

1 **A direct evaluation of long-term global Leaf Area Index (LAI)**
2 **products using massive high-quality LAI validation samples**
3 **derived from Landsat archive**

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21 **Abstract:** The long-term global Leaf Area Index (LAI) products are critical supports
22 for characterizing the changes in land surface and its interactions with other
23 components of the Earth system under the dramatic global change. However,
24 intercomparisons between current available long-term global LAI products present
25 significant spatiotemporal inconsistencies which have been a persistent source of
26 uncertainties in global change ecology. Yet, a direct and systematic evaluation of current
27 long-term LAI products is still lacking due to the absence of appropriate LAI references,
28 especially before 2000. Here, we proposed a novel evaluation framework to directly
29 evaluate the mainstream long-term global LAI products (GIMMS LAI3g, GLASS LAI,
30 and GLOBMAP LAI) using massive high-quality LAI validation samples. The LAI
31 validation samples, derived from the Landsat archive using machine learning and
32 MODIS LAI, have a global distribution, a long temporal coverage (1982–2020), and a
33 large amount of 4.9 million. They substantially address the issue of insufficient LAI
34 reference data and can enable quantitative LAI assessments. The long-term global LAI
35 products showed reasonable quality in terms of absolute value, with GIMMS LAI3g
36 having better performance (R:0.96; MAE: $0.29 m^2m^{-2}$; RMSE: $0.49 m^2m^{-2}$),
37 followed by GLASS LAI (R:0.96; MAE: $0.31 m^2m^{-2}$; RMSE: $0.51 m^2m^{-2}$) and
38 GLOBMAP LAI (R:0.90; MAE: $0.52 m^2m^{-2}$; RMSE: $0.91 m^2m^{-2}$). For all LAI
39 products, the data quality after 2000 was better than before 2000. Their annual
40 maximum LAI trends presented mediocre consistencies with the LAI validation
41 samples (R: 0.20–0.29) which showed a significantly larger area of greening. The
42 evaluation of ten state-of-the-art ecosystem models demonstrated varied capabilities in

43 simulating global LAI trends, with the standard deviations ranging from ~0.01 to 0.04
44 $m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$. Although the Multi-Model Ensemble Mean LAI agreed with satellite-
45 based LAI products, they differed with vegetation biomes especially for the tropics. The
46 Landsat LAI validation dataset produced in this study can facilitate the development of
47 long-term global LAI products and provide a quantitative reference for vegetation
48 dynamic studies.

49 **KEYWORDS**

50 Vegetation trend; Long-term global LAI products; LAI validation samples; Landsat
51 archive; TRENDY; Random Forests regressor

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53 **1 INTRODUCTION**

54 Leaf Area Index (LAI), defined as one-half the total green leaf area per unit
55 horizontal ground surface, is a basic ecological variable to characterize the vegetation
56 states and ecosystem functions (Myneni et al., 2002). Compared to other vegetation
57 indices, e.g., Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and Enhanced
58 Vegetation Index (EVI) (Huete, 2012; Liu & Huete, 1995), LAI provides a more
59 specific description of the plant canopy structure and could better indicate the mass and
60 energy exchange processes between atmosphere, vegetation, and soil (Fang et al.,2019;
61 Piao et al., 2013). The global climate observing system (GCOS) and the
62 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) thus used LAI as a critical climate
63 variable of the biosphere (Eyring et al.,2021; GCOS, 2011).

64 Long-term global LAI data has been essential to enhancing our understanding of

65 the response and feedback of vegetation under climate change and human disturbances
66 (Piao et al., 2020), from the perspective of greenness (Zhu et al.,2016), phenology (Shen
67 et al., 2022), and carbon (Forkel et al., 2016; Piao et al., 2018), water (Yuan et al., 2019),
68 and nutrition cycling (Liang et al., 2020). A major finding based on different long-term
69 global LAI products was a continuous greening trend of global vegetation since the
70 1980s. The main driver was CO₂ fertilization globally but also varied with the region
71 (Piao et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2016). The long-term global LAI products are also critical
72 inputs for Earth system models and other theoretical models. These models revealed
73 that terrestrial vegetation could significantly mitigate global warming through
74 biogeochemical (absorption of atmospheric CO₂) and biogeophysical processes (e.g.,
75 transpiration cooling) (Zeng et al., 2017).

76 However, there are also widespread inconsistencies between the LAI products at
77 both regional and global scales regarding the magnitude of vegetation trends and
78 interannual changes in anomalies, which have raised common concerns on the current
79 interpretation of terrestrial ecosystem changes (Jiang et al., 2017). As spatiotemporally
80 consistent LAI values can be only derived from remote sensing data, the primary
81 sources of the inconsistencies are the choice of remote sensing data and the LAI
82 inversion methods (Fang et al.,2019). Before the late 1990s, the Advanced Very High
83 Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR) onboard the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
84 Administration (NOAA) was the only data source to derive global LAI data, but it
85 underwent the effects of NOAA satellite orbital drift and AVHRR sensor degradation
86 (Mao et al., 2012, Jiang et al., 2017). After 2000, advanced satellite sensors became

87 increasingly available and LAI products such as the Moderate Resolution Imaging
88 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) LAI presented validated accuracies (Myneni et al., 2002;
89 Justice et al., 2002). Current long-term global LAI products utilized the overlapped
90 period between AVHRR and MODIS to establish LAI models and applied the model to
91 pre-2000 AVHRR data (Claverie et al., 2016; Pinzon and Tucher, 2014). They differ in
92 the AVHRR input (raw reflectance or NDVI), LAI reference (field measurements,
93 MODIS LAI or its variants), and LAI model (neural networks).

94 Recent advances in global change research appeal to addressing the inconsistencies
95 between long-term global LAI products. This can hardly be achieved by
96 intercomparison analysis between LAI products as it only provides relative differences
97 (Fang & Liang, 2005; Fang et al., 2013; Garrigues et al., 2008; Gessner et al., 2013;
98 Jiang et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2018); rather, a direct validation that quantifies the absolute
99 accuracies is preferred. The direct validation however requires high-quality LAI
100 references either from field measurements or satellite products (Baret et al., 2006;
101 Buermann et al., 2001). To date, the field LAI measurements are limited to small areas
102 or short periods. They also suffer from a spatial mismatch with satellite image pixels
103 (Fang et al., 2012). Satellite-derived LAI products of high reliability such as MODIS
104 LAI can provide globe-wide sample reference, but they became available only after the
105 year 2000 (Fan et al., 2014). A huge gap exists between the demand for direct LAI
106 validation and sufficient high-quality LAI sample reference.

107 In this context, this study aims to provide a systematic assessment of current long-
108 term global LAI products using a high-quality LAI validation dataset with massive

109 samples, a long-time span, and global coverage. The creation of the validation dataset
110 (1984–2020) takes advantage of the Landsat archive available since the 1970s and
111 employs the MODIS LAI product and a machine learning method. We evaluate the
112 quality of the validation dataset via field LAI measurements. Then, three mainstream
113 long-term global LAI products of old and new versions, namely, the third generation
114 Global Inventory Modeling and Mapping Studies LAI (GIMMS LAI3g) (Zhu et al.,
115 2013), the Global Land Surface Satellite (GLASS) LAI (Xiao et al., 2016), and the
116 Long-term Global Mapping (GLOBMAP) LAI (Liu et al., 2012) are compared to the
117 validation dataset. Absolute accuracies are presented. We also evaluate the annual
118 vegetation trends and anomalies in the LAI products and ecosystem models for different
119 vegetation biomes and periods.

120 **2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

121 **2.1 Data**

122 **2.1.1 Landsat surface reflectance**

123 The Landsat surface reflectance was acquired from the Google Earth Engine (GEE)
124 (Kang et al., 2021). We employed six spectral bands (blue, green, red, Near Infrared
125 [NIR], Short-wave infrared 1 [SWIR 1], and SWIR 2) with a 30 m resolution in UTM
126 projections from Landsat 8 Operational Land Imager (OLI), Landsat 7 Enhanced
127 Thematic Mapper Plus (ETM+), Landsat 4–5 Thematic Mapper (TM), and Landsat 1–
128 5 Multispectral Scanner (MSS) products. All product has been geometrically corrected
129 and radiometrically calibrated (Li et al., 2018). Each Landsat scene provides
130 information on its geographic spatial location (latitude and longitude) and solar zenith

131 and azimuth at the time of acquisition. Most clouds and shadows have been labeled
132 using the Fmask algorithm (Zhu & Woodcock, 2012). We used the atmospheric opacity
133 (AOP) index to identify remaining thin clouds mainly in tropical regions and retained
134 scenes with AOP < 0.1 (clear sky).

135 **2.1.2 MODIS LAI**

136 The MODIS LAI product (MCD15A2H, Collection 6), acquired from Atmosphere
137 Archive & Distribution System (LAADS) Distributed Active Archive Center (DAAC)
138 (<https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/search/>), was generated every 8 days in 500
139 m spatial resolution (Huang et al.,2008). The MODIS LAI (C6) represented the new
140 version (nv) that spanned from 2000 to the present. The main algorithm of the MODIS
141 LAI applied biome-specific Look-up-Tables (LUTs) based on a three-dimension
142 radiative transfer model and the back-up algorithm that used empirical relationships
143 between NDVI and LAI (Knyazikhin et al., 1998; Myneni et al., 2002). Compared to
144 the old version (ov) of MODIS LAI (C5), MCD15A2H incorporated data from Terra
145 and Aqua satellites and used the latest MODIS land cover product. It provided a quality
146 control (QC) layer and saturation information. We applied the Savitzky–Golay (SG)
147 filter on the MODIS LAI time series (Yuan et al.,2011).

148 **2.1.3 Long-term global LAI products of old and new versions**

149 The third generation Global Inventory Modeling and Mapping Studies LAI
150 (GIMMS LAI3g), acquired from
151 <https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/0BwL88nwumpqYaFJmR2poS0d1ZDQ?resourcekey=0-9IRE9s-0tFGfwB5qTpLjZw&usp=sharing/>, was generated every 15 days at

153 1/12° spatial resolution (Zhu et al., 2013). The algorithm of GIMMS LAI3g used the
154 feed-forward neural network model to relate GIMMS NDVI3g with MODIS LAI of
155 Beijing Normal University (BNU) version between 2001 and 2009. One neural network
156 model was generated from each month. The main difference between the new (v4) and
157 old (v2) versions of GIMMS LAI3g is that the new version employed the latest GIMMS
158 NDVI3g data.

159 The Long-term Global Mapping (GLOBMAP) LAI, acquired from
160 <https://zenodo.org/record/4700264/>, provided consistent long-term global LAI values
161 (1981–2020) at 8 km resolution. The GLOBMAP LAI was a combination of AVHRR
162 LAI (1981–2000) (Tucker et al., 2005) and MODIS LAI (2001–2020). The MODIS
163 LAI was derived from MODIS land surface reflectance data (MOD09A1). Pixel-wise
164 relationships were established between MODIS LAI and AVHRR NDVI in the
165 overlapping periods (2000–2006) and were then applied back to AVHRR NDVI to
166 generate LAI between 1981 and 2020 (Deng et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2012). The
167 improvement of the new version (v3) over the old (v2) version of GLOBMAP LAI
168 includes the use of updated MOD09A1 (C6), a new cloud detection algorithm for
169 MOD09A1, and a new clumping index map for calculating MODIS LAI (Chen et al.,
170 2020).

171 The Global Land Surface Satellite (GLASS) LAI, acquired from <http://www.bnu->
172 [datacenter.com/](http://www.bnu-datacenter.com/), was generated every 8 days in 1 km spatial resolution from 1981 to
173 2020. The product was based on the general regression artificial neural network, which
174 built relationships between MOD09A1 and LAI reference data. The LAI reference was

175 created by fusing Terra/MODIS LAI (MOD15) with clump-corrected CYCLOPES LAI
176 over Benchmark Land Multisite Analysis and Intercomparison of Products
177 (BELMANIP) sites (Xiao et al., 2014). All the global LAI products were resampled to
178 have a temporal resolution of half-month and a spatial resolution of 8 km. The main
179 difference between the new (v4) and old (v2) versions of GLASS LAI products is that
180 the new version used the latest version of AVHRR surface reflectance.

181 **2.1.4 LAI from TRENDY Process-based Ecosystem Models**

182 This study used ten sets of global monthly LAI data simulated by the TRENDY
183 Process-based Ecosystem Models (<https://globalcarbonbudgetdata.org/>) at 0.5° spatial
184 resolution for 1984–2016 (Wong et al., 1979). These models take into account the
185 effects of temperature, soil moisture, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, climate change,
186 nitrogen deposition, and land cover changes. They have been widely used in the study
187 of the carbon cycle process of the global terrestrial ecosystem (Sitch et al., 2003). The
188 TRENDY Process-based Ecosystem Models include simulations of multiple scenarios.
189 This study used the scenario when the models were driven by all factors of atmospheric
190 CO₂ concentration, climate, and land use.

191 **2.1.5 Field LAI measurements**

192 The field LAI measurements consist of the LAI datasets at BELMANIP network
193 sites (Baret et al., 2006) and from the Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) (Breda
194 et al., 2003), available at <http://calvalportal.ceos.org/web/olive/site-description> and
195 <http://www.ornl.gov>, respectively. The BELMANIP network was a good representation
196 of global land cover types (Baret et al., 2006). Its latest version completed the spatial

197 distribution of sites according to the GLC2000 land cover classification and added 25
198 sites in bare soil areas and tropical forests. The ground LAI measurements by ORNL
199 covered a long period from 1932 to 2000. A total of 190 valid field LAI measurements
200 from 1982–2020 were involved in this study.

201 **2.1.6 MODIS Land Cover product**

202 The MODIS Land Cover product (MCD12Q1, Collection 6), acquired from
203 <https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/mcd12q1v006/>, was generated based on the fusion of
204 Terra and Aqua observations from 2001 to 2019 with a spatial resolution of 500 m
205 (Friedl et al., 2010). The product includes five traditional classification systems. This
206 study selected the third classification scheme of MODIS-derived LAI which divides the
207 global vegetation biome into eight types, including Grassland (GRA), shrubland (SHR),
208 Cropland (CRO), Savannas (SAV), Evergreen Broadleaf Forest (ENF), Deciduous
209 Broadleaf Forest (DBF), Evergreen Needleleaf Forest (ENF), and Deciduous
210 Needleleaf Forest (DNF). This study further used GLO in data analysis to represent the
211 global vegetation biome (the ensemble of eight vegetation types).

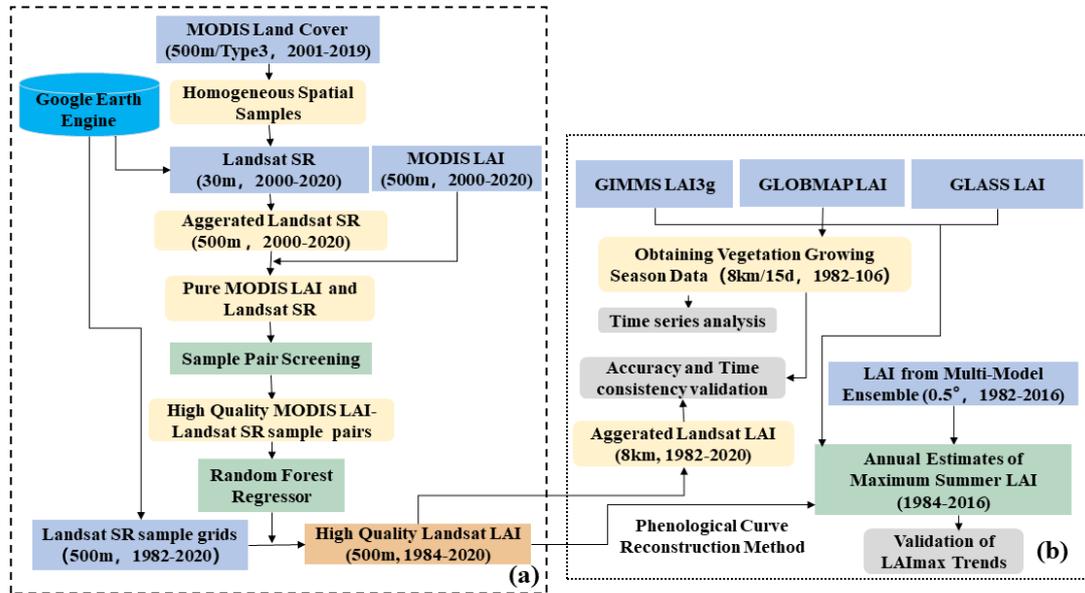
212 **2.2 Generating global LAI validation dataset**

213 We selected massive training sample pairs from Landsat reflectance and MODIS
214 LAI for different vegetation biome types. These sample pairs were then rigorously
215 refined based on a series of criteria (Figure 1). The remaining ones were used to build
216 biome-specific machine learning models that related Landsat surface reflectance to
217 MODIS LAI (Zhou et al., 2018; Kang et al., 2021). The models were finally applied to
218 the Landsat data to generate the LAI validation dataset so that long-term global LAI

219 products from 1982 to 2010s can be evaluated.

220 **2.2.1 Initializing training sample pairs**

221 Based on the LAI classification scheme in the MODIS Land Cover product, we
222 identified locations (in 500 m resolution) whose vegetation biome type remains
223 unchanged for 19 consecutive years (2001–2019). A systematic random sampling
224 method was applied at the locations to select seventy thousand (70,000) samples for
225 DNF and one hundred thousand (100,000) samples for other vegetation biome types.
226 We used GEE to extract MODIS LAI (in 500 m resolution) and Landsat surface
227 reflectance (20×20 pixels in 30 m resolution) at the sample locations, each creating
228 one sample pair. Based on quality information in MODIS LAI and Landsat surface
229 reflectance datasets, the sample pair was considered valid if (1) the MODIS LAI value
230 was derived from the main algorithm (rather than the back-up algorithm), (2) no sensor
231 degradation and no clouds/cloud shadows were present in the MODIS pixel, and (3)
232 more 90% Landsat pixels (360) have a good quality with QC=0 and AOP smaller than
233 0.1.



235 **FIGURE 1** Workflow of the methodology. (a) The generation of massive high-quality
 236 LAI validation samples. (b) Accuracy validation for current LAI products of different
 237 versions. The sample pair screening process includes quality control, outlier removal,
 238 and saturation misclassification removal. SR means surface reflectance.

239 2.2.2 Sample pair screening

240 For each sample pair, Landsat surface reflectance of six bands (blue, green, red,
 241 NIR, SWIR1, and SWIR2) were aggregated as mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) for
 242 good-quality pixels. The coefficient of variation (CV) was calculated as the ratio of μ
 243 and σ . Sample pairs were considered homogeneous if their average CV across six bands
 244 was lower than 0.15 to ensure the purity of the samples (Kang et al., 2021). NDVI was
 245 then calculated. The homogeneous sample pairs were screened to exclude those NDVI
 246 values less than 0 or greater than 1. We also removed the sample pairs whose NDVI fell
 247 outside of the normal range for different MODIS LAI values (Kang et al., 2016). For
 248 this purpose, LAI values in all sample pairs were binned into $0.2 m^2m^{-2}$ intervals.
 249 Within each bin, NDVI fell outside of the 1.5 interquartile range (IQR) were identified

250 and the corresponding sample pairs were removed. Note that we used NDVI rather than
251 individual bands (e.g., red and NIR) because of its stronger relationship with LAI (Kang
252 et al., 2021). EVI1, EVI2, and Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) were also
253 calculated based on Landsat surface reflectance.

254 In the pre-experiments, we found that the saturation state (saturated or not) of the
255 MODIS LAI would significantly impact the model accuracy in LAI inversion. This
256 impact has seldom been reported in previous studies (Kang et al., 2021). To account for
257 this impact, we introduced a saturation indicator as an explanatory variable in the LAI
258 inversion model (see the following section). The saturation indicator can be retrieved
259 from the MODIS LAI product. In the MODIS algorithm, an LAI pixel was classified
260 as "saturated" if the surface reflectance fell within a predefined saturation threshold
261 (Knyazikhin et al., 1998). However, this threshold-based classification would fail as
262 unsaturated pixels with lower LAI values frequently presented similar surface
263 reflectance as the saturated ones with higher LAI values. Misclassification of the
264 saturation state could lead to overestimation of unsaturated LAI and underestimation of
265 saturated LAI in LAI inversion.

266 This study removed the sample pairs whose LAI saturation states were possibly
267 misclassified. First, we reclassified the saturation state of the MODIS LAI in sample
268 pairs via the Random Forest classifier. The classification adopted a ten-fold cross-
269 validation strategy for each vegetation biome and Landsat sensor (TM, ETM+, and
270 OLI), where nine splits were used for training to determine the saturation state of the
271 remaining one split. The target variable was MODIS LAI, and the explanatory variables

272 included the Landsat surface reflectance, vegetation indices (NDVI, EVI1, EVI2, and
273 NDWI), and solar illumination angles. Then, for each sample pair, the reclassified
274 saturation state was compared to that from MODIS LAI. The sample pair was removed
275 if the saturation states were conflicted.

276 **2.2.3 Enhancing the Random Forest model**

277 Given the differences in the radiative transfer process between biomes and the
278 discrepancies in spectral response between Landsat sensors, we built individual
279 Random Forest regression models for each vegetation biome and Landsat sensor (TM,
280 ETM+, and OLI). The explanatory variables included Landsat surface reflectance (blue,
281 green, red, NIR, SWIR1, and SWIR2), NDVI, NDWI, EVI1, EVI2 (Gao, 1996),
282 geographic coordinates (longitude and latitude) of the sample center, and solar zenith
283 and azimuth angles at the scene center. The vegetation indices were included because
284 they could explain the variations of LAI from different aspects (You et al., 2017).
285 Geographic coordinates account for the spatial variation in LAI. The solar illumination
286 geometry can reduce the Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Function (BRDF) effect
287 on LAI retrieval.

288 To avoid the issue of over-fitting, we determined the model hyperparameters (e.g.,
289 number of trees, minimum leaf population, and number of variables per split) by five-
290 fold cross-validation. In the end, each regression model included 100 trees and 5
291 minimum leaves. The model performance was also evaluated by a five-fold cross-
292 validation strategy, with 80% data as training data and the remaining as test data. We
293 used R-Square (R^2), Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE),

294 normalized RMSE (nRMSE), and bias as the error metrics. Normalized RMSE was
295 computed as the ratio of RMSE and the mean reference MODIS LAI. Bias was the
296 mean difference between prediction and reference LAI.

297 **2.2.4 LAI prediction from Landsat data during 1982–2020**

298 The established Random Forests regression models were applied to Landsat data
299 from 1982 to 2020 to generate the final LAI validation dataset. First, locations where
300 LAI would be predicted were determined. We produced a global land cover map with
301 a spatial resolution of $1/12^\circ$, whose pixel type was set as the most frequent vegetation
302 biome based on MODIS Land Cover products between 2001 and 2019. A total of 40
303 thousand sample grids ($1/12^\circ$) were randomly selected from the land cover map. Within
304 each sample grid, nine (3×3) locations were evenly placed. This step produced 40
305 thousand $\times 9$ sample locations.

306 Second, Landsat data at the sample locations were extracted and refined through a
307 series of criteria similar to those in Section 2.2.1 and 2.2.2. We extracted 20×20
308 Landsat pixels (30 m resolution) around each location from all available Landsat
309 records. The sample location with Landsat data of a certain date was considered valid
310 if (1) more 90% of Landsat pixels (360) have a good quality with QC=0 and AOP
311 smaller than 0.1; (2) the average CV across six spectral bands was lower than 0.15; and
312 (3) the average NDVI was between 0 and 1. For each valid sample location, we
313 calculated its average Landsat surface reflectance, geographic coordinates, VIs, and
314 solar zenith and the azimuth of a specific date. All valid sample locations with Landsat
315 data formed the predicting samples.

316 Third, the LAI values of predicting samples were estimated. The estimation was
317 based on the established Random Forests regression model for each vegetation biome
318 and each Landsat sensor. A $1/12^\circ$ grid was considered valid if more than 5 of 9 sample
319 locations were valid. The predicted LAI values within each $1/12^\circ$ grid were averaged.
320 The final Landsat LAI validation dataset included all $1/12^\circ$ sample grids with their LAI
321 values.

322 Accuracies of the Landsat LAI validation dataset were assessed by field LAI
323 measurements. We derived LAI values at the geographic locations of the BELMANIP
324 and ORNL sites based on Landsat data and established Random Forests models. The
325 derived LAI data were then compared to field-measured LAI.

326 **2.3 Trend analysis for long-term global LAI products**

327 **2.3.1 Time-series analysis**

328 We used an Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition (EEMD) method along with
329 the classical linear model method to detect trends in the long-term global LAI products.
330 The EEMD method decomposes the time series into a set of oscillatory components at
331 different frequency levels while overcomes the scale mixing problem (Huang et al.,
332 1998). We used EEMD to decompose the long-term LAI products into four components,
333 and MODIS LAI products into three components depending on the length of the time
334 series. The last two components were summed to generate adaptive trends. Annual
335 anomalies were obtained by subtracting adaptive trends from the original time series.
336 We calculated the standard deviation of each detrended anomaly as a quantitative metric
337 of the interannual variability.

338 **2.3.2 Annual maximum LAI analysis**

339 We developed annual estimates of maximum summer LAI from 1984 to 2016
340 (LAI_{max}) by 320,000 sampling sites in the global scope using Landsat surface
341 reflectance (Landsat Collection 1; 30 m resolution). The number of sampling sites for
342 each vegetation type was proportional to the global area of the vegetation type. We first
343 buffered each site by 50 m (radius) and then used GEE to extract all Landsat 5, 7, and
344 8 surface reflectance acquired from June to August for the Northern Hemisphere,
345 December to February for the Southern Hemisphere, and annually for the tropics,
346 during 1984–2016.

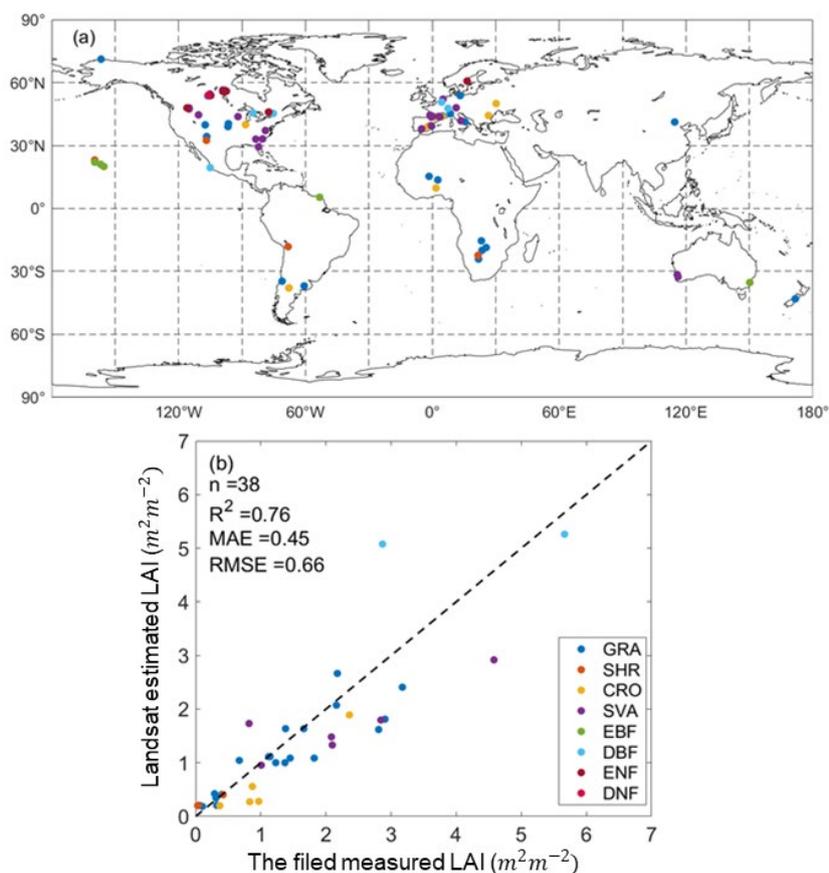
347 The annual LAI_{max} could be sensitive to multiple factors including the radiometric
348 difference between Landsat sensors and the availability and timing of Landsat
349 observations. This study used the phenological curve reconstruction method to estimate
350 annual LAI_{max} from clear-sky Landsat images (Berner et al., 2020). The method
351 modeled seasonal land surface phenology at each site for every 17 years between 1984
352 to 2016 and then predicted annual LAI_{max} using individual summer observations and
353 the phenology information during the corresponding period. As such, annual LAI_{max}
354 can be reliably estimated even if few clear-sky summer measurements were available.

355 **3 RESULTS**

356 **3.1 The Landsat LAI validation dataset**

357 For LAI model training, approximately 19.32 million sample pairs were acquired
358 after the screening process. The SHR had the largest sample size (nearly 6,960,000) and
359 ENF had the smallest sample size (654,800) (Table S1). These sample sizes were

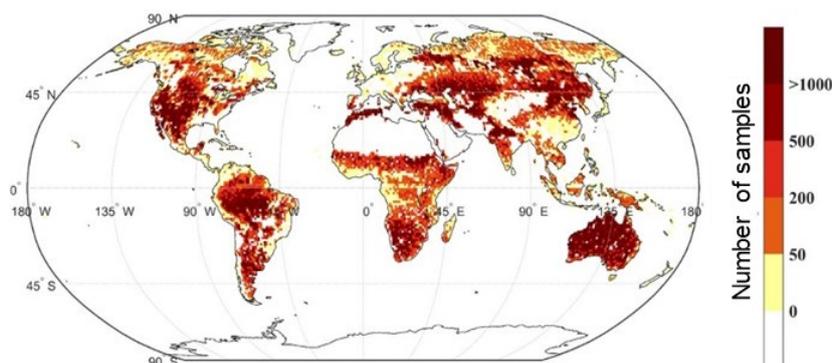
360 considered sufficient for all biomes (Figure S1). Based on the training sample pairs,
361 biome-specific and Landsat sensor-specific Random Forest regression models were
362 built with R^2 of all models > 0.85 (Table S2). The LAI models were assessed by
363 generating Landsat LAI at the field site locations. We finally acquired 38 Landsat LAI
364 values that temporally coincided with the field measurements. The comparison
365 produced a R^2 of 0.76 and the scatterplot was around the 1:1 line, which demonstrated
366 the effectiveness of the Landsat LAI inversion algorithm (Figure 2).



368 **FIGURE 2** The comparison of field LAI measurements and Landsat estimated LAI. (a)
369 is the spatial distribution of temporally coincided field sites and (b) is the scatterplot
370 between field measurements and Landsat estimated LAI.

371 For Landsat LAI prediction, a total of 68,542,200 predicting samples were obtained

372 after the screening process with GRA having the largest sample size (27,370,300) and
373 DBF having the smallest (2,059,400) (Table S3). LAI of all predicting samples was
374 estimated from Landsat data (20×20 pixels in 30 m resolution) and then aggregated to
375 the spatial resolution of $1/12^\circ$. The final sample size of the Landsat LAI validation
376 dataset was about 4.9 million (1984–2020). We used a temporal subset (1984–2016)
377 for the validation work, with a sample size of 3.6 million (Figure 3). Details on the
378 training sample pairs, training model accuracies, and the predicting sample pairs can be
379 found in Supplementary materials.



381 **FIGURE 3** Spatial distribution of the predicting sample size in $1/12^\circ$.

382 **3.2 Systematic evaluation of global LAI products in old and new versions**

383 **3.2.1 Intercomparison of LAI trends among the products**

384 (a) Trends in terms of versions and periods

385 During 1982–2014, the average LAI in the new version of GLOBMAP LAI
386 increased steadily, reaching $1.55 \times 10^{-3} m^2 m^{-2} a^{-1}$, while that of the old version
387 decreased by $2.69 \times 10^{-3} m^2 m^{-2}$ per year (Table 1; Figure 4). The average LAI in old
388 and new versions of GIMMS LAI3g and GLASS LAI showed substantial increasing
389 trends. The average LAI trend of GIMMS LAI3g presented a minor difference between

390 old and new versions ($4.61 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$ vs $3.2 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$). The average
391 LAI trends of old ($11.42 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$) and new ($4.38 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$)
392 versions of GLASS LAI were larger than others.

393 The LAI trends differed significantly between the periods of 1982–1999 (Phase I)
394 and 2000–2014 (Phase II) (Table 1; Figure 4). The growth rate in Phase I was generally
395 larger than Phase II, except for the new version of GLOBMAP LAI. Both versions of
396 GIMMS LAI3g showed rapidly increasing trends in Phase I (ov: $8.22 \times$
397 $10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$; nv: $8.24 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$), but slowed down after 2000. The new
398 version of GLASS LAI showed a continued increasing trend in Phase I
399 ($6.49 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$) and a decreasing trend in Phase II ($-1.59 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$);
400 while its old version was continuously rising, but with a significant decreased rate from
401 (Phase I) to (Phase II). From Phase I to Phase II, GLOBMAP LAI showed a rapid
402 decline for the old version ($2.78 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$ to $-8.1 \times 10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$) and an
403 increase for the new version. The mean LAI of the old and new versions of MODIS
404 LAI showed opposite trends, with a small decrease for the old version and a significant
405 increase for the new version. Since both GLASS LAI and GLOBMAP LAI were based
406 on MODIS data in Phase II, the version update of MODIS data had profound but
407 different impacts on GLASS LAI and GLOBMAP LAI products due to their distinct
408 algorithms.

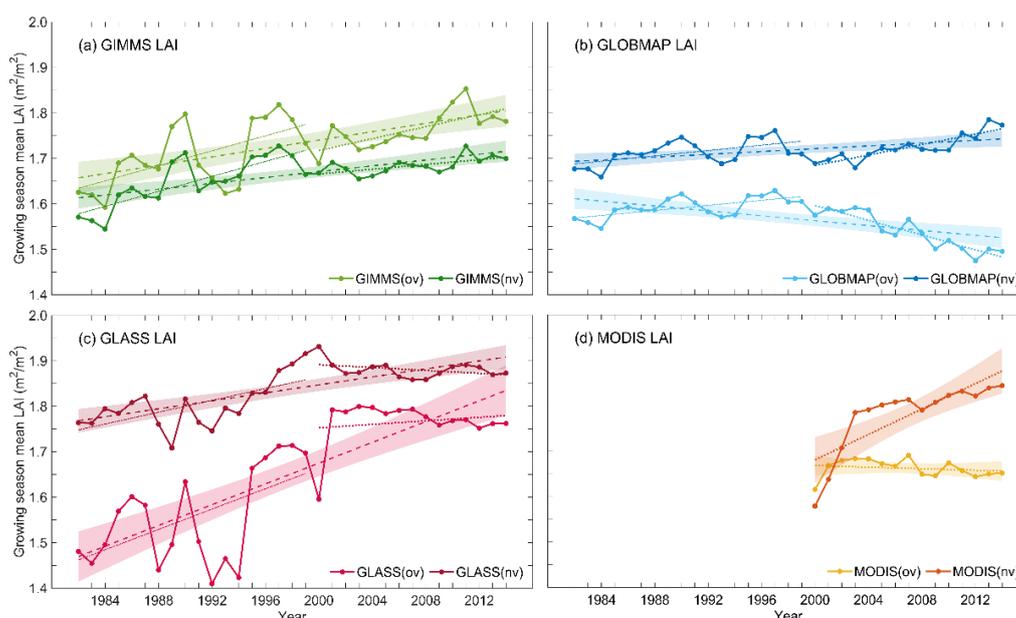
409 **TABLE 1** The trend of growing season mean LAI ($10^{-3} m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$) in periods of
410 1982–1999 (Phase I) and 2000–2014 (Phase II).

1982–2014	2000–2014	1982–1999
-----------	-----------	-----------

GIM (ov)	4.61**	6.57**	8.24
GIM (nv)	3.2**	2.61*	8.22**
GLA (ov)	11.42**	1.93	11.19*
GLA (nv)	4.38**	-1.59	6.49*
GLO (ov)	-2.69**	-8.1**	2.78**
GLO (nv)	1.55*	5.76**	2.93*
MOD (ov)	\	-0.85	\
MOD (nv)	\	13.96**	\

411 ov: old version. nv: new version. GIM represents GIMMS. GLA represents GLASS. GLO

412 represents GLOBMAP. MOD represents MODIS. *: sig<0.05, **: sig<0.01. Below is the same.



414 **FIGURE 4** Annual variations of the growing season mean LAI for global LAI products.

415 (b) Adaptive trends, detrended anomalies, and interannual variabilities

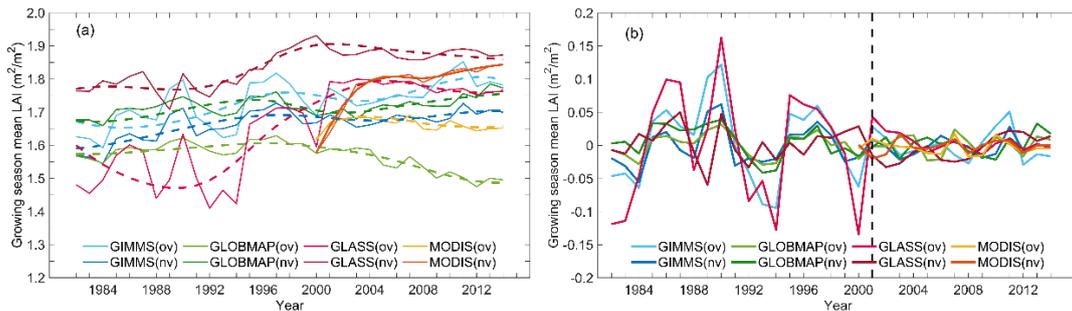
416 Figure 5a shows the LAI adaptive trends within each decade. During 1982–1991,

417 the new version of GLOBMAP LAI and old versions of GIMMS LAI3g and GLASS

418 LAI showed decreasing and then increasing trends; the old version of GLOBMAP LAI

419 and new version of GIMMS LAI3g showed significant increasing trends; and the new

420 version of GLASS LAI showed a steady trend. During 1992–2001, all products showed
421 increasing and decreasing trends except for the old version of GLOBMAP LAI which
422 showed a continuous decrease. During 2002–2014, the new version of GLOBMAP LAI
423 and both versions of GIMMS LAI3g had a decreased and then increased trend; the old
424 version of GLASS LAI showed an increased and decreased trend; and the new version
425 of GLASS LAI and the old version of GLOBMAP LAI showed a continuous decreasing
426 trend. All products showed large anomalies in the pre-MODIS period with different
427 magnitudes (Figure 5b). GLOBMAP LAI and GLASS LAI inherited the anomalies
428 from MODIS LAI in the post-MODIS period.



430 **FIGURE 5** Global mean LAI, adaptive trends detected by the EEMD method, and
431 detrended anomalies ($m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$) for old and new versions of LAI products.
432 Anomalies (solid curves in b) were subtracted from adaptive trends (dashed curves in
433 a) from global mean LAI values (solid curves in a).

434 During 1982–2014, new versions of long-term LAI products presented similar
435 interannual variability ($2.08\text{--}2.46 \times 10^{-2} m^2m^{-2}$) (Table 2). The interannual
436 variability of old versions followed the descending order of GLASS LAI, GIMMS
437 LAI3g, and GLOBMAP LAI. The interannual variability in the period 1982–1999 or
438 from the old version was larger than that in the period 2000–2014 or from the new

439 version. The largest interannual variability was from the old version of GLASS LAI
 440 during 1982–1999 ($8.37 \times 10^{-2} m^2m^{-2}$) and the smallest was from MODIS LAI
 441 during 2000–2014 ($0.99-1.06 \times 10^{-2} m^2m^{-2}$)

442 **TABLE 2** Interannual variability of four global LAI products ($10^{-2}m^2m^{-2}a^{-1}$).

	GIM	GIM	GLO	GLO	GLA	GLA	MOD	MOD
	(ov)	(nv)	(ov)	(nv)	(ov)	(nv)	(ov)	(nv)
1982–2014	4.89	2.46	1.68	2.08	6.63	2.41	\	\
1982–1999	6.18	3.15	1.81	2.43	8.37	2.72	\	\
2000–2014	2.75	1.36	1.55	1.57	3.87	2.02	1.06	0.99

443 (c) Spatial patterns

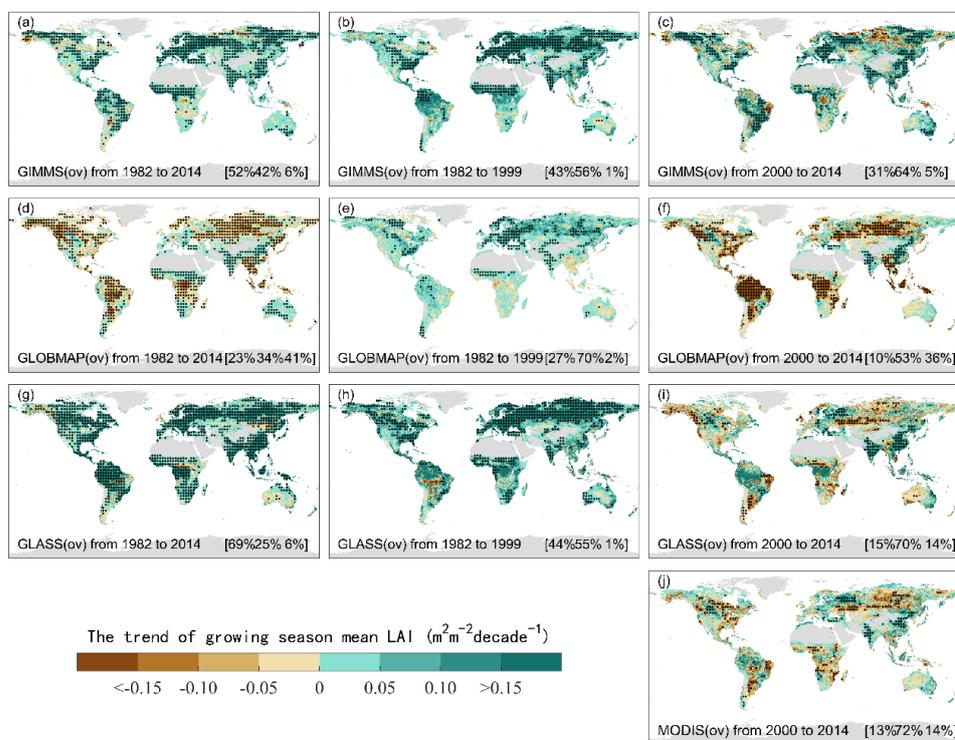
444 For old versions, the greening area dominated the landscape during 1982–2014 for
 445 GLASS LAI (69%) and GIMMS LAI3g (52%) (Figure 6). GLOBMAP LAI had the
 446 highest browning area of about 41%, mainly in Australia, India, and the eastern coastal
 447 region of China. Before 2000, all of GLOBMAP LAI, GLASS LAI, and GIMMS
 448 LAI3g showed significant greening areas. The proportions of the greening area in
 449 GLASS LAI (44%) and GIMMS LAI3g (43%) were close, both larger than that of
 450 GLOBMAP LAI. After 2000, GLOBMAP LAI showed a vast area of significant
 451 browning (36%), except for Australia, India, and the eastern coastal region of China. In
 452 GLASS LAI, 14% area appeared browning and 15% of the terrestrial area in the
 453 northern high latitudes, southern South America, South Africa, and western Australia
 454 were significantly greening. The GIMMS LAI3g showed continuous significant global
 455 greening in about 31% of the global area, mainly in the eastern Amazon, Congo Basin,
 456 and Eurasia. The browning area was in north-central Russia, the middle eastern Amazon,

457 and the Congo region.

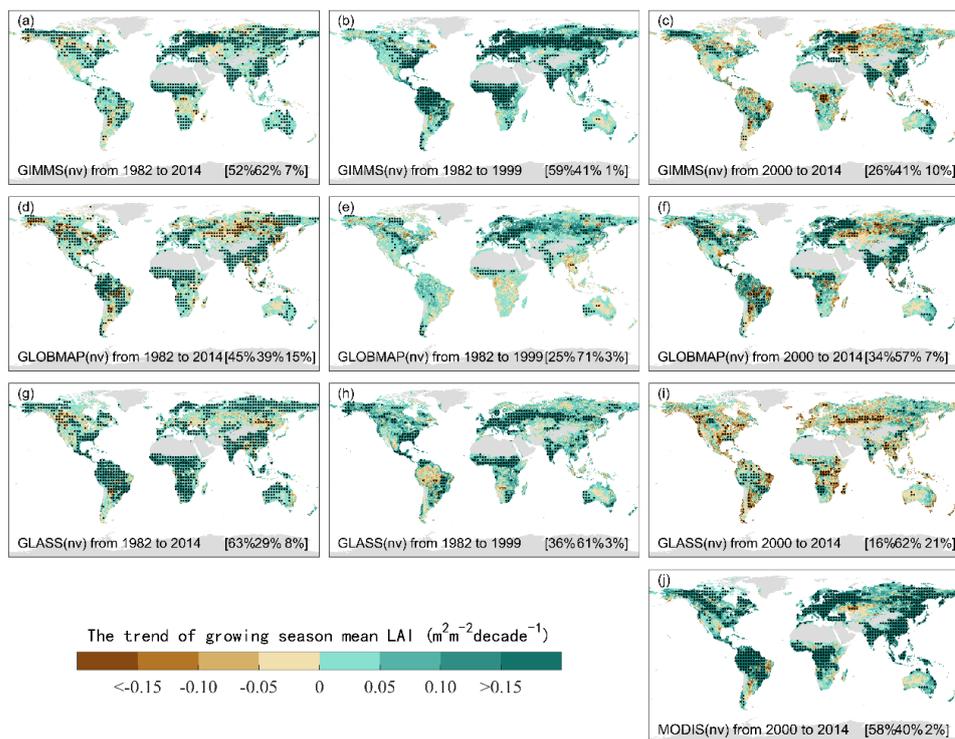
458 For new versions, all long-term LAI products showed significant global greening
459 over a majority of the vegetated area and the browning area took only 7–15% during
460 1982–2014 (Figure 7). GLOBMAP LAI had the largest browning area, mainly in Asia,
461 Europe, north-central North America, and southern South America. During 1982–1999,
462 only 1%–3% of the area was significantly browning for all long-term LAI products and
463 GIMMS LAI3g had the largest area of significant greening (59%). After 2000, the
464 browning area of the long-term LAI products increased, with the largest area in GLASS
465 LAI (21%). The significant greening area in MODIS LAI was about 58%, mainly in
466 the Amazon, Congo Basin, and eastern part of Eurasia.

467 The trends were compared between versions (Figure 8). During 1982–2014, the
468 new version of GLOBMAP LAI had a higher greening trend than the old version for
469 88% of the area concentrated in the tropics. For GIMMS LAI3g, the old version had a
470 higher trend for 65% of the area mainly in Asia, Europe, and South America but the
471 mean differences between versions were small ($\pm 0.005 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ a}^{-1}$). In GLASS LAI,
472 the new version had a higher LAI trend in about 62% of the area, mainly in the central
473 and eastern regions of Asia and Europe, the tropics, and the central-eastern part of North
474 America. During 1982–1999, the differences in the trend were more obvious for
475 GLASS LAI, especially in the high northern latitudes and tropics. The spatial pattern
476 of trend differences between versions for 2000–2014 was significantly different from
477 1982–1999. For GIMMS LAI3g and GLASS LAI, their new versions had smaller LAI
478 growth rates at 68% and 57% of the global area, respectively. The new version of

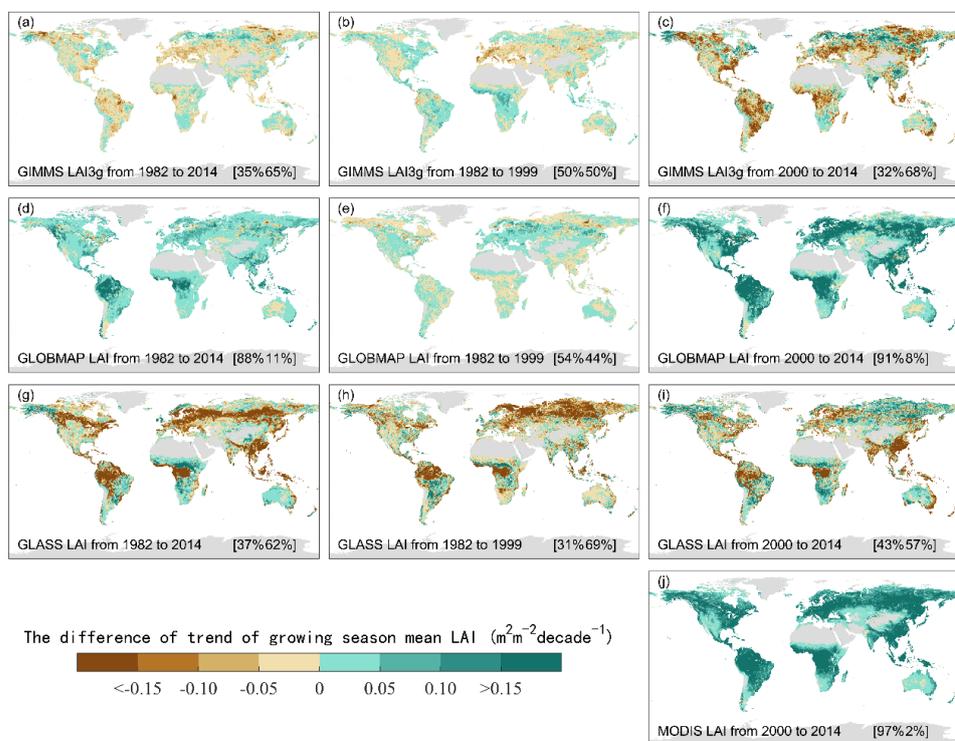
479 GLOBMAP LAI had a larger growth rate for about 91% of the global area, which were
 480 similar to MODIS LAI (97%).



482 **FIGURE 6** The spatial pattern of LAI trends for the old version of global LAI products
 483 in the growing season. The black point represents the $p < 0.05$.



485 **FIGURE 7** The spatial pattern of global LAI trends for the new version of global LAI
 486 products in the growing season. The black point represents the $p < 0.05$.



488 **FIGURE 8** Spatial patterns of trend differences between the old and new versions of

489 LAI products. Numbers in square brackets mean the proportional area that the LAI
490 product in the new version showed a faster (first number) or slower (second number)
491 growth rate than the old version.

492 **3.2.2 Direct evaluation using the Landsat LAI validation dataset**

493 (a) Overall accuracies

494 The comparison results between the Landsat LAI validation dataset and the new
495 version of long-term global LAI products showed a higher correlation for GIMMS
496 LAI3g (R=0.96–0.97) and GLASS LAI (R=0.95–0.96) than GLOBMAP LAI
497 (R=0.88–0.90) (Figure 9). The MAE and RMSE of GIMMS LAI3g (MAE=0.27–0.29
498 m^2m^{-2} , RMSE=0.47–0.49 m^2m^{-2}) were also slightly lower than those of GLASS LAI
499 (MAE=0.31–0.32 m^2m^{-2} , RMSE=0.51–0.55 m^2m^{-2}) and GLOBMAP LAI
500 (MAE=0.52–0.54 m^2m^{-2} , RMSE=0.91–0.98 m^2m^{-2}). For the old versions, GLASS
501 LAI (R=0.95–0.97) had a higher correlation than GIMMS LAI3g (R=0.95) and
502 GLOBMAP LAI (R=0.89–0.90). The MAE and RMSE of the old version of GIMMS
503 LAI3g (MAE=0.33–0.35 m^2m^{-2} , RMSE=0.58–0.59 m^2m^{-2}) were significantly
504 larger than others. The deviation of GLOBMAP LAI before 2000 was larger in the new
505 version. In summary, the data quality from high to low followed the order of GIMMS
506 LAI3g, GLASS LAI, and GLOBMAP LAI.

507 (b) In terms of vegetation biome type

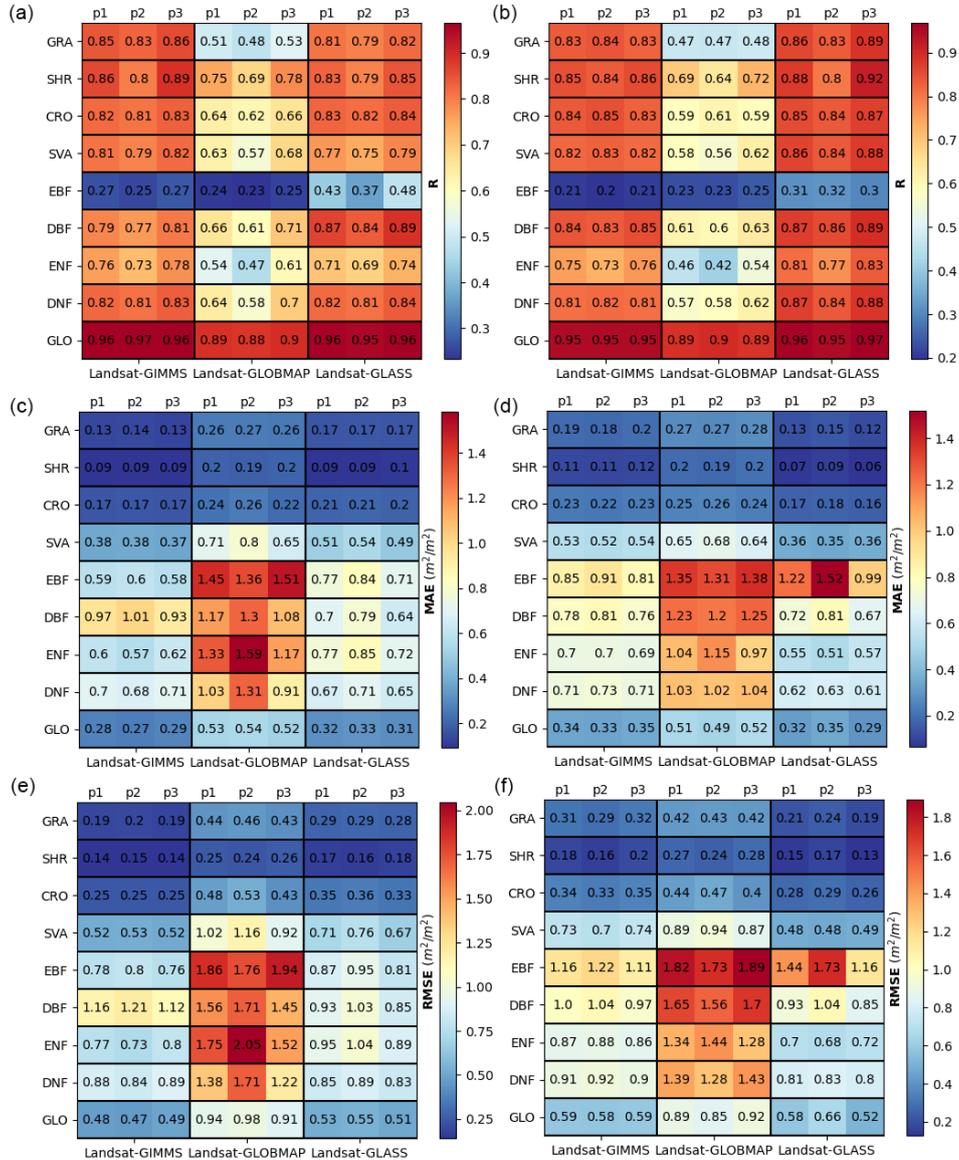
508 From the perspective of vegetation biome type, the data quality of SHR was higher
509 than other vegetation types. GLOBMAP LAI improved the data quality of SHR in the
510 new version, with R of above 0.68 and MAE and RMSE of less than 0.27 m^2m^{-2} . For

511 GRA with the largest amount of validation samples, GIMMS LAI3g and GLASS LAI
512 showed better quality ($R=0.79-0.86$; $MAE=0.13-0.20 m^2m^{-2}$; $RMSE=0.19-0.32$
513 m^2m^{-2}) than GLOBMAP LAI whose MAE and RMSE were twice as high as others.
514 EBF presented the lowest LAI quality for all products mainly due to its distribution in
515 the tropics where remote sensing data suffered from frequent cloudiness. As for the
516 quality of EBF, the new version of GLASS LAI ($R=0.37-0.48$) had a higher correlation
517 with the LAI validation dataset than GIMMS LAI3g ($R=0.25-0.27$) and GLOBMAP
518 LAI ($R=0.23-0.25$); yet the new version of GIMMS LAI3g had lower MAE ($0.58-0.60$
519 m^2m^{-2}) and RMSE ($0.76-0.80 m^2m^{-2}$).

520 (c) In terms of periods

521 To explore the data quality differences between 1984–1999 (p2) and 2000–2014
522 (p3) for the GIMMS LAI3g, GLOBMAP LAI, and GLASS LAI products, we used the
523 correlation analysis method to quantify the consistency based on the validation
524 accuracies during 1984–1999 and that during 2000–2014. The mean correlation
525 coefficient for the consistency of the old and new versions of GIMMS LAI3g,
526 GLOBMAP LAI, and GLASS LAI were 0.99, 0.96, and 0.99, respectively. The
527 consistency of updated GLASS LAI was slightly improved, and other global LAI
528 products remained steady. The results showed that the data quality consistency of
529 GIMMS LAI3g and GLASS LAI was better than that of GLOBMAP LAI. In terms of
530 different vegetation assessment accuracy, the correlation value in p3 phase was higher
531 than in p2 phase. GIMMS LAI 3g for the global area in p3 phase was slightly lower, but
532 it showed that the correlation value for all vegetation types in p3 phase were higher than

533 in p2 phase, and the data quality of the period 2000–2014 was better than that of the
 534 period 1984–1999.



535 **FIGURE 9** The data quality of long-term global LAI products (GIMMS LAI3g,
 536 GLOBMAP LAI, and GLASS LAI) assessed by the Landsat LAI validation dataset.
 537 p1–p3 represent the period of 1984–2016, 1984–1999, and 2000–2014, respectively.
 538 The quality was assessed by indicators of R (a and b), MAE (c and d), and RMSE (e
 539 and f). a, c, and e were for LAI products in the new versions. b, d and f were for LAI

540 products in the old versions.

541 3.3 Annual maximum LAI trends

542 3.3.1 Global LAI products

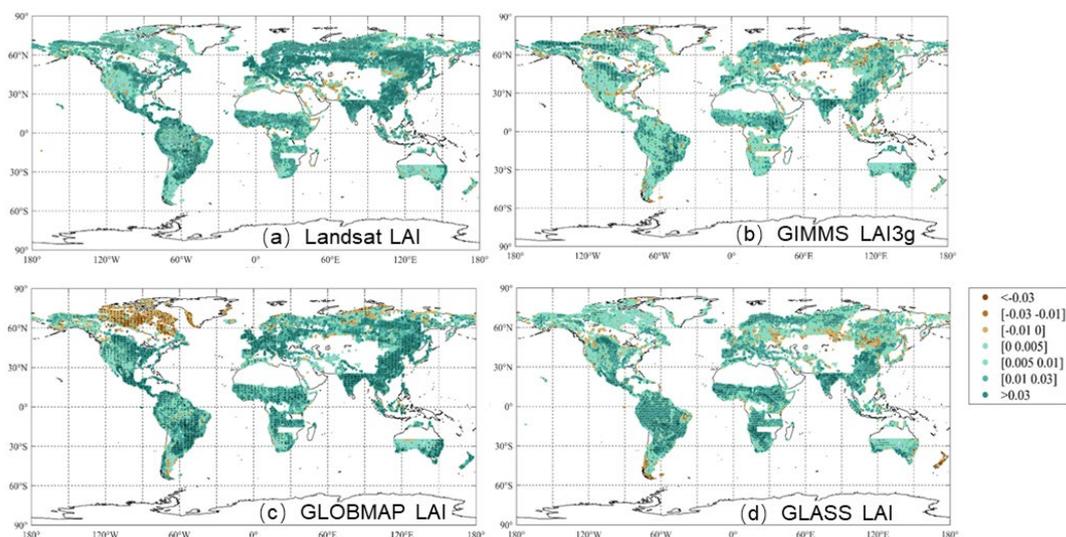
543 During 1984–2016, global LAI products had mediocre consistencies with Landsat
 544 LAI samples in LAI_{max} trend, following descending order of GLOBMAP LAI, (R=0.29),
 545 GIMMS LAI3g (R=0.22), and GLASS LAI (R=0.20) (Table 3). In GLOBMAP LAI,
 546 LAI_{max} trends were negatively correlated with Landsat LAI_{max} for SHR (R=-0.05) and
 547 DBF (R=-0.09) and relatively well correlated with GRA (R=0.44) and CRO (R=0.34).
 548 GIMMS LAI3g also presented a higher correlation of LAI_{max} trends for CRO (R=0.52)
 549 and GRA (R=0.33). In GLASS LAI, the high consistencies with Landsat LAI_{max} trend
 550 appeared for CRO (R=0.55), ENF (R=0.49), and GRA (R=0.40).

551 **TABLE 3** The correlations between annual maximum LAI (LAI_{max}) of the Landsat
 552 validation dataset and long-term global LAI products for different vegetation biomes.

	GRA	SHR	CRO	SAV	EBF	DBF	ENF	GLOBAL
Landsat-GIMMS	0.33	0.18	0.52	0.17	0.09	0.18	0.10	0.22
Landsat-GLOBMAP	0.44	-0.05	0.34	0.21	0.01	-0.09	0.04	0.29
Landsat-GLASS	0.40	0.31	0.55	0.08	0.03	0.49	0.20	0.20
samples size	16020	6614	1021	14010	2701	40	92	40498

553 In terms of the spatial pattern, the Landsat LAI_{max} showed a large-scale increasing
 554 trend globally, especially in the Asian and European continental regions (Figure 10).
 555 Three global LAI products had a similar spatial pattern of LAI_{max} trend with Landsat
 556 LAI in most vegetated areas. In the northern region of Canada, however, the LAI_{max} of
 557 Landsat LAI, GIMMS LAI3g, and GLASS LAI showed an increasing trend while

558 GLOBMAP LAI showed a decreasing trend. In the eastern part of Asia and Europe, the
559 increasing trend of Landsat LAI_{max} and GLOBMAP LAI_{max} exceeded $0.03 \text{ m}^2\text{m}^{-2}\text{a}^{-1}$,
560 greater than that of GIMMS LAI3g and GLASS LAI.



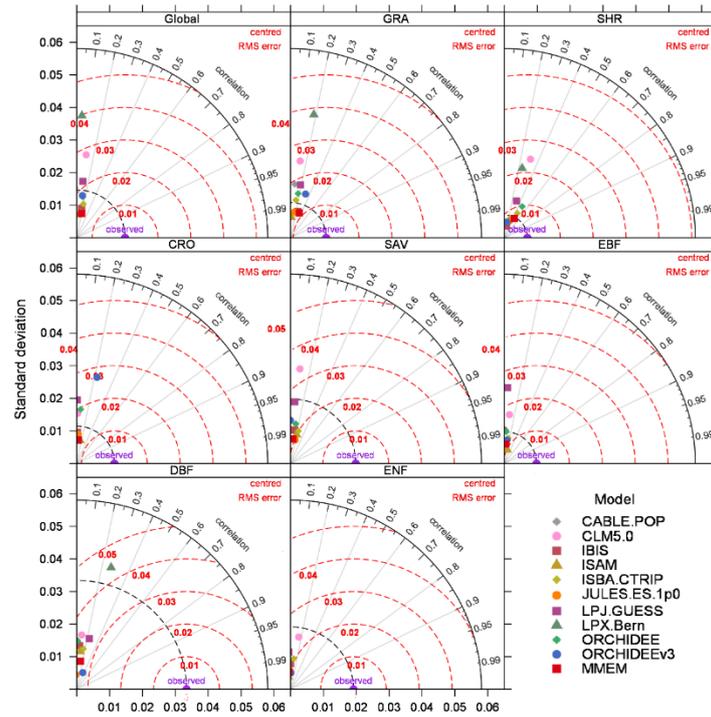
561 **FIGURE 10** The spatial pattern of trends in annual maximum LAI (LAI_{max};
562 $\text{m}^2\text{m}^{-2}\text{a}^{-1}$) for the Landsat estimated LAI validation dataset and the long-term global
563 LAI products during 1984–2016.

564 3.3.2 Ecosystem models

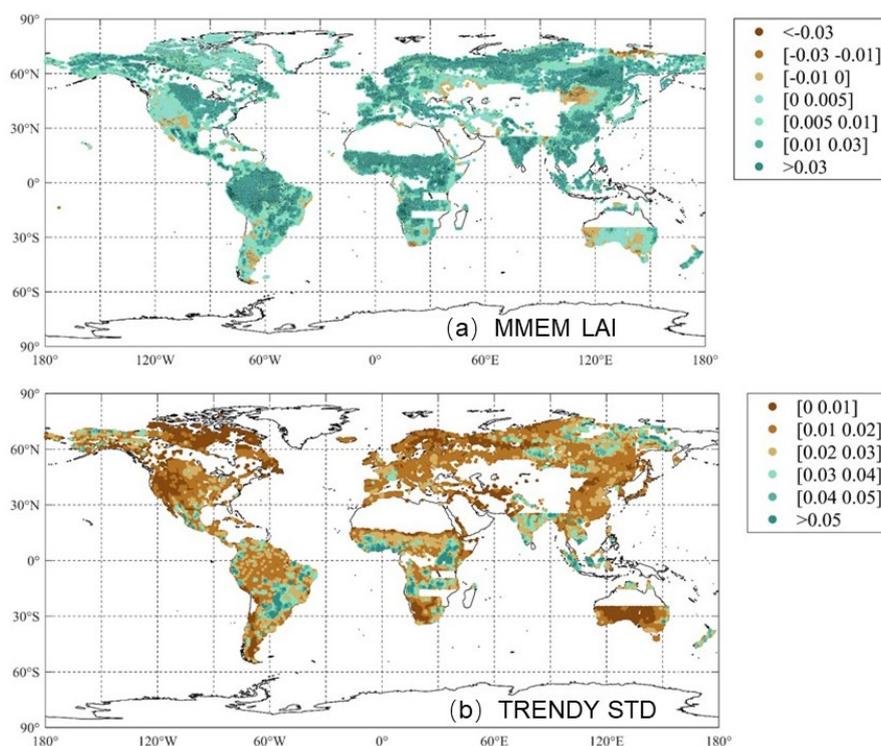
565 We compared the LAI_{max} trends from ten Dynamic Global Vegetation Models to
566 Landsat LAI at the global scale during 1984–2016 for different types of vegetation
567 (Figure 11). The quality of IBIS data was highest in the TRENDY model (STD<0.01,
568 RMS<0.02), while the uncertainty was larger in the LPX-Bern model data (STD=0.04)
569 and CLM5.0 model data (STD=0.028). The LAI datasets simulated by TRENDY
570 models differed from each other both in values and uncertainties. We considered the
571 mean value of the model simulated LAI data (Multi-Model Ensemble Mean LAI or
572 MMEM LAI) a higher representation. The uncertainty differed significantly in

573 vegetation types. Compared to the Landsat LAI_{max} trend, the MMEM LAI_{max} trend had
574 the highest similarity ($R>0.5$) and less uncertainty ($STD<0.01$, $RMS<0.01$) for SHR.
575 The LAI_{max} trend correlation between Landsat LAI and satellite-based LAI was higher
576 than the LAI dataset simulated by ten models whose dispersion was larger.

577 We characterized the uncertainty among ten global ecosystem models using the
578 standard deviation of TRENDY LAI at pixels (Figure 12). To avoid over-fitting, we
579 analyzed the spatial pattern of the MMEM LAI and found that the pattern agreed with
580 averaged satellite-based LAI products. The MMEM LAI_{max} showed a decreasing trend
581 in southern Australia, central Russia, and western North America where Landsat LAI_{max}
582 had an increasing trend. MMEM LAI_{max} showed an increasing trend in the tropics, and
583 the growth rate exceeds $0.03 \text{ m}^2\text{m}^{-2}\text{a}^{-1}$. In terms of the spatial pattern of uncertainties,
584 LAI_{max} based on TRENDY simulation had larger uncertainties in the tropics
585 ($>0.05 \text{ m}^2\text{m}^{-2}\text{a}^{-1}$) and smaller uncertainties ($<0.01 \text{ m}^2\text{m}^{-2}\text{a}^{-1}$) in regions of
586 southern Australia, South America and high northern latitudes.



587 **FIGURE 11** Comparison of ten Dynamic Global Vegetation Models and long-term
 588 global LAI products with the Landsat estimated LAI from 1984–2016 at the global
 589 scale for different types of vegetation using Taylor diagrams. The standard deviation
 590 represents the interannual variability of the Landsat LAI_{max} trend and LAI_{max} trend
 591 derived from the model or satellite. The red line showed a centered root mean square
 592 error (RMS) between the Landsat LAI_{max} trend and LAI_{max} trend derived from the
 593 model or satellite.



594 **FIGURE 12** The trends (a) and uncertainties (b) of mean LAI simulated by TRENDY
595 Process-based Ecosystem Models.

596 **4 DISCUSSION**

597 **4.1 Inconsistencies between current long-term global LAI products**

598 Interinconsistencies were found between the long-term global LAI products in
599 trend, interannual variability, and spatial pattern for different product versions and
600 vegetation biome types. Old and new versions of GIMMS LAI3g presented temporally
601 consistent increasing trends in annual average LAI especially around 2000, primarily
602 due to the constant use of AVHRR data across periods despite the sensor turnover from
603 AVHRR-2 to AVHRR-3. In contrast, GLASS LAI and GLOBMAP LAI changed the
604 data source from NOAA/AVHRR to Terra/MODIS in 2001 and exhibited significant
605 discrepancies in linear trends between periods (pre-2000 and post-2000) (Figure 4), i.e.,
606 their post-2000 linear trends were subject to that of MODIS LAI. MODIS C5 suffered

607 from the effect of sensor degradation, leading to questionable LAI trends. The sensor
608 degradation was resolved in MODIS C6 and the LAI trend was corrected in the new
609 versions of GLOBMAP LAI and GLASS LAI. The effects of sensor change were also
610 manifested in the adaptive detrends of GLOBMAP LAI and GLASS LAI, where
611 remarkably different annual anomaly oscillations existed before and after 2001 (Figure
612 5b). The annual anomaly oscillations shall not be explained by environmental factors
613 such as solar radiation, temperature, precipitation, and the CO₂ fertilization effect
614 (Keenan et al., 2016; Sanchez-Lorenzo et al., 2015; Yan et al., 2013), but rather by
615 changes in satellite platforms and sensors (Jiang et al., 2017).

616 The effect of NOAA satellite orbital drift and AVHRR sensor degradation led to
617 interannual variability in all long-term LAI products (Vermote et al., 2009). The effect
618 could explain the greater interannual variability in the period 1982–1999 over
619 2000–2014 and in GIMMS LAI3g over GLOBMAP LAI and GLASS LAI. This study
620 confirmed a better intraconsistency in GLOBMAP LAI, which has been attributed to
621 its LAI retrieval algorithm (Jiang et al., 2017). Aerosol and cloudiness were other
622 potential factors driving the interannual variability, especially for tropical evergreen
623 forests which contribute most to global LAI year-to-year variations (Samanta et al.,
624 2010).

625 **4.2 Findings from the direct evaluation using Landsat LAI samples**

626 The consistent radiometric performance and high resolution (30 m) make Landsat
627 data a potentially solid LAI reference; and the long archive since the 1970s and a global
628 coverage of observation make Landsat data the only and best choice to evaluate long-

629 term global LAI products when other LAI reference was absent before the year 2000
630 (Wulder et al., 2019; Hermosilla et al., 2019). The massive high-quality Landsat LAI
631 validation samples generated in this study enabled a direct evaluation of current long-
632 term global LAI products namely, GIMMS LAI3g, GLASS LAI, and GLOBMAP LAI.
633 A large amount of pre-2000 Landsat validation samples (1,453,228) was created in this
634 study. To guarantee the quality of Landsat based LAI samples, individual random forest
635 models were built according to vegetation biomes and Landsat sensors (TM, ETM+,
636 OLI) so that the different radiative transfer mechanisms in vegetation biomes and
637 distinct spectral characteristics in Landsat sensors could be accounted for. With
638 sufficient LAI samples produced for all vegetation biome types, we were able to not
639 only identify the significant variations between LAI products at the regional scale
640 (Wang et al., 2022; Jiang et al., 2017) but also detect LAI data quality for different
641 biomes. Annual trends of LAI could also be directly validated using Landsat LAI
642 validation samples by calculating LAI_{max} . As such, from different perspectives we
643 could determine the best LAI products rather than merely the relative differences
644 between them.

645 Based on the Landsat LAI samples, this study found the best data accuracy from
646 GIMMS LAI3g, followed by GLASS LAI and GLOBMAP LAI. The quality of updated
647 GIMMS LAI after 2000 and GLOBMAP LAI before 2000 was relatively low. In the
648 EBF of Africa, for instance, the GIMMS LAI3g exhibited a decreasing trend from the
649 year 2000 while the MODIS LAI showed an increasing trend (Wang et al., 2022). We
650 developed annual estimates of maximum summer LAI from 1984 to 2016 to detect

651 whether the vegetation was greening or browning. A significant finding was that all
652 current long-term global products potentially underestimate the greening area of the
653 Earth to different extents. This finding prompted a more solid evaluation of vegetation
654 responses and feedback under current environmental changes. The consistency with
655 Landsat LAI_{max} trends followed a descending order of GLOBMAP LAI, GIMMS
656 LAI3g, and GLASS LAI. This can be explained by GLOBMAP LAI better reflected
657 trends in SHR and GRA which dominate the global landscape and had higher data
658 qualities than other vegetation types. The low LAI quality of EBF was mainly due to
659 its distribution in the tropics where remote sensing data suffered from frequent
660 cloudiness. Vegetation in northern high latitudes with the polar night phenomenon and
661 low solar altitude angle also presented higher LAI uncertainties.

662 **4.3 Potential uncertainties**

663 Despite our efforts, uncertainties existed in the Landsat LAI validation dataset.
664 First, the data quality of training and predicting sample pairs could be lowered by the
665 geometric errors between Landsat and MODIS data and the heterogeneous nature of
666 land cover (Yan et al., 2016). This type of uncertainty was also presented in other studies
667 that employed multiple remote sensing data and can hardly be eliminated.
668 Misclassification in the MODIS Land Cover product was another source of
669 uncertainties that affected the sample quality (Fang et al., 2013; Fang et al., 2019).
670 Second, the size of Landsat LAI samples was limited in certain regions, e.g., the
671 northern high latitudes and tropical areas. Future work could involve other high-
672 resolution satellite images, e.g., Sentinel-2, to improve the availability of global cloud-

673 free observation. Last, spatiotemporally continuous ground LAI measurements were
674 desired to optimize our Random Forest regression models. Deep learning methods of
675 higher complexity and stronger prediction power were also welcomed to improve the
676 accuracy of LAI estimation.

677 **5 CONCLUSION**

678 In this study, we generated an LAI validation dataset of massive samples and used
679 the validation dataset to provide a direct evaluation of current long-term global LAI
680 products. The LAI validation dataset, with 4.9 million high-quality samples from 1984
681 to 2020, was derived from rigorously selected and refined Landsat samples with the
682 Random Forests regressor and MODIS LAI. It addressed the lack of long-term globe-
683 wide LAI reference, especially before 2000. We used an ensemble empirical mode
684 decomposition method along with the classical linear model to detect the LAI trend of
685 long-term global LAI products (GIMMS LAI3g, GLOBMAP LAI, GLASS LAI, and
686 MODIS LAI) in various versions. The temporal and spatial inconsistency of the LAI
687 products of different versions were explored. We also constructed a phenological curve
688 to develop annual estimates of the maximum summer LAI (LAI_{max}) dataset to assess
689 the consistency of trends and interannual variability of the long-term global LAI
690 products and the LAI simulated by TRENDY ecosystem process models. The results
691 showed the best data quality of GIMMS LAI3g, followed by GLASS LAI, and
692 GLOBMAP LAI. The data quality in the EBF was generally poor. The LAI_{max} trend of
693 GLOBMAP LAI best matched the Landsat LAI_{max} trend, followed by GIMMS LAI3g
694 and GLASS LAI. The Landsat LAI validation dataset produced in this study can

695 facilitate the development of long-term global LAI products. The evaluation results of
696 current global LAI products can provide a quantitative reference for the rational
697 application of LAI for global vegetation dynamic monitoring in the context of climate
698 change.

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1 **Supplementary materials for “A direct evaluation of long-term**
2 **global Leaf Area Index (LAI) products using massive high-**
3 **quality LAI validation samples derived from Landsat archive”**

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12

13 **1.1 Training sample pairs**

14 The size of initial training sample pairs was over 20 million for GRA, SHR, and CRO,
15 over 10 million for SAV, DBF, ENF, DNF, and over 6 million for ENF (Table S1). After
16 outlier removal, saturation screening, quality controlling, and AOP index filtering,
17 approximately 16 % of all sample pairs were retained, which can be translated into a size
18 of 19.32 million (Table S1). GRA and SHR samples had relatively high retention rates (20%
19 and 32%). The retention rate for DBF and ENF was only 11% and 6%, respectively, but
20 their sample size was more than 929,800 and 654,800, respectively. The retention rates of
21 other types of vegetation ranged from 10% to 16%, with sample sizes all exceeding 1
22 million. The vegetation biome with the smallest sample size was EBF before screening

23 which suffered from extensive clouds in the tropics; and was ENF after screening primarily
24 due to a large number of samples of misclassified saturation state. For all vegetation biome
25 types, their final sample sizes were believed large enough for establishing robust Random
26 Forest regressors.

27 **TABLE S1** The size of training sample pairs (in 10 thousand) and the retention rate (%)
28 after the screening. The values were summarized by vegetation biome type.

	Size before screening	Size after screening	Ratio
GRA	2090.87	431.06	20.62
SHR	2149.39	695.95	32.38
CRO	2339.88	251.35	10.74
SVA	1098.17	128.68	11.72
EBF	601.67	92.98	15.45
DBF	1467.04	161.96	11.04
ENF	1115.69	65.48	5.87
DNF	1042.88	104.9	10.06
ALL	11905.6	1932.36	16.23

29 **1.2 Random Forest Regressors**

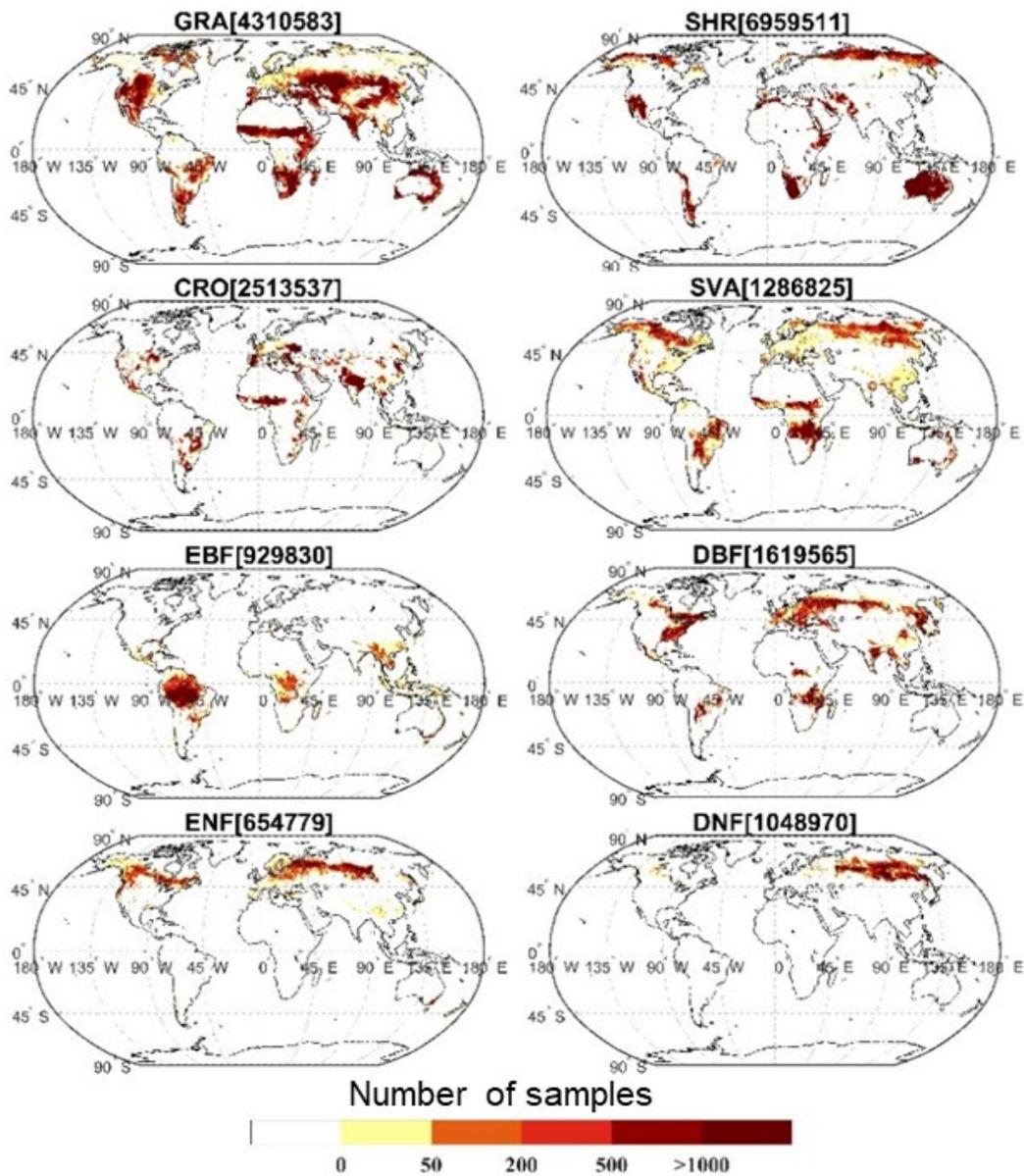
30 Based on the refined training sample pairs, we built biome-specific and Landsat
31 sensor-specific Random Forest regression models (Table S2). The R^2 of all models were
32 considered high (> 0.85). SHR had the highest model accuracy with R^2 of 0.87–0.95,
33 RMSE of 0.05–0.1, and MAE of 0.08–0.17. The RMSE and MAE values of forests,
34 ranging from 0.22 to 0.43 m^2m^{-2} , were higher than other types of vegetation; meanwhile,
35 their nRMSE values were smaller. The nRMSE of ENF was the lowest, with an average
36 value of 0.06 m^2m^{-2} . This can be explained by the fact that evergreen forests were mainly

37 distributed in areas with high cloudiness where good-quality data were scarce. Also,
 38 evergreen forests always had a low seasonal variability in spectral characteristics and LAI,
 39 making the prediction models more sensitive to potential uncertainties in model inputs.

40 **TABLE S2** The prediction accuracies of Random Forest regression models for each
 41 vegetation biome type.

		MAE (m^2m^{-2})	RMSE (m^2m^{-2})	R^2	nRMSE	Bias (m^2m^{-2})
	Landsat5	0.13	0.07	0.91	0.26	-0.02
GRA	Landsat7	0.12	0.07	0.91	0.25	0.00
	Landsat8	0.12	0.06	0.92	0.25	0.02
	Landsat5	0.07	0.04	0.94	0.21	0.01
SHR	Landsat7	0.08	0.05	0.95	0.22	0.00
	Landsat8	0.08	0.05	0.95	0.21	0.00
	Landsat5	0.17	0.10	0.87	0.31	0.04
CRO	Landsat7	0.16	0.09	0.87	0.29	-0.01
	Landsat8	0.16	0.09	0.89	0.31	-0.01
	Landsat5	0.29	0.19	0.87	0.22	0.19
SVA	Landsat7	0.27	0.17	0.88	0.21	0.12
	Landsat8	0.31	0.20	0.88	0.21	0.04
	Landsat5	0.33	0.22	0.85	0.06	0.15
EBF	Landsat7	0.34	0.23	0.87	0.06	0.20
	Landsat8	0.35	0.24	0.88	0.06	-0.09
	Landsat5	0.40	0.26	0.96	0.15	-0.11
DBF	Landsat7	0.38	0.24	0.96	0.15	-0.02

	Landsat8	0.45	0.31	0.95	0.13	0.21
	Landsat5	0.54	0.39	0.86	0.20	0.14
ENF	Landsat7	0.53	0.38	0.86	0.20	-0.01
	Landsat8	0.57	0.43	0.85	0.19	-0.09
	Landsat5	0.47	0.33	0.93	0.19	0.32
DNF	Landsat7	0.46	0.32	0.93	0.19	0.24
	Landsat8	0.51	0.37	0.92	0.17	0.17



43 **FIGURE S1** Spatial distribution of the number of training samples for different vegetation
44 types. The numbers in square brackets represent the total number of training samples (in
45 500 m resolution) of this vegetation type.

46 **1.3 The final LAI validation dataset**

47 Table S3 shows the size of predicting samples before and after screening (section 2.2.4).
48 Before the screening, predicting sample size was more than 300 million. Grass has the
49 largest predicting sample size of more than 80 million, followed by ENF (63 million), ENF
50 (42 million), DNF (41 million), and SHR (32 million). The DBF had the fewest predicting
51 samples (13 million). After the screening, GRA still had the largest predicting sample size.
52 SHR with the highest retention rate of 49% had the second largest sample size (16 million).
53 The sample size of all forest types greatly decreased (2 million–8 million) with a very low
54 retention rate (7% to 15%). The overall retention rate was 22%, eventually producing 68
55 million predicting samples.

56 **TABLE S3** The size of predicting samples (in 10 thousand) and the retention rate (%)
57 after screening. The values were summarized by vegetation biome type.

	Size before screening	Size after screening	Ratio
GRA	8006.08	2737.03	34
SHR	3240.08	1590.62	49
CAO	1740.83	345.90	20
SAV	1786.96	316.17	18
EBF	6347.21	800.59	13
DBF	1392.36	205.94	15
ENF	4374.05	301.04	7
DNF	4102.09	556.95	14

ALL	30989.66	6854.22	22
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