

Introduction

Vegetation net primary productivity (NPP) is the amount of energy that green plants capture through photosynthesis per unit area over a specific period, subtracting the energy used for their respiration [1]. In comparison to other measurable elements of the carbon budget, NPP has a higher number of accurately estimated parameters. It is widely recognized as a significant part of the terrestrial carbon cycle [2]. Additionally, NPP plays a critical role in regulating ecological processes and serves as an important indicator for identifying carbon sources and sinks [3]. Due to the complexity of ecosystems, NPP is influenced by a variety of factors, including vegetation dynamics, geomorphologic distribution, climatic change, and anthropogenic activity [4-6]. The vegetation growth environment is complicated and varied due to the common changes and interactions of various elements over time and in space. Furthermore, the variety and complexity of ecological resource distribution across regions result in significant spatial and temporal heterogeneity in the impact of many factors affecting NPP [7, 8]. The spatial and temporal variations are likely to result in divergent outcomes. For instance, changes in plant species composition due to climate change may stabilize NPP in high-elevation ecosystems [9], while increasing droughts can diminish NPP [10]. Urbanization may directly impede vegetation production [11], but urban heat islands and urban ecological construction can partially counteract the negative effects of urbanization [12]. Therefore, an in-depth study of the complex relationship between NPP and natural and anthropogenic factors can help us understand its influencing factors more comprehensively. Therefore, gaining a deep understanding of the complex relationship between NPP and natural as well as anthropogenic factors in spatiotemporal variations and examining the various components that exert influence helps establish a scientific foundation for the development of efficient solutions aimed at achieving carbon neutrality.

Presently, numerous researchers have discussed the correlation between NPP and various factors from diverse viewpoints, including climate, vegetation phenology, and urbanization. However, the spatial and temporal heterogeneity in the relationship between NPP and these influencing factors exhibits significant variation across different regions [13]. In recent years, most studies on the effects of natural conditions on NPP have focused on factors such as climate, topography, and vegetation conditions, and the spatial and temporal differences in these factors have led to different findings. First, climate is the main factor that affects NPP changes. For example, Chen et al. [14] found that solar radiation, temperature, and precipitation are key variables affecting carbon fluxes in ecosystems. Variations in climatic conditions across different locations have distinct impacts on the growth and distribution of vegetation. Liu et al. [15], taking into account the lag effect of

climate conditions on NPP, found that precipitation is the primary constraining element for the increase of NPP in the transition zone between semi-arid temperate forests and grasslands. However, in cold, high-altitude areas such as the Jogail Plateau, the effect of temperature on NPP may be more significant [16]. In addition, different subsurface characteristics (e.g., topography, slope) also have an indirect effect on climate conditions, which in turn affects the regional distribution of NPP. Zhao et al. [17] found that warmer temperatures in the Qinba mountainous region of China adversely affected the middle and lower Qinling Mountains, but favorably increased NPP in the higher elevations of the Daba Mountains. The vegetation type itself is also a key factor influencing the spatial differentiation of NPP. Different types of vegetation have different growth characteristics and adaptive capacities. For example, Xin et al. [18] found that over the years, the average NPP of broadleaf forests in the Haihe River Basin of China was higher than that of other vegetation.

Meanwhile, due to the influence and damage of anthropogenic activities on the ecological environment, anthropogenic factors have increasingly become more significant in affecting NPP, even surpassing natural factors in certain regions [19]. Among them, land use change is the most direct signal of the impact of anthropogenic activities on terrestrial ecosystems [20]. Remote sensing technology provides support for land use in the monitoring of environmental change [21-23]. Changes in land patterns can directly impact NPP by altering surface structures and indirectly affect NPP alterations by modifying the structure and function of ecosystems [20, 24]. These changes can have both positive and negative impacts, thus enhancing the spatial heterogeneity of NPP change drivers. For instance, the execution of the fallow return of farmland to forest and grassland project has improved ecosystem stability and consequently increased NPP in the Yellow River Basin [25]. National ecological protection policies, such as ecological compensation measures and restoration of land cover vegetation, have yielded positive ecological effects in both North China and the Tibetan Plateau [26]. Conversely, the expansion of construction land has led to a decrease in global vegetation cover and ecological function degradation, resulting in reduced NPP [27]. Overgrazing has further disrupted soil structure, impacting the productivity of grasslands in the Ili River Basin of northwestern China [28]. Additionally, anthropogenic activities and climate change have interrelated effects on NPP. Anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions exacerbate climate warming [29], while climate change can amplify the ecological damage caused by anthropogenic activities. These effects vary across time and space. For example, Hu et al. [30] studied future climate and LUCC changes' impacts on global NPP under different scenarios and highlighted that in 2090-2100, climate change has a significantly positive impact on the northern high latitudes and a notably negative impact on the tropics. Similarly,

Yunnan Province has the highest NPP, with an average value exceeding $1300 \text{ g C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$, and the highest values are mainly located in the southwestern part of Lincang, Xishuangbanna, and most of Pu'er at altitudes below 1500 m.

The Temporal Variation Characteristics of NPP

As shown in Fig. 3b), the total amount of NPP in Yunnan province from 2001 to 2017 shows a fluctuating upward trend, with an annual average of 6.06 Gg C . The minimum and maximum values of NPP occurred in 2010 and 2015, at 5.6 Gg C and 6.27 Gg C , respectively. The interannual variation of NPP showed significant lows in 2004 (5.682 Gg C) and 2010 (5.68 Gg C). The fluctuation of NPP in Yunnan province was large from 2001 to 2010, but decreased after 2010 and exhibited an overall increasing trend. To better understand the change in NPP in Yunnan province over the past 17 years, this study also calculated the annual average NPP values for the study area based on pixels (Fig. 2). The range of annual average NPP change was $951.85 \text{ g C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$ to $1050.87 \text{ g C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$, with the minimum and maximum values occurring in 2010 and 2015. The average maximum value of NPP was $2005.96 \text{ g C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$, and the average minimum value was $19.4 \text{ g C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$. Additionally, the study found that the maximum, minimum, and average values of NPP showed similar changing trends between adjacent years over the past 17 years.

This study used Sen's trend analysis and the MK significance test to obtain the spatial distribution map of NPP change in Yunnan province from 2001 to 2017 (Fig. 3a). The results indicate that the area where NPP

increased accounts for roughly 62.75% of the total area and is mainly characterized by non-significant increases. The areas with increased NPP are mainly distributed in the northeastern and western parts of Yunnan province, such as Zhaotong, Qujing, Baoshan, and Lincang. The area with a non-significant decrease accounts for approximately 30.26% of the total area and is mainly distributed in the northwest regions of Diqing, Nujiang, Lijiang, and Dehong, as well as in the southern regions dominated by Xishuangbanna and Pu'er. Overall, the increase in NPP in Yunnan province outweighs the decrease, indicating an increasing trend in NPP from 2001 to 2017, consistent with the temporal characteristics of NPP change in the study area.

Influencing Factors of NPP Change

The Correlation Between NPP, NDVI, and Climatic Factors

NDVI is an important indicator of vegetation coverage, which has a good indicative role in the yield of NPP [4]. NPP will rise in proportion to the augmentation of vegetation coverage. The results (Fig. 4(a-b)) of the correlation analysis show that the correlation coefficient between NPP and NDVI is between -0.88 and 0.99. Among them, the regions with a correlation coefficient greater than 0 accounts for 83.54% of the total area of Yunnan Province, and those less than 0 accounts for 16.46% of the total area of Yunnan Province, indicating that most of the NPP in Yunnan Province are positively correlated with NDVI. The regions exhibiting a significant correlation ($t < 0.05$) between NPP and NDVI encompass 31.79% of the entire land area of

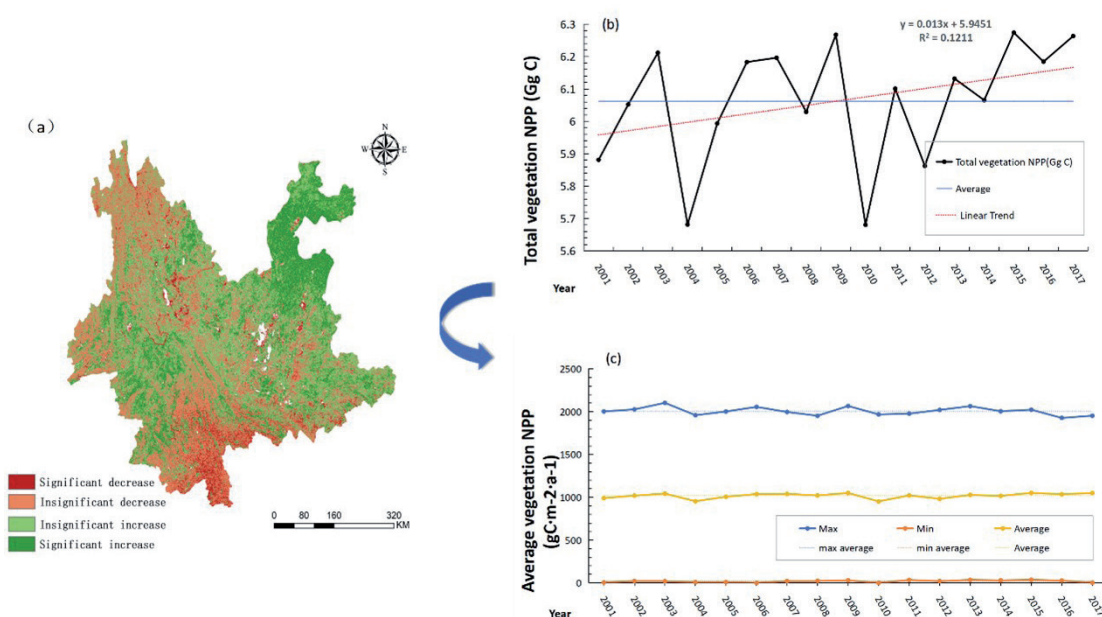


Fig. 3. Changes in NPP over time in Yunnan Province, 2001-2017; (a) change in trend; (b) inter-annual change in total NPP; (c) inter-annual change in the mean, maximum, and minimum values of NPP

Table 2. Comparison of OLS and GWR models.

year	Model	Adjusted R ²	AICC
2001	OLS	0.679	24994.064
	GWR	0.758	21448.092
2010	OLS	0.638	26895.822
	GWR	0.712	23852.807
2017	OLS	0.668	25482.383
	GWR	0.747	22110.509

coefficient between temperature and NPP is greater than that of altitude, the altitude factor is excluded. Hence, NDVI, precipitation, and temperature are determined as explanatory variables of the GWR model for the analysis of influencing factors.

On one hand, this approach achieves factor reduction, and on the other hand, it maximally reflects the impact of influencing factors, avoiding redundancy and ineffectiveness.

To reduce errors in the GWR results, it is necessary to first use ordinary least squares (OLS) to test the collinearity of the independent variables. Compared with the results of the OLS model (Table 2), the GWR model’s adjusted goodness of fit (Adjusted R²) increases, and the AICc value significantly decreases. This indicates that the GWR model can better explain the spatial distribution of how the three factors affect NPP.

The distribution results of the Geographically Weighted Regression coefficients between the three factors and NPP (Fig. 8) indicate that the spatial distribution of different influencing factors has significant spatial heterogeneity, specifically in the following three aspects:

(1) NDVI has a significant positive impact on NPP. The high positive value region of the regression coefficient is mainly located in the southern part of Yunnan Province (Xishuangbanna, the southern part of Pu’er, and the southern part of Honghe). These areas belong to the tropical region of Yunnan, with good water and heat conditions, high forest coverage,

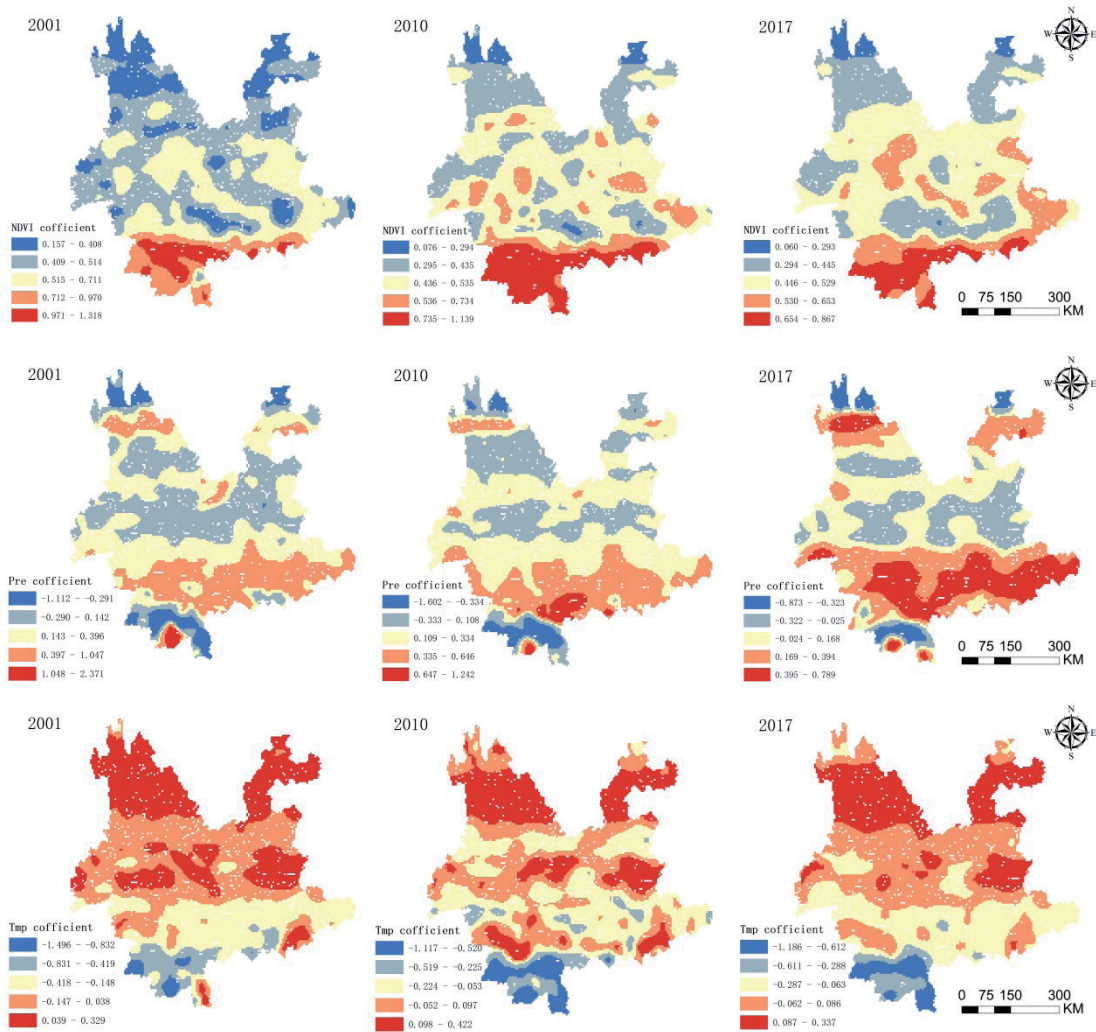


Fig. 8. Geographically Weighted Regression results: spatial distribution of regression coefficients for NDVI, precipitation, and temperature.

NPP, promoting NPP in most regions. For instance, the tropical and subtropical climates of regions like Honghe, Wenshan, and Pu'er benefit from increased precipitation, promoting vegetation growth [42]. Conversely, precipitation shows the strongest negative correlation in some regions in the north and south of Yunnan. The high altitude in the north makes excessive precipitation likely to trigger natural disasters (landslides, debris flows, etc.), hindering vegetation growth, whereas excessive precipitation in the south, like in Xishuangbanna, a humid region, affects thermal conditions and suppresses vegetation growth [43]. Temperature is also a crucial factor influencing vegetation NPP. The main vegetation types in Northwest Yunnan are warm-temperate mixed broadleaf-conifer forests, cold-temperate coniferous forests, temperate coniferous forests, alpine shrubs, and meadows, which are more sensitive to temperature. Higher temperatures significantly promote photosynthesis, favoring vegetation growth. Conversely, the increase in vegetation NPP in Northeast Yunnan (e.g., Zhaotong) is due to higher temperatures and increased precipitation, which facilitate photosynthesis and transpiration, leading to a significant increase in vegetation cover. In southwestern Yunnan and most of the northern region, while higher temperatures are conducive to photosynthesis, they may also hinder the increase in vegetation NPP due to increased water consumption, suppressing photosynthesis [42]. For example, in 2010, higher temperatures in southwestern Yunnan led to a larger area of negative influence on vegetation NPP, mainly related to that year's extreme drought [44]. Drought affects plant photosynthesis, nutrient absorption, and leaf health and subsequently influences NPP [45].

Spatial and Temporal Heterogeneous Patterns of Anthropogenic Influences

The spatial and temporal distribution pattern of NPP is mostly influenced by anthropogenic causes, particularly in relation to anthropogenic land use. The influence of land use on the spatial divergence of NPP is comparatively small in relation to natural causes; however, it has a tendency to grow as time progresses. Our study shows that the explanatory power of Slope \cap LUCC and DEM \cap LUCC on NPP has a tendency to increase over time, which fits with the results of Xu et al. [43], Chen et al. [34], and Sun et al. [35]. The interaction of topography and land use may directly impact soil, water, and light conditions, thereby altering plant growth and affecting the spatial and temporal distribution patterns of NPP. In recent years, significant changes in land use have occurred in Yunnan Province due to socioeconomic development and population growth, leading to adjustments in land use structure. For example, the conversion of agricultural land to impermeable surfaces has taken place on a large scale [46]. Furthermore, our study found that although overall, the conversion of land cover types to forests,

grasslands, and croplands between 2001-2017 resulted in NPP gains, conversions to water bodies, bare land, and urban land led to NPP losses. Specifically, land use transitions caused vegetation NPP losses from 2001-2007, particularly the conversion to forests, resulting in a decrease of $1.75 \text{ Kg C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$, while transitions from 2010-2017 led to vegetation NPP gains, especially the conversion to urban land, which resulted in an increase of $69.23 \text{ Kg C} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$. This contrasts with some studies where land conversion to forests increases vegetation productivity while conversion to urban land reduces it [7, 47]. The main reasons for this may be related to the differences in the direction of land use change and the level of urban development in different regions [48]. From 2001-2010, much of Yunnan Province's forests were converted into croplands. Croplands, with long-term cultivation and fertilization, have higher soil quality than forests. After conversion, forests need to undergo long-term natural succession and vegetation recovery to increase NPP, as also evidenced in studies of the Shenyang economic zone [49]. A recent study found that the promotion effect of the urban environment on vegetation production is constrained by the level of urban development, with higher urbanization leading to higher overall vegetation levels, a phenomenon inseparable from natural and climatic conditions [50]. Meanwhile, from 2001-2010, slow urban development in Yunnan Province resulted in the conversion of land use types to urban land, disrupting the original vegetation cover and causing an overall decrease in NPP. However, from 2010-2017, accelerated urbanization intensified the urban heat island effect, promoting vegetation growth [46, 51]. Moreover, impermeable surfaces, compared to vegetated cover, reduce water retention, infiltration, and evapotranspiration, thereby favoring vegetation growth and increasing NPP [52]. Additionally, from 2010-2017, urban development placed a greater emphasis on ecological construction, and urban irrigation, construction, and greening provided favorable conditions for urban vegetation growth, such that the indirect effects of anthropogenic intervention in the urbanization process on improving the vegetation growth environment outweigh the direct losses caused by vegetation destruction [12], leading to an increase in vegetation NPP.

Advantages and Limitations

This study addresses the lack of research on the spatial and temporal variability of NPP and the factors that influence it. It combines a GeoDetector and a GWR model to examine the distinct spatial and temporal characteristics of the effects of natural and anthropogenic factors on NPP. The findings confirm that natural factors have a dominant influence on the changes in NPP in Yunnan Province, and there are significant differences in the spatial and temporal impacts of natural and anthropogenic factors on NPP. The combined use of GeoDetector and GWR models not only

- based on geodetector. Chinese Journal of Ecology, **40** (12), 3836, **2021**.
36. LI Y.M., FENG X.J., LI Y.T., YANG X. Yunnan Province Vegetation Coverage Characteristics and Impact Factors of Time and Space Changes. REMOTE SENSING FOR NATURAL RESOURCES, **2023**.
 37. WANG J., LI Y.H., ZHANG F. Mechanism for regulating the vegetation structure of the yellow-earth highlands. China soil water conservation, (9), **2023**.
 38. ZHANG J., HAO F.H., WU Z.F. Vegetarian Response to Extreme Climate and Mechanisms. ACTA GEOGRAPHICA SINICA, **78** (09), 2241, **2023**.
 39. WANG M., LI P., PENG C.H., XIAO J.F. Divergent responses of autumn vegetation phenology to climate extremes over northern middle and high latitudes. Global Ecology Biogeography, **31** (11), 2281, **2022**.
 40. KASTNER T., MATEJ S., FORREST M., GINGRICH S. Land use intensification increasingly drives the spatiotemporal patterns of the global human appropriation of net primary production in the last century. Global Change Biology, **28**, 307 **2021**.
 41. ZHANG Z., ZHAO W., LIU Y., PEREIRA P. Impacts of urbanization on vegetation dynamics in Chinese cities. Environmental Impact Assessment Review, **103** (7523), **2023**.
 42. JIAO K.W., GAO J.B., WU S.H.E.A. Research progress on the response processes of vegetation activity to climate change. Acta Ecologica Sinica, **38** (06), 2229, **2018**.
 43. XU Y., HUANG W.T., ZHENG Z.W.E.A. Detecting Influencing Factor of VegetationNPP in Southwest China Based on Spatial Scale Effect. Environmental Science, **44** (02), 900, **2023**.
 44. LI X., LI Y., CHEN A., GAO M., SLETTE I.J., PIAO S. The impact of the 2009/2010 drought on vegetation growth and terrestrial carbon balance in Southwest China. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology, **269**, 239, **2019**.
 45. WOLF S., EUGSTER W., AMMANN C., HAENI M., ZIELIS S., HILLER R., STIEGER J., IMER D., MERBOLD L., BUCHMANN N. Contrasting response of grassland versus forest carbon and water fluxes to spring drought in Switzerland. Environmental Research Letters, **8**, (3), **2013**.
 46. MA L.H. Study on Spatial and Temporal Patterns and Driving Factors of Urban Land Expansion in Yunnan Province. **2022**.
 47. LI Y.I. Research on the impact of land-use change on vegetation's net primary productivity. Value Project, **42**, (6), 45, **2023**.
 48. KONG X.S., FU M.X., ZHAO X., WANG J. Ecological effects of land-use change on two sides of the Hu Huanyong Line in China. Land Use Policy, **113** (7), 105895, **2021**.
 49. CHEN T., LIU M., HU Y.M. Changes in land use and net primary productivity in the Shenyang Economic Zone. ACTA ECOLOGICA SINICA, **35** (24), 8231, **2015**.
 50. ZHANG S.Y., JIA W.X., ZHU H.K. Vegetation growth enhancement modulated by urban development status. Science of The Total Environment, **883** (20), 163626, **2023**.
 51. JIA W., ZHAO S., LIU S. Vegetation growth enhancement in urban environments of the Conterminous United States. Global Change Biology, **24** (9), 4084, **2018**.
 52. LI J.H., XIE B.G., DONG H.M. The impact of urbanization on ecosystem services: Both time and space are important to identify driving forces. Journal of environmental management, **347** (1), 119161, **2023**.