

Evaluating Multi-seasonal SAR and Optical Imagery for Above-Ground Biomass Estimation Using the National Forest Inventory of Zambia

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Abstract

Mapping forest above-ground biomass (AGB) is crucial for monitoring forest ecosystems and assessing the success of conservation initiatives such as the REDD+ carbon projects. Traditional field-based approaches to measuring AGB, however, face significant challenges, due to high financial costs and logistical constraints. Remote sensing, including both active and passive sensors, presents a promising and cost-effective alternative, yet its practical utility and accuracy for capturing forest AGB in diverse and complex ecosystems remains largely unexplored. This research used an extensive national forest inventory (NFI) dataset to evaluate the ability to map the AGB of the Miombo woodlands in Zambia across four agro-ecological zones using both multi-seasonal SAR (Sentinel-1A) and optical (Landsat-8 OLI) imagery. A multi-level experiment was designed to (i) compare the accuracy of AGB estimation using SAR and optical data when used independently, and in combination, using a Random Forest regression model, (ii) assess the effect of seasonality on the accuracy of AGB estimation when using SAR and optical datasets, and (iii) evaluate the effect of variation in climatic and environmental conditions on AGB estimation. Experimental results show that multi-seasonal images (across the rainy, hot and dry seasons) outperformed single-season and annual images. Combining SAR backscatter in the hot season, optical bands in the dry season, and vegetation indices in the hot season produced the most accurate AGB model ($R = 0.69$, MAE = 14.01 Mg ha⁻¹ and RMSE = 18.23 Mg ha⁻¹). The models performed distinctly across different agro-ecological zones ($R = 0.44 - 0.79$), suggesting that fitting local models could be beneficial. These results based on the extensive NFI of Zambia demonstrate that seasonal effects and fitting local models can lead to more accurate AGB estimation within the Miombo woodlands, which is of significance for ongoing REDD+ carbon projects in Zambia and other African countries.

Keywords: Miombo woodlands; Above ground biomass; National Forest Inventory; SAR-optical; Remote Sensing, Random Forest

1. Introduction

Forest above-ground biomass (AGB) is an indispensable variable for forest monitoring, estimation of greenhouse gas emissions and sustainable management of carbon stocks,

47 particularly for the REDD+ carbon projects (Saatchi et al., 2011; Harris, 2012; Wulder et al.,
48 2012). High-quality forest AGB information, however, can be challenging to capture in tropical
49 developing countries, due to financial costs and logistical constraints (Halperin et al.,
50 2016a). In particular, traditional field-based approaches that are used commonly in developing
51 countries demand huge time and labour, and may be impractical due to inaccessibility when
52 conducting regional-to-national scale forest AGB estimation (Atkinson et al., 2000; Ghosh and
53 Behera, 2018). Remote sensing-based methods, by combining field observed AGB and remote
54 sensing datasets, can overcome many of these limitations, although they present additional
55 challenges, dependent upon the satellite sensors and platforms (Carreiras et al., 2012; Lu et al.,
56 2016). Active and passive sensors can both be used to map forest AGB, but active sensors such
57 as light detection and ranging (LiDAR) and synthetic aperture radar (SAR) can be more
58 effective for forest AGB estimation compared to passive sensors, thanks to their ability to
59 interact with vegetation structures (Herold et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). Challenges associated
60 with SAR involve susceptibility to water content, terrain variation and the spatial arrangement
61 of forests (Chen et al., 2023). Forest AGB is highly correlated with optical data, but optical
62 data are limited by weather conditions, and vegetation indices produced from optical data
63 commonly saturate at high biomass and dense canopy cover (Halperin et al., 2016b; Joshi et
64 al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2016; Gascón et al., 2019).

65 Tremendous efforts have been made in mapping forest AGB in tropical forests using both
66 active and passive sensors (Cassells et al., 2009; Carreiras et al., 2012; Gizachew et al., 2016;
67 Ghosh and Behera, 2018; Gou et al., 2019; Van Pham et al., 2019; Zimbres et al., 2021; David
68 et al., 2022b). However, most studies focused on tropical rainforests, such as the Brazilian
69 Amazon (Kuplich et al., 2005; Salis et al., 2006; Quijas et al., 2019; Zimbres et al., 2021). L-
70 band SAR data have been used frequently for forest AGB estimation with high accuracy, with
71 their ability to penetrate tree crowns (Carreiras et al., 2012; Mitchard et al., 2013b; McNicol
72 et al., 2018b; Gou et al., 2019). ALOS PALSAR L-band data, for example, were adopted to map
73 forest AGB in Southern Africa and produced the first continental forest AGB map of the
74 African savannahs and woodlands (Urbazaev et al., 2015; Bouvet et al., 2018). LiDAR, which
75 has the ability to estimate canopy height and structure, shows potential for retrieval of forest
76 biophysical parameters, such as volume and biomass (Pirotti, 2011; Kanja et al., 2019a; Pearse
77 et al., 2019; Demol et al., 2024; Li et al., 2024). Nevertheless, the majority of SAR and LiDAR
78 data are not freely available and impractical at regional and national scales. Sentinel-1 SAR C-
79 band data from the European Space Agency, on the other hand, are offered free of charge. The
80 combination of field observed AGB, SAR and optical satellite sensor imagery can be useful to
81 estimate forest AGB in regions where data are scarce, such as in developing countries (Forkuor
82 et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020).

83 The Miombo woodlands, found across South and East Africa, are characterised by a closed
84 canopy that is not too dense, thereby allowing the growth of a herbaceous layer (Campbell,
85 1996). They extend over Angola, Malawi, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Zambia, Tanzania, and
86 part of Congo DRC, making them the most widespread woodland type in Africa. Miombo
87 woodlands are an important source of livelihoods for people living in these countries, as they
88 provide multiple ecosystem functions and services (Syampungani et al., 2009; Chidumayo and
89 Gumbo, 2010; Kalaba et al., 2013; Ryan et al., 2016). Despite progress in combining SAR and
90 optical data for forest mapping, most previous studies mapped Miombo woodlands using

91 optical data alone (Gizachew et al., 2016; Halperin et al., 2016a; Mayes et al., 2016; Mareya et
92 al., 2018), whereas some studies tested SAR data and LiDAR data separately (Cassells et al.,
93 2009; Mitchard et al., 2013a; McNicol et al., 2018a; Gou et al., 2019; Demol et al., 2024; Li et
94 al., 2024). Few studies used a combination of SAR/LiDAR and optical data to increase the
95 accuracy of Miombo woodland AGB mapping (Næsset et al., 2016; Egberth et al., 2017; David
96 et al., 2022a; Macave et al., 2022). For example, David et al. (2022) used Sentinel-1 and
97 Sentinel-2 data for forest AGB estimation in the tropical dry forests of Botswana, while Macave
98 et al. (2022) utilized Landsat-8, Sentinel-2A, Sentinel-1B and ALOS/PALSAR-2 to estimate
99 forest AGB in the Miombo woodlands of Mozambique. Both studies led to an increased
100 accuracy, although their coverage was limited to National Parks only. To the best of our
101 knowledge, no studies used national forest inventory (NFI) data to validate models that
102 combine SAR and optical data to estimate forest AGB in the Miombo woodlands at regional-
103 to-national scales. Gascón et al. (2019) explored the potential to estimate forest AGB at the
104 national level in Tanzania using national survey data but using optical data (RapidEye) alone
105 (Gascón et al., 2019). Moreover, very few studies explored the seasonal effects of SAR and
106 optical data on forest AGB mapping (Laurin et al., 2018; Forkuor et al., 2020; Chen et al.,
107 2023; Tanase et al., 2024), which could be important for the Miombo woodlands as a tropical
108 dry forest. The use of multi-seasonal data is aimed at taking advantage of the relation between
109 AGB and images under varying phenological conditions (Zhu and Liu, 2015; Chrysafis et al.,
110 2019). Studies that compared the use of single images and multi-seasonal images for AGB
111 estimation concluded that multi-seasonal images predicted more accurately than single images
112 (Zhu and Liu, 2015; Cartus and Santoro, 2019; Chen et al., 2023). However, none of these
113 studies explored fully the phenological conditions that vary with the seasons by compositing
114 the mean seasonal images.

115 To address these gaps, this research aims to test and evaluate multi-seasonal Sentinel-1A
116 and Landsat-8 OLI imagery to estimate forest AGB in Zambia's Miombo woodlands across
117 four agro-ecological zones, using an extensive NFI ground reference dataset available from the
118 Forestry Department of Zambia that has not been used for this purpose before. Specific
119 objectives include (1) to evaluate model prediction accuracy when SAR and optical data are
120 used independently and when they are combined, (2) to determine the optimal time period
121 (annual, rainy, dry, hot, multi-season) for forest AGB estimation in the Miombo woodlands
122 when using SAR and optical data, (3) to analyse and compare model uncertainties across four
123 agro-ecological zones characterised by different climatic conditions, terrain conditions and
124 vegetation types, and (4) to predict wall-to-wall forest AGB using the best fitting relationship
125 between NFI and SAR and optical data. This research adds to the improvement of forest AGB
126 estimation by combining multi-seasonal SAR and optical remote sensing data with an NFI
127 dataset, providing a novel approach to biomass mapping in tropical dry forests like Zambia's
128 Miombo woodlands. The outcomes of this research enhance the accuracy of large-scale AGB
129 assessments, and thereby making available the much-needed AGB maps for evidence-based
130 forest management, REDD+ carbon projects, and policy formulation.

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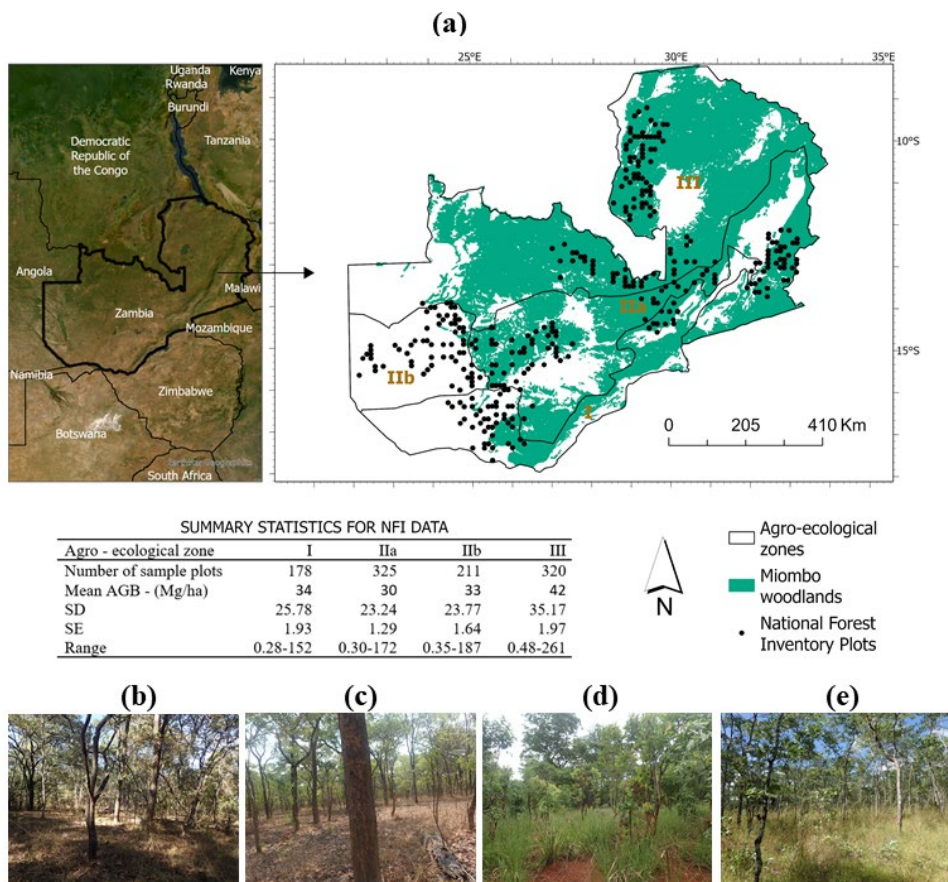
132 **2. Methodology**

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134 *2.1 Study Area*

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This research was conducted in Zambia (Fig. 1), with its forest landscape being considered for REDD+ projects presently (Handavu et al., 2021). Our primary focus is on the dominant Miombo woodlands, and Miombo woodlands mixed with Mopane, Hill and Karahali woodlands. Both dry and wet Miombo woodlands are represented extensively in Zambia. Dry Miombo woodlands are characterised by trees with heights less than 15 m and few canopy overlaps, and receive annual rainfall of less than 1000 mm, represented by agro-ecological zones I, IIa and IIb (Fig. 1). Agro-ecological zone I is characterised by hot and dry areas, receives lower annual rainfall of 800 mm and below, and has lower altitudes of 400-900 m. Agro-ecological zone IIa forms part of an area that receives medium annual rainfall of 800-1000 m with an altitude between 900 and 1300 m. Agro-ecological zone IIb completes the area that receives medium rainfall comprising of sand and floodplains with an altitude between 900 and 1300 m. Wet Miombo woodlands are characterised by trees of more than 15 m height with crown overlap in some cases where the annual rainfall received is more than 1000 mm. Wet Miombo is associated with agro-ecological zone III which receives high rainfall with altitudes between 1100 and 1500 m (Chidumayo and Gumbo, 2010; Bulusu et al., 2021; Shamaoma et al., 2022). These zones cover all available environments in Zambia with dry woodlands extending into neighbouring countries in the south and east, and wet woodlands extending into countries in the north and east of Zambia.



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Fig. 1. Study area map and typical ground photos showing Miombo woodlands. (a) The location of the National Forest Inventory plots used in this research, spread across Zambia's

158 four agro-ecological zones I, IIa, IIb and III, together with some summary statistics. (b) and (c)
159 primary Miombo woodlands, (d) and (e) disturbed Miombo woodlands.

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161 *2.2 Data acquisition*

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163 *2.2.1 National Forest Inventory data*

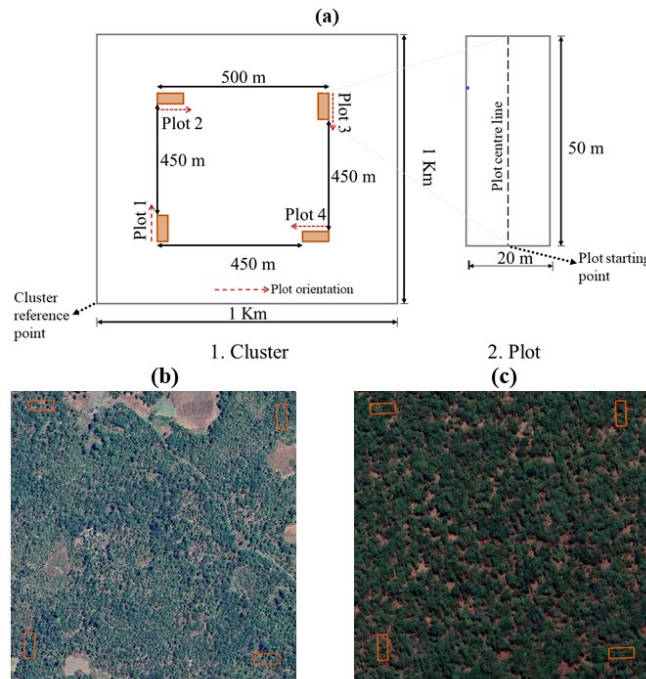
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165 The NFI data used in this research were collected for the Integrated Land-Use Assessment
166 Phase Two project (ILUA-II), which took place between 2010 to 2016. The ILUA-II was the
167 largest forest inventory of Zambia, undertaken by the Forestry Department, with technical
168 assistance from the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) and funded
169 by the Government of Finland (Shakacite et al., 2016.).

170 The NFI plots were distributed across all major vegetation types in Zambia and stratified
171 with forest variation (Shakacite et al., 2016.). The four agro-ecological zones present a variety
172 of vegetation types with each zone representing a different climatic condition that affects
173 vegetation type and growth. A total of 1034 NFI plots were used for the current research
174 covering all four agro-ecological zones (Fig. 1). 60% of these inventory plots covered Miombo
175 woodlands, 14% Karahali woodlands, 10% Hill woodlands and 7% Mopane woodlands.

176 Four plots measuring 0.1 ha (20 m by 50 m) formed a cluster. Fig. 2 shows a schematic
177 representation of the spatial arrangement of four plots within each cluster. The plots, and not
178 the clusters, within which trees with Diameter at Breast Height (dbh) above 10 cm were
179 recorded formed the basic sampling units of this research. Refer to Shakacite et al., (2016) for
180 details. Only those forest inventory plots captured in 2014, and shown in Figure 1, were
181 considered for this research to correspond as closely as possible to the availability of Sentinel-
182 1 SAR data. However, 951 plots were ultimately used during the regression analysis due to
183 non-availability of remote sensing data for certain time periods.

184



185

186 **Fig. 2.** Configuration of data collection sites. (a1) cluster design, (a2) plot design, (b) and (c)
 187 two random clusters showing field observed NFI plots (disturbed and intact, respectively)
 188 superimposed on Google Earth Imagery.

189

190 2.2.2 Remote sensing data

191

192 Sentinel-1 Ground Range Detected (GRD) scenes from ESA's Sentinel 1 satellites (A and
 193 B) in dual polarisation SAR C-band were downloaded from Google Earth Engine (GEE). We
 194 processed the Sentinel-1 (S1) data by filtering based on study area, time period, instrument
 195 mode (IW) and polarisation (VV, VH). Backscatter coefficients for the VH and VV
 196 polarizations, together with texture information, were retrieved and employed as SAR predictor
 197 variables (covariates) in the forest AGB regression analysis.

198

199 We used a similar approach for retrieving the optical spectral bands, texture information and
 200 vegetation indices from the Landsat-8 Operational Land Imager (OLI). We used Landsat 8 (L8)
 201 level 2, Collection 2 which contains atmospherically corrected surface reflectance images, with
 202 the cloud cover threshold set as 1%, representing close to cloud free. The Landsat-8 images
 203 were then resampled to 10 m pixel size to align with the Sentinel-1 data and to fit within the
 204 inventory plots. Five spectral vegetation indices were selected based on similar studies,
 205 including the normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI) (Gizachew et al., 2016),
 206 normalised difference moisture index (NDMI) (Halperin et al., 2016a), normalised difference
 207 water index (NDWI) (Jha et al., 2021), bare soil index (BSI) (Xie et al., 2022) and enhanced
 208 vegetation index (EVI) (Lembani et al., 2020).

208

209 The Grey Level Co-occurrence Matrix (GLCM) texture method in GEE was utilised to
 210 derive texture metrics with input grey-level images generated using eqs. 1 and 2 for S1 and L8,
 211 respectively, with window sizes of 2 and 5 pixels (Tassi et al., 2021; Vizzari, 2022).

211 We used Landsat-8 images from 2014, but Sentinel-1 images were limited in number and,
 212 thus, ended up using the 2015 images due to the non-availability of Sentinel-1 images in 2014.

213 $L8 \text{ Gray-level Image} = (0.3 * NIR) + (0.59 * RED) + (0.11 * GREEN)$ (1)

214 $S1 \text{ Gray-level Image} = (VH - VV) / (VH + VV)$ (2)

215 To assess seasonal effects and determine an optimal time period for forest AGB estimation
 216 using remote sensing SAR and optical data, we considered three distinct seasons: namely, the
 217 wet and rainy season (occurring from mid-November to April, hereafter referred to as rainy
 218 season), the cool and dry season (occurring from May to mid-August, hereafter referred to as
 219 dry season) and the hot and dry season (occurring from mid-August to mid-November,
 220 hereafter referred to as hot season) ([Zambia - Climatology | Climate Change Knowledge Portal](http://www.worldbank.org)
 221 (worldbank.org)). The annual average was also created as a comparison. We applied a mean-
 222 based reduction filter for each time period.

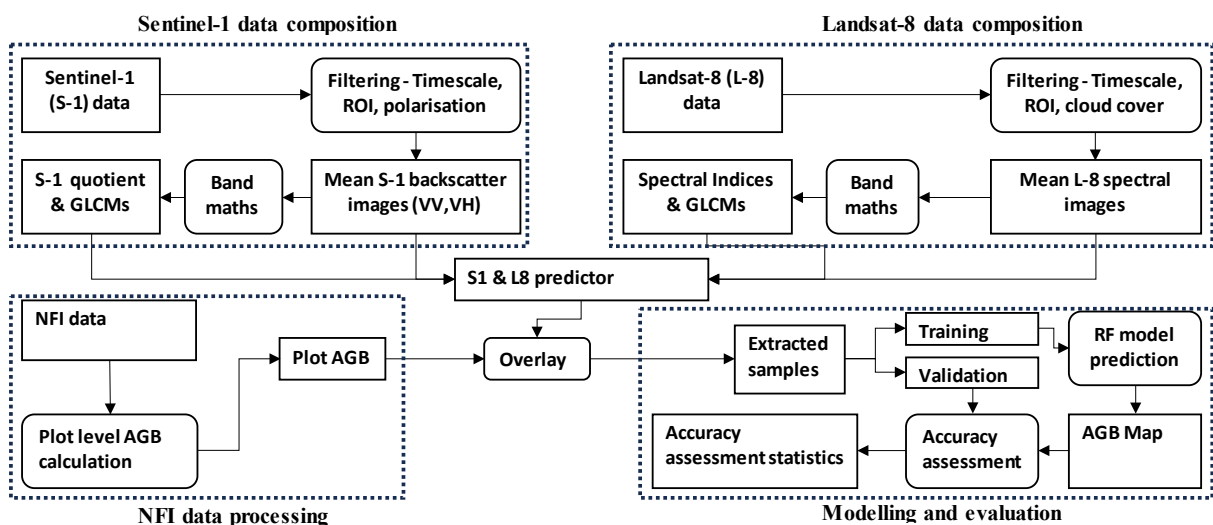
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224 *2.3 Above ground biomass modelling*

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226 Fig. 3 presents an overview of the methodology. The steps taken from data collection to
 227 producing the forest AGB maps can be summarised as (1) Sentinel-1 and Landsat-8 data
 228 composition, (2) NFI data processing and (3) modelling and evaluation.

229



230

231

232 **Fig. 3.** Overview of methodological approach for forest above ground biomass modelling

233

234 *2.3.1 Plot AGB calculation*

235

236 We estimated plot AGB using tree inventory data collected during the ILUA-II project. All
 237 standing trees measured per plot in line with the ILUA II field protocol, described in Shakacite
 238 et al. (2016), were considered. We used both a locally calibrated allometric model developed
 239 by Chidumayo (eq. 3) and a generalised biomass estimation model for tropical forests
 240 recommended by Chave et al. (eq. 4), to calculate individual tree AGB and establish AGB for
 241 each plot by summation (Chidumayo, 2012.; Chidumayo, 2013; Chave et al., 2014). Plot AGBs
 242 for the two models were highly correlated ($r=0.96$). We noted that AGB calculated using

243 Chidumayo's allometric model was more consistent compared to Chave's model which might
244 be attributed to the non-availability of some tree species' wood specific densities (ρ). The
245 ILUA II project also adopted the Chidumayo model and, therefore, the plot AGBs were derived
246 using Chidumayo's allometric model to allow effective comparison (Chidumayo, 2013;
247 Shakacite et al., 2016.).

$$248 \text{AGB}_{\text{tree}} = \exp(2.342 * \ln(\text{dbh}) - 2.059) \quad (3)$$

$$249 \text{AGB}_{\text{tree}} = 0.0673 \times (\rho D^2 H)^{0.976} \quad (4)$$

250 where dbh in eq. (3) and D in eq. (4) represent the diameter at breast height, ρ is the wood
251 specific density and H is the absolute tree height.

252 Both plot AGB and remote sensing variables were extracted based on the basic sampling
253 unit (0.1ha). Total plot AGB was converted to AGB per ha while the pixel average within the
254 basic sampling unit was extracted for remote sensing variables.

255

256 2.3.2 Correlation between forest AGB and remote sensing covariates

257

258 Pearson correlation coefficients between forest AGB and the remote sensing covariates were
259 calculated. We analysed these correlation coefficients for all four time periods and across the
260 four agro-ecological zones. The results were used to conduct a preliminary selection of optimal
261 remote sensing variables. Only those covariates with correlation coefficients equal to or above
262 0.2 ($r \geq |0.2|$) were considered for the subsequent regression analysis (Fagua et al., 2019).

263

264 2.3.3 Remote sensing variable importance

265

266 Variable importance can be useful in selecting optimal variables from a high dimensional
267 dataset (Li et al., 2020). Here, we made use of the variable importance feature in the random
268 forest regression algorithm. This analysis assisted in refining the final variable selection for
269 each model and provided future guidance for optimal remote sensing data acquisition (best
270 time period and variables to consider) for forest AGB estimation in the Miombo woodlands.

271

272 2.3.4 Random forest regression modelling

273

274 Random forest (RF) regression models were used for forest AGB prediction (Breiman,
275 2001). RF models work by creating hundreds of decision trees in an ensemble, for making
276 predictions. The relationship between forest AGB and remotely sensed variables is usually
277 nonlinear, and non-parametric machine learning algorithms are used widely to increase
278 accuracy above parametric models (e.g. linear regression), as they do not require a specific
279 distribution (Ghosh and Behera, 2018; David et al., 2022a). The non-parametric RF algorithm
280 was adopted to handle high-dimensional features and nonlinear relationships between forest
281 AGB and remote sensing data, given its wide application for forest AGB estimation (Forkuor
282 et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). We varied the number of trees (maximum
283 iteration) until optimal results (at 2000 trees) were achieved based on the validation R^2 and
284 RMSE. In contrast, the maximum tree depth was data-driven, and the default was used for the
285 number of randomly sampled variables.

286

287 2.3.5 Experimental design

288

289 We designed a multi-level experiment using NFI data to compare several forest AGB
 290 estimation models (Table 1):

- 291 (1) Using SAR data alone and using optical data alone, against models using combined
 292 SAR and optical data
 293 (2) Using various seasonal datasets for each of the three cases (SAR, optical, and
 294 SAR+optical)
 295 (3) Assessing the effect of varying climatic and environmental conditions across four
 296 agro-ecological zones on the accuracy of forest AGB estimation.
 297

298 **Table 1**

299 Structure of the multi-level experiment to evaluate approaches for estimating forest AGB in
 300 Zambia’s Miombo woodlands.

Sensor	Time period	Model	Abbreviation	Number of variables
SAR	Rainy	S1 rainy	S1-r	20
	Hot	S1 hot	S1-h	20
	Rainy and Hot	S1 rainy & hot	S1-r & h	40
	Annual	S1 annual	S1-y	20
Optical	Dry	L8 dry	L8-d	28
	Hot	L8 hot	L8-h	28
	Dry and Hot	L8 dry & hot	L8 d & h	56
	Annual	L8 annual	L8-y	28
SAR and optical	Hot	S1L8 hot	S1L8-hot	48
	Multi-season	S1L8 Multi-season	S1L8-m	96
	Annual	S1L8 annual	S1L8-y	48

301

302 Note, optical images were not available for the rainy season due to excessive cloud cover,
 303 and Sentinel-1 SAR images were not available for the dry season in 2015. Both were excluded
 304 from the subsequent analysis.

305

306 2.4 Accuracy assessment

307

308 We tested the prediction accuracy of each model using a validation dataset, comprising 15%
 309 of the available data that were not employed during the model training. This single set-aside
 310 validation dataset was maintained for effective comparability of the experiments. The multiple
 311 correlation coefficient (R , eq. 5), mean absolute error (MAE, eq. 6), root mean square error
 312 (RMSE, eq. 7), and the symmetric mean absolute percentage error (SMAPE) were used to
 313 assess model performance (Malhi et al., 2021). We added SMAPE to the three frequently used
 314 error statistics as it is a relative error and works well when comparing model prediction
 315 accuracies (Forkuor et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023).

316
$$R = \left(1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - P_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - M)^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad (5)$$

317 $MAE (Bias) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |O_i - P_i|$ (6)

318 $RMSE = [\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - O_i)^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ (7)

319 $SMAPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{|O_i - P_i|}{(|O_i| + |P_i|)/2}$ (8)

320 where n is the number of sample plots, O is the field observed forest AGB, P is the predicted
 321 forest AGB, and M is the mean forest AGB calculated from the field observed forest AGB.

322

323 3 Results

324

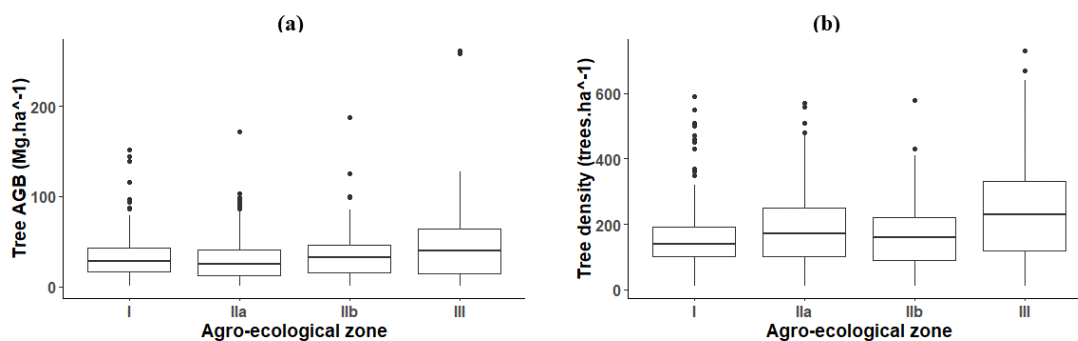
325 3.1 Ground observed forest AGB and tree density

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327 Fig. 4 (a) and (b) show the distribution of forest AGB and tree density, respectively, across
 328 the four agro-ecological zones. Agro-ecological zone III, wet Miombo, recorded the largest
 329 mean forest AGB and the highest mean tree density. The agro-ecological zones covering dry
 330 Miombo had lower mean forest AGBs and tree densities with minimal differences, compared
 331 to wet Miombo. Dry Miombo Agro-ecological zones I, IIa and IIb recorded small forest AGB
 332 standard deviations (SD), relative to agro-ecological zone III (Fig. 1 A).

333

334



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336

337 **Fig. 4.** Boxplots showing (a) plot AGB and (b) tree density across the four agro-ecological zones.

338

339 3.2 Correlation analysis between forest AGB and predictor variables

340

341 We computed the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between forest AGB and
 342 the predictor variables, Figs. S1-S9. For the SAR data, both raw polarisations (VV, VH)
 343 produced large correlation coefficients with forest AGB compared to the SAR texture bands.
 344 VH backscatter was correlated with forest AGB higher than VV backscatter. For optical data,
 345 the visible and shortwave infrared bands produced larger correlation coefficients compared to
 346 the near infrared band across all seasons. All the vegetation indices considered in this research
 347 produced correlations above the set threshold. Among the texture variables that produced larger
 348 correlations with forest AGB, the difference variance (dvar) was the largest.

349 Overall, the largest correlations for SAR data were found between forest AGB and the
 350 annual images, followed by the hot season, and least for the rainy season. We observed a larger
 351 correlation between forest AGB and the dry season images, followed by the annual images and,

352 lastly, the hot season images for optical data. These correlation results are similar to those
 353 obtained by other studies (Fagua et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023).

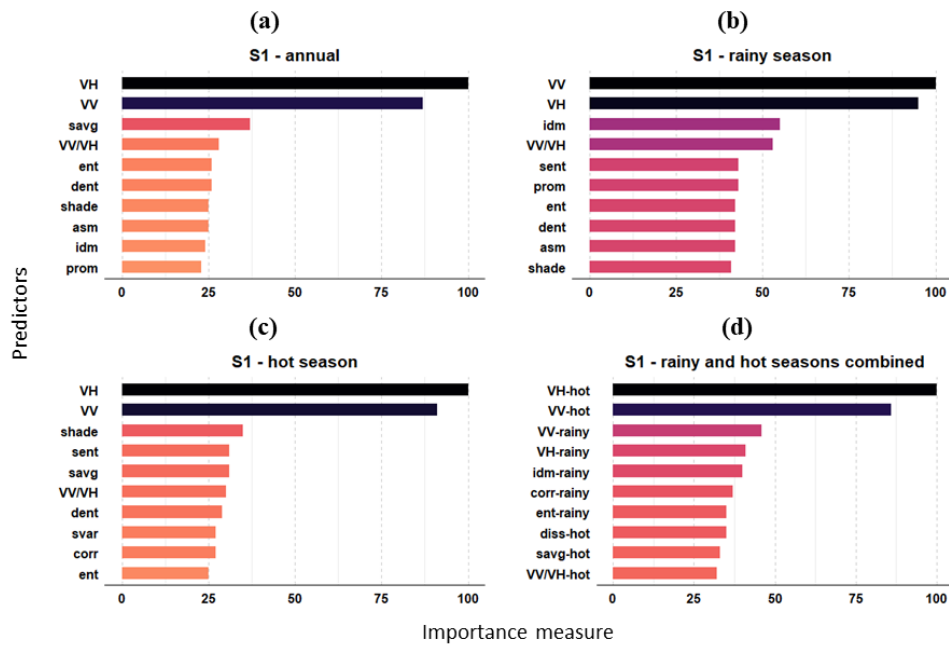
354

355 *3.3 SAR and optical predictor variable importance*

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357 Fig. 5 shows the predictor variable importance for the four models that used SAR data alone.
 358 The raw polarisation bands were the best predictors for all models, with VH as the most
 359 important variable except for the rainy season. There was no consistency with the texture
 360 variables. The quotient, VV/VH appeared consistently among the best 10 predictor variables
 361 for all four models.

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364

365 **Fig. 5.** Variable importance charts of forest AGB models that used SAR data alone.

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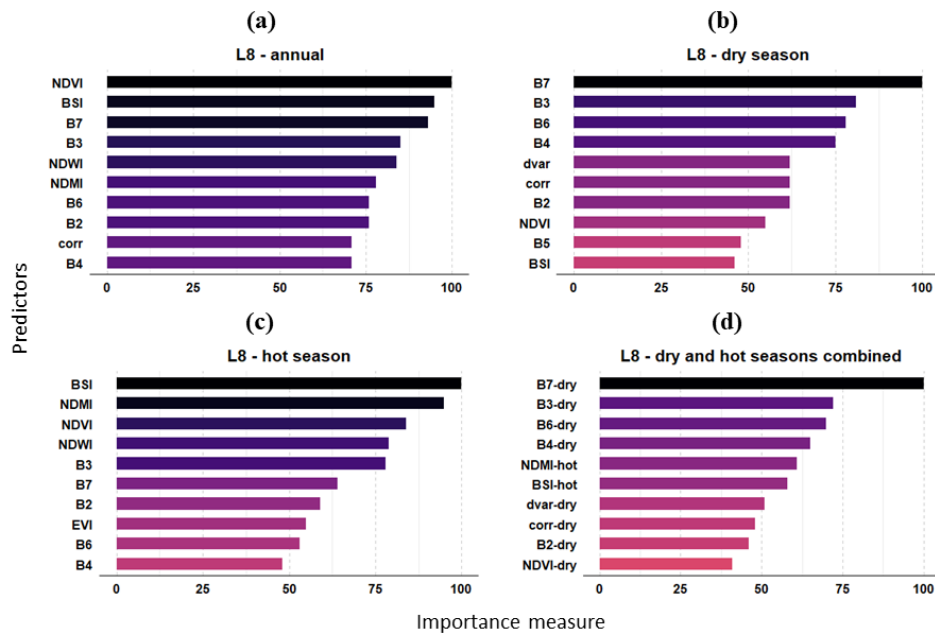
367 Fig. 6 shows the predictor variable importance for the four models that used optical data
 368 alone. Spectral bands were more important predictors of forest AGB compared to vegetation
 369 indices and texture bands for the dry season. Vegetation indices were more important predictors
 370 than the spectral bands for the hot season. When the dry and hot season images were combined,
 371 the spectral bands from the dry season were more important predictors than the vegetation
 372 indices from the hot season images.

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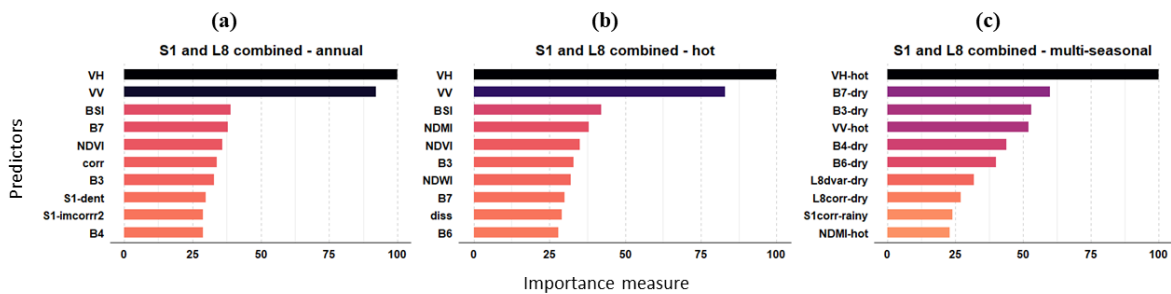
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377
378 **Fig. 6.** Variable importance of forest AGB models that used optical data alone.
379

380 Fig. 7 shows the predictor variable importance for the three models that combined SAR and
381 optical data. The VH band was the most important predictor variable in all three models. The
382 model showed spectral bands from the dry season as more important forest AGB predictor
383 variables compared to vegetation indices.
384



385
386 **Fig. 7.** Variable importance of forest AGB models that used SAR and optical data combined.
387

388 3.4 Forest AGB models of SAR, Optical and SAR-Optical data combined

389
390 Tables 2 and 3 show the regression modelling results obtained from all 55 models fitted in
391 this research based on validation data and Tables S10 and S11 are based on training data.
392

393 3.4.1 AGB models based on the entire study area

394
395 When we compared time periods, the most accurate prediction with SAR data was achieved
396 using the annual images, followed by the hot season, and lastly the rainy season images, while
397 for optical data the most accurate prediction was achieved using the dry season images,
398 followed by the hot season images, with the annual images being the least accurate.
399

400 **Table 2**

401 Forest AGB model validation results for the 11 models based on entire study area (142 plots)

Model	Abbreviation	<i>R</i>	MAE	RMSE	SMAPE
SAR-rainy	S1-r	0.30	19.24	23.65	0.65
SAR-hot	S1-h	0.55	15.79	20.60	0.57
SAR-rainy and hot	S1-r & h	0.61	15.38	19.64	0.58
SAR-annual	S1-y	0.59	15.80	19.92	0.60
Optical-dry	L8-d	0.55	15.98	20.55	0.59
Optical-hot	L8-h	0.54	16.12	20.81	0.61
Optical-dry and hot	L8 d & h	0.62	14.94	19.45	0.58
Optical-annual	L8-y	0.51	16.55	21.31	0.61
SAR and Optical-hot	S1L8-hot	0.65	14.41	18.80	0.56
SAR and Optical-multi-season	S1L8-m	0.69	14.01	18.23	0.55
SAR and Optical-annual	S1L8-y	0.61	15.45	19.65	0.59

402

403 Combining the seasonal images predicted forest AGB more accurately compared to using
 404 single season and annual images for both SAR and optical data. In this case, using optical data
 405 was more accurate than using SAR images with an *R* of 0.62 compared to 0.61 and RMSE of
 406 19.45 Mg ha⁻¹ compared to 19.65 Mg ha⁻¹ respectively.

407 Combining SAR and optical data increased the prediction accuracy compared to using the
 408 individual datasets. Multi-seasonal SAR and optical images produced the smallest RMSE of
 409 18.23 Mg ha⁻¹ and largest correlation (*R* = 0.69). Fig. 8 shows scatterplots of the observed
 410 against predicted forest AGB based on the NFI validation data.

411 In terms of SMAPE, the prediction accuracies were ordered as follows: SAR and optical
 412 multi-seasonal at 0.55, SAR and optical hot season at 0.56, SAR hot season at 0.57, SAR rainy
 413 and hot seasons at 0.58, optical dry and hot seasons at 0.58, SAR and optical annual at 0.59,
 414 optical dry season at 0.59, SAR annual at 0.60, optical hot season at 0.61, optical annual at 0.61
 415 and SAR rainy season at 0.65.

416

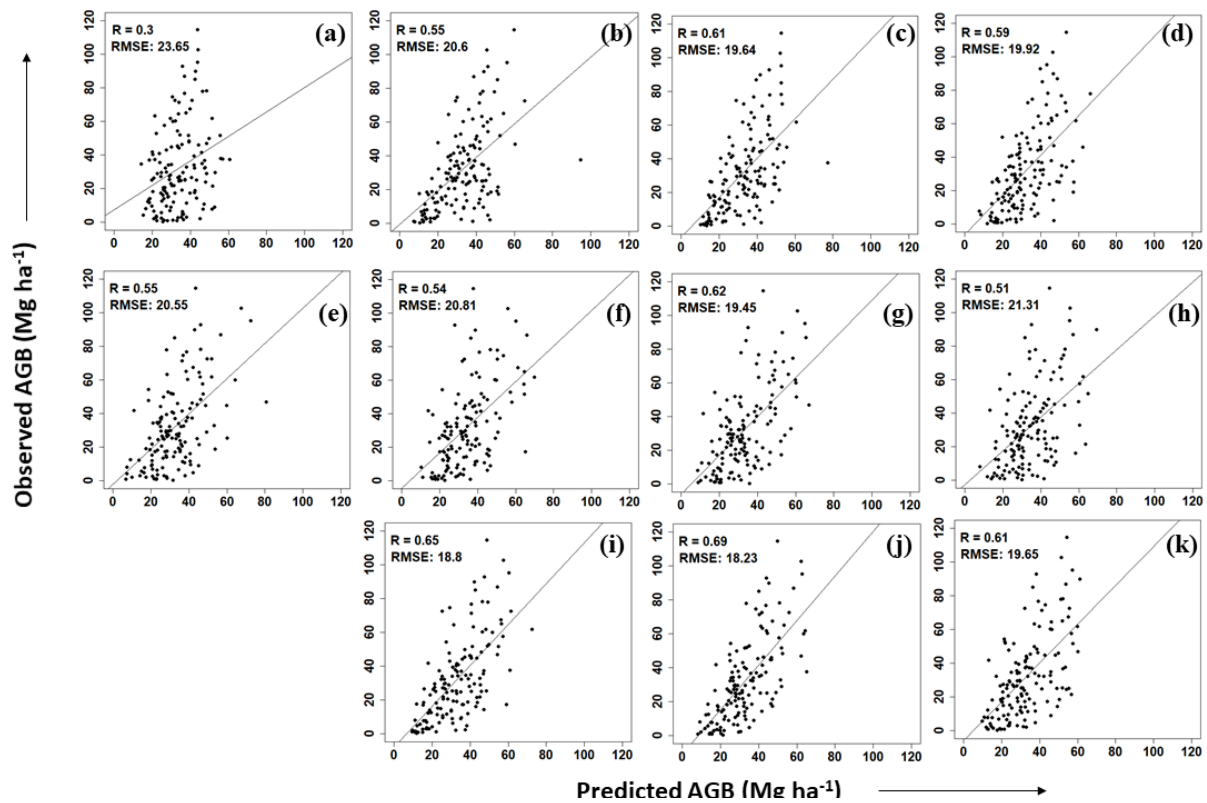
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424 Fig 8. Scatterplots of observed against predicted forest AGB in Mg ha^{-1} for the 11 models based
425 on the entire study area using the 15% NFI validation dataset: (a) SAR rainy season model, (b)
426 SAR hot season model, (c) SAR rainy and hot, (d) SAR annual, (e) optical dry season, (f)
427 optical hot season, (g) optical dry and hot, (h) optical annual, (i) SAR and optical hot season,
428 (j) SAR and optical multi-season and (k) SAR and optical annual.

429

430 3.4.2 Forest AGB models based on individual agro-ecological zones

431

432 We observed an increased forest AGB prediction accuracy when we considered agro-
433 ecological zones as the individual study units, especially for agro-ecological zones I and III
434 (Table 3).

435 For agro-ecological zone I, large correlations between observed and predicted forest AGBs
436 were observed in most models, with the one that combined SAR and optical annual images
437 producing a very large correlation. Annual images for both SAR and optical images were more
438 useful than seasonal images in this zone. Overall, optical data produced higher accuracy than
439 SAR data in this agro-ecological zone.

440 For agro-ecological zone IIa, the largest correlation was observed for the model that
441 combined SAR and optical annual images. In this zone, optical data produced greater accuracy
442 than the SAR data.

443 For agro-ecological zone IIb, we observed a moderate correlation across all 11 models. The
444 largest correlation was recorded for the model that combined the rainy and hot season SAR
445 images. In this zone, the SAR data produced a greater accuracy than the optical data.

446 For agro-ecological zone III, a generally larger correlation in all 11 models was observed
447 compared to the other zones. SAR and optical competed favourably in predicting forest AGB.

448

449

450 **Table 3**

451 Forest AGB model validation results for 11 models replicated across the four agro-ecological
 452 zones. Agro-eco I (26 plots), Agro-eco IIa (47 plots), Agro-eco IIb (31 plots) and Agro-eco
 453 III (37 plots). RMSE (Mg ha^{-1}).

Model	Agro-eco I		Agro-eco IIa		Agro-eco IIb		Agro-eco III	
	<i>R</i>	RMSE	<i>R</i>	RMSE	<i>R</i>	RMSE	<i>R</i>	RMSE
S1-rainy	0.32	30.83	0	22.84	0.46	30.05	0.14	30.85
S1-hot	0.41	29.69	0.32	19.80	0.44	32.11	0.81	18.06
S1-rainy and hot	0.55	28.18	0.32	19.41	0.53	31.00	0.78	19.30
S1-annual	0.61	26.58	0.41	18.67	0.45	31.81	0.64	22.67
L8-dry	0.61	26.88	0.28	19.61	0.48	31.17	0.62	23.15
L8-hot	0.27	31.18	0.33	19.01	0.39	32.72	0.60	23.90
L8 dry and hot	0.63	27.15	0.42	18.17	0.42	32.15	0.67	22.41
L8-annual	0.71	25.66	0.42	18.50	0.42	32.16	0.71	21.47
S1L8-hot	0.39	29.85	0.4	18.63	0.45	31.74	0.77	19.71
S1L8-multi-season	0.73	26.31	0.43	18.17	0.49	31.21	0.78	19.33
S1L8-annual	0.75	24.61	0.44	18.37	0.44	31.83	0.79	18.93

454

455 Fig. 9 shows a visual comparison of forest AGB estimation with optical data alone, SAR
 456 data alone and their synergy and with ESA biomass climate change initiative. The optimal
 457 models for SAR (S1 rainy & hot), optical (L8 dry & hot) and their synergy (S1L8 multi-season)
 458 were used to produce these forest AGB maps. The map produced from SAR and optical multi-
 459 seasonal images appears to be in accordance with the shortwave infrared image, with larger
 460 forest AGB values shown in dark green. The map produced from the optical images appears to
 461 identify the areas with small forest AGB values, but misses areas with larger forest AGB values,
 462 while the opposite is true for the map produced from SAR images. The global biomass map by
 463 ESA appears to underestimate lower values of AGB while at the same time overestimating
 464 higher values of AGB compared to this research.

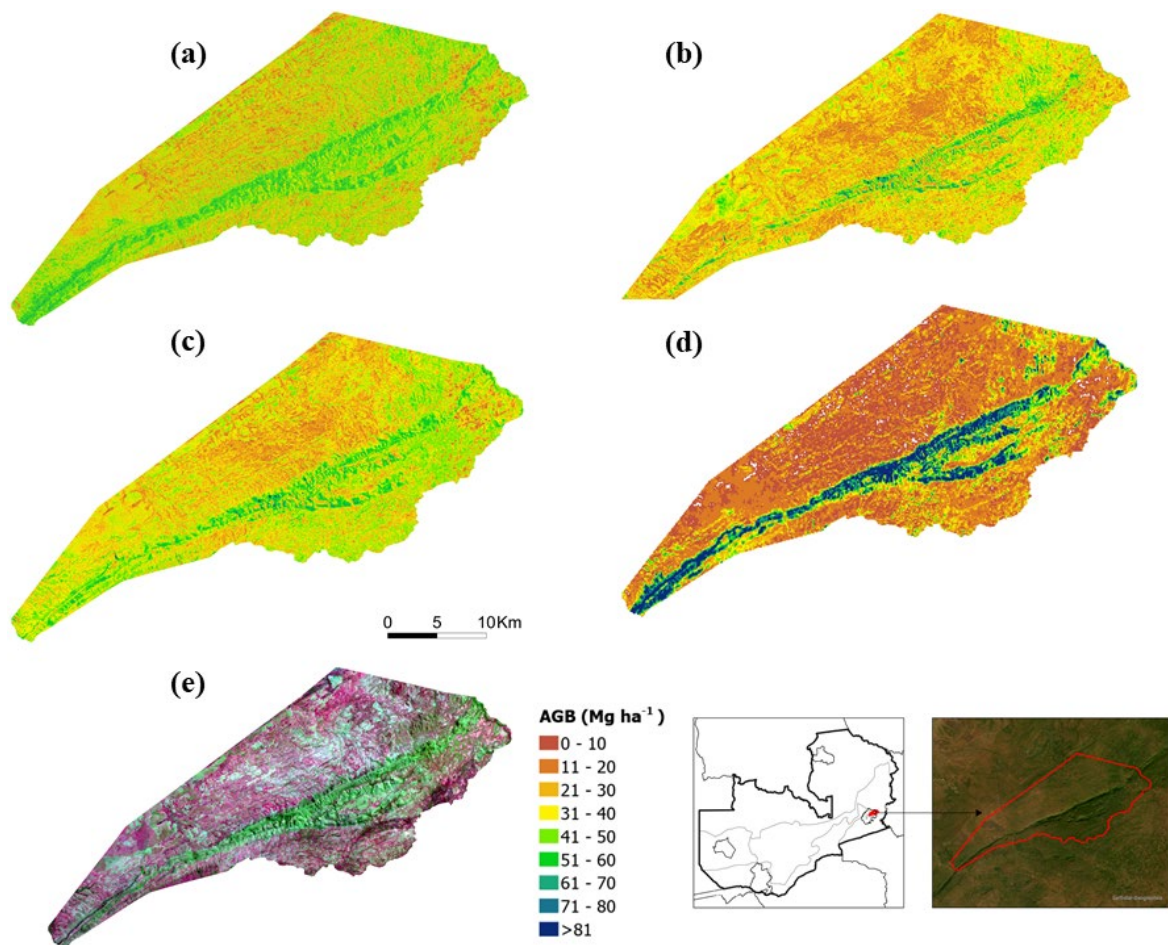
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472 **Fig. 9.** Forest AGB maps produced from optimal models comparing (a) SAR alone, (b) Optical alone,
473 (c) SAR and optical combined, (d) ESA Biomass Climate Change Initiative AGB for 2015 (e)
474 Shortwave Infrared 753 L8 image for the Machinjje Hills national forest reserve in Mambwe District.
475

476 *3.5 Spatial distribution of modelled forest AGB across four agro-ecological zones*

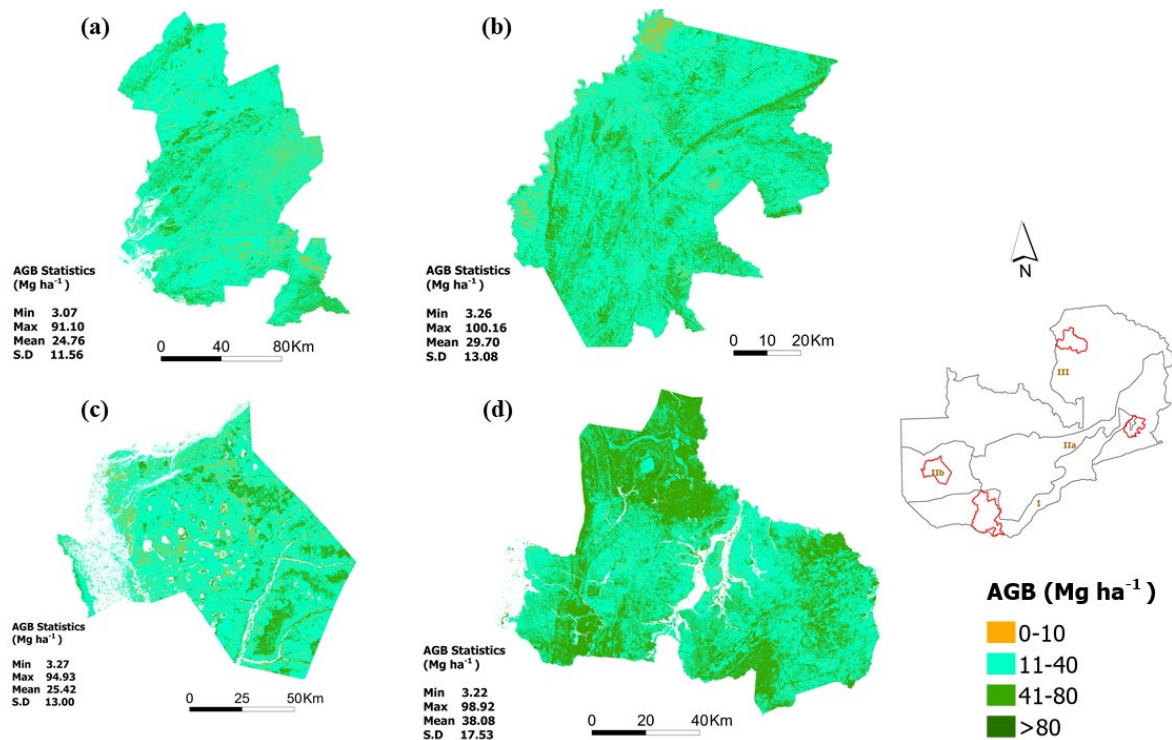
477

478 Fig. 10 shows the spatial distribution of modelled forest AGB across four agro-ecological
479 zones in Zambia using the S1-L8 multi-seasonal model, developed based on the entire study
480 area. The model was trained using all 951 NFI plots. The model diagnostic errors are presented
481 in Table S12. We sampled one district to represent each agro-ecological zone.

482 The model-predicted District wall-to-wall forest AGB maps are consistent with the NFI data.
483 Model predicted mean AGB was 38.08 Mg ha⁻¹ against the NFI plot AGB of 41.98 Mg ha⁻¹ for
484 Kawambwa, 22.18 Mg ha⁻¹ against 25.42 Mg ha⁻¹ for Mongu, 36.18 Mg ha⁻¹ against 29.70 Mg
485 ha⁻¹ for Mambwe and 31.95 Mg ha⁻¹ against 24.76 Mg ha⁻¹ for Kazungula (Table S13).

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489

490 Fig. 10. Modelled forest AGB wall-to-wall maps of four Districts representing the four agro-
 491 ecological zones in Zambia. (a) Kazungula District – agro-ecological zone I, (b) Mambwe District –
 492 agro-ecological zone IIa, (c) Mongu District – agro-ecological zone IIb and (d) Kawambwa – agro-
 493 ecological zone III.

494 **4 Discussion**

495

496 *4.1 Effectiveness of SAR images for forest AGB estimation*

497

498 SAR backscattering is affected by features that constitute the plant macro-structure such as
 499 leaves, branches, and trunks (Jones and Vaughan, 2010). SAR backscatter is also dependant on
 500 the size, shape, orientation, and water content of green leaves (Jones and Vaughan, 2010;
 501 Ghosh and Behera, 2018). A positive correlation between forest AGB and SAR was reported
 502 in previous studies (Kuplich et al., 2005; McNicol et al., 2018b; David et al., 2022a).

503 In the current research, we assessed the effectiveness of SAR data when used alone and
 504 when combined with optical data for forest AGB estimation in a tropical dry forest dominated
 505 by Miombo woodlands. HV polarisation from Sentinel-1 C band was found to be the most
 506 accurate predictor variable for forest AGB as observed in all the models that used it. Other
 507 similar studies found forest AGB of Miombo woodlands to correlate well with HV backscatter
 508 (Mitchard et al., 2009; Mitchard et al., 2013a; Gou et al., 2019), across four different African
 509 landscapes (Navarro et al., 2019). To the contrary, David et al. (2022) found forest AGB to be
 510 more correlated with VV polarisation for a similar dry forest but using an image from the rainy
 511 season. They justified the minimum influence of rainfall and soil moisture on the backscatter
 512 because their image was acquired during a period when there was drought. Our results from
 513 correlation analysis, as well as variable importance analysis, for SAR-rainy season concur with

514 David et al. (2022) where VV and VH produced similar correlations with forest AGB, and
515 where VV was a slightly more accurate predictor compared to VH. Because our study was
516 spatially extensive, with many sample plots across different ecological zones, and it also
517 considered seasonal images, we confirm that the VH polarisation of Sentinel-1 is generally a
518 more accurate predictor of forest AGB than the VV polarisation for the dry forests of Southern
519 Africa such as the Miombo woodlands. Our findings can be attributed to the fact that cross-
520 polarised SAR (VH) is associated with measuring volume scattering (biomass) while co-
521 polarised SAR (VV) is associated with surface scattering (Flores-Anderson et al., 2019).

522 Overall, our model results show that Sentinel-1 SAR data compare favourably with Landsat-
523 8 optical data in predicting forest AGB for Zambia's Miombo woodlands when single time
524 periods are considered. Similar studies have reported SAR to be a more accurate predictor
525 compared to optical data (Lu Zhang, 2019; David et al., 2022a) contrary to other similar studies
526 (Li et al., 2020; Zimbres et al., 2021; Qadeer et al., 2024). The higher accuracy of SAR
527 compared to optical data can be attributed to the closed, but not-so-dense canopy of the
528 Miombo woodlands, thereby, making SAR interactions with tree leaves, branches and trunks
529 informative. The C-band from Sentinel-1 SAR, although having a shorter wavelength
530 compared with the L and P bands, is suitable for less dense forests such as the Miombo
531 woodlands. David et al. (2022) reported a similar result for the tropical dry forests of Botswana,
532 a neighbouring country to Zambia. However, combined seasonal images for Landsat-8 (dry
533 and hot season images) were more accurate predictors of forest AGB compared to combined
534 seasonal images for Sentinel-1 (rainy and hot season images). Combining SAR and optical data
535 produced the highest accuracy, similar to other studies that combined SAR and optical images
536 for forest AGB estimation (Cutler et al., 2012; Forkuor et al., 2020; David et al., 2022a).

537 *4.2 Seasonal effects of remote sensing data on forest AGB estimation*

538

539 The model results show that annual SAR images predicted forest AGB more accurately than
540 the hot season and rainy season images, but combining the rainy and hot season images
541 surpassed the accuracy achieved using annual images. The rainy season images were the least
542 accurate. Other studies reported similar results with SAR data performing poorly, and with less
543 accurate forest AGB estimation for the rainy season when water content is high in the soil and
544 leaves (Forkuor et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023). We anticipated that a larger correlation would
545 exist between forest AGB and SAR during the rainy season because vegetation is at its peak
546 production during this season. However, our results suggest that the higher soil water content
547 and greater vegetation cover that characterise the rainy season leads to increased vegetation
548 water content and this, coupled with the relatively short wavelength SAR C-band used, leads
549 to reduced sensitivity of SAR to forest AGB as backscatter from the canopy is enhanced. Also,
550 the dielectric constant is higher in the rainy season (increased canopy backscattering) due to
551 increased water content in soils and vegetation. Therefore, vegetation amount, which changes
552 with the seasons, has a large effect on SAR backscattering and, thus, the predictive ability of
553 the SAR images. For example, a larger correlation was recorded when using the hot season
554 images, as this season is characterised by dry and open crowns with leaves just beginning to
555 appear, thereby, exposing branches and trunks (Laurin et al., 2018). This might explain why
556 combining Sentinel-1 SAR data from different seasons predicted more accurately. It would be

557 interesting to note how Sentinel-1 SAR data perform in the dry season, when Sentinel-1 SAR
558 dry season images are available.

559 For the optical data, the dry season images produced the largest correlations between the
560 observed and predicted forest AGB, followed by the hot season images, and lastly the annual
561 images. These results conform with other studies that reported large correlations when dry
562 season images were used (Halperin et al., 2016a; Macave et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023). The
563 dry season occurs immediately after the rainy season when the trees shed their leaves, and leaf
564 litter and grass senesce. The greater accuracy attained when using dry season images could be
565 attributed to exposure of branches and trunks which store carbon and, therefore, reflectance
566 coming directly from branches and trunks with little effect of leaves. Additionally, the dry
567 season is mostly clear with minimal cloud cover and aerosol effects that affect the image quality
568 as compared to the hot season (and annual images).

569 Combining images of different seasons, whether single sensor or combined, produced
570 greater forest AGB estimation accuracies compared to the annual images, similar to the
571 findings from previous studies (Rodriguez-Galiano et al., 2012; Laurin et al., 2018; Chen et al.,
572 2023). This can be attributed to the richness of vegetation phenology information that is
573 captured in seasonal images as reported in similar studies (Castillo et al., 2017; Chen et al.,
574 2023).

575 *4.3 Performance of forest AGB models across the four agro-ecological zones*

576

577 The accuracy of the 11 models across the four agro-ecological zones varied. This is as
578 expected due to the distinctive climatic conditions, topography, soil and terrain, which affect
579 the predominant vegetation types as well as tree growth patterns.

580 For agro-ecological zone I, correlations (R) between the observed and predicted forest AGB
581 of above 0.70 were recorded for models that used annual optical images, combined annual
582 optical and SAR images, and combined seasonal optical and SAR images. The greater
583 performance of optical data over SAR data in this agro-ecological zone can be attributed to the
584 lower tree density that characterise this zone. SAR data have been reported to be inaccurate on
585 heavily disturbed/sparse forests (Nicolau et al., 2021). This zone is dominated by Mopane
586 woodlands and dry Miombo woodlands. *Colophospermum mopane*, the dominant tree in this
587 Mopane woodland, is an adapted tree species capable of withstanding drought, low nutrients
588 and disturbances (Makhado et al., 2014). However, despite the low tree density, the sampled
589 plots from the Mopane woodlands had a large mean forest AGB (Mg ha^{-1}), indicating the
590 presence of some sparsely distributed, but very large trees. The drought resistant adaptability
591 coupled with lower tree density, and propensity for mixed pixels, might explain why forest
592 AGB had a small correlation with both the SAR and optical data in this zone. Halperin et al.
593 (2016) also noted an irregular pattern where a large range of observed forest AGB
594 corresponded to smaller observed values of vertical canopy cover for the Mopane woodlands
595 (Halperin et al., 2016a).

596 Agro-ecological zone IIa is dominated by Miombo woodlands and Hill (Miombo)
597 woodlands. The relatively low accuracy of our predictor variables in this zone might be because
598 of the terrain, as this zone includes mountains and valleys. For example, Li et al. (2020)
599 reported low accuracies using SAR data due to the terrain. The other reason for small

600 correlations between observed forest AGB and SAR/optical data in agro-ecological zone IIa is
601 that forest patches lead to mixed pixels, as this zone is reported to experience substantial
602 encroachment by agricultural expansion and charcoal burning (Kanja et al., 2019b; Phiri et al.,
603 2023).

604 Agro-ecological zone IIb, dominated by Kalahari (47%) and Miombo (37%) woodlands,
605 showed moderate correlations, evident when observed forest AGB was plotted against
606 predicted forest AGB. This zone has a stable terrain with elevation ranging from 1000 m to
607 1200 m above sea level.

608 Agro-ecological zone III, which is dominated by wet Miombo woodlands (87% of the
609 sample plots), showed very large correlations between observed and predicted forest AGB. A
610 similar observation was made by Halperin et al. (2016) who reported a more regular pattern for
611 the Miombo woodlands compared to other vegetation types when they plotted forest AGB
612 against canopy cover. Both SAR and optical predictors correlated well with forest AGB in this
613 zone. The high predictive accuracy of SAR can be attributed to the structure of the vegetation
614 canopy for Miombo woodlands, with fewer canopy overlaps, thereby allowing the C-band SAR
615 to penetrate and interact optimally with the vegetation canopy, producing a high local variance
616 in the observed forest AGB. Pham et al. (2019) also reported the usefulness of Sentinel-1A
617 images for biomass estimation and mapping in tropical forest types.

618

619 *4.4 Future research*

620

621 Future research should consider stratifying the forest into distinct classes, to increase the
622 estimation accuracy of forest AGB for the Miombo woodlands using remote sensing data from
623 space combined with NFI data. Previous studies that utilised SAR, optical and combinations
624 of both types of imagery to map the Miombo woodlands (McNicol et al., 2018b; Macave et al.,
625 2022; David et al., 2022a) used single date remote sensing data. The current study explored the
626 seasonal variation of SAR/optical imagery to increase the accuracy of AGB estimation. The
627 datasets available for the analysis were limited in some seasons (e.g., optical for the rainy
628 season and SAR for the dry season). We recommend exploring the use of finer temporal
629 resolution optical data such as from Sentinel-2 and using commercial SAR data where available.
630 Global LiDAR datasets such as global ecosystem dynamic investigation (GEDI) should be
631 explored while paying attention to their local calibration (Liang et al., 2023; Li et al., 2024).
632 The spectral unmixing of mixed pixels, especially when working with medium spatial
633 resolution images such as Landsat images, and in areas where tree density is low, such as in
634 agro-ecological zone I, may help increase the estimation accuracy of forest AGB from space.
635 Inclusion of auxiliary variables such as elevation, proximity to developed infrastructure (such
636 as roads) and protection status might also help to increase prediction model accuracies, as
637 reported in other similar studies (Halperin et al., 2016a; Liu et al., 2024).

638

639 **5 Conclusion**

640

641 This research used extensive NFI data in Zambia to evaluate the potential of SAR and optical
642 data for estimating the forest AGB of Miombo woodlands. We compared the effectiveness of
643 SAR and optical data when used independently and when combined. We also assessed the

644 efficacy of SAR and optical images in different seasons. A multi-level experiment involving
645 11 models was developed to address the objectives of this research. The 11 models were
646 replicated across four agro-ecological zones found in Zambia, resulting in 44 models, to
647 evaluate the impact of climatic and environmental variation on the results.

648 The models that used combined seasonal images produced greater accuracy compared to
649 single season images and annual images. For SAR data, the annual images produced greater
650 accuracy than the hot season and rainy season images. For optical data, the dry season images
651 led to greater accuracy than the hot season and annual images. The SAR VH band was the most
652 accurate predictor variable for all the models that used SAR data alone or combined with
653 optical data. Spectral bands were more accurate predictors of forest AGB using the dry season
654 images, while vegetation indices were more accurate predictors of forest AGB using the hot
655 season images.

656 We conclude that considering seasonal effects is important when using SAR and optical
657 images for forest AGB estimation in the Miombo woodlands. Combining SAR bands from the
658 hot season, optical bands from the dry season and vegetation indices from the hot season
659 produced the most accurate forest AGB estimation model for the present study in Zambia.
660 However, the 11 models representing different data combinations performed differently across
661 the four agro-ecological zones. This implies that both SAR and optical images interact
662 differently with the different vegetation cover types in Zambia. We recommend that the
663 ongoing REDD+ carbon projects in Zambia and other countries in southern Africa adopt the
664 findings of this research where seasonal effects are considered when selecting satellite sensor
665 imagery (in particular, using SAR and optical data from different seasons) for mapping the
666 forest AGB of the Miombo woodlands.

667

668 **Author Contributions**

669

670 KK, CZ and PMA conceived the idea and designed the methodology for the study. KK
671 designed the experimental approach. KK analysed the data and drafted the manuscript with
672 supervision from CZ and PMA. CZ and PMA critically reviewed and edited the manuscript.
673 All authors approved the final draft manuscript for submission to the journal.

674

675 **Declaration of competing interest**

676

677 The authors declare no known competing interest, either personal relations or financial
678 interests, that could have influenced the work reported in this research.

679

680 **Data Availability Statement**

681

682 Inventory data and remote sensing data together with codes used in this study will be made
683 available upon request.

684

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690 collected during the ILUA II project.

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