

COVID-19 underscores the urgency of just transition alongside green recovery

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COVID-19 underscores the urgency of just transition alongside green recovery

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Abstract

Green recovery has been highly advocated as a promising strategy to balance climate actions and economic reset after COVID-19. However, the potential inequality risk associated with the green recovery hasn't been fully assessed. Here, enabled by an extended adaptive regional input-output (E-ARIO) model, we quantify the short-term impacts of COVID and various recovery packages on labor demand and income equality. The findings reveal that in the pandemic, low- and medium-income labor suffered more income decrease (by 36%) than those with high-level income (by 24%), leading to a 24% increase of income inequality at the global level (measured by the Oshima coefficient). The high-income labor benefits more from a low-carbon pathway to economic recovery, which further exacerbates the income inequality across the world by 3~5% compared to those in a traditional, carbon-intensive recovery scenario. The findings reveal the tradeoffs between income equality and green development and underscore the urgency of just transition alongside green recovery.

Main

COVID-19 adds unprecedented health and economic challenges to the existing poverty and inequality in the world. The pandemic is aggravating economic divisions, which, in turn, worsens the negative effect of the crisis. On the one hand, the poor and the vulnerable are more likely to suffer income loss from distancing measures and economic recessions. This is because these people's work is usually labor-dependent (such as planting and construction) or require face-to-face contact with others (e.g., accommodation and restaurant service), which makes it less likely to work remotely from home¹. According to the World Bank's report², COVID-19 put 71 million people into extreme poverty in the baseline scenario, and the number reaches up to 100 million in a downward scenario. On the other hand, economic inequality weakens the societies' resilience to pandemics since it acts as a multiplier on the virus' spread speed and mortality rate³. People with lower socioeconomic status have to continue working in an environment with a higher level of exposure to the virus and have less access to preventive protection⁴. If, unfortunately, infected by the virus, they have higher rates of death due to unaffordable health care costs and the accompanying chronic diseases associated with poverty^{5,6}. The self-reinforce feedback loop reveals the necessity and urgency of protecting the poor and the vulnerable after the COVID-19 pandemic⁷.

Meanwhile, the pandemic knocked climate change down the agenda. COVID-19 has striking

46 similarities with climate change because both are irreversible, spreading across country borders,
47 exerting uneven impacts among people, and less costly to prevent than to cure^{8,9}. However, huge
48 differences exist as well: the pandemic occurs anytime with rapid expansion and direct cause-effect
49 relationships, while climate change is a slow process with ambiguous and controversial attributes⁸.
50 Such difference might lead to a viewpoint that the current world should prioritize battling COVID,
51 improving health, restoring jobs, and stabilizing the economy over climate change mitigation^{10,11}.
52 However, others argue that the urgent need for economy reboot doesn't mean a delay in climate
53 change mitigation but underscores the necessity to accelerate the process¹². How governments spend
54 billions of fiscal recovery money in recent years will determine the trend of climate change in the
55 next few decades. The committed emissions of carbon-intensive investments in post-COVID-19
56 economic recovery might jeopardize the Paris Agreement goals because of the carbon "lock-in"
57 effect of infrastructure¹³. Consequently, it is vital to make the right decisions to tackle the compound
58 climate risks in the pandemic.

59

60 Green recoveries are called for as a solution to balance climate actions with economic recovery.
61 Researchers have pointed out that green investment not only benefits the environment but also
62 flattens the economic curves and creates job opportunities¹⁴⁻¹⁶. The multiplier effects of green
63 recovery packages on economic reboots and job creation can be competitive, or even superior to,
64 traditional carbon-intensive stimulus pathways¹⁷. The advocacy of green recovery and the focus on
65 the possibilities of the co-benefits dominates current discussions on economic reset, leaving the
66 potential risks overshadowed. The asymmetric information description and delivery might cause
67 biased perception and improper decision making.

68

69 One of the potential risks associated with green recovery is its impacts on social equity¹⁸. It has been
70 widely acknowledged that low-carbon transition will bring about structural changes in labor demand
71 and possible risks of 'structural unemployment'^{19,20}. The transition needs a painful period where
72 low-skilled labor and people whose livelihoods depend on fossil fuel energy suffer wage reductions
73 and unemployment, exacerbating social inequality at the time. Later, with the improvement of
74 production efficiency and the continuous absorption of unemployed labor by other sectors, social
75 inequity will be alleviated. Although social justice considerations are not novel, the pandemic
76 fundamentally changes its nature, and the scale of the equity challenge remains unclear. The
77 pandemic has reduced society's tolerance for the duration and extent of the challenging period. Any
78 further deterioration can become the last straw that breaks the camel's back. Therefore, we need to
79 rethink and comprehensively assess how green recovery packages affect social equity after the
80 pandemic. Policymakers need to know who is most affected by the pandemic, to what extent these
81 groups benefit from recovery policies, and how to avoid stark inequality while rebooting the
82 economy.

83

84 This research addresses the social equity concern and reveals the severe structural weakness of green
85 recoveries belied in the win-win potentials of economic growth and green development. Enabled by
86 an extended adaptive regional input-output (E-ARIO) model, we quantify the short-term impacts of
87 COVID and various recovery packages on social equity through the changes in income and labor
88 demand. The findings demonstrate that the pandemic has an uneven impact on the labor market,
89 with more negative impacts on lower-skilled and lower-income groups but less on high-skilled and

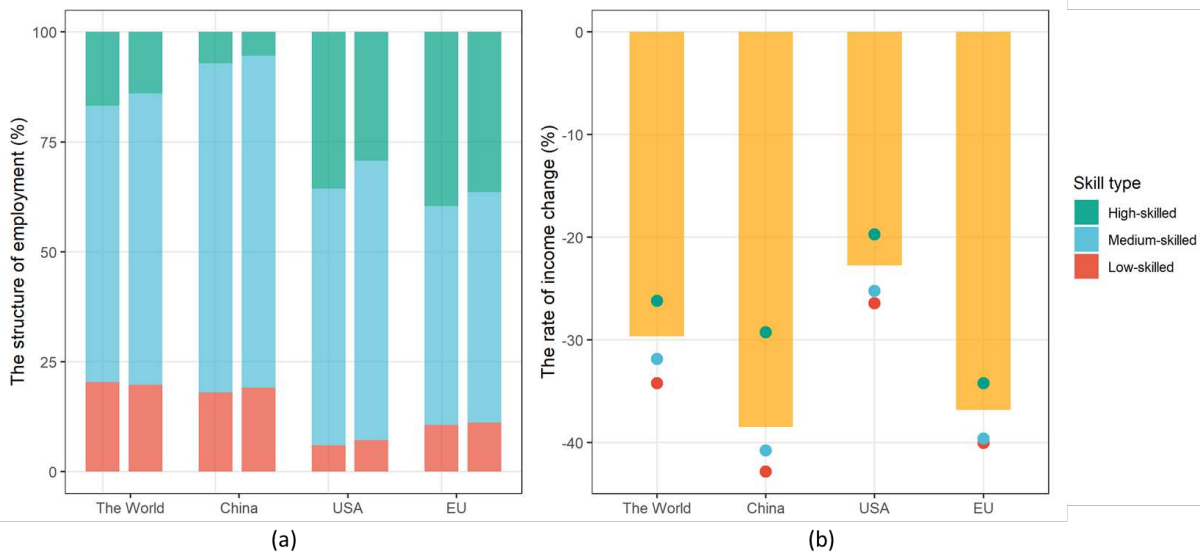
90 higher-income groups. The less affected population, however, receives more assistance in green
 91 recovery plans compared to those in traditional recovery plans, leading to an increase in global
 92 income inequality. The findings highlight the importance of just transition alongside green recovery
 93 and provide new insights for developing green recovery strategies.

94

95 **Who suffers the most from the pandemic recession?**

96

97 Although most people’s life and work have been negatively affected by the pandemic, low- and
 98 medium-skilled labors are more affected than those higher-skilled ones (Fig. 1). Globally, more than
 99 86% of the reduced labor demands are low- and medium-skilled workers, who account for 83% of
 100 the global labor market (Fig. 1a). Due to the decrease in labor demand, the average income of low-
 101 and medium-skilled workers decrease by more than 32%, 6% higher than the decrease rate of the
 102 average income of high-skilled workers (Fig. 1b). Assuming that the unemployment risk is
 103 proportional to the reduction of labor demand, the unemployment risks faced by low- and medium-
 104 skilled workers in the pandemic are about 1.2 times that of high-skilled workers.



105

106 **Fig.1 The impacts of COVID-19 on labor demand and average income.** Graph (a) shows the
 107 structure of the labor force in each region in the initial situation (left bars) and the structure of the
 108 labor force affected by the COVID-19 lockdown (right bars). Graph (b) describes the income change
 109 of different skill groups (displayed as points) and the average level (displayed as bars) in each region
 110 in the lockdown period.

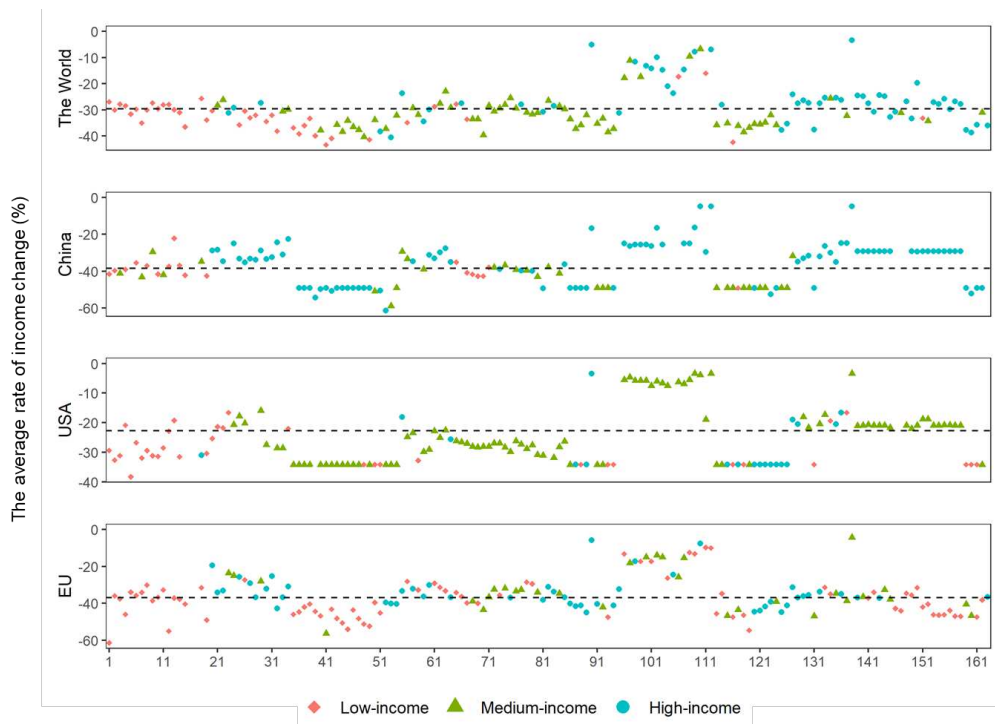
111

112 At the national scale, the uneven impacts of the pandemic on the labor market are also evident, albeit
 113 with a different extent across countries. In China, the average income of low- and medium-skilled
 114 workers, who account for 95% of the labor demand reduction, decrease by more than 41%. In
 115 contrast, the average income of high-skilled workers only decreases by about 29%. The
 116 unemployment risks that low- and medium-skilled workers faced is 1.3 times those of high-skilled
 117 ones. In the United States (USA), 71% of the reduced labor demand is low- and medium-skilled,
 118 who account for 6% and 58% of the labor market, respectively. The average income of the low- and
 119 medium-skilled workers decrease by about 26% in the pandemic while the figure for high-skilled
 120 workers is less than 20%. As for the EU, low- and medium-skilled workers account for 64% of the

121 reduced labor demand, of whom the average income loss is about 40%, 16% higher than high-skilled
122 workers.

123

124 The most affected industries at the global level are low- and medium-income ones, whose
125 employees have limited ability to resist the impacts (Fig.2). Before the COVID, 26% and 38% of
126 the global industries are low- and medium-income industries, and 36% are high-income (see more
127 details of the sector classification by income level). Among the industries with a substantial decline
128 in average income (the decline rate is more than the sectorial average), 36% are low-income
129 industries, 46% are middle-income industries, and 18% are high-income industries. The average
130 wage of the low- and medium-income industries decreased by 36%. In particular, low-income
131 agriculture industries, including fruit and vegetable planting, cereal grains planting and farming,
132 suffer particularly heavy losses due to the shutdown of the transportation industry and downstream
133 processing industry. The average income of this industry decreased by 41%, from 117 Euros per
134 month to 69 Euros per month. On the contrary, high-income industries, including the healthcare
135 industry and medical, precision and optical instruments manufacturing industry, are less affected,
136 with a 3.4~6.2% decrease in the average income.



137

138

139 **Fig.2** The impacts of COVID-19 on income by sectors. The list of the sectors (indicated by the
140 numbers on the horizontal axis) is provided in the Supplementary Information (SI) Table S2.

141

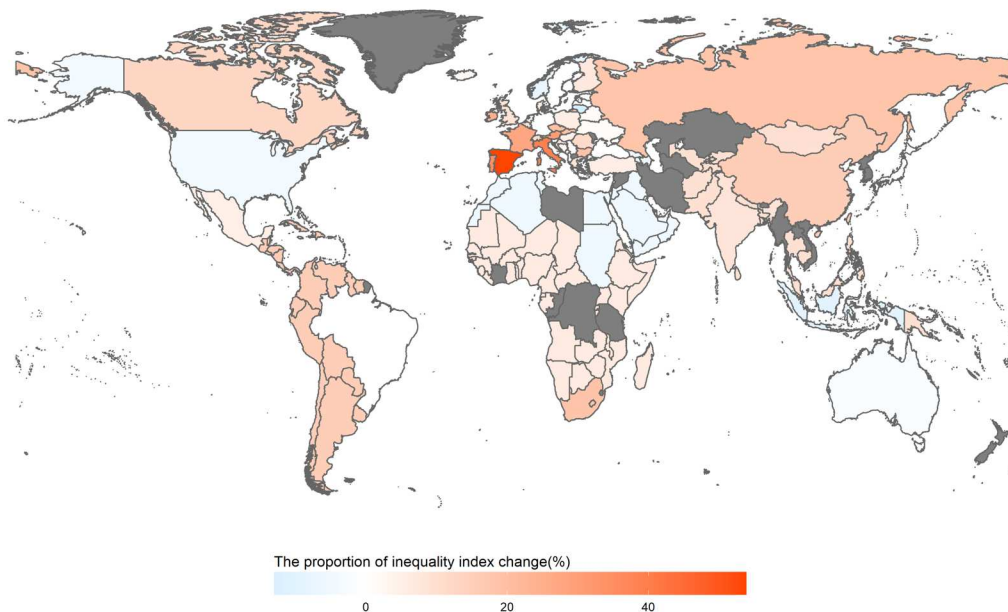
142 At the national level, the situations distinct across counties (Fig.2). In China, 61% of the low-income
143 industries suffer substantial income decrease (higher than the average level of income decrease)
144 while the proportion is only 34% for high-income industries. In the EU, the average wage of low-
145 and medium-income industries decrease by 40% while that of high-income industries decrease by
146 34%. The situation is slightly different in the USA, where high-income industries suffer as many
147 negative impacts as low- and medium-income industries. About 77% of the low-income industries,

148 54% of the middle-income industries, and 68% of the high-income industries in the USA went
149 through substantial income decrease.

150

151 Such results imply that the pandemic has an uneven impact on the labor market, with more negative
152 impacts on low- and medium-income groups. The finding implies that the pandemic may exacerbate
153 income inequality. After calculating the Oshima coefficients (a measurement of income equality) in
154 countries, we find that this implication is supported at the global scale, but the situations vary across
155 countries. For example, the Oshima coefficients increase by 24% at the global level, increase by 16%
156 and 29% in China and the EU, but decreases by 4% in the USA. The decrease in the USA, which
157 implies slight elimination in income equality, is more or less out of expectation⁴. The contradictory
158 result might be explained that our estimation only captures the impacts of COVID on income
159 equality through lockdown measures on labor supply and consumer demand. Other influencing
160 channels on inequality, including unaffordable economic burden brought by the access to healthcare,
161 healthcare spending and overcrowded housing conditions⁴, are not included in our estimation, which
162 might underestimate the income inequality in the pandemic.

163



164

165

Fig.3 The impacts of COVID-19 on income equality

166

167 **Who will benefit more from a green recovery?**

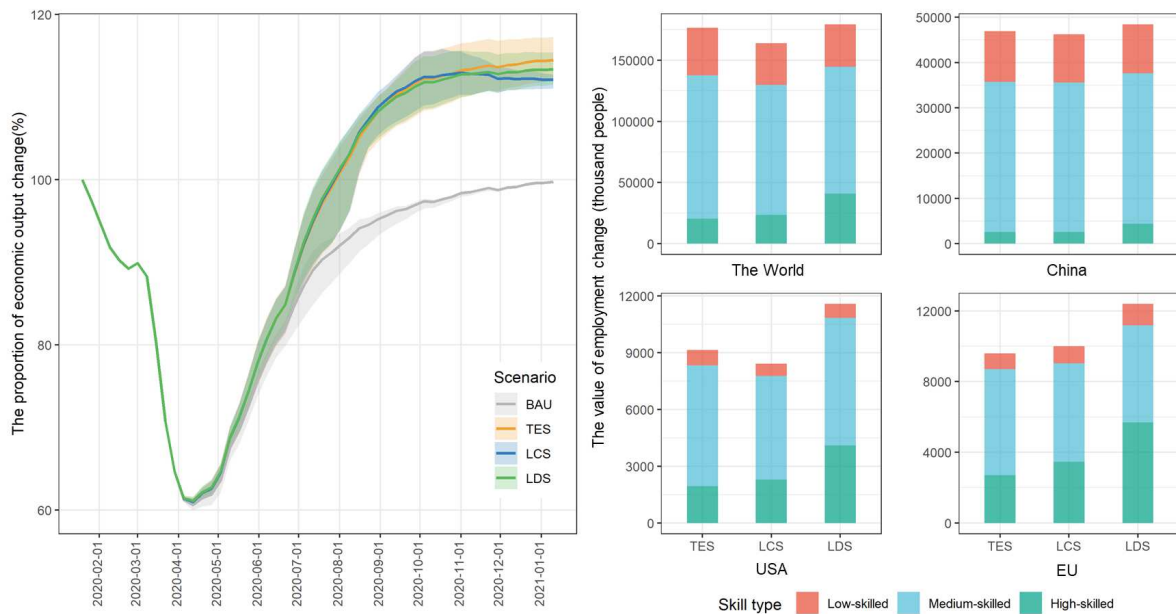
168

169 We designed four scenarios to simulate the impacts of economic recovery policy packages on
170 economic growth and labor demand (see more details in the Methods). The four scenarios are the
171 business as usual scenario (BAU), traditional scenario (TES), low-carbon scenario (LCS), and low-
172 carbon and digital scenario (LDS). The results reveal some common implications across the world.

173

174 First, green recovery plans show comparable or even better multiplying effects on economic growth
175 and labor demand compared to the traditional scenarios (Fig.4). A stimulus package equal to 10%
176 of national GDP drives a 10%~14% increase of GDP under the three stimulating scenarios. The

177 differences in economic stimulus between traditional recovery and green recovery are less than 0.2%.
 178 Regarding the impacts on employment, differences are minor too. The LCS scenario creates 164
 179 million jobs, and the LDS scenario creates 179 million jobs, which are respectively 7% lower and
 180 2% higher than the TES scenario. At the national scale, we receive similar findings but to a different
 181 extent. For example, in the USA and EU, green recovery plans in LDS show substantial advantages
 182 over the TES scenario with regard to job creation while such advantages are moderate in China. In
 183 the USA and EU, additional jobs created in the LDS scenario is about 1.3 times than those in the
 184 TES scenario. Nevertheless, in China, additional jobs created in the LDS scenario is only 3% higher
 185 than the TES scenario.



186
 187
 188 **Fig.4** Impacts of recovery scenarios on economic growth and employment demand. BAU
 189 represents business-as-usual scenario. TES represents traditional recovery plan. LCS represents
 190 low-carbon recovery plan. LDS represents low-carbon and digital recovery plan.

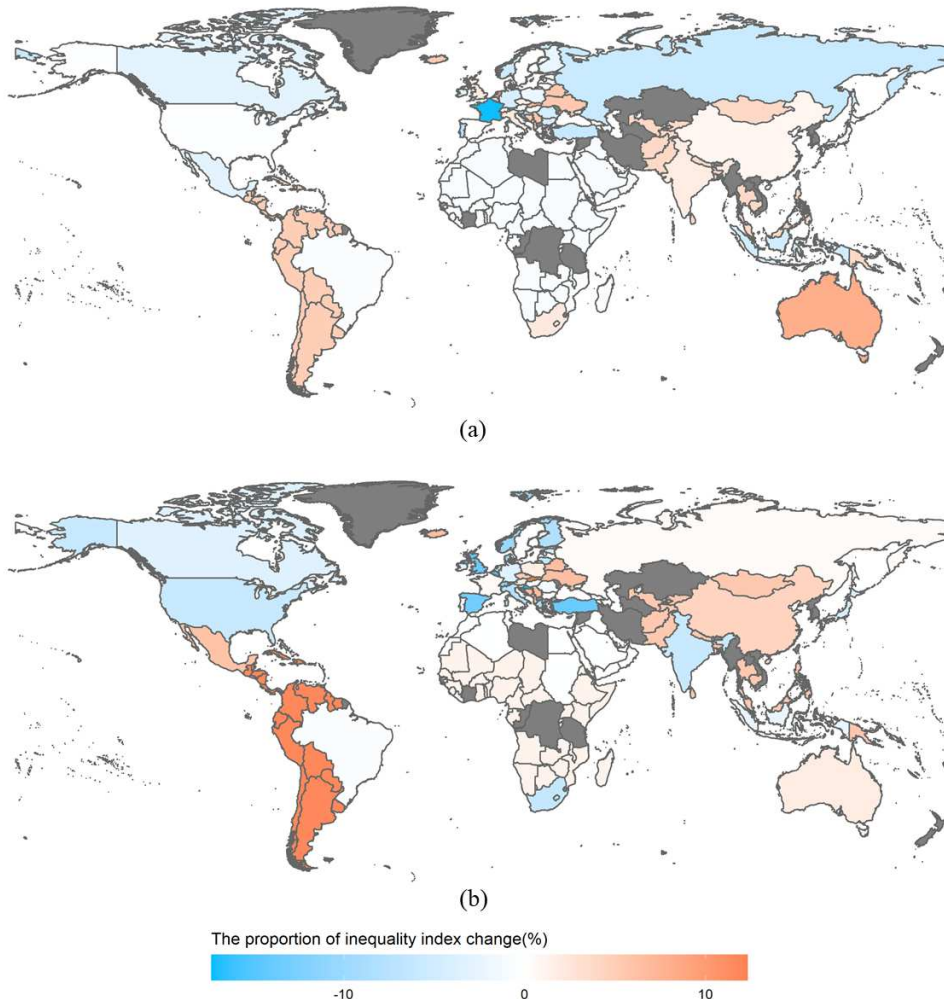
191
 192 The second similarity shared by most of the countries is that high-skilled workers benefit more from
 193 green recovery compared to traditional recovery plans. On the global scale, high-skilled workers
 194 account for 23% of the additional job creation in the LDS scenario, which is 11% higher than that
 195 in the TES scenario. At the national level, the proportion of high-skilled jobs in total job demand
 196 increase in the LDS scenario is 4%, 14%, and 18% higher than that in the TES scenario in China,
 197 the USA, and the EU, respectively. The benefits of green recovery on high-skilled workers are also
 198 apparent from the perspective of income change. In the LDS scenario, the income of high-skilled
 199 works is 5% higher than that in the TES scenario, while the difference between these two scenarios
 200 for low- and medium-skilled workers are imperceptible.

201
 202 At the sectoral level, the TES scenario favors three sectors whose job demands are most affected by
 203 the pandemic: the construction industry, mining of copper ores and concentrates industry, and the
 204 land transport industry. In this scenario, the average revenues in these three sectors decrease by 37%,
 205 46%, and 26%, respectively. The LCS and LDS scenarios favor the sector of telecommunication

206 and education, which are affected less in the pandemic. These two sectors account for an increase
207 of 14~16 million new jobs in the green recovery scenario. However, the most affected sectors,
208 including the industries of fruit and vegetable planting and hotels and catering, only create 5~8
209 million new jobs. As the nature of job changes, about 120 million people worldwide (4% of the
210 initial state employment) may need a career transition.

211

212 In general, economic recovery offset some adverse effects of the pandemic on income inequality.
213 However, compared with the TES scenarios, the LCS and LDS scenarios generally increase income
214 equality. On the global level, the Oshima coefficients in LCS and LDS scenarios increase by 3~5%
215 compared to the TES scenario. This is consistent with the observation that LCS and LDS scenarios
216 provide more benefits for high-skilled workers and high-income sectors compared to TES scenarios.
217 At the country level, this finding is also valid, albeit with some exceptions. For example, in the EU
218 and the USA, the TES brings more inequality than LCS and LDS, which can be explained by the
219 limited pulling effect of TES scenarios on job creation.



220

221 **Fig.5** Oshima coefficient of green recovery scenarios compared to TES scenario

222 **What actions are needed to fill up the mismatch?**

223 Beyond existing concerns that COVID-19 might hinder the progress of climate change mitigation
224 and green recovery shall be considered in the post-COVID, our analysis exerts further concerns on

225 the low-income and the vulnerable who might be ignored in the green recovery. Although the
226 potential impacts of low-carbon transition on income equality is not a new thing, it is vital to address
227 this issue at the moment as the pandemic magnifies the tradeoffs and lowers societies' tolerance for
228 further inequality. Since the low-income and the vulnerable have been most adversely affected in
229 the pandemic, their resistance and resilience to further negative impacts are meager. Furthermore,
230 strong advocacy on balancing the tradeoffs between economic recovery and climate change
231 mitigation might distract people's attention to the potential harms of green recovery on the poor and
232 the vulnerable. In this sense, we address the role of COVID-19 in the tradeoffs between climate
233 change and income inequality and provide implications on the solutions as follows.

234 First, it is essential to reassess the synergies and tradeoffs between various Sustainable Development
235 Goals (SDGs) after COVID-19 and select an optimal economic recovery pathway that reboots the
236 economy with the least harm to other sustainable goals. The pandemic might alter the priority of the
237 SDG achievement and the tradeoffs among SDGs. Our study provides a template for the assessment,
238 which considers not only economic growth and job creation but also the impacts on income
239 inequality. The primary purpose of the assessment is to answer two questions: 1) who is most
240 affected by the pandemic? and 2) could those who suffer the most in the pandemic receive timely
241 and effective assistance during the recovery process? For more comprehensive pathway selection,
242 future research can include other dimensions in the analysis to best balance the tradeoffs among the
243 SDG targets according to local situations.

244 The second implication is that just transition should be addressed as much as green recovery. Just
245 transition can be designed from both short-run and long-run perspectives. In the short-run term, it
246 has been widely acknowledged that determining a detailed plan of decarbonization at the national
247 and sectoral levels is the premise of just transition policy design. For example, a detailed schedule
248 of the early decommissioning pathway of the coal-fired power industry informs policymaking when
249 and in which regions workers will be affected. Based on such information, policymakers could
250 establish precise transitional assistance mechanisms for the affected. Transitional assistance in the
251 short term includes three sections: financial assistance, social protection, and employment training.
252 The first and the most direct way is to provide financial assistance to the low-skilled and low-income
253 workers directly affected by the green recovery. Forms of financial assistance include compensation
254 fees, relocation cost, wage subsidies, etc., and should adapt to the actual development needs of
255 specific areas with local characteristics. Funding sources can be fiscal support for economic
256 recovery or can be a sound green financial system with a payment transfer mechanism. The second
257 way of just transition is to strengthen social protection networks and labor market policy. A just
258 transition requires improvement of social welfare systems, including minimum living standards,
259 unemployment insurance, and early retirement benefits. It is also essential to promote labor
260 migration by reducing relocation costs and breaking down the policy barriers for cross-regional
261 labor mobility. Moreover, training and skill development is another essential measure to assist the
262 unemployed with career transfer. Based on identified skill needs, restarting the apprenticeship

263 program, fostering entrepreneurship, and promoting the cross-sector flow of human resources are
264 vital steps to improve the overall adaptive ability of workers. Apart from short-term aid measures,
265 just transition also needs a long-term plan to enhance the flexibility of the human resource market
266 and economic resilience. Energy transition puts forward a higher demand for cross-disciplinary
267 talents. In the long term, cultivating innovative talents and preparing innovation curricula are
268 fundamental ways to solve the structural contradiction between labor supply and demand. In
269 addition to the just transition measures mentioned above, it is also vital to pay attention to the
270 immediate basic needs of the poor and the vulnerable during and after the COVID-19. Policymakers
271 shall take efficient measures to reduce further negative impacts of green recovery on the poor's
272 access to housing, water, energy, sanitation, and healthcare services due to income decrease or
273 unemployment.

274 Third, it is worth noting that our estimation only focuses on income equality through employment
275 changes, while neglecting other influencing pathways on social inequality. Future research would
276 further enhance the understanding of just transition in the green recovery from multiple perspectives.
277 For example, although green recovery might cause structural unemployment and aggravate income
278 inequality, the co-benefits of air quality improvement brought by climate change mitigation might
279 alleviate the unequal harms to the poor. This is because the low-income and the vulnerable have
280 been identified as exposed more to severe air pollution, and they may gain the most from the
281 reduction of air pollution in the green recovery^{21,22}. Moreover, research could explore the impact on
282 the job quality of disadvantaged groups, such as ethnic minorities and women, as they usually
283 benefit less from job creation²³. Thus, an integrated assessment with more factors is essential to
284 provide more comprehensive social support for achieving just transition when implementating green
285 recovery policies.

286 In sum, our analysis quantitatively reveals that the low- and medium-income groups are the primary
287 victim in the COVID-19, while the high-income is the main beneficiary of green recovery. Such
288 mismatch alerts that COVID-19 stresses the tradeoffs among SDGs (between climate change
289 mitigation and income equality) and highlights the necessity of performing just transition alongside
290 green recovery. We recommend that policymakers pay attention to the immediate needs of the poor
291 and the vulnerable during and after the pandemic and take transition assistance measures to facilitate
292 a smooth transition in the green recovery.

293

294 **Methods**

295

296 **Modelling of short-term economic impact.** We adopt and develop an improved Adaptive Regional
297 Input–Output (ARIO) model^{24,25} to simulate the economic mechanisms during the COVID-19 and
298 its recovery process. ARIO model can describe how the impact of the pandemic is transmitted
299 through supply chains and further enable the estimation of future economic and social impact of

300 recovery stimulation in the post-COVID-19 era. Guan et al.²⁶ have used similar model to construct
 301 a disaster footprint model to simulate how supply chains are affected by COVID-19 lockdown
 302 measures. Our model differs from Guan et al.'s model²⁶ from the following perspectives: a) In terms
 303 of model structure, our model specifies the economic recovery process, and provides an interface to
 304 input economic recovery packages for individual countries. b) Modules of environment and
 305 employment are integrated to systematically simulate impacts of economy, society, and environment.
 306 c) Parameters are set and calibrated according to latest available data, including big data on
 307 travelling, lockdown measures, etc., to reflect the realistic impact of the pandemic. The model after
 308 such adjustments (namely the Extended Adaptive Regional Input–Output, the E-ARIO model) is
 309 proper to explore the impacts of diverse economic recovery packages in the post-COVID-19 era. A
 310 detailed description of the model structure, calculation equations and parameter setting are provided
 311 in the Supplementary Information.

312

313 **Estimation of job market impacts.** To explore the social impact of pandemic recovery processes,
 314 we calculate labor demand and sectoral income in each period:

$$315 \quad Employment_{i,t}^{r,k} = Em_i^{r,k} \times IOX_{i,t}^r \quad (25)$$

$$316 \quad Income_{i,t}^r = If_i^r \times IOX_{i,t}^r \quad (26),$$

317 where $Employment_{i,t}^{r,k}$ means the labor demand for k th labor type of sector i at region r at
 318 period t , and $Income_{i,t}^r$ illustrates income. $Em_i^{r,k}$ is the demand coefficient (amount of labor
 319 required for each unit of economic output) for the k th labor type, and If_i^r is the income coefficient
 320 (income provided by each unit of product). The two factors are calculated based on the initial state:

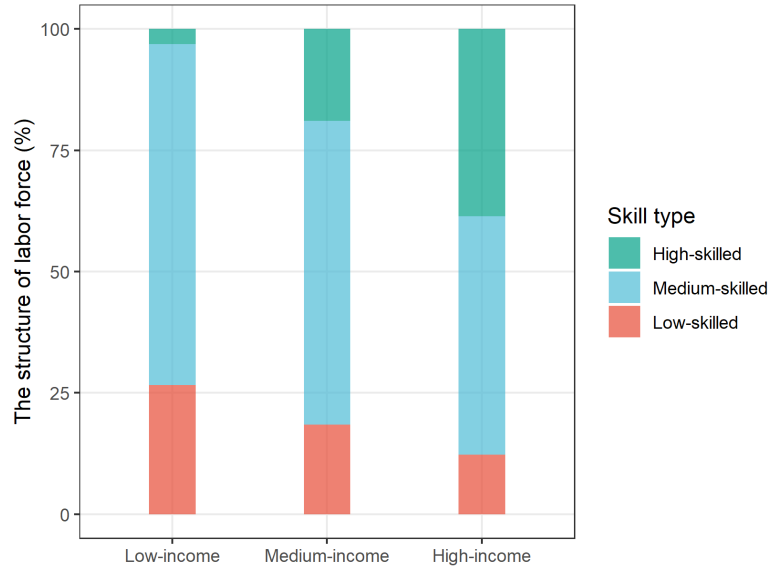
$$321 \quad Em_i^{r,k} = \frac{Employment_{i,0}^{r,k}}{IOX_{i,t}^r} \quad (27)$$

$$322 \quad If_i^r = \frac{Income_{i,0}^r}{IOX_{i,t}^r} \quad (28),$$

323 where $Employment_{i,0}^{r,k}$ is the demand for sector i to the k th type of labor at initial state,
 324 and $Income_{i,0}^r$ is the initial income provided by sector i .

325

326 Based on the sectoral average income, we categorize sectors into 3 groups according to the sectoral
 327 labor force numbers: low-income (40% of the urban labor force number), middle-income (40%),
 328 high-income (20%) group. As shown in Fig.6, the low- and medium-skilled workers account for
 329 more than 97% of low-income group, while high-skilled workers dominate the high-income group
 330 (about 40%).



331
332 **Fig.6** The relationship between the skill type and income level of labor force.
333

334 **Calculation of income inequality.** We calculate the Oshima index for each region to quantify the
335 impact of the pandemic and different recovery packages on social inequality. The Oshima index is the
336 ratio of the average income of the highest 20% of the group (AI_{max}) to the average income of the lowest
337 20% of the group (AI_{min}).

338
$$Oshima = \frac{AI_{max}}{AI_{min}} \quad (29)$$

339 The higher value of the Oshima index represents the greater income gap and the social inequality.

340 **Data source.** Parameters and data source are listed in Table 1. The global supply chain data in E-
341 ARIIO model uses the latest global multi-region input-output database EXIOBASE 3.7²⁷ which
342 describes the currency exchange among 163 sectors in 49 countries/regions and their final demands
343 around the world in 2015. The information on countries/regions and sectors are listed in Annex. The
344 model sets the time step of one week considering the reaction time of companies and the pandemic
345 development patterns. We divide the annual data by 52 and calculate the production and trading data
346 per week, which represents the equilibrium state of production and consumption. Data on labor
347 demand also originates from this dataset. EXIOBASE 3.7 categorizes labor demand as high-,
348 medium-, and low-skilled labor demand. Based on this division, this research explores the impact
349 on different policies on labor demand and income structure.

350
351 We use the actual data on the starting and ending time of every country²⁸ to calibrate the time and
352 range of pandemic controlling measures to enhance reality. Google Community Mobility Report²⁹
353 is utilized to account whether residents work from home or at workplace (for example, if the
354 'workplace' transportation decreases by 20%, the labor force is assumed to decrease by 20%).
355 Sensitivity factors for individual sectors are set to differentiate sectors²⁶. Google Community

356 Mobility Report ²⁹ also reports transportation to other destinations (retail store, grocery and
357 pharmacy, parks, transportation hubs, and residential areas), which is used in this research to
358 calibrate the demand data during the pandemic. Since Google data excludes China, we calculate
359 Chinese situations as the strictest of all countries during the same period of pandemic.

360

Table 1. Parameters and data sources

Module	Parameter	Parameter description	Data source
Production function	$IOZ_{i,0}^r$	Intermediate input at initial state (t=0)	EXIOBASE 3.7 (Stadler et al., 2018)
	$IOX_{i,0}^r$	Total output at initial state (t=0)	
	$IOL_{i,0}^r$	Labor supply at initial state (t=0)	
Intermediate input	∂	Proportion of initial storage to initial intermediate input	Guan et al, 2020
Labor supply	t_1, t_2	Starting and ending time of pandemic controlling measures	Aura Vision, 2020
	γ_i	Sensitivity of labor supply for sector i to the pandemic	Guan et al, 2020
	ω_t^r	Average change in labor at region r	Google, 2020
	θ_{it}^r	Labor recovery rate after lockdown stops	Scenario setting
Demand orders	ε	Proportion of storage target to initial target	Guan et al, 2020
	$\beta_{hi,t}^s$	Change rate of final demand of sector i during lockdowns	Google, 2020
	$v_{hi,t}^s$	Rate of demand recovery of sector i after lockdown stops	Google, 2020
	μ_{hi}^s	Proportion of economic stimulation allocated to sector i	Scenario setting
	MS_{sum}^s	Total amount of economic input as economic stimulus	Scenario setting
	t_s	Starting time of economic stimulus	Scenario setting
	p	Number of periods with economic stimulus	Scenario setting
Employment	$Employment_{i,t}^r$	Labor demand of sector i , categorized according to labor skill	EXIOBASE 3.7 (Stadler et al., 2018)
	$Income_{i,0}^{r,k}$	Income of sector i , categorized according to labor skill	

361

362 **Scenario setting.** Our research constructs three types of economic recovery scenarios: the Business-
363 as-Usual, (BAU) scenario without economic recovery packages, the Traditional economy

364 stimulation (TES) scenario with economic stimulus on fossil fuels and traditional carbon-intensive
365 sectors, and the green recovery scenario focusing on clean energy and digital economy. The green
366 recovery scenario has two sub-scenarios: the Low carbon stimulation (LCS) scenario focusing on
367 clean energy transition, and the Low carbon & digital economy stimulation (LDS) scenario focusing
368 both on clean energy and digital economy. When investing in energy systems, besides the direct
369 generation technologies, other aspects of the projects need to be considered: planning activities,
370 infrastructure and connecting devices. Thus, investments of energy systems are split into different
371 products/sectors in the E-ARIO model. Ratios of investment breakdown are referred to Wiebe, et al.
372 ³⁰ to capture the traditional and green recovery scenario. Except for the BAU scenario, the other
373 three scenario sets 10% of GDP economic stimulus for each region, which is put to the markets
374 before the end of the year. Different scenarios allocate economic stimulus to different sectors based
375 on the initial final demand. Due to the diversity of industrial situations among countries/regions, we
376 adjust the scenario setting for each country/region to fit the scenario description. Besides recovery
377 packages, the recovery rate of labor supply for each region is set at 4%, and economic stimulus is
378 set to start at 4 weeks after the controlling measures are stopped. The stimulating sectors in each
379 scenario are listed in Table 2 and the detailed setting are provided in the SI.

380

Table 2. Scenario setting and description

Scenario	Sectors		Sector number
Business-as-Usual (BAU)	Zero economic stimulus, economy recovers by itself		-
Traditional economy stimulation (TES)	Mining	Mining	20:34
	Manufacturing	Traditional manufacturing	56:84
		Metal product manufacturing	85:86
		Electric and electronic device manufacturing	88
	Construction		113
	Transportation	Railway and airline	121:126
	Energy	Coal power and natural gas power	96,97,101,110
		Transmission and distribution of electricity	108:109
Low carbon stimulation (LCS)	Manufacturing	Metal product manufacturing	85:86
		Transport equipment manufacturing	91:92
		Electric and electronic device manufacturing	88
	Energy	Renewable energy	98:100, 102:107
		Transmission and distribution of electricity	108:109
	Construction		113
	Transportation	Railway transportation	120
	Service	Finance	128, 130, 135
Industry	Research & Development	134	
	Manufacturing	Metal product manufacturing	85:86

Low carbon & digital economy stimulation (LDS)		Transport equipment manufacturing	91:92
		Electric and electronic device manufacturing	88
		High-end manufacturing	87,89,90
	Energy	Renewable energy	98:100, 102:107
		Transmission and distribution of electricity	108:110
	Construction		113
	Service Industry	Communication and software	127,133
		Finance	128, 130, 135
		Research & Development	134
		Education, health and social work	137,138

381 Note: sector No. and corresponding sectors are listed in the SI.

382

383 **Uncertainty analysis.** The recovery speed of the labor market and the time of the stimulus plan
384 may affect our estimation. To examine if the results are robust to various recovery scenarios, we set
385 the recovery speed of the labor market at 2%, 4%, 6%, and 8% per week and the stimulus time at
386 four points: the week of the lockdown ending, four weeks, eight weeks, and twelve weeks after the
387 lockdown ends.

388

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463

Figures

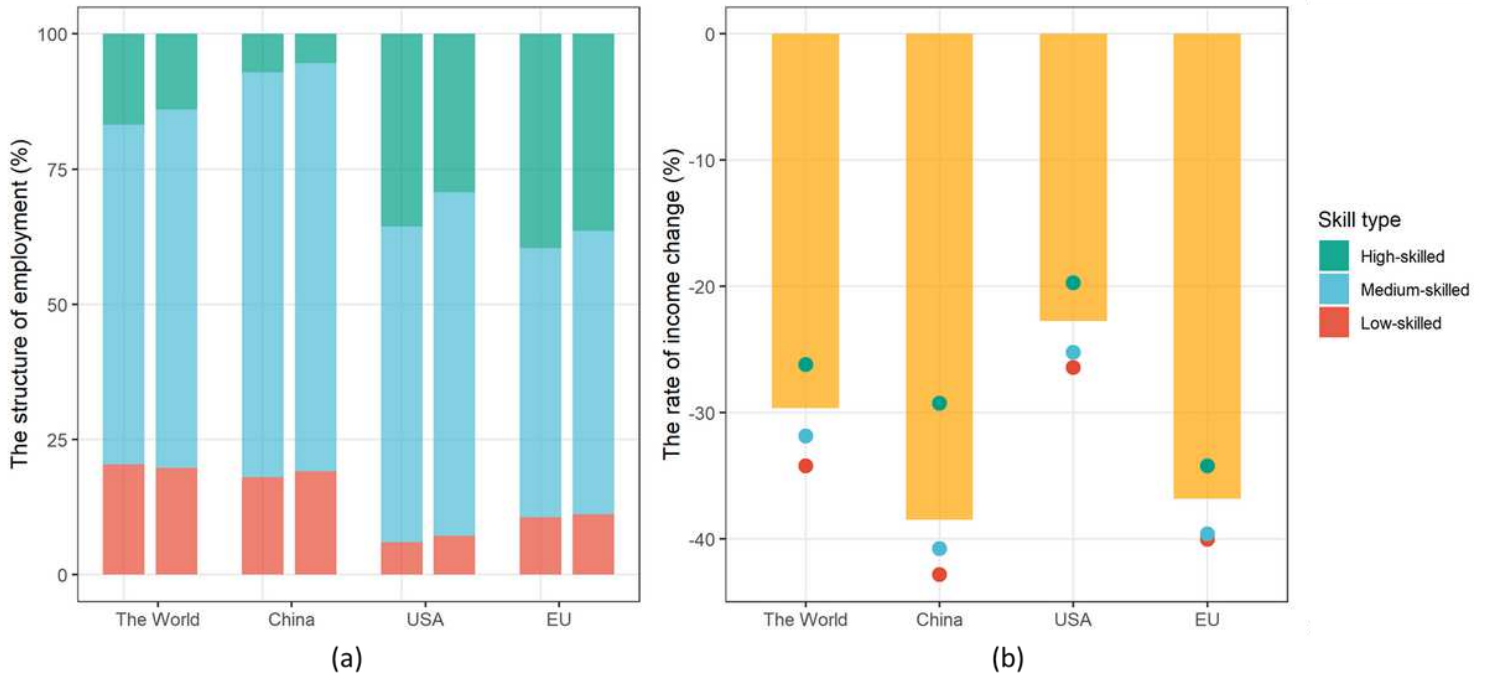


Figure 1

The impacts of COVID-19 on labor demand and average income. Graph (a) shows the structure of the labor force in each region in the initial situation (left bars) and the structure of the labor force affected by the COVID-19 lockdown (right bars). Graph (b) describes the income change of different skill groups (displayed as points) and the average level (displayed as bars) in each region in the lockdown period.

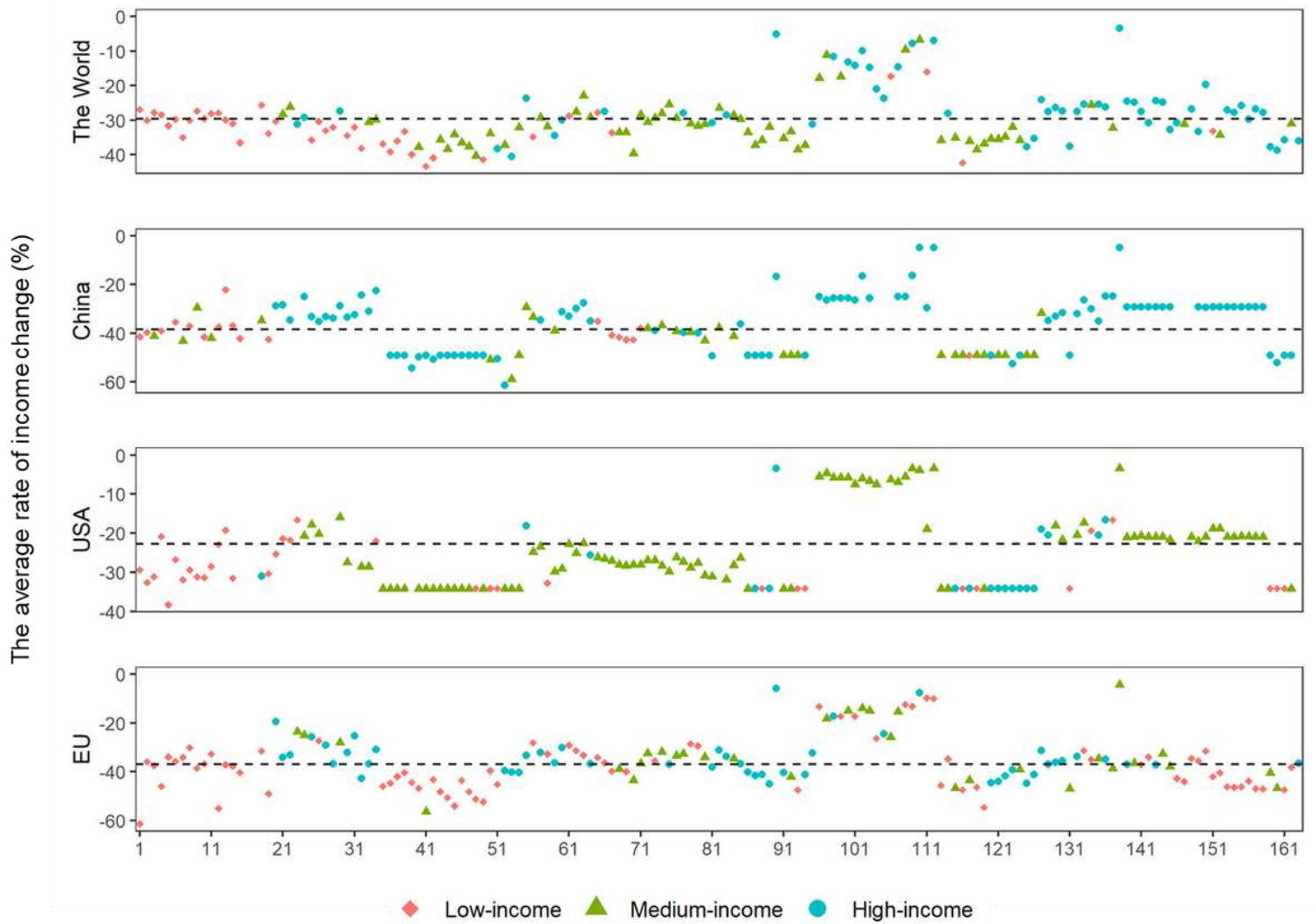


Figure 2

The impacts of COVID-19 on income by sectors. The list of the sectors (indicated by the numbers on the horizontal axis) is provided in the Supplementary Information (SI) Table S2.

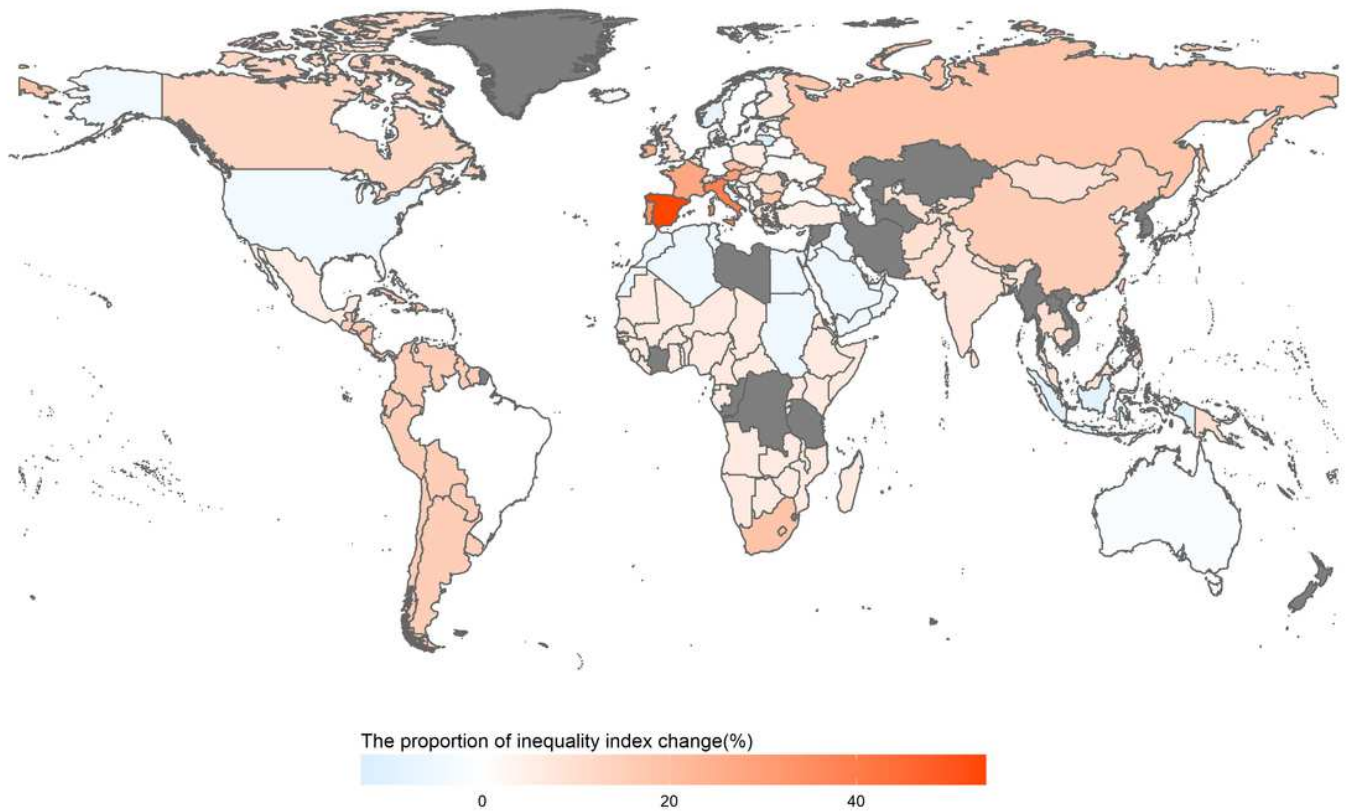


Figure 3

The impacts of COVID-19 on income equality. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

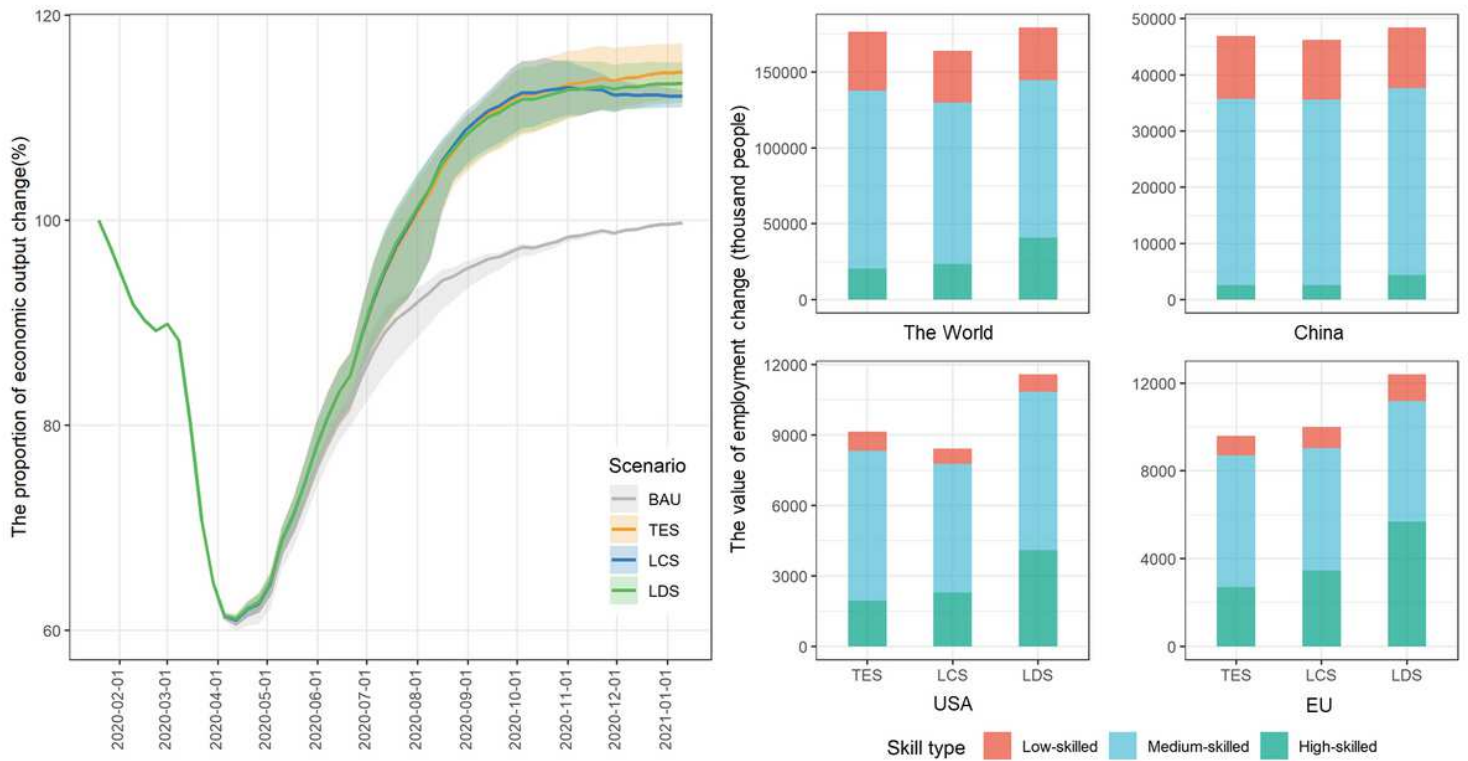


Figure 4

Impacts of recovery scenarios on economic growth and employment demand. BAU represents business-as-usual scenario. TES represents traditional recovery plan. LCS represents low-carbon recovery plan. LDS represents low-carbon and digital recovery plan.

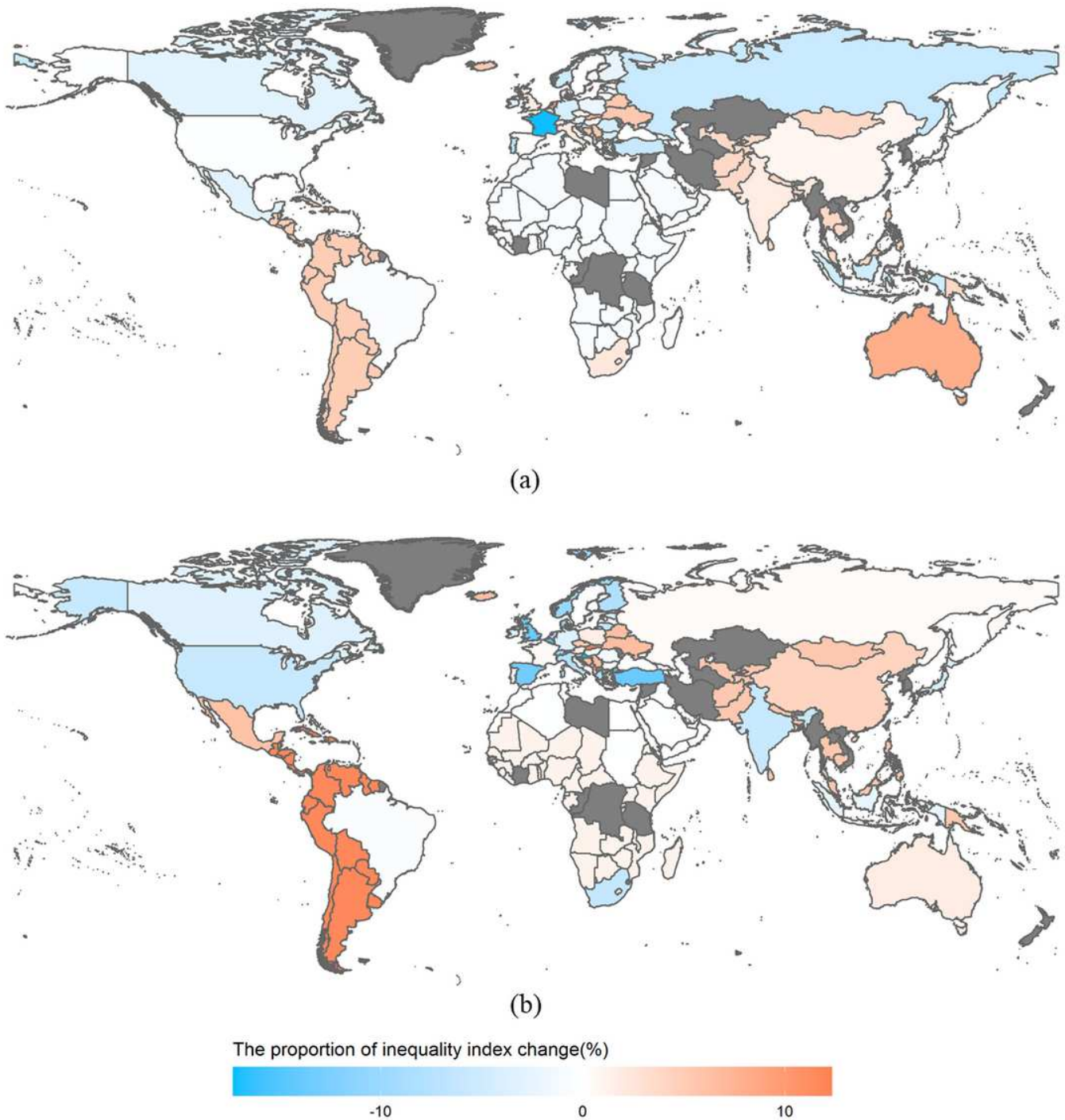


Figure 5

Oshima coefficient of green recovery scenarios compared to TES scenario. Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

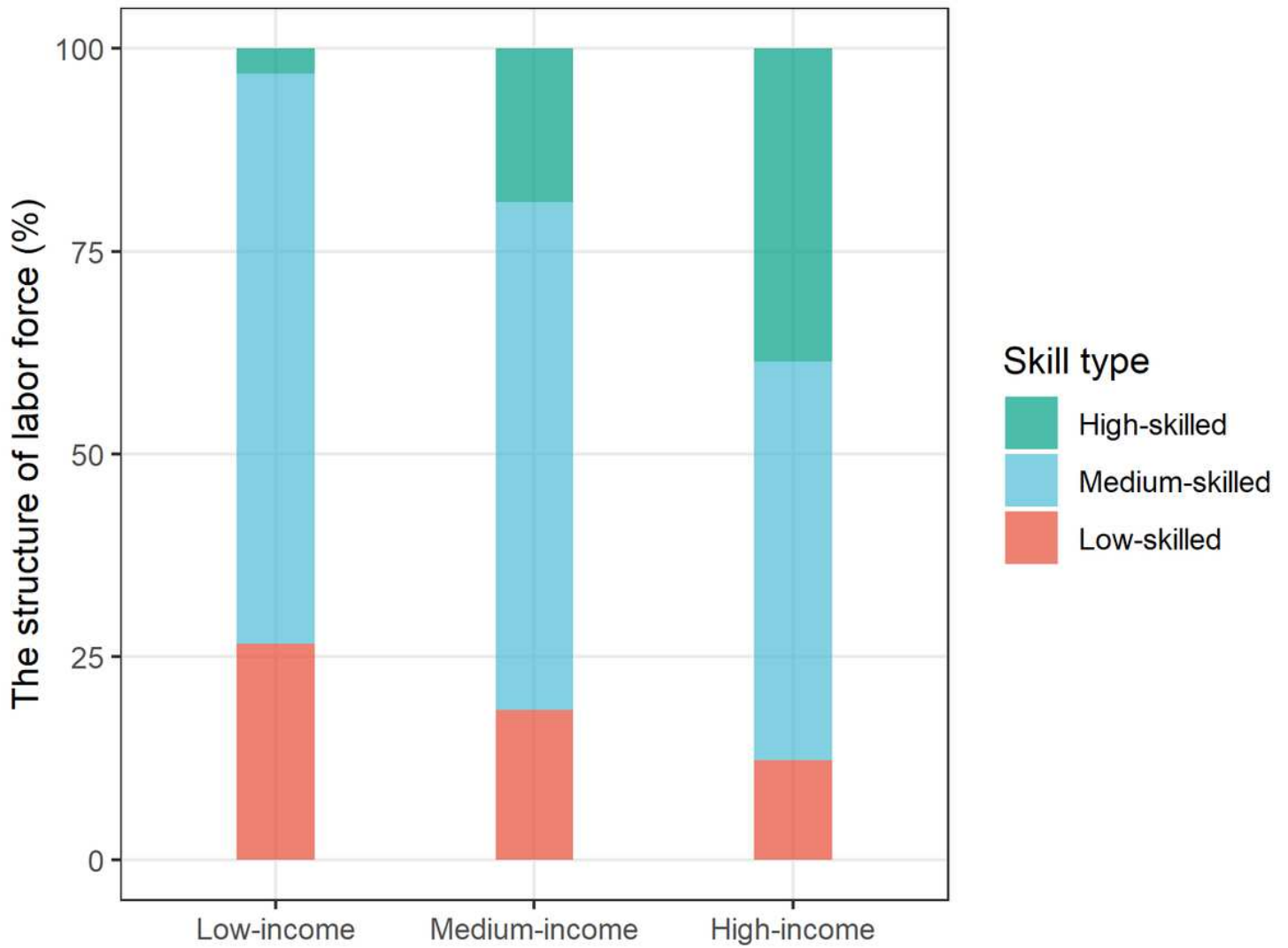


Figure 6

The relationship between the skill type and income level of labor force.

Supplementary Files

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