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A systematic review of the evidence on decoupling of GDP, resource use and GHG emissions, part I: bibliometric and conceptual mapping

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3 **1 A systematic review of the evidence on decoupling of GDP, resource use and**
4 **2 GHG emissions, part I: bibliometric and conceptual mapping**
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8 *Article for the special issue on “Climate change mitigation & demand-side measures” in*
9 *Environmental Research Letters, edited by Felix Creutzig and others*
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3 40 **Social media abstract:** How is decoupling of economic growth from resource use and
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5 41 emissions empirically investigated?
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8 43 **Abstract**

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10 44 As long as economic growth is a major political goal, decoupling growth from resource use and
11 45 emissions is a prerequisite for a sustainable net-zero emissions future. However, empirical
12 46 evidence for absolute decoupling, i.e., decreasing resource use and emissions at the required
13 47 scale despite continued economic growth, is scarce and scattered across different research
14 48 streams. In this two-part systematic review, we assess how and to what extent decoupling has
15 49 been observed and what can be learnt for addressing the sustainability and climate crisis.
20 50 Based on a transparent approach, we systematically identify and screen more than 11,500
21 51 scientific papers, eventually analyzing full texts of 835 empirical studies on the relationship
22 52 between economic growth (GDP), resource use (materials and energy) and greenhouse gas
23 53 emissions. Part I of the review examines how decoupling has been investigated across three
24 54 research streams: energy, materials and energy, and emissions. Part II synthesizes the empirical
25 55 evidence and policy implications (Haberl et al. **part II, in review**). In part I, we examine the
26 56 topical, temporal and geographical scopes, methods of analysis, institutional networks and
27 57 prevalent conceptual angles. We find that in this rapidly growing literature, the vast majority of
28 58 studies – decomposition, ‘causality’ and Environmental Kuznets Curve analysis – approach the
29 59 topic from a statistical-econometric point of view, while hardly acknowledging thermodynamic
30 60 principles on the role of energy and materials for socio-economic activities. A potentially
31 61 fundamental incompatibility between economic growth and systemic societal changes to
32 62 address the climate crisis is rarely considered. We conclude that the existing wealth of empirical
33 63 evidence merits braver conceptual advances than we have seen thus far. Future work should
34 64 focus on comprehensive multi-indicator long-term analyses, conceptually grounded on the
35 65 fundamental biophysical basis of socio-economic activities, incorporating the role of global
36 66 supply chains as well as the wider societal role and preconditions of economic growth.
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51 68 **Keywords:** Decoupling; Green growth; Degrowth; Environmental Kuznets Curve;
52 69 Dematerialization; Decarbonization; Socio-Economic Metabolism
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71 1) Introduction

72 Global resource use and greenhouse gas emissions are steadily increasing, driving the
73 transgression of Planetary Boundaries and accelerating the anthropogenic climate crisis (IPCC
74 2018, Steffen *et al* 2015, Krausmann *et al* 2018, UNEP-IRP 2019, OECD/IEA 2018). These
75 developments occur in lockstep with global economic growth and the rise of mass production
76 and consumption (Krausmann *et al* 2018, UNEP-IRP 2019, OECD/IEA 2018). Making
77 economic growth more ‘inclusive and sustainable’ is its own Sustainable Development Goal
78 (SDG Nr. 8). However, perspectives on feasibility and required political strategies differ
79 widely, depending on one’s underlying conceptual angle on the relationship between economic
80 growth and the environment. These range from the idea of an Environmental Kuznets Curve
81 (Carson 2010) to greening growth through efficiency and decoupling (OECD 2011, UNEP
82 2011b, p 2011, World Bank 2012). Alternatively, calls for degrowth and post-growth
83 approaches are voiced (van den Bergh and Kallis 2012). As long as economic growth persists
84 as a dominant political goal, decoupling economic growth from resource use and emissions is
85 a prerequisite for a sustainable net-zero carbon emissions future.

86
87 On political and research agendas, improving resource and energy efficiency appear as main
88 strategy for decoupling economic growth from environmental pressures and impacts (UNEP
89 2016, UNEP-IRP 2019, OECD 2019). In the conceptualization of decoupling, resource
90 decoupling and (environmental) impact decoupling are distinguished (UNEP 2011a). Resource
91 decoupling refers to the relationship between GDP and biophysical resource use (materials,
92 energy, etc.), whereas impact decoupling refers to the reduction of environmental impacts per
93 unit of GDP (e.g. emissions from energy use and land-use changes). This difference brings quite
94 different mitigation strategies into view, for example reducing fossil fuel use versus carbon
95 capture and sequestration (CCS) or solar geo-engineering (IPCC 2018). Also, what is neatly
96 summarized into resource use versus impacts is much more complex, as different resources
97 have a multitude of environmental impacts, making aggregate proxy indicators indispensable
98 (UNEP-IRP 2019).

99
100 To understand if decoupling occurs at the scale required to address the sustainability and climate
101 crisis, a broad systemic viewpoint on the interdependencies between energy, materials and
102 emissions therefore becomes necessary, which is sometimes called the “resource nexus”
103 (Bleischwitz *et al* 2018). We operationalize the issue through the concept of the socio-economic

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3 104 metabolism, which posits that to understand the biophysical basis of society, one needs to
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5 105 investigate the systemic relations between economic growth, resource use (energy and
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7 106 materials) and emissions, as embedded in a broader socioeconomic and political
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9 107 perspective (Haberl *et al* 2019, Pauliuk and Hertwich 2015). To understand the potentials for
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11 108 absolute decoupling at scale, a systemic analysis across indicators becomes necessary. We
12
13 109 therefore focus on resource decoupling for energy and materials, with the aim of understanding
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15 110 potentials for emissions reductions (a form of impact decoupling). This is supported by the
16
17 111 IPCC demonstrating that energy efficiency and demand-side measures entail less risks and offer
18
19 112 a range of co-benefits to societies compared to technological fixes (Anderson and Peters 2016,
20
21 113 Edenhofer *et al* 2014). We thereby contribute to a much needed renewed focus on demand-side
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23 114 solutions to climate change mitigation (Creutzig *et al* 2018, 2016).
24

24 116 1.1.) Existing reviews on resource use, emissions and economic growth

25
26 117 A number of reviews touched on aspects of the decoupling issue. Some focus on specific
27
28 118 methodological approaches or conceptual angles, e.g. theorizing the energy-growth relation
29
30 119 (Stern 2011), econometric ‘causality’ testing between energy and growth (Kalimeris *et al* 2014,
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32 120 Tiba and Omri 2017, Ozturk 2010), emissions and growth (Mardani *et al* 2019), the problematic
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34 121 and inconclusive evidence on the Environmental Kuznets Curve (Stern 2004, Carson 2010,
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36 122 Dinda 2004, Tiba and Omri 2017, Sarkodie and Strezov 2019), or the role of efficiency versus
37
38 123 consumption growth for increasing energy use and emissions (Lenzen 2016). These reviews all
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40 124 support a fundamental relationship between resource use and emissions with economic growth,
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42 125 however they usually find either no convincing evidence for absolute decoupling at the required
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44 126 scale, or remain inconclusive.
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47 128 Two recent efforts are much closer to the heart of the decoupling question, but both do not
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49 129 attempt to systematically review the literature but are focused on either global studies or recent
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51 130 works only. (Hickel and Kallis 2019) summarize recent global findings on energy, materials
52
53 131 and energy as well as emissions decoupling, finding no signs for an absolute decoupling at
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55 132 nearly the scale required at the global level. Their assessment of the feasibility of reconciling
56
57 133 green growth and efficiency with the need for absolute reductions of reducing resource use and
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59 134 emissions is pessimistic. Along these lines, a recent report by the European Environmental
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135 Bureau (Parrique *et al* 2019) comprehensively summarizes the conceptual issues around
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136 136 decoupling and its limitations, and discusses recent empirical findings across a wide range of

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3 137 indicators. They also perceive a fundamental tension between economic growth and the need
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5 138 for absolute reductions of resource use and emissions required to mitigate the climate crisis and
6
7 139 work towards sustainability. While these previous reviews provided important insights on the
8
9 140 decoupling question, we think that our broader perspective based on a comprehensive and
10
11 141 systematic bibliometric mapping of how decoupling has been investigated so far, can add
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13 142 important further insights on the robustness of this evidence base and the next steps.
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144 1.3) Research scope and questions for this systematic review

145 This pair of review articles goes beyond previous reviews by using a systematic review
146 procedure and comprehensively taking stock of the empirical approaches and evidence. We
147 focus on analyzing the observed relationships between (1) economic growth, here approximated
148 as GDP growth, and (2) resource use decoupling (materials, energy) as well as (3) impact
149 decoupling for GHG emissions on the national to global scale. The two articles are based on
150 state-of-the-art methods for systematically reviewing the peer-reviewed literature, ensuring the
151 greatest possible extent of comprehensiveness and objectiveness. The present part I provides a
152 bibliometric analysis of the empirical literature on decoupling to systematically understand the
153 development of the relevant research streams, their conceptual and methodological approaches
154 and limitations. Part II presents a qualitative and quantitative evidence synthesis to draw out
155 insights regarding observed decoupling, the conditions thereof, and the strategic implications
156 for policy. For the work presented in Part I, we specifically pose the following research
157 questions:

- 158 1. How are the empirical interdependencies between economic growth and resource use
159 and/or emissions investigated? How did the literature develop over time and what are
160 the prevalent empirical, methodological and conceptual angles?
- 161 2. Which methodological and empirical insights on the robustness and insightfulness of
162 the different approaches can be gained?
- 163 3. What are important next steps for the investigation of decoupling?

164

165 Part I of this review proceeds as follows: section 2 clarifies the scope and definitions used in
166 the systematic review and summarizes all review procedures. Section 3 provides a bibliometric
167 and conceptual mapping of the decoupling literature to shed light on the development of this
168 literature and its underlying themes over time. Section 4 then critically discusses the research
169 streams to uncover their potential contributions and limitations for the investigation of
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3 170 decoupling. These insights are then used in part II (Haberl *et al* in review, this issue) to partition
4
5 171 the literature in thematic groups for analysis in terms of their substantive insights as well as
6
7 172 their linkages to policies and strategies. Section 5 concludes on the status quo of the decoupling
8
9 173 literature and makes some suggestions for the way forward.

11 174 2) Definitions, scope and methods used in the systematic review

13 175 In the following, we provide a concise summary of all definitions and methodological steps
14
15 176 taken. We start by defining three research streams. The first research stream focuses on energy
16
17 177 flows and energy conversion chains in socio-economic systems, utilizing energy statistics to
18
19 178 quantify energy uses in terms of energy units (Joule, tons of oil equivalent, ...); this includes
20
21 179 studies investigating exergy flows. The second research stream adds a more comprehensive
22
23 180 perspective by asserting that materials and energy are necessarily interlinked and should be
24
25 181 investigated jointly to understand the relationship between economic growth, resource
26
27 182 efficiency and the resulting environmental pressures and impacts. Literature in this stream is
28
29 183 mostly based on data obtained from material and energy flow analysis (MEFA), which
30
31 184 harmonizes resource use data derived from various (inter)national databases (Fischer-Kowalski
32
33 185 *et al* 2011, Krausmann *et al* 2017). Material and energy flows are measured in metric tons
34
35 186 respectively Joules along 50-60 categories and are usually grouped into biomass, fossil energy
36
37 187 carriers, non-metallic minerals and ores and metals. The third research stream specifically
38
39 188 investigates the interdependence between GHG emissions and economic growth. We
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41 189 distinguish between studies limited to CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion and industrial
42
43 190 processes such as cement manufacture, and more comprehensive studies taking ‘all’ GHG
44
45 191 emissions (CO₂, CH₄, N₂O and other GHGs) into account. The latter also cover emissions from
46
47 192 agriculture and land use, land-use change and forestry (LULUCF).

48
49 193
50 194 Furthermore, to understand decoupling, a differentiation between “production-based“ and
51
52 195 “consumption-based” approaches is indispensable, as it takes the increasing role of global trade
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54 196 into account (Peters 2008, Wiedmann and Lenzen 2018, Haberl *et al* 2019, Steiner *et al*
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56 197 2015, Peters *et al* 2012). Lately also a third perspective, income-based responsibility, has been
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58 198 proposed, although there is little literature available so far (Marques *et al* 2012, 2013, Steiner
59
60 199 *et al* 2015). A production-based or territorial system boundary is the most common approach
200
201 200 to investigating resource use and emissions occurring “within” a national economy; UNFCCC
specifically uses “territorial” emissions accounting. The difference between territorial and

1
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3 202 production-based perspective is mainly how international bunkers, aviation and shipping are
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5 203 allocated. Due to increasing concerns about the role of international trade and the fragmentation
6
7 204 of supply chains in shifting environmental burdens across countries, a consumption-based or
8
9 205 “footprint” approach has been developed (Wiedmann and Lenzen 2018, Peters *et al* 2012). This
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11 206 consumption-based perspective considers the materials, energy or emission directly and
12
13 207 indirectly associated with the final demand of a population in a country, no matter where
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15 208 extraction or emissions occur internationally. For our systematic review, we specifically probe
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17 209 for the uptake of production- and consumption-based perspectives and insights.
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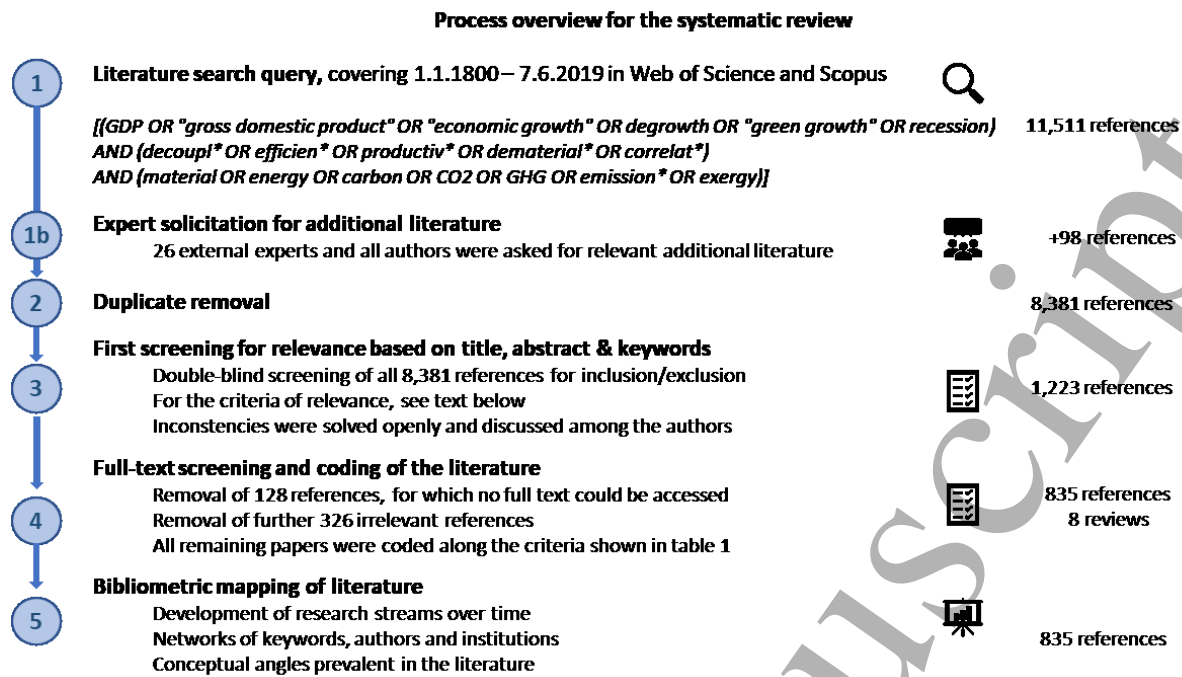
20 211 In summary, we operationalize our systematic review in the following manner: this review
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22 212 focuses on quantitative, empirical studies on economic growth and resource use decoupling
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24 213 (material and energy), as well as impact decoupling for GHG emissions; studies presenting
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26 214 scenarios, modelling exercises and theoretical/conceptual discussions were excluded. We limit
27
28 215 our review to studies at national to global level; sub-national, regional or urban studies are
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30 216 excluded. Only studies using comprehensive indicators are included, covering primary energy,
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32 217 final energy, useful energy and exergy, materials and energy, as well as emissions; studies on
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34 218 sectors, e.g. housing or manufacturing, or on particular materials or energy carriers, e.g. metals
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36 219 or electricity, are excluded. These criteria as well as the categories used for characterizing
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38 220 methods and conceptual angles are summarized in Table 1.
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222 Table 1: Criteria applied for mapping the body of literature. All criteria except 1b, 2a,b allowed yes/no
 223 distinctions; positives were marked. For 1b the respective country was noted, for 2a,b the respective years.

| | |
|--|----|
| 1. Geographic scope of the study (1a, 1c and 1d were mutually exclusive) | |
| National (one country) | 1a |
| If national, which country | 1b |
| International (more than 1 country, but less than global) | 1c |
| Global (sufficiently large sample to draw global conclusions, or global totals) | 1d |
| 2. Temporal scope of the analysis | |
| Starting year | 2a |
| End year | 2b |
| 3. Type of resource or emission indicator(s) | |
| Production-based territorial indicator (e.g. GHG emissions in UNFCCC reports) | 3a |
| Consumption-based footprint indicator (e.g. material footprint, carbon footprint) | 3b |
| Material and energy flows (Domestic Material Consumption, Raw Material Consumption aka material footprint) | 3c |
| Primary energy use (Total Primary Energy Supply (TPES) & TPES footprint) | 3d |
| Final energy use (and final energy footprint) | 3e |
| Exergy (useful exergy, useful energy, and the respective footprints) | 3f |
| Fossil-fuel related and industrial (e.g. cement) CO ₂ emissions | 3g |
| All/most GHG emissions (including N ₂ O, CH ₄ and CO ₂ from LULUCF) | 3h |
| 4. Method of analysis | |
| Cross-sectional analysis (correlations across countries within the same year) | 4a |
| Descriptive trend analysis (verbal interpretation of trends in energy intensity or related indicators) | 4b |
| Regression and decomposition analysis (simple regression and decomposition analyses) | 4c |
| Econometric time-series analysis (e.g. temporal correlations or panel analyses) | 4d |
| Econometric causality tests (e.g. Granger causality tests) | 4e |
| 5. Conceptual angle (only if explicitly mentioned in title, abstract or keywords) | |
| Decoupling | 5a |
| Green growth | 5b |
| Degrowth | 5c |
| Environmental Kuznets Curve | 5d |

224
 225 Based on these considerations, we systematically reviewed the scientific literature in six steps
 226 (Figure 1), five of which are discussed in this article, whereas the last is presented in part II of
 227 this review (Haberl *et al* in review, this issue). Step 1, selection of relevant literature: we applied
 228 a search query to the Web of Knowledge and SCOPUS literature databases and pursued an
 229 expert solicitation for relevant articles, resulting in 11,511 studies. Steps 2-4: through duplicate
 230 removal and manual selection of relevant references in a screening and full-text coding phase,
 231 we reduced the number of articles to 835. Step 5, bibliometric literature mapping: we analyzed
 232 all selected references to identify temporal development of the literature, differing scopes and
 233 coverage as well as key conceptual angles (see Table 2 and Section 3). Step 6: the evidence
 234 synthesis and implications for policy and strategy are presented in part II (Haberl *et al* in review,
 235 this issue).



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237

238 *Figure 1: Overview of the systematic review process along five main steps. For the evidence synthesis please see (Haberl et al.*

239 *this issue*). The full list of articles including their coding can be found in the supplementary information.

240 Step 1 consisted of an iterative discussion process among the co-authors, supported by

241 anonymous reviews of an early outline of this paper, to develop a *search query* (Figure 1).

242 Through the choice of English-language keywords, this query was only for publications that –

243 at minimum – have English-language titles, keywords, and/or abstracts. This query was applied

244 to SCOPUS and the ISI Web of Knowledge and all 11,511 literature hits, starting with the first

245 study found in 1972 until June 7, 2019 were downloaded. Additionally, an *expert solicitation*

246 was conducted, to make sure that all relevant studies are covered. All authors named experts,

247 24 were contacted, resulting in 5 responses (see Table_SI 3). All co-authors were also allowed

248 to add references deemed relevant; experts and co-authors together added 98 references. The

249 systematic review platform CADIMA (Kohl *et al* 2018) was used for *duplicate removal* and

250 the first screening phase.

251

252 In the first *screening phase*, 8,455 references were checked for relevance (Figure 1), using the

253 criteria for inclusion/exclusion discussed in section 3. All co-authors (except B.L-G. who joined

254 later) participated in the screening process. Title and abstract of each reference were

255 independently assessed by two co-authors per reference to determine the relevance of the paper

256 (allowed responses: yes/no/unclear). Differences in responses were resolved in a second round.

If in doubt, a study remained in the sample (i.e. references classified as “unclear” were retained).

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3 257 In the *full-text screening and coding stage* 1,169 full texts were again assessed for relevance
4
5 258 (Figure 1, see previous paragraph) and coded according to pre-developed criteria (Table 1).
6
7 259 Each article was coded by one co-author. 128 full texts, many of them published in unidentified
8
9 260 or unknown journals, could not be accessed and had to be excluded. In addition, we identified
10
11 261 8 relevant reviews, which we used to inform our review. Another 327 references were excluded
12
13 262 based on the full-text screening, because they did not meet the criteria for relevance (see above),
14
15 263 leaving 835 relevant references in the final set of studies. The full list of studies, including the
16
17 264 applied coding shown in table 1, can be found in the supplementary information.
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19 265
20 266 For the *bibliometric mapping* (Figure 1), we analyzed the remaining 835 studies along the
21
22 267 coding criteria shown in table 1 and gathered keywords, author and institutional networks. To
23
24 268 determine the number of publications for and the connections between authors, organizations,
25
26 269 and keywords, we used a self-developed VBA-script. The GPS coordinates of the organization
27
28 270 locations had been gathered through the OpenCage Geocoder. To generate the network
29
30 271 illustrations, we used the visualization software Gephi after filtering the data on the basis of a
31
32 272 minimum publication count of four.
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34 273
35 274 For the *evidence synthesis*, we refer to part II of this review (Haberl *et al* in review, **this issue**).
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37 275 In step 6, we analyze the literature to identify key empirical and theoretical findings, summarize
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39 276 the implications of the literature in terms of the evidence on decoupling, and aim to understand
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41 277 the implications for policy and strategy based on a content analysis applied to a sub-sample of
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43 278 125 studies (15% of the reviewed literature).
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279 3) Bibliometric and conceptual mapping of the literature

280 We here provide a quantitative overview of the decoupling literature to uncover the
281 development of the research streams, methods, coverage and conceptual angles. We find that
282 92% of the reviewed studies were published between 2005 and the cut-off for this review on
283 06/2019. More than half of the studies (52%) were published between 2014-06/2019, while
284 only six studies, containing 0.05% of analyses, are from <1985 (not shown in Figure 2a).
285 Between 2005-2018, the total number of studies grew on average by +20% per annum.

286

287 3.1.) Bibliometric analysis of study scopes and indicators used

288 Because 252 of the 835 studies jointly analyze several indicators, for example energy and
289 emissions in relation to GDP, and often apply several methods of analysis, we refer to the
290 respective counts of “analyses” for each indicator/method in the following. This means that
291 every resource/emission indicator analyzed in the literature was counted as one analysis, and
292 that we identified a total of 1,157 analyses included in the sample of 835 studies.

293

294 We find that analyses of total primary energy supply (TPES) and CO₂ emissions from fossil
295 fuel combustion and industrial processes dominate the literature sample and make up 42%
296 respectively 34% of analyses (Figure 2a). Other indicators are analyzed much less, where
297 materials and energy make up 8%, final energy 7%, full GHG emissions (i.e. including CH₄,
298 N₂O and other gases as well as CO₂ from LULUCF) another 7% and exergy analyses only 1%
299 of all reviewed analyses. The first studies of each thematic focus are (Smil and Kuz 1976) on
300 primary energy decoupling for 133 countries, followed by (Kelly *et al* 1989) investigating
301 material and energy consumption in the USA, (Nakićenović 1996) on global decarbonization
302 (CO₂) and (Tharakan *et al* 2001) investigating GHG decoupling for 5 Asian countries.

303

304 Overall, we find that the total number of analyses being published every year increases by +20%
305 p.a. since 2005, with different dynamics for each research stream. The total number of published
306 analyses grows fastest for full GHG emissions (+38% p.a.), industrial CO₂ emissions (+28%
307 p.a.) and exergy (+24% p.a.). Analyses of primary energy (+18% p.a.), materials and energy
308 analyses (+17% p.a.) and final energy (+14% p.a.) are published relatively less.

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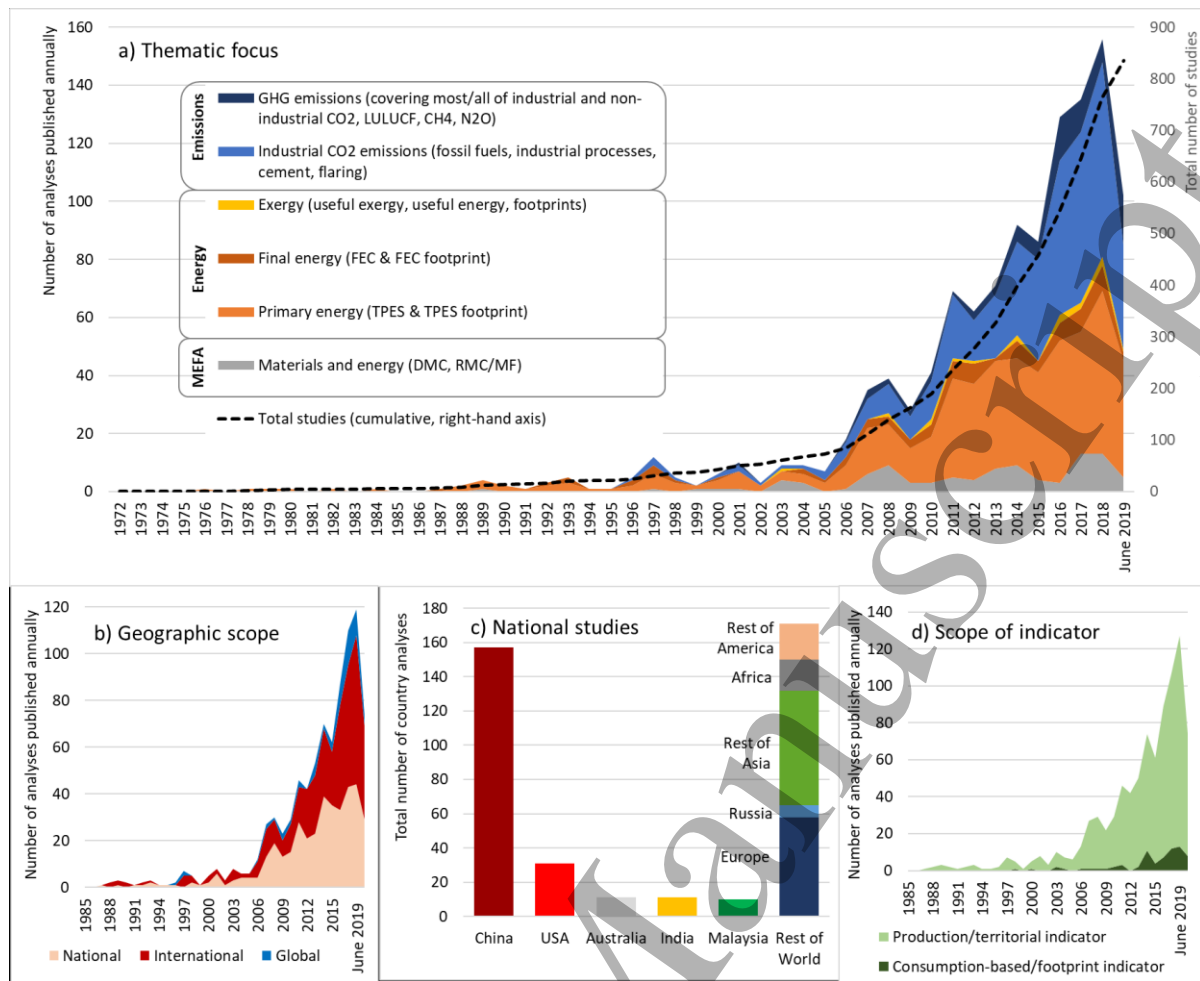


Figure 2: The development and main scope of the 835 studies published between 1976 and June 7, 2019. Please note that the 6 studies published before 1985 are not plotted in a), b), d), but are included in c). A) Thematic focus of analysis (codes 3c-3i in Table 1). B) Geographic scope of the analysis (1a-d). C) Countries analyzed more than 10 times in national-level studies, as well as continental aggregates for countries studies less than 10 times, covering all studies from 1976-2019. D) Production- vs consumption-based scope of the analysis. Because a number of studies have multiple thematic foci (e.g. energy and emissions), and/or scopes (e.g. comparing country results to global trends) there is no clear total sum, rather it depends on the categories shown in A-D. See method section for abbreviations and supplementary information for the full list of the 835 coded studies.

In terms of geographic scope, we find that almost half (46%) of the analyses are single-country analyses (Figure 2b). International cross-country analyses make up another 46%, while 8% focused on aggregate global developments. Of the single-country analyses, China leads with 157 analyses, followed by 31 USA-specific analyses, then Australia and India (both 11) and Malaysia (10). Another 56 countries have been analyzed less than 10 times each, most of them in (rest of) Asia and Europe (Figure 2c). Stated differently, of the country-specific analyses, 28% investigated OECD economies, 40% China and 32% focused on other countries.

Finally, we find that the vast majority, 92% of the analyses (in 794 studies) apply a production-based/territorial system boundary (Figure 2d). Analyses applying a consumption-based

331 perspective, i.e. taking into account all direct and indirect resource use along international
332 supply chains, only start to appear after ~2012, when the first multi-regional input-output
333 models became widely available (Malik *et al* 2018, Wiedmann and Lenzen 2018, Wiedmann *et*
334 *al* 2011). In total, 8% of analyses (in 70 studies) utilize a consumption-based perspective, while
335 only 4% of the analyses (in 33 studies) utilize both perspectives within the same study.

336

337 3.2.) Methods of analysis applied

338 In a next step, we mapped the analytical approaches taken across the 835 studies and grouping
339 them into five broad “families” (Figure 3): cross-sectional analysis, descriptive trend analysis,
340 decomposition and regression analysis, econometric time series analysis, and econometric
341 causality tests. If a publication contained more than one method, for example, a descriptive
342 trend analysis and a cross-sectional analysis, we counted that as two methods applied.

343

344 We find that of 1,542 methods applied across 835 studies, decomposition and regression
345 analyses (28%) and econometric time-series analyses (24%) are most prevalent, followed by
346 econometric causality tests (18%), descriptive trend (18%) and cross-sectional analyses (12%).
347 Interestingly, there is a clear difference in preferred methods for the different research streams
348 (Figure 3). For material and energy flows, only 9% of the methods applied are econometric
349 time-series and 1% causality tests, while descriptive (44%) and decomposition and regression
350 analysis (29%) dominate this research stream. For primary energy decomposition and
351 regression analyses (25%) and econometric time-series methods (25%) are most important.
352 Final energy and exergy have been mainly analyzed using decomposition and regression
353 analyses (30% and 23%), as well as descriptive methods (25% and 41%). Fossil fuel and full
354 GHG emissions have been investigated mainly via decomposition and regression methods (29%
355 and 36%), as well as econometric time-series analyses (29% and 21%). Overall, decomposition
356 and regression analysis are most equally distributed over all research streams, with shares
357 between 23-34% of analyses, while econometric causality tests are most prevalent with primary
358 energy and fossil fuel emissions (23% and 20% respectively).

359

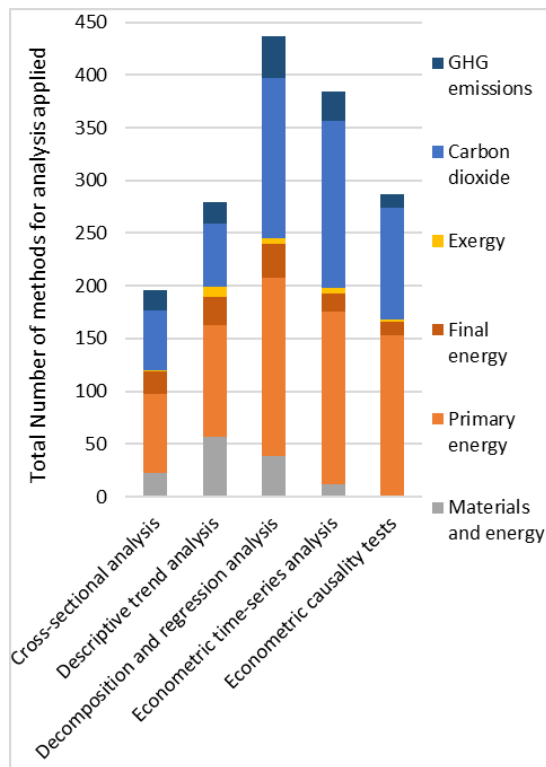


Figure 3: Number of methods applied for the different thematic foci. Methods are grouped into broad “families” of methods and thematic focus. Please note that two methods applied to the same indicator count twice (see text). Cross-sectional analysis contains for example correlations of GDP and energy across countries within the same year, while descriptive trend analysis covers comparison of GDP and resource trends or average growth rates over time. The next “family” contains decomposition and regression analyses over time, while econometric time-series analysis covers (multivariate time-dependent) statistical analysis or panel analyses. Econometric causality tests include Granger causality tests, etc. See supplementary information for the full list of 835 coded studies.

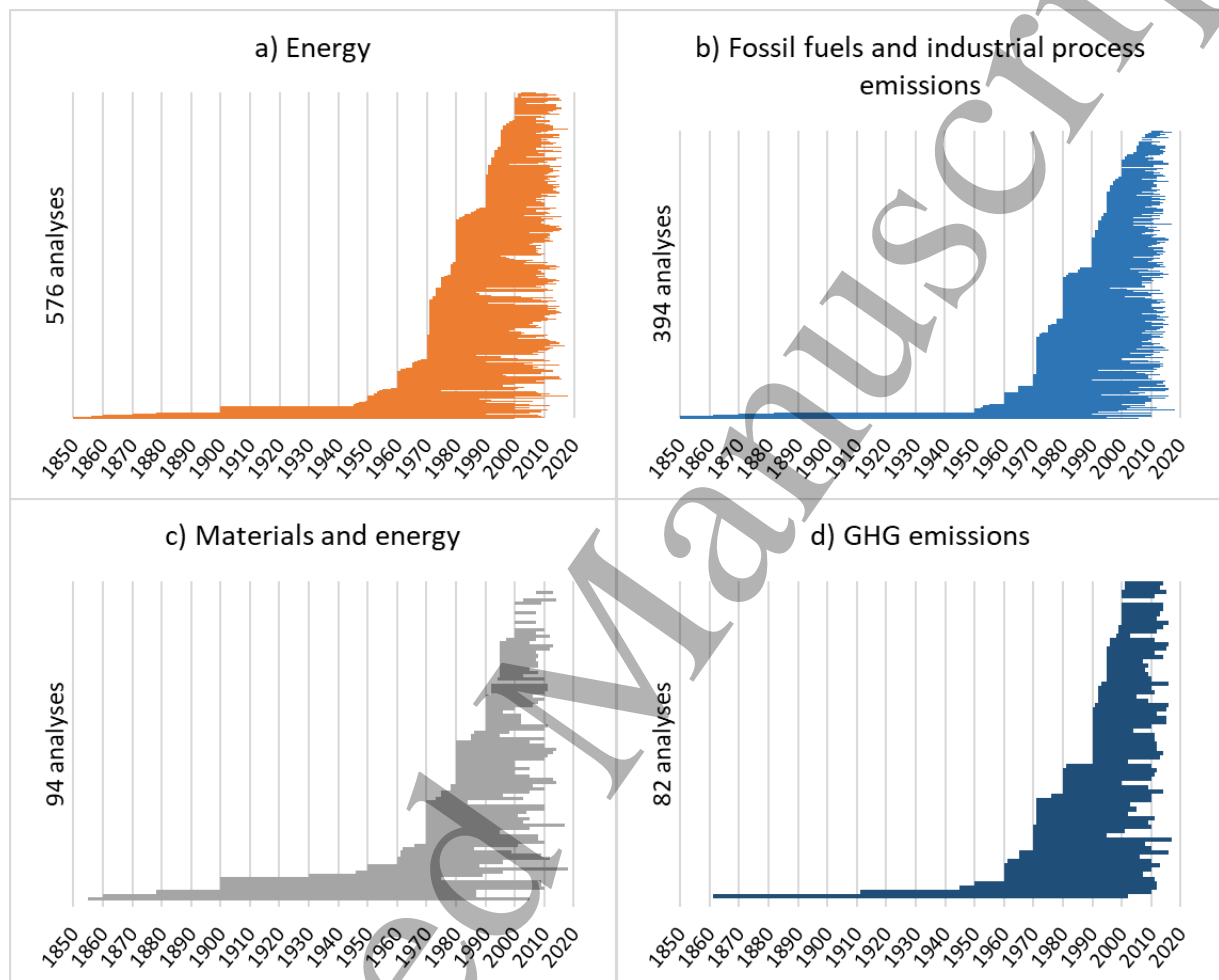
3.2.) Temporal coverage of decoupling studies by research stream

To understand the temporal perspective of the reviewed analyses and their potential insights on long-term decoupling, we mapped the temporal coverage of each empirical analysis, given proper documentation was provided. Around three-quarters of published analyses focus on the decades from 1971 onwards, with 77% of energy analyses, 85% of fossil fuels and industrial process emission analyses, 68% of material and energy analyses and 78% of GHG emission analyses utilizing data starting no earlier than 1971 (Figure 4). 50% of analyses extend over more than two decades, while 12% investigate datasets covering less than 10 years.

Studies considering decades earlier than 1971 make up 21% of all analyses and are primarily found for energy (84 analyses), CO₂ (44 analyses), material and energy analysis (17 analyses), followed by GHGs (11 analyses). The earliest empirical starting year is found in (Gales *et al* 2007) who investigated primary energy decoupling for Sweden, the Netherlands, Italy, and Spain from 1800 to 2000, and in (Apak *et al* 2011) who report on economic growth and CO₂

383 from fossil fuels and process emissions for the USA from 1800 to 2006. (Kovanda and Hak
 384 2011) investigate material and energy use from 1855 to 2007 for Czechoslovakia, while (Cialani
 385 2007) analyzed GHG decoupling in Italy from 1861 to 2002. Regarding coverage of the most
 386 recent decade, we find a reversal: 75% of GHG analyses use data including (parts of) 2009-
 387 2019, followed by CO₂ (69%), energy (58%) and materials (40%).

388



389

390 *Figure 4: Temporal scope of the analyzed studies per thematic group a) Energy (3d-g), b) Fossil fuels and industrial process*
 391 *emissions (3h), c) Materials and energy (3c) and d) Green House Gas (GHG) emissions (3i). All primary sources where clear*
 392 *coverage could be identified have been included. For improved legibility, we cut-off the figures at 1850, despite a small number*
 393 *of studies covering earlier years. See supplementary information for the full list of 835 coded studies.*

394

395 3.3.) Institutional networks in global decoupling research

396 We mapped the institutional networks of authors collaborating in the studies reviewed (Figure
397 5). Research institutions investigating decoupling are largely based in Europe, China, Japan and
398 the USA. Members of these institutions also collaborate with one another, as determined by co-
399 authorship, a practice especially common between the USA and China. Some work has also
400 been done by researchers from institutions in Australia, Japan, India, Pakistan, Indonesia and
401 Brazil, but – except for Australia and Japan – they are not strongly integrated into the
402 decoupling research networks. Russia is hardly represented in these research networks and the
403 same is true of the continents of Africa and South America, at least for English-language peer-
404 reviewed literature in Scopus and Web of Science.

405
406 A mapping of institutional networks separately for the three main research streams (energy,
407 materials and energy, emissions) indicates that while energy and emissions research follows a
408 similar pattern as shown in (Figure 5), the joint analysis of materials and energy is mainly driven
409 by a few institutions in Europe, Japan and Australia, with some links to China and the USA
410 (Figure SI_1).



414
415 *Figure 5: Global mapping of institutional networks (indicated by co-authorship) derived from the literature. A list of all*
416 *the mapped institutions can be found in the supplementary information.*

3.4.) Conceptual angles on the decoupling issue

As a final step, we aim to understand the major conceptual angles across the 835 reviewed studies. For this purpose, we firstly map the frequency of terms (co-)occurring in the abstract, title and keywords of the 835 papers and secondly code occurrences of the major conceptual angles on the decoupling issue (Figure 6). We start from a network of a harmonized list of semantically identical keywords used in the literature in a network weighted by frequency and (co-)occurrence and exclude all keywords mentioned less than 15 times (Figure 6a, Table SI_1). We find a major cluster of the keywords economic growth (occurring in 198 studies), carbon emissions (180) and energy consumption (153), which also tend to appear in conjunction with one another and are used as keywords in the top cited papers in our sample (Table SI_2). The five most frequently used keywords to describe the conceptual angle of the studies are Environmental Kuznets Curve (70), energy intensity and energy efficiency (62 and 59), decoupling (43), sustainable development (28) and societal metabolism (27). The five most mentioned methods are material and energy flow analysis (45), Granger causality (43), data envelopment analysis (33), cointegration (28) and input-output analysis (23). Interestingly, we note a clustering of the keywords growth, energy, financial development, GDP, cointegration, Granger causality and energy consumption, as well as another clustering of material and energy flow analysis, societal metabolism, dematerialization, industrial ecology and decoupling, indicating different theoretical and methodological approaches. These clusters and differing conceptual angles are also supported by a multi-layer network analysis of keywords, authors and author-keywords shown in (Figure SI_2).

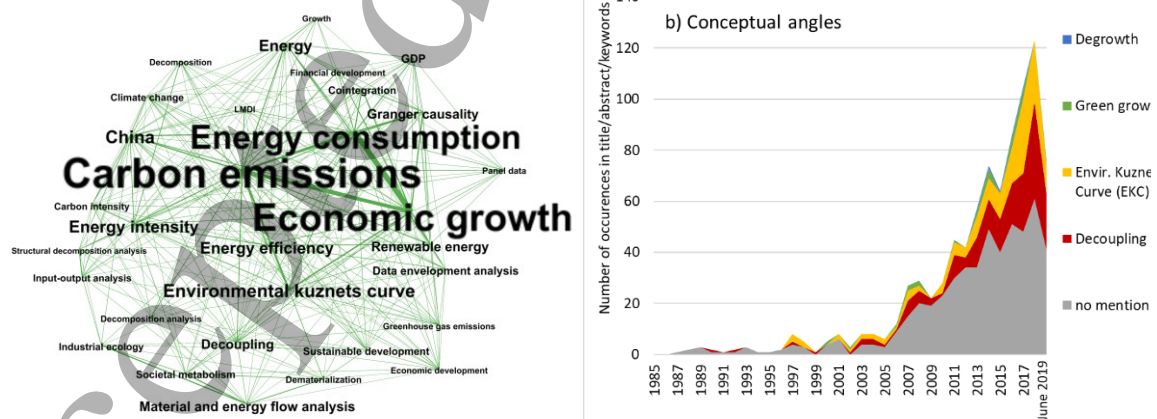


Figure 6: Mapping the major themes running through the 835 studies reviewed. A) Network of keywords (co-)occurring in the literature. The size of keyword represents the frequency of occurrence and links represent co-occurrence. Only keywords mentioned at least 15 times are shown. Green nodes & lines: keywords (mentioned at least 15 times) and keyword network. B) Frequency of explicit mention of key conceptual angles in title/abstract/keyword. Note that six analyses before 1985 are not shown. See supplementary information for the full list of 835 coded studies.

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3 445 To get a final insight to what extent the reviewed literature situates itself explicitly within
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5 446 specific conceptual angles on economic growth, we coded all 835 studies for the occurrences
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7 447 of the terms Environmental Kuznets Curve, green growth, degrowth and decoupling in their
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9 448 respective title/abstract/keywords over the entire time period (Figure 6b). We find that most
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11 449 studies (524 of 835 studies) do not mention any of these terms, while decoupling is mentioned
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13 450 most often (174 occurrences), followed by the Environmental Kuznets Curve (138 times).
14
15 451 Green growth (24) and degrowth (5) are hardly used in title/abstract/keywords. Interestingly we
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17 452 find that since around 2011 more and more studies explicitly relate to these concepts and in
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19 453 2018/19 45% of studies explicitly mention decoupling or the EKC. For further in-depth
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21 454 qualitative interpretations of these conceptual issues we also refer to part II of this review
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23 455 (Haberl *et al* in review, [this issue](#)).
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25 457 4) Discussion: how do the research streams approach decoupling?

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27 458 In this section, we discuss how the literature in the three research streams approaches the
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29 459 decoupling issue, reflect on the major conceptual contributions to the topic and draw some
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31 460 conclusions on potential next steps.
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34 462 4.1.) Research on energy decoupling

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36 463 The energy research stream uses several indicators for energy use, which differ regarding the
37
38 464 point of reference within the energy conversion chain and thereby provide differentiated
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40 465 insights into the interdependencies with economic growth. This complexity is often under-
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42 466 appreciated in the majority of the energy decoupling literature and also in most of the energy-
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44 467 growth econometric ‘causality’ reviews (Ozturk 2010, Tiba and Omri 2017). The most
45
46 468 commonly used indicator is total primary energy supply (TPES), referring to the energy content
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48 469 of all energy carriers prior to subsequent conversion steps (e.g. coal, oil, biomass). Further
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50 470 indicators are final energy consumption (i.e., the energy provided to end users after conversion
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52 471 processes, e.g. electricity or district heat) and useful energy consumption (i.e., the energy after
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54 472 conversion in end-use devices, such as low-temperature heat provided by residential heating
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56 473 systems, or kinetic energy provided by car engines).
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60 475 Clearly, efficiency and decoupling potentials differ strongly depending on these different
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62 476 aspects of energy for socio-economic activities. It is also argued that exergy, which measures
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64 477 the share of energy capable of performing mechanical, chemical, or thermal work provides a

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3 478 more precise measure to study the significance of energy for society and economic development
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5 479 (Ayres and Warr 2005). Despite the fact that ‘exergy studies’ have clearly enriched the debate
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7 480 about the relationship between energy and GDP, studies applying an exergy perspective are still
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9 481 the exception (Figure 2). The longstanding history and differentiations of energy decoupling
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11 482 research are also reflected in the relatively loose network of collaborators publishing on the
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13 483 subject (Figure SI_3).

14 484
15 485 About one-third of the energy analyses focuses on the causal interrelations between energy and
16
17 486 GDP (Figure 3). Most of these studies are more or less exclusively interested whether energy
18
19 487 use drives GDP, or conversely GDP drives energy use, often relying on Granger causality tests
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21 488 or similar methods. While often quite elaborate in terms of statistical methods, most of these
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23 489 studies show scant if any interest in the precise meaning of the energy indicators analyzed.
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25 490 Many do not even explicitly state whether the energy indicator used refers to primary or final
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27 491 energy; indeed, for a large number of studies we had to go back to the cited data sources to find
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29 492 that almost all these studies had analyzed primary energy. Also, most of the existing reviews
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31 493 either do not even examine their literature for these issues, while (Kalimeris *et al* 2014) note that
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33 494 the inconclusive and inconsistent outcomes might be due to what they call “measurement
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35 495 problem”. We find, that additionally to the conceptual and methodological issues around
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37 496 econometric causality tests (Stern 2011, Kalimeris *et al* 2014), more useful conclusions could
38
39 497 be drawn from a sound theoretical understanding of energy conversion chains, their relation to
40
41 498 economic activity and the role of efficiency gains and rebound effects (Stern 2011, Parrique *et*
42
43 499 *al* 2019, Hickel and Kallis 2019).

44 500
45 501 In contrast, the “exergy” literature (including that concerned with final or useful energy) is
46
47 502 conscious of the thermodynamic underpinnings of these energy indicators; a substantial fraction
48
49 503 of this literature is not using econometric methods to analyze interdependencies but
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51 504 incorporates energy indicators in macro-economic production functions, i.e. uses a theory-
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53 505 based approach. For this literature, the relationship between economic growth and energy use
54
55 506 is based on the hypothesis that energy is an important production factor in the economy (Ayres
56
57 507 and Warr 2005, Kümmel 2011, Brockway *et al* 2017, Stern 2011). Thus, according to this strand
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59 508 of research, economic growth cannot be fully explained without considering the amount of
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61 509 exergy available and the efficiency with which it is converted in useful work.

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3 511 Overall, the research concerned with energy provides a rich picture on the interdependence
4 512 between energy at its various conversion steps and economic growth, often using econometric
5 513 time-series or causality testing methods. However, analyses covering several of these indicators
6 514 are rare (40 studies), as are analyses systematically integrating production- and consumption-
7 515 based perspectives (10 studies).
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13 517 4.2.) Research on resource use (materials and energy) decoupling

14 518 Material and energy flow analysis (MEFA) is occupied with generating a comprehensive
15 519 account of the physical exchanges of materials and energy between socio-economic and
16 520 ecological systems (Fischer-Kowalski *et al* 2011, Krausmann *et al* 2017, Zhang *et al* 2018).
17 521 MEFA provides aggregate and harmonized indicators, measured in metric tons respectively
18 522 joules, in line with the system of economic-environmental accounts. MEFA studies add
19 523 dimensions that are not considered in energy studies: biomass used as food and feed (Haberl
20 524 2001), timber and other biomass-based products, non-metallic minerals and metals used to
21 525 expand and maintain material stocks of infrastructure, buildings and machinery, as well as
22 526 short-lived products (e.g. road salt or fertilizer) (Krausmann *et al* 2017). In this manner,
23 527 comprehensive accounts of the so-called societal metabolism of metals, non-metallic minerals,
24 528 fossil fuels and biomass have been developed.
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36 530 Conceptually, this research stream starts out from a complex socio-ecological systems
37 531 perspective on the socio-metabolic interdependencies between materials, energy, waste and
38 532 emissions (Haberl *et al* 2019, Pauliuk and Hertwich 2015). This includes the necessity for a
39 533 differentiated perspective on resource efficiency along material and energy conversion chains
40 534 (Zhang *et al* 2018), and the importance of international trade, i.e. the relevance of production-
41 535 based and consumption-based approaches (Haberl *et al* 2019, Zhang *et al* 2018, Krausmann *et*
42 536 *al* 2017). Datasets are increasingly becoming available that go beyond aggregate indicators and
43 537 trace materials and energy carriers from extraction to final uses, their accumulation in stocks of
44 538 manufactured capital and the resulting wastes and emissions, strictly following thermodynamic
45 539 principles and mass-balances (Krausmann *et al* 2018, Schandl and Miatto 2018, Kovanda 2017,
46 540 Vilaysouk *et al* 2019, Martinico-Perez *et al* 2018). These efforts, especially when taking into
47 541 account the available complexity of energy indicators along the entire conversion chains, could
48 542 provide innovative systems-based insights into resource decoupling.
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3 544 Empirically, most studies so far are limited to aggregate indicators of resource extraction, trade
4 545 and domestic material and energy consumption measured in metric tons, increasingly also for
5 546 the material footprint. Data availability and the need for harmonizing methods over the last 20-
6 547 30 years favoured studies on the EU's member states, Japan and China, which is also reflected
7 548 in the institutional collaboration networks (Figure SI_1). Material and energy flow studies are
8 549 performed by a relatively close network of collaborators, which were also involved in method
9 550 development (Figure SI_3). The analysis of resource decoupling between aggregate material
10 551 and energy flows and GDP are often only an "add-on" in this research stream and are usually
11 552 limited to descriptive trend analysis or cross-sectional efforts. Only recently, partially due to
12 553 international datasets from Eurostat and UNEP becoming available, decomposition and
13 554 regression analyses methods increasingly enter the scene (30%), as do econometric time-series
14 555 (9%) and econometric causality tests (1% of all MEFA analyses reviewed) (Figure 3).
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26 557 4.3.) Research on emissions decoupling

27 558 Investigations of territorial CO₂ emissions from fossil fuel combustion and industrial processes
28 559 such as cement manufacture require less own empirical quantification efforts than MEFA-
29 560 studies because these emissions can be directly calculated stoichiometrically from fuel use
30 561 respectively cement production data. Many of the issues from the energy research stream
31 562 therefore also apply here. Long term national time series data on these emissions have been
32 563 readily available for quite some time from sources such as the Carbon Dioxide Information
33 564 Centre (Marland *et al* 2016), the International Energy Agency or the World Bank Development
34 565 Indicators, although with slightly varying information and inclusion/exclusion of industrial
35 566 processes. Hence, there is a large literature on the (mostly relative) impact decoupling of GDP
36 567 from territorial CO₂ emissions, also see reviews by (Mardani *et al* 2019, Parrique *et al* 2019).
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47 569 By contrast, full territorial/production-based GHG accounts also need to quantify emissions
48 570 from land-use and land-cover changes (LULUCF) as well as highly uncertain and strongly
49 571 context-dependent emissions such as those of CH₄ and N₂O. Comprehensive assessments of
50 572 GHG emissions over many decades (in particular with relation to the LULUCF component for
51 573 long-term changes in carbon stocks in soils and above-ground biomass) are only recently
52 574 becoming available and will add important new aspects to the decoupling issue (Gingrich *et al*
53 575 2019). The literature analyzing GHG-GDP impact decoupling is therefore quite driven by the
54 576 improvement in data availability over time.
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578 The quantification of carbon or GHG “footprints” started a bit over a decade ago and has
579 advanced rapidly (Hertwich and Peters 2009, Lenzen *et al* 2013, Peters *et al* 2011, Peters and
580 Hertwich 2008, Peters *et al* 2012, Wiedmann and Lenzen 2018). Most studies include fossil-
581 fuel and industrial-process related GHG emissions, whereas LULUCF related GHG emissions
582 are not systematically accounted for due to data constraints and challenges in attributing
583 LULUCF emissions to specific sectors and over time.

584
585 We find that CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels have been analyzed 389 times (34% of all analyses
586 in 835 papers), 7% of which apply a consumption-based indicator. For GHG emissions we find
587 74 analyses (6% of all analyses in 835 papers), and a rather large share of 16% or 12 papers
588 applying a consumption-based approach. While decomposition and regression analysis are
589 similarly prevalent for this research stream as in the others, we find that interestingly, for CO₂
590 emissions econometric time-series (30%) and causality tests (20%) are used quite often.

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4.4.) The empirical basis and development of the three research streams

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593 We note large imbalances in the number of analyses done on energy, materials and energy, as
594 well as emissions (Figure 2). To some extent these imbalances are related to differences in the
595 availability of standardized data in easily accessible databases, such as from the IEA or the
596 World Bank, also reflecting how mature and widely accepted certain indicators are. For
597 example, large-scale gathering of standardized and comparable global data for primary energy
598 research originates in the 1970s; CO₂ emissions from fossil fuels, which are high on the
599 economic, political, and scientific agendas, can directly be derived from data on energy
600 consumption. However, publicly accessible useful energy/exergy data has only recently
601 become available for analysis (Sousa *et al* 2017). Material and energy flow analysis has been
602 adopted into standardized statistical reporting only in the last ~15 years (Fischer-Kowalski *et*
603 *al* 2011, Schandl *et al* 2017) and recently UNEP started hosting a global database (UNEP-IRP
604 2019).

605
606 The development of harmonized international datasets on full GHG emissions that include
607 CO₂, CH₄, N₂O, other GHGs as well as land use became an issue only in the last 10-20 years.
608 Given constraints on the temporal coverage for all indicators, only a small number of analyses
609 cover the full process of industrialization over the last 100+ years (Figure 4). However, such

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3 610 long-term perspectives on economic growth, resource use and emissions are highly relevant as
4 611 the majority of countries are still in the midst of the transition into fossil fueled industrialization.

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8 613 These data issues may also explain why in younger fields with less standardized databases often
9 614 more effort is directed at the generation of a robust dataset and descriptive analyses of patterns
10 615 and trends prevail (Figure 3). We also find that the statistical complexity of the method of
11 616 analysis does not automatically translate into more robust insights, since in many studies a
12 617 transparent documentation and an in-depth understanding of the applied resource use or
13 618 emissions indicators is often lacking, substantially limiting the conclusions that can be drawn.

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16 620 We also find a dominance of studies on industrial/OECD economies and China in terms of
17 621 geographical coverage, while the global South is not covered well. On the one hand this is
18 622 related to issues of data availability, on the other hand it reflects the significance of achieving
19 623 decoupling, which is more urgent for industrialized and emerging economies. As our mapping
20 624 of research institutions involved in English language peer-reviewed literature indicates, build-
21 625 up of know-how seems to mainly occur in the industrialized countries of the northern
22 626 hemisphere and China. Investigating publications in other languages might shed additional light
23 627 on this question but was out of scope of this review. Still, better knowledge for the Global South
24 628 is urgently required, as these countries are in the midst of industrialization processes and could
25 629 still avoid resource and emission intensive lock-ins.

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5) Conclusions: status quo for decoupling studies and the way forward

The idea of economic growth was termed the most important conceptual innovation of the 20th century (McNeill 2000) and it has become synonymous with limitless societal progress and improved well-being for many politicians and large parts of the general public (Schmelzer 2015, 2016). While criticism of GDP as the central policy indicator and its growth as a political achievement is mounting (Costanza *et al* 2014, Hoekstra 2019, Hickel and Kallis 2019, Parrique *et al* 2019, Jackson and Victor 2019), the growth imperatives for firms and corporations and, by extension, for their political champions, give it staying power in the actions of business managers and policymakers. Hence, it remains a highly relevant question whether the continued focus on economic growth fuels the rapidly accelerating sustainability and climate crisis and to what extent research addresses these issues.

From our systematic review, we find that the literature dealing with decoupling of economic growth, resource use and emissions has been growing rapidly since ~2005, with a compound annual growth rate of 20% p.a. in the total number of published studies. We systematically identified a total of 835 studies presenting empirical analyses of 1,156 indicators on the relation of economic growth with material and/or energy and emissions. The majority of indicators analyzed for potential decoupling are primary energy (42%) and industrial fossil fuel emissions (34%). Analyses of final energy and exergy (7% and 1%), material and energy flows (8%), as well as full GHG emissions (7%) are still relatively rare. However, these topics are also highly dynamic, where we find high compound growth for analyses of GHG emissions, industrial carbon emissions and exergy (38%, 28% and 24% p.a. respectively), while analyses of indicators on final energy, materials and energy, as well as primary energy show relatively lower but still high growth (14%, 17% and 18% p.a.).

We identify three points specifically important for future research on this topic. Firstly, consumption-based perspectives are crucial innovations in the decoupling discussion, because they enable capturing the effects of growing international trade and potential burden shifting along supply chains. Since the early 2010's the required global multi-regional input-output modelling capabilities have become widely available and studies are starting to take up on these datasets, although still making up only 8% of all analysis reviewed herein. Lately also income-based responsibility has been put forward as another perspective, which focuses on the enabling of downstream resource use and emissions by upstream extractive economies and industries

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3 664 (Marques *et al* 2012, 2013, Steininger *et al* 2015). However, that perspective has so far rarely
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5 665 been taken up in the reviewed literature. For income- and consumption-based approaches,
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7 666 which both rely on input-output modelling, two key challenges await (Wiedmann and Lenzen
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9 667 2018, Malik *et al* 2018, Tukker *et al* 2018): a) methodological refinements in multi-layer
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11 668 representations of physical and monetary aspects of supply chains as well as nesting cities,
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13 669 countries and the world economy, and b) accelerated data gathering and model updates, which
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15 670 is constrained by the need for statistical offices to report the underlying information. The
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17 671 combination of production- with (income-) and consumption-based accounting is highly
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19 672 valuable for informing environmental policies, evaluating responsibility for resource use and
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21 673 emissions (Jakob and Marschinski 2013, Schaffartzik *et al* 2015, Steininger *et al* 2015) and
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23 674 assessing the prospects for relative and absolute decoupling. However, only 4% of the 835
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25 675 reviewed studies used a combined analyses of production- vs consumption-based indicators.

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27 677 Secondly, we propose that substantial advances in theoretical and empirical understanding of
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29 678 resource and impact decoupling can be achieved by utilizing a systems-based and
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31 679 thermodynamically grounded perspective as put forward through the socio-economic
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33 680 metabolism, to conceptualize the interdependencies between energy and materials conversion
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35 681 chains (resources), and the resulting wastes and emissions (impacts). Socio-economic activities
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37 682 (such as increasing production and consumption as well as complexity of distribution) directly
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39 683 or indirectly inevitably require materials and energy in various forms. They are utilized to
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41 684 provide functions and services to society by utilizing stocks of infrastructure, buildings and
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43 685 machinery, ultimately and necessarily resulting in waste and emissions (Haberl *et al* 2017,
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45 686 Pauliuk and Müller 2014, Weisz *et al* 2015). These interdependences between the socio-
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47 687 economic system and its biophysical basis are fundamental to understanding the role of
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49 688 economic growth and prospects for absolute resource and impact decoupling at the required
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51 689 scale and speed (Haberl *et al* 2019, Pauliuk and Hertwich 2015).

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55 691 Thirdly and finally, a major conclusion of this systematic review is that the vast majority of
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57 692 studies originates in decompositions, causality tests, or related Environmental Kuznets Curve
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59 693 analysis, which approach the topic from a simplistic statistical econometric point of view. We
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61 694 find that they hardly incorporate a thermodynamic understanding of resource use and especially
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63 695 energy, and economic growth and rarely take the large-scale consequences of growth dynamics
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65 696 for the climate system into account. In contrast, the socially relevant discourses on modifying

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3 697 the growth narrative into “green growth”, or more substantially, “degrowth & post-growth”, are
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5 698 only sparsely treated in the quantitative literature reviewed herein. This points to a huge gap
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7 699 between social scientists interested in the meaning and social significance of the growth
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9 700 discourse, and the analytical epistemic community concerned with the statistical relationship in
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11 701 its various facets between economic growth and environmental pressures and impacts. A
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13 702 theoretically grounded and critical approach to the roles of and causalities between economic
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15 703 growth in society and for the environment could greatly benefit from such an interdisciplinary
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17 704 endeavor and bring new and potentially socially highly relevant insights to the decoupling issue.
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 713 the review.

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715 Data availability statement

716 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available. We refer the interested reader to the
 717 supplementary data file and supplementary information.

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720 References

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