

Correlation Assessment of NDVI and Land use Dynamics with Water Resources for the Southern Margin of Mu Us Sandy Land, China

Menglong Zhao

Yellow River Engineering Consulting Co Ltd

Yu Wang

Yellow River Conservancy Committee: Yellow River Conservancy Commission

Siyuan Liu (✉ liusiyuan22@126.com)

Xi'an University of Technology <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1092-4456>

Ping-an Zhong

Hohai University

Hongzhen Liu

Yellow River Engineering Consulting Co Ltd

Rongrong Li

Yellow River Engineering Consulting Co Ltd

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1 **Correlation assessment of NDVI and land use dynamics with water resources for**
2 **the southern margin of Mu Us Sandy Land, China**

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4 Menglong Zhao^{ab}, Yu Wang^c, Siyuan Liu^{d,*}, Ping-an Zhong^b, Hongzhen Liu^e, Rongrong Li^e

5 ^a *Yellow River Engineering Consulting Co.,Ltd.;Postdoctoral Research Station of Yellow River*
6 *Engineering Consulting Co.,Ltd., Zhengzhou, Henan 450003, China*

7 ^b *College of Hydrology and Water Resources, Hohai University, NO.1, Xikang Road, Nanjing 210098,*
8 *China*

9 ^c *Yellow River Conservancy Commission of the Ministry of Water Resources, Zhengzhou, Henan*
10 *450003, China*

11 ^d *State Key Laboratory of Eco-hydraulics in Northwest Arid Region, Xi'an University of Technology,*
12 *Xi'an 710048, China*

13 ^e *Yellow River Engineering Consulting Co.,Ltd., Zhengzhou, Henan 450003, China.*

14 **Corresponding email: liusiyuan22@126.com*

15

16 **Abstract:** To prevent desertification, countries all over the world have made diversified efforts and

17 vegetation restoration has been proved to be an effective approach. However, for sandy land that has

18 limited water resources, measures such as artificial vegetation, may lead to the increase risk of drought.

19 While affirming the achievements of sand utilization, there are many controversies exist regarding the

20 advantages of turning deserts green, especially considering the water scarcity. Therefore, the long-run

21 and causal relationships between sandy land, water consumption and vegetation coverage are necessary

22 for explorations. Taken the southern margin of the Mu Us Sandy Land as the study area, this study

23 explored the interactions between sandy land, water consumption and NDVI over a period of 2000-2018

24 with a VAR model approach. In the study area, various revegetation projects have made great

25 achievements, resulting in a significant reduction of the sandy land area. In addition, the NDVI has

26 ascend from 0.196 in 2000 to 0.371 in 2018 with a ratio of 89.3%. Results showed that there exist long-

27 term stable equilibrium and causal relationships between water consumption with sandy land and NDVI.

28 The increase of NDVI is relatively the direct factor causes the increase of water consumption. It could

29 be inferred that those artificial vegetation measures may be based on large amount of water consumption,

30 which may aggravate further water shortage and ecological damage. More scientific and stronger water
31 resources management measures need to be implemented locally to achieve a balance between water
32 resources and revegetation.

33

34 **Keywords:** Mu Us Sandy Land; water scarcity; NDVI; land use; impulse response function

35

36 **1 Introduction**

37 Desertification is one of the most serious ecological problems worldwide. Drylands cover
38 approximately 41% of Earth's land surface and are home to more than 38% of the total global population
39 of 6.5 billion (James et al. 2007). To cope with the issue of desertification, governments around the world
40 have implemented various measures, such as sand fixing, revegetation (Amiraslani and Dragovich 2011),
41 installing windbreaks, and natural sealing (Zhu et al. 1984; Bonkoungou 1996). China, which is one of
42 the most seriously affected countries by desertification, has been implementing large-scale conservation
43 programs, including the Key Shelterbelt Construction Program, Wildlife Conservation and Nature
44 Reserve Development Program, Forest Eco-Compensation Program, and Natural Forest Conservation
45 Program (Liu et al. 2008; Yin and Yin 2010). The implementation of these projects has achieved
46 remarkable results. According to the satellite data of NASA, the global green area increased by 5% from
47 2000 to 2017 (equivalent to the entire Amazon rainforest). Notably, China has been leading the growth
48 of global greening and contributes 25% of the net growth in the global vegetation area (Chen et al. 2019).

49 The Mu Us Sandy Land, which is located in the typical agro-pastoral transitional zone, is one of the
50 most sensitive, vulnerable and severely degraded areas in northern China. This desert area had rich water
51 resources and high grass coverage; however, with an increase in population and human activities,

52 excessive reclamation and grazing led to water resource depletion and continuous desertification
53 ([Runnström 2003](#); [Huang et al. 2009](#); [Bai and Cui 2019](#)). However, in recent years, the trend of
54 desertification has reversed. The desertification land area of Mu Us Sandy Land reduced at an average
55 rate of 62.37 km²/year from 1990 to 2017 (the desertification area in 2017 was 1684.09km²) ([Han et al.](#)
56 [2019](#)). Over the past three decades, the interannual normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) in
57 the Mu Us Desert mostly exhibited increasing trends due to human activity impacts ([Karnieli et al. 2014](#);
58 [Wu et al. 2014](#); [An et al. 2014](#); [Li et al. 2016](#)). The area with the most dynamic NDVI trends is distributed
59 in the Shaanxi Province ([Wu et al. 2002](#); [Liu et al. 2020](#)). This area occupies one-third of the area of Mu
60 Us Sandy Land and is known as the Agro-pastoral ecotone of the Northern Shaanxi Province (ANS).
61 According to data released by the Shaanxi Provincial Forestry Bureau on April 22, 2020 ([Yulin Municipal](#)
62 [People's Government 2020](#)), the desertification land control rate in Yulin has reached 93.24%, which
63 indicates that all mobile sand dunes have been fixed, which is the kind of real realization of "sand
64 degradation and green increase".

65 Due to the distinctiveness of the study location and the achievements of desertification prevention in
66 recent years, the ANS has become a research hotspot for scholars. Numerous studies have explored the
67 effectiveness of the aforementioned projects. Studies have explored the causes of desertification ([Wu and](#)
68 [Ci 1999](#); [Wu 2001](#)), conducted monitoring and evaluation of desertification ([Wu and Ci 2002](#); [Zhang et](#)
69 [al. 2003](#)), examined land use and land cover (LULC) changes ([Zhang et al. 2012](#); [Meng et al. 2012](#); [Li](#)
70 [et al. 2013](#)), explored the trends of vegetation change ([Ju et al. 2008](#); [Karnieli et al. 2014](#)), and conducted
71 ecological risk and ecological vulnerability assessment in desert areas ([Meng et al. 2015](#)). However, the
72 transformation of a natural desert ecosystem is a complex coupling process and whether it will be the
73 causes of other changes is worth further exploration.

74 Previous studies have shown that both field investigation and statistical data analysis warned us that,
75 by the common influence of the growing human activities and still fragile eco-environment, the
76 ecological restoration in Mu Us are experiencing increasing challenges due to the water scarcity (Li et
77 al. 2017).A previous study indicated that although revegetation has had positive effects on ecological
78 systems in Mu Us Sandy Land, it has caused evapotranspiration to increase by 51 mm per summer; thus,
79 revegetation has exacerbated water shortage in the aforementioned region (Zheng et al. 2020). In water-
80 limited arid areas, a reduction in water resources due to vegetation results in a reduction in the amount
81 of water available for human activities. Consequently, the competition for water between the environment
82 and humans is exacerbated, which results in ecological degradation (Quiggin 2001; Wu et al. 2002). Field
83 investigations and statistical data analyses have indicated that water-scarcity-related challenges are
84 associated with the ecological restoration of the Mu Us Desert due to growing human activities and the
85 fragile eco-environment in this region (Li et al. 2016, 2017). For sandy land that has limited water
86 resources and is prone to a high degree of drought, measures, such as artificial vegetation, may lead to
87 the increase of water consumption and then a new crisis of desertification. While affirming the
88 achievements of sand utilization, there are many controversies exist regarding the advantages of turning
89 deserts green, especially considering the scarcity of water resources in these areas. Therefore, will the
90 degradation of sandy land lead to a substantial increase in water resources consumption and vegetation
91 growth is necessary for consideration.

92 To address this issue, this study takes the ANS as the study area and aims (1) to analyze the change of
93 land use in the study area and clarify the conversion relationship between sandy land and other land types,
94 (2) to explore NDVI changes in the ANS, and (3) to access the dynamic relationships among sandy land,
95 water resources, and the NDVI by using the vector autoregression (VAR) model. This study is expected

96 to provide references for the ecological improvement and sustainable development in water-deficient
97 area.

98 **2 Study area and data**

99 **2.1 Description of the study area**

100 In this study, the Agro-pastoral ecotone of the Northern Shaanxi Province (ANS) is taken as the study
101 area, which occupies one-third of the area of Mu Us Sandy Land. The ANS is located in northwest China
102 (ranging from 107°35' to 111°29'E and from 37°35' to 39°02'N) and has an approximate area of 33 992
103 km² (Figure 1). It consists of six counties, namely Yuyang, Shenmu, Fugu, Hengshan, Dingbian, and
104 Jingbian. More than 44.2% of the study area is classified as desertified land. The considered region has
105 a typical continental semiarid climate and water resources here are very poor. The per capita water
106 resources are only 9.97 million m³, which is lower than the standard of water resources proposed by the
107 United Nations Population Action Organization in 1993 for severely water-scarce countries (10 million
108 m³/per capita) (Wu and Ci 2002). The annual precipitation ranges from 440 mm in the southeast to 250
109 mm in the northwest. A total of 60%–80% of the annual precipitation is received from June to August.
110 The annual mean temperature is approximately 6°C–8.5°C, with monthly mean temperatures of 22°C in
111 July and –11°C in January.

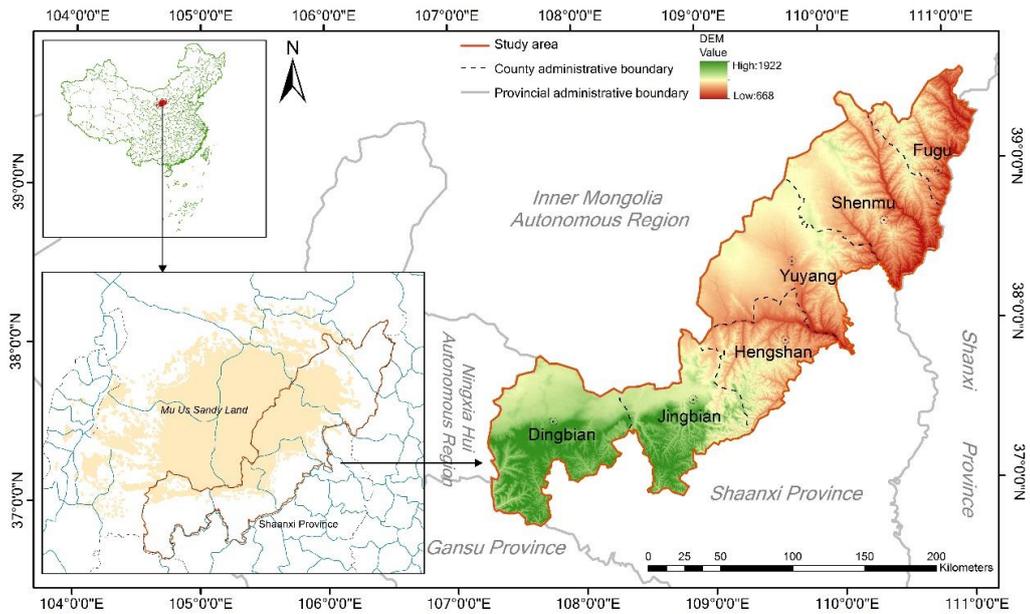


Fig.1 Location of the study area

2.2 Data sources

The types of land use represent the achievements of human beings in land use and transformation as well as the forms and uses (functions) of land. In this study, land use data from 1990 and 2000–2018 were used. These data were obtained from the remote sensing monitoring dataset of multiperiod LULC in China (CNLUCC). An efficient classification system was developed, and a research team from the Institute of Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of Sciences, was invited to classify remote sensing image data through a human–machine interactive interpretation to achieve consistent and accurate classification (Liu et al. 2010). The NDVI is a quantitative parameter of vegetation coverage and reflects ecological environmental quality. Monthly average NDVI data were calculated from the spatial distribution dataset of China's monthly NDVI (2000–2018). The land use and NDVI data were obtained from the Resource and Environment Data Cloud Platform, Chinese Academy of Sciences (<http://www.resdc.cn/>).

Water resource data for 2000–2018 were mainly collected from the Water Resources Bulletin of Shaanxi Province and Water Resources Statistics Bulletin of Yulin City, which are available on the

128 websites of relevant government departments (<http://slt.shaanxi.gov.cn/TJf-zxfw-Pb8-1-b9u-175> and
129 <http://slj.yl.gov.cn/index.html>, respectively)

130 **3 Methodology**

131 **3.1 Analysis of land use and NDVI changes**

132 In order to better understanding the land cover change and NDVI trends in ANS, the evolution
133 characteristics of land cover change and NDVI change were carried out. With ArcGIS platform, the land
134 cover maps and NDVI change maps of 2000-2018 were overlaid, then key information on where
135 experienced significant NDVI changes and what is the land cover type of this polygon were extracted.

136 Additionally, transition matrix, a classic method for detecting LUCC, has been employed for exploring
137 dynamics of LUCC in ANS. For land cover changes of 2000-2018, the data were divided into four pairs
138 of 2000-2005, 2005-2010, 2010-2015 and 2015-2018. For better comparison, the comparison between
139 1990 and 2000 has been supplemented. For each pair of compared data sets, an extended transition matrix
140 was constructed. The maps from the initial and subsequent time were overlaid with ArcGIS to produce a
141 matrix that provided the LULC areas by categorical transition between the two points in time. Due to the
142 large amount of data, in order to better show the flow direction of data, Sankey chart was selected to
143 show the data of transfer matrix.

144 **3.2 A VAR model approach**

145 The VAR model is a widely used econometrics technique for multivariate time-series modeling and
146 proposed by Sims (1980) to analyze the mutual influence relationship between macroeconomic variables.
147 VAR model has some very attractive features and has proven to be a valuable tool for analyzing dynamic
148 transmission mechanisms among time-series processes (McMillan 1991; Lu 2001). In each equation of
149 the model, endogenous variables return all lagged endogenous variable items to estimate dynamic

150 relationships among all the endogenous variables. Although the VAR model was originally developed
151 for analyzing the mutual influence relationship between macroeconomic variables, it uses simultaneous
152 multi-equations, which are not based on economic theory and can be applied to several other fields. For
153 example, the VAR model was used to analyze and forecast the mutual relationship between variables in
154 a system, determine leading and potential factors, and quantify the influence of these factors (Kumar et
155 al. 2009; Adenomon et al. 2013; Wu et al. 2018).

156 In addition to forecasting, VAR model equations are used to simulate the effects of sudden changes
157 (impulses) in one variable on other variables. Such effects are quantified through impulse response
158 function (IRF), which enable the estimation of the timescale over which changes in the water
159 consumption, sandy land area, and NDVI affect each other. Another application of the VAR model is the
160 variance decomposition with forecast error variance. The variance decomposition indicates what
161 percentage of a forecast error variance can be attributed to each individual variable used in the model.
162 The implementation of the VAR model is described in the following text.

163 3.2.1 Augmented Dickey–Fuller test

164 Standard Granger causality tests be conducted on stationary time series. The unit roots of X_t are
165 determined to confirm the stationary properties of each variable. The aforementioned unit roots are
166 obtained using the augmented Dickey–Fuller (ADF) test (Dickey and Fuller 1979, 1981). For the time
167 series X_t , the ADF relationship is expressed as follows:

$$168 \quad \Delta X_t = \mu + \alpha X_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i \Delta X_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

169 where Δ is the difference operator; k is the autoregressive lag length, that has to be sufficiently large
170 to eliminate possible serial correlation in β_i ; α and β are the coefficients of interest. When the

171 aforementioned variables are found to be nonstationary, ADF tests are repeated for the first and second
172 differences.

173 3.2.2 Johansen multivariate cointegration test

174 The Johansen multivariate cointegration test (Johansen and Juselius 1990) can be represented as
175 follows:

$$176 \quad \Delta Z_t = \mu + \Pi Z_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^k \Gamma_i \Delta X_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

177 where Z_t is a 3×1 vector of the variables $\ln U_t$, $\ln Y_t$, and $\ln E_t$; μ is a 3×1 vector of
178 constant terms; Γ and Π represent 3×3 matrices of coefficients; and ε_t is a 3×1 vector of white noise
179 error terms. The Johansen multivariate cointegration test is based on the maximum likelihood estimation
180 and trace statistics (λ_{trace}), where λ_{trace} statistic tests the null hypothesis of no cointegration ($\text{rank}(r) =$
181 0) against an alternative hypothesis of cointegration ($r > 0$).

182 3.2.3 Selection of the lag length

183 Most VAR models are estimated using symmetric lags, that is, the same lag length is used for all
184 variables in all equations of the model. The lag length is mostly selected using criteria such as the final
185 prediction error (FPE) and Akaike information criterion (AIC). These information criteria are statistical
186 model fit measures (Gao 2006). They quantify the relative goodness of fit of various previously derived
187 statistical models for a given sample of data.

188 3.2.4 Impulse response function (IRF)

189 Because the VAR model is a nontheoretically model, directly determining the relationship among the
190 variables in the model from parameter matrices is difficult. The aforementioned relationships can be
191 obtained by analyzing the dynamic effect on the system when an error term changes or when the model

192 is shocked. Therefore, IRFs have been proposed as tools for interpreting VAR models. The impulse
 193 technique of response analysis involves representing the reaction of each variable to a shock in each
 194 equation of the system. IRFs can be used to reflect the effect of a random distribution term on the current
 195 and future values of endogenous variables. Thus, the dynamic effect of random disturbances on
 196 endogenous variables can be characterized. Such characterization reflects how a random disturbance
 197 influences other variables in accordance with the VAR model as well as the dynamic process of feedback
 198 to itself. IRFs with a strong time characteristic can indicate the degree of response for any new
 199 information generated by any system variable. A VAR can be modeled as a triangular moving average
 200 process, which can be written in the vector form as follows:

$$201 \quad \frac{\partial x_{t+s}}{\partial \rho_{1t}} = \varphi_s \quad (3)$$

202 where the element of φ_s in row i and column j indicates the effect of a one-unit increase in the j th
 203 variable's innovation at time t (ε_{ij}) on the value of the i th variable at time $t + s$ ($x_{i,t+s}$) when
 204 considering all other innovations at all times constant. Bootstrapped confidence intervals are commonly
 205 drawn around IRFs.

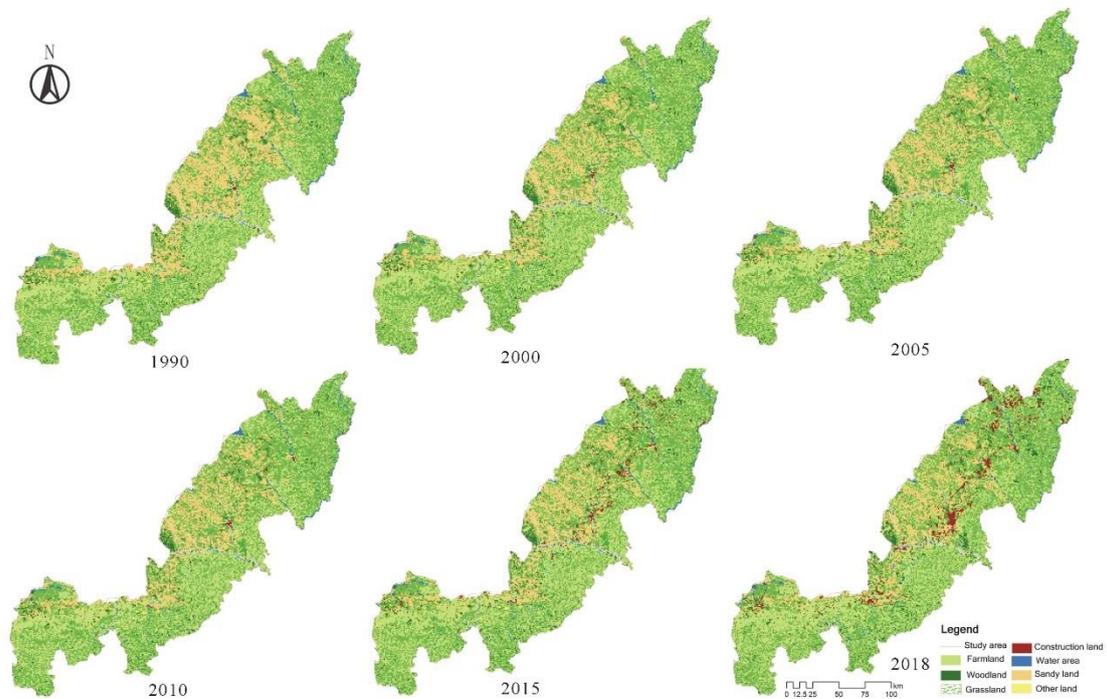
206 3.2.5 Variance decomposition

207 The variance decomposition is used to examine short-run dynamic interactions between model
 208 variables. The variance decomposition is used to describe a relativity effect, and it indicates how much
 209 of a forecast error variance can be attributed to each impact factor in the VAR system. Therefore, it is
 210 necessary to analyze the variance decomposition to trace the shocks to the system. The variance
 211 decomposition provides information regarding the relative importance of each random innovation in
 212 affecting the variables in the VAR model.

213 **4 Results and discussion**

214 **4.1 Identifying the dynamic evolution in land use**

215 As the rapid utilization of sand land in the ANS mainly began after 2000, LULC data for 1990 were
216 selected here for compared with those for 2000–2018 to compare land use situations before and after
217 sandy land utilization. As displayed in Figure 2, in 1990, the main land use categories in the ANS were
218 cultivated land, grassland, and sandy land. The other land types occupied a limited area. The area of
219 sandy land has decreased significantly since 1990, and sandy land has been gradually occupied by arable
220 land and grassland. This trend remains the same after 2000. Moreover, the area of urban and rural
221 construction land has increased rapidly, especially after 2000, which indicates that human activities have
222 increased significantly in the study area. These human activities are concentrated in the marginal zone of
223 sandy land distribution, which further proves that the scale of sand land utilization measures is gradually
224 expanding.



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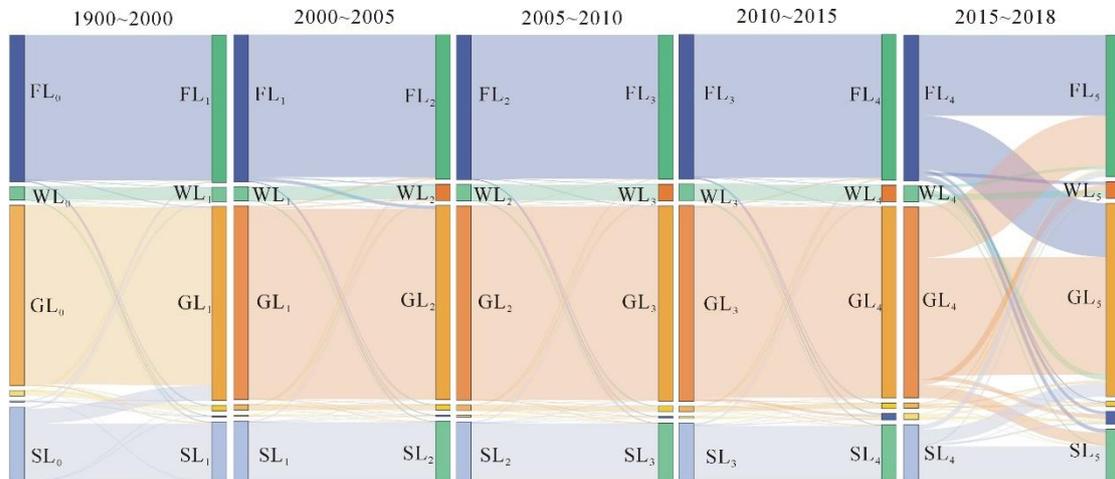
Fig.2 Land use maps of the study area from 1990 to 2018

227 The transition matrix, which is a classic tool for detecting LULC changes, was employed in this study
228 for exploring LULC changes in the ANS. An extended transition matrix was conducted for each pair of
229 compared datasets. The maps for the initial period and a subsequent period were overlaid to generate a
230 matrix that indicated the categorical transition in LULC over time (Pontius et al. 2004; Manandhar et al.
231 2010; Li et al. 2010). To better display data transfer in and out, the transfer matrix of land use was
232 obtained using ArcGIS software and visualized as a Sankey diagram (Figure 3) with data flow direction.
233 The Sankey diagram, which is also known as the Sankey energy balance diagram, is a specific type of
234 flow chart in which the width of the extended branch corresponds to the size of data flow. This diagram
235 was divided into five periods from 1990 to 2018. Figure 3 indicates that different types of land use in
236 each period were transferred out and in. The highest frequency of data conversion was obtained for the
237 period 2015–2018, followed by 1990–2000.

238 It is worth noting that the most frequent conversion between various types of land use occurred during
239 2015–2018 (mainly grassland, farmland, and sand). However, a certain balance existed between the
240 transfer in and transfer out, and the final change proportion was not significant. The final change
241 proportions for grassland, farmland, and sand were 1.3%, –2.7%, and –8%, respectively. Of all land
242 types, only the area of sandy land decreased continually. Since 1990, the sand area in the ANS decreased
243 from 5909.2 to 4114.8 km², with a total decrease of 30.4%. The main transferred-out type of sandy land
244 was grassland before 2010 and farmland after 2010. Moreover, construction land exhibited the highest
245 increase in area, from 89.5 km² in 1990 to 1016.4 km² in 2018 (11.4 times increase).

246 As above mentioned, the main transferred-out type of sandy land was grassland before 2010 and
247 farmland after 2010. In line with climatic conditions and rural living habits in the ANS, numerous
248 pastures and considerable cultivated land are distributed in this area. Irrespective of whether the sandy

249 land turned into grassland or farmland, the local agricultural water consumption and total water
 250 consumption was predicted to increase. To address this issue, it is necessary to explore the relationship
 251 of changes in the sandy land area with the total water consumption and agricultural water consumption.



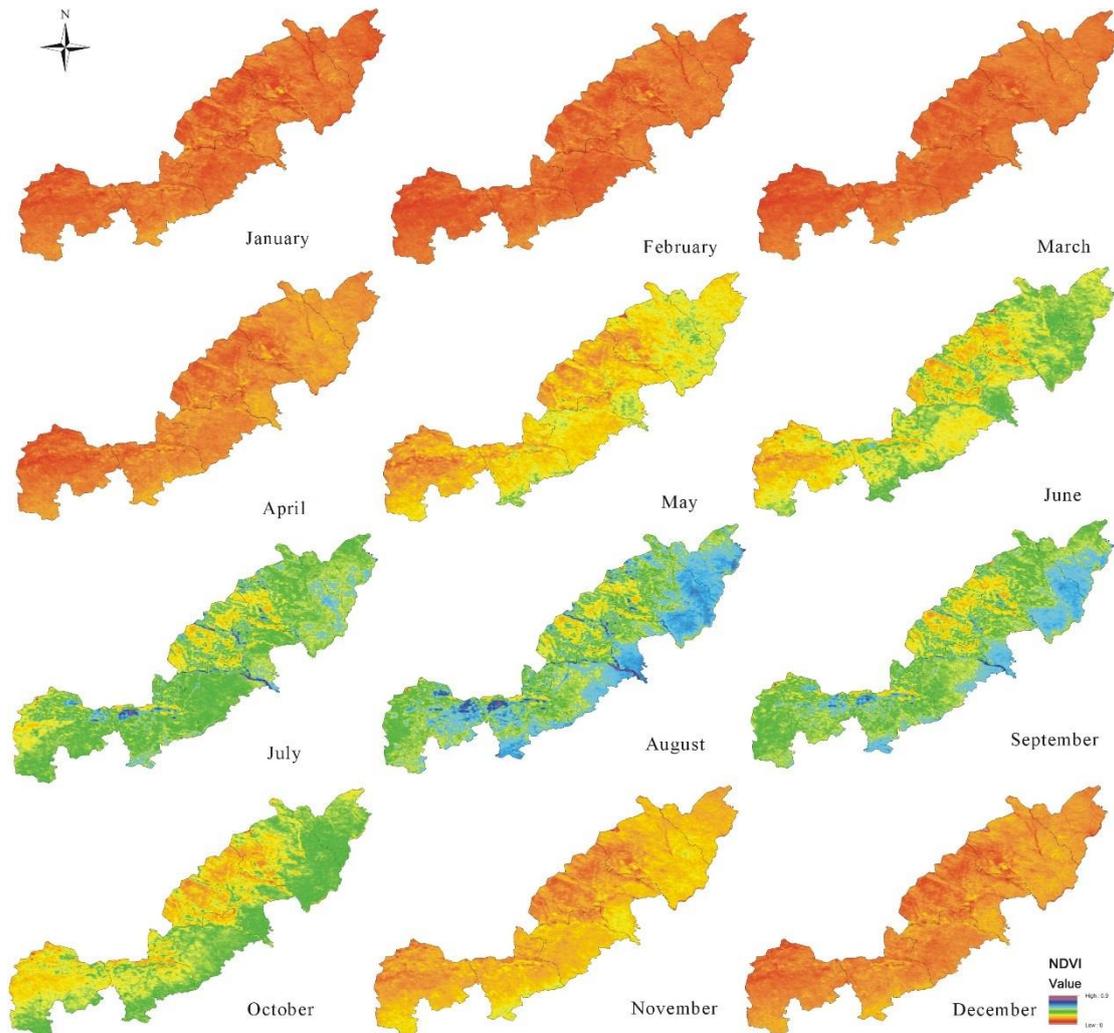
252 Note: FL denotes farmland, WL denotes woodland, GL denotes grassland, and SL denotes sandy land.
 253 **Fig.3** Sankey map of land use type conversion
 254

255 **4.2 Spatial and temporal evolution characteristics of the NDVI**

256 Remote sensing data of the monthly average NDVI from 2000 to 2018 were obtained. The NDVI
 257 exhibited a fluctuating trend over 19 years but an increasing overall trend. The NDVI increased from
 258 0.196 in 2000 to 0.371 in 2018. The total increase in the NDVI was 89.3%, with an average annual
 259 increase of 4.7%. After 2000, the highest obtained NDVI value was 0.594. This value was obtained in
 260 2013. The annual maximum NDVI value was consistent with the overall trend of the annual average
 261 NDVI value. The annual maximum and annual average NDVI values exhibited growth trends. The annual
 262 average NDVI value exhibited a relatively stable growth, with a slope of 0.0092. The maximum NDVI
 263 value exhibited a higher volatility and more significant growth trend than the annual average NDVI value
 264 did. The slope of the trend of the maximum NDVI value was 0.0132. The average annual NDVI of the
 265 entire ecotone was 0.279.

266 In terms of NDVI distribution within year, the vegetation coverage increased significantly after May.

267 The vegetation coverage from May to October was significantly higher than that during other periods of
 268 the year. In addition, the average monthly NDVI reached a maximum value of 0.473 in August, which
 269 was consistent with the growth period of vegetation and crops in the ANS. Subsequently, the vegetation
 270 gradually withered and the NDVI began to decline. The lowest NDVI of 0.160 was observed in February.



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 272

Fig.4 Distribution of the NDVI in the ANS within year

273 Due to differences in natural conditions and geographical characteristics, the vegetation coverage
 274 exhibited an uneven distribution in space and time (Figure 4). Regions with high NDVI values were
 275 concentrated in the southeast of the ANS. The vegetation coverage in the northwest was relatively low,
 276 which is consistent with the distribution of loess and desert from southeast to northwest; thus, the
 277 vegetation growth was poor in regions close to sand and water-deficient areas. Moreover, the NDVI in

278 the middle of the ANS was lower than that in other regions. Ultimately, the evolution of the NDVI
279 indicated that the vegetation coverage in the entire ecotone gradually improved, which is beneficial for
280 the ecological improvement of the ecotone.

281 **4.3 Dynamic relationships of sandy land, water consumption and NDVI**

282 *4.3.1 Analysis for stationarity and cointegration test*

283 The stationarity of standardized time series of the total water consumption (*TC*), agricultural water
284 consumption (*AC*), sandy area (*SA*), and NDVI (*NV*) of the study area was examined. To avoid data
285 fluctuation and eliminate possible heteroscedasticity, the data were first subjected to logarithm
286 processing. The obtained data sequence was then subjected to ADF testing. According to the results of
287 ADF test (Table 1), the data sequence was stable if the prob. value was less than 0.05 (95% confidence
288 interval) and the ADF statistic was less than the critical values of 1%, 5%, and 10% significance levels.
289 According to Table 1, all data sequences were nonstationary in the original sequence state. The prob.
290 values of $\log(TC)$, $\log(AC)$, and $\log(NV)$ were less than 0.05 after the first-order difference; thus, these
291 sequences reached a stable state. Only the $\log(SA)$ sequence reached a stable state after the second-order
292 difference. Considering that only the same order stationary may prevent pseudo regression, the second-
293 order difference was applied to all data sequences to obtain the stationary sequence.

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Table 1 Stationarity test results for each variable

Sequence	ADF-Statistic	Prob. Value	Critical values			Conclusion
			at different significant level			
			1%	5%	10%	
$\log(TC)$	-0.795659	0.79561	-3.857386	-3.040391	-2.660551	Unstable
$V\log(TC)$	-4.686907	0.0001	-2.708094	-1.962813	-1.606129	Stable
$V^2\log(TC)$	-4.443680	0.0003	-2.754993	-1.970978	-1.603693	Stable
$\log(AC)$	-3.404071	0.0248	-3.857386	-3.040391	-2.660551	Unstable
$V\log(AC)$	-6.951639	0.0000	-2.708094	-1.962813	-1.606129	Stable
$V^2\log(AC)$	-4.289001	0.0004	-2.754993	-1.970978	-1.603693	Stable
$\log(SA)$	4.801633	1.0000	-3.920350	-3.065585	-2.673459	Unstable
$V\log(SA)$	1.480889	0.9582	-2.728252	-1.966270	-1.605026	Unstable
$V^2\log(SA)$	-5.601733	0.0000	-2.728252	-1.966270	-1.605026	Stable
$\log(NV)$	0.067579	0.9521	-3.920350	-3.065585	-2.673459	Unstable
$V\log(NV)$	-3.405363	0.0020	-2.708094	-1.962813	-1.606129	Stable
$V^2\log(NV)$	-6.714835	0.0000	-2.728252	-1.966270	-1.605026	Stable

301 Note: V refers to the first-order difference and V^2 refers to the second-order difference.

302 After the differential processing of time series to make them stable, data sequences may lack long-
303 term information, which is essential for problem analysis. The cointegration test is used to test whether
304 the causal relationship described by a regression equation is pseudo regression, that is, to test whether a
305 stable relationship exists among variables. In Johansen cointegration test, the maximum likelihood
306 estimation is used to analyze cointegration relationships among multiple variables.

307 As presented in [Table 2](#), when the number of cointegration equations was 0, the trace statistics and
308 maximum eigenvalue statistics were 107.8306 and 55.35650, respectively, which are greater than the
309 critical value for a significance level of 5%. Therefore, the original hypothesis of "zero cointegration
310 relationships" is rejected. The results of the trace statistics test and Max–Eigen statistics test indicated

311 that cointegration relationships, that is, long-term stable equilibrium relationships, existed among the
 312 sequences. These relationships were not affected by short-term fluctuations.

313 **Table 2** Results of the Johansen multivariate cointegration test

Trace test				
H ₀	Statistic	Trace Statistic	0.05 critical value	Proc. Value
None *	0.975093	107.8306	40.17493	0.0000
At most 1 *	0.855498	52.47411	24.27596	0.0000
At most 2 *	0.683380	23.45716	12.32090	0.0005
At most 3 *	0.338838	6.203644	4.129906	0.0151
Max-eigenvalue test				
H ₀	Statistic	Max-Elgen Statistic	0.05 critical value	Proc. Value
None *	0.975039	55.35650	24.15921	0.0000
At most 1 *	0.855498	29.01696	17.79730	0.0007
At most 2 *	0.683380	17.25081	11.22480	0.0039
At most 3 *	0.338838	6.206344	4.129906	0.1051

314 Note: * indicates rejection of the original hypothesis at a significance level of 5%.

315 4.3.2 Construction of VAR model

316 An important aspect of the VAR model is the determination of a suitable lag length. If the lag length
 317 is too short, the dynamic relationship between variables cannot be fully reflected. Moreover, if the lag
 318 length is too long, the degree of freedom can decrease and the validity of the estimated model parameters
 319 may be affected. Therefore, a balance must be found between the lag period and the degree of freedom.

320 Different information criteria, including the Final prediction error (FPE), Akaike information criterion
 321 (AIC), Schwartz information criterion (SC), Hannan–Quinn (HQ) criterion, and likelihood ratio (LR)
 322 test, were used to calculate the lag length for the VAR model. The test results (Table 3) indicate that the
 323 maximum lag recommended by the information criteria is 2.

324

Table 3 Lag length selection for the VAR model

lag	LogL.	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	106.5353	NA	1.36e-11	-13.67137	-13.48256	-13.67339
1	124.5452	24.01314	1.15e-11	-13.93935	-12.99529	-13.94941
2	166.4638	33.53488*	6.90e-13*	-17.393517*	-15.69585*	-17.41327*

325

The VAR model equation for runoff obtained through the E-views software can be written as follows:

$$\begin{cases}
 VLOG(TC) = -0.357571 * VLOG(TC)(-1) + 0.0428919 * VLOG(TC)(-2) \\
 \quad - 0.520934 * VLOG(AC)(-1) - 0.683777 * VLOG(AC)(-2) - 3.53318 * VLOG(SA)(-1) \\
 \quad - 2.68867 * VLOG(SA)(-2) + 0.246604 * VLOG(NV)(-1) - 0.174807 * VLOG(NV)(-2) - 0.0002380 \\
 VLOG(AC) = 0.150301 * VLOG(TC)(-1) - 0.0129580 * VLOG(TC)(-2) \\
 \quad - 1.35860 * VLOG(AC)(-1) - 0.826909 * VLOG(AC)(-2) - 3.21678 * VLOG(SA)(-1) \\
 \quad - 2.66472 * VLOG(SA)(-2) + 0.383647 * VLOG(NV)(-1) - 0.153425 * VLOG(NV)(-2) - 0.00398098 \\
 VLOG(SA) = -0.22980 * VLOG(TC)(-1) + 0.0928248 * VLOG(TC)(-2) + 0.233267 * VLOG(AC)(-1) \\
 \quad + 0.105044 * VLOG(AC)(-2) - 0.657593 * SA(-1) - 0.222565 * VLOG(SA)(-2) \\
 \quad - 0.0078130 * VLOG(NV)(-1) - 0.0600037 * VLOG(NV)(-2) - 0.00291671 \\
 VLOG(NV) = 0.970659 * VLOG(TC)(-1) - 0.036026 * VLOG(TC)(-2) - 1.08938 * VLOG(AC)(-1) \\
 \quad - 0.53202 * VLOG(AC)(-2) - 1.85507 * VLOG(SA)(-1) - 2.07679 * VLOG(SA)(-2) \\
 \quad - 0.0997239 * VLOG(NV)(-1) - 0.30593 * VLOG(NV)(-2) - 0.0122083
 \end{cases}$$

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4.3.3 Analysis of impulse response and relative contribution

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The relationships among the variables were investigated by determining shocks in one variable and

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examining whether these shocks were transmitted to other variables. The aforementioned investigation

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was performed through impulse response analysis within the context of the VAR model.

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Results in [Figures 5](#) reveal that one of the four variables ($V\log(TC)$, $V\log(AC)$, $V\log(SA)$,

332

and $V\log(NV)$) had a significant initial effect on the other variables. The initial effects of

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$V\log(SA)$, and $V\log(NV)$ on other variables were marginally stronger and longer than those of

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$V\log(SA)$ and $V\log(NV)$ on other variables ([Figure 5](#)). This result indicates that the relationships

335 of sand area and vegetation coverage with the water consumption were significant. With the reduction of
336 sandy land converted into vegetation cover, then the increase of vegetation coverage will be the direct
337 factor causes the increase of water consumption. The change of sandy land area is an indirect factor. The
338 results show that the response of water consumption to the change of NDVI is relatively stronger.

339 Furthermore, $V\log(TC)$, $V\log(AC)$, and $V\log(SA)$ responded to a positive $V\log(NV)$
340 shock begin with the horizontal line and after one step for each point of the sample. Similarly, the
341 responses of $V\log(TC)$ and $V\log(AC)$ to a negative $V\log(SA)$ shock exhibited a lag of one
342 period. To some extent, water consumption and sand changes can be considered to respond to the
343 vegetation growth in the second year of growth. In other words, the vegetation has an impact on water
344 consumption and sand land after a certain period of growth and accumulation, which performed the
345 characteristic of lagging.

346 The responses of sandy land to other variables were very significant. No signs of decline were observed
347 over 10 periods, which proved that the responses of sandy land to other variables, especially water
348 consumption ($V\log(TC)$ and $V\log(AC)$), were sensitive and had long-term stability. The response
349 of $V\log(SA)$ to $V\log(NV)$ exhibited hysteresis loops and an increasing trend with time, which
350 may have a cumulative effect. Results indicate that the changes in the sandy land area may be negatively
351 affected by NDVI. Thus, the longer the NDVI continues to increase, the greater is its effect on the
352 transformations of the sandy land area.

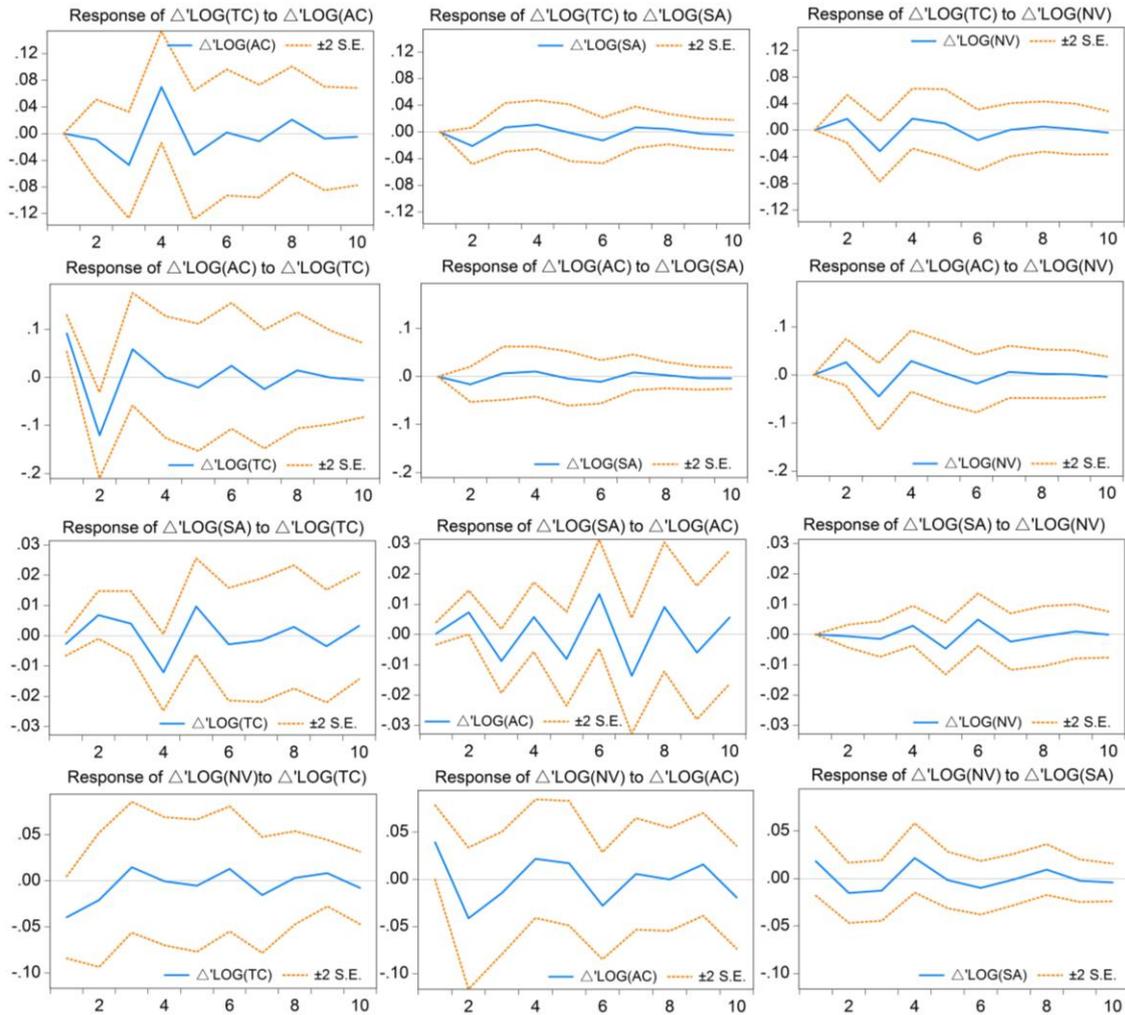


Fig.5 Impulse responses chart

The variance decomposition was employed to identify the proportion of variance in one variable caused by the innovations in other variables in a vector autoregressive (VAR) system. The variance decomposition results obtained in this study are presented in Table 4. Relatively, NDVI has a strong impact on the total water consumption and agricultural water consumption, which are about 8% and 9% respectively, and show an increasing trend with time. This also confirms the results of IRF, that the growth of vegetation coverage has a direct effect on water consumption.

It should be noted that sandy land area and NDVI are closely related to agricultural water consumption, which are shown in Table 4 and gradually increase with time. It is believed that the process of sandy land transforming into other land use types will have a significant impact on agricultural water consumption.

364 In ANS, all the water consumption of farmland, woodland and grassland belongs to agricultural water. It
365 can be concluded that the development and utilization measures of sand land in ANS area may be based
366 on large amount of water consumption. Thus, the growth of vegetation is based on investment in water
367 resources. This phenomenon may serve as a reminder that while various measures implemented for
368 combating desertification, it should be alert to the increase of water consumption, which may cause
369 further impact on water shortage areas. Therefore, the scientific management of water resources is an
370 effective strategy for transforming sandy land and achieving vegetation growth. To achieve sustainable
371 development of the local natural system, a balance must be realized among water resources, sandy land
372 area, and vegetation coverage.

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Table 4 Variance decomposition results (%)

Variance Decomposition of $V \log(TC)$					Variance Decomposition of AC			
Period	$V \log(TC)$	$V \log(AC)$	$V \log(SA)$	$V \log(NV)$	$V \log(TC)$	$V \log(AC)$	$V \log(SA)$	$V \log(NV)$
1	1	0	0	0	88.14	11.86	0.00	0.00
2	92.98	0.72	3.80	2.50	88.04	8.27	1.01	2.68
3	72.86	15.30	3.24	8.59	80.93	9.82	0.94	8.31
4	54.58	34.78	2.94	7.70	67.91	21.86	1.08	9.15
5	52.40	37.16	2.76	7.68	64.75	25.55	1.06	8.64
6	51.94	36.19	3.41	8.46	64.43	25.11	1.31	9.15
7	52.09	36.05	3.55	8.30	64.60	24.87	1.45	9.07
8	51.19	37.05	3.55	8.22	64.27	25.31	1.45	8.97
9	51.06	37.17	3.57	8.20	64.17	25.39	1.48	8.96
10	50.98	37.13	3.65	8.24	64.12	25.41	1.50	8.97
Variance Decomposition of $V \log(SA)$					Variance Decomposition of $V \log(NV)$			
Period	$V \log(TC)$	$V \log(AC)$	$V \log(SA)$	$V \log(NV)$	$V \log(TC)$	$V \log(AC)$	$V \log(SA)$	$V \log(NV)$
1	12.63	0.22	87.15	0.00	19.07	1892	4.04	0.57.98
2	29.58	29.16	41.10	0.16	18.72	30.74	5.29	45.24
3	24.98	46.21	27.94	0.87	18.10	28.41	5.92	47.58
4	45.46	34.27	17.97	2.30	16.59	29.65	8.95	44.80
5	46.47	34.20	14.46	4.87	16.08	30.52	8.60	44.80
6	36.15	46.19	11.18	6.48	15.89	33.13	8.53	42.45
7	29.83	55.18	9.17	5.82	17.13	32.77	8.39	41.72
8	28.17	57.90	8.55	5.38	17.09	32.55	8.90	41.47
9	27.94	58.35	8.47	5.24	17.16	33.40	8.73	40.70
10	27.81	58.88	8.26	5.06	17.04	34.72	8.60	39.64

387 5 Conclusions

388 China has been leading the growth of global greening after 2000 and contributes 25% of the net growth

389 in the global vegetation area. To explore the reasons behind, is the desertification control measures and

390 vegetation enhancement project have made steady achievements. For sandy land that has limited water
391 resources and is prone to a high degree of drought, measures, such as artificial vegetation, may lead to
392 the increase of water consumption and then a new crisis of desertification. While affirming the
393 achievements of sand utilization, there are many controversies exist regarding the advantages of turning
394 deserts green, especially considering the scarcity of water resources in these areas. Therefore, the long-
395 run and causal relationship between sandy land, water consumption and vegetation coverage are
396 necessary for explorations.

397 The ANS, located in the southern margin of the Mu Us desert of China, was taken as the study area in
398 this study. The interactions between sandy land, water consumption and NDVI over a period of 2000-
399 2018 were examined with VAR model. The results indicate that:

400 (1) The implementation of desertification control projects makes the ANS experienced frequent land
401 transformation and the sandy area decreased constantly. The main transferred-out type of sandy land was
402 grassland before 2010 and farmland after 2010.

403 (2) With significant increase, the NDVI ascend from 0.196 in 2000 to 0.371 in 2018 with a ratio of
404 89.3%. However, its spatial distribution was uneven. Especially in the area along the sandy land
405 distribution, the intensity of human disturbance is high, while the vegetation coverage is low. For further
406 sand control measures, ecological vulnerability should be considered scientifically.

407 (3) There existed long-term stable equilibrium and causal relationships among water consumption,
408 sandy land and NDVI. Relatively, NDVI has a strong impact on the water consumption and show an
409 increasing trend with time. The increase of NDVI may be the direct factor causes the increase of water
410 consumption, and the change of sandy land area is an indirect factor.

411 It could be concluded that the development and utilization measures of sand land in ANS area may be

412 based on large amount of water consumption. Thus, the growth of vegetation is based on investment in
413 water resources. This phenomenon may serve as a reminder that while various measures implemented
414 for combating desertification, it should be alert to the increase of water consumption, which may cause
415 further impact on water shortage areas. Therefore, the scientific management of water resources is an
416 effective strategy for transforming sandy land and achieving vegetation growth. To achieve sustainable
417 development of the local natural system, a balance must be realized among water resources, sandy land
418 area, and vegetation coverage.

419

420 **Declarations:**

421 **Ethics approval and consent to participate:** Not applicable.

422 **Consent for publication:** Not applicable.

423 **Availability of data and materials:** The datasets analyzed during the current study are available in the
424 following data sets. Xu Xinliang. Spatial distribution data set of monthly vegetation index (NDVI) in
425 China. Data registration and publishing system of resource and environmental science data center,
426 Chinese Academy of Sciences (<http://www.resdc.cn/DOI>),2018.DOI:10.12078/2018060602

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431 **Authors' contributions:** MZ and YW designed the concept and methodology developed in this article
432 and selected the case study, together with the other co-authors; SL prepared the initial draft manuscript
433 and analyzed the results under supervision of YW and PZ.; HL and RL made the final editing and revision

434 work. All authors read and approved the manuscript to submission.

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Figures

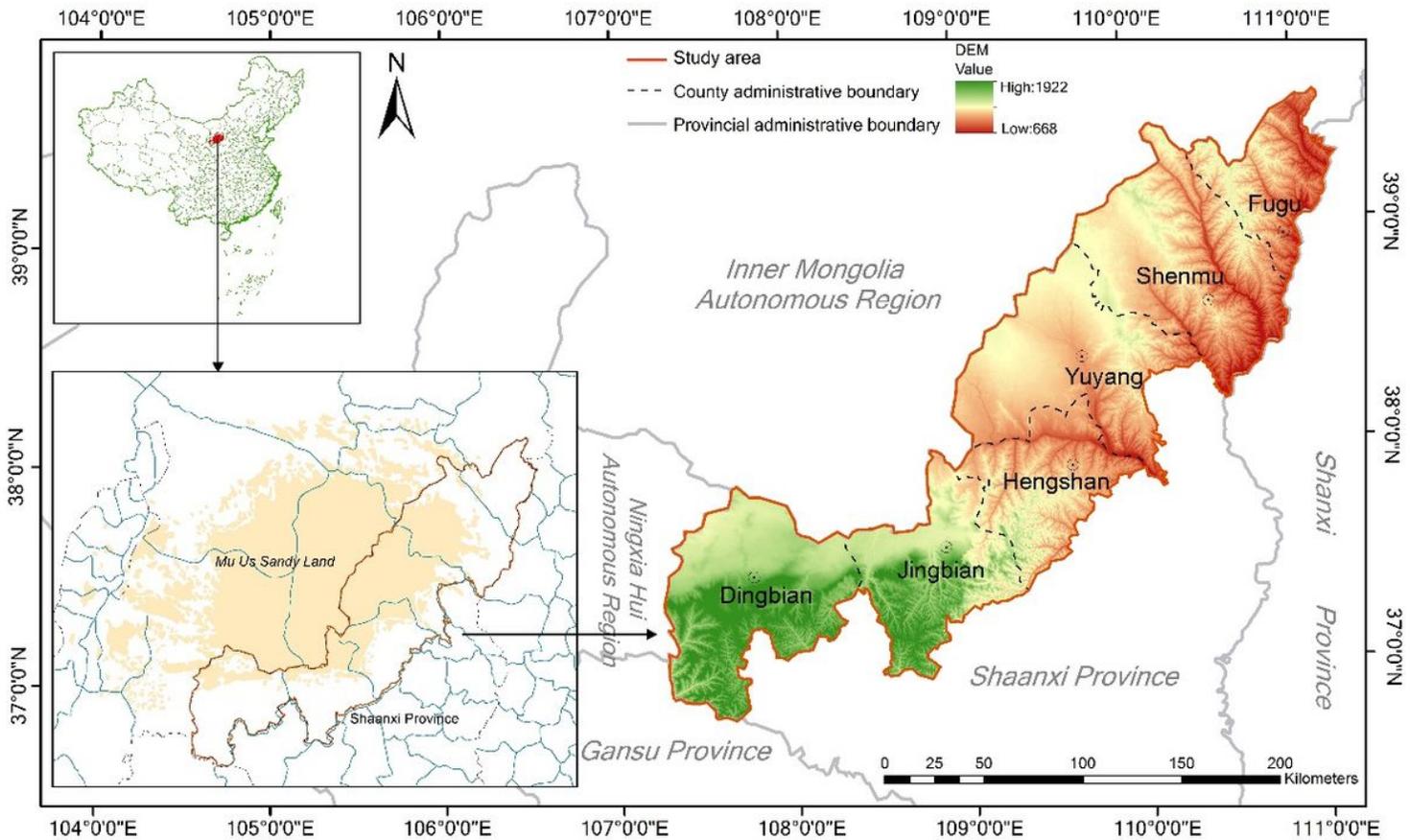


Figure 1

Location of the study area Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

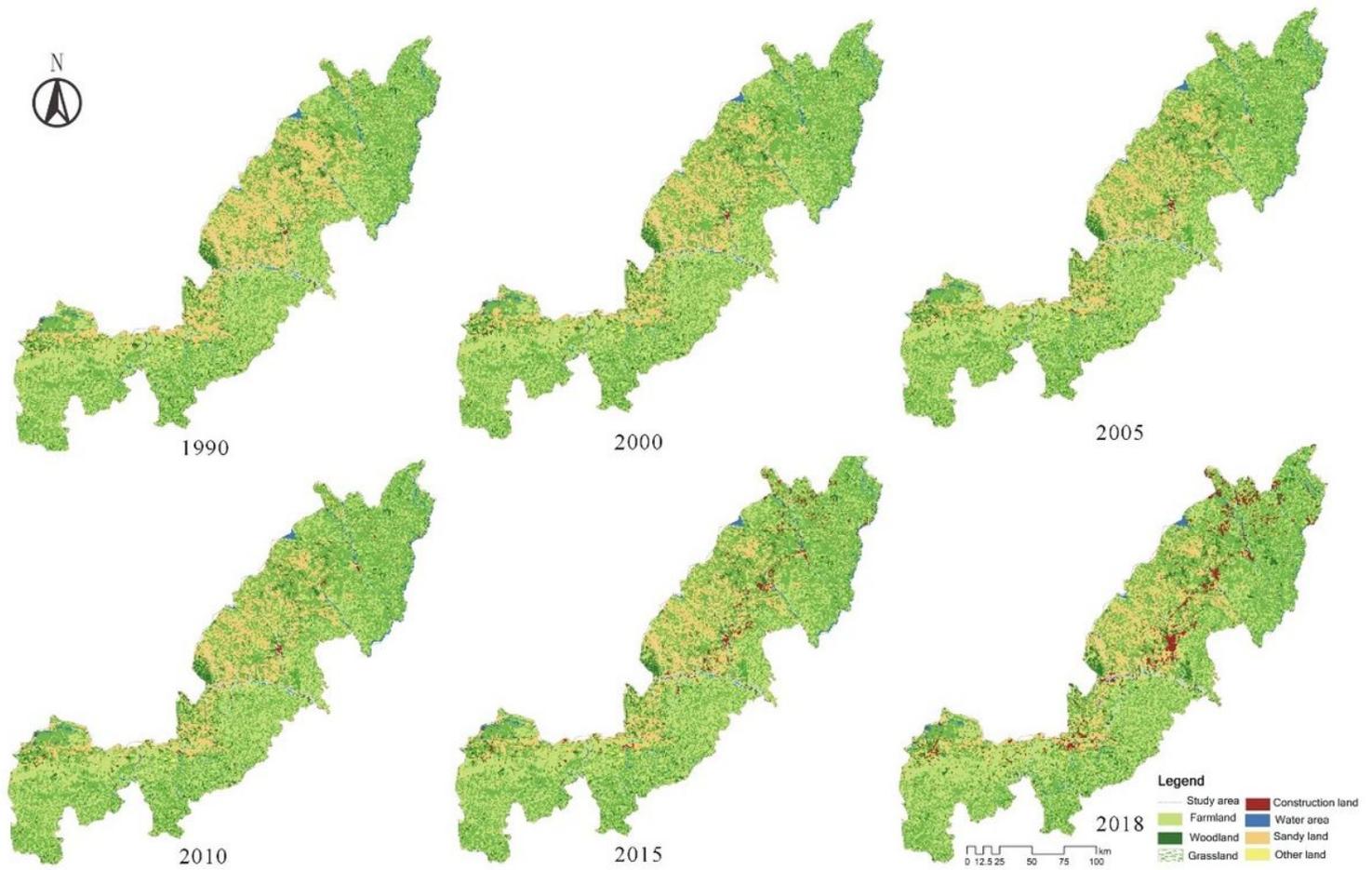


Figure 2

Land use maps of the study area from 1990 to 2018 Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

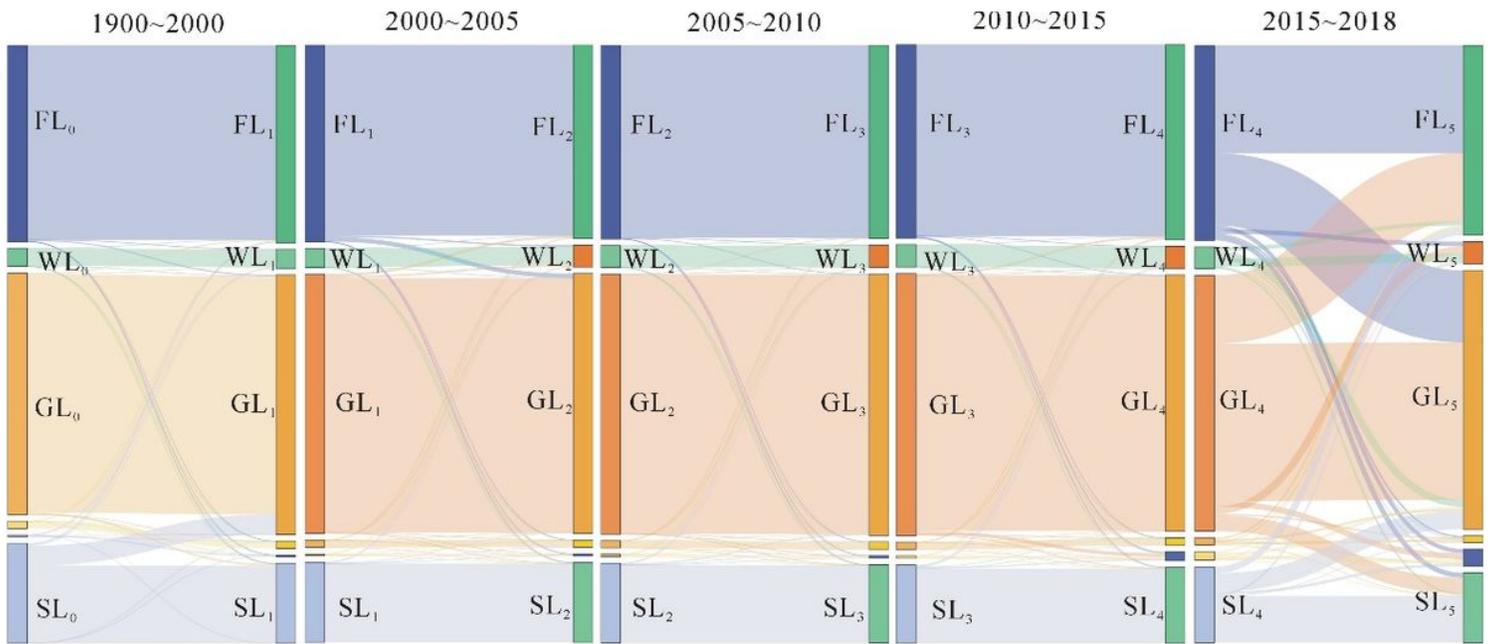


Figure 3

Sankey map of land use type conversion Note: FL denotes farmland, WL denotes woodland, GL denotes grassland, and SL denotes sandy land.

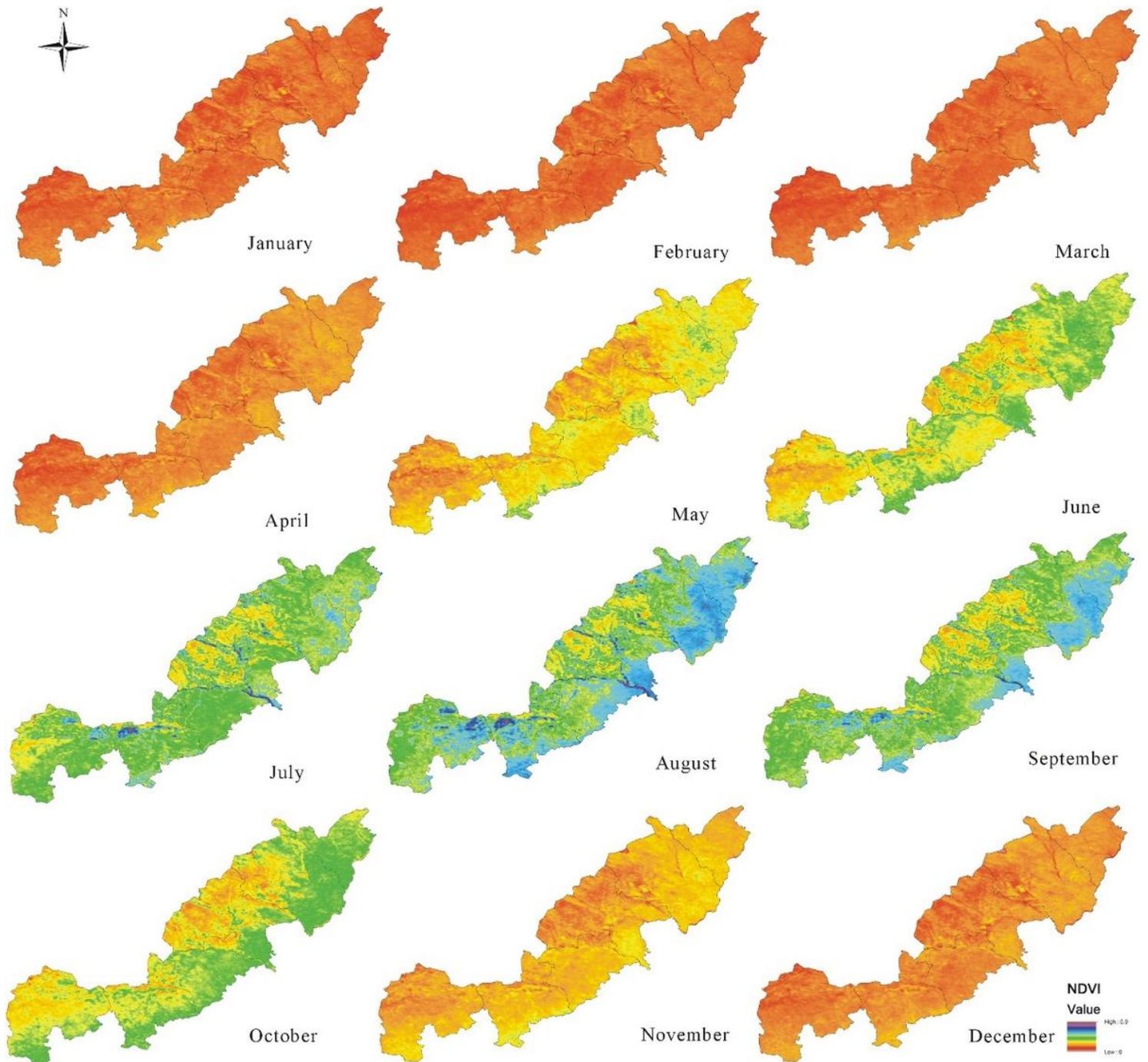


Figure 4

Distribution of the NDVI in the ANS within year Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

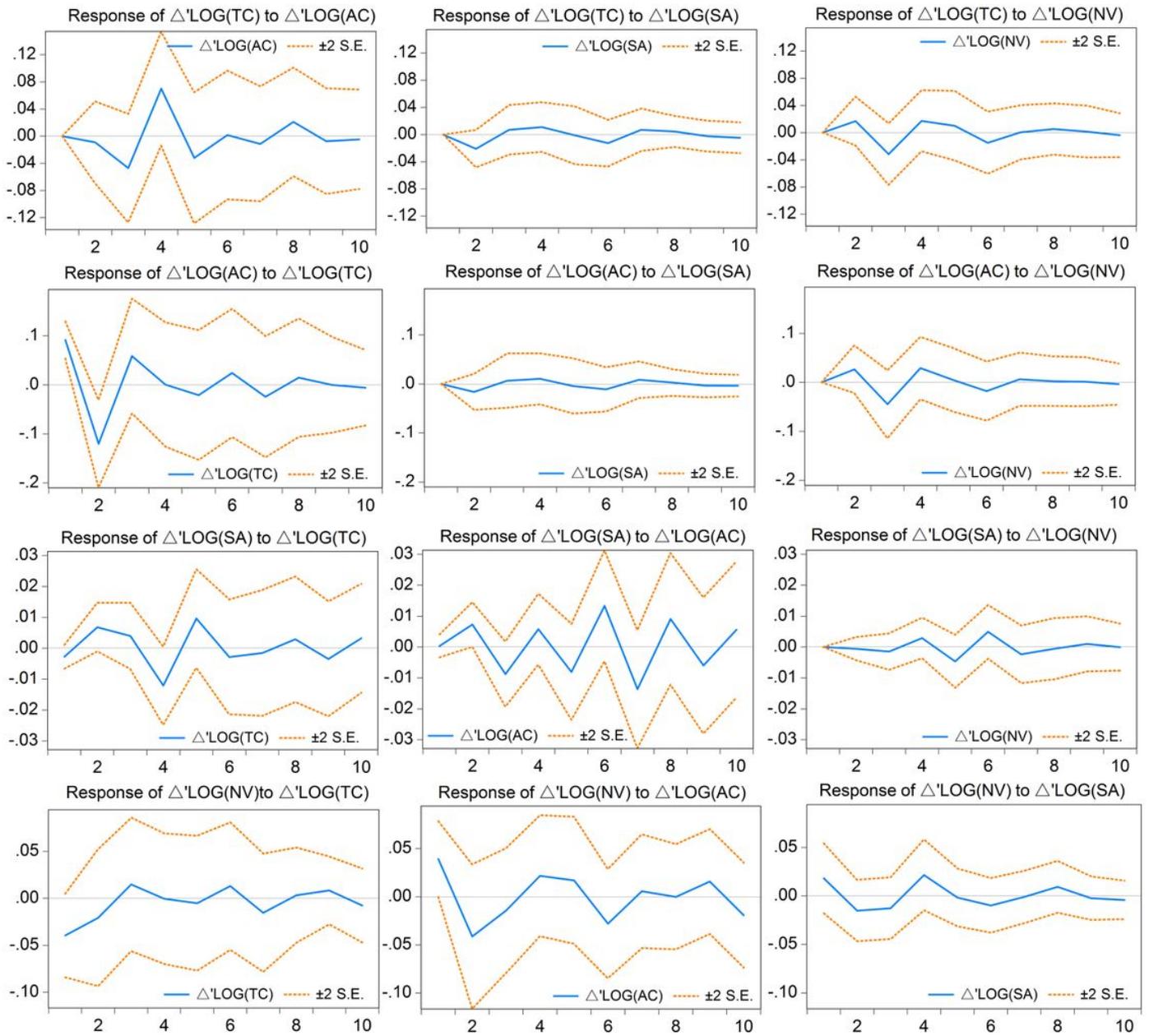


Figure 5

Impulse responses chart