

Spaceborne canopy height products should be complemented with airborne laser scanning data: Towards a European canopy height model

Vítězslav Moudrý¹, Ruben Remelgado², Matthias Forkel³, Michele Torresani⁴, Gaia Vaglio Laurin⁵, Eliška Šárovcová¹, Virginia E. Garcia Millan⁶, Fabian Jörg Fischer^{7,8}, Tommaso Jucker⁷, Michal Gally⁹, Patrick Kacic¹⁰, Christopher R. Hakkenberg¹¹, Žiga Kokalj¹², Krzysztof Stereńczak¹³, Yousef Erfanifard^{14,15}, Duccio Rocchini^{16,1}, Jiří Prošek¹, Stephanie Roilo², Kateřina Gdulová¹, Anna F. Cord², Michela Perrone¹, Juan Alberto Molina-Valero¹, Jiří Šmída¹⁷, Peter Surový¹⁸, Zlatica Melichová¹⁸, Marco Malavasi¹⁹, Rudolf Urban²⁰, Martin Štroner²⁰, Dominik Seidel²¹, Szilárd Szabó²², László Bertalan²², Anette Eltner³, Roberto Cazzolla Gatti¹⁶, Ján Kaňuk^{9,23}, Vojtěch Barták¹, Daniel Franke¹, Benjamin Brede²⁴, Qian Song²⁴, Mikhail Urbazhev²⁴, W. Daniel Kissling²⁵

¹ Department of Spatial Sciences, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Kamýcká 129, Praha – Suchbát, 165 00, Czech Republic

² Agro-Ecological Modeling Group, Institute of Crop Science and Resource Conservation, University of Bonn, Germany

³ TUD Dresden University of Technology, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Institute of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing, Helmholtzstraße 10, 01069 Dresden, Germany

⁴ Free University of Bozen/Bolzano, Faculty of Agricultural, Environmental and Food Sciences, Piazza Università/Universitätsplatz 1, 39100, Bozen/Bolzano, Italy

⁵ Research Institute on Terrestrial Ecosystems, National Research Council, Montelibretti Research Area, Via Salaria Km 29,300, 00015 Montelibretti, RM, Italy

⁶ Khaos Research. Institute of Software Technology and Engineering (ITIS). University of Malaga. C. Arquitecto Francisco Peñalosa, 18, 29010, Málaga Spain

⁷ School of Biological Sciences, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

⁸ TUM School of Life Sciences, Ecosystem Dynamics and Forest Management, Technical University of Munich, Hans-Carl-von-Carlowitz-Platz 2, 85354 Freising, Germany

⁹ Institute of Geography, Faculty of Science, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University in Košice, Jesenná 5, 040 01 Košice, Slovakia

¹⁰ University of Würzburg, Institute of Geography and Geology, Department of Remote Sensing, Am Hubland, 97074 Würzburg, Germany

- ¹¹ School of Informatics, Computing & Cyber Systems, Northern Arizona University, Flagstaff, AZ
86011 USA
- ¹² Research Centre of the Slovenian Academy of Sciences and Arts, Ljubljana, Slovenia
- ¹³ Department of Geomatics, Forest Research Institute, Braci Leśnej 3 Street, Sękocin Stary, 05-090
Raszyn
- ¹⁴ Department of Remote Sensing and GIS, College of Geography, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran
- ¹⁵ IDEAS NCBR Sp. z o.o., Ul. Chmielna 69, Warsaw 00-801, Poland
- ¹⁶ BIOME Lab, Department of Biological, Geological and Environmental Sciences, Alma Mater
Studiorum University of Bologna, via Irnerio 42, 40126, Bologna, Italy
- ¹⁷ Department of Geoinformatics and Didactics of Informatics, Faculty of Science, Humanities and
Education, Technical University Liberec, Liberec, Czech Republic
- ¹⁸ Faculty of forestry and wood science, Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, Kamýcká 129, Praha
– Suchbát, 165 00, Czech Republic
- ¹⁹ Department of Chemistry, Physics, Mathematics and Natural Sciences, University of Sassari,
Sassari, Italy
- ²⁰ Department of Special Geodesy, Faculty of Civil Engineering, Czech Technical University in Prague,
Thákurova 7, 166 29 Prague 6, Czech Republic
- ²¹ Department for Spatial Structures and Digitization of Forest, Faculty of Forest Sciences and Forest
Ecology, Georg August University of Göttingen, Büsgenweg 1, 37077 Göttingen
- ²² Department of Physical Geography and Geoinformatics, Faculty of Science and Technology,
University of Debrecen, Egyetem tér 1., 4032 Debrecen, Hungary
- ²³ Photomap, s.r.o, Poludníková 3/1453, 040 12 Košice, Slovakia
- ²⁴ GFZ Helmholtz Centre for Geosciences, Telegrafenberg, 14473 Potsdam, Germany
- ²⁵ Institute for Biodiversity and Ecosystem Dynamics (IBED), University of Amsterdam, P.O. Box
94240, 1090 GE Amsterdam, The Netherlands

Author contact: Vitezslav Moudry; moudry@fzp.czu.cz; ORCID: 0000-0002-3194-451X

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Abstract

Measuring and mapping vegetation structure is essential for understanding the functioning of terrestrial ecosystems and for informing environmental policies. Recent years have seen a growing demand for high-resolution data on vegetation structure, driving their prediction at fine resolutions (1 m - 30 m) at state, continental, and global spatial extents by combining satellite data with machine learning. As these initiatives expand, it is crucial to actively discuss the quality and usability of these products. Here, we briefly summarize current efforts to map vegetation structure with spaceborne lidar missions and show that predictions from continental-to-global canopy height models (CHMs) exhibit significant errors in canopy heights compared to national airborne laser scanning (ALS) data. We recommend that regions with abundant ALS data, such as Europe, prioritize using ALS-based canopy height metrics rather than relying on less accurate predictions from satellite products. Despite variations in ALS data characteristics such as temporal inconsistencies and differences in point density and classification accuracy, the generation of spatially contiguous canopy height products in raster format at fine spatial resolution is necessary and feasible. This requires coordinating efforts for data and survey harmonization, developing standardized processing pipelines and continent-wide ALS products, and ensuring free access for scientific research and environmental policy. Beyond numerous applications in forestry, ecology and conservation, such datasets are crucial for calibrating future Earth Observation missions, making them essential for producing reliable and accurate global, fine-resolution vegetation structure data.

Plain language summary

Understanding the structure of vegetation is important for studying ecosystems and making informed environmental decisions. To meet the growing need for detailed vegetation data, scientists are combining satellite data with machine learning to estimate vegetation structure at very fine scales. However, these satellite-based models can have large errors when compared to more accurate measurements collected from airborne laser scanning (ALS). In this study, we show that in regions like Europe, where extensive ALS data are available, it's better to use these local data rather than relying on less accurate predictions from satellite products. We also emphasize the need to create consistent and accessible vegetation height maps using ALS data. This will require better coordination of data collection, standardized processing, and open data access. These detailed maps are not only useful for applications in forestry, ecology and conservation, but they are also essential for improving future satellite missions that monitor Earth's vegetation.

Keywords: Canopy height, Earth observation, Forest ecology, Lidar, Validation, Vegetation structure

1. Introduction

Ecosystem structure – the spatial arrangement of biotic and abiotic elements that make up an ecosystem – is an Essential Biodiversity Variable (EBV) considered critical for monitoring the cover, distribution and vertical profile of ecosystems (Pereira et al. 2013; Skidmore et al. 2021). Especially in terrestrial ecosystems, vegetation structure – the horizontal and vertical distribution of vegetation biomass – is one of the key components. Vegetation structure plays a crucial role in modulating multiple ecosystem processes. In particular, it regulates energy flow, water cycling, carbon sequestration, and primary productivity (Murphy et al. 2022; LaRue et al. 2023a; Li et al. 2024). Furthermore, vegetation structure creates unique habitats that support species coexistence across different vegetation layers (Davies and Asner 2014; Moudrý et al. 2021; Wildermuth et al. 2023; Kemppinen et al. 2024; Moudrá et al. 2025). The prevailing theory is that structurally complex vegetation stands are most effective in optimizing the incoming light and water resources, leading to better carbon assimilation (Atkins et al. 2018; Seidel and Ammer 2023), and that they provide a large number of ecological niches, thereby enhancing biodiversity (Tews et al. 2004; Stein et al. 2014; Torresani et al. 2020; Coverdale and Davies 2023; LaRue et al. 2023b). Consequently, data on vegetation structure is essential for a global biodiversity observing system (Gonzalez et al. 2023), supports the United Nations' System of Environmental-Economic Accounting (United Nations 2021, 2022), contributes to the EU Forest Strategy for 2030 (European Commission 2021), and plays a key role in tracking progress towards global biodiversity targets and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (Skidmore et al. 2021).

Remote sensing technologies such as light detection and ranging (lidar) have played a key role in addressing knowledge gaps, providing a way to accurately map vegetation structure from local to global scales (Herold et al. 2019; Valbuena et al. 2020; Jutras-Perreault et al. 2023; Liu et al. 2023; Moudrý et al. 2023; Rosen et al. 2024). Particularly, lidar sensors onboard of airplanes (i.e., airborne laser scanning; ALS) have considerable potential to advance national monitoring programs (e.g., Assmann et al. 2022; Kissling et al. 2023) and robust approaches to convert ALS data into structural metrics are available (Fischer et al. 2019; Fischer et al. 2024; Kissling et al. 2024). However, while ALS data provides high spatial resolution, its spatial extent and temporal availability are limited (e.g. Okyay et al. 2019; Moudry et al. 2023). Although the costs of ALS have decreased in recent years, large continuous coverage exists only in a few regions, mostly in Europe, North America, and Australia, as well as countries such as New Zealand and Japan. A few countries have even mapped their entire territory more than once (e.g. Denmark, Estonia, Netherlands, Spain).

Recent advances in spaceborne lidar missions, such as the Global Ecosystem Dynamics Investigation (GEDI) and the Ice, Cloud, and land Elevation Satellite-2 (ICESat-2), can help to address the limited spatial and temporal extent of ALS data (Markus et al. 2017; Dubayah et al. 2020). These missions provide free data that have enabled the creation of global models of vegetation structure (e.g., Mulverhill et al. 2022; Burns et al. 2024), supporting innovative and impactful research. For instance, vegetation structure products derived from spaceborne lidar data have been used to monitor forest and woodland structure and regrowth (Milenković et al. 2022; Jucker et al. 2023; Stritih et al. 2023), track carbon losses from disturbances (Holcomb et al. 2024), evaluate the effectiveness of protected areas from the perspective of carbon stocks and vegetation structure (Ceccherini et al. 2023; Lang et al. 2023; Liang et al. 2023, Brodie et al. 2023), and to assess species diversity and species-environment relationships (Marselis et al. 2022; Smith et al. 2022; Vogeler et al. 2023; Xu et al. 2024). However, the spatial coverage of spaceborne lidar measurements is sparse and discrete, and their derived products, such as global canopy height models (CHMs), have a low spatial resolution (Burns et al. 2024) or suffer from accuracy issues (Mandl et al. 2023; Moudry et al. 2024), which impair their applicability (Hakkenberg et al. 2023).

Here, we aim to highlight the potential of ALS data to complement spaceborne lidar products. In particular, we (i) provide a brief overview of spaceborne lidar missions that measure vegetation structure, (ii) examine the accuracy of CHMs predicted from these missions and the way in which accuracy is currently reported, (iii) highlight recent developments in potential mapping of the Earth's surface using a constellation of lidar satellites, and (iv) propose a broader use of ALS data, emphasizing the need to develop continental CHMs (e.g. across Europe). We identify the challenges involved and offer general recommendations for future progress.

2. Measuring vegetation structure with space-borne lidar

Details and examples of the usability and advantages of lidar remote sensing for mapping vegetation structure can be found in Lefsky et al. (2002), Bergen et al. (2009), and Moudrý et al. (2023). Simply put, lidar is ideal for measuring vegetation structure because it can penetrate through the gaps in the vegetation, capturing its vertical structure as well as the shape of the terrain underneath. Lidar sensors can be installed on various platforms, including tripods, backpacks, cars, drones, helicopters, planes, and satellites. Notably, spaceborne lidar is valuable for large-scale mapping due to its consistent and extensive global coverage. Satellite sensors are expected to become the primary data source for mapping vegetation structure in response to global monitoring requirements. Yet, technical issues concerning data coverage and accuracy persist (Hancock et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2021; Fernandez-Diaz et al. 2022; Pang et al. 2022; Velikova et al. 2024).

The first global dataset characterizing canopy structure was obtained from the Geoscience Laser Altimeter System (GLAS) onboard the Ice, Cloud, and land Elevation Satellite (ICESat), operational from 2003 to 2009 (Abshire et al. 2005). This mission was primarily intended for measuring polar ice caps but it also enabled the development of datasets for ground elevation and canopy height (Schutz et al. 2005; Simard et al. 2011). In 2018, NASA launched two spaceborne lidar missions, ICESat-2 (Markus et al. 2017) and GEDI (Dubayah et al. 2020), aimed at providing global data on terrain and canopy height among other objectives.

A major limitation of spaceborne lidar sensors is that they collect data along discrete transects, providing discrete and dislocated sample data of vegetation structure. Additionally, various factors, including atmospheric conditions, solar background photons, laser pulse energy, and topography, affect data accuracy and require filtering, resulting in significant reductions in available data (e.g. Hayashi et al. 2013; Pardini et al. 2019; Moudrý et al. 2022; 2024b). Although current lidar spaceborne missions have substantially higher sampling densities than their predecessors, the data are still insufficient for producing high-resolution continuous CHMs, and the derived data products have limited spatial and temporal coverage. For instance, GEDI was expected to sample only 4% of the Earth's land surface over a two-year mission, enabling the generation of vegetation structure metrics from -52° to 52° latitude, including CHMs at three spatial resolutions: 1 km, 6 km, and 12 km (Burns et al. 2024). A global-scale 1 km resolution canopy height model is a significant achievement but has limited utility for applications such as ecosystem mapping or species-environment relationship assessments, which typically require finer spatial resolution (Smith et al. 2022; Anderle et al. 2023; Davison et al. 2023; Vogeler et al. 2023). Hence, alternative solutions must be explored to meet immediate monitoring needs.

3. Spatially contiguous, high-resolution canopy height models and their limitations

The lack of global high-resolution data on vertical vegetation structure has stimulated the use of spaceborne lidar data in combination with other satellite products to make spatially contiguous predictions of vegetation structure, such as canopy height, total canopy cover, and foliage height diversity at fine resolutions, such as 10 m or 30 m (e.g., Kacic et al. 2021, 2023; Schwartz et al. 2023; Diaz-Kloch and Murray 2024). A common approach to produce high resolution, wall-to-wall data on vegetation structure is to train predictive models that combine direct but discrete height measurements (e.g., from space-borne lidar ICESat, GEDI, or ICESat-2) with spatially contiguous data (e.g., from spaceborne optical and radar data). The model establishes a relationship between the discrete and the continuous data that enables the estimation of canopy height at locations not directly measured by lidar (Bergen et al. 2009; Lefsky 2010). Predicted CHMs are among the most common

and, so far, the only high-resolution vegetation structure products available at continental (Liu et al. 2023) and global scales (Potapov et al. 2021; Lang et al. 2023), making them suitable for illustrating the pros and cons of such data. Recently, a web application for predicting canopy height, which combines GEDI with other remote sensing data, has been developed, making this approach easily accessible (Alvites et al. 2025).

Several continental or global predicted CHMs have been produced. The first such dataset was developed by Lefsky (2010), who combined canopy heights derived from GLAS with MODIS data to produce a patch-based global CHM. Similarly, Simard et al. (2011) used the relationships between the GLAS-derived canopy heights and multiple environmental variables (e.g., tree cover, climate, altitude) to predict a global model of canopy heights at a 1 km spatial resolution. Recently, Potapov et al. (2021) and Lang et al. (2023) used optical satellite data (Landsat, Sentinel-2) trained on GEDI measurements to create global CHMs at 30 m and 10 m spatial resolutions, respectively. Likewise, Liu et al. (2023) used canopy height from airborne laser scanning (ALS) data and PlanetScope imagery to predict canopy heights in Europe at the 3 m resolution. Finally, Meta, in cooperation with the World Resources Institute, combined high-resolution data from optical satellites, ALS, and GEDI to develop a global CHM at a 1 m resolution (Tolan et al. 2024).

The main benefit of predicted CHMs based on spaceborne lidar lies in their easy availability, especially as there are no alternatives at scales beyond the regional level. These CHMs are usually readily available as open data in a raster format, allowing researchers to use them as input data in common GIS software to inform their analyses. This contrasts with the high data volume, time-consuming, and often challenging process of working with more accurate ALS point clouds, which can be difficult for many researchers to store and handle (Kissling et al. 2022; Moudrý et al. 2023; Kissling and Shi 2023; Wang et al. 2024). However, the easy accessibility of such predicted CHMs is both a blessing and a curse as users may be unaware of data limitations, and the reliability of predicted global datasets is questionable (Duncanson et al. 2019; Meyer and Pebesma 2022). Modeling canopy height is a complex process that involves errors and biases from multiple sources, ranging from ground detection with spaceborne lidar to the saturation of optical data in closed-canopy forests (e.g., Réjou-Méchain et al. 2019). Indeed, independent validation studies showed that the accuracy of these satellite-derived global CHMs is low (e.g., Bolton et al. 2013; Pascual et al. 2022), and their use in biodiversity modeling leads to erroneous results (Moudrý et al. 2024a).

3.1 Validation of predicted global CHMs accuracies

To demonstrate the limitations of predicted CHMs, we followed a recent study by Moudrý et al. (2024a) who compared three global predicted CHMs. In addition to their evaluation, we here added a

continental canopy height map for Europe produced by [Liu et al. \(2023\)](#) and a ten-year-old ALS scan, which allowed us to assess whether the predicted CHMs have higher accuracy than the outdated ALS data. We used a 2022 ALS scan from the Giant Mountains National Park (Czechia) as a reference and compared it to four recent satellite-derived predicted CHMs (Table 1) as well as to a second ALS scan acquired 10 years earlier, in 2012 (all ALS data were processed with standard methods, cf. [Moudrý et al. 2024a](#)).

Strikingly, we found that the 2012 ALS data had a much lower error in predicting 2022 canopy height than any of the global or regional CHMs. Figure 1 presents a cross-section comparison of vegetation heights extracted from four predicted spaceborne data-based CHMs to reference heights extracted from ALS CHMs. Both large over- and underestimation of vegetation height can be observed in spaceborne CHMs (Figure 1; see [Moudrý et al. \(2024a\)](#) for evaluation in other temperate forests). The continental canopy height map for Europe had a lower root mean square error than the three global products (Figure 2). However, the change in vegetation height over ten years is lower than the canopy height error in the four models for the selected area (Figure 2). In this example, such an error hinders effective change detection in canopy height. This limitation can be further influenced by the amount of disturbance, which is relatively low in our study area (Figure 2). In cases of large-scale deforestation detectable by optical data, the signal should still be visible in predicted CHMs. However, to estimate changes in vegetation height accurately, we must first know the vegetation height before such disturbances occur.

3.2 What to report and consider when generating and using CHMs

Global datasets are indispensable for answering large-scale ecological questions, so it is imperative to improve reporting of the accuracy and uncertainty of the predicted CHMs to enable users to easily select the most appropriate map for their purposes. To select the best vegetation structure product, the overall evaluation metrics, such as mean error (ME) or root mean square error (RMSE), provided by existing products are fundamental, despite providing a limited insight into the local map quality. Even if the user selects the most accurate map (i.e. that with the lowest overall RMSE), there may be considerable biases in the subregions. However, these uncertainties are usually not quantified, and if they are, it is often unclear how this was done (but see [Lang et al. 2023](#)).

One way to improve the reporting of uncertainties is to assess the area to which a prediction can be reliably applied (i.e., an area with similar conditions to those used to train the model, ensuring that the learned relationships between predictors and responses remain valid), such as estimating the Area of Applicability ([Meyer and Pebesma 2021](#)). Furthermore, even an estimate of uncertainty must be proven reliable, as it has recently been shown that the uncertainty estimates provided by [Lang et al.](#)

(2023) for the global CHM are inaccurate (see supplementary material in Moudrý et al. 2024a). This can be easily added, for example, by comparing the estimated uncertainty with the error observed in the CHM relative to more accurate validation data (e.g., ALS). Furthermore, we suggest that in addition to validation with ALS data, the predicted CHM products should include representative profiles (as in Figure 1). Most authors of the global datasets only showed product visualizations in 2D space (e.g., Potapov et al. 2021; Lang et al. 2023; Schwartz et al. 2023). Inaccurate CHMs can look very plausible in a 2D visualization, and even an experienced user is easily misled into the false impression that they accurately represent the reality (Figure 2).

Table 1. Predicted global canopy height models (CHMs) evaluated in this study. The Root mean square error (RMSE) value reported by the authors of individual CHMs in the original publications is presented here.

Global CHM	Author	Resolution	RMSE	Valid for year
Global forest canopy height	Potapov et al. (2021)	30 m	9.1 m	2019
High-resolution canopy height model of the Earth	Lang et al. (2023)	10 m	2.8 - 9.6 m	2020
Canopy height map for Europe	Liu et al. (2023)	3 m	4.3 - 6.4 m	2019
Global map of tree canopy height	Tolan et al. (2024)	1 m	4.4 m	2018-2020

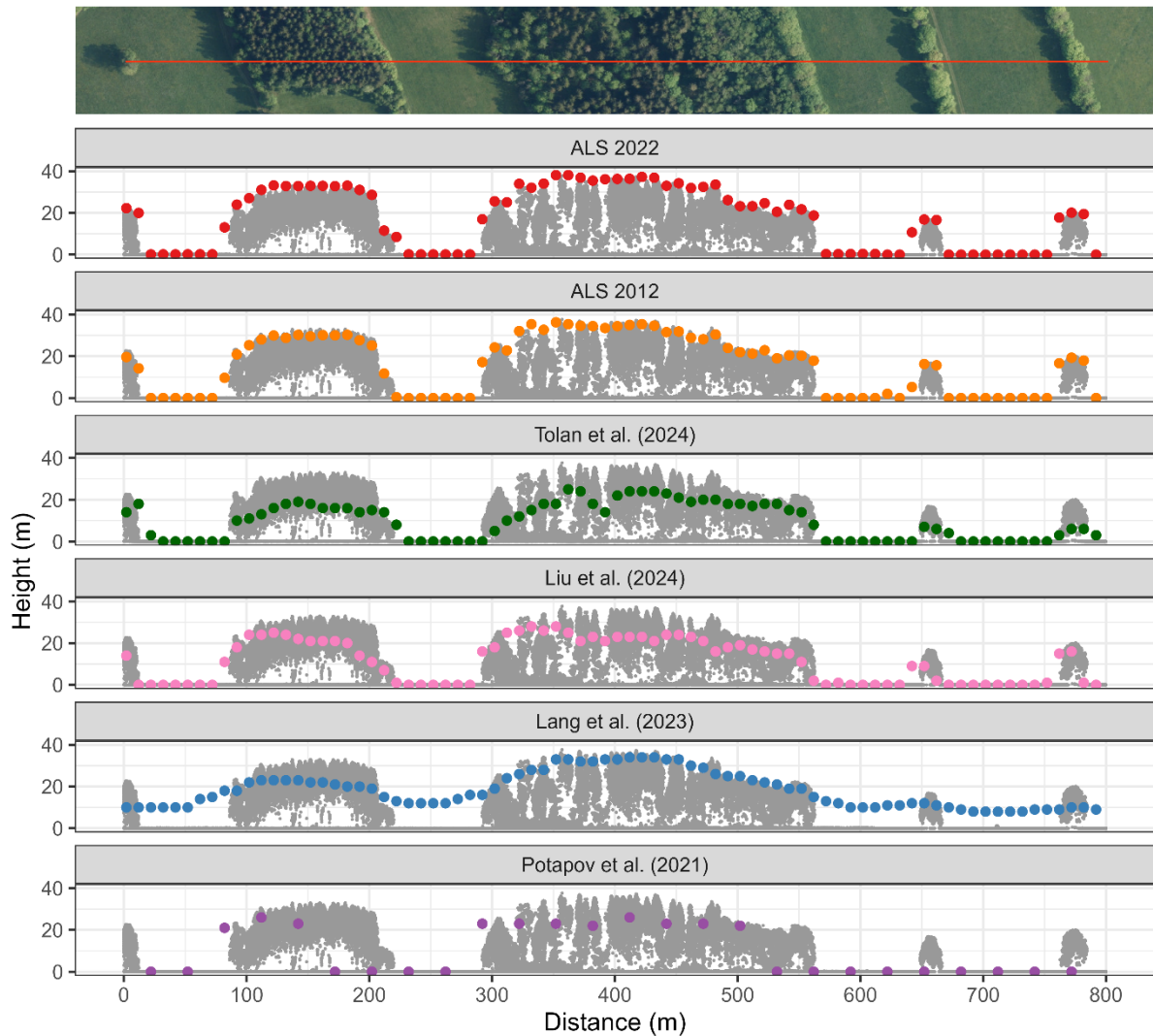


Figure 1. A representative canopy height profile from the Giant Mountains National Park, Czechia. The profile spans 10 meters in width. Note the limited ability, especially in the CHM by Lang et al. (2023), to capture variations in canopy height, making the transition between forest and non-forest areas unclear. The mosaic of pastures and forests appears as a continuous forest with heights ranging from 10 to 30 meters. In contrast, the CHMs by Tolan et al. (2024) and Liu et al. (2024) more effectively differentiate between forest and non-forest areas due to the substantially higher resolution of their input data. However, both CHMs tend to underestimate the height of vegetation. This suggests that there may be room for improvement in combining multiple predicted CHMs, such as the one by Tolan et al. (2024), which accurately distinguishes forests from non-forested areas, and the model by Lang et al. (2023), which is relatively successful in predicting top canopy height. The CHM by Potapov et al. (2021) has a resolution that is too coarse to capture smaller stands.

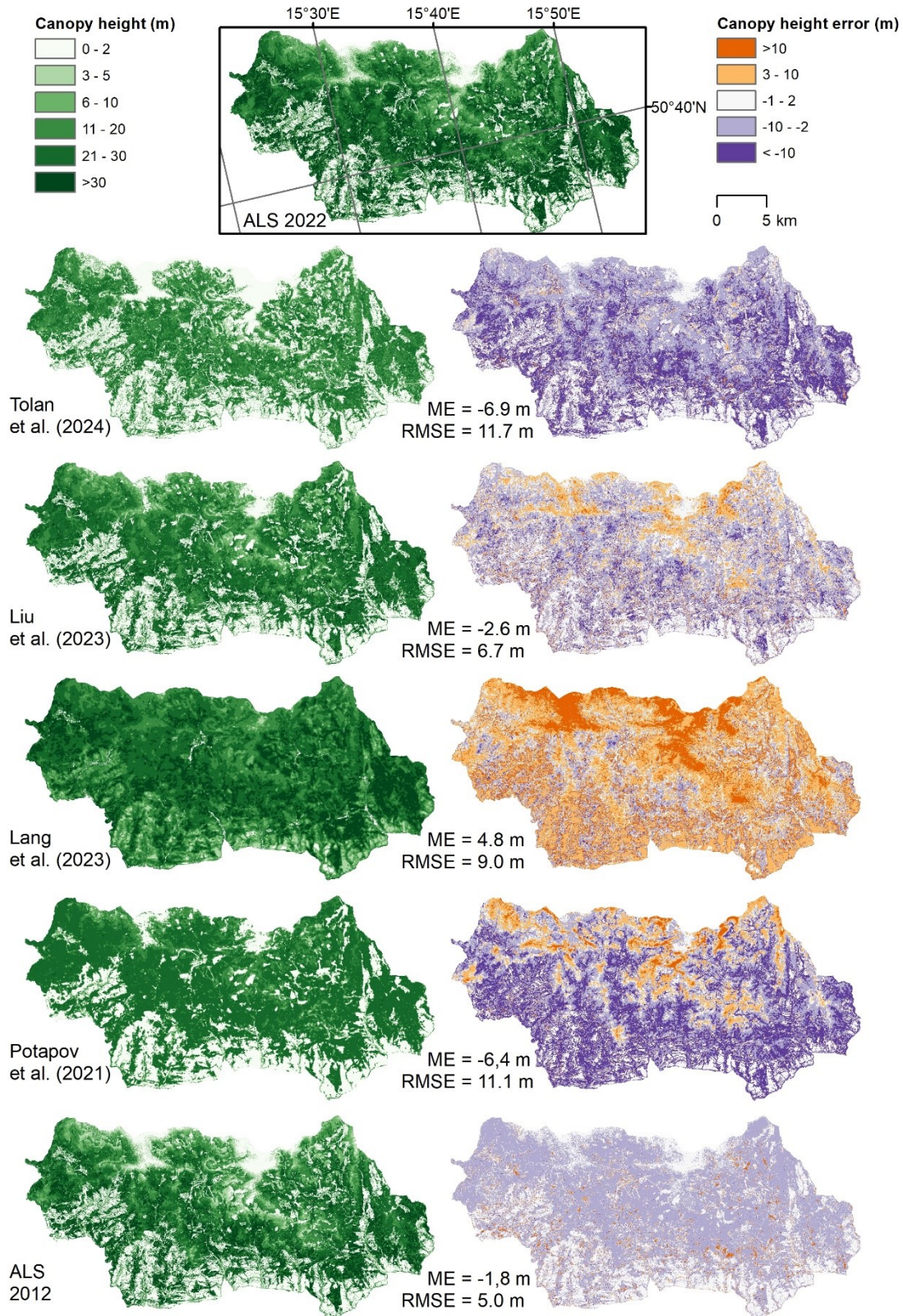


Figure 2. Canopy heights from five different sources in the Giant Mountains National Park (Czechia) compared to airborne laser scanning (ALS) data from 2022 (reference dataset). One source refers to ALS data from 2012 (bottom) whereas the other four refer to predicted canopy height maps from space-borne lidar: Tolán et al. (2024), Liu et al. (2023), Lang et al. (2023), and Potapov et al. (2021). The figures on the left show canopy height,

while the figures on the right show the difference in canopy height compared to the ALS 2022 data (i.e., the error of the predicted maps). ME stands for Mean Error, and RMSE stands for Root Mean Square Error.

4. Continuous mapping of the Earth's surface using a constellation of multiple lidar satellites

A potential solution to provide global fine-resolution data on the vertical structure of vegetation for the entire world at a reasonable cost could lie in the creation of a fleet of lidar satellites that would continuously map the Earth ([Hancock et al. 2021](#); [Lowe et al. 2024](#)). [Hancock et al. \(2021\)](#) estimated that producing such continuous data at a 30 m resolution every 5 years would require a constellation of twelve satellites acting concurrently. More recently, [Lowe et al. \(2024\)](#) investigated which platform-optics-constellation design offers the most promising and cost-effective solution, and suggested that micro-satellites, with a mass in the order of 150 kg, may present the most attractive performance-to-cost ratio. They estimated that a constellation of eight such satellites would be sufficient to produce CHMs at a 20-meter resolution annually. The development of such a satellite constellation was announced relatively recently by the geospatial technology startup NUVIEW, which aims to deploy 20 commercial satellites equipped with lidar to map the Earth's entire land surface annually. In addition, NASA currently has an advanced proposal for the next-generation spaceborne laser altimetry mission, known as Earth Dynamics Geodetic Explorer (EDGE), which aims to significantly improve spatial and temporal coverage.

At present, however, such satellite systems do not exist, and an operational mission capable of delivering higher-resolution global lidar data is unlikely before 2030. Moreover, even if we manage to build a satellite lidar system capable of dense spatio-temporal coverage in the near future, it will need precise and consistent benchmark datasets over large geographical areas for its calibration and validation. ALS data are indispensable for such a purpose (e.g. [Duncanson et al. 2019](#); [Tang et al. 2023](#)). In addition, knowing the current status of vegetation structure is essential, and such data will be useful for assessing changes in vegetation structure ([Guerra-Hernández and Pascual 2021](#); [Parra and Simard 2023](#)). Therefore, in the meantime, available state- and country-wide ALS data should be used to produce uniform seamless vegetation structure products to meet immediate monitoring needs.

5. Towards European canopy height model derived from airborne laser scanning data

Unlike spaceborne laser altimeters, which offer broader coverage but discrete and sparse measurement ([Dubayah et al. 2020](#)), ALS offers dense continuous coverage and is commonly used for regional or state-wide mapping. However, processing of ALS point clouds and their integration into a single product is challenging for large-scale analyses covering multiple countries ([Fischer et al. 2024](#)).

As a result, large-scale studies are impeded by the absence of consistent, accurate, and accessible vegetation structure data, and generally rely on global predicted products from satellites (see Section 3) due to the difficulties in managing and processing ALS data at a continental scale.

The United States sets a good example with the 3D Elevation Program (3DEP), managed by U. S. Geological Survey (USGS), which aims to collect ALS data for the conterminous United States, following specific collection requirements to ensure consistent lidar coverage across the entire territory (USGS, 2024). So far, however, it only aims at providing a digital terrain model (DTM; Stoker 2020; Stoker and Miller 2022), not seamless CHMs (or other vegetation structure products) in a raster format. Digital surface models (DSMs) could, however, be created through OpenTopography (<https://opentopography.org/>) where most U.S. lidar data are also hosted. Europe is lagging behind, as no common data collection requirements or methodology that regulates mapping activities exists. This responsibility falls to the individual states and countries. As a result, ALS coverage in Europe is managed at the national (e.g., in Denmark, France, Netherlands, Poland, Spain) or sub-national (e.g., in Austria, Belgium, Germany, Italy) level and data are scattered among providers, leading to different characteristics across regions (D'Amico et al. 2021; Kakoulaki et al. 2021).

Of the 44 countries in Europe, ALS data are collected by governmental institutions in at least 26 countries (Figure 3, Figure 4, Table S1). However, at the moment, only a few European countries provide ALS-derived metrics of vegetation structure in a raster format (Denmark, Netherlands, and Switzerland; see Assmann et al. 2022; Kissling et al. 2023; Külling et al. 2024; Shi and Kissling 2024). Furthermore, the choice of vegetation metrics, the methods used to calculate them, and their resolution can vary significantly (Moudrý et al. 2023; Kissling and Shi 2023; Wang et al. 2024). Therefore, it is important to coordinate these efforts from the outset to enable their harmonization and the development of a transnational, Europe-wide product. Such a harmonized product would ensure consistent interpretation and utilization of data across various studies and applications, and improve the reliability and reproducibility of results, enabling comparable assessments of vegetation characteristics across broad spatial extents.

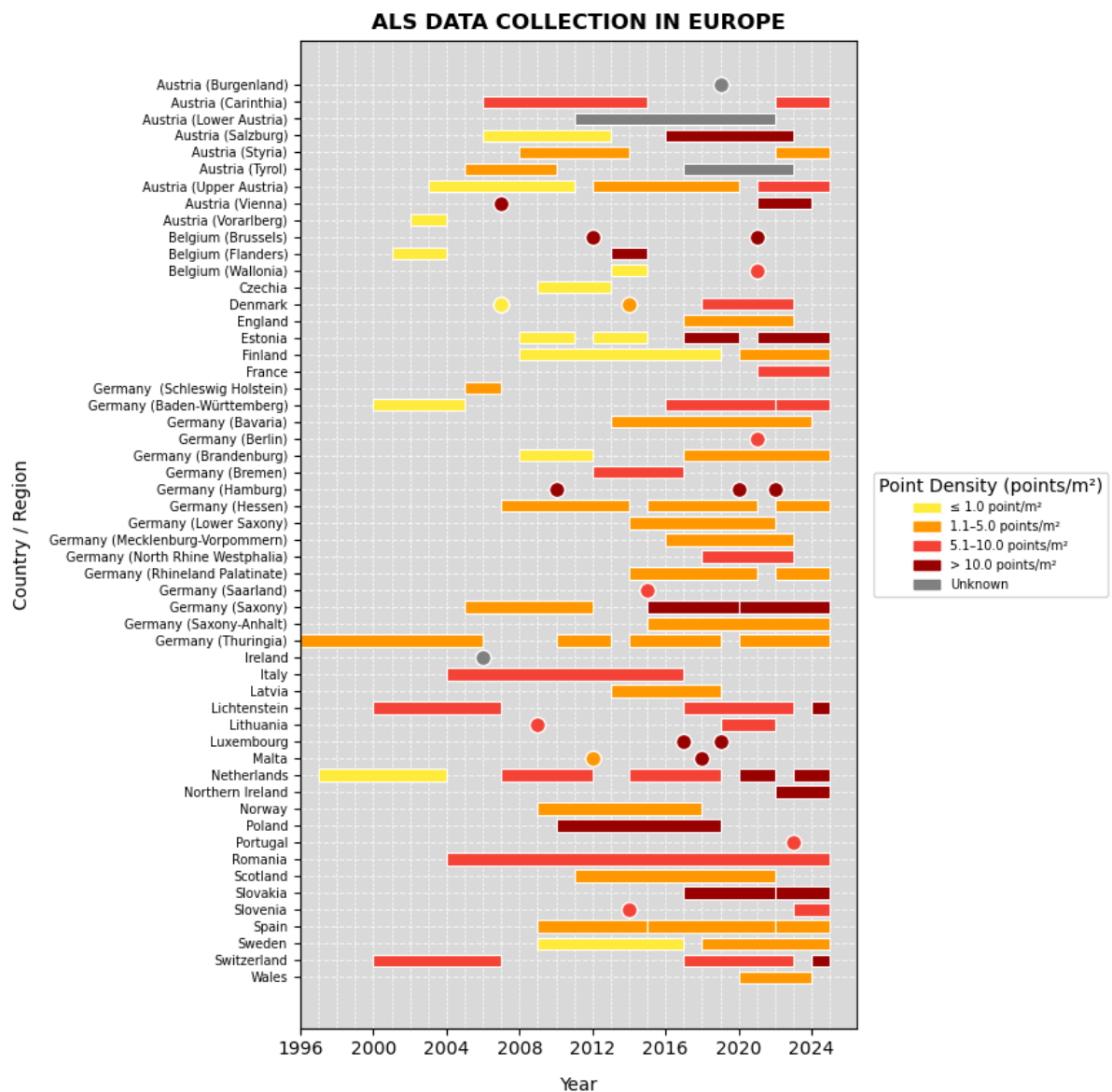


Figure 3. Years of acquisition of airborne laser scanning campaigns conducted by governmental institutions in Europe, including point density information where available. Note that the information provided is likely incomplete, both in terms of available data and their metadata, as these are documented to varying degrees and reliability. In addition, the years of acquisition may also include the preparation and processing time (i.e., +/- 1 year), as it is often difficult to distinguish whether only the acquisition years are reported or if they also include data processing. Similarly, it is difficult to distinguish whether point or pulse density is reported. Therefore, we use the single term point density.

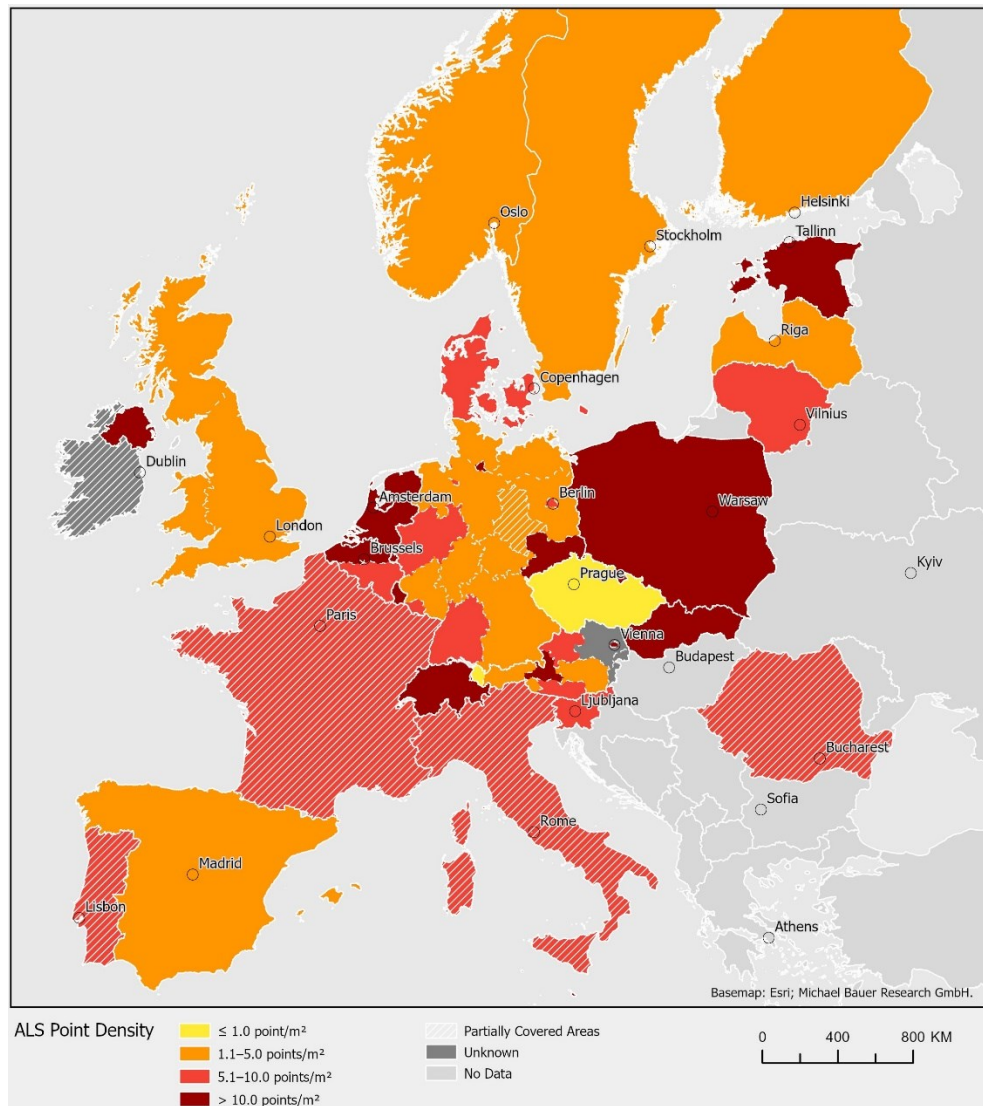


Figure 4. Coverage of Europe by airborne laser scanning campaigns conducted by governmental institutions, including information on maximum point densities (typically from the latest campaign) where available. Status as of 2025.

The first step lies in creating a near-continental CHM using existing data, which would require consideration of the following aspects that present challenges to achieving consistent and reliable products: (i) inconsistencies in pulse density and classification accuracy across datasets and countries, (ii) temporal inconsistency (e.g., scans with differences in acquisitions in the order of several years or scans conducted in leaf-on vs leaf-off periods), and (iii) availability and reliability of (meta)data.

5.1 Inconsistencies in pulse density and classification accuracy

Combining lidar data from different instruments is challenging, as vegetation structural metrics can differ due to the variations in acquisition parameters, such as point density (Roussel et al. 2017; Zhang et al. 2024, Fischer et al. 2024). However, such inconsistencies can be compensated for by selecting a

reasonable resolution of the final product. The typical point densities of lidar point clouds available in Europe are around 1-5 points per square meter; still, they vary considerably across the continent (Figure 3, Figure 4). For the low point densities, it is advisable to calculate vegetation metrics at coarser resolutions (e.g., 10 or 20 meters) to minimize potential errors in estimating the vegetation structure (Ruiz et al. 2014; Wilkes et al. 2015; D'Amico et al. 2021). On the other hand, vegetation metrics, such as upper percentiles of height, are generally less sensitive to point cloud properties (Roussel et al. 2017; LaRue et al. 2022; Fischer et al. 2024; Kissling et al. 2024), and deriving a canopy height model at a 10-meter resolution should provide a reasonable balance between spatial resolution and vertical accuracy. The point cloud classification across countries, with differences in methods such as automated classification, visual inspection, and AI algorithms, constitute another factor. While classes like terrain, vegetation, and buildings are commonly classified, power lines, bridges, and viaducts are rarely included, potentially introducing bias in vegetation metrics (Shi and Kissling 2023). However, this may not be a major issue if the focus is primarily on forests or nature reserves, where even less accurate classifications can still provide better results than predicted CHMs.

5.2 Temporal inconsistency

The temporal inconsistency of ALS data acquisition across countries is a concern, as ALS surveys remain costly and infrequent. Moreover, ALS data collection often predominantly aims to provide accurate topographic modeling, so many countries carry out scans under leaf-off conditions (such as Slovenia, England, Czechia, and the Netherlands). However, in some countries, scanning is explicitly timed to occur close to peak vegetation greenness (e.g., Estonia), while in other countries it depends on the region (e.g., Spain). Some countries may even merge point clouds across different scanning periods (France). Therefore, the density of vegetation returns may vary considerably depending on when the data were collected. If not accounted for, the resulting differences could introduce substantial bias and limit the usability and accuracy of harmonized vegetation structure maps. In addition, as new advancements in scanning technology emerge (e.g., higher pulse repetition frequency, use of multiple wavelengths), older datasets can become less compatible with current data (i.e., due to considerable differences in pulse repetition frequencies), making it challenging to ensure compatibility. If we consider European countries where data have already been collected or are in the process of being collected, the time span between the first and last scans amounts to about 15 years (2009-2024; Figure 3). While this is not optimal, a 10-year difference can introduce (as illustrated above) less errors than the predicted maps (Figure 2). It also indicates that with a coordinated effort, it should be possible to achieve a better temporal range similar to the US 3DEP (9 years) for the entire continent of Europe within this decade.

5.3 (Meta)data availability and reliability

Although the data have different characteristics as mentioned above, it is possible to derive vegetation structure metrics in raster format at a relatively fine resolution (Assmann et al. 2022; Kissling et al. 2022). This requires detailed documentation of the metadata in order to develop standardized processing pipelines that can account for differences in scanning properties (Fischer et al. 2024). However, metadata, if available, are documented with various degrees of depth and reliability, which significantly limits their accessibility and utility for potential users. For example, we made every effort to review the characteristics of ALS data available in Europe (Table S1), but we had to limit our focus to point density and the year of data acquisition. This was due to the difficulty of narrowing down the acquisition time to the exact month, the lack of announcements regarding future acquisitions, and the absence of information on the classification categories and methods used to classify them. Therefore, in line with the FAIR guiding principles (Wilkinson et al. 2016), it is important that ALS surveys provide standardized, machine-readable metadata of survey variables and sensor characteristics, as well as documentation of preprocessing steps and provenance of (sub)national ALS point cloud datasets (Kissling et al. 2024).

In addition, in many cases, accessing the data itself is difficult, as point clouds are still not freely available in several European states (e.g. Austria, Romania, Malta). Furthermore, while ALS data have been collected over multiple time periods in some parts of Europe (Figure 3), and countries such as Estonia, the Netherlands, and Spain openly provide all existing data, in other areas only the data from the most recent period are easily accessible (e.g., Saxony, Switzerland). Hence, establishment of a centralized repository, and creation of a metadata catalogue with human- and machine-readable metadata would be a major step forward (Kissling et al. 2024). Access to funding will be a crucial factor in this effort. A European funding initiative similar to 3DEP, supported by the EU, would be a good approach to generate vegetation structure metrics from existing data, to establish a centralized repository, and to collect data in European countries where ALS data is not yet available or where only limited coverage exists, such as the Balkans, Hungary, and Moldova.

6. Conclusions

The availability of remote sensing data greatly facilitates forestry and ecological research. On the other hand, the growing number of datasets of varying quality introduces challenges regarding which datasets to choose. Users typically do not have the chance (and/or expertise) to critically evaluate the available data. It is therefore essential to ensure that data producers clearly communicate the limitations of their datasets. Predicted CHM products should provide reliable uncertainty estimates and visualizations of vegetation profiles (Figure 1) for representative areas and ecosystems.

For vegetation structure, accurate, consistent, and repeatable continental products derived from ALS data are key and should be prioritized over predicted spaceborne products. We strongly recommend that ALS-rich regions prioritize the production of ALS-based canopy height maps over relying solely on modeled global data. In Europe, the first step lies in creating a near-continental CHM using existing data (Figure 4), which, given the differences in the data collected, is possible at a reasonably fine spatial (e.g. 10 – 20 m) and temporal (e.g. 15 years) resolution.

To ensure the effective use of ALS in vegetation mapping across Europe in the future, a better transnational coordination is needed. It is necessary to establish a common data collection protocol to harmonize mapping activities (e.g., time of acquisition, pulse densities, updating period), a centralized repository for data sharing, as well as a metadata catalogue. A European wide coordination of data collection will lead to improved forest management, ecosystem monitoring, and climate change modeling on a continental scale, and provide a benchmark for calibrating spaceborne laser altimetry products.

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Open Research

The evaluated global canopy height models, that is, the global forest canopy height (Potapov et al., 2021), the high-resolution canopy height model of the Earth (Lang et al., 2023), and the global map of tree canopy height (Tolan et al., 2024) are provided under Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. The canopy height model of Europe at 3 m resolution was kindly provided by Liu et al. (2023). The canopy height models of Giant Mountains National park (2012 and 2022), derived from airborne laser scanning and used for evaluation of global canopy height models, are available from Zenodo: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14270020> (Moudrý, 2024).

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