to eqn (13). Based on this, the CU status is judged in combination with the criteria
368 of CU indicator. As shown in Table 2 in the Appendix, the average 2011–2017 China
369 construction industry CU using the adding variable-link is 0.3833. This indicates that the
370 industry has not fully utilized its production capacity, and thus there is a greater room for
371 improvement in its CU. Fig. 1 shows the average CU trend over the study period. It is divided
372 into two phases. In the first phase (2011–2014), the average CU value increased from 0.2346
373 to 0.4881, indicating a decrease in the CU use of its variable input to engender capacity
374 production output. In the second phase (2015–2017), the average CU value dropped from
375 0.4178 to 0.3684, indicating an increase in CU, but still with potential for improvement.

376 Table 3 in the Appendix shows the 2011–2017 CU for various provinces and cities. Fig. 2
377 provides a visual illustration, which fully reflects the changes experienced. It can be seen that
378 the Jiangsu and Guangxi provinces CU were zero over the study period, indicating that the
379 production potential in the two provinces was fully utilized, and there was no shortage of CU.
380 However, the average CU in the other 28 provinces and cities was greater than zero. This
381 indicates an underutilization of capacity. In addition, because they encompass most of China's
382 geographical land space, it is likely that the majority of the country's regional construction
383 industries have an underutilized capacity. Therefore, for those with underutilized capacity,
384 optimizing the variable input allocation activities should effectively improve their overall CU
385 level. For instance, as shown in Fig. 2, Hainan's 2011–2012 CU was zero, indicating a fully
386 utilized variable input for capacity production during the period. However, the CU became
387 positive from 2013, indicating that its level of construction industry CU declined since 2013.

388 Table 3 in the Appendix gives the ranking of the average 2011–2017 CU of the provinces and
389 cities; the last Figure in Fig. 2 also clearly reflects the distribution of the CU averages. This
390 shows that three provinces have a relatively high average CU (>0.5). Of these, Hubei has the
391 highest average CU of 0.6504, followed by Zhejiang (0.6229), both indicating an
392 underutilization of capacity. Meanwhile, Jiangsu, Guangxi, and Inner Mongolia have an
393 average CU of less than 0.2, indicating the full utilization of their CU per variable inputs.

394 *4.2. Analysis of China's regional development*

395 With the continuous deepening of the economic restructuring of China's construction
396 industry, the provincial and city CUs have experienced some dynamic changes. At the same
397 time, the construction industries in each region compete with each other and develop closely
398 (Wells, 1984). To provide a more systematic and comprehensive display of the overall
399 development of the regional construction industries, regional CU differences are analyzed
400 using the adding variable-link difference method. In doing this, the country is divided into
401 eight regions in line with their geographical and economic characteristics as shown in
402 Table 3(Wang and Wei, 2014). This shows the average 2011–2017 CU in each region. The
403 regions with a higher average CU include the central Yangtze River area, northeast China,
404 indicating a relative underutilization of their production capacity. The average CU in
405 southwest China and the coastal areas of east China is low, indicating that these regions have
406 more fully utilized capacity per variable inputs. In other regions, including the coastal areas of
407 south China, the central Yellow River area, northwest China, and the coastal areas of north
408 China, the average CU is greater than 0.35, indicating that the production potential in these
409 regions has not been fully exploited, and there is much scope for improvement.

410 Fig. 3 provides a visual illustration of the average CU in each region. Based on the inputs and
411 outputs, each region has different degrees of excess capacity. Although the excess capacity in
412 southwest China is not high, it also needs to be corrected. The excess capacity in the central
413 Yangtze River area is the most serious, and requires urgent intervention and timely control. In
414 addition to the higher construction industry utilization in Guangxi, southwest China, and
415 Jiangsu in the coastal areas of east China, provinces and cities in other regions have different
416 levels of CU improvement potential. In particular, production in Hubei in the central part of
417 the Yangtze River, Zhejiang in the coastal areas of east China, Tianjin in the coastal areas of
418 north China, and Jilin in northeast China need urgent improvement.

419 When the CU value is measured by the adding variable-link difference method, the correction
420 coefficient (indicated by δ_{nv}^* and δ_{hvu}^*) of each input variable can be obtained. Combined
421 with the criteria of the CU indicator, the current status of CU can be determined. According to
422 the original variable input data (indicated by v_n, v_{hu}), the corrected optimal input (indicated
423 by v_n^*, v_{hu}^*) can be estimated by eqn (12). This present study takes Hubei, Tianjin, and
424 Zhejiang as examples to explore the feasible ways of improving CU. The annual optimal
425 variable input, index correction factor, and raw input data in the Hubei construction industry

426 are shown in Table 4 in the Appendix. Based on the annual values of δkvu^* and δkv^* ,
427 combined with the defined criteria of the CU indicators, there is no excess capacity in Hubei.
428 Using the decomposition of eqn (13), the reason for Hubei's underutilized capacity is
429 technical inefficiency and underutilization of fixed inputs to generate CU. The revised
430 optimal variable input shows that the revised number of employed people, total assets, and
431 total power of the machines and equipment have increased significantly. This means that if
432 Hubei's construction industry increases its corresponding human, material, and financial
433 resources within a certain range, it may be able to exploit its production potential fully. In
434 addition, Table 4 in the Appendix also shows that, compared with actual annual energy input,
435 the revised optimal energy input in Hubei has been reduced by different degrees. This
436 indicates that the energy consumption and carbon emissions in the Hubei construction
437 industry needs to be reduced to exploit its CU fully.

438 Similarly, in the case of the Tianjin construction industry (Table 5 in Appendix), combined
439 with the defined criteria of the CU indicators, there is no excess capacity. The revised number
440 of employed people in the construction industry there has grown significantly, which means
441 that Tianjin needs to increase its CU by increasing the corresponding amount of construction
442 industry personnel.

443 In the case of the Zhejiang construction industry (Table 6 in Appendix), there is excess CU,
444 indicating an overuse of fixed input. The result of the revised optimal variable input value
445 only means that the Zhejiang construction industry is facing excess capacity problems and
446 does not represent the ideal value of the input variables. By way of suggestion to the
447 provinces with excess capacity, the Chinese government needs to strengthen its supply-side
448 structural reforms, take corresponding measures to limit excessive investment, and use such
449 fixed inputs as land to reduce the industry's excess capacity.

450 **5. Discussion**

451 This study measures China's construction industry capacity utilization (CU) using two DEA
452 methods. The first (Method I) is the no variable-link difference method (CU value estimated
453 by Method I, shown in Table 7 of the Appendix), and the second (Method II) is the adding
454 variable-link difference method. Compared with Method I, Method II increases the link
455 between variable inputs and undesirable outputs, and further clarifies the source of
456 undesirable outputs. Based on the 2011–2017 annual CU in each province and city, the
457 differences between Methods I and II are analyzed as shown in the nuclear density graph in
458 Fig. 4.

459 The CU is either equal, or close to, zero-indicating that the DMUs are fully utilizing the
460 current variable input to produce the corresponding output. Fig. 4 shows that, between 2011
461 and 2012, the proportion of provinces and cities that used Method II to make full use of the
462 current variable input to produce the corresponding output is higher than Method I, while the

463 methods are juxtaposed beyond 2013. Still, between 2011 and 2017, the maximum CU value
464 measured using Method I was greater than Method II. Furthermore, the CU distribution of the
465 Method II measure is more concentrated than with Method I. Between 2011 and 2017, the
466 peak of the CU distribution curve obtained by Method II is on the left side of the peak of the
467 CU distribution curve obtained by Method I, which indicates that the overall CU obtained by
468 Method II is smaller than by Method I.

469 Considering the relationship between partial variable input and undesirable output, the
470 underutilization of capacity situation is more optimistic, indicating a smaller deviation
471 between potential output and actual output. Yang et al. (2018) had similar findings in their
472 study of the measurement of China's manufacturing industry CU. This is due to the increase
473 in constraint conditions in the process of identifying the optimal output of linear programming
474 based on DEA. Method II establishes a link between undesirable output and energy
475 consumption, which adds constraints to obtaining the optimal solution by linear
476 programming, and reduces the potential output measurement results. In the actual production
477 process in the construction industry, undesirable output often occurs from one or more inputs.
478 Establishing the link between undesirable output and variable input can more accurately
479 reflect the actual production process and improve the accuracy and rationality of CU
480 measurement.

481 Furthermore, it is found that the temporal changes in China's construction industry average
482 CU are divided into two phases. The first (2011–2014) shows an increase in CU value,
483 indicating that the problem of underutilization of capacity in the construction industry is more
484 serious. In the second phase (2015–2017), the CU value decreased, indicating the problem
485 had improved in the past three years. In addition, there are significant regional differences in
486 CU, which may be explained by the July 2014 Ministry of Housing and Urban-Rural
487 Development issuing its Several Opinions on Promoting the Development and Reform in the
488 Construction Industry. This reform promoted the establishment of a national construction
489 market system, aimed at eliminating market barriers, opening up markets, enabling
490 competition in an orderly manner, and enhancing the industry's CU. In addition, the
491 difference in production levels is an important cause of regional CU differences. There are
492 two reasons for the inefficiency of the DMU capacity: technical limitations and the
493 underutilization of capacity. However, there is a large regional difference in the industry's
494 productivity levels in China (Chen et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018a), which has the effect of
495 exacerbating regional CU differences.

496 Based on the analysis results, the following recommendations are proposed for China's
497 construction industry.

498 (1) The adoption of policies conserving building energy, and improvement in the
499 incentive mechanisms for low carbon development. It has been established that

500 the application of energy-saving technologies can promote the improvement in
501 building construction technology (Li and Feng, 2018). Therefore, areas in the
502 industry with underutilized capacity can improve their CU using new
503 environmental protection materials and advanced green energy-saving
504 technologies.

505 (2) The introduction a talent introduction strategy. Pan et al. (2019) and Song (2017),
506 for example, found that deepening the reform of the talent management system
507 and adopting a technology introduction strategy could effectively enhance the
508 progress of the industry. Strengthening policy guidance to help improve the
509 utilization of capacity areas can attract more highly skilled talents to the industry,
510 help optimize the labor structure, and fully exploit the production potential of
511 regional construction industries.

512 (3) Optimize the industry business model. Ran et al. (2012), for example, found that
513 the effective use of fixed assets greatly encourages an increase in the industry's
514 added value. Therefore, breaking through the single business model of
515 engineering construction services, organically combining engineering construction
516 with capital management, and broadening capital channels should help optimize
517 resource allocation and enhance industry CU.

518 (4) Establish a competitive mechanism for low-carbon development in the industry.
519 CO₂ emissions are an important reason for restricting the further improvement of
520 the industry (Lin and Liu, 2015), and their reduction provides a viable means of
521 increasing the industry's CU. Establishing a competitive mechanism for low-
522 carbon development will help stimulate innovation in green building technologies
523 and have a positive effect on the industry's sustainable development (Meng et al.,
524 2018).

525 **6. Conclusion**

526 Industrial optimization is the key to unlock the bottleneck of current economic development.
527 However, for many developing countries, due to their lack of technological innovation,
528 industry still follows a relatively rough development model. The large-scale investment

529 expansion in many industries has led to excess capacity and the increasingly severe problems
530 of high energy consumption and severe pollution, which have seriously hindered the
531 sustainable development of the economy. It can be seen that under the premise of resource
532 and environmental constraints, mastering the status quo of industrial CU is an important
533 prerequisite for coping with excess capacity and realizing the high-quality development of the
534 national economy.

535 Based on the perspective of undesirable outputs, this paper establishes a construction industry
536 CU indicator system considering energy consumption and undesirable output for the first
537 time, and measures the construction industry CU, which provides a scientific basis for the
538 formulation of development policy for managing regional construction industry CU. Using
539 two DEA-based difference methods and 2011–2017 China panel data, the study extends the
540 existing knowledge system of CU including the evaluation system, and the measurement and
541 assessment of CU. In addition, the study provides a reference for CU research in various
542 industries considering environmental factors, and has practical significance for establishing a
543 nationwide CU monitoring system for China and other developing countries. The study
544 mainly draws the following conclusions:

- 545 (1) CU measurement using the adding variable-link difference method is more accurate than
546 the no variable-link difference method. The adding variable-link difference method more
547 accurately reflects the actual production process and helps improve the accuracy and
548 rationality of the measurement process.
- 549 (2) At an average CU of 0.3833, the capacity of China's construction industry between 2011
550 and 2014 was underutilized due to an inappropriate variable input allocation, but
551 improved thereafter.
- 552 (3) With the exception of Jiangsu and Guangxi, the Chinese construction industries in
553 different provinces and cities are facing the problem of underutilization of capacity.
- 554 (4) Similarly, regional construction industries have different CU. The Yangtze River and the
555 Northeast China regions are facing the more serious problem of underutilization of
556 capacity compared with Southwest China.

557 Based on these conclusions, it is suggested that more effective policy measures are needed to
558 improve construction industry CU, as this will go a long way towards stemming the industry's
559 high-energy emissions. Also needed is a nationwide monitoring system of the industry's CU,
560 as this will enable the timely determination of regional CU and allow the targeted adoption of
561 corresponding policy measures of great significance for the improvement of the industry's
562 utilization levels. In addition, the inappropriate allocation of variable inputs is the main reason
563 for underutilized capacity, and therefore an optimized variable input allocation will provide
564 an improvement. Moreover, considering the large regional differences in construction
565 industry CU, there is a need for such policy support as developing talents, technology, and
566 capital channels. Future research is also needed to examine the impact of different
567 management policies.

568 **Declaration of competing interest**

569 The authors declare no conflict of interest for the order and cooperation.

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595 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

596 The supplementary data found in this article can be found online at
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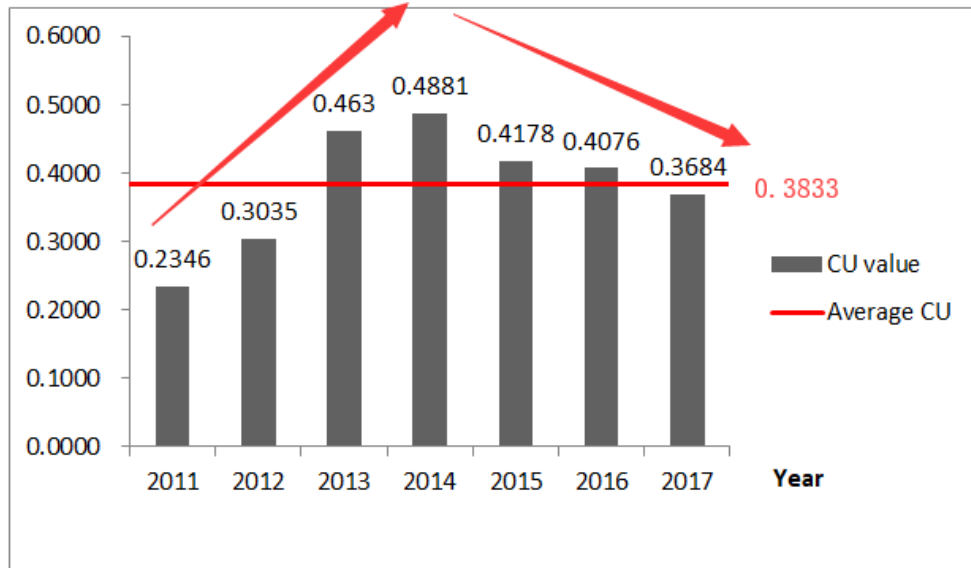
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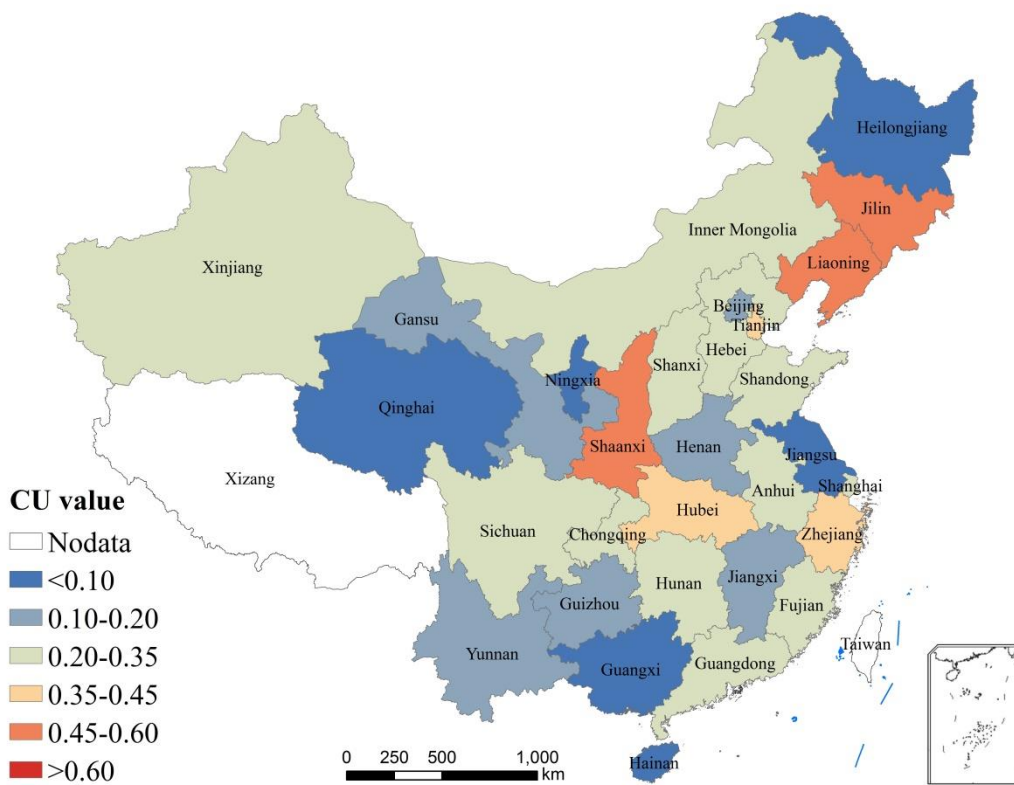


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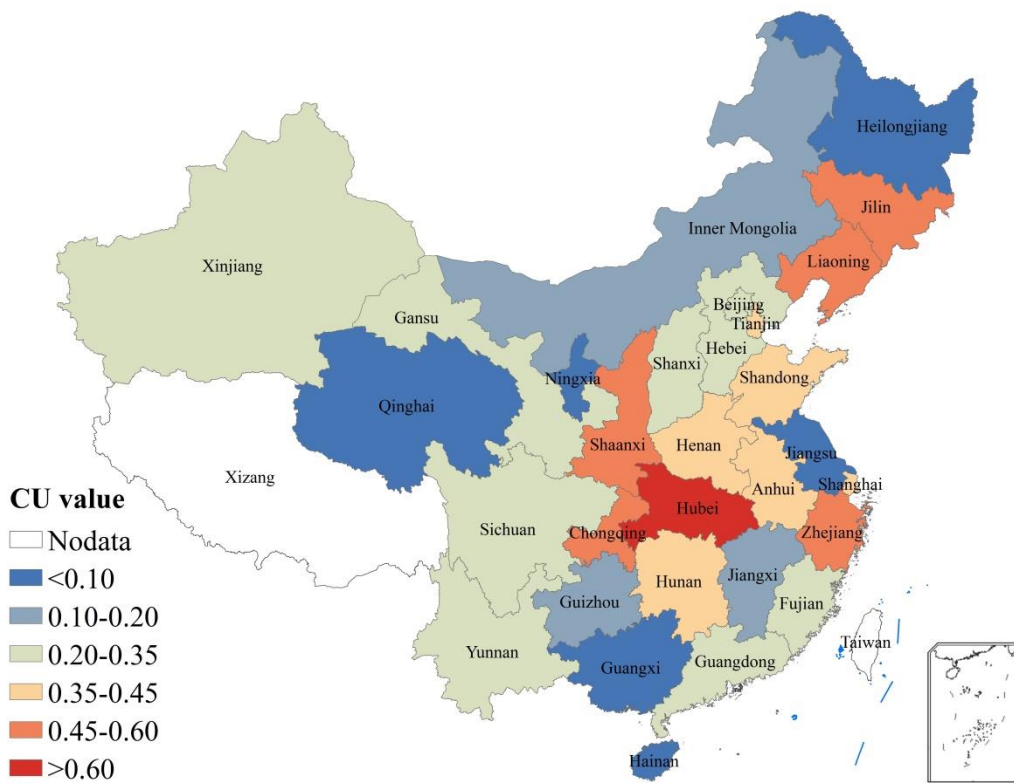
Figure 1. 2011-2017 average construction industry CUs

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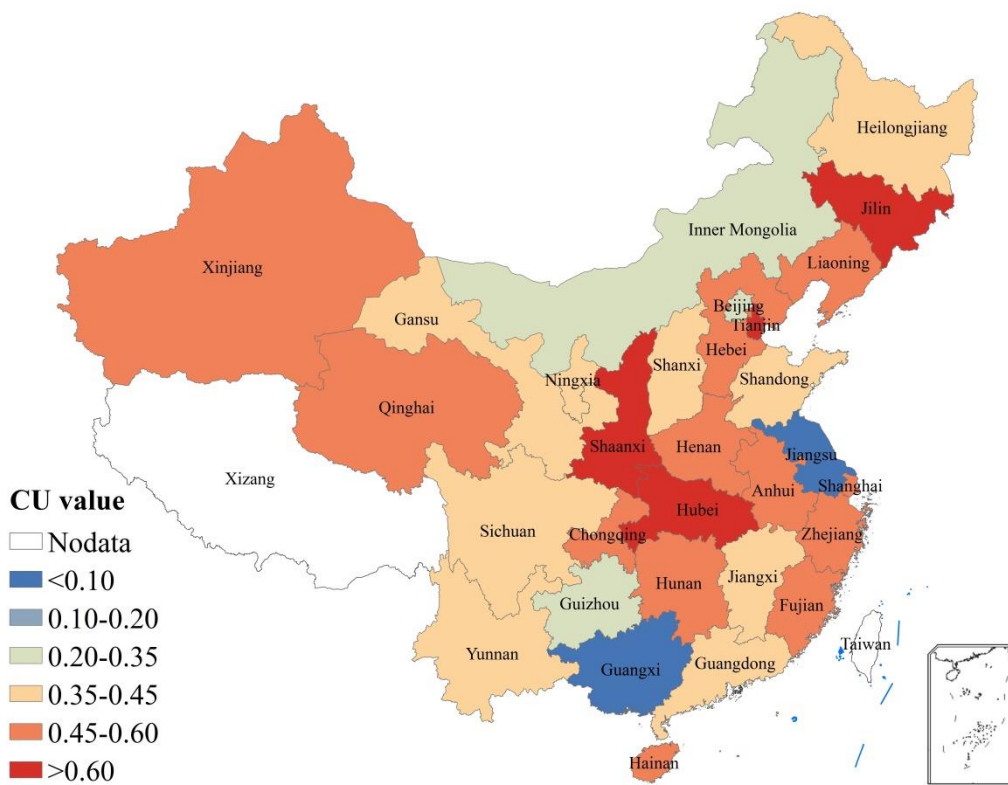
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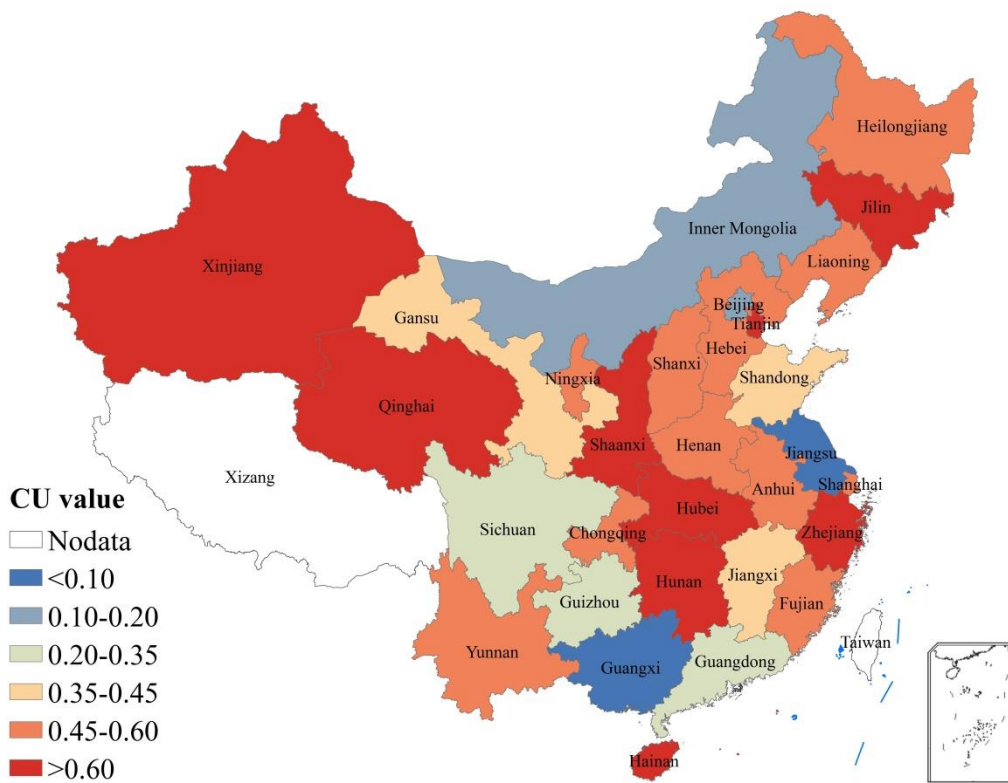
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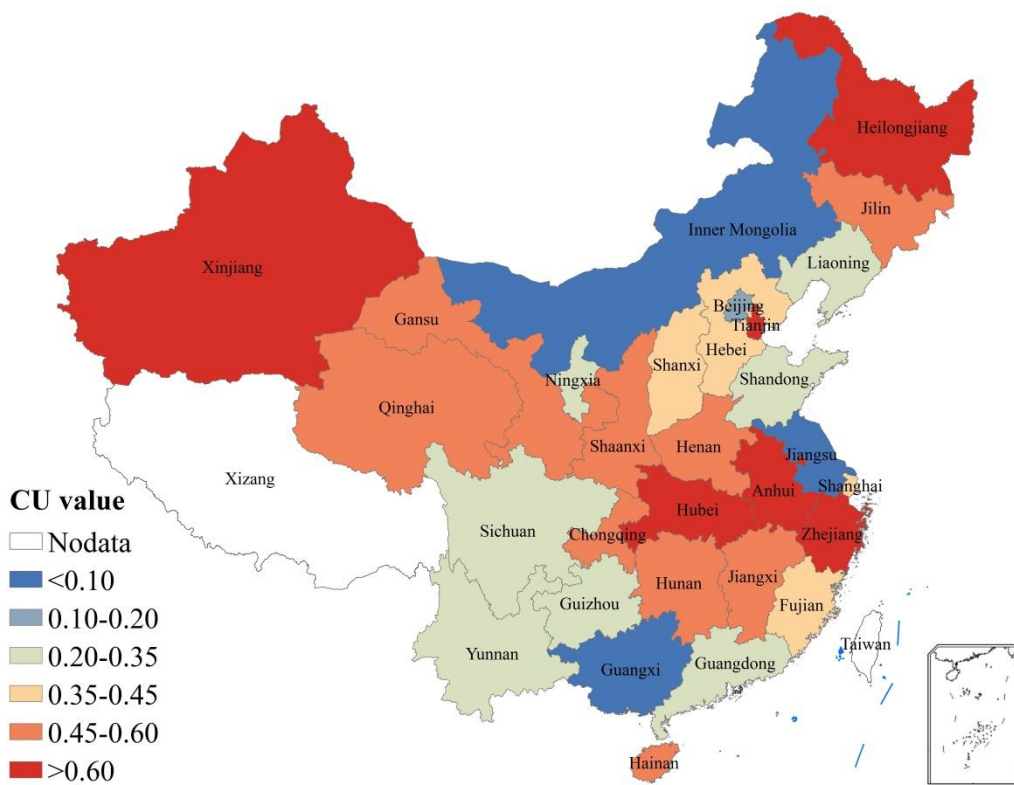
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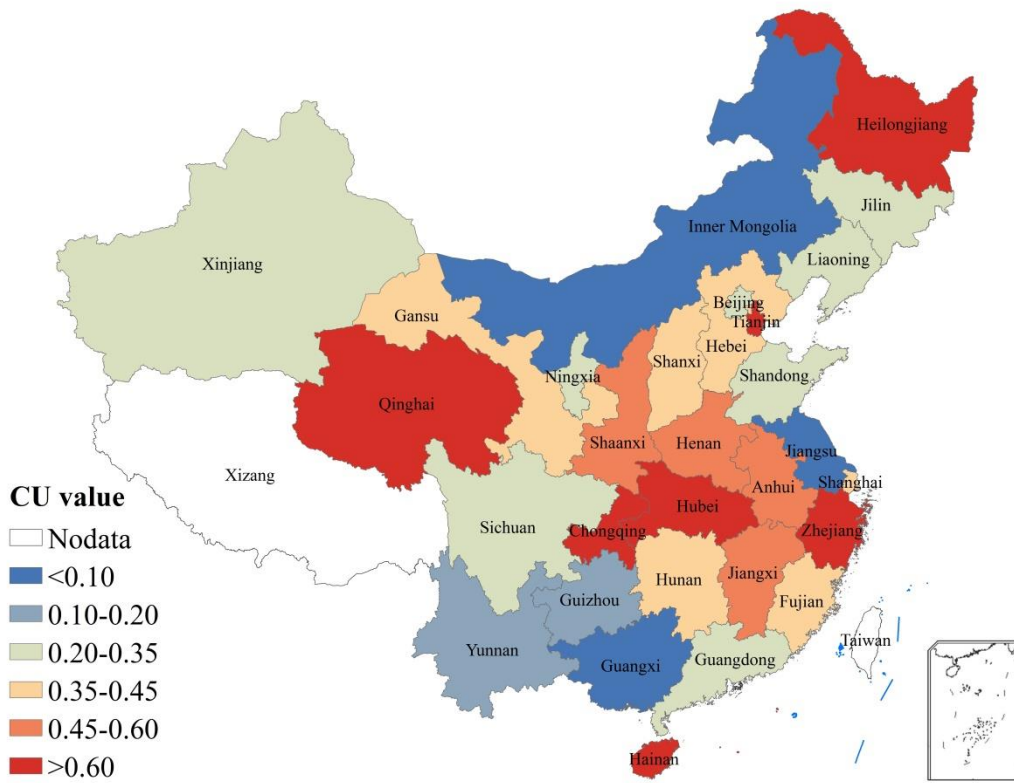
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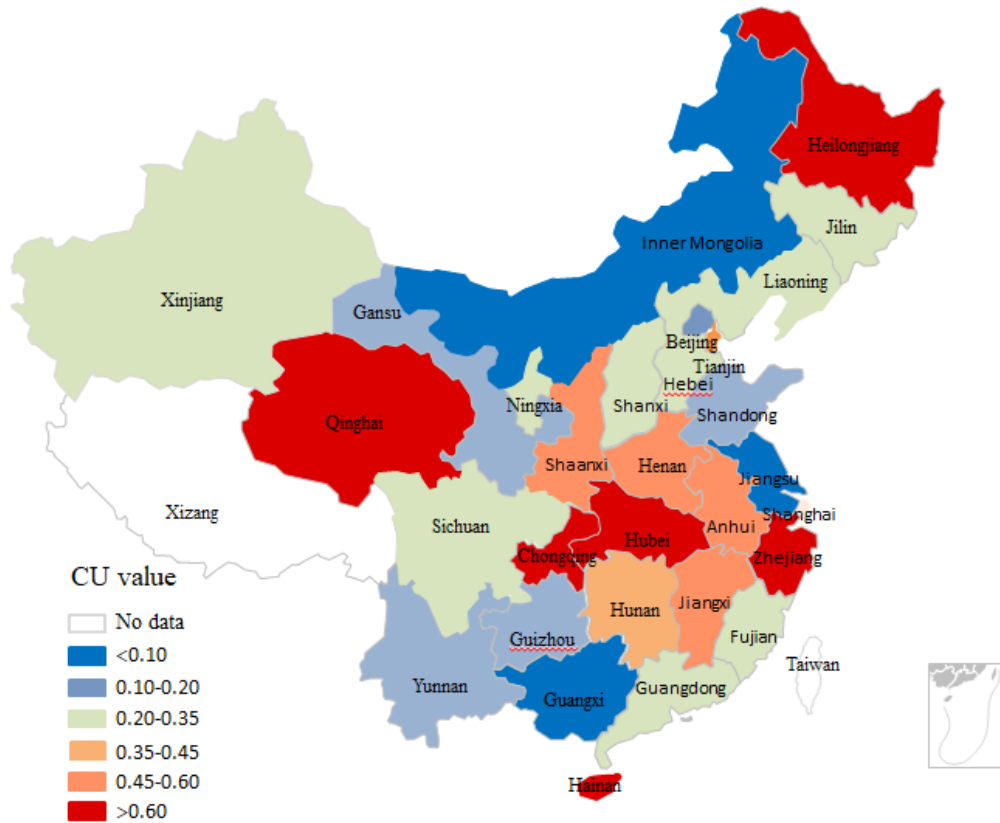
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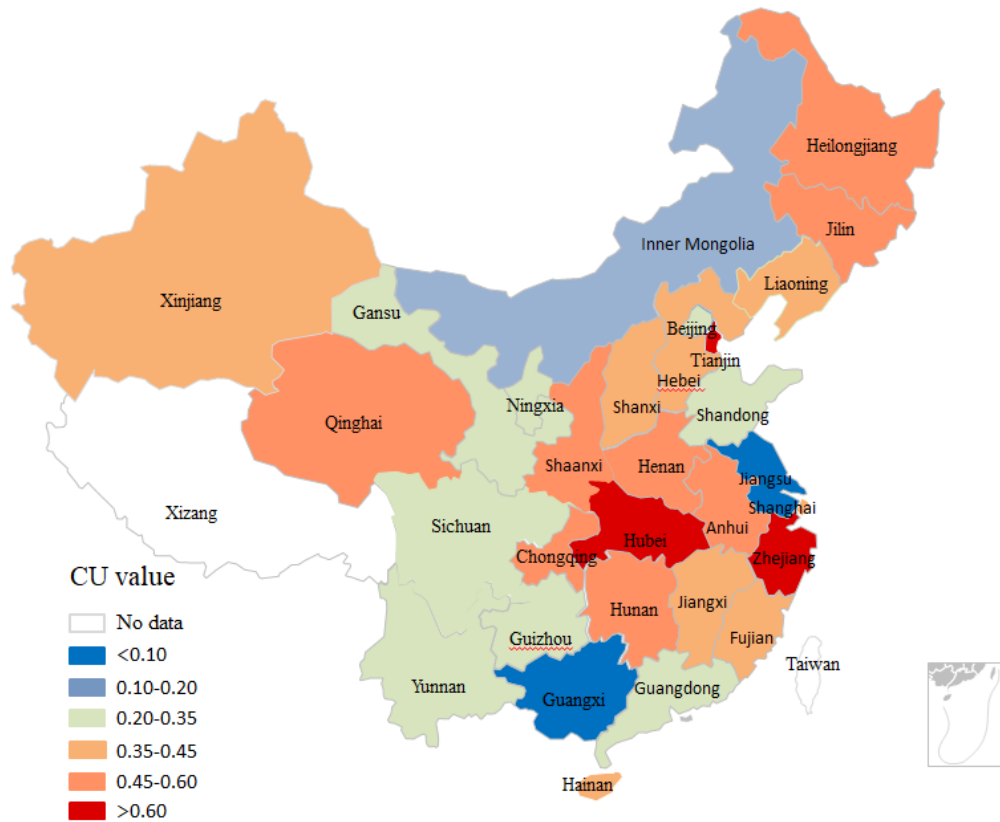
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(2017)



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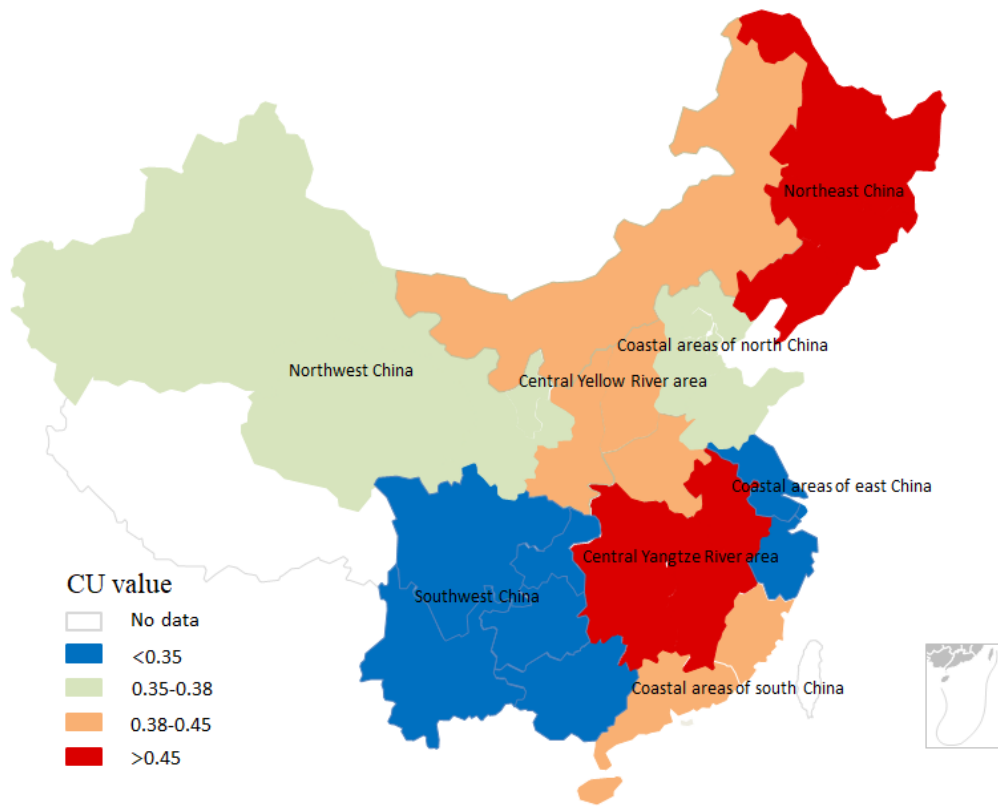
(CU average during 2011-2017)

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Figure 2. 2011-2017 provincial and city construction industry CU and average CU distribution

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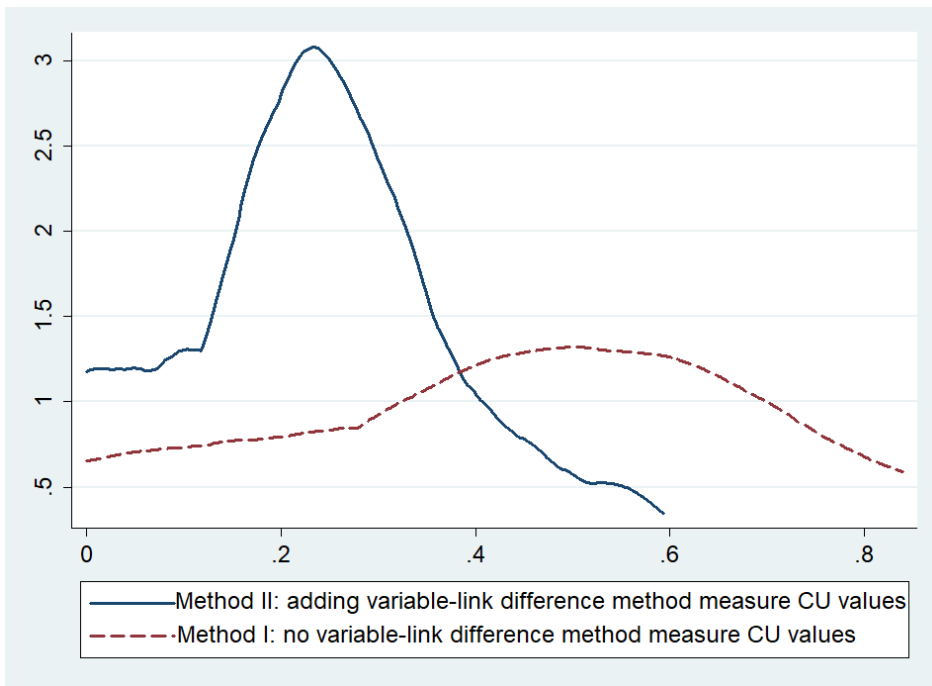
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Figure 3. 2011-2017 average CU distribution in eight regions

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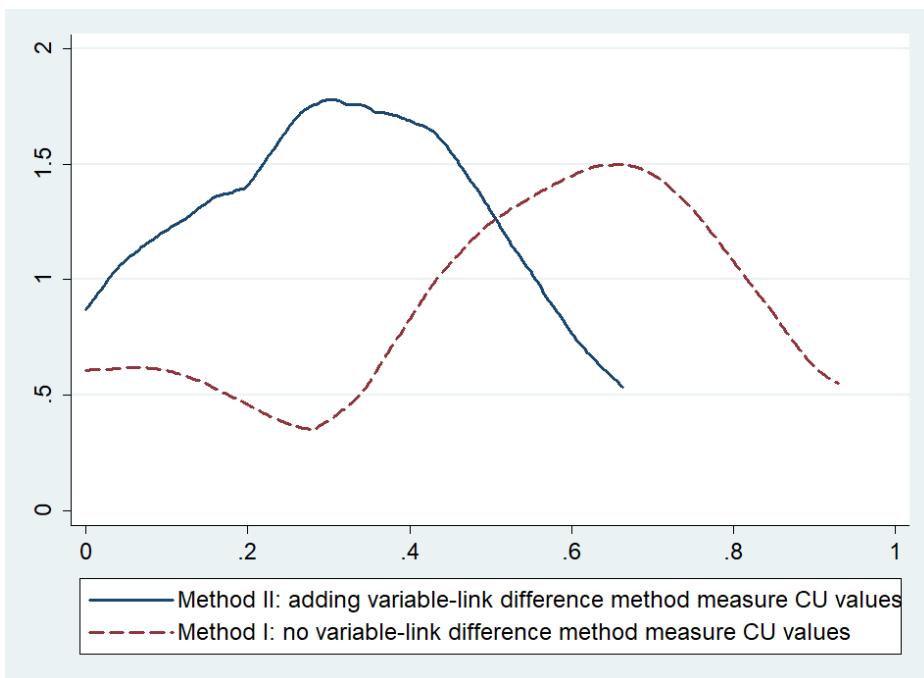
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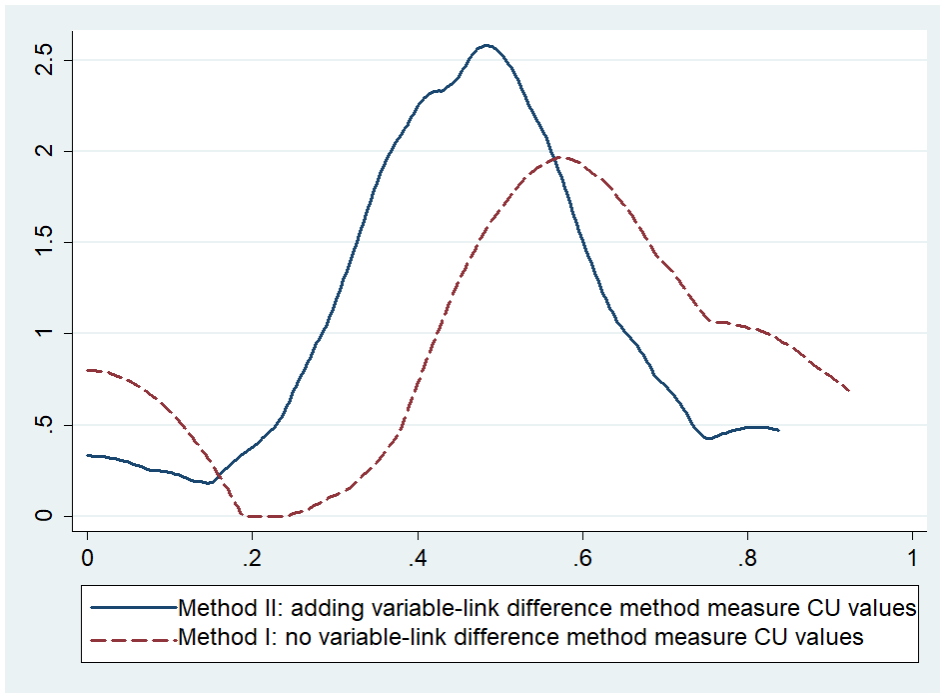
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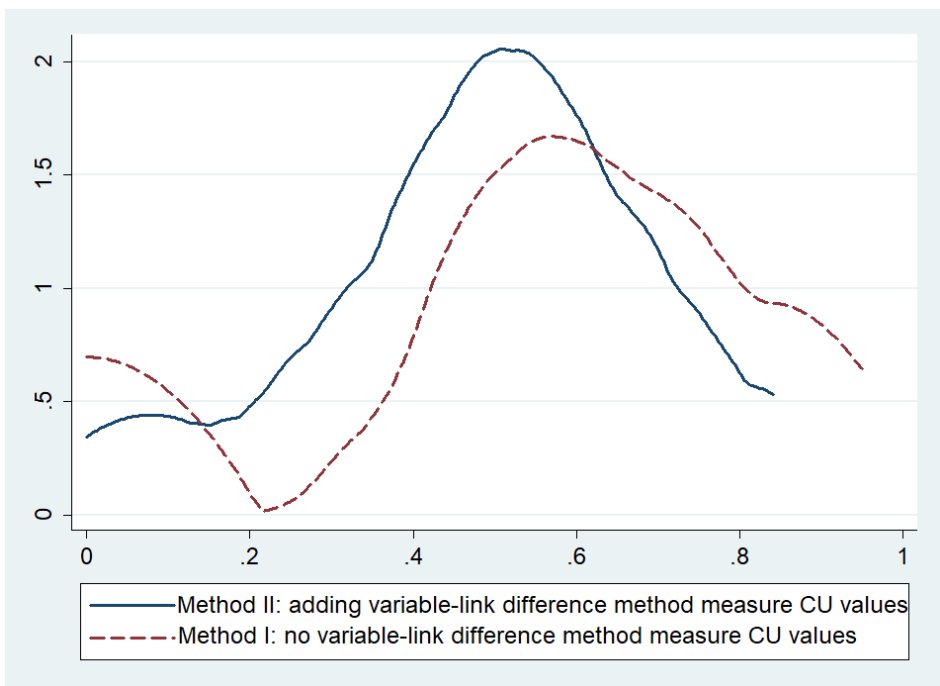
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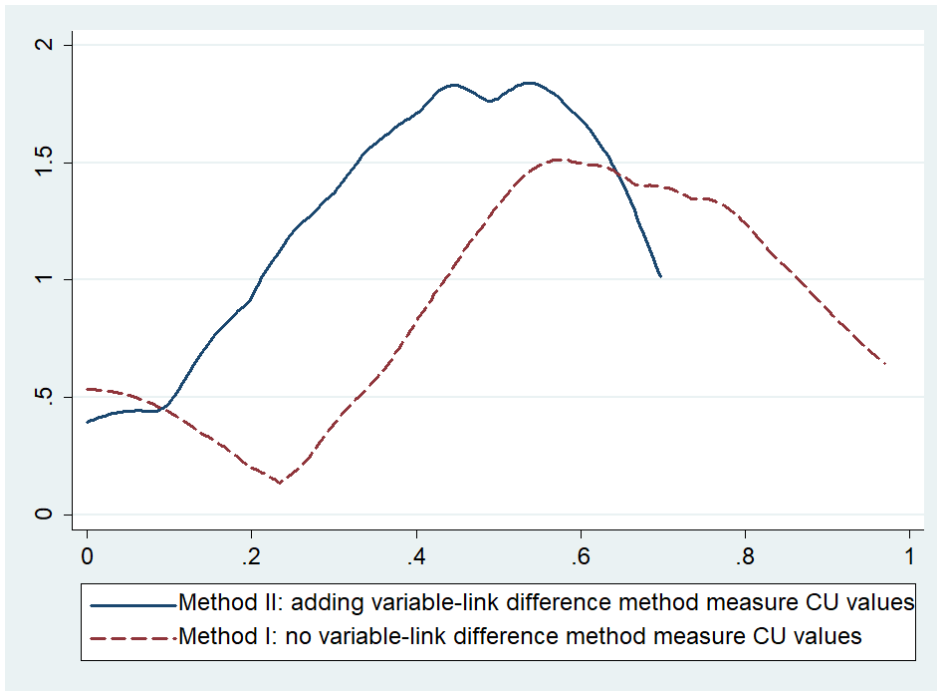
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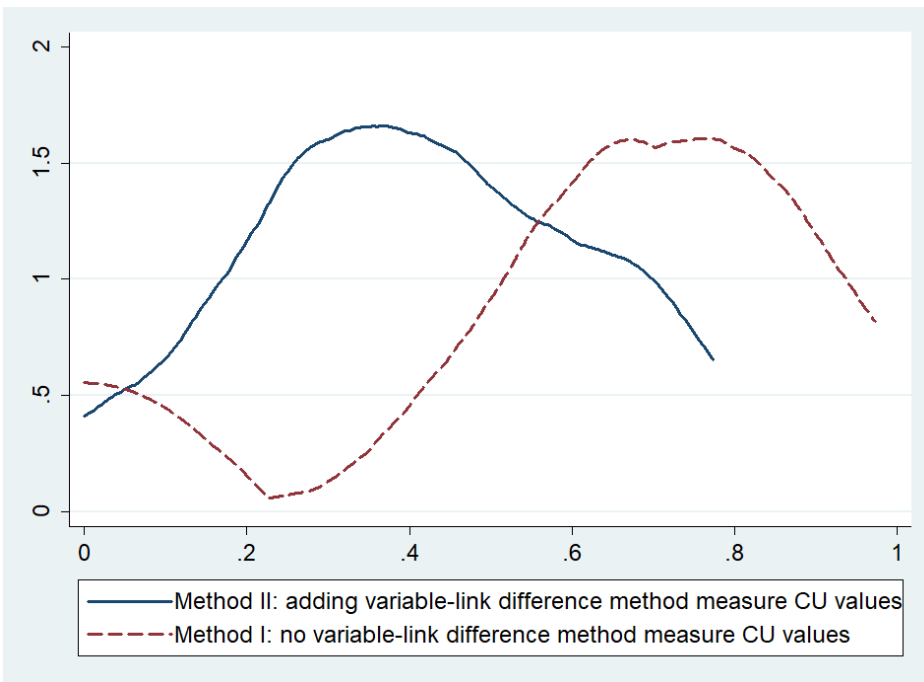


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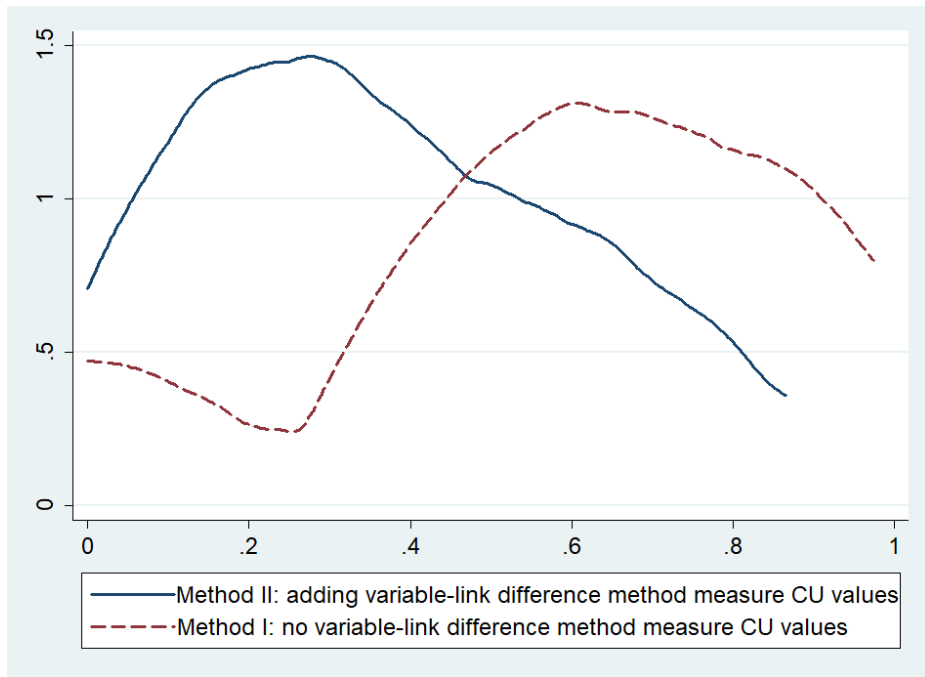
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(2016)



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(2017)

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Figure 4. Comparison of the adding variable-link difference method and no variable-link difference method in measuring CU

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| Reference | DMUs | Major issues addressed | Variables | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | | | Inputs | Outputs |
| (Zhang et al., 2018) | Chinese provinces and cities | The impact of environmental regulation on regional construction efficiency | (1) Energy consumption of the construction industry, (2) number of engaged persons, (3) total wages of construction workers, (4) total assets of the construction industry, (5) total power of machinery and equipment | (1) Engineering settlement profits, (2) floor space of buildings under construction, (3) gross output value of construction, (4) total profits of the construction industry, (5) CO ₂ emissions |
| (Yang and Fukuyama, 2018) | Chinese regions | Chinese regional production potential | (1) Built-up area, (2) total number of employees, (3) capital stock, (4) energy consumption, (5) total water usage | (1) Industrial solid wastes produced, (2) industrial waste gas emissions, (3) industrial wastewater discharge, (4) urban green area, (5) gross domestic product |
| (Xue et al., 2015) | Chinese regions | Energy consumption productivity change of the construction industry | (1) Coal consumption, (2) electricity consumption | (1) Industrial value added. |
| (Huo et al., 2018) | Chinese regions | Energy productivity of construction industry | (1) Labor force, (2) total assets of construction enterprises, (3) total capacity of machinery and equipment owned, (4) energy | (1) Gross output value in construction industry, (2) the floor space of buildings under construction. |
| (Chancellor and Lu, 2016) | Chinese regions | Estimate construction productivity and efficiency | (1) Number of construction workers and staff at year-end, (2) paid up total capital (3) total assets, (4) total power of machinery and equipment owned. | (1) Total floor space of buildings completed (2) total output value of construction. |
| (Feng and Wang, 2017) | Chinese regions | Energy efficiency of China's Regional building industry | (1) Labor force, (2) capital, (3) energy consumption | (1) Industrial output (2) CO ₂ emissions. |
| (Li and Song, 2012) | Chinese regions | The productivity growth of the construction industry | (1) Labor force, (2) asset of construction enterprises, | (1) The value added to the construction industry, (2) total solid waste in construction industry. |

| | | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------|---|---|--|
| (Bian et al., 2015) | Chinese regions | The efficiency of Chinese regional industrial systems | (1) Fixed assets, (2) labor (3) energy consumption, (4) industrial pollution abatement investment | (1) GDP, (2) COD (chemical oxygen demand), (3) SO ₂ emissions, (4) ammonia nitrogen, (5) output value of products made from comprehensive utilization of industrial waste |
| (Du et al., 2018) | Chinese regions | Environmental Productivity Performance in China | (1) Energy consumption, (2) labor force, (3) fixed investment | (1) GDP, (2) SO ₂ emissions, (3) industrial waste water, (4) CO ₂ emissions, (5) industrial dust |
| (Zhang and Choi, 2013) | Chinese regions | Environmental energy efficiency of China's regional economies | (1) Capital, (2) labor input, (3) energy consumption | (1) GDP, (2) SO ₂ emissions, (3) COD, (4) CO ₂ emissions |
| (Huang et al., 2014) | Chinese regions | Regional eco-efficiency in China | (1) Capital, (2) labor input, (3) Land input, (4) energy. | (1) GDP, (2) environmental pollutants |

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882

883 Table 2.

884 Identified input and output variables

| Variables | Types | Units | Reference |
|--|---------------------------|-----------------|---|
| f_1 = Construction land | Fixed input | km ² | (Yang and Fukuyama, 2018) |
| v_1 = Number of staff and workers in construction enterprises | Variable input | 10,000 persons | (Xue et al., 2015), (Huo et al., 2018), (Chancellor and Lu, 2016), (Feng and Wang, 2017), and (Li and Song, 2012) |
| v_2 = Assets of construction enterprises | Variable input | CNY 100 million | (Zhang, J.X. et al., 2018), (Huo et al., 2018), and (Chancellor and Lu, 2016) |
| v_3 = Total power of machinery and equipment owned by construction enterprises | Variable input | 10,000 kw | (Huo et al., 2018) and (Chancellor and Lu, 2016) |
| v_1^u = Terminal energy consumption of the construction industry | Linked variable input | 10,000 tons | (Feng and Wang, 2017), (Bian et al., 2015), and (Du et al., 2018) |
| u_1^v = CO ₂ emissions from the construction industry | Linked undesirable output | 10,000 tons | (Feng and Wang, 2017), (Du et al., 2018), and (Zhang and Choi, 2013) |
| d_1 = Total output value of construction enterprises | Desirable output | CNY 100 million | (Zhang, J.X. et al., 2018) and (Huo et al., 2018) |
| d_2 = Total profits of construction enterprises | Desirable output | CNY 100 million | (Zhang, J.X. et al., 2018) and (Li and Song, 2012) |

885 Notes:

886 f_1 = Construction land. This is the land provided for various construction works. It includes
 887 not only urban and rural residential and public facilities land, but also land used for manufacturing
 888 and mining, energy, transportation, water conservancy, communications, and other infrastructure
 889 development purposes.

890 v_1 = Number of staff and workers in construction enterprises. This is the total number of
 891 registered personnel in the construction industry at the end of each year, which comprises both
 892 administrative staff and construction workers. The total number of employees is from state-owned,
 893 collective capital investment, Hong Kong-, Macao, and Taiwanese-investment, and foreign-
 894 investment enterprises.

895 v_2 = Assets of construction enterprises. This includes fixed assets in the construction
 896 industry, as well as current assets and ongoing construction projects, and is the sum of the
 897 construction industry's assets, including the state-owned, collective capital investment, Hong Kong,
 898 Macao, and Taiwanese-investment, and foreign-investment enterprises. The corresponding data are
 899 from the China Statistical Yearbook (NBS, 2012-2018).

900 v_3 = Total power of machinery and equipment owned by construction enterprises. This is the
 901 sum of the power in the construction industry's own production and transportation equipment, and
 902 construction machinery—reflecting the technical equipment in the construction industry.

903 v_1^u = Terminal energy consumption of the construction industry. This is the amount of
 904 energy consumed in the construction industry after deducting the consumption and loss of
 905 secondary energy for processing.

906 $u_1^v =$ CO₂ emissions from the construction industry. CO₂ emissions, as an unpaid
907 environmental cost, is an indicator of undesirable output. The basic formula for calculating the
908 emissions from the construction industry's energy consumption is $CO_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n Ei \times NCVi \times$
909 $CEFi \times COFi \times (44/12)$, which is derived from the IPCC issued by the country Greenhouse Gas
910 IPCC Guidelines. Of these, the terminal consumption of the ith energy source and the average low-
911 level calorific value of the ith energy source are represented by Ei and NCVi, respectively, the carbon
912 emission factor and the carbon oxidation rate are represented by CEFi and COFi, respectively, with
913 a carbon conversion coefficient of 44/12. The CO₂ emissions of each energy source can be
914 calculated as shown in Appendix Table 4.

915 $d_1 =$ Total output value of the construction enterprises. This refers to the sum of the value
916 of civil engineering and building construction architectural decoration, construction, and
917 installation work of China's construction industry. It is also the sum of the construction industry
918 products that provide services and production over a certain period, reflecting the total economic
919 income of the industry.

Table 3. 2011-2017 average regional construction industry CU

| No. | Regional division | Provinces | Average CU | | | | | | | Average | |
|-----|------------------------------|--|------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|------|
| | | | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 | 2016 | 2017 | Value | Rank |
| 1 | Coastal areas of north China | Tianjin, Shandong, Hebei, Beijing | 0.2600 | 0.3614 | 0.4856 | 0.4751 | 0.3765 | 0.3791 | 0.2886 | 0.3752 | 6 |
| 2 | Northeast China | Heilongjiang, Jilin, Liaoning | 0.3721 | 0.3846 | 0.6085 | 0.6308 | 0.4688 | 0.4384 | 0.4319 | 0.4764 | 2 |
| 3 | Northwest China | Ningxia, Gansu, Xinjiang, Qinghai | 0.1285 | 0.1448 | 0.4508 | 0.5554 | 0.5274 | 0.4464 | 0.3869 | 0.3772 | 5 |
| 4 | Central Yangtze River area | Hubei, Jiangxi, Anhui, Hunan | 0.2899 | 0.4010 | 0.5774 | 0.6394 | 0.5702 | 0.5291 | 0.5322 | 0.5056 | 1 |
| 5 | Central Yellow River area | Henan, Inner Mongolia, Shaanxi, Shanxi | 0.2736 | 0.3579 | 0.4520 | 0.4736 | 0.3822 | 0.3916 | 0.3300 | 0.3801 | 4 |
| 6 | Coastal areas of east China | Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Shanghai | 0.2245 | 0.3187 | 0.3553 | 0.3688 | 0.3487 | 0.3960 | 0.4004 | 0.3446 | 7 |
| 7 | Southwest China | Sichuan, Yunnan, Guangxi, Guizhou, Chongqing | 0.1864 | 0.2556 | 0.3389 | 0.3295 | 0.2765 | 0.2683 | 0.2244 | 0.2685 | 8 |
| 8 | Coastal areas of south China | Hainan, Guangdong, Fujian | 0.1696 | 0.2192 | 0.4804 | 0.4742 | 0.4248 | 0.4666 | 0.4276 | 0.3803 | 3 |