



1 2001-2022 global gross primary productivity dataset using an 2 ensemble model based on random forest

3 Xin Chen¹, Tiexi Chen^{1,2,3*}, Xiaodong Li⁴, Yuanfang Chai⁵, Shengjie Zhou¹, Renjie Guo⁶, Jie Dai¹

4

5 ¹School of Geographical Sciences, Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology, Nanjing 210044, Jiangsu,
6 China.

7 ²Qinghai Provincial Key Laboratory of Plateau Climate Change and Corresponding Ecological and Environmental Effects,
8 Qinghai University of Science and Technology, Xining 810016, China

9 ³School of Geographical Sciences, Qinghai Normal University, Xining 810008, Qinghai, China.

10 ⁴Qinghai Institute of Meteorological Science, Xining 810008, Qinghai, China.

11 ⁵Department of Earth Sciences, Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam, Boelelaan 1085, 1081 HV, Amsterdam, the Netherlands

12 ⁶Faculty of Geographical Science, Beijing Normal University, Beijing, China.

13

14 *Correspondence to:* Tiexi Chen (txchen@nuist.edu.cn)

15 **Abstract.** The continuous advancement of remote sensing technology has been instrumental in improving models for
16 estimating terrestrial gross primary productivity (GPP). However, challenges arise from inconsistent spatial distributions and
17 interannual variations in GPP datasets, impeding our comprehensive understanding of the entire terrestrial carbon cycle. In
18 contrast to previous models relying on remote sensing and environmental variables, we developed a an ensemble model
19 based on random forest named GPP_{ERF}. This model utilized the GPP outputs from established remote sensing-based models
20 (EC-LUE, GPP-kNDVI, GPP-NIRv, Revised-EC-LUE) as inputs for GPP estimations. GPP_{ERF} demonstrated significant
21 effectiveness by explaining 83.7% of the monthly variation in GPP across 171 sites. This performance surpassed the selected
22 remote sensing models (72.4%-77.1%) and an independent random forest model using remote sensing and environmental
23 variables (77.7%). Over the period from 2001 to 2022, the global estimated GPP value using the ensemble model based on
24 random forest was 131.2 PgC yr⁻¹, exhibiting a trend of 0.45 PgC yr⁻². Furthermore, evaluation results utilizing flux sites
25 from ChinaFlux indicated that the dataset exhibited good generalization. In summary, the machine learning-based ensemble
26 method helps to reduce the uncertainty in the estimation of a single remote sensing model and provides a more reliable
27 estimation of global GPP.

28

29

30



31 1 Introduction

32 Gross primary productivity (GPP) is the largest carbon flux in the global carbon cycle, and it is also the input of carbon
33 during the carbon cycle. Uncertainties in the estimation of GPP will be further propagated to other carbon flux estimates, so
34 it is important to clarify the spatio-temporal pattern of GPP (Xiao et al., 2019; Ruehr et al., 2023). However, different studies
35 estimate global GPP to be between 90 PgC yr⁻¹ and 160 PgC yr⁻¹, and this uncertainty may be more pronounced when
36 extended to regional scales or specific ecosystem types, so it is necessary to develop some new methods to reduce the
37 uncertainty of GPP estimates (Jung et al., 2019; Ryu et al., 2019; Anav et al., 2015).

38 Currently, there are several remote sensing data-driven methods to estimate GPP, including light use efficiency (LUE)
39 models, vegetation index models, machine learning models, and process models (Sun et al., 2019; Mengistu et al., 2021).
40 Direct validation of flux towers from FLUXNET shows that these models usually only explain about 70% of the monthly
41 variation in GPP (Wang et al., 2021b; Badgley et al., 2019). One possible reason is that remote sensing models cannot fully
42 characterize all the processes of photosynthesis. This is understandable, most of the existing models use linear or nonlinear
43 mathematical formulas to express a certain process of photosynthesis. However, the ecosystem is highly complex, the bias
44 introduced by such a numerical model in a process will increase the uncertainty in the final product (GPP) estimates. For
45 example, in the LUE model, the difference in the meteorological constraints alone can lead to a difference of more than 10%
46 in the explanatory power of the model (Yuan et al., 2014). As an important factor affecting photosynthesis, some models
47 consider the effect of CO₂ fertilization. However, a study revealed that the effect of CO₂ fertilization showed a significant
48 negative trend in the past 40 years, and this process may be missing in the model (Wang et al., 2020). Limited by the
49 imperfection of the model mechanism, adjusting the model parameters is the most effective way to improve the simulation
50 accuracy. The usual practice of the modeler is to divide the directly observed GPP data according to different vegetation
51 types, and randomly select the testset through the cross-validation method to calibrate and validate the model parameters.
52 However, this method is based on the assumption that the model parameters of the same vegetation type in different regions
53 are roughly the same. In fact, the photosynthetic characteristics of the same vegetation type are also quite different in
54 different regions. A typical example is the difference between C₃ and C₄ crops in the cropland, the GPP of C₄ crops during
55 the growing season may reach 600-800 gC m⁻² month⁻¹, accounting for more than 60% of the annual GPP, in contrast, the
56 GPP of C₃ crops in the growing season is only 200-300 m⁻² month⁻¹, or even lower (Chen et al., 2014). Some other studies
57 have also found that the maximum carboxylation rate (V_{cmax}) that determines photosynthesis at the leaf scale not only
58 varies with vegetation types, but also depends on environmental factors (Wang et al., 2021a). The same vegetation type also
59 has a difference of 40 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ in different geographical areas (Groenendijk et al., 2011), all of which may lead to
60 uncertainties in GPP estimate. A widespread problem is that the deviation of model structure and model parameters may lead
61 to poor estimation of GPP in the monthly extreme value, and the phenomenon of “high value underestimation and low value
62 overestimate” occurs. Especially for extremely high values, which usually occur during the growing season and largely



63 determine the annual value and inter-annual variation of GPP, this underestimation may hinder our understanding of the
64 entire carbon cycle process.

65 It is difficult for a single model to have good estimation in all regions of the globe. Previous studies have shown that
66 ensemble model may perform better than a single model, which may improve some potential problems in model estimation
67 (Chen et al., 2020; Yao et al., 2014). Traditional multi-model ensemble methods usually use multi-model simple average or
68 bayesian weighted average. However, these methods usually only provide fixed weights for each model, and are essentially
69 linear combinations between multiple models. Some recent studies apply machine learning methods to multi-model
70 ensembles to establish nonlinear relationships between multiple simulated target variables and real target variables,
71 improving the simulation performance (Bai et al., 2021; Yao et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2023). However, few studies have
72 applied this method to the global GPP estimation, which provides a new idea for improving some common problems of a
73 single remote sensing model (such as high value underestimation and ground value overestimation).

74 In this study, we attempt to use an ensemble model based on machine learning methods to improve the estimation of global
75 GPP. Specifically, the work of this study includes the following points: (1) After re-calibrating the parameters of each model,
76 the performance of five remote sensing models and the ensemble models was compared; (2) Focusing on the phenomenon of
77 “high value underestimation and low value overestimation” in each model, and compared the performance of each model in
78 each months, each vegetation types and different subvalues (high value, median value, low value); (3) Developing a global
79 GPP dataset using an ensemble model based on machine learning methods, and using GPP observations from ChinaFlux as a
80 complementary validation set to test the generalization of this dataset, i.e. the extent to which the dataset capture changes in
81 GPP in regions where fewer sites are used in the modeling process.

82 **2 Method**

83 **2.1 Data at the global scale**

84 In this study, we selected remote sensing data from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) and
85 meteorological data from EAR5-Land to estimate global GPP. For remote sensing data, surface reflectance, leaf area Index
86 (LAI) and Fraction of Photosynthetically Active Radiation (FPAR) were used in this study. For meteorological data, we
87 selected air temperature, dew point temperature, total solar radiation, and direct solar radiation. The dew point temperature
88 and air temperature were used to calculate the saturated vapor pressure difference (VPD) (Yuan et al., 2019), and the diffuse
89 solar radiation was calculated as the difference between the total solar radiation and the direct solar radiation. The CO₂
90 comes from the monthly average carbon dioxide levels measured by the Mauna Loa Observatory in Hawaii. Table 1 shows
91 the details of these data.

92

93

94



95 **Table 1.** Overview of the datasets used in this study.

Variable	Dataset	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Temporal coverage
Surface reflectance	MCD43C4	0.05°	daily	2001-2022
LAI	MOD15AH	500m	8d	2001-2022
FPAR	MOD15AH	500m	8d	2001-2022
Air temperature (AT)	ERA5	0.1°	Monthly	2001-2022
Dew point temperature (DPT)	ERA5	0.1°	Monthly	2001-2022
Total solar radiation (TSR)	ERA5	0.25°	Monthly	2001-2022
Direct solar radiation (DirSR)	ERA5	0.25°	Monthly	2001-2022
CO ₂	NOAA's Earth System Research Laboratory	/	Monthly	2001-2022
Distribution map of C4 crops	Harvested Area and Yield for 175 Crops	1/12°	Annual	2000
Land use	MCD12C1	0.05°	Annual	2010

96

97 Previous studies have shown that the photosynthetic capacity of C4 crops is much higher than that of C3 crops (Chen et al.,
 98 2014; Chen et al., 2011), so it is necessary to divide the cropland into C3 crops and C4 crops. When estimating the global
 99 GPP, we used the "175 Crop harvested Area and yield" dataset, which describes the global harvested area and yield of 175
 100 crops in 2000 (Monfreda et al., 2008). We extracted the sum of the area ratios of all C4 crops (corn, corn feed, sorghum,
 101 sorghum feed, sugarcane, millet) at each grid point as the coverage of C4 crops (Figure S1). Therefore, the estimated value
 102 of cropland GPP can be expressed as: coverage of C3 crops × GPP simulated value of C3 crops + coverage of C4 crops ×
 103 GPP simulated value of C4 crops, which has been used in a previous study (Guo et al., 2023).

104 The land use map comes from the IGBP classification of MCD12Q1, and 2010 was selected as the reference year. In order to
 105 meet the need of subsequent research, the land cover types were combined into 9 categories: deciduous Broadleaf Forest
 106 (DBF), evergreen coniferous forest (ENF), Evergreen Broadleaf Forest (EBF), Mixed Forest (MF), Grassland (GRA),
 107 Cropland (including CRO-C3 and CRO-C4), Savannah (SAV), Shrub (SHR), Wetland (WET). Ultimately, all data were
 108 resampled to a spatial resolution of 0.05°, while data from MODIS were aggregated to a monthly scale to meet
 109 spatiotemporal consistency.



110 2.2 Observation data at the site scale

111 The modeling used GPP observations from the FLUXNET 2015 dataset, which includes carbon fluxes and meteorological
112 variables from more than 200 flux sites around the world (Pastorello et al., 2020). GPP cannot be obtained directly from the
113 flux site and usually needs to be obtained by dismantling the Net Ecosystem Exchange. We chose a month-scale GPP based
114 on the nighttime partitioning method and retained only high quality data ($NEE_VUT_REF_QC > 0.8$) for every year, and
115 finally selected 171 sites with 10824 monthly values for this study. In addition, temperature, radiation and VPD on the
116 monthly scale were selected. Since part of the data required by the model is not directly available at the flux site, surface
117 reflectance, LAI and FPAR on a scale of 500m were extracted, which are roughly similar to the footprint of the flux site and
118 can represent the land surface of the site situation (Chu et al., 2021).

119 2.3 Remote sensing models and ensemble models for estimating GPP

120 In this study, five independent remote sensing models were selected to estimate GPP. The five models are EC-LUE,
121 Revised-EC-LUE, NIRv-based linear model, kNDVI-based linear model and traditional random forest model. EC-LUE is a
122 LUE model driven by remote sensing data. The model assumes that GPP is proportional to the photosynthetically active
123 radiation absorbed by the canopy, and the seasonal variation of GPP is corrected by meteorological constraints (Yuan et al.,
124 2007); Recently, Zheng et al. revised the EC-LUE model and proposed the Revised-EC-LUE model, which divides the
125 canopy into sunlit and shaded leaves, and considers long-term changes in CO_2 to improve the estimation of global GPP
126 (Zheng et al., 2020). NIRv and kNDVI are newly proposed vegetation indices, which are calculated from the red and near-
127 infrared bands of the reflectance spectrum (Badgley et al., 2017; Camps-Valls et al., 2021). Similar to SIF, they exhibit a
128 linear relationship with GPP and are considered to be effective proxies for GPP. Detailed descriptions of all models are
129 presented in Text S1. Random forest method has been widely used in GPP estimation, which usually uses meteorological
130 variables and vegetation index for modeling (Jung et al., 2019). In this study, we used air temperature, VPD, radiation and
131 LAI to estimate GPP.

132 To reduce the uncertainty in estimating GPP from a single model, we also used a multi-modal ensemble method, the basic
133 idea of which is to re-model the simulated values of multiple models. In this study, ensemble model based on the random
134 forest method was used. Unlike traditional machine learning methods, we directly used random forests to establish the
135 relationship between the GPP simulated by the above four models and the GPP observations. A summary of all models used
136 is shown in Table 2.

137 **Table 2.** Overview of the models used in this study.

ID	Model	Input data	Output
1	EC-LUE	FPAR, VPD, AT, SRAD, CO_2	GPP_{EC}
2	Revised-EC-LUE	LAI, VPD, AT, DifSR, DirSR, CO_2	GPP_{REC}
3	kNDVI-GPP	Red band and near infrared band	GPP_{kNDVI}



4	NIRv-GPP	Red band and near infrared band	GPP _{NIRv}
5	Traditional random forest model	AT, VPD, SRAD, LAI	GPP _{RF}
6	Ensemble model based on random forest	GPP _{EC} , GPP _{REC} , GPP _{kNDVI} , GPP _{NIRv}	GPP _{ERF}

138

139 2.4 Model parameter calibration and Validation

140 Due to the difference between meteorological data and vegetation data, we did not use default parameters in the model, but
 141 carried out parameter calibration and model validation for all remote sensing models according to different vegetation types.
 142 For EC-LUE and Revised EC-LUE, the Markov chain Monte Carlo method (MCMC) was used to calibrate the model
 143 parameters. The traditional MCMC method usually takes the mean value of the posterior distribution of parameters as the
 144 optimal value, while previous studies have shown that some model parameters cannot be well constrained when calibrating
 145 multiple model parameters (Xu et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2017), so we use the parameter with the smallest root-mean-square
 146 error (RMSE) as the optimal parameter in each iteration. For each vegetation type, we randomly selected 70% of the sites for
 147 parameter calibration, and the process was repeated 200 times. In order to avoid overfitting, we took the mean of the 200
 148 calibrated parameters as the final model parameters. Similarly, for the two vegetation index models, we randomly selected
 149 70% of the sites in each vegetation type for parameter calibration. The process was repeated 200 times, and the mean of the
 150 200 calibrated parameters was used as the final model parameters.

151 After obtaining GPP estimates from four remote sensing models, we tested the simulation performance of traditional random
 152 forest model and random forest-based ensemble model respectively. For both models, we tested model performance using 5-
 153 fold cross-validation, the process was repeated 200 times, and the mean of the GPP estimated 200 times as the final GPP
 154 estimate. Goodness of Fit (R^2) and RMSE were used to measure the simulation performance of all models. In addition, we
 155 used the ratio of GPP simulations to GPP observations (Sim/Obs) to measure whether the model was overestimated or
 156 underestimated.

157 2.5 Evaluation of the generalization of different GPP datasets

158 Most of the flux sites in Fluxnet2015 are concentrated in Europe and North America, it is not clear whether the different
 159 GPP estimation methods are suitable for some regions with sparse flux sites. Recently, ChinaFlux published GPP
 160 observations from multiple sites, providing an opportunity to test the generalization of different GPP datasets. However, the
 161 spatial resolution of most GPP datasets is 0.05° , and direct comparison with GPP observations at flux sites is challenging.
 162 Therefore, we extracted 0.05° MODIS land use covering the flux tower, and when the type of vegetation observed by the
 163 flux tower was consistent with the MODIS land use, the site was used for analysis. Finally, a total of 12 flux sites were
 164 selected (Figure S2), and Table S1 shows the information of these sites.

165 Based on site-scale models, we estimated the global GPP for 2001-2022 using an ensemble model based on random forest
 166 (ERF_GPP). We tested the generalization of ERF_GPP on 12 ChinaFlux sites. In addition, we selected a number of widely



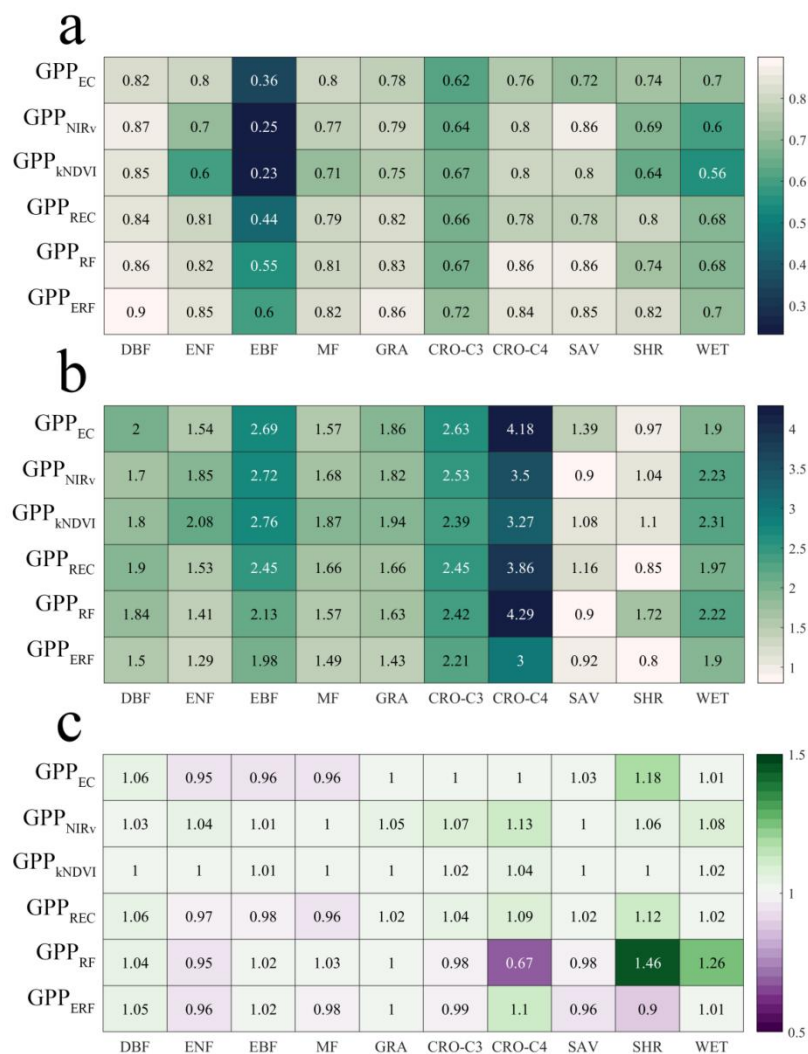
167 used GPP datasets for comparison, including BESS (Li et al., 2023), GOSIF (Li and Xiao, 2019), ECGC (Guo et al., 2023),
168 NIRv (Wang et al., 2021b), Revise-EC-LUE (Zheng et al., 2020), which are generated using different GPP estimation
169 methods. These GPP products all have a spatial resolution of 0.05° , avoiding the uncertainty of GPP validation introduced
170 due to resolution differences. The common time range for these products is 2001-2018, and the time resolution was unified
171 to monthly to be consistent with GPP observations.

172 **3 Result**

173 **3.1 Performance of six models at site scale**

174 Table S2-S5 shows the optimization results of four remote sensing model parameters. Similar to the previous study, in the
175 Revised EC-LUE model, the light use efficiency parameter of shade leaves was significantly higher than that of the sunlit
176 leaves (Yuan et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2020). It is necessary to divide the cropland into C3 crops and C4 crops. In all models,
177 the parameters of C4 crops were significantly higher than those of C3 crops, which was especially reflected in the two
178 vegetation index models of GPP_{kNDVI} and GPP_{NIRv} , the slope of the linear regression was a direct reflection of the difference
179 in photosynthetic capacity of different crops.

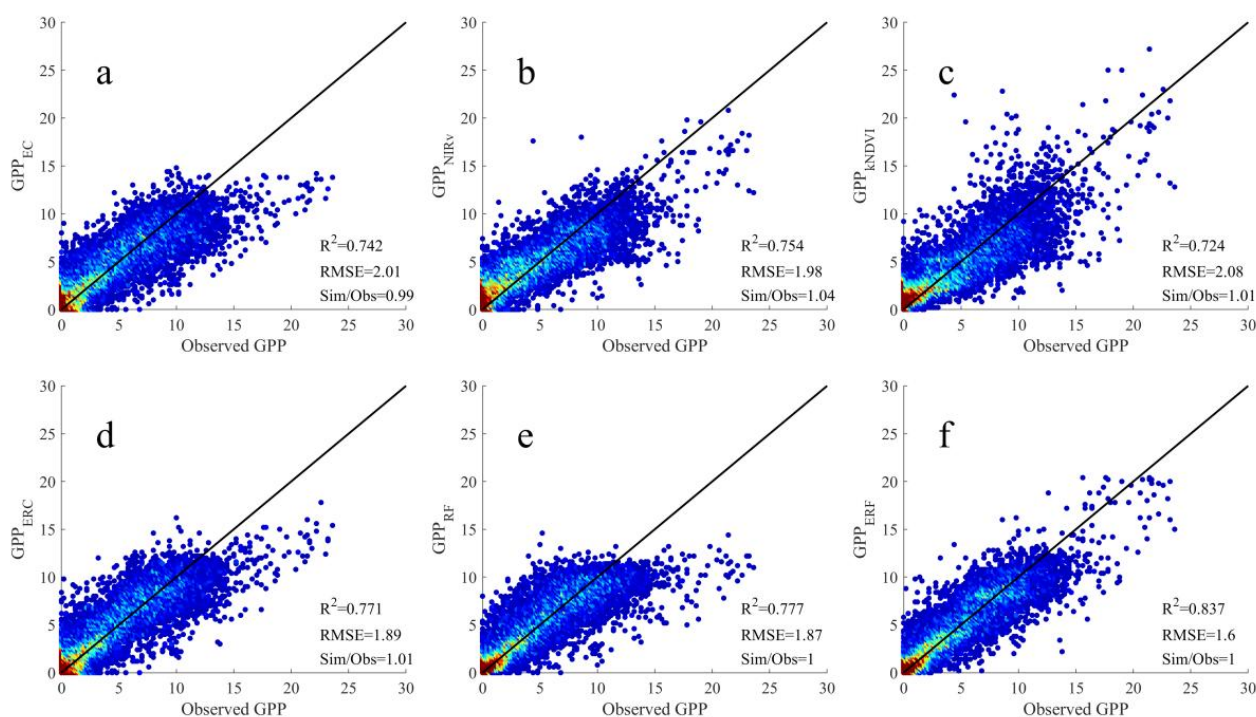
180 Figure 1 shows the performance of all models on vegetation types. Overall, the performance of the ensemble model was
181 better than that of the remote sensing model. GPP_{ERF} always had the highest accuracy among all models, with R^2 between
182 0.6-0.9 and RMSE between $0.8-3 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. In contrast, the performance of the two vegetation index models was relatively
183 poor, especially for evergreen forests, the R^2 of GPP_{kNDVI} and GPP_{NIRv} was significantly lower than other models. It is worth
184 noting that compared to other vegetation types, the RMSE of cropland was the higher, with 5 out of 6 models in C4 Crop
185 exceeding $3 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, which suggested that these existing GPP models may not properly track seasonal changes in cropland.
186 No significant estimation bias in vegetation type was found in four remote sensing model with calibration parameters and the
187 ensemble model. However, GPP_{RF} was significantly underestimated in C4 crops and significantly overestimated in SHR and
188 WET.



189

190 **Figure 1.** The performance of the six models on different vegetation types. a, b and c represent R^2 , RMSE, and Sim/Obs respectively.

191 We further counted the simulation performance of different models at each site. As shown in Figure S3, we averaged the
 192 evaluation indicators of all sites and found that the accuracy of GPP_{ERF} was the highest, R^2 was 0.75, RMSE was 1.53 gC m⁻²
 193 d⁻¹, Sim/Obs was also the closest to 1, which was 1.04. Combining the results of all flux sites, GPP_{ERF} could explain 83.7%
 194 of the monthly GPP variation, while the five remote sensing models only explained 72.4%-77.7% of the monthly variation in
 195 GPP (Figure 2).



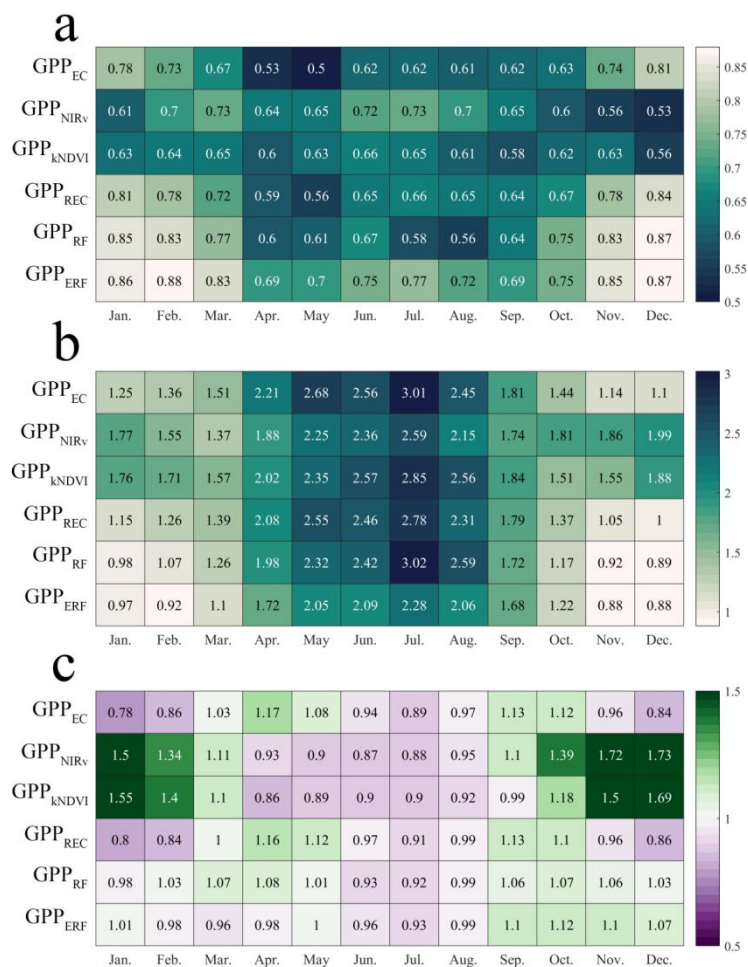
196

197 **Figure 2.** Comparison between the GPP simulations of the six models and the GPP observations. a-f represents GPP_{EC}, GPP_{NIRv}, GPP_{kNDVI},
198 GPP_{REC}, GPP_{RF}, GPP_{ERF}, respectively.

199 Overall, GPP_{ERF} exhibited high accuracy in terms of site scale, vegetation type, and the ability to interpret monthly variation
200 in GPP, which also illustrated the potential of machine learning-based ensemble models in improving GPP estimation.
201 However, we also found that most of the GPP simulations have the phenomenon of “high value underestimation and low
202 value overestimate”. For example, GPP_{EC}, GPP_{REC} and GPP_{RF} showed obvious underestimation in the month when the
203 monthly GPP value was greater than 10 gC m⁻² d⁻¹ (Figure 2), it is therefore necessary to evaluate the performance of
204 different models in each month and in different subvalues.

205 3.2 Performance of six models in each month and different subvalues

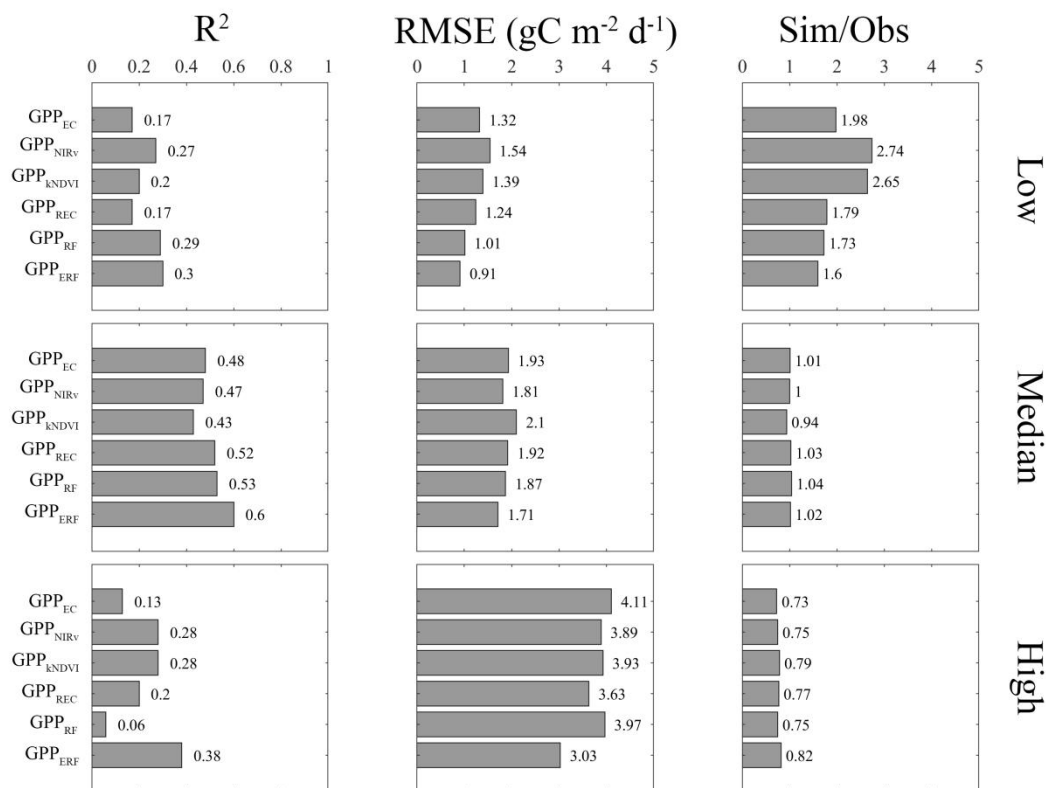
206 Figure 3 shows the simulation accuracy of the six models in each month. The accuracy of the ensemble model was still
207 higher than that of the remote sensing model. GPP_{ERF} maintained the higher R^2 and the lower RMSE in each month, and
208 there was no obvious “high value underestimation and low value undervaluation”. In contrast, the accuracy of the remote
209 sensing model was not satisfactory, especially for winter (most flux sites are concentrated in the northern hemisphere), the
210 LUE models underestimated the GPP per month, and the Sim/Obs remained at 0.78-0.96, but R^2 was above 0.7, while the
211 vegetation index models overestimated GPP, Sim/Obs remained at 1.34-1.73, and R^2 was relatively low, mostly around 0.6.



212

213 **Figure 3.** Performance of the six models in each month. a, b and c represent R^2 , RMSE, and Sim/Obs respectively.

214 We compared the performance of all models in different subvalues, including high value ($GPP > 10 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), median
 215 value ($10 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1} > GPP > 2 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), low value ($GPP < 2 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$). In the extreme value, all models performed
 216 poorly (Figure 4), the R^2 of the remote sensing model was all below 0.3, while GPP_{ERF} showed a more obvious improvement
 217 in the high value, R^2 increased to 0.38, RMSE decreased to $3.03 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$, Sim/Obs also increased to 0.82, and only a slight
 218 improvement in the low value. In the median value, all models performed well without serious GPP estimation biases. The
 219 R^2 of the remote sensing model was between 0.43 and 0.6, and the RMSE remained between 1.71 and $2.1 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. It could
 220 be seen that there was a large deviation in the estimation of the existing remote sensing model in the GPP extreme value, and
 221 the estimation in the median value was relatively good, while the ensemble model based on the machine learning method
 222 could improve the simulation accuracy of high value, which was of great significance for accurately estimating the annual
 223 values and inter-annual variation of GPP in terrestrial ecosystems.

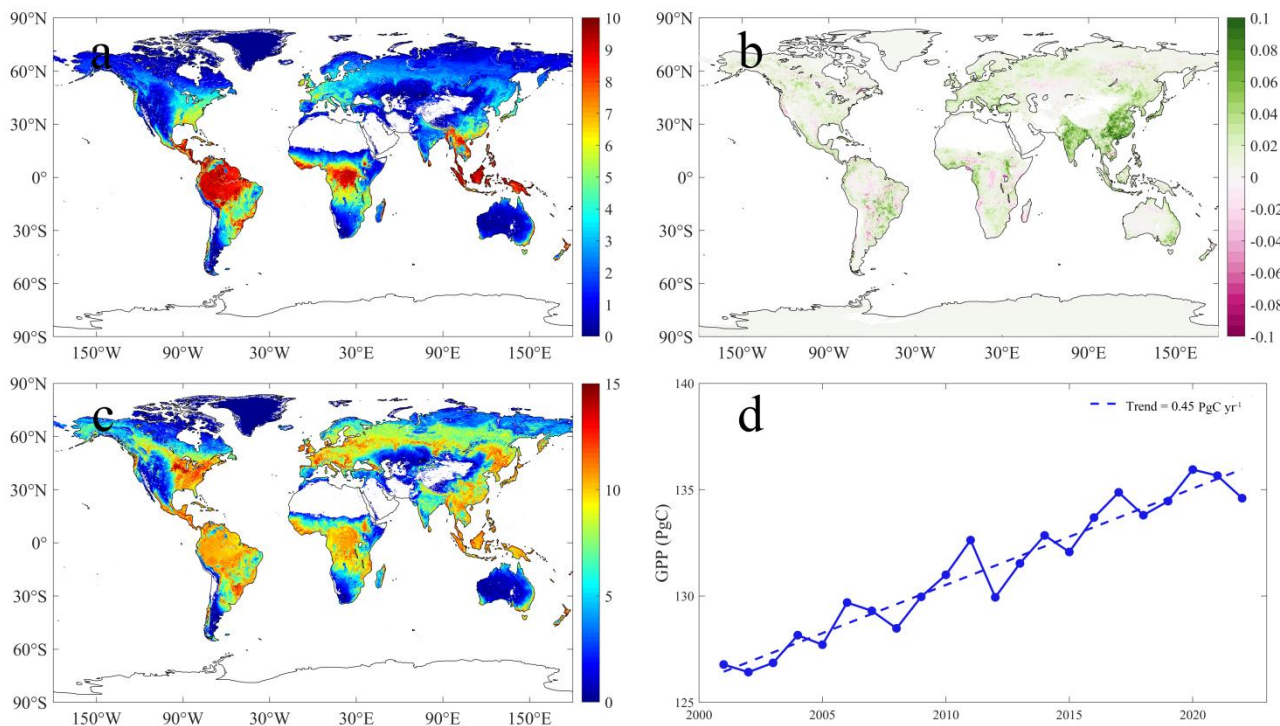


224

225 **Figure 4.** Performance of six models in different subvalues.

226 3.3 Global GPP estimation based on ensemble model and its generalization evaluation

227 Based on remote sensing data and meteorological data, we estimated the global GPP from 2001 to 2022 using the ensemble
 228 model based on random forest. Figure 5a shows the spatial distribution of ERF_GPP. The high value of GPP was mainly
 229 concentrated in tropical areas, exceeding 10 gC m⁻² d⁻¹, and relatively high in southeastern North America, Europe and
 230 southern China, about 4-6 gC m⁻² d⁻¹. From 2001-2022, China and India showed the fastest increase in GPP, mostly at 0.1 gC
 231 m⁻² d⁻¹ (Figure 5b), similar to a previous study that reported that China and India led the global greening (Chen et al., 2019).
 232 We further estimated the annual maximum GPP, as shown in Figure 5c, and the North American corn belt was by far the
 233 global leader in GPP at more than 15 gC m⁻² d⁻¹, compared to only 10 gC m⁻² d⁻¹ in most tropical forests. In 2001-2022, the
 234 global GPP was 131.2 ± 3.1 PgC yr⁻¹, the trend was 0.45 PgC yr⁻², the lowest value was 126.4 PgC yr⁻¹ in 2001, and the
 235 highest value was 135.9 PgC yr⁻¹ in 2020 (Figure 5d).



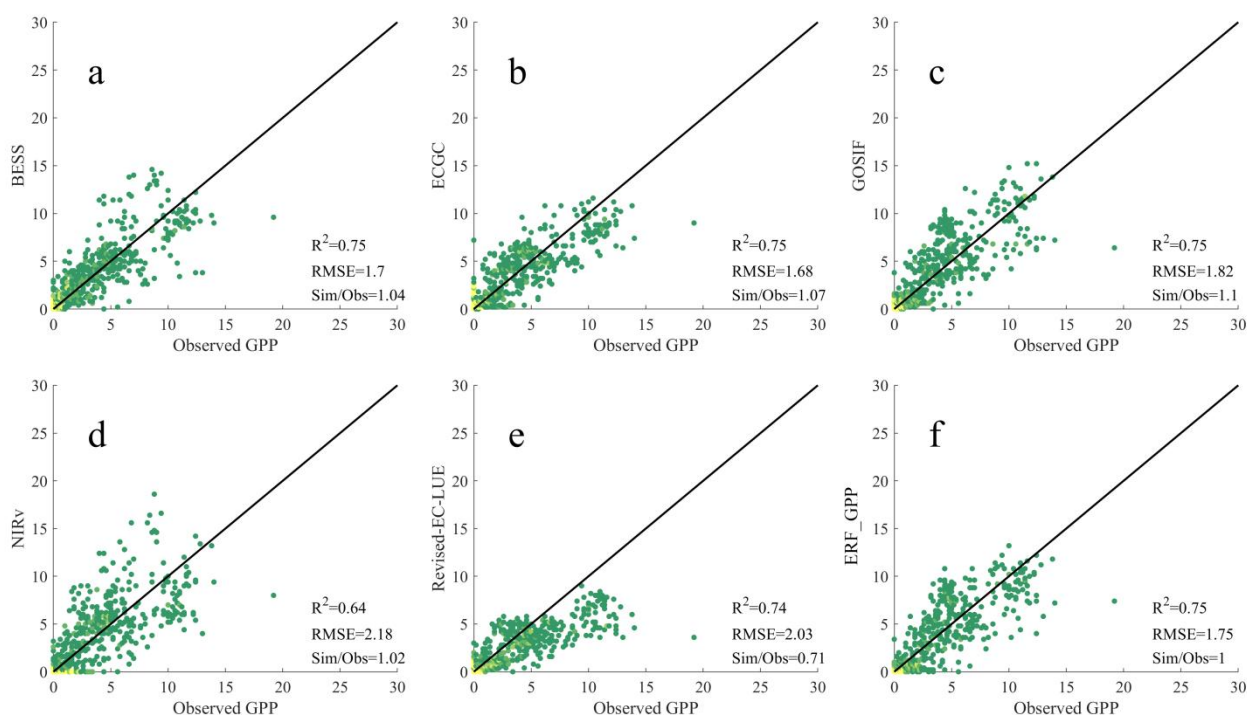
236

237 **Figure 5.** Spatial distribution and interannual change of ERF_GPP during 2001-2022. a represents the multi-year average, b represents the
238 trend, c represents the annual maximum, and d represents the interannual change of GPP.

239

240 As shown in Figure 6, the generalizations of ERF_GPP and other GPP datasets were validated using GPP observations from
241 ChinaFlux. Overall, in China, ERF_GPP has a high generalization, R^2 of 0.75, RMSE of 1.75 $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, there was no “high
242 value underestimation and low value overestimation”, which was comparable to the simulation accuracy of BESS, ECGC
243 and GOSIF. However, the simulation accuracy of the other two GPP datasets in China was relatively poor, with the R^2 of
244 NIRv being only 0.64, while the Revised EC-LUE was significantly underestimated, with the Sim/Obs being only 0.71. We
245 further examined the different GPP datasets at each site, similar to the results at all sites, the ERF_GPP was relatively robust,
246 with R^2 and RMSE of 0.77 and 1.49 $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$, respectively (Figure S4). The R^2 of NIRv and Revised EC-LUE was 0.68
247 and 0.69, and Revised EC-LUE also showed a significant underestimate (Sim/Obs at 0.66). It should be noted that from the
248 perspective of the average simulation accuracy of each site, BESS seemed to overestimate the GPP (Sim/Obs at 1.2).

249



250

251 **Figure 6.** Comparison between the GPP datasets and the GPP observations from ChinaFlux. a-f represents BESS, GOSIF, ECGC, NIRv,
252 Revise-EC-LUE, ERF_GPP, respectively.

253 4 Discussion

254 4.1 Performance analysis of different models

255 With the continuous development of remote sensing technology and carbon cycle models, the existing models for estimating
256 GPP are gradually increasing, including LUE models, process models, machine learning models and the newly developed
257 vegetation index models (such as SIF, NIRV, KNDVI), these "big class" models also include many "small classes". For
258 example, the differences in the environmental restriction function in the LUE model are extended to CASA, VPM, EC-LUE
259 and other models (Xiao et al., 2004; Potter et al., 1993; Yuan et al., 2007). A recent study collected the response functions of
260 GPP to different environmental variables, and under the LUE theory, 5600 LUE models could be generated (Bao et al.,
261 2022). These different model structures greatly increase the uncertainty of global GPP estimation, which make people still
262 confused about the annual value and inter-annual trend of global GPP. All models can obtain a reliable model accuracy after
263 calibrating the parameters, however none of the model accuracy is particularly outstanding, so it is urgent to provide a new
264 method to further improve the accuracy of GPP estimation.



265 Multi-model ensemble may be a proven approach, and previous studies have shown that even simple multi-model average
266 can reduce model estimation uncertainty. In this study, we used an ensemble models to improve the estimation of GPP.
267 Compared with the remote sensing model, the ensemble model could indeed show higher accuracy, the R^2 reached 0.837,
268 which is significantly higher than the accuracy of the machine learning model based on meteorological variables and remote
269 sensing variables ($R^2=0.777$). Since there are no physical constraints, machine learning models need to find the relationship
270 between explanatory variables and target variables from a large amount of training data (such as $GPP=f(LAI,T,P, \text{etc.})$)
271 (Tramontana et al., 2016; Jung et al., 2019), so the reliability of the model usually depends on the representativeness of
272 training data, such as LAI can explain GPP to a large extent, however, due to the complexity of the surrounding environment
273 of flux sites, it is difficult to guarantee consistent modeling relationships even for the same vegetation type. The difference
274 between ensemble models based on machine learning lies in the differences in explanatory variables. These explanatory
275 variables are the results of multiple model simulations, and these results are usually more representative and more consistent
276 with the relationship between the target variables, which makes the GPP simulations more accurate.
277 The simulation results of different models in each months and different subvalues showed that the existing GPP estimation
278 model widely existed the phenomenon of "high value underestimation and low value overestimate". For the LUE model, this
279 phenomenon is most obvious in winter (Figure 3), and the GPP was underestimated by about 20%, which may be due to the
280 deviation in the form of environmental factor. In the expression form of the temperature constraint adopted by the LUE
281 model, the maximum temperature, minimum temperature and optimum temperature for limiting photosynthesis are all
282 constants, however these values may not be fixed (Huang et al., 2019; Grossiord et al., 2020). The two vegetation index
283 models were overestimated in winter, and even overestimated by 70% in December. The vegetation index model does not
284 consider the constraints of environmental factors. They believe that all environmental impacts on vegetation have been
285 included in the vegetation index (kNDVI, NIRv), however, this aspect is still controversial (Wu et al., 2020; Dechant et al.,
286 2022), and the relationship between these vegetation indices and GPP is not robust, and the vegetation indices based on
287 reflectance may have hysteresis (Wang et al., 2022), and our results also showed that only using vegetation indices modeling
288 GPP should be carefully considered. In the low value and high value, the effects of all remote sensing models are not ideal,
289 which may be caused by the model structure itself. Simple mathematical expressions cannot characterize the entire
290 photosynthesis process, and these models are usually only empirical or semi-empirical. Although the ensemble model based
291 on machine learning can improve this phenomenon to a certain extent, it still depends on the reliability of the remote sensing
292 model in the extreme value. Therefore, we believe that in the future model development, it is necessary to focus on the
293 simulation performance of GPP in the extreme value.

294 **4.2 Robustness of global GPP estimation based on ensemble model**

295 In this study, based on site-scale validation, we demonstrate the reliability of the random forest-based ensemble model in
296 GPP estimation. However, what needs to be discussed further is whether the spatial distribution, spatial trends and global
297 total of ERF_GPP are reliable. Since the current GPP datasets are generated based on remote sensing observation, all GPP



298 datasets are very similar in spatial distribution. Therefore, the validation of GPP observations independent of
299 FLUXNET2015 are very important. Validation results from GPP observations from ChinaFlux show that GPP_{ERF} showed
300 good generalization in China ($R^2=0.75$), which was slightly lower than the accuracy of the 5 fold cross validation during
301 modeling, possibly due to the mismatch between the 0.05° GPP and the footprint of the flux tower (Chu et al., 2021). Overall,
302 however, this is comparable to or slightly better than the simulation accuracy of current mainstream GPP datasets. In
303 addition, we also found a clear improvement in the spatial maximum value of ERF_GPP in some corn growing regions, such
304 as the North American Corn Belt (Figure 5c), which is supported by previous studies showing that C4 crops have much
305 higher GPP peaks than other vegetation types (Yuan et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2011).

306 Due to the drought trend, the constraint effect of water on vegetation is gradually increasing, and some studies have reported
307 the decoupling phenomenon of LAI and GPP under some specific conditions (Jiao et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2019). However,
308 in China and India that two regions with significant greening, GPP is still increasing in most datasets, and ERF_GPP
309 supports this view. This phenomenon may be due to the low drought pressure on farmland in China and India due to
310 irrigation, which is less of a constraint on GPP (Ambika and Mishra, 2020; Ai et al., 2020). The global estimate of ERF_GPP
311 was $131.2 \text{ PgC yr}^{-1}$, which is close to estimates from most previous studies (Wang et al., 2021b; Badgley et al., 2019). Some
312 studies have suggested that the global GPP may reach $150\text{-}175 \text{ PgC yr}^{-1}$ (Welp et al., 2011), however, there is no further
313 evidence to support this view.

314 **4.3 Limitations and uncertainties**

315 In this study, we improved GPP estimates based on the ensemble model. However, there are still some limitations and
316 uncertainties due to the availability of data and methods. First, C4 crop distribution maps were used in our study to improve
317 estimates of cropland GPP. However, it is important to note that this dataset only represents the spatial distribution of crops
318 around the year 2000, which may add uncertainty to GPP simulations of cropland in a few C3 and C4 alternating areas.
319 Secondly, only the GPP simulations of four remote sensing models were considered in our model, and it is not clear whether
320 adding more GPP simulations to the model can further improve the GPP estimation. Finally, our model did not consider the
321 effect of soil moisture on GPP, and some previous studies have highlighted the importance of considering soil moisture in
322 GPP estimates, especially for dry years (Stocker et al., 2019; Stocker et al., 2018).

323 **5 Conclusion**

324 In this study, we evaluated the performance of five remote sensing models and one ensemble model to simulate GPP.
325 Overall, GPP_{ERF} had higher model accuracy, explaining 83.7% of the monthly variation in GPP, and showed good accuracy
326 in different vegetation types, different months and different extreme regions. The global GPP of ERF_GPP for 2001-2022 is
327 $131.2 \text{ PgC yr}^{-1}$. The results from ChinaFlux show that ERF_GPP has good generalization. For the current emerging GPP



328 estimation models, machine learning-based ensemble models provide another method of GPP estimation, and this may lead
329 to higher model accuracy and more reliable global GPP estimation.

330 **Data and code availability**

331 The global GPP dataset based on the ensemble model for 2001-2022 is available at
332 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.24417649> (Chen et al., 2023). The spatial resolution of ERF_GPP is 0.05° and the
333 temporal resolution is monthly. Code is available from the author upon reasonable request.

334 **Author contributions**

335 X.C. and T.X.C. conceived the scientific ideas and designed this research. X.C. compiled the data, conducted analysis,
336 prepared figures. X.C., T.X.C. and Y.F.C. wrote the manuscript. D.X.L., R.J.G., J.D., and S.J.Z. gave constructive
337 suggestions for improving the manuscript.

338 **Acknowledgments**

339 This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 42130506, 42161144003 and 31570464)
340 and the Postgraduate Research & Practice Innovation Program of Jiangsu Province (No. KYCX23_1322).

341 **Declaration of interests**

342 The authors have not disclosed any competing interests.

343 **References**

- 344 Ai, Z., Wang, Q., Yang, Y., Manevski, K., Yi, S., and Zhao, X.: Variation of gross primary production, evapotranspiration
345 and water use efficiency for global croplands, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 287, 10.1016/j.agrformet.2020.107935,
346 2020.
- 347 Ambika, A. K. and Mishra, V.: Substantial decline in atmospheric aridity due to irrigation in India, *Environmental Research*
348 *Letters*, 15, 10.1088/1748-9326/abc8bc, 2020.
- 349 Anav, A., Friedlingstein, P., Beer, C., Ciais, P., Harper, A., Jones, C., Murray-Tortarolo, G., Papale, D., Parazoo, N. C.,
350 Peylin, P., Piao, S., Sitch, S., Viovy, N., Wiltshire, A., and Zhao, M.: Spatiotemporal patterns of terrestrial gross primary
351 production: A review, *Reviews of Geophysics*, 53, 785-818, 10.1002/2015rg000483, 2015.
- 352 Badgley, G., Field, C. B., and Berry, J. A.: Canopy near-infrared reflectance and terrestrial photosynthesis, *Science advances*,
353 3, e1602244, 2017.
- 354 Badgley, G., Anderegg, L. D., Berry, J. A., and Field, C. B.: Terrestrial gross primary production: Using NIRV to scale from
355 site to globe, *Global change biology*, 25, 3731-3740, 2019.



- 356 Bai, Y., Zhang, S., Bhattarai, N., Mallick, K., Liu, Q., Tang, L., Im, J., Guo, L., and Zhang, J.: On the use of machine
357 learning based ensemble approaches to improve evapotranspiration estimates from croplands across a wide environmental
358 gradient, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 298, 108308, 2021.
- 359 Bao, S., Wutzler, T., Koirala, S., Cuntz, M., Ibrom, A., Besnard, S., Walther, S., Šigut, L., Moreno, A., and Weber, U.:
360 Environment-sensitivity functions for gross primary productivity in light use efficiency models, *Agricultural and Forest
361 Meteorology*, 312, 108708, 2022.
- 362 Camps-Valls, G., Campos-Taberner, M., Moreno-Martínez, Á., Walther, S., Duveiller, G., Cescatti, A., Mahecha, M. D.,
363 Muñoz-Marí, J., García-Haro, F. J., and Guanter, L.: A unified vegetation index for quantifying the terrestrial biosphere,
364 *Science Advances*, 7, eabc7447, 2021.
- 365 Chen, C., Park, T., Wang, X., Piao, S., Xu, B., Chaturvedi, R. K., Fuchs, R., Brovkin, V., Ciais, P., Fensholt, R., Tommervik,
366 H., Bala, G., Zhu, Z., Nemani, R. R., and Myneni, R. B.: China and India lead in greening of the world through land-use
367 management, *Nature Sustainability*, 2, 122-129, 10.1038/s41893-019-0220-7, 2019.
- 368 Chen, T., van der Werf, G. R., Dolman, A. J., and Groenendijk, M.: Evaluation of cropland maximum light use efficiency
369 using eddy flux measurements in North America and Europe, *Geophysical Research Letters*, 38, 10.1029/2011gl047533,
370 2011.
- 371 Chen, T., Van Der Werf, G., Gobron, N., Moors, E., and Dolman, A.: Global cropland monthly gross primary production in
372 the year 2000, *Biogeosciences*, 11, 3871-3880, 2014.
- 373 Chen, Y., Yuan, H., Yang, Y., and Sun, R.: Sub-daily soil moisture estimate using dynamic Bayesian model averaging,
374 *Journal of Hydrology*, 590, 125445, 2020.
- 375 Chu, H., Luo, X., Ouyang, Z., Chan, W. S., Dengel, S., Biraud, S. C., Torn, M. S., Metzger, S., Kumar, J., and Arain, M. A.:
376 Representativeness of Eddy-Covariance flux footprints for areas surrounding AmeriFlux sites, *Agricultural and Forest
377 Meteorology*, 301, 108350, 2021.
- 378 Dechant, B., Ryu, Y., Badgley, G., Köhler, P., Rascher, U., Migliavacca, M., Zhang, Y., Tagliabue, G., Guan, K., and
379 Rossini, M.: NIRVP: A robust structural proxy for sun-induced chlorophyll fluorescence and photosynthesis across scales,
380 *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 268, 112763, 2022.
- 381 Groenendijk, M., Dolman, A., Van der Molen, M., Leuning, R., Arneth, A., Delpierre, N., Gash, J., Lindroth, A., Richardson,
382 A., and Verbeeck, H.: Assessing parameter variability in a photosynthesis model within and between plant functional types
383 using global Fluxnet eddy covariance data, *Agricultural and forest meteorology*, 151, 22-38, 2011.
- 384 Grossiord, C., Buckley, T. N., Cernusak, L. A., Novick, K. A., Poulter, B., Siegwolf, R. T., Sperry, J. S., and McDowell, N.
385 G.: Plant responses to rising vapor pressure deficit, *New Phytologist*, 226, 1550-1566, 2020.
- 386 Guo, R., Chen, T., Chen, X., Yuan, W., Liu, S., He, B., Li, L., Wang, S., Hu, T., Yan, Q., Wei, X., and Dai, J.: Estimating
387 Global GPP From the Plant Functional Type Perspective Using a Machine Learning Approach, *Journal of Geophysical
388 Research-Biogeosciences*, 128, 10.1029/2022jg007100, 2023.
- 389 Huang, M., Piao, S., Ciais, P., Peñuelas, J., Wang, X., Keenan, T. F., Peng, S., Berry, J. A., Wang, K., and Mao, J.: Air
390 temperature optima of vegetation productivity across global biomes, *Nature ecology & evolution*, 3, 772-779, 2019.
- 391 Jiao, W., Wang, L., Smith, W. K., Chang, Q., Wang, H., and D'Odorico, P.: Observed increasing water constraint on
392 vegetation growth over the last three decades, *Nature Communications*, 12, 10.1038/s41467-021-24016-9, 2021.
- 393 Jung, M., Koirala, S., Weber, U., Ichii, K., Gans, F., Camps-Valls, G., Papale, D., Schwalm, C., Tramontana, G., and
394 Reichstein, M.: The FLUXCOM ensemble of global land-atmosphere energy fluxes, *Scientific data*, 6, 1-14, 2019.
- 395 Li, B., Ryu, Y., Jiang, C., Dechant, B., Liu, J., Yan, Y., and Li, X.: BESSv2.0: A satellite-based and coupled-process model
396 for quantifying long-term global land-atmosphere fluxes, *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 295, 10.1016/j.rse.2023.113696,
397 2023.
- 398 Li, X. and Xiao, J.: A Global, 0.05-Degree Product of Solar-Induced Chlorophyll Fluorescence Derived from OCO-2,
399 MODIS, and Reanalysis Data, *Remote Sensing*, 11, 10.3390/rs11050517, 2019.
- 400 Mengistu, A. G., Mengistu Tsidu, G., Koren, G., Kooreman, M. L., Boersma, K. F., Tagesson, T., Ardö, J., Nouvellon, Y.,
401 and Peters, W.: Sun-induced fluorescence and near-infrared reflectance of vegetation track the seasonal dynamics of gross
402 primary production over Africa, *Biogeosciences*, 18, 2843-2857, 2021.
- 403 Monfreda, C., Ramankutty, N., and Foley, J. A.: Farming the planet: 2. Geographic distribution of crop areas, yields,
404 physiological types, and net primary production in the year 2000, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 22,
405 10.1029/2007gb002947, 2008.



- 406 Pastorello, G., Trotta, C., Canfora, E., Chu, H., Christianson, D., Cheah, Y.-W., Poindexter, C., Chen, J., Elbashandy, A.,
407 and Humphrey, M.: The FLUXNET2015 dataset and the ONEFlux processing pipeline for eddy covariance data, *Scientific*
408 *data*, 7, 1-27, 2020.
- 409 Potter, C. S., Randerson, J. T., Field, C. B., Matson, P. A., Vitousek, P. M., Mooney, H. A., and Klooster, S. A.: Terrestrial
410 ecosystem production: a process model based on global satellite and surface data, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 7, 811-841,
411 1993.
- 412 Ruehr, S., Keenan, T. F., Williams, C., Zhou, Y., Lu, X., Bastos, A., Canadell, J. G., Prentice, I. C., Sitch, S., and Terrer, C.:
413 Evidence and attribution of the enhanced land carbon sink, *Nature Reviews Earth & Environment*, 4, 518-534,
414 10.1038/s43017-023-00456-3, 2023.
- 415 Ryu, Y., Berry, J. A., and Baldocchi, D. D.: What is global photosynthesis? History, uncertainties and opportunities, *Remote*
416 *sensing of environment*, 223, 95-114, 2019.
- 417 Stocker, B. D., Zscheischler, J., Keenan, T. F., Prentice, I. C., Penuelas, J., and Seneviratne, S. I.: Quantifying soil moisture
418 impacts on light use efficiency across biomes, *New Phytologist*, 218, 1430-1449, 10.1111/nph.15123, 2018.
- 419 Stocker, B. D., Zscheischler, J., Keenan, T. F., Prentice, I. C., Seneviratne, S. I., and Penuelas, J.: Drought impacts on
420 terrestrial primary production underestimated by satellite monitoring, *Nature Geoscience*, 12, 264-+, 10.1038/s41561-019-
421 0318-6, 2019.
- 422 Sun, Z., Wang, X., Zhang, X., Tani, H., Guo, E., Yin, S., and Zhang, T.: Evaluating and comparing remote sensing terrestrial
423 GPP models for their response to climate variability and CO₂ trends, *Science of the total environment*, 668, 696-713, 2019.
- 424 Tian, Z., Yi, C., Fu, Y., Kutter, E., Krakauer, N. Y., Fang, W., Zhang, Q., and Luo, H.: Fusion of Multiple Models for
425 Improving Gross Primary Production Estimation With Eddy Covariance Data Based on Machine Learning, *Journal of*
426 *Geophysical Research: Biogeosciences*, 128, e2022JG007122, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JG007122>, 2023.
- 427 Tramontana, G., Jung, M., Schwalm, C. R., Ichii, K., Camps-Valls, G., Ráduly, B., Reichstein, M., Arain, M. A., Cescatti, A.,
428 and Kiely, G.: Predicting carbon dioxide and energy fluxes across global FLUXNET sites with regression algorithms,
429 *Biogeosciences*, 13, 4291-4313, 2016.
- 430 Wang, J., Dong, J., Yi, Y., Lu, G., Oyler, J., Smith, W., Zhao, M., Liu, J., and Running, S.: Decreasing net primary
431 production due to drought and slight decreases in solar radiation in China from 2000 to 2012, *Journal of Geophysical*
432 *Research: Biogeosciences*, 122, 261-278, 2017.
- 433 Wang, J., Jiang, F., Wang, H., Qiu, B., Wu, M., He, W., Ju, W., Zhang, Y., Chen, J. M., and Zhou, Y.: Constraining global
434 terrestrial gross primary productivity in a global carbon assimilation system with OCO-2 chlorophyll fluorescence data,
435 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 304, 108424, 2021a.
- 436 Wang, S., Zhang, Y., Ju, W., Qiu, B., and Zhang, Z.: Tracking the seasonal and inter-annual variations of global gross
437 primary production during last four decades using satellite near-infrared reflectance data, *Science of the Total Environment*,
438 755, 142569, 2021b.
- 439 Wang, S., Zhang, Y., Ju, W., Chen, J. M., Ciais, P., Cescatti, A., Sardans, J., Janssens, I. A., Wu, M., and Berry, J. A.:
440 Recent global decline of CO₂ fertilization effects on vegetation photosynthesis, *Science*, 370, 1295-1300, 2020.
- 441 Wang, X., Biederman, J. A., Knowles, J. F., Scott, R. L., Turner, A. J., Dannenberg, M. P., Köhler, P., Frankenberg, C.,
442 Litvak, M. E., and Flerchinger, G. N.: Satellite solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence and near-infrared reflectance capture
443 complementary aspects of dryland vegetation productivity dynamics, *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 270, 112858, 2022.
- 444 Welp, L. R., Keeling, R. F., Meijer, H. A. J., Bollenbacher, A. F., Piper, S. C., Yoshimura, K., Francey, R. J., Allison, C. E.,
445 and Wahlen, M.: Interannual variability in the oxygen isotopes of atmospheric CO₂ driven by El Niño, *Nature*,
446 477, 579-582, 10.1038/nature10421, 2011.
- 447 Wu, G., Guan, K., Jiang, C., Peng, B., Kimm, H., Chen, M., Yang, X., Wang, S., Suyker, A. E., and Bernacchi, C. J.:
448 Radiance-based NIRv as a proxy for GPP of corn and soybean, *Environmental Research Letters*, 15, 034009, 2020.
- 449 Xiao, J., Chevallier, F., Gomez, C., Guanter, L., Hicke, J. A., Huete, A. R., Ichii, K., Ni, W., Pang, Y., and Rahman, A. F.:
450 Remote sensing of the terrestrial carbon cycle: A review of advances over 50 years, *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 233,
451 111383, 2019.
- 452 Xiao, X., Zhang, Q., Braswell, B., Urbanski, S., Boles, S., Wofsy, S., Moore III, B., and Ojima, D.: Modeling gross primary
453 production of temperate deciduous broadleaf forest using satellite images and climate data, *Remote sensing of environment*,
454 91, 256-270, 2004.



455 Xu, T., White, L., Hui, D., and Luo, Y.: Probabilistic inversion of a terrestrial ecosystem model: Analysis of uncertainty in
456 parameter estimation and model prediction, *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 20, 2006.

457 Yao, Y., Liang, S., Li, X., Chen, J., Liu, S., Jia, K., Zhang, X., Xiao, Z., Fisher, J. B., and Mu, Q.: Improving global
458 terrestrial evapotranspiration estimation using support vector machine by integrating three process-based algorithms,
459 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 242, 55-74, 2017.

460 Yao, Y., Liang, S., Li, X., Hong, Y., Fisher, J. B., Zhang, N., Chen, J., Cheng, J., Zhao, S., and Zhang, X.: Bayesian
461 multimodel estimation of global terrestrial latent heat flux from eddy covariance, meteorological, and satellite observations,
462 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 119, 4521-4545, 2014.

463 Yuan, W., Cai, W., Nguy-Robertson, A. L., Fang, H., Suyker, A. E., Chen, Y., Dong, W., Liu, S., and Zhang, H.:
464 Uncertainty in simulating gross primary production of cropland ecosystem from satellite-based models, *Agricultural and
465 Forest Meteorology*, 207, 48-57, [10.1016/j.agrformet.2015.03.016](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agrformet.2015.03.016), 2015.

466 Yuan, W., Cai, W., Xia, J., Chen, J., Liu, S., Dong, W., Merbold, L., Law, B., Arain, A., and Beringer, J.: Global comparison
467 of light use efficiency models for simulating terrestrial vegetation gross primary production based on the LaThuile database,
468 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 192, 108-120, 2014.

469 Yuan, W., Liu, S., Zhou, G., Zhou, G., Tieszen, L. L., Baldocchi, D., Bernhofer, C., Gholz, H., Goldstein, A. H., and
470 Goulden, M. L.: Deriving a light use efficiency model from eddy covariance flux data for predicting daily gross primary
471 production across biomes, *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 143, 189-207, 2007.

472 Yuan, W., Zheng, Y., Piao, S., Ciais, P., Lombardozzi, D., Wang, Y., Ryu, Y., Chen, G., Dong, W., and Hu, Z.: Increased
473 atmospheric vapor pressure deficit reduces global vegetation growth, *Science advances*, 5, eaax1396, 2019.

474 Zheng, Y., Shen, R., Wang, Y., Li, X., Liu, S., Liang, S., Chen, J. M., Ju, W., Zhang, L., and Yuan, W.: Improved estimate
475 of global gross primary production for reproducing its long-term variation, 1982–2017, *Earth System Science Data*, 12,
476 2725-2746, 2020.

477