

Research Article

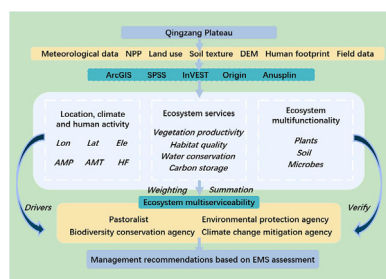
Dynamics and controls of ecosystem multiserviceability across the Qingzang Plateau

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Ecosystem multiserviceability of the Qingzang Plateau was quantified.
- Spatial-temporal patterns of ecosystem multiserviceability in the Qingzang Plateau were clarified.
- Main driving factors of ecosystem multiserviceability in the Qingzang Plateau were identified.
- An ecosystem multiserviceability management method for Qingzang Plateau is proposed.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Ecosystem multiserviceability (EMS), a comprehensive and significant ecological indicator, reflects the capacity of ecosystems to offer multiple services concurrently. Intensified climate change and human activity are continuously altering ecosystem functions, services, and EMSs. However, numerous studies have only focused on one or a few ecosystem services, rarely taking into account spatial-temporal distribution and drivers of EMS on behalf of different agencies. We calculated EMS including pastoralist (PA), environmental protection agency (EPA), biodiversity conservation agency (BCA), and climate change mitigation agency (CCMA) using grassland production, habitat quality, water conservation, and carbon sequestration. Then, the effects of geographical features, climate factors, and human activities on spatial-temporal patterns of EMS were explored. The result indicated that EMS showed a decreasing tendency from the southeast to northwest on the Qingzang Plateau (QZP). Meanwhile, there were no obvious fluctuations in four simulated scenarios (PA, EPA, BCA and CCMA) among different vegetation types during 2000 to 2015. Notably, EMS of all simulated scenarios decreased in the alpine steppe ecosystem, but negligible changes were found in other ecosystems from 2015 to 2020. Moreover, the relative importance of precipitation in annual mean value (from 2000 to 2020) of PA, EPA, BCA and CCMA were 0.13, 0.11, 0.30 and 0.19, respectively. Overall, precipitation played the dominant role on the dynamics of EMS, followed by elevation and human footprint. Our findings highlighted that understanding the patterns and drivers of EMS could provide a reference for the regional management and maintenance of ecosystem stability on QZP.

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1. Introduction

Ecosystem services contain nature resources, climate regulation, defense against natural disasters, recreation, and inspiration (Hernández-Blanco et al., 2022), which also is crucial for supporting human well-being since they serve as a link between natural and human systems (Hernández-Blanco et al., 2020). In recent decades, numerous research focused on calculating value (Costanza et al., 1997; Gallai et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2020), mapping the supply and demand (van Jaarsveld et al., 2005; Deutsch et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2021), analyzing potential threats (Tilman et al., 2001), understanding the mechanisms (Venter et al., 2016) and forecasting changes in ecosystem services (Carpenter et al., 2006; Hernández-Blanco et al., 2022). Regrettably, although the ecological processes simultaneously generate multiple associated ecosystem services, most studies have centered on a single or a few ecosystem services (Peterson et al., 2003; Chan et al., 2006; Rodriguez et al., 2006; Brauman et al., 2007). Furthermore, the required ecosystem services are diverse according to the different agencies, and the impacts of climate change and human activities on ecosystem services are not always homogeneous. Consequently, we ought to pay more attention to the multiple relationships among ecosystem services and the establishment of the concept of ecosystem multiserviceability (EMS) (Turner et al., 2003; Kremen, 2005; Carpenter et al., 2006; Manning et al., 2018; Jing and He, 2021).

EMS was defined initially as ecosystem service multifunctionality by Manning et al. (2018), but other scholars have argued that the ability of ecosystem to provide multiple ecosystem services simultaneously was more strictly defined as ecosystem multiserviceability (Jing and He, 2021). Obviously, the main limitation of the current research on ecosystem services is that there is no systematic indicators to represent multiple facets of ecosystem services (Manning et al., 2018). Therefore, Manning et al. (2018) proposed a quantitative approach which is divided into consulting stakeholders, quantifying weights, quantifying ecosystem services, standardizing ecosystem services, and finally weighting calculations. Furthermore, Jing and He (2021) integrated Manning's method, and then summarized the EMS quantization method according to grassland ecosystem. Generally, it is necessary to integrate various services into one index (i.e., EMS) to match the different requirements of stakeholders (Manning et al., 2018). In summary, the most core of the steps of quantifying EMS are determining the ecosystem services needed by various stakeholders in different regions, and entitling the weight of different ecosystem services.

Climate change and human activities have produced profound impacts on the ecosystem, such as loss of biodiversity (Butchart et al., 2010), melting of glaciers (Nie et al., 2021), greenhouse effect (Parmesan and Yohe, 2003), ecosystem degradation (Li et al., 2021) and so on. Accurate understanding of the complex impacts of global changes on ecosystem services is conducive to ecosystem management decision-making (Jäger et al., 2020; Lavorel et al., 2018). Climate change conditions will change the flow of energy and material in ecosystems, and eventually affect the spatial pattern of ecosystem services (Cavanagh et al., 2021). Besides, human activities would accelerate or amplify such effects, leading to changes in ecosystem services (Nolan et al., 2018). Meanwhile, geographical factors also have a certain impact on ecosystem services, especially in the high-altitude areas, where elevation plays an important role in the regulation of ecosystem services (Chen et al., 2021). Further, these drivers interact with the different ecosystem management practices intensified changes in ecosystem services (Jing and He, 2021). Therefore, it is necessary to identify the relative importance of climate factors, geographical factors and human activities on EMS. Apparently, quantification and ascertaining drivers of EMS have become a hot topic in current studies (Maes et al., 2012; Rodriguez-Lozano et al., 2015).

The Qingzang Plateau (QZP) is a vital supply area of ecosystem services (Sun et al., 2012), providing primary productivity, economic development for herdsmen, and culture inheritance (Wang and Dai, 2020;

Sun et al., 2020). It was taken as an important carbon sink and biodiversity conservation area with the increased vegetation coverage and productivity in recent decades (Peng et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2014). In addition, the QZP regulates water supply of arid Central Asia and Southeast Asia (Mu et al., 2020; Pfeffer et al., 2014). Currently, the QZP is ongoing the great pressure owing to increased human activities and the volatile climate, and the degraded habitat quality, melted glacier, and extended lake affect the EMSs of QZP (Xie et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2018). Furthermore, the changed EMSs have alerted and hurt the local different stakeholders' production and life (Sun et al., 2022a). Therefore, it is necessary to clarify the driving mechanism of different stakeholders and draw a blueprint for the sustainable management across the QZP.

In this study, we calculated EMS by involving the environmental protection agency, pastoralist, biodiversity conservation agency, and climate change mitigation agency on the QZP, using four critical important ecosystem services (e.g., grassland productivity, habitat quality, water conservation, and carbon sequestration). According to the needs of different agencies, we assigned weights to each ecosystem service. The aims of this study were to: (1) quantify the EMS of four important agencies on the QZP, (2) figure out the spatial-temporal patterns and drivers of EMS on the QZP, and (3) illustrate how EMS affects ecosystem management and ecosystem protection on the QZP. Furthermore, we provide insights that can guide the future conservation and maintenance of EMS in response to climate change and human pressure in the alpine region.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

The Qingzang Plateau (26°00'N–39°47'N, 73°19'E–104°47'E) is located in southwestern China and is characterized by a harsh environment and fragile ecosystems, with an average elevation of 4,000 m (Sun et al., 2022b). It covers an area of more than 2.50×10^6 km², which accounts for a quarter of the total land area of China (Ye et al., 2020). The region includes Xizang, Qinghai, southern Xinjiang, southwestern Gansu, western Sichuan and northwestern Yunnan (Fig. 1). The QZP supports the development of animal husbandry, maintains the living standards of farmers and herdsmen, provides productivity, and serve as an irreplaceable ecological barrier for water conservation, biodiversity conservation, carbon storage and other ecological services. In addition, it provides EMS for China and the surrounding areas, the region is also highly sensitive to global climate change and can play a role in balancing water and heat and regulating climate (Xie et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2020).

2.2. Data and preprocessing

The meteorological database included annual total precipitation and annual mean temperature, which were recorded by weather station from 2000 to 2020 and collected from the China Meteorological Administration (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn>). Here, the spatial interpolation of precipitation and temperature were analyzed using Anusplin 4.2 software (Center for Resource and Environmental Studies, Australian National University, Canberra). Human footprint data (Luo et al., 2020) was obtained from the Tibetan Plateau Scientific Data Center (<http://data.tpdac.ac.cn/>). These data are used for the analysis of the EMS driving force.

Terrestrial vertebrate data is used to validate ecosystem services, including data on reptiles, birds, amphibians and mammals. For birds, we used Birdlife's breeding range data. For mammals and amphibians, we used the latest Global Mammal and Global Amphibian Assessment data published by the International Union for Conservation of Nature (Jenkins et al., 2013). For reptiles, we used data collected and com-

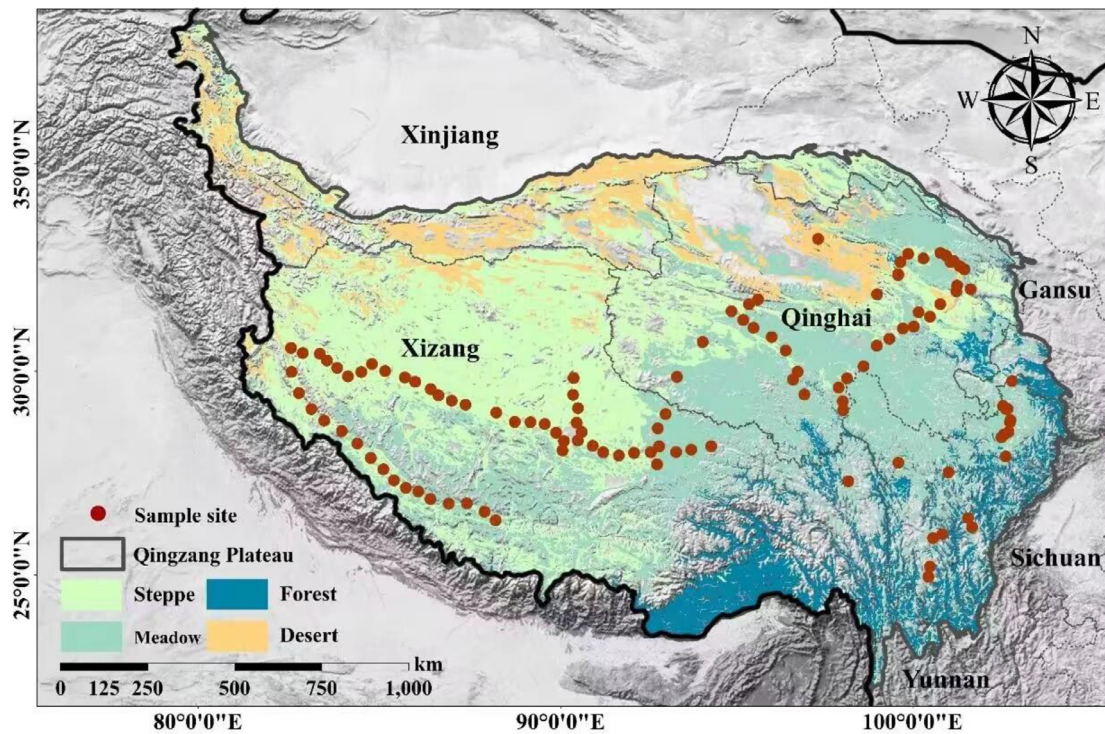


Fig. 1. Location of the sampling sites across Qingzang Plateau.

Table 1
Data types and sources.

Data	Resolution	Data source
Net primary production (NPP)	500 m	MOD17A3H NPP (https://adsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov)
Land use	1 km	Resource and Environment Science and Data Center (https://www.resdc.cn)
Meteorological data	1 km	China Meteorological Data Service Center (http://data.cma.cn)
Soil texture	1 km	Resource and Environment Science and Data Center (https://www.resdc.cn)
Digital elevation model (DEM)	250 m	Resource and Environment Science and Data Center (https://www.resdc.cn)
Vegetation distribution map	—	Resource and Environment Science and Data Center (https://www.resdc.cn)
Carbon density	—	2010s China Terrestrial ecosystem carbon density dataset (https://www.escience.org.cn/)

piled by the Global Assessment Group on Reptile Distribution (Roll et al., 2017).

The data preprocessing programs primarily include cropping, splicing, and reprojection. The resolution of the raster data was unified to 1 km.

2.3. Quantification of ecosystem services

In order to further illustrate dynamics and controls of the ecological services of the QZP, we selected four important ecosystem services of grassland productivity, habitat quality, water conservation, and carbon storage to calculate EMSs. The four ecosystem services are quantified as follows and the required data sources are shown in Table 1.

(1) Grassland productivity (GP)

We used the net primary production (NPP) to calculate GP.

(2) Habitat quality (HQ)

The habitat quality was simulated using the InVEST (Integrated Valuation of Ecosystem Services and Trade-offs) model manual and related

research. This study determined relevant parameter values combined with the actual situation of the research area and designed the input parameter table of the habitat quality module (Liu et al., 2021) (Tables S1 and S2) calculated using the following formula:

$$Q_{xj} = H_j \left(1 - \left(\frac{D_{xj}^z}{D_{xj}^z + K^z} \right) \right) \tag{1}$$

where Q_{xj} is the habitat quality index of grid x in land use type j , and its value ranges between 0 and 1. The higher the value, the better the habitat quality. H_j is the habitat suitability of land use type j , and its value ranges from 0 to 1, in which 1 indicates the most suitable. K is a half-saturation constant, generally taken as 1/2 of the maximum value of the habitat degradation degree D_{xj} . The z value is the default parameter and is a normalized constant whose value is usually set as 2.5. The total threat level D_{xj} of grid cell x in habitat type j can be expressed as:

$$D_{xj} = \sum_{r=1}^R \sum_{y=1}^{Y_r} \left(\frac{w_r}{\sum_{r=1}^R w_r} \right) r_y i_{rxy} \beta_x S_{jr} \tag{2}$$

where R is the number of threat factors, w_r is the weight of the threat factor r with a value of 0–1, indicating the relative destructive power

of the stress factor to all habitats, Y_r is the total number of grid cells of the threat factor r in land use map, r_y is the number of stress factors on each grid in the land use map, and S_{jr} is the relative sensitivity of land use type j to threat factor r with a value of 0–1. The calculation formula of the stress level i_{rxy} of the threat factor r in the grid y to the habitat grid x is as follows:

$$i_{rxy} = 1 - (d_{xy}/d_{r\max}) \tag{3}$$

$$i_{rxy} = \exp(-(2.99/d_{r\max})d_{xy}) \tag{4}$$

where d_{xy} is the linear distance between grid x and grid y , and $d_{r\max}$ is the maximum impact distance of threat factor r on the habitat.

(3) Water conservation (WC)

This study is based on InVEST model water yield module to calculate the WC of the QZP (Lan et al., 2021).

$$Y_{xj} = \left(1 - \frac{AET_{xj}}{P_x}\right) \times P_x \tag{5}$$

where Y_{xj} is the annual water yield and AET_{xj} the actual evapotranspiration for pixel x on the landscape j . P_x is the annual precipitation on pixel x .

The relationship between AET_{xj} and P_x is based on the methodology developed by Budyko (Zhang et al., 2004), AET_{xj}/PET_{xj} , and it is estimated in a spatially explicit way on pixel x :

$$\frac{AET_{xj}}{P_x} = \frac{1 + \omega_x + R_{xj}}{1 + \omega_x R_{xj} + (1/R_{xj})} \tag{6}$$

where R_{xj} is the dryness index of grid unit x on land use type j , which can be obtained from the ratio of potential evapotranspiration to rainfall.

The parameter ω_x is the ratio of modified vegetation annual water availability to expected precipitation:

$$\omega_x = Z \times \frac{PAWC_x}{P_x} \tag{7}$$

$$R_{xj} = \frac{k_{ij} \times ET_0}{P_x} \tag{8}$$

where parameter Z , as a constant, represents the precipitation characteristics with a value from 1 to 30 and it is larger when the rainfall events are more frequent. K_{ij} is the planting evapotranspiration coefficient and is the ratio of crop evapotranspiration (ET) to the reference evapotranspiration (ET_0) in different growth stages. The ET_0 data were calculated using the Penman-Monteith model modified by Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO).

PAWC is the water content available to plants:

$$PAWC_x = 54.509 - 0.123\text{sand} - 0.03(\text{sand})^2 - 0.055\text{silt} - 0.006(\text{silt})^2 - 0.738\text{clay} + 0.007(\text{clay})^2 - 2.688\text{OM} + 0.501(\text{OM})^2 \tag{9}$$

where, “sand” is the soil sand content (%), “silt” is the soil silt content (%), “clay” is the soil clay content (%), and “OM” is the soil organic matter content (%).

According to the water balance equation, the difference between annual water output equal to rainfall and total evapotranspiration can be calculated by the following formula:

$$WR_{xj} = Y_{xj} - \text{Runoff}_{xj} \tag{10}$$

$$\text{Runoff}_{xj} = P_{xj} \times C_j \tag{11}$$

where WR for grid cells on land cover types $j \times$ years the amount of WC. Grid cells on “Runoff_a” for land cover types $j \times$ years surface runoff. C for the surface runoff coefficient of land cover types is j .

(4) Carbon storage (CS)

The CS was simulated using InVEST model, and for the use of equations in the model parameters refer to (Li et al., 2021). The model parameters can be seen in Table S3.

2.4. Quantifying ecosystem multiserviceability

We calculate the EMSs according to four different agencies. Firstly, four stakeholder groups were identified, which include environmental protection agency (EPA), pastoralist (PA), biodiversity conservation agency (BCA) and climate change mitigation agency (CCMA). Next, the ecosystem services required by each agency and their weights are determined, and then the identified ecosystem services are standardized. The standardized ecosystem services are multiplied by the weights of stakeholders and added to obtain the index of EMS (Jing and He, 2021) (Fig. 2). The specific formula is as follows:

$$EPA = \frac{1}{3}HQ + \frac{1}{3}WR + \frac{1}{3}CS \tag{12}$$

$$PA = 0.7GP + 0.1HQ + 0.1WR + 0.1CS \tag{13}$$

$$BCA = 0.1GP + 0.7HQ + 0.1WR + 0.1CS \tag{14}$$

$$CCMA = 0.1GP + 0.1HQ + 0.1WR + 0.7CS \tag{15}$$

2.5. Validation and sensitivity test

(1) Verification of EMS

In order to test the feasibility of EMS, we selected the ecosystem multifunctionality (EMF), which is closely related to EMS, to test the simulated products. We collected plant and soil samples from 115 study sites in 2015 (July to August) on the QZP (Fig. 1). Quantitative EMF specific index selection and calculation methods refer to (Wang et al., 2021). The EMF was calculated using study sites to extract the values of EPA, PA, BCA and CCMA, and analyze the correlation between EMF and each EMSs. Statistical significance was considered at a $P < 0.05$ level.

(2) Sensitivity test of weight

We tested the weight-sensitivity of EMS, and then increased weight of maximum of the ecosystem service by 10% or decreased it by 10%. Increasing the weight by 10% means multiplying the original weight of ecosystem service by 1.1, while decreasing the weight by 10% means multiplying that by 0.9 (Hua et al., 2022a). We calculated the four new EMS based on the adjusted weights, and compared the new EMSs with the original EMS. According to the correlation of the original and new EMS, we judge the robustness of the evaluation.

(3) Validation of individual ecosystem services

We used the database of above-ground biomass, terrestrial vertebrate diversity, water conservation (Lan et al., 2021) and carbon storage (Li et al., 2021) to verify GP, HQ, WC and CS, respectively.

2.6. Data analysis

The software SPSS24 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL., USA) and Origin 2018 (Origin Lab, Northampton, Massachusetts, USA) was used to analyze the data, and draw the graph, respectively. And the relative importance analysis was performed using the generic gradient regression model of the “gbm” package in R 4.0.4 software (R Core Team, 2013), where “gbm” calculated Friedman’s H-statistic to evaluate the relative strength of interaction effects in the nonlinear model. ArcGIS10.6 (ESRI, Inc., Redlands, CA, USA) was applied to map spatial patterns of EMSs, extracted the climatic data, and geographic information, and human footprint, and standardized ecosystem services via fuzzy membership tool.

The detailed research framework is shown in Fig. 3.



Stakeholder group and weightings				
Environmental protection agency:			Biodiversity conservation agency:	
Grassland productivity	= 0		Grassland productivity	= 0.1
Habitat quality	= 1/3		Habitat quality	= 0.7
Water conservation	= 1/3		Water conservation	= 0.1
Carbon storage	= 1/3		Carbon storage	= 0.1
Pastoralist:			Climate change mitigation agency:	
Grassland productivity	= 0.7		Grassland productivity	= 0.1
Habitat quality	= 0.1		Habitat quality	= 0.1
Water conservation	= 0.1		Water conservation	= 0.1
Carbon storage	= 0.1		Carbon storage	= 0.7

Fig. 2. Quantization method of ecosystem multiserviceability. We show four ecosystem services including vegetation productivity, habitat quality, water conservation and carbon storage (referenced from Jing and He (2021)). Then ecosystem service multifunctionality is calculated based on different weighting scenarios of stakeholder groups.

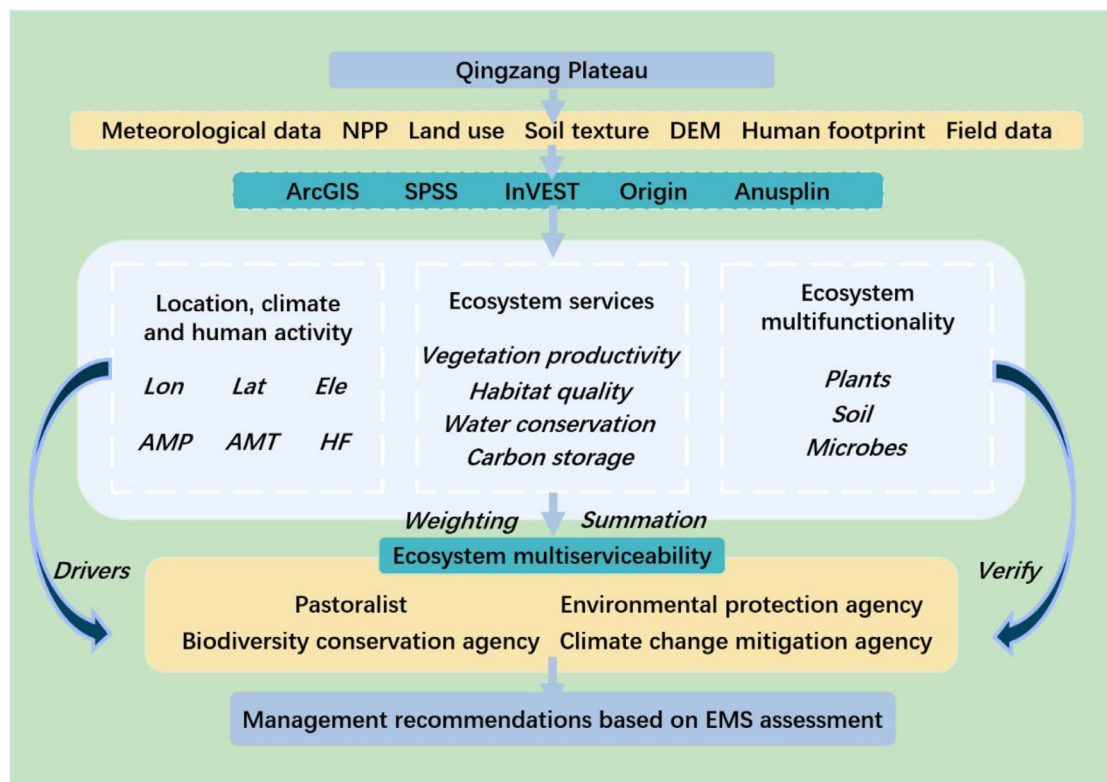


Fig. 3. Flowchart of this study. Note: EMS, ecosystem multiserviceability; Lon, longitude; Lat, latitude; Ele, elevation; AMP, annual mean precipitation; AMT, annual mean temperature; HF, human footprint; NPP, net primary production; DEM, digital elevation model.

3. Results

3.1. Model validation and sensitivity test

There were remarkably positive linear correlations of EMSs with EMF ($P < 0.05$). Specifically, R^2 of PA and EMF was 0.4, while the EPA, BCA and CCMA explained the variation of EMF by 25%, 5% and 29% at 0.05 significant level. Apparently, CCMA is more sensitive to EMF, whereas BCA is relatively lower (Fig. 4, Table S1). Besides, the results of weight test are shown in Fig. S1. The correlation coefficient between the original EMS and the adjusted EMS were all above 0.9 ($P < 0.05$). Furthermore, R^2 was 0.37 between the reference value and the estimated value of WC (Fig. S2(a)). For GP, R^2 was 0.51 between the actual value and the estimated value ($P < 0.05$, Fig. S2(b)). While HQ showed a remarkable exponential growth trend ($R^2 = 0.54$) at 0.05 significant level (Fig. S2(c)). All results demonstrated that model is reliable.

3.2. The spatial-temporal pattern of the ecosystem multiserviceability

The spatial-temporal heterogeneity of four EMSs were revealed in Fig. 5. Overall, all of EMSs gradually were weakening from southeast to northwest across the QZP, and a strengthening trend was observed in the northwestern margin. From 2000 to 2020, with the exception of PA, the high value of the other three EMSs were mainly distributed in the lower reaches of Yarlung Zangbo River, northern Yunnan and western Sichuan forest ecosystems in the southeast of QZP. The high values of PA

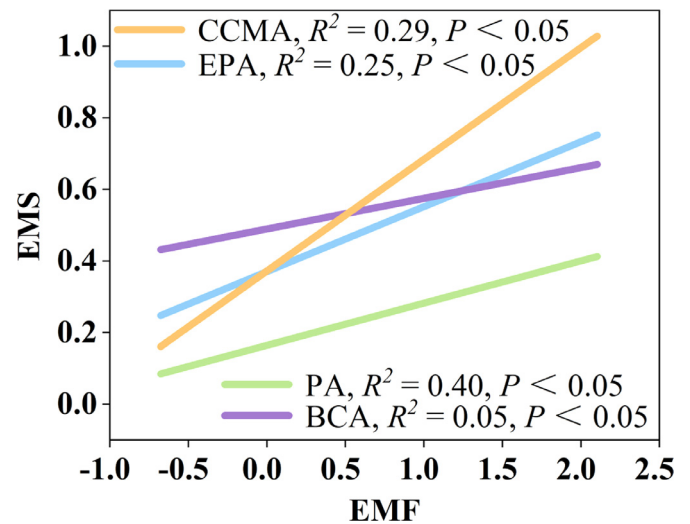


Fig. 4. Ecosystem multifunctionality validation ecosystem multiserviceability. Note: EMS, ecosystem multiserviceability; EMF, ecosystem multifunctionality; EPA, environmental protection agency; PA, pastoralist; BCA, biodiversity conservation agency; CCMA, climate change mitigation agency.

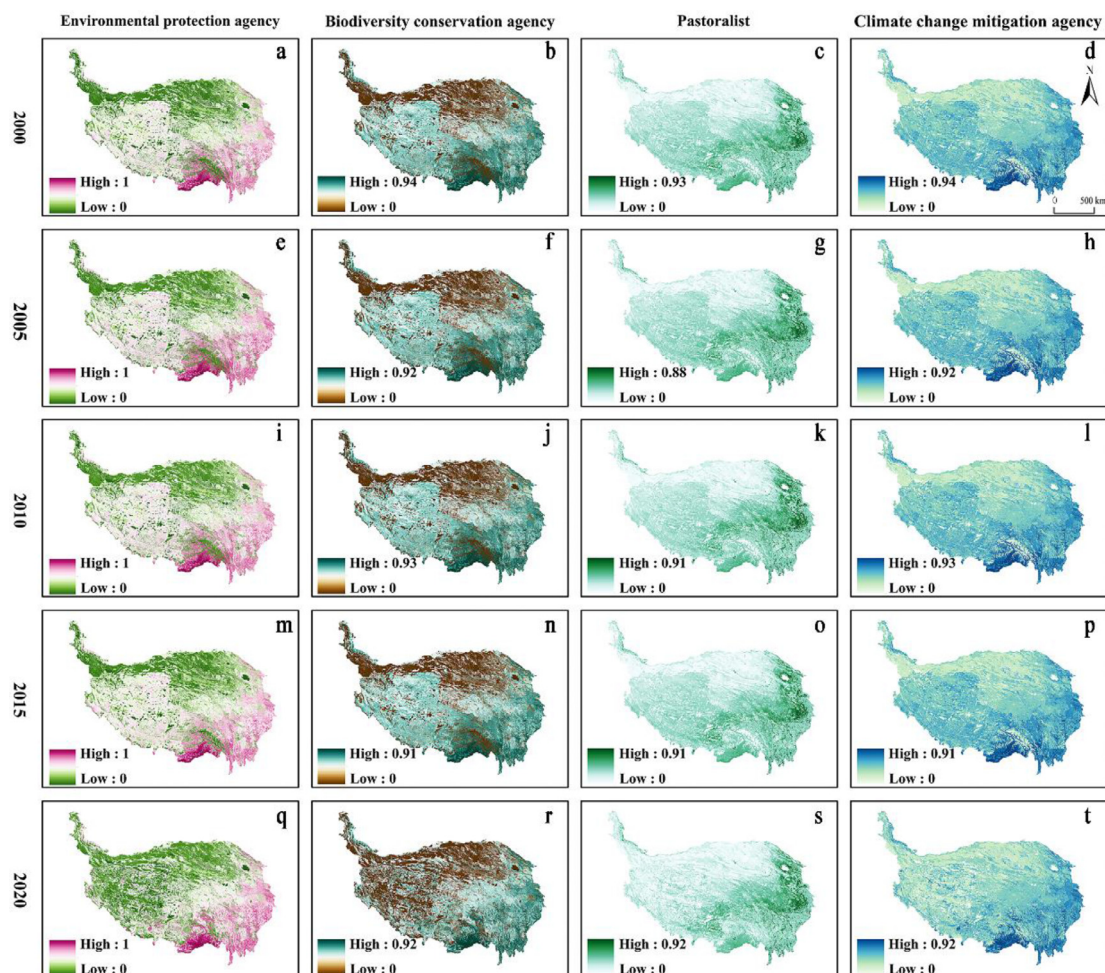


Fig. 5. Spatio-temporal pattern of ecosystem multiserviceability. The colors depict the value of the EMS, with low values in the EMS being shown in light color and high values in dark color.

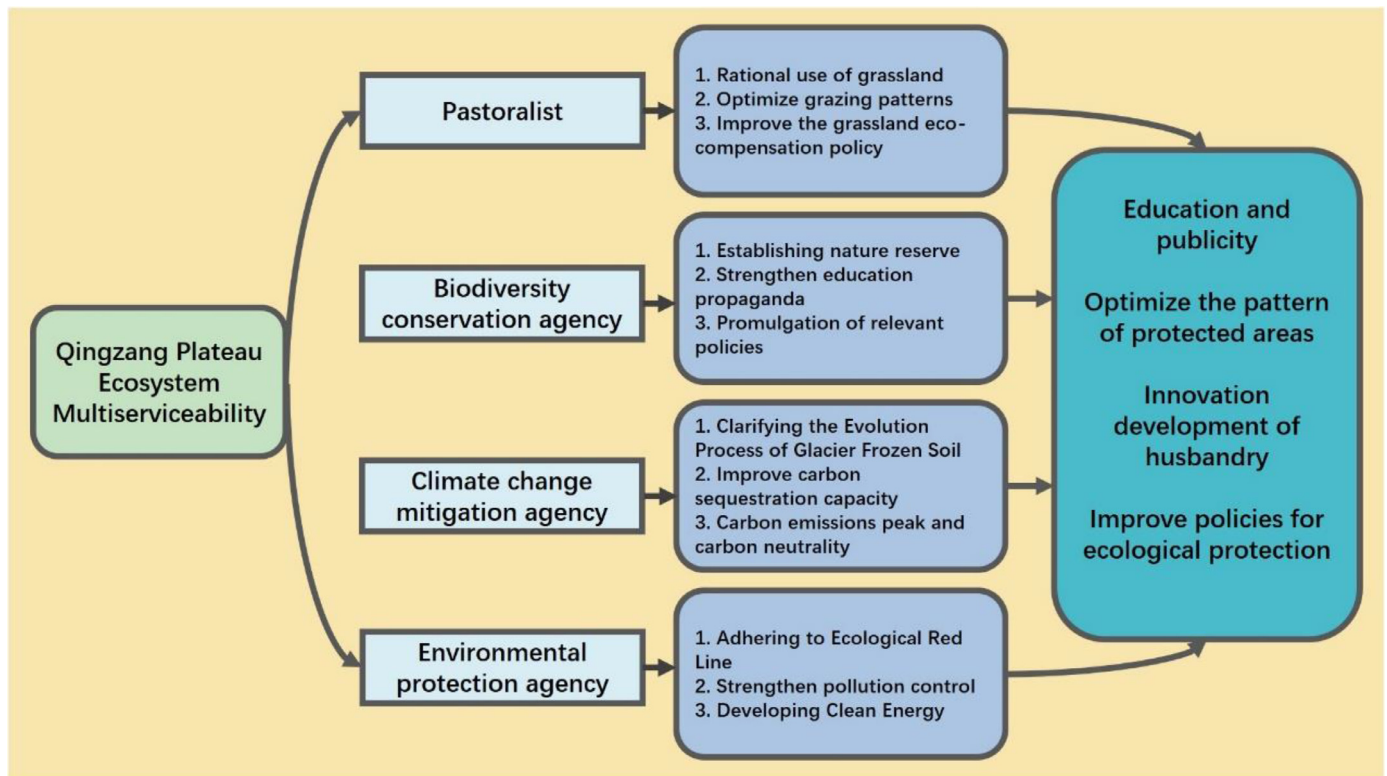


Fig. 7. Approaches for managing ecosystem multiserviceability.

Generally, the southeast part of QZP is the hotspot of EMS. It is believed that strengthening the management and protection of this area is beneficial to improve the EMSs capability of QZP.

4.2. Precipitation and human activities dominate EMS

The spatial heterogeneity of EMS is driven by climate, topography, and human activities (Fig. 6). Currently, climate change and human activities are reshaping ecosystem services at an alarming rate (Shaw et al., 2011). Our findings also presented that EMS were significantly positively regulated via AMP (Fig. 6(d)), indicating that precipitation was the main factor controlling EMS across the QZP. As previously reported, soil organic carbon and plant productivity in alpine grassland is mainly controlled by water availability (Fang et al., 2010), so PA and CCMA increased with increasing AMP. Additionally, BCA showed the same tendency in the alpine grasslands of QZP, which also is associated with precipitation given its great effect on species richness (Yang et al., 2004). Hence, changes in precipitation patterns related to the climate change will likely have important effects on ecological processes and ecosystem services (Bai et al., 2019).

Human activity is another important factor in the regulation of EMS. Before 2000, QZP was rarely affected by human activities (Li et al., 2018), and the urbanization slowed down (Cui et al., 2017). After 2000, a series of major ecological projects (e.g., fencing, aerial seeding afforestation and rodent control) have been implemented on the QZP (Zhang et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2022; Zhang and Jin, 2021; Li et al., 2011), which have remarkably improved vegetation productivity, optimized habitat quality, increased carbon storage, and played a positive role in EMSs of PA, EPA, CCMA and BCA. Previous study also demonstrated that the ecological state on the QZP continues to improve due to the implemented ecological projects (Bardgett et al., 2021). Besides, grazing is one of the main human activities on QZP, which affect materials and energy cycling of ecosystem, alert ecological functioning, and regulate ecosystem services. Consequently, rational livestock man-

agement and conservation projects would increase the EMS (Sun et al., 2020). For example, well-managed grazing can minimize greenhouse gas emissions, maintain a balance between livestock and wildlife, enhance biodiversity (Peyraud, 2011; Bellarby et al., 2013), and thus bring high returns to herders.

4.3. Implications for management

Given the important role of the QZP in animal husbandry production, biodiversity conservation and global climate change, we evaluated the EMSs according to four stakeholder groups which involves PA, BCA, EPA, and CCMA, and designed the management framework for guiding the sustainable development of the QZP (Fig. 7).

Grasslands provide a series of ecosystem functions and services on the QZP. Scientific management of grassland can strengthen ecosystem stability and improve local herders' livelihoods and further promote regional economic development. Therefore, it is crucial to achieve a sustainable grassland ecosystem across the QZP (Ren et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2020). Specifically, future management measures can concentrate on the following aspects: firstly, grassland use practices should be planned according to grassland health status and socioeconomic characteristics. Grassland ecosystem can be divided into grazing area, tourism and leisure area, cultural functional area, which provides different ecosystem service functions (Kemp et al., 2013). Secondly, optimizing grazing management to achieve the balance between grass production and number of livestock. Thus, PA need to determine the reasonable stocking rate based on the grassland productivity and distribution with scientific management methods such as fencing, zonal rotation grazing, and seasonal grazing (Xu et al., 2020; Bennett and Gosnell, 2015; Ostrom, 2007a, 2007b). Third, the government, scientists and local herders should work together to actualize grassland sustainable management, including improve the grassland eco-compensation policy and supervision capacity, strength research on grassland management, and improve grassland construction and production (Kemp et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017).

It is essential to protect biodiversity on the QZP since it is a global biodiversity hotspot. However, in the latest IUCN (International Union for Conservation of Nature), many species on the QZP are listed as threatened. To protect the threatened wild animals and plants effectively, abundant nature reserve was established (Xu et al., 2017). Nevertheless, existing protected areas may have spatial overlaps (Fu et al., 2021). Hence, the nature protected areas should be re-evaluated and analyzed to further adjust and optimize the protected scope (Li et al., 2020). Furthermore, it is necessary to enhance people's awareness of biodiversity protection through relevant publicity and education, and increase local participation in biodiversity conservation. Simultaneously, rational policies and strategies are also needed to maintain local biodiversity (Zhang et al., 2018).

QZP is more sensitive to global climate change owing to its unique geographical environment. Evidence demonstrated climate crisis has increased surface evaporation, accelerated large-scale glaciers and frozen soil melting across QZP, which resulted in vegetation and soil degradation (Kuang and Jiao, 2016). Therefore, clarifying the evolution process of glaciers and permafrost as well as their internal carbon cycle patterns are crucial to addressing climate change and has attracted massive attention from CCMA (Wang et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2012). In addition, the QZP has implemented corresponding carbon sequestration projects to cope with climate crisis, such as the natural forest protection project, returning grazing land to grassland project, and wind prevention and sand control project. Meanwhile, China has also implemented climate actions like carbon emissions peak and carbon neutrality, which is significant to mitigate climate change (Mallapaty, 2020).

For the ecologically fragile region, we suggested that EPA should center on ecology protection across the QZP, strictly maintain the ecological protection red line, and develop demonstration areas for promoting ecological civilization (Chen et al., 2021). In addition, air/water pollution should be controlled to reduce the negative impact of human activities on the environment (Xu et al., 2017). Furthermore, clean energy like photovoltaic energy, wind energy, and hydroenergy are conducive to the sustainable development of the QZP. All in all, objectives of EPA are to build an ecological security barrier across the QZP (Tang et al., 2023).

5. Conclusions

Quantifying EMSs and exploring their patterns and drivers have become a hot topic in ecological or sustainable management fields. Our findings demonstrated EMSs of all agencies showed a decreasing trend from southeast to northwest over QZP, and the dynamics of EMSs were governed via both precipitation and human activities. Furthermore, we highlighted the scientific workflow for sustainable development which contains optimizing grassland practices, enlarging nature reserves, strengthening environmental management, and promoting carbon sink for corresponding PA, BCA, CCMA, and EPA, respectively. Nevertheless, sampling sites were relatively sparse in some ecosystems, which introduces uncertainty into mapping EMSs of the QZP. Hence, we will supplement observation sites in the future work to reduce the uncertainty, and add more service indicators to quantify EMS scientifically and comprehensively.

Declaration of Competing Interests

The authors declare that there are no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that influenced the work reported in this paper.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.geosus.2023.06.004.

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