



1 *Review*

2 **Anthropogenically breaking macro-ecospatial ‘chains’? – case review of HU Line**

3 Running Head: Human breaking macro-ecospatial ‘chains’?

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9 **Abstract**

10 Understanding of human-nature interactions is critical for global sustainability, but one of its  
11 frontier branches, regarding intentionally-positive anthropogenic feedbacks to environment at  
12 the macroecosystem scale, has been less studied. A concrete open question is whether people  
13 can break those ‘chain’-like macro-ecospatial transition zones. Based on remote sensing data  
14 and integrative data analysis, we examined this issue in the case of China, which both owns a  
15 macro-ecospatial transition zone top-ranked in the world – HU Line and has made massive  
16 environmental restoration efforts such as the “Grain for Green” Program (GGP). Literature  
17 reviews of the causes of HU Line revealed its natural formation, and spatiotemporal tests of  
18 its statuses indicated its contemporary stability, both telling the inherent difficulty of shaking  
19 macro-ecospatial ‘chains’. What’s worse, the limited durations of those GGP-kind endeavors  
20 led to a debate on whether human will eventually exert positive or negative eco-effect on the  
21 evolution of HU Line. To handle this gap, we proposed using biogeographic, bioclimatology,  
22 and Earth system models in a simulation way and overviewed their potentials of reflecting the



23 complex internal, external, and integral eco-functions in human deliberately improving nature.  
24 In all, the conclusion and proposal of this work are of fundamental implications for projecting  
25 the future of macro-ecospatial ‘chains’ and pre-making polices for anthropogenically coping  
26 with global changes in land, environment, biology, ecology, and sustainability.  
27 **Keywords:** Macro-ecospatial transition zone, anthropogenic eco-effect, HU Line, integrative  
28 data analysis, remote sensing data, Earth model, human-nature interaction.

## 29 **1 Introduction**

30 Understanding of human-nature interactions is increasingly highlighted for advancing global  
31 sustainability (Liu et al., 2007a), and researches on the mechanisms of nature driving human  
32 distributions and human intervening nature evolutions have massively emerged (e.g., Foley et  
33 al., 2007; Rockström et al., 2009). However, one of its critical frontier branches, regarding the  
34 intentionally-positive anthropogenic feedbacks to environment at the macroecosystem (those  
35 ecosystems at the regional to continental scales) (Heffernan et al., 2014) scales and how such  
36 ecological effects (eco-effects) work, has been less studied. A representative open question of  
37 extensive interest is whether people can better the macroecosystem-related ecological spatial  
38 (macro-ecospatial) layouts (Yarrow and Martin, 2007). Studies on this topic, no doubt, will be  
39 of great implications for both more comprehensively undermining Earth’s past – involving the  
40 human-caused global changes (Crumley, 1993) and more accurately projecting Earth’s future  
41 – involving the human-accelerated global changes (Wasson et al., 2013).

42 Exploitation of this problem can be specified as answering a more concrete question – can  
43 people break macro-ecospatial ‘chains’, i.e., regional- to continental-scale terrestrial transition  
44 zones? This analogy is rooted in that in ecological functional regionalization (Morrone, 2006)



45 such a critical transition zone tends to behave as the steep environmental gradient between  
46 two large-scale ecosystems, each demonstrating the relatively-consistent ecological condition  
47 (Risser, 1995). The species dwelling in such a zone live near the edges of their tolerance, and  
48 this renders the zone, in a whole sense, to be sensitive to environmental changes (Peters et al.,  
49 2006), of course, including the potential ones due to human activities. That is, the eco-effects  
50 of human intervening nature can be learnt via detecting the shifts of such transition zones.  
51 The representative macro-ecospatial ‘chains’ include the Southern American Transition Zone  
52 (Morrone, 2006), the Northern Australian Tropical Transect Zone (Ma et al., 2013), and the  
53 Mexican Transition Zone (Alvarado et al., 2014), which all are underlined in the communities  
54 of global change in environment, biology, and ecology (Heffernan et al., 2014). However, for  
55 these transition zones few massive human improvement measures have been undertaken, and  
56 thereby, it is inappropriate to take them into account for seeking the answer to the question.

57 Based on remote sensing data and integrative data analysis (Curran and Hussong, 2009),  
58 this study tried to examine the question in the case of China. That is, as a typical large-scale  
59 region for analyzing the influences from and the feedbacks to instable Earth’s factors such as  
60 increasing abnormal climatic events and strengthened environmental deteriorations (Liu and  
61 Diamond, 2005; Li et al., 2016), China satisfies the two premises of seeking the answer to the  
62 question – both occupying the macro-ecospatial ‘chains’ and exerting massive environmental  
63 restorations. First, China has a distinctive macro-ecospatial layout – southeast and northwest  
64 with distinct ecospatial properties, as divided by an imaginary demarcation line proposed by  
65 the Chinese population geographer Hu Huan-Yong (Hu, 1935) (henceforth termed HU Line).  
66 Initially proposed as “a geo-demographic demarcation line over China”, HU Line has proved



67 to be able to draw the macro-ecospatial patterns of many other kinds of geo-factors in China  
68 (Zhang et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2015). Agricultural productivity is such a typical factor (see  
69 Supplementary Figure S1), and HU Line once locked the spatial layout of China's agricultural  
70 economy for a long time (Wang et al., 1996). After the industrialization in China, HU Line  
71 has still kept locking the macro-spatial layout of China's economic developments, which  
72 depended on the earlier-stage accumulations from agriculture economy and other supportive  
73 geo-factors, e.g., water resource (Fang et al., 2015). So far, HU Line is still working (Gaughan  
74 et al., 2016) (Figure 1). Second, China has made massive environmental restoration efforts  
75 such as the “Grain for Green” Program (GGP) and the “Three-North Belt” Program (Liu et al.,  
76 2008) (Figure 1) and now shows the largest greening area all over the world (State Forestry  
77 Administration of China, 2009). These efforts can characterize human’s intentionally-positive  
78 macro-scale feedbacks to land surface developments. Hence, HU Line can be assumed as the  
79 optimal case for probing the eco-effects of the intentionally-positive anthropogenic feedbacks  
80 to environment at the macroecosystem scale.

81 -Insert Figure 1 here-

82 The following was dedicated to seeking the answer to the question of “whether can people  
83 break through macro-ecospatial ‘chains’?”, via a literature review of the HU Line-associated  
84 previous studies and a comprehensive overview of their inferences.

## 85 **2 The macro-ecospatial ‘chain’ – HU Line: causes and statuses**

86 To obtain the answer to the question, the first step is to examine the causes and statuses of  
87 this macro-ecospatial transition zone, and this facilitates proposing the essence-oriented and  
88 reality-rooted plans to break through it. First, the formation of HU Line proved to be decided



89 by a diversity of geo-factors across China (Hu, 1935). Large terrain elevation gradients affect  
90 atmospheric circulations, leading to spatially-varying precipitation richness (Zheng and Liou,  
91 1986); heterogeneous temperature accumulations alter the growth phases of plants, resulting  
92 in regionally-different crop productivity and food supplies (Hou et al., 2014); some kinds of  
93 ecosystems are preferred by life, as they can provide more livable conditions for the species  
94 (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005); disasters tend to result in the transfers of livable  
95 residential areas (Li et al., 2014). A systematic analysis of the specific eco-effects caused by  
96 such geo-factors, which should play the dominant roles in causing and maintaining HU Line,  
97 was expanded by using the approach of integrative data analysis (Curran and Hussong, 2009;  
98 Chand et al., 2017) as follows.

99 -Insert Figure 2 here-

## 100 2.1 Natural causes

101 *Topography.* China's landform looks like "a three-step ladder lowering from west to east"  
102 (Figure 2a), and this topography serves as the basis of forming the spatial patterns of natural  
103 and human geography in China (Xu et al., 2015b). The highest Tibet Plateau on the Earth is  
104 the first-step ladder (on average ~4, 000 m, termed Third Pole) (Qiu, 2008); the second-step  
105 ladder is briefly composed by the Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau, the Loess Plateau, and the Inner  
106 Mongolia Plateau, with their average altitudes at 1, 000–2, 000 m; the third-step consists of  
107 the Northeast Plain, the North China Plain, and the Yangtze River Basin, with their altitudes  
108 below 500 m. The first-step ladder – the Tibet Plateau – as a dynamic attractor increases the  
109 thermal contrast between the relief and the Pacific ocean, and this influences the East Asian  
110 summer monsoons in terms of moist static energy (Chen and Bordoni, 2014); the layout of the



111 whole ladder is primarily in the northeast-southwest direction, which shifts the rain band and  
112 moisture transport modes in the East Asian monsoon climatic system (Xu et al., 2015b). That  
113 is, the topography of China breaks the common pattern of climatic distributions that exhibits  
114 gradients in latitude, and acts as the prime determinant of HU Line formation.

115 *Precipitation.* The formation of HU Line is partially regulated by the spatial variability of  
116 precipitation over China. This point is remarkably reflected by the large section of HU Line in  
117 southwest China, which lies in the first-step ladder instead of between any two steps (Xu et al.,  
118 2015b). This “breakthrough” at that local region was rooted in the availability of rich rainfalls  
119 there, as evidenced by the spatial distribution of annually average precipitation (Figure 2b).  
120 The terrains with rich precipitation of 1, 600–1, 800 mm are dominantly located in southeast  
121 China, while scarce precipitation (<100 mm) primarily in northwest China. Compared to the  
122 northwest–southeast direction of topographic lowering, the spatial distribution of precipitation  
123 is more approximate to the common one of climatic factors changing from north to south (Xu  
124 et al., 2015b). Further, precipitation corresponds to water resource, which is closely related to  
125 agricultural productivity (Chen et al., 2013); in addition, the climatic factor of precipitation  
126 helps to determine the spatial pattern of population distributions as well (Piao et al., 2010). In  
127 all, the macro-scale eco-effect of precipitation is both pushing the southwest end of HU Line  
128 beyond the topography-decided layout (Figure 2a) and strengthening HU Line’s formation.

129 *Temperature.* The climatic factor – temperature – also plays a vital role in regulating the  
130 spatial layout of HU Line, since temperature is able to change the spatial modes of ecosystem  
131 yields thru adapting their phenology (Tao et al., 2006; Chen and Xu, 2012). For the southwest  
132 end of HU Line (Figure 2c), temperature performs with a similar function as precipitation, i.e.,



133 adequate precipitation and warm temperature together favoring agricultural production and  
134 human regeneration. For the central part of HU Line, temperature also helps to break through  
135 the eco-effect of the topographic gradient between the second- and third-step ladders, namely,  
136 although precipitation is in short, temperature can somehow favor agricultural activity (Chen  
137 et al., 2013). The northeast end of HU Line also deviates from the step-jumping line of the  
138 ladder but is conversely located in the third-step ladder. The reason is that although the related  
139 plain terrains are propitious to agricultural productions the inverse conditions about rainfalls  
140 and, particularly, temperature drags the demarcation line to the south. Based on the analyses  
141 of topography, precipitation, and temperature, it can be inferred that the formation of HU Line  
142 is a result of synthesizing the eco-effects of multiple such geo-factors.

143 *Agricultural productivity potential.* The integral eco-effect of the primary geo-factors such  
144 as topography, precipitation, and temperature deciding HU Line can be pictured by deriving  
145 the index of cropland Potential Productivity of Radiation and Temperature (PPRT) (Yang et  
146 al., 2010) (Figure 2d). As a result of solar radiative energy, terrain, rainfall, and temperature  
147 co-functioning on crops, this typical indicator can play a key and far-reaching role in driving  
148 agricultural development and modernization and forming the basis of people residence (Yang  
149 et al., 2010). The PPRT in the southeast China is much higher than those in the other regions,  
150 and the lowest PPRT lies in the northwest (Figure 2d). The PPRT map can preliminarily draw  
151 the shape of HU Line, although in its central section there are a couple of “bulges” sticking  
152 into the northwest. The contrast of agricultural productivity potentials across HU Line is so  
153 distinctive that both how these geo-factors integrally can render the formation of HU Line and  
154 why HU Line locks the macro-ecospatial layout of China can be intuitively understood.



155      *Soil erosion.* In addition to the geo-factors integrally deciding the prime macro-ecospatial  
156 layouts of China as analyzed above, some other geo-factors with inverse eco-effects may be  
157 able to reshape HU Line. A typical case is soil erosion, which can directly impact agricultural  
158 production and people living. The types of soil erosions are diverse, and the mainstream ones  
159 over China include water erosion, wind erosion, and freeze-thaw erosion (www.moa.gov.cn).  
160 Soil loss through water erosion is the most serious land degradation in China. The annual soil  
161 loss triggered by water erosion reaches about 5 billion tons. In north China, land degradation  
162 is seriously caused by wind erosion, which covers ~379, 600 km<sup>2</sup> and is mainly distributed in  
163 the arid and semi-arid regions where the total annual rainfall is below 500 mm. After water  
164 erosion and wind erosion, freeze-thaw erosion is the third most serious soil erosion type. Jin  
165 et al., (2015) found that in the Qinghai-Tibetan Plateau the probability of soil freeze is above  
166 80%, but in south China (below 35°N) the probability is lower than 20%, which, instead, is  
167 caused by the exceptionally cold current. In north China (above 35°N), the probability of soil  
168 freezing is 30%–50%, while in the northeast China, it is about 40%–80%. The northwest side  
169 of HU Line, hence, can be referred to as a region of macroecosystem-sense land degradation.  
170 The map of overlapping the spatial distributions of the three kinds of soil erosions in terms of  
171 erosion intensity is displayed in Figure 2e. It can be realized that the two regions circled by  
172 the two “bulges” sticking into the northwest (see Figure 2d) are overlapped by soil erosion,  
173 and this inverse effect pushes the PPRT-drawn demarcation line in central China moving  
174 southward, approaching the defined HU Line (Hu, 1935).

175      *Large-scale disasters.* In contrast to soil erosions that play their roles slowly in a long run,  
176 natural disasters work in a relatively quicker but more destructive way, particularly for those



177 occurring at the large scales. The typical cases of large-scale disasters in the northwest China  
178 include desertification, freeze-thaw, and avalanche, whose distributions are listed in Figure 2f.  
179 In fact, through the statistics of the frequencies of such dominant natural disasters over China  
180 in the history, Liu and Yang (2012) found that the occurrences of such disasters for different  
181 types were common and their spatial distributions were significantly different from each other.  
182 Guan et al. (2015) reported that geographically, the occurrences of frost and snowstorm were  
183 more frequent in the northwest China. Wang et al. (2004) found that in the arid and semi-arid  
184 zones of fragile eco-environment in north China, numerous areas have been facing the danger  
185 of severe sandy desertification. Jin et al. (2015) noticed that freeze disasters mostly happened  
186 in northwest China, and so did avalanches (Wang and Huang, 1986). In combination with soil  
187 erosion, such large-scale natural disasters have kept truncating the “bulges” (Figure 2d) of the  
188 topography-precipitation-temperature-deciding demarcation line, eventually forming HU Line  
189 – the prime macro-ecospatial ‘chain’ over China.

190 As the essence-oriented analyses exerted above, the primary Earth processes leading to the  
191 formation of HU Line have been figured out. The formation ranged from topography drawing  
192 its skeleton, precipitation, temperature and agricultural productivity potential straightening its  
193 sections, to soil erosion and large-scale natural disasters truncating its “bulges”. In summary,  
194 the overview of the causes of HU Line suggested the inherent difficulty of breaking any  
195 macro-ecospatial ‘chain’. After all, it is hard for people to practically interfere those powerful  
196 natural geo-factors at the macroecosystem scale.

## 197 2.2 Spatial and temporal statuses

198 Exploring the aimed question also needs to consider the contemporary statuses of HU Line.



199 This is due to that HU Line was noticed in last century (Hu, 1935), and the concerns about its  
200 situations unavoidably arise – has HU Line altered when compared to 1935? To better grasp  
201 the current statuses of this macro-ecospatial ‘chain’, the questions about whether HU Line so  
202 far remains stable, specifically, spatially without new local “bulges” emerging and temporally  
203 without its whole location shifting for decades, were explored via macro-ecosystem analysis,  
204 often based on remote sensing data capable of covering large areas (Heffernan et al., 2014).

205 -Insert Figure 3 here-

206 *Spatial stability.* The key point of investigating the spatial variability of HU Line is to first  
207 propose proper criteria that can characterize the changes of this critical terrestrial transition  
208 zone. As analyzed above, HU Line, in effect, is a result of fusing several geo-factor-related  
209 demarcation lines, which do not coincide. This, in turn, means that exploration of its spatial  
210 stability is equivalent to evaluating its covered natural land surfaces, and this involves a high  
211 complexity of environmental indices (UNEP, 2002). This complexity can be figured out by  
212 referring to the indices proposed and evaluated in the Global Environment Outlook Program  
213 (UNEP, 2002; 2007), the Heinz Center Evaluation of America’s Ecosystems (the Heinz Center,  
214 2002), the Millennium ecosystem assessments (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2003;  
215 2005), and the Ecological Indicators for The Nation Proposed by The U.S. National Research  
216 Council (NRC, 2000). The situation is approximately complicated when regarding China, as  
217 illustrated in the study of the natural environment of China based on topography, temperature,  
218 water, biology, soil, and other geo-factors (Yang et al., 2002). After comparing several typical  
219 ones of such geo-factors, Gao et al. (1999) concluded that the most key geo-factors related to  
220 human life are hydrothermal conditions, and Wang et al. (2008) discovered that temperature,



221 precipitation and sunlight conditions are the kernel factors deciding agricultural productivity.  
222 Yang and Ma (2009) further derived nine geo-factors for evaluating the natural environmental  
223 suitability and derived that the eco-effects of all of these nine environmental indices can be  
224 integrally reflected in terms of ecosystem distribution pattern. The spatial layout of the major  
225 terrestrial ecosystems across China is shown in Figure 3a. It can be qualitatively interpreted  
226 that HU Line now still spatially marks the prime macro-ecospatial transition over China.

227 *Temporal stability.* A typical geo-feature often used for reflecting the temporal stability of  
228 HU Line is vegetation growth status, which is very sensitive to environmental changes and  
229 also can be readily characterized using the remote sensing retrieved parameter of Normalized  
230 Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) (De Keersmaecher et al., 2014). Specifically, this study  
231 derived the spatial pattern of the interannual variations of the NDVIs at their growing seasons  
232 from 1981 to 2011 (Figure 3b), in terms of the parameter of NDVI fluctuation intensity that in  
233 this work was defined as the variance of the maximum NDVI values extracted per five years.  
234 The used NDVI dataset was the Global Inventory Modeling and Mapping Studies NDVI3g  
235 data (<https://nex.nasa.gov/nex/projects/1349>) (Zhu et al., 2013). It was noticed that the areas  
236 with strong variations are briefly located along HU Line. No matter the northwest regime of  
237 low vegetation densities or the southeast with dense vegetation covers both show relatively  
238 weaker interannual NDVI variations. This result suggested that HU Line is comprised by a  
239 series of short-term (annual-scale) unstable ecotones (Wasson et al., 2013), which are easily  
240 affected by interannual environmental and climatic oscillations; on the other hand, this also  
241 illustrates the long-term (decadal-scale) stability of this prime macro-ecospatial ‘chain’ in  
242 China.



243 Overall, the analysis of the status of HU Line suggested the inherent difficulty of breaking  
244 macro-ecospatial ‘chains’. After all, increasingly severe global changes (Wasson et al., 2013)  
245 still could not alter the statuses of those critical transition zones at the macroecosystem scales,  
246 let alone human endeavors.

### 247 **3 Breaking the macro-ecospatial ‘chain’ – HU Line?**

248 The overview of the causes and statuses of HU Line clarified the difficulty of breaking this  
249 ‘chain’, but did not exclude the possibility. From a scientific perspective, the potential ways  
250 of actively restoring environment such as the GGP-kind activities (Liu et al., 2008) shall be  
251 explored for the next generations. This tells the challenge but significance of launching this  
252 study. Consequently, theoretical analyses about the modifiability of HU Line and the diversity  
253 of anthropogenic eco-effects on HU Line were carried out in order to comprehensively derive  
254 an answer to the question.

#### 255 **3.1 Theoretical analysis of HU Line modifiability**

256 Although the analyses on the statuses of HU Line presented its current spatial and temporal  
257 stability, this cannot assure its steadiness in future. The reason is that the currently-stable HU  
258 Line actually is bearing more and more complex eco-pressures (Rain et al., 2007) than ever. A  
259 representative case is that the percentage of population at the eastern side of HU Line dropped  
260 from 96.0% in 1935 down to 93.8% in 2000, while at the western side rose from 4.0% up to  
261 6.2% (Qi et al., 2016). It seems that this percentage-indicated change of population is minor,  
262 but the number of population change at the western side of HU Line – an increase of almost  
263 20 million from 1935 to 2000 (Wang et al., 2008) – is quite large due to the giant population  
264 base of China. This massive population increase at the western side of HU Line can illustrate



265 the complexity of eco-pressures (Rain et al., 2007). That is, population increases have proved  
266 to impose more eco-pressures to the natural environments at the western side of HU Line, but  
267 this factor, on the other hand, serves as an essential positive strength for putting the GGP-kind  
268 Programs into practice (Liu et al., 2008).

269 Theoretically, such two counter aspects of eco-effecting by the same factor reflect both the  
270 possibility of anthropogenically breaking HU Line and its challenging, i.e., the eco-balancing  
271 between human and nature can be broken but will always be a hard work (Foley et al., 2007;  
272 Rockström et al., 2009; Alvarado et al, 2011), particularly towards the direction of exhibiting  
273 positive eco-effects in the end. This is why the Chinese Premier's question – “can we break  
274 through the ‘lock’ of HU Line?” was posed and then quickly sank into a debate (Chen et al.,  
275 2016). The mainstream answer given by geographers is that the ecospatial layout of China  
276 will not become totally different within a relatively long time, but the northwest region can  
277 achieve higher-degree modernization and higher-quality urbanization (Chen et al., 2016). The  
278 reasoning is based on that in the tomorrow of China's eco-societal development, the limit by  
279 the spatial imbalance of food productions can be handled through manual deployments, but  
280 the constraints by water resource and other inverse geo-factors will be strong yet (Wang et al.,  
281 2012). Thereby, all of such geo-factors may render that HU Line is likely to continue to lock  
282 the whole spatial patterns of China's biology, ecology, and development.

283 However, such a common-sense answer by geographers (Chen et al., 2016) is not enough  
284 for determining the modifiability of HU Line in details, e.g., starting from which point on HU  
285 Line to achieve the goal. After all, breaking HU Line does not require shifting the whole HU  
286 Line. Instead, just adjusting one or two sections at local regions can also be considered as a



287 breakthrough to HU Line, in a similar scheme as the historic process of HU Line forming in a  
288 way of section by section. In retrospect, the dynastic data of China's households (Liang, 1980)  
289 told that HU Line emerged merely after about A.D. 1240. Specifically, before that time, the  
290 spatial pattern of population distribution in China followed HU Line only in its southern end  
291 (Wang et al., 1996); for the regions beyond 30°N, the spatial distribution of population was  
292 distinguished along the longitudinal or altitudinal directions. Before the 13<sup>th</sup> century, there  
293 was a higher ratio of people living in northwest China. This coincided with the distribution  
294 characteristics of precipitation before A.D. 1240 (Zhang and Crowley, 1989). Then, more and  
295 more people migrated to the southeast of China. This massive migration was driven by the  
296 climatic changes during the following period, as evidenced by both the records of China's  
297 historical climates (Zhang, 2005) and the results of model-based historic climate simulations  
298 over China (Man et al., 2012). China had experienced twice massive abrupt climatic changes  
299 at about A.D. 880 and 1240 (Zhang et al., 1994). That change occurring in the 13<sup>th</sup> Century  
300 was the largest climate change event across China during the past 2000 years. The effect of  
301 that change on the climatic mode of China lasted until today. People's excessive and random  
302 lumber harvesting strengthened this trend and enhanced the formation of HU Line (Wang et  
303 al., 1995). All of these processes, at least, tell the modifiability of HU Line.

### 304 3.2 Complex eco-effects of anthropogenic feedbacks

305 Exposing the modifiability of HU Line does not mean having a confirmative answer to the  
306 question. The substantial reason is due to the complexity in the eco-effects of anthropogenic  
307 feedbacks to nature. This is illustrated by an open question as people often ask – “whether the  
308 known laws of nature development need to be obeyed or more human interventions shall be



309 encouraged to promote the environmental quality?”.

310 Human’s, no matter intentionally positive or unintentionally negative, feedbacks to nature  
311 usually show complicated eco-effects, particularly from the perspective of macro-ecosystem  
312 analysis at the large scales and in a long run. For the environmental restoration policies with  
313 intentionally positive effects, their final effects still need to be explored further (Xiao, 2014).  
314 The anthropogenic feedbacks to nature also include China’s industrial consequences such as  
315 economic development (Naughton, 2007) (Figure 4a), which causes resource consumptions  
316 (Zhang et al., 2011) but, on the other hand, financially ensures the practice of environmental  
317 restoration policies (Liu et al., 2008). These feedbacks that typically display two contrasting  
318 aspects reflect the complexity of seeking to break macro-ecospatial ‘chains’.

319 -Insert Figure 4-

320 *Intentionally-positive activities but showing uncertain eco-effects.* In fact, there have been  
321 no absolute conclusions for most of the environmental restoration endeavors, when regarding  
322 their final positive or negative eco-effects. The GGP-kind Programs (Liu et al., 2008) were  
323 often used as the representative cases for studying if human interventions with intentionally  
324 positive purposes can improve the macro-ecospatial modes of China. Xiao (2014) reexamined  
325 the biophysical consequence of GGP on the Loess Plateau and observed that the feedbacks of  
326 GGP to regional climates depend on the negative forcing from both carbon sequestration and  
327 evapotranspiration and on the positive forcing from lower albedo; nevertheless, Xiao (2014)  
328 suggested that further work is still needed to assure the net eco-effects of GGP on the regional  
329 climates. Feng et al., (2016) found that the GGP operated on the Loess Plateau for long, now,  
330 is approaching its sustainable water resource limits, and the future evolutions of the relevant



331 terrestrial ecosystems will be full of uncertainties. These studies all told that the intentionally  
332 positive programs may show uncertain eco-effects eventually. So, there are a lot of unsolved  
333 works ahead, regarding the complicated interactions between the restored ecosystems and the  
334 macro-scale geography.

335 *Commonly-deemed negative activities but behaving with favorable eco-effects.* On the other  
336 hand, more and more studies found that the generally-classified negative activities show some  
337 kinds of positive eco-effects. A typical case is the factor of quickly-increasing atmospheric  
338 nitrogen deposition ( $N_{\text{dep}}$ ), which may degrade human health, alter the chemical compositions  
339 of water and soil, break greenhouse gas balancing, and decrease biological diversity (Liu et al.,  
340 2015). The spatial distributions of the averaged  $N_{\text{dep}}$  between 2003 and 2014 were derived by  
341 Kriging interpolation of the data from 41  $N_{\text{dep}}$  monitoring sites, and its dropping mode from  
342 the southeast to northwest over China (Liu et al., 2015) was marked by HU Line (Figure 4b).  
343 However, this inverse factor also proved to enhance forest growth and carbon sequestration  
344 (Yu et al., 2014), and atmospheric circulations can gradually transport it far and expand its  
345 eco-effect range beyond HU Line. Another case involves economic development. As a major  
346 anthropogenic factor disturbing macro-ecological balances, e.g., coal mining easily leading to  
347 land subsidence (Sahu and Lokhande, 2015), economic development often means resource  
348 over-consumption, as illustrated by the spatial layout of annual water use density over China  
349 (Supplementary Figure S3). Meanwhile, this factor also exemplifies the beneficial eco-effects  
350 of anthropogenic feedbacks to nature. In fact, the achievement of economic development has  
351 financially supported implementing environmental restoration, and this favor is achieved via  
352 actively transferring the surplus finances from southeast to northwest by the Chinese Central



353 Government. However, this kind of anthropogenic feedbacks in a macro sense, particularly  
354 for their indirect and implicit eco-effects, has been less considered in the physical studies of  
355 human-nature interactions in Earth sciences, e.g., with just simple relevant tools in the minor  
356 simulation models considering such eco-effects (Xiao, 2014).

357 Overall, although the modifiability of HU Line has been briefly verified, it was also found  
358 that it is a challenging task to conceive the specific plans of breaking it. The reason is that the  
359 anthropogenic feedbacks to nature are not mechanistic or linear, beyond the traditional regime  
360 of landscape ecology (Peters et al., 2006). This suggested that more comprehensive methods  
361 of macroecosystem ecology (Heffernan et al., 2014) capable of characterizing the underlying  
362 internal and external eco-effects of these varying feedbacks are needed to project the future of  
363 HU Line.

#### 364 **4 Comprehensive exploration of HU Line evolution**

365 To achieve a comprehensive projection of the future of HU Line, a sound tactics of probing  
366 its evolution is to introduce efficient ecosystem process simulation models, which can handle  
367 the complexity of human-nature interactions (Liu et al., 2007b). In retrospect, the researches  
368 following this strategy have already emerged. For instance, in order to resolve the evolution  
369 of population geography across China during the past 2, 000 years, some simulation models  
370 such as the agent-based models (Wu et al., 2011) have been attempted to make the analyses.  
371 However, comprehensively projecting the future of HU Line relies on more all-around models.  
372 After all, HU Line marks almost the whole-sense biosphere eco-mode, far beyond population,  
373 over China. Hence, we proposed introducing different-regime simulation models to decipher  
374 the built-in code of this macro-ecospatial 'chain', involving its internal balance, external drive,



375 and integral function. The potential simulation models can be classified into three types, i.e.,  
376 biogeographic models (HU Line serves as the eco-media interlinking biology and geography),  
377 bioclimatology models (as the eco-interface for mirroring biology's responses/feedbacks to  
378 climate forcing), and Earth system models (as the eco-frontier interacting with all of the other  
379 kinds of geo-factors), and their regime relationships are shown in Figure 5.

380 -Insert Figure 5 here-

#### 381 4.1 Internal eco-effect – biogeographic model

382 HU Line marks the distributions of species and ecosystems over China in the geographical  
383 space, relating to the key “distribution” branch in the domain of biogeography. Accordingly,  
384 the future of HU Line can be projected using biogeographic models, which reflect the internal  
385 eco-effects between biology and geography. This schematic plan has been attempted in the  
386 previous studies. Ni et al., (2000) used an equilibrium terrestrial biosphere model BIOME3 to  
387 yield a simulation of plant distribution, which proved to be in good agreement with the related  
388 natural vegetation map. Later, Ni (2001) better described the vegetation distribution by further  
389 proposing a new biome classification method that considers soil conditions, eco-physiological  
390 parameters, and the competitions between plant functional types. Recently, macroecological  
391 factors capable of explaining the large-scale spatial patterns of populations (Xu et al., 2015a)  
392 have attracted more attention. Along with more such underlying bio- and geographic-relevant  
393 factors considered, biogeographic models can better forecast the evolution of HU Line.

394 In order to better explore the substantially-dynamic internal eco-effects between biology  
395 and geography, their interaction processes are increasingly concerned in the development of  
396 biogeographic models. Tan et al., (2013) adopted such a process-based ORCHIDEE model to



397 estimate the carbon fluxes and stocks of the grasslands and derive the spatial distributions of  
398 the leaf area indices of vegetation and soil organic carbons across China. Sasai et al., (2016)  
399 operated the BEAMS model that integrate eco-physiological and mechanistic approaches and  
400 satellite data to predict net ecosystem production over eastern Asia, and they observed that the  
401 integral effects of the factors capable of controlling net ecosystem productivity are positive in  
402 the southern part of East Asia but negative in the northern and central parts of East Asia. In  
403 the same way, with process-based biogeographic models used, the performance of HU Line  
404 developing at the finer temporal scales can be projected further.

405 Studies of biogeographic patterns have also begun to take various biogeochemical factors  
406 into account. Han et al., (2011) derived the spatially-varying modes of 11 chemical elements  
407 such as nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium in the leaves of 1900 plant species over China.  
408 The concentrations of these elements proved to have significant latitudinal and longitudinal  
409 trends, principally decided by soil and plant functional types. Such findings (Han et al., 2011)  
410 facilitate pushing forward the introduction of more biogeochemical models into the projection  
411 of HU Line's evolution. In addition to environmental changes, invasion species may also alter  
412 the ecospatial modes over China (Wu et al., 2010). To further co-characterize these effects,  
413 more complex biogeochemical processes like soil transmitting helminthic infections (Lai et  
414 al., 2013) can be modeled further. Lai et al., (2013) noticed that higher infection prevalence  
415 (>20%) with the whipworm *Trichuris trichiura* occurred in a few regions of south China,  
416 whereas very low prevalence (<0.1%) of hookworm and whipworm infections was mainly  
417 found in north China. These simulations proved to fit the real spatial patterns of the invasion  
418 species. Overall, the future evolution of HU Line can be better projected by taking its internal



419 eco-effects into account more, based on the conventional biogeographic models to the newest  
420 biogeographic models with modules capable of simulating complex biogeochemical processes  
421 incorporated.

#### 422 4.2 External eco-effect – bioclimatology model

423 Along with the trend of exploring biogeographic models with internal eco-effects (e.g., Ni  
424 et al., 2001) increasingly emphasized, active external drives were also highlighted. The most  
425 representative case is climate factors such as ambient CO<sub>2</sub> and climate changes (Gao and Yu,  
426 1998). To reflect such external eco-effects, bioclimatology models have been introduced for  
427 directly or indirectly investigating those macro-ecospatial patterns. The direct investigations  
428 were fulfilled through, e.g., a coupled ocean–atmosphere general circulation model to infer a  
429 doubled greenhouse gas scenario for 2070–2099 (Ni et al., 2000). In this simulated climatic  
430 scenario, the carbon stocks in the deduced vegetation maps may increase significantly, both  
431 with and without the CO<sub>2</sub>-related direct physiological effects. Via linking the Crop-C model  
432 with the climate change scenario projected using a coupled FGOALS bioclimatology model,  
433 crop net primary production across China for 2000–2050 was simulated (Zhang et al., 2007),  
434 and it was projected that a higher increase would occur in a majority of regions in the eastern  
435 and northwestern China. Sun and Mu (2013) proposed a new CNOP-P (conditional nonlinear  
436 optimal perturbation related to parameter) method of to generate a possible climate scenario  
437 and to study the influence of climate change on the simulated net primary production in China  
438 with a LPJ-DGVM dynamic global vegetation model. It was also realized that net primary  
439 production decreases in northern China and increases in northeast and south China when the  
440 temperature varies as a result of a CNOP-P-typed temperature change scenario (Sun and Mu,



441 2013). Jing and Li (2015) reported that when regarding the eco-spatial pattern, the projected  
442 net primary production and net ecosystem production decreases were primarily located in the  
443 tropical and temperate regions. These studies suggested that bioclimatology models can be  
444 used to project the dynamic eco-spatial patterns of China in the future.

445 The external effects of climate on macro-ecospatial modes may also be indirectly done by  
446 changing the other biology-related environmental factors. Wang et al., (2012) run the variable  
447 infiltration capacity model to assess the implications of climate change for water resources in  
448 China, and their findings indicated that the annual runoff over China as a whole will probably  
449 increase by about 3–10% by 2050 but with uneven spatial distributions. The prevailing mode  
450 of "north dry and south wet" in China is likely to be exacerbated under global warming (Wang  
451 et al., 2012). Chen and Frauenfeld (2014) further projected that by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century,  
452 temperature may increase by 1.7–5.7 °C, with strengthened warming over northern China and  
453 the Tibetan Plateau. Four regional climate models were used to simulate the climate of the last  
454 20-year summers (1989-2008) across China, and both the observed and simulated linear trend  
455 of precipitation shows a drying trend over the Yangtze River Basin and wetting in south China  
456 (Wang et al., 2016). Based on 17 models in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase  
457 5 (CMIP5), the simulation of precipitation extremes in China was assessed under the baseline  
458 climate condition compared to a gridded daily observation dataset CN05.1 (Guo et al., 2016).  
459 From water resource to temperature extreme, their links to the biology in the bioclimatology  
460 models can also help to project the possible changes of spatial patterns involving HU Line.

461 Although the reviewed bioclimatology models can help to give more dynamic information,  
462 it was also realized that different models may give predictions with biases. For example, Jing



463 and Li (2015) indicated that the differences in the accelerating terrestrial carbon losses due to  
464 global warming estimated by the CMIP5 models ranged from 6.0 Tg C yr<sup>-2</sup> in CESM-BGC to  
465 52.7 Tg C yr<sup>-2</sup> in MPI-ESM-LR. Given the complexity of vegetation dynamic patterns under  
466 global climate change, multi-scale spatiotemporal explicit models are necessitated in order to  
467 account for land surface heterogeneity. Chen and Frauenfeld (2014) examined the changes  
468 under three emission scenarios in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century on the basis of a multi-model ensemble of  
469 20 general circulation models under the CMIP5 frame. Qiu et al. (2016) further proposed a  
470 Multi-Scale Spatio-Temporal Modeling framework to derive, reconstruct, and test multi-scale  
471 vegetation dynamic patterns under global climate change in China. These studies suggested  
472 that current bioclimatology models can handle the prediction uncertainties such as the scaling  
473 effects (Qiu et al., 2016), and hence, we proposed also using bioclimatology models for better  
474 projecting the specific evolutions of HU Line for its different segments.

#### 475 4.3 Integral eco-effect – Earth system model

476 Those representative biogeographic and bioclimatology models as reviewed above are still  
477 far from enough for comprehensively characterizing all of the geo-factors that may trigger the  
478 changes of the macro-ecospacial patterns over China. To reflect the integral effect by all of the  
479 potential impact factors on the future evolution of HU Line, we proposed a potential strategy  
480 of fusing multiple models, which can be heterogeneous or homogenous. As we know, parallel  
481 with the schematic frames of biological plus geographic models and biological plus climatic  
482 models, different land surface models could be coupled with four regional climate models to  
483 reconstruct the summer climate (1989–2008) in China (Wang et al., 2016); the combination of  
484 multiple climate models was attempted to reproduce the spatial distribution of precipitation



485 extremes over China (Guo et al., 2016); those multimedia models like POPsLTEA (Song et al.,  
486 2016) were also developed to assess the possible impacts of climatic change on the fate and  
487 transport of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in East Asia. Overall, this model-combination  
488 proposal can help people to better infer the future of HU Line by just grasping limited kinds  
489 of models.

490 The second strategy is to expand the area of analysis beyond China, even out of terrestrial  
491 Asia. China is annually affected by the Pacific monsoons. Wang et al., (2008) used a coupled  
492 regional ocean-atmosphere model of P-sigma RegCMg-POM to derive the spatial patterns of  
493 the climatic mean extreme precipitation thresholds, which were characterized by a few huge  
494 value centers covering north and part of northeast China, Yangtze-Huaihe River valleys, and  
495 south China. Siew et al., (2014) evaluated future climatic changes through the representative  
496 concentration pathways, using ten coupled atmosphere-ocean general circulation models in  
497 the CMIP5. Such models can help to deeply understand HU Line at the broader scales. At the  
498 same time, macrosystem ecology (Heffernan et al., 2014) substantially constructed under the  
499 hierarchical framework also highlights the eco-effects at fine scales. More functional modules  
500 capable of exposing the underlying associations between local restoration efforts and regional  
501 ecological patterns (Xiao, 2014) need to be developed and operated. With the broad and fine  
502 scales interlinked, the puzzles concerning macro-ecospatial 'chains' can be more easily solved  
503 under these scenarios.

504 The extreme solution plan is to use Earth system models to integrally simulate the various  
505 effects. After all, the Earth factors potentially influencing the spatial pattern of HU Line are of  
506 considerable diversity, ranging from underground to ionosphere. For example, groundwater



507 depletion impacts crop productions in the major global agricultural regions and has negative  
508 ecological consequence (Doll et al., 2014). Doll et al., (2014) used a new version of the global  
509 hydrological model – WaterGAP and found that India, United States, Iran, Saudi Arabia, and  
510 China showed the highest groundwater depletion rates in the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.  
511 This analysis can be strengthened by enhancing the spatial resolution in China. Wang et al.,  
512 (2010) fused the tropospheric atmosphere chemistry TACM model with the regional climate  
513 RegCM3 model to build a new regional climate chemistry modeling system RegCCMS model  
514 for the purpose of analyzing the spatial-temporal distributions of anthropogenic nitrate aerosol,  
515 radiative forcing and climate effect in China. With such models, people can adapt the settings  
516 of their parametric conditions to explore the potential influences of the intentionally-positive  
517 anthropogenic effects, e.g., artificially adding vegetation covers close to HU Line to examine  
518 their surrounding evolutions via the operations of the model simulations, but the inferences  
519 may be different due to the varying data availability and temporal periods of interest. Overall,  
520 as we proposed, with more comprehensive Earth system models used, the future evolutions of  
521 HU Line, no doubt, can be more accurately and stably projected.

## 522 **5 Summary**

523 In the case of China that occupies the critical terrestrial transition zone – HU Line and has  
524 made massive restoration endeavors, this study examined the potential of anthropogenically  
525 breaking macro-ecospatial ‘chains’, ranging from their natural causes, spatiotemporal stability,  
526 complexity of human-nature interaction in eco-effect to model simulation, through reviewing  
527 the relevant studies and integrative data analyses. The piled-up knowledge is of implications  
528 not only for biogeosciences on regional\global changes but also for biosphere conservation,



529 climate adaption, environment maintaining, nature protection, and macroecosystem ecology.  
530 Finally, the proposal of using various simulation models has pointed out a way for exploring  
531 the anthropogenic effect on critical transition zones. Yet, it must be noted that there have been  
532 none models, even with Earth system models counted in, capable of fully characterizing the  
533 complex processes of human-nature interactions and clearly identifying the positive\negative  
534 eco-effects of people's, even though intentionally-positive, feedbacks to nature. This means  
535 that the question, substantially, shall be posed to the whole community, and it is expected that  
536 this review will inspire more studies in this direction – anthropogenic eco-effect on nature and  
537 its macro-ecospatial pattern.

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### 835 **Acknowledgements**

836 The authors would like to sincerely thank those who distributed their research results, which  
837 have been instrumental in accomplishing this study. This study was financially supported in  
838 part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 31870531 and  
839 31670718), and in part by the National Key Research and Development Program of China  
840 (2017YFC0210102).

841

### 842 **Conflict of interest**

843 The authors have no competing interests.

844

### 845 **Authors' contributions**

846 Y.L. designed the study and analyzed the data. Y.L. and M.H. both contributed to paper writing.

847

### 848 **Data availability**

849 The used data are available from <https://nex.nasa.gov/nex/projects/1349> and [www.moa.gov.cn](http://www.moa.gov.cn).

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855 **Figure Captions**

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857 Figure 1. Illustration of China's population distribution across HU Line and  
858 already-implemented programs for environmental restoration. HU Line draws the distinctive  
859 population density map of China (Census year: 2010) (We generated the image based on the  
860 data that was published in China Statistical Yearbook, 2010). The obvious environmental  
861 improvement from 1986 to 2016 shows the positive anthropogenic feedbacks, e.g., the "Grain  
862 for Green" Program (GGP) (Liu et al., 2008). Note that some of the figures for illustrations in  
863 this review did not include the data for the districts of Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan in  
864 China.

865

866 Figure 2. **A.** China terrain elevation map; **B.** China average annual precipitation (AAP) map;  
867 **C.** China annual average temperature (AAT) map; **D.** China cropland potential productivity of  
868 radiation and temperature (PPRT) map (Census: 2000) (We generated the image based on the  
869 data that was published in Yang et al., 2010); **E.** China soil erosion degree map (Census:  
870 1995); **F.** China large-scale natural disaster map (We generated the images of **A. B. C. E. F.**  
871 based on the related data that were published in [www.moa.gov.cn](http://www.moa.gov.cn)).

872

873 Figure 3. **A.** China's dominant terrestrial ecosystem map (Data from [www.moa.gov.cn](http://www.moa.gov.cn)); **B.**  
874 China NDVI fluctuation intensity map (1981-2011) (We generated the images based on the  
875 NDVI3g data that were published in Zhu et al., 2013).

876



877 Figure 4. **A.** China gross domestic productivity map (Census: 2010) (We generated the image  
878 based on the data published in China Statistical Yearbook 2010); **B.** China inorganic nitrogen  
879 wet deposition map (We generated the image based on the data that was published in Liu et  
880 al., 2015).

881

882 Figure 5. Schematic framework of integrating the simulation models from different regimes  
883 for exploring the possible evolution of HU Line. The different-regime models together can  
884 better characterize the complicated interactions that physically, chemically, or physiologically  
885 lead to a lot of cross-regime eco-effects capable of directly or indirectly influencing  
886 environment. Such eco-effects cover black-carbon lowering snow surface albedo (Hadley and  
887 Kirchstetter, 2012), eutrophication deteriorating acidification of subsurface coastal water (Cai  
888 et al., 2011), and soil heavy metal pollutions from mines (Li et al., 2014). Through the ways  
889 like radiative transfer, geobiochemical cycle, and atmospheric circulation, the eco-effects may  
890 interrupt the balance of Earth processes and impact terrestrial ecosystems. This is exemplified  
891 by the case that the increase of anthropogenic aerosols in atmosphere resulted in the increase  
892 of extreme weather phenomena, such as haze, fog, and smog, and the decrease of visibility  
893 and sunshine durations (Kaiser and Qian, 2002; Che et al., 2007; Zheng et al., 2008).

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