Enhancing Hyrcanian Forest Height and Aboveground Biomass Predictions: A Synergistic Use of TanDEM-X InSAR Coherence, Sentinel-1, and Sentinel-2 Data

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Abstract—Forest height (FH) is an important driver for aboveground biomass (AGB) that can be obtained using interferometric synthetic aperture radar (InSAR). However, the limited access to the quad-polarimetric data or high-accuracy terrain model makes FH retrieval a challenging task. This study aimed to retrieve FH and further predict AGB by combining TanDEM-X InSAR coherence, Sentinel-1 (S-1), and Sentinel-2 (S-2) data. A total of 125 sample plots with a size of 900 m² were established in a broadleaved forest of Kheyroud, Iran. The linear and sinc models obtained by simplification of the random volume over ground model were used for deriving FH_{Lin} and FH_{Sinc}. Further investigation was conducted when S-1 and S-2 features including backscatters and multispectral information were added to FH predictions. Using the above-mentioned datasets and FH as an additional predictor, AGB was also predicted. K-nearest neighbor (k-NN), random forest (RF), and support vector regression (SVR) were employed for prediction. Lorey's mean height and AGB at sample plots were used in the accuracy assessment. Using the SVR method and synergy of FH_{Sinc}, S-1, and S-2 features, the FH prediction was improved (FH_{imp}) with RMSE of 3.18 m and $R^2 = 0.59$. The AGB prediction with RF and the combination of S-1 and S-2 features resulted in RMSE = 62.88 Mg·ha⁻¹ (19.77%) that was improved to RMSE = 51.27 Mg·ha⁻¹ (16.12%) when FH_{imp} included. This study highlighted the capability of TanDEM-X InSAR coherence with certain geometry for FH prediction. Also, the importance of

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FH in AGB predictions can stimulate further attempts aiming at higher spatiotemporal accuracies.

Index Terms—Machine learning, multispectral, random volume over ground (RVoG), sinc model, single-pass.

I. INTRODUCTION

F ORESTS are one of the most important terrestrial ecosystems and impact climate change mitigation, the global carbon cycle, and human life [1], [2], [3]. However, obtaining accurate and up-to-date information about forest structural attributes, especially forest height (FH), is challenging [4]. FH can be used in wood volume, form factor, yield tables, and site index estimation [5], [6], [7]. Moreover, it relates to aboveground biomass (AGB) via allometric equations [8]. AGB is the largest carbon pool directly influenced by deforestation and forest degradation [9], [10]. Moreover, it is needed for the ecological modeling of forests and productivity [11]. Thus, developing accurate ways for monitoring and predicting AGB is important.

Field measurements of FH are time-consuming and costly, and AGB is even impractical [5], [12], [13]. In addition, field measurements are often insufficient to provide up-to-date information on the extent, spatial distribution, and temporal changes of forest cover over large areas [14], [15], [16]. Therefore, the implementation of a more economical source of data is needed [17]. Currently, various space-borne sensors provide an appropriate source of information for predicting and mapping forest attributes [5], [13], [18]. Optical sensors have been intensively used for AGB prediction across different study areas [19], [20], [21], [22], [23], [24]. However, the reflectance comes from the top of the forest canopy while the AGB is concentrated in tree stems mostly [13]. Synthetic aperture radar (SAR) is a useful instrument with the ability to penetrate the vertical structure of forests due to its long wavelength. SAR sensors provide a wallto-wall source of data not affected by weather conditions that are comparable with optical remote sensing [15], [17], [25], [26]. The lack of systematic and consistent field measurements makes the estimates of large-area AGB maps unreliable. However, Santoro and Cartus [27] is a known example where Sentinel-1, Envisat, ALOS-1, and -2 satellites, along with additional information from earth observation sources were used in creating

© 2024 The Authors. This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 License. For more information, see https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/ a global AGB map. Generally, SAR techniques were used for characterizing forest structures with two different approaches that are direct interpretation of backscattered SAR signal and interpretation of interferometric SAR (InSAR) measurements [4]. The first approach usually exhibits signal saturation, especially in a forest with high biomass. The level of observed saturation depends on the sensor wavelength, polarization, local climate, weather conditions, and forest structure itself [13]. In the second method, one interferometric pair of images is used for deriving FH that can be further used in AGB prediction [28], [29]. This method has the potential to overcome the saturation problem of the first one [30].

Many studies have demonstrated the potential of InSAR coherence, phase, and their combination in FH prediction [31], [32], [33], [34]. Also, reliable predictions have been obtained by model-based methods including the random volume over ground (RVoG) model at different site conditions [35], [36], [37], [38]. However, deriving FH from InSAR coherence introduces challenges. First, temporal decorrelation is caused by current space-borne systems mostly offering repeat-pass InSAR data. Second, the poor availability of fully-polarimetric SAR data and/or high-accuracy digital elevation model (DEM) is another limiting factor. Finally, the computational complexity of FH inversion from scattering models makes it complicated [4]. The bistatic terraSAR-X add-on for digital elevation measurement (TanDEM-X) is the only current single-pass space-borne interferometer allowing to neglect of temporal decorrelation. Previous studies showed its sensitivity to FH prediction in boreal and tropical forests [29], [39], [40]. Also, utilizing simplified semi-empirical models was found useful to avoid some of the above-mentioned limitations [28], [37], [41], [42], [43]. Olesk et al. [4] proposed four semi-empirical coherence-based models for FH retrieval prediction using TanDEM-X data in the Hemiboreal forests of Estonia. All models exhibited a strong relationship between InSAR coherence and FH following the RVoG model. Another study investigated the effect of season on FH prediction in the same study area [4]. Schlund and Boehm [44] addressed the prediction of FH and AGB using TanDEM-X coherence data and semi-empirical models in tropical areas. They found that FH and AGB can be predicted with relative root mean square error (rRMSE) of 16% and 21% respectively. In another study, Gómez et al. [42] showed the potential of TanDEM-X coherence data and semi-empirical models for FH prediction in the Mediterranean Forests of Spain by R² of 0.91 and root mean square error (RMSE) of 1.24 m. However, the mentioned accuracy was limited to slopes below 10°. Chen et al. [45] indicated that the single-pass X-band interferometric coherence data and the sinc model were able to predict FH with $R^2 > 0.75$ and residual errors of approximately 2.9 m in Canada.

In this study, we aimed to enhance FH and AGB predictions by the synergistic use of single-pass TanDEM-X, Sentinel-1 (S-1), and Sentinel-2 (S-2) datasets in a highly diverse broadleaved forest of Iran. The lack of accurate DEM and the unavailability of fully polarimetric SAR data are the reasons that have stimulated attempts at FH prediction using InSAR coherence. Accordingly, two simplified semi-empirical models obtained from RVoG including the sinc and the linear models were used to show the dependency of InSAR coherence with FH in the leaf-off

TABLE I SUMMARY OF PLOT-LEVEL FIELD DATA

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	Std.	
Mean dbh (cm)	18.20	91.70	45.60	11.40	
Mean height (m)	17.86	35.81	27.54	4.92	
Mean volume (m ³)	29.28	71.49	48.94	11.87	
Number of trees (n)	8.00	73.00	19.00	8.44	

conditions. To improve the FH prediction accuracy (FH_{imp}), Sentinel-1 (S-1) backscatter coefficients and polarization indices and Sentinel-2 (S-2) multispectral bands, biophysical parameters, and vegetation indices were included in the analysis separately and in combination. The AGB was also predicted using the extracted features from S-1 and S-2 individually and in combination, and further improved by including FH_{imp}. We also compared the accuracy of three machine learning methods *k*-nearest neighbor (*k*-NN), random forest (RF), and support vector regression (SVR) in predicting FH and AGB. Our results addressed the potential of TanDEM-X data for FH prediction and its importance on AGB accuracies.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Study Area

This study was conducted in an area of 800 ha of the Gorazbon and Chelir districts of Kheyruod forest, Northern Iran (see Fig. 1). The forest has been managed by the University of Tehran since 1941 and includes broadleaved, mixed, and unevenaged structures. Our study area is bounded by the longitude of 51°.32′-51°.43′ E, and latitudes of 36°.27′-36°.40′ N. The mean elevation ranges from 1200 to 1400 m above sea level. *Fagus orientalis, Carpinus betulus, Acer* sp., and *Alnus subcordata* are the dominant species in the area.

B. Field Data

To investigate the potential of TanDEM-X data in characterizing forest structure, it is necessary to augment it with field measurements. We employed a random sampling approach across the study area; 125 square sample plots with an area of 900 m² (30 m × 30 m) were established. The field inventory was carried out in July 2018. Tree species, diameter at breast height (DBH), and height of all trees with DBH larger than 7.5 cm were recorded. DBH and height were measured by caliper and TruPulse 360 laser range finder respectively. The exact location of each sample plot was recorded by the Trimble R3 differential global positioning system using postprocessing kinematics. Table I presents the descriptive statistics of the plot-level field data.

In this study, Lorey's mean height was used to calculate FH predictions at sample plots. It is calculated as the average height of individual trees weighted by their basal area (1). Many studies have shown Lorey's mean height as an appropriate indicator of height in un-even aged forest stands and relevant to the volumetric height measured by SAR data [7], [46]. Notably, Lorey's mean height is less affected by the thinning and mortality



Fig. 1. Location of study area in the north of Iran (left) and distribution of in-situ sample plots (right).

of smaller trees [47], [48]

$$h_{\text{lorey}} = \frac{\sum_{i}^{n} g_i \times h_i}{\sum_{i}^{n} g_i} \tag{1}$$

where g_i refers to the basal area of *i*th tree (m²) and h_i is the height of the tree (m).

The world equation was used to predict AGB based on existing volume data [49]. We used official multispecies single-entry volume tables for calculating each individual tree volume [50]. It is denoted as Tariff with DBH being used as the entry to table (2)–(4)

Fagus orientalis:
$$v = 0.000498d^{2.215} R^2 = 0.996$$
 (2)

Carpinus betulus : $v = 0.000023d^{1.0432}$ $R^2 = 0.999$ (3)

Other species:
$$v = 0.00133d^{1.974}$$
 $R^2 = 0.994$ (4)

where v is the stem volume (m^3) and d is dbh (cm). Then, the inventoried tree volume was converted to the AGB (5) by its multiplication into species-specific wood-critical density (WCD) [51], [52]. WCD is defined as the oven-dry mass per unit of green volume [52] that is 0.56, 0.68, 0.57, and 0.57 Mg·m³ for *Fagus orientalis, Carpinus betulus, Acer* sp., and *Alnus subcordata*, respectively [51], [53].

$$AGB = Volume \times WCD$$
(5)

where AGB is the aboveground tree biomass (Mg), Volume is the inventoried volume of tree (m³), and WCD refers to wood critical density (Mg·m⁻³). It is worth mentioning that plot-level AGB was obtained by summing up all individual trees AGB per plot. Table II shows the summary statistics of Lorey's mean height and AGB across the sample plots. (For more information, see Table XII and Fig. 9 in the Appendix).

TABLE II SUMMARY STATISTICS OF THE FIELD MEASURED LOREY'S MEAN HEIGHT AND FOREST AGB

Variable	Min	Mean	Max	Std.
Lorey's mean height (m)	21.33	34.54	47.89	5.25
AGB (Mg·ha ⁻¹)	191.68	320.86	468.66	77.87

The minimum (MIN), mean, maximum (MAX), and standard deviation (STD.) are reported.

 TABLE III

 GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF TANDEM-X DATA

Date	Polarization	Look angle (°)	HoA (m)
08.02.2014	HH	42.66	53.4

C. TanDEM-X Data and Processing

Interferometric TanDEM-X data was acquired at stripmap mode with HH polarization in February 2014. The image was collected during the leaf-off season with the descending pass, the effective baseline of 102.9 m, and the height of ambiguity (HoA) of 53.4 m (Table III). The product was delivered in a co-registered single-look slant range complex (CoSSCs) format with azimuth and range spacing of 2.16 m and 1.36 m.

The sentinel application platform (SNAP) software was used for interferogram generation and calculating complex interferometric coherence. The flat-earth and topography-induced phases were subtracted from the interferogram using an AIOS PALSAR DEM with a resolution of 12.5 m. Interferometric coherence explains the degree of similarity between corresponding pixels of two images and is defined by the absolute value of InSAR coherence ranges between 0 and 1 representing the weak and strong correlation between two images respectively as follows:

$$\gamma = \frac{|\langle S_1 S_2^* \rangle|}{\sqrt{\langle S_1 S_1^* \rangle \langle S_2 S_2^* \rangle}}, \ 0 \le \gamma \le 1$$
(6)

where γ denotes the complex interferometric coherence, S_1 and S_2 are signals received at either end of the bassline, * refer to complex conjugation, | | indicates the magnitude of complex data, and <... > presents the expected value averaged over a spatial window [54]. In this study, the boxcar window algorithm with the size of 10×10 pixels was used to predict coherence. Finally, the range Doppler terrain correction method was applied by utilizing AIOS PALSAR 12.5 m DEM [55]. The average of coherence corresponding to each sample plot was extracted for further analysis.

1) RVoG-Based Semi-Empirical Models: RVoG is one of the common scattering models defining coherence as a function of FH [56]. However, it needs more parameters to retrieve FH, which entails the use of fully polarimetric SAR or high-accuracy DEM data [57]. The RVoG model simplification proposed by Olesk et al. [4] can be an alternative in the case of singlepolarized TanDEM-X data. It resulted in a set of semi-empirical models containing a physical-based framework for the use of InSAR coherence in FH9 retrieval. Accordingly, two semiempirical models of sinc and linear based on the assumptions of neglecting extinction and ground reflection were used to retrieve FH_{Sinc} and FH_{Lin} respectively. The sinc model represents the trigonometric function $\sin(x)/x$ and the FH_{Sinc} can be inverted afterward (7). Similarly, the linear model was constructed to make a linear relation between $\ensuremath{\text{FH}_{\mathrm{Lin}}}$ and interferometric coherence as (8)

$$|\gamma| = 0.95 \operatorname{Sinc} \left(C_{\operatorname{Sinc}} \pi \frac{\operatorname{FH}_{\operatorname{Sinc}}}{\operatorname{HoA}} \right)$$
 (7)

$$|\gamma| = 1 - \frac{\mathrm{FH}_{\mathrm{Lin}}}{\mathrm{HoA}} C_{\mathrm{lin}} \tag{8}$$

where $|\gamma|$ is the coherence amplitude, FH_{Sinc} and FH_{Lin} refer to the FH (m) derived from sinc and linear models respectively, and HoA is the height corresponding to an interferometric phase change of 2π (m). These models introduce empirical parameters of C_{Sinc} and C_{lin} as well.

D. Sentinel Data and Processing

The copernicus open access data including Sentinel-1 (S-1) and Sentinel-2 (S-2) were used in this study. The C-band S-1 data was acquired in descending pass on 31 July 2018 corresponding to the field inventory campaign. It was collected in the Interferometric Wide Swath mode with two polarization channels of VV and VH. The acquisition range of incidence angle was between 30.92° and 46.32°. Similarly, the cloud-free S-2 data was delivered in Level-1C on 25 September 2018. All the S-1 and S-2 data processing were performed using SNAP software as described in the following.

S-1 data was processed to obtain radiometrically terrainflattened (gamma-naught) backscatter coefficients γ° in VV and VH polarizations. To accomplish this, the VV and VH intensities were converted to γ° using radiometric normalization according to the local incidence angle, filtered for speckle noise by refined Lee algorithm [58], and converted to *dB* (see Table IV). Finally, the range-Doppler terrain correction was applied for the geocoding. For this purpose, the 12.5 m AIOS PALSAR DEM was utilized [55]. In addition, five polarization indices of the ratio (VH/VV), the difference (VH-VV), multiplication (VH×VV), mean ((VH + VV)/2), and square root ($\sqrt{VH \times VV}$) were calculated as predictor features (see Table IV) [23], [59], [60].

To process S-2 data, a SEN2COR atmospheric processor was applied to convert the S-2 Level-1C top-of-atmosphere into the S-2 level-2A bottom-of-atmosphere product [61]. Out of the 13 spectral bands, 4 visible and near-infrared, 3 red edges, and 3 short-wavelength infrared bands were extracted for further pre-processing (see Table IV) [62]. The existing 12.5 m DEM of ALOS PALSAR was used to assess the geometric accuracy of S-2 images. In addition to main spectral bands, twelve vegetation indices and five biophysical parameters including leaf area index (LAI), leaf chlorophyll content (Cab), canopy water content (CWC), fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (FAPAR), and fractional vegetation cover (FCOVER) were calculated (see Table IV). The computation of biophysical products using reflectance images of S-2 was performed through the application of the "L2B biophysical processor" (version 1.1) [59], [63]. It has been developed using a training neural network algorithm over the PROSAIL radiative transfer model [64], [65].

E. Machine Learning Methods

In this study, three machine learning methods of k-NN, RF, and SVR were used to predict FH and AGB. The caret (classification and regression training) package of R was used to implement methods [77] described further.

k-NN method is often used for predicting forest structural characteristics and for small-area estimation with the help of auxiliary remote sensing data [78], [79], [80]. To predict the value of the unknown response variable, a linear combination of k known observations, nearest in the feature space, is calculated. In this study, a rectangular kernel with k varying between 1 and 20 was tested. Moreover, the capability of four distance metrics was evaluated, namely Euclidean, Euclidean Squared, Chebyshev, and Manhattan.

RF method is one of the common nonparametric methods in forest studies that is based on regression trees [13], [81], [82]. This method is known for its potential to reduce systematic errors and overfitting [83]. In other words, the regression trees continue to grow until a minimum error of response features is achieved. We determined the optimal k predictors in a range of the square root of the predictor features number ± 2 . The number of decision trees was set to 500.

SVR is one of the nonparametric methods that assumes a unique relationship between each set of predictor and response features. For grouping among predictor features, the hyperplanes in multidimensional space will be built from the predictor features acting as axes [84]. We considered four different kernels of

TABLE IV LIST OF S-1 AND S-2 PREDICTOR FEATURES USED FOR PREDICTING FH AND AGB

Mission		Predictor feature	Description/Resolution
Sentinel-1	Polarization	VV	Vertical transmit-vertical channel
		VH	Vertical transmit-horizontal channel
	Polarization indices	VH/VV	The ratio of VH and VV
		VH-VV	Difference between VH and VV
		VH×VV	Multiplication between VH and VV
		(VH + VV)/2	Mean of VH and VV
		$\sqrt{VH \times VV}$	The square root of VH and VV
Sentinel-2	Multispectral Bands	Blue band (B2)	0.458–0.523 μm/10 m
		Green band (B3)	0.543–0.578 μm/10 m
		Red band (B4)	0.650–0.680 µm/10 m
		Red-edge 1 (RE1) (B5)	0.698–0.713 μm/20 m
		Red-edge 2 (RE2) (B6)	0.733–0.748 μm/20 m
		Red-edge 3 (RE3) (B7)	0.773–0.793 μm/20 m
		Near-infrared (NIR) (B8)	0.785–0.900 μm/10 m
		Near-infrared narrow (NIRn) (B8A)	0.855–0.875 μm/20 m
		Short wave infrared 1 (SWIR1) (B11)	1.565–1.655 μm/20 m
		Short wave infrared 2 (SWIR2) (B12)	2.100–2.280 μm/20 m
	Vegetation Biophysical	LAI	Leaf Area Index
	Features	Cab	Chlorophyll content in the leaf
		CWC	Canopy water content
		FAPAR	Fraction of absorbed photosynthetically active
			radiation
		FCOVER	Fraction of vegetation cover
	Vegetation Indices	Difference Vegetation Index (DVI) [66]	[NIR (B8)–Red (B4)]
		Normalized Difference Vegetation	[NIR (B8)–Red (B4)] / [NIR (B8) +Red (B4)]
		Index (NDVI) [67]	
		Green Normalized Difference	[NIR (B8)-Green (B3)] / [NIR (B8) + Green (B3)]
		Vegetation Index (GNDVI) [68]	
		Infrared Percentage Vegetation Index [69]	[NIR (B8)/ (NIR (B8) + Red (B4))]/(NDVI+1)
		Ratio Vegetation Index (RVI) [70]	[NIR (B8) / NIR (B8)]
		Global Environmental Monitoring Index [71]	[n(1-0.25n)–(Red (B4)-0.125/1–Red (B4))]
		Meris Terrestrial Chlorophyll Index (MTCI) [72]	[RE2 (B6)–RE1 (B5)] / (RE1 (B5) + Red (B4)]
		Red-Edge Inflection Point Index	700 + 40*[(((Red (B4)+RE3 (B7))/2)–RE1 (B5))/(RE2 (B6) RE1 (B5))]
		Normalized Difference Index	[RE1 (B5)-Red (B4)]/[RE1 (B5)+Red (B4)]
		[74]	
		Pigment Specific Simple Ratio	[RE3 (B7)-Red (B4)]/[RE1 (B5)/RE2 (B6)]
		[75]	
		Sentinel-2 Red-Edge Position Index	705 + 35*[(((Red (B4)-RE3 (B7))/2)-RE1 (B5))/(
		[76]	RE2 (B6)–RE1 (B5))]
		Inverted Red-Edge Chlorophyll Index	[RE3 (B7)/Red (B4)]
		(IRECI) [76]	



Fig. 2. Flowchart of applied methodology to predict FH and AGB.

linear, polynomials degrees 2 and 3, radial basis function (RBF), and sigmoid in terms of prediction accuracy.

F. Accuracy Assessment

A repeated *K*-fold cross-validation approach was used in model training and validation. The data were randomly split into K = 5 folds with a size of 25 per iteration where the training is carried out on *K*-1 folds while the remaining fold is used for the validation. The procedure was repeated up to three times generating *K* performance scores. The mean of generated scores defines the performance of the model. The coefficient of determination (R^2), RMSE, rRMSE, mean absolute error (MAE), and relative MAE (rMAE) were used for evaluating the predictions (9)–(13)

$$R^{2} = 1 - \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (O_{i} - P_{i})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (O_{i} - \bar{O})^{2}}\right)$$
(9)

RMSE =
$$\left[n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (P_i - O_i)^2\right]^{1/2}$$
 (10)

$$RMSE = \frac{RMSE}{\bar{O}} \times 100$$
(11)

$$MAE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |P_i - O_i|}{n}$$
(12)

$$rMAE = \frac{MAE}{\bar{O}} \times 100$$
(13)

where *n* is the number of sample plots, O_i is the observed value, P_i is the predicted value, and \overline{O} refers to the mean of observed values. Fig. 2 depicts the methodology flowchart.

III. RESULTS

A. Predicting FH Using TanDEM-X InSAR Coherence

Results of linear and sinc semi-empirical models in FH prediction indicate that the sinc model had better performance in comparison with the linear model with $R^2 = 0.45$ and rRMSE = 12.39% (see Table V). The scatterplot of observed versus FH_{Sinc} predicted by the sinc model is presented in Fig. 3.

TABLE V	
RESULT OF FH PREDICTION BASED ON SEMI-EMPIRICAL MODELS	3



Fig. 3. Observed versus predicted FH using the sinc model (FH_{Sinc}).

B. Improved FH Prediction (FH_{imp}) by the Inclusion of S-1 and S-2 Data

To improve the FH_{Sinc} predictions, S-1 and S-2 predictor features were also included separately and in combination. Tables VI–VIII show the FH_{imp} predictions provided by *k*-NN, RF, and SVR machine learning methods, respectively. Here, the combination of FH_{Sinc} and S-2 was more accurate than the combination with S-1 data for FH_{imp} prediction. The obtained rRMSE for *k*-NN, RF, and SVR methods were 10.91%, 10.74%, and 10.36% respectively.

In general, the combination of FH_{Sinc} , S-1, and S-2 achieves the highest accuracy in FH_{imp} prediction compared to other combinations of datasets. The SVR method with RBF kernel produced the best results with R^2 of 0.59 and RMSE of 3.18 m (rRMSE = 9.21%). A scatter plot of observed Lorey's mean height against predicted FH_{imp} using the SVR method has been illustrated in Fig. 4.

C. AGB Prediction and Validation

The AGB prediction was examined using two different approaches. First, AGB was predicted using S-1 and S-2 predictors separately and then in combination. Second, the gain in accuracy was evaluated for a scenario when FH_{imp} was combined with the abovementioned datasets. Tables IX–XI show the results of AGB prediction using *k*-NN, RF, and SVR, respectively. Generally, S-2 showed more accurate results than S-1 for AGB prediction (RMSE = 65.51 Mg·ha⁻¹, rMAE = 17.03%, $R^2 = 0.37$). The errors decreased when using both S-1 and S-2 with the RF method ($R^2 = 0.40$ and RMSE = 62.88 Mg·ha⁻¹).

The RF model, combining FH_{imp} and features from S-1 and S-2 as predictors, reduced errors in AGB predictions with



Fig. 4. Observed versus improved FH (FH_{imp}) predicted by SVR method.



Fig. 5. Scatterplot of measured versus predicted AGB using the RF method and a combination of S-1, S-2, and FH_{imp} .

 $R^2 = 0.66$ and rRMSE of 16.12%. Fig. 5 shows the scatterplot of measured versus predicted AGB using the best model. The final AGB map was also created by applying that model to the whole study area [see Fig. 6(a)]. For comparison reasons, the global AGB map in 2018 corresponding to our study area resampled to 30 m is presented in Fig. 6(b) (See Santoro and Cartus [27]). It was created in a 100 m resolution using S-1 and ALOS-2 as a part of the European Space Agency's Climate Change Initiative program. Based on the visual comparison, a minor spatial agreement existed between our AGB map and the Santoro and Cartus [27] map, particularly in areas with lower AGB. While the effect of AGB saturation in the Santoro and Cartus [27] map was clearly observed (see Fig. 6).

IV. DISCUSSION

This study focused on the syringic use of TanDEM-X singlepolarized, S-1, and S-2 datasets to predict the FH and AGB of trees. The FH predictions were first obtained using semiempirical models of linear and sinc derived from the RVoG

Dataset	Distance	k max	RMSE (m)	rRMSE (%)	(R ²)	MAE (m)	rMAE (%)
	Euclidean	8	4.48	12.97	0.43	3.57	10.33
$FH_{Sinc} + Sentinel - 1$	Euclidean Squared	7	4.53	13.11	0.41	3.61	10.45
	Manhatan	15	4.55	13.17	0.42	3.64	10.54
	Chebychev	6	4.28	12.39	0.49	3.42	9.90
	Euclidean	11	3.77	10.91	0.50	2.95	8.54
FH _{Sine} + Sentinel-2	Euclidean Squared	12	3.88	11.23	0.47	3.10	8.97
	Manhatan	15	3.81	11.03	0.43	3.27	9.47
	Chebychev	6	3.81	11.03	0.49	3.01	8.71
	Euclidean	11	3.54	10.25	0.49	2.64	7.64
FH_{Sinc} + Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2	Euclidean Squared	5	3.53	10.22	0.48	2.61	7.56
	Manhatan	6	3.49	10.10	0.53	2.61	7.56
	Chebychev	6	3.49	10.10	0.52	2.63	7.61

TABLE VI Results of the K-NN Method for Improving FH Predictions (FH $_{\rm IMP})$

TABLE VII Results of the RF Method for Improving FH Predictions $(FH_{\rm IMP})$

Dataset	Optimal	Number of	RMSE	rRMSE	(R ²)	MAE	rMAE
	number of trees	predictors (k)	(m)	(%)		(m)	(%)
	500	1	4.28	12.39	0.46	3.41	9.87
	500	2	4.29	12.42	0.48	3.39	9.81
$FH_{Sinc} + Sentinel-1$	500	3	4.18	12.10	0.50	3.29	9.52
	500	4	4.21	12.19	0.49	3.31	9.58
	500	5	4.22	12.22	0.49	3.33	9.64
	500	3	3.86	11.17	0.48	3.04	8.80
	500	4	3.71	10.74	0.51	3.03	8.77
FH _{Sinc} + Sentinel-2	500	5	3.72	10.77	0.50	3.07	8.89
	500	6	3.72	10.77	0.50	3.07	8.89
	500	7	3.80	11.00	0.48	3.15	9.12
	500	4	3.62	10.48	0.51	2.81	8.13
	500	5	3.40	9.84	0.54	2.63	7.61
FH_{Sinc} + Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2	500	6	3.35	9.70	0.55	2.59	7.50
	500	7	3.32	9.61	0.54	2.54	7.35
	500	8	3.31	9.58	0.58	2.52	7.29

model. We found the sinc model to be more accurate than the linear model in predicting FH (RMSE of 4.28 m and R^2 of 0.45) in the broadleaved forest of Iran (see Table V), which is in line with the results obtained by Praks et al. [6] in Hemiboreal forest. It decreased the rRMSE by 3.24% when compared with the Linear model (see Table V), although, the acceptable performance of both linear and sinc models for FH prediction has been reported in previous studies [4], [47]. It is worth mentioning that the FH prediction accuracy largely depends on the HoA which is 53.4 m in our case. According to [42] and [45], the sensitivity of InSAR coherence to FH changes would be optimum when the FH ranges between 1/3 of HoA and HoA. Praks et al. [6] also recommended that the HoA should be around twice the height of forest stands. Hence, further experimental research on the effect of acquisition geometry like HoA on FH predictions is needed. Moreover, the local slope is a potential parameter affecting FH accuracies. Gómez et al. [42] have indicated the higher accuracy of the sinc model for FH predictions in the areas with a slope of fewer than 10° in Mediterranean forests. They achieved the best RMSE of 1.24 m and R^2 of 0.91 for FH predictions. Considering the mountainous condition of the Hyrcanian forest of Iran, the slope can be a limiting parameter for large-scale FH mapping. The complexity of the stands and the existence of multispecies can affect the attention rate of the vegetation layer and ground reflectivity. Second, FH_{sinc} predictions were improved by its combination with Sentinel-1 (S-1) and Sentinel-2 (S-2) datasets

Dataset	Kernel	RMSE (m)	rRMSE (%)	(R ²⁾	MAE (m)	rMAE (%)
	Linear	4.30	12.45	0.47	3.39	9.81
	Polynomial	4.28	12.39	0.48	3.33	9.64
$FH_{Sine} + Sentinel - 1$	Radial Basis Function kernel (RBF)	4.35	12.59	0.46	3.43	9.93
	Sigmoid	4.29	12.42	0.47	3.35	9.70
	Linear	3.83	11.09	0.47	3.39	9.81
FH _{Sinc} +Sentinel-2	Polynomial	3.59	10.39	0.55	3.24	9.38
	Radial Basis Function kernel (RBF)	3.61	10.45	0.53	3.29	9.52
	Sigmoid	3.58	10.36	0.55	3.24	9.38
	Linear	3.67	10.62	0.47	3.44	9.96
FH _{Sinc} + Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2	Polynomial	3.22	9.32	0.58	3.19	9.23
	Radial Basis Function kernel (RBF)	3.18	9.21	0.59	3.18	9.21
	Sigmoid	3.20	9.26	0.58	3.19	9.23

TABLE VIII Results of the SVR Method for Improving FH Predictions $(FH_{\rm IMP})$

TABLE IX
RESULTS OF THE K-NN METHOD FOR AGB PREDICTION

Dataset	Distance	k max	RMSE (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	rRMSE (%)	(R ²)	MAE (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	rMAE (%)
	Euclidean	20/19	83.15/77.67	26.14/24.42	0.03/0.28	73.50/68.53	23.11/21.55
Sentinel-1	Euclidean Squared	19/19	83.35/77.75	26.21/24.45	0.02/0.28	73.36/68.63	23.07/21.58
Sentinel-1 + FH_{imp}	Manhatan	20/20	83.66/77.97	26.30/24.52	0.03/0.29	74.18/69.07	23.32/21.72
	Chebychev	19/19	83.35/78.35	26.21/24.64	0.02/0.28	73.36/68.49	23.07/21.54
	Euclidean	7/7	68.86/58.98	21.65/18.54	0.31/0.57	55.89/46.05	17.57/14.48
Sentinel-2	Euclidean Squared	11/8	69.70/62.23	21.92/19.57	0.29/0.50	57.57/49.87	18.10/15.68
Sentinel-2 + FH_{imp}	Manhatan	12/7	68.64/59.65	21.58/18.76	0.32/0.56	57.08/46.74	17.95/14.70
	Chebychev	12/12	68.64/58.64	21.58/18.44	0.32/0.58	57.08/47.08	17.95/14.80
	Euclidean	15/11	66.03/57.89	20.76/18.20	0.36/0.61	55.29/39.91	17.38/12.55
Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2	Euclidean Squared	19/15	67.61/57.57	21.26/18.10	0.37/0.60	56.69/41.00	17.82/12.89
Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2 + FH_{imp}	Manhatan	13/16	66.05/56.46	20.77/17.75	0.36/0.62	55.00/39.86	17.29/12.53
	Chebychev	13/13	66.05/56.05	20.77/17.62	0.36/0.63	55.00/39.00	17.29/12.26



Fig. 6. (a) AGB map of this study predicted by a combination of S-1, S-2, and FH_{imp} predicted by the RF model that was trained with plot-level field data in 2018. (b) Respective global AGB map constructed by Santoro and Cartus [27].

Dataset	Optimal number of trees	Number of predictors (k)	RMSE (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	rRMSE (%)	(R ²)	MAE (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	rMAE (%)
	500	1	88.89/82.44	27.95/25.92	0.02/0.28	77.28/71.88	24.30/22.60
Sentinel-1	500	2	89.26/83.52	28.06/26.26	0.02/0.28	77.39/72.82	24.33/22.90
	500	3	89.43/83.35	28.12/26.21	0.02/0.28	77.33/72.77	24.31/22.88
Sentinel-1 + FH _{imp}	500	4	89.24/83.34	28.06/26.19	0.03/0.28	77.34/72.69	24.32/22.86
	500	5	89.06/83.31	28.00/26.19	0.03/0.28	77.24/72.68	24.29/22.85
	500	3	66.77/56.75	20.99/17.84	0.34/0.60	55.60/45.51	17.48/14.31
Sentinel-2	500	4	66.39/56.31	20.87/17.70	0.35/0.61	55.20/45.16	17.36/14.20
	500	5	65.81/56.42	20.69/17.74	0.36/0.61	54.55/45.20	17.15/14.21
Senunei-2 + F Himp	500	6	65.84/56.25	20.70/17.69	0.36/0.61	54.55/44.85	17.15/14.10
	500	7	65.51/55.91	20.60/17.58	0.37/0.62	54.16/44.62	17.03/14.03
	500	4	63.64/52.89	20.01/16.63	0.39/0.63	52.32/41.59	16.45/13.08
Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2	500	5	63.76/52.71	20.05/16.57	0.38/0.64	52.16/41.10	16.40/12.92
	500	6	63.61/52.44	20.00/16.49	0.39/0.64	51.94/40.85	16.33/12.84
Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2 + FH_{imp}	500	7	63.34/52.31	19.91/16.45	0.39/0.64	51.69/40.71	16.25/12.80
	500	8	62.88/51.27	19.77/16.12	0.40/0.66	51.30/39.59	16.13/12.45

TABLE X RESULTS OF RF METHOD FOR AGB PREDICTION

TABLE XI RESULTS OF SVR METHOD FOR AGB PREDICTION

Dataset	Kernel	RMSE (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	rRMSE (%)	(R ²⁾	MAE (Mg.ha ⁻¹)	rMAE (%)
	Linear	87.74/79.83	27.59/25.10	0.03/0.29	75.45/64.01	23.72/20.13
Sentinel-1	Polynomial	81.96/78.02	25.77/24.53	0.01/0.28	72.59/62.64	22.82/19.70
/	Radial Basis Function	87.32/81.42	27.45/25.60	0.06/0.29	76.58/66.57	24.08/20.93
Sentinel-1 + FH_{imp}	kernel (RBF)					
	Sigmoid	81.91/76.91	25.75/24.18	0.01/0.27	72.59/62.61	22.82/19.69
	Linear	87.50/77.77	27.51/24.45	0.30/0.56	73.03/63.34	22.96/19.92
Sentinel-2	Polynomial	67.43/57.75	21.20/18.16	0.33/0.59	57.54/48.29	18.09/15.18
/	Radial Basis Function	67.30/57.70	21.16/18.14	0.34/0.59	55.38/46.14	17.41/14.51
Sentinel-2 + FH_{imp}	kernel (RBF)					
	Sigmoid	67.62/57.95	21.26/18.22	0.33/0.58	57.62/47.95	18.12/15.08
	Linear	84.55/67.81	26.58/21.32	0.35/0.61	69.91/58.23	21.98/18.31
Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2	Polynomial	67.10/55.17	21.10/17.35	0.33/0.58	56.38/44.53	17.73/14.00
/	Radial Basis	63.91/52.12	20.10/16.39	0.39/0.64	53.71/42.43	16.98/13.34
Sentinel-1 + Sentinel-2- + FH _{imp}	Function kernel (RBF)					
	Sigmoid	64.30/52.57	20.22/16.53	0.38/0.63	54.15/43.04	17.03/13.53

(FH_{imp}). The RMSE was 4.18 m when FH_{Sinc} combined with the S-1 using RF (k = 3) and 3.58 m when FH_{Sinc} combined with S-2 using SVR (Sigmoid kernel) (see Tables VII and VIII). This can be attributed to the presence of speckle noise in SAR backscatters, especially in these dense forests with complex structures [85]. The presence of speckles can reduce the sensitivity of SAR signals to forest structures. Unlike optical data that capture the spectral response of the horizontal structure, SAR backscatters might be insensitive if there is a little height variation [86]. In addition, optical data provide complementary information about forest horizontal structure besides the vertical structure that has been addressed by FH_{Sinc} in the modeling phase [25], [87], [88]. Of importance, the high level of structural complexity in our study area (see Table I) may cause the weak performance of the S-1 due to signal saturation [89], [90]. Other site conditions such as soil moisture and roughness are also related to signal saturation [13]. Fig. 7 visually demonstrates the results of different methods and datasets for FH_{imp} prediction along with FH_{Sinc} itself.

The most accurate FH_{imp} prediction was obtained by adding FH_{Sinc} to the combination of S-1, and S-2 datasets using the SVR method ($R^2 = 0.59$ and RMSE = 3.18 m). Ghosh et al. [88] have reported an improved FH prediction using S-1 interferometric coherence and S-2 biophysical parameters in the mangrove forests. They obtained an RMSE of 1.57 m and R^2 of 0.60, which was superior results compared to the current study. It can be explained by the relatively flat topography in their study site with a maximum elevation of 16 m. In another study, Li et al. [18] upscaled the ICESat-2-derived FH with the Sentinels and Landsat-8 satellites in the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region of China. They showed higher accuracy in upscaling FH assisted by Sentinel satellites in comparison with Lansat-8 data. Even



Fig. 7. General overview of the FH_{imp} prediction accuracies using the combination of different datasets including S-1, S-2, and FH_{Sinc} itself. The value on top of the bars indicates the R^2 .

though the performance of prediction methods was rather similar in FH predictions in our study, SVR with the RBF kernel was the most accurate for FH predictions. It has good agreement with the study conducted by Pourshamsi et al. [91] indicating the SVR method is the best for FH predictions using a combination of polarimetric SAR and LiDAR data. SVR takes advantage of solving small-sample and nonlinear multidimensional problems, and previous studies confirm its applicability in forest studies [13], [60], [89], [92]. It is worth mentioning that our results for FH prediction were in line with other studies in the Hyrcanian forest. For instance, Pourrahmati et al. [93] resulted in $R^2 = 0.59$ and RMSE = 5.5 m for wall-to-wall mapping of FH using the synergy of ICESat/GLASS and optical images. Overall, the workflow demonstrated in this study suggests a possibility for FH prediction in the absence of highly accurate data sources such as terrestrial and airborne laser scanning as well as full polarimetric airborne SAR data.

We additionally studied the AGB prediction using the S-1, S-2, and their combination. Moreover, the precision gained by the inclusion of FH_{imp} into Sentinel-derived predictor features was quantified. We also compared the final AGB map of this study with the global AGB map generated by Santoro and Cartus [27]. The synergy of S-1 and S-2 using the RF method led to better AGB predictions than using those individually with RMSE and R^2 of 62.88 Mg·ha⁻¹ and 0.40 respectively. Considering the high level of AGB in our study area, the weak performance of S-1 backscatters than S-2 was observed and can be attributed to the signal saturation [25], [90], [94]. Prior studies have also proved the capability of the combination of optical and SAR datasets for AGB predictions [13], [41], [87], [95], [96], [97]. Antropov et al. [98] addressed the combination of TanDEM-X-derived height and Landsat-8 features for predicting growing stock volume in Boreal forests ($R^2 = 0.57$ and rRMSE = 34%).

By adding FH_{imp} into AGB models based on S-1, S-2, and a combination of S-1 and S-2 datasets, the accuracy was increased (see Fig. 8), showing the importance of tree height containing a large part of woody biomass. The most accurate model was obtained using the RF method and a combination of FH_{imp} with



Fig. 8. General overview of the AGB prediction accuracies using the combination of different datasets including S-1, S-2, and FH_{imp} . The value on top of the bars indicates the R^2 .

S-1 and S-2. It decreased the AGB prediction error by RMSE of 11.61 Mg·ha⁻¹, rRMSE = 3.65%, and R^2 of 0.26 in comparison with using a combination of S-1 and S-2 only. Generally, the canopy height obtained from SAR and LiDAR data has been successfully used in AGB predictions [99], [100], [101]. The saturation level related to the mentioned model combining FH_{imp} with S-1 and S-2 exceeds 300 Mg·ha⁻¹, which is in line with Vafaei et al. [102] where a multisensorial study was conducted in the Hyrcanian forest of Iran. According to the mean decrease in the Gini index of the RF algorithm, the vegetation index of MTCI is the most important predictor in AGB prediction with the highest correlation of 0.51. With increasing MTCI, the predicted AGB also increases until the signal saturates. It is worth mentioning that utilizing the S-2 sensor with red-edge bands is known to effectively improve the saturation tendency in predictions [103], [104], [105]. Other studies also supported the primary role of optical datasets in predicting forest attributes ([106], [107]). Followed by MTCI, GNDVI, and IRECI were two other S-2 features with high relative importance in AGB predictions.

A comparison of our final AGB map with the respective global map generated by Santoro and Cartus [27] showed little correspondence in areas with lower levels of AGB. A similar conclusion was found by Santoro and Cartus [27] showing the increased variance but limited bias for AGB up to 250 Mg·ha⁻¹ that caused underestimated AGB predictions. It was attributed to the limited sensitivity of used datasets and the constraint of maximum AGB that was lower than reality. Especially, the Hyrcanian forests of Iran featured as an old highly diverse forest with a large amount of AGB [25], [102], [107], [108], [109]. Particularly, their model training phase did not require in-situ observations and used SAR predictors for creating an AGB map in 2018. Accordingly, we only obtained a correlation of 0.2 between sample plots AGB and the corresponding values from the global AGB map. However, the mismatch between the global AGB map and sample plots in terms of spatial resolution causes the limited possibility of quantifying the local errors and overall bias of the global AGB map. Hence, any interpretation needs to be done with caution.

Upon the obtained results in this study, the FH has been predicted accurately due to the canopy height dependency on the interferometric coherence. It is worth mentioning that there is an approximately four-year temporal difference between TanDEM-X and field data that might affect the obtained errors. The inclusion of FH_{imp} into AGB models caused a significant improvement, however, the other sources of uncertainties might affect the predictions. These include the forest ecosystems, topography, S-1 and S-2 data, statistical errors, and propagation of FH potential errors into the AGB predictions [13], [44].

V. CONCLUSION

In this study, single-polarized TanDEM-X data and freely available Sentinel satellites were used to predict FH and AGB in the Hyrcanian forest of Iran. To accomplish this, semi-empirical linear and sinc models obtained from RVoG were used to predict FH and it was further improved by the inclusion of S-1 and S-2 datasets (FH_{imp}). The SVR method led to the most accurate FH_{imp} predictions with an RMSE of 3.18 m and R^2 of 0.59 when FH_{sinc} and a combination of S-1 and S-2 were used. The AGB predictions using a combination of S-1 and S-2 were also improved when FH_{imp} was included (rRMSE = 16.12% and $R^2 = 0.66$). Our results confirmed the potential of TanDEM-X data in predicting FH in the absence of fully polarimetric datasets

and accurate DEM in a highly diverse Hyrcanian forest of Iran. Also, we addressed the gained precision in AGB models when $FH_{\rm imp}$ predictions were added to the datasets. However, further studies are encouraged using data with different acquisition geometry, and stratified forest stands based on slope and species.



Fig. 9. Distribution of elevation and AGB at various sample plots.

TABLE XII	
LOREY'S MEAN HEIGHT (M) / AGB (MG·HA ⁻¹) ACROSS 125 SAM	MPLE PLOTS

1- 38.10 / 365.74	26- 37.33 / 365.52	51- 37.30 / 238.68	76- 40.68 / 343.17	101 - 28.04 / 423.68
2- 34.31 / 274.30	27- 42.01 / 356.95	52- 36.91 / 269.36	77- 28.27 / 285.06	102 - 39.73 / 355.46
3- 21.33 / 200.98	28-37.08 / 260.98	53-28.64 / 424.00	78- 33.73 / 400.86	103 - 37.01 / 273.87
4- 26.57 / 229.22	29- 39.83 / 324.64	54- 39.02 / 431.09	79- 36.52 / 259.40	104 - 34.55 / 268.45
5- 35.19 / 309.07	30- 42.38 / 268.50	55- 33.61 / 335.61	80- 27.42 / 371.78	105 - 37.78 / 455.87
6- 38.77 / 357.23	31-40.31 / 385.06	56- 31.90 / 216.57	81- 30.32 / 240.34	106 - 31.17 / 279.10
7- 28.65 / 263.45	32-31.71 / 253.96	57-42.28 / 230.92	82- 32.51 / 248.12	107 - 34.23 / 329.18
8- 32.22 / 325.25	33- 39.76 / 380.83	58- 35.08 / 236.77	83- 38.20 / 335.23	108 - 32.96 / 199.44
9- 36.72 / 227.98	34- 39.69 / 330.17	59- 36.75 / 234.54	84- 36.78 / 436.70	109 - 29.78 / 227.19
10- 37.30 / 280.39	35- 40.45 / 264.38	60- 34.62 / 200.58	85-33.81 / 425.39	110 - 26.19 / 320.83
11- 35.34 / 232.40	36- 42.56 / 281.82	61- 39.59 / 346.47	86- 32.50 / 265.18	111 - 39.01 / 390.34
12 - 24.37 / 221.94	37- 34.86 / 249.39	62- 39.67 / 294.11	87- 31.59 / 343.66	112 - 37.52 / 299.10
13- 30.64 / 246.51	38-28.10 / 241.37	63- 39.77 / 394.61	88- 35.13 / 320.96	113 - 39.75 / 412.53
14- 24.72 / 241.86	39- 26.78 / 200.21	64-38.21 / 373.46	89-40.74 / 382.62	114 - 33.47 / 364.11
15- 29.24 / 191.68	40-27.83 / 206.93	65- 36.43 / 229.43	90- 33.85 / 413.03	115 - 35.35 / 350.84
16-28.41 / 207.03	41-27.67 / 225.75	66- 32.44 / 361.48	91- 33.58 / 361.90	116 - 32.66 / 418.94
17-29.04 / 219.41	42-38.14 / 236.57	67-32.84 / 450.48	92- 37.48 / 431.87	117 - 32.82 / 410.40
18- 35.98 / 338.30	43-26.76 / 238.56	68-27.18 / 381.73	93- 43.55 / 392.22	118 - 29.00 / 215.15
19- 43.91 / 387.46	44-23.80 / 208.43	69- 31.83 / 385.63	94- 34.07 / 298.65	119 - 24.25 / 269.53
20- 44.85 / 275.18	45-29.90 / 237.04	70- 33.23 / 457.58	95- 38.96 / 465.44	120 - 29.45 / 430.71
21- 33.91 / 363.22	46-36.81 / 446.88	71- 34.00 / 284.03	96- 43.77 / 376.99	121 - 27.88 / 390.18
22-34.63 / 380.30	47-38.65 / 402.81	72- 33.18 / 256.59	97-34.69 / 279.61	122 - 35.68 / 451.43
23- 41.19 / 360.94	48- 32.56 / 218.09	73- 36.27 / 447.72	98- 42.37 / 468.66	123 - 34.26 / 389.01
24- 29.32 / 258.72	49- 43.40 / 368.70	74- 45.15 / 393.15	99- 30.24 / 353.49	124 - 25.89 / 347.13
25-47.89/390.73	50- 35.14 / 254.46	75- 33.42 / 444.18	100 - 32.15 / 348.94	125 - 31.66 / 310.24

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