The Tapio Decoupling Principle and Key Strategies for Changing Factors of Chinese Urban Carbon Footprint Based on Cloud Computing

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Abstract: The expansion of Xi’an City has caused the consumption of energy and land resources, leading to serious environmental pollution problems. For this purpose, this study was carried out to measure the carbon carrying capacity, net carbon footprint and net carbon footprint pressure index of Xi’an City, and to characterize the carbon sequestration capacity of Xi’an ecosystem, thereby laying a foundation for developing comprehensive and reasonable low-carbon development measures. This study expects to provide a reference for China to develop a low-carbon economy through Tapio decoupling principle. The decoupling relationship between CO₂ and driving factors was explored through Tapio decoupling model. The time-series data was used to calculate the carbon footprint. The auto-encoder in deep learning technology was combined with the parallel algorithm in cloud computing. A general multilayer perceptron neural network realized by a parallel BP learning algorithm was proposed based on Map-Reduce on a cloud computing cluster. A partial least squares (PLS) regression model was constructed to analyze driving factors. The results show that in terms of city size, the variable importance in projection (VIP) output of the urbanization rate has a strong inhibitory effect on carbon footprint growth, and the VIP value of permanent population ranks the last; in terms of economic development, the impact of fixed asset investment and added value of the secondary industry on carbon footprint ranks third and fourth. As a result, the marginal effect of carbon footprint is greater than that of economic growth after economic growth reaches a certain stage, revealing that the driving forces and mechanisms can promote the growth of urban space.

Keywords: cloud computing; Tapio decoupling model; urban carbon footprint; human impact; climate change

1. Introduction

From the beginning of the Industrial Revolution to 2009, the CO₂ content in the atmosphere has increased by nearly 38% and the methane content has increased by 148%, most of which have increased in the past 50 years [1]. According to statistics, the island of Arctic Circle in 2019 has a daily melting amount of up to 2 billion tons. In Europe, heat waves hit many countries, with record-breaking high temperatures in Germany, the UK, Belgium, the Netherlands and Greece [2–4]. In July 2019, the National High-temperature Early Warning Map issued by the China Meteorological Administration classified high temperatures as “swelling”, “twisting”, “melting”, and “evaporating” [5]. Global warming caused by rising temperatures has become an environmental problem that mankind cannot ignore, as well as a great challenge for energy development. The amount of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere has increased dramatically in recent years. Before the Industrial Revolution, atmospheric CO₂ fluctuated between 180 ppm during the ice age and 280 ppm during the interglacial warm period [6]. According to the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA), since the Industrial Revolution, CO₂ has grown...
100 times faster than it was at the end of the last ice age. Cities are the areas where human activities have the greatest impact on the surface. Accelerated urbanization and urban expansion have had a profound impact on the global carbon cycle and climate change [7].

Carbon includes natural resources such as petroleum, coal, and wood made of carbon. The carbon footprint represents the “carbon consumption” of a person or group, which is ultimately converted into the amount of CO$_2$ in the atmosphere. It is used to measure the impact of human activities on climate change. The value of the carbon footprint has been increasingly widely reported. People can obtain the carbon footprint of governments, states, cities, and enterprises through a simple web search. Scholars from developed countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Germany have led research in the field of carbon footprint, focusing on issues related to carbon emissions and carbon footprint assessment, as well as measures taken to address global warming and ecological construction [8]. Cities are important carriers for implementing national strategic actions to combat climate change. Whether cities can realize the transformation of low-carbon development depends on the ultimate realization of China’s mid- and long-term carbon emission reduction targets promised in the international community. In addition, cities emit 70% of the world’s greenhouse gases, and they have the economic, social, and policy advantages to implement emission reduction actions. Some investigations believe that evaluating the carbon footprint has played an important role in measuring human economic activities and the sustainable development of the ecological environment. Accordingly, how to deal with climate change has gradually become a hot topic in various countries. Facing the reality of over-exploitation of resources and deteriorating environment, the green and low-carbon development mode has become an irreversible trend [9,10].

Current investigation on city-scale carbon emissions and carbon footprints lacks a description of urban systems. Furthermore, the evaluation and comparison of low-carbon cities as well as the analysis of emission reduction strategies are not accurate and lack in-depth. Considering the rapid development of urbanization, the urban space and scale have expanded rapidly in Xi’an. It is followed by the consumption of plenty of energy and land resources caused by excessively concentrated economic activities, resulting in serious environmental pollution problems. This exploration aims to characterize the carbon sequestration capacity of Xi’an ecosystem, and lay the foundation for formulating comprehensive and reasonable low-carbon development measures. First, from the perspective of ecological footprint, the carbon footprint model is determined. Time series data are used to calculate the carbon footprint of Xi’an. The decoupling relationship between CO$_2$ and driving factors is discussed through Tapio decoupling model. Through deep learning technology and cloud computing theory, the driving force and mechanism of urban spatial growth are further revealed to understand the low-carbon urban spatial expansion mode. This exploration provides a path choice for finding the main and secondary driving factors of CO$_2$ emissions on different spatial scales, and provides a reference for the development of low-carbon economy and the reduction of CO$_2$ emissions, which is conducive to the development of urbanization in Xi’an.

2. Literature Review

Carbon footprint measurement and pressure analysis have become the necessary means for countries to develop low-carbon economy. Chen et al. [11] established a carbon footprint pressure index to evaluate the carbon footprint pressure of 60 sample countries, and explored the driving factors influencing the carbon footprint pressure of each country through IPAT equation and log mean exponential decomposition method. The carbon footprint pressure of non-OECD countries is rising rapidly, and the increase of global carbon footprint pressure is limited by technological progress. He et al. [12] established a product carbon footprint model for the product life cycle under uncertainty, and discussed in detail the estimation method of carbon footprint in the product life cycle based on the uncertainty model. Yang et al. [13] studied the CO$_2$ emissions generated by two different operation modes of container terminals in Kaohsiung port, looking for more energy-saving
and emission reduction operation strategies. Based on carbon footprint analysis, grey correlation analysis is used to determine the ranking order of different container terminal operation models.

The research on carbon footprint is the premise of maintaining green ecology and promoting sustainable economic development. Song et al. [14] derived the relationship between GDP per capita and Tapio decoupling index. Moreover, with GDP per capita as the horizontal axis and Tapio decoupling index as the vertical axis, they established a two-dimensional decoupling model and decoupling analysis framework to comprehensively analyze the decoupling status of China’s provincial CO$_2$ emissions and the dynamic path from 2000 to 2016. Guo and Chen [15] used Tapio decoupling model, differential GMM method and peak prediction model to analyze the impact of environmental regulation on carbon emissions, and subdivided the research samples from regional and time dimensions to discuss the effectiveness of environmental regulations in different regions and periods. Through further optimization of environmental regulations, it is predicted that China may reach its peak CO$_2$ emission in 2030.

The above research proves that the research on carbon emissions is mainly completed through carbon footprint calculation, and on this basis, the relationship between carbon emissions and economic development is studied. However, in the current era of big data, for the factors that affect the carbon footprint, the data of various fields need to be comprehensively considered. Therefore, cloud computing and deep learning technology are used to more comprehensively analyze the carbon footprint data, so as to ensure the accuracy of carbon footprint calculation.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Carbon Footprint Calculation Model

As the main body to cope with climate change and to develop a low-carbon economy, cities are important carriers for China to achieve emission reduction targets and effectively control greenhouse gas emissions. Only when the main classifications of urban GHG emission sources and sinks are clearly identified, and the emission status and emission characteristics of major regions are accurately grasped, can practical emission reduction targets, measures and programs be formulated.

Carbon emissions refer to the average greenhouse gas emissions in the process of production, transportation, use and recycling. Dynamic carbon emissions refer to the cumulative amount of greenhouse gases emitted per unit of goods. Different batches of the same product will have different dynamic of carbon emissions. In this study, the emission of CO$_2$ was discussed, excluding the emission of other greenhouse gases. The mainstream accounting methods of carbon footprint mainly include the inventory factor method, input-output analysis (IOA), life cycle assessment (LCA), and mixed life cycle method developed by the United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).

LCA is a method evaluating the environmental impact of a product or a service system throughout the life cycle. It includes the extraction and processing of raw materials, product production, packaging, marketing, use, reuse, and product maintenance until recycling and final waste disposal [16]. The basic structure of LCA is mainly divided into four parts: defining goals and scope, inventory analysis, impact analysis, and result interpretation. The process of carbon footprint calculation by this method is shown in Figure 1. However, this method is more subjective in determining the boundary of the proposed system and is prone to truncation errors. At the same time, its data analysis is not standardized. As a result, the calculation results for the same industry may vary greatly. Therefore, the LCA is inapplicable to the calculation of the carbon footprint of industries under specific assumptions, and it is also unsuitable for the measurement of the carbon footprint at the macro level.
The IOA method takes the entire economic system as the boundary and it has good integrity. It better reflects objective facts and avoids subjective factors in the LCA method. The carbon footprint calculation based on the IOA method can be summarized as the selection and processing of the input-output table (IOT), the construction of the carbon footprint model, the carbon footprint calculation and the result analysis. Based on IOT, the carbon footprint was calculated based on the input-output relationship between various departments and the energy consumption status [17]. According to the input and output connections between various sectors of the economic system, the relationship between the carbon footprint contained can be tapped based on the IOT, which can reflect the carbon footprint in the macroeconomy in a more objective and true manner. The modeling principle of this method to evaluate carbon footprint is shown in Figure 2. IOA has become the main method of carbon footprint calculation at the macro level. It can comprehensively reflect the direct and indirect carbon emissions relationship of various departments, effectively overcome the double calculation caused by the complex production relationship between departments, and reduce the uncertainty caused by the delimitation of the system. Therefore, compared with LCA, IOA shows higher economic advantages [18]. However, the preparation of IOT will consume a lot of time, and there is an obvious lag. Additionally, the IOA method can only calculate the carbon footprint at the departmental or regional level. Therefore, there are major limitations at the micro level.

![Diagram](https://example.com/diagram.png)

**Figure 1.** Calculation of carbon footprint structure by LCA. GWP: global warming potential.

![Diagram](https://example.com/diagram.png)

**Figure 2.** Modeling principle of IOA to assess carbon footprint.
The equation for calculating the carbon footprint by IOA can be expressed as:

\[ C = F(I - A)^{-1}Y \]  

(1)

\[ E_i = \sum_{n=1}^{x} k_n p_n \]  

(2)

where \( C \) represents the carbon footprint, \( F \) is the carbon emission intensity that refers to the ratio of carbon emission to industry added value, \( I \) is the identity matrix, \( A \) is the direct consumption coefficient matrix reflecting the relationship between the input and output of each department and other departments in the production process, and \( Y \) is an index that reflects the final product usage status of each department; \( E_i \) refers to the carbon emissions, \( n \) is the energy type, \( x \) is the number of types of energy, \( k \) is the carbon emission coefficient, and \( p \) is the fossil energy consumption.

Currently, IPCC is the mainstream calculation method system for regional greenhouse gases (GHG). In this method, the national greenhouse gas inventory compiled by the IPCC and the corresponding emission factors were used to calculate various greenhouse gas emissions in this study [19]. The IPCC recommended using global warming potential (GWP) for quantification. The key was to determining the contribution of various greenhouse gases to climate change. The advantage of the IPCC inventory method was to comprehensively investigate the greenhouse gas emissions caused by the combustion of different fossil fuels. Additionally, the IPCC has a convenient data acquisition and simple calculation process, so it is applicable to the calculation of energy carbon footprint at all scales. Based on the current energy situation in Xi’an and the feasibility of the data, the carbon footprint of Xi’an could be calculated by referring to the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories [20–22]. Through the analysis of the carbon footprints of the four accounts of energy consumption, industrial production, solid waste, and livestock, the total carbon footprint of Xi’an was summarized in this study.

In terms of energy consumption, most of the carbons burned by fossil energy were quickly released in the form of \( CO_2 \) and the rest accounted for a small proportion, so only \( CO_2 \) emissions were calculated in this study. The \( CO_2 \) released by fuel combustion during industrial production had already been included in the calculation of fossil fuels, so the GHG emissions generated by the industrial production process only calculated the \( CO_2 \) released by the decomposition and conversion of raw materials in the cement production process. In the calculation of GHG emissions from solid waste, the first-order decay (FOD) method was more accurate in estimating annual emissions, so only \( CH_4 \) and \( N_2O \) emissions were calculated in wastewater treatment. Therefore, accounting the carbon emissions of animal husbandry was mainly to calculate the total emission of \( CH_4 \) from animal intestinal fermentation or feces, which was the cornerstone of formulating carbon emission reduction policies.

### 3.2. Analysis of the Relationship between Economic Growth and Carbon Emissions Based on Tapio Decoupling Model

In 2005, based on the concept of elasticity, Tapio used the \( CO_2 \) emissions of the transportation industry in European countries as the research data indices. The exponential simulation of economic growth and \( CO_2 \) emissions was conducted [23]. Tapio defined decoupling as an elasticity value less than 1. This elasticity value accurately described the state existing between traffic volume and economic growth. According to the definition of elasticity in the economics community, Tapio believed that decoupling referred to the degree of change in transportation volume when \( GDP \) changed by one percentage point over a period of time. Based on the definition of decoupling, Tapio produced a set of index system called Tapio decoupling index system, as shown in Table 1. The equation is as follows:

\[ r_{v,GDP} = (\%\Delta V/V)/(\%\Delta GDP/GDP) \]  

(3)
where $r$ is the elasticity value that indicates the degree of change in traffic volume with GDP growth, and $V$ represents the traffic volume. The equation of decoupling elasticity between the CO$_2$ emissions generated by the transportation industry can be expressed as:

$$m_{CO_2,r} = \frac{\% \Delta CO_2 / CO_2}{\% \Delta V / V} \quad (4)$$

Tapio obtained the CO$_2$ decoupling equation by multiplying the two equations, which can be expressed as:

$$t_{CO_2,GDP} = \frac{\% \Delta CO_2 / CO_2}{\% \Delta GDP / GDP} \quad (5)$$

where $t_{CO_2,GDP}$ represents that CO$_2$ emissions will show different development trends with the growth of the national economy. Through this set of index system, it can be described whether CO$_2$ is decoupled and the degree of decoupling.

In the Tapio CO$_2$ decoupling index system, the critical value can be expressed as three elasticity values of 0, 0.8, and 1.2, so as to divide the decoupling interval between CO$_2$ emissions and economic growth. According to the judgement, the CO$_2$ decoupling status and degree should conform to the actual economic situation.

### Table 1. Tapio decoupling index system.

| Decoupling Status         | ΔCO$_2$  | ΔGDP  | Elasticity t |
|---------------------------|---------|-------|--------------|
| Negative decoupling       | <0      | <0    | 0 < t < 0.8  |
| Weak negative decoupling  | <0      | <0    | <0           |
| Strong negative decoupling| >0      | >0    | >1.2         |
| Negative decoupling of growth | >0  | <0    | >1.2         |
| Decoupling                | <0      | <0    | >1.2         |
| Recessive decoupling      | >0      | >0    | <0           |
| Strong decoupling         | >0      | >0    | 0 < t < 0.8  |
| Weak decoupling           | >0      | >0    | 0 < t < 0.8  |
| Connectivity              | <0      | <0    | 0.8 < t < 1.2|
| Declining connection      | >0      | >0    | 0.8 < t < 1.2|
| Growth connectivity       | >0      | >0    | 0.8 < t < 1.2|

GDP: Gross Domestic Product.

### 3.3. Analysis of Driving Factors of the Carbon Footprint of Deep Learning and Cloud Computing

The carbon footprint is considered to measure the physical or equivalent CO$_2$ emissions directly or indirectly generated during production and consumption. The calculation scope almost covers all aspects of the economic society [24]. At present, the main methods for analyzing the driving factors of carbon footprint are general multiple linear regression method and logarithmic mean Divisia index method (LMDI). However, these methods cannot overcome the multiple correlations between variables, resulting in the inability to fully reflect the interaction between carbon footprint and socioeconomic indices. Partial least squares regression (PLS) can be used to explore the regression modeling of multiple dependent variables to multiple independent variables, thereby overcoming the limitations of multiple correlations among variables [25]. In exploring the driving factors of carbon footprint, many scholars have used the PLS model to analyze the relationship between ecological factors such as resources and environment with socioeconomic indices. It also confirms the effectiveness of the PLS model in analyzing the driving factors of carbon footprint. It is considered that nonlinear structures in the high-dimensional feature space should adopt nonlinear data dimensionality reduction methods. Therefore, deep learning theory and cloud computing technology were integrated to explore the driving factors of carbon footprint in Xi’an using the PLS model.

An auto-encoder (AE) is a type of artificial neural network (ANN) used in semi-supervised learning and unsupervised learning in the field of deep learning. It is also a three-layer neural network that reproduces input data as much as possible. The example of the auto-encoding neural network is shown in Figure 3. The code obtained in the middle
A singular value matrix, there was only time complexity when seeking the covariance matrix. Since the eigenvalue and eigenvector parts could be solved by using partial least squares, the nonlinear structure in the feature space could be better reflected [27]. Since the eigenvalue and eigenvector parts could be solved by using a singular value matrix, there was only time complexity when seeking the covariance matrix.

Input Layer ∈ ℝ⁵  Hidden Layer ∈ ℝ²  Output Layer ∈ ℝ⁴

Figure 3. Example of the auto-encoding neural network.

Cloud computing as a requirement of current big data applications, and it was a product of interconnecting plenty of computer clusters through hardware devices and software technologies. Its main functions were to realize distributed computing of large amounts of data, parallel operation of large amounts of operations, and virtual sharing of network resources [28]. The parallel implementation model was a combination of multiple artificial neural networks and their inherent parallel computing structure features to achieve high-speed processing.

An important issue in parallel algorithms was to map artificial neural networks to computing networks. The optimal mapping issue depended on computing network type and workload. Different mapping schemes based on workload could be divided into static mapping and dynamic mapping [29]. In the case of static mapping, the artificial neural network was segmented and mapped to the computing network and this segmentation remained until the training process was completed. In the case of dynamic mapping, artificial neural network segmentation would change over time due to the workload of the computing network. This mapping issue was an integer programming optimization problem with nonlinear hybrid characteristics with communication and memory constraints. In plenty of existing artificial neural networks, the weights were updated through back propagation (BP) errors, and the multi-layer perceptron (MLP) method of convergence learning was achieved. It effectively handled many practical problems [30]. In cloud computing clusters, there were workload balancing and resource scheduling mechanisms. Therefore, a general multilayer perceptron neural network realized by a parallel BP learning algorithm based on Map-Reduce on a cloud computing cluster was proposed.

In the Map function, the weight was read from the Hadoop distributed file system (HDFS) to initialize the network. The sample was segmented and the network training was performed a certain number of times to achieve certain conditions. In the Reduce function,
the weight of each map was counted and the average value of all weights was calculated as the new weight. It could eliminate the limitation of speed and storage capacity on a single processor computer, and overcome the difficulty of finding the optimal artificial neural network mapping on the network workstation. Parallel algorithms were mapped on training, and each computing node uses many samples for training. Through the use of the total weight, the computing node reached a certain convergence requirement, and the summary result determined whether to iterate again [31,32]. In each model training mechanism, the weight changes calculated for a particular model before processing the next model would be affected. The weight change per sample training mechanism was adjusted for the error generated by each sample during each training. Each model training mechanism obtained the calculation error through the following equation:

\[ E = \frac{1}{2} (D - O)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{l} (d_k - o_k)^2 \]  (6)

where \( D \) is the expected output, \( O \) is the network output, and \( I \) is the attribute value.

The batch model training mechanism obtains the calculation error through the following equation:

\[ E_{\text{sum}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{p=1}^{p} \sum_{k=1}^{l} (d_k^p - o_k^p)^2 \]  (7)

where \( p \) represents the total number of training samples. The batch training mechanism accumulates weight updates after submitting samples of the entire training set.

Each model training mechanism algorithm and batch training mechanism algorithm could be divided into three stages: prefix, error BP , and weight update. For the BP network, the global training set was divided into subsets or batch samples for independent training. The comprehensive training results of multiple training methods could also achieve the same generalization performance.

Based on the PLS model of deep learning artificial neural network and cloud computing, the data was processed in a dimensionless manner before the carbon footprint was calculated. It was assumed that \( n \) sample points were observed. The \( n \) sets of observation data matrices of the dependent variable group and the independent variable group are respectively recorded as:

\[ F_0 = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \ldots y_{1p} \\ \vdots \\ y_{n1} \ldots y_{np} \end{bmatrix}, \quad E_0 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \ldots x_{1m} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n1} \ldots x_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \]  (8)

A component \( u_1 \) was extracted from \( F_0 \) to make \( u_1 \) and \( Y_1, Y_2, \ldots, Y_p \) form a linear combination. A component \( t_1 \) was extracted from \( E_0 \) to make \( t_1 \) and \( X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m \) form a linear combination. Due to the requirements of regression modeling, the correlation between \( t_1 \) and \( u_1 \) reached the highest, and this vector is denoted as \( \hat{u}_1 \) and \( \hat{t}_1 \), respectively.

\[
\hat{t}_1 = E_0 w_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \ldots x_{1m} \\ \vdots \\ x_{n1} \ldots x_{nm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} \\ \vdots \\ w_{1m} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} t_{11} \\ \vdots \\ t_{n1} \end{bmatrix}
\]  (9)

\[
\hat{u}_1 = F_0 v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} \ldots y_{1p} \\ \vdots \\ y_{n1} \ldots y_{np} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} \\ \vdots \\ v_{1p} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_{11} \\ \vdots \\ u_{n1} \end{bmatrix}
\]  (10)
In the PLS model, the two requirements that required the covariance \( \text{Cov}(t_1, u_1) \) to reach the maximum could be converted into a measure of the conditional extremum. This is expressed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle t_1, u_1 \rangle &= \langle E_0 w_1, Y_0 v_1 \rangle = w_1^T E_0^T F_0 x_1 \\
\langle t_1, u_1 \rangle &= \| w_1 \|^2 = 1, \| v_1 \|^2 = 1
\end{align*}
\] (11)

In the above system of equations, the conditional extremum problem could be converted into finding unit vectors \( w_1 \) and \( v_1 \), so that the objective function value was maximized.

The residual matrix \( E_1 \) and \( F_1 \) are used to establish the regression equation of \( y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_p \) and \( x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_m \) to \( t_1 \), which can be expressed as:

\[
\begin{align*}
E_0 &= \hat{t}_1 \hat{\alpha}_1^T + E_1 \\
F_0 &= \hat{u}_1 \hat{\beta}_1^T + F_1
\end{align*}
\] (12)

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha_1 &= E_0^T \hat{t}_1 / \| \hat{t}_1 \|^2 \\
\beta_1 &= F_0^T \hat{t}_1 / \| \hat{t}_1 \|^2
\end{align*}
\] (13)

where \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \beta_1 \) are regression coefficient vectors.

The same steps were repeated to find \( w_0 \) and \( v_0 \). Then:

\[
\begin{align*}
E_0 &= \hat{t}_1 \hat{\alpha}_1^T + \hat{t}_2 \hat{\alpha}_2^T + E_2 \\
F_0 &= \hat{t}_1 \hat{\beta}_1^T + \hat{t}_2 \hat{\beta}_2^T + F_2
\end{align*}
\] (14)

The rank of \( n \times m \) data array \( E_0 \) was set to \( r \leq \min(n - 1, m) \). Through the process of substituting \( t = w_1 x_1 + \ldots + w_m x_m \) into \( Y = t_1 \beta_1 + \ldots + t_r \beta_r \), the partial least squares regression equation of \( p \) dependent variables can be obtained as:

\[
Y_j = \alpha_{j1} x_1 + \ldots + \alpha_{jm} x_m t_1 (j = 1, 2, \ldots m)
\] (15)

The number of principal components \( I \) needed to establish the regression model could be determined by the cross-validity test. The \( i \)-th observation of a sample was removed, and \( n - 1 \) observations were taken to model according to PLS method. After the \( c \) components were extracted, the regression equation was fitted. Among these, \( \text{PRESS}(c) \) represents the sum of squared prediction errors of \( Y \), and \( \text{SS}(c) \) represents the sum of squared errors of \( Y \). Besides, the marginal contribution of the component \( t_c \) should significantly satisfy the validity test of the following driving factor model.

\[
Q_c^2 = 1 - \text{PRESS}(c) / \text{SS}(c - 1) \geq (1 - 0.95)^2
\] (16)

At this time, it can be determined that the prediction of the equation has a significant improvement effect when the components are added, otherwise, it cannot be improved.

There might be multiple correlations among the driving factors that affected the change in carbon footprint. Due to the complexity and openness of the economic and social system, the driving factors of the carbon footprint were divided into four primary indices from a system perspective, namely, city size, economic development, social system, and technological progress. In terms of city size, the influence of population factors on the carbon footprint was important. In terms of internal operation of the economy and society, the level of population urbanization, population age structure, and family composition were closely related to production and consumption behavior. Additionally, 10 secondary indices having a close influence on the carbon footprint were selected from the four primary indices to construct a driving factor table for carbon footprint change in Xi’an, as shown in Table 2.
Table 2. Driving factors of carbon footprint change in Xi’an.

| Primary Index       | Secondary Index                          | Variable Meaning                      | Independent Variable |
|---------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|
| City size           | Urbanization rate                        | Urbanization development level        | X₁                   |
|                     | Permanent population                     | Urban capacity                        | X₂                   |
| Economic development| GDP (100 million yuan)                   | Scale of economic development         | X₃                   |
|                     | Proportion of added value of secondary   | Characteristics of industrial structure| X₄                   |
|                     | industry (%)                             |                                       |                      |
|                     | Fixed asset investment of the whole      | Fixed assets investment               | X₅                   |
|                     | society (100 million yuan)               |                                       |                      |
| Social system       | Total retail sales of consumer goods      | Total retail sales of consumer goods   | X₆                   |
|                     | (10,000 yuan)                            |                                       |                      |
|                     | Per capita disposable income of urban    | Living standard of urban people       | X₇                   |
|                     | residents (yuan/person)                  |                                       |                      |
|                     | Per capita net income of farmers (yuan/  | Living standard of rural people       | X₈                   |
|                     | person)                                 |                                       |                      |
|                     | Residential building                      | Technological progress                 | X₉                   |
| Technological progress| Energy consumption per unit of GDP        | technological level                   | X₁₀                  |

3.4. Data Sources

According to the Xi’an Statistical Yearbook and Shaanxi Statistical Yearbook, the account data of energy consumption, industrial production process, solid waste as well as livestock and poultry in Xi’an from 2007 to 2016 were obtained. Based on the 2006 IPCC Guidelines for National Greenhouse Gas Inventories, energy consumption was divided into eight categories, with the purpose of avoiding excessive measurement errors caused by simple energy division. Besides, pollution discharge consists of four categories: urban solid waste, industrial solid waste, urban domestic sewage, and industrial wastewater discharge. China usually adopts landfill, incineration, and composting methods for solid waste disposal. Also, there was no harmless incineration plant in Xi’an, so all urban solid waste was disposed of in landfills, and only the GHG generated by the landfill treatment could be calculated. The land types with carbon carrying capacity were divided into grassland, woodland, and crops. Considering the availability of land area data, the 2010 planning data in the General Plan for Land Use of Shaanxi Province was used to calculate the woodland area when calculating the ecological carrying capacity.

4. Results

4.1. Analysis of Time-Series Changes and Dynamic Differences of the Carbon Footprint—Taking Xi’an as an Example

When the first effective component was extracted, the cross-effectiveness was $Q^{2}_1 = 0.284 > 1 - 0.95^2 = 0.0975$; when the second effective component was extracted, the cross-effectiveness was $Q^{2}_2 = 0.301 > 0.0975$; when the third effective component was extracted, the cross-effectiveness was $Q^{2}_3 = 0.609 < 0.0975$. The results show that the PLS driving factor analysis model based on deep learning and cloud computing has a good fitness when extracting two effective components. The quality of samples was checked by the principle of singular point identification, and the sample points were all distributed in the singular point identification map. Therefore, the regression equation obtained from the fitting result is as follows:

$$Y = 0.702 - 0.296X_1 + 0.060X_2 + 0.097X_3 + 0.211X_4 + 0.269X_5 + 0.064X_6 + 0.192X_7 + 0.120X_8 + 0.295X_9 - 0.110X_{10}$$

(17)

According to the analysis results, the output value of variable importance in projection (VIP) in the PLS model was obtained. The results are shown in Figure 4.
The importance of driving factors in explaining the carbon footprint is ranked from high to low, in order of urbanization rate, residential building area per capita, fixed asset investment, the proportion of the added value of the secondary industry, per capita disposable income of urban residents, per capita net income of farmers, energy consumption per unit of GDP, GDP, total retail sales of consumer goods, and permanent population.

In the field of city size, the VIP value of the urbanization rate has an inhibitory effect on the growth of carbon footprint, and the inhibitory effect is stronger. The main reason is that the concentration of urban population allows public resources to be reasonably allocated to the greatest extent possible, to increase the share of public transportation, thereby reducing the city’s carbon footprint and environmental pollution. In addition, the increase in the level of urbanization has also increased the promotion of urban cleaner production technologies, which has a significant effect on suppressing the growth of carbon emissions. Among the ten variables, the VIP value of the permanent population index is at the end, mainly because the average annual growth rate of the permanent population in Xi’an from 2007 to 2016 was 0.69%. The overall population does not change much. Therefore, the impact on carbon footprint changes is low. In the field of economic development, the impact of fixed asset investment and the proportion of the added value of the secondary industry on the carbon footprint ranks third and fourth. Mainly because the added value of Xi’an’s secondary industry reached 220.018 billion yuan in 2016. Compared with 2007’s 78.201 billion yuan, it increased by 1.8 times. The fixed asset investment of the whole society also increased by 5%. Fixed asset investment not only has a significant driving effect on economic growth but also continues to increase its dependence on fossil energy, which has kept carbon emissions high for a long time. In the field of social consumption, the impact of residential building area per capita on carbon footprint changes is relatively greater. The main reason is the rapid expansion of the real estate industry. The power and building materials industries involved are key industries with high energy consumption and high carbon emissions. In the field of technology, technological progress can improve the level of emission reduction technology and the utilization rate of energy utilization technologies.

4.2. Calculation of the Decoupling Effect of Carbon Footprint and Economic Growth

There are three decoupling states and one connection state between Xi’an’s carbon footprint and economic growth between 2007 and 2016, as shown in Table 3. The specific decoupling trend is shown in Figures 5–9. Due to the financial crisis in 2008, the economic growth slowed down in Xi’an. However, the carbon footprint was not declined, showing...
a negative decoupling of expansion. In 2009, the State Council’s investment plan greatly affected the economic growth of Xi’an. As a result, GDP grew steadily, and the carbon footprint showed volatile growth. From 2009 to 2012, there was a transition from weak to strong to weak decoupling. After the energy development plan has been proposed in the “Twelfth Five-Year Plan”, Xi’an has included energy-saving indices in the economic and social medium- and long-term development plan. The energy structure is adjusted to construct a building and industrial system that focuses on low-carbon emissions. Additionally, statistics show that the carbon footprint has been steadily declining year by year in Xi’an and its decoupling from GDP tends to be good since 2013.

**Table 3.** Decoupling effect between carbon footprint and economic growth in Xi’an.

| Period       | Total Carbon Footprint $a_n$ | State        | Energy Consumption $a_n$ | State        | Industrial Production Process $a_n$ | State        | Pollution Discharge $a_n$ | State        | Livestock $a_n$ | State        |
|--------------|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------------------|--------------|------------------------------------|--------------|--------------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| 2007~2008    | −0.1                        | Strong decoupling | −0.2                     | Strong decoupling | 3.5                  | Expansion negative decoupling | 0.1          | Weak decoupling    | 0.5          | Weak decoupling |
| 2008~2009    | 1.5                         | Expansion negative decoupling | 1.8                     | Expansion negative decoupling | 1.7                  | Expansion negative decoupling | 0.7          | Expansion connection | 0.2          | Weak decoupling |
| 2009~2010    | 0.3                         | Weak decoupling | −0.3                     | Strong decoupling | 11.0                 | Expansion negative decoupling | 0.7          | Weak decoupling    | 0.2          | Weak decoupling |
| 2010~2011    | −0.5                        | Strong decoupling | −0.3                     | Strong decoupling | −2.3                 | Strong decoupling           | 0.6          | Weak decoupling    | −0.1         | Strong decoupling |
| 2011~2012    | 0.3                         | Weak decoupling | 0.7                      | Weak decoupling | −4.3                 | Strong decoupling           | 0.5          | Weak decoupling    | 0            | Weak decoupling |
| 2012~2013    | 1.8                         | Expansion negative decoupling | 2.2                     | Expansion negative decoupling | 0.9                  | Expansion connection        | 0.2          | Weak decoupling    | −0           | Strong decoupling |
| 2013~2014    | −0.4                        | Strong decoupling | −0.7                     | Strong decoupling | −1.2                 | Strong decoupling           | 1.9          | Expansion negative decoupling | 0.2         | Weak decoupling |
| 2014~2015    | −2.8                        | Strong decoupling | −3.5                     | Strong decoupling | 0.3                  | Weak decoupling             | 1.6          | Expansion negative decoupling | −2.8        | Strong decoupling |
| 2015~2016    | 2.0                         | Expansion negative decoupling | 2.4                     | Expansion negative decoupling | 0                   | Strong decoupling           | 1.0          | Expansion connection | −2.1        | Strong decoupling |

**Figure 5.** Trend of decoupling effect of total carbon footprint in Xi’an.
Figure 6. Trend of decoupling effect of energy consumption in Xi’an.

Figure 7. Trend of decoupling effect of industrial production process in Xi’an.

Figure 8. Trend of decoupling effect of pollution discharge in Xi’an.
The greater the carbon footprint, the more greenhouse gas is produced and the greater the impact on the climate. From another aspect, the carbon footprint also reflects the level of energy use, whether it depends on fossil energy or clean energy. Therefore, the greater the carbon footprint, the more greenhouse gases, the greater the energy consumption, industrial production process, carbon emissions of waste, and livestock emissions. The results of carbon footprint analysis indicate that the pressure on emission reduction in Xi’an is severe. Therefore, in terms of controlling carbon emissions, it is not only necessary to consider “emission reduction”, but also include “carbon sinks” measures. The planting area used to absorb carbon emissions in terrestrial ecosystems is mainly increased to improve carbon storage in a short period of time at a lower cost. Judging from the characteristics of energy utilization structure in Xi’an, improving energy efficiency and accelerating the reversal of coal-based energy utilization structure are important measures to control carbon emissions. The low-carbon industrialization in Xi’an cannot take a radical route, yet a gradual development model should be adopted. To gradually reduce the gap with developed countries in the construction of low-carbon industries, Chinese cities introduce Western low-carbon innovative technologies in the initial stage of low-carbon economic development and absorb learning technological innovations.

Analysis of the decoupling relationship between economic growth and carbon footprint shows that the marginal effect of carbon footprint is greater than the marginal effect of economic growth after economic growth reaches a certain stage. Usually, during the rapid period of carbon footprint growth, the decoupling effect between the two is poor. When the growth rate of the carbon footprint tends to be flat, the decoupling effect between the two becomes excellent. The decoupling relationship between the carbon footprint of energy consumption, industrial production, and pollution emissions with economic growth is poor. It suggests that it is necessary to continue to promote technological innovation, foster green innovative enterprises, and build a brand-new industrial system that meets market needs. Combined with the current status of scientific research resources in Xi’an, enterprises should fully cooperate with universities and scientific research institutes to exchange and learn advanced technologies and innovative experiences, thereby ensuring that the products have the characteristics of low carbon and environmental protection.
Regarding the adjustment of the economic growth mode, renewable energy is regarded as the main energy source of the economic development mode. The mode transformation from an extensive economy to a refined economy will be realized as soon as possible. The proportion of agricultural GDP should be increased and the level of technological innovation in the industrial industry should be improved. Moreover, it is necessary to incorporate advanced technologies such as artificial intelligence and the Internet of Things in energy conservation and emission reduction.

5. Discussion

In recent years, the decoupling index is mainly divided into two types. The first is the decoupling factor model based on the initial value and the final value, which is defined as breaking the link between environmental hazards and economic wealth, and is divided into absolute decoupling and relative decoupling. The second is that Tapio constructs more comprehensive and higher academic value decoupling indices to avoid over interpreting small changes as significant changes. Through the elastic coefficient method, the decoupling state is divided into three types: decoupling, connecting, and negative decoupling. According to the relative elastic value, the range of elastic value [0.8, 1.2] is also regarded as the relative synchronous state. Based on the Tapio decoupling model, the carbon footprint decoupling measurement model for Xi’an was constructed. It not only overcomes the defects of the model in the selection of base period and enriches the division of decoupling state, but also accurately reflects the elastic relationship between carbon footprint and economic growth.

It is found that the GDP growth rate is always greater than zero in both decoupling years and non-decoupling years. However, the change rate of carbon emissions in the non-decoupling years is larger, and the change rate of carbon emissions in the decoupling years is very small or negative. In the long run, this decoupling is difficult to sustain, which indicates that there is no real decoupling between carbon footprint and GDP, which is consistent with the research results of Hu et al. [33]. Therefore, the key to decoupling is to effectively controlling the change rate of carbon emissions.

The purposes of calculating carbon footprint in Xi’an are to analyze the decoupling effect between carbon footprint and economic growth, and to explore the driving factors of carbon footprint change by PLS. Through the carbon footprint model and related indices, energy consumption in Xi’an, industrial production process, waste, livestock and poultry carbon emissions, and the relationship between carbon footprint and economic growth are analyzed, revealing the causes of carbon footprint growth. It is not only conducive to explore the relationship between carbon emissions and urbanization, as well as the research of resource utilization activities and ecological coordination mechanism, but also helps to promote low-carbon urban development with the concept of saving resources and reducing carbon emissions. In addition, it will help to accelerate the application of clean energy such as hot dry rock, photovoltaics and air source heat pump, and promote the “coal to gas” and “coal to electricity” of industrial enterprises, so as to make the industrial enterprises transform from local emission reduction and individual energy saving to overall system energy saving.

6. Conclusions

From the perspective of ecological footprint, the Tapio decoupling model was used to explore the decoupling relationship between CO2 and driving factors. The time-series data was used to measure the carbon footprint of Xi’an. In the analysis of driving factors of carbon footprint, the auto-encoder in deep learning technology was combined with the parallel algorithm in cloud computing. A general multilayer perceptron neural network realized by a parallel BP learning algorithm was proposed based on Map-Reduce on a cloud computing cluster. Finally, the PLS model was constructed to analyze the driving factors of carbon footprint.
From a system perspective, the driving factors of the carbon footprint were divided into four primary indices, namely, city size, economic development, social system, and technological progress. In the field of city size, the VIP value of the urbanization rate has an inhibitory effect on the growth of carbon footprint, and the inhibitory effect is stronger. The VIP value of the permanent population index ranks last, which is mainly due to the small change in the permanent population of Xi’an City from 2007 to 2016. Therefore, the impact on carbon footprint changes is low. In the field of economic development, the impact of fixed asset investment and the added value of the secondary industry on the carbon footprint ranks third and fourth. In addition, analysis of the decoupling relationship between economic growth and carbon footprint shows that the marginal effect of carbon footprint is greater than the marginal effect of economic growth after economic growth reaches a certain stage. This investigation reveals the driving forces and mechanisms promoting urban space growth, objectively indicating the dynamic effects of carbon footprint and various driving factors as well as the internal mechanism. However, both the complex process of urban space growth and the carbon footprint are affected by various uncertainties, so GIS technology can be combined in the future study to explain the driving factors of carbon footprint under urban space growth in a quantitative manner.

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