

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

How far can we trust forestry estimates from low-density LiDAR acquisitions? The Cutfoot Sioux experimental forest (MN, USA) case study

This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1730744> since 2020-02-25T11:39:10Z

Published version:

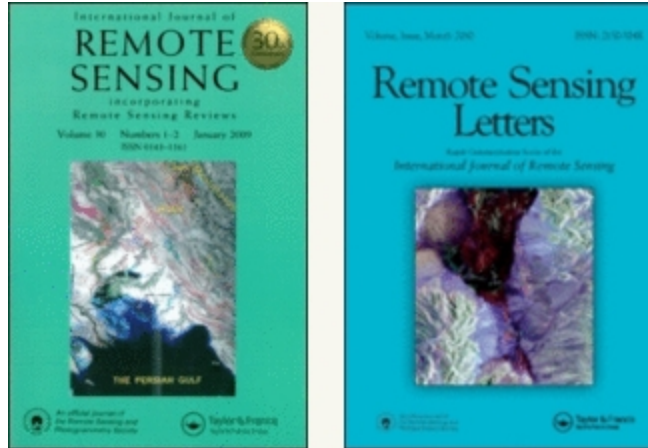
DOI:10.1080/01431161.2020.1723173

Terms of use:

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)



How far can We trust Forestry Estimates from Low Density LiDAR Acquisitions? The Cutfoot Sioux Experimental Forest (MN, USA) Case Study

Journal:	<i>International Journal of Remote Sensing</i>
Manuscript ID	TRES-PAP-2019-0377.R1
Manuscript Type:	IJRS Research Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	04-Oct-2019
Complete List of Authors:	Borgogno Mondino, Enrico; Universita degli Studi di Torino Dipartimento di Scienze Agrarie Forestali e Alimentari Fissore, Vanina; Universita degli Studi di Torino Dipartimento di Scienze Agrarie Forestali e Alimentari Falkowski, Michael; Colorado State University College of Agricultural Sciences Palik, Brian; USDA Forest Service, Northern Research Station
Keywords:	Airborne laser scanning (ALS), data analysis, Tree mapping
Keywords (user defined):	Bias modeling, Error analysis, Data reliability

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 1 **How far can We trust Forestry Estimates from Low Density LiDAR**
4
5
6 2 **Acquisitions? The Cutfoot Sioux Experimental Forest (MN, USA) Case**
7
8
9 3 **Study**

10
11 4 Enrico Borgogno Mondino¹, Vanina Fissore^{1*}, Michael J. Falkowski²,
12
13
14 5 Brian Palik³

15
16 6 ¹*DISAFA, University of Torino, L. go Paolo Braccini 2, 10095, Grugliasco (TO), Italy;*
17 7 *e-mails: enrico.borgogno@unito.it; vanina.polito@gmail.com.*

18 8 ²*Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado 80523, USA;*
19 9 *e-mail: M.Falkowski@colostate.edu.*

20 10 ³*USDA Forest Service, Northern Research Station, 1831 Hwy. 169. E. Grand Rapids,*
21 11 *MN 55744, USA;*
22 12 *e-mail: bpalik@fs.fed.us*

23 13
24 14 *Corresponding author
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1 **How far can We trust Forestry Estimates from Low Density LiDAR** 2 3 4 5 6 **Acquisitions? The Cutfoot Sioux Experimental Forest (MN, USA) Case** 7 8 9 **Study**

10 11 12 **Abstract** 13

14 Aerial discrete return LiDAR technology (ALS – **Aerial Laser Scanner**) is nowadays
15 widely used for forest characterization due to its high accuracy in measuring vertical
16 and horizontal forest structure. Random and systematic errors can occur and affect the
17 native point cloud, ultimately degrading ALS data accuracy, especially when adopting
18 datasets that were not natively designed for forest applications; a detailed understanding
19 of how uncertainty of ALS dataset could affect accuracy of derivable forest metrics (e.g.
20 tree height, stem diameter, basal area) is, in this case, required, looking for eventual
21 error biases that can be possibly modelled to improve final accuracy. In this work a low-
22 density ALS dataset, originally acquired by the State of Minnesota (USA) for non-
23 forestry related purposes (i.e., topographic mapping) was processed attempting to
24 characterize forest inventory parameters of the Cutfoot Sioux Experimental Forest
25 (north-central Minnesota, USA). Since accuracy of estimates strictly depends on the
26 applied species-specific dendrometric models a first required step was to map tree
27 species all over the forest. A rough classification, aiming at separating conifers from
28 broadleaves, was achieved by processing a Landsat 8 OLI scene. ALS-derived forest
29 metrics initially showed to greatly overestimate those measured at the ground in 230
30 plots. Oppositely, ALS-derived tree density was greatly underestimated, placing less
31 trees in the area. Aiming at reducing ALS measures uncertainty, trees belonging to the
32 dominated plane were removed from the ground dataset, assuming that they could not
33 properly be detected by low density ALS measures. Consequently, MAE (*Mean*

1
2
3 1 *Absolute Error*) values significantly decreased to 4.0 m for tree height and to 0.19 cm
4
5 2 for diameter estimates. Remaining discrepancies were proved to be related to a *bias*
6
7 3 affecting the native ALS point cloud, that was modelled and removed. MAE values
8
9 4 finally resulted 1.32 m for tree height, 0.08 m for diameter, 8.5 m²/ha for Basal Area,
10
11 5 and 0.06 m for Quadratic Mean Diameter. Specifically focusing on tree height and
12
13 6 diameter estimates, significance of differences between ground and ALS estimates was
14
15 7 tested in respect of the expected “best accuracy”, whose definition is given in the text.
16
17 8 Results showed that after correction: 94.35% of tree height differences were lower than
18
19 9 the correspondent reference value (2.86 m); 70 % of tree diameter differences were
20
21 10 lower than the correspondent reference value (4.5 cm for conifers and 6.8 cm for
22
23 11 broadleaves). Finally forest parameters were computed for the whole Cutfoot Sioux
24
25 12 Experimental Forest.

26
27 13 **Main findings of this work are: first, all forest estimates based on low density ALS**
28
29 14 **point cloud can be reasonably given only at plot level and not at tree level; second, tree**
30
31 15 **height estimates obtained by low density ALS point clouds at plot level are highly**
32
33 16 **satisfying only after testing and modelling eventual error bias, while, on the contrary,**
34
35 17 **diameter, basal area and QMD estimates majorly suffer from uncertainty making**
36
37 18 **desirable a higher point density and, probably, a better mapping of tree species**
38
39 19 **(wherever possible) than the one that a remote sensing based one can generate.**

40
41 20 **Keywords:** low density ALS, forest parameters estimate, accuracy assessment, LiDAR
42
43 21 measures bias modelling.

44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1 Introduction

2 Discrete return LiDAR technology from aircraft (ALS) is a proven tool for many forest
3 applications. Due to its high accuracy in measuring vertical and horizontal forest
4 structure, ALS for forest characterization has increased considerably over the last few
5 decades. It has been successfully applied in support of operational forest inventories by
6 deriving accurate, high resolution estimates of many forest structural properties
7 including tree height (Morsdorf et al., 2004; Andersen et al., 2006; Hopkinson et al.,
8 2004; Edson and Wing, 2011; Saremi et al., 2014; Falkowski et al., 2006; 2008),
9 diameter (Popescu, 2007; Saremi et al., 2014), canopy size (Means et al., 2000; Popescu
10 and Zhao, 2008), volume (Hinsley et al., 2002; Riaño et al., 2004; Latifi et al., 2015)
11 and vertical distribution of tree canopy (Dubayah and Drake, 2000). In traditional forest
12 inventories, trees attributes are collected in discrete ground sample plots, which are
13 assumed as representative of the whole forest. Conversely, ALS data can provide
14 information across large spatial extents, ranging from tree to landscape scales
15 (McRoberts et al., 2010). ALS-derived tree heights can be used to estimate forest
16 structural parameters such as tree diameter and basal area via numerical model
17 estimation, both at the species or mixed-species level, that relate height to other features
18 (e.g tree diameter; VanderSchaaf, 2012). Therefore, a detailed understanding of how
19 uncertainty in the LiDAR dataset affects the uncertainty of derived forest inventory
20 metrics, i.e. tree height, stem diameter, and basal area, is required.
21 A specific focus has to be done on the opportunity related to the use of low density
22 LiDAR acquisitions or of ALS datasets acquired for different purposes than forestry
23 applications. In fact, nowadays many public institutions make accessible for free low
24 density LiDAR acquisitions acquired few years ago often aimed at topographic
25 representation. These freely available datasets often cover nation-wide areas and

1 represent an opportunity in the field of forest research. In last years, low-density LiDAR
2 dataset have been already used, for example to investigate its utility in estimating forest
3 aboveground biomass in the mountainous forests of norther Italy (Montagnoli A. et al.,
4 2015) or for testing tree species identification (e.g. Suratno A. et al., 2009).

5 With specific focus on the present work, a free low-density ALS dataset, acquired by
6 the State of Minnesota (USA), was used together with Landsat 8 OLI (*Operational*
7 *Land Imager*) data to characterize the forest structure of the Cutfoot Sioux Experimental
8 Forest (CEF) located in north-central Minnesota (USA). The joint use of ALS data with
9 multispectral satellite data has been adopted since ALS measures cannot be efficiently
10 used to separate tree species, while multispectral satellite data, in spite of its reduced
11 geometric resolution, can differently achieve this task in mapping main vegetation
12 classes (e.g. broadleaved trees versus coniferous trees) based on their spectral
13 signatures. Indeed, determining tree species class is of paramount importance when
14 using tree height as predictor of other tree parameters via numerical dendrometric
15 models.

16 Specifically, structural properties of forest, were investigated at both tree and plot scale;
17 in particular, at tree-scale the following measures were considered: *a*) tree height (m)
18 and *b*) tree diameter (m). At the plot-scale: *a*) tree density; *b*) plot mean height (m); *c*)
19 plot mean diameter (m); *d*) plot mean basal area (BA, m²/ha) and *e*) Quadratic Mean
20 Diameter (QMD, cm).

21 Main explored hypotheses were, first, to assess if low density LiDAR derived forest
22 estimates could be given at tree level and/or at plot level, and, second, if low density
23 LiDAR derived estimates were reliable if compared to the same obtained from ground
24 data collection. To test these hypotheses, the above listed forest parameters were
25 computed from both ground and ALS data and their consistency tested at both tree- and

1 plot-scale. A rather weak consistency was initially found. Authors hypothesized that this
2 not favorable situation could be due to two factors; first, a limitation of the system, as it
3 is a “low-density” acquisition system, and, second, a possible error *bias* affecting the
4 native point cloud. In fact, it is known that LiDAR raw data can be affected by many
5 random and systematic errors introduced during data acquisition (depending from flight
6 acquisition geometry) [Coveney, 2013] data processing, and depending on the nature of
7 the surface hit by the laser pulse (e.g. land cover categories, vegetation classes, slope)
8 [Hyypä et al., 2005]. Consequently, a further investigation was achieved and some
9 actions, included error bias modelling, adopted to correct ALS estimates, at both tree
10 and plot scale. We finally computed forest inventory parameters for the whole study
11 area at the plot-scale. Measures distribution was summarized computing correspondent
12 Empirical Cumulative Distribution Functions (ECDF).

13 **Materials and Methods**

14 *Study area*

15 The study area is the Cutfoot Experimental Forest (CEF, 507 hectares) located within
16 the Chippewa National Forest in north-central Minnesota (Itasca county, USA) at
17 47°40' N, 94°5' W (figure 1). CEF is dominated by red pine (*Pinus resinosa* Ait.) that
18 originated after fires that occurred between 1864 and 1918 (Adams et al., 2004).
19 Additional species include jack pine (*Pinus banksiana* Lamb.) and eastern white pine
20 (*Pinus strobus* L.), paper birch (*Betula papyrifera* Marsh.) and quaking Aspen (*Populus*
21 *tremuloides* Michx.).

22 CEF is nearly equally divided in: about 273 ha that have had a range of forest
23 management activities, including both traditional commercial timber harvests (CEF cut
24 and sold reports, USFS Grand Rapids, MN) and numerous silvicultural experiments

(Buckman, 1964; Adams et al., 2004; Bradford and Palik, 2009; D'Amato et al., 2010); about 234 ha occupied by the Sunken Lake Natural Area, with is largely old-growth forest (Aakala et al., 2012; Fraver and Palik, 2012).

[FIGURE 1]

Ground data

Ground data were collected as part of a forest-wide survey between May and August 2013 within 230 semi-permanent forest inventory plots: 130 located in the managed area and 100 located in the Sunken Lake Natural Area. Surveyed trees totaled 9851, with an average of about 43 trees per plot. Sampling plots had a nested design comprised of three circular plots: in the outer plot, which had a radius of 16 m, tree species were identified and diameters measured for all trees ≥ 19.3 cm diameter at breast height (DBH). The central plot, which had a radius of 11.3 m, was used to tally trees ≥ 8.9 cm and < 19.3 cm DBH. Lastly, the innermost plot, which had a radius of 3.5 m, was used to tally trees with DBH < 8.9 cm and height > 0.30 m. This field sampling design is a standard approach for forest vegetation measurements in the study area. We used the result ground data because it was freely available for use and because it was collected near in time to the LiDAR data (see next section).

While diameters were directly measured at tree level, other forest parameters were derived by computation using appropriate species-specific regression models calibrated on the US FIA (*Forest Service Forest Inventory and Analysis*) database of Minnesota. Single tree measures and estimations were then averaged at plot-level to derive mean height, mean diameter, mean basal area (BA) and quadratic mean diameter (QMD) for each plot.

1 During ground data collection, the position of each plot centre was georeferenced by
2 GNSS (Global Navigation Satellite System) by a GPSMAP® 60CSx, providing a
3 position accuracy of about 10 m. Individual tree position was measured as distance (m)
4 and azimuth (degrees) from the plot center. During data processing, tree positions
5 within the plot were recovered moving from plot center according to distance and
6 azimuth values.

7 ***Remotely sensed data***

8 ALS raw data were freely obtained from the Minnesota Geospatial Information Office
9 website (MnGeo, <http://www.mngeo.state.mn.us>) for the Central Lakes Region of MN.
10 The dataset was collected over Itasca County, MN in April 2012. The data were
11 provided in the UTM NAD83 Zone 15N coordinate system. Vertical and horizontal
12 accuracy values were 0.5 m and 1.15 m, respectively, at a 95 percent confidence level,
13 and flight lines side overlap was 25%. ALS60, ALS70 and Optech ALTM Gemini
14 systems were used for data acquisition. General specifications of acquisition conditions
15 included the following: AGL (*Above Ground Level*) average flying height ranged
16 between 2072.6 m and 2377.4 m; MSL (*Mean Sea Level*) average flying height ranged
17 between 2712.7 m and 2766.0 m; Average Ground Speed was about 277 km/h; Field of
18 View (FOV) was 40 degrees; LiDAR pulse rate ranged between 99 kHz and 115.3 kHz
19 and the scan rate between 25.1 Hz and 38 Hz. Multiple returns were recorded up to 5
20 returns; intensity values were recorded @8-bit quantization. Pulse returns density was
21 of 0.78 pls/m². The raw point cloud was processed via LASTools (Rapidlasso GmbH) to
22 generate gridded digital surface model (DSM) and digital terrain model (DTM) with a 1
23 m cell size. A canopy height model (CHM) was generated by differencing the DSM and
24 DTM and a *local maxima* algorithm was run to map potential trees from the
25 correspondent CHM using SAGA GIS 7.2.

1
2
3 1 A Level 2 Landsat 8 OLI (*Operational Land Imager*) multispectral image, acquired on
4
5 2 11th November 2013, was downloaded from the EarthExplorer distribution system
6
7 3 (<http://www.earthexplorer.usgs.gov>). It was supplied already calibrated in at-the-ground
8
9 4 reflectance. A Landsat-8 OLI image was adopted because its geometric resolution of 30
10
11 5 m is consistent with ground plots size (16 m radius). In this way, each forest plot can be
12
13 6 assumed as corresponding to a Landsat pixel and, therefore, be comparable. Moreover,
14
15 7 being Landsat-8 OLI multispectral, it permitted to use spectral signatures of conifers and
16
17 8 broadleaves to classify the entire forest.

18
19
20
21 9 A caveat regarding the LiDAR data and ground truth data is that were collected more
22
23 10 than one year apart. However, the ground data is specifically based on measurements on
24
25 11 trees; short of changes caused by catastrophic events (or which there were none in the
26
27 12 study area during the period of record), there would be virtually no detectable
28
29 13 differences in measurements taken in spring 2012 versus summer 2013. Any difference
30
31 14 in diameter, height, or basal area would be within the range of measurement error.
32
33 15 Moreover, ground data was used only to directly provide diameters and trees location,
34
35 16 and consequently the effect of the season (LiDAR: April 2012 vs Ground data: summer
36
37 17 2013) is inconsequential. Moreover, LiDAR acquisition for the study was collected in
38
39 18 April, which is the beginning of a leaf-on season in the study area and the forest is
40
41 19 conifer dominated, so the influence of differences in time of acquisition between ground
42
43 20 and LiDAR data was minimized.

21 ***Data analysis***

22 It is worth pointing out that ALS-derived and ground measures follow opposite
23
24 23 paradigms when generating tree-level forest inventory measures. For example,
25
26 24 traditional forest inventory approaches typically use tree diameter measurements to
27
28 25 model tree height and other inventory parameters, whereas ALS-based approaches use

1 tree height measurements to retrieve diameter and other inventory parameters. Both
2 approaches operate through numerical models that relate diameter with height. If we test
3 consistency between tree diameters, the ones from LiDAR are “indirectly” derived by
4 numerical modelling from heights; if we test consistency between heights, the ones
5 from ground are those generated by numerical approaches. Therefore, we have to
6 preventively define some reference values (“best reachable accuracy”) to compare
7 uncertainty with. These can be defined while calibrating local numerical model relating
8 diameters and height (or vice versa) by an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) approach. A
9 flowchart showing overall phases of achieved analysis is available in the Supplemental
10 (Figure 2).

11 *Ground Data Processing*

12 Using ground sampled tree diameters, we estimated, by OLS the coefficients of the
13 following numerical dendrometric model relating tree height to its diameter (Perala and
14 Alban, 1993).

$$15 \quad H_s = a_s D^{b_s} + \varepsilon_s \quad (1)$$

16 where H_s

17
18 is the estimated height for a specific species, D
19 the ground sampled diameter, a_s and b_s are species-specific coefficients and ε_s the
20 estimated model uncertainty.

21 Model was calibrated using the dataset from the US FIA (*Forest Service Forest*
22 *Inventory and Analysis*) database for Minnesota, downloaded from the FIA database
23 website (version 4.0, Woudenberg et al. 2010, US Forest Service, 2011). Only the most
24 frequently occurring species in CEF plots were considered. For the conifer class
25 (hereinafter called “C”): balsam fir, eastern white pine, jack pine and red pine were

1 adopted; for the broadleaf class (hereinafter called “B”): paper birch, quaking aspen and
 2 northern red oak. Calibrated models were then used to compute tree heights within the
 3 surveyed plots in CEF.

4 The US FIA data for Minnesota was chosen because the calibration of the regression
 5 models required a large amount of (freely available) inventory data to be as reliable as
 6 possible, and, moreover, it needed to be specific for the species present in the study
 7 area, which was not obtainable from any other source.

8 To make all diameter classes equally represented during model calibration, OLS
 9 estimation was achieved by relating diameter and height average values of predefined
 10 classes. These were defined splitting the diameter range of variation into classes of a
 11 width of 2.5 cm and looking for the correspondent height values. Class diameter and
 12 height values were averaged and model parameters estimated accordingly. Standard
 13 deviation of heights belonging to the class was computed as well. The mean value of all
 14 class standard deviations (σ^H_m) was assumed as reference “best” uncertainty to compare
 15 ALS-derived height with. In other words, height estimations from the model were
 16 assumed to represent a class of heights having an internal variability equal to σ^H_m . All
 17 computation concerning model calibration were run through in-house appositely
 18 developed IDL (*Interactive Data Language*) routines.

19 Trees basal area (g_i) was computed according to eq. 2:

$$20 \quad g_i = \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot d_i^2 \quad (\text{m}^2) \quad (2)$$

21 where d_i^2 is the tree diameter.

22 Estimated single tree measures were then averaged at plot level. For each plot, mean
 23 diameter (D^G_μ) and mean height (H^G_μ) were computed. Plots total basal area (BA^G) was
 24 considered and computed by eq. 3, including all species in plot:

$$BA = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n g_i}{A_p} \quad (\text{m}^2/\text{ha}) \quad (3)$$

where g_i is the same of eq. 2, n is the number of surveyed trees in each plot and A_p the area (ha) of the plot.

Moreover, plots mean tree density (T_{pha}^G) and plot quadratic mean diameter (QMD^G) were computed respectively according to eq. 4 and 5.

$$T_{pha}^G = \frac{n. tree}{A_p} \quad (\text{n. trees/ha}) \quad (4)$$

$$QMD^G = \frac{BA/T_{pha}}{0.00007854} \quad (\text{cm}) \quad (5)$$

To summarize data at plot level single tree diameters and heights were averaged within the plot.

Mapping Tree Species by Satellite Imagery

Accuracy of estimates strictly depends on the possibility of applying the appropriate dendrometric model to the proper tree species. Since no a-priori knowledge of vegetation type was given, a preliminary step was needed to classify tree species before models could be applied. From an operational point of view, at-species level classification of forest (tree by tree) was not possible. Nevertheless, a rougher classification, aiming at separating conifers from broadleaves, was achieved processing multispectral imagery.

To properly approach image classification, main tree species of CEF (table 1), were analysed at plot level; depending on the proportion of conifer and broadleaves, plots were labelled as “C” if they were $\geq 70\%$ coniferous species or “B” if they were $\geq 70\%$ broadleaves species. Mixed plots were excluded from the analysis. Fifty-four plots were labelled as “B” = broadleaves, 97 as “C” and 79 were not considered for classification training, being populated by mixed vegetation. Excluded plots did not enter any of the following computations. It is worth to highlight that geometric resolution of Landsat

1 OLI images (30 m) is consistent with plot size (16 m radius). Consequently, one can
2 assume that each forest plot corresponds to a Landsat pixel. To collect an adequate
3 number of training pixels each plot was used as starting point to define the
4 correspondent Region of Interest (ROI), that was obtained by region growing looking
5 for similar pixels around the selected one. Any eventual relative positioning error
6 between ground and ALS measures in respect of Landsat imagery can be neglected,
7 being certainly lower and lower if compared with Landsat pixel size. A supervised
8 classification (*Minimum Distance* algorithm; Richards, 1999) was therefore run to
9 generated the correspondent classification map that was validated by confusion matrix.

10 *ALS Data Processing*

11 LiDAR point cloud was processed by LASTools libraries. The following operations
12 were performed: a) point returns presenting a scanning angle greater than 15 degrees
13 were filtered out (accuracy reduces when scanning angles are higher than 12-14 degrees
14 over dense forest stands; Gatzolis & Andersen, 2008); b) points were classified into
15 “ground” and “not-ground” by LASTools “*lasground*” library (natural context
16 parameters); c) regularization of points cloud was achieved by *las2dem* tool obtaining
17 the correspondent DTM and DSM with a pixel size of 1 m.

18 A CHM of the area was generated by differencing of DSM and DTM. A specifically
19 designed *local maxima* filter was run over CHM, to detect pixels which likely
20 represented the top of trees.

21 Tree height from ALS was extracted from CHM at the locations of the detected *local*
22 *maxima*. Tree diameter was estimated by eq. 6 that proved to well approximate
23 experimental data. Model type was specifically selected and used by authors with no
24 concern about pre-existing references from literature, but in consequence of appositely
25 performed test involving available data.

$$D_t = e^{a_t} \cdot H^{b_t} + \varepsilon_t \quad (6)$$

where a_t and b_t are tree-species dependent coefficients and ε_s is the estimated model uncertainty for D_t . Differently from ground measures, ALS estimates of D_t were computed by eq. 6, differently calibrated in respect of “C” and “B” macro-classes. This was obtained including associated tree species according to table 1.

To make all height values equally represented during model calibration, OLS estimation was achieved relating height and diameter mean values of predefined aggregated classes from the native measures. Height classes were defined with a width of 25 cm; included measures, together with the correspondent diametric ones, were consequently averaged at class level. The dendrometric model of eq. 6 was therefore calibrated in respect of the averaged diameter and height class values. Standard deviation of each diameter class was computed too. Unlike direct dendrometric models (eq. 1), the mean of the standard deviations of class diameter was lower than the correspondent MAE^D (Mean Absolute Error, Willmott & Matsuura, 2005)- MAE^D was therefore assumed as reference “best” accuracy in diameter estimation from ALS data.

Forest class map from Landsat 8 imagery (FCM) was used to assign the appropriate tree class to each ALS detected tree, making possible the application, at tree level, of the right dendrometric model (eq. 6).

Once height and diameter were estimated for each detected tree, T_{pha}^L , D_{μ}^L , H_{μ}^L , BA^L , and QMD^L were computed for each plot by averaging.

According to FCM (“C” and “B” classes), forest parameters were finally computed for the whole CEF study area at plot level, generating the correspondent raster maps (cell size = 30 m) of the estimates of forest parameters.

24 *Ground vs ALS: testing consistency of measures*

1 To compare measures, we firstly tested consistency of tree positions as detected from
 2 ALS by the *Local Maxima* algorithm with the one surveyed during field campaign,
 3 showing a significant displacement. Consequently, a tree-to-tree comparison was
 4 retained unreasonable and comparisons operated at plot level. Consequently, estimates
 5 from ALS were computed at-tree level, but comparisons with ground data were
 6 operated by aggregating measures. A first comparison involving all the detected trees in
 7 respect of the surveyed ones was achieved by computing ECDFs of T_{pha} , H_{μ} , D_{μ} , BA ,
 8 and QMD for both ground and LAS measures/estimates.

9 Due to the importance of height measures in many forest parameters computations, and
 10 to the current trend of using LAS data for its determination a first comparison was
 11 achieved with reference to plots average tree height values (H_{μ}^G and H_{μ}^L). Uncertainty
 12 of T_{pha}^L , D_{μ}^L , H_{μ}^L , BA^L , and QMD^L , was measured as MAE (eq. 7).

$$13 \quad MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |f_i - y_i| \quad (7)$$

14 where f_i is the predicted (ALS) value, y_i is the ground correspondent value and n the
 15 number of observations (n. plots).

16 Initially we considered that such big differences could be related to the underestimation
 17 of trees number by ALS, that, necessarily, may not completely describe vegetation
 18 under the main canopy cover (Reitberger J., et al., 2009). This in particular affected
 19 aggregated forest parameters (BA , QMD , T_{pha}) strictly depending on tree number. To
 20 test this hypothesis we sorted, for each plot, ground surveyed trees according to their
 21 height, selecting the tallest ones in number equal to those detected by ALS. We
 22 assumed that this operation removed from analysis the trees of the dominant layers that
 23 were not recorded by LiDAR, making observation distributions more similar. New
 24 ground tree height values were then calculated and compared with the ALS-derived
 25 ones. Since comparison still showed dissimilarities, we tested if a *bias* could affect the

1 native point cloud. For this, we compared ALS estimates with the “filtered/reduced”
2 ground surveyed ones. *Bias* was tested only for tree heights. We related $\Delta H_{\mu} = H_{\mu}^L -$
3 H_{μ}^G with H_{μ}^L by scatterplot, finding a strong correlation, that was modelled to correct
4 LAS measured tree heights both at plot and tree level. This operation proved to reduce
5 estimates uncertainty.
6 After quantification of tree height accuracy (MAE was computed at plot level) affecting
7 “corrected” ALS-derived estimates, significance of both ΔH_{μ} and $\Delta D_{\mu} = D_{\mu}^L - D_{\mu}^G$ was
8 tested. Only $|\Delta H_{\mu}|$ and $|\Delta D_{\mu}|$ higher than expected “best” accuracy (σ_m^H , MAE^D
9 respectively for tree height and diameter estimates) were assumed as significant. To test
10 this condition the ECDFs of ΔH_{μ} and ΔD_{μ} from LIDAR, both from “*biased*” and
11 “*unbiased*” measures, were computed for the whole CEF. These were compared to
12 ground estimates, demonstrating that few field surveyed measures can well represent
13 the most of the forest they belong too.
14 Finally, a comprehensive description of CEF using all forest parameters was developed
15 and interpreted. **Flowchart relative to error quantification and modelling, and to ECDF**
16 **comparison analysis is available in Supplemental (Figure 3).**

17 **Results and Discussions**

18 ***Ground Data Processing***

19 The dendrometric model of eq. 1 was calibrated by OLS for the main tree species
20 surveyed in CEF. Table 1 reports estimated coefficients and the following statistics:
21 model MAE (tree height estimate accuracy); R, Pearson’s correlation coefficient
22 between observations and estimates; $\sigma_{species}^H$, mean standard deviation of height class
23 for each considered tree species.

1
2
3 1 Values of table 1 were averaged over all the species making possible to somehow
4
5 2 synthesize mean accuracy expectations. The mean values were found to be 1.39 m and
6
7 3 2.86 m respectively for MAE^H and σ_m^H . Since the latter was the highest, it was assumed
8
9 4 as “best expectable accuracy” for tree height measurements. In other words, no tree
10
11 5 height estimates from other sources is expected to be more accurate than the average
12
13 6 intra-species variability, represented by σ_m^H .
14
15
16
17
18

19 [TABLE 1]
20
21
22
23

24 10 Calibrated dendrometric models were consequently, and accordingly, applied to all
25
26 11 ground surveyed trees to give height estimates. Single trees height and diameter were,
27
28 12 then, averaged over the plot and correspondent BA and QMD calculated. Moreover, at-
29
30 13 plot-level computed forest parameters were averaged over the previously defined
31
32 14 macro-classed (“B” = Broadleaves and “C” = Conifers) considering that plots were
33
34 15 preventively assigned to “B” or “C”. At-class-level averaged forest parameter values
35
36 16 will be hereinafter indicated as: D_{μ}^G , H_{μ}^G , BA^G , T_{pha}^G and QMD^G . Obtained values are
37
38 17 reported in Table 2.
39
40
41
42
43

44 [TABLE 2]
45
46
47

48 *ALS-based estimations*

49
50 21 Since dendrometric models were species-specific, we proceeded to map forest
51
52 22 vegetation by classifying a L8 OLI multispectral image. We looked for two classes:
53
54 23 broadleaves and conifers. More detailed species mapping was retained not reliable. The
55
56 24 training set for the Minimum Distance supervised classifier was generated by *region*
57
58 25 *growing* (similarity threshold equal to 0.9) starting from the position of the surveyed
59
60

1 151 plots centers. A total of 591 pixels were finally selected (322 for broadleaves and
2 269 for conifers). Classification overall accuracy was tested and resulted 90.2 %. Table
3 3 reports main statistics concerning Minimum Distance classification performance:
4 Producer's and User's Class accuracy, Class Commission and Class Omission.

5
6 [TABLE 3]

7 Once conifers and broadleaves forest areas were mapped, the inverse dendrometric
8 models (eq. 6) were applied specifically calibrated for both conifers "C" and
9 broadleaves "B". In table 4 model parameters and MAE are reported.

10
11 [TABLE 4]

12
13 Models were applied at single tree level (as detected by local maxima algorithm from
14 CHM). This made possible to compare ECDF of the explored forest estimates (see
15 forward on).

16 Mean descriptive statistics about D_{μ}^L , H_{μ}^L , BA^L , T_{pha}^L and QMD^L values for "C" and
17 "B" classes were also computed and reported in Tab.5.

18
19 [TABLE 5]

20 21 *Ground Vs ALS: testing consistency of measures*

22 A first result from ALS dataset was tree detection and positioning. We, firstly, tested
23 tree positions from LiDAR with the positions from ground survey. Consistency proved
24 to be very poor (example available in Supplemental-Figure 4), and it was probably
25 related to the low accuracy GNSS receiver used during plot surveys. Additionally, field

1 reports indicated that only plot center was surveyed by GNSS, while tree positions
2 inside the plots were measured using distance (m) and azimuth (degrees) from the plot
3 center. This processes may have degraded reliability of positioning. Moreover, since
4 plot center position was surveyed by a simple “pseudo-range” approach (C/A code
5 measurement), the reference point (center of plot) is known to have an accuracy of 5-10
6 m, making final tree positioning at the ground potentially unreliable.

7 Consequently, only an analysis concerning aggregated measures was possible.
8 Considering all trees falling in the sampled plots, the T_{pha} ECDFs from ground and from
9 ALS were computed and compared (Figure 5).

10
11 [FIGURE 5]

12
13 Underestimation of trees number from ALS is probably related to the low density of the
14 native point cloud where only trees belonging to the dominant layer of forest could be
15 detected.

16 To better evaluate a possible effect of this phenomenon we also computed and
17 compared ECDFs of H_{μ} and D_{μ} (at-plot-level aggregated measures) from both ground
18 data and LiDAR (Figure 6).

19
20 [FIGURE 6]

21
22 ALS proved to overestimate H_{μ} , placing the majority of plot mean heights lower than 27
23 m; conversely, mean heights from ground surveyed plots were mostly lower than 17 m.
24 Since D_{μ} estimation from ALS strictly depends on measured tree heights, ECDF of D_{μ}
25 was largely different for LiDAR and ground data, showing, again, a general

1 overestimation by ALS. ECDFs of BA and QMD from ground surveys and LiDAR were
2 also compared. Since computations directly involve diameter values and tree numbers
3 within plots, both BA and QMD from LiDAR resulted overestimated too (figure 7). BA
4 in particular confirms that LiDAR is especially limited when recording smallest trees
5 (i.e. smaller diameter values). In fact, overestimation of BA occurs only for its larger
6 values (i.e. of diameter) which, given the above mentioned limitations of ALS, has to be
7 more carefully considered.

8
9 [FIGURE 7]

10
11 According to this point of view, focusing on plot mean tree height, the difference
12 $\Delta H_{\mu} = H_{\mu}^L - H_{\mu}^G$ was computed, testing its value against the expected “best” accuracy for
13 tree height measures, i.e. intra-plot average variation of tree heights as computed from
14 ground observations ($\sigma_m^H = 2.86$ m). We found that in 89.1 % of plots ΔH_{μ} exceeded
15 σ_m^H . More complete statistics concerning all forest parameter estimations by ALS in
16 respect of ground measures are given in table 6.

17
18 [TABLE 6]

19
20 Measures at plot level contain some apparent paradoxes, in particular concerning the
21 relationship between ALS underestimation of tree number (T_{pha}) and overestimation of
22 BA (for higher diameter values) and QMD . The reading key, in author’s opinion, is
23 specifically resident in the only direct measure which is expected by LiDAR, i.e. tree
24 height. Presented data confirm that the most of estimations inconsistency is related to
25 this native error, that, in our case study determines important overestimates of heights.

1 This fact should strongly alert users in adopting low density ALS datasets, making clear
2 that an appropriate number of ground observations is however needed to avoid that such
3 effects lead to highly distorted measures. Consequently, if ground observations
4 (surveyed plots) are available, user has to adopt them to model *biases*, with special
5 concerns on tree height measures from ALS.

6 Summarizing, observed discrepancies between LiDAR and ground measures could be
7 related to the following two factors: a) tree density underestimation by LAS, which
8 inevitably conditions forest parameters computations, and b) possible *biases* affecting
9 native LiDAR point cloud.

10 We first explored tree density underestimation as possible reason of inconsistency. To
11 test this assumption, we forced ground plot tree density to be equal to the LiDAR
12 derived one (according to the strategy described in Materials and Method - *Ground vs*
13 *ALS: testing consistency of measures*). This determined that new values of H_{μ}^G and D_{μ}^G
14 were obtained (\hat{H}_{μ}^G and \hat{D}_{μ}^G). Analysis was accomplished only for heights and
15 diameters.

16 After reduction of ground detected trees, new MAE values resulted respectively 4.0 m
17 for heights and 0.19 m for diameters.

18 Results proved that tree density is a factor conditioning consistency between LiDAR
19 and ground tree parameters estimation. Nevertheless, once removed, residual
20 differences suggested that some further *biases* could affect native ALS measures. Bias
21 analysis was achieved by comparing ΔH_{μ} with H_{μ}^L by scatterplot. They showed a
22 coefficient of determination $R^2 = 0.65$ (i.e. $R = 0.80$), endorsing the hypothesis that a
23 systematic error could affect LAS original data. A logarithmic regression (eq. 9) was
24 used to model the existing *bias* (figure 8).

25

[FIGURE 8]

$$\varepsilon = \Delta H_{\mu} = 15.37 \cdot \ln (H_{\mu}^L) - 44.98 \quad (9)$$

where ε is the correction to apply to H_{μ}^L to minimize *bias*.

Tree height *bias* model was applied at-tree level. The height of all LAS-detected trees (H_t^L) in the whole CEF were corrected (eq. 10) and new plot height mean values (\hat{H}_{μ}^L) computed and compared with the ground surveyed ones (after tree number reduction).

$$\hat{H}_t^L = H_t^L - \varepsilon \quad (10)$$

New height differences $\hat{\Delta}H_{\mu} = (\hat{H}_{\mu}^L - \hat{H}_{\mu}^G)$ were computed together with correspondent MAE. Statistics showed that 94.35% of heights differences, after correction, were brought within “best accuracy” (σ_m^H). MAE was reduced to 1.32 m. Similarly, statistics concerning new diameter differences, $\hat{\Delta}D_{\mu} = (\hat{D}_{\mu}^L - \hat{D}_{\mu}^G)$, were calculated showing that 70.0 % of diameter differences, after correction, were brought within “best accuracy” (MAE^D). Diameter MAE was reduced from 0.19 m down to 0.08 m, greatly moving towards the “best expected accuracy” from dendrometric models.

After removing *bias* from LAS measures at-tree level, CEF was divided using a 30 m grid size graticule, computing, for each squared element, the correspondent height mean value (\hat{H}'_{μ}^L) and tree diameter mean value (\hat{D}'_{μ}^L) obtained considering all trees included in the element itself as detected by the Local Maxima algorithm.

ECFDs of ground- and LAS-derived (de-biased) measures were computed to test: a) if consistency ALS-derived tree heights and diameters was improved at plot level; b) if plot statistics from ground well represented the entire CEF. ECFDs are reported in figure 9.

1
2
3 1 [FIGURE 9]

4
5 2
6
7
8 3 Comparison demonstrated that, after *bias* removal and tree density correction, ECDFs
9
10 4 of ground- and ALS-derived measures were more consistent. Specifically focusing on
11
12 5 diameter values, residual inconsistency was probably due to limitation of the applied
13
14 6 inverse dendrometric model that was calibrated without separating all tree species
15
16
17 7 (calibration was at “B”/”C” class level). Given the strong improvement of LiDAR
18
19 8 estimates of tree diameters and heights at plot level after correction, new values of \widehat{BA}^L
20
21 9 and \widehat{QMD}^L were recomputed from unbiased \widehat{H}_t^L and \widehat{D}_t^L for all the cells of the graticule
22
23
24 10 covering the whole CEF. Figure 10 shows ECDFs of the new estimated parameters.
25
26
27 11

28
29 12 [FIGURE 10]

30
31 13
32
33
34 14 Figure 10 proves that BA and QMD estimates from ALS unbiased height tree
35
36 15 measurements are more and more consistent with the ground surveyed ones. To
37
38 16 quantify residual differences we computed MAE for both BA and QMD estimates that
39
40 17 resulted respectively 8.5 m²/ha and 6.0 cm.
41
42
43

44 18 **Conclusions**

45
46 19 This work was aimed at exploring potentialities and limits in forest parameter
47
48 20 estimation given by low density LiDAR point clouds jointly used with medium
49
50 21 resolution satellite data. Low density/resolution datasets are an important resource in
51
52 22 many fields since they are often available for free by public institutions and, generally,
53
54 23 can cover nation-wide areas. This work presents a simple and fast method to test ALS-
55
56 24 derived forest measures and propose a model to remove error *bias* potentially affecting
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 1 LiDAR point clouds. A low-density ALS point cloud and a freely available Landsat 8
4
5 2 OLI image were jointly used to accomplish this task. Landsat imagery was used to map
6
7 3 the area making possible to separate forest area where conifers prevailed from the one
8
9 4 where broadleaves are the majority. This made possible to calibrate and apply a different
10
11 5 dendrometric model to estimate tree diameter from height when deriving forest metrics
12
13 6 from LidAR. The following forest metrics were estimated, at both tree and plot level,
14
15 7 from the LAS dataset for the Cutfoot Sioux Experimental Forest (CEF) in northcentral
16
17 8 Minnesota (USA): tree height (m) and diameter (m), basal area (m^2/ha) and QMD (cm).
18
19 9 They were therefore tested against the available ground measures from 230 plots
20
21 10 located in the area. A comparison at the tree level was immediately abandoned since
22
23 11 ground measures positioning proved to be not accurate enough to recover a reliable
24
25 12 correspondence between LAS detected and ground observed trees. All comparisons
26
27 13 were therefore operated at plot level, by averaging local measures. Nevertheless, a not
28
29 14 negligible inconsistency was initially found. In particular, ALS-derived measures
30
31 15 proved to overestimate forest metrics and underestimate tree density. Accuracy of
32
33 16 estimates was measured by MAE that resulted surprisingly high: 7.22 m, 0.21 m, 14.26
34
35 17 m^2/ha , 0.22 cm for H_{μ} , D_{μ} , BA , and QMD respectively; differently, tree density from
36
37 18 LiDAR resulted greatly underestimated ($\Delta T_{pha} = 294.7$ trees). Trees density
38
39 19 underestimation was supposed to be related to the low density of point cloud, that
40
41 20 determines a weak capability of LiDAR to detect trees that do not belong to the forest
42
43 21 dominant layer. Inconsistency about forest metrics was, differently, supposed to be
44
45 22 related to a *bias* affecting the native ALS point cloud.

53 23 The first hypothesis was initially tested by statistically removing trees of the dominated
54
55 24 planes from the ground dataset. This determined that height and diameter MAE
56
57 25 significantly decreased to 4.0 m and 0.19 cm respectively. Residual errors, assumed to

1
2
3 1 be possibly related to a *bias* affecting the native LiDAR point cloud, were minimized by
4
5 2 modelling *bias* by an opportune “correction model”. MAE values decreased to 1.32 m,
6
7 3 0.08 m, 8.5 m²/ha, and 0.06.0 m for H_{μ} , D_{μ} , BA , and QMD , respectively. Significance
8
9 4 of diameter and height errors was tested against the expected reference accuracy,
10
11 5 finding that, after *bias* correction, significant errors were reduced to 5.65 % of the total
12
13 6 for tree height, and to 30% for diameter estimates. Diameter estimate revealed to be less
14
15 7 accurate; authors suppose that this can be mainly related to the way the diameter
16
17 8 estimate is obtained. It is worth to remind that diameter was computed by applying a
18
19 9 dendrometric model based on tree height estimate, whose calibration is given generally
20
21 10 for conifers and broadleaves, with no further specification in respect of the actual tree
22
23 11 species. Consequently, both error propagation of height estimate and model
24
25 12 approximation are expected to affect (negatively) final accuracy of diameter estimates.
26
27 13 We can therefore conclude that, when working with low density LAS point clouds, tree
28
29 14 height estimates at plot level are highly satisfying only after testing and modelling
30
31 15 eventual error *bias*. Conversely, diameter, basal area and QMD estimates majorly suffer
32
33 16 from uncertainty making desirable a higher point density and, probably, a better
34
35 17 mapping of tree species (wherever possible) than the one that a remote sensing based
36
37 18 one can generate. Further, authors retain that, in these conditions a tree level approach is
38
39 19 not proper, and all estimates over a wide area based on low density ALS point cloud,
40
41 20 can be reasonably given only at plot level. With these premises and under these
42
43 21 conditions, we can however admit that, low density ALS point clouds can drive to a
44
45 22 reasonable description and quantification of the main silvicultural metrics over wide
46
47 23 areas, addressing more conscious management policies.
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
601
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

References

- Aakala T., Fraver S., Palik B.J. and D'Amato A.W. 2012. Spatially random mortality in old-growth red pine forests of northern Minnesota. *Can. J. For. Res.-Rev. Can. Rech. For.*, 42: 899-907;
- Adams M.B., Loughry L. and Plaughter L. 2004. Experimental forests and ranges of the USDA Forest Service. USDA For. Serv. Gen. Technical Report, NE-321, 178;
- Andersen H.E., Reutebuch S.E. and McGaughey R.J., 2006. A rigorous assessment of tree height measurements obtained using airborne lidar and conventional field methods. *Canadian Journal of Remote Sensing*, 32 (5): 355-366;
- Baltsavias E.P., 1999. Airborne laser scanning: basic relations and formulas. *ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry & Remote Sensing*, 54: 199–214;
- Borgogno Mondino E., Fissore V., Lessio A. and Motta R. 2016. Are the new gridded DSM/DTMs of the Piemonte Region (Italy) proper for forestry? A fast and simple approach for a posteriori metric assessment. *iForest-Biogeosciences and Forestry*, 9 (6): 901-909;
- Bradford J.B. and Palik B.J. 2009. A comparison of thinning methods in red pine: consequences for stand-level growth and tree diameter. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*. 39: 489-496;
- Buckman R.E. 1964. Effects of prescribed burning on hazel in Minnesota. *Ecology*, 45: 626-629;

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1 Coveney S. 2013. Association of elevation error with surface type, vegetation class and
2 data origin in discrete-returns airborne LiDAR, *International Journal of*
3 *Geographical Information Science*, 27 (3): 467-483;
- 4 D'Amato A.W., Palik B.J. and Kern, C.C. 2010. Growth, yield, and structure of
5 extended rotation *Pinus resinosa* stands in Minnesota, USA. *Canadian Journal of*
6 *Forest Research*, 40: 1000-1010;
- 7 Dubayah R. and Drake J., 2000. LiDAR remote sensing for forestry applications.
8 *Journal of Forestry*, 98: 44-46;
- 9 Edson C. and Wing M.G., 2011. Airborne Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) for
10 individual tree stem location, height, and biomass measurements. *Remote*
11 *Sensing*, 3: 2494-2528;
- 12 Falkowski M. J., Smith A. M. S., Hudak A. T., Gessler P. E., Vierling, L. A. and
13 Crookston N. L. 2006. Automated estimation of individual conifer tree height
14 and crown diameter via two-dimensional spatial wavelet analysis of lidar data.
15 *Canadian Journal of Remote Sensing*, 32 (2): 153-161;
- 16 Falkowski M. J., Smith A. M. S., Gessler P. E., Hudak A. T., Vierling L. A. and Evans
17 J. S. 2008. The influence of conifer forest canopy cover on the accuracy of two
18 individual tree measurement algorithms using lidar data. *Canadian Journal of*
19 *Remote Sensing*, 34 (2): S338-S350;
- 20 Fraver S. and Palik, B.J. 2012. Stand and cohort structures of old-growth *Pinus*
21 *resinosa*-dominated forests of northern Minnesota, USA. *J. Veg. Sci.*, 23: 249-
22 259;
- 23 Gatzolis D. and Andersen H.- E. 2008. A guide to LIDAR data acquisition and
24 processing for the forests of the Pacific Northwest. Gen. Technical Report.

- 1
2
3 1 PNW-GTR-768. Portland, OR: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service,
4
5 2 Pacific Northwest Research Station;
6
7
8 3 Hinsley S., Hill R., Gaveau D. and Bellamy P. 2002. Quantifying woodland structure
9
10 4 and habitat quality for birds using airborne laser scanning. *Functional Ecology*,
11
12 5 16 (6): 851- 857;
13
14 6 Hopkinson C., Chasmer L., Young-Pow,C. and Treitz P. 2004. Assessing forest metrics
15
16 7 with a ground-based scanning lidar. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, 34
17
18 8 (3): 573-583;
19
20 9 Hyyppä H., Yu X., Hyyppä J., Kaartinen H., Kaasalainen S., Honkavaara E. and
21
22 10 Rönholm P. 2005. Factors affecting the quality of DTM generation in forested
23
24 11 areas. ISPRS Workshop "Laser scanning 2005", Enschede, the Netherlands;
25
26 12 Latifi H., Fassnacht F.E., Müller J., Tharani A., Dech S. and Heurich M. 2015. Forest
27
28 13 inventories by LiDAR data: A comparison of single tree segmentation and
29
30 14 metric-based methods for inventories of a heterogeneous temperate forest.
31
32 15 *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation* 42:
33
34 16 162–174;
35
36 17 McRoberts R., Tomppo E. and Næsset E. 2010. Advances and emerging issues in
37
38 18 national forest inventories. *Scandinavian Journal of Forest Research*, 25 (4):
39
40 19 368-381;
41
42 20 Means J., Acker S., Fitt B., Renslow M., Emerson L. and Hendrix C., 2000. Predicting
43
44 21 forest stand characteristics with airborne scanning lidar. *Photogrammetric*
45
46 22 *Engineering and Remote Sensing*, 66 (11): 1367-1371;
47
48 23 **Montagnoli A., Fusco S., Terzagni M., Kirschbaum A., Pflugmacher D., Cohen W. B.,**
49
50 24 **Scippa G. S. and Chiatante D., 2015. Estimating forest aboveground biomass by**
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

low density lidar data in mixed broadleaved forests in the Italian Pre-Alps.

Forest Ecosystem, 2:10;

Morsdorf F., Meier E., Kötz B., Itten K., Dobbertin M. and Allgöwer B. 2004. Lidar-based geometric reconstruction of boreal type forest stands at single tree level for forest and wildland fire management. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 92 (3): 353-362;

Perala D. A. and Alban D. H. 1993. Allometric Biomass Estimators for Aspen-biased Ecosystems In The Upper Great Lakes. Res. Pap. NC-314. St. Paul, MN: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, North Central Forest Experiment Station, 38;

Popescu S.C. 2007. Estimating biomass of individual pine trees using airborne lidar. *Biomass and Bioenergy*, 31 (9); 646-655;

Popescu S.C. and Zhao K. 2008. A voxel-based lidar method for estimating crown base height for deciduous and pine trees. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 112 (3): 767-781;

Reitberger J., Schnörr Cl., Krzystek P. and Stilla U. 2009. 3D segmentation of single trees exploiting full waveform LIDAR data. *ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing*, 64: 561-574;

Riaño D., Valladares F., Condés S. and Chuvieco E. 2004. Estimation of leaf area index and covered ground from airborne laser scanner (lidar) in two contrasting forests. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, 124 (3-4): 269-275;

Richards J.A. 1999. *Remote Sensing Digital Image Analysis*. Springer-Verlag. Berlin, 240;

Saremi H., Kumar L., Stone C., Melville G. and Turner R. 2014. Sub-compartment variation in tree height, stem diameter and stocking in a *Pinus radiata* D. Don

- 1
2
3 1 Plantation examined using airborne LiDAR data. *Remote Sensing*, 6 (8): 7592-
4
5 2 7609;
6
7
8 3 Schenk T., 2001. Modeling and analyzing systematic errors in airborne laser scanners,
9
10 4 Technical Report in Photogrammetry No. 19, Ohio State University.
11
12 5 Suratno A., Seielstad C. and Queen L., 2009. Tree species identification in mixed
13
14 6 coniferous forest using airborne laser scanning. *Journal of Photogrammetry and*
15
16 7 *Remote Sensing* 64: 683-693;
17
18
19 8 VanderSchaaf C. L. 2012. Mixed-Effects Height-Diameter Models for Commercially
20
21 9 and Ecologically Important Conifers in Minnesota. *Northern Journal of Applied*
22
23 10 *Forestry*, 29 (1): 15-20.
24
25
26 11 Woudenberg S.W., Conkling B.L., O'Connell B.M., Lapoint E.B., Turner J.A. and
27
28 12 Waddell K.L. 2010. The Forest Inventory and Analysis Database: Database
29
30 13 description and user's manual version 4.0 for Phase 2., US For. Serv. Gen.
31
32 14 Technical Report RMRS-GTR-245.
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Figures

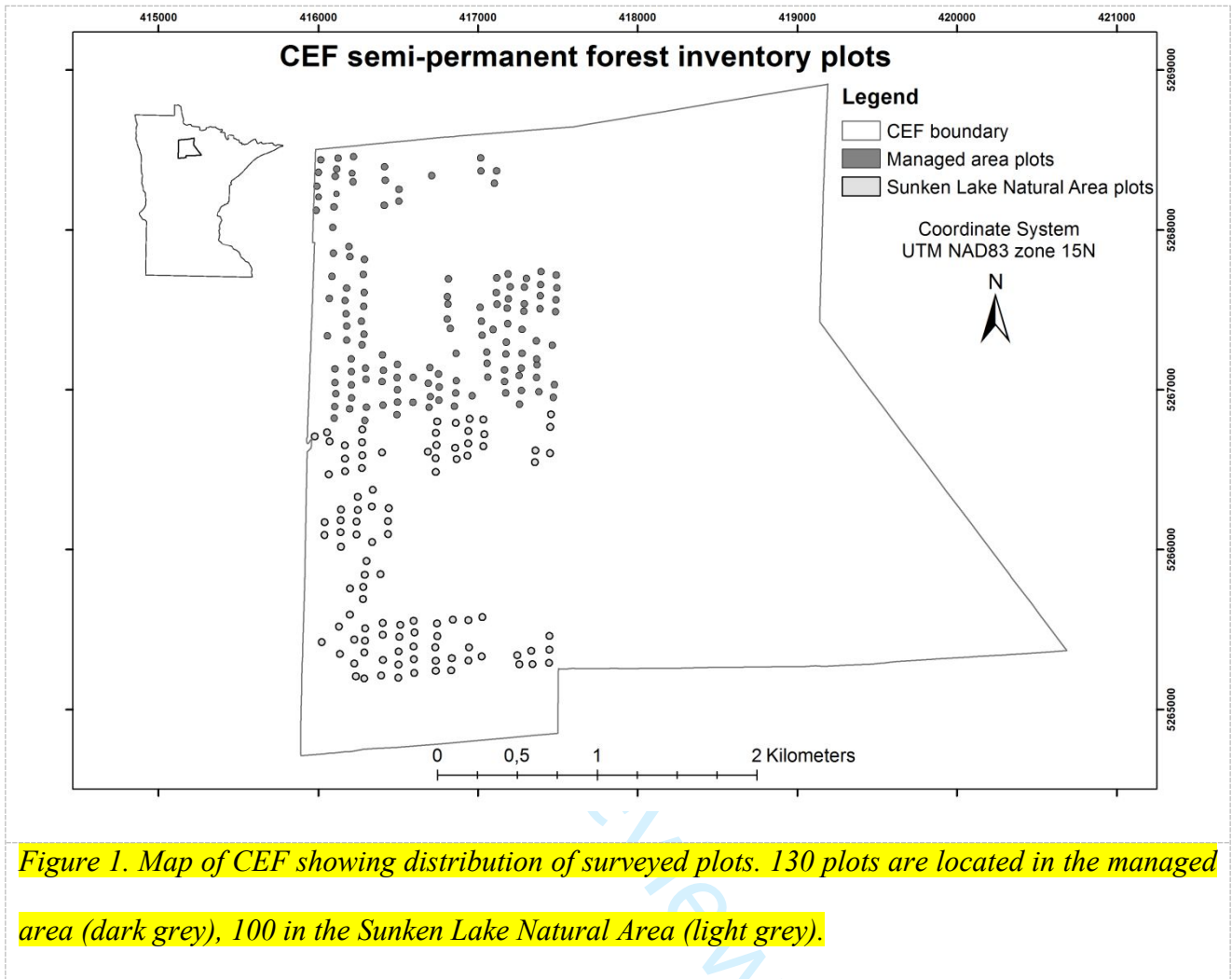


Figure 1. Map of CEF showing distribution of surveyed plots. 130 plots are located in the managed area (dark grey), 100 in the Sunken Lake Natural Area (light grey).

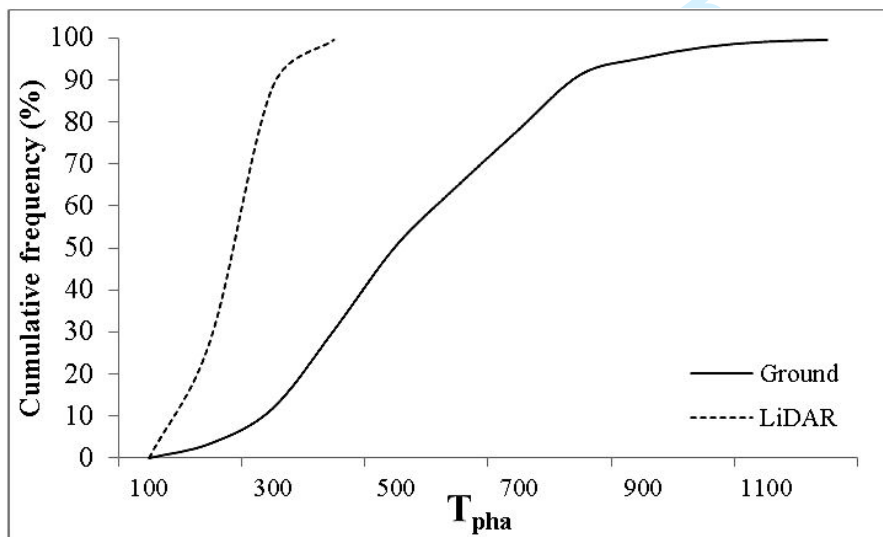


Figure 5. ECDF of ground- (solid line) and LiDAR-derived (dotted line) T_{pha} , built

considering values for all assessed plot (151).

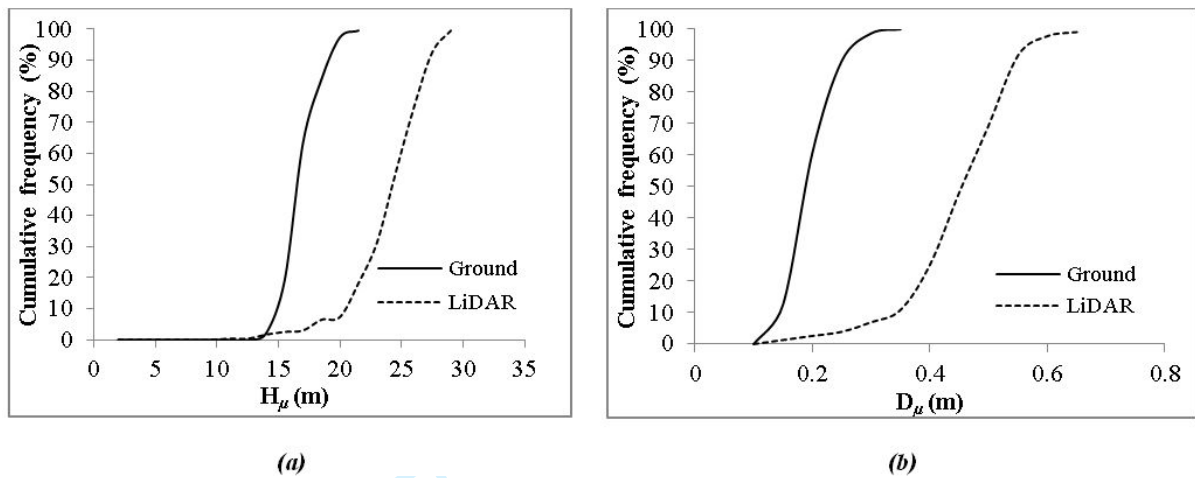


Figure 6. ECDFs. (a) plot mean tree height and (b) plot mean tree diameter from ground (solid line) and LiDAR (dotted line).

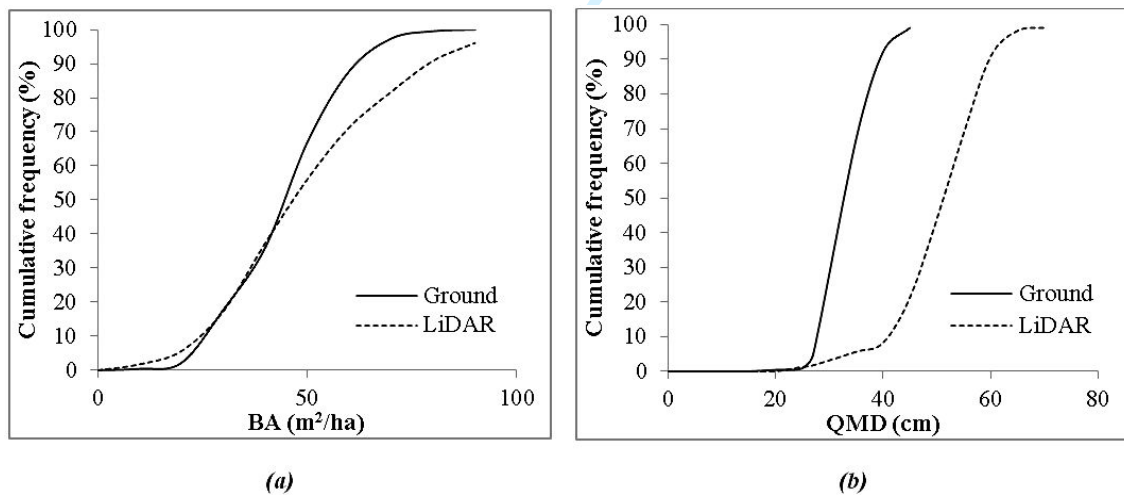


Figure 7. ECDFs. (a) BA and (b) QMD from ground (solid line) and from LiDAR (dotted line).

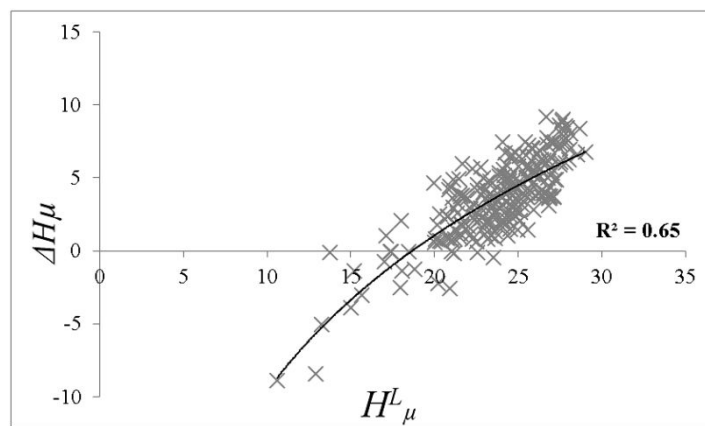


Figure 8. Bias trend modeling. The relationship linking ΔH_μ (height difference between ground- and LiDAR-derived measures) and H_μ^L (plot average tree height from LiDAR) was approximated by a logarithmic regression.

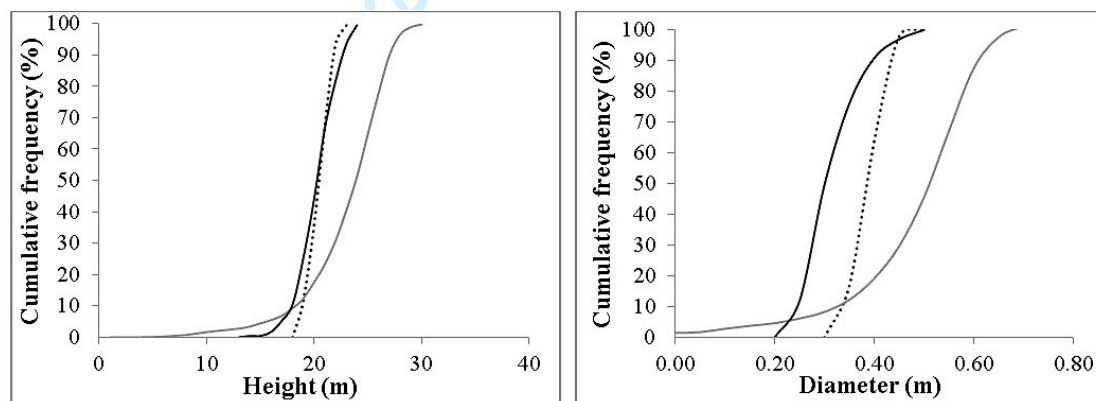


Figure 9. (a) ECDF of \hat{H}_μ^G (black solid line, ground-derived at-plot level tree height estimates after reduction), H_μ^L (grey line, LiDAR-derived at-plot level tree height estimates before bias removal) and \hat{H}_μ^L (dotted black line, LiDAR-derived at-plot level tree height estimates after bias removal); (b) ECDF of \hat{D}_μ^G (black solid line, ground-derived at-plot level tree diameter estimates after reduction), D_μ^L (grey line, LiDAR-derived at-plot level tree diameter estimates before bias removal) and \hat{D}_μ^L (dotted black line, LiDAR-derived at-plot level tree diameter estimates after bias removal).

G = ground; L = LiDAR.

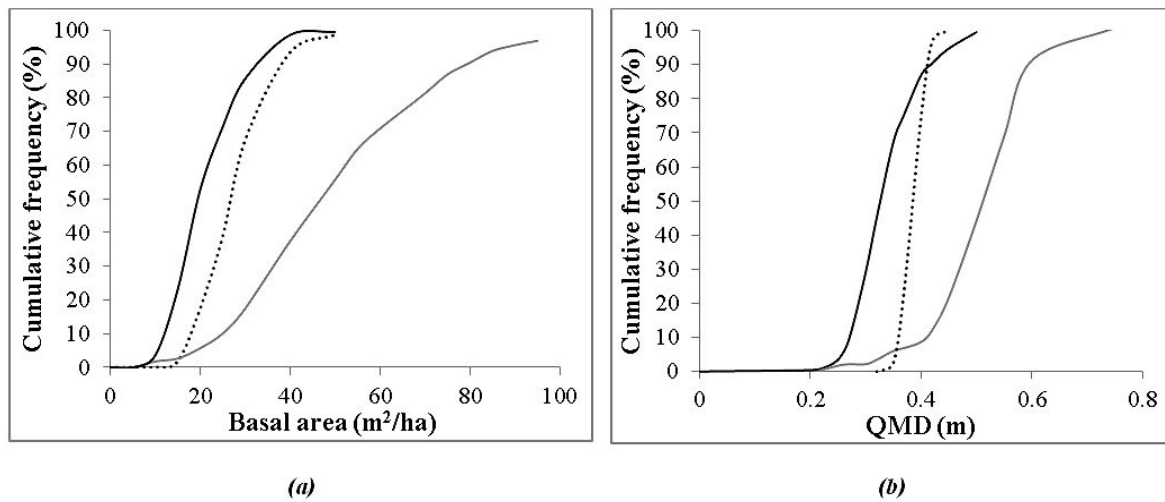


Figure 10. (a) ECDF of ground derived BA^G (black solid line), LiDAR-derived BA^L before (grey line) and \widehat{BA}^L after (dotted black line) correction; (b) ECDF of field QMD^G (black solid line), LiDAR-derived QMD^L before (grey line) and \widehat{QMD}^L after (dotted black line) correction. Note that ECDFs from ground estimates refer just to the plot, while ECDFs from LiDAR estimates concern all CEF (calculated at plot level considering a 30x30 grid cell). G=ground, L =LiDAR.

Table 1. Dendrometric model parameters (a_s and b_s in eq.1) estimated by OLS for the considered tree species with reference to the US FIA database. MAE^H defines the accuracy of the estimated tree height. R is the computed Pearson's coefficient for estimated and observed measures. $\sigma^H_{species}$ defines the intra-species variability of tree height estimates. In the first column it is reported, for the considered species, the macro class it was assigned to (B=Broadleaves; C=Conifers). H = tree height.

Assigned Class	N. of trees	Species	a_s	b_s	MAE^H (m)	R	$\sigma^H_{species}$ (m)
C	457	Balsam fir (<i>Abies balsamea</i>)	44.926	0.758	1.19	0.99	2.38
C	792	Eastern white pine (<i>Pinus strobus</i>)	39.528	0.683	2.03	0.99	3.49
C	903	Jack pine (<i>Pinus banksiana</i>)	44.925	0.730	1.48	0.98	2.84
B	411	Northern red oak (<i>Quercus rubra</i>)	30.815	0.496	1.38	0.97	3.41
B	1830	Paper birch (<i>Betula papyrifera</i>)	31.658	0.504	1.54	0.94	3.09
B	380	Quaking aspen (<i>Populus tremuloides</i>)	36.966	0.530	1.42	0.97	3.12
C	4584	Red pine (<i>Pinus resinosa</i>)	40.005	0.737	2.05	0.98	3.27

Table 2. Mean values of forest parameters at macro-class level ("B" = Broadleaves and "C" = Conifers). $\overline{\sigma_H}$; $\overline{\sigma_D}$; $\overline{\sigma_{BA}}$; $\overline{\sigma_{QMD}}$ are the average values of standard deviations of plots for each computed parameter defining its intra-class average variation. T^G_{pha} = plots mean tree density; H^G_{μ} = plot average tree height; D^G_{μ} = plot average tree diameter; BA^G = Plot total basal area; QMD^G = plot quadratic mean diameter. G = ground; L = LiDAR.

	N. of Plots	T^G_{pha} (n tree/ha)	H^G_{μ} (m)		D^G_{μ} (m)		BA^G (m ² /ha)		QMD^G (cm)	
			Mean	$\overline{\sigma_H}$	Mean	$\overline{\sigma_D}$	Mean	$\overline{\sigma_{BA}}$	Mean	$\overline{\sigma_{QMD}}$
"C"	97	590.73	17.0	4.34	0.30	0.11	49.35	11.71	33.34	4.27
"B"	54	414.56	16.71	4.02	0.29	0.10	34.82	10.71	33.36	4.48

Table 3. Accuracy values of classification obtained from the available Landsat 8 OLI multispectral image..

	<i>Conifer</i>	<i>Broadleaves</i>
Producer Class Accuracy	89.5 %	91.4 %
User Class Accuracy	99.4 %	100.0 %
Class Commission	0.6 %	0.0 %
Class Omission	10.5 %	7.7 %

Table 4. Dendrometric model parameters (for LiDAR-derived measures, from height measures to diameter estimates) separately estimated by OLS for broadleaves and conifers. MAE^D , R and $\sigma^D_{species}$ diameter estimates statistics are reported too (D =diameter). MAE^D defines the accuracy of the estimated tree diameter from LiDAR. R is the Pearson's coefficient for estimated and observed measures. $\sigma^D_{species}$ defines the intra-species variability of tree diameter estimates.

Class	a_s	b_s	MAE^D (m)	R	$\sigma^D_{species}$ (m)
"C"	-5.156	1.388	0.045	0.985	0.006
"B"	-6.957	1.983	0.068	0.960	0.006

Table 5. Mean values of forest parameters at macro-class level ("B" = Broadleaves and "C" = Conifers) as resulting from LiDAR data. $\overline{\sigma_H}$; $\overline{\sigma_D}$; $\overline{\sigma_{BA}}$; $\overline{\sigma_{QMD}}$ are the average values of standard deviations of plots for each computed parameter defining its intra-class average variation. T^L_{pha} = plots mean tree density; H^L_{μ} = plot average tree height; D^L_{μ} = plot average tree diameter; BA^L = Plot total basal area; QMD^L = plot quadratic mean diameter.

Area	T^L_{pha} (n.tree/ha)	H^L_{μ} (m)		D^L_{μ} (m)		BA^L (m ² /ha)		QMD^L (cm)	
		Mean	$\overline{\sigma_H}$	Mean	$\overline{\sigma_D}$	Mean	$\overline{\sigma_{BA}}$	Mean	$\overline{\sigma_{QMD}}$
"C"	246.89	24.73	2.20	0.51	0.06	53.22	19.76	52.0	6.58
"B"	216.47	22.13	2.98	0.47	0.12	43.82	24.45	48.97	10.78

Table 6. Percentages of plots over/under –estimating H_{μ} , D_{μ} , BA , T_{pha} and QMD from LiDAR in respect of the ground surveyed ones.

	<i>Overestimation by LiDAR</i>	<i>Underestimation by LiDAR</i>	<i>MAE</i>
	<i>Plots (%)</i>		
<i>T_{pha} (trees num.)</i>	3.1	96.9	294.73
<i>H_□ (m)</i>	96.5	3.5	7.22
<i>D_□ (m)</i>	97.0	3.0	0.21
<i>BA (m²/ha)</i>	54.7	45.2	14.26
<i>QMD (cm)</i>	95.6	4.75	0.22

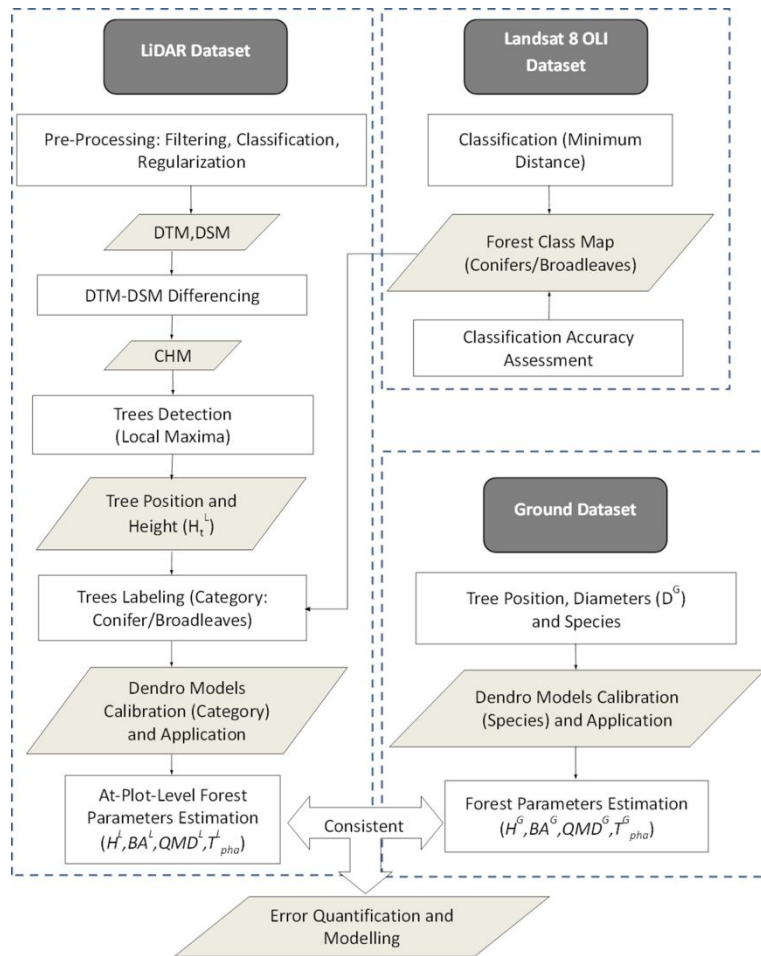


Figure 2. Flowchart showing LiDAR and ground data main processing steps for forest parameters computation.

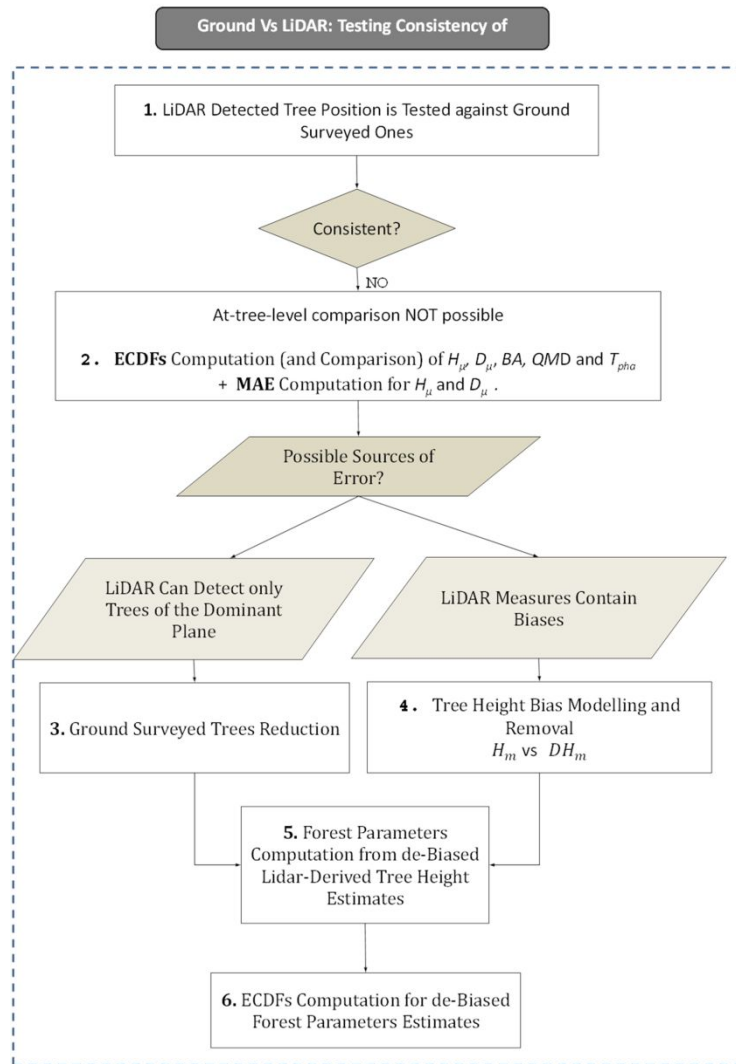


Figure 3. Flowchart showing processing steps of accuracy assessment aimed at improving consistency between LAS and ground derived forest measures in the Cutfoot Sioux Experimental Forest.

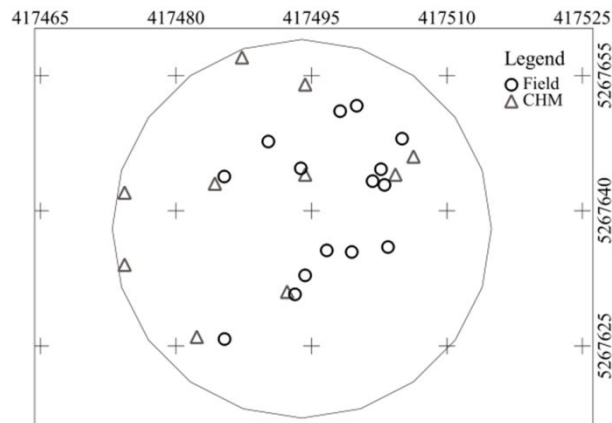


Figure 4. Example plot (n. 2019) showing spatial inconsistency between tree positions from ground survey (black spots) and LiDAR detection by Local Maxima algorithm (grey triangles).