

1                    Decoupling environmental pressure from economic growth on city level:  
2                    The Case Study of Chongqing in China

3

4                    Yadong Yu <sup>a,b,c</sup>, Li Zhou <sup>d</sup>, Wenji Zhou <sup>e,f</sup>, Hongtao Ren <sup>a</sup>, Ali Kharrazi <sup>e,g</sup>, Tiejun Ma <sup>a,e</sup>, Bing Zhu <sup>b,e,\*</sup>

5

6 <sup>a</sup> School of Business, East China University of Science and Technology, Meilong Road 130, Shanghai 200237, China

7 <sup>b</sup> Department of Chemical Engineering, Tsinghua University, Tsinghua Garden Road 1, Beijing 100084, China

8 <sup>c</sup> Social and Public Administration School, East China University of Science and Technology, Meilong Road 130,  
9 Shanghai 200237, China

10 <sup>d</sup> Institute of Energy, Environment and Economy, Tsinghua University, Tsinghua Garden Road 1, Beijing 100084,  
11 China

12 <sup>e</sup> International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, Schlossplatz 1, Laxenburg A-2361, Austria

13 <sup>f</sup> Petroleum Company Ltd., China National Aviation Fuel Group, No. 2 Madian Road, Beijing 100088, China

14 <sup>g</sup> Graduate School of Public Policy, University of Tokyo, Hongo 7-3-1, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan

15

16 **Abstract:** As cities represents the microcosms of global environmental change, it is very  
17 important for the global sustainable development by decoupling environmental pressure from  
18 economic growth on city level. In this paper, the municipality of Chongqing in China is employed  
19 as a case to show whether the decoupling of environmental pressures from economic growth has  
20 occurred in cities undergoing rapid economic growth; what is the level of decoupling; and what  
21 causes the observed degree of decoupling. Results show the following. (1) During the period of  
22 1999-2010, decoupling from economic growth has been absolute for the emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, soot,  
23 and waste water, while it has been relative for total energy consumption, emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> and  
24 solid waste. (2) Compared with the period 2000-2005, decoupling level improved for all the six  
25 environmental pressures in the period 2005-2010. (3) Compared with China and other three  
26 municipalities of China, the overall decoupling level of Chongqing is above China's average while  
27 below those of Beijing and Shanghai. (4) During the period 1999-2000, technological change was  
28 the dominate factor for decoupling Chongqing's environmental pressure from economic growth,  
29 as it contributed 131.4%, 134.6%, 99.9%, 97.7%, 104.5% and 54.9% to the decoupling of total  
30 energy consumption, emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, waste water and solid waste, respectively;  
31 while economic structural change had very tiny effect to the decoupling of emissions of soot and  
32 SO<sub>2</sub>, and it even had negative effect to that of total energy consumption, and emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>  
33 and waste water. Based on the above observations, we explain the difference in decoupling levels  
34 for different environmental pressures and suggest approaches for policy-makers on further  
35 promoting decoupling environmental pressure from economic growth.

36 **Keywords:** Decoupling; Environmental Pressure; Chongqing; Index Decomposition Analysis

37

38 **1. Introduction**

39                    Decoupling environmental pressure from economic growth, i.e., breaking the link between  
40 'environmental bads' and 'economic goods' (OECD, 2002), is one of the most critical priorities for

---

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +8610 6278 2520

Email addresses: artonry@gmail.com (Yadong Yu), zhoulizl@tsinghua.edu.cn (Li Zhou),

wenji.zhou@gmail.com (Wenji Zhou), 18916488290@189.cn (Hongtao Ren), ali@pp.u-tokyo.ac.jp (Ali

Kharrazi), tjma@ecust.edu.cn (Tiejun Ma), bingzhu@tsinghua.edu.cn (Bing Zhu)

41 sustainable development. There is an expanding body of literature on this topic and  
42 policy-makers and researchers worldwide continue to pay significant attention to its  
43 advancement (Arrow et al., 1995; Conrad and Cassar, 2014; De Freitas and Kaneko, 2011; Holdren,  
44 2008; Wiedmann et al., 2015). Decoupling has been widely used as a policy objective by national,  
45 regional, and international institutions. For example, in the Organisation for Economic  
46 Co-operation and Development (OECD), decoupling environmental pressures from economic  
47 growth is adopted as the main objectives of the OECD Environmental Strategy for the first decade  
48 of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (OECD, 2002); in the European Union (EU), reducing the negative  
49 environmental impacts generated by the use of natural resources in a growing economy is the  
50 objective for the EU Thematic Strategy on the Sustainable Use of Natural Resources (EC, 2005); in  
51 the United Nations (UN), decoupling human well-being from resource consumption is at the  
52 heart of both the International Resource Panel's mandate and the Green Economy Initiative of  
53 the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP, 2011). These policy objectives testify to the  
54 critical importance given by policymakers to research on the driving forces of decoupling.

55 Previous studies on decoupling environmental pressure from economic growth fall into two  
56 main streams. In the first stream, research has focused on applying various indicators (OECD,  
57 2002; Tapio, 2005; Wang et al., 2013) to measure the decoupling level of different regions  
58 (Kovanda and Hak, 2007; Liang et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2014; Tachibana et al., 2008; Van Caneghem  
59 et al., 2010; Xue, 2012; Yu et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2013). Most of the studies in  
60 this avenue are at the national level and despite their importance, studies at the city level are an  
61 under researched area. Cities represent the microcosm of global environmental change (Grimm,  
62 2008) and by current estimates account for more than 60% of global energy consumption and  
63 75% of world greenhouse gas emissions (Satterthwaite, 2008). In 2050, the UN estimates that  
64 two-thirds of the global population will be urbanized (UN, 2008) and therefore the central role of  
65 cities in global environmental change will become more prominent.

66 In the second stream, the main research efforts have concentrated on exploring the driving  
67 forces of decoupling (Andreoni and Galmarini, 2012; De Freitas and Kaneko, 2011; Mazzanti and  
68 Zoboli, 2008; Liang et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2007; Ren and Hu, 2012; Sjöström and Östblom, 2010;  
69 Tang et al., 2014; Van der Voet et al., 2005). In these studies, the focus on decoupling economic  
70 growth from a single environmental pressure indicator is explored, e.g., carbon dioxide, domestic  
71 material consumption. However, by focusing on a single environmental pressure indicator, these  
72 studies may lead to what (Yang et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2012, 2013a, 2013b) describe as  
73 problem-shifting, i.e., the unintended aggravation of one environmental pressure resulting from  
74 the alleviation of another environmental pressure. In response to this problem, recent studies  
75 have attempted to examine multiple environmental pressures. For example, Liang et al. (2013a)  
76 explored the driving force of decoupling 31 environmental pressure indicators from economic  
77 growth in China by the method of structural decomposition analysis (SDA). However, this study is  
78 at the national level, and doesn't explain the difference in the decoupling level of different  
79 environmental pressures. On the city level, Van Caneghem et al. (2010) reported the decoupling  
80 level of eight environmental pressure indicators from the Flemish industry, but the driving force  
81 of decoupling is not examined. To our best knowledge, there are currently few studies on the  
82 drivers of decoupling economic growth for multiple environmental pressures at the city level.

83 Based on the above two research streams, there is a gap in the literature in studying the  
84 drivers of decoupling economic growth for a set of environmental pressure indicators at the city

85 level. To contribute in filling this literature gap, we use Chongqing (one of China's major cities) as  
86 a case study to examine the decoupling of economic growth from multiple environmental  
87 pressures. Specifically, we examine the level of the decoupling of economic growth from six  
88 environmental pressure indicators and examine their driving forces by using the index  
89 decomposition analysis (IDA) method. The city of Chongqing was evaluated in this study based on  
90 its many advantages relevant to this research. Firstly, as a mega city with the most populous  
91 Chinese municipality, Chongqing has experienced rapid and significant changes in both its  
92 economic development and environmental pressures (Yu et al., 2015). Therefore, the city of  
93 Chongqing provides an important case study in examining the decoupling of environmental  
94 pressures from economic growth in Chinese cities. Secondly, Chongqing, as one of the four  
95 national central cities, is directly under the control of the Chinese central government, and  
96 therefore, in comparison to other cities, the economic and environmental data required for this  
97 research is more available and of higher quality.

98 This paper is structured as follows: Section 2 provides the general information of Chongqing.  
99 Section 3 introduces the methodology adopted in this study and reviews the steps taken for  
100 compiling the data. Section 4 reports the decoupling indexes for six environmental pressure  
101 indicators in Chongqing, evaluates the decoupling level by comparing them with other municipal  
102 cities of China, and analyses the driving forces of the decoupling phenomenon. Section 5  
103 discusses the results of this study and provides some policy suggestions. A conclusion follows in  
104 Section 6.

## 106 2. Study site

107 Chongqing municipality, covering a land area of 82,403 km<sup>2</sup>, is located between the North  
108 Latitude 28°10'–32°13' and the East Longitude 105°11'–110°11'. Administratively, Chongqing is  
109 one of China's four direct-controlled municipalities, the other three are Beijing, Shanghai and  
110 Tianjin, and the only such municipality in inland China. As a major industrial city in China's  
111 southwest region, Chongqing is situated in the upper reach of the Yangtze River and also the  
112 upstream of the Three Gorges Dam<sup>1</sup> (as shown in Fig. 1). Because of this geographical location,  
113 the environmental issues of Chongqing are not only critical to Chongqing per se, but also critical  
114 to both the regions surrounding the Yangtze River and the Three Gorges Dam as it influences  
115 their ecological safety and sustainable development (Yu et al., 2015).

116 In 1997, the city of Chongqing was designated as the fourth national municipality directly  
117 managed by the Chinese central government. Because of the administrative attention, Chongqing  
118 has experienced very rapid economic development. For example, Chongqing's GDP increased by  
119 269% during the period of 1999-2010. In 2010, Chongqing's GDP, GDP per capita, residential  
120 population, share of secondary industry respectively reached 793 billion CNY, 27,475 CNY, 28.8  
121 million people, and 55%. However, along with the rapid economic development, environmental  
122 pressures also significantly increased in Chongqing, e.g., energy consumption increased by 218%  
123 during the period of 1999-2010. In this context, the decoupling of environmental pressure from  
124 economic growth is a very important issue of concern for the sustainable governance of  
125 Chongqing. Therefore, Chongqing is a good case study of decoupling environmental pressures  
126 from rapid economic growth at the level of cities in China.

---

<sup>1</sup> The Three Gorges Dam, a hydroelectric dam that spans the Yangtze River of China, in terms of installed generation capacity, is the world's largest power station. ([http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Three\\_Gorges\\_Dam](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Three_Gorges_Dam)).

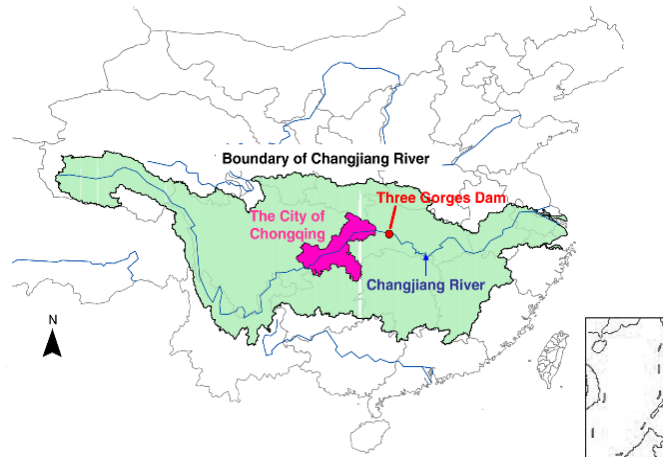


Fig. 1. Location of the Chongqing municipality and the Changjiang (Yangtze ) River Basin in China. (This figure is reproduced from Okadera et al. (2006))

### 3. Methods and data

#### 3.1 Decoupling indicators

Researchers have developed various decoupling indicators to track the temporal changes in the relationship between environmental pressures and economic growth (OECD, 2002; Tapio, 2005; Wang et al. 2013). Among these, the most widely used indicator by researchers and policy makers is the Decoupling Index (DI) proposed by the OECD (2002). This indicator is defined as:

$$DI = 1 - \frac{M^t / Y^t}{M^0 / Y^0} = 1 - \frac{EPI^t}{EPI^0} \quad (1)$$

where the superscript 0 and  $t$  are the initial year and the end year for a certain period of time;  $M$  and  $Y$  are respectively the environmental pressure indicator and the gross domestic product (GDP) measured in constant prices;  $EPI$  is the ratio of  $M$  and  $Y$ , i.e.,  $EPI = M/Y$ , indicating the overall environmental pressure intensity. By using eq. 1, three types of decoupling can be identified.

- **Absolute decoupling** occurs when  $Y^t > Y^0$  and  $M^t \leq M^0$ , i.e., the economy grows while environmental pressure does not increase. In absolute decoupling, the value of DI is between 0 and 1.
- **Relative decoupling** occurs when  $Y^t > Y^0$ ,  $M^t > M^0$ , and  $Y^t/Y^0 > M^t/M^0$ , i.e., both the economy and environmental pressure grow, however the economy has a faster growth rate. In relative decoupling, the value of  $DI$  is also between 0 and 1. And the less DI is, the lower relative decoupling is.
- **Coupling** occurs when  $Y^t > Y^0$ ,  $M^t > M^0$ , and  $Y^t/Y^0 < M^t/M^0$ , i.e., both the economy and environmental pressure grows, however the economy has a slower growth rate. In coupling, the value of DI is negative.

Among the three types of decoupling states described above, absolute decoupling is the most sought after state while coupling is the least sought after state and to be avoided in advancing economic development and environmental management.

#### 3.2 Index decomposition analysis

Decomposition analysis is the most commonly used group of methods to quantify the driving force of environmental pressure indicators. Two popular techniques in this group which have been extensively used in energy and emissions are the structure decomposition analysis (SDA) (Su and Ang, 2012) and index decomposition analysis (IDA) (Liu and Ang, 2007). The former

158 relies on input–output tables while the later uses aggregate data at the sector-level. As  
 159 input-output tables are not compiled annually, the change of environmental pressure indicators  
 160 can only be explained through the SDA approach with some time intervals. The IDA approach can  
 161 overcome this problem by using only sector level data, which is available on an annual basis.  
 162 Therefore, to develop a more detailed and temporally relevant understanding of the driving  
 163 forces of environmental pressure indicator we use the IDA approach in this study.

164 By using the IDA approach, the overall environmental pressure intensity of a regional *EPI*  
 165 ( $EPI=M/Y$ ) can be disaggregated into economic sectors as:

$$EPI = \frac{M}{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{M_i}{Y_i} \frac{Y_i}{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^n T_i S_i \quad (2)$$

166 where  $M_i$  and  $Y_i$  are respectively the environmental pressure and value added in sector  $i$ . And  $n$  is  
 167 the total number of economic sectors. Therefore,  $T_i$  ( $T_i=M_i/Y_i$ ) and  $S_i$  ( $S_i=Y_i/Y$ ) are the  
 168 environmental pressure intensity and value added share in sector  $i$ , which respectively indicate  
 169 technology and economic structure.

170 Using the method of logarithmic mean divisia index (LMDI) (Liu and Ang, 2007) the change of  
 171 *EPI* can be decomposed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta EPI &= EPI^t - EPI^0 = \Delta_T EPI + \Delta_S EPI \\ \Delta_T EPI &= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\ln T_i^t - \ln T_i^0) \\ \Delta_S EPI &= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (\ln S_i^t - \ln S_i^0) \\ w_i &= (T_i^t S_i^t - T_i^0 S_i^0) / (\ln T_i^t S_i^t - \ln T_i^0 S_i^0) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

172 where  $\Delta EPI$ ,  $\Delta_T EPI$ ,  $\Delta_S EPI$  are the change of *EPI*, the change of *EPI* caused by  $T$  and  $S$ ,  
 173 respectively. And  $w_i$  is the weight co-efficient.

174 According to eqs. 1-3, the decoupling index can be rewritten as:

$$DI = 1 - \frac{EPI^t}{EPI^0} = -\frac{\Delta EPI}{EPI^0} = -\frac{\Delta_T EPI}{EPI^0} - \frac{\Delta_S EPI}{EPI^0} = DI_T + DI_S \quad (4)$$

175 where  $DI_T$  ( $DI_T = -\Delta_T EPI/EPI^0$ ) and  $DI_S$  ( $DI_S = -\Delta_S EPI/EPI^0$ ) denotes  $DI$  induced by  $T$  and  $S$ ,  
 176 respectively. Details for the proof of this equation is provided in supplementary material.  
 177 Therefore, the contribution of  $T$  and  $S$  to the decoupling index, i.e.,  $C_T$  (technology effect) and  $C_S$   
 178 (economic structure effect), can be calculated by:

$$\begin{aligned} C_T &= \frac{DI_T}{DI} \times 100\% \\ C_S &= \frac{DI_S}{DI} \times 100\% \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

179 From the above, one can explain the decoupling of environmental pressure from economic  
 180 growth by its driving force, i.e., effects of technology and economic structure.

### 181 3.3 Data preparation

182 The environmental pressure indicators selected for this study were based on three criteria.  
 183 Firstly, indicators were selected to cover a broad range of environmental issues such as climate  
 184 change, air pollution, water quality, and waste management. Secondly, the indicators were  
 185 selected in consideration to the OECD (2002) recommendations on indicators, i.e. based on policy  
 186 relevance, user utility, analytical soundness, and measurability. Thirdly, indicators were selected  
 187 based on the availability of data. From the above three criteria, six environmental pressure

188 indicators were selected. These include: energy consumption (end-use), emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>,  
189 soot, waste water and solid waste. These indicators reflect environmental pressure from both the  
190 input and output of the socio-economic systems. Furthermore, these indicators are of significant  
191 concern to policy and decision makers and there are explicit policy targets for the reduction of  
192 energy consumption intensity, CO<sub>2</sub> emission intensity, and SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the 12<sup>th</sup> National  
193 Five-Year Plan of China.

194 For the system boundary of these indicators, in line with traditional IDA studies, we  
195 considered all industrial sectors but not the household sector (De Freitas and Kaneko, 2011;  
196 Löfgren and Muller, 2010; Pothén and Schymura, 2015). According to the Chinese Energy  
197 Statistical Yearbook and our calculations, 90% of both energy consumption and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are  
198 from Chongqing's industrial sectors. Therefore, environmental pressures are mainly produced by  
199 the industrial sectors and the results of our study will not be significantly influenced as a result of  
200 the exclusion of the household sector from the system boundary. However, policy-makers should  
201 still be cautious that the result of our research meets a 10% error by not taking into account the  
202 household sector.

203 According to the statistical bureau of Chongqing, the economic system of Chongqing is  
204 divided into 41 economic sectors (see table S1 in supplementary material). To use the IDA  
205 method for analysing the driving forces of decoupling environmental pressures from economic  
206 growth in Chongqing, we need to acquire data in the 41 economic sectors, including the value  
207 added of economic output and the six environmental pressures.

208 The data for the value added were collected from the Chongqing Statistical Yearbooks. In  
209 order to remove the effect of inflation, we converted all current prices into 2010 constant prices  
210 using the double deflation method (Xu, 2004). Deflators were compiled according to the price  
211 indexes from the China Statistical Yearbooks and the Chongqing Statistical Yearbooks.

212 The detailed data sources for the six environmental pressure indicators are shown in table  
213 S2 of supplementary material. Energy consumption (end-use) is an aggregated indicator  
214 measured in units of tons of standard coal equivalent (tce), while other environmental pressure  
215 indicators are all measured in tons. The data for energy consumption are obtained from China  
216 Energy Statistical Yearbooks and Chongqing Statistical Yearbooks. The data for CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
217 were accounted by reference to the IPCC (2006) guidelines. Due to the lack of data, we consider  
218 CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from fossil-fuel combustion, cement production, and nonferrous metal production  
219 in this study. As for SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, waste water, and solid waste, the inventory data in the industrial  
220 sectors were collected from the Chongqing Statistical Yearbooks, while data in the agricultural  
221 sector, construction sector, and the service sector were estimated by Liang's method (Liang et al.,  
222 2014).

223 Similar to Chongqing, data for calculating decoupling indexes in other regions (including  
224 China, Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin) were acquired and compiled from China's Energy Statistical  
225 Yearbook, China Environment Yearbook, China Statistical Yearbook, Beijing Statistical Yearbook,  
226 Shanghai Statistical Yearbook, and Tianjin Statistical Yearbook.

227

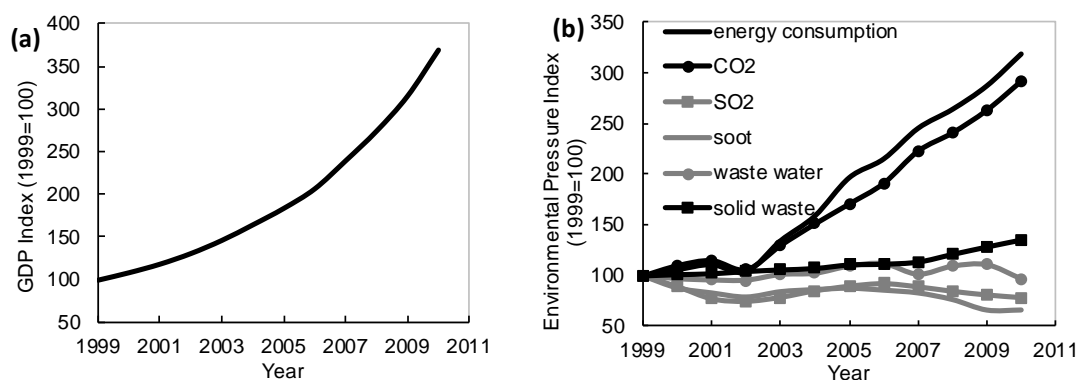
#### 228 **4. Results**

229 In this section, we first show the trends of environmental pressures (as well as their  
230 uncertainties) and GDP in Chongqing from 1999 to 2010. Secondly, we show the results of the  
231 evaluation of the decoupling levels in Chongqing. Thirdly, we compare the decoupling indicators

232 of Chongqing with those of other regions, including other Chinese municipalities, the national  
 233 average and the average of OECD countries. Thirdly, we explore the driving forces for the  
 234 decoupling of environmental pressures in Chongqing.

#### 235 4.1 Trends of economic growth and environmental pressures in Chongqing during 1999-2010

236 Using the method introduced in section 3, we calculated the environmental pressures  
 237 indicators in Chongqing during 1999-2010. As illustrated in Fig. 2a, during the period of  
 238 1999-2010, Chongqing's GDP increased by 269% and reached 793 billion CNY in 2010. The  
 239 increase in GDP also resulted in environmental pressures. As illustrated in Fig. 2b, energy  
 240 consumption, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and solid waste discharge respectively increased by 218%, 191%,  
 241 and 35%, while emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, and waste water respectively decreased by 22%, 35%, and  
 242 4%. These results reveal that not all environmental pressure indicators increased or increased in  
 243 the same rate in tandem with the GDP growth of Chongqing.



244 Fig. 2. Trends of GDP (a) and environmental pressure indicators (b) in Chongqing during the period 1999-2010 (All  
 245 indicators are given relative to those of the year 1999, i.e., 1999 has the value 100, and indicators in other years  
 246 are relative to those of 1999)

247 For a more refined analysis of the trends of different environmental pressure indicators, the  
 248 following observations can be made: (1) Solid waste discharge increased consecutively over the  
 249 period 1999-2010. (2) Energy consumption and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions fluctuated during the period  
 250 1999-2002, while after 2002 both increased rapidly. (3) Emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, and waste water  
 251 decreased during 1999 to 2002; after 2002, they respectively increased to their peak in the year  
 252 2006, 2005 and 2006, and gradually decreased afterwards.

253 Table 1. Uncertainties related to environmental pressure indicators (in %), Chongqing, 2000-2010

	2000		2005		2010	
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.
CO <sub>2</sub>	-17	11	-18	11	-17	8
energy consumption	0	8	0	8	0	7
SO <sub>2</sub>	-4	3	-3	2	-3	2
soot	-4	6	-4	6	-6	8
waste water	-3	5	-4	6	-6	7
solid waste	-11	9	-12	10	-12	10

254 Following the method introduced by Kovanda et al. (2008), we also made an uncertainty  
 255 analysis for the environmental indicators of Chongqing. In this study, the uncertainties of  
 256 environmental pressure indicators mainly come from the estimation of environmental pressure  
 257 data in agriculture, construction and service sectors. We estimated these data with different

258 coefficients (e.g., CO<sub>2</sub> emission coefficients for fossil energy) and calculated the uncertainties for  
 259 the overall environmental pressure indicator. The uncertainties attributed to environmental  
 260 pressure indicators of Chongqing during the period 2000-2010 are summarized in table 1. Results  
 261 show that the largest uncertainties are related to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, which are up to -18% and +11%  
 262 in some cases. And uncertainties are comparatively low (not exceeding -10% and +10%) for  
 263 energy consumption and emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, soot and waste water.

#### 264 4.2 Decoupling indicators of Chongqing during 1999-2010

265 The results of the analyses of the trends of GDP and environmental pressures in Chongqing  
 266 from 1999 to 2010, reveal that GDP growth rate is higher than the growth rate of six  
 267 environmental pressures. This indicates that decoupling has occurred between environmental  
 268 pressures and economic growth. To put into perspective the decoupling levels with the economic  
 269 development of Chongqing, we examine the level of decoupling over two periods, i.e, during the  
 270 10<sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan (2000-2005) and the 11<sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan (2005-2010) for National Economic  
 271 and Social Development of China.

272 Table 2 illustrates the decoupling index of environmental pressures in Chongqing during the  
 273 period of 1999-2010. From these results, it is observed that: (1) Absolute decoupling occurred for  
 274 emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, and waste water. Among these environmental pressures, the decoupling  
 275 level for soot, DI of 0.820, is the highest, while the decoupling level of waste water is the lowest.  
 276 (2) Relative decoupling occurred for energy consumption, CO<sub>2</sub> emission, and solid waste  
 277 discharge. Among environmental pressures showing relative decoupling, the decoupling level of  
 278 solid waste, with a DI of 0.628, is the highest; while the decoupling level for energy consumption,  
 279 with a DI value of 0.123, is the lowest. (3) Among the six environmental pressures through the  
 280 1999-2010 period, soot emissions accounted for the highest decoupling level while energy  
 281 consumption accounted for the lowest decoupling level.

282 Table 2. Decoupling index of Chongqing during different period over 1999-2010

	1999-2010	2000-2005	2005-2010
		10 <sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan	11 <sup>th</sup> Five-Year plan
energy consumption	0.123**	-0.111***	0.195**
CO <sub>2</sub>	0.198**	0.070**	0.152**
SO <sub>2</sub>	0.785*	0.398**	0.566*
Soot	0.820*	0.403*	0.628*
waste water	0.734*	0.322**	0.561*
solid waste	0.628**	0.345**	0.393**

283 \* indicates absolute decoupling; \*\* indicate relative decoupling; \*\*\* indicates coupling.

284 The decoupling levels relative to the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> Five-year plans, as seen in Table 2,  
 285 indicates that all six environmental pressures have higher decoupling levels in the second period.  
 286 Moreover, three environmental pressures reveal significant improvements in their level of  
 287 decoupling. Specifically, energy consumption improved from a position of coupling (DI=-0.111) to  
 288 relative decoupling (DI=0.195), while SO<sub>2</sub> and waste water discharge improved from a position of  
 289 relative decoupling to absolute decoupling. Emissions of soot continued at a position of absolute  
 290 decoupling in both periods, however its decoupling level slightly improved in the second period.  
 291 Solid waste discharge was at a position of relative decoupling in both periods, however, its  
 292 decoupling level also slightly improved in the second period. Similarly, the decoupling level of CO<sub>2</sub>  
 293 emissions significantly improved from a weak position of relative decoupling, DI value of 0.07, in



294 the first period to a stronger position of relative decoupling, DI value of 0.152, in the second  
 295 period.

296 In terms of the uncertainties, as shown in table 3, the difference between the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
 297 can be up to -18% by using different coefficients. However, the difference between the  
 298 decoupling index for CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is relatively small (not exceeding 10%). As a result, the results  
 299 of Chongqing's decoupling level for environmental pressures are reliable during the period  
 300 1999-2010.

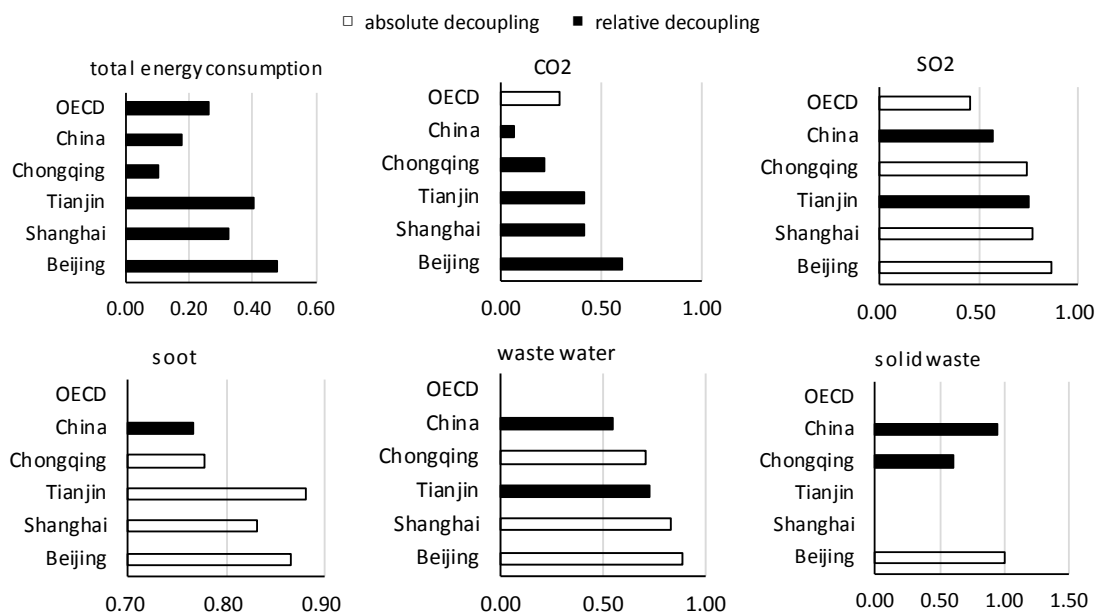
301 Table 3. Comparison of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and DI using different coefficient during different period over 1999-2010

	1999-2010	2000-2005	2005-2010
		10 <sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan	11 <sup>th</sup> Five-Year plan
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (IPCC's coefficient) (Mt)	1002	375	661
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (Liu et al. (2015) coefficient) (Mt)	829	311	545
Difference for CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	-17%	-17%	-18%
DI of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (IPCC coefficient)	0.198**	0.070**	0.152**
DI of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions (Liu et al. (2015) coefficient)	0.202**	0.076**	0.143**
Difference for DI of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	2%	8%	-6%

302 \*\* indicate relative decoupling

### 303 4.3 Comparison of decoupling indicators of Chongqing with those of other regions

304 To compare Chongqing's decoupling level during the period 2000-2010 relative to other  
 305 regions of China and OECD countries, we calculate the DI for the environmental pressure  
 306 indicators for Tianjin, Shanghai and Beijing, the Chinese national average and OECD countries.



307 Fig. 3. Decoupling indexes for six environmental pressures in Chongqing, Tianjin, Shanghai, Beijing, the national  
 308 Chinese average and OECD countries' average during 2000-2010. (Note that there is no data on soot and waste  
 309 water for OECD countries, and no data on solid waste discharge in Tianjin, Shanghai and OECD countries; all data  
 310 for OECD countries are acquired from <http://stats.oecd.org/>)

311 As illustrated in Fig. 3, compared with OECD countries' average, Chongqing had lower  
 312 decoupling level for total energy consumption and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, while higher decoupling level  
 313 for SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. More details about the comparison of DI in Chongqing and OECD countries are  
 314 shown in Fig. S1 in Supplementary Material.

315 Compared to the national average, Chongqing had higher decoupling levels during  
 316 2000-2010 for the six types of environmental pressures except energy consumption. However, in  
 317 comparison to the other national central cities of China, the level of decoupling in Chongqing was  
 318 lower than that of Beijing and Shanghai. The decoupling levels for energy consumption and solid  
 319 waste discharge in Chongqing are both the lowest among the five regions, and there is a  
 320 significant difference in the decoupling level of energy consumption between Chongqing and the  
 321 other regions. Specifically, Chongqing's energy consumption decoupling level, i.e. DI value of 0.11,  
 322 is only 60%, 33%, 26% and 22% respectively of the Chinese average national level and the cities of  
 323 Shanghai, Tianjin, and Beijing. The level of decoupling of CO<sub>2</sub> emission in Chongqing while higher  
 324 than the Chinese national average, is lower than the other three cities. While SO<sub>2</sub> and waste  
 325 water emissions are at a position of absolute decoupling in Chongqing, their levels are less than  
 326 that of the cities of Beijing and Shanghai. Finally, although the soot emissions in Chongqing are at  
 327 a position of absolute decoupling and the lowest among the central national cities, their level is  
 328 higher than the national Chinese average.

#### 329 4.4 Driving force for the decoupling of environmental pressure in Chongqing during 1999-2010

330 The driving force, i.e., technology effect (C<sub>T</sub>) and economic structural effect (C<sub>S</sub>), of the  
 331 decoupling of environmental pressure from economic growth in Chongqing during the period of  
 332 1999-2010 can be explained using eqs. 3-5.

333 As shown in Table 4, during the period 1999-2010, technological change is the dominate  
 334 force contributing to the decoupling of all environmental pressures except solid waste discharge.  
 335 Economic structural change however has had a very small positive effect and even negative effect  
 336 to decoupling. Specifically, economic structural change had a negative effect on the decoupling of  
 337 energy consumption, emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, and waste water respectively by -30.9%, -34.5% and  
 338 -4.5%. As for the decoupling of emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and soot, economic structural change had a  
 339 small effect contributing respectively to 0.1% and 2.3% to their decoupling from economic  
 340 growth. For solid waste, economic structure change contributed 45.1% to its decoupling, which is  
 341 almost equal to the effect of technology change.

342 Table 4. Contributions of driving force to decoupling in Chongqing during different period over 1999-2010

	1999-2010		2000-2005		2005-2010	
	C <sub>S</sub>	C <sub>T</sub>	C <sub>S</sub>	C <sub>T</sub>	C <sub>S</sub>	C <sub>T</sub>
energy consumption	-30.9%	130.9%	42.2%	57.8%	9.4%	90.6%
CO <sub>2</sub>	-34.5%	134.6%	-99.2%	199.2%	13.9%	86.1%
SO <sub>2</sub>	0.1%	99.9%	0.04%	99.06%	9.3%	90.7%
soot	2.3%	97.7%	-0.8%	100.8%	11.7%	88.3%
waste water	-4.5%	104.5%	4.0%	96.0%	-4.0%	104.0%
solid waste	45.1%	54.9%	35.6%	64.4%	46.4%	53.6%

343 An examination of the causes of decoupling separately for the 10<sup>th</sup> (2000-2005) and 11<sup>th</sup>  
 344 (2005-2010) five-year economic plans, as shown in Table 4, reveals interesting insights. First, our  
 345 analysis reveals that similar to the total period of 1999-2010, technological change is the  
 346 dominant force contributing to the decoupling of almost all environmental pressures in both the  
 347 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> five-year economic plans. The only exception is for the decoupling of energy  
 348 consumption during the period of 2000-2005. In that period, both technological change and  
 349 economic structural change negatively affected energy consumption, respectively by 42.2% and  
 350 57.5%, and resulted in the coupling of this environmental pressure with economic growth (see

351 Table 2). Second, our analysis of the two periods revealed that although economic structural  
352 change had small positive effects in both periods, the value of  $C_s$  for all the environmental  
353 pressures, with the exception of waste water discharge, in the later period are more than the  
354 former. Therefore, the contribution of economic structural change as a driving force to  
355 decoupling reveals overall improvement. Specifically, the effect of economic structural change to  
356 the decoupling of energy consumption and emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> and soot, changed from a negative  
357 value in the period of 2000-2005 to a positive value in the period of 2005-2010. Furthermore, the  
358 positive effect of economic structure change to the decoupling of emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and solid  
359 waste, improved respectively from 0.04% and 35.6% in the period 2000-2005 to respectively 9.3%  
360 and 46.4% in the period of 2005-2010.

361

## 362 **5. Discussions**

363 Our results indicate significant differences in the decoupling level of the environmental  
364 pressure indicators in Chongqing. Importantly, the order of the level of decoupling among the six  
365 environmental pressures is not particular to Chongqing and similar results are reported for  
366 Tianjin, Shanghai, Beijing and China (as shown in Fig. 3). Furthermore, the OECD countries echoes  
367 similar results that decoupling indexes for CO<sub>2</sub> are much lower than that of SO<sub>2</sub>. These  
368 differences are mainly as a result from their driving forces, i.e., technological change and  
369 economic structural change, which are further affected by policy regulations, cost of pipe-end  
370 treatment technologies, and the co-dependence of environmental pressures. In this section, we  
371 provide a comprehensive examination on these differences.

### 372 **5.1 Difference of decoupling level for different environmental pressures**

373 As technological change played the dominate role for decoupling environmental pressures  
374 from economic growth in Chongqing during the period 1999-2010 (as shown in table 4), the  
375 difference of decoupling level for different environmental pressures can be explained by the  
376 difference of their technological changes.

377 Energy consumption had the lowest decoupling level among all environmental pressure  
378 indicators in Chongqing. This can be related to the position of the environmental pressures as  
379 either precursors or derivatives of the economic system of the urban region. As proposed by Yu et  
380 al. (2013), energy consumption is considered as a precursor input to the economic system and  
381 therefore the decoupling of energy consumption is only determined by the technology of the  
382 production process<sup>2</sup>. This is while pollutant emissions (e.g., emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, waste  
383 water and solid waste) are derivative output of the economic system and therefore the  
384 decoupling of pollutant emissions are determined by both the technology of the production  
385 process and pipe-end treatment<sup>3</sup>. Therefore, the decoupling level of pollutant emissions in  
386 comparison to energy consumption can be additionally improved through investments in  
387 pipe-end treatment technologies. According to the Chongqing Statistical Yearbooks, the  
388 investment in the industrial pollution treatment in Chongqing increased from 107 to 775 billion  
389 CNY during the period 1999-2010, which as a result greatly improved the technological level of

---

<sup>2</sup> In eq. 2,  $M_i/Y_i$  is energy consumption per unit of value added in economic sectors, and it is determined by the technology of the production process.

<sup>3</sup> In eq. 2,  $M_i/Y_i$  can be further decomposed as  $M_i/Y_i=(G_i/Y_i)*(M_i/G_i)$ , where  $G_i$  is the pollutant generation in economic sector  $i$ ;  $G_i/Y_i$  and  $M_i/G_i$  are the pollutant generation per unit of value added and pollutant emission per unit of generation in economic sector  $i$ , which are determined by the technology of production process and pipe-end treatment, respectively.

390 pipe-end treatment for pollutant emissions. Therefore, energy consumption is with the lowest  
391 decoupling level among the six environmental pressures in Chongqing. As CO<sub>2</sub> is primarily  
392 produced by fossil energy, CO<sub>2</sub> generation rapidly increased with the increase of energy  
393 consumption during the 1999-2010 period. Furthermore, since no practical pipe-end treatment  
394 technology exists for CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Zhou et al., 2010), almost all generated CO<sub>2</sub> are emitted.  
395 Therefore, the decoupling level of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is the second lowest among the six  
396 environmental pressures in Chongqing. Importantly, the phenomenon that energy consumption  
397 and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions had the lowest decoupling level is not particular in Chongqing, and the same  
398 results are reported for Tianjin, Shanghai, Beijing, China and OECD countries (as shown in Fig. 3).

399 As for emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, waste water and solid waste, the difference in their decoupling  
400 levels are resulting from the difference for the cost of their pipe-end treatment technologies, e.g.,  
401 the fixed and operational cost for implementing pipe-end treatment facilities. With lower cost, it  
402 is much easier to implement the pipe-end treatment technology (e.g., desulfurization) and to  
403 promote the reduction of pollutant emissions, which will result in a higher decoupling level. In  
404 this vein, Zhang et al. (2008) calculated the reduction cost of soot and SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in Chinese  
405 power plants and found that it is cheaper to promote the reduction of soot than SO<sub>2</sub>. Therefore,  
406 given the differences in reduction costs, we see that the decoupling level for soot is higher than  
407 that of SO<sub>2</sub>. This phenomenon is not particular in Chongqing, and the same results are reported  
408 for Tianjin, Shanghai, Beijing and China (as shown in Fig. 3). As waste water and solid waste are  
409 from diversified sources, e.g., chemical plants, metallurgical plants, etc., there are many different  
410 pipe-end treatment technologies for them. Therefore, it is very hard to calculate the cost of their  
411 pipe-end treatment technologies. Hence, the difference in their decoupling level in Chongqing  
412 cannot be explained using our method. However, our results show that decoupling level for waste  
413 water emissions is lower than that of soot in Chongqing, Shanghai, Tianjin and China (as shown in  
414 Fig. 3), which indicate that the cost of pipe-end treatment technologies are higher for waste  
415 water than that for soot in these regions.

## 416 **5.2 Difference of decoupling level during different period**

417 A substantial improvement, as seen as in Table 2, can be noted in the decoupling levels of  
418 environmental pressures in Chongqing between the 10<sup>th</sup> (2000-2005) and 11<sup>th</sup> (2005-2010)  
419 economic development plans. This improvement reflects the change in policy regulations on  
420 energy and environmental issues between the two periods and more specifically mandated  
421 targets for energy consumption and pollutant emissions (GPRC, 2006). Notably, the 11<sup>th</sup> Five Year  
422 Plan for National Economic and Social Development of China mandated the reduction of energy  
423 consumption intensity by 20% and major pollutant emissions, including SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, to be  
424 reduced by 10%. To achieve these targets, the local Chongqing government had adopted a set of  
425 measures, such as implementing the regulations of industrial structure adjustment and cleaner  
426 production set by the central government of China. As a result, significant investments were  
427 made on upgrading traditional manufacturing processes and eliminating out-dated technologies  
428 (Yu et al., 2015). These investments significantly contributed to improvements in the driving force  
429 of decoupling especially for technological change, whereby the energy intensity of major  
430 energy-intensive industrial sectors had been significantly reduced. According to data from the  
431 Chongqing Statistical Yearbooks, energy intensity in the petroleum processing, chemical products,  
432 non-metal mineral products, ferrous metal smelting and processing, non-ferrous metal smelting  
433 and processing, and power production sectors were respectively reduced by 63%, 41%, 30%, 37%,

434 51% and 40%.

### 435 **5.3 Promoting further decoupling for all environmental pressures**

436 Technological and economic structural change are two driving forces of decoupling  
437 environmental pressures from economic growth. As shown in Table 4, technological change  
438 played the dominate role for promoting decoupling for almost all environmental pressures during  
439 the period 1999-2000. During this period, technological advancement was achieved mainly as a  
440 results of investments in line with cleaner production practices as mandated by the Chinese  
441 government. Technological advancement should remain as cornerstone of future policy on  
442 increasing the decoupling of environmental pressures from economic growth. However,  
443 decoupling levels can be further increased through technological advancement by integrating  
444 targeted mandates with policies aimed at giving incentives to firms, e.g. financial subsidies and  
445 tax rebates.

446 In comparison to technological change, economic structure change played a relatively small  
447 role for decoupling during the 2000-2010 period. In general, the promotion of decoupling  
448 through the shifting economic structure is not straightforward and may lead to both positive and  
449 negative contributions to environmental pressures. As shown in Table 4, economic structure  
450 change negatively affected the decoupling of energy consumption and emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> and soot,  
451 while positively affecting the decoupling of emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, waste water, and solid waste during  
452 the period 2000-2005. After implementing activities of industrial structure adjustment, economic  
453 structure finally moved into the direction of decoupling almost all the six environmental  
454 pressures. However, its contribution for decoupling of waste water discharge turned from a  
455 positive value to a negative value during this period. This implies that promoting the decoupling  
456 of a particular environmental pressure through economic structure change may have benefits or  
457 trade-offs with other environmental pressures (Liang et al, 2013a). Therefore, policy-makers  
458 should take caution in shifting or changing economic structure and consider the complex effects  
459 of decoupling environmental pressures through such policies. Specifically, we suggest  
460 policy-makers to conduct integrated policy modelling (Liang et al., 2013a) to elaborate the best  
461 set of schemes for the decoupling of a wide range environmental pressure indicators. In this  
462 avenue, we suggest the use and advancement of integrated policy modelling tools, e.g. the  
463 MARKAL model (Fishbone and Abilock, 1981) and the GAINS model (Tohka, 2005). For example,  
464 Gielen and Changhong (2001) used the MARKAL model to elaborate the optimal set of policies for  
465 reducing SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub> in Shanghai.

### 466 **5.4 Recommendations for other regions and future studies**

467 As the typical representation of a Chinese megacity, Chongqing has experienced rapid  
468 economic development during its industrialization and urbanization processes during the period  
469 1999-2010. The analysis of the decoupling of environmental pressures from economic growth in  
470 Chongqing can provide important lessons for other regions, especially for those undergoing rapid  
471 economic development and socioeconomic transition. For example, many regions are shifting  
472 their economic structures to pursue green economy agendas. However, they should be aware  
473 that these changes to economic structures will have both negative and positive effects for the  
474 decoupling of different environmental pressure. To avoid negative effects, policy-makers should  
475 take into consideration the potential effects of economic structure change to decoupling through  
476 the use of integrated policy modelling.

477 We suggest the following two avenues for future research in this area. First, the issue of

478 uncertainties on the quality of urban data can be improved through Monte Carlo simulations.  
479 These simulations can be useful in estimating the margins of uncertainty for environmental  
480 pressure indicators in the agricultural, construction, and the service sectors. Second, the IDA  
481 method used in this research explains the dynamics of environmental pressure indicators from  
482 the production perspective and not from the consumption perspective. For future research, we  
483 suggest further exploration of the driving forces of decoupling from the consumption perspective.  
484 In this avenue, methods from structural decomposition analysis can be of great use.

485

## 486 **6. Conclusions**

487 This paper presents Chongqing as a case study to explore the decoupling of environmental  
488 pressure from a rapid urban economic development. Our results indicate that absolute  
489 decoupling occurred for emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, soot, and waste water, while relative decoupling  
490 occurred for energy consumption, emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>, and solid waste during the period 1999-2010.  
491 During this period, the decoupling level of Chongqing was above the Chinese national average  
492 while below those of Beijing and Shanghai. Our results indicate that technological change had the  
493 highest contribution for inducing decoupling for all environmental pressures while economic  
494 structural change had both a positive and negative contribution. For further decoupling, we  
495 suggest government mandated environmental targets to be integrated with financial incentives,  
496 e.g., financial subsidies and tax rebates, to better promote the effects of technology  
497 advancement by firms. For further decoupling through shifting the economic structure, we  
498 suggest policy-makers to conduct integrated policy modelling to elaborate the best set of  
499 schemes.

500

## 501 **Acknowledgements**

502 The authors declare no conflicts of interests to this work. This research is funded by China  
503 Postdoctoral Science Foundation (2014M561420), the Social Science and Humanity on Young  
504 Fund of the ministry of Education (15YJC790136), the Fundamental Research Funds for the  
505 Central Universities in China (WN1424001) and National Nature Science Foundation of China  
506 (71125002, 71571069, 71161140354).

507

## 508 **References**

- 509 Andreoni, V., Galmarini, S., 2012. Decoupling economic growth from carbon dioxide emissions: A decomposition  
510 analysis of Italian energy consumption. *Energy* 44(1), 682-691.
- 511 Arrow, K., Bolin, B., Costanza, R., Dasgupta, P., Folke, C., Holling, C.S., Jansson, B.O., Levin, S., Maler, K.G., Perrings,  
512 C., Pimentel, D., 1995. Economic growth, carrying capacity, and the environment. *Science* 268, 520-521.
- 513 Conrad, E., Cassar, L. F., 2014. Decoupling Economic Growth and Environmental Degradation: Reviewing Progress  
514 to Date in the Small Island State of Malta. *Sustainability* 6(10), 6729-6750.
- 515 De Freitas, L.C., Kaneko, S., 2011. Decomposing the decoupling of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and economic growth in Brazil.  
516 *Ecol. Econ.* 70(8), 1459-1469.
- 517 European Commission, 2005. Thematic Strategy on the Sustainable Use of Natural Resources. COM(2005) 670  
518 Final. European Commission, Brussels.
- 519 Fishbone, L.G., Abilock, H., 1981. Markal, a linear-programming model for energy systems analysis: Technical  
520 description of the bnl version. *Int. J. of Energ. Res.* 5(4), 353-375.

521 GC - Government of Chongqing, 2011. 11<sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan for National Economic and Social Development of  
522 Chongqing. <http://www.cqdp.gov.cn/article-1-16763.aspx>

523 Gielen, D., Changhong, C., 2001. The CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction benefits of Chinese energy policies and  
524 environmental policies: A case study for Shanghai, period 1995–2020. *Ecol. Econ.* 39, 257-270.

525 GPRC - Government of the People's Republic of China, 2006. 11<sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan for National Economic and Social  
526 Development of China. [http://www.gov.cn/gongbao/content/2006/content\\_268766.htm](http://www.gov.cn/gongbao/content/2006/content_268766.htm).

527 Grimm, N.B., 2008. Global change and the ecology of cities. *Science* 319, 756–760.

528 Holdren, J.P., 2008. Science and technology for sustainable well-being. *Science* 319, 424-434.

529 IPCC, 2006. 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories.  
530 <http://www.ipcc-nggip.iges.or.jp/public/2006gl/vol2.html>.

531 Kovanda, J., Hak, T., 2007. What are the possibilities for graphical presentation of decoupling? An example of  
532 economy-wide material flow indicators in the Czech Republic. *Ecol. Indic.* 7(1), 123-132.

533 Kovanda, J., Hak, T., Janacek, J., 2008. Economy-wide material flow indicators in the Czech Republic: trends,  
534 decoupling analysis and uncertainties. *Int. J. Environment and Pollution* 35(1), 25-41.

535 Liang, S., Liu, Z., Crawford-Brown, D., Wang, Y., Xu, M., 2014. Decoupling analysis and socioeconomic drivers of  
536 environmental pressure in China. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 48(2), 1103-1113.

537 Liang, S., Xu, M., Suh, S., Tan, R.R., 2013a. Unintended environmental consequences and co-benefits of economic  
538 restructuring. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 47(22), 12894-12902.

539 Liang, S., Xu, M., Zhang, T., 2012. Unintended consequences of bioethanol feedstock choice in China. *Bioresour.*  
540 *Technol.* 125, 312-317.

541 Liang, S., Xu, M., Zhang, T., 2013b. Life cycle assessment of biodiesel production in China. *Bioresour. Technol.* 129,  
542 72-77.

543 Liu, N., Ang, B.W., 2007. Factors shaping aggregate energy intensity trend for industry: Energy intensity versus  
544 product mix. *Energ. Econ.* 29(4), 609-635.

545 Liu, Z., Guan, D., Wei, W., Davis, S. J., Ciais, P., Bai, J., Peng, S., Zhang, Q., Hubacek, K., Marland, G., Andres, R. J.,  
546 Crawford-Brown, D., Lin, J., Zhao, H., Hong, C., Boden, T. A., Feng, K., Peters, G. P., Xi, F., Liu, J., Li, Y., Zhao, Y., Zeng,  
547 N., He K., 2015. Reduced carbon emission estimates from fossil fuel combustion and cement production in china.  
548 *Nature* 524(7565), 335-338.

549 Löfgren, Å., Muller, A., 2010. Swedish CO<sub>2</sub> emissions 1993–2006: an application of decomposition analysis and  
550 some methodological insights. *Environ. Resour. Econ.* 47(2), 221-239.

551 Lu, I.J., Lin, S.J., Lewis, C., 2007. Decomposition and decoupling effects of carbon dioxide emission from highway  
552 transportation in Taiwan, Germany, Japan and South Korea. *Energ. Policy* 35(6), 3226-3235.

553 Lu, Z., Wang, H., Yue, Q., 2014. Decoupling Analysis of the Environmental Mountain—with Case Studies from  
554 China. *J. Ind. Ecol.* DOI: 10.1111/jiec.12226

555 Mazzanti, M., Zoboli, R., 2008. Waste generation, waste disposal and policy effectiveness: Evidence on decoupling  
556 from the European Union. *Resour. Conserv. Recy.* 52(10), 1221-1234.

557 OECD – Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2002. Indicators to Measure Decoupling of  
558 Environmental Pressure from Economic Growth. Sustainable Development.  
559 [http://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?doclanguage=en&cote=sg/sd\(2002\)1/final](http://www.oecd.org/officialdocuments/publicdisplaydocumentpdf/?doclanguage=en&cote=sg/sd(2002)1/final).

560 Okadera, T., Watanabe, M., Xu, K., 2006. Analysis of water demand and water pollutant discharge using a regional  
561 input–output table: an application to the City of Chongqing, upstream of the Three Gorges Dam in China. *Ecol.*  
562 *Econ.* 58, 221–237.

563 Pothén, F., Schymura, M., 2015. Bigger cakes with fewer ingredients? A comparison of material use of the world  
564 economy. *Ecol. Econ.* 109, 109-121.

565 Ren, S., Hu, Z., 2012. Effects of decoupling of carbon dioxide emission by Chinese nonferrous metals industry.  
566 *Energ. Policy* 43, 407-414.

567 Satterthwaite, D., 2008. Cities' contribution to global warming: notes on the allocation of greenhouse gas  
568 emissions. *Environment and urbanization* 20(2), 539-549.

569 Sjöström, M., Östblom, G., 2010. Decoupling waste generation from economic growth—A CGE analysis of the  
570 Swedish case. *Ecol. Econ.* 69(7), 1545-1552.

571 Su, B., Ang, B.W., 2012. Structural decomposition analysis applied to energy and emissions: some methodological  
572 developments. *Energ. Econ.* 34(1), 177-188.

573 Tachibana, J., Hirota, K., Goto, N., Fujie, K., 2008. A method for regional-scale material flow and decoupling  
574 analysis: A demonstration case study of Aichi prefecture, Japan. *Resour. Conserv. Recy.* 52(12), 1382–1390.

575 Tang, Z., Shang, J., Shi, C., Liu, Z., Bi, K., 2014. Decoupling indicators of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the tourism industry in  
576 China: 1990-2012. *Ecol. Indic.* 46, 390-397.

577 Tapio, P., 2005. Towards a theory of decoupling: degrees of decoupling in the EU and the case of road traffic in  
578 Finland between 1970 and 2001. *Transport Policy* 12(2), 137-151.

579 Tohka, A., 2005. The GAINS model for greenhouse gases—version 1.0. IIASA Interim Report IR-05-056, IIASA,  
580 Laxenburg.

581 UN - United Nations, 2008. World Urbanization Prospects: The 2007 Revision.  
582 [http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/wup2007/2007WUP\\_ExecSum\\_web.pdf](http://www.un.org/esa/population/publications/wup2007/2007WUP_ExecSum_web.pdf)

583 UNEP – United Nations Environment Programme, 2011. Decoupling natural resource use and environmental  
584 impacts from economic growth.  
585 [http://www.unep.org/resourcepanel/decoupling/files/pdf/Decoupling\\_Report\\_English.pdf](http://www.unep.org/resourcepanel/decoupling/files/pdf/Decoupling_Report_English.pdf).

586 Van Caneghem, J., Block, C., Van Hooste, H., Vandecasteele, C., 2010. Eco-efficiency trends of the Flemish industry:  
587 decoupling of environmental impact from economic growth. *J. Clean. Prod.* 18(14), 1349-1357.

588 Van der Voet, E., Van Oers, L., Moll, S., Schütz, H., Bringezu, S., De Bruyn, S., Sevenster, M., Warringa, G., 2005.  
589 Policy Review on Decoupling: Development of indicators to assess decoupling of economic development and  
590 environmental pressure in the EU-25 and AC-3 countries. EU Commission, DG Environment, Brussels.

591 Wang, H., Hashimoto, S., Yue, Q., Moriguchi, Y., Lu, Z., 2013. Decoupling analysis of four selected countries. *J. Ind.*  
592 *Ecol.* 17(4), 618-629.

593 Wiedmann, T.O., Schandl, H., Lenzen, M., Moran, D., Suh, S., West, J., Kanemoto, K., 2015. The material footprint  
594 of nations. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 112, 6271-6276.

595 Xu, X., 2004. China National Economy Accounts. China Statistics Press, Beijing.

596 Xue, J., 2012. Limits to decoupling strategies for sustainable housing development: the Hangzhou experience. *J.*  
597 *Environ. Plann. Man.* 55(8), 1004-1021.

598 Yang, Y., Bae, J., Kim, J., Suh, S., 2012. Replacing gasoline with corn ethanol results in significant environmental



- 599 problem-shifting. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 46(7), 3671-3678.
- 600 Yu, Y., Chen, D., Zhu, B., Hu, S., 2013. Eco-efficiency trends in China, 1978-2010: decoupling environmental  
601 pressure from economic growth. *Ecol. Indic.* 24, 177-184.
- 602 Yu, Y., Ren, H., Kharrazi, A., Ma, T., Zhu, B., 2015. Exploring socioeconomic drivers of environmental pressure on  
603 the city level: The case study of Chongqing in China. *Ecol. Econ.* 118, 123-131.
- 604 Zhang, F., Xu, L., Liu, G., 2008. Estimation and management of environmental cost of power plants. *Engineering  
605 Journal of Wuhan University* 41, 99-102. (in Chinese)
- 606 Zhang, L., Xue, B., Geng, Y., Ren, W., Lu, C., 2014. Emergy-based city's sustainability and decoupling assessment:  
607 Indicators, features and findings. *Sustainability* 6(2), 952-966.
- 608 Zhou, W., Zhu, B., Fuss, S., Szolgayova, J., Obersteiner, M., Fei, W., 2010. Uncertainty modeling of CCS investment  
609 strategy in China's power sector. *Appl. Energ.* 87(7), 2392-2400.
- 610 Zhu, H., Li, W., Yu, J., Sun, W., Yao, X., 2013. An analysis of decoupling relationships of water uses and economic  
611 development in the two provinces of Yunnan and Guizhou during the first ten years of implementing the Great  
612 Western Development Strategy. *Procedia Environmental Sciences* 18, 864-870.