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1 Changes of Forestland in China's Coastal Areas (1996-2015):
2 Regional Variations and Driving Forces

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Changes of Forestland in China's Coastal Areas (1996-2015): Regional Variations and Driving Forces

Abstract

Coastal forests play a critical role in the defence of natural disasters like typhoons and tsunamis. The deforestation and forest degradation due to rapid urbanization has presented great challenges (e.g. debris flows and floods) to China's coastal areas. Using a unique national land-use survey dataset and geographical information system (GIS)-based spatial analytics, including local Moran's I and geographically weighted regression (GWR), this paper investigates the regional variations and associated driving forces of forestland changes in China's coastal areas across three periods: 1996-2000, 2000-2008 and 2009-2015. The results suggest that the forestland has generally increased until 2008 and has decreased since 2009. Particularly, some counties in the south coast have higher degree of forestland loss during 1996-2008 and the growth of forestland after 2009 was only found in a few counties in the north and east coast. Also, the results indicate that the initial proportion of forestland in each period and the changes of arable-land have significant positive associations with the forestland changes across all the three periods, where the former mainly affects the northern coast while the latter has a primary influence in the southern coast. The findings suggest that government policies for increasing forestland such as the "Grain for Green" project were highly effective in China's coastal areas before 2008 but have shown less impact ever since. This research provides insights into the dynamics of forestland in China's coastal areas and can assist with future decision-making regarding forest resources protection and management.

Keywords: Forestland; Spatial Analysis; GWR; China; Coastal areas

50 **1 Introduction**

51 The land resources of China have undergone tremendous changes during the rapid
52 urbanization over the last few decades, largely due to the massive urban construction
53 involving transforming agricultural land (e.g. arable land, grassland and forestland) to
54 other land-uses such as industrial and property developments. For example, the arable
55 land in China has been reduced by about 8.27 million hectares (“ha”) during 1996-2005
56 when the urbanization rate has increased from 30.5% to 43.0% (National Bureau of
57 Statistics of China (NBSC), 2006). In particular, the deforestation and forest degradation
58 has seen serious consequences for the physical environment and ecosystem, including
59 increased carbon dioxide emissions, growth of endangered species, reduced biodiversity,
60 intensified soil degradation as well as many natural disasters like debris flows, droughts
61 and floods. For instance, the flow regimes (e.g. magnitude, return periods and duration)
62 of the Meijiang watershed, China, had been significantly altered by deforestation and the
63 recovery from such changes through reforestation took much longer than expected due
64 to consequent soil erosion (Liu et al., 2015). Deforestation was considered as one of the
65 major factors resulting in the devastating debris flow on 8th August 2010, in Zhouqu – a
66 small county in Gansu province, China (Ren, 2014). Given the ecological and economic
67 value of forestry, enhancing forest management and construction is of great importance
68 to both sustainable development and general well-being.

69 Since the 1990s, a range of laws and regulations, such as the New Land Administration
70 Law (1998) and the Forestry Law of the People's Republic of China (1998), have been
71 proposed and implemented for reinforcing forest protection and management (Wang et
72 al., 2012). Meanwhile, several major ecological construction projects were initiated for
73 afforestation and restoration of forests, such as the “Grain for Green” program beginning
74 in 1999 with the primary goal of restoring the desertification, salinization, soil erosion or
75 low-yield farmland to forests and pasture (Feng et al., 2005). As a result, the area of
76 forestland gradually increased, particularly in Western China. For example, the overall
77 restored farmland was about 6.51 million ha during 2000-2008 (Wang et al., 2018a). The
78 forestland area (% of total land area) of China has increased from 18.0% in 1996 to 26.7%
79 in 2015 (NBSC, 2016). However, the changes of forestland and forest-coverage have
80 varied across space and time. Brandt et al. (2012) found that the clearing of old-growth
81 forest had accelerated during 1999-2009 despite the increase of forest-cover rate in

82 northwest Yunnan, China. Wang et al. (2018b) indicated that although the national
83 forestland has an overall growth of 8.49 million ha during 1996-2008, it has declined in
84 some regions such as Tibet, Xinjiang and Inner Mongolia while expanding in some big
85 cities like Beijing, Shanghai and Chongqing, which could be attributed to the local physical
86 environment, economic growth and land-use policies. Therefore, clearly understanding
87 regional variations in forestland changes can better inform future decisions and improve
88 policy-making pertaining to forest resource management and development.

89 Most studies on forest dynamics have relied upon remote sensing images, such as those
90 from Landsat MultiSpectral Scanner (MSS)/Thematic Mapper (TM)/Enhanced Thematic
91 Mapper Plus (ETM+) sensors, to extract forest-cover information and detect the changes
92 between different periods (e.g. Clement et al., 2009; Brandt et al., 2012; Alix-Garcia et al.,
93 2016; Mas and Cuevas, 2016; Zhang et al.; 2016; Shirvani et al., 2017). Although such data
94 are easy to acquire and can cover a long-time period (for example, the Landsat images
95 have been available from 1972), the results are often subject to the resolution of the
96 sensors and the uncertainty of image interpretation. In comparison, detailed land survey
97 data collected by fieldwork are of higher accuracy and thus can better reflect the actual
98 forestland changes. However, this type of land survey is both expensive and time-
99 consuming particularly for large countries and regions. Over the last three decades, China
100 has completed two national land surveys in 1996 and 2009 respectively, covering around
101 2,800 counties, 43,000 towns and 740,000 villages (Wang et al., 2018a). The survey
102 contains information about the amount and location of each land-use type, as well as the
103 land ownership in each county, which have provided valuable land resources details in
104 China. Based on such data, Wang et al. (2012, 2018a) examined the changes of various
105 land-uses in China and the relationships with land policies and socio-economic activities.

106 When investigating the impact of potential driving forces on forestland/forest-cover
107 changes, many studies have employed global models such as multiple linear regression
108 (e.g. Wimberly and Ohmann, 2004; Brandt et al., 2012; Alix-Garcia et al., 2016). This type
109 of approach, however, cannot capture spatial variations of the relationships between the
110 response variable (e.g. land-use changes) and potential influencing factors (e.g.
111 population, slope and rainfall), which is usually the case for the changes of land resources
112 like forestland. In recent years, many scholars have attempted to analyze forest changes
113 using GWR, a local spatial modelling technique that accounts for varying spatial

114 relationships. It has been used in a variety of applications (e.g. Fotheringham et al., 2015;
115 Yao and Fotheringham, 2016) since the seminal work by Brunsdon et al. (1996), and has
116 been found in several studies on forestland/forest-cover changes to have a greater
117 explanatory power than global models like ordinary least squares (OLS) regression (e.g.
118 Clement et al., 2009; Jaimes et al., 2010; Mas and Cuevas, 2016; Shirvani et al., 2017).

119 As the interface between land and oceansphere, coastal areas are resource-rich but
120 ecologically fragile. Coastal forests play a critical role in the defence from natural
121 disasters like typhoons or tsunamis. Also, the coastal zone, especially in the Southeast
122 China, is the most rapidly developed and intensely urbanized area in China which has
123 several economic hubs such as the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) and the Pearl River Delta
124 (PRD) urban agglomerations. Thus, the assessment of forestland changes can provide
125 evidence to support sustainable development and urbanization in China's coastal areas.

126 The aim of this research is to explore regional variations of forestland changes in China's
127 coastal areas as well as to investigate the underlying driving forces. Specifically, using the
128 datasets from national land surveys and national land-use change surveys, GIS-based
129 spatial analyses including exploratory spatial data analysis (ESDA) and GWR are
130 employed to investigate the spatially varying patterns of forestland changes and
131 associated relationships with potential drivers across coastal provinces. Knowledge of
132 regional differences in forestland changes and driving forces can help develop region-
133 specific policies for future forestland management and development. To the best of our
134 knowledge, only Wang et al. (2012, 2018a, 2018b) used national land survey data to
135 investigate the land-use changes in China, but the analyses of forestland changes as well
136 as the influencing factors were essentially descriptive. In this regard, this research is the
137 first effort to quantify the spatially varying relationships between the forestland changes
138 in China and the potential drivers with a focus on the coastal areas.

139 **2 Materials and Methods**

140 *2.1 Data and Study Area*

141 The study area is located on China's coast, including eight provinces (Liaoning, Hebei,
142 Shandong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Fujian, Guangdong and Guangxi) and two municipalities
143 (Tianjin and Shanghai) (Figure 1) and covering an area of about 124.12 million ha (13.1%

144 of the total area of China). With the advantages of geographic location for foreign trade
145 and abundant natural resources, as well as driven by various preferential policies for
146 urban development, the coastal zone has led the urbanization and economic development
147 of China since the “reform and opening-up” in late 1970s and has attracted a large
148 number of migrant workers from the inland part of the country (Wu et al., 2007). In 2015,
149 the total population in the coastal zone was about 586.15 million (about 42.6% of China’s
150 total population) and contributed 57.1% of the national overall gross domestic product
151 (GDP) (NBSC, 2016). Meanwhile, the coastal region has been facing the challenges
152 presented by rapid urbanization such as metal contamination, water pollution and
153 landscape fragmentation (Lin et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2013). As important ecological and
154 economic resources, forestland and forests are crucial to the long-term sustainability of
155 China’s coastal areas.

156 <Figure 1 about here>

157 The forestland data used in this research come from two sources: national land survey
158 and national land-use change survey (Wang et al., 2012, 2018a), which were collected by
159 the Ministry of Land and Resources of China (known as China State Land Administration
160 Bureau before 1998). The land use information in the national land survey was mainly
161 extracted from high-resolution satellite images and aerial photographs, and then verified
162 and corrected by field surveys and paper maps produced using photogrammetric
163 methods. Comparatively, the national land-use change survey primarily relied upon field
164 survey.

165 Specifically, the dataset used here covers five years: 1996, 2000, 2008, 2009, 2015. The
166 data of 1996 and 2009 are from the first and second national land survey, respectively,
167 and the data of the other years are from the national land-use change survey. The
168 information of forestland and its changes was summarized for each county – the third-
169 level administrative division of China following provincial-(first) and prefectural-(second)
170 levels. Accounting for the time of the two national land surveys and the “Grain for Green”
171 project, the changes of forestland were considered over three periods here: 1996-2000
172 (period I, abbreviated as P-I), 2000-2008 (P-II) and 2009-2015 (P-III). Further, due to the
173 administrative division adjustment in 2009, two sets of spatial units were adopted in this
174 study, one for the first two periods including 720 counties and the other for the last

175 period containing 969 counties. Figure 1 shows the proportion of forestland within each
176 county in the study area in 2015. It can be observed that the areas on the north (eastern
177 Liaoning and northern Hebei) and south coast (Zhejiang, Fujian, Guangdong and Guangxi)
178 have relatively higher ratios of forestland than the other regions. Particularly, most
179 counties in Zhejiang, Fujian and Guangdong have over 50% land occupied by forests or
180 woods.

181 In terms of potential driving forces of forestland changes, a variety of socioeconomic,
182 geographical and policy factors have been examined by previous research (e.g. Clement
183 et al., 2009; Jaimes et al., 2010; Brandt et al., 2012; Mas and Cuevas, 2016; Shirvani et al.,
184 2017). For instance, it was found that topography (e.g. elevation and slope) could
185 significantly affect deforestation (Mas and Cuevas, 2016). The growth of other types of
186 land-uses like residential and cultivated land were considered closely related to the
187 decline of forestry (Shirvani et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018a). Accounting for previous
188 findings as well as the reality of China, such as the changes of arable land associated with
189 the “Grain for Green” project (Wang 2018a), and after an initial exploratory analysis of
190 correlation and collinearity between variables, six factors were selected in this research.
191 The data for the selected covariates were obtained from local statistical yearbooks for the
192 study periods, as described in Table 1.

193 <Table 1 about here>

194 *2.2 Spatial Analysis*

195 ESDA and spatial regression were utilized in this research. First, regional variations of
196 forestland changes were explored by choropleth mapping – a straightforward way to
197 visualize spatial data, followed by spatial cluster analysis using Local Moran’s I. Then, the
198 spatial relationships of forestland changes and potential drivers was investigated by the
199 GWR approach. Those analyses were implemented with several software tools. Local
200 Moran’s I was calculated using GeoDa, a free opensource software for spatial data analysis
201 (Anselin and Rey, 2014). GWR analysis was carried out in GWR4
202 (<http://gwr.maynoothuniversity.ie/gwr4-software/>). The commercial GIS software,
203 ArcGIS (version 10.3, ESRI, Redlands, California, USA), was used for data management,
204 processing and visualization.

205 2.2.1 ESDA

206 The choropleth maps were generated to show the spatial distribution of forestland
207 changes across the counties in the study area. The value mapped for each county is the
208 average annual proportion of forestland change, which can be derived by (1):

209
$$\Delta p_i = (p_{i,t_{END}} - p_{i,t_{BEG}})/(t_{END} - t_{BEG}) \quad (1)$$

210 where i denotes a county, t_{BEG} and t_{END} are the first and the last years of a period,
211 respectively, and $p_{i,t_{END}}$ and $p_{i,t_{BEG}}$ are percentages of the forestland in county i for years
212 t_{BEG} and t_{END} accordingly. Thus, Δp_i was calculated for every county within the study area
213 and for every period under concern. It should be noted that although the forestland
214 changes are averaged over a certain period here, such changes could have occurred in
215 only one year or a few years of the period under concern.

216 Instead of the entire coastal region, of particular interest are the areas with statistically
217 significant forestland changes. This was achieved with the Local Moran's I, which is an
218 indicator of spatial association and usually applied in spatial cluster analysis to examine
219 patterns of observation distribution over geographic space. It was utilized in this study
220 to identify spatial clusters of areas (i.e. counties) with significantly high growth or loss of
221 forestland. The Local Moran's I associated with county i , I_i , is calculated by the formula in
222 (2) (Anselin, 1995):

223
$$I_i = \left(\frac{nz_i}{\sum_i z_i^2} \right) \sum_j w_{ij} z_j \quad \text{with} \quad z_i = x_i - \bar{X} \quad (2)$$

224 where n is the total number of counties in the study area, x_i is the forestland change (%)
225 within a period (calculated as, take P-I as an example, the percentage of forestland in
226 2000 minus that in 1996), \bar{X} is the average of all x_i s, and w_{ij} is a spatial weight
227 representing the spatial relationship between counties i and j . As there are many islands
228 in the coastal region, the K -nearest-neighbors method was adopted to construct spatial
229 weights so that every county would have the same number (K) of neighbors. If only
230 considering the contiguous counties, both the average and median number of neighbors
231 defined by spatial contiguity is five and therefore adopted as the value of K in the spatial
232 weight calculation. Similar to Δp_i , I_i was calculated for each period for county i .

233 2.2.2 GWR

234 The GWR model can be defined as in (3) (Fotheringham et al., 2002):

235
$$y_i = \beta_{i0} + \sum_k \beta_{ik} x_{ik} + \varepsilon_i \quad (3)$$

236 where again for county i , y_i is defined same as the x_i in (2), β_{i0} is the constant, x_{ik} is the
237 value of the k th covariate, β_{ik} is the regression coefficient associated with x_{ik} , and ε_i is
238 the random error. Unlike the parameters in global regression models, β_{ik} (also β_{i0}) in (3)
239 is a function of the geographic location of county i , allowing the relationships between
240 forestland changes and potential drivers to vary over geographic space. Specifically, a
241 local model is fitted for each county with a subset of proximate counties which are
242 weighted using a spatial kernel function. The local estimates for county i , are calculated
243 by (4) if using matrix representation (Fotheringham et al., 2002):

244
$$\hat{\beta}(i) = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}(i) \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W}(i) \mathbf{Y} \quad (4)$$

245 where $\mathbf{W}(i)$ is a diagonal matrix with the element w_{ij} indicating the weight of county j
246 with regards to county i (i.e. the regression point).

247 Considering the varying size of different counties, an adaptive spatial kernel was used in
248 this research where the nearest K counties (neighbors) would be included in local model
249 calibration. The optimal bandwidth (i.e. K) was selected by the small-sample-size
250 corrected version of Akaike information criterion (AICc) (Fotheringham et al., 2002).
251 Specifically, the bi-square function expressed in (5) was used to define the spatial kernel:

252 Bi-square weighting function:
$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} [1 - (d_{ij}/b)^2]^2 & \text{if } d_{ij} < b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

253 where b is the distance to the K th nearest county and d_{ij} is the distance between counties
254 i and j . The function in (5) is preferred here as it is reasonable to consider the influence
255 of the counties beyond the bandwidth negligible given the spatial extent of the study area.

256 The statistical significance of local estimates was determined with the adjusted critical t -
257 value proposed by Byrne et al. (2009) to address the multiple hypothesis testing problem*.
258 Further, the local variability of each covariate was tested by comparing the interquartile
259 range (IQR) of local estimates and the standard errors (SE) of global estimates from the
260 OLS regression. In other words, the relationship between forestland changes and a
261 covariate can be considered spatially nonstationary if the associated IQR is larger than
262 $2*SE$ (Fotheringham et al., 2002).

263 Considering the high skewness of data distribution, the absolute value of forestland
264 changes (either gain or loss of forestland), i.e., the degree or level of forestland changes,
265 was used here as the dependent variable (denoted by $|y_i|$ in (6)), and accordingly, the
266 absolute changes of population density and arable land were used here. The natural
267 logarithm transformation was employed to improve the linearity of the relationships
268 between the forestland changes and potential influential factors, as well as to meet the
269 assumptions on the error term in linear regression. As a result, the GWR model adopted
270 in this research was formulated as in (6):

$$\ln|y_i| = \beta_{i0} + \beta_{i1} \ln(FL_BASE) + \beta_{i2} \ln(POPDEN) + \beta_{i3} \ln(ELEV) + \beta_{i4} \ln(SLOPE) + \beta_{i5} \ln(RAIN) + \beta_{i6} \ln(ARABLE) + \varepsilon_i \quad (6)$$

273 Similarly, in total three GWR models were fitted with one for each period. For the
274 comparison purpose, the corresponding OLS regression models were also implemented
275 with the same set of data and variables.

276 **3 Results**

277 *3.1 Regional Variations of Forestland Changes*

278 Considering the overall changes of forestland in the entire coastal region over the three
279 periods, the forestland has been increased by 39,600 ha in P-I and 267,400 ha in P-II,
280 while has been reduced by 314,000 ha in P-III. However, the changes within each county
281 varied over both space and time, as shown in Figure 2. For all three periods, the growth
282 of forestland was largely within 0.5%, and most decline was within 0.1%. Compared to

* The adjusted t -values were calculated based on the Fotheringham-Byrne procedure using the function `gwr.t.adjust` in the R package `GWmodel` (<https://www.rdocumentation.org/packages/GWmodel/versions/2.1-4/topics/gwr.t.adjust>).

283 the first two periods, P-III only saw a few counties with an increase of forestland, largely
284 located in Jiangsu, Shandong, Hebei and Liaoning. Further, more spatial variations in
285 forestland changes can be observed in P-II than in P-I and P-III, with more counties having
286 a higher degree of forestland gain (e.g. as high as 8.0%) or loss (e.g. as low as -6.7%)
287 particularly in Zhejiang, Guangdong and Guangxi. In contrast, the counties in Fujian had
288 become more similar in terms of forestland changes over time.

289 <Figure 2 about here>

290 Further, four categories of local clusters with significant (p -value < 0.05) forestland
291 changes are presented in Figure 3. The first two types consist of the counties with similar
292 values of forestland changes, which in Figure 3 are denoted by high-high (in red) and low-
293 low (in blue) areas, respectively. That is, a county within a high-high (or low-low) cluster
294 has a relatively high (or low) proportion of forestland change, and so are the surrounding
295 counties (neighbors). In contrast, the other two types include the counties with very
296 different forestland changes from the proximate counties, which in Figure 3 are indicated
297 by high-low (in pink) and low-high (in light-blue) areas. In other words, a county within
298 a high-low (or low-high) cluster has a relatively high (or low) ratio of forestland change
299 while the value of which is relatively low (or high) for its neighbors.

300 <Figure 3 about here>

301 As seen in Figure 3, the spatial distribution of local clusters has varied across the three
302 periods. Across the study area, there were much fewer clusters on the east coast (Jiangsu,
303 Zhejiang and Fujian) in P-III compared to the previous two periods. The locations of local
304 clusters also vary across time. For example, the high-high clusters were mainly located in
305 the south in P-I, in the east in P-II and in the north in P-III. The low-low clusters were
306 largely situated in the south in P-I and P-III, but in the northeast and southeast in P-II.
307 Local clusters also have varied over space and time within several provinces. Take
308 Liaoning province as an example, few clusters were found for the first two periods, but
309 all four types of clusters were observed for the last period. In contrast, for Zhejiang and
310 Fujian, several clusters were found for P-I and P-II, but less or no clusters were identified
311 for P-III. There are no significant local clusters found for the two municipalities Tianjin
312 and Shanghai. Also, a county can belong to different types of clusters in different periods.

313 For instance, the low-high cluster in east Liaoning in P-I became a high-low cluster in P-
314 III, implying different patterns of forestland change in the two periods.

315 *3.2 Spatially Varying Relationships between Forestland Changes and Driving Forces*

316 First, the coefficient estimates for the global regression models are presented in Table 2.
317 According to the R^2 , the performance of the model for P-III is better than those for P-I and
318 P-II, in which the covariates explain about 60% of the variations in the dependant
319 variable (i.e. the degree of forestland change). The significance of the covariates varies
320 across the three models. Only the coefficient estimates for FL_BASE and ARABLE are
321 significant and both positive, implying that the degree of forestland changes and the
322 forestland at the beginning of a period (also the changes of arable land - in absolute value)
323 will vary in the same direction, *ceteris paribus*. That is, if a county had a larger percentage
324 of forestland in 1996, it would have a higher degree of forestland change (either increase
325 or decline) in P-I. Similarly, if a country had a higher level of arable-land change during
326 1996-2000, it would also have a higher level of forestland change in P-II, where the
327 changes for both types of land can be either an increase or a decline. The elevation (ELEV)
328 does not have a significant impact on the forestland changes in all the three models. The
329 rest of the covariates demonstrate a significant affect in one or two periods but not the
330 other(s). For example, both slope (SLOPE) and average precipitation (RAIN) show a
331 negative association with the forestland changes only in P-III.

332 <Table 2 about here>

333 Further, the statistics of local estimates for the GWR models, as well as the results of
334 geographical variability tests, are given in Table 3. For each covariate, instead of a single
335 coefficient estimate from a global model, a set of local estimates varying with the
336 geographical locations of the counties were derived from GWR. For example, the global
337 estimate for ARABLE is 0.15 for P-I while the local estimates for the same period ranges
338 from 0.05 to 0.44. Also, the geographical variability of the covariates varies across the
339 three periods. For example, all the covariates except RAIN have significant local
340 variability in P-I, but only two variables, FL_BASE and ARABLE, consistently have
341 significant spatially varying relationships with forestland changes over time. Again,
342 compared to the OLS regression, the differences of the AICc values for the two types of
343 models at the bottom of Table 3 suggest that GWR performs better in explaining the

344 relationships between forestland changes and the associated covariates, although the
345 advantage of GWR over OLS is weaker for the two models of P-I and P-II.

346 <Table 3 about here>

347 As both of them have significant global estimates and geographical variability, FL_BASE
348 and ARABLE are selected for further exploration of the spatial distribution of their local
349 estimates, which are depicted by Figures 4 and 5, respectively. As can be seen in Figure 4,
350 the significant local estimates of FL_BASE have distinct spatial patterns for the three
351 periods, which are primarily located in the north in P-I and P-II, and covers most of the
352 study area except Fujian and Guangxi in P-III. Also, although all the significant local
353 estimates of FL_BASE indicate a positive association between the level of forestland
354 changes and the initial proportion of forestland in each period, the strength of that
355 relationship varies across space. For example, the ratio of forestland in 1996 has a
356 stronger impact on the forestland change in P-I for the counties in Tianjin and central
357 Hebei. But in P-III, more impact of the proportion of forestland in 2009 was found in east
358 Shandong. Compared with P-I and P-III, P-II has fewer significant local estimates of
359 FL_BASE for which there is also less variation in the values, indicating that in P-II the
360 forestland (%) in 2000 does not have a significant impact on the forestland changes in
361 most counties.

362 <Figure 4 about here>

363 In terms of the impact of arable-land changes, Figure 5 indicates that P-I and P-II have a
364 similar spatial distribution of the significant local estimates of ARABLE, with higher
365 values mainly located in the south and lower values in the north. Similar to FL_BASE, the
366 levels of forestland and arable-land changes are positively correlated, which implies that
367 a higher (or lower) degree of forestland change is associated with a higher (or a lower)
368 level of arable-land change. Compared with P-I and P-II, only a few counties show a
369 significant relationship between the changes of forestland and arable-land, which are
370 located in Liaoning, Jiangsu and Guangxi – very different from the patterns in the previous
371 two periods. Among the coastal zones, it seems only the foreland changes in some
372 counties in Guangxi have been consistently affected by the arable-land changes across the
373 three periods.

374

<Figure 5 about here>

375 **4 Discussion**

376 The above results indicate that both forestland changes and the relationships with
377 associated driving factors demonstrate spatially varying patterns. The forestland has
378 generally increased until 2008 and has decreased since 2009. Particularly, some counties
379 in the south coast have higher degree of forestland loss during 1996-2008 and the growth
380 of forestland after 2009 was only found in a few counties in the north and east coast. Also,
381 two factors, the initial proportion of forestland in each period and the changes of arable-
382 land, show significant positive associations with the forestland changes across all the
383 three periods, where the former mainly affects the northern coast while the latter has a
384 primary influence in the southern coast.

385 In general, the changes of forestland can be considered as a response to the national
386 policies in recent years. For example, the overall increase of forestland between 1996-
387 2008 could be attributed to the strong enforcement of relevant laws and regulations on
388 agricultural land protection (Wang et al., 2012; Song and Pijanowski, 2014; Feng et al.,
389 2015). There has been massive growth of forestland nationwide since the “Grain for
390 Green” project (Feng et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2018a), and the overall forestland in China
391 increased by 15.97 million ha during 2000-2008 (NBSC, 2009). The decrease of
392 forestland after 2008 could be related to the Cultivated Land Balance programs where
393 forestland was converted to arable land to maintain the quantity of the latter (Song and
394 Pijanowski, 2014; Wang et al., 2018a).

395 Local policies at the province level also have played an important role in forestland
396 changes in different regions. For example, the strong policies on forestland protection
397 and afforestation of Zhejiang province can help explain the significant increase of
398 forestland between 2000 and 2008 (see Figure 2). In 1999, Zhejiang first started the
399 construction of key non-commercial forests through afforestation, replanting and
400 converting farmland to forests, which has effectively protected the forests within the
401 region (Ministry of Land and Resources, 2016). Meanwhile, a green belt of ten thousand
402 kilometres has been promoted in Zhejiang since 2000 (Ministry of Land and Resources,
403 2016). As a result, the overall area of forestland restored from farmland in Zhejiang was
404 nearly 30 times that of the Fujian province and six times that of the Guangdong province

405 in that period (2000-2008) (Ministry of Land and Resources, 2016). The growth of
406 forestland in Hebei during 2009-2015 (see Figure 3) can be attributed to the reform of
407 collective forest property beginning in 2006 in the province, which has greatly
408 encouraged local farmers to participate in forest management and construction and
409 produced an afforestation area of 253 km^2 in 2010 (Xinhua News Agency, 2010).

410 Further, the spatial heterogeneity of the roles of various influencing factors can be linked
411 to national policies and local topographical conditions. For instance, the arable-land
412 changes during 2000-2008 had strong association with the forestland changes (mainly in
413 Guangdong and Guangxi) in the same period (see Figure 5), which became less significant
414 during 2009-2015, probably indicating a reduced impact of the “Grain for Green” project
415 in the coastal region after ten years since its introduction. This is also reflected by an
416 overall decrease of forestland in P-III (see Figure 2). In particular, Figure 5 suggests that
417 the changes of arable-land and forestland between 1995 and 2008 in Guangxi province
418 were significantly correlated. The main reason could be that Guangxi is a mainly
419 mountainous region and a large amount of sloping cultivated land that is not suitable for
420 farming has been converted to forestland, leading to the reduction of arable land and the
421 increase of forestland in Guangxi particularly since 2002. For example, about 2,327 km^2
422 arable land was restored to forestland in Guangxi during 2001-2010 (Ministry of Land
423 and Resources, 2016). In contrast, in some coastal provinces such as Zhejiang and Fujian,
424 some restored farmland was also converted to lakes and other land uses in addition to
425 forestland (Ministry of Land and Resources, 2016). As a result, little significant
426 association between the changes of arable land and forestland was observed in those
427 provinces (see Figure 5).

428 Regarding policy implications, some suggestions can be derived from the findings of this
429 research. First, given the different values of ecological service functions of forestland in
430 different coastal regions, which are higher in the south and lower in the north, there is an
431 urgent need to develop and implement distinct regional ecosystem management strategy
432 customized for different coastal regions. Similarly, the national eco-compensation
433 schemes should develop region-specific policies, accounting for the spatial heterogeneity
434 in the ecological service functions of forest land. Finally, the legislation of eco-
435 compensation is necessary for providing a fixed source of funds through environmental
436 and carbon taxes, therefore promoting the sustainability of forestland.

437 There are several areas worth of further research. First, more variables can be
438 incorporated into the GWR analyses to account for other factors contributing to the
439 forestland changes, such as the investment in forestry construction and governmental
440 subsidies for the “Grain for Green” project if the data are available. Second, instead of all
441 forestland changes, separate regression analysis can be run for afforestation and
442 deforestation, respectively, which can involve different set of driving forces. Third,
443 further analysis can be carried out for different types of forestry (e.g. shrubs and trees)
444 separately rather than all of them as done in this work. Fourth, in addition to its area, how
445 the functionality, particularly the ecosystem service capacity of forestland, as well as its
446 role in regional ecosystem, has changed over space and time deserves further
447 investigation. Finally, the temporal dimension can be integrated into the regression
448 analysis to account for the temporal associations of forestland changes between different
449 years if more data can be collected.

450 **5 Conclusions**

451 Using detailed land survey data, this research explored the regional variations of
452 forestland changes in China’s coastal areas over three periods during 1996-2015 and
453 investigated the potential driving forces using GIS-based spatial analysis. The results
454 suggest that there were significant spatial variations in the forestland changes across the
455 twenty-year period of study, and the relationships between forestland changes and
456 possible influencing factors also varied over space and time. In particular, the initial
457 proportion of forestland in each period and the changes of arable-land were found to have
458 significant positive associations with the forestland changes across all the three periods,
459 although with very different spatial patterns. The findings suggest that government
460 policies for increasing forestland such as the “Grain for Green” project were highly
461 effective in China’s coastal areas before 2008 but have shown less impact ever since.

462 Sustainable use and management of various land resources like forestland is central to
463 addressing the conflict between the limited natural resources and the demand from
464 economic development. As a primary type of ecological land-use, forestland is of
465 fundamental importance to long-term sustainable development. Given the spatial
466 inequality in forestland distribution, understanding regional variations of forestland
467 changes and the potential drivers remains crucial for developing region-specific policies

468 for effective forestland management and protection, for which spatial analysis techniques
469 like ESDA and spatial regression can be powerful tools.

470 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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554 Figure 1 Study area and the percent of forestland in 2015

555 Figure 2 Average annual change of forestland (in %)

556 Figure 3 Local cluster maps of forestland changes

557 Figure 4 Significant local estimates of FL_BASE

558 Figure 5 Significant local estimates of ARABLE

559 Table 1 Description of covariates in the GWR models

Covariates	Description
FL_BASE	Proportion of forestland in the beginning year of a period (in %)
POPDEN	Change of population density within a period (e.g. 1996-2000) (in 1,000 people/km ²)
ELEV	Proportion of land with an elevation higher than 100 m (in %)
SLOPE	Proportion of land with a slope larger than 25 degree (in %)
RAIN	Average annual rainfall within a period (ranging from 0 to 20 with higher values indicating more rainfall)
ARABLE	Change of proportion of arable-land within a period (in %)

560

Table 2 Global estimates from OLS regression

Covariate	P-I	P-II	P-III
Constant	-4.09*	-2.37*	-1.67*
FL_BASE	0.87*	0.46*	0.63*
POPDEN	0.15*	0.03	0.11*
ELEV	-0.02	-0.05	0.03
SLOPE	-0.13	0.02	-0.13*
RAIN	-0.15	0.26	-0.62*
ARABLE	0.15*	0.12*	0.07*
R²	0.28	0.21	0.57

*: p -value < 0.05

Table 3 Local estimates from GWR and geographical variability of the covariates

Covariate	P-I				P-II				P-III			
	Min	Max	Median	Geographical Variability	Min	Max	Median	Geographical Variability	Min	Max	Median	Geographical Variability
Constant	-7.87	3.60	-2.57	√	-11.07	39.35	0.04	√	-60.60	95.23	-3.12	√
FL_BASE	0.52	1.29	1.00	√	-1.12	1.23	0.45	√	-0.26	2.70	0.72	√
POPDEN	-0.08	0.74	0.13	√	-0.15	0.15	0.02		-0.44	0.85	0.06	√
ELEV	-0.47	0.23	-0.10	√	-2.18	0.42	-0.05		-2.48	0.66	0.00	
SLOPE	-0.73	0.33	-0.09	√	-0.54	2.07	0.01		-1.48	1.22	-0.20	
RAIN	-3.39	1.95	-0.52		-13.72	4.67	-0.82	√	-41.68	28.01	-0.73	√
ARABLE	0.05	0.44	0.15	√	-0.02	0.70	0.20	√	-0.19	0.90	0.10	√
Bandwidth			234				157				91	
R²	OLS		0.28				0.21				0.57	
	GWR		0.36				0.41				0.81	
AICc	OLS		3456.86				3297.05				4180.24	
	GWR		3445.89				3204.32				3838.63	
Difference of AICc (GWR - OLS)			-10.97				-92.73				-341.61	

Figure 1 Study area and the percent of forestland in 2015

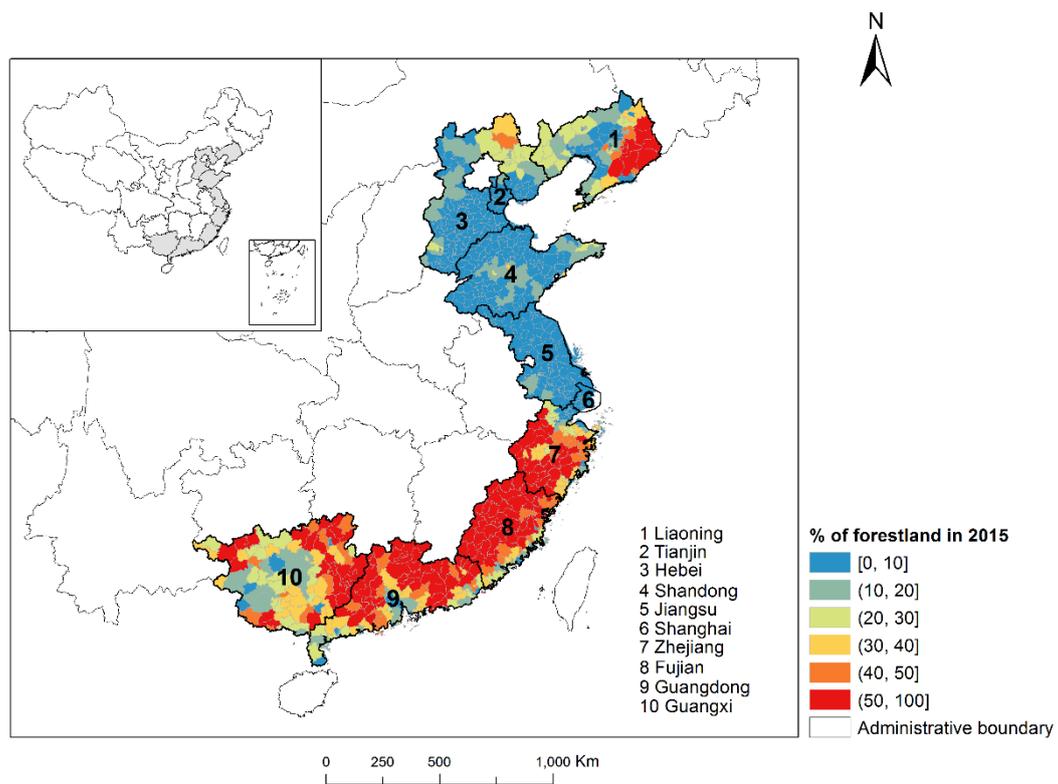


Figure 2 Average annual change of forestland (in %)

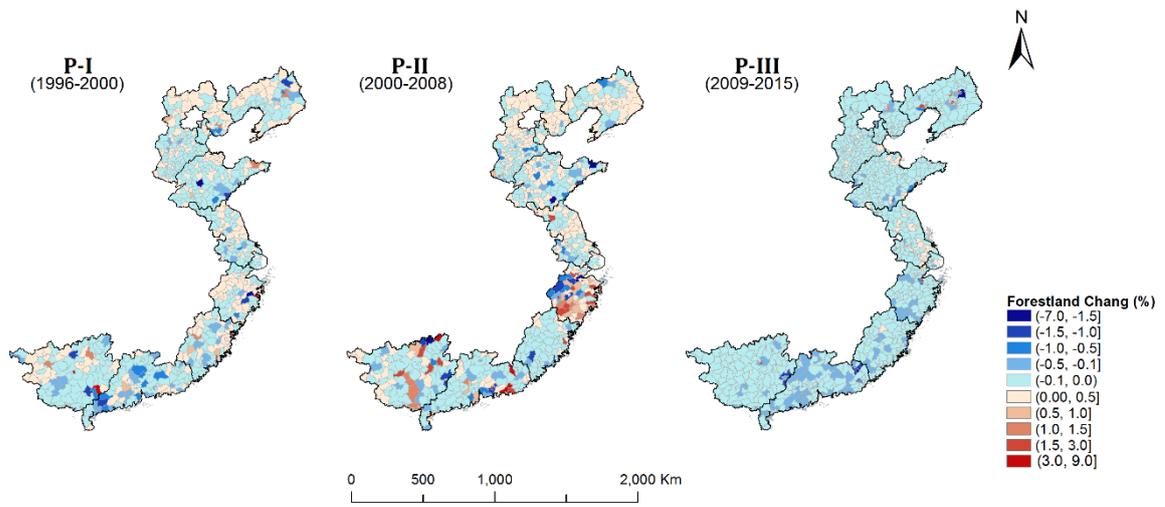


Figure 3 Local cluster maps of forestland changes

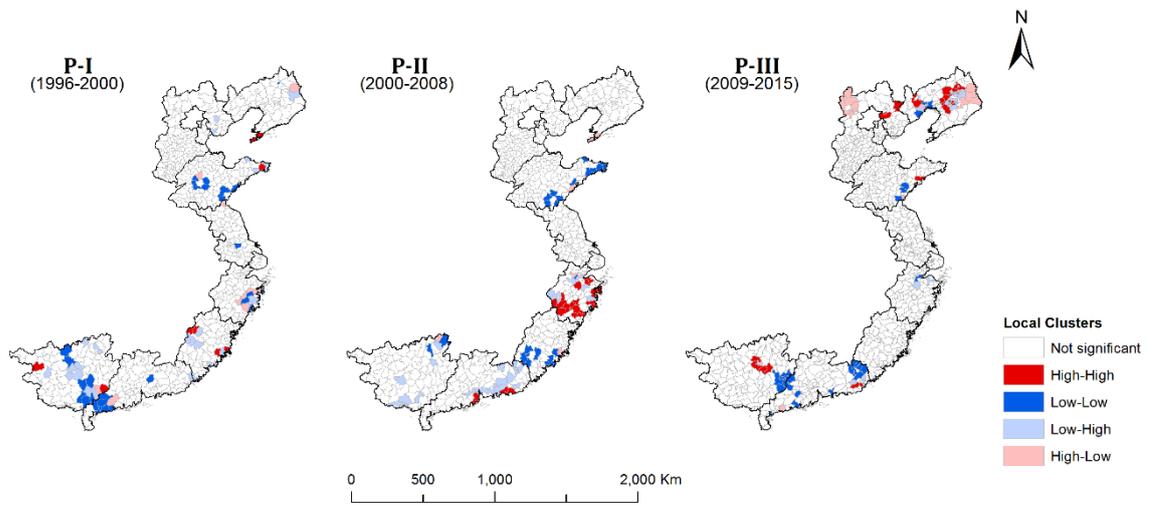


Figure 4 Significant local estimates of FL_BASE

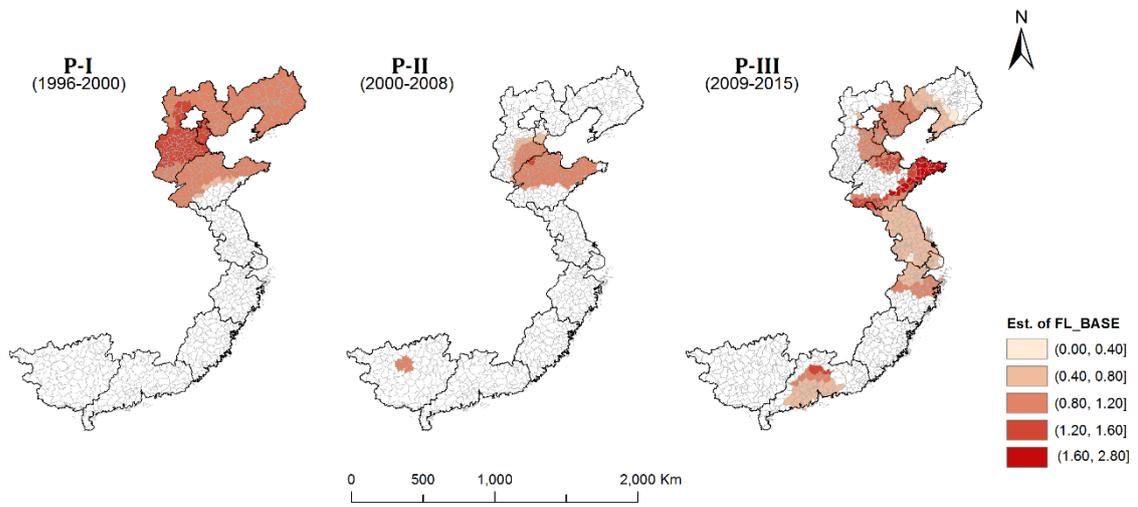


Figure 5 Significant local estimates of ARABLE

