



The global leaf chlorophyll content dataset over 2003–2012 and 2018–2020 derived from MERIS/OLCI satellite data (GLCC): algorithm and validation

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Abstract. Leaf chlorophyll content (LCC), a prominent plant physiological trait and a proxy for leaf photosynthetic capacity, plays a crucial role in the monitoring of agriculture and carbon cycle modeling. In this study, global 500 m LCC weekly dataset (GLCC) for the period 2003–2012 to 2018–2020 were produced from ENVISAT MERIS and Sentinel-3 OLCI satellite data using a physically-based radiative transfer modeling approach. Firstly, five look-up-tables (LUTs) were generated using PROSAIL-D and PROSPECT-D+4-Scale models for woody and non-woody plants, respectively. For the four LUTs applicable to woody plants, each LUT contains three sub-LUTs corresponding to three types of crown height. For the one LUT applicable to non-woody vegetation type, it includes 25 sub-LUTs corresponding to five kinds of canopy structure and five kinds of soil background. The average of the LCC inversion results of all sub-LUTs for each plant function type (PFT) was considered as the retrieval. The LUT algorithm was validated using the synthetic dataset, which gave an R^2 value higher than 0.79 and an RMSE value lower than $10.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. Then, the GLCC dataset was generated using the MERIS/OLCI multispectral data over 2003–2012 and 2018–2020 at a spatial resolution of 500 m and temporal resolution of one week. The GLCC dataset was validated using 161 field measurements, covering six PFTs. The validation results yielded an overall accuracy of $R^2 = 0.41$ and $\text{RMSE} = 8.94 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. Finally, the GLCC dataset presented acceptable consistency with the existing MERIS LCC dataset developed by Croft et al. (2020). OLCI, as the successor to MERIS data, was used for the first time to co-produce LCC data from 2003–2012 to 2018–2020 in conjunction with MERIS data. This new GLCC dataset spanning nearly 20 years will provide a valuable opportunity for the monitoring of vegetation growth and terrestrial carbon cycle modeling. The GLCC dataset is available at <https://doi.org/10.25452/figshare.plus.20439351> (Qian et al., 2022b).



1 Introduction

35 Carbon dioxide uptake by terrestrial plants through photosynthesis is the primary driver of multiple global biogeochemical
cycles (Badgley et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2019). Therefore, quantifying photosynthesis on a global scale is fundamental to
understanding the global carbon cycle (Ryu et al., 2019). Chlorophyll, as the primary photosynthetic pigment, facilitates the
harvesting of energy from light, and the conversion of the light energy into stored chemical energy and thus plays a vital role
in the exchange of matter and energy fluxes (Gitelson et al., 2003; Li et al., 2021). Currently, many studies have indicated that
40 leaf chlorophyll content (LCC) is closely related to plant photosynthetic capacity parameter (V_{cmax}) (Croft et al., 2017; Qian
et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2022). Moreover, leaf chlorophyll content has essential implications
on plant physiological status assessment and stress diagnosis (Jay et al., 2017a; Kira et al., 2015; Qian et al., 2022a; Zhang et
al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2022; Houborg et al., 2011). As a result, deriving leaf chlorophyll content data over an extensive range
of space and time is of great significance in reducing the uncertainty of terrestrial ecosystem productivity and carbon sink
45 estimates (Luo et al., 2019).

Due to the heterogeneity of variations in LCC and the lack of observation that can detect these variations both spatially and
temporally, it is not possible to monitor LCC on a global scale using ground-based observations (Piao et al., 2020). Satellite-
based remote sensing, through regular global measurements, has enabled continuous estimation of LCC (Croft et al., 2013;
50 Darvishzadeh et al., 2019). The first global LCC dataset was generated using data from ENVISAT MEdium Resolution
Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS) based on the physically-based inversion method (Croft et al., 2020). However, MERIS is no
longer in operation—it was in operation from 2003 to 2012. As the successor of MERIS, Sentinel-3 Ocean and Land Colour
Instrument (OLCI), also launched by the European Space Agency (ESA), will be obliged to succeed MERIS and continue the
terrestrial vegetation monitoring mission.

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The estimation of the leaf-scale parameter, LCC, from the canopy level remains challenging due to leaf scattering signals may
be confounded with the signals of canopy structure and soil background (Jay et al., 2017b; Li et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2019;
Houborg et al., 2009; Zarco-Tejada et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2008). Varieties of vegetation indices (VIs) were developed and
widely used to retrieve LCC due to their simplicity and high computational efficiency (Verrelst et al., 2015; Haboudane et al.,
60 2002; Wu et al., 2008; Croft et al., 2014). The development of VIs has gradually clarified the unique value of the red-edge
bands and considered reducing its sensitivity to canopy structure and soil background (Sims and Gamon, 2002; Daughtry et
al., 2000; Haboudane et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2008; Gitelson et al., 2003; Yin et al., 2022). While VIs models may perform well
at the field level, they usually cannot be transferred to other species and regions due to the lack of a clear physical foundation,
which depends heavily on the training samples (Croft and Chen, 2017; Sun et al., 2018). In contrast, the physically-based
65 models establish the relationships between the leaf optical properties and the vegetation spectra by simulating interactions of
light with the canopy based on radiative transfer theory. The radiative transfer model approach realizes a large number of



vegetation leaf and canopy spectra simulations, that integrates a variety of confounding scene information, and is therefore considered ideal for global LCC mapping (Li et al., 2021). To deal with the ill-posed problems in the retrieval of crop LCC caused by the lack of prior information, a look-up-table (LUT) method that combines multiple types of canopy structure and soil background was proposed in our previous study (Qian and Liu, 2020). However, the feasibility of this algorithm for LCC estimation of other plant function types (PFTs) (e.g., forests and shrubs), is not yet known, as is the applicability of this approach to OLCI satellite data.

In this study, we aimed to generate a global LCC dataset using MERIS and OLCI data from 2003–2012 to 2018–2020 (GLCC) with an improved LUT approach by inverting radiative transfer models. Ground measured data covering six different PFTs were subsequently used to validate the LCC retrievals. In addition, this new LCC dataset was compared to the existing global LCC dataset to analyze its spatial and temporal characteristics. The global leaf chlorophyll content data spanning nearly two decades will contribute to vegetation dynamics monitoring and ecosystem modeling.

2 Data and methods

2.1 Satellite data

2.1.1 MERIS and OLCI surface reflectance data

MERIS full resolution surface reflectance (SR) product and Sentinel-3 SY_2_SYN (synergy) product were selected for generating global LCC product. MERIS SR product provides 7-day synthetic images covering the years from 2003 to 2012. It has 15 spectral bands ranging from the visible to the near-infrared with a resolution of 300 m. The SY_2_SYN product was launched by ESA in October 2018, and integrates the information from the OLCI and Land Surface Temperature Radiometer (SLSTR) on board ESA's Sentinel-3A and Sentinel-3B satellites, including surface reflectance and aerosol parameters over land. OLCI has a 300 m resolution with 21 distinct bands. MERIS and OLCI surface reflectance was used to produce a global LCC dataset, mainly due to the possessing of chlorophyll-sensitive red-edge bands, medium spatial resolution, and a short revisit cycle (Curran and Steele, 2005). The band settings of MERIS and OLCI are shown in Table 1, and the ones in bold are used for LCC retrieval.

Table 1. The channel settings of MERIS and OLCI.

MERIS channel	center (nm)	width (nm)	OLCI channel	center (nm)	width (nm)
			Oa1	400	15
1	412.5	10	Oa2	412.5	10
2	442.5	10	Oa3	442.5	10
3	490	10	Oa4	490	10
4	510	10	Oa5	510	10
5	560	10	Oa6	560	10



6	620	10	Oa7	620	10
7	665	10	Oa8	665	10
			Oa9	673.75	7.5
8	681.25	7.5	Oa10	681.25	7.5
9	708.75	10	Oa11	708.75	10
10	753.75	7.5	Oa12	753.75	7.5
11	760.625	3.75	Oa13	761.25	2.5
			Oa14	764.375	3.75
			Oa15	767.5	2.5
12	778.75	15	Oa16	778.75	15
13	865	20	Oa17	865	20
14	885	10	Oa18	885	10
15	900	10	Oa19	900	10
			Oa20	940	20
			Oa21	1020	40

2.1.2 MODIS land cover map

The MODIS Land Cover Type (MCD12Q1) Version 6 product provides global data with 500 m spatial resolution at annual time steps from 2001 to 2020 (<https://doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MCD12Q1.006>). The International Geosphere Biosphere Programme (IGBP) scheme was used in this study, which has 17 land cover types, including 11 natural vegetation types. In this study, these 11 natural vegetation types were combined into five types: needleleaf forests, evergreen broadleaf forests, deciduous broadleaf forests, shrublands and croplands/grasslands.

2.1.3 The Croft MERIS LCC dataset

The 2003–2011 weekly global dataset of LCC was generated by Croft et al. (2020) (referred to as Croft MERIS LCC, hereafter) from MERIS data applying a two-step physically-based approach. For the first step, leaf reflectance was derived from the MERIS SR product using SAIL or 4-Scale canopy radiative transfer models based on the canopy structural characteristics. Secondly, leaf chlorophyll content was inverted from the simulated leaf reflectance generated in the first step based on the PROSPECT-5 leaf radiative transfer model. The Croft MERIS LCC dataset with 300 m spatial resolution was resampled to 500 m to facilitate the comparison with the GLCC dataset generated in this study.

2.2 LCC field measurements

The field LCC data from 161 sampling measurements covering six PFTs were collected to validate the GLCC dataset. The LCC data included 45 observations in deciduous broadleaf forests (DBF), 15 observations in evergreen broadleaf forests (EBF), 48 observations in needleleaf forests (ENF), 21 observations in grasslands (GRA), 29 observations in croplands (CRO), and



110 three observations in shrublands (SHR). A notable source of these data is the National Ecological Observatory Network (NEON), supported by the National Science Foundation (NSF) funded Grand Challenge project (Keller et al., 2008; Scholl et al., 2020). These sites are covered with relatively homogeneous vegetation at a 500 m scale based on the Google Earth images. For each ground measurement site, the number of samplings and dates are reported in Table 2. The method of LCC measurement was through laboratory chemical analysis.

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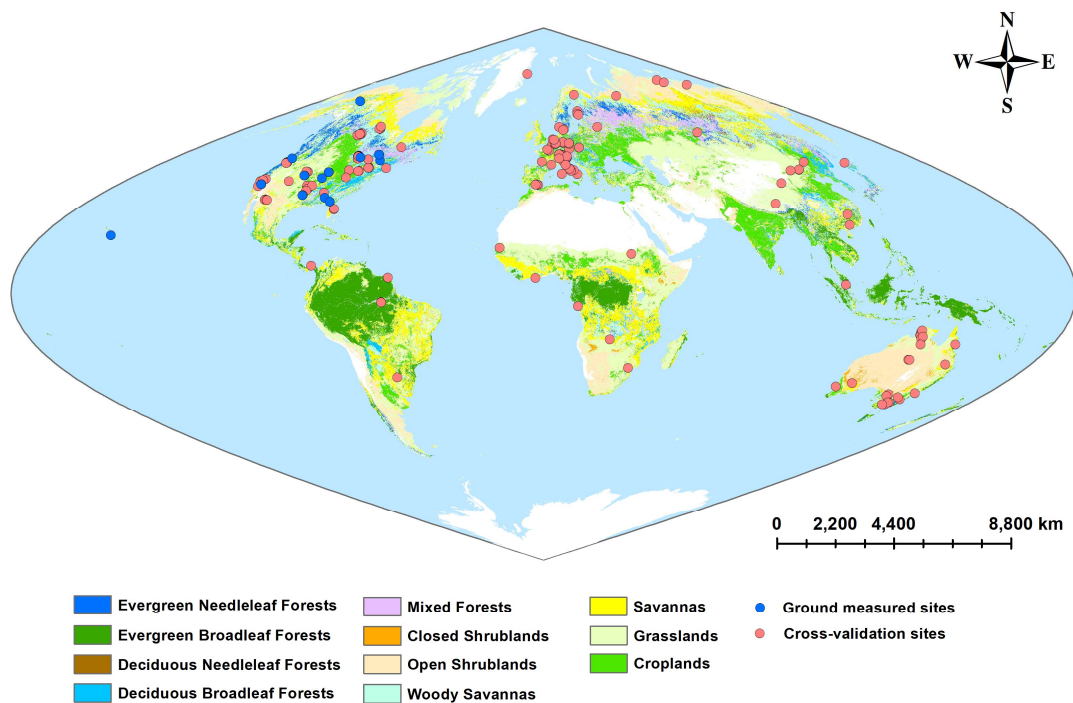
Table 2. Details of the field measurements of LCC for validation used in this study.

Site name	Latitude	Longitude	PFT	Dominant species	Sampling date	Samples	Reference/Source
Sudbury_DBF	47.16	-81.71	DBF	Trembling aspen	Summer 2007	2	Simic et al. (2011)
Haliburton	45.24	-78.54	DBF	Sugar maple	May–Sep 2004	8	Zhang et al. (2007)
JERC_DBF	31.19	-84.47	DBF	Southern red oak	Sep 2019	7	
UNDE	46.23	-89.54	DBF	Red and sugar maple, aspen, paper birch	Jun 2019	8	National
DELA	32.54	-87.81	DBF	Oak, hickory	Apr–May 2019	4	Ecological
CLBJ_DBF	33.40	-97.59	DBF	Post oak, blackjack oak	Apr–May 2019	13	Observatory
BONA	65.16	-147.54	DBF	-	Jul–Aug 2019	3	(2022)
SJER_EBF	37.11	-119.73	EBF	Evergreen oak	Mar–Apr 2019	8	
PUUM	19.56	-155.30	EBF	'Ohi'a lehua	Jan 2019	7	
Sudbury_Simic	47.18	-81.74	ENF	Black spruce	Summer 2007	5	Simic et al. (2011)
Sudbury_Zhang	47.16	-81.74	ENF	Black spruce	Summer 2003–2004	16	Zhang et al. (2008)
JERC_ENF	31.20	-84.46	ENF	Longleaf pine	Sep 2019	9	
NIWO_ENF	40.04	-105.56	ENF	lodgepole pine	Aug 2019	6	National
WREF	45.83	-121.97	ENF	Douglas fir, western hemlock, pacific silver fir	Jul 2019	12	Ecological
CLBJ_GRA	33.37	-97.58	GRA	Bluestem	Apr–May 2019	6	Observatory
NIWO_GRA	40.05	-105.58	GRA	Curly sedge	Aug 2019	3	(2022)
SJER_GRA	37.10	-119.73	GRA	Bromus	Mar–Apr 2019	12	
US-Ne2	41.17	-96.47	CRO	Soybean	Jun–Sep 2004	21	University of Nebraska–Lincoln
KONA	39.13	-96.63	CRO	Wheat, corn	Jul 2019	8	National
NIWO_SHR	40.05	-105.59	SHR	-	Aug 2019	1	Ecological
SJER_SHR	37.11	-119.75	SHR	Manzanita, whitethorn shrub	Mar–Apr 2019	2	Observatory (2022)



2.3 The cross-validation sites

The site location information from the FLUXNET2015 dataset was extracted for the cross-validation between the Croft MERIS
120 LCC dataset and the GLCC dataset. Considering the spatial-temporal consistency of satellite products, we selected 178 sites
for the validation of the GLCC dataset in this study. The ground measured sites in Table 2, the selected 178 cross-validation
sites, and the IGBP land cover map are shown in Fig. 1.



125 **Figure 1. Global MCD12Q1 land cover map and the locations of the ground measured sites and the cross-validation sites for the validation of the GLCC dataset.**

2.4 Algorithm development

An improved LUT approach was selected to derive LCC from satellite data on a global scale. This LUT-based inversion
approach has been successfully work in the retrieval of crop LCC (Qian and Liu, 2020). In this study, the 4SAIL canopy
130 bidirectional reflectance model (Verhoef et al., 2007) and 4-Scale geometric-optical model (Chen and Leblanc, 1997)
combined with the PROSPECT-D leaf optical properties model (Féret et al., 2017), were used to simulate the homogenous



and heterogeneous canopy reflectance spectra, respectively. It should be noted that canopy spectra were convolved with spectral response functions to match the MERIS and OLCI bands.

2.4.1 Canopy reflectance modeling – PROSPECT-D and 4SAIL model

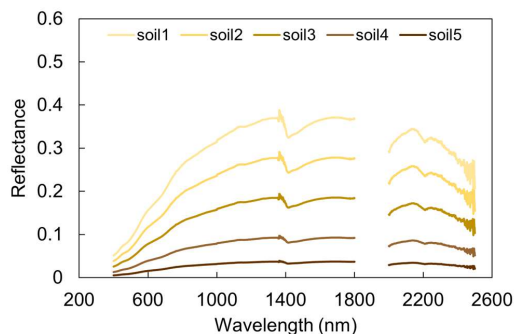
135 It is known that turbid medium models such as 4SAIL are a poor representation of heterogeneous and structurally complex
 canopies since they assume a random distribution of leaves. Thus, the 4SAIL model was used to simulate the canopy spectra
 for homogenous canopies, such as crops and grasses. Table 3 shows the input parameters within the PROSPECT-D and 4SAIL
 model. At the leaf level, only LCC varied, with a range of 10–80 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. At the canopy level, the leaf inclination distribution
 function (LIDF) was set to five commonly used types except for the erectophile distribution because of the underestimation of
 140 LCC with the consideration of erectophile distribution (Qian and Liu, 2020). LAI was set from 0.25 to 8 to model the scenarios
 with different levels of vegetation cover. The soil reflectance was determined by multiplying the field-measured dry and bare
 soil spectra by five different brightness coefficients (Fig. 2). The solar zenith angle was set from 0° to 60°, with a step of 10°.
 An LUT was then generated, which contained 25 sub-LUTs corresponding to five kinds of canopy structure and five kinds of
 soil background.

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Table 3. The PROSPECT-D and 4SAIL input parameters for LUT generation.

	Input parameters	Value/source
	Leaf structural parameter (N)	1.5
	Leaf chlorophyll content (LCC, $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)	10–80, step 10
	Leaf carotenoid content (C_{xc} , $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)	LCC/4
PROSPECT-D	Equivalent water thickness (C_w , cm)	0.02
	Dry matter content (C_m , g cm^{-2})	0.004
	Leaf anthocyanin content (C_{anth} , $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)	2
	Leaf brown pigment content (C_{bp})	0
	leaf inclination distribution function	[1,0], [0,-1], [0,1], [-0.35,0.15], [0,0]
	Leaf area index (LAI)	0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1, 1.25, 1.5, 1.75, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8
	Hot spot parameter (S_L)	0.05
4SAIL	Soil reflectance (ρ_s)	As shown in Fig. 2
	Solar zenith angle (θ_s , °)	0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60
	View zenith angle (θ_v , °)	0
	Relative azimuth angle (φ , °)	0

[1,0], planophile; [0,-1], plagiophile; [0,1], extremophile; [-0.35,-0.15], spherical; [0,0], uniform



150 **Figure 2.** Soil reflectance used in the 4SAIL model. Soil1 reflectance is obtained from the field measured. The others
 are the soil1 spectrum multiplied by different brightness coefficients.

2.4.2 Canopy reflectance modeling – PROSPECT-D and 4-Scale model

The 4-Scale model was selected to simulate forested and spatially clumped canopy spectra. The significant parameters include
 155 tree density, tree height (stick and crown), LAI, crown diameter, crown shape, tree group size, branches and shoots, background
 soil factor, viewing geometry, and leaf optical properties. Firstly, leaf optical properties were modeled in the PROSPECT-D
 model based on the values from Table 4 (Croft et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2021b). Then, the 4-Scale model was run to simulate
 canopy spectra using tree architecture, canopy structure, imaging geometry, and leaf/background properties, as shown in Table
 5 (Chen and Leblanc, 1997; Chen et al., 2005; Chen and Leblanc, 2001). At given viewing geometry, variations of crown
 160 height presented an impact on the modeled canopy reflectance and LCC (Zhang et al., 2008; Croft et al., 2020). The 4-Scale
 model was run in the forward mode to generate four LUTs used to retrieve LCC in DBF, EBF, ENF, and SHR ecosystems,
 respectively. Each LUT, including three sub-LUTs, was contained to consider three types of crown height.

Table 4. The PROSPECT-D input parameters for the simulation of leaf spectra.

	DBF	EBF	ENF	SHR
LCC ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)	10–80, step 10	10–80, step 10	10–80, step 10	10–80, step 10
N	1.2	1.8	2.5	1.8
C_{ar} ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)	LCC/7	LCC/7	LCC/7	LCC/7
C_{anth} ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$)	1	1	1	1
C_{bp}	0	0	0	0
C_m (g cm^{-2})	0.005	0.005	0.035	0.005
C_w (cm)	0.01	0.01	0.048	0.01



165 **Table 5. The 4-Scale input parameters for LUT generation.**

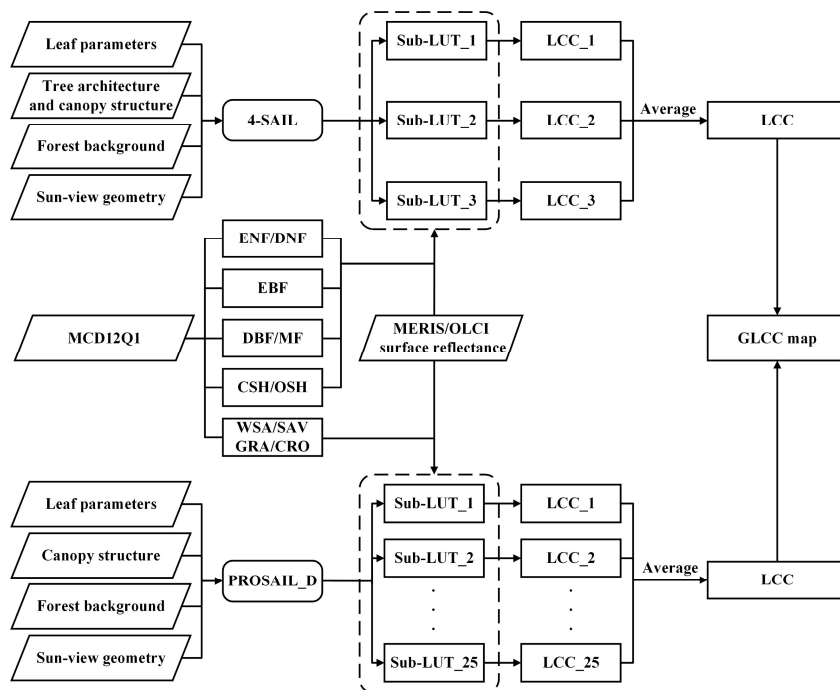
	Broadleaf trees	Needleleaf trees	Shrubland
Stand density (trees/ha)	1000, 2000, 3000, 4000	1000, 2000, 3000, 4000, 6000, 8000, 12000	1000, 2000, 3000, 4000
Leaf area index ($\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$)	0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8	0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8	0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8
Stick height (m)	1, 5, 10	1, 5, 10	1, 2, 3
Crown height (m)	5, 10, 20	5, 10, 20	1, 2, 3
Crown radius (m)	0.75, 1, 1.25, 1.5	0.5, 0.75, 1, 1.25	0.75, 1, 1.25, 1.5
Crown shape	Spheroid	Cone & cylinder	Spheroid
Clumping index (ΩE)	0.6, 0.9	0.5, 0.8	0.6, 0.9
Solar zenith angle ($^\circ$)	10–70, step 10	10–70, step 10	10–70, step 10
View zenith angle ($^\circ$)	0	0	0
Relative azimuth angle ($^\circ$)	0	0	0
Neyman grouping	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 3
Needle to shoot ratio (γE)	1	1.41	1
Background composition	Green vegetation and soil	Green vegetation and soil	Dry grasses and soil

2.4.3 Deriving leaf chlorophyll content

MERIS and OLCI surface reflectance data were reprojected and resampled to be consistent with the MCD12Q1 product. For DBF and MF PFTs, the DBF LUT, containing three sub-LUTs, corresponding to three types of crown height presented in Table 5, was used. In the processing of inversion using a physically-based model, the inversion results are not always unique, as different combinations of canopy and leaf parameters may produce almost similar spectra (Si et al., 2012). It has been indicated that using prior knowledge is an effective way to deal with this problem and facilitate LCC retrieval (Sun et al., 2021a; Li et al., 2021). The DBF LUT for retrieving DBF and MF LCC from MERIS/OLCI reflectance was optimized based on sun-view geometry that could be available from each satellite image. The root mean square error (RMSE) between MERIS/OLCI canopy reflectance and simulated canopy reflectance was calculated to derive the LCC value for each sub-LUT. Instead of selecting the best spectrum (case) obtained for the smallest RMSE value and its corresponding LCC as the solution, the situation of multiple best cases and the mean of their corresponding LCC values were considered. A different number of cases (the first 1, 10, 50, 100, 500, and 1000 best fits) were conducted in the solution in retrieving LCC. It was found that the average of the best ten solutions yielded the lowest RMSE for the LCC retrieval and served as the retrieval for each sub-LUT. The final inversion result was obtained by averaging the retrievals of the three sub-LUTs by considering multiple types of crown height. The retrieval of LCC for the other PFTs referred to the inversion process described above. It is worth noting that



the four PFTs, WSA, SAV, GRA, and CRO, used the LUT, containing 25 sub-LUTs, established by the PROSAIL_D model. An analysis toward multiple solutions (selecting the first 1, 3, 5, 8, 10, or 15 best fits) was also conducted in each sub-LUT. According to the test by Qian and Liu (2020), the mean of the eight best solutions yielded the best result, and the mean of the retrievals for 25 sub-LUTs was taken as the final retrieval. Multiple averages will reduce the ill-posed inversion problem and improve the robustness of the inversion method. For invalid pixels (reflectance less than 0) and non-vegetated pixels in the MERIS/OLCI data, the LCC value was set to 0.



190 **Figure 3. The flowchart of the LUT algorithm to generate GLCC dataset based on 4-Scale and PROSAIL_D models, respectively.**

2.5 Validation and evaluation of the GLCC dataset

The GLCC dataset was validated by comparing it with the collected LCC field measurements comprising 161 field samples over six PFTs in Section 2.2. In addition to field data validation, the GLCC dataset was evaluated from two other aspects: first, to analyze the spatial and temporal variations of the global LCC maps; second, to compare the new LCC dataset with the Croft MERIS LCC dataset at the cross-validation sites



3 Results and discussion

3.1 Validation of LUT algorithms for LCC inversion using the synthetic dataset

A random 10% of the synthetic dataset was used to validate the inversion performances of the improved LUT algorithm on the five PFTs (Fig. 4). All the LUT algorithms had R^2 values higher than 0.79 and RMSE values lower than $10.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. The LUT algorithm for SHR PFT achieved the highest R^2 (about 0.98) and lowest RMSE ($2.8 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$). Except for the DBF and EBF PFTs, the difference in LCC inversion performance of the LUT algorithm on the MERIS and OLCI synthetic datasets is negligible, indicating the applicability and effectiveness of the improved LUT algorithm for MERIS and OLCI satellite data.

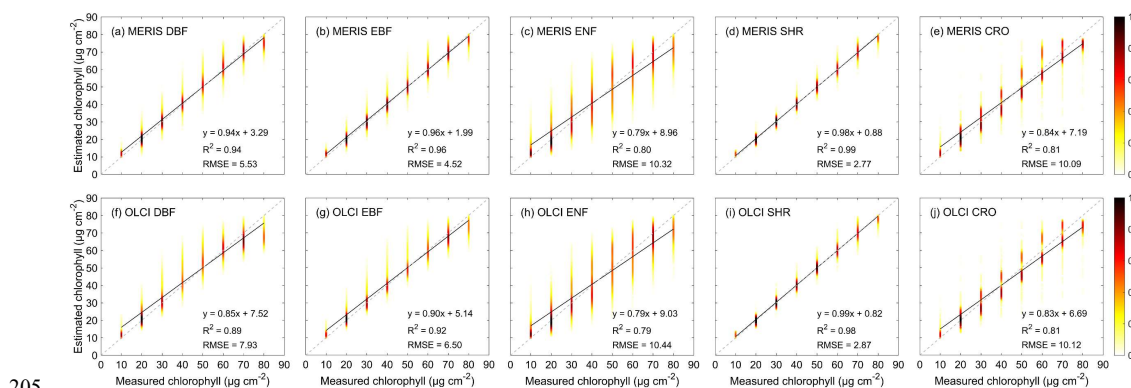


Figure 4. Performances of LCC inversion with the synthetic dataset using the LUT algorithms. Darker colors indicate higher dot density.

3.2 Validation of the GLCC dataset using field measurements

The LCC estimates against ground measured values were plotted in Fig. 5 for all PFTs and Fig. 6 for individual PFTs. With all PFTs combined, the GLCC dataset yielded a relatively good overall accuracy, with a coefficient of determination (R^2) value of 0.41, an RMSE value of $8.94 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$, and a normalized RMSE (NRMSE=RMSE/range) value of 16.9%. In the case of considering single PFT alone, EBF performed best ($R^2=0.61$; RMSE= $8.03 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) followed by DBF ($R^2=0.43$; RMSE= $8.21 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) and ENF ($R^2=0.32$; RMSE= $8.09 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$). The other three PFTs showed similar levels of performance, where RMSE values were 10.58, 10.48, and $7.37 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ for CRO, GRA, and SHR, respectively. Overall, all PFTs achieved RMSE $< 10.6 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$.

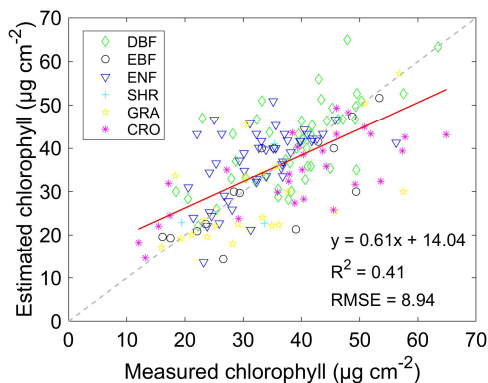


Figure 5. Validation of the GLCC dataset with field measurements for all PFTs.

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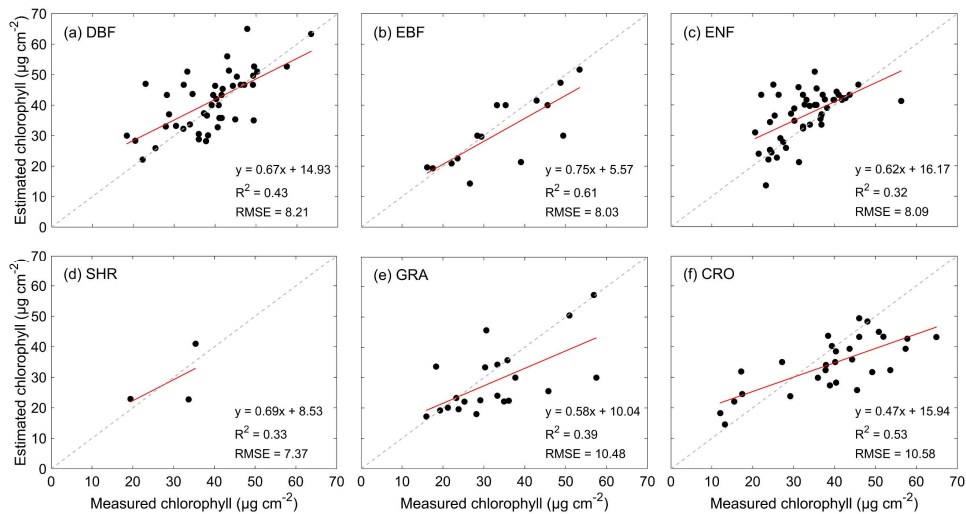


Figure 6. Validation of the GLCC dataset with field measurements for six individual PFTs.

3.3 Spatial and temporal trends in global leaf chlorophyll content

225 The annual global distribution of LCC from OLCI data is presented in Fig. 7(a). The tropical forests in the Congo basin, Amazon region, and Southeast Asia achieved the highest mean LCC values higher than $40 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. DBF had relatively high



values of annual mean LCC (about $40 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$), while GRA had the lowest mean LCC values lower than $<30 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. The annual mean LCC values of SHR decreased with increasing latitude and did not present a fixed range of values. Fig. 7(b) demonstrates the variation of annual mean LCC with latitude on a global scale. In general, the annual mean LCC value
230 decreased with increasing latitude, which is in line with the general pattern of plant growth.

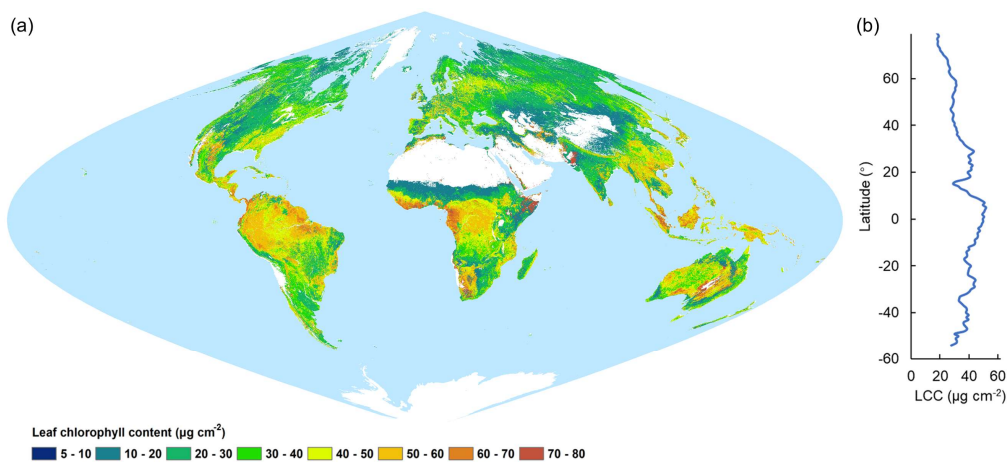
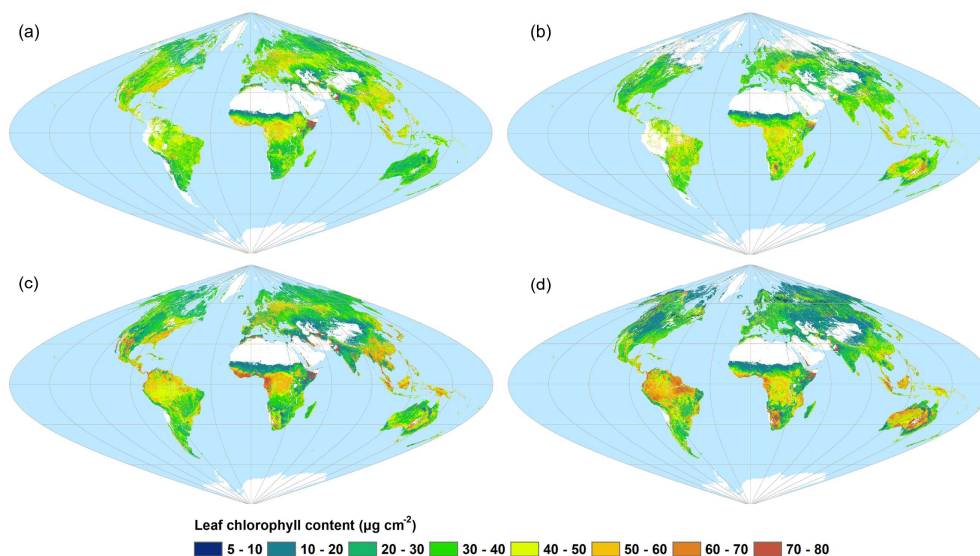


Figure 7. (a) The global annual mean map of GLCC in 2019 and (b) the mean values along latitudinal bands.

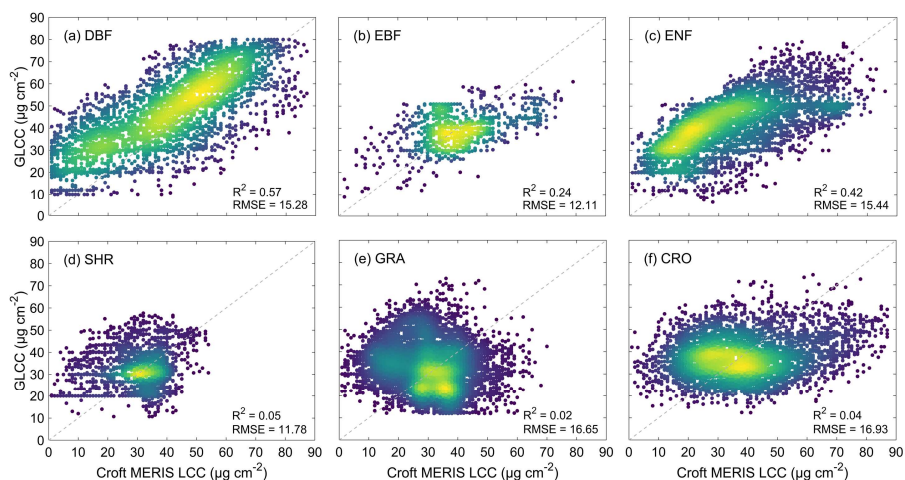
235 The seasonal dynamics in MERIS LCC and OLCI LCC are shown in Fig. 8. The year 2009 and 2019 were divided into two seasons according to the vegetation status and climate in the northern hemisphere, i.e., a growing season from May to October and a non-growing season in the remaining six months. It can be observed that the OLCI LCC map showed a similar overall spatial distribution to the MERIS LCC map, in both the growing and the non-growing seasons, but with richer spatial details. This indicates that the improved LUT algorithm can be well applied to OLCI data, and the dataset has the capacity to represent
240 the LCC spatial distribution. In tropical rainforest areas, LCC remained high all year round. Distinct seasonal variations of LCC were found at the middle and high latitudes of the northern hemisphere. Boreal forests at high latitudes had higher LCC than other PFTs, especially in the growing season. Apparent seasonal variations were found in shrublands in south Africa and Australia.



245 **Figure 8. Spatial distribution of the mean LCC using MERIS and OLCI data in the different seasons: (a) and (b) are the mean LCC map using MERIS data in 2009 during the growing and non-growing season for the northern hemisphere, respectively; (c) and (d) are the mean LCC map using OLCI in 2019 during the growing and non-growing season for the northern hemisphere, respectively.**

250 **3.4 Comparisons of GLCC dataset and Croft MERIS LCC dataset**

The comparisons of GLCC with the Croft MERIS LCC dataset in different PFTs at the cross-validation sites were presented in Fig. 9. The former had narrower value ranges of LCC (generally 10–80 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) than the latter (1–90 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$). The GLCC had higher values than Croft MERIS LCC for DBF and ENF, with RMSE values of 15.28 and 15.44 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. The two LCC dataset values were closer for EBF and SHR, with RMSE values of 12.11 and 11.78 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. The correlation between GLCC and Croft MERIS LCC was very poor for GRA and CRO, with $R^2 < 0.05$ and RMSE close to 17 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. For GRA, the poor correlation was due to the fact that GLCC had lower values than Croft MERIS LCC, while for CRO, it was attributed to the high-density range of GLCC values (20–50 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) corresponding to an extensive range of Croft MERIS LCC values (12–60 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$). In general, the GLCC using the improved LUT method was found to have an acceptable correlation with the Croft MERIS LCC, with an overall accuracy of $R^2=0.21$, $\text{RMSE}=15.62 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$.

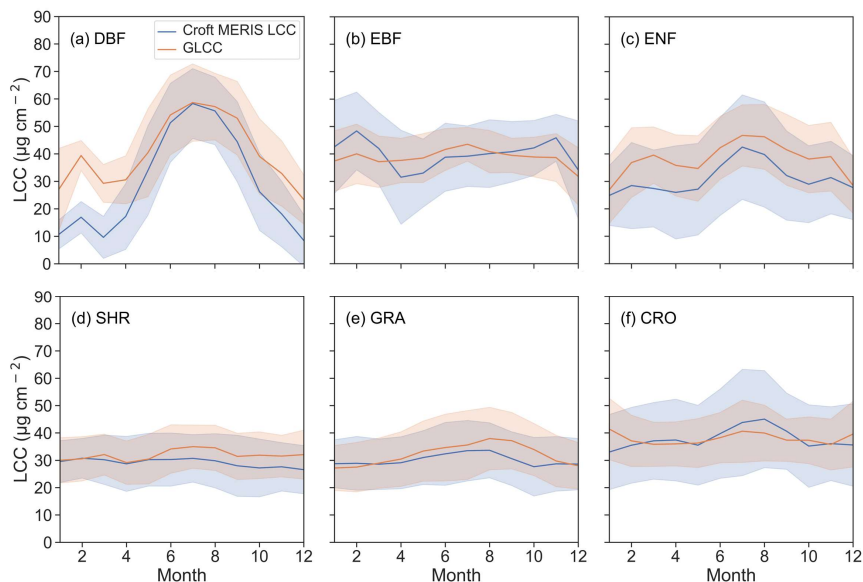


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Figure 9. Comparisons of GLCC and Croft MERIS LCC in six different PFTs at the cross-validation sites.

Figure 10 shows the seasonal variations of the two LCC datasets for six different PFTs across the northern hemisphere. The two LCC datasets had the most stable seasonal variations in SHR, with the LCC value range of 20 to 40 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ all year round. The GLCC presented a slight seasonal variation in comparison with Croft MERIS LCC. The GLCC seasonal trajectories in EBF were relatively consistent across the year, while the Croft MERIS LCC values varied strongly and had chaotic seasonal variations. For ENF, the two datasets had the most similar seasonal trends, while GLCC had higher LCC values than Croft MERIS LCC datasets. In DBF, the two LCC datasets presented apparent seasonal variations and the same peak, but GLCC showed higher values in winter, spring and autumn. The reason may be that the DBF validation sites at middle latitudes had different phenology from those at high latitudes. For GRA, GLCC has more elevated and later peak than Croft MERIS LCC, with more obvious seasonal variations. The seasonal variation of the two datasets in CRO showed opposite trends, except in summer. The GLCC had upward trend in winter and a little peak in summer. This may be due to the lack of LCC data, as only 19 sites were involved in the statistical analysis. The results above confirmed the seasonal variation patterns of the GLCC, especially for SHR and GRA.

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Figure 10. The mean seasonal profiles of the two LCC datasets in six different PFTs at the cross-validation sites in the northern hemisphere. The shadow areas in each subfigure represent one standard deviation.

3.5 Uncertainty in the GLCC dataset

280 This study is the first to produce a global leaf chlorophyll content dataset using MERIS and OLCI satellite data spanning nearly 20 years from 2003–2012 to 2018–2020, which is of great significance for the study of global change. The overall validation results of the global GLCC dataset were considered within reasonable limits according to the literature (Croft et al., 2020), with an overall accuracy of $8.94 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ for all PFTs. The limitations and uncertainties in the dataset are the results of factors related to the data used, the model itself, and the validation process.

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As only MERIS and OLCI surface reflectance and MCD12Q1 land cover type were involved in the generating of LCC, the accuracy of the GLCC dataset is entirely dependent on the two satellite data without considering the algorithm accuracy. Uncertainties in MERIS and OLCI surface reflectance products may arise from radiometric, geometric, and BRDF corrections as well as atmospheric corrections (Garrigues et al., 2008). In addition, a pixel at the 300 m or 500 m resolution could be affected by pixel heterogeneity, leading to spatial heterogeneity in the vegetation parameter products obtained from the inversion as well (Croft et al., 2013). The effect of pixel heterogeneity on the LUT inversion of LCC requires further evaluation.

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Vegetation canopy structure and soil background are two parameters attracting the most attention in this study. In addition, LAI parameters, which can represent vegetation cover to some extent, should also be highly considered. Numerous studies have shown that due to the interference of soil background, the retrieval accuracy of LCC is low under sparse vegetation (Zarco-Tejada et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2019; Croft et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021). How to eliminate the influence of soil background and improve the retrieval accuracy of LCC under sparse vegetation by remote sensing is an urgent scientific question worthy of deep investigation. In generating LUT, some biochemical and structural parameters were fixed as constants according to the PFT separately, which have more or less influence on the simulation of canopy reflectance. Since remote sensing inversion based on a physical model is an ill-posed problem, a trade-off between the universality and computational efficiency of the model and the accuracy of model inversion should be considered.

There are also limitations to the validation of the GLCC dataset. First, the lack of LCC field measurements with seasonal variations across different PFT resulted in insufficient validation on a global scale, particularly for SHR, EBF, and GRA PFTs. Second, the LCC validation across different PFTs using data from independent field campaigns. Nevertheless, it depends on the number of measurements, the measuring position of the leaf, and details of chlorophyll extraction. Although they have all been adequately validated individually, they may still introduce some uncertainty in the validation if putting them together in a raw way. Third, although we have paid attention to the spatial homogeneity of the field sites and tried to select areas with homogeneity within 500 m, the scale problem still exists. It is desirable that ground measured data can be upscaled using high resolution data and then used to validate the LCC dataset.

310 4 Conclusions

This study generated a new global LCC dataset based on MERIS and OLCI data using an improved LUT method. For grasslands and crops, an LUT, including 25 sub-LUTs, was generated using the PROSAIL model. The final LCC retrievals are the mean values of the 25 sub-LUTs. For forests and shrubs, four LUTs were constructed using PROSPECT-D and 4-Scale models, applicable for evergreen needleleaf forest, evergreen broadleaf forest, deciduous broadleaf forest, and shrubs, respectively. Each LUT contains three sub-LUTs, and the final inversion result is the average value of them. The LUT algorithm was tested using the simulated spectra, which yielded an R^2 value higher than 0.79 and RMSE value lower than $10.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$. The global GLCC dataset was validated and evaluated by comparing with collected field measurements and existed LCC dataset. The GLCC dataset showed good relationships with ground measured data, with an overall accuracy of $R^2 = 0.41$ and $\text{RMSE} = 8.94 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$, and presented relatively good consistency with the existing MERIS LCC dataset. The global 7-day LCC data at 500 m resolution from 2003–2012 to 2018–2020 will make an essential step towards analyzing vegetation physiological dynamics and carbon cycle modeling in global change.



Data availability. The global 7-day leaf chlorophyll content data at 500 m resolution from 2003–2012 to 2018–2020 is free to access at <https://doi.org/10.25452/figshare.plus.20439351> (Qian et al., 2022b). The global dataset is stored in GeoTIFF format, named “ESACCI-LC-L3-SR-MERIS-500m-P7D-h**v**-YYYYMMDD-v2.0-MODISTile-LCC.tif” and “S3_YYYYMMDD_h**v**_7DaySR-MODISTile-LCC.tif” for MERIS LCC dataset and OLCI LCC dataset, respectively, where “h**v**” is referenced to the MODIS tile. The scale factor of the data is 0.01.

Author contributions. LL conceptualized the project. XQ performed the investigation. LL, XQ and XZ designed the methodology. XC and SC developed the software. XQ and QS performed the validation. XQ prepared the original draft of the paper. LL reviewed and edited the paper.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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