

**GLAMOUR:
GLobAI building MORphology dataset for URban hydroclimate modelling**

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Statement

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1 GLAMOUR: 2 GLobAI building MOrphology dataset for URban 3 hydroclimate modelling

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9 ABSTRACT

Understanding building morphology is crucial for accurately simulating interactions between urban structures and hydroclimate dynamics. Despite significant efforts to generate detailed global building morphology datasets, there is a lack of practical solutions using publicly accessible resources. In this work, we present GLAMOUR, a dataset derived from open-source Sentinel imagery that captures the average building height and footprint at a 100 m resolution across urbanized areas worldwide. Validated in 18 cities, GLAMOUR exhibits superior accuracy with median root mean square errors of 7.5 m and 0.14 for building height and footprint estimations, indicating better overall performance against existing published datasets. The GLAMOUR dataset provides essential morphological information of 3D building structures and can be integrated with other datasets and tools for a wide range of applications including 3D building model generation and urban morphometric parameter derivation. These extended applications enable refined hydroclimate simulation and hazard assessment on a broader scale and offer valuable insights for researchers and policymakers in building sustainable and resilient urban environments prepared for future climate adaptation.

11 Background & Summary

12 As our planet grapples with increasing unprecedented hydroclimate hazards induced by climate change, it is essential to
13 understand the spatiotemporal intertwining between intensifying extreme events and evolving human settlements, especially in
14 urbanized area¹. Buildings, a ubiquitous form of infrastructure in cities, exhibit morphological characteristics that are crucial
15 for devising effective climate-responsive strategies, including future-oriented hydrometeorological simulations^{2,3}, disaster risk
16 assessments⁴, and the planning of sustainable cities⁵. Numerous studies have aimed to quantify the horizontal spread of urban
17 areas and track changes in human settlement boundaries globally over decades⁶.

18 However, refined representation of the complex urban environment also necessitates the incorporation of detailed information
19 about the vertical dimension of buildings⁵. Thus, there have been increasing efforts concerning creating large-scale datasets
20 of 3D building morphology. Biljecki *et al.*⁷ designed a comprehensive list of building-related morphological indicators and
21 implemented a corresponding open-source computational solution based on spatially enabled PostgreSQL database composed of
22 OpenStreetMap buildings (OSM). However, a recent investigation⁵ reveals that for 69.5% of urban agglomerations worldwide,
23 the completeness of OSM data remains below 20%, thus limiting its global applicability. Thanks to the emergence of publicly
24 available and globally distributed satellite imagery, various research has focused on large-scale 3D building structure mapping
25 based on remote sensing based data sources. One straightforward approach is to derive building height as the normalized
26 digital surface model (nDSM) defined by the difference between the corresponding digital terrain model (DTM) and the digital
27 surface model (DSM)⁸. Since most global DEM datasets fall towards the DSM side which detects the elevation of the surface
28 canopy composed of vegetation and man-made structures⁹, the key challenge here is to produce an accurate representation of
29 the terrain ground. While some algorithms have been developed to discern the top and bottom sections of buildings through
30 morphological operations on global DSM datasets (e.g., ALOS AW3D30^{10,11}), the limited spatial resolution of publicly
31 accessible topographical data often conflates building height with ground elevation in its measurements and thus introduces
32 significant uncertainty when attempting to deduce building heights from these amalgamated figures using straightforward
33 mathematical transformations. Esch *et al.*¹² improved nDSM-based approaches by local height variation analysis aiming
34 to find vertical edges in 12 m TanDEM-X DEM as building outlines and finally generated the World Settlement Footprint
35 3D (WSF3D), which is the first globally consistent three-dimensional building morphology dataset. However, even by 12 m
36 pixel spacing, WSF3D is still prone to produce smoothed height edges and therefore requires empirical post-processing using

37 preassigned correction factors to mitigate the underestimation issues in the original building height values.

38 Considering potential bottlenecks in directly mapping from medium-resolution topographic data, various studies have
39 proposed machine-learning-based (ML) approaches to establish a statistical regression relationship between multi-source data
40 and the 3D structure of buildings. Li *et al.*¹³ fused optical, Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) images and corresponding derived
41 indices by the Random Forest (RF) model and generated continental-scale 3D building structures for Europe, the United
42 States and China at 1000 m resolution. Considering that training ML models requires numerous reference samples, Ma *et*
43 *al.*¹⁴ proposed to improve their spatiotemporal consistency and retrieval efficiency with GEDI-derived relative height samples
44 using large-scale spaceborne lidar measurement and produced a 150-m building height map in China's urban agglomerations
45 by the RF model. Regardless of their high interpretability and convenient deployment through cloud platforms like Google
46 Earth Engine (GEE), traditional ML models tend to suffer saturation problems in the high value region^{15,16}, which promotes
47 the development of more advanced deep-learning-based (DL) models in 3D building morphology mapping¹⁷⁻¹⁹. However, a
48 global-scale building morphology dataset at a finer resolution remains absent, lacking both open-source solutions and practical
49 DL-based engineering pipelines.

50 We introduce GLAMOUR – GLOBAl building MORphology dataset for URban hydroclimate modelling – a comprehensive
51 dataset featuring average building footprint and height data at a resolution of 0.0009° (approximately 100 m at the equator)
52 across 13189 urban areas globally as of 2020. This dataset optimally leverages multi-task DL (MTDL) models, publicly
53 accessible satellite images in conjunction with the Google Cloud ecosystem to enable efficient and accurate large-scale mapping.
54 This up-to-date building morphology dataset provides an unprecedented possibility for enabling various urban hydroclimate
55 applications at a global scale, including human thermal comfort simulation²⁰, building energy modelling²¹, 3D flood risk
56 analysis²² among others. Additionally, we offer open access to the code for the generation of this dataset through the SHAFTS
57 package¹⁶, which allows interested users to employ our optimized pipelines to regions of interest (ROI) with the latest released
58 satellite datasets.

59 Methods

60 Production workflow

61 In the context of GLAMOUR, following previous research on building morphology mapping^{2,7,15}, we define the average
62 building footprint λ_p and height H_{avg} as follows:

$$\lambda_p = \frac{\sum A_i}{A_T} \quad (1)$$

$$H_{\text{avg}} = \frac{\sum A_i \cdot h_i}{\sum A_i} \quad (2)$$

63 where A_T is the total area of a single grid, A_i is the intersection area of the building i with the grid, h_i is the height of building i .

64 The GLAMOUR production workflow consists of three stages (Figure 1):

- 65 • **Target area identification:** Given the target group being the urban hydroclimate modelling community, the focus of
66 GLAMOUR is set to urbanized areas outlined by the Gridded Population of the World, Version 4 (GPWv4) dataset²³
67 and the Global Human Settlement-Urban Centre Database (GHS-UCDB)²⁴. Specifically, adhering to the concept of the
68 Degree of Urbanisation approved by the 51st Session of the United Nations Statistical Commission²⁵, we first construct
69 spatial grids of 0.09° across the globe and then identify a grid as a potential urbanized area if it satisfies at least one of the
70 following conditions: a) it intersects with 13189 urban centers defined by the GHS-UCDB; or b) its population density
71 exceeds 300 people per km² based on the GPWv4 dataset. We then further smooth the boundary formed by originally
72 identified grids using a morphological closing operation with 3 × 3 rectangular kernels²⁶, which finalizes the mapping
73 extent of ROIs considered in the GLAMOUR dataset.
- 74 • **Explanatory variable retrieval:** To enable open research, we select publicly accessible satellite images as explanatory
75 variables, including: (1) VV and VH polarizations from Sentinel-1 Ground Range Detected (GRD) data²⁷, (2) red, green,
76 blue and the near infra-red (NIR) band from Sentinel-2 Bottom-Of-Atmosphere (BOA) reflectance data²⁸, (3) DSM
77 data including NASADEM data for low- and mid-latitude areas(-60.0° < latitude < 60.0°)²⁹, and Copernicus DEM data
78 for the remaining part³⁰ (cf. Table 1). All images have been preprocessed by GEE and can be accessed via its Python
79 interface. We then retrieve them by spatiotemporal filtering and aggregation to minimize the undesirable effects caused
80 by non-man-made elements and cloud blockage (details refer to [the later section on processing explanatory variables](#)).

After retrieving DSM data and Sentinel-1/2 images from GEE's image collections, we crop them into $0.0018^\circ \times 0.0018^\circ$ patches centered on each $0.0009^\circ \times 0.0009^\circ$ target pixel. In order to improve the efficiency of subsequent model estimation by batch processing, these 6-band patches are then organized into an array of 100×100 covering a geospatial extent of $0.09^\circ \times 0.09^\circ$. Finally, each array is exported as a single TFRecord in the Google Cloud Storage (GCS), ensuring efficient encoding and convenient access for downstream models³¹. To establish a streamlined engineering pipeline for 3D building morphology mapping, we implemented the aforementioned procedures using GEE's Python interface, which allows for optimized execution in a regular routine.

- **MTDL-based morphology estimation:** After exporting satellite image patches as TFRecords in GCS, we estimate λ_p and H_{avg} in the target urbanized area by applying an enhanced MTDL model from the SHAFTS package¹⁶ on multi-band patches (details refer to [the later section on the MTDL enhancement](#)). The enhanced MTDL model can achieve simultaneous estimation of building height and footprint using Sentinel imagery and elevation data.

To further refine the representation of urban boundaries in the final product, we perform pixel masking on the initial mapping results by combining the predicted building morphology maps with the World Settlement Footprint layer for 2019 (WSF2019)⁶. To be specific, we exclude a pixel from the original prediction in the GLAMOUR dataset if neither of the following conditions is satisfied:

- predicted λ_p is higher than 0.25.
- more than 20% area is identified as settlement area based on the spatial aggregation results of WSF2019.

After obtaining 3D building morphology of $0.09^\circ \times 0.09^\circ$ from each TFRecord, we further mosaic them into larger tiles of $9^\circ \times 9^\circ$ to ensure easy accessibility of the dataset for potential users.

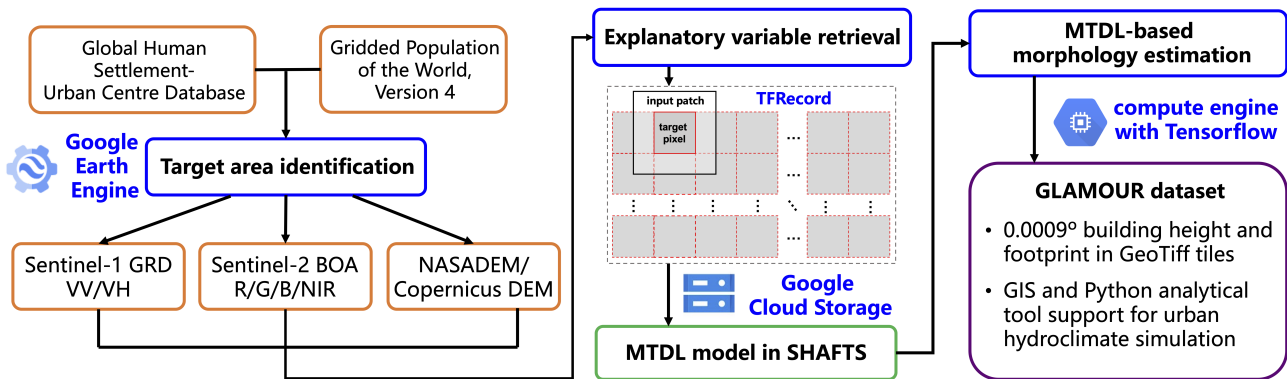


Figure 1. Production workflow of GLAMOUR

Processing of explanatory variables

In contrast to static DSM data, Sentinel-1/2 images are regularly acquired by corresponding satellites and thus necessitate appropriate aggregation operations prior to their integration into subsequent estimation models¹⁵. Sentinel-1 GRD data are collected as SAR measurements and can provide reliable all-weather day-and-night imaging of surface backscattering characteristics influenced by factors including material types and vertical structures³².

To mitigate the confounding impact caused by non-man-made elements such as vegetation on building height estimation, we select Sentinel-1 data in the winter season based on the geolocations of ROIs¹³ and aggregate them into the mean value of the corresponding period. For areas uncovered by Sentinel-1 GRD data in winter, we progressively extend the timeframe to include the autumn, spring and summer seasons.

In addition to Sentinel-1 GRD data, we also collect the Sentinel-2 BOA data to capture a more holistic view of the urban landscape through the combination of multi-modal sensors. However, the optical sensors of Sentinel-2 often encounters issues of cloud blockage, which prevent them from clear imaging. To ensure cloud-free Sentinel-2 images for our global mapping tasks, we utilize an aggregation-based engineering approach³³ to create high-quality mosaics from multi-temporal Sentinel-2 imagery in an automated workflow. To be specific, we filter Sentinel-2 images by the maximum allowable cloud coverage ratio of ROIs or select them based on corresponding quality scores when suitable images are scarce. Once we've gathered the desired images, we proceed to mosaic and crop them to fit within the boundaries of the ROI.

Data	Type	Resolution	Source
GHS-UCDB data	vector	/	https://ghsl.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ghs_stat_ucdb2015mt_r2019a.php
GPWv4 data	raster	1 km	https://sedac.ciesin.columbia.edu/data/collection/gpw-v4
Sentinel-1 GRD data	raster	10 m	https://documentation.dataspace.copernicus.eu/Data/Sentinel1.html
Sentinel-2 BOA data	raster	10 m	https://documentation.dataspace.copernicus.eu/Data/Sentinel2.html
NASADEM data	raster	30 m	https://cmr.earthdata.nasa.gov/search/concepts/C1546314043-LPDAAC_ECS.html
Copernicus DEM data	raster	30 m	https://spacedata.copernicus.eu/collections/copernicus-digital-elevation-model

Table 1. Datasets used in the GLAMOUR production.

116 Enhancement to the MTDL model in SHAFTS

117 Building upon the initial development of SHAFTS, we enlarge our original reference dataset to 116 sample sites including
118 35 uninhabited sites with zero building footprint and height values which aims to enhance the identification capability of the
119 MTDL model on possible non-man-made vertical objects. Moreover, considering the potential underestimation problem in
120 dense and tall buildings caused by the imbalanced data distribution, we aggregate training samples into specific intervals and
121 then reweight them with the cubic root of their inverse frequency³⁴. For sample aggregation, we set the bin width of 5 m and
122 0.1 for the task of building height and footprint prediction, respectively. Thus, the final training process can be divided into two
123 phases: first, we train all parameters of the MTDL model for 155 epochs using unweighted samples to guarantee the model
124 convergence; then, we finetune the parameters of the last fully-connected layers in the converged MTDL model with weighted
125 samples through an additional 155-epoch training period.

126 Data Records

127 GLAMOUR dataset can be accessed at Li *et al.*³⁵. This dataset is divided into two subsets for the average building footprint
128 and height at the resolution of 0.0009° (around 100 m at the equator), respectively. Each subset comprises 261 GeoTiff tiles on
129 9° grids and can be further visualized and processed in geographic information system (GIS) software. Figure 2 provides a
130 comprehensive view of the 3D morphological characteristics of buildings resolved by the GLAMOUR dataset in global urban
131 centers defined in the GHS-UCDB as well as several close-up figures to cities located on different continents including New
132 York, London, Guangzhou, Sao Paulo, Cairo and Jakarta.

133 Technical Validation

134 To examine the quality of the GLAMOUR dataset, we conduct validation procedures by quantifying its error against
135 available reference datasets and comparing the corresponding performance with a recently released dataset WSF3D¹²
136 (<https://download.geoservice.dlr.de/WSF3D/files/>), which has a similar spatial coverage and a close representative year
137 to the current work and a relatively representative year. Considering the current availability of reference data and the previous
138 accuracy assessment of MTDL models in SHAFTS¹⁶, we select 18 cities for the validation of the GLAMOUR dataset, including
139 8 cities from China, 1 city from Rwanda and 9 cities from European countries. It should be highlighted that all selected cities are
140 excluded from the stage of model development including model training and hyperparameter finetuning. Thus, this validation
141 can offer a comprehensive assessment of the generalization ability of the MTDL model with respect to the task of global
142 building morphology mapping. Regarding the choice of reference datasets, we select EUBUCCO (v0.1)³⁶ in Europe and
143 include target countries where more than 95% buildings have available height attributes. In China, we select the building layer
144 from the Baidu map service (www.map.baidu.com) as the source of reference data where building height is derived from the
145 number of floors assuming that each floor is 3.0 m^{17,37}. Visual representations of the estimated building height and footprint in
146 18 cities can be found in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4, respectively.

147 Overall performance comparison

148 To quantify the overall performance of the GLAMOUR dataset, we select several error metrics, including the Root Mean
149 Square Error (RMSE), Mean Error (ME), Pearson correlation coefficient (CC), each defined as follows:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{ME} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - y_i) \quad (4)$$

$$CC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (\hat{y}_i - \bar{\hat{y}})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \quad (5)$$

150 where y, \hat{y} denote the reference values and predicted values from datasets including GLAMOUR and WSF3D. $\bar{y}, \bar{\hat{y}}$ are the mean
 151 value of y, \hat{y} . N is the number of pixels in the mapping area.

Table 2. Validation results for the building footprint (λ_p), building height (H_{avg}) in 18 reference sites where the suffix of "G" and "W" denote the GLAMOUR and WSF3D dataset, respectively.

Reference Site	H_{avg} [m]						λ_p [m ² /m ²]					
	RMSE _G	RMSE _W	ME _G	ME _W	CC _G	CC _W	RMSE _G	RMSE _W	ME _G	ME _W	CC _G	CC _W
Beijing (CHN)	10.6	15.8	1.3	-3	0.7	0.42	0.15	0.18	-0.02	0.01	0.48	0.36
Changsha (CHN)	14.3	20.4	3.4	-2.5	0.54	0.24	0.13	0.2	-0.02	0.08	0.56	0.37
Dalian (CHN)	11.7	16.9	1	-2.3	0.44	0.2	0.14	0.2	0.03	0.09	0.42	0.36
Harbin (CHN)	11	15.7	-0.9	-2.2	0.37	0.27	0.18	0.2	0.08	0.08	0.34	0.44
Hong Kong (CHN)	20.5	42.9	2.4	20.8	0.5	0.5	0.15	0.16	0.04	0	0.49	0.46
Jiaxing (CHN)	8.7	11.5	1.3	-2.5	0.41	0.1	0.16	0.16	-0.01	0	0.26	0.43
Luoyang (CHN)	12.7	17.9	-4.4	-6.5	0.64	0.26	0.13	0.17	0.01	0.06	0.46	0.47
Nanning (CHN)	11.9	17.4	3	-0.9	0.56	0.3	0.14	0.19	-0.01	0.04	0.48	0.41
Kigali (RWD)	4.7	3.9	3.6	2.1	0.18	0.42	0.16	0.21	-0.1	0.14	0.48	0.68
Paris (FRA)	5.3	7.6	1	-0.7	0.68	0.62	0.13	0.14	-0.01	0	0.63	0.67
Madrid (ESP)	7.4	8.3	3.5	1.7	0.6	0.58	0.18	0.2	-0.06	-0.02	0.59	0.52
Warsaw (POL)	6	8.3	-0.4	-2	0.66	0.6	0.12	0.17	0	0.08	0.53	0.53
Amsterdam (NLD)	5.7	7.4	0.8	-1.1	0.58	0.6	0.18	0.18	-0.06	-0.01	0.51	0.55
Brussels (BEL)	6.8	8.2	4.1	2.3	0.35	0.34	0.13	0.16	-0.04	-0.02	0.74	0.63
Bern (CHE)	5.6	6.2	3.2	-1.3	0.29	0.3	0.1	0.13	-0.02	-0.04	0.57	0.57
Tallinn (EST)	7	8.8	-2.3	-4.8	0.54	0.55	0.14	0.16	-0.05	-0.01	0.56	0.51
Luxembourg (LUX)	7	5.7	5.2	1.5	0.63	0.61	0.12	0.15	0	0.02	0.67	0.6
Valletta (MLT)	7.6	9.6	-4.1	-6.9	0.51	0.5	0.18	0.22	-0.09	-0.12	0.67	0.54
Median	7.5	9.2	1.3	-1.6	0.54	0.42	0.14	0.18	-0.02	0	0.52	0.52
Standard deviation	3.9	8.7	2.7	5.8	0.14	0.16	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.12	0.10

152 Table. 2 presents a detailed comparison of two datasets on the performance of building height and footprint estimation
 153 at each selected site. Compared to the WSF3D dataset, the GLAMOUR dataset has a better overall performance featuring a
 154 reduced magnitude and variation of RMSE for both building height and footprint estimations. Specifically, the median RMSEs
 155 achieved by the GLAMOUR dataset are 7.5 m for H_{avg} and 0.14 for λ_p , with corresponding standard deviations of 3.9 m and
 156 0.02. The improved performance can be benefited from the utilization of the MTDL model within the GLAMOUR dataset,
 157 which automatically learns representative features for building morphology mapping from various sample sites¹⁶, as opposed
 158 to the WSF3D dataset's reliance on handcrafted processing workflows that might not adequately capture diverse building
 159 morphology characteristics. When examining the systematic estimation bias as indicated by the ME, the GLAMOUR dataset
 160 generally overestimates H_{avg} (such as Luxemburg in Fig. 3) and underestimates λ_p (such as Kigali in Fig. 4): among 18
 161 reference sites, 72.2% show a positive ME for building height estimations and 66.7% of them have a negative ME for λ_p
 162 estimations. Nonetheless, the GLAMOUR dataset maintains a more stable performance with less variation in the MEs for
 163 both building height and footprint estimations. Considering the ability in capturing variation of building height distribution,
 164 the GLAMOUR dataset provides more consistent estimations compared to the WSF3D dataset, with a median CC of 0.54,
 165 suggesting a moderate statistical correlation between the predicted and reference maps. In regard to building footprint,
 166 two datasets achieve comparable results with a median CC of 0.52, though the GLAMOUR dataset shows a slightly larger
 167 performance variation.

168 While the GLAMOUR dataset marks an advancement over existing datasets, there remains several undesirable cases with
169 considerably worse performance in both datasets such as the mappings of building height in Hong Kong and footprint in Valletta.
170 For the case of Hong Kong (as illustrated in Fig. 3), both datasets overestimate H_{avg} , especially for the WSF3D dataset with a
171 dramatically higher ME of 20.8 m, possibly due to the over-correction caused by empirical adjustments designed for high-rise
172 buildings during its generation¹². Furthermore, Hong Kong is characterized by densely packed high-rise buildings over a hilly
173 topography³⁸, posing a significant challenge for accurate building morphology mapping with medium-resolution satellite data
174 such as Sentinel-1/2 imagery. Although the GLAMOUR dataset reduces nearly half of the RMSE compared to the WSF3D
175 dataset, it still requires further improvement, particularly in the central northern area (known as Kowloon Tong) featuring
176 relatively lower buildings. For the case of Valletta (Fig. 4), both datasets tend to underestimate λ_p where the GLAMOUR
177 dataset achieves a slightly better result with a RMSE of 0.18. Closer examination of high-resolution satellite images from
178 Valletta, especially in zones with λ_p greater than 0.7, reveals a pattern of mid-rise buildings with minimal spacings, forming
179 large building bulks often individually labeled as combined buildings in EUBUCCO (v0.1). Such configuration in building
180 morphology may hinder the WSF3D dataset from detecting existing building structures using focal windows with kernel sizes
181 up to 60 m around the center pixel¹². The MTDL model adopts a larger input patch size of 200 m to produce the GLAMOUR
182 dataset and thus can benefit from a wider receptive field to improve the performance of 3D morphology estimations in building
183 combinations.

184 Stratified performance comparison

185 To thoroughly investigate the performance of the GLAMOUR dataset across various target intervals, we further perform the
186 stratified evaluation by aggregating samples according to corresponding building height and footprint values, using bins of 5 m
187 and 0.1, respectively. The distributions of mapping residuals, calculated as the difference between predicted and reference data,
188 are illustrated in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6.

189 For building height predictions, the GLAMOUR dataset delivers better performance over the WSF3D dataset in most target
190 intervals, demonstrating with consistently smaller magnitude and variation of residuals. Specifically, for buildings exceeding 30
191 m, the GLAMOUR dataset exhibits its superiority and achieves significantly smaller median residuals ranging from -7.4 m and
192 -26.9 m, which reduce $\sim 37.4\%$ - 51.1% residuals of the WSF3D dataset within the same intervals. However, we can also notice
193 that residuals increase in intervals such as 0-5 m and 5-10 m with median values of 5.0 m and 3.0 m, respectively, indicating an
194 overestimation tendency for the height of lower buildings with 2-3 floors in the GLAMOUR dataset.

195 For building footprint predictions, when compared with the WSF3D dataset, the GLAMOUR dataset exhibits comparable
196 magnitude but reduced variation of residuals in the intervals ranging from 0.1 to 0.4, which encompasses 81.98% validation
197 samples. This indicates a more stable performance by the GLAMOUR dataset on building footprint estimations in sparsely or
198 moderately built-up areas. However, for the remaining proportion of samples with λ_p greater than 0.5, the GLAMOUR dataset
199 shows a considerable underestimation with a median residual ranging from -0.13 to -0.25. The degradation of performance
200 in these intervals corresponding to densely built-up areas can be attributed to different spatial resolutions of input data used
201 by the two datasets: the WSF3D dataset combines the information from the 3 m SAR amplitude and 12 m TanDEM-X DEM
202 to delineate the building coverage at a 12 m resolution and then generates the final 90 m dataset by zonal aggregation¹²;
203 while the GLAMOUR dataset focuses on the publicly accessible 10 m Sentinel-1/2 images and 30 m global DEM and utilizes
204 the MTDL model to estimate the 100 m building footprint from relatively coarser images. Thus, the WSF3D dataset can
205 benefit from additional details originating from images with higher resolution⁸ and enhance its detection abilities of vertical
206 structures in densely built-up areas. However, given its reliance on empirically determined rules based on backscattering
207 characteristics reflected in the SAR amplitude images, it would face the difficulty in distinguishing building roofs from
208 surrounding environments with similar backscattering properties (such as Kigali in Fig. 4)¹² while the GLAMOUR dataset
209 exhibits its potential in alleviating this issue by leveraging multi-source information from optical and radar images accompanied
210 local elevation features and thus can achieve improved performance in certain regions with mixed building patterns. Although
211 samples with λ_p greater than 0.5 only occupy a relatively small fraction of the validation dataset (around 9.5%), it still requires
212 further improvement to address this underestimation issue, which is partly due to the constraints of resolution in publicly
213 available imagery.

214 Usage Notes

215 The GLAMOUR dataset is provided in the GeoTiff format which can be easily read, analyzed and visualized with open-source
216 GIS softwares (e.g. QGIS) as well as Python packages (e.g. GDAL and rasterio). We provide five Python-based functions
217 in the `example` module of SHAFTS (<https://github.com/LIIC-mmd/SHAFTS/blob/main/example/glamour.py>) to facilitate
218 working with the GLAMOUR dataset:

- 219 • `get_glamour_by_extent`: retrieves a subset of building morphology files within a specific geospatial extent from
220 the GLAMOUR dataset.

- 221 • `vis_glamour_by_extent_2d`: visualizes the building morphology defined in the GLAMOUR dataset with close-
222 up 2D maps (similar to Fig. 3 and Fig. 4).
- 223 • `vis_glamour_by_extent_3d`: visualizes the building height defined in the GLAMOUR dataset with interactive
224 web-based geospatial maps (similar to Fig. 2).
- 225 • `ana_glamour_joint_distribution`: derives the joint distribution of building height and footprint within a
226 specific geospatial extent based on the GLAMOUR dataset.
- 227 • `ana_glamour_add_height_attribute`: attach the average building height of the GLAMOUR dataset to the
228 attribute table of a given building vector layer.

229 Fig. 7 exhibits the distribution of 3D building morphology in 13189 urban centers around the world. The results of
230 quantitative analysis show that when mapped at 100 m resolution, the median building height is 9.0 m and the median building
231 footprint is 0.19, with standard deviations of 5.9 m and 0.12, respectively. This indicates that the majority of urban centers are
232 still dominated by open low-rise buildings³⁹. Among seven regions displayed in Fig. 7, the East Asia and Pacific region has the
233 highest median values for both building height and footprint at 11.6 m and 0.23, respectively. Conversely, the North America
234 region has the lowest median building height of 6.6 m and the Sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest median building footprint
235 of 0.13, which exhibits regional variation in building morphological patterns influenced by local urbanization stages and
236 socioeconomic factors. From a visual analysis of density plots, it appears that the East Asia and Pacific region is characterized
237 by vertical expansion, as evidenced by wide spreading of building height with varying building footprint. In contrast, the North
238 America region predominantly features low-density sprawlings of urbanized areas scattered with high buildings.

239 Beyond basic analysis of building morphology, the GLAMOUR dataset offers further support for the derivation of
240 morphometric parameters for urban hydroclimate simulation. To maximize its effectiveness in such modeling uses, it
241 is recommended to integrate the GLAMOUR dataset with other vectorized building footprint datasets with global coverage such as
242 Global ML Building Footprints (<https://github.com/microsoft/GlobalMLBuildingFootprints>), along with existing urban climate
243 service tools such as the Urban Multi-scale Environmental Predictor (UMEP)⁴⁰ (<https://umep-docs.readthedocs.io/en/latest/>).
244 For instance, we can match individual buildings with gridded values of average building height in the GLAMOUR dataset
245 using the provided `ana_glamour_add_height_attribute` function. Once a vectorized building footprint layer is
246 associated with corresponding height attributes, it can be further processed within the UMEP framework, which includes the
247 DSM generator for generating the DSM consisting of ground and buildings, and the morphometric calculator for deriving
248 desired morphometric parameters such as roughness length and zero-plane displacement height prepared for urban hydroclimate
249 simulation.

250 Code availability

251 The generation of the GLAMOUR dataset is based on SHAFTS, Google Earth Engine, Google Cloud Storage and their Python in-
252 terfaces. The snapshot of the source code used in this study has been archived on Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10608714>).
253 And the up-to-date streamlined workflow for large-scale building morphology mapping can be accessed via the `GBuildingMap`
254 function in SHAFTS (<https://github.com/LIIC-mmd/SHAFTS>).

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342 **Author contributions statement**

343 RL led the development of GLAMOUR. RL, TS, SG and MT designed the methodology. RL and TS performed the validation
344 and formal analysis. TS, SG and GN contributed to the computing resources and supervision. RL prepared the original draft
345 and all authors contributed to review and editing of the paper.

346 **Competing interests**

347 The authors declare no competing interests.

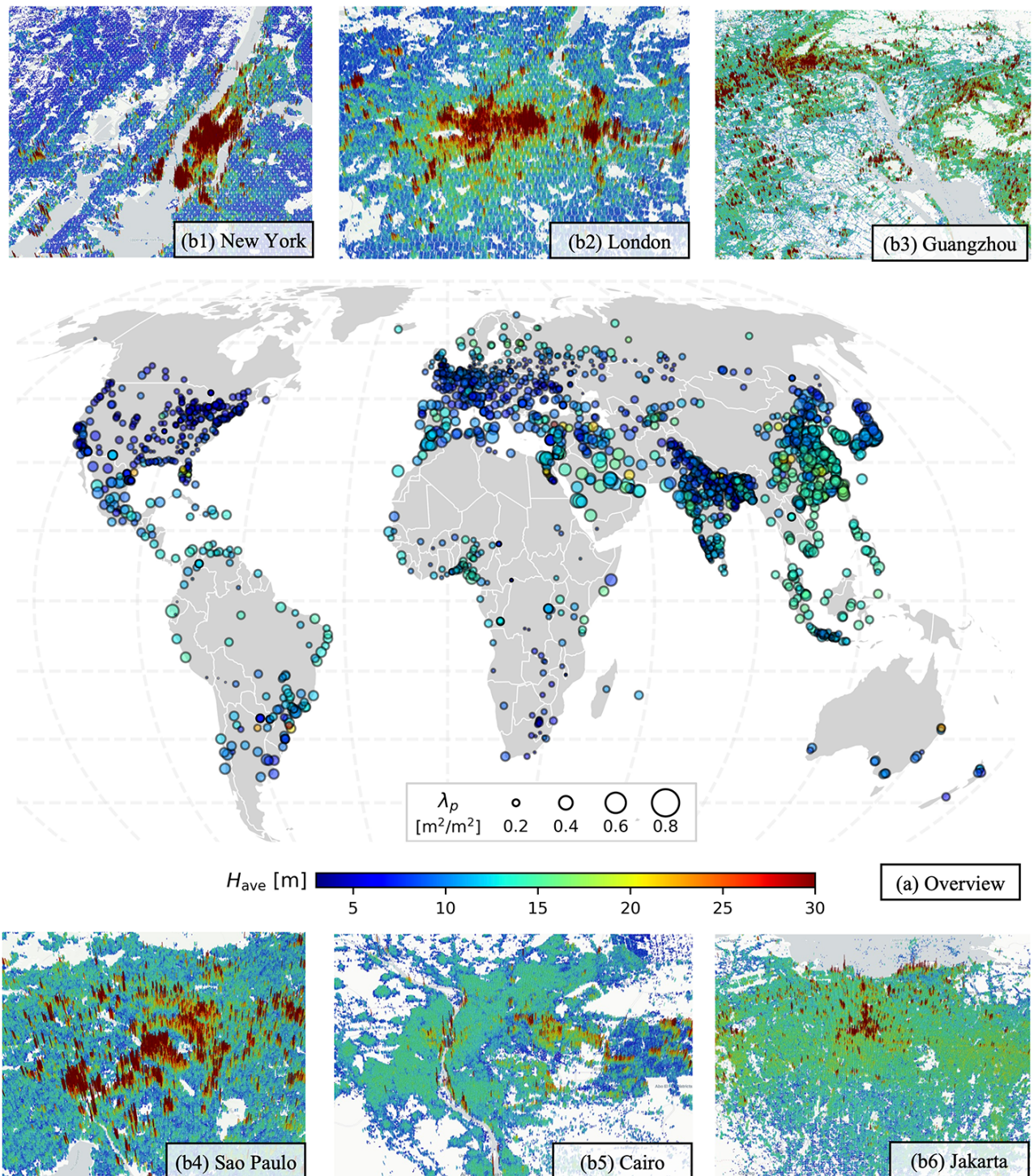


Figure 2. (a) Global overview of 3D building morphology in the top 3000 urban centers ranked by area in the GHS-UCDB; (b) 3D close-up views for six cities

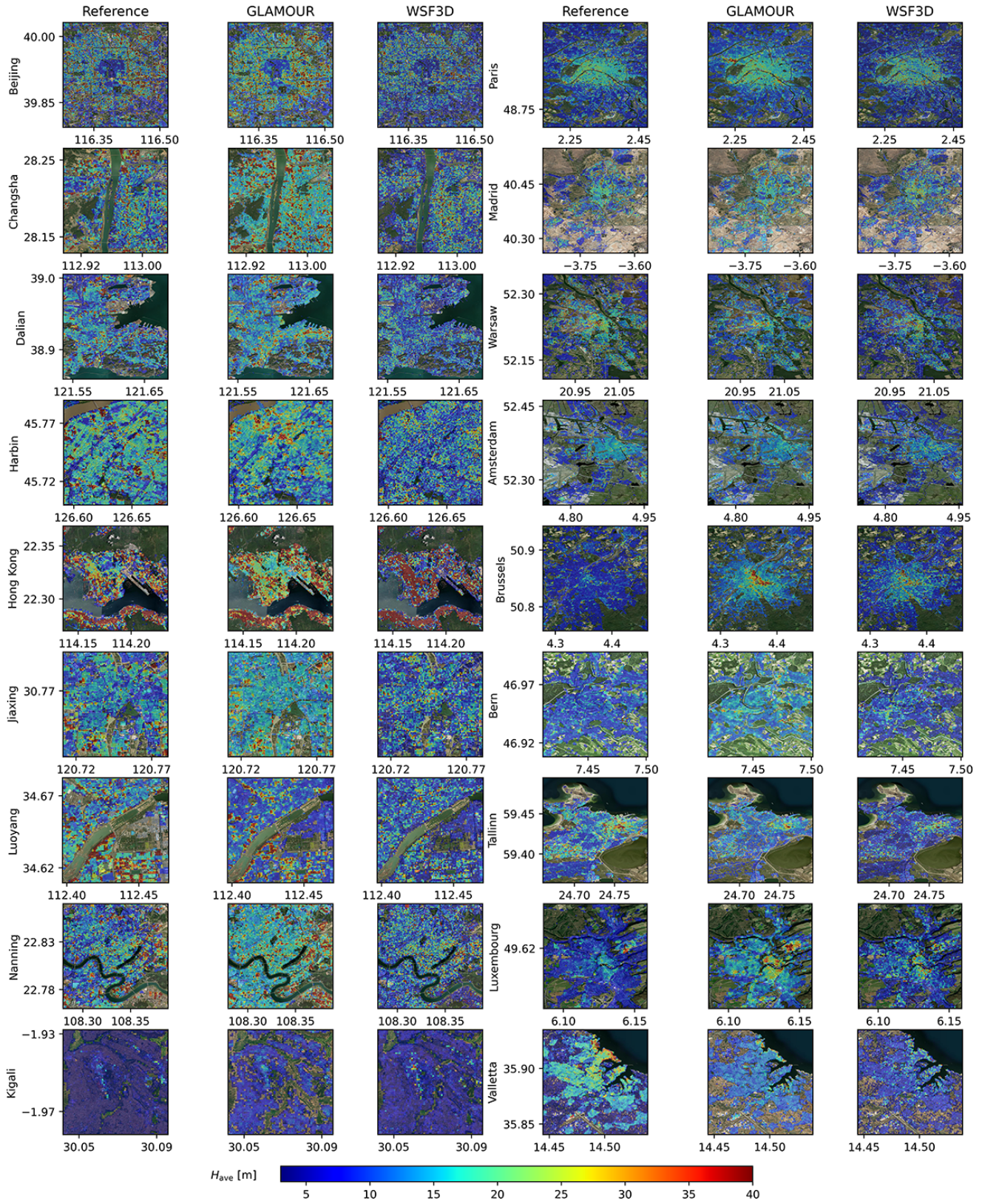


Figure 3. Close-up views of building height (H_{ave}) at reference sites.

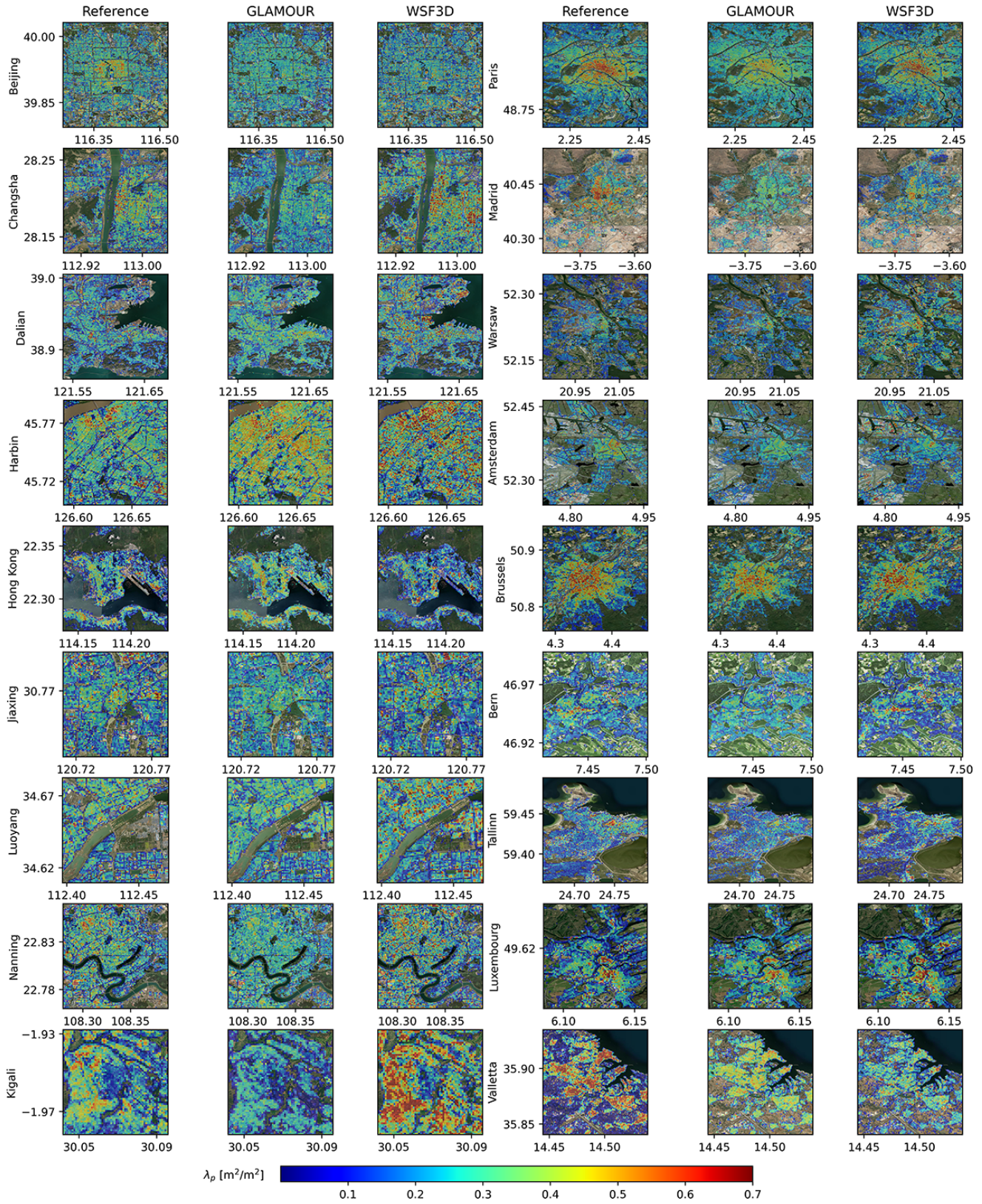


Figure 4. Close-up views of building footprints (λ_p) at reference sites.

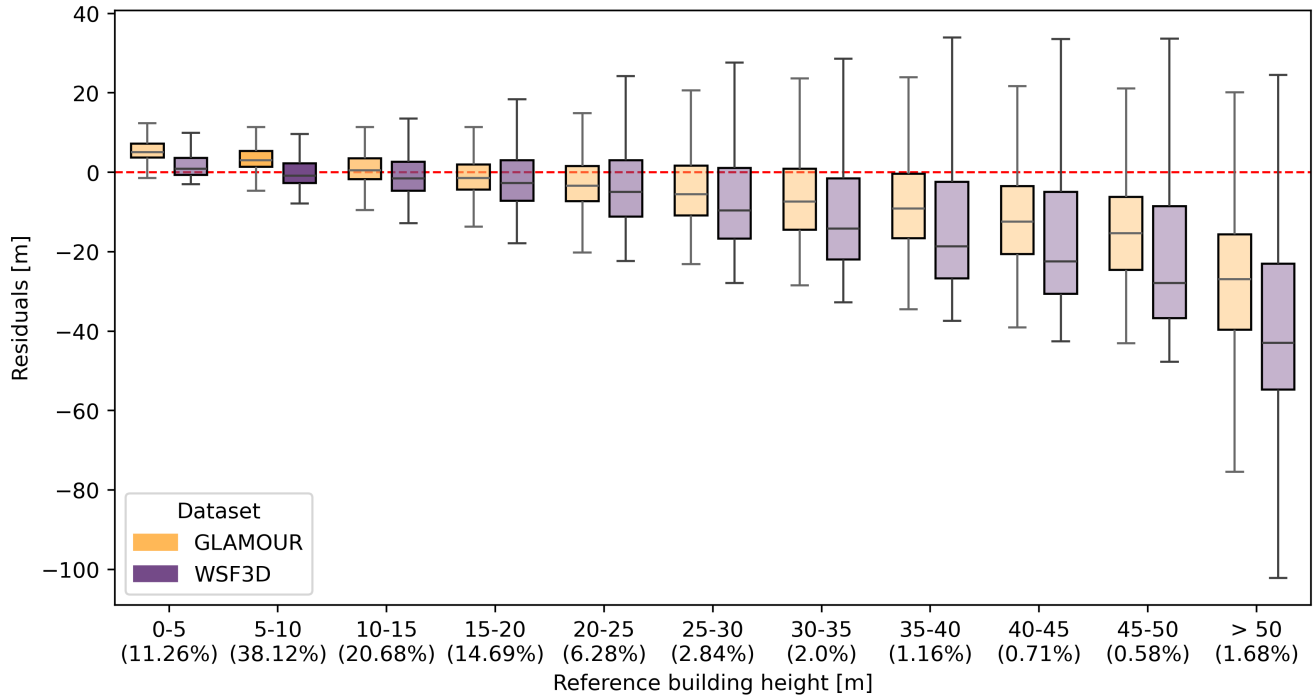


Figure 5. Mapping residuals of the GLAMOUR and WSF3D datasets across building height values aggregated with 5 m intervals. The percentages of validation samples are labelled at the x-axis and indicated by the transparency of boxes where darker boxes denote more samples.

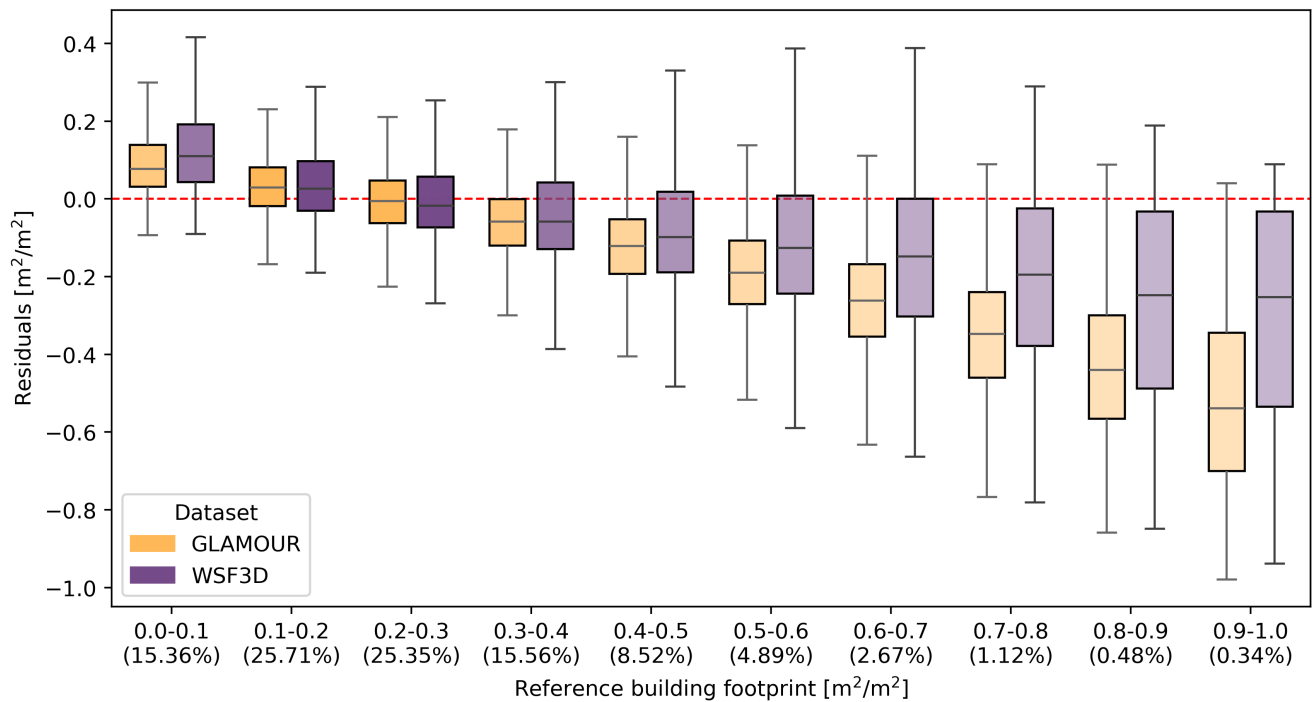


Figure 6. Mapping residuals of the GLAMOUR and WSF3D dataset across building footprint values aggregated with 0.1 intervals. The percentages of validation samples are labelled at the x-axis and indicated by the transparency of boxes where darker boxes denote more samples.

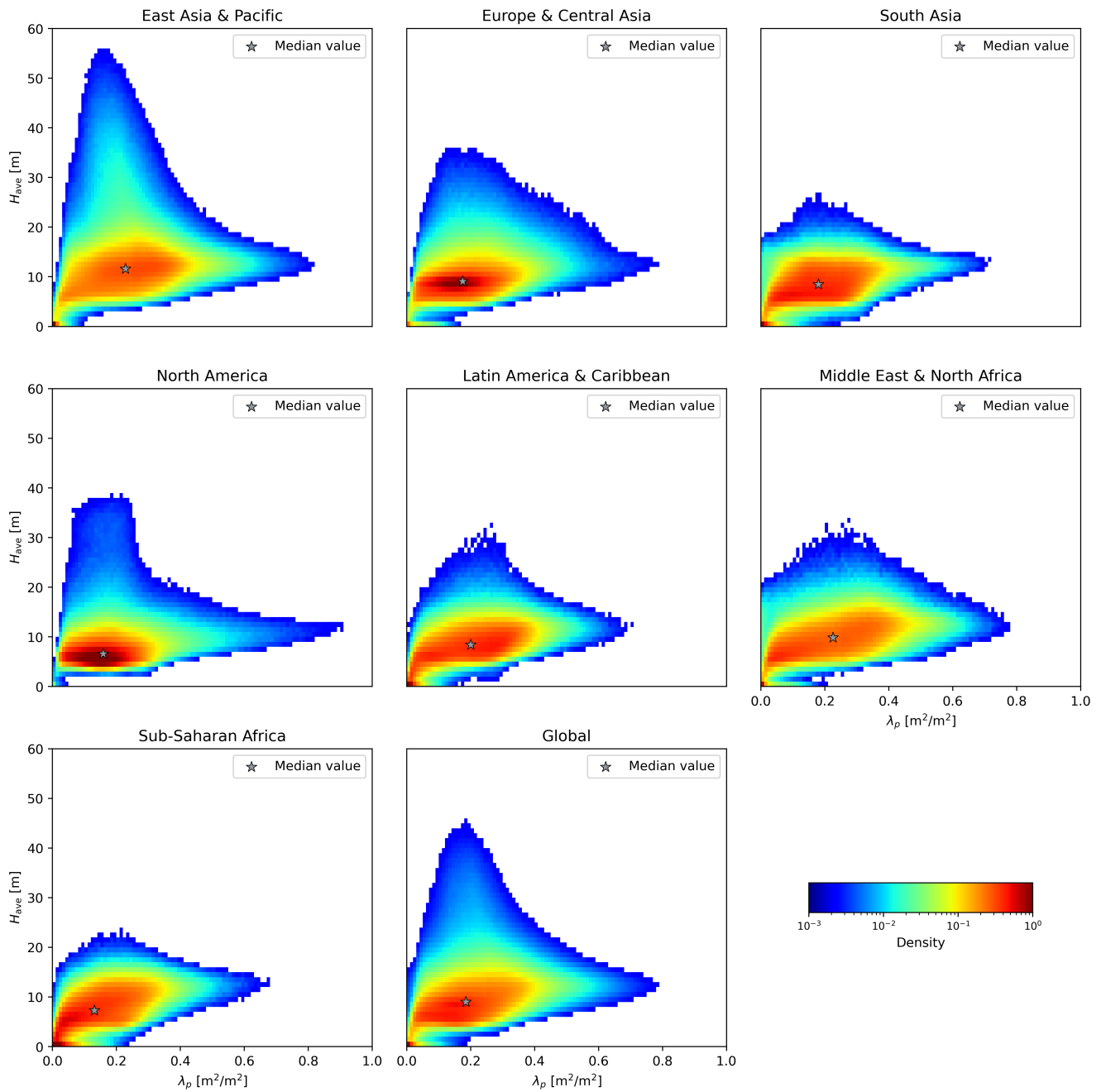
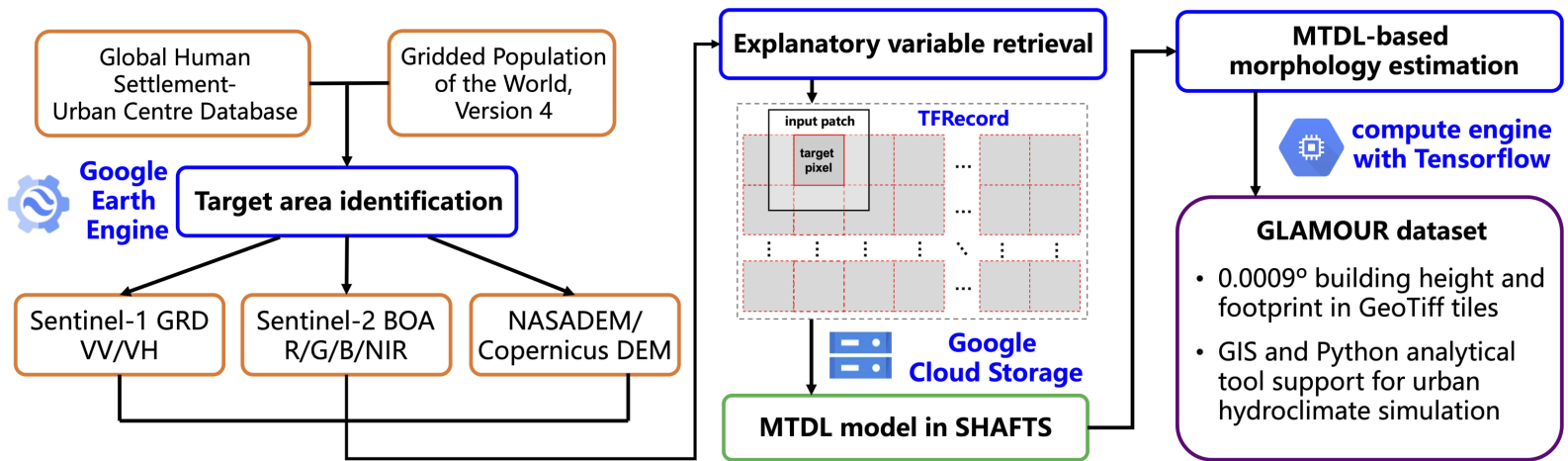
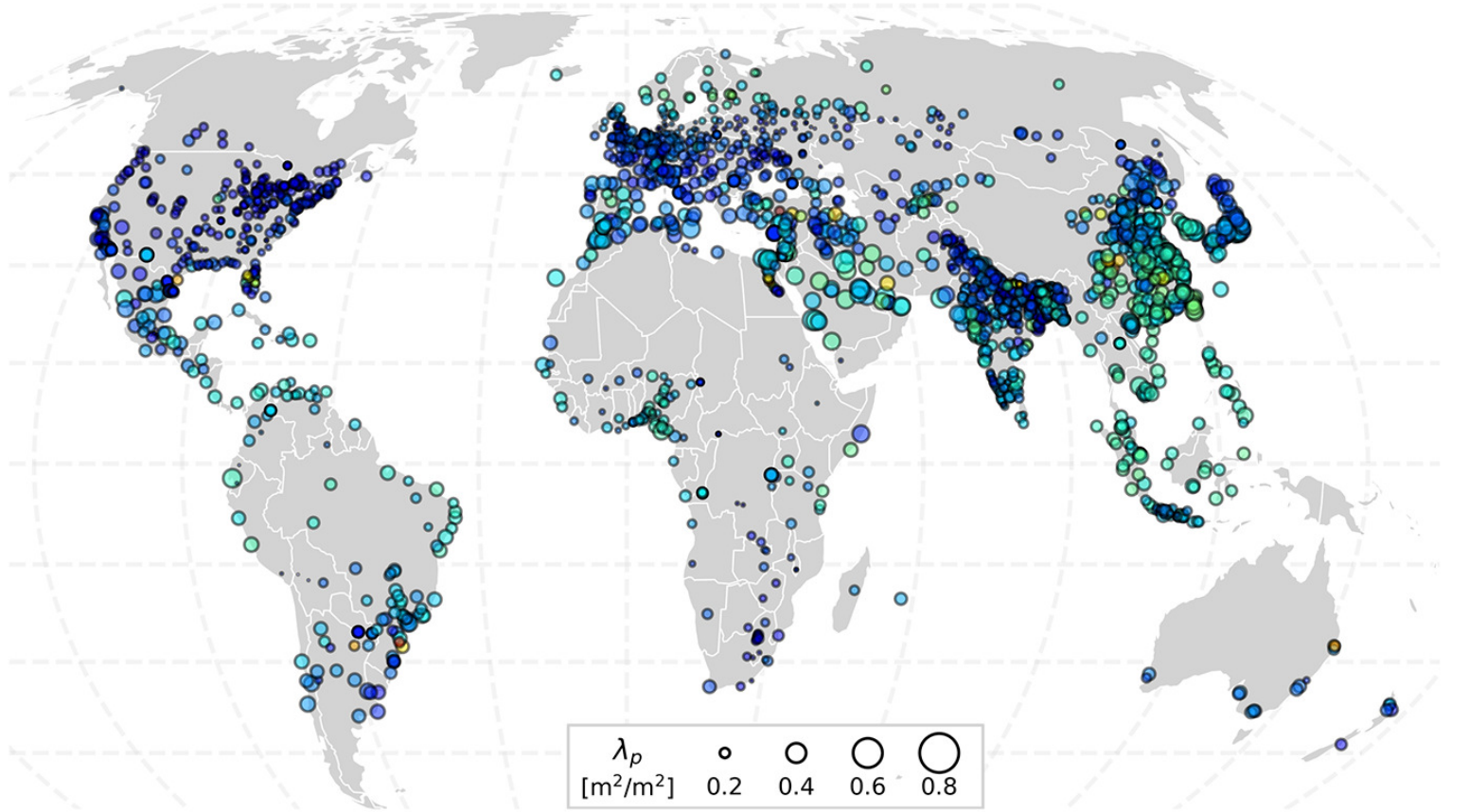
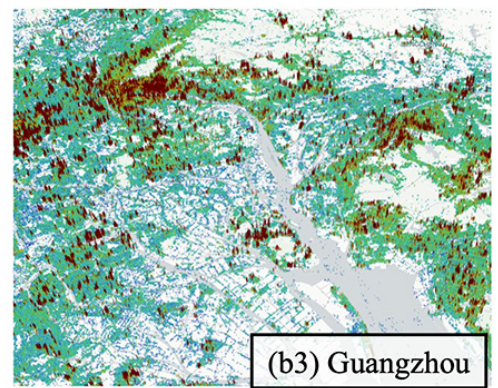
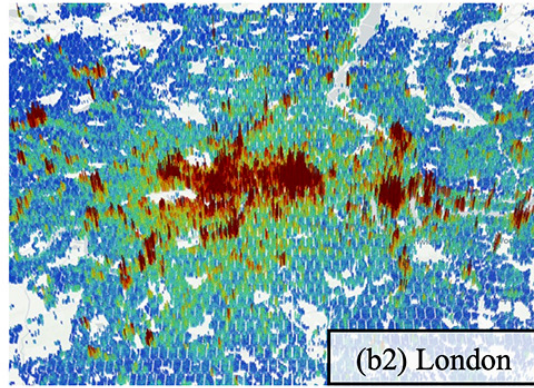
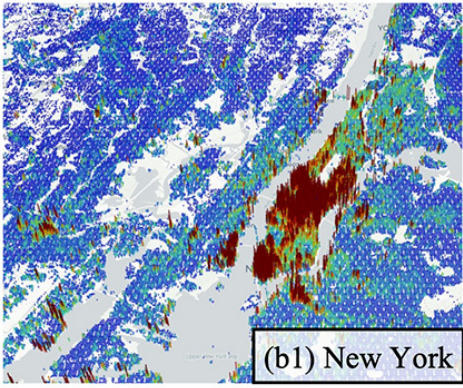


Figure 7. Joint probability density distribution of building footprint (λ_p) and height (H_{avg}) in urban centers across global regions (data points with density below 0.002 excluded). The region of urban centers are derived from the world bank country classification <https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-country-and-lending-groups>.





(a) Overview

