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3 **Estimating ecological sustainability in the Guangdong-Hong Kong-**  
4 **Macao Greater Bay Area, China: Retrospective analysis and**  
5 **prospective trajectories**

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30

31 **Abstract**

32 In the 21st century, great changes have taken place in global land use and climate,  
33 which affect the ecological sustainable development of urban agglomerations. A  
34 systematic and scientific ecological sustainability assessment framework is crucially  
35 important for large urban agglomerations to achieve sustainable development. However,  
36 the parameters used in previous assessment methods have normally ignored spatial  
37 heterogeneity, and scenario analyses have mostly been based on the historical change  
38 trend of sustainability indexes and the strategy optimization of future land use of the  
39 whole region, which may lead to deviations in the evaluation and analysis accuracies  
40 against the background of rapid urban development and intensified global climate  
41 change. By incorporating remote sensing technology, this study proposes an improved  
42 energy ecological footprint (EEF) method and a novel ecological sustainability index  
43 to comprehensively analyze the spatio-temporal variability of ecological security states  
44 (ESS) from 1994 to 2018 in the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area  
45 (GBA) and to predict its sustainable growth potential based on scenario analysis.  
46 Results showed that the pixel-based energy revealed significant changes over time  
47 under climate change impacts with intense land use activities during the study period.  
48 The composition and spatial pattern of per capita energy carrying capacity (*ecc*) and  
49 per capita energy ecological footprint (*eef*) at pixel level also significantly changed in  
50 nine cities in the GBA. Besides, the annual change rate of primary industrial products  
51 has a significant positive linear correlation with that of the GBA's *eef* ( $P < 0.001$ ,  
52  $R = 0.42$ ). Consequently, the ESS of the GBA gradually worsened from slight insecurity  
53 in the 1990s to moderate insecurity in 2018. If current trends in socio-economic  
54 activities continue, the ESS of the GBA will reach a high insecurity level. Our scenarios  
55 show that energy structure optimization, biological resource conservation, and  
56 industrial structure adjustment can limit the decrease in Flux and the increase of energy  
57 ecological footprint intensity and altogether contribute to sub-security of the GBA in  
58 2050.

59

60 **Keywords:** Ecological sustainability; Energy ecological footprint; Remote sensing

61 application; Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area

62

<b>Nomenclature</b>			
ESD	ecological sustainability development	GED	global energy density
EEF	emergy ecological footprint method	NED	national emergy density
GBA	Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area	EMR	emergy currency ratio
<i>ecc</i>	emergy carrying capacity per capita	PPI	producer price index
<i>ecc</i> <sub>1</sub>	emergy carrying capacity of natural renewable resources per capita	IFA	investment in fixed assets
<i>ecc</i> <sub>2</sub>	emergy carrying capacity of socio- economic account per capita	HI	output value of high-tech industry
<i>ef</i>	emergy ecological footprint per capita	LS	labor services
<i>ef</i> <sub>1</sub>	emergy ecological footprint of biological resources	Flux	emergy ecological deficit or surplus per capita
<i>ef</i> <sub>2</sub>	emergy ecological footprint of primary industrial products	EFI	emergy ecological footprint intensity
<i>ef</i> <sub>3</sub>	emergy ecological footprint of energy resources	ESS	ecological security state
<i>ef</i> <sub>4</sub>	emergy ecological footprint of ecological services		

63

## 64 **1. Introduction**

65 The 11,700-year-long Holocene epoch with a relatively stable ecological system  
66 is the only state we know for certain that can support contemporary human societies  
67 (Steffen et al., 2015). However, there is increasing evidence that human activities are  
68 affecting ecological functioning to a degree that threatens the resilience of the  
69 ecological system — its ability to persist in a healthy state in the face of increasing  
70 human pressures and shocks — in some areas, especially in cities where more than half  
71 of the world’s population now lives (Li et al., 2019a). Over the last three decades most  
72 urban areas across the globe have experienced dramatic changes in their structure and  
73 function, driven by anthropogenic transformations (e.g., urban intensification) as well  
74 as climate change effects. These have triggered a series of critical ecological-  
75 environmental challenges (Liu and Yang, 2020; Pan et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2019), such  
76 as urban heat island (Cao et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2021), water pollution (Hubacek et  
77 al., 2009) and increasing disaster risk (Su et al., 2017). Thus, there is an urgent need for  
78 a new paradigm that integrates the continued development of human societies and the  
79 maintenance of the ecological system in a resilient and sustainable state for urban areas.

80 Ecological sustainability development (ESD), developed from the sustainability  
81 concept, can contribute to such a paradigm by providing a science-based analysis of  
82 harmonizing nature and social development according to the principles and methods of  
83 ecology, or by incorporating humans and their social economic activities into the  
84 research framework of ecology (Mavrommati and Richardson, 2012), which is more in  
85 line with development in urban areas (Rauscher and Momtaz, 2014). Until now, a  
86 variety of methods for the assessment of ecological sustainability have been put forward.  
87 The ecological footprint (EF) methodology, proposed by Rees (1992) and developed by  
88 Wackernagel et al. (1999), has been promoted as an environmental accounting tool that  
89 tracks human demand on and the natural supply of the regenerative capacity of the  
90 planet. It has been widely used (Moore et al., 2013; Wackernagel, 2006; Xun and Hu,  
91 2019) for ecological sustainability assessment owing to its advantages of demonstrating  
92 the impact of human activities on nature as the area needed to support consumption  
93 (Wang et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2018), a clear account system, standardized process of

94 assessment, ease of use and results interpretation (Liu and Yang, 2020) compared to  
95 other ESD methods, such as material flow and energy flow analysis (Haberl et al., 2007,  
96 Lambrecht et al., 2017), life cycle assessment (Antón et al., 2007; Duan et al., 2017),  
97 emergy accounting (Odum, 1996; Viglia et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2019) and system  
98 dynamics analysis (Bautista et al., 2019). However, EF also has its inherent flaws. For  
99 instance, it ignores the discrepancies of ecological advantages among different regions  
100 as well as the socioeconomic impact on bio-productivity (Li et al., 2019b; Peng et al.,  
101 2018). It also underestimates the ecological surplus because some potential resources  
102 are not taken into consideration (Liu et al., 2008; Mikulčiča et al., 2016).

103 To address the above-mentioned issues, Zhao et al. (2005) proposed a modified  
104 method by integrating the EF methodology with the emergy theory, namely the emergy  
105 ecological footprint (EEF). Emergy refers to the amount of solar equivalent energy that  
106 is used directly or indirectly in making a service or product (Odum, 1996). The EEF  
107 method is constructed by translating various types of energy flow into solar emergy  
108 through emergy transformity, and then converting them to the corresponding bio-  
109 productive land area (Chen and Chen, 2006; Li et al., 2019b; Siche et al., 2006). Thus,  
110 this hybrid method can better quantitatively analyze the relationship between the  
111 resources, environment, and economic activities (Liu and Yang, 2020; Zhao et al., 2005),  
112 and make up for the incomplete evaluations in the traditional EF method (He et al.,  
113 2016; Peng et al., 2018). The EEF has been extensively used to provide a scientific  
114 reference for the eco-economic system to achieve sustainable development at different  
115 spatial scales, such as national scales (Li et al., 2019b; Pereira and Ortega, 2012;  
116 Venetoulis and Talberth, 2008), provincial scales (Chen and Chen, 2006; Yang et al.,  
117 2018), city scales (Liu and Yang, 2020; Nakajima and Ortega, 2015; Pan et al., 2019)  
118 and other scales (Cuadra and Björklund, 2007; Zhao et al., 2013). However, the  
119 parameters used to calculate the emergy variable are normally combined for the whole  
120 study area using average data from statistical yearbooks without accounting for the  
121 spatial heterogeneity in time and space. These unified parametric methods most likely  
122 result in significant deviations in evaluation accuracies against the background of rapid  
123 urban development and intensified global climate change.

124 Furthermore, the factorial decomposition of past trends can help researchers  
125 explore the drivers of the changes in an objective variable. Meanwhile, based on the  
126 historical trends of all drivers and current policies, we can program the future trajectory  
127 of the objective variable (Zhao et al., 2007). However, previous studies have been  
128 conducted on scenario analyses using the grey model (Yang et al., 2016), neural network  
129 and other extrapolation methods mostly based on the historical change trend of  
130 sustainability indexes and strategy optimization of future land use of the whole region,  
131 but did not include the influence of climate change. Therefore, it is necessary to  
132 combine factorial decomposition based on high spatio-temporal resolution historical  
133 data with scenario analysis to form an exact analytic framework and coping strategy for  
134 highly urbanized regions, such as the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area  
135 (GBA), when the region or global climatic condition is predicted to change in the future.  
136 Unfortunately, such a research concept has been rarely adopted in previous related  
137 studies.

138 To fill the above-mentioned research gaps, we improved the traditional EEF  
139 method by adding remote sensing data to investigate the temporal and spatial variations  
140 in the ecological sustainability of the GBA, one of the four largest Bay areas (urban  
141 agglomerations) in the world (Xie et al., 2021), focusing not only on land-use change  
142 drivers but also on the effect of climate change factors. Subsequently, we developed a  
143 modified index integrating two ecological sustainability indicators — the emergy  
144 ecological deficit or surplus per capita (Flux) and emergy ecological footprint intensity  
145 (EFI) — to evaluate the ecological security states (ESS) of the GBA and each city  
146 during the study period. In addition, we conducted a combined factorial decomposition  
147 and scenario analysis to explore the potential of ESD in the GBA associated with  
148 climate change and anthropogenic activities in the future. The aims of this novel  
149 perspective were to (1) facilitate understanding the trajectories of ecological  
150 sustainability and the underlying drivers, and (2) identify the desirable pathways for  
151 decision-makers to improve sustainability of the GBA. Our modelling approach could  
152 represent a baseline for further applications in other urban agglomerations with similar  
153 characteristics. The technical routing map is illustrated in Fig. S1, and detailed methods

154 are introduced in methodologies.

155 The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the sources of  
156 data and research methodology; section 3 analyzes the results while section 4 discusses  
157 the policy insights and displays the conclusion based on the results.

158

## 159 **2. Methods and Methodology**

### 160 **2.1 Study area**

161 The GBA, which includes nine cities (Guangzhou, Shenzhen, Zhuhai, Foshan,  
162 Huizhou, Dongguan, Zhongshan, Jiangmen, and Zhaoqing) and two special  
163 administrative regions of Hong Kong and Macao, is located in a subtropical climate  
164 zone (Fig. 1a) with an average annual precipitation of 1500 mm and an average annual  
165 temperature of 22.3°C. It has a large marine area of 17,000 km<sup>2</sup> and long coastline of  
166 1997 km. Its ecosystem has a strong response to climate change (Zheng and Xu, 2019);  
167 the average temperature has increased significantly with a rate of 0.22°C•(10a)<sup>-1</sup> in  
168 inland areas (Wu et al., 2019) and 0.25 °C•(10a)<sup>-1</sup> in oceanic areas (Xing et al., 2018)  
169 during the past 58 years. In the past four decades of rapid economic development and  
170 urbanization, its construction land has expanded 0.70 times while the ecological space  
171 has been shrinking (Fig. 1b and c). Sensitive ecosystem response and dwindling  
172 ecological space are accelerating the deterioration of the ecological environment, which  
173 would in turn restrict the sustainable development of the GBA.

174

175 **Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of the climate zone where the GBA is located and its ecological spatial  
176 change. Plot (a) is the spatial distribution of temperature zones in China, while plots (b) and (c) are  
177 the spatial distribution of land use in 1994 and 2018, respectively.

178

### 179 **2.2 Methodology**

#### 180 **2.2.1 The improved EEF methodology frame**

181 The EEF methodology proposed by Zhao et al. (2005) consists of two main  
182 components: (1) the emergy carrying capacity per capita (*ecc*) provided by natural  
183 environmental services, and (2) the emergy ecological footprint per capita (*eef*)

184 produced by anthropogenic activities. The calculation formulas for *ecc* and *eef* are  
185 found in Supplemental *Method S1* and *Method S2*.

186 Here we provided an improved EEF methodology frame, with the added remote-  
187 sensing data, to improve on the parameterization limitations in previous EEF studies.  
188 The parameterization differences between traditional EEF methodology and the  
189 improved EEF methodology are shown in Table 1.

190 **Insert Table 1 here.**

### 191 **2.2.2 A novel classification method for the ecological security states (ESS)** 192 **evaluation**

193 The Flux (emergy ecological deficit or surplus per capita, equation [1]) and EFI  
194 (emergy ecological footprint intensity, equation [2]) are two common indicators that  
195 quantitatively reflect regional ecological security states (Pan et al., 2019). For Flux,  
196 when  $\text{Flux} < 0$ , an ecological deficit arises, indicating that the consumption of  
197 resources exceeds the regional ecological carrying capacity. Conversely, when  $\text{Flux} >$   
198  $0$ , an ecological surplus arises, indicating that regional ecological carrying capacity can  
199 meet the consumption of resources (Peng et al., 2018).  $\text{Flux} = 0$  indicates a balance  
200 between human consumption and environmental support. For EFI, when  $\text{EFI} < 1$ ,  
201 human consumption is lower than environmental carrying capacity, which indicates that  
202 the study area is in a state of ecological security. When  $\text{EFI} > 1$ , the pressure sustained  
203 by the ecosystem is larger than the ecological capacity, which indicates this region  
204 cannot achieve ecological security. The larger the EFI, the worse the ecological security.  
205 When  $\text{EFI} = 1$ , the pressure caused by anthropogenic activity is in equilibrium with  
206 the environmental carrying capacity, which reflects the ecological balance of the region.

$$207 \quad \text{Flux} = ecc - eef \quad (1)$$

$$208 \quad \text{EFI} = eef/ecc \quad (2)$$

209 However, in most cases, evaluation results for ecological security states obtained  
210 by one index alone are very likely inconsistent with that of another (Pan et al., 2019),  
211 which has plagued policy-makers. Here, by comprehensively considering the numerical  
212 distribution and the interrelation between these two parameters (Fig. S2), we proposed  
213 a novel classification standard for the ecological security states (ESS) based on both

214 Flux and EFI. The novel classification criteria are shown in Table 2.

215 **Insert Table 2 here.**

### 216 **2.2.3 Scenario designs for forecasting ESS of the GBA in 2050**

217 To explore the potential for ecological sustainability capacities' improvement of  
218 the GBA in 2050 by the application of certain measures, i.e., improvement of energy  
219 efficiency, regulation of biological resource consumption and industrial upgrading,  
220 under the conditions of global warming exacerbation and constructed land expansion,  
221 we defined four scenarios. Scenario 4 was the strongest when the above three measures  
222 were carried out simultaneously, while scenario 1 was the mildest.

223 Scenario 1: Median business-as-usual (BAU): (1) the per capita constructed land  
224 will expand to 126 m<sup>2</sup> according to *Method S3* in Supplemental Material; (2) the global  
225 average temperature will increase by 1.4°C and the sea surface temperature will  
226 increase by 0.95°C in 2050 according to the RCP8.5 scenario in the IPCC (*Method S4*);  
227 (3) energy consumption will improve by 39.6% according to the results for China in  
228 “2050 world and China energy outlook” that was predicted by the RCP8.5 scenario in  
229 the IPCC (*Method S5*); (4) the socioeconomic account, including investment in fixed  
230 assets, output value of high-tech industry and labor services, is a linear extrapolation  
231 according to historical trending, while the per capita consumption of biological  
232 resources is predicted by the bilinear model; (5) other parameters will be the same as  
233 those in 2018.

234 Scenario 2: Strict energy efficiency control scenario: (1) energy consumption will  
235 be reduced by 24F% as predicted by scenario RCP2.6 in the IPCC (*Method S5*); (2)  
236 correspondingly, the global average temperature will increase by 0.9°C and the sea  
237 surface temperature will increase by 0.64°C according to the RCP2.6 scenario in IPCC  
238 (*Method S4*); (3) the other parameters will be the same as those in Scenario 1.

239 Scenario 3: Scenario of strict controls on both energy efficiency and consumption  
240 of biological resources: (1) assuming that everyone's consumption of biological  
241 resources will not enhance with the increase of their income, staying at the level of 2018;  
242 (2) moreover, food (consumption of biological resources) waste will be reduced by 35%  
243 according to “State of Food and agriculture (SOFA) 2019” issued by FAO; (3) other

244 settings will be the same as in Scenario 2.

245 Scenario 4: Scenario of strict controls on both energy efficiency and consumption  
246 of biological resources, and optimization of the industrial structure: (1) due to the  
247 largest share (up to 85%) of cement industry in  $ee_f_2$ , only the cement industry was  
248 considered for industrial structure optimization in our study. The output of cement in  
249 the GBA in 2050 is expected to decrease by 68.8% according to the study by Gao (2019).  
250 Other settings will be the same as in Scenario 3.

251

### 252 3. Results and Analysis

#### 253 3.1 Evaluation of the $ecc$ in the GBA between 1994 and 2018

254 As shown in Fig. 2, the  $ecc$  of the GBA exhibited a significant downward trend  
255 during the study period. The  $ecc$  in 1994, consisting of 59%  $ecc_1$  and 41%  $ecc_2$ ,  
256 decreased from 2.37 ha/cap to 1.33 ha/cap in 2018. However, total energy slowly rose  
257 from  $1.28E+22$  sej in 1994 to  $1.29E+22$  sej in 2009, and then rapidly increased to  
258  $1.34E+22$  sej in 2018 (Fig. S3). It can be concluded that in the past 25 years, even the  
259 total energy in the GBA has been increasing; the decrease in trend of  $ecc$  can be  
260 largely attributed to the expanding population (Fig. S4).

261

262 **Fig. 2.** Proportion of energy carrying capacity per capita ( $ecc$ ) components: energy carrying  
263 capacity of natural renewable resources per capita ( $ecc_1$ ), energy carrying capacity of social  
264 economic accounts per capita ( $ecc_2$ ), and changes in  $ecc$ .

265 With the development of the economy, society and technology,  $ecc_2$  and its  
266 proportion to  $ecc$  have been gradually increasing since 2007 (Fig. S5b and Fig. 2).  
267 This indirectly showed that the growth of carrying capacity brought about by economic  
268 and social development has exceeded the rate of population growth. Fig. S5b also  
269 showed that the carrying capacity contributed by the high-tech industry increased from  
270 11% in 1994 to 39% in 2018, while investments in fixed assets and labor services  
271 decreased by 4% and 16%, respectively, during the same period.

272 In addition, the proportion of  $ecc_1$  to  $ecc$  during 1994 and 2018 was slightly

273 greater than that of  $ecc_2$  (Fig. 2), which reflected the  $ecc$ 's primary reliance on  $ecc_1$   
274 and that the GBA has unique natural ecological advantages. Over the past 25 years,  
275 although the annual average amount of the energy of renewable resources has remained  
276 basically stable, tidal energy and ocean wave were the two largest energy inputs (Fig.  
277 S5a). It is evident that the ocean plays an extremely important role in supporting the  
278 development of the GBA. However, in the past 25 years, there has been an obvious  
279 trade-off relationship between the emerges from ocean wave energy and tidal energy,  
280 with the energy of ocean wave increasing from  $5.10E+21$  sej in 1994 to  $6.12E+21$  sej  
281 in 2018 and the energy of tidal energy decreasing from  $4.33E+21$  in 1994 to  $4.15E+21$   
282 in 2018 (Fig. S5a) due to ocean warming (Reguero et al., 2019).

283 In addition, from the perspective of pixel level, the spatio-temporal pattern of the  
284 energy of the renewable resources in the GBA was subject to great changes (Fig. 3a).  
285 In 2018, more grid-based energy of renewable resources in land field decreased and  
286 the corresponding energy of high frequency shifted to a lower level when compared to  
287 that in 1994 (Fig. 3b). Furthermore, during the study period, the corresponding energy  
288 of high frequency in land field presented changing characteristics among different cities  
289 (Fig. 3c-m). Based on the frequency variation curves, the corresponding energy of high  
290 frequency in eastern cities of the GBA in 2018 was lower and more concentrated than  
291 that in 1994 (e.g., Guangzhou, Fig. 4c; Dongguan, Fig. 3d; Huizhou, Fig. 3e; Shenzhen,  
292 Fig. 3g; and Hong Kong, Fig. 3i), while the corresponding energy of high frequency  
293 showed no obvious difference (e.g., Foshan, Fig. 3g; Zhongshan, Fig. 3l; Zhaoqing, Fig.  
294 3f; and Zhuhai, Fig. 3k) or was even higher (e.g., Jiangmen, Fig. 3j) in western cities  
295 of the GBA. This may be mainly related to the intensity of land development in different  
296 cities during the past 25 years. Numerous studies have shown that land development  
297 intensity in the east bank of the Pearl River Delta is much higher than that of the west  
298 bank since the Reform and Opening-up (Li et al., 2020). All the results indicate that the  
299 temporal-spatial variation of  $ecc$  in the GBA was co-influenced by climate change and  
300 land use change.

301

302 **Fig. 3.** Spatial variation of energy of renewable resources in the GBA (a) and the frequency

303 variation of the corresponding energy of renewable resources in 1994 and 2018 for the GBA (b)  
304 and each city (c-m).

### 305 **3.2 Evaluation of the *eef* in the GBA between 1994 and 2018**

306 The *eef* of the GBA in 2018 is shown in Table S3 and Fig. S6b. *eef*<sub>1</sub>, *eef*<sub>2</sub>,  
307 *eef*<sub>3</sub> and *eef*<sub>4</sub> were 3.51 ha/cap, 1.78 ha/cap, 7.92 ha/cap, and 0.38 ha/cap,  
308 respectively (Table S4). The *eef*<sub>3</sub> sectors revealed the highest *eef* followed by the  
309 *eef*<sub>1</sub> and *eef*<sub>2</sub> sectors, while the *eef*<sub>4</sub> sectors showed the lowest (Fig. 4).

310

311 **Fig. 4.** Changes of per capita energy ecological footprint (*eef*) components in the GBA. *eef*<sub>1</sub>,  
312 *eef* of biological resources; *eef*<sub>2</sub>, *eef* of primary industrial products; *eef*<sub>3</sub>, *eef* of energy  
313 resources; *eef*<sub>4</sub>, *eef* of ecological services.

314 However, the percentage of these four sectors accounting for *eef* has changed  
315 dramatically between 1994 and 2018 (Fig. S6). In 1994, at the beginning of China's  
316 Reform and Opening up, *eef*<sub>1</sub>, *eef*<sub>2</sub> and *eef*<sub>3</sub> were three dominant sectors for *eef*  
317 in the GBA, accounting for 28%, 24% and 39%, respectively. However, *eef*<sub>2</sub> has been  
318 subsequently declining, notably by less than 20% since 1998, and a significant decrease  
319 occurred in 2008 and 2009 (Fig. 4). This is probably due to the fact that the traditional  
320 growth model relied on primary industrial products that were gradually replaced by a  
321 brand new development model dependent on technology-intensive industries since  
322 China's Eleventh Five-Year Plan period (Zhang and Zeng, 2017). The *eef*<sub>1</sub> gradually  
323 increased to 3.51 ha/cap in 2018, which was 25% more than that in the 1990s. As  
324 depicted in Table S3 and Fig. S7, such an increase in *eef*<sub>1</sub> hints at the underlying  
325 changes in GBA's per capita disposable income. Interestingly, although the *eef*<sub>3</sub> was  
326 always the dominant contributor of *eef* in the GBA and growth throughout the study  
327 period, it significantly reduced the growth rate and even halted growth at the end of  
328 each decade (Fig. S8 and Table S3). This trend may have much to do with the  
329 government's management model in China, which set energy conservation goals  
330 associated with carbon emissions reduction at the beginning of the decade and assessed  
331 the achievement at the end of the decade.

332

333 **Fig. 5.** Spatial distribution of the percentage of per capita energy ecological footprint (*ef*)  
334 components in 1994 (a) and 2018 (b).

335 For the nine cities in the GBA, we found that great changes have taken place in  
336 the *ef* as well as in the four components of *ef* (Fig. 5, Fig. S9). The change in  
337 *ef<sub>2</sub>* has a significant positive correlation with the change rate of *ef* ( $R=0.83$ ,  
338  $P<0.001$ ) (Fig. 6), followed by *ef<sub>3</sub>* ( $R=0.49$ ,  $P<0.001$ ). This indicates that the  
339 variations of *ef<sub>2</sub>* and *ef<sub>3</sub>* contributed most to the *ef* trend. When cities changed  
340 their development model from a per capita biological resource consumption (*ef<sub>1</sub>*  
341 shares the highest proportion in the *ef*) to primary industrial products (*ef<sub>2</sub>*)  
342 orientation, such as Huizhou and Zhaoqing, or from a per capita biological resource  
343 consumption (*ef<sub>1</sub>*) to energy resource consumption (*ef<sub>3</sub>*) orientation, as in Shenzhen,  
344 Zhongshan, Dongguan and Zhuhai, the *ef* resulted in a rapid growth trend (Fig.5, Fig.  
345 S9).

346

347 **Fig. 6.** Correlation between the change rate of per capita energy ecological footprint (*ef*) and its  
348 components.

### 349 **3.3 Ecological security state (ESS) of the GBA from 1994 to 2018**

350 Flux decreased from -4.66 ha/cap in 1994 to -11.91 ha/cap in 2008, while EFI  
351 increased from 2.51 ha/cap in 1994 to 8.12 ha/cap in 2018 (Fig. S10). Furthermore, we  
352 proposed a novel ESS classification criterion based on Flux and EFI to quantify the  
353 temporal variation trends of ESS for the GBA and nine cities from 1994 to 2018 (Fig.  
354 7).

355

356 **Fig. 7.** Ecological security state (ESS) level of each city in the GBA.

357 Overall, the GBA was in a state of slight insecurity (Level 3) before 2010, but it  
358 has been classified as moderate insecurity (Level 4) ever since. This indicates that

359 GBA's resource consumption and pollutant discharge have exceeded the supply and  
360 purification capacity of the ecosystem, and that the situation has become very serious,  
361 putting more pressure on the ecosystem. However, not all cities are in such  
362 unsustainable states. According to Fig. 7, Zhuhai's ESS remained at the status of  
363 security (Level 1) from 1994 to 2018. On the contrary, the ecological sustainability of  
364 Foshan was the worst among the 11 cities. Its ESS reached the highest level - extreme  
365 insecurity state (Level 6) since 1995. This was closely related to Foshan's high energy  
366 consumption and high pollution leading industries, e.g., ceramic industry (Shen and  
367 Wei, 2012). From 1994 to 2018, significant changes took place in the ESS of Huizhou,  
368 Dongguan and Guangzhou. Huizhou's ESS gradually changed from a security state to  
369 a moderate insecurity state, especially after 2010 when Huizhou began to enter a high-  
370 speed urbanization and industrialization development model becoming a new growth  
371 pole for economic growth in the Pearl River Delta as pointed out in the "Outline of the  
372 Reform and Development Plan for the Pearl River Delta Region (2008-2020)" (Liu and  
373 Ye, 2013). In the early 1990s, Dongguan was mainly in a state of moderate insecurity,  
374 then its ESS level continued to rise, reaching an extreme insecurity state during 2005  
375 and 2015. Although its ESS has dropped in recent years, it is still at high insecurity  
376 status. Guangzhou has also been rising from a slight insecurity status since the early  
377 1990s to high insecurity in recent years. The other cities' ESS levels have stayed  
378 between the sub-security status and slight insecurity status. Based on the above,  
379 although the government has issued a series of eco-environmental policies in recent  
380 years, ecological sustainability still faces great challenges due to the relatively extensive  
381 production mode and non-intensive land development mode in this region.

382

### 383 **3.4 Prospective trajectories of ecological sustainability in the GBA from 2018 to** 384 **2050**

385 The GBA is one of the most dynamic economic zones in China and even the world,  
386 playing an important strategic role in national development planning (Wu et al., 2020).  
387 Therefore, how to enhance the sustainable growth capacity of the GBA and ensure  
388 harmonious development of the economy, society and environment is an urgent

389 challenge this region must face, as well as a concern to politicians and scientists  
390 worldwide.

391 Our scenario results showed that the GBA has the potential to strengthen its  
392 sustainable development capacity and thus reduce the level of insecurity in 2050. Under  
393 the median business-as-usual (BAU) scenario (scenario 1), along with construction land  
394 expanding and global warming, the Flux and EFI in the GBA will decrease to -15.5 and  
395 9.35, respectively, by 2050, about 26.5% and 8.4% lower than reported in 2018 (Fig.  
396 8). This implies that according to this development mode, the level of ESS in the GBA  
397 may deteriorate to an extreme insecurity status (Fig. S11).

398 Under scenario 2, the Flux of the GBA will be -11.40 by 2050, about 6.9% and  
399 26.4% higher than that in 2018 and in scenario 1, respectively. Meanwhile, the EFI will  
400 decrease to 7.16 by 2050, about 29.9% and 23.4% lower than that in 2018 and in  
401 scenario 1, respectively (Fig. 8). The warning level of ESS in the GBA may rapidly  
402 decrease two levels to a moderate insecurity status (Fig. S11). These results show that  
403 it is necessary for ecological security to reduce energy intensity.

404 Under scenario 3, the Flux of the GBA will increase to -6.10 while the EFI will  
405 decrease to 4.30 by 2050 through further regulation of biological resources.  
406 Accordingly, the ESS in this region improved from moderate insecurity in 2018 to slight  
407 insecurity in 2050. This indicates that the consumption of biological resources is  
408 another important factor for generating the ecological footprint.

409 Scenario 4 optimized the industrial structure and reduced cement output on the  
410 basis of scenario 3. The Flux of the GBA will increase to -4.98 by 2050, about 59.3%  
411 and 18.4% higher than that in 2018 and in scenario 3, respectively. On the other hand,  
412 the EFI will decrease to 3.69 by 2050, about 63.9% and 14.2% lower than that in 2018  
413 and in scenario 3, respectively (Fig. 8). As a result, the level of ESS will reach the sub-  
414 security status by combining improved energy efficiency, regulation of biological  
415 resource consumption and industrial upgrading under the conditions of global warming  
416 exacerbation and constructed land expansion (Fig. S11).

417 Although primary industrial products revealed a strong positive correlation with  
418 the GBA's *eef* (Fig. 5), future growth in this region will lead to a large-scale

419 occurrence of capital construction. A decline in share of primary industrial products  
420 dominated by the cement industry will be limited by 2050. Therefore, improved  
421 sustainable development brought about by an adjustment of the industrial structure is  
422 weaker than that generated by the adjustment of the energy structure and the  
423 optimization of biological resources.

424

425 **Fig. 8.** The four prediction scenarios of the energy ecological deficit or surplus per capita (Flux)

426 (a) and energy ecological footprint intensity (EFI) (b).

427

#### 428 **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

429 With the accelerated urbanization and industrialization process of recent decades,  
430 urban agglomerations have been growing and becoming the focus of scientists and  
431 policy-makers (Bi et al., 2020; He et al., 2019; Kourtit et al., 2020). Meanwhile, the  
432 continued deterioration of the environment and massive depletion of natural resources  
433 induced by rapid urbanization and climate change have been recognized as a principal  
434 threat to ecological sustainable development (Eustachio et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019;  
435 Sandifer et al., 2015). Establishing a systematic and scientific ecological sustainability  
436 assessment framework and ecological governance system are of paramount importance  
437 for the sustainable development of large urban agglomerations, such as the GBA, which  
438 is the world's fourth largest bay area. However, the previous EEF method does not seem  
439 to work well with the ecological sustainability assessment in these large urban  
440 agglomerations due to their conspicuous spatial and temporal heterogeneity. In this  
441 study an improved EEF method, which combined remote sensing data, was established  
442 to comprehensively evaluate temporal and spatial variations in the ecological  
443 sustainability of the GBA from 1994 to 2018.

444 Our results show that although the sum of renewable resources of the energy  
445 amount of the GBA did not reveal evident changes in trends from 1994 to 2018, its  
446 composition and spatial pattern at pixel level significantly changed, mainly due to the  
447 combined effect of climate change and land use change related to social and economic

448 anthropogenic activities. The GBA's  $ecc_1$ , which is associated with oceans, is the most  
449 important contributor to the  $ecc$  of the GBA, with an average share reaching 75%. Also,  
450 climate change would have a strong impact on the energy of renewable resources of  
451 oceans by affecting tidal range and wave height (Fig. S5a). It follows that with  
452 increasing global warming, the ocean's activity will be further intensified (Reguero et  
453 al., 2019). However, another study (Bi et al., 2020) using the EF method, which does  
454 not consider the significant contribution of wave energy and tidal energy, found that the  
455 GBA developed from a weakly unsustainable development state in 2000 to a strongly  
456 unsustainable development state in 2015, which is more serious than the results given  
457 by our study. In addition, Bi et al. (2020) found that all cities are in an unsustainable  
458 development state, with Hong Kong having the lowest sustainable development  
459 capacity. However, we found that the cities with coastlines, such as Hong Kong, Zhuhai,  
460 Jiangmen and Macao, have been in a state of sustainable or sub-sustainable  
461 development, while Foshan has been facing the greatest environmental pressure. It  
462 indicated that ignoring the role of the ocean, as well as the impact of global climate  
463 change on ocean energy, would lead to substantial deviations to the sustainability  
464 evaluation of coastal cities or regions. Moreover, we further found that using the  
465 traditional EEF method provided by Liu and Yang (2020), which does not consider the  
466 spatio-temporal variations of pixel scale, overestimates the GBA's  $ecc$  by 15%  
467 compared with our results (Fig. S12). Therefore, a combination of remote sensing data  
468 and traditional economic and social statistics data can improve the accuracy of regional  
469 ecological sustainability assessment to provide a more scientific basis for decision-  
470 makers.

471 Furthermore, the  $eef$  in the GBA has increased by 75% in the past 25 years, which  
472 is similar to the results of many studies conducted on other urban agglomerations (Liu  
473 and Yang, 2020). However, this study further found that the annual change rate of  
474 primary industrial products has a significant positive linear correlation with that of the  
475 GBA's  $eef$ , followed by that of energy demand, and used these correlations to explain  
476 the temporal and spatial variations of  $eef$  for the nine cities.

477 This study provides for the first time, to our knowledge, meaningful and practical

478 scenario predictions to explore the potential for ecological sustainability capacities  
479 improvement of the GBA in 2050 by applying certain measures, i.e., improvement of  
480 energy efficiency, regulation of biological resource consumption and industrial  
481 upgrading, under the conditions of global warming exacerbation and constructed land  
482 expansion. The uncertainty underlying these scenarios is considerable and is based on  
483 uncertainties in the consciousness change in biological resource consumption and other  
484 industrial structures besides cement industries. Despite the uncertainties, the scenarios  
485 illustrate the enormous potential for an improvement in the sustainability of the GBA.  
486 The uncertainties change the magnitude of potential, but the underlying possibility for  
487 sustainability improvement remain.

488 Our scenario analyses have shown that if the GBA maintains its current production  
489 and lifestyle, climate change and the expansion of construction land will change the  
490 ecological security status of the GBA deteriorating to extreme security status. By  
491 improving energy efficiency, regulating biological resource consumption and  
492 upgrading industrial structure the EFI can be reduced by about 63.9% (Fig. 9). It means  
493 that in order to improve the GBA's sustainability, policy-makers should primarily  
494 consider implementing strategies to reduce biological resource consumption. The  
495 government can advocate resource-saving consumption patterns and encourage green  
496 consumption to improve people's consumption structure of biological resources  
497 through media publicizing, including TV, social media platforms, pamphlets, billboards,  
498 and so on. In addition, policy-makers should consider implementing strategies to  
499 improve energy efficiency. For example, a lower energy consumption quota should be  
500 assigned to low energy efficiency city sectors (Su et al., 2020), forcing them to carry  
501 out equipment transformation. We also suggest encouraging profit-driven enterprises to  
502 adopt a cleaner production mode by allowing consumption forces to determine  
503 production and increasing the market share of clean energy products. The realization of  
504 these measures is very feasible thanks to the strong willingness and enforcement of  
505 government in the GBA to achieve the "carbon neutrality" goal by 2060.

506 In general, the improved EEF method used in this study can have a significant  
507 positive impact on the regional assessment and planning of sustainable development of

508 urban agglomerations. However, some shortcomings should not be ignored. The *ecc*  
509 calculated herein is slightly larger than the actual one, since some renewable resources  
510 stemming from the same source (e.g., solar energy) have probably been repeated  
511 consideration. In addition, given the difficulty of obtaining ocean spatial data and the  
512 small impact of ocean energy spatial distribution on the internal planning of urban  
513 agglomerations, we did not carry out spatial research in the oceanic region. Therefore,  
514 further study should be undertaken to establish more comprehensive and scientific  
515 methods based on pixel level for a better use in other similar regions of the world,  
516 especially in coastal urban agglomerations.

517

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526

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715

716 **TABLE LEGENDS**

717 **Table 1.** Comparison of data sources of traditional EEF methodology and improved EEF  
 718 methodology.

Index	Sub-index	Data	Data sources	
			EEF methodology	Improved EEF methodology
<i>ecc</i>	<i>ecc<sub>1</sub></i>	<b>Solar radiation</b>	Literatures or statistical yearbooks	Chinese meteorological forcing dataset, which provided by the national science and technology resource sharing service platform.
		<b>Precipitation</b>	Literatures or statistical yearbooks	
		<b>Wind speed</b>	Statistical yearbooks	
		<b>Albedo</b>	Literatures	MODIS albedo product (MCD43C3)
		<b>Evapotranspiration rate</b>	Literatures	MODIS evapotranspiration product (MYD16A2)
		<b>Heat flow</b>	Literatures	Literatures
		<b>Wave height</b>	Ocean data statistics website or literatures	Ocean data statistics website or literatures
		<b>Tidal</b>	Ocean Data Statistics website	The global sea level observation system (GLOSS)
	<i>ecc<sub>2</sub></i>	<b>Output value of high-tech industry</b>	Guangdong Statistical Yearbook, the statistical yearbooks of cities	
		<b>Investment in fixed assets</b>		
<b>Labor services</b>				
<i>eef</i>	<i>eef<sub>1</sub></i>	<b>Consumption of agricultural products</b>	Guangdong Statistical Yearbook, Guangdong Rural Statistical Yearbook, the statistical yearbooks of cities, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) Database on production and trade.	
	<i>eef<sub>2</sub></i>	<b>Primary industrial production</b>		
	<i>eef<sub>3</sub></i>	<b>Energy consumption</b>		
	<i>eef<sub>4</sub></i>	<b>Air and water pollutant emissions</b>		

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**Table 2.** The novel ecological security state (ESS) classification based on Flux and EFI values.

Level	ESS	Range of EFI and Flux
1	Security	$0 < \text{EFI} \leq 1$ or $\text{Flux} > 0$
2	Sub-security	$1 < \text{EFI} \leq 5$ and $-5 \leq \text{Flux} < 0$
3	Slight insecurity	$1 < \text{EFI} \leq 5$ and $-10 \leq \text{Flux} < -5$ $5 < \text{EFI} \leq 10$ and $-10 \leq \text{Flux} < 0$
4	Moderate insecurity	$1 < \text{EFI} \leq 10$ and $-12 \leq \text{Flux} < -10$ $10 < \text{EFI} \leq 15$ and $-12 \leq \text{Flux} < 0$
5	High insecurity	$1 < \text{EFI} \leq 15$ and $-15 \leq \text{Flux} < -12$ $15 < \text{EFI} \leq 20$ and $-15 \leq \text{Flux} < 0$
6	Extreme insecurity	$\text{EFI} \geq 20$ or $\text{Flux} < -15$

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Flux, energy ecological deficit or surplus per capita; EFI, energy ecological footprint intensity.

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