

Title: The NASA AfriSAR Campaign: Airborne SAR and Lidar Measurements of Tropical Forest Structure and Biomass in Support of Future Space Missions

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Abstract

In 2015 and 2016, the AfriSAR campaign was carried out as a collaborative effort among international space and National Park agencies (ESA, NASA, ONERA, DLR, ANPN and AGEOS) in support of the upcoming ESA BIOMASS, NASA-ISRO Synthetic Aperture Radar (NISAR) and NASA Global Ecosystem Dynamics Initiative (GEDI) missions. The NASA contribution to the campaign was conducted in 2016 with the NASA LVIS (Land Vegetation and Ice Sensor) Lidar, the NASA L-band UAVSAR (Uninhabited Aerial Vehicle Synthetic Aperture Radar). A central motivation for the AfriSAR deployment was the common AGBD estimation requirement for the three future spaceborne missions, the lack of sufficient airborne and ground calibration data covering the full range of AGBD in tropical forest systems, and the intercomparison and fusion of the technologies. During the campaign, over 7000 km² of waveform Lidar data from LVIS and 30000 km² of UAVSAR data were collected over 10 key sites and transects. In addition, field measurements of forest structure and biomass were collected in sixteen 1 hectare

sized plots. The campaign produced gridded Lidar canopy structure products, gridded aboveground biomass and associated uncertainties, Lidar based vegetation canopy cover profile products, Polarimetric Interferometric SAR and Tomographic SAR products and field measurements. Our results showcase the types of data products and scientific results expected from the spaceborne Lidar and SAR missions; we also expect that the AfriSAR campaign data will facilitate further analysis and use of waveform Lidar and multiple baseline polarimetric SAR datasets for carbon cycle, biodiversity, water resources and more applications by the greater scientific community.

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21

22 **Keywords:** AfriSAR, LVIS, UAVSAR, GEDI, NISAR, BIOMASS, Gabon, Central Africa, Airborne
23 Campaigns, Forest Structure, Lidar, SAR, PolInSAR, Tropical Forest

24 **1. INTRODUCTION: THE NEED FOR MULTI -SENSOR FOREST STRUCTURE DATASETS**

25 Following the urgent need for improved mapping of vegetation structure (Le Toan et al.,
26 2011) to better quantify global carbon stocks and fluxes from land use change (Houghton et al.
27 2005) and impacts on ecosystem services and forest resources (Bustamante et al., 2016), NASA
28 and ESA have developed three spaceborne missions – NASA Global Ecosystems Dynamics
29 Investigation (GEDI, Dubayah et al, 2020), NASA-ISRO Synthetic Aperture Radar Mission (NISAR,
30 Rosen et al., 2016) and ESA BIOMASS (Quegan et al., 2019) - to be launched between 2018 and
31 2022. By virtue of the different sensitivities to forest structure combined with overlapping
32 coverage at different geographic and time scales, NISAR, GEDI and BIOMASS are slated for new
33 remote sensing analysis and scientific discovery that were not possible to date or with each
34 mission alone. In particular, the fusion of data from these three missions, which will be freely and
35 publicly available, will provide scientific opportunities to further our understanding of ecosystem
36 processes from the scale of anthropogenic disturbance to the global scale. An overview of the
37 main expected mission parameters is shown in Table 1.

38 GEDI is a geodetic laser altimeter and waveform lidar instrument built and operated by NASA
39 and University of Maryland. The GEDI mission launched on December 5th, 2018 and deployed on
40 the International Space Station (ISS), with the aim of measuring forest structure and biomass
41 within the ISS coverage window of +/- 51.6 degrees latitude (Dubayah et al., 2020; Duncanson et
42 al., 2020). The GEDI mission provides canopy height and Aboveground Biomass Density (AGBD)
43 samples within 25 m footprints and a wall-to-wall gridded data products at 1 km resolution. The

44 GEDI mission's strengths lie in the penetration capability of GEDI's near infrared lasers (1064 nm
45 wavelength) and the near-continuous recording of the returned signal, providing the most
46 accurate vertical samples of canopy structure from space. The spatial distribution of GEDI
47 footprints is dense in tropical biomes (8 tracks separated by ~600-m across track with footprints
48 spaced ~60-m along track) but no observations will be generated at high-latitudes (>51.5
49 degrees) due to the ISS orbit.

50 The NASA-ISRO Synthetic Aperture Radar Mission (NISAR) is a three-year joint US-India L- and
51 S-band SAR mission to be launched in 2023 with scientific applications in the solid earth,
52 cryosphere, hydrosphere and ecosystem sciences (Rosen et al., 2017). NISAR will provide global,
53 cloud-free, wall-to-wall L-band SAR observations with two polarizations (HH and HV) at 12.5 m
54 resolution, with a 12 day repeat and approximately 30 observations per year (NISAR, 2018). One
55 of the mission objectives is to map woody vegetation disturbance, recovery and AGBD up to 100
56 Mg ha⁻¹ at the 1 ha scale. NISAR's primary limitation for mapping of forest structure lies in the
57 reduced sensitivity of L-band backscatter to AGBD above approximately 100 Mg/ha (Yu and
58 Saatchi, 2016). This limits accurate AGBD mapping in most dense tropical, subtropical and
59 temperate forests if backscatter alone is used.

60 The European Space Agency's BIOMASS Mission is a 5-year P-band SAR mission (435 Mz) to
61 be launched in October 2022 with the primary objectives of mapping forest AGBD and height at
62 200 m spatial resolution and disturbance at 50 m spatial resolution (Carreiras et al., 2017; Le Toan
63 et al., 2011). The ESA BIOMASS mission will collect data in fully polarimetric, repeat-pass
64 interferometric and tomographic modes to produce repeated measurements of forest height as
65 well as AGBD during its 5-year mission life (Quegan et al., 2019). These maps are expected to be

66 more accurate in higher AGBD ecosystems than those produced by other SAR missions, due to
67 higher P-band penetration into the canopy compared to shorter wavelengths such as L, C, X or S-
68 band and, more importantly, due to the missions' capability to support Polarimetric InSAR and
69 Tomographic SAR. However, the BIOMASS mission will only acquire data over tropical and
70 subtropical regions worldwide due to the International Telecommunication Union–
71 Radiocommunications restrictions over North America and Europe (Carreiras et al., 2017).

72 In anticipation of the three missions, there was a need for field and airborne measurements
73 of forest structure and condition, as well as new forest structure retrieval algorithms across a
74 wide range of tropical forest conditions. As a result the European Space Agency (ESA), United
75 States National Aeronautics and Space Agency (NASA), French Aerospace Lab (Office National
76 d'Etudes et de Recherches Aérospatiales; ONERA), German Space Agency (Deutsches Zentrum
77 für Luft-und Raumfahrt; DLR), Gabonese National Park Agency (Agence Nationale des Parcs
78 Nationaux; ANPN), the Gabonese Earth Observation Agency (Agence Gabonaise de l'Etude et
79 Observation de la Terre; AGEOS) and multiple international University partners collaborated on
80 the AfriSAR campaign, to acquire coincident calibration and validation datasets that would
81 facilitate comparison between the airborne, field and spaceborne data. It follows NASA's
82 previous regional field campaigns, such as 1994 and 1996 Boreal Ecosystem-Atmosphere Study
83 (BOREAS), the 2001 Large Scale Biosphere-Atmosphere Experiment in Amazonia (LBA-ECO) and
84 the 2015 Arctic-Boreal Vulnerability Experiment (ABOVE), and ESA's TropiSAR in combining
85 remote-sensing techniques and ground-based experiments to assess ecosystem structure and
86 change in responses to anthropogenic and environmental drivers.

87 The primary aim of the AfriSAR campaign was to collect ground, airborne SAR and airborne
88 Lidar data for the development and evaluation of forest structure and AGBD retrieval algorithms
89 and GEDI, NISAR and BIOMASS sensor calibration and validation. The campaign consisted of two
90 deployments, the first deployment in 2015 focused only on ESA BIOMASS calibration with the
91 ONERA SETHI P- and L- band SAR system; the second in 2016 included the NASA deployment,
92 with the NASA LVIS (Land Vegetation and Ice Sensor) Lidar, the NASA L-band UAVSAR and the
93 DLR L- and P-band F-SAR system; during both deployments AGEOS and ANPN collaborated on site
94 selection, coordination and field measurements. The objectives of the AfriSAR deployments were
95 to:

- 96 1) Measure forest canopy height, canopy profiles and AGBD under a variety of forest
97 conditions, such as primary and degraded forest, and a variety of forest types, including
98 tropical rainforest, mangroves, forested freshwater wetlands and savannas.
- 99 2) Acquire detailed measurements of airborne SAR data and Lidar data for validation and
100 cross calibration of NASA and ONERA/DLR instruments and for calibration and
101 validation support of the BIOMASS, NISAR, and GEDI missions.
- 102 3) Conduct technology demonstrations of joint SAR and Lidar applications for improved
103 measurement of canopy structure and AGBD.

104 The AfriSAR campaign encompassed both field and airborne missions to study forest structure
105 and AGBD of tropical forests. The ESA and DLR acquisition and analysis have been described in
106 detail in Hajnsek et al., (2016), Wasik et al (2018) as well as Labriere et al (2018). In this paper,
107 we focus on the NASA contribution to the AfriSAR campaign and describe the objectives, field
108 measurements and study sites covered. We also provide an overview and analysis of the higher-

109 level NASA AfriSAR data products and in anticipation of similar data products that will result from
 110 NISAR and GEDI. In section **Error! Reference source not found.**, we describe the targeted field
 111 sites and study area. Section 3 provides a detailed overview of the field and airborne data analysis
 112 while section 4 describes the methods used to acquire field and airborne canopy structure and
 113 AGBD estimates from different sensors and processing techniques, such as PolInSAR, Lidar and
 114 Tomographic SAR. In section 5, we present an analysis and comparison of the different data
 115 produced by the campaign. Section 6 discusses the broader implications of the airborne
 116 campaign for mission algorithm development and existing applications of the data. Finally, in
 117 section 7, we discuss the implications of the campaign and present our general conclusions.

118 **Table 1. Overview of the GEDI, NISAR and BIOMASS expected mission parameters**

	GEDI	NISAR	BIOMASS
Type	Waveform Lidar	L-band SAR	P-band SAR
Coverage	~ +/- 51.6 degrees	Global	South America, Africa, Asia, Australia
Launch date	Dec 5 2018	2022	2022
Min. Mission length	2 years	3 years	5 years
Repeat coverage	None	Every 12 days	Every 3 days
Resolution	25 m footprint 1 km gridded data	12.5 m SLC 12.5 x 12.5 GRD	30 m SLC 50 m gridded Disturbance 200 m gridded Height and AGBD product
AGB range	all	<100 Mg ha ⁻¹	all
AGBD Uncertainty	<20 Mg ha ⁻¹ or 20% standard error, whichever is greater, for 80% of 1km cells	20% up to 100 Mg ha ⁻¹	20% for AGBD > 50 Mg ha ⁻¹ 10 Mg ha ⁻¹ for AGBD <50 Mg ha ⁻¹

119 **2. STUDY AREA**

120 Gabon was selected as the study area for AfriSAR due to ecological and logistical
 121 considerations, as it is a densely forested country with rich structural and functional biodiversity.
 122 By area, Gabon is the second most forested tropical country in the world with 88.5% forest cover

123 and 23.5 M ha of forest (Sannier et al., 2014). Its composition roughly follows the precipitation
124 gradient, with mesic equatorial coastal forests in the west and drier Guinean–Congolian lowland
125 forests in the east (Poulsen et al, 2016). Forests are estimated to have the second highest carbon
126 density after Malaysia, with a mean total (above and belowground) carbon density of 164 Mg C
127 ha⁻¹ (Saatchi et al., 2011). Almost three-quarters (67%) of Gabon’s forest is in logging concessions
128 while 30000 km² or 11% of the land areas are protected in 13 national parks that encompass
129 most of the important terrestrial, coastal, and marine ecosystems in the country (Forêt
130 Ressources Management, 2018). Across the country, 31% of the forested areas have been
131 selectively logged, with harvest intensities ranging from 0.4–0.8 trees ha⁻¹ (Medjibe et al., 2013).
132 Gabon has among the richest wildlife and plant communities in Africa, and up to 20% of its
133 species are endemic to the country. For example, roughly 40% of the world’s western lowland
134 gorillas are thought to live in Gabon (Laurance, 2006).

135 The sites imaged as part of the NASA AfriSAR campaign were selected based on preceding ESA
136 acquisitions, the availability of field measurements of forest structure, accessibility and
137 recommendations by experts, most notably the Gabonese National Park Service - Agence
138 Nationale des Parks Nationaux (ANPN). The four joint ESA/NASA AfriSAR Sites were Mondah
139 forest, Lopé National Park, Mabounié and Rabi (Fig. 1). The additional NASA AfriSAR sites were
140 Pongara National Park, Akanda National Park, the Gamba Complex and Mouila, as well as two
141 transects flown to capture geographic and climatic variability. See the Supplemental material for
142 a detailed description of the sites.

143

144 **3. AIRBORNE AND FIELD DATA ACQUISITION**

145 **LVIS** is a medium-altitude imaging laser altimeter designed and developed at the NASA
146 Goddard Space Flight Center to measure vegetation structure, sub canopy ground elevation, and
147 topography of ice sheets and glaciers (Blair et al., 1999). It is also the airborne prototype of the
148 GEDI mission with similar instrument and data specifications. LVIS was flown in Gabon from
149 February 20th to March 8th 2016 on the NASA Langley King Air B-200 at an altitude of 7.3 km
150 (Table 2). The nominal footprint diameter was 20 m with 9 m separation, providing overlapping
151 along track footprints. Both the transmitted and return signals are digitized to provides a true 3D
152 vertical record of intercepted surfaces including the canopy surfaces and underlying ground.
153 From each waveform, canopy height, canopy vertical metrics, and subcanopy topography were
154 derived, relative to the WGS-84 ellipsoid (Blair et al., 1999; Blair and Hofton, 2018). We compared
155 LVIS crossover footprints (areas where two footprints from different acquisitions overlap) to
156 compute horizontal and vertical accuracy of the measurements.

157 LVIS standard data products include Level 1B and 2B. The Level 1B product contains the
158 geolocated laser return waveforms in HDF5 format. The Level 2 product contains elevation
159 (ground and canopy top) and Relative Height (RH) products derived from the Level 1B file in ASCII
160 text (.TXT) format. LVIS Crossover comparisons showed that the LVIS Level 1B product has an
161 expected horizontal geolocation of 1 m or less (Lope 0.41 m, Mabounié 0.57 m, Mondah 0.99 m,
162 and Rabi 0.5 m) and vertical accuracy of 5 to 10 cm (Blair and Hofton, 2018). More acquisition
163 details and original L1 & L2 data products are available through the National Snow and Ice Data
164 Center DAAC and LVIS website.

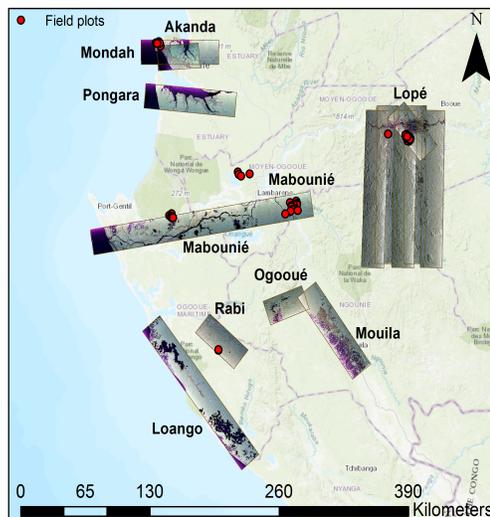
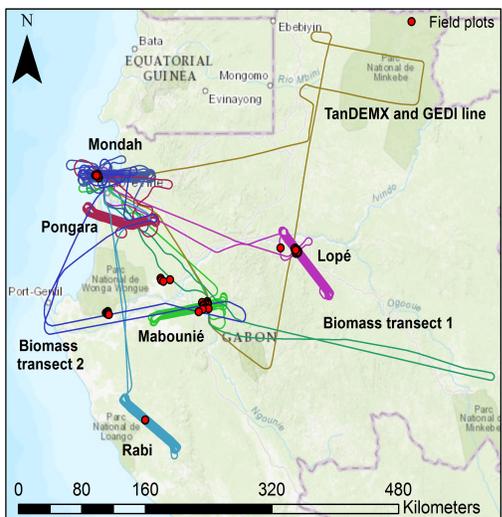
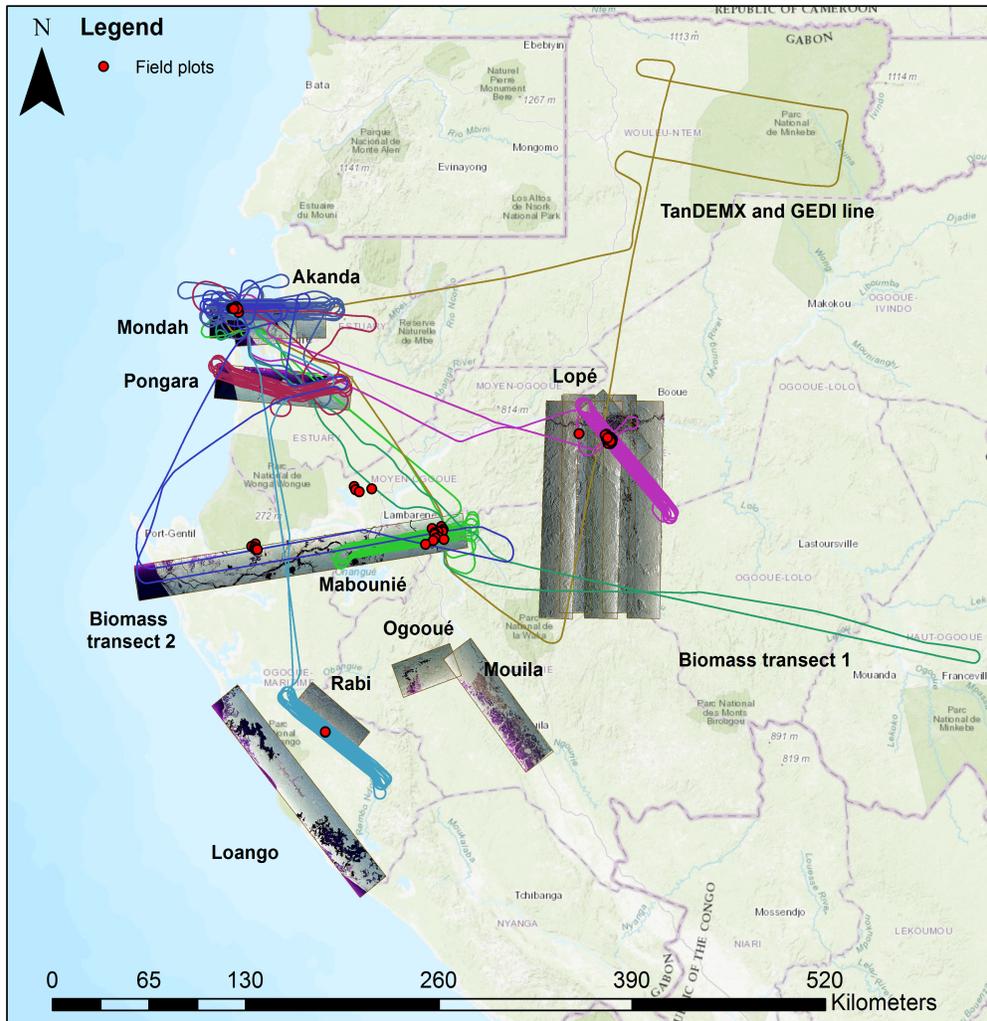
165 **UAVSAR** is an airborne fully polarimetric L-band (1.26 GHz, 80 MHz bandwidth) Synthetic
166 Aperture Radar (SAR) system designed, built and operated out of the NASA Jet Propulsion

167 Laboratory. The instrument was developed for repeat pass interferometry (InSAR) in support of
168 crustal deformation, polarimetric Interferometric SAR (PolInSAR) and Polarimetric tomography
169 (TomoSAR) to measure forest structure and sub canopy topography (Hensley et al., 2008). It was
170 deployed in Gabon from February 23 through March 8, 2016 on the NASA Gulfstream III aircraft,
171 flying at 12.5 km altitude and equipped with a Precision Autopilot system allowing for flight
172 repeat track acquisition within 5 m of the original flight line. UAVSAR multi-looked complex data
173 resolution is 0.00005556 degrees, or 6.14 m at the equator. The aim of collecting UAVSAR in
174 Gabon was to acquire multiple repeat-pass InSAR acquisitions with varying interferometric
175 baselines and time spans, including mimicking NISAR temporal baselines (Denbina et al., 2018).
176 The different interferometric baselines are obtained by acquiring repeat flight lines parallel to
177 the first line but displaced vertically (i.e. changing flight altitude) by multiples of 15 m or 20 m
178 (Table 2). This flight configuration was designed to resolve a wide range of forest canopy heights,
179 and flight were nudged vertically by 15 m or 20 m to minimize the variation of the interferometric
180 wavenumber within UAVSAR's imaging swath (i.e. the wavenumber varies more rapidly across
181 the range perpendicular to flight with horizontal baselines).

182 The vertical baselines collected by UAVSAR were planned considering different objectives for
183 the study areas. For example, the Akanda site was flown repeatedly using the same baseline
184 lengths, in order to provide the data for an in-depth study of temporal decorrelation. The
185 Pongara study area was limited to fewer flight lines due to scheduling. The Lope study area had
186 baselines designed for TomoSAR, with consistent spacing between baselines and a large
187 maximum baseline length. The appropriate baseline lengths were also planned using limited pre-
188 existing knowledge (from lidar and field surveys) of the expected forest heights in each study

189 area. However, some study areas had maximum canopy heights greater than expected, such that
190 the minimum baseline length collected by UAVSAR was insufficient to retrieve the heights of
191 some of the tallest trees (Denbina et al., 2018).

192 UAVSAR acquired data in several modes including PolSAR, Inteferometric SAR (InSAR),
193 PolInSAR, Tomographic SAR (TomoSAR), zero-baseline (i.e. exact repeated flight line). The Lopé
194 site was the most extensively covered with up to 9 baselines on two separate dates (Feb 25 and
195 March 8). The two flights were acquired 12 days apart in order to simulate the temporal
196 difference between two NISAR acquisitions. UAVSAR Standard products include full polarimetric
197 (HH-HV-VV-VH) multilook complex (.mlc) gridded geocoded (.grd) data. Additionally, a SLC
198 datastack was produced that includes all of the acquisitions with varying baselines, plus the
199 vertical wavenumber and effective baseline data. The number of repeat passes and baselines are
200 shown in Table 2.



201
202
203

Figure 1 NASA AfriSAR Airborne Acquisitions. A) All LVIS and UAVSAR acquisitions. B and C show LVIS and UAVSAR acquisitions and field data sites separately.

204 **Table 2 LVIS and UAVSAR airborne acquisitions, site names and dates***

LVIS Acquisitions		
Site Name		Date in 2016
Mabounié		February 20
TanDEM-X transect		February 22
GEDI crossover transect		February 22
Biomass-1 transect		February 23
Lopé		March 2
Pongara		March 4
Rabi		March 7
Mondah and Akanda		March 4
Mondah and Akanda		March 8
Biomass-2 Transect		March 8
UAVSAR acquisitions		
	Vertical Baseline configuration [m]	
Mondah and Akanda	0, 0, 0, 45, 45,45, 60, 60, 60	March 6
Pongara	0, 20, 45, 105	February 27
Pongara	-	March 6
Lope (North)	0, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100, 120, 0	February 25
Lope (North)	0, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100, 120, 160, 180, 0	March 8
Lope mosaic (entire park)	-	March 1
Rabi	0, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100, 120, 160, 180, 200	February 28
Mouila, Mabounié and Ogooué	0	March 1
Gamba Complex	0	March 6

205 **LVIS acquired data on multiple days and flights over several sites. The dates shown here represent*
 206 *primary date at which most of the data over specific sites was collected.*

207
208

209 ***In Situ:*** We established and surveyed field plots in the forested areas in and surrounding the
 210 Mondah Forest in collaboration with ANPN. The Mondah plots were spatially distributed in low
 211 density forest based on previously developed biomass estimates (Saatchi et al., 2011) and
 212 previously flown discrete return Lidar data (Silva et al., 2018) to focus on lower AGBD (<200 Mg
 213 AGBD ha⁻¹) forests. Sampling was conducted in March 2016 using a modified methodology of the
 214 Gabon National Resource Inventory (Poulsen et al., 2017).

215 The field team established 15 1-ha plots (100 m x 100 m) divided into sixteen 25 x 25 m
216 subplots and recorded the GPS coordinates of all plot and subplot corners. Technicians measured
217 the diameter at breast height (1.3 m) of every tree ≥ 5 cm and counted the number of trees < 5
218 cm diameter. A botanist identified trees to species or genus. In addition, field teams measured
219 tree heights with a laser hypsometer (TruPulse 200 Hypsometer, Laser Technology, Inc.,
220 Centennial, CO, USA), taking three measurements of 55 randomly selected trees per site with 10
221 trees from each of 5 DBH subclasses (10-20 cm, 21-30 cm, 31-40 cm, 41-50 cm, >50 cm) and the
222 five largest trees. Shrub height was measured at each subplot corner and shrub cover for each
223 quadrant was recorded. Within each subplot, field teams took hemispherical photos at 0.5 m
224 height from the forest floor. For woody vegetation shorter than breast height, a 1 x 1 m mini-plot
225 was randomly set up in each subplot to measure percent ground cover. In addition to these
226 measurements, field teams recorded the following: altitude and orientation of each plot, forest
227 type (primary, secondary or logged), inundation type (never, seasonally or permanently), and
228 presence of disturbances, such as downed trees, fires, elephant or other large animal damage.
229 The field team also noted whether there was evidence of hunting, forest product harvesting, and
230 human trails and stumps.

231 **4. NASA AfriSAR Data Products and Algorithms**

232 **4.1. DATA PRODUCTS**

233 Following the release of the standard LVIS and UAVSAR data products, the AfriSAR science
234 team has produced additional Level 3 and 4 data products in line with GEDI and NISAR data
235 products. The aim of producing these products is to promote scientific analyses of the AfriSAR

236 data and advance the calibration and validation between sensors and missions (Table 3). AfriSAR
 237 products are versioned and may be improved in the future.

238
 239 **Table 3 AfriSAR data product list**

AfriSAR Data Product Name	Description	Reference
Mondah Forest Tree Species, Biophysical, and Biomass Data, Gabon, 2016	Individual tree, Plot (1 ha) and subplot (0.0625 – 0.25 ha) AGBD and structure metrics including uncertainty	Fatoyinbo et al., 2018
LVIS-based products		
L1B Geolocated Waveforms	Geolocated laser return waveforms for each laser footprint	Blair and Hofton, 2018a
L2 Elevation and Height Products	Ground and canopy top elevations and relative height metrics describing the vertical distribution of Lidar return energy from the ground.	Hofton et al, 2018b
Footprint-Level Canopy Cover and Vertical Profile Metrics	Footprint-level products of vertical profiles of canopy cover fraction in 1-meter bins, vertical profiles of plant area index (PAI) in 1-meter bins, footprint summary data of total recorded energy, leaf area index, canopy cover fraction, and vertical foliage profiles in 10-meter bins in Lopé, Mondah/Akanda, Pongara, Rabi and Mabounié.	Tang et al., 2018
Gridded Forest Biomass and Canopy Metrics Derived from LVIS, Gabon, 2016	Gridded version of Canopy cover, canopy heights, bare ground elevation, plant area index (PAI), foliage height diversity (FHD) and respective uncertainties at 25 m resolution in Lopé, Mondah/Akanda and Mabounié.	Armston et al., 2020
	Gridded Estimates of aboveground biomass (AGB) and respective uncertainties for four sites in Gabon at 0.25 ha (50 m) resolution derived with field measurements and airborne LiDAR data collected from 2010 to 2016.	Armston et al., 2020
UAVSAR based products		

Polarimetric SAR Stack	Calibrated, co-registered single look complex (SLC) time series data in slant range	Alaska Satellite Facility DAAC
Canopy Height Derived from PolInSAR and Lidar Data	Canopy height and intermediate parameters of the PolInSAR data (including radar backscatter, coherence, and viewing and terrain geometry) from multi-baseline PolInSAR data using the Kapok open-source Python library over Lopé, Pongara, Mondah/Akanda.	Denbina et al., 2018a
	Canopy height derived from a fusion of PolInSAR and LVIS Lidar data over Lopé, Pongara, Mondah/Akanda.	Denbina et al., 2018a
Canopy Structure Derived from PolInSAR and Coherence TomoSAR NISAR tools	Canopy Height, associated uncertainty and intermediate products derived by applying multi-baseline PolInSAR using the PLaNT software and Polarimetric Coherence Tomographic SAR (PCT) techniques over Lopé, Mondah and Rabi	Lavalle et al., 2018a
Polarimetric Height Profiles by TomoSAR, Lope and Rabi Forests, Gabon, 2016	Canopy height profiles produced using synthetic aperture radar tomography (TomoSAR) over Lopé and Rabi	Hawkins et al., 2018a

240
241
242
243

244 **4.2. PLOT LEVEL ABOVEGROUND BIOMASS DENSITY:**

245 We estimated AGBD for the Mondah plots using a pantropical allometric model including
246 parameters for tree diameter, height and wood specific density as developed by Chave et al.
247 (2014). We used the R package, BIOMASS, to analyze the plot data (Réjou-Méchain et al., 2017).
248 BIOMASS assigns wood density values to trees, builds a model to predict tree height from DBH
249 using one of five potential functional forms, and propagates errors associated with diameter and
250 wood density measurements, tree height predictions, and the allometric model.

251

252 **4.3. HEIGHT AND TOPOGRAPHY PRODUCTS**

253 *LVIS gridded height models and bare earth DEM* were produced for the Lopé,
254 Mondah/Akanda, Pongara, Rabi and Mabounié flightlines from the standard LVIS Level 2
255 topography and relative height data products distributed for each laser footprint (Blair and
256 Hofton, 2018). The canopy height was determined by the geolocation of the precise timing points
257 along the received waveform. These timing points include the received waveform signal start,
258 end and distinct modes representing reflecting surfaces within each laser footprint. An array of
259 energy percentiles between the signal end (0%) and start (100%) ranging points were then
260 computed, with the relative height (RH) of each percentile bin defined as its elevation minus the
261 elevation of the lowest detected mode (ie the ground) for more detail, see Blair et al. (1999).

262 The relative height metrics RH25, RH50, RH75, RH90, RH95, RH98, RH99 and RH100 were
263 computed from the lidar waveform. The percentile indicates the relative amount of energy
264 above from the ground. For example, RH50 represents the height below which there is 50% of
265 the lidar return energy. RH98, RH99 and RH100 can be used to represent the top canopy height.
266 The LVIS 25 x 25 m (0.0625 ha) spatial resolution relative height metrics (RH25, RH50, RH75,
267 RH90, RH95, RH98, RH99 and RH100) and bare earth elevation grids were generated from the
268 footprint elevation and height metrics. All shots falling within individual cells according to their
269 ground location were aggregated and statistical moments calculated (mean and standard
270 deviation of values). An ancillary data product describing the number of shots and flightlines used
271 for each grid cell was also generated. The bare earth elevation or Digital Elevation Model (DEM)
272 interpolation approach used the natural neighbor algorithm (Sibson, 1981), which is an efficient

273 interpolation algorithm that requires no local tuning of parameters and has been previously
274 applied to the generation of lidar DEM's over large areas (Fisher et al., 2020). The gridded
275 products cover a smaller spatial extent than the footprint products, since the former include
276 transects and transit flightpaths. All LVIS gridded products use the GeoTIFF format.

277 ***UAVSAR canopy height products*** and associated uncertainty maps from multi-baseline
278 Polarimetric Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (PolInSAR) were generated for all sites
279 where multiple interferometric baselines were collected, namely Lopé, Rabi, Pongara and
280 Mondah. The co-registered stacks of UAVSAR SLC images are also distributed as a level 2
281 product and form basis input layers to derive the PolInSAR height products. Three product
282 variants of the UAVSAR-derived Canopy Height Models (CHM) were generated using different
283 algorithms and implemented using 2 different softwares with potentially different
284 interpretations of forest structure and height (e.g. sensitivity to tree density or woody
285 biomass). These three products were produced using:

- 286 1) the prototype NISAR interferometric processor ISCE (Interferometric Software Computing
287 Environment) and the PLAnT toolbox (Polarimetric-Interferometric Lab and Analysis
288 Tool) (LAVALLE et al., 2018b), called CHM_{PLAnT} from hereon,
- 289 2) an inversion of the random volume over ground (RVoG) model implemented in Kapok: an
290 open source Python library (Denbina et al., 2017). This canopy height inversion is called
291 CHM_{Kapok} from hereon,
- 292 3) a fusion approach that inverts the RVoG model using a Support Vector Machine (SVM)
293 machine learning algorithm to estimate the best interferometric baseline for each pixel.
294 The SVM is trained using lidar canopy height data, and attempts to select the

295 interferometric baseline with highest accuracy given the observed PolInSAR coherence
296 characteristics (Denbina et al., 2018), called CHM_{fusion} from hereon.

297 The standard approach used in all three products for estimating canopy heights from multiple
298 baselines starts by calibrating and co-registering the set of available Single Look Complex (SLC)
299 along with generating maps vertical wavenumber (k_z), look vector, and latitude and longitude
300 referenced to the WGS84 ellipsoid. The vertical wavenumber represents the sensitivity of the
301 interferometric phase to vertical canopy height, and is dependent on the spatial baseline
302 between the repeat acquisitions as well as the viewing and target geometry (Kugler et al., 2015).
303 The vertical wavenumber determines the suitability of a given baseline to accurately estimate
304 canopy height for a particular true forest height. Different baselines with different vertical
305 wavenumbers can be utilized to produce consistent canopy height inversion accuracy across a
306 wide range of forest heights (Kugler et al., 2015).

307 The vertical wavenumber maps were computed using the calculated look vector for each pixel,
308 and considering the distortion effects caused by the underlying ground topography, based on the
309 30m SRTM DEM. While higher resolution DEMs were available in some areas, none covered the
310 full extents of the UAVSAR acquisitions. The full look vector was used, rather than just the look
311 angle, in order to account for the effect of aircraft attitude including non-zero squint angle.

312
313 **UAVSAR CHM_{PLANT}** data were produced for Mondah, Rabi and Lopé National Park sites. These
314 were generated with the prototype NISAR interferometric processor ISCE and the PLANT toolbox
315 starting from polarimetric SAR (PolSAR) SLC stacks (Lavalle et al., 2018a). This product also
316 includes various intermediate PolInSAR products including canopy and ground coherence maps,

317 mask coherence separation, mask coherence error and location, and merged vertical
318 wavenumber maps. To generate the CHM_{PLANT} product, PolInSAR canopy height and uncertainty
319 products were derived using an algorithm based on the random-volume-over-ground (RVoG)
320 (Cloude and Papathanassiou, 2003; Papathanassiou and Cloude, 2004) and its extension, named
321 random-motion-over-ground (RMoG), to include temporal decorrelation (Lavalle and Hensley,
322 2015), as well as the structured-volume-over-ground (SVoG) models (Cloude et al, 2006). For
323 CHM_{PLANT} , a cost function based on the product between mean PolInSAR coherence and
324 RVoG/RMoG-model visible line length (the distance between optimized PolInSAR coherences)
325 was adopted. The merging of interferometric observations from the multiple baselines ensures
326 a good balance between random phase noise, which increases with baseline length due to
327 increased volume decorrelation and lower interferometric coherence, and interferometric
328 sensitivity to structure. It also provides an effective way to partially compensate for temporal
329 decorrelation effects that result from acquiring images of an interferometric pair in repeat-pass
330 modes (i.e. at different time). Masking of very low coherence samples and very small baselines
331 was applied during the multi-baseline merging process depending on the multi-baseline flight
332 configuration and characteristics of the imaged forests. The associated canopy height
333 uncertainty product represents the standard deviation in meters of CHM_{PLANT} . More details about
334 the generation of the CHM_{PLANT} products and the canopy height uncertainty product can be found
335 in Riel et al., 2018.

336

337 ***The UAVSAR CHM_{Kapok}*** product provides estimates of forest canopy height and uncertainty for
338 study areas in Pongara and Lopé derived with the Kapok software (Denbina et al., 2018a; Denbina

339 et al., 2018b). This dataset also includes various intermediate PolInSAR products including radar
340 backscatter, coherence, and viewing and terrain geometry. Canopy height was derived from the
341 multi-baseline UAVSAR data by inverting the RVoG model. Kapok uses the SLC stack to calculate
342 a multi-look PolInSAR covariance matrix for each pixel in the imagery. Kapok also resamples the
343 available vertical wavenumber, look vector, and geolocation information to have the same
344 dimensions as the multi-looked UAVSAR image stack.

345 After calculating the multi-look covariance matrix, a coherence optimization procedure was
346 performed to find the PolInSAR coherences with the largest separation in the complex plane,
347 followed by an estimation of the interferometric phase of the ground surface beneath the forest
348 canopy, as in the standard three-stage RVoG model inversion procedure (Cloude and
349 Papathanassiou, 2003). For each pixel, a single interferometric baseline was used for the height
350 inversion, based on the characteristics of the observed coherence region, as described in
351 (Denbina et al., 2018b) CHM_{Kapok} products were created by solving for the forest canopy height
352 and extinction parameters of the model, ignoring the effects of temporal decorrelation. Pixels
353 with low HV backscatter were masked out to avoid estimating forest heights over water areas
354 and had their canopy height set to zero (i.e., non-forest). CHM_{Kapok} uncertainty is the standard
355 deviation in meters of the canopy height product h_v , derived using the same approach as
356 described in Riel et al., (2018).

357

358 ***UAVSAR CHM_{fusion}*** : In addition to the standard PolInSAR canopy height products derived
359 above, experimental UAVSAR and LVIS fusion canopy height products were also generated for
360 the Pongara and Lopé sites as described in Denbina et al., 2018b. For each pixel, the algorithm

361 uses machine learning to choose the interferometric baseline expected to provide the best
362 canopy height estimate. This selection is primarily based on the characteristics of the observed
363 PolInSAR coherence region, in addition to other parameters such as k_z and radar backscatter. A
364 sparse subset of coincident LVIS RH100 data, similar to the point density expected from the GEDI
365 mission, was used to train the classifier at approximately 250-m spacing in both azimuth and
366 range directions (Denbina et al., 2018b). After training, for each pixel the baseline selected by
367 the classifier was used to invert forest height from the RVoG model, as described in the previous
368 paragraph. This product helps demonstrate the potential of fusing multi-baseline PolInSAR with
369 data from GEDI or other future spaceborne lidar missions.

370

371 **4.4. Vertical Profile Products**

372 The AfriSAR vertical canopy structure were generated using established algorithms on the LVIS
373 data, and more experimental techniques with UAVSAR data.

374

375 ***LVIS footprint canopy cover metrics and profiles:*** Footprint-level canopy structure products
376 were generated for the Lopé, Mondah/Akanda, Pongara, Rabi and Mabounié flight lines using
377 established techniques (Tang et al., 2018). Products generated are:

378 1) Vertical profiles of canopy cover fraction (CCF) in 1 m vertical bins. Canopy cover fraction is
379 defined as $1 - P_{gap}(z, \theta)$, where z and θ are zero and P_{gap} is the directional gap
380 probability (Tang and Armston, 2019). This is equivalent to the probability that the ground
381 surface is directly visible at the nadir view of LVIS.

382 2) Vertical profiles of plant area index $PAI(z)$ between the top of canopy ($z = H_{max}$) and the
383 ground ($z = 0$), with a vertical bin size of 1 m. PAI is defined as one half of the total plant element
384 area per unit ground surface ($m^2 m^{-2}$; (Gower and Norman, 1991).

385 3) Footprint summary data of total recorded energy, PAI, CCF, and vertical plant area volume
386 density (PAVD, $m^2 m^{-3}$) profiles in 10 m vertical bins (i.e. 0-10, 10-20, 20-30 and above), and
387 foliage height diversity (FHD) - a canopy structural index that describes the vertical heterogeneity
388 of the PAVD profile (MacArthur and Horn, 1969).

389 The algorithm to derive vertical canopy profile metrics from waveform lidar is well developed
390 (Armston et al., 2013a; Ni-Meister et al., 2010; Tang et al., 2012) and requires estimates of the
391 following parameters to compute: (i) the integrated laser energy returns from the canopy $R_v(z)$
392 and ground R_g ; (ii) the ratio of canopy and ground reflectance ρ_v/ρ_g ; (iii) the leaf area angle
393 projection coefficient, $G(\theta)$, representing the fraction of canopy element area projected
394 perpendicular to the view direction to the total canopy element area; and (iv) the clumping index,
395 $\Omega(\theta)$, describing the spatial distribution pattern of canopy elements.

396 Here we set $G = 0.5$ for a uniform random foliage distribution and $\Omega = 1$, which assumes that
397 elements are dispersed randomly and independently between canopy layers. These assumptions
398 are consistent with findings by Marselis et al. (2018) who validated the vertical profile metric
399 estimates using independently acquired Terrestrial Laser Scanning (TLS) estimates. The $R_v(z)$ and
400 ground R_g are derived from LVIS level 1B and level 2 products by fitting an exponential Gaussian
401 to the lowest waveform mode corresponding to the ground (Dubayah et al, 2020). The vegetation
402 to ground reflectance ratio, ρ_v/ρ_g , is then set as a constant value per site (e.g. 1.493 for Mondah)
403 using the method developed in previous studies (Armston et al., 2013b; Tang et al., 2016).

404 ***LVIS gridded canopy cover and vertical profile metrics*** were produced for the Lopé,
405 Mondah/Akanda, Pongara, Rabi and Mabounié flightlines. The gridded map products were
406 generated at 25 meter (0.0625 ha) spatial resolution from footprint canopy cover metrics and
407 profile data. The canopy cover and vertical profile metric grids generated include the mean and
408 standard deviation of total canopy cover, foliage height diversity, total plant area index (PAI), and
409 PAI in height intervals of 0-10 m, 10-20 m, 20-30 m, and 30+ m. Data product format, projection,
410 and grid alignment were same as used for the LVIS gridded height models and bare earth DEMs.

411

412 ***UAVSAR Tomographic SAR*** products enable the generation of a wall-to-wall 3-dimensional
413 map of vegetation structure (see Hawkins et al., 2018; Lavallo et al., 2017, Riel et al., 2018).
414 Generally, a TomoSAR product describes the radar backscatter as a function of vertical elevation
415 within the forest canopy and is thus related to the vertical distribution of material within the
416 canopy (i.e. trunks, branches, leaves). Unlike Lidar, which results from intercepted surfaces,
417 including leaves, L-band radar tomography penetrates deep into the canopy with greater
418 sensitivity to large branches and trunks. The vertical resolution is driven by the length of the
419 longest interferometric baselines in the tomographic stack and is therefore coarser than in the
420 lidar data (ie m resolution in TomoSAR vs mm to cm in Lidar). The spacing between the
421 interferometric baselines determines the height of ambiguity, which was set to be greater than
422 the expected height of the forest. The three dimensional focusing of an image stack requires that
423 each image has a common phase reference, which is especially difficult in the airborne case, since
424 errors in the knowledge of the platform position are typically a large fraction of the size of the
425 radar wavelength. For phase calibration, we adopted the approach described in Tebaldini et al.

426 (2016) and Hawkins et al. (2018a) where the full network of interferograms is reduced to a
427 smaller set of “linked phases” and used to estimate a set of trajectory corrections having a
428 consistent phase reference. The AfriSAR team generated two variants of the demonstrative
429 Tomographic SAR products described below.

430

431 **UAVSAR TomoSAR:** products have backscatter values at several vertical height slices that can
432 be used to generate canopy profiles and 3D canopy structure across the entire vegetation
433 volume. These products were generated over Rabi and Lopé National Park as these were suitable
434 for processing using tomographic imaging techniques described by Hawkins et al. (2018b),
435 Lavalle et al, 2017). In these two sites, several flight lines (N=8) were acquired with different
436 vertical baselines (i.e. separation between flights), spanning a vertical aperture of 120 m (see
437 Table 3). Each flight line captures the radar backscatter projected onto its imaging plane and by
438 varying the radar altitude between image acquisitions, we vary the angle of this projection and
439 can therefore reconstruct the full backscattering profile. The tomographic processing begins with
440 the single look complex (SLC) data products generated by the standard UAVSAR stack processor
441 (see **Table 3**), which includes a motion measurement error calibration step (Hensley et al. 2015).
442 To further reduce relative phase errors between the images in a stack, a second motion
443 measurement error calibration step is performed (Tebaldini et al., 2016). Finally, the phase
444 calibrated SLC images are considered samples of the backscatter vertical wavenumber spectrum,
445 allowing the profiles to be recovered with spectral estimation techniques, either the discrete
446 time Fourier transform (Reigber and Moreira 2000) or the Capon method (Lombardini and

447 Reigber 2003). This results in a three-dimensional grid of radar backscatter throughout the
448 vegetation volume and is therefore related to the vertical distribution of AGBD.

449

450 **UAVSAR TomoPLAnT** products were generated for Mondah, Lopé National Park and Rabi,
451 starting from the stack of polarimetric SLC images using a processing chain based on ISCE and
452 PLAnT tools (Lavalle et al., 2018b). Polarimetric Coherence TomoSAR (PCT) forest structure
453 products were derived by expanding a second order Legendre polynomial expansion (Cloude,
454 2006) between the ground and the estimated tree height, in this case the lidar-based canopy
455 height, to generate the forest vertical backscatter profile. Similar to the above method, the
456 vertical wavenumber layers and phase-calibrated tomographic SLC images were then used to
457 estimate the vertical reflectivity for each polarimetric channel using the standard Capon and
458 Fourier beamforming. The generation of polarimetric coherence TomoSAR profiles also required
459 the use of the tree height product generated using PolInSAR technique.

460

461 **4.5. AfriSAR Biomass Products**

462 ***LVIS gridded Aboveground Biomass Density and associated error:*** AGBD was estimated for
463 Lopé, Mondah, Rabi and Mabounié using a model that follows the functional form of the scaling
464 equations used to derive mass from individual tree structure:

$$465 \text{AGBD } (Mg \text{ ha}^{-1}) = H^a \cdot \text{BAD}^b \cdot \text{WSG}^c \quad (1)$$

466 where H is the canopy top height, BAD is basal area density and WSG is the wood specific gravity.

467 This model form has been widely used in the literature, for example Asner et al. (2011) to
468 estimate AGBD in the tropical forests of Central and South America, Madagascar, and the Island

469 of Hawaii. We used RH98 for the Canopy top height (H) since this is less sensitive to noise
470 (Hancock et al., 2019). However, this model is also parameterized in terms of basal area density
471 (BAD) and wood specific gravity (WSG), neither of which are directly measured by the lidar
472 waveforms. Therefore, to model BAD in this study, we developed a linear model parameterized
473 by canopy cover (CC) and height (z), as previously shown by Asner and Mascaro (2014) and Ni-
474 Meister et al., (2010), for predicting BAD from lidar measurements:

$$475 \quad BAD \ (m^2 \ ha^{-1}) = RH90 \cdot CC_{z=H_{max}} \quad (2)$$

476 where $CC_{z=H_{max}}$ is canopy cover at the top of canopy (i.e. total cover).

477 The AGBD model was developed using field measurements from Mondah, Lopé, and
478 Mabounié. Models were independently developed at spatial resolutions of 50 m (0.25 ha) and
479 100m (1 ha), for which we had *in situ* estimates of AGBD that could be co-located with waveform
480 footprints with relative geolocation errors of <5%. The specification of these models required
481 explicit treatment of heteroscedasticity and the non-normal error distribution of the AGBD.

482 The variance of the Gamma distribution is proportional to the squared means, thus allowing
483 this form of heteroscedasticity to be specified and avoiding the assumption of
484 homoscedasticity. An identity link function was used, since we observed AGBD was linearly
485 related to the non-linear combination of predictors in Eqn. 1. Estimation of the model
486 parameters was undertaken in a Model parameters were estimated in a generalized non-linear
487 Bayesian framework using the R package ‘brms’ (Burkner, 2017).

488 We used a Generalized Linear Model (GLM), selecting a Gamma distribution for modelling the
489 continuous, non-negative and positive-skewed AGBD data, where the variance is proportional to
490 the squared mean. Model parameters were then estimated in a generalized non-linear Bayesian

491 framework using R. Posterior predictive distributions provided realistic per-pixel estimates of
492 uncertainty in the form of 95% confidence intervals. Model performance was assessed by leave-
493 one-out (LOO) cross-validation.

494

495 **4.6. DATASET INTERCOMPARISON**

496 We compared the accuracies and sensitivities of the height and AGBD products by extracting
497 the values of the RH100, CHM_{PLANT}, CHM_{Kapok}, CHM_{Fusion} data (for height) and AGBD_{LVIS}, with two
498 small footprint lidar datasets by Labriere et al (2018) and Silva et al (2018) and plotting them
499 against each other. To achieve this, we extracted all points covering the overlapping areas
500 between LVIS and the radar products. The values of each point were then plotted and basic
501 statistics calculated (r^2 , intercept, slope, RMSE, residual error, p-value). Crossovers between LVIS
502 and discrete return ALS data were used for comparison of equivalent products for each dataset
503 at the Lopé, Mondah/Akanda, Rabi and Mabounié sites. To ensure both datasets were aligned,
504 horizontal offsets were calculated by maximizing the correlation between real and ALS simulated
505 LVIS waveforms (Blair and Hofton 1999; Hancock et al., 2019) and then applied.

506 For the TomoSAR analysis, lidar waveforms were reprojected to the radar geometry to ease
507 the comparison with tomograms. Furthermore, radar tomograms have been normalized to their
508 maximum vertical value to highlight the vertical structural changes and to avoid that a bright
509 concentrated target shadows scattering elements less bright but more distributed along
510 elevation.

511 5. DATA PRODUCT ANALYSIS

512 Here we present the analysis of the level 3 data products. These data products are accessible
513 through the NASA Earthdata Search Portal for AfriSAR at
514 <https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search?q=afrisar> and the Oak Ridge National Laboratories
515 Distributed Active Archive Center for Biogeochemical Dynamics at <https://daac.ornl.gov/>.

516

517 *In situ aboveground biomass density:*

518 We measured 6692 trees from 139 species in Mondah, with DBH values ranging from 5 cm to
519 198.4 cm and maximum measured heights of 59.23 m. Mean AGBD was 103.2 Mg ha⁻¹ and ranged
520 from 3.26 Mg ha⁻¹ to 267.5 Mg ha⁻¹. All vegetation characteristics and estimates of AGBD were
521 reported at multiple scales: 0.0625 ha, 0.25 ha, and 1 ha. These data are available on the ORNL
522 DAAC (Fatoyinbo et al., 2018) and were used to validate and calibrate the NASA AfriSAR higher
523 level data products described below.

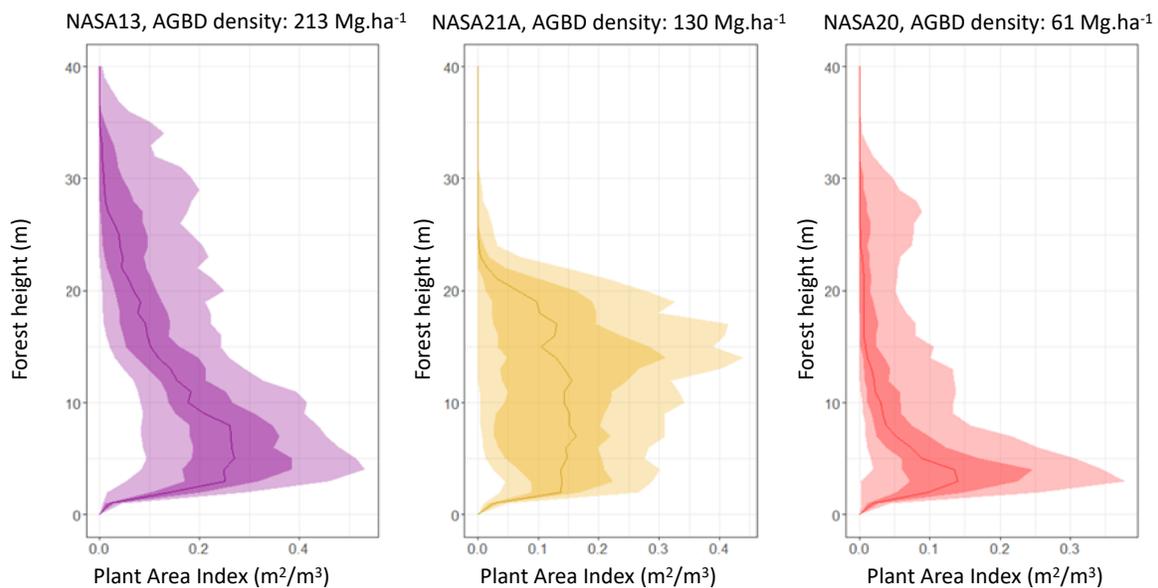
524

525 *LVIS footprint level canopy cover metrics and profiles:*

526 Canopy cover and height distribution across plots varied greatly, highlighting the difference in
527 stand structures across sites. Examples of canopy metric data products over the Mondah flight
528 lines are shown in Figure 2. All LVIS based data products are shown in Table 2. Taller stands, as
529 shown in plot NASA 13, Figure 2 with a 40+ m canopy had lower plant volume throughout the
530 vertical canopy profile, with the highest density in the understory, while the medium stature (~25
531 m canopy) plot NASA 21A's plant area was dense throughout the entire canopy layer. Plot 20 on
532 the other hand had a similar canopy height to plot 21, but lower AGBD and a majority of the plant

533 area volume concentrated in the lowest 5 m of the canopy, suggesting a difference in forest
534 composition and/or forest management strategy between the 3 plots.

535 In the comparison of the LVIS and ALS crossovers of the canopy metric products, there was a
536 mean negative bias (LVIS cover estimates are lower than ALS) of between 5.9% at Mabounie and
537 11.2% at Mondah with the corresponding RMSE between 15.5% and 24.2%. Mondah was not
538 included in these statistics because of the 5 years between the ALS and LVIS acquisition dates
539 and large areas of secondary forest growth. The differences in cover estimates between LVIS and
540 ALS are in some cases the result of errors in ground return energy estimates. It is important to
541 note that ALS does not provide a direct estimate of canopy cover, which can cause systematic
542 differences (see Armston et al., 2013; Fisher et al., 2020), but this small negative bias in LVIS
543 estimated canopy cover is consistent with what we would expect from the small positive bias in
544 LVIS estimated ground elevation (0.6 – 2.3 m across all sites) described below.



545 **Figure 2. Top row: Plant area volume density as a function of canopy height in three plots in**
546 **Mondah forest (plot 13, 21 and 20). The lightest shade is 0.1-0.9 percentile, the darker shade**
547 **is 0.3-0.7 percentile and the line is the 0.5 quantile**

549

550 ***LVIS footprint level height and elevation metrics***

551 LVIS to ALS footprint cross-over comparisons showed the RMSE for ground elevation ranged
552 between 1.75 m for Mondah and 4.2 m for Lopé. The mean bias was positive (LVIS elevation
553 estimates above ALS estimates) and ranged between 0.64 m for Lopé and 2.3 m for Rabi. There
554 was a weak trend of increasing positive mean bias (LVIS elevation estimates above ALS estimates)
555 and RMSE with increasing canopy cover and slope. Uncertainties in subcanopy ground elevation
556 estimates from large-footprint waveform lidar have been well explained in the literature (Hofton
557 et al. 2000, Duncanson et al. 2010, Hancock et al. 2012). In the case of mangroves, underlying
558 conditions such as the presence of water (tides) or aboveground roots (such as mangrove prop
559 roots) may also affect the ability of the LVIS algorithm to accurately estimate the elevation of the
560 ground.

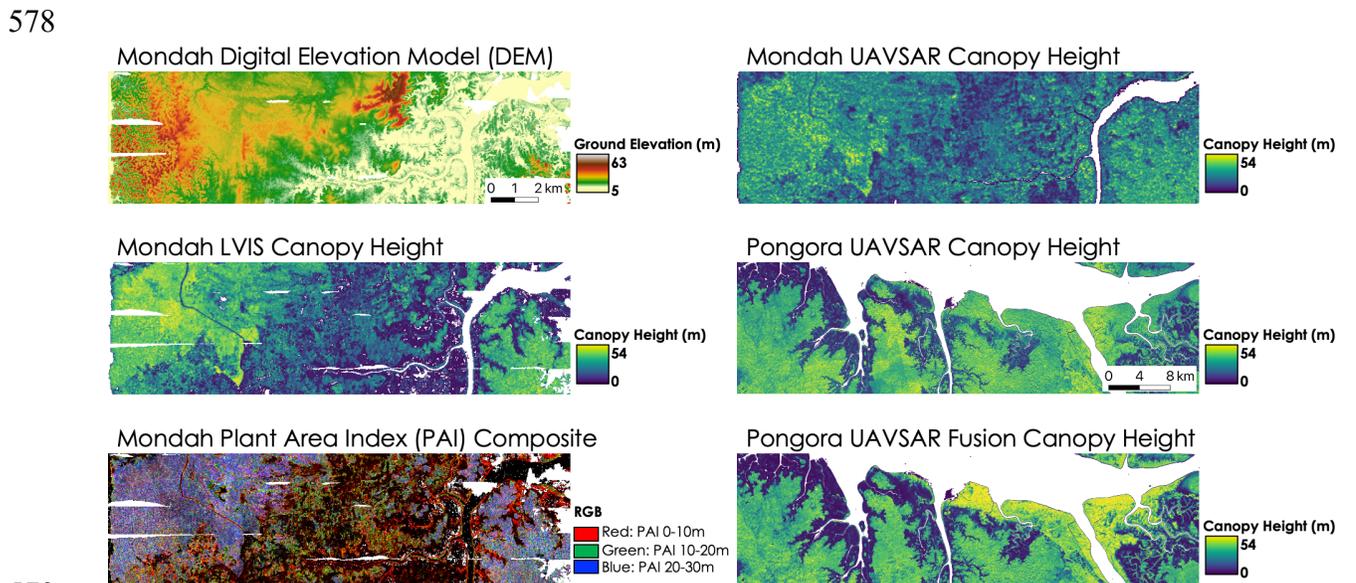
561

562 ***LVIS gridded height models and bare earth DEMs:***

563 The largest height metrics were found in Lopé National Park, with maximum canopy height
564 estimates in the gridded LVIS product of 84.3 m for RH100 and 75.9 m using RH98. At the
565 individual footprint level, the maximum heights at Lopé are 93.5 m for RH100 and 88.9 m for
566 RH98, highlighting the impact of spatial averaging to 25 m on gridded height estimates. Over
567 areas with complex topography (e.g. gullies), such as Lopé, the ground waveforms at the spatial
568 resolution of LVIS or GEDI footprints can be multi-modal, meaning that the lowest mode may not
569 always be the only ground return, thereby resulting in RH metrics being larger than actual
570 individual tree height. Maximum gridded height values are 64.2 m (55.17 for RH98) in Mondah,

571 65.1 m (51.5 m for RH98) for Pongara, 76.6 (49.4 m for RH98) for Rabi, 75.26 m (50.3 m for RH98)
 572 in Mabounié.

573 The bare earth gridded DEM height is presented as height over the geoid, and ranges from the
 574 lowest areas of 8 m in Pongara to 671 m in Lopé National Park, highlighting the wide range in
 575 topography and environmental settings covered. Overall, the subcanopy bare earth height range
 576 for Lopé is from 101 m to 671.8 m, from 10 m to 63.3 m in Mondah, from 10 m to 243.2 m in
 577 Rabi, and from 8.9 m to 138.8 m in Pongara.



579
 580 **Figure 3** LVIS and UAVSAR gridded data products for Mondah and Pongara at 30 m resolution.
 581 In the left pane, the following gridded metrics are shown from top to bottom: Gridded Digital
 582 Elevation Model for Mondah, Rh100 for Mondah, Plant area index composite of 0 m-10m (red),
 583 10m-20 m (green), 20m-30 m (blue) plant area index between 0-10 m vertical, plant area index
 584 between 20-30 m vertical and canopy cover fraction. In the right pane, the following gridded
 585 products are shown from top to bottom: CHM_{Kapok} Canopy Height, CHM_{Kapok} Canopy height for
 586 Pongara, CHM_{Fusion} Canopy height for Pongara.

587
 588 ***LVIS gridded Aboveground Biomass density and associated error:***

589 For the 3 sites, mean AGBD ranged from 337 Mg ha⁻¹ +/- 165 Mg ha⁻¹ in Lopé National Park to
 590 249 Mg ha⁻¹ +/- 145 Mg ha⁻¹ in Mabounié and 86 Mg ha⁻¹ +/- 138 Mg ha⁻¹ in Mondah forest. The

591 calibration results for the LVIS AGBD estimators at 1 ha and 0.25 ha spatial resolution using
 592 Mondah, Lopé and Mabounié plot data is shown in Table 4. Estimator parameters were not
 593 significantly different at 0.25 and 1 ha spatial resolutions, with greatest uncertainty in the stand
 594 wood density (SWD) parameter. Estimator performance was best at the 1 ha resolution, with an
 595 r^2 of 0.82 and RMSE of 85 Mg ha⁻¹, whereas the 0.25 ha resolution model had an r^2 of 0.72 and
 596 RMSE of 114 Mg ha⁻¹.

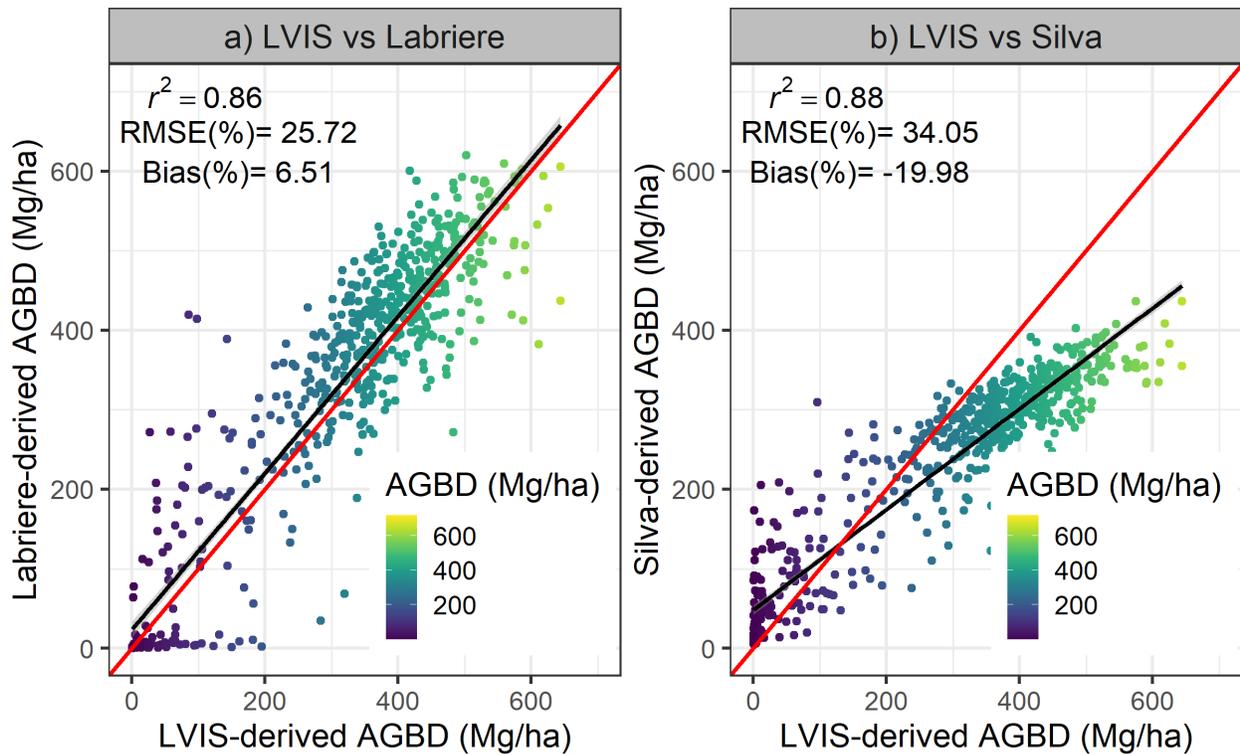
597 In the comparison of AGBD_{LVIS} vs ALS-based AGBD data (Figure 4), the LVIS-based AGBD
 598 estimates were closer to the AGBD_{Labriere}, with r^2 of 0.86, RMSE of 25% and a bias of 6%, than to
 599 AGBD_{Silva} which had an r^2 of 0.88, RMSE of 34% and a bias of -19.98%. The differences in AGBD
 600 derived from ALS and LVIS can be attributed to multiple reasons – temporal differences,
 601 particularly secondary forest growth in Mondah Forest between the 2012 ALS and the 2016 LVIS
 602 Lidar acquisitions in addition to differences in sampling error (number of LVIS shots per grid cell)
 603 between grid cells.

604
 605 **Table 4 LVIS AGBD model performance at 1 ha and 0.25 ha spatial resolution using Mondah,**
 606 **Lopé and Mabounié plot data. Parameter estimates and model fit statistics were estimated**
 607 **using leave-one-out cross validation.**

Resolution	R ²	RMSE	Parameter	Estimate	Error	Lower 95% CI	Upper 95% CI
1 ha	0.82 (0.04)	84.94	SWD	-1.84	0.68	-3.17	-0.51
			RH98	0.01	0.15	-0.30	0.30
			SBA	0.24	0.07	0.11	0.38
0.25 ha	0.72 (0.01)	114.07	SWD	-1.86	0.43	-2.70	-1.00
			RH98	-0.02	0.10	-0.20	0.17
			SBA	0.27	0.04	0.19	0.35

608 **where SWD is stand wood density, WD is Wood Density and SBA is stand Basal Area*

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612 **Figure 4** Comparison of airborne lidar-derived AGBD estimates (Labriere et al. 2018, Silva et al.
613 2018 and LVIS-based) in Lopé National Park.

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616 **UAVSAR canopy height**

617 UAVSAR height product accuracies were assessed in comparison to LVIS Rh100 metrics.

618 Comparisons of the three UAVSAR canopy height products with LVIS are shown in Figure 3 and

619 Figure 5. Generally speaking, the UAVSAR_{Fusion} canopy height product performed best when

620 compared to LVIS RH100 with the highest r^2 (0.84 in Pongara and 0.74 in Lopé), lowest RMSE

621 (around 27%) and low bias (3.65 % for Pongara), although the UAVSAR_{Fusion} product slightly

622 underestimated canopy heights in Lope (bias – 6.89%), especially for taller trees. Good

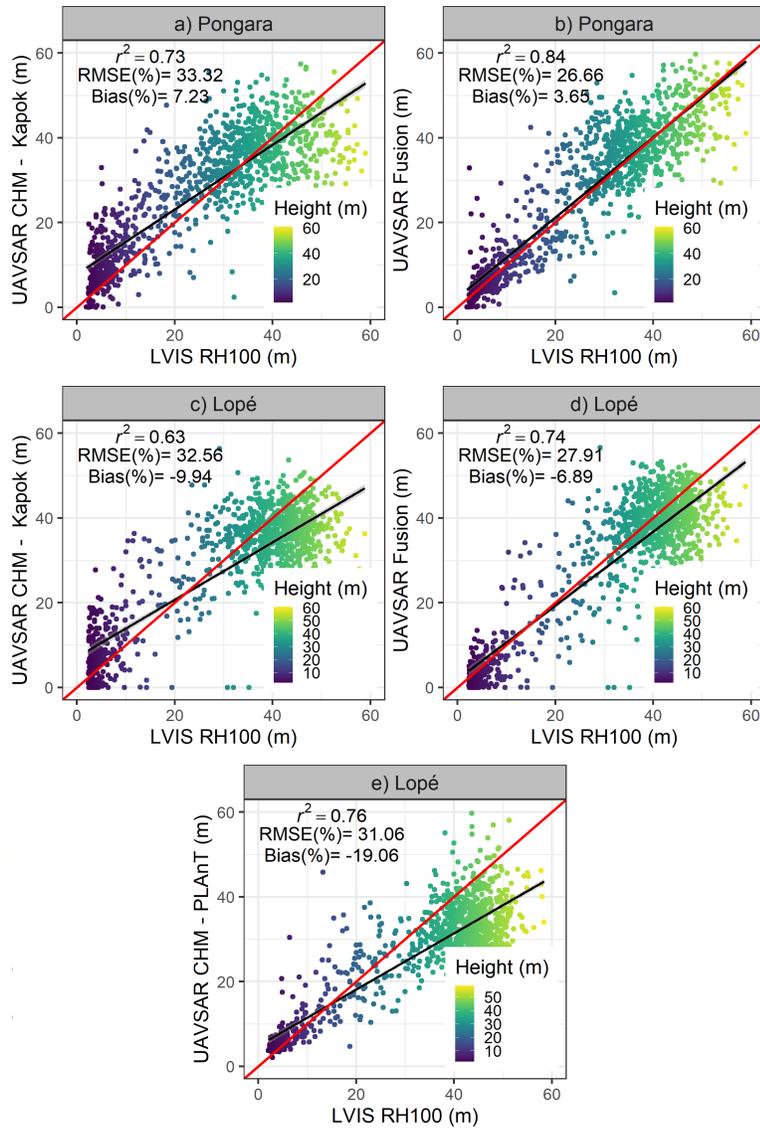
623 agreement between these datasets is to be expected since the UAVSAR_{Fusion} product used a
624 sparse subset of LVIS RH100 data to train the classifier.

625 The fact that UAVSAR Canopy height models performing better in Pongara vs Lopé when
626 compared to LVIS data is likely due to underlying topography. In Pongara, which is primarily a
627 mangrove forest, the topography is flat or has negligible slopes whereas the other sites,
628 especially Lopé and Mondah are characterized by large topographic gradients and many areas of
629 steep slopes. In addition, in Pongara there is a wider distribution of heights in each height class,
630 whereas in Lopé, for example, canopy height is focused in 2 classes – short trees or very tall trees.
631 Therefore, any underestimation of tall trees will result in a biased estimate. The CHM_{fusion} does
632 tend to overestimate canopy height in short mangroves, possibly due to lower canopy cover.
633 CHM_{Kapok} also overestimated shorter trees and underestimated taller canopies when compared
634 to Rh100 with r^2 of 0.73 and 0.63 in Pongara and Lopé respectively and RMSE of about 33%. As
635 with the CHM_{Fusion} product, there was a bias, with mangrove heights (in Pongara) being
636 overestimated (bias of 7.23 %) whereas tall trees were generally underestimated in Lopé
637 resulting in a bias of – 9.94 %. Similarly to the other SAR Canopy height products, CHM_{PLaNT}
638 generally underestimated tall trees while overestimating short ones when compared to Rh100
639 due to the configuration of the airborne experiment. The comparison resulted in r^2 values of 0.76
640 for Lopé, 0.54 for Mondah and 0.24 for Rabi, and biases ranging from 14.48% in Mondah to -
641 32.9% in Rabi (Figure 5).

642 These comparisons highlight that the deviation between UAVSAR- and LVIS-derived canopy
643 maps depends significantly on the choice of the interferometric baseline, forest structure,
644 presence of temporal decorrelation, terrain conditions, and the inversion model. Generally

645 speaking, UAVSAR canopy height estimates are most accurate over a height range between 10
646 and 30 meters due to L-band penetration in the canopy and UAVSAR baseline design. The quality
647 of the height retrieval degrades as the retrieved height approaches values lower than 5 m, which
648 may be dominated by temporal decorrelation and result in an overestimation of heights. For

649 values greater than 40 m, the effects of the limited penetration and saturation of the L-band
650 signal may lead to an underestimation of tree height.



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Figure 5 comparison of LVIS Rh 100 standard height products with 3 UAVSAR Pol-InSAR height products CHM Kapok (Denbina et al, 2018), CHM Fusion (Denbina et al, 2018) and CHM Plant (Lavalle et al, 2018)

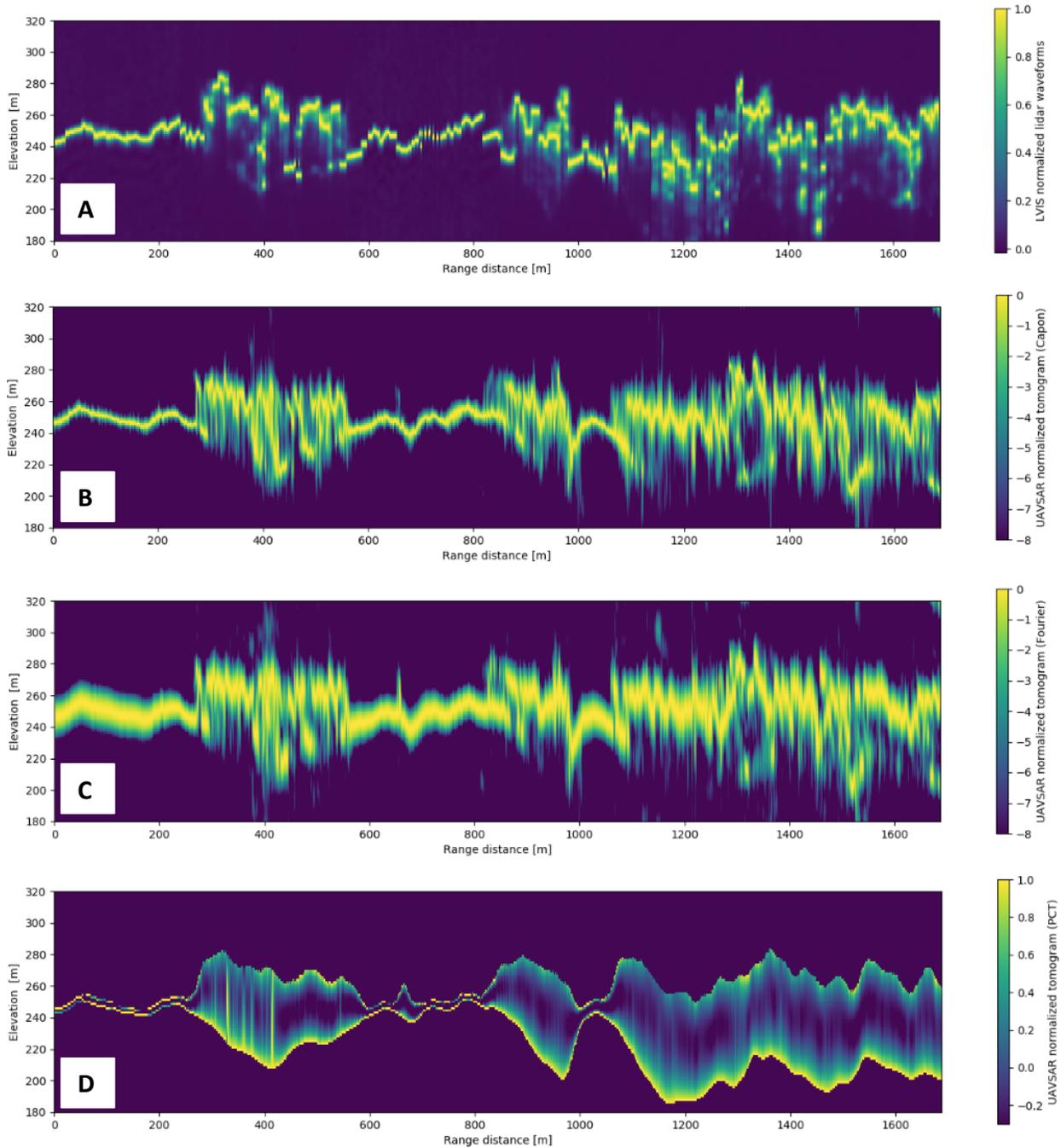
658 ***UAVSAR Tomographic SAR:***

659 We generated SAR tomograms using the Capon, Fourier and Polarization Coherence
660 Tomography techniques, as shown in Figure 6. The transects is 1.7 km long and 20m wide where
661 topography varies by about 50m and land cover ranges from bare soil or short vegetation to 40
662 m tall trees. Generally, the radar tomograms and lidar waveforms agree with each other,
663 especially over short vegetation. In these regions, mainly concentrated in the horizontal intervals
664 0-300 m and 550-800 m in Figure 6, the lidar height metrics, along with the Capon and the PCT
665 tomograms show similar patterns of vertical volume distribution across the transect, suggesting
666 that these tomographic techniques are good candidates for estimating vegetation structure
667 patterns. Over tall trees in the intervals 300-550 m and beyond 800 m, all SAR-based transect
668 show modulations of vertical brightness depending on the vegetation structure and underlying
669 soil scattering that need to be taken into account.

670 The tomogram resulting from the Fourier technique has a coarse vertical resolution of about
671 8 m as highlighted of over bare earth or short-vegetated areas and is therefore less suitable for
672 fine vertical resolution mapping of tree canopies. As expected, the Fourier tomogram also has
673 larger side lobes compared to the Capon and PCT tomograms, with the canopy reflectivity
674 “leaking” above the expected tree height, giving the profile a blurrier appearance.

675 The exact features of TomoSAR measurements are more visible when vertical profiles of the
676 four techniques are extracted from an approximately 20m by 20 m square column or equivalent
677 LVIS footprint as shown in Figure 7. Here, the profiles have been normalized to their maximum
678 value along the vertical direction, with all peaks equal to 1. Most notably, the profiles have
679 multiple peaks, one strong peak representing the ground and another weaker but wider peak

680 about 20m above the ground representing the bulk of the canopy returns. The Capon and Fourier
681 tomograms are in good agreement with the corresponding LVIS profiles with profiles produced
682 using the Capon algorithm most similar to the LVIS profile, although tomographic profiles change
683 with the polarimetric channels (Figure 7) revealing different scattering mechanisms within the
684 canopy and in the ground-trunk scattering interaction. Note that, from Figure 7, canopy height
685 could be estimated from the UAVSAR TomoSAR products as the maximum vertical extent of the
686 tomograms, although additional corrections would be required to account for L-band
687 penetration, look angle, resolution and overall sensitivity (Shiroma and Lavalle, 2020). More
688 specifically, the differences in viewing geometry between the nadir looking lidar and the side
689 looking TomoSAR profiles, and different interactions with canopy components may result in
690 different parts of the canopy being represented. Here our results show that lidar waveforms and
691 L-band radar tomograms have similar overall responses over forest canopies even though they
692 are based on measurements at different wavelength and thus different scattering mechanisms.
693 More detailed analyses of SAR tomograms collected as part of AfriSAR and their implications for
694 forest vertical structure measurements can be found in Shiroma and Lavalle, (2020) and Pardini
695 et al (2019).



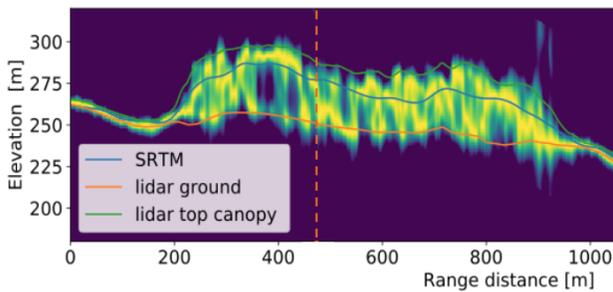
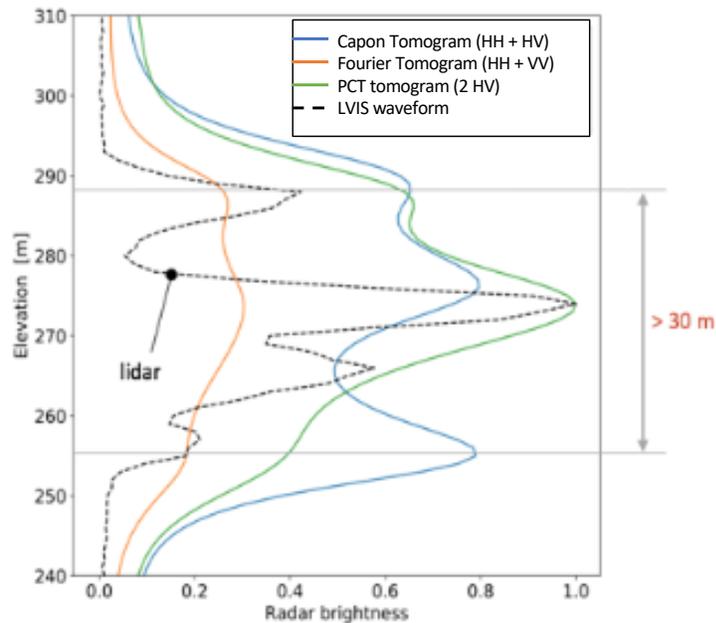
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698 **Figure 6 Comparison of TomoSAR Capon (a), Fourier (b), PCT (c) transects with LVIS (d) data**
 699 **projected into radar geometry in the Lope National Park site. The color scale ranges from**
 700 **dark blue (low values) to yellow (high values) and indicates the normalized waveform return**
 701 **(panel A) and the normalized radar HV backscatter (panels B, C and D).**

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704 The tomographic SAR profiles produced using the Capon technique are most similar to the LVIS
705 profile, although large differences between the retrievals of each polarization are still present.
706 The estimated Capon and Fourier ground location are in good agreement with LVIS, although the
707 ground detected by UAVSAR here is generally higher than what was measured by LVIS. The
708 estimated maximum canopy height from the UAVSAR TomoSAR product is comparable to canopy
709 height from LVIS, although there is still some error due to L-band penetration, look angle,
710 resolution and sensitivity. More specifically, there are significant geometric differences between
711 lidar waveforms and the TomoSAR profiles leading to differences between measurements, such
712 as LVIS being nadir looking whereas TomoSAR is side looking and then projected onto a vertical
713 height axis.
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716 **Figure 7 Comparison of TomoSAR Capon, Fourier, PCT data overlaid on a LVIS waveforms**
 717 **projected into radar geometry in Lope National Park for a 20 m by 20 m area.**

718

719 **6. DISCUSSION**

720 The 2016 NASA AfriSAR mission was the first simultaneous acquisition of polarimetric SAR,
 721 waveform lidar and field data in support of the upcoming NISAR, GEDI and Biomass missions and
 722 the first coordinated campaign for measurements of forest structure properties across multiple
 723 international space agencies. While similar campaigns flying LVIS and UAVSAR have been carried
 724 out, such as the 2009 and 2010 DESDynI Cal/Val campaigns in Howland, Harvard and Penobscot

725 Experimental Forests (Montesano et al, 2013), the amount of data collected and area covered
726 was much lower than accomplished by AfriSAR. Furthermore, previous campaigns did not include
727 multiple baseline or tomographic SAR acquisitions. Here, we collected over 7000 km² of Lidar and
728 30000 km² of PolSAR data, covering 30% of the Gabonese territory and all of the major terrestrial
729 ecosystems of Central African Region.

730 The AfriSAR data have been key in advancing forest structure retrieval algorithms, image
731 processing software, spaceborne data simulation and biodiversity mapping methodologies
732 amongst others. In Denbina et al (2018b), the new Kapok software package to generate canopy
733 height from repeat-pass UAVSAR data was developed using UAVSAR and LVIS airborne
734 acquisitions over Pongara and Lope National Parks, while the ISCE-PLANT software was
735 developed over Lope, Mondah and Rabi sites. Similarly, this dataset was instrumental in
736 developing new machine learning approaches to fuse SAR and Lidar data (Denbina et al, 2018b,
737 (Pourshamsi et al., 2018). Here the subsampled LVIS data was used to select the best baseline
738 configuration and k_z value, i.e. to determine whether a large or shorter baseline configuration
739 between two UAVSAR acquisitions should be used in multiple baseline PolInSAR processing.

740 On the Lidar side, the AfriSAR data was one of the key datasets used for validation of the GEDI-
741 simulator (Hancock et al., 2019a), pre-launch calibration and validation of GEDI Level 2 footprint
742 product algorithms (Hofton and Blair, 2019; Tang and Armston, 2019), and is an ongoing key
743 component of GEDI's post-launch calibration and performance assessment strategy (Dubayah et
744 al, 2020). It has also been used in combination with other SAR datasets, such as Sentinel-1, to
745 generate country wide (Lang et al, 2019) and site-wide (Pourshamsi, et al, 2018) canopy height
746 and AGBD (Marshak et al., 2020) estimates.

747 Areas of dense canopy cover as found in Gabon may sometimes present a challenge for lidar
748 measurements, particularly over complex topography. LVIS was designed to be sensitive enough
749 to detect a ground pulse in canopy cover of up to 99% and comparisons with small-footprint
750 systems have shown this to be true (Hofton et al., 2002). However, certain environmental
751 conditions such as steep slopes or low-lying canopy material such as shrubs can weaken already
752 weak ground returns to the point where automated ground finding algorithms misidentify the
753 ground. Here, LVIS was deployed over the most challenging forest conditions - the combination
754 of high canopy cover, wide ranges of topographic relief and different types of forest types and
755 densities. Despite these conditions we showed a high degree of consistency in estimating canopy
756 structure parameters from airborne waveform lidar data. We also found excellent agreements
757 with PAI profiles derived from terrestrial laser scanner (TLS) even at a high vertical resolution (1
758 m) (Marselis et al. 2018). In sum, our results highlight the fidelity of LVIS-based vegetation
759 structure products and strengthens the confidence in our data processing algorithms.

760 The extensive UAVSAR collection over a wide range of forest types and biomass added
761 important new sites for the NISAR mission calibration and algorithm development, with the
762 addition of 15 new 1-ha plots in lower biomass areas and extensive airborne Lidar data needed
763 for AGBD calibration and validation. Indeed, while a breadth of field measurements was
764 previously available in Central African forests, 90% of all plots were in high biomass forests (over
765 200 Mg/ha). Through the additional field data collected here we have expanded the range in
766 AGBD measurements available for the tropics with plot AGBD densities ranging from 50 to 250
767 Mg/ha. In the case of UAVSAR, this was the first extensive PolInSAR and tomographic experiment
768 over tropical forests. While TomoSAR and PolInSAR processing have been carried out before with

769 UAVSAR (Hensley et al., 2016), the AfriSAR campaign allowed for extensive experiments on
770 baseline and temporal decorrelation. Here, we were able to generate canopy height products
771 using multiple methodologies, using the PLAnT software (Lavalle et al., 2018b), the Kapok
772 software and the Fusion approach (Denbina et al., 2018) which helped determine the limitations
773 and strengths of each methodology and the ideal configurations for L-band multibaseline
774 PolInSAR acquisitions in dense tropical forests.

775 As an example, the fact that the ‘fusion’ approach performs better at estimating the Rh100 or
776 Top of Canopy height than the traditional PolInSAR approaches highlights the potential
777 improvement when using SAR-Lidar fusion or other ancillary data that helps in selecting the
778 appropriate interferometric baseline. The lower bias between the CHM_{Fusion} products and the
779 more traditional PolInSAR methodology highlights the importance of selecting the appropriate
780 baseline, especially in areas like Gabon, where the range in heights is high (up to 65 + m).

781 The demonstration of the Tomographic SAR capabilities in tropical forests of Gabon served to
782 develop and evaluate several algorithms that will be used to improve the design of future
783 airborne experiments and spaceborne missions. Similar to Pardini et al (2019), the Lidar profiles
784 are more sensitive than TomoSAR reflectivity profiles to variations in the top of the canopy,
785 however, TomoSAR long-wavelength profiles (from L- and P-band) are more sensitive to below-
786 canopy variations in vertical structure. Thus, in addition to providing structural information
787 complementary to Lidar, TomoSAR could effectively improve carbon stock estimates and
788 sensitivity to forest disturbances. Importantly, TomoSAR may enable the generation of wall-to-
789 wall maps of vertical distribution of material within forest canopies due to its all-weather
790 capability. Finally, while the operational repeat-pass mode of the NISAR mission does not allow

791 for TomoSAR or multi-baseline PolInSAR acquisitions, the multi-baseline acquisitions of the ESA
792 BIOMASS mission will provide the necessary datasets.

793 The released UAVSAR and LVIS datasets provide a large quantity of coincident (PolIn)SAR and
794 lidar coverage, ideal for the development and testing of algorithms which fuse the results from
795 these sensors. While SAR data has wide spatial coverage and high resolution, it can be affected
796 by some limitations and error sources such as temporal decorrelation and saturation in high
797 AGBD forests. Lidar can generally estimate forest canopy height and vertical variations in canopy
798 structure with high accuracy but is limited in terms of spatial coverage. Fusion algorithms can
799 therefore help to mitigate the weaknesses of each sensor, combining the data into fused
800 products which leverage the strengths of both lidar and SAR. The released CHM_{Fusion} fused canopy
801 height and AGBD products help demonstrate examples of this potential, and the released L1
802 UAVSAR and LVIS data can be used for development and testing of other future algorithms, which
803 can be applied to spaceborne data from GEDI, NISAR, Biomass, and other future sensors.

804 One of the main hurdles for the uptake and use of lidar and SAR by the broader ecological and
805 scientific community has been the lack of gridded and higher level products available from
806 waveform Lidar and SAR data. Data from sensors with existing and well documented ARD
807 products have much higher use than sensors without, highlighting the importance of providing
808 not only raw data but also preprocessed datasets. As an example, the SRTM DEM, a processed
809 and tiled product derived from C-band single pass interferometry, is one of NASA's most
810 downloaded datasets, although it is only based on a one-time acquisition in early 2000 (Farr et
811 al., 2007).

812 As part of the AfriSAR campaign, we have produced a suite of data products from UAVSAR and
813 LVIS that have not been available to date, such as LVIS-derived canopy cover fraction, Plant Area
814 Index, Gridded canopy height from LVIS and UAVSAR Pol-InSAR and Tomographic SAR products,
815 allowing the development of new scientific applications. In Marselis et al (2018), for example, the
816 LVIS canopy cover profile data products were used to predict successional vegetation types in
817 Lopé National Park, with potential implications for the use of GEDI data for informing
818 conservation and biodiversity studies. The dataset was also key in the development of a
819 methodology to map tree species diversity using canopy structure data (Marselis et al., 2019)
820 using GEDI-like data. We anticipate and encourage a wide range of future applications, such as
821 the development of new algorithms that make use of the SAR SLC stacks and associated
822 geometric parameters (e.g. Soja et al., 2021). The unique combination of multi-modal remote
823 sensing and field datasets produced by AfriSAR are also the basis of the Biomass Retrieval Inter-
824 comparison eXperiment (BRIX-1 and BRIX-2), which will benchmark biomass retrieval algorithms
825 using GEDI, NISAR and ESA BIOMASS data on the joint ESA-NASA Multi-mission Analysis and
826 Algorithm Platform (MAAP; Albinet et al., 2019).

827 AfriSAR was an experimental campaign for which several new SAR and Lidar algorithms were
828 developed and implemented. Because of the limitations that arise during airborne experiments,
829 such as time constraints and changes in flying conditions, there were flight configurations and
830 data acquisitions that resulted in data that did not capture the entire range of forest structure
831 conditions. An example is the vertical wavenumber configuration of the SAR experiments limiting
832 the acquisition of the full height range in all of the imaged sites, or the presence of clouds and
833 poor conditions in some LVIS acquisitions leading to gaps in the data. In addition, while the NASA

834 AfriSAR campaign was designed to acquire data over as many forest ecosystem types as possible
835 there is still a lack of data in certain key areas and types of measurements, such as flooded
836 freshwater forests, wetlands or temporal forest structure changes. We therefore recommend
837 follow-on airborne experiments focused on different types of ecosystems, including wetlands,
838 dry forests, temperate forests as well as repeat measurements that allow the estimation of forest
839 structure changes.

840 The AfriSAR campaign also provided the opportunity to advance applications of current
841 airborne and future spaceborne missions in the field of tropical forest ecology, conservation and
842 biodiversity. African rainforests in particular have suffered extensive clearing and fragmentation;
843 it is estimated that West and Eastern Africa and Madagascar have lost about 90% of their original
844 rainforest cover, whereas about 60% of the Central African forests still remain with much lower
845 deforestation rates (Malhi et al., 2013). The Central African forest studied as part of AfriSAR is
846 the second largest tropical forest after the Amazon, and better data, such as that expected from
847 current and future missions, is crucial to better inform its management.

848 **7. CONCLUSIONS**

849 The airborne SAR, Lidar and field data acquired during the AfriSAR campaign constitutes a
850 rich dataset for use not only in support of the NISAR, BIOMASS and GEDI missions, but also for
851 improved understanding and monitoring of Central Africa's tropical forests, wetlands and
852 savannas. We anticipate that the dataset and described data products will be of use for studies
853 of water and carbon cycling in the Congo basin, used as input and validation for forest growth
854 models and to evaluate conservation and forest management practices. The high-resolution

855 canopy height and vertical structure distribution data will be of direct use for studies of carbon
856 cycling and biodiversity amongst many other applications.

857 Spatially explicit estimates of the vertical dimension of forests are needed to characterize
858 rapidly changing global forest cover and AGBD, monitor disturbance, and assess biodiversity
859 (Bergen et al., 2009). The suite of current and upcoming active Remote Sensing missions,
860 including GEDI, BIOMASS, and NISAR, is expected to provide the global scale estimates of canopy
861 height, vertical forest structure and forest density at the resolutions (1 km or better) and
862 accuracies (20% error for 80% of the grid cells) needed to improve our understanding of the role
863 of the land carbon sink in the global carbon cycle.

864 Combining multiple active datasets is already of immense interest, and this is only expected
865 to increase with the impressive amount of data promised from GEDI, NISAR and BIOMASS. The
866 AfriSAR datasets have allowed us a snapshot of the capability of not only the individual missions'
867 measurements, but also the exciting range of science and applications possible through Lidar and
868 SAR data fusion.

869

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871

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885

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SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

A description of the ground sites imaged as part of the UAVSAR, LVIS, SETHI and F-SAR acquisitions in 2015 and 2016 is provided below.

Mondah Forest covers an area of 6747 ha of which 20% is protected (Lachenaud et al., 2013). Originally established as a timber production forest and research area in 1934, it lies on the Libreville peninsula, 20 km north of the center of the capital Libreville (Walters et al., 2016). Mondah Forest is the main forested area in the region with a mean tree species richness of about 55 species per hectare, but is highly dependent on disturbance status (Labriere, 2018).

The Mondah Forest ecosystem is characterized by high endemism due to the overlap of two forest types, very wet forest in the northwest and drier forest in the south and east of the country (Lachenaud, 2013). The ecosystem, which extends between the Libreville peninsula north into Equatorial Guinea (Vande Weghe, 2005), is characterized by rivers and valleys that create variation in both climate and vegetation types. Mondah Forest has been inhabited at least since 3400 BP (Clist, 2005) and exploited for forest resources at least since the 1400s (Patterson, 1975). Human disturbance has degraded the forest so that 55% of the area is classified as secondary forest (Nziengui et al., 2008). Moreover, due to its proximity to Libreville, the Mondah Forest area experiences the highest deforestation rate of the entire country (Hansen et al., 2013).

Several field plots were established in Mondah Forest between 2009 and 2016 airborne Lidar data is also available (Silva et al., 2018). Plot data collected before 2012 are available through

AfriTRON (Lewis et al., 2009), while field data collected as part of AfriSAR are described below and available through the NASA Oak Ridge DAAC. The area was imaged by SETHI, F-SAR, UAVSAR and LVIS.

Lopé National Park covers an area of 494,800 ha and is the first protected area in Gabon, originally established as a wildlife reserve in 1946 and then gazetted as a national park in 2002 (Mitchard et al., 2012). Lopé is known for its diverse bird and mammalian fauna, including forest elephants and western lowland gorillas. Elevation ranges from 72 to 980 m above sea level (asl), with slopes exceeding 20% in almost a quarter of the park. Closed-canopy tropical rainforest covers most of the park and its surroundings, with the exception of the most northern part that is composed of savanna and a mosaic of low-AGBD forest types including Okoumé (*Aucoumea klaineana*) and open canopy Marantaceae. During the Last Glacial Maximum, savanna covered the entire park area, but forest expanded and continues to expand into the savanna due to increasing precipitation (White, 2001). Tree species richness is an average of 35 species per ha, but varies largely between forest types (Labriere, 2018).

Lopé is the best studied forest site in Gabon with multiple permanent and semi-permanent field plots, including 12 new plots (9 of 1 ha and 3 of 0.5 ha) established by ESA as part of AfriSAR in 2016 (Labriere et al, 2018). The area was imaged by SETHI, F-SAR, UAVSAR and LVIS and airborne scanning Lidar in 2015 (Pardini et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2018)).

Mabounié and the Lower Ogooué: Mabounié is located in the Lower Ogooué River Basin, a Ramsar site (a wetland of international importance) that comprises a vast alluvial plain about 200 km long and 70 km wide. The Basin is covered in dense forest, alluvial lakes, flooded forests, wetlands and savannas and supports high animal biodiversity, including several threatened species. Tree species richness is about 55 tree species per ha (Labrière et al., 2018) and the site is commonly used for floodplain agriculture. Airborne Lidar data was collected over Mabounié in 2011 (Labrière et al., 2018), and twelve 1-ha field plots were surveyed by the IRD (Institut de Recherche et de Développement) in 2012 (Bastin et al., 2015). The area was imaged by UAVSAR, F-SAR and LVIS.

Rabi is a 25-ha permanent plot managed by the Smithsonian CTFs-GEO (Center for Tropical Forest Science Global Earth Observatory) ForestGEO program situated within the Shell Rabi Oil Concession (Anderson-Teixeira et al., 2015). It is located in the Gamba Complex of protected areas (see detailed description below). Within the 25-ha Rabi plot, every tree greater than 1 cm in diameter at breast height (130 cm) was measured to evaluate the contribution of small diameter trees to the abundance and distribution of small trees (Memiaghe et al., 2016).

Rabi was selected as one of the joint ESA/NASA sites because of the availability of field measurements from 2012 and ALS data from 2015 (Silva et al., 2018). For AfriSAR, the area was imaged by F-SAR, SETHI, UAVSAR and LVIS.

Pongara National Park is located on the southern bank of the Komo Estuary, close to Libreville. The park covers an area of 87,000 ha and is covered primarily by mangroves and some

terra firma rainforests (Dauby et al., 2008). As with much of the coastal forests in Gabon, the upland forests and their composition have not been well studied, although there are reports of high levels of plant endemism (Lachenaud et al., 2013). Pongara protects leatherback turtle nesting grounds and mangroves: Gabon hosts 30% of the global population of leatherback turtles (Bourgeois et al., 2009) and some of the tallest mangroves in the world, with individual trees attaining 65 m (Simard et al., 2019). This area was imaged by UAVSAR, F-SAR and LVIS.

Akanda National Park is situated to the northeast of Libreville, adjoining the Mondah Forest. The park is 54,000 ha in area and comprised primarily of mangrove forests, mudflats and the waters of the Corisco Bay, although some *terra firma* forests are also present. As with Pongara National Park, Akanda harbors important feeding and nesting habitat for four sea turtle species and is home to the largest population of migratory birds in Gabon (Lachenaud et al., 2013a; Vande Weghe, 2005). This area was imaged by LVIS and UAVSAR as part of the Mondah flight lines, but no Akanda-specific field measurements are available to our knowledge.

The Gamba Complex of Protected Areas is the largest protected area in Gabon, covering 5329000 ha or about 4% of Gabon (Memighe et al., 2016). The protected areas within the Gamba Complex include the Loango and Moukalaba Doudou national parks and the Iguela, Sette Cama and Ngove-Ndongo protected hunting domains. The Gamba Complex is located in the southern portion of Guineo-Congolian forest type, which includes swamp and mixed moist semi-evergreen forest types (M.E. Lee et al., 2006). Loango National Park, in particular, is famous for its mosaic of habitats from beaches and dunes to littoral forests, coastal scrub, mangroves,

extensive permanently- and seasonally-inundated forests, upland forest, rocky outcrops, various stages of secondary forest, and prairies. It has a high concentration of megafauna, including elephants, buffalos, hippopotami, gorillas and leopards (Lee et al., 2006). The coastal area of the Gamba Complex, within Loango and Sette Cama was imaged only by UAVSAR. No known field measurements were available.

Mouila is located in southwest Gabon, at the northern limit of the Western Congolian Forest Savanna Mosaic Region. The Mouila sites include the government leased Olam oil palm concessions consisting of Mouila Lots 1 (ML1, 35,300 ha) and 2 (ML2, 31,800 ha) in which Palm agriculture was initiated in early 2013 and 2014, respectively (Burton et al., 2017). ML2 is an old timber concession composed mainly of selectively logged, lowland mixed tropical forest. The concession consists of relatively flat plains to be developed for palm agriculture, with the remaining plains and plateau designated as High Conservation Value Forest due to its unique structure and biodiversity. This site was flown by UAVSAR only, and previous airborne Lidar data were acquired in 2011 (Burton et al., 2017). Field measurements belong to the Government of Gabon.

Transects: In addition to the sites described above, LVIS flew several long transect flight lines: the 'Biomass Gradient line' from east to west following the dense forest to savanna gradient; this line also transects the UAVSAR Lower Ogooué acquisitions. Two additional east-west lines cross over the Minkébé National Park in the far north of the country, while a long north-south line crosses over Lopé National Park. The aim of the long transects was to record additional variability

in canopy height across the country. In addition, the east-west data will be used as calibration data for the GEDI mission, which will be in a north-south orbit, and therefore, cross over the east-west line during several GEDI orbits.

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