



1 **Resolving agroforestry extent with a sub-meter tree map and**  
2 **high-resolution land-use data across Europe and the Sahel**  
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12 **Abstract.** Global agroforestry maps remain uncertain, partly because agricultural land masks used to identify  
13 farmland trees have never been systematically validated against ground-truth data. Existing approaches rely on  
14 coarse-resolution land-use products and discrete classifications that poorly capture the continuum of tree–crop  
15 integration, directly affecting large-scale estimates of climate mitigation and ecosystem services provided by  
16 agroforestry. Here, we present the first systematic evaluation of how different land-use masks affect agroforestry  
17 mapping accuracy, combining agricultural land masks derived from three 10-meter land-use/land-cover products  
18 with a global sub-meter resolution tree canopy map. Validating each land mask-tree canopy combination against  
19 14,162 georeferenced ground-truth observations that distinguish agroforestry from non-agroforestry trees, we find  
20 that the choice of agricultural land mask alone drives a 45-percentage-point shift in accuracy. The ESRI-based  
21 mask achieves 77.2% accuracy, outperforming ESA WorldCover (69%), Dynamic World (68%), and the Global  
22 Pasture Watch (GPW)- based map (32%) across all biomes tested. Applying the best-performing combination, we  
23 estimate that 86 million hectares of agricultural land in Europe and 36 million hectares in the Sahel host at least  
24 1% tree cover, with sparse-canopy systems (<10% tree cover) dominating both regions (32 Mha and 21 Mha,  
25 respectively). These estimates diverge sharply from the most cited agroforestry maps, which overestimate  
26 agroforestry extent by up to 186% in Europe and underestimate it by 80% in the Sahel. Together, these findings  
27 demonstrate that both land-use mask selection and tree-detection resolution are major, previously unquantified  
28 sources of uncertainty in global agroforestry assessments, and call for a shift away from coarse-resolution gridded  
29 data toward tree-centric, gradient-based approaches capable of resolving individual trees across the agriculture–  
30 forest continuum.

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## 35 **1 Introduction**

36 Agroforestry systems (AFS), the intentional integration of trees with crops and/or livestock on the same land  
37 management unit, are practiced worldwide under diverse forms (Nair, 1993) and represent one of the largest  
38 agricultural Natural Climate Solutions (Terasaki Hart et al., 2023). Beyond climate mitigation and carbon  
39 sequestration (Cardinael et al., 2018), agroforestry supports biodiversity conservation (Jones et al., 2021),  
40 improves water quality (Zhu et al., 2020), and, under certain conditions, can increase food production (Beillouin  
41 et al., 2021; Ivezic et al., 2021). Yet, despite this recognized potential, significant uncertainty surrounds the  
42 current and potential AFS extent, leading to even higher uncertainties in its contribution to climate mitigation and  
43 ecosystem services.

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45 Global estimates of agroforestry extent diverge by nearly a factor of four, from 400 Mha (IPCC, 2000) to 1,600  
46 Mha (Nair, 2012), depending on definitions, data sources, and mapping approaches. Intermediate estimates  
47 converge around 700 Mha (Lesiv et al., 2022) to 859 Mha (Zomer et al., 2014, 2022). These discrepancies  
48 contribute to the uncertainty in agroforestry biomass stocks, which range between 10 PgC of carbon (Zomer et  
49 al., 2016) for all agroforestry forms, to 3.07-3.86 PgC for woody biomass on croplands and pastures (Chapman et  
50 al., 2020). Such variability in both area and carbon estimates highlights that current global assessments of  
51 agroforestry mitigation potential are highly sensitive to the methodological choices in land use mapping and  
52 classification.

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54 Mapping AFS at large scales is challenged by the absence of a universally shared operational definition of  
55 agroforestry. In practice, two elements of the agroforestry definition are often ignored: *intentionality* (the  
56 deliberate integration of trees by land managers), which cannot be directly observed, and the combination of trees  
57 and crops or livestock in the same management unit, which cannot easily be observed using remote sensing. As a  
58 result, at large scales, agroforestry is operationally defined more simply as the presence of trees on croplands and  
59 pastures. AFS mapping is also constrained by limited availability of reliable data to assess the uncertainty  
60 associated with current maps. Lastly, agroforestry is not a distinct land use type, but rather occupies a continuum  
61 between agriculture and forest. Because of this diversity of tree density in agroforestry systems, it is inherently  
62 difficult to delineate clear spatial and temporal boundaries for agroforestry systems.

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64 Different approaches have emerged to map and estimate the extent of agroforestry at large scales. The first  
65 approach estimates the extent by estimating the probability of agroforestry per country using georeferenced field  
66 surveys, such as LUCAS data (Den Herder et al., 2017; Rubio-Delgado et al., 2023). This method is limited  
67 by the cost of field surveys, which in turn limits the feasibility and sampling density. The second approach relies  
68 on machine learning-based land-use classification (Bolívar-Santamaría and Reu, 2021; Lesiv et al., 2022),  
69 in which agroforestry is treated as a distinct land use class with specific spectral signatures. Expert-labelled  
70 training data are used to translate conceptual definitions into ground-truth classes, which are then extrapolated  
71 across space. While this approach can capture complex patterns locally, its application at continental or global  
72 scales is limited by high computational demands, the scarcity of representative training data across diverse



73 agroforestry systems, and spectral overlap with forests and croplands that can reduce classification accuracy  
74 (Sharma et al., 2022).

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76 A third method, more widely adopted, consists of combining a tree cover dataset with an agricultural land mask  
77 derived from a land use/land cover (LULC) product (Chapman et al., 2020; Diouf, 2025; Zomer et al., 2009,  
78 2014). While this approach aligns closely with core principles of trees-crop or tree-livestock integration, existing  
79 implementations reveal critical limitations along three tightly coupled dimensions: the spatial resolution and  
80 definition of agricultural masks (Lillesand et al., 2015), the accuracy of tree cover detection, and the limited  
81 validation of the final combination products. First, coarse-resolution of LULC data used to delineate agricultural  
82 areas can introduce "mixed pixel" effects, leading to overestimation of agroforestry extent. For instance, a 1 km<sup>2</sup>  
83 pixel with 50% tree cover may represent dense forest adjacent to treeless cropland rather than an integrated  
84 agroforestry system, a problem particularly pronounced in fragmented landscapes such as the European Union  
85 (Den Herder et al., 2017). Second, widely used global tree-cover datasets, such as the 30 m Hansen et al. (2013)  
86 dataset, were designed for closed-canopy forests and underestimate tree cover by up to 80% in heterogeneous  
87 European landscapes, missing scattered or low-density trees (<10%cover) (Reiner et al., 2023). Third, the  
88 application of strict thresholds to operationally define agroforestry - excluding agricultural land cover below 10%  
89 (Zomer et al., 2014) or above 25% (Chapman et al., 2020)- can distort the true distribution of agroforestry,  
90 omitting both sparse dryland systems and dense woody perennial systems like coffee plantations or dense alley  
91 cropping (Terasaki Hart et al., 2023).

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93 Recent advances in very high-resolution (VHR) remote sensing have substantially improved the detection of  
94 individual trees outside forests at national and regional scales (Brandt et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2023;  
95 Mugabowindekwe et al., 2023; Reiner et al., 2023). However, a critical source of uncertainty remains largely  
96 unaddressed: the choice of agricultural masks used to define where trees are considered "on farms." Differences  
97 among LULC products strongly affect agricultural masks, with direct consequences for estimated agroforestry  
98 extent estimates and inferred climate mitigation potentials. Here we address these limitations by: i) combining a  
99 sub-meter tree canopy cover map with multiple LULC products, ii) rigorously validating these combinations using  
100 a large dataset, and iii) applying the best-performing combination canopy-LULC to estimate the extent of  
101 agroforestry systems in two contrasting regions: Europe and the Sahel, comparing the results with existing  
102 estimates (Chapman et al., 2020; Lesiv et al., 2022; Zomer et al., 2014). We hypothesize that detecting trees  
103 at sub-meter resolution coupled with a precise delineation of agricultural land improves large-scale estimates of  
104 agroforestry extent.

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115 **2 Material and methods**

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117 **2.1- Land use and land cover (LULC) data**

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119 We define an agroforestry tree as any tree or shrub taller than 1 m present within croplands or pastures under  
120 human management. Because any tree present on these land-uses can influence surrounding agricultural processes  
121 (positively or negatively), all tree cover ranges (1–100%) are considered, capturing the full spectrum of  
122 agroforestry systems. We excluded urban trees, trees in strictly protected areas (categories Ia, Ib, and III) (UNEP-  
123 WCMC, 2019)), forest trees (i.e., not interacting with agricultural lands) as well as trees on unmanaged  
124 rangelands and grasslands.

125 Agroforestry maps were produced using four sources: global cropland and pasture maps, a terrestrial human  
126 footprint map (to distinguish pastures harvested or grazed by livestock from unmanaged grasslands), and a VHR  
127 tree canopy map.

128 **2.1.1- Agricultural masks**

129 Previous agroforestry mapping efforts (Zomer et al., 2009, 2014) were limited by coarse-resolution LULC data,  
130 which reduce precision in land-use delineation. Recent advances have yielded three high-resolution (10 m) land  
131 use and land cover (LULC) products, offering improved delineation of agricultural land. i) The ESRI Land Cover  
132 map employs a Convolutional Neural Network (U-Net model) trained on billions of human-labeled pixels, and  
133 achieves an overall accuracy of 85% (Karra et al., 2021). ii) The ESA WorldCover product utilizes a random  
134 forest classification based on 131 features from Sentinel-2 multi-spectral imagery and Sentinel-1 C-band Synthetic  
135 Aperture Radar (SAR) data, and reaches a global overall accuracy of 74.4% (Zanaga et al., 2022). iii) Dynamic  
136 World is based on a Fully Convolutional Neural Network (FCNN) trained on data similar to ESRI's, and achieves  
137 73.8% overall accuracy (Brown et al., 2022).

138 The high-resolution LULC maps include a dedicated cropland class. For grasslands and rangelands, we selected  
139 herbaceous vegetation categories, alongside shrublands, based on land-use category definitions (Table 1). The  
140 LULC maps fail to distinguish managed pastures from natural grasslands, a key distinction for silvopastoral  
141 systems. To address this, we used the terrestrial Human Footprint Index (HFI) as a spatial proxy for management.  
142 This validated 100 m dataset quantifies anthropogenic pressure (scale 0–50) based on infrastructure and  
143 population variables (Gassert et al., 2023).

144 Grasslands and rangelands were classified as pastoral when  $HFI > 4$ , a threshold that separates 'low-disturbance'  
145 landscapes from those with sufficient human presence to support livestock management (Gassert et al., 2023;  
146 Williams et al., 2020).

147 For comparison, we constructed alternative agricultural masks by integrating the Global Pasture Watch (GPW)  
148 dataset (Table1) with the cropland classes from each LULC product. GPW identifies managed grasslands using a  
149 30m resolution Random Forest classifier and explicitly separates managed pastures from natural ecosystems  
150 (Parente et al., 2024). Substituting HFI-derived pasture with GPW's layers allowed us to assess sensitivity to  
151 managed pasture definitions.

152 **2.1.2-Global tree canopy map**

153 We used the global sub-meter global tree height map developed by Tolan et al. (2024), which provides tree-  
154 level information at unprecedented spatial resolution. The dataset combines self-supervised vision transformers



155 trained on 18 million global satellite images with a convolutional decoder calibrated using airborne lidar data and  
156 GEDI spaceborne observations. Derived from Maxar Vivid2 mosaic RGB imagery at 0.59m resolution (2017-  
157 2020), the model achieves robust tree segmentation performance (user's accuracy: 0.82; producer's accuracy:0.76).

158 Unlike previous 10- 30 m products, this dataset resolves individual tree canopy and height in heterogeneous and  
159 low-density landscapes, including drylands where scattered trees dominate agroforestry systems. Other datasets  
160 (Liu et al., 2023; Mugabowindekwe et al., 2023; Reiner et al., 2023) were not used because of their limited  
161 spatial coverage and/or their coarser resolutions. To derive a tree canopy map, we retained pixels with canopy  
162 height higher than 1 meter, capturing both shrubs and small trees. This corresponds to the validated segmentation  
163 limit of the original model (Tolan et al., 2024)

## 164 **2.2- Data processing**

### 165 **2.2.1- Time series data reduction**

166 We filtered all LULC datasets to retain relevant classes for agroforestry (croplands, rangelands, grasslands, and  
167 shrublands). To reduce temporal noise caused by cloud coverage and algorithmic variability, thereby obtaining a  
168 more representative and stable land use classification, we aggregated multi-year LULC products using the modal  
169 reducer in Google Earth Engine, assigning each pixel its most frequent class over the period 2017–2024, which  
170 corresponds to the period where ESRI and DW, and GPW are all available. For the ESA WorldCover product,  
171 available for 2020 and 2021, we retained only the 2021 product as it's more accurate (Zanaga et al., 2022).

### 172 **2.2.2- Datasets overlaying**

173 We intersected the 1m tree canopy map with cropland and pasture layers to generate spatially explicit agroforestry  
174 maps. Tree canopy was overlaid with cropland layers from ESRI, ESA, and DW, and with pasture layers derived  
175 either from the same sources or from GPW. For ESRI, DW, and ESA, pasture layers were filtered using the Human  
176 Footprint Index (HFI).

177 This resulted in six agroforestry maps based on two approaches. First, three “single-source” datasets were  
178 generated by combining cropland and pasture classes from the same land-use/land-cover (LULC) product (ESRI,  
179 ESA, and DW) with the tree canopy map and the HFI filter. Second, three “hybrid” datasets were produced by  
180 pairing cropland layers from each LULC product with pasture data from GPW (ESRI-GPW, ESA-GPW, and DW-  
181 GPW).

182 To ensure spatial consistency, all coarser resolution inputs (10m -30m) were resampled to 1m and reprojected to  
183 match the tree canopy map. All overlaying operations were conducted in Google Earth Engine (Gorelick et al.,  
184 2017) via its Python API, enabling scalable cloud-based computation. All datasets are publicly available within  
185 the GEE cloud, ensuring transparency and reproducibility.

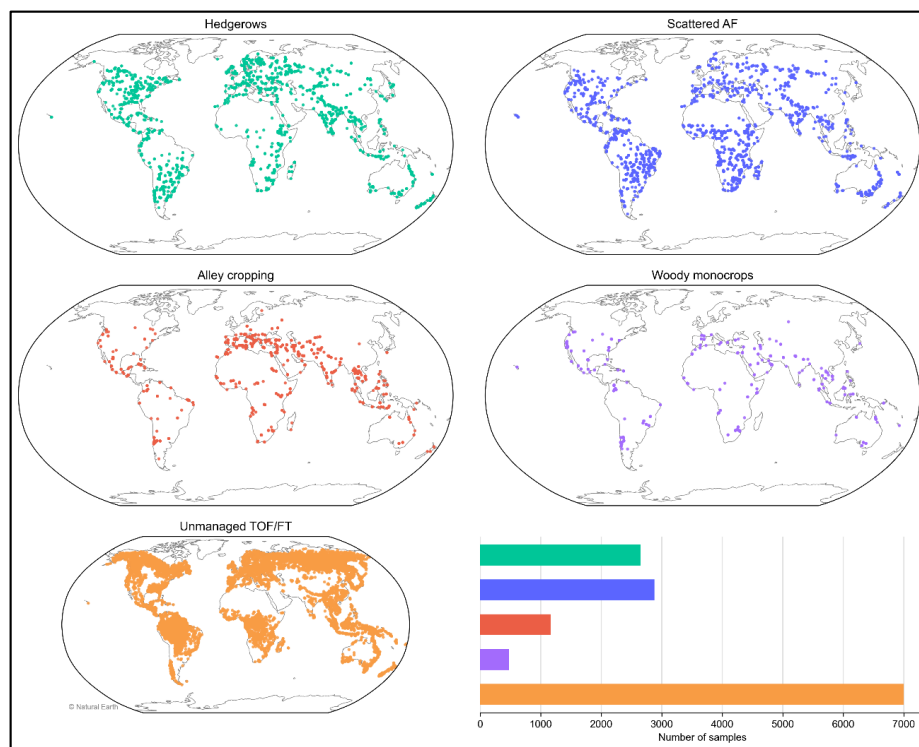
## 186 **2.3- Accuracy assessment**

### 187 **2.3.1 - Validation dataset**

188 We evaluated the accuracy of the six generated 1 m-resolution datasets at a global scale by assessing their ability  
189 to correctly identify agroforestry systems while excluding non-agroforestry tree cover (i.e., forests and woody



190 monocrops). Because no spatially explicit field-based global agroforestry inventory exists, we constructed a  
191 composite validation dataset by integrating two independent sources: agroforestry presence was derived from  
192 Tahiri et al. (2026) and non-agroforestry tree cover was derived from Lesiv et al. (2022). Tahiri et al. 2026  
193 provide presence data stratified by WWF biomes (Olson et al., 2001), utilizing a 30 m × 30 m observation unit.  
194 Based on photo-interpretation of very high resolution (VHR) satellite imagery, this dataset distinguishes woody  
195 monocrops from three agroforestry systems: alley cropping (linear rows with inter-tree space), hedgerows (linear  
196 tree line less than 20m wide), and scattered trees (e.g., agroforestry parklands). To represent non-agroforestry tree  
197 cover, we used the observations labeled as ‘woody monocrops’ from the same database (Tahiri et al., 2026),  
198 and incorporated reference points from (Lesiv et al., 2022), specifically the classes '*Naturally regenerating  
199 forest without any signs of human activities*' and '*Planted forests*'. These classes served as negative control points  
200 to evaluate the capacity of each map to correctly exclude non-agroforestry tree cover. The total number of data is  
201 14,162 (Fig. 1).



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203 Figure 1: Distribution of the collected reference data used for validation, classified between hedgerow trees,  
204 scattered agroforestry trees, alley cropping trees, woody monocrops, and unmanaged trees outside forest (TOF) /  
205 forest trees (FT).

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Table 1. Definition and resolution of the croplands and grasslands / rangelands from ESRI, ESA, DW and GPW

LULC product	Croplands definition	Grasslands/shrublands / rangelands definition	Spatial resolution (m)	Temporal resolution	Reference
ESRI	Crops Cereals, grasses, and crops not at tree height; examples: corn, wheat, soy, fallow plots of structured land	Open areas dominated by homogenous grasses or scattered vegetation with minimal tall plants, including natural meadows, sparse savannas, parks, and pastures, which support activities like grazing, conservation, and recreational uses such as golfing	10m x10m	Annual from 2017 to 2023	(Karra et al., 2021)
ESA	Land covered with annual cropland that is sowed/planted and harvestable at least once within the 12 months after the sowing/planting date. The annual cropland produces an herbaceous cover and is sometimes combined with some tree or woody vegetation.	<b>Shrubland:</b> Geographic areas dominated by natural woody perennial plants (10% or more coverage) that lack a defined main stem and are less than 5m tall. May include scattered trees (if less than 10% coverage) and herbaceous plants at any density, with either evergreen or deciduous foliage. <b>Grassland:</b> Includes any geographic area dominated by natural herbaceous plants (plants without persistent stem or shoots above ground and lacking definite firm structure): (grasslands, prairies, steppes, savannahs, pastures) with a cover of 10% or more, irrespective of different human and/or animal activities, such as: grazing, selective fire management, etc. Woody plants (trees and/or shrubs) can be present assuming their cover is less than	10m x10m	2020 and 2021	(Zanaga et al., 2021, 2022)



	10%. It may also contain uncultivated cropland areas (without harvest/bare soil period) in the reference year.			
<b>Dynamic world (DW)</b>	Human planted/plotted cereals, grasses, and crops	Mix of small clusters of plants or individual plants dispersed on a landscape that shows exposed soil and rock. And scrub-filled clearings within dense forests that are clearly not taller than trees. Appear grayer/browner due to less dense leaf cover.	10m x 10m	2-5 Days (Brown et al., 2022)
		<b>Grasslands:</b> Open areas covered in homogeneous grasses with little to no taller vegetation. This includes other homogeneous areas of grass-like vegetation (blade-type leaves) that appear distinct from trees and shrubland. The class encompasses wild cereals and grasses with no obvious human plotting (i.e., not a structured field).		
<b>Global Pasture Watch (GPW)</b>	Not included in the map classification	Areas where grasses and other forage plants have been intentionally planted and managed, as well as areas of native grassland-type vegetation that clearly exhibit active and intensive management for specific human-directed uses, such as directed grazing of livestock	30m x 30m	Annual from 2000 to 2022 (Parente et al., 2024)



229 **2.4- Agroforestry extent estimation in Europe and the Sahel**

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231 We quantified agroforestry extent as the fraction of tree canopy cover within agricultural lands, providing a  
232 spatially explicit and continuous measure. This approach captures agroforestry as a structural gradient, ranging  
233 from low-density systems (1–10% canopy cover) to high-density configurations (>51%).

234 We first generated a binary tree canopy map at 1m spatial resolution (tree canopy = 1, other = 0), which was then  
235 aggregated to a 30 m × 30 m grid. This resolution was chosen to be small enough to represent well the  
236 heterogeneity of agroforestry systems and ensure computational feasibility at large scales. For each 30m cell,  
237 fractional canopy cover was calculated by summing tree pixels and normalizing by the total cell area, yielding a  
238 continuous raster of percentage cover (0–100%). The aggregation was performed over a sinusoidal equal-area  
239 projection grid to ensure that all pixels have the same area ( $\approx 900\text{m}^2$ ) to allow for valid comparisons across  
240 regions.

241 Agroforestry extent was then quantified by summing the area of agricultural pixels within canopy classes, and  
242 converting pixel area to hectares ( $1\text{ m}^2 = 10^{-4}\text{ ha}$ ). All spatial data processing and area calculations were performed  
243 in Google Earth Engine (Gorelick et al., 2017) using the Python API. Map rendering was performed using the  
244 Geemap package (Wu, 2020) and QGIS.

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277 **3 Results**

278 **3.1- Agroforestry trees maps accuracy**

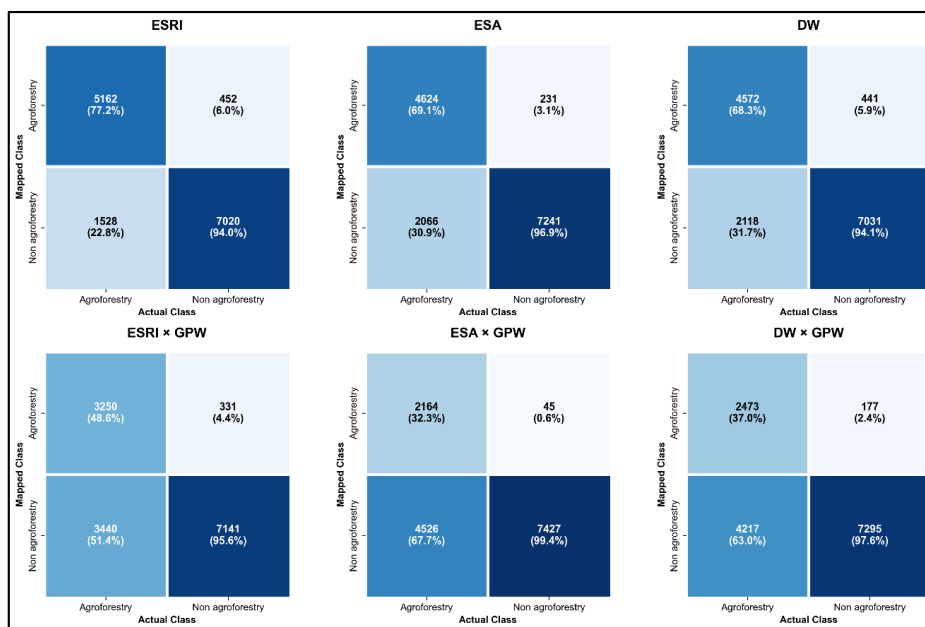
279 **3.1.1 - Global accuracy**

280 Global LULC products show marked differences in performance in detecting agroforestry trees. Figure 2  
 281 summarizes the classification performance of the ESRI, ESA, and DW products, evaluated both individually (with  
 282 HFI filter) and in combination with the GPW pasture mask.

283 Among the standalone products, the ESRI-based map achieved the highest producer's accuracy (77.2%),  
 284 substantially outperforming ESA (69%) and DW (68%) products.

285 Combining cropland masks with the GPW pasture layer substantially reduced sensitivity (agroforestry detection)  
 286 across all products. The reduction is most pronounced for ESA × GPW (32%), suggesting that the GPW pasture  
 287 delineation excludes many areas containing agroforestry systems, particularly when combined with ESA and DW  
 288 cropland masks. In contrast, the ESRI × GPW combination demonstrated higher sensitivity (48%), indicating  
 289 that the ESRI-based cropland mask includes more agroforestry trees than other LULC products. These  
 290 discrepancies highlight fundamental differences in how agricultural lands are delineated across these LULC  
 291 products.

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 293 All products demonstrated high specificity for non-agroforestry tree-cover, ranging from 94.0% (ESRI) to 99.4%  
 294 (ESA × GPW). While GPW intersections maximized exclusion of non-agroforestry trees, they did so at the cost  
 295 of substantial omission errors for identifying agroforestry. Overall, the standalone ESRI-based agroforestry map  
 296 provides the optimal trade-off: it captures a high proportion of agroforestry trees (77% ) while excluding most  
 297 non-agroforestry tree cover (94%).



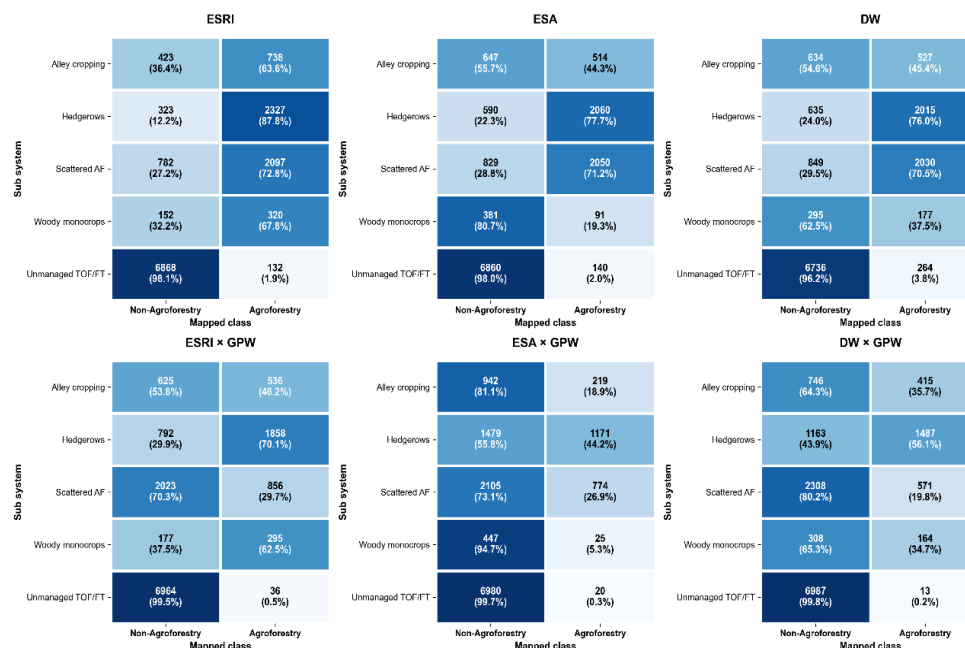
298 **Figure 2:** Confusion matrices of the six agroforestry maps, showing the number of correctly classified samples  
 299 (diagonal cells) and misclassified samples (off-diagonal cells) (in percentage).  
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### 3.1.2- Classification errors across different tree-based systems

303 Classification performance varied markedly across tree-based system types (Fig. 3), revealing strong differences  
304 in sensitivity depending on the agroforestry system. The standalone ESRI-based agroforestry maps exhibited the  
305 most performing detection across categories, with producer accuracy of 63.6% for alley cropping, 72.8% for  
306 Scattered Agroforestry systems, and 87.8% for Hedgerows, respectively.  
307 For non-agroforestry classes, all maps effectively exclude unmanaged trees outside forests (TOF). In contrast,  
308 woody monocrops remained difficult to distinguish from agroforestry across all datasets. The standalone ESRI-  
309 based map displayed the highest commission errors in this category, misclassifying 67.8% of woody monocrops  
310 as agroforestry. Other datasets demonstrated superior exclusion of woody monocrops, with values ranging from  
311 37% for the DW-based map down to 19% for the ESA x GPW-based map. However, these lower values rather  
312 result from a systematic omission of tree-bearing agricultural landscapes in these products.



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Figure 3: Confusion matrices of the agroforestry maps, each corresponding to a specific agroforestry map, showing the number as a percentage of sub-classes (alley cropping, hedgerows, scattered agroforestry, woody monocrops, and unmanaged TOF / FT) classified into the categories agroforestry trees and non-agroforestry trees

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### 3.1.3- Accuracy per biome

320 Biome-level evaluation (Fig. 4) reveals that the standalone ESRI-based map consistently outperformed all other  
321 datasets across ecological zones. It achieved its highest F1 score in Temperate Grasslands/Savannas (0.93) and  
322 Tropical & Subtropical Dry Broadleaf Forests (0.89). Performance declines across all products in Mediterranean  
323 Forests and Deserts/Xeric Shrublands, reflecting the greater difficulty of detecting agroforestry in arid and semi-  
324 arid systems. Even in these challenging biomes, the ESRI-based map maintains relatively high (F1= 0.79). The



325 ability of the ESRI-based map to maintain high detection rates across diverse environments demonstrates its  
 326 robustness and supports its use for large-scale agroforestry extent estimation across contrasting environmental  
 327 contexts.



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 329 Figure 4: F1-score of the six agroforestry maps across different biomes  
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331 **3.2- Agroforestry extent in Europe and the Sahel**

332 Using the ESRI-based agroforestry map (Fig 5), we estimate that 86 Mha in Europe and 36 Mha in the Sahel  
 333 (Table 2) of agricultural lands are under agroforestry, representing 9% and 10.8% of the total area of these regions,  
 334 respectively. Agroforestry systems in Europe occur predominantly on croplands, covering 47 Mha (Figure 5),  
 335 while pastures with trees occupy 38 Mha. In the Sahel, pasture lands with trees dominate the agroforestry  
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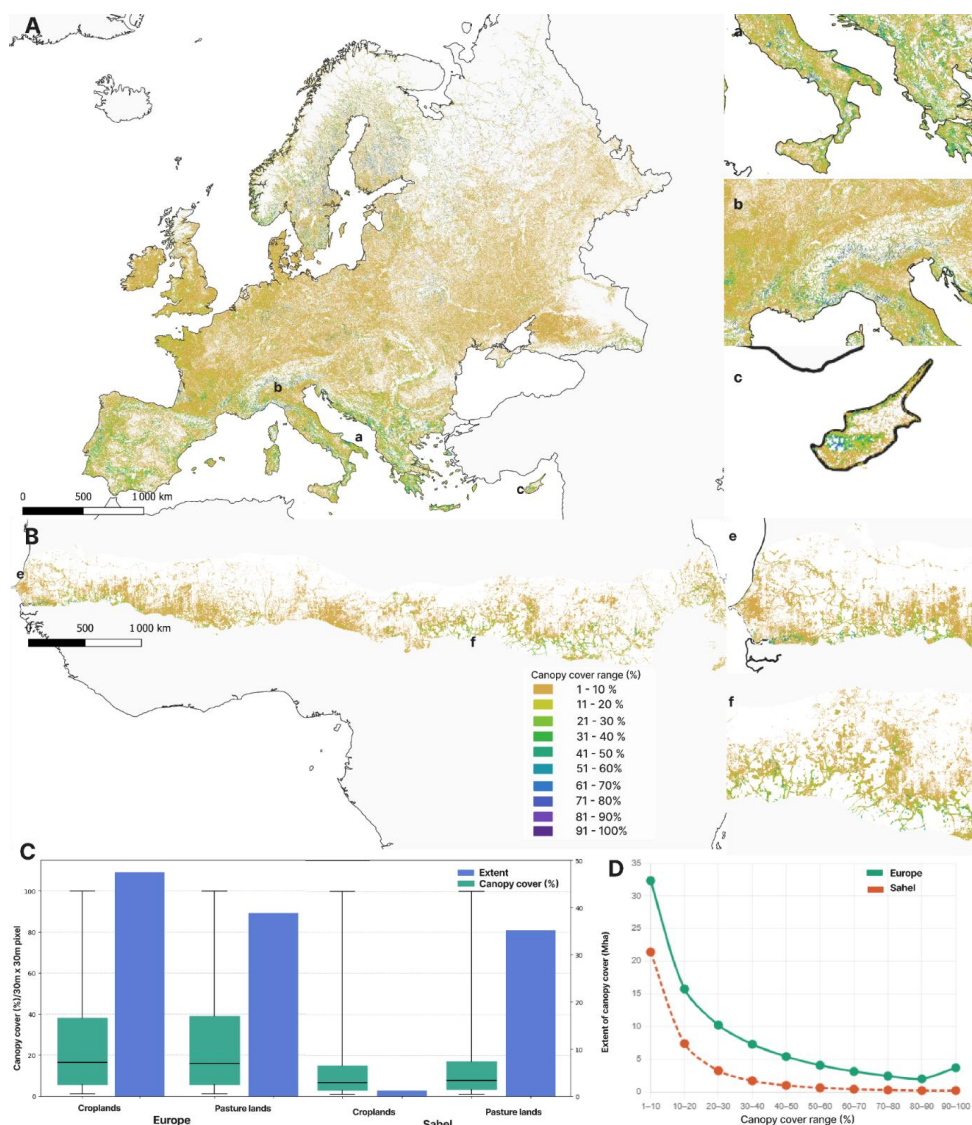


337 landscape, covering 35 Mha and representing 97% of the total agroforestry extent in the region, whereas croplands  
338 with trees account for only 1.17 Mha.

339 Temperate Broadleaf & Mixed Forests biome accounts for the largest share of agricultural lands with tree cover  
340 in Europe, with 49 Mha representing 11 % of the total biome area (Table 2) , followed by the Mediterranean  
341 Forests/Woodlands/Scrub biome (Southern Europe) with 20 Mha, and the highest agroforestry coverage rate  
342 among all biomes, with 21% of its total area under agroforestry. Northern biomes contribute comparatively little,  
343 with 6.2 Mha in boreal and 0.61 Mha in tundra regions

344 The Sahel region is overwhelmingly dominated by the Tropical & Subtropical Grasslands/Savannas biome (93%  
345 of Sahel total area) with 33.9 Mha of treed agricultural lands representing 10.8 % of the biome area. Other biomes  
346 each contribute less than 3 Mha of agroforestry extent.

347 Tree canopy cover within agroforestry systems spans a broad continuum, reflecting the structural diversity of  
348 these land use systems. Across both regions, agroforestry extent decreases with increasing canopy cover,  
349 following a decay-like distribution (Fig 5.D). Open-canopy systems (1–10% tree cover) dominate in both regions,  
350 accounting for 32 Mha (37%) in Europe and 21.4 Mha (59%) in the Sahel (Table 2). Intermediate canopy cover  
351 systems (10–50%) represent a substantial share of agroforestry extent, covering 38.6 Mha in Europe and 13.3 Mha  
352 in the Sahel. In contrast, dense canopy systems (> 50% tree cover) are relatively rare, occupying 15.2 Mha in  
353 Europe and less than 1.7 Mha in the Sahel.



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 355 Figure 5: Spatial distribution of tree canopy cover (%) on agricultural lands in Europe (A) and the Sahel (B),  
 356 aggregated to 1 km × 1 km resolution for visualisation (original resolution: 30 m × 30 m; a pixel with 10%  
 357 canopy cover corresponds to 90 m<sup>2</sup> of tree cover). (C) Distribution of tree canopy cover per land use class  
 358 (pixels with ≥ 1% canopy cover), where boxes represent Q1 (25th percentile), median, and Q3 (75th percentile)  
 359 estimated using histogram-based quantile estimation, and bars indicate the total extent (Mha) of each land use  
 360 class with at least 1% canopy cover. (D) Agroforestry extent (Mha) per tree canopy cover range in Europe and  
 361 the Sahel. Coastline basemap was derived from Natural Earth (<https://www.naturalearthdata.com>).



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Table 2: Areal extent of agricultural land with at least 1% tree canopy cover in Europe and the Sahel region, in million hectares (Mha). These estimates are obtained by aggregating to 30 m × 30 m spatial resolution the 1m spatial-resolution ESRI-based agroforestry tree canopy map. The biome area is calculated per region, not the full biome area, using the geodesic method

Region	Tree cover range (%)	1-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	50-60	60-70	70-80	80-90	> 90	Total (Mha)	Biome area (Mha)	Biome area (%)
<b>WWF biomes</b>														
Europe	Temperate Broadleaf & Mixed Forests	18.73	9.08	5.90	4.19	3.04	2.24	1.67	1.28	1.03	1.95	49.10	443.87	11.06
	Mediterranean Forests, Woodlands & Scrub	7.37	3.89	2.54	1.78	1.31	0.98	0.76	0.59	0.48	0.66	20.36	93.30	21.82
	Temperate Grasslands, Savannas & Shrublands	2.55	1.19	0.81	0.64	0.53	0.44	0.35	0.27	0.21	0.28	7.28	97.45	7.47
	Boreal Forests / Taiga	2.46	1.01	0.61	0.43	0.32	0.25	0.20	0.18	0.17	0.59	6.22	227.01	2.74
	Temperate Conifer Forests	0.93	0.44	0.27	0.19	0.14	0.11	0.09	0.07	0.06	0.16	2.48	31.27	7.93
	Tundra	0.25	0.11	0.07	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.61	51.26	1.20
	Deserts & Xeric Shrublands	0.06	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.004	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.12	8.69	1.39
<b>Total</b>		<b>32.34</b>	<b>15.74</b>	<b>10.21</b>	<b>7.28</b>	<b>5.38</b>	<b>4.06</b>	<b>3.10</b>	<b>2.41</b>	<b>1.97</b>	<b>3.67</b>	<b>86.17</b>	<b>952.85</b>	<b>9.04</b>
Sahel	Tropical & Subtropical Grasslands, Savannas & Shrublands	20.14	6.90	2.98	1.53	0.88	0.55	0.36	0.24	0.16	0.15	33.90	313.77	10.80
	Flooded Grasslands & Savannas	0.52	0.20	0.10	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.97	11.49	8.41
	Tropical & Subtropical Moist Broadleaf Forests	0.41	0.16	0.08	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.79	4.59	17.21
	Montane Grasslands & Shrublands	0.25	0.09	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.46	3.15	14.77
	Deserts & Xeric Shrublands	0.09	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.004	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.15	2.55	5.99
	Mangroves	0.0046	0.0021	0.0011	0.0006	0.0004	0.0002	0.0002	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001	0.01	0.15	6.21
<b>Total</b>		<b>21.072</b>	<b>7.541</b>	<b>3.297</b>	<b>1.715</b>	<b>0.994</b>	<b>0.620</b>	<b>0.407</b>	<b>0.276</b>	<b>0.192</b>	<b>0.188</b>	<b>36.30</b>	<b>335.70</b>	<b>10.81</b>

364



#### 365 **4 - Discussion**

366 In this analysis, we investigated the potential of integrating high-resolution Land Use and Land Cover (LULC)  
367 products (ESRI, ESA, DW, and GPW) with a very high-resolution (1m) tree canopy map to detect agroforestry at  
368 the individual tree level. This approach represents a shift away from traditional coarse-resolution tree cover  
369 datasets (e.g., Hansen et al. (2013)), and enables a more explicit evaluation of inclusion and exclusion errors  
370 across agroforestry systems and non-agroforestry land uses.

371 The primary objective was to assess whether this high-resolution integration can address persistent mapping  
372 limitations in large-scale agroforestry mapping. Specifically, we evaluate: (1) the ability of high-resolution LULC  
373 data to limit the mixed-pixel effects; (2) whether 1m canopy data improve the detection of individual scattered  
374 trees within agricultural landscapes; and (3) how adopting an inclusive definition of agroforestry influences extent  
375 estimates. Together, these components aim to reduce systematic omission of both dense and low-density  
376 agroforestry systems, providing a more realistic representation of agroforestry in the landscape.

377

#### 378 **4.1- Overlaying land use and land cover data**

379 Despite relying on similar Sentinel-2 satellite imagery inputs and comparable spatial and temporal resolutions,  
380 the evaluated LULC products showed substantial differences in performance when overlaid with the same tree  
381 canopy cover map and validated against the same reference data. The standalone ESRI based map consistently  
382 outperformed alternative global datasets, indicating that the definition of the agricultural mask is a critical driver  
383 of agroforestry detection. This finding presents a semantic paradox: ESRI's official definition describes cropland  
384 as vegetation 'not at tree height,' a constraint that should theoretically exclude agroforestry. However, our analysis  
385 reveals that pixels containing agroforestry trees are frequently retained within the 'Cropland' or 'Rangeland'  
386 classes, rather than being assigned to 'Tree Cover.'

387 We hypothesize that this behavior stems from training data that likely included mixed tree-crop landscapes labeled  
388 by annotators as 'croplands' when training the ESRI's classification model, causing the model to learn and replicate  
389 this interpretation. Consequently, ESRI maintains a spatially contiguous agricultural mask, whereas other products  
390 tend to fragment agroforestry systems by isolating canopy elements as 'Tree cover'. While this generalization  
391 limits the ability of ESRI to distinguish monocrops from agroforestry, it provides the optimal base layer for our  
392 methodology. Overlaying the high-resolution (1m) tree canopy map onto this broad agricultural mask effectively  
393 resolves the limitation, combining ESRI's broad functional identification of cropland with the precise structural  
394 detection of trees to accurately map agroforestry trees. This result highlights that agroforestry estimates are highly  
395 sensitive to the choice of LULC product. Previous studies may therefore substantially under or over-estimate tree  
396 cover on agricultural lands due to uncertainties in land use and land cover classification. For instance, (Liu et al.,  
397 2023) report only 2.67 Mha of tree-covered agricultural land in Europe, which is far smaller than our 86 Mha  
398 estimates. Visual inspection suggests that this discrepancy is partly due to misclassification of linear features such  
399 as hedgerows, a dominant agroforestry system in Europe (Rubio-Delgado et al., 2024), as built-up areas in  
400 Hansen et al. (2022)-based products.

401

402 Visual investigation comparing the agroforestry map to baseline satellite data further revealed that our approach  
403 also captures trees at forest edges and within small forest patches embedded in agricultural lands, consistent with  
404 our operational agroforestry definition. The inclusion of such trees remains debated in the literature (Golicz et al.,



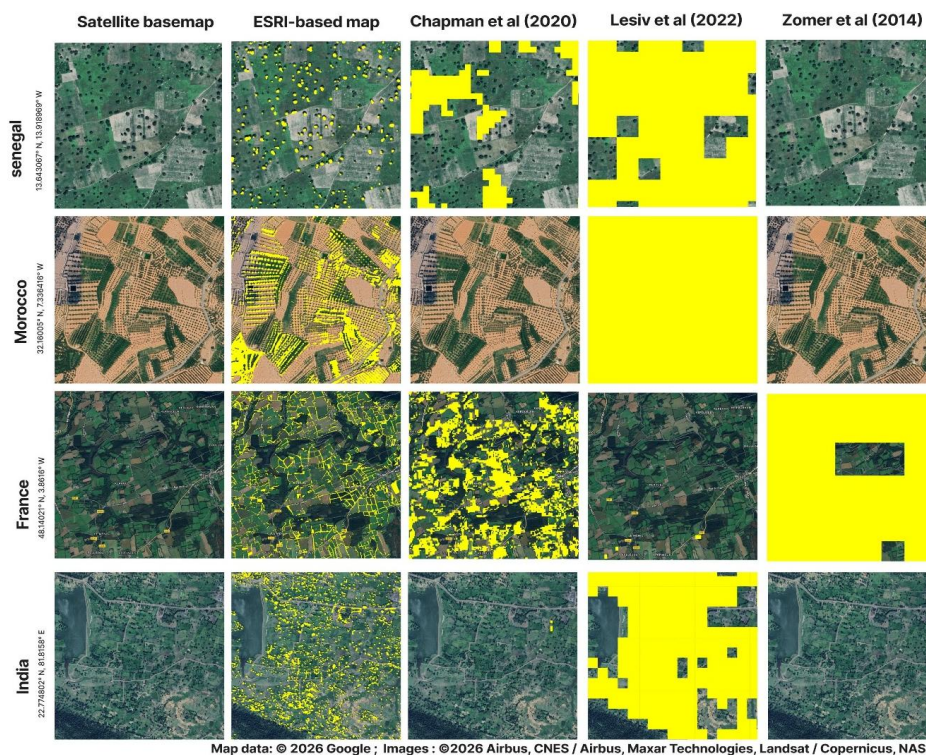
405 2022; Terasaki Hart et al., 2023), as they may not be intentionally managed within the same land use unit.  
406 However, excluding such systems risks overlooking important ecosystem services that are provided by trees  
407 adjacent to cropland and pasture land. For instance, alley cropping (integrated with cropland) may provide  
408 provisioning services such as fruit or timber, while forest patch edges (which may not be managed together with  
409 adjacent croplands) may be efficient in delivering regulating and cultural services, such as habitat provision and  
410 recreation. Restricting the definition to systems in the same management unit would therefore lead to an  
411 incomplete representation of the ecosystem services delivered by trees on agricultural land. We thus adopt an  
412 inclusive function-based definition that encompasses all trees exerting an influence on agricultural land, regardless  
413 of the intentionality of their establishment and the integration of their management.

414

415 Our validation indicated that 68% of samples labeled as woody monocrops were misclassified as agroforestry by  
416 our mapping approach, highlighting a significant limitation of the simple overlay approach. Importantly, this  
417 limitation is not specific to our approach but reflects a more general challenge in large-scale agroforestry mapping.  
418 Distinguishing agroforestry from woody monocrops requires information on spatial structure, planting patterns,  
419 or management practices, which cannot be captured by LULC data alone. Addressing this ambiguity would  
420 therefore require more advanced classification approaches, such as machine learning or deep learning models  
421 trained on very high-resolution imagery, potentially combined with additional data sources (e.g., SAR or temporal  
422 dynamics).

423 Finally, our map is constrained by its restriction to the agroforestry systems occurring on agricultural land uses,  
424 which leads to the exclusion of 'agroforests' or complex systems occurring within forest land cover classes. This  
425 binary definition risks underestimating closed-canopy systems (e.g., shaded perennial systems). To address these  
426 limitations, recent work by the FAO suggests adopting a 'likelihood map' approach (FAO, 2025), in forested  
427 regions where detecting closed-canopy agroforestry systems using optical satellite imagery is challenging.

428



Map data: © 2026 Google ; Images: ©2026 Airbus, CNES / Airbus, Maxar Technologies, Landsat / Copernicus, NASA

429

430 Figure 6: Comparative visualization of agroforestry detection across four study regions: Senegal, Morocco,

431 France, and India. The ESRI-based map (current study) identifies individual agroforestry trees (yellow) at a 1 m

432 x 1 m resolution. For comparison, the native spatial resolutions of global datasets are indicated: Chapman et al.

433 (2020) at 30m x 30m, Lesiv et al. (2022) at 100m x 100m, and Zomer et al. (2014) at 1km x 1km. Map data: ©

434 2026 Google; Images: ©2026 Airbus, CNES / Airbus, Maxar Technologies, Landsat / Copernicus, NASA

435

436 While the 1m tree canopy map substantially improved the detection of scattered agroforestry trees compared to

437 existing baselines (Fig. 6), it failed to detect approximately 36% of alley cropping samples. We attribute this

438 limitation to the spatiotemporal trade-offs inherent in remote sensing: High-resolution sensors typically have

439 lower revisit frequencies than coarser-resolution platforms (Justice et al., 2002), creating blind spots that limit

440 the detection of dynamic agroforestry systems. Two main factors likely contribute to this limitation at annual

441 temporal resolutions. First, agroforestry systems are highly dynamic, with rapid structural change due to

442 economic, agronomic, institutional, and demographic factors (Escobar-Ocampo et al., 2023). For instance,

443 farmers may actively reduce tree cover (e.g., pruning to manage pests or regulate shade), or favor deciduous

444 species to limit competition for light (Piotto et al., 2024). However, such management choices can render trees

445 temporarily undetectable, particularly if imagery is acquired during leaf-off periods. Second, atmospheric

446 constraints further exacerbate detection bias: the scarcity of cloud-free observations often necessitates the use of

447 image composites biased toward the dry season; this reliance on dry-season data, when trees may be leafless or



448 stressed, can lead to a systematic underestimation of tree cover in sub-humid and dry regions (Brandt et al.,  
449 2023).

450

#### 451 **4.2- Agroforestry extent estimation.**

452 Our regional estimates differ substantially from previous global and regional assessments (Fig. 7). These  
453 discrepancies are primarily attributable to differences in methodological choices, spatial resolution, and the  
454 operational definition of agroforestry adopted across studies. For instance, Chapman et al. (2020) analyse the  
455 extent of agricultural lands with woody biomass, which we interpret as a proxy for agroforestry systems, defined  
456 by tree cover lower than 25% and above-ground carbon biomass exceeding 5 MgC/ha. This restrictive definition  
457 excludes agroforestry systems where tree cover surpasses the 25% threshold (Terasaki Hart et al., 2023). More  
458 critically, the biomass threshold leads to a systematic underestimation in low-biomass systems, particularly in  
459 drylands. This constraint likely explains why Chapman’s estimate only 7.21 Mha of agroforestry in the Sahel—  
460 an underestimation of ~80% compared to our estimate of 36.3 Mha.

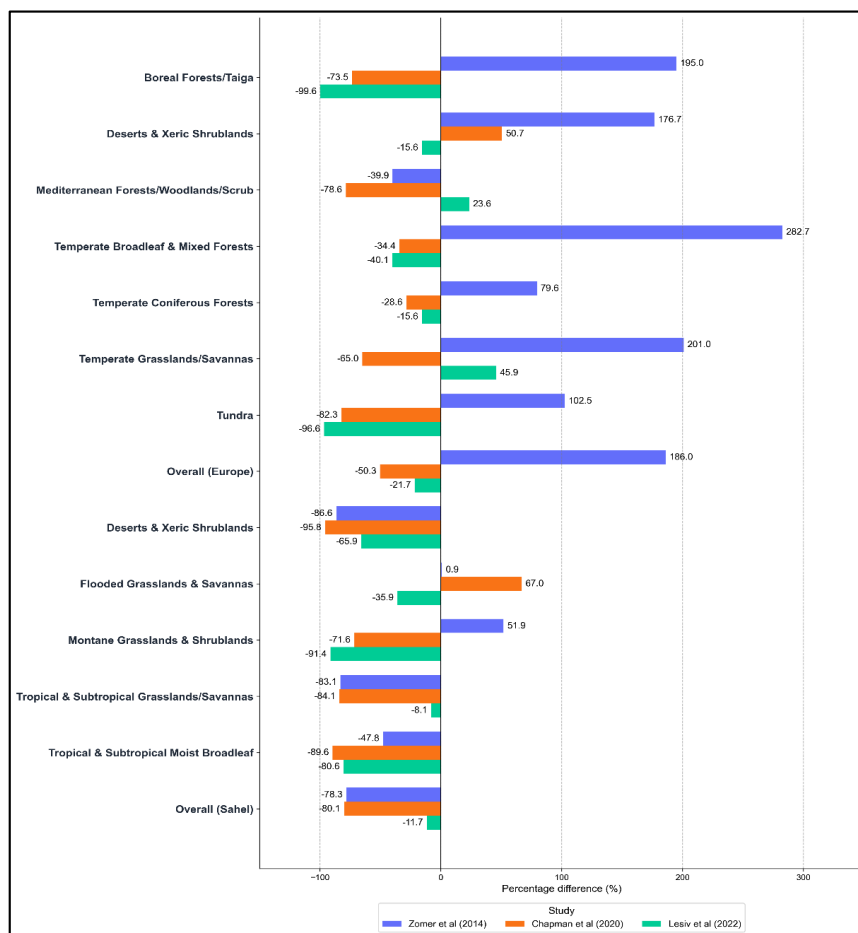
461 Similarly, spatial resolution plays a pivotal role in the discrepancy observed with Zomer et al. (2014), who  
462 defined agroforestry as 1km agricultural pixels with tree cover greater than 10%. This threshold excludes low-  
463 density systems, particularly in regions characterized by scattered trees. As a result, Zomer et al. (2009) estimate  
464 7.86 Mha of agroforestry in the Sahel, corresponding to an underestimation of 78.3% compared to our results.  
465 Conversely, coarse-resolution data are prone to overestimating extent in fragmented landscapes where forests and  
466 agricultural lands co-occur within the same pixel. In Europe, this "mixed pixel" effect resulted in an overestimation  
467 of 186% (246 Mha) compared to our estimate of 86 Mha; this overestimation of agroforestry in European  
468 landscapes by Zomer et al. (2009) was reported by Den Herder et al. (2017).

469 Discrepancies also arise from the limitations inherent to machine learning approaches based on optical satellite  
470 data, as illustrated in Lesiv et al. (2022). Their study recognized frequent spectral confusion between  
471 agroforestry and naturally regenerating managed forests, resulting in a 21% underestimation (67 Mha) in Europe  
472 compared to our 86 Mha. This issue may also stem from errors introduced during the training data generation  
473 phase, particularly in photo-interpretation, where “sparse trees on agricultural land” are often misclassified as  
474 “sparse natural forest,” especially in temperate regions. Recent work by Tahiri et al. (2026) addresses this  
475 limitation by providing a classification method based on the photo-interpretation of very high-resolution satellite  
476 data. Adopting this approach could improve sampling details and provide clearer training samples for machine  
477 learning algorithms. Furthermore, combining such data with Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) data, which provide  
478 complementary structural information, could help reduce spectral confusion and improve classification  
479 performance.

480 In the European Union, alternative approaches based on the LUCAS (Land Use/Cover Area frame Survey) dataset  
481 (Den Herder et al., 2017; Rubio-Delgado et al., 2023) estimated agroforestry extent from the spatial  
482 distribution of labeled points per country. While LUCAS integrates photo-interpretation and field observations,  
483 providing detailed information on crop and tree types, it presents notable limitations for large-scale, spatially  
484 explicit estimation. In particular, its applicability is restricted to Europe, and its coarse sampling grid (2 km)  
485 implies a low probability of intersecting individual trees, which are often sparsely distributed in agricultural



486 landscapes. As a result, this approach likely underestimates the extent of agroforestry and, more broadly, trees on  
 487 farmland.  
 488



489  
 490 Figure 7: Relative difference (%) between the new map (ESRI-based map) and previous large-scale agroforestry  
 491 mapping studies (Chapman et al., 2020; Lesiv et al., 2022; Zomer et al., 2009), aggregated by biome and region.  
 492 The relative difference is calculated as: (Previous study estimates - our estimates) / our estimates x 100. The area  
 493 was estimated for each author using the data they provided and their definition of agroforestry.  
 494

495 **4.3- Minimum mapping unit of agroforestry**

496 Delineating a functional agroforestry unit remains a critical challenge in mapping efforts, as agroforestry is a  
 497 continuum of interactions between trees and the agricultural matrix. While most prior attempts implicitly equate  
 498 the agroforestry unit with a fixed minimum mapping unit (i.e., the pixel) as a compromise between resolution and  
 499 computational constraints, our analysis adopts a distinct approach by starting from individual tree canopy  
 500 delineations and reconstructing the agroforestry unit outward from their spatial context within the agricultural  
 501 matrix. This contrasts with medium-resolution datasets such as (Hansen et al., 2013), where each pixel



502 represents a prediction of tree cover percentage without the ability to distinguish individual trees. Furthermore,  
503 individual agroforestry tree detection offers the flexibility to define the "agroforestry unit" dynamically. This  
504 flexibility is essential because the spatial extent of tree influence is not static; it varies with tree species, ecosystem  
505 service, pedoclimatic context, and agricultural practices (Baker et al., 2025; Laura et al., 2017; Sileshi, 2016).  
506 For instance, trees can influence soil organic carbon stocks up to 30 m from the trunk (Laura et al., 2017), crop  
507 yield up to 17 m (Roupsard et al., 2020), and soil biota up to 18 m (Vaupel et al., 2023). By detecting  
508 individual trees, we avoid the bias introduced by fixing the size of an agroforestry unit a priori to a pixel size,  
509 allowing for a more flexible treatment of spatial variability and context-specific interactions.

510

## 511 **5- Conclusion**

512 Agroforestry has been the subject of numerous large-scale mapping studies. However, existing maps are  
513 constrained by fundamental limitations stemming from data resolution, which generate two critical issues: (i)  
514 over-estimation of agroforestry extent due to the inclusion of non-agroforestry trees and (ii) systematic  
515 underestimation of tree cover in heterogeneous agricultural landscapes. This study addresses these limitations  
516 through two methodological advances: the application of high-resolution land use and land cover (LULC) data  
517 and the integration of individual tree canopy maps to enable tree-level representation. Our analysis reveals that  
518 even when different LULC products share identical spatial resolution (10m), their sensitivity and specificity errors  
519 diverge substantially, indicating that classification definitions and training methodologies used to generate LULC  
520 datasets significantly influence agroforestry detection. Based on a validation against 14,162 georeferenced  
521 ground-truth observations distinguishing agroforestry from non-agroforestry trees, an ESRI-based land-use mask  
522 was identified as the most reliable land-use product (accuracy: 77.2%). Furthermore, we demonstrate that simple  
523 LULC-tree overlay approaches, while improved by higher resolution data, remain susceptible to misclassification  
524 errors, particularly the misidentification of woody monoculture crops as agroforestry systems. These findings  
525 suggest two pathways forward: first, the adoption of more sophisticated analytical frameworks, including machine  
526 learning models capable of distinguishing complex land use patterns; and second, a shift toward likelihood-based  
527 agroforestry maps that accommodate the gradient of tree-agriculture-forest integration, rather than relying on  
528 strict, binary classification schemes.

## 529 **6- Code and data availability**

530 The code used in this study is available at: <https://github.com/ouadyatahiri/Agroforestry-mapping> (last access: 21  
531 June; <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20782941>, Tahiri 2026). Resulting maps are available at:  
532 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20257798> . Dataset used for validation is available at :  
533 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20261860>

## 534 **7- Author contributions**

535 All authors contributed to conceptualisation and study design, data validation, interpretation of results, manuscript  
536 drafting, and critical revision. Ouadya TAHIRI additionally contributed to data acquisition, processing, and  
537 analysis.

## 538 **8- Competing interests**

539 The corresponding author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

## 540 **9- Acknowledgements**



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551

552

553

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