


## RESEARCH ARTICLE

# Multi-model analysis of climate impacts on plant photosynthesis in China during 2000–2015

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## Abstract

Differences, arising from differences in gross primary production (GPP) model structures and driving forces, have fuelled arguments concerning interannual changes of GPP in China since 2000. To better investigate the interannual variability of GPP and its covariance with climate factors in China, this study adopted a multi-model analysis based on three GPP models (i.e., Terrestrial Ecosystem Carbon flux model [TEC], Breathing Earth System Simulator model [BESS], and MOD17 GPP model). The results show that annual GPP in China increased by 0.021–0.057 Pg C year<sup>-1</sup> from 2000 to 2015 attributable to atmospheric-CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effects and favourable climate change, that is, increasing precipitation ( $P_r$ ) and temperature ( $T_a$ ). However, northern China and southern China had a large difference in the amplitude of these GPP changes; annual GPP increased by 0.017–0.039 Pg C year<sup>-1</sup> in northern China but only 0.001–0.018 Pg C year<sup>-1</sup> in southern China. Northern China and southern China occupy contrasting climate zones and this contrast produced different interannual variability of GPP through different mechanisms. Northern China has a dry climate with GPP changes sensitive to  $P_r$ . As a result, more  $P_r$  along with higher  $T_a$  in northern China produced the strong uptrend of GPP from 2000 to 2015. In contrast, southern China has a wet climate with its GPP sensitive to solar radiation and  $T_a$ . For the interval of 2000–2015, decreasing radiation plus drought exerted a negative influence on GPP in southern China. This study highlights the diverse mechanisms in which climate change affects GPP in dry and wet climate zones. A robust multi-model analysis is preferred to reduce uncertainties arising from a single GPP model and its driving data.

## KEYWORDS

climate change, dry/wet climate, Gross primary production, meteorological factors, multi-model analysis

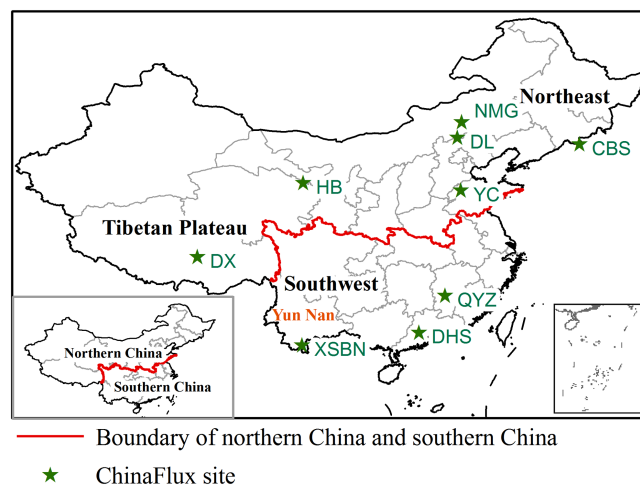
# 1 | INTRODUCTION

Atmosphere carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) concentration has steadily increased from 277 ppmv in 1850, regarded as the beginning of the industrial era, to 400 ppmv in 2016 (Dlugokencky and Tans, 2017). Anthropogenic emissions from fossil fuels and industry have been the dominant source of the atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> increase since 1920 (Le Quéré *et al.*, 2016). Cumulative emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> result in the global temperature rising, that is, long-term anthropogenic warming (Millar *et al.*, 2017). Numerous studies (Cao *et al.*, 2002, 2005; Nemani *et al.*, 2003; Los, 2013; Schimel *et al.*, 2015; Zhu *et al.*, 2016, 2016) have found that the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> increase in conjunction with climate change enhances plant photosynthesis, which in turn removes CO<sub>2</sub> from atmosphere and produces more organic matter, for example, gross primary production (GPP). This forms a feedback mechanism between plants and environment. Ground-based evidence from Chinese forest inventories also shows that global environmental changes stimulate forest growth and thus enhance forest C sequestration (Fang *et al.*, 2014).

China has released a large amount of industrial and energy-related CO<sub>2</sub> since 2000 (Grubb *et al.*, 2015; Jiang and Ryu, 2016), and simultaneously has carried out numerous afforestation projects under national conservation policies (Yuan *et al.*, 2014, 2014b; Ouyang *et al.*, 2016). Thus, the issue of degree to which China's carbon sequestration through plant photosynthesis offsets China's carbon emissions is significant.

However, predicted interannual variations of GPP in China produced by different GPP models driven with different satellite-based vegetation products and climate data have produced conflicting results (Li *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2017, 2017; Yao *et al.*, 2018). Arising from different model structures as well as satellite and meteorological driving data (Li *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2013), some of these report decreasing GPP trends in China. Thus, multi-model analyses are needed to investigate interannual variations of GPP in China. This is the first objective of this study.

Various vegetation types, which are geographically associated with distinct climate zones, cover China. Arid and semiarid climate zones in northern China often have sparse vegetation types such as desert and grassland due to scarce precipitation (Figure 1). However, southern China, which occupies a humid-subtropical-climate zone with ample precipitation and warmth, has dense vegetation types such as evergreen forests (Yao *et al.*, 2018). Because vegetation is subject to different climate factors in northern and southern China, it is not clear whether vegetation had an identical responses to climate change in these two regions over



**FIGURE 1** Distribution of nine ChinaFlux site, Tibetan plateau, southwest region, northeast region, and Yun Nan province in China. The black line shows the boundary of northern China and southern China [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

2000–2015. This determination is the second objective of this study.

Earth observation (EO) products have supported global ecology applications Pfeifer *et al.*, 2012). They are a basis for GPP estimates and test/constrain large-area GPP models. Many GPP studies over China were based on early Terra MODIS C5 vegetation products (Li *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2017, 2017). Zhang *et al.* (2017) pointed out that Terra MODIS C6 vegetation index (VI) product has a substantial differences in global vegetation trends relative to previous Terra MODIS C5 VI products. This arises from an improved calibration approach (Lyapustin *et al.*, 2014). Much of the “browning” trends in vegetation detected by MODIS Terra-C5 VI may have resulted from the sensor degradation (Wang *et al.*, 2012; Zhang *et al.*, 2017). Hence, it is important to quantify the impact of Terra MODIS C5 and C6 vegetation products on GPP trends, the third objective of this study.

Our study analyzes spatial-temporal patterns of GPP in China, northern China, and southern China since 2000 based on a multi-model analysis from three GPP models. The elements of our study, presented in sections below, are:

1. An evaluation of the TEC GPP model (Yan *et al.*, 2015), the Breathing Earth System Simulator (BESS) and the MOD17 GPP products against observed GPP at nine flux tower sites in China;
2. A multi-model analysis of interannual changes of GPP in response to climate change in China, northern China, and southern China since 2000;
3. A diagnostic analysis of MODIS C5 and C6 FPAR products and their impacts on simulated TEC GPP trends.

Two of these three models, the BESS and the MOD17 GPP models, have been evaluated at flux tower sites in China (Jiang and Ryu, 2016; Zhu *et al.*, 2016, 2016). The other, the TEC GPP model, has been evaluated primarily at AmeriFlux sites (Yan *et al.*, 2015).

## 2 | DATASETS AND PROCESSING PROCEDURE

### 2.1 | Meteorological data

Monthly meteorological data at 2000 high-density stations across China for the period of 2000–2015 were obtained from the National Meteorological Information Center (NMIC; <http://data.cma.cn>) of Chinese Meteorological Administration (CMA). Meteorological variables include air temperature, water vapour pressure, air relative humidity, precipitation, wind speed, and hours of sunshine. Station data, continuously recorded over the research period, were quality checked by National Meteorological Information Centre according to the meteorological standard (QX/T 118–2010) for quality control of surface meteorological observational data (see: National Meteorological Information Center, 2010).

To drive the TEC-GPP model, meteorological station data were interpolated to a spatial resolution of  $0.08^\circ \times 0.08^\circ$  latitude/longitude by using an Inverse Distance Weighted (IDW) interpolation method. Monthly incident global radiation ( $Q$ ) and net radiation ( $R_n$ ) were calculated from sunshine hour according to the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) method (Allen *et al.*, 1998). The FAO  $R_n$  method has been evaluated against observations at the Qianyanzhou flux tower site in southern China and then further applied to drought research in China (Yan *et al.*, 2016, 2016b).

### 2.2 | MOD15A2 LAI/FPAR products

The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) is a key instrument onboard the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) sun-synchronous Terra satellite (10:30 a.m. local time descending node) and Aqua satellite (1:30 p.m. local time ascending node). MODIS LAI/FPAR products (MOD15A2) from the Terra satellite were downloaded (<https://e4ftl01.cr.usgs.gov/MOLT/>), and applied as drivers for the TEC GPP model. This quantified the impact of Collections 6 (C6) and 5 (C5) MOD15A2 data on simulated TEC GPP trend in China. The latest C6 MOD15A2H data with improved calibration has a spatial resolution of 500 m while the C5 MOD15A2 data operates at 1 km spatial resolution.

The MODIS LAI/FPAR products were derived from up to seven MODIS spectral bands using a three-dimensional-radiative transfer model for a vegetation canopy (Myneni *et al.*, 2002). If the main radiative transfer algorithm failed due to clouds or other atmospheric conditions (Yang *et al.*, 2006), a back-up LAI/FPAR algorithm (based on empirical MODIS-specific NDVI-LAI and NDVI-FPAR relationships) was used. LAI/FPAR data also were checked for quality control in this study. MOD15A2 LAI/FPAR products supply quality control data (i.e., FparLai\_QC) accompanied with LAI/FPAR data. If a pixel was cloudy as shown by FparLai\_QC, it was replaced by linear interpolation from the nearest reliable data as appropriate.

### 2.3 | Land cover and soil data

Land cover data with a classification system that included evergreen coniferous forest, deciduous coniferous forest, evergreen broadleaf forest, deciduous broadleaf forest, mixed forest, shrub, grassland, cropland, wetland, city, water body, desert, ice and snow at a 1 km spatial resolution was selected from National Resources and Environments Database of China (<http://www.resdc.cn/data.aspx?DATAID=97>) for the year 2000. The land cover classification was derived from Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM) digital images collected in 1999/2000 using a human-machine interactive interpretation method to increase classification consistency and accuracy (Liu *et al.*, 2002, 2003).

Soil data in China at a  $5 \times 5$  arc-minute (i.e.,  $0.08^\circ$ ) resolution was from the Global Gridded Surfaces of Selected Soil Characteristics developed by the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP) Data and Information Services (DIS). The data set contains profile available water capacity (PAWC), field capacity, wilting point, soil-carbon density, total nitrogen density, thermal capacity, and bulk density for a soil depth of 0–150 cm (Global Soil Data Task Group, 2000).

### 2.4 | Forest resource and inventory data in China

Annual afforestation area since 2000 was downloaded from the National Bureau of Statistics of China at a website of <http://www.stats.gov.cn>. National forest inventories have been periodically implemented to document the forest information about area, timber volume, age, and type. Forest area data used in this study covers the two periods of 1999–2003 and 2009–2013 (Chinese Ministry of Forestry, 2004, 2014).

## 2.5 | Eddy covariance data from ChinaFLUX

The eddy covariance (EC) method measures CO<sub>2</sub>, water, and energy fluxes between biosphere and the atmosphere. EC observations at flux tower sites have been adopted to evaluate both light use efficiency (LUE) and process-based GPP models (Baldocchi *et al.*, 2001). The EC method directly measures net ecosystem exchange (NEE) not GPP. GPP is calculated as the difference between measured daytime NEE and daytime respiration estimated from a temperature-dependent model (Falge *et al.*, 2001, 2002). Therefore, the GPP estimates include all uncertainties of the NEE measurement and of the daytime respiration model.

In this study, EC data, observed at nine Chinese Terrestrial Ecosystem Flux Research Network (ChinaFLUX) tower sites (Figure 1) covering various biome types such as forest, grasslands, and cropland (Table 1), all spanned three continuous years and were adopted to evaluate the TEC GPP model. As a long-term national network of micrometeorological flux measurement sites, ChinaFLUX is designed to explore the dynamics and underlying mechanisms of carbon and water exchange and to quantify the biotic and abiotic effects on ecosystem processes (Yu *et al.*, 2013; Huang *et al.*, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2015).

## 2.6 | Data pre-processing

All model forcing data including MODIS C6 and C5 LAI/FPAR data, meteorological data, land cover data, and PAWC of soil data, were interpolated to a 0.08° × 0.08° grid resolution and then applied to driving the TEC GPP model on a monthly timescale. The TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> and GPP<sub>C5</sub> products were used in the multi-model analysis combined with available BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub> and MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub> products. Linear regression was adopted in this study to analyse inter-annual trends of GPP products and model forcing data over 2000–2015.

## 2.7 | BESS GPP products

The BESS, a simplified process-based model, simulates atmosphere and canopy radiative transfers, canopy photosynthesis, transpiration, and energy balance (Ryu *et al.*, 2011). The monthly BESS GPP products at 0.5° geographic resolution for a period of 2000–2015 were downloaded ([http://environment.snu.ac.kr/bess\\_flux/](http://environment.snu.ac.kr/bess_flux/)) in this study. The BESS GPP and ET products were calculated from:

1. MCD15A2 C5 LAI products composited from Terra C5 MOD15A2 and Aqua C5 MYD15A2 products,
2. MODIS atmosphere C6 products, four other satellite datasets, and
3. Four reanalysis datasets.

The BESS products have been comprehensively evaluated against FLUXNET 2015 dataset including China flux tower data and MPI-BGC and official MODIS products at multiple spatial and temporal scales (Jiang and Ryu, 2016).

## 2.8 | MOD17 GPP products

The MOD17A3 C55 annual GPP products at 1 km spatial resolution and MOD17A2 C55 monthly GPP products at 5 km spatial resolution were downloaded from the Numerical Terradynamic Simulation Group (NTSG, <http://www.ntsg.umd.edu/project/mod17>) for comparison with GPP trend estimates from the TEC GPP model in this study. The MODIS GPP algorithm (Running *et al.*, 2004) follows the Monteith LUE theory (1972),

$$\text{GPP} = \varepsilon^* \times m(T_{\min}) \times m(\text{VPD}) \times \text{FPAR} \times \text{PAR} \quad (1)$$

where  $\varepsilon^*$  is the biome-specific maximum conversion efficiency,  $m(T_{\min})$  reduces  $\varepsilon_{\max}$  as a scaler when the minimum air temperature ( $T_{\min}$ ) limits plant growth, VPD is vapour pressure deficit, and  $m(\text{VPD})$  is another scaler used to

**TABLE 1** Site name, abbreviation (Abbr), latitude (lat), longitude (long), altitude (alt), climate, biome type, and years of data of nine ChinaFlux sites

Site name	Abbr	Lat/long	Alt (m)	Climate	Biome type	Years
ChangBaiShan	CBS	41.40/128.09	738	Temperate	Mixed forest	2003–2005
QianYanZhou	QYZ	26.74/115.06	100	Subtropical	Evergreen needleleaf forest	2003–2005
DingHuShan	DHS	23.17/112.53	300	Subtropical	Evergreen broadleaf forest	2003–2005
XiShuangBanNa	XSBN	21.95/101.20	750	Tropical	Seasonalrain forest	2004–2006
NeiMengGu	NMG	43.54/116.67	1,200	Temperate	Grassland	2003–2005
DangXiong	DX	30.49/91.06	4,300	Alpine	Grassland	2004–2006
HaiBei	HB	37.66/101.33	3,202	Alpine	Grassland	2003–2005
DuoLun	DL	42.04/116.28	1,350	Temperate	Grassland	2010–2012
YuCheng	YC	36.95/116.60	28	Temperate	Cropland	2003–2005



reduce  $\varepsilon^*$  when VPD is high enough to inhibit photosynthesis, PAR is the incident photosynthetically active radiation, and FPAR is the fraction of PAR absorbed by the canopy.

The MOD17 global GPP products were calculated from MOD15A2 Collection 5 FPAR/LAI products, biome type-specific maximum conversion efficiency, and the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) and the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) Reanalysis II data (Zhao and Running, 2010). MOD17 GPP products have been used in studying the drought impact in China (Zhang *et al.*, 2012) and the MOD17 GPP model has been evaluated using China flux tower data (Zhu *et al.*, 2016, 2016).

### 3 | DESCRIPTION OF THE TEC GPP MODEL

The TEC model (Yan *et al.*, 2015) simulates GPP of terrestrial ecosystem from the LUE model (Equation (1)) suggested by Monteith (1972). As the LUE  $\varepsilon$  varies with several environmental and vegetation-related parameters (Maisongrande *et al.*, 1995; Ruimy *et al.*, 1999; Garbulsky *et al.*, 2010), temperature and water stresses are taken into consideration in TEC-GPP model,

$$\text{GPP} = \varepsilon \times \text{FPAR} \times \text{PAR} \quad (2)$$

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon^* \times T_e \times W_e \quad (3)$$

where  $\varepsilon^*$  is the maximum light use efficiency, PAR is the incident photosynthetically active radiation ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{ month}^{-1}$ ), and  $T_e$  and  $W_e$  account for effects of temperature stress and water stress on LUE of ecosystem, respectively. PAR is assumed to be a 0.48 fraction of the incident global radiation  $Q$  (McCree, 1972). TEC uses a universal  $\varepsilon^*$  with a value of  $1.8 \text{ g C MJ}^{-1}$  from field observations for  $C_3$  species (Waring *et al.*, 1995; Landsberg and Waring, 1997). As leaf photosynthetic rates of  $C_4$  species are greater than those of  $C_3$  species (Baldocchi, 1994; Prince and Goward, 1995), TEC uses a universal  $\varepsilon^* = 2.76 \text{ g C MJ}^{-1}$  for  $C_4$  species as suggested by Prince and Goward (1995).  $T_e$  is calculated using the temperature stress equation developed for the Terrestrial Ecosystem Model (Raich *et al.*, 1991).

The water stress factor  $W_e$  in the TEC GPP model is defined as,

$$W_e = \frac{E}{E_{\text{PT}}} \quad (4)$$

where  $E$  is actual evapotranspiration calculated from the ARTS  $E$  Model (Yan *et al.*, 2012), and  $E_{\text{PT}}$  is the Priestley and Taylor (1972) model for potential evaporation.

### 4 | DEFINITION OF THE METEOROLOGICAL COMPREHENSIVE FACTOR AND THE HUMIDITY INDEX

To analyse the total impact of meteorological factors on GPP, a meteorological comprehensive factor ( $M_c$ ) was calculated,

$$M_c = \text{PAR} \times T_e \times W_e \quad (5)$$

To investigate the spatial relationship between arid/wet conditions and mean annual GPP, annual humidity index ( $H_i$ ) was calculated from annual precipitation divided by annual potential evapotranspiration,

$$H_i = \frac{\sum P_r}{\sum E_{P\_Allen}} \quad (6)$$

$$E_{P\_Allen} = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u \text{VPD}}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.34u)} \quad (7)$$

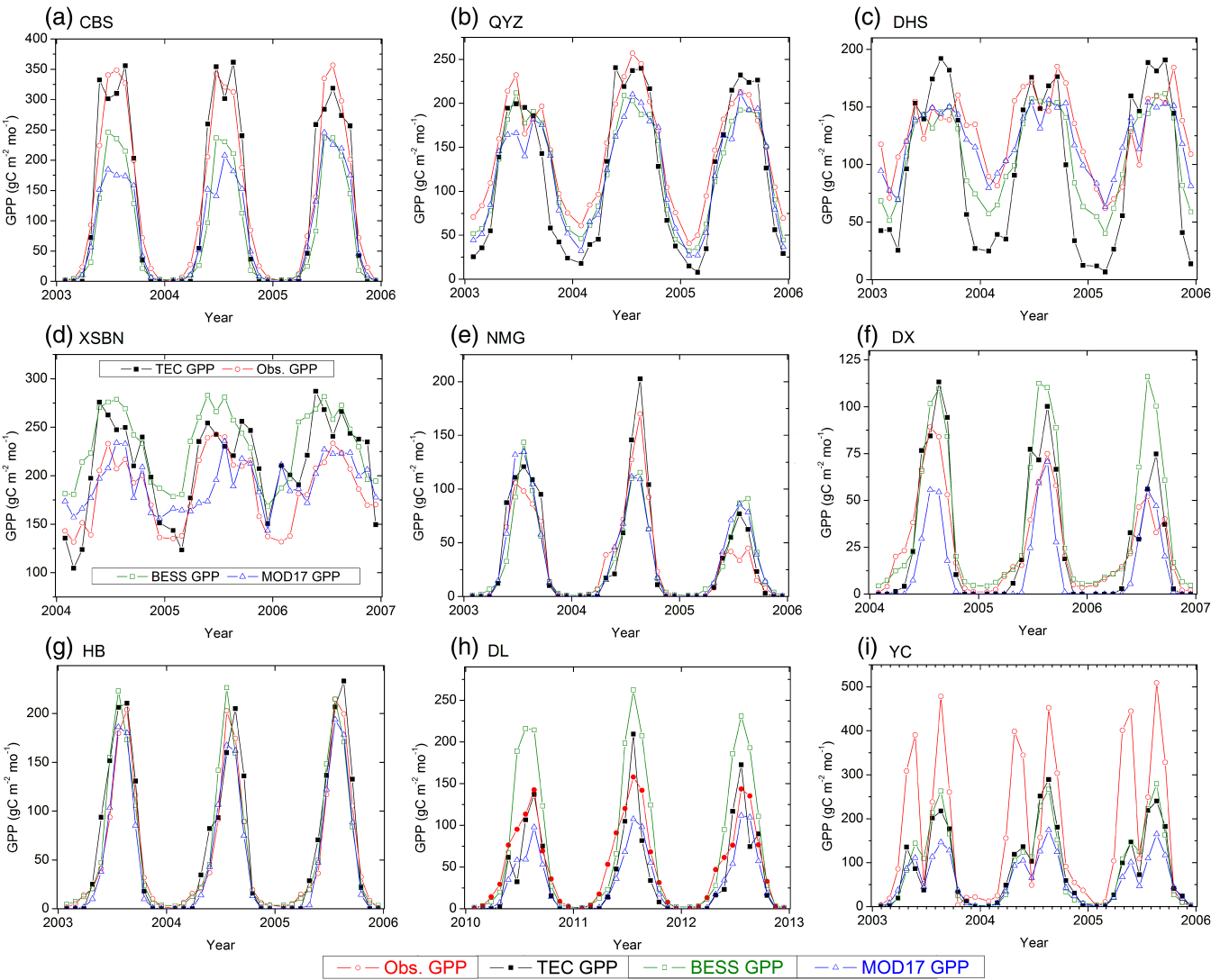
where  $E_{P\_Allen}$  is potential evapotranspiration (Allen *et al.*, 1998),  $R_n$  is net radiation ( $\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ ),  $T_a$  is the air temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ),  $\Delta$  is the gradient of the saturated vapour pressure to the air temperature (kPa),  $\gamma$  is the psychrometric constant, VPD is the vapour pressure deficit,  $u$  is the wind speed ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) at 2 m height.

## 5 | RESULTS

### 5.1 | Evaluation of estimated TEC GPP against observed GPP at flux tower sites on monthly scales

Figure 2 shows that TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> simulated seasonal variations of GPP observed at nine flux tower sites of ChinaFLUX in China. The GPP statistics (Table 2) vary by flux site and ecosystem type with  $R^2$  between 0.51 at DHS site and 0.95 at NMG site. The RMSE similarly ranges from  $14.6 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at NMG to  $137.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at YC, and the Bias is between  $-82.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at YC and  $26.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at XSBN. TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> products underestimated GPP at two sites of DHS (RMSE =  $56.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ , Bias =  $-29.1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ , and  $R^2 = 0.51$ ) and YC (RMSE =  $137.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ , Bias =  $-82.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ , and  $R^2 = 0.65$ ).

TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> underestimated GPP in winter at the subtropical forest site of DHS (Figure 2(c)). The DHS flux tower site, is located in mountainous areas with a large landscape heterogeneity, and may not be well represented by the remote sensing FPAR data and interpolated-meteorological data on the 8 km scale. Similarly, the TL-LUE GPP model



**FIGURE 2** Seasonal variations of monthly estimated TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and MOD17A2 GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and flux tower-observed GPP at nine flux tower sites, that is, (a) CBS, (b) QYZ, (c) DHS, (d) XSBN, (e) NMG, (f) DX, (g) HB, (h) DL, and (i) YC [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](#)]

**TABLE 2** Statistics of estimated monthly TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and MOD17 GPP<sub>C5</sub> versus flux tower observed GPP at nine ChinaFlux sites

Site Name	TEC			BESS			MOD17		
	$R^2$	RMSE	Bias	$R^2$	RMSE	Bias	$R^2$	RMSE	Bias
CBS	0.92	39.7	−2.3	0.97	65.6	−50.2	0.92	74.4	−48.8
QYZ	0.91	38.8	−24.1	0.94	25.2	−20.5	0.93	29.0	−24.0
DHS	0.51	56.3	−29.1	0.61	31.6	−20.0	0.72	19.3	−7.6
XSBN	0.64	39.0	26.5	0.79	50.0	46.9	0.43	27.8	6.1
NMG	0.95	14.6	4.4	0.78	20.3	0.7	0.81	19.4	2.3
DX	0.85	15.7	1.3	0.83	22.1	11.3	0.78	17.2	−12.3
HB	0.92	23.1	6.9	0.93	18.9	3.0	0.97	14.0	−8.3
DL	0.79	27.4	−12.1	0.9	47.0	22.9	0.94	47.0	−20.7
YC	0.65	137.0	−82.3	0.65	135.7	−81.6	0.78	164.9	−109.7

Percent of variance explained ( $R^2$ ), root-mean-square-error (RMSE), and bias ( $\text{g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ ).

(He *et al.*, 2013) reported a similarly poor statistics of  $R^2 = 0.48$  and  $RMSE = 39.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at DHS. The YC site, a two-season-rotation-crop site that is planted with winter wheat and summer maize, had an underestimated TEC GPP in growing season. The MODIS LAI/FPAR products are underestimated for crop (Verma *et al.*, 2005), and field measurements shows that the YC site has a higher value of LAI of as much as 6.5 (Wang *et al.*, 2007).

Figure 3(a) indicates that TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> had overall statistics of  $R^2 = 0.71$ , Bias =  $-12.3 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ , and  $RMSE = 56.1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  for all data ( $N = 324$ ) from 9 flux tower sites on a monthly scale in comparison with flux tower-observed GPP. TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> had an underestimated GPP of  $-11.8\%$ , mainly caused by the underestimation at the YC crop site. Excluding the YC site, TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> produced an improved performance with  $R^2 = 0.87$ , Bias =  $-3.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  ( $-3.7\%$ ), and  $RMSE = 34.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  for C3 vegetation types ( $N = 288$ ) from 8 flux tower sites. Similarly, EC-LUE GPP model had statistics of  $R^2 = 0.79$  and  $R^2 = 0.62$  for C3 vegetation and C4 crop types, respectively (Li *et al.*, 2013).

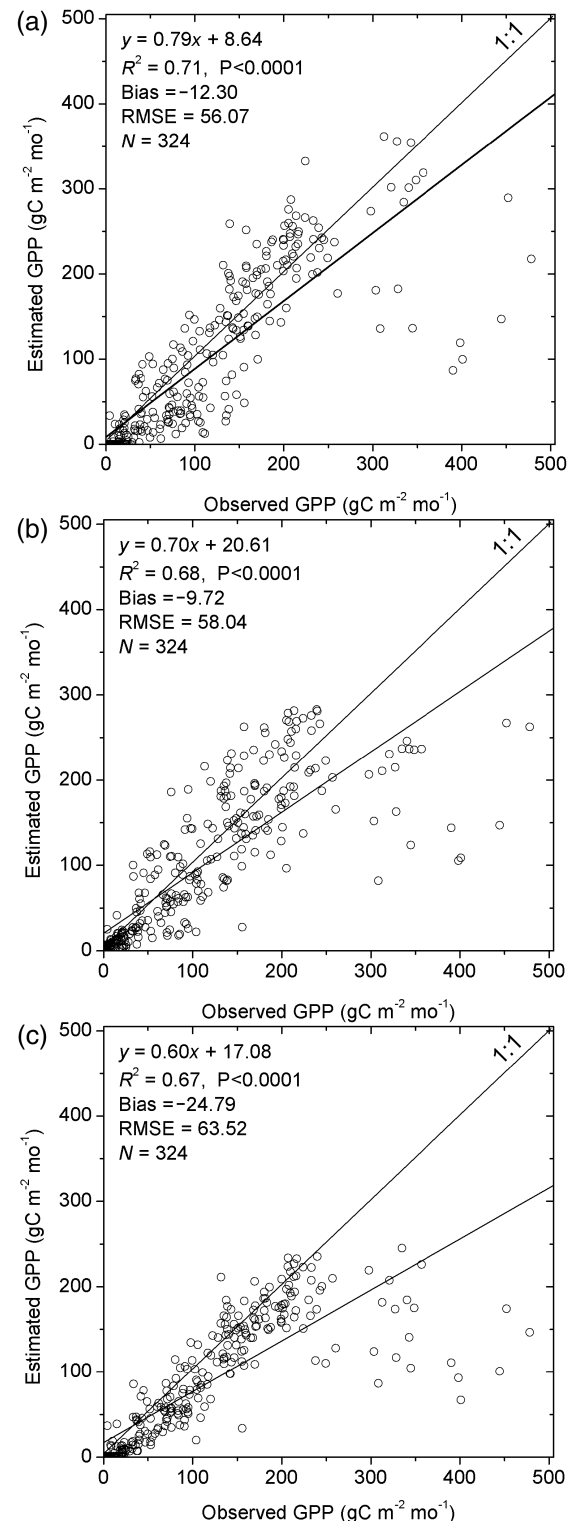
## 5.2 | Evaluation of the BESS and MOD17 GPP products against observed GPP at flux tower sites on monthly scales

The seasonal variations in output from the BESS and MOD17 GPP models simulated for nine flux tower sites of ChinaFLUX in China showed good qualitative agreement (Figure 2). When quantitatively compared with flux tower-observed GPP for these nine flux tower sites (Figure 3(b)), BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub> had a monthly statistics of  $R^2 = 0.68$ , Bias =  $-9.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ , and  $RMSE = 58.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  for all data ( $N = 324$ ). However, MOD17 GPP<sub>C5</sub> had a similar  $R^2 = 0.67$ , but Bias =  $-24.8 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  and  $RMSE = 63.5 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  for all data (Figure 3(c)). MOD17 GPP<sub>C5</sub> underestimated GPP by  $23.8\%$  on average.

Further evaluation (Table 2) shows that MOD17 GPP<sub>C5</sub> underestimated GPP at seven sites. The Bias of MOD17 GPP ranges from  $-109.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at YC to  $6.1 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at XSBN, and the RMSE changes from  $14.0 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at HB to  $164.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at YC. For BESS GPP, the Bias is between  $-81.6 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at YC and  $46.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at XSBN, and the RMSE ranges from  $18.9 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at HB to  $135.7 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ mo}^{-1}$  at YC.

## 5.3 | Spatial characteristic of mean annual GPP and humidity index in China

The mean annual GPP from the three GPP models all had a large spatial heterogeneity (Figure 4). Overall, GPP decreased from south to north and from east to west. In



**FIGURE 3** Comparison of the flux tower-observed GPP versus estimated (a) TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, (b) BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and (c) MOD17A2 GPP<sub>C5</sub> for all data from 9 flux tower sites on a monthly scale

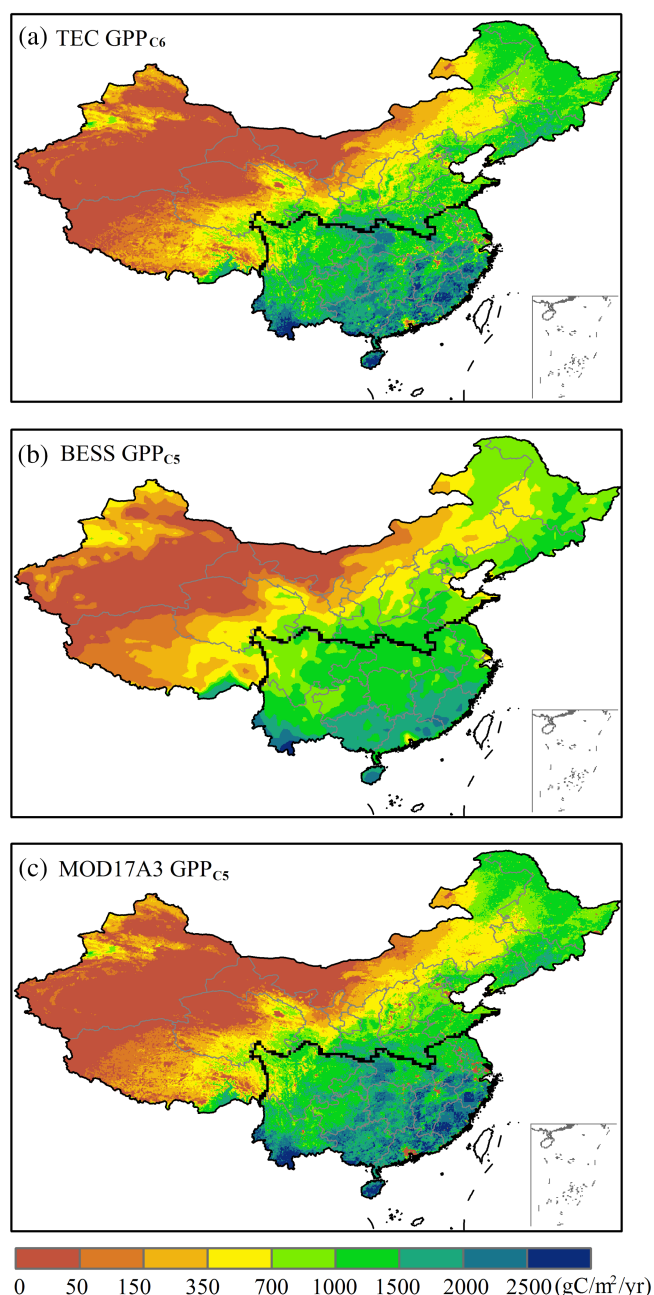
southeastern China, GPP had the highest value of over  $2,500 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$  while in western China, GPP had the lowest value below  $50 \text{ g C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ . TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub> products had an average annual GPP

of  $7.03 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$ ,  $6.42 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$ , and  $5.97 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$  for 2000–2015 within the reported GPP ranges of  $5.58 \pm 1.92 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$  for China derived from multiple LUE models and process-based GPP models (Li *et al.*, 2013).

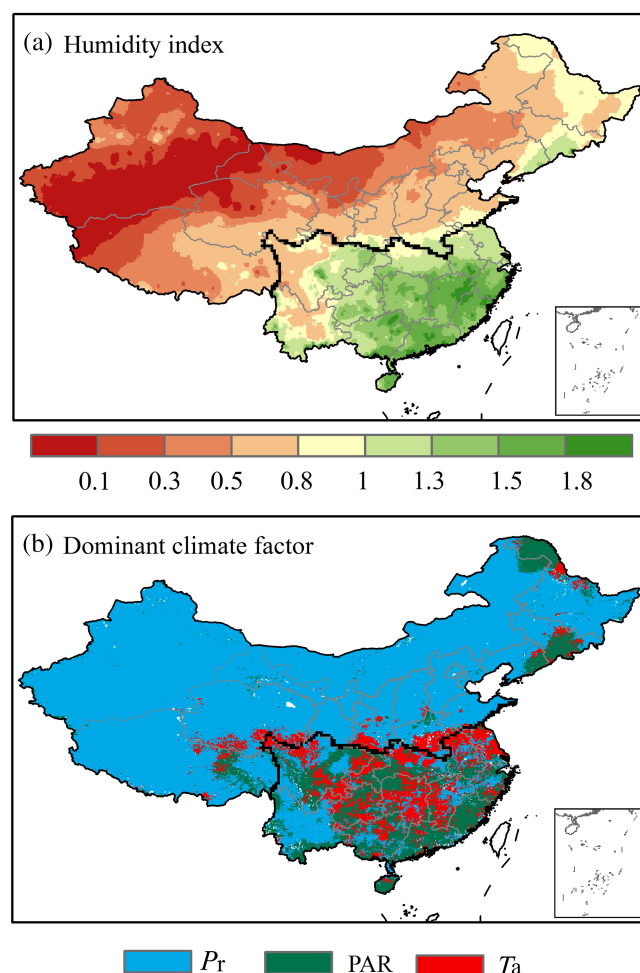
This spatial pattern of annual GPP was subject to climate factors including light, temperature, and precipitation. Figure 5(a) shows the pattern of GPP agreed well with spatial pattern of mean annual humidity index ( $H_i$ ) for the same period of 2000–2015. Note that annual  $H_i$  was defined as annual precipitation divided by annual  $E_{P\_Allen}$ . Most of

southern China featured a humid climate with a higher  $H_i$  up to 1.3–1.8 and a higher GPP above  $1,500 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ . However, northern China's dryer climate had a lower  $H_i$  down to 0.1–0.5 and a lower GPP below  $700 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ , which means that annual precipitation could not satisfy the evaporation demand. One would expect plant growth in northern China to be stressed by water deficit and for GPP to be dominated by the precipitation factor.

Further correlation analysis of TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> against meteorological factors on yearly scales (Figure 5(b); Table 4) revealed that GPP in the northern China was primarily controlled by precipitation. GPP in humid southern China was dominated by temperature and radiation factors, which suggests that interannual changes of GPP in northern China and southern China were driven by contrasting mechanisms in their responses to climate change over 2000–2015. These findings match those of Yuan *et al.* (2014, 2014) and Zhang *et al.* (2018), who pointed out that water availability is the most important factor controlling GPP changes over northern China and Tibetan Plateau. GPP in southern China is



**FIGURE 4** Mean annual (a) TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, (b) BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and (c) MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub> over 2000–2015 in China [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]



**FIGURE 5** (a) Mean annual humidity index and (b) dominant climate factor of GPP interannual variability across China over 2000–2015 [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]



dominated by temperature and radiation factors (Yao *et al.*, 2018).

#### 5.4 | Multi-model analysis of interannual changes of GPP in China, northern and southern China since 2000

Figure 6(a) shows that all four GPP products from three GPP models had an increasing trend ( $p < 0.05$ ) from 2000 to 2015 with different amplitudes. TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> had the highest growth rate of  $0.057 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$ , which was double that of the increasing amplitude of the other three GPP products. Driven with the same MODIS C5 LAI/FPAR products, TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub> tended to increase at a rate of  $0.033 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$  over 2000–2015 comparable to increasing rates of  $0.037$  and  $0.021 \text{ Pg C year}^{-1}$  for BESS and MOD17A3, respectively, which shows that TEC, BESS, and MOD17A3 products had similar potential in revealing interannual variations of GPP in China. Note that BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub> products started from 2001. Table 3 shows that four GPP products for entire China increased by 5–13% from 2000 to 2015.

For northern China (Figure 6(c)), annual GPP of all four products had an increasing trend ( $p < 0.01$ ) from 2000 to 2015. However, in southern China (Figure 6(e)), only TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> and BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub> showed an increasing trend ( $p < 0.05$ ). TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub> and MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub> had an insignificant increasing trend. Northern China had a higher increasing amplitude of annual GPP than that of southern China. Comparisons (Table 3) showed that the annual GPP of the four GPP products increased by 10–22% for northern China and only 0–6% for southern China over 2000–2015.

The spatial pattern of linear trends (Figure 6(b), (d), (f), (g)) shows annual GPP with significant increases ( $p < 0.05$ ), primarily in northern China for the four GPP products. Most of southern China had no significant GPP changes ( $p > 0.05$ ). A large difference also existed in spatial distribution of changing amplitude for four GPP model products. TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> (Figure 6(b)) had a larger area with linear trends of absolute  $k > 25 \text{ g C year}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$ , while TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub> (Figure 6(d)) had more areas of decreasing trend with  $k < 0 \text{ g C year}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$  in southern China consistent with the decreasing trend of FPAR<sub>C5</sub> (Figure 4(c)). BESS (Figure 6(f)) and MOD17A3 (Figure 6(g)) GPP<sub>C5</sub> often had a linear trend with absolute  $k < 25 \text{ g C year}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}$  across China.

#### 5.5 | Interannual changes of meteorological factors in China, northern and southern China since 2000

Figure 7 shows interannual variations of PAR,  $T_a$ ,  $P_r$ , and their comprehensive factor ( $M_c$ ) from 2000 to 2015 in China. Figure 7(a) and (b) indicates annual PAR decreased

( $p > 0.17$ ) for China, northern China and southern China. Northern China's spatial pattern of interannual changes (Figure 7(c)) has a decreasing trend in PAR ( $k < -10 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ). The Southwest region had an increasing trend in PAR ( $k > 10 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ).

Mean annual  $T_a$  increased ( $p > 0.25$ ; Figure 7(d), (e)) from 2000 to 2015 in China, northern China and southern China. Figure 7(f) shows that  $T_a$  had an increase ( $k > 0.025^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$ ) mainly in Tibetan Plateau and Southwest region. Other Chinese regions had no significant trend in  $T_a$ .

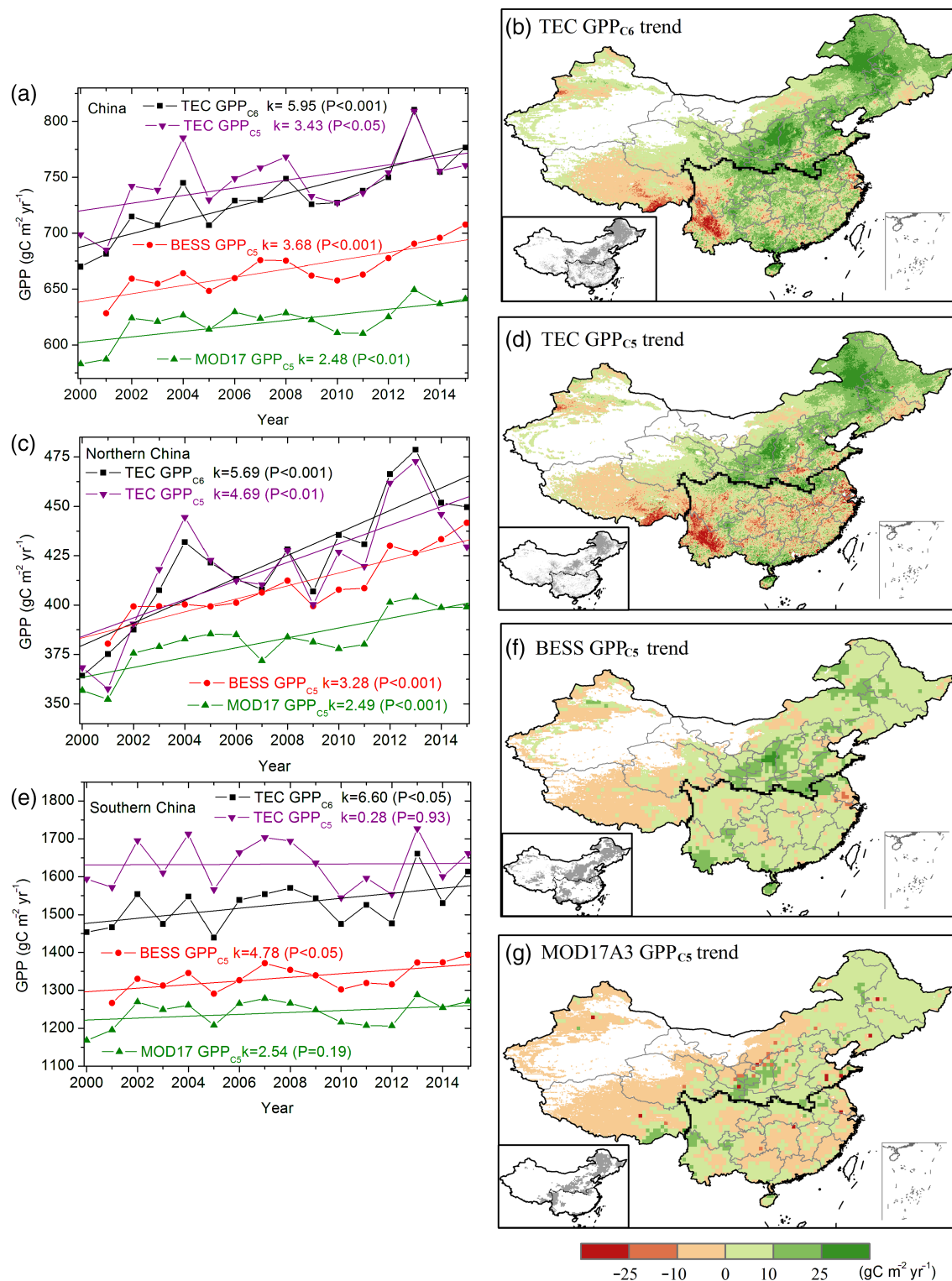
Annual  $P_r$  increased ( $p > 0.22$ ; Figure 7(g), (h)) from 2000 to 2015 in China, northern China and southern China. Figure 7(i) indicates annual  $P_r$  increased in Northeast China and decreased mainly in the Southwest region. Other Chinese regions had no significant trend in  $P_r$ .

Annual  $M_c$  increased ( $p = 0.26$ ; Figure 7(j)) from 2000 to 2015 in China. However, northern China and southern China had contrasting trends in  $M_c$  from 2000 to 2015. Figure 7(k) shows that annual  $M_c$  in northern China tended to increase while southern China had a decrease in annual  $M_c$ . Figure 7(i) indicates that a primary increase of  $M_c$  mainly distributed in northern China and a decrease mainly located in Southwest region of China.

Increasing annual  $P_r$  and  $T_a$  produced the significant increase in  $M_c$  for northern China, which had favoured plant growth since 2000. However, decreasing annual PAR produced the decrease in  $M_c$  for southern China, that is, meteorological conditions disadvantaged plant growth from 2000 to 2015. As a result, GPP in northern China increased ( $p < 0.01$ ) by 10–22%, while southern China had a weak increase in GPP by only 0–6% over the same period of 2000–2015.

#### 5.6 | Impacts of MODIS FPAR<sub>C6</sub> and FPAR<sub>C5</sub> products in China

Remote sensing-based GPP models depend heavily on the forcing data of LAI/FPAR data. MODIS FPAR C6 and C5 products had a distinct difference in interannual changes of FPAR since 2000 (Figure 8(a)). MODIS FPAR<sub>C6</sub> had an upward trend ( $p < 0.01$ ) with slope  $k = 0.0022 \text{ year}^{-1}$ , which was double the increase of FPAR C5 ( $k = 0.001 \text{ year}^{-1}$ ;  $p < 0.05$ ). Similarly, their spatial patterns showed a large difference. FPAR<sub>C6</sub> data (Figure 8(b)) had more areas of increase with  $k$  higher than  $0.005 \text{ year}^{-1}$  compared with FPAR<sub>C5</sub> data (Figure 8(c)). In contrast, FPAR<sub>C5</sub> data had more areas of decrease with  $k$  lower than  $-0.0025 \text{ year}^{-1}$  when compared to FPAR<sub>C6</sub> data. As a result, TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub> products had a lower increasing trend compared with TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> products driven with MODIS FPAR<sub>C6</sub> data over the same period of 2000–2015.



**FIGURE 6** Time series of annual TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub> in (a) China, (c) northern China, (e) southern China from 2000 to 2015 with linear trend  $k$  and significance  $P$ . spatial pattern of linear trends of annual (b) TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, (d) TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub>, (f) BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, and (g) MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub> in China from 2000 to 2015 (Grey colour at the corner map shows trend at 0.05 significance level) [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

**TABLE 3** Mean annual GPP, linear trend and change rate of annual GPP over 2000–2015 for TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub>, TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub>, BESS GPP<sub>C5</sub>, MOD17A3 GPP<sub>C5</sub> products, and their ensemble mean in China, northern China, and southern China

Region	GPP	TEC GPP <sub>C6</sub>	TEC GPP <sub>C5</sub>	BESS GPP <sub>C5</sub>	MOD17A3 GPP <sub>C5</sub>	Ensemble mean
China	Mean (Pg C year <sup>-1</sup> )	7.03	7.16	6.42	5.97	6.65
	Trend (Pg C year <sup>-1</sup> )	0.057	0.033	0.037	0.021	0.037
	Change rate (%)	13%	7%	8%	5%	8%
Northern China	Mean (Pg C year <sup>-1</sup> )	2.90	2.87	2.81	2.62	2.8
	Trend (Pg C year <sup>-1</sup> )	0.039	0.032	0.022	0.017	0.028
	Change rate (%)	22%	18%	13%	10%	16%
Southern China	Mean (Pg C year <sup>-1</sup> )	4.13	4.29	3.61	3.35	3.85
	Trend (Pg C year <sup>-1</sup> )	0.018	0.001	0.013	0.006	0.010
	Change rate (%)	6%	0%	5%	2%	3%

**TABLE 4** Correlation coefficient *R* and significance *P* of annual GPP versus PAR, *T<sub>a</sub>*, *P<sub>r</sub>*, and *M<sub>c</sub>* over 200–2015

Region	PAR	<i>T<sub>a</sub></i>	<i>P<sub>r</sub></i>	<i>M<sub>c</sub></i>
China	−0.07 ( <i>p</i> = 0.79)	0.39 ( <i>p</i> = 0.12)	0.25 ( <i>p</i> = 0.35)	0.62 ( <i>p</i> < 0.01)
Northern China	−0.3 ( <i>p</i> = 0.25)	0.06 ( <i>p</i> = 0.79)	0.55 ( <i>p</i> < 0.05)	0.78 ( <i>p</i> < 0.001)
Southern China	0.41 ( <i>p</i> = 0.11)	0.55 ( <i>p</i> < 0.05)	0.03 ( <i>p</i> = 0.88)	0.44 ( <i>p</i> = 0.08)

## 6 | DISCUSSION

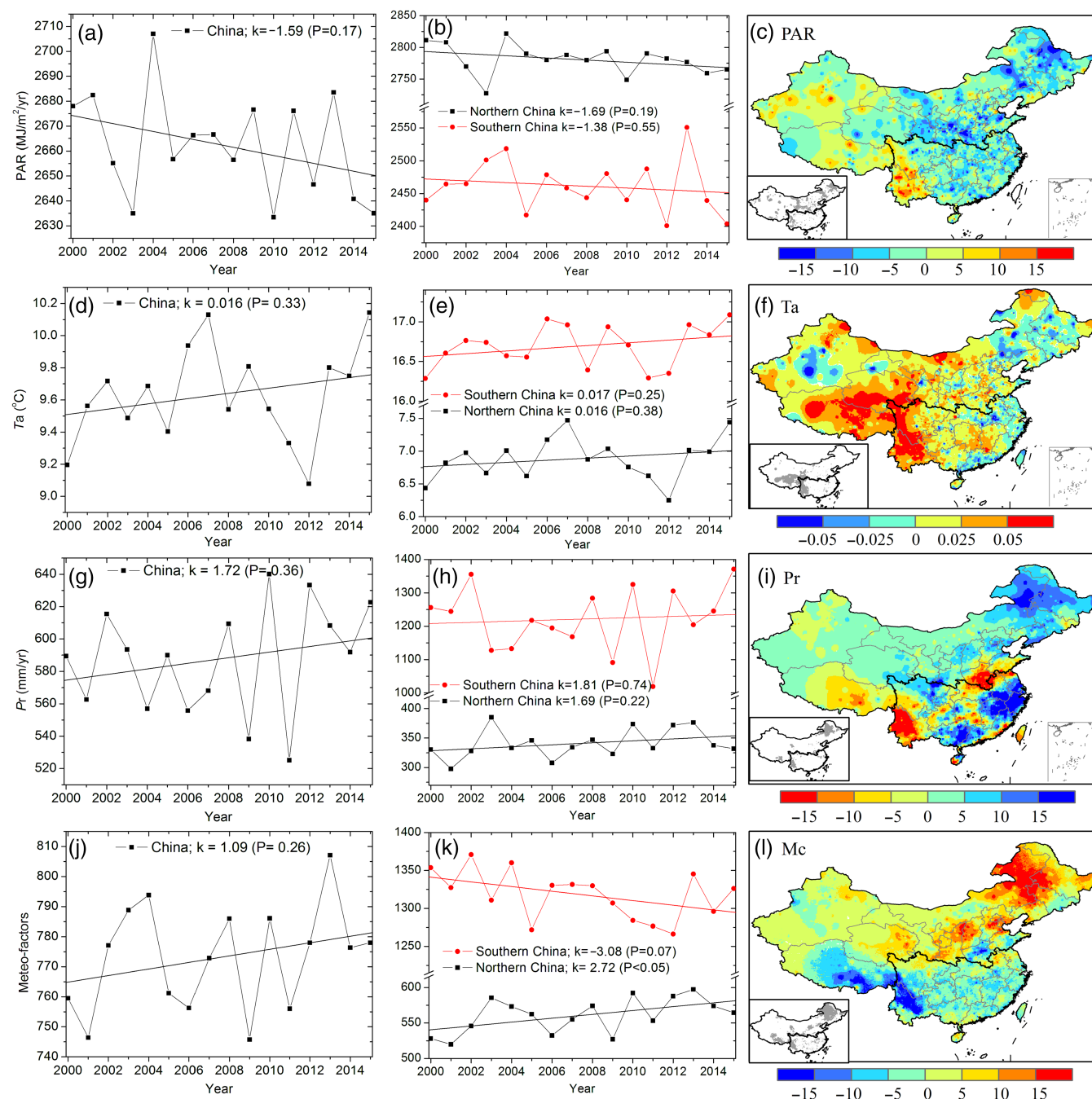
Quantifying interannual variations of GPP is key to understanding climate and vegetation dynamics. However, based on studies applying a single GPP-model, one sees large uncertainties in the interannual variations of terrestrial GPP—including the magnitude and even direction of long-term trend in China based on the application of a single model (Li *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2017, 2017; Yao *et al.*, 2018). Our multi-model analysis from three GPP models found that annual GPP increased (*p* < 0.05) in China, majorly in the northern China region from 2000 to 2015, which means a wide extent of greening occurred in China. It agreed with global greening detected for the period of 1982–2014 by using satellite vegetation data and ecosystem models (Nemani *et al.*, 2003; Piao *et al.*, 2006; Zhu *et al.*, 2016, 2016). Zhu *et al.* (2016, 2016) reported that over 25% to 50% of global vegetated regions have a persistent and wide spread greening trend with an increasing LAI, while less than 4% of the global vegetated regions are “browning” with a decreasing LAI.

The rapid increase of GPP in China from 2000 to 2015 could be attributed to coupled effects of favourite climate, CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect, nitrogen deposition, fertilizer application, and afforestation project (Tian *et al.*, 2011; Lu *et al.*, 2012; Yuan *et al.*, 2014, 2014; Ouyang *et al.*, 2016; Fernández-Martínez *et al.*, 2017). In this study, correlation analysis shows that climate favoured the GPP increase and plant growth in China and northern China over 2000–2015,

while climate inhibited GPP increase in southern China. It arose from climate-affected GPP in northern China and southern China responding to different mechanisms. For northern China, where precipitation played the dominant role in plant growth. The wet and warm climate has benefited GPP increases since 2000. For southern China, where plant was mainly stressed by radiation and heat resources not by precipitation, decreases in solar radiation played a negative impact on plant growth in southern China over 2000–2015.

Drought, as an important meteorological event, often inhibits plant growth in China. Drought monitoring for China shows an extreme drought event happened in 2000–2001 in the context of conditions during the period of 1982–2011 (Zhu *et al.*, 2016, 2016). After 2000, a wetting trend (*p* < 0.01) was obtained across China as a whole and especially in northern China. A drying trend was found for southern China until 2011 (Yan *et al.*, 2016, 2016), which supports our results that climate change had favoured the overall increase of GPP and plant growth in China and northern China except southern China since 2000. Note that annual *P<sub>r</sub>* decreased from 2000 to 2011 in southern China and then increased after 2011 (Figure 7).

Meteorological factors alone do not reconcile the negative impact of climate (Figure 7(k)) and the increases in GPP (Figure 6(e)) in southern China from 2000 to 2015. CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization effect has been implicated in increased vegetation greenness and land CO<sub>2</sub> sink (Cao *et al.*, 2002; Los, 2013; Schimel *et al.*, 2015; Fernández-Martínez *et al.*, 2017). Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> increase and climate variation contributed

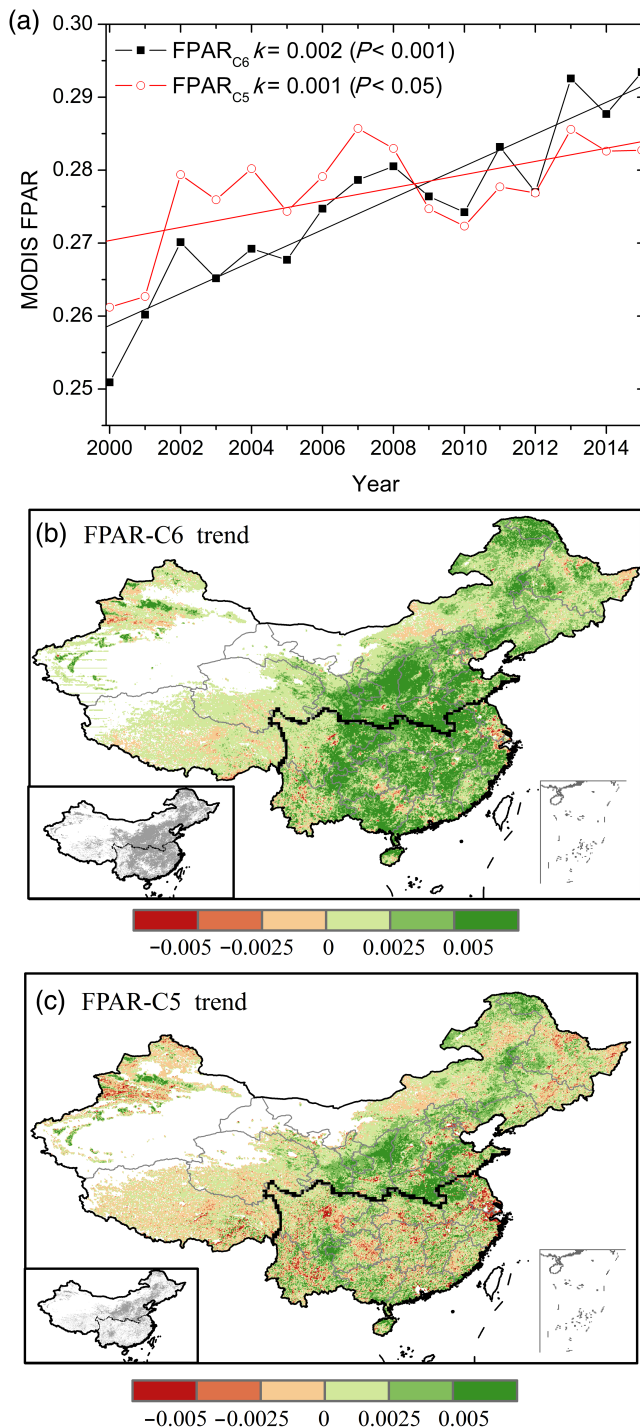


**FIGURE 7** Time series of annual (a, b) PAR, (d, e)  $T_a$ , (g, h)  $P_r$ , and (j, k) Meteo-factors ( $M_c$ ) in (left column) China, (middle column) northern and southern China from 2000 to 2015, and (right column) spatial patterns of their linear trends (Grey colour at the corner map show trend at 0.05 significance level) [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

73% of increases of global terrestrial carbon uptake from the 1980s to the 1990s (Cao *et al.*, 2002). Los (2013) found that 40 and 40% of observed global uptrend in vegetation greenness can be explained from climate and CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization respectively for 1982–2006. Mao *et al.* (2016) even attributed the observed greening in the Northern Hemisphere to human-caused global change, that is, greenhouse gases. Schimel *et al.* (2015) suggested that up to 60% of the current terrestrial sink derives from CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization.

CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization not only increases plant photosynthetic rates but also alleviates the risk of drought by decreasing stomatal conductance and increasing water use efficiency (Jarvis *et al.*, 1999; Schimel *et al.*, 2015). Increasing CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and atmospheric humidity also alleviate forest mortality risk (Liu *et al.*, 2017). Thus, it is our assessment that CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization caused the weak increase in GPP by offsetting the negative impacts of climate in southern China over 2000–2015.





**FIGURE 8** (a) Interannual variations of MODIS FPAR C6 and C5 products and spatial pattern of linear trends for annual (b) FPAR<sub>C6</sub> and (c) FPAR<sub>C5</sub> products from 2000 to 2015. The small grey map in the left corner of the figures shows trends at 0.05 significance level. The black line shows the boundary between northern China and southern China [Colour figure can be viewed at [wileyonlinelibrary.com](http://wileyonlinelibrary.com)]

Meanwhile, afforestation projects as well as “Grain for Green” projects have been launched to protect and restore natural ecosystems in China. These national conservation policies lead to improvements in ecosystem services

including carbon sequestration, soil retention, etc. (Yuan *et al.*, 2014, 2014; Ouyang *et al.*, 2016). Total area of afforestation by manual planting and airplane planting increased from 2000 to 2015. The National Forestry Survey of China found the forest coverage rate (including planting forest and natural forest) increased from 18.21% for 1999–2003 to 21.63% for 2009–2013 with a net increase of 3.42%.

Studies have been applied to attribute patterns of GPP globally and regionally (Cao *et al.*, 2002; Los, 2013; Mao *et al.*, 2016; Zhu *et al.*, 2016, 2016), and accurate estimates of GPP are essential prerequisites. The TEC GPP model, as a remote sensing-based LUE model, can simulate GPP seasonality compared with flux tower-observed GPP worldwide including China (Yan *et al.*, 2015; this study), which enabled its further applications in research of interannual changes of GPP.

Evaluation of three GPP models against observed GPP at flux towers shows that MOD17 GPP products had a poor statistics and underestimated GPP with a large bias of  $-24.8 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ . Similarly, previous studies (Zhang *et al.*, 2008; Wang *et al.*, 2013) reported that MOD17 GPP products underestimate GPP due to the use of a low parameter value for the maximum light-use efficiency in the MOD17 algorithm. BESS and TEC GPP products had better performance statistics than MOD17 GPP products. They had an overall good performance in representing seasonal changes of plant photosynthesis. However, systematic biases still existed among these GPP estimations, consequences of using different meteorological data, MODIS FPAR and LAI data, and different GPP model structure and parameterization (Cramer *et al.*, 1999; McCallum *et al.*, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2013).

As most LUE GPP models heavily depend on satellite derived-FPAR, we initially investigated the impact of different versions of MODIS FPAR products on GPP estimates and found that FPAR<sub>C5</sub> underestimated the trend by 59% compared with FPAR<sub>C6</sub> uptrend, resulting in an underestimated trend of TEC GPP<sub>C5</sub> approximating 58% of TEC GPP<sub>C6</sub> since 2000 in China. Similarly, Ito and Sasai (2006) reported that up to 50% difference in linear trends of interannual variability for GPP existed between driving climate datasets and GPP models. It is our assessment that the multi-model analysis can reduce uncertainties in GPP model structure and driving meteorological data.

There are uncertainties in evaluating  $0.08^\circ$  gridded TEC GPP data using flux tower data because the footprint of flux tower is only about 100–1,000 m. In China, flux towers are often selected for sites representing a typical regional climate and ecosystem, which allows evaluation of gridded GPP products from flux tower data. As soil data has a resolution of 5 arc-minute (i.e.,  $0.083^\circ$ ) and

only 2000 stations are currently available across China, we interpolated them to a  $0.08^\circ$  spatial scale to drive the TEC model and further evaluated TEC GPP products by using flux tower data. The evaluation shows that TEC GPP products were capable of simulating GPP seasonal changes.

## 7 | CONCLUSIONS

A multi-model analysis was applied to investigate climate impacts on GPP changes in contrasting dry and wet climate zones, that is, northern China and southern China for 2000–2015. Northern China had an upward trend in annual GPP with an increasing amplitude of 2.8 times the GPP increasing trend found in southern China. For this reason, the change in northern China dominated the GPP uptrend seen for China. The upward trends of annual GPP in northern and southern China were the consequences of different mechanisms, in which climate change affected plant GPP in dry versus wet climate zones. The strong upward trend of GPP in northern China was due to more  $P_r$  in concert with higher  $T_a$ . There  $P_r$  was the dominant meteorological driver of GPP changes. The weak uptrend of GPP in southern China resulted partially from decreasing solar radiation and solar radiation exerted a key role in GPP changes. This study highlights that climate effects on GPP were subject to different mechanisms varying by climate zones in China.

MODIS C6 and C5 FPAR products had a significant difference in the calculation of interannual changes of vegetation in China. As a result, remote sensing-based GPP models driven with MODIS FPAR<sub>C5</sub> products, that is, TEC, BESS, and MOD17 GPP<sub>C5</sub> products, gave a lower increasing trend of annual GPP in China.

Evaluation against observed GPP at nine ChinaFLUX sites across China shows that TEC GPP model simulated seasonal changes of GPP with overall statistics comparable to other model statistics. Driven with the same C5 version of MODIS FPAR/LAI products, TEC, BESS and MOD17 GPP<sub>C5</sub> products all gave a comparable increase of annual GPP for the interval of 2000–2015. This study highlights that a multi-model analysis is essential in research of climate impacts on vegetation GPP with reduced uncertainties from model and driving data.

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gov.cn/), Chinese Ministry of Forestry for sharing forest area data, the Resource and Environment Data Center of Chinese Academy of Sciences for supplying Land cover data of China in 2000 (<http://www.resdc.cn/data.aspx?DATAID=97>), the Land Processes Distributed Active Archive Center (LP DAAC) managed by United States Geological Survey (USGS) for supplying MODIS data (<https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/>), the Numerical Terradynamic Simulation Group (NTSG) at University of Montana for supplying MOD17 GPP products (<http://www.ntsg.umn.edu/>), the Environmental Ecology Lab at Seoul National University for providing Breathing Earth System Simulator (BESS) GPP products, and the Oak Ridge National Laboratory Distributed Active Archive Center (ORNL DAAC) for providing global soil data (<https://daac.ornl.gov>). This work was supported by National Key Research and Development Program of China (2017YFC0503803), National Natural Science Foundation of China (41571327, 31700421), and National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) grants to H.H. Shugart: 10-CARBON10-0068, and Climate Change/09-IDS09-116. We also thank the reviewers for their constructive remarks and suggestions.

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