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Socioeconomic impacts from coastal flooding in the 21st century China's coastal zone: A coupling analysis between coastal flood risk and socioeconomic development

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Abstract:

Coastal flooding due to sea level rise significantly affects socioeconomic development. The dynamic nature of coastal flood risk (CFR) and socioeconomic development level (SDL) leads to uncertainties in understanding their future interplay. This ambiguity challenges coastal nations in devising effective flood adaptation and coastal management strategies. This study quantitatively examines the expected GDP affected (EGA) and population affected (EPA) by coastal flooding in China's coastal zone (CCZ) from 2030 to 2100 under various climate scenarios (RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5). The future SDL in CCZ is assessed using a method combining the analytic hierarchy process with entropy weight. The future CFR-SDL dynamic relationship is analyzed using the coupling coordination degree (CCD) model. The results reveal that in CCZ under the RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 scenarios: by 2100, the EGA and EPA will reach \$814.90 billion & 6.17 million people, \$828.16 billion & 7.63 million people, and \$1568.83 billion & 8.05 million people, respectively, where the coastal cities in Jiangsu and Guangdong provinces will face more obvious risks of socioeconomic losses; The total area in the CCZ at "Very high" and "High" level of socioeconomic development by 2100 is projected to reach $11.33 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, $12.86 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, and $15.82 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, respectively, with the Pearl River Delta, Yangtze River Delta, and Tianjin-Hebei remaining pivotal for CCZ's socioeconomic growth. Cities such as Lianyungang, Jiaxing, Shenzhen, Dongguan, and Foshan show notable CCD characteristics, and addressing the trade-off between SDL

and CFR is crucial in achieving sustainable development. This study highlights the potential socioeconomic impacts of coastal flooding and emphasizes the importance of considering the interrelationship between CFR and SDL when developing coastal flood adaptation policies.

1. Introduction

Coastal flooding induced by sea level rise (SLR) due to global climate change is a serious environmental and socioeconomic problem, posing obvious risks to people's lives, economic development, and the ecological environment in coastal zones around the world (Nicholls and Cazenave, 2010; Vousdoukas et al., 2018; Edmonds et al., 2020; Nicholls et al., 2021). With superior natural and socioeconomic conditions, there are currently over 898 million people living in low-lying coastal areas worldwide, generating over \$12.57 trillion in Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Kirezci et al., 2023). By 2050, the population and GDP in the coastal zones are expected to exceed 839 million and \$17.54 trillion, respectively (Merkens et al., 2016; Kirezci et al., 2023). However, according to the assessment reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) (IPCC, 2019, 2021), the global mean sea level will continue to rise in the future, leading to an increased impact on populations and economies of coastal areas (Hallegatte et al., 2013; Merkens et al., 2018). Recently, there has been seen a growing number of studies focusing on the risks associated with global SLR. For instance, Vousdoukas et al. (2018) found that without further investment in coastal adaptation, the annual economic losses due to extreme SLR in Europe are expected to be between 93 and 961 billion *euros* by the end of the century, with the number of people exposed to coastal flooding reaching 1.52~3.65 million annually. Moreover, Kirezci et al. (2023) reported that without effective adaptation to the extreme SLR, the number of people affected would reach 246 million by 2100, and expected annual damage would reach 2.9% of global GDP. Therefore, given the significance of the impacts of SLR due to the global climate change, it is vital to investigate as well as quantify the spatiotemporal variation characteristics of the expected GDP affected (EGA) and expected population affected (EPA) by the coastal flooding under different scenarios in the future period, in particular the combined coastal flood risk and impacts on socioeconomic development, so that adequate and effective coastal flood adaptation policies can be developed.

China has approximately 18,000 km mainland coastline from the Yellow Sea in the north to the Gulf of Tonkin in the south, along the intersection of the Eurasian continent and the Pacific Ocean. China's coastal zone (CCZ) covers part of 14 provinces and regions, namely Liaoning, Hebei, Tianjin, Shandong, Jiangsu, Shanghai, Zhejiang, Fujian, Guangdong, Hong Kong, Macau, Guangxi Hainan and Taiwan (Aitsi-Selmi et al., 2016; Du et al., 2022), with an area over 1.33 million km² which is closely adjacent to the coast as shown in Fig. 1. It is a key contributor to China's economic development, as megacities such as Shanghai, Guangzhou, Shenzhen, and Hong Kong are situated along the coast, accommodating more than 40% of the country's population and contributing over

68 60% of the country's GDP (Fang et al., 2020). According to the 2022 China Statistical Yearbook, the
69 population and GDP of China's coastal provinces reached 636.82 million people and 60,425.74
70 billion CNY (RMB *yuan*) in 2021. Additionally, CCZ also encompasses a wide range of ecosystems,
71 including sandy beaches, rocky shores, estuaries, mangroves, and coral reefs, etc. (Liu et al., 2021).

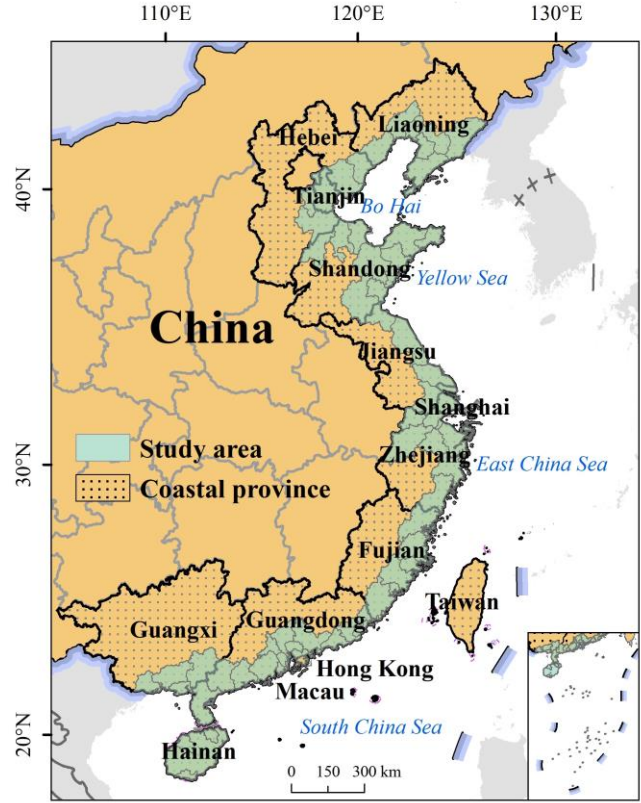


Fig. 1. Location of the China's coastal zone.

72
73
74 CCZ holds particular significance as one of the world's most densely populated and rapidly
75 developing areas, with a concentration of economic activities and critical infrastructure along the
76 coast (Du et al., 2022). Nevertheless, the population and GDP in this area are also highly exposed to
77 coastal flooding due to the modest elevation above sea level, extreme weather events, dense river
78 network, and higher than the global average rate of SLR (Wang et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2022a; Ministry
79 of Natural Resources of the P. R. China, 2023). While numerous prior studies have examined the
80 expected socioeconomic impacts of coastal flooding at a regional scale, such as in Shanghai (Yan et
81 al., 2016; Chen et al., 2018), Xiamen (Xu et al., 2016), and the Pearl River Delta (Yang et al., 2015),
82 only limited studies have been undertaken at the macroscopic scale of the CCZ (Cui et al., 2018; Fang
83 et al., 2020). However, these large-scale studies solely quantified the socioeconomic losses in coastal
84 provinces, while neglecting the losses in individual coastal cities. Such a limitation hampers the
85 comprehension of spatial variations in socioeconomic losses and the development of suitable urban
86 planning strategies by national policymakers.

87 Enhancing the resilience of coastal zones to coastal flooding requires a deeper understanding of
88 the interactions between coastal flood risk (CFR) and socioeconomic development level (SDL). To

89 date, several studies have investigated the CFR at different scales of the CCZ (Fang et al., 2016; Liao
90 et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2022a). Although these
91 studies included some socioeconomic indicators in the CFR assessment, the change in characteristics
92 of SDL and the interrelationship between CFR and SDL in the CCZ in the future are not yet clear.
93 The analytic hierarchy process (AHP) - entropy weight (EW) combined method (AHP-EW) provides
94 a powerful tool for determining the weights of SDL assessment indicators based on projection data
95 in the future. This method combines the subjective weight calculated by AHP based on the subjective
96 judgment of experts and the objective weight calculated by EW based on the information entropy
97 content of the data to obtain the final weight, which is more scientific and has been widely used in
98 economic development and risk assessment research (Wu et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2022). The coupling
99 coordination degree model (CCDM), originally derived from physical sciences, plays an important
100 role in assessing the interrelationship between two or multiple systems (Liu et al., 2021).
101 Conceptually, the CCDM posits that a higher degree of coupling coordination symbolizes a more
102 intertwined relationship between systems, while a lower degree implies a weaker or more independent
103 connection. This model has been widely applied in recent years, particularly in evaluating the nexus
104 between socioeconomic development and disaster risk. For instance, Li et al. (2021) devised the
105 CCDM to investigate the interplay between urbanization and natural disasters in the Pearl River Delta.
106 Liu et al. (2022) developed an improved CCDM to analyze the coupling coordination in urbanization-
107 flood disaster systems in China. Hu et al. (2022) employed the CCDM to evaluate the coupled
108 relationship between flood risk and socioeconomic development in the Yellow River Basin, China.
109 Liu et al. (2023) adopted the coupling harmonious degree model to measure and calculate the interval
110 index differences in the marine economic quality and urban resilience level of major coastal cities in
111 China. Despite these developments, the exploration of the relationship between CFR and SDL in CCZ
112 remains inadequately addressed, particularly under the ongoing challenges of rising sea levels,
113 changing population size, and rapid economic growth. Revealing the coupling coordination
114 relationship between SDL and CFR is crucial at a macro-scale. Such insights can significantly aid
115 policymakers in optimizing resource allocation and setting strategic priorities, especially in regions
116 where striking a balance between economic advancement and disaster risk minimizing is imperative.
117 Additionally, scenario analysis is extensively employed by the IPCC, serving as a crucial tool for
118 assessing the interactions between the human-environmental system and projecting future trends.
119 After nearly a decade of development, numerous communities have collaboratively constructed
120 scenario analysis frameworks, exemplified by the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) and
121 the Shared Socio-economic Development Pathway (SSP), in order to enhance comprehension of the
122 potential consequences of various decisions on climate change, sea-level rise (SLR), and
123 socioeconomic development.

124 To this end, it is imperative to further quantify the coupling coordination degree between CFR
125 and SDL after assessing the socioeconomic impacts of coastal flooding in the CCZ under different
126 scenarios in the future. Such a quantification will aid policymakers and stakeholders in
127 comprehending the potential impacts of coastal flooding on the regional economy, infrastructure, and
128 human well-being. Therefore, this study aims to achieve the following objectives: (i) Analyze and
129 quantify the changing spatiotemporal dynamics of the EGA and EPA resulting from coastal flooding
130 in CCZ from 2030 to 2100 under the RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 scenarios,
131 utilizing the depth-affected function; (ii) Investigate the spatiotemporal variation of the SDL and its
132 changing characteristics in CCZ from 2030 to 2100 under different scenarios using the AHP-EW
133 combined method; and (iii) Analyze the spatiotemporal variation of the CCD between CFR and SDL
134 in CCZ from 2030 to 2100 under different scenarios using the CCDM. Furthermore, the findings of
135 this study will yield valuable insights into the effectiveness of current adaptation measures and inform
136 the development of future strategies to mitigate the impacts of coastal flooding, ultimately
137 contributing to the achievement of sustainable development goals (SDGs) set by the United Nations,
138 such as SDG 11 and 14.

139 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the geography of the
140 study area, datasets, and methods. Section 3 shows the results of the expected GDP/population
141 affected due to coastal flooding, the future socioeconomic development level assessment, and the
142 interaction between CFR and SDL. Section 4 discusses the findings, limitations, and future work.
143 Finally, the conclusions are given in Section 5.

144 **2. Material and methods**

145 **2.1 Study area**

146 In this paper, the study area is focused on the administrative divisions of prefecture-level cities
147 along the eastern coast of mainland China, as illustrated in Fig. 1, but excluding Hong Kong, Macao,
148 Taiwan, and the islands in the South China Sea due to the unavailability of demographic and economic
149 data. Additionally, considering the administrative jurisdictional relations, Hainan Island (province) is
150 separated into three district-level cities (Haikou, Sanya, Danzhou) and other cities. Thus, the study
151 area consists of a total of 11 coastal provinces (autonomous regions and municipalities) with a total
152 of 63 coastal cities. Details of each coastal city, including its ID number, area, and province, are
153 presented in Table S1.

154 **2.2 Datasets**

155 The datasets used in this study for analysis include the inundation data adopted from a numerical
156 model, coastal risk data and socioeconomic projection data as detailed below.

157 2.2.1 Inundation depth data

158 The inundation depth data were obtained from the coastal flood inundation dataset, which was
159 calculated in the previous study (Xu et al., 2022b) with a spatial resolution of 100 m. Within the
160 inundation extent calculated by the hydraulic connectivity model (HCM), inundation depth was
161 calculated by deducting the terrain elevation from the water level value simulated by the finite volume
162 coastal and ocean model (FVCOM) from 2021 to 2100 under the RCP2.6, 4.5, and 8.5 scenarios. To
163 match the spatial resolution of the socioeconomic data, the inundation depth data were upscaled to 1
164 km using the mean value method.

165 2.2.2 Coastal flood risk data

166 The coastal flood risk data were calculated by an assessment framework of coastal flood risk in
167 the CCZ in the previous study (Xu et al., 2022a). The assessment framework encompasses three
168 dimensions of hazard, exposure & sensitivity, and adaptive capacity considering 22 indicators for
169 2030, 2050, and 2100 under the combined scenarios of RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-
170 SSP5. While the original data resolution was 100 m, we resampled it to 1 km in this study to align
171 with the socioeconomic data.

172 2.2.3 Socioeconomic projection data

173 The socioeconomic projection data for GDP, population, and land use/land cover (LULC) in the
174 future period were obtained from Wang and Sun (2022), Chen et al. (2020), and Song (2021),
175 respectively. All data selected are of high resolution and quality in known studies to date.

176 The GDP projection data were estimated for the period 2030-2100 at 10-year intervals for all five
177 Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP1-5) in 2005 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) USD, with a
178 spatial resolution of 30 arc seconds (~1 km). This dataset provides higher resolution data than several
179 commonly used GDP projection datasets, including Gaffin et al. (2004), Murakami et al. (2021), and
180 Jiang et al. (2022).

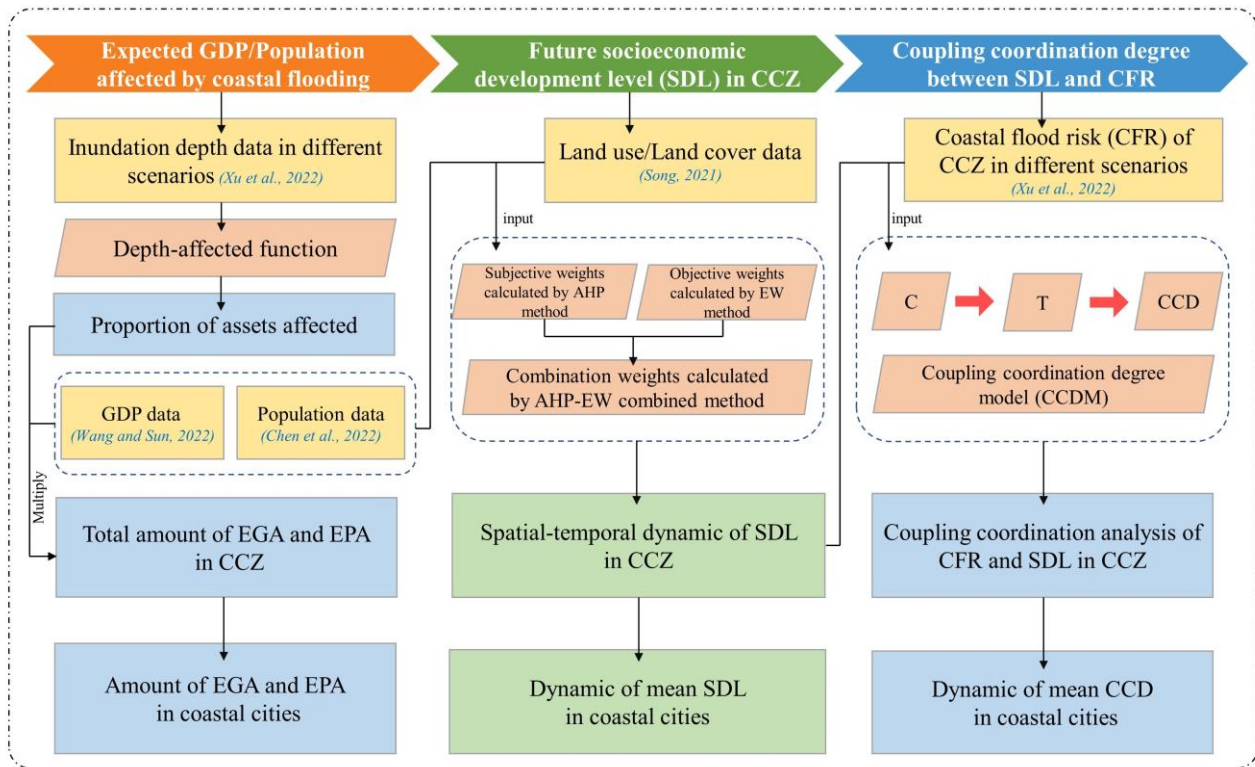
181 The population projection data were calculated by age, sex, and education level for each province
182 of China for the period 2010-2100 under various SSP scenarios and downscaled to a spatial resolution
183 of 30 arc seconds (~1 km) using the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) urban grid and
184 historical population grid as a reference.

185 The LULC projection data were simulated using the System Dynamics-Future Land Use
186 Simulation (SD-FLUS) model for the period from 2021 to 2100 under the RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-
187 SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 combined scenarios, with a spatial resolution of 100 m. To characterize the
188 socioeconomic attributes, in this study, the gridded LULC data is upscaled to a 1 km resolution,
189 indicating the area proportion of built-up area for each grid.

190 2.3 Methods

191 2.3.1 Methodology framework

192 The assessment of the socioeconomic impact of coastal flooding in the CCZ seeks to address the
 193 following research questions: (i) What will be the spatiotemporal characteristics of the EGA and EPA
 194 caused by coastal flooding in future periods? (ii) What are the dynamic characteristics of SDL in the
 195 future in CCZ? (iii) What are the spatiotemporal characteristics of the CCD between CFR and SDL
 196 in the future period? To enhance our interpretation of the methods for socioeconomic impact
 197 assessment of coastal flooding in the CCZ, we developed an illustrative framework comprising three
 198 modules (Fig. 2):



199
 200 Fig. 2. The assessment framework of the socioeconomic impact of coastal flooding in the CCZ.

201 2.3.2 Selection of scenarios

202 Scenarios are descriptors that assess the likelihood of future development changes. They follow
 203 the principles of coherence and entail assumptions about critical drivers and relationships (Ramirez
 204 et al., 2015). To assess the socioeconomic impacts of coastal flooding under different future scenarios,
 205 internationally recognized Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) (van Vuuren et al., 2011)
 206 and Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) (O'Neill et al., 2014) are utilized in this study. The RCPs
 207 and SSPs can be combined to form a two-dimensional RCP/SSP matrix (van Vuuren and Carter, 2014).
 208 This study specifically utilized three recommended scenarios: (i) RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, envisioning
 209 a future with limited global warming, minimal environmental impact, and sustainable socio-economic
 210 development; (ii) RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, describing a future where moderate climate policies are
 211 implemented and implying a mix of renewable and fossil fuel-based energy sources, moderate socio-

economic development, and efforts to balance environmental concerns with economic growth; and (iii) RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, portraying a future characterized by high emissions, rapid economic growth, and limited climate policy actions (Engström et al., 2016; Deng et al., 2021). In addition, the periods of 2030, 2050, and 2100 represent short-term, mid-term, and long-term time scales, respectively, following the developmental stages suggested by Tebaldi et al. (2012) and Spirandelli et al. (2016).

2.3.3 Quantification of expected GDP/population affected

The depth-affected function is a useful tool for estimating the expected impact caused by floods (Messner, 2007; Hinkel et al., 2014). It provides an effective way to estimate the percentage of asset value that will be affected based on the depth of flooding. The function typically takes the form of a declining curve, indicating that the additional impact decreases as the inundation depth increases. In this study, the proportion of assets affected (PAA) as suggested by Hinkel et al. (2014) and Kirezci et al. (2023) is adopted as:

$$PAA = \frac{d}{d + 1} \quad (1)$$

where d is the inundation depth (m). The PAA is then divided into five levels, namely 0-20%, 20%-40%, 40%-60%, 60%-80%, and 80%-100% as “Very low”, “Low”, “Medium”, “High”, and “Very high” levels of impacts, respectively.

Based on the PAA , the effective number of expected GDP/population affected (EGA/EPA) can be estimated with the following:

$$EGA = \sum_{i=1}^n PAA_i \cdot NG_i \quad (2)$$

$$EPA = \sum_{i=1}^n PAA_i \cdot NP_i \quad (3)$$

where i represents the serial number of the grid, n is the number of inundated grids, PAA_i denotes the proportion of assets affected in the i -th grid, and NG_i and NP_i are the GDP and population numbers of the i -th grid, respectively.

2.3.4 Assessment of future socioeconomic development level

In this study, the AHP-EW combined method serves as a tool for assessing future SDL, as it blends subjective weights calculated by AHP and objective weights calculated by EW to increase the scientificity of the weight calculation (Liu et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2022a). This assessment involves four steps, as illustrated below:

First, the assessment indicators are normalized. For example, the GDP, population, and LULC data of the socioeconomic projection data are normalized based on the following Eq. (4).

$$N = \frac{X - X_{min}}{X_{max} - X_{min}} \quad (4)$$

where N represents the normalized indicator value, X represents the grid value, and X_{min} and X_{max} are the minimum and maximum values, respectively, for each indicator.

Second, subjective weights are calculated by AHP. The AHP method enables the determination of evaluation indicator weights through expert experience and knowledge. For this study, the qualitative assessments of socioeconomic indicators are determined by five expert considerations in climate change response, climate resilience, vulnerability assessment of coastal zones, and integrated management of coastal zones. These expert considerations construct a comparison matrix for these indicators using 1–9 scales developed by Saaty (2008) (Table S2). To ensure the accuracy of expert evaluations in the pairwise comparison matrix, a consistency ratio (CR) is computed. A CR value below 0.1 is considered acceptable consistency, which is determined using Eq. (5) and Eq. (6).

$$CR = \frac{CI}{RI} \quad (5)$$

$$CI = \frac{\lambda_{max} - n}{n - 1} \quad (6)$$

where CI , RI , λ_{max} , and n represent the consistency index, random index, maximum eigenvalue, and matrix order, respectively.

In determining the qualitative assessments of socioeconomic indicators, the indicator weights (W_{AHP}) using a standard AHP linear scale are used in the integration of individual judgments, which are 0.5396, 0.2970 and 0.1634 for GDP, Population, and LULC, respectively, with a low CR (0.01).

Third, objective weights are derived from the information entropy content of the indicators (Table 1). Suppose there are m grids within the CCZ specified for EW calculation, each grid possesses n indicators represented as X_{ij} (where $i=1,2,3\dots m$, and $j=1,2,3\dots n$), which are normalized to N_{ij} according to Eq. (4). The feature weight (Q_{ij}) of the i -th grid concerning the j -th indicator is computed using Eq. (8), the entropy value (e_j) is deduced through Eq. (9), and the variability coefficient (g_j) is determined via Eq. (10). These derived parameters then inform the calculation of the assessment indicator weight (W_{EW}) using Eq. (7). The calculation formulas are as follows:

$$W_{EW_j} = \frac{g_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n g_j}, j = 1, 2, 3 \dots n \quad (7)$$

where

$$Q_{ij} = \frac{N_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^m N_{ij}} \quad (8)$$

$$e_j = -\frac{1}{\ln n} \sum_{i=1}^m Q_{ij} \ln(Q_{ij}), 0 \leq e_j \leq 1 \quad (9)$$

$$g_j = 1 - e_j \quad (10)$$

Table 1 Values of indicator weight (W_{EW}) by EW method

Indicators	RCP2.6-SSP1			RCP4.5-SSP2			RCP8.5-SSP5		
	2030	2050	2100	2030	2050	2100	2030	2050	2100

GDP	0.4327	0.3805	0.3479	0.4472	0.4116	0.3757	0.4412	0.3892	0.3542
Population	0.3082	0.3747	0.4350	0.2968	0.3474	0.4045	0.2963	0.3634	0.4286
LULC	0.2591	0.2448	0.2172	0.2560	0.2410	0.2198	0.2625	0.2474	0.2173

Finally, the combined weights are determined utilizing the AHP-EW combined approach. In order to incorporate the experts' subjective judgments on SDL and the objective information entropy characteristics of indicators, a linear combination method is applied to ascertain the combination weights (W_z) for SDL evaluation. The calculation formula utilized is as:

$$W_z = \alpha \cdot W_{AHP} + \beta \cdot W_{EW} \quad (11)$$

where α and β indicate the respective weight coefficients of AHP and EW, which are calculated using the distance formula, as shown in follows (Liu et al., 2020):

$$d(W_{AHP}, W_{EW}) = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n (W_{AHP} - W_{EW})^2 \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (12)$$

$$D = |\alpha - \beta| \quad (13)$$

$$\begin{cases} d(W_{AHP}, W_{EW})^2 = (\alpha - \beta)^2 \\ \alpha + \beta = 1 \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

where $d(W_{AHP}, W_{EW})$ indicates the distance between W_{AHP} and W_{EW} , D is the distinction in distribution coefficients. The combined weights (W_z) are list in Table 2.

Table 2 Values of the combined weight (W_z) by AHP-EW method

Indicators	RCP2.6-SSP1			RCP4.5-SSP2			RCP8.5-SSP5		
	2030	2050	2100	2030	2050	2100	2030	2050	2100
GDP	0.4916	0.4710	0.4602	0.4977	0.4828	0.4695	0.4953	0.4742	0.4622
Population	0.3020	0.3305	0.3541	0.2969	0.3194	0.3430	0.2967	0.3259	0.3519
LULC	0.2064	0.1985	0.1857	0.2054	0.1979	0.1876	0.2081	0.1999	0.1859

In summary, the combination weights of each indicator in the SDL assessment are calculated using Eqs. (4~14). The SDL value is obtained by weighting and summing the normalized indicator values based on the combined weight values, as shown in Eq. (15).

$$SDL = \sum_{i=1}^n W_{zi} \cdot N_i \quad (15)$$

where n is the total number of indicators, W_{zi} is the combination weight of the i -th indicator, and N_i denotes the normalized value of the i -th indicator.

In order to demonstrate the spatiotemporal variation patterns of SDL and compare the fluctuations in SDL values across different scenarios and years, the SDL values are classified into five levels: "Very low", "Low", "Medium", "High", and "Very high", corresponding to the intervals <0.2 , $0.2-0.4$, $0.4-0.6$, $0.6-0.8$, and >0.8 , respectively. As per the criteria and meanings of SDL levels, this study collectively refers to the "High" and "Very high" levels of SDL as the "Typical" level. ArcGIS software is used for visualization. Moreover, for each year in each scenario, the mean value

of SDL (MSDL) for each coastal city is calculated and presented after being divided into five levels using a Jenks natural break technique in ArcGIS.

2.3.5 Coupling coordination analysis between CFR and SDL

The coupling coordination degree (CCD) model is developed to evaluate the interaction and coordination between different systems, indicating whether they have a companion relationship. This model has been widely used to study the relationships between land use, flood disasters, ecosystem services, and the social economy (Sun et al., 2019; Gan et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2022). This approach aims to reveal the change characteristics of the coupled relationship between these two systems from the near-term to the long-term under different scenarios. In this study, the CCD between CFR and SDL in the CCZ is assessed by the following:

$$CCD = \sqrt{C \cdot T} \quad (16)$$

in which,

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{(D \cdot S)}{((D + S)/2)^2}} \quad (17)$$

$$T = \gamma \cdot D + \delta \cdot S \quad (18)$$

where C is the coupling degree, D is the CFR index, and S is the SDL index. T denotes the coordination degree between CFR and SDL, where γ and δ are the weights of CFR and SDL, respectively. In this study, the importance of CFR and SDL is assumed to be equal, hence $\gamma = \delta = 0.5$.

Similar to the evaluation of SDL, the CCD value is also divided into five levels according to Table 3. The “High” and “Very high” CCD levels are collectively referred to as the “Typical” level. Moreover, in order to show the dynamics of the mean CCD (MCCD) of coastal cities in the CCZ, the MCCD of each coastal city is calculated, divided into five levels based on the natural breaks (Jenks) technique and visualized using ArcGIS.

Table 3 Discriminating standard of CCD between CFR and SDL

CCD level	Range	Meaning
Very low	0.0 – 0.2	Seriously imbalanced development
Low	0.2 – 0.4	Moderately imbalanced development
Medium	0.4 – 0.6	Slightly imbalanced development
High	0.6 – 0.8	Moderate coordinated development
Very high	0.8 – 1.0	High coordinated development

3. Results

3.1 Expected GDP/population affected by coastal flooding

3.1.1 Proportion of assets affected (PAA)

Fig. 3 shows the spatiotemporal variations of the pre-defined PAA levels. In general, the PAA levels are similar in pattern across different future scenarios. Regions labeled as “High” level are primarily situated in the northern part of the Yellow River Delta region in the Shandong coastal zone, the central-eastern portion of the Jiangsu coastal zone, and the Pearl River Delta region within the Guangdong coastal zone. Although areas classified under the “Very High” level experience more pronounced impacts, they cover a relatively smaller spatial extent. These “Very high” zones are mainly concentrated in low-elevation coastal areas and estuaries of various coastal provinces, such as the Liaoning coastal zone, the northwest corner of the Shandong coastal zone, the eastern sector of the Jiangsu coastal zone, the estuary of the Yangtze River, and the northwest coast of Taiwan. In terms of the areas affected under different risk level, the side bars in Fig.3 show that by 2100, the “High” level encompasses the largest areas under all three scenarios, covering $19.43 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, $20.25 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, and $23.08 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2100 respectively, while the “Low” level holds the smallest affected areas, covering $8.46 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, $8.54 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, and $8.69 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, respectively.

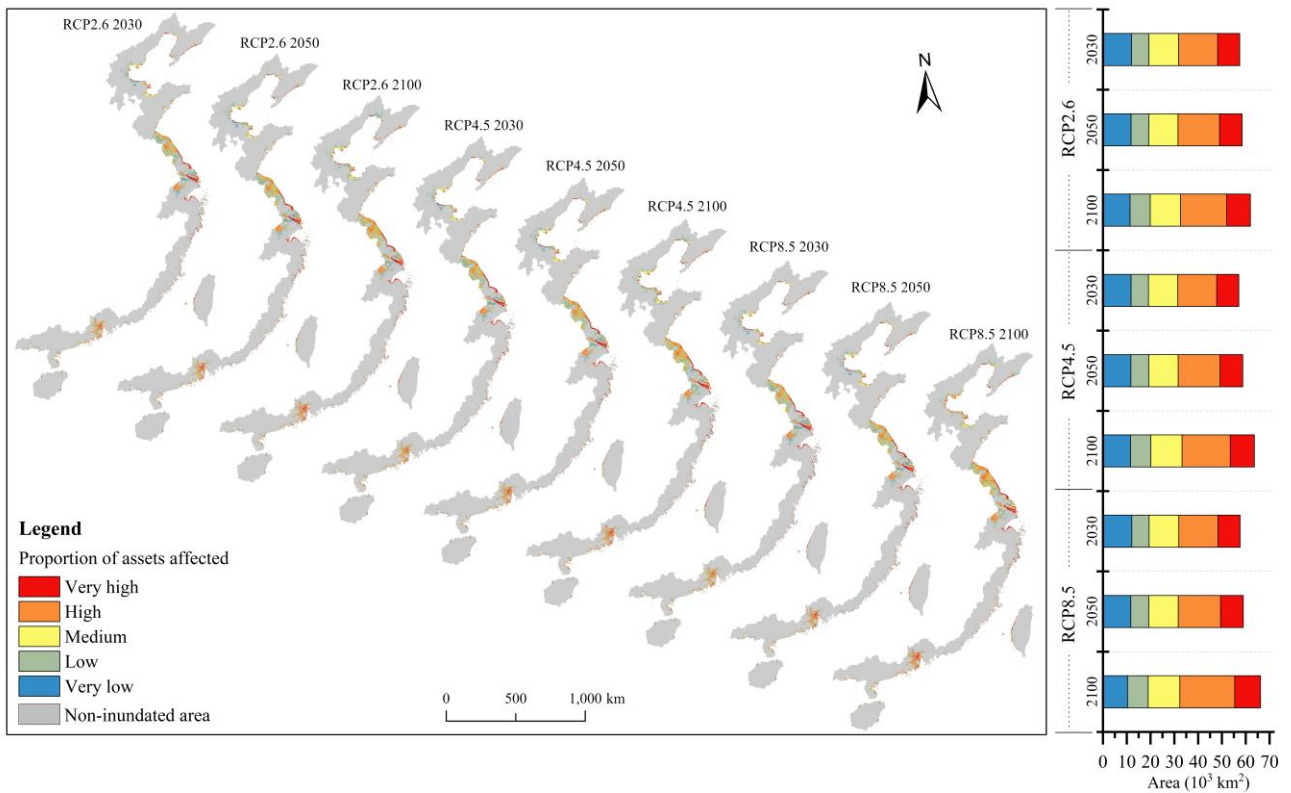


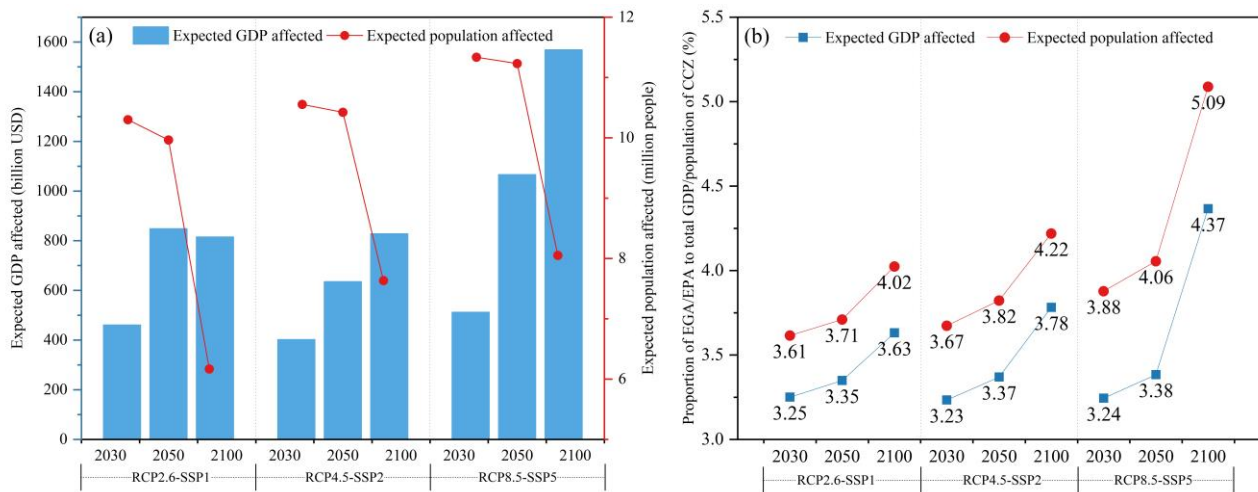
Fig. 3. Spatiotemporal distribution of PAA by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6, RCP4.5, and RCP8.5 (side bars showing the total area in CCZ affected under different PAA levels)

3.1.2 Expected GDP and population affected

Fig. 4a shows the values of EGA and EPA under the influence of coastal flooding exhibit a remarkable disparity between 2030 and 2100 in the CCZ. Specifically, under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, the values of EGA show a sharp upswing, surging from \$460.65 billion by 2030 to \$848.17 billion by 2050 and then gradually decreasing to \$814.90 billion by 2100, resulting in a total increase

346 of 76.90%. Meanwhile, the values of EPA diminish considerably from 10.30 million by 2030 to 6.17
 347 million by 2100, decreased by 40.13%. Under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, the value of EGA increases
 348 significantly from \$401.87 billion by 2030 to \$828.16 billion by 2100, with an impressive growth of
 349 106.08%. Conversely, the number of EPA experiences a rapid descent from 10.55 million by 2030 to
 350 7.63 million by 2100, reflecting a 27.68% decrease. Additionally, under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario,
 351 the EGA value surges from \$512.11 billion by 2030 to \$1568.83 billion by 2100, representing a
 352 staggering increase of 206.34%, whereas the EPA value declines from 11.34 million by 2030 to 8.05
 353 million by 2100, indicating a decrease of 28.97%.

354 Fig. 4b shows that for all three scenarios, there is a discernible upward trend in the proportions
 355 of EGA in relation to the total GDP of CCZ as well as EPA relative to the entire population of CCZ
 356 from 2030 to 2100. Notably, under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, the growth in the proportions of EGA
 357 and EPA is most pronounced: EGA jumps from 3.24% to 4.37%, while EPA surges from 3.88% to
 358 5.09% over the 2030 to 2100 period. Conversely, under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, the proportions
 359 of EGA and EPA experience the smallest growth, with EGA increasing from 3.25% to 3.63% and
 360 EPA rising from 3.61% to 4.02% within the same timeframe. In general, the GDP and population of
 361 the CCZ are projected to experience considerable repercussions due to coastal flooding, especially
 362 under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario.



363
 364 Fig. 4. Values (a) and proportion (b) of EGA and EPA in the CCZ under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and
 365 RCP8.5-SSP5 by 2030, 2050, and 2100

366 By zooming to the coastal cities, Fig. 5 illustrates the spatiotemporal variation of EGA and EPA
 367 under the different scenarios over the pre-defined temporal scales in the coastal cities of the CCZ.
 368 The results indicate that there is significant spatial heterogeneity in the distribution of EGA and EPA
 369 within the coastal cities. Referring to the city IDs listed in Table S1 and shown in Fig. 5, it is evident
 370 that there are two identical distinct high-value agglomerations of EGAs and EPAs, cities numbered
 371 46 to 52 that are primarily located in Guangdong and cities numbered 22 to 26 that are primarily
 372 located in Jiangsu. These coastal cities include Lianyungang (22), Yancheng (23), Nantong (24),

373 Shanghai (25), Suzhou (26), Shenzhen (46), Dongguan (47), Guangzhou (48), Foshan (49),
 374 Zhongshan (50), and Jiangmen (52). In the entire China's coastal zone, coastal cities in Guangdong
 375 have the largest numbers of EGA and EPA values. For instance, Guangzhou (48) and Foshan (49) can
 376 be seen having much greater EGA and EPA values than other coastal cities. Particularly under the
 377 RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, Guangzhou (48) experiences its peak for EGA of \$267.46 billion by 2100
 378 and for EPA of 1953.96 thousand people by 2050, while Foshan (49) reaches peaks of \$260.75 billion
 379 in EGA and 1721.94 thousand people in EPA during the same time.

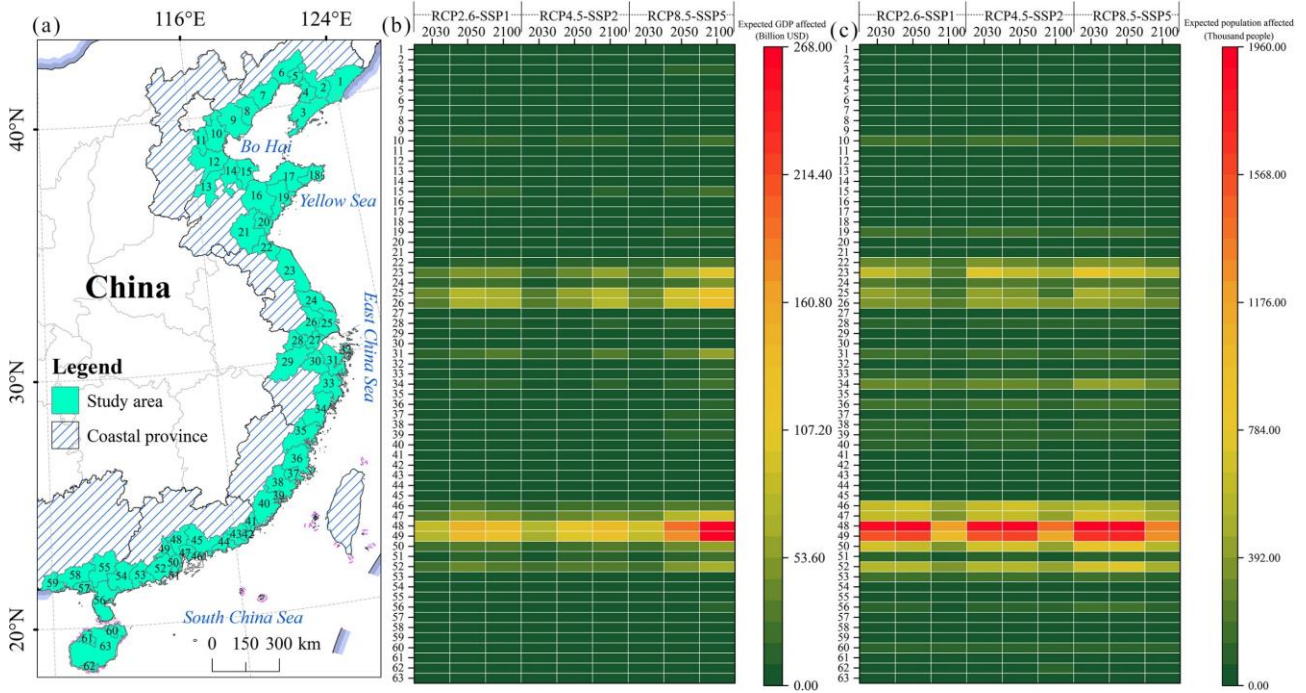


Fig. 5. EGA and EPA in different coastal cities of the CCZ by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5: (a) the coastal cities of CCZ; (b) EGA; and (c) EPA

3.2 Future socioeconomic development level assessment

3.2.1 Spatiotemporal dynamics of SDL in the CCZ

Fig. 6 indicates the spatiotemporal dynamics of the five levels of SDL under different future scenarios. Notably, the “Typical” level is dispersed in clusters and is predominantly located in the following coastal zones: central Liaoning, northern Hebei, central Tianjin, eastern Shandong, Shanghai, northeastern Zhejiang, and southeastern Guangdong. Furthermore, regions marked as “High” level are often observed near those designated as “Very high” level.

With regard to the area change, from 2030 to 2100, the area of “Typical” level displays an overall increasing trend under all three scenarios. For instance, under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, this area increases from $10.98 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2030 to $13.24 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2050 and then decreases to $11.33 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2100, with a change rate of 3.20% from 2030 to 2100; under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, the area of the “Typical” level continuously expands from $11.23 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2030 to $12.86 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2100, with a change rate of 14.59% between 2030 and 2100; under the RCP8.5-SSP5, the “Typical”

level area increases considerably from $12.74 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2030 to $16.30 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2050, and slightly shrinks to $15.82 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ by 2100, accounting for an overall 24.18% variation. Generally, SDL in the CCZ maintains a continuous rise under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, fluctuates most significantly under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario despite the highest level of socioeconomic development up to 2100. Conversely, it consistently remains at its lowest under RCP2.6-SSP1 up to 2100.

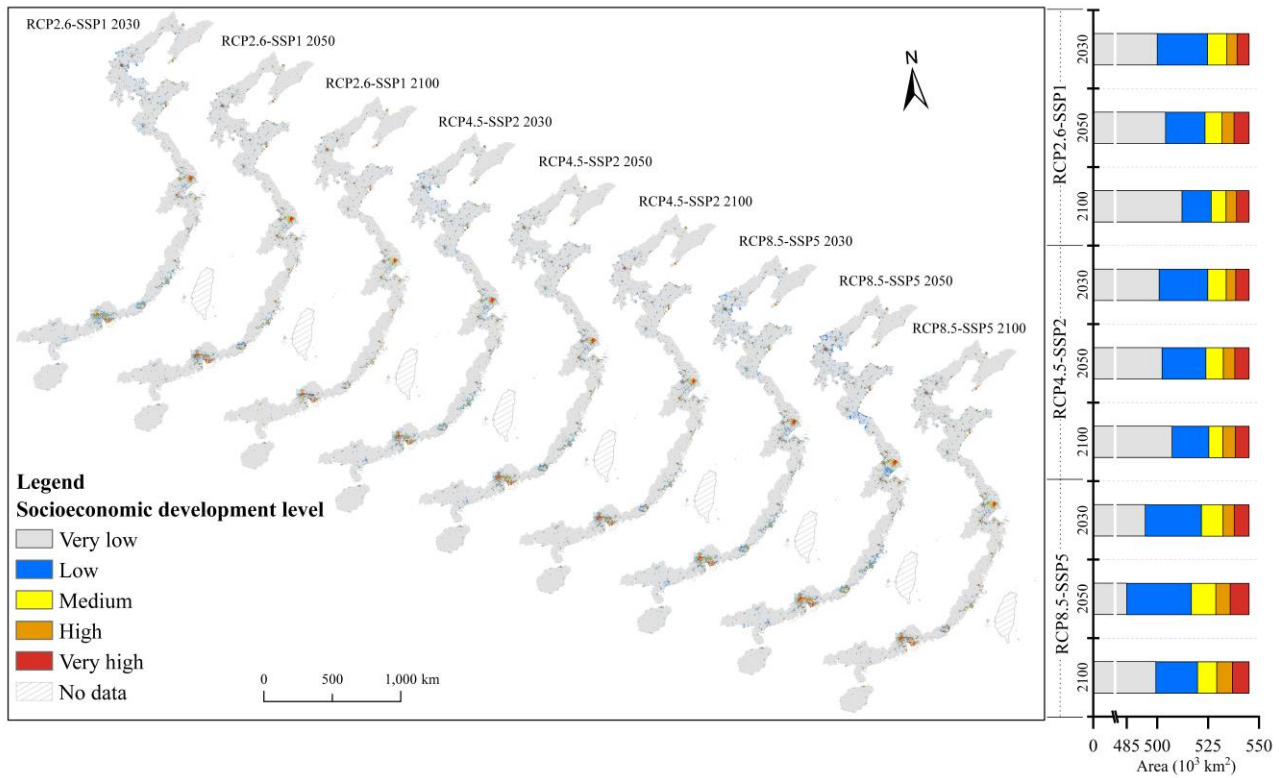


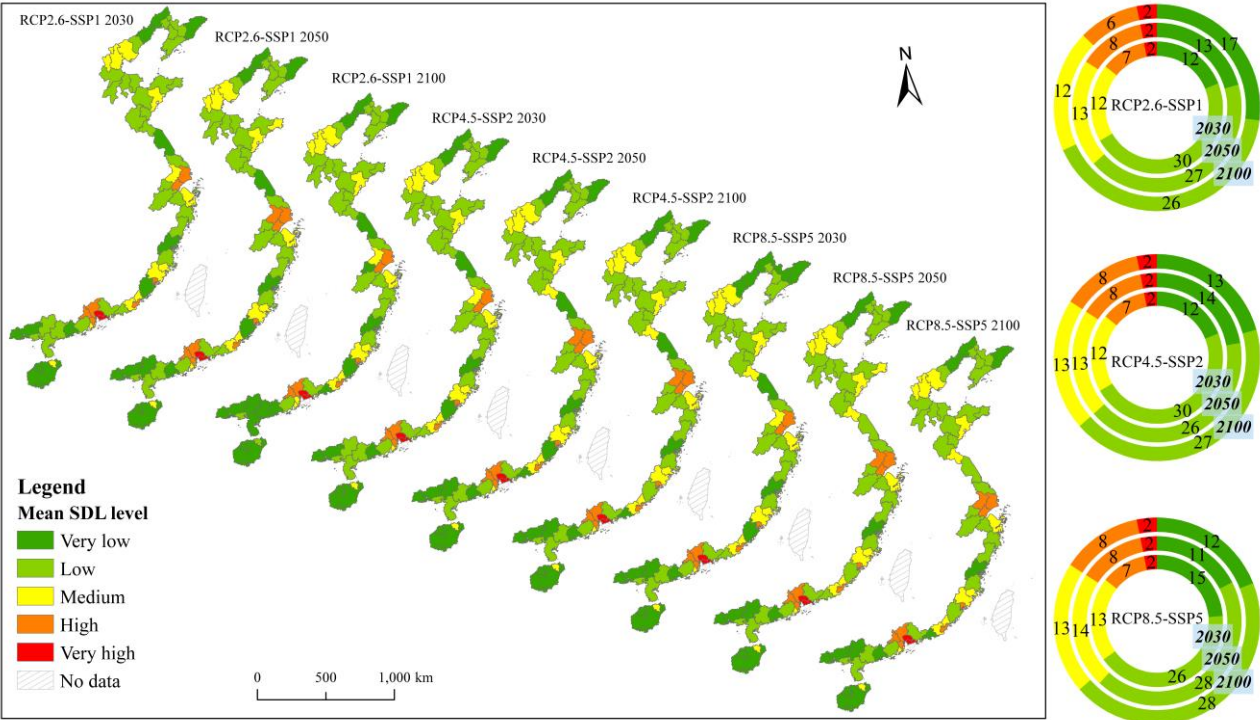
Fig. 6. Spatiotemporal distribution of SDL by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 (side bars showing the total area in CCZ affected under different SDL levels)

3.2.2 Dynamics of mean SDL in coastal cities

To further explore the spatiotemporal dynamics of the SDL in coastal cities under various scenarios, Fig. 7 presents the distribution and quantitative characteristics of coastal cities in terms of MSDL. Cities such as Shenzhen (46) and Dongguan (47) in the Pearl River Delta region predominantly exhibit a “Very High” MSDL. And cities such as Xiamen (39), Shantou (42), Shanghai (25), Jiaxing (27), Guangzhou (48) and Foshan (49) mainly fall at the “High” level category. The “Medium” level coastal cities are dispersed across Tangshan (9), Tianjin (10), Langfang (11) in the western Bohai Sea, Qingdao (19) in the northern Jiaozhou Bay, Ningbo (31) in the southern Hangzhou Bay, Putian (37) in the Fujian coastal zone and Quanzhou (38), and Chaozhou (41), Jiayang (43), and Zhuhai (51) in the Guangdong coastal zone. There is a significant number of “Very low” and “Low” level cities, displaying a distinct north-south alternating spatial pattern. Notably, Suzhou (26) ascends from the “Medium” to the “High” and then descends to the “Medium” level in the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario. In the two other scenarios, Suzhou (26) advances from the “Medium” level in 2030 to the

417 “High” level in 2050 and remains at that level beyond. Moreover, Zhongshan (50) falls from “High”
 418 level in 2050 down to “Medium” level by 2100 in the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario but remains at “High”
 419 level under the rest of the scenarios.

420 From 2030 to 2100, variations in the number of cities across different MSDL levels are evident
 421 under various scenarios, with the exception of Shenzhen and Dongguan, which consistently maintain
 422 a “Very High” level. Under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, there’s a marked shift in cities at the “Very
 423 Low” and “Low” levels, with an increase of 5 cities in the former and a decrease of 4 in the latter.
 424 Cities categorized under “Medium” and “High” levels display a trend of initial increase followed by
 425 a decrease, resulting in an overall reduction by 0 and 1 cities, respectively. Under the RCP4.5-SSP2
 426 scenario, there is an increase of 1 city each in the “Very Low”, “Medium”, and “High” levels, while
 427 cities at the “Low” level decrease by 3. As for the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, the “Very Low” level shows
 428 a significant decrease by 3 cities. In contrast, the “Low” and “High” levels experience a modest
 429 increase, by 2 and 1 cities respectively. The “Medium” level cities initially increase and then decrease,
 430 resulting in 0 net change.



431
 432 *Fig. 7. MSDL level in different coastal cities in CCZ by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-*
 433 *SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 (side bars showing the number of coastal cities in CCZ under different MSDL*
 434 *levels)*

435 3.3 Coupling coordination degree analysis

436 3.3.1 Spatiotemporal dynamics of CCD in the CCZ

437 Fig. 8 depicts the spatiotemporal distribution of CCD between CFR and SDL. The results indicate
 438 that the spatiotemporal patterns of CCD are rather similar across various scenarios over all periods at

439 the macro-scale. The “Typical” level and “Medium” level are clustered in block-shaped distributions,
440 while the “Low” level is dispersed, and the “Very low” level has a broad distribution without a
441 definitive patter. Notably, the “Typical” and “Medium” levels are prominent along the coastal regions
442 of Tianjin, northern Jiangsu, Shanghai, northern Zhejiang, eastern and southern Fujian, and the central
443 part of Guangdong. The “Low” level, however, mainly prevails in the middle of Liaoning’s coast,
444 extending from the Hebei coast toward the northern region of Zhejiang’s coast, the eastern coast of
445 Guangxi, and the eastern coast of Hainan.

446 From 2030 to 2100, the spatial dynamics of the five CCD levels exhibit notable variances under
447 different scenarios. The levels, ordered by area from largest to smallest, are as follows: “Very Low”,
448 “Medium”, “Low”, and “Typical”. Notably, the “Typical” level, despite covering the smallest area,
449 plays a crucial role in demonstrating the interrelation between CFR and SDL. Under the RCP2.6-
450 SSP1 and RCP4.5-SSP2 scenarios, the area of “Typical” level demonstrates a fluctuating downward
451 trend, contrasting with an overall increasing trend under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario. For instance,
452 under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, the area of the “Typical” level slightly increase from 24.64×10^3
453 km^2 by 2030 to 25.31×10^3 km^2 by 2050, and then sharply decreased to 20.84×10^3 km^2 by 2100,
454 amounting to a total reduction of 15.44%; Under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, it slightly increases from
455 25.09×10^3 km^2 by 2030 to 25.70×10^3 km^2 by 2050 and then decreases significantly to 23.56×10^3 km^2
456 by 2100, with an overall decrease of 6.12%; Under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, the area experiences
457 a drastic growth from 27.97×10^3 km^2 by 2030 to 31.60×10^3 km^2 by 2050, followed by a gradual
458 decline to 28.77×10^3 km^2 by 2100, resulting in an overall increase of 2.87%. Additionally, the area of
459 “Medium” level remains relatively stable under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario but shows a significant
460 upward trend under the other two scenarios. Specifically, under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, the area
461 of “Medium” level slightly decreases from 55.83×10^3 km^2 by 2030 to 55.81×10^3 km^2 by 2100.
462 Conversely, under the RCP4.5-SSP2 and RCP8.5-SSP5 scenarios, the area of “Medium” level
463 consistently expands, growing from 57.93×10^3 km^2 to 62.37×10^3 km^2 and from 61.25×10^3 km^2 to
464 70.54×10^3 km^2 by 2100, respectively, with growth rates of 7.66% and 15.17%.

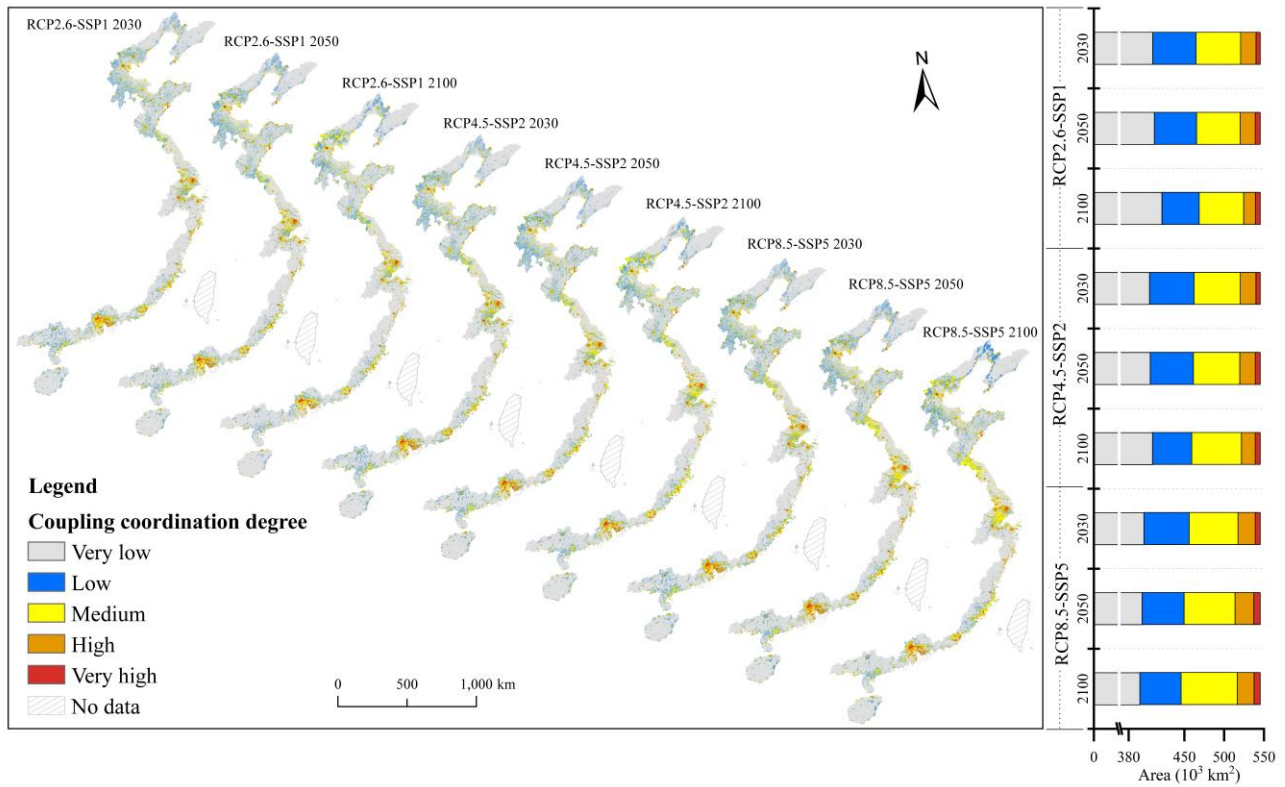


Fig. 8. Spatiotemporal distribution of CCD in CCZ by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 (bars showing the total area in CCZ affected under different CCD level)

3.3.2 Dynamics of mean CCD in coastal cities

To further explore the spatiotemporal dynamics of the CCD in coastal cities under various scenarios, Fig. 9 shows the MCCD levels of the coastal cities in CCZ. The results indicate that the spatiotemporal variation patterns of the MCCD levels are largely harmonized across the scenarios at the macro-scale. From 2030 to 2100, the cities at “Typical” MCCD levels are primarily situated along the northern coast of Jiangsu, Zhejiang, and Shanghai, as well as the Pearl River Delta region. This encompasses a collective of 11 coastal cities: Lianyungang (22), Shanghai (25), Suzhou (26), Jiaxing (27), Xiamen (39), Shantou (42), Shenzhen (46), Dongguan (47), Guangzhou (48), Foshan (49), and Zhongshan (50). Cities maintaining a consistent “Medium” level are chiefly located in the coastal zones of Hebei, Shandong, Zhejiang, Fujian, Guangxi, and Hainan, enveloping 12 coastal cities: Cangzhou (12), Binzhou (14), Dongying (15), Weihai (18), Qingdao (19), Ningbo (31), Zhoushan (32), Putian (37), Quanzhou (38), Chaozhou (41), Beihai (57), and Haikou (60). Meanwhile, the number of cities at “Low” and “Very low” MCCD levels is more substantial, with a wider distribution, dominantly found along the coastlines of Liaoning, Shandong, Zhejiang, Fujian, Guangxi, and Hainan. Conclusively, the CCD is more salient in central and southern sectors of the CCZ, notably in the Yangtze River Delta and the Pearl River Delta.

Coastal cities classified at the “Typical” MCCD level are in need of extra attention to the interplay between socioeconomic development and coastal flood risk. Between 2030 and 2100, the number of

cities at the “Typical” level fluctuates considerably across different scenarios. For example, under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, a gradual decline is observed, with numbers reducing from 15 by 2030 to 13 by 2100. In contrast, under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, the number remains consistent at 13 throughout the period. However, under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, the number initially decreases from 15 by 2030 to 11 by 2050, then slightly rises to 12 by 2100. It is worth noting that under the higher emissions scenario, the number of cities in the "Very high" level accounts for a larger proportion of the number of cities in the “Typical” level by 2100. Specifically, by 2030, under all three scenarios, there are 6 cities at the “Very High” level, including Jiaxing (27), Shantou (42), Shenzhen (46), Dongguan (47), Foshan (49), and Zhongshan (50). By 2050, under the RCP2.6-SSP1 and RCP4.5-SSP2 scenarios, the number of cities at the same level remains unchanged. However, under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, there is a notable reduction, with Shantou (42), Foshan (49), and Zhongshan (50) dropping to the “High” level. By 2100, there are significant changes in the number of cities at this level under all three scenarios. Under the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario, there is the largest decrease, with only Shenzhen (46) and Dongguan (47) remaining at this level. Under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, the number is also reduced by half, leaving Jiaxing (27), Shenzhen (46), and Dongguan (47) at this level. Conversely, under the RCP8.5-SSP5 scenario, an escalation is observed, with Lianyungang and Foshan ascending from the "High" to "Very High" level, while Jiaxing, Shenzhen, and Dongguan maintain their status at the "Very High" level.

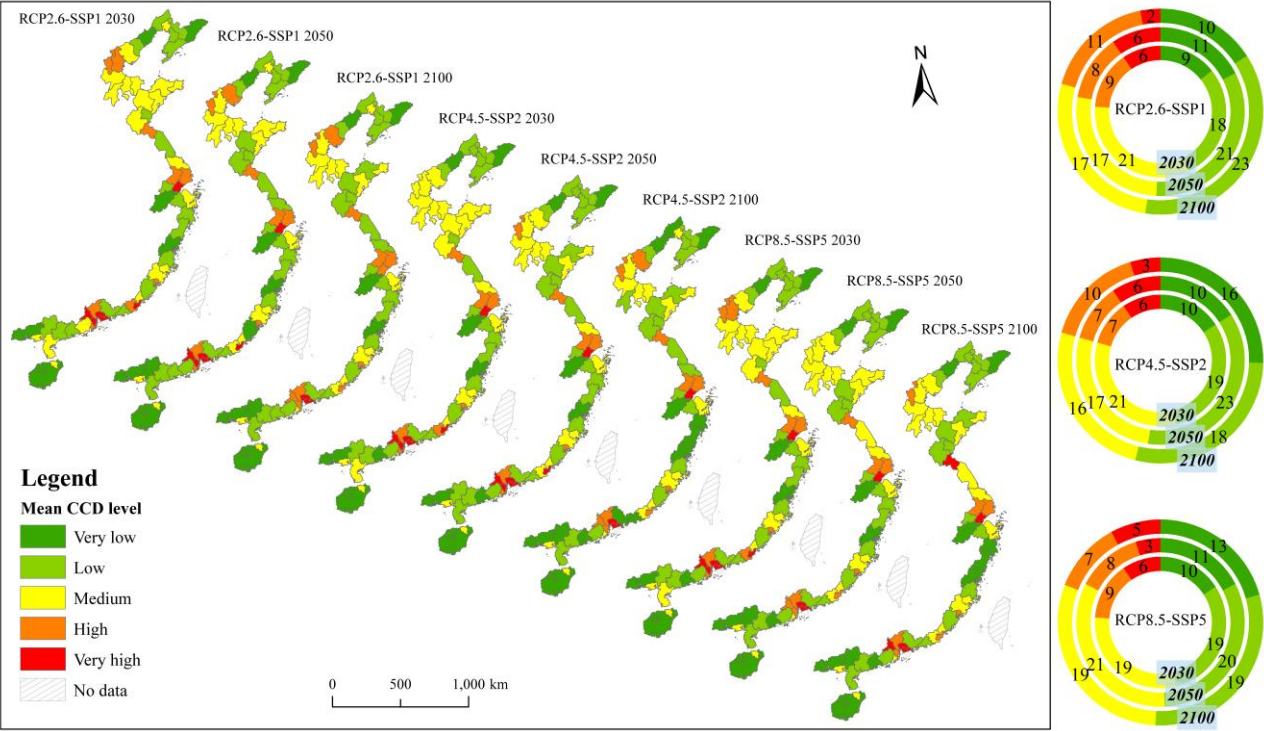


Fig. 9. MCCD level in different coastal cities of the CCZ by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5, respectively. (side bars showing the numbers of coastal cities in CCZ under different MCCD levels)

508 4. Discussion

509 In this study, we identified and quantified the spatiotemporal variation and quantitative
510 characteristics of expected GDP and population affected by coastal flooding in the future period under
511 three scenarios, assessed and demonstrated the characteristics of spatiotemporal variations in the
512 socioeconomic development level of the CCZ, as well as analyzing the coupling coordination degree
513 between the socioeconomic development level and coastal flood risk. The findings of this study are
514 of great significance for enhancing CFR understanding and management at the national scale.

515 4.1 Expected socioeconomic impact of coastal flooding

516 Regarding the expected socioeconomic impact of coastal flooding, it is observed that the
517 proportions of EGA and EPA in the total GDP and population of CCZ are on an increasing trend from
518 2050 to 2100, despite their individual trends of rise and fall, respectively (Fig. 4a and 4b). The
519 decrease in EPA is likely due to the projected decline in CCZ's total population. Relevant studies
520 suggest that during this period, the inundation area of CCZ is expected to increase by $2.71 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$,
521 $4.14 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, and $6.98 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ under the RCP2.6, 4.5, and 8.5 scenarios, respectively (Xu et al.,
522 2022b). Simultaneously, the population in China's coastal provinces (excluding Hong Kong, Macau,
523 and Taiwan) is expected to decrease by 245.22 million, 185.73 million, and 251.37 million under the
524 SSP1, SSP2, and SSP5 scenarios, respectively (Chen et al., 2020). The increasing proportions of EGA
525 and EPA, especially in pivotal provinces such as Jiangsu and Guangdong, suggest that if additional
526 adaptation strategies are not developed, coastal flooding could adversely affect the stability and
527 growth of China's overall economy. For instance, the increase in the EGA's share could lead to a loss
528 of economic resources and a slowdown in growth rate. Similarly, the escalation in EPA's share could
529 trigger more frequent population migrations in coastal areas, exerting extra pressure on the public
530 services and housing markets of inland cities. Consequently, the government may need to bolster
531 fiscal spending to manage disasters, and growing insurance costs could further burden businesses and
532 residents financially. Furthermore, given the vital role of CCZ in global trade (Du et al., 2022), any
533 serious infrastructural damage could severely disrupt international supply chains. Escalating disaster
534 risks also threaten to worsen environmental degradation and social instability. In response, the
535 Chinese government has formulated several policies at the national level to mitigate the
536 socioeconomic impact of coastal flooding, achieving certain results. For example, in recent years,
537 China has carried out the "Southern Mangrove and Northern Tamarisk" wetland restoration project
538 (State Council of the P. R. China, 2016), launched the first national natural disaster risk survey (State
539 Council of the P. R. China, 2020), established "carbon peak and neutrality" targets (The Communist
540 Party of China Central Committee and the State Council of the P. R. China, 2021), formulated the
541 series of standards for coastal zone protection and rehabilitation projects (Ministry of Natural

Resources of the P. R. China, 2022), issued the “National climate change adaptation strategy 2035”(Ministry of Ecology and Environment of the P. R. China, 2022) and the “National comprehensive disaster prevention and Mitigation Plan for the 14th Five-Year Plan” (Ministry of Emergency Management of the P. R. China, 2022). However, in the face of the conflict between increasing CFR and SDL, policymakers need to further integrate environmental, economic, and social stability considerations in future specific adaptation and mitigation strategies at the provincial and urban scale.

4.2 Prospective socioeconomic development and potential threats

By assessing the future socioeconomic development level of the CCZ, the findings highlight the crucial role of the Pearl River Delta (PRD), Yangtze River Delta (YaRD), and Tianjin-Hebei (TH) agglomerations in driving the future socioeconomic development of the CCZ, exhibiting the highest level of socioeconomic development (Fig. 6 and 7). The PRD, noted for its advanced manufacturing, Internet-based companies, and innovative Special Economic Zone policies, has risen as one of pivotal hubs of global innovation, with a significant impact on globalization and international trade (Chan et al., 2021). Nevertheless, this region faces significant risks from coastal flooding due to SLR, intense storm surges, low elevation, and dense riverine networks. Without effective adaptation policies, such risks could undermine the export-oriented manufacturing sectors and impede critical technological development, threatening regional economic stability and global technological progress (Chen et al., 2021). Similarly, the YaRD, centered around Shanghai and incorporating economically prosperous cities such as Suzhou and Hangzhou, forms a formidable economic hub. This region persistently draws in innovative sectors including new energy vehicles, fintech, and biomedicine, playing a pivotal role in linking China with the global economic network. However, it is also vulnerable to coastal flooding, with potential damage to its financial institutions, manufacturing facilities and major urban infrastructure (Lv et al., 2021). The TH urban agglomeration, as a part of Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, occupies a strategic geographic position in northern China. The region has clear advantages in areas such as aerospace, renewable energy, and chemicals. Moreover, the port of Tianjin plays an important role in international trade and is an important gateway for North China to integrate into the global economy. However, coastal flooding poses significant risks to port facilities and logistics networks, which could have far-reaching impacts on regional and international trade networks. Additionally, there is an increased risk of severe damage to urban infrastructure (including roads, bridges, and residential areas) and factory plants due to surface subsidence superimposed on SLR (Li et al., 2020; Fang et al., 2022). In summary, while the PRD, YaRD, and TH agglomerations are crucial for China’s future socioeconomic development and play key roles in global trade, their vulnerabilities to coastal flooding and other environmental risks necessitate effective strategic responses to safeguard their continued growth and contributions to the global economy.

577 4.3 Insights into coastal flood adaptation strategies: A coupling analysis perspective

578 At the macro-scale, understanding the dynamic relationship between SDL and CFR under various
579 future scenarios in CCZ is essential for effective resource allocation and priority setting by
580 policymakers, particularly in areas where balancing economic growth with disaster risk reduction is
581 crucial. Socioeconomic development can offer technical and financial support for solving flood
582 inundation challenges, while effective flood control can foster an environment conducive to the
583 sustainable growth of both the economy and society. Conversely, socioeconomic development leading
584 to the expansion of construction land reduces surface runoff infiltration. Combined with high
585 concentrations of population and economy, floods can easily cause substantial socioeconomic losses,
586 limiting further development of the economy and society. Therefore, when formulating policies in
587 CCZ, the government needs more comprehensive and complex strategies to address both flood risk
588 and economic development needs, fully considering the interaction between the two, seeking benefits
589 and avoiding harms, and pursuing a path of sustainable development.

590 Addressing the conflict between SDL and CFR is a challenging issue faced by regions with high
591 CCDs. Notably, over 17% of the 63 coastal cities in China are classified as “Very high” or “High”
592 MCCD levels under different scenarios and timeframes (Fig. 9). Specially, under the RCP8.5-SSP5
593 scenario, five cities (Lianyungang, Jiaxing, Shenzhen, Dongguan, and Foshan) are projected to
594 remain at the “Very high” MCCD level by 2100, with Jiaxing, Shenzhen, and Dongguan maintaining
595 this level from 2030 to 2100. Despite variations in their socioeconomic development levels during
596 the same period, these cities exhibit close connections between SDL and CFR. In these regions,
597 measures should be taken in terms of both advance planning to avoid risks and enhanced adaptation
598 to reduce risks. The former could reduce the link between SDL and CFR from different perspectives
599 by avoiding the placement of high-value key sectors and vulnerable population concentrations in
600 areas that could be deeply affected by future coastal flooding when formulating urban planning on
601 the basis of scientific projections of future SLR and flood inundation characteristics, as well as by
602 restoring coastal wetlands, constructing green seawalls, and enhancing the capacity to withstand
603 coastal flooding (Magnan et al., 2022). The latter involves building high-standard sponge cities,
604 efficient urban drainage systems, comprehensive flood warning systems, planning evacuation routes,
605 increasing emergency shelters, raising public disaster awareness, and improving catastrophe
606 insurance system. Additionally, under the RCP4.5-SSP2 scenario, the highest growth rate (60%) is
607 observed in the number of cities classified as “Very low” MCCD level from 2030 to 2100,
608 accompanied by a notable decline (-50%) in the number of cities classified as “Very high” level,
609 followed by the RCP2.6-SSP1 scenario. In these regions with low coupling coordination degree, it
610 indicates that socioeconomic development has a lower impact on flood risk, and vice versa. Thus, the
611 government could focus resources on solving major problems without overly worrying about the

mutual influence between the two. Overall, from the perspective of coupled analysis, the government should choose a development pathway that is socioeconomically developed and with controllable coastal flood risk. This approach involves not only take comprehensive measures to strengthen investment in disaster prevention and mitigation in developed cities such as Shenzhen, Shanghai, and Tianjin, but also pay attention to the risk management in moderately developed or underdeveloped cities such as Lianyungang, Tangshan, and Langfang, so as to realize the sustainable development of the CCZ, and to help the realization of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

4.4 Limitations and further research

Like most studies, this study also has certain uncertainties and limitations that warrant attention in subsequent studies. First, although the projected data used in this study, such as inundation depth, coastal flood risk, and socioeconomic projection data, are of superior quality and resolution than those commonly used, they unavoidably carry their inherent uncertainties that may affect the results. Second, in assessing future socioeconomic development levels, this study relied on three key indicators—population, GDP, and LULC—due to a lack of available prediction data, which may not encompass the complete range of influences on SDL in the CCZ. Third, it is worth noting the absence of validation analysis given that future events are unknown and can only be inferred based on known rules (Liu and Chen, 2021). Nonetheless, these limitations notwithstanding, our findings are of significant value in understanding the socioeconomic impacts of coastal flooding in the CCZ throughout the 21st century. This is mainly attributed to the comprehensive analysis carried out in this study, which not only examines the quantitative and spatial variations in the expected impacts of coastal flooding on population and GDP at the scale of the entire CCZ but also assesses the spatiotemporal variation of the CCD between SDL and CFR. Future research will concentrate on integrating depth-impact curves based on various types of land use/ land cover, enriching key socioeconomic indicators in the CCZ, and deepening our grasp on the ecological repercussions of coastal flooding.

5. Conclusions

In this study, we demonstrated the quantitative and spatiotemporal characteristics of the EGA/EPA due to coastal flooding in the future in the CCZ, evaluated the variation of the future SDL in the CCZ using the AHP-EW combined method, and analyzed the changing characteristics of the CCD between the CFR and SDL in the CCZ from 2030 to 2100. The results showed that by 2100, under the RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5 scenarios, the number of EGA/EPA could potentially reach \$814.90 billion (6.17 million people), \$828.16 billion (7.63 million people), and \$1568.83 billion (8.05 million people), respectively; The proportions of EGA (EPA) relative to total GDP (population) of CCZ may increase to 3.63% (4.02%), 3.78% (4.22%), and 4.37% (5.09%),

646 respectively. Coastal cities, particularly in Jiangsu and Guangdong provinces may grapple with
 647 heightened socioeconomic risks; The total area of the CCZ at the “Very high” and “High” SDL levels
 648 by 2100 could reach $11.33 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, $12.86 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, and $15.82 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$, respectively. The Pearl
 649 River Delta, Yangtze River Delta, and Tianjin-Hebei urban agglomerations will continue as the engine
 650 for the CCZ’s socioeconomic development in the future; The CCD’s spatiotemporal characteristics
 651 over the CCZ are largely harmonized among scenarios. Specifically, cities include Lianyungang,
 652 Jiaxing, Shenzhen, Dongguan, and Foshan will need to balance SDL and CFR to attain sustainable
 653 development.

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868 **Abbreviations**

AHP	analytic hierarchy process
CCD	coupling coordination degree
CCDM	coupling coordination degree model
CCZ	China’s coastal zone (CCZ)
CFR	coastal flood risk
CI	consistency index
CR	consistency ratio
EGA	expected GDP affected
EPA	expected population affected
EW	entropy weight
FVCOM	finite volume coastal and ocean model
GDP	gross domestic product
HCM	hydraulic connectivity model
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
LULC	land use/land cover
MSDL	mean of socioeconomic development level
MCCD	mean of coupling coordination degree
PAA	proportion of assets affected
RCP	representative concentration pathway
RI	random index
SD-FLUS	system dynamics-future land use simulation
SDGs	sustainable development goals
SDL	socioeconomic development level
SLR	sea level rise
SSP	shared socio-economic development pathway

869

Supplementary Material

Table S1 City information in China's coastal zone

City ID	City name	Area (km ²)	Province
1	Dandong	15290	Liaoning
2	Anshan	9255	Liaoning
3	Dalian	12574	Liaoning
4	Yingkou	5427	Liaoning
5	Panjin	4062	Liaoning
6	Jinzhou	10301	Liaoning
7	Huludao	10400	Liaoning
8	Qinhuangdao	7802	Hebei
9	Tangshan	13472	Hebei
10	Tianjin	11966	Tianjin
11	Langfang	6429	Hebei
12	Cangzhou	14304	Hebei
13	Dezhou	10356	Shandong
14	Binzhou	9660	Shandong
15	Dongying	8257	Shandong
16	Weifang	16185	Shandong
17	Yantai	13900	Shandong
18	Weihai	5800	Shandong
19	Qingdao	11293	Shandong
20	Rizhao	5375	Shandong
21	Linyi	17200	Shandong
22	Lianyungang	7615	Jiangsu
23	Yancheng	17700	Jiangsu
24	Nantong	8001	Jiangsu
25	Shanghai	6341	Shanghai
26	Suzhou	8657	Jiangsu
27	Jiaxing	3915	Zhejiang
28	Huzhou	5820	Zhejiang
29	Hangzhou	16850	Zhejiang
30	Shaoxing	8273	Zhejiang
31	Ningbo	9816	Zhejiang
32	Zhoushan	1400	Zhejiang
33	Taizhou	10050	Zhejiang
34	Wenzhou	12110	Zhejiang
35	Ningde	13452	Fujian
36	Fuzhou	11969	Fujian
37	Putian	4200	Fujian
38	Quanzhou	11015	Fujian
39	Xiamen	1701	Fujian
40	Zhangzhou	12600	Fujian

41	Chaozhou	3614	Guangdong
42	Shantou	2245	Guangdong
43	Jieyang	5269	Guangdong
44	Shanwei	4865	Guangdong
45	Huizhou	11347	Guangdong
46	Shenzhen	1997	Guangdong
47	Dongguan	2460	Guangdong
48	Guangzhou	7434	Guangdong
49	Foshan	3798	Guangdong
50	Zhongshan	1784	Guangdong
51	Zhuhai	1725	Guangdong
52	Jiangmen	9535	Guangdong
53	Yangjiang	7967	Guangdong
54	Maoming	11428	Guangdong
55	Yulin	12800	Guangxi
56	Zhanjiang	13263	Guangdong
57	Beihai	4018	Guangxi
58	Qinzhou	10897	Guangxi
59	Fangchenggang	6222	Guangxi
60	Haikou	2297	Hainan
61	Danzhou	3406	Hainan
62	Sanya	1921	Hainan
63	Other city in Hainan	27776	Hainan

Table S2 Scale of relative importance

Relative	Definition	Description
1	Equal importance	Two indicators influence on objective equally
3	Moderate importance	Experience and judgement slightly favor one indicator over another
5	Strong importance	Experience and judgement strongly favor one indicator over another
7	Very strong importance	One decision indicator is favored strongly over another and its supremacy
9	Extreme importance	The evidence favoring one decision indicator over another is of the highest
2, 4, 6, 8	Intermediate values between the two adjacent judgements	Compromise is needed

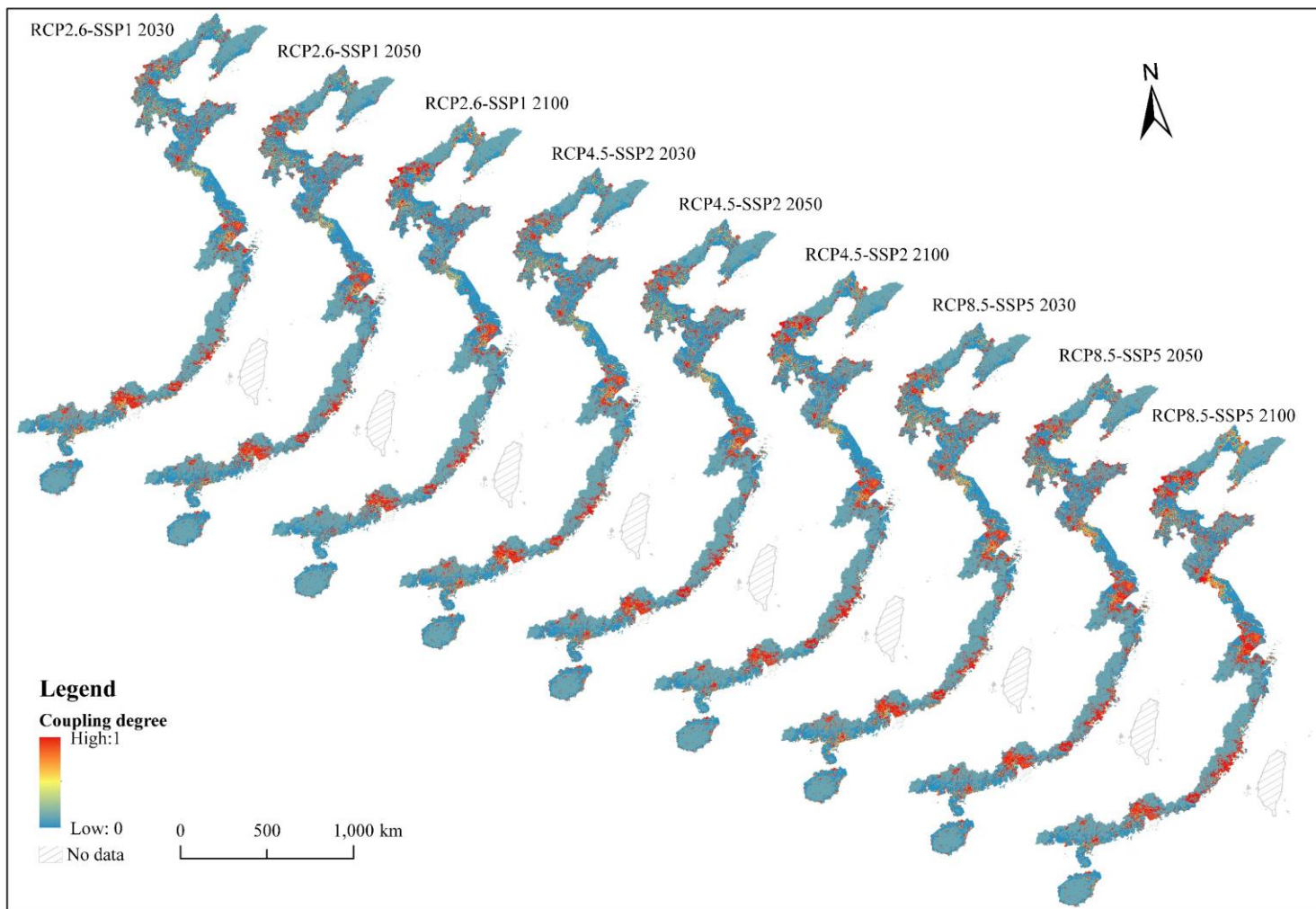


Fig. S1. Spatiotemporal distribution of coupling degree in the CCZ by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5, respectively.

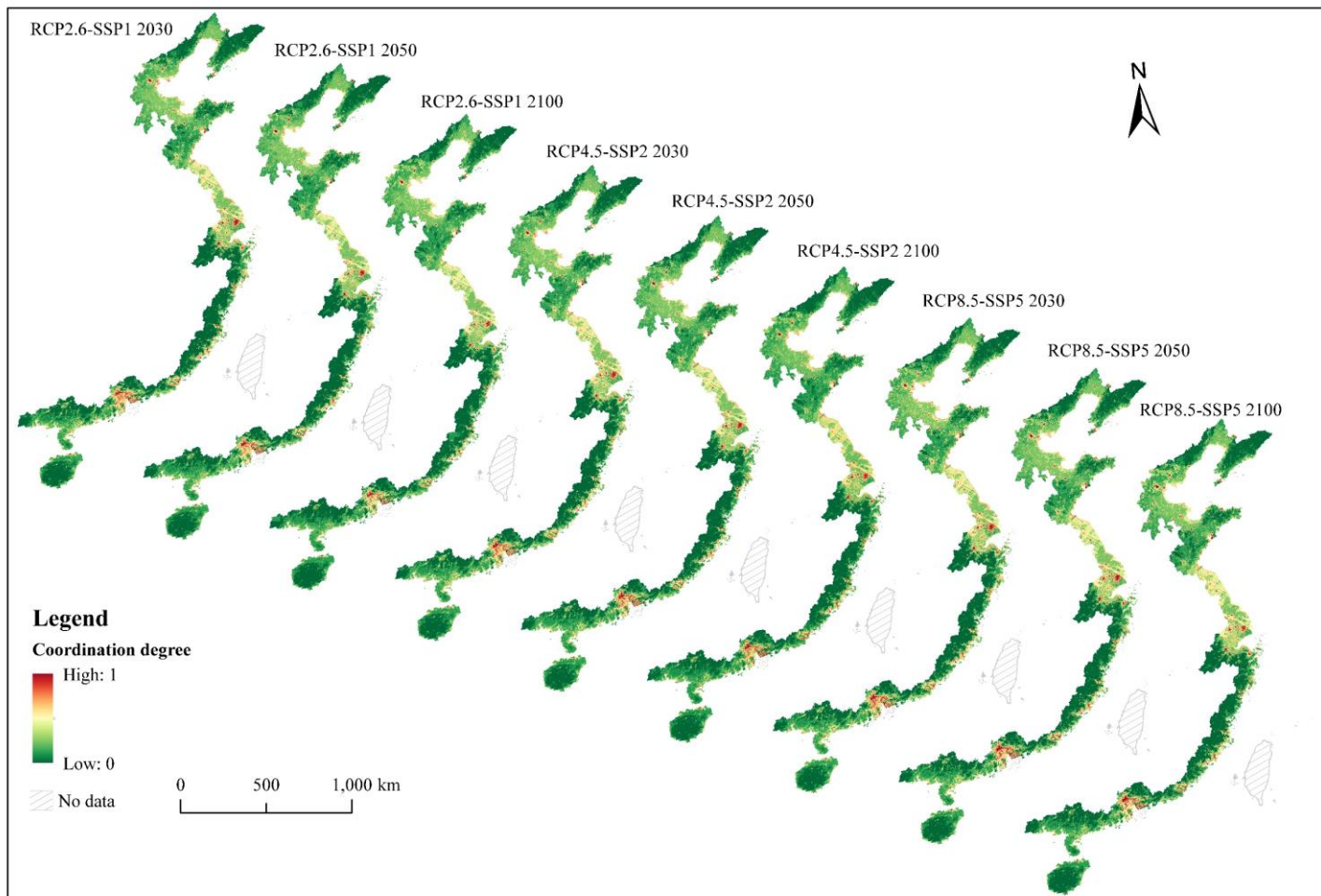


Fig. S2. Spatiotemporal distribution of coordination degree in the CCZ by 2030, 2050, and 2100 under RCP2.6-SSP1, RCP4.5-SSP2, and RCP8.5-SSP5, respectively.