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1 **Road expansion and persistence in forests of the Congo Basin**

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14

15 **Abstract**

16 **Roads facilitate development in remote forest regions, often with detrimental consequences for**
17 **ecosystems. In the Congo Basin, unpaved logging roads used by timber firms, as well as paved**
18 **and unpaved public roads, have expanded greatly. Comparing older (before 2003) and newer**
19 **(2003-2018) road datasets derived from LandSat imagery, we show that road networks inside**
20 **logging concessions in Central Africa have doubled in length since 2003, whereas roads outside**
21 **concessions increased by 40%. We estimate that 44% of all roads within concessions were**
22 **abandoned by 2018, following logging operations, whereas just 12% of roads outside**
23 **concessions were abandoned. Yearly deforestation rates (2000-2017) near (<1 km) roads rose**
24 **dramatically during the course of this study, and were highest for older roads, lowest for**

25 **abandoned roads, and generally higher outside logging concessions. The impact of logging on**
26 **deforestation is partially ameliorated by the nearly four-fold higher rate of road abandonment**
27 **inside concessions, but the dramatic overall expansion of logging roads in the Congo Basin is of**
28 **broad concern for forest ecosystems, carbon storage, and wildlife vulnerable to hunting. Road**
29 **decommissioning after logging could play a crucial role in reducing the negative impacts of**
30 **timber extraction on forest ecosystems.**

31

32 Rapid global road development is currently underway¹. The expanding global road network is
33 threatening many intact natural habitats of high conservation value, especially in tropical regions²⁻⁴.
34 Additional road development is planned for the Central African region, driven by national
35 developmental priorities and foreign investments, especially by China and other nations promoting
36 logging and extractive industries^{5,6}. Continued logging is also leading to the incursion of logging
37 roads into many intact-forest landscapes^{7,8}. By providing access to remote regions, new roads cutting
38 through intact forests are detrimental to the continued integrity of extensive forest areas, frequently
39 opening a ‘Pandora’s box’ of additional and often illicit activities such as mining, poaching, land
40 colonization, and deforestation⁹⁻¹¹.

41 The Congo Basin sustains the second largest tropical forest in the world after Amazonia. In contrast to
42 high rates of deforestation in other tropical forest regions, the extent of Central African forests has
43 been moderately stable since 1900¹², at least with respect to forest-carbon stocks¹³. The single most
44 important driver of forest loss across Africa is shifting agriculture¹⁴. Millions of people in rural
45 communities depend on shifting agriculture and the direct use of forest products for their
46 livelihoods¹⁵. Shifting agriculture is extending into many forest areas that have been opened up by
47 logging activities, which also leaves behind large areas of disturbed forest to potentially
48 regenerate^{16,17}. Forest roads, especially those that link urban populations and forests¹⁸, can also lead to
49 sharp increases in bushmeat hunting and steep declines in wildlife populations^{19,20}.

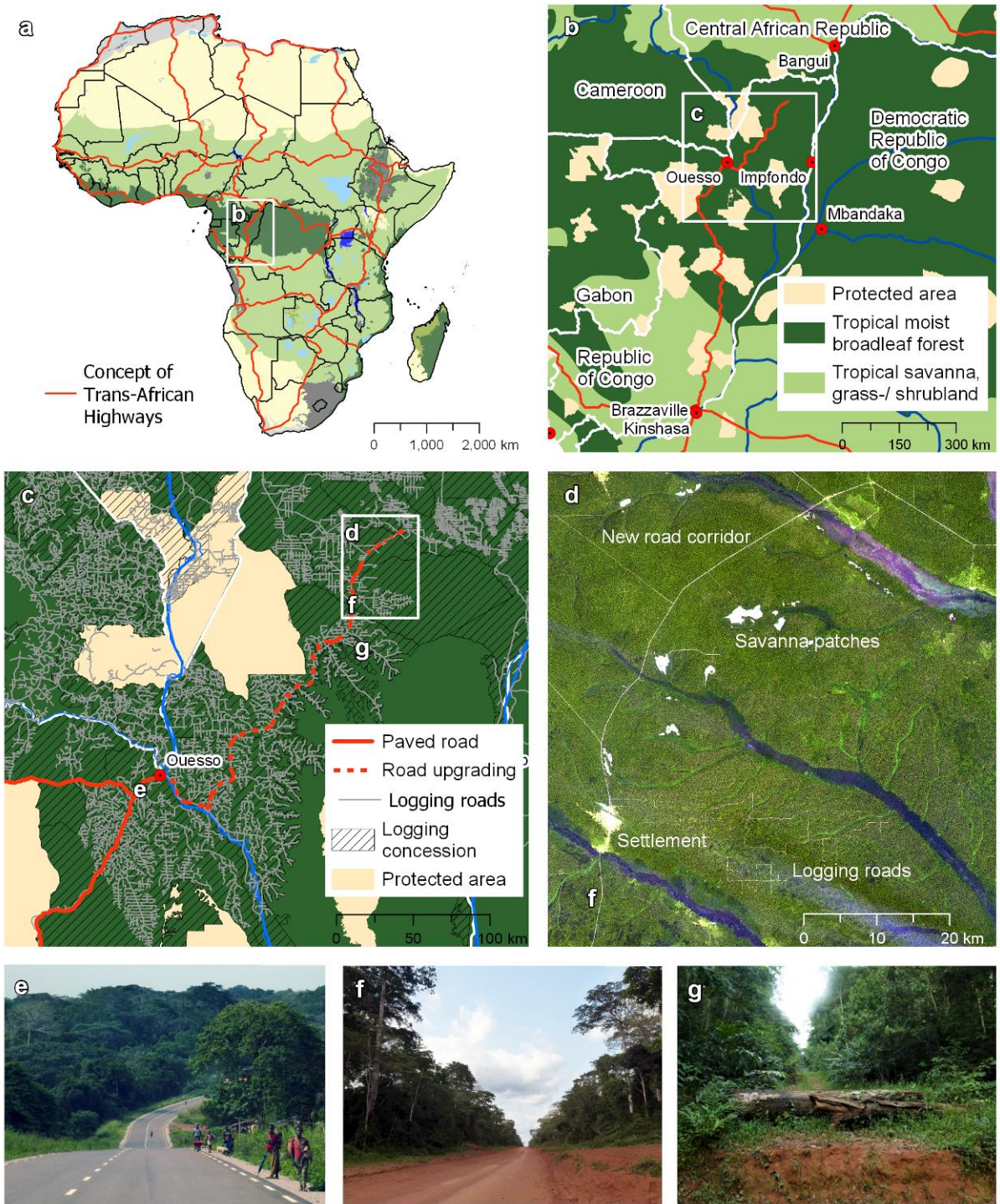
50 Currently, large parts of the Congo Basin are being used for selective logging, requiring extensive
51 road networks to access and transport timber²¹. Most of the Congo Basin forest is owned by nation
52 states that grant concessions (long-term leases, up to 99 years) to logging companies²². Despite the
53 extensive expansion of road networks into the Congo, many unpaved logging roads are subsequently
54 abandoned after a few years of use, allowing forests to regenerate²³. At local scales, temporary
55 logging roads are associated with relatively low deforestation rates compared to more permanent
56 roads, both paved and unpaved²⁴. Logging provides a key economic impetus for initial road building
57 in forests. However, the rate of road expansion inside and outside logging concessions is unknown, as
58 is the fate of such roads after initial construction.

59 **Rapid changes in Congo Basin forests**

60 Logging roads and public roads are used and managed in different ways, and associated impacts on
61 surrounding forests vary substantially. While some regions of the world have access to reliable road
62 maps both digitally and on paper, a complete map of all roads in Central Africa is still unavailable.
63 Within the Congo Basin, few roads are paved and the vast majority consist of a linear openings in the
64 forest canopy with compacted soil where forest-vehicles drive, often surfaced with a layer of
65 weathered clay (laterite). Without regular maintenance, such roads rapidly deteriorate due to heavy
66 rains and are overgrown by recovering vegetation. It is therefore common for roads to be abandoned,
67 especially if they were built only for selective logging activities that progressively shift to different
68 cutting areas every year²³. Because of these dynamics, no road map of the Congo Basin is available
69 that differentiates these various types of roads^{3,25}.

70 In 2004, for the first time in history, it was possible to travel along a road from Brazzaville, capital of
71 the Republic of Congo, to Bangui in the Central African Republic. Prior to this, extensive wetlands
72 and dense humid tropical forests separated the two countries²⁶. For many years there has been an
73 aspiration to construct a Trans-African Highways system and this has slowly taken shape over the past
74 two decades (Figure 1)²⁷. Among the last missing elements of this network is the connection between
75 the Republic of Congo and Central African Republic. Logging companies in the Republic of Congo,
76 financed by the African Development Bank, have been contracted by the government to upgrade

77 existing logging roads as a relatively inexpensive way to extend the public road network towards the
78 Central African Republic^{28,29}; although maintenance costs for roads in high-rainfall environments can
79 be surprisingly high, on the order of 20% of the initial road cost per year²⁵. LandSat images from
80 2018 show clearing of forests for construction of the Congo-Central African Republic road (Figure 1).
81 As of yet, however, the major Brazzaville-Bangui road segment was not included in any of the data
82 sets recently used to analyze road impacts on either global or African scales^{2,4,30,31}, despite being one
83 of the very few north-south connections that transect the Congo Basin forests.



84

85 Figure 1. African road planning and construction from the continental to local levels. a, Overview of
 86 planned trans-African highways²⁷ with underlying country borders and ecoregions³². b, State of
 87 construction of the Ouesso-Bangui-Ndjamena road axis, with protected areas indicated³³. c, Setting of
 88 the road corridor in the northern Republic of Congo with logging concessions³⁴ and logging-road
 89 networks showing the extent of forest exploitation. d, Forest clearing (90 m wide) as a corridor for

90 road construction, linking existing logging road networks, as seen on a LANDSAT 8 image (dated 18
91 January 2018; courtesy US Geological Survey). e, Newly paved road south of Ouésso. f, A former
92 logging road, upgraded to a major road corridor at location marked f in image d. g, Abandoned
93 logging road with excavation and a log-barrier placed to help avoid unauthorized access.

94

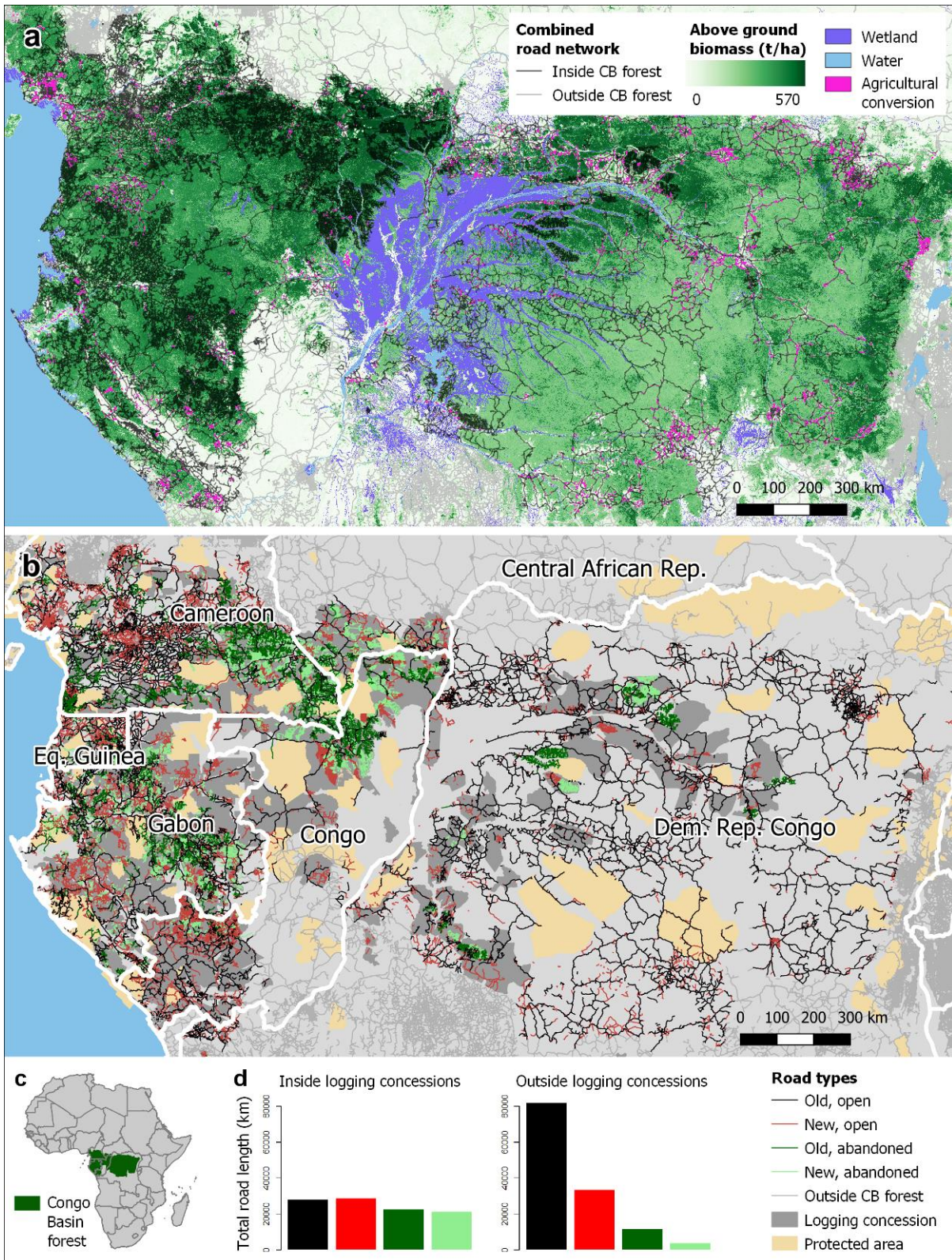
95 Road expansion in Central Africa urgently needs a full accounting of development over time to
96 understand its impacts on forest cover. To address this need we compared two road datasets for Congo
97 Basin forests derived from LandSat images apoints in time: (1) before 2003²¹ and (2) between 2003
98 and 2016³⁵, which we updated in 2018. Here we provide the first inventory of road expansion, road
99 types, and road persistence across Congo Basin forests. We also assess how different road types
100 affected rates of nearby forest loss from 2000 to 2017³⁶.

101 **Logging concessions boost road expansion but limit road persistence**

102 Across the Congo Basin, we found that total road networks increased in length by 61% since 2003,
103 from 143,700 to 230,800 km. Considering an average road width of 28 m, 14,000 km² or 0.8% of
104 Congo Basin moist forests have been cleared for road construction detectable since the first LandSat
105 images became available in the 1970s. Before 2003, 11% of forest was within 1 km of a road, and this
106 increased to 15% by 2017. Three percent of wetlands were within 1 km of a road before 2003,
107 increasing to 6% by 2017 (Figure 2). Road expansion was most pronounced inside logging
108 concessions, where total road length doubled from 50,300 km to 100,300 km. Outside logging
109 concessions, road length increased by 40%, from 93,300 to 130,500 km (Supplementary Table 1).

110 Our analysis also identified roads built before 2003 (older) versus after 2003 (newer), and which of
111 these roads remained open until 2018, or were abandoned. Inside logging concessions, 28% of all
112 roads were older and remained open until 2018. Outside concessions, more than twice as many roads
113 (63%) remained open through 2018 (black lines in Figure 2b). Conversely, 44% of all roads inside
114 logging concessions and 12% outside concessions were abandoned by 2018. Overall, there was a net
115 expansion of roads by 13% inside and 23% outside logging concessions since 2003 (Supplementary

116 Table 1). This suggests logging companies tend to limit the lifespan of their road network, relative to
 117 areas outside concessions.



118

119 Figure 2. Congo Basin (CB) road networks. (a) Full road network overlaid on the above-ground
120 biomass³⁷, water, wetland, and forest conversion to agriculture between 1992 and 2015 (ESACCI land
121 cover map). (b) Road classification, showing expansion and persistence of the full road network
122 within the Congo Basin forest as detected on Landsat. Old = Roads from Laporte et al. (2007)²¹,
123 detected before 2003; New = Roads from Open Street Map (<http://www.openstreetmap.org>) detected
124 since 2003; Open = bare soil visible on Landsat images in 2017/2018; Abandoned = bare soil visible
125 on older Landsat images but not in 2017/2018. (c) Location of the Congo Basin forest on the African
126 continent. (d) Length summary of the different road types shown in (b).

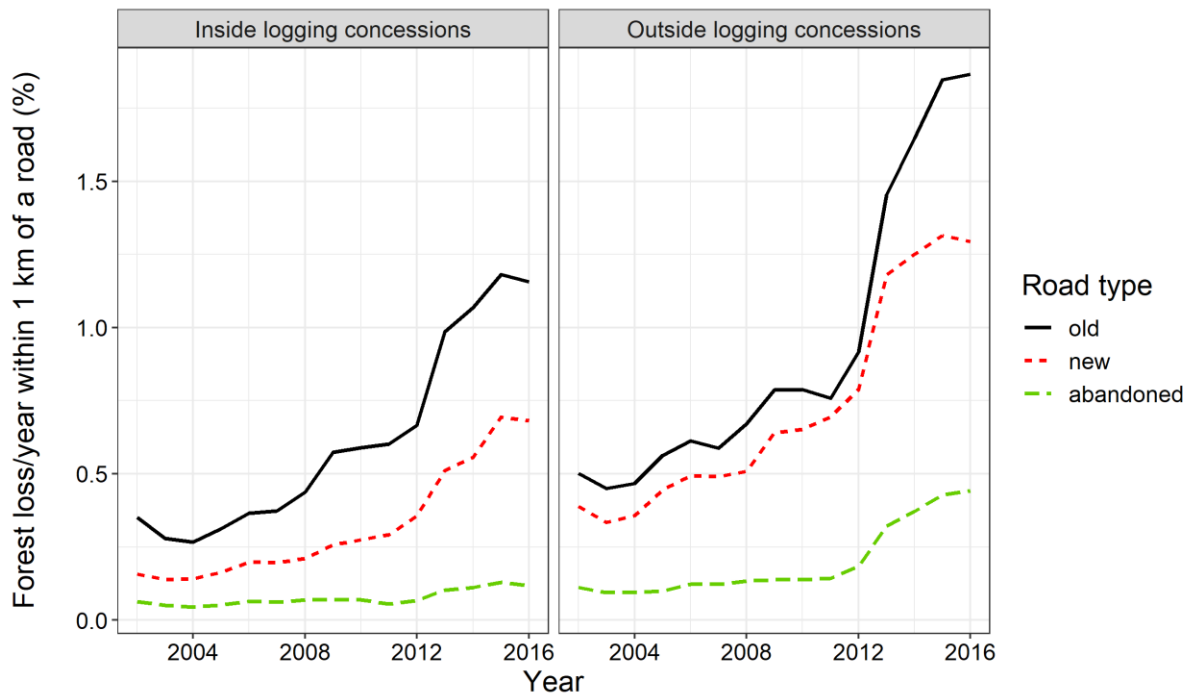
127 **Deforestation rates increase, except around abandoned roads**

128 Deforestation within 1 km of roads was highest for older roads, followed by newer roads, and was
129 lowest for abandoned roads. From 2000 to 2017, yearly rates of forest loss around old, continuously
130 open roads increased dramatically over time, from 0.3% to 1.2% inside concessions, and from 0.5% to
131 1.9% outside concessions. For new, continuously open roads, forest-loss rates increased from 0.1% to
132 0.7% inside and from 0.3% to 1.3% outside concessions. Abandoned roads had annual deforestation
133 rates of less than 0.1% inside concessions and less than 0.4% outside concessions (Figure 3). This
134 means deforestation rates depend mostly on the type of road (abandoned or active) and secondarily on
135 whether they were inside versus outside concessions.

136 Logging concessions have been described as potential buffer zones for conservation purposes, such as
137 in the vicinity of protected areas³⁸. While selective logging does not maintain forest intactness, it
138 provides economic value from forests while maintaining much higher carbon stocks and wildlife
139 habitat than cleared areas outside of concessions³⁹. It is now generally accepted that selectively logged
140 forests retain important conservation values so long as they remain forested^{40,41}.

141 Our study reveals that, outside the vast Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), road building within
142 logging concessions has not yet markedly advanced the deforestation frontier, and many roads seem
143 to be effectively closed — which is a positive outcome for forests. However, given fragile or even
144 failed statehood and poor governance in many countries of the region, mechanisms to maintain long-

145 term sustainable uses of forests remain far from certain, particularly given rapid population growth,
 146 heavy foreign investment and new development schemes³¹, and an associated expansion of shifting
 147 agriculture^{14,42}. Logging concessions are major drivers of road construction and neither the national
 148 origin of the logging companies⁴³, nor the use of forest-management plans, guarantees avoidance of
 149 deforestation^{44,45}.



150
 151 Figure 3: Three-year moving average of annual forest loss 2000-2017³⁶ for different road
 152 classifications, relative to percent forest cover in 2000 (within a buffer of 1 km from roads). Old =
 153 roads detected before 2003 and open through 2018; new= roads detected after 2003 and open through
 154 2018; abandoned= old and new roads detected as abandoned in 2018.

155 **Regional differences in the Congo Basin**

156 We identified distinct regions with contrasting types of road networks in the Congo Basin (Figure 2).
 157 The first is dense terra firme forests under concessionary logging regimes, where in the past 15 years
 158 the development of the road network has been most extensive. The second is the carbon-rich wetlands
 159 of the Cuvette Centrale, which remain mostly free of roads and deforestation, but are surrounded by
 160 increasingly dense road networks extending to the wetland edge. Finally, there are forests that are
 161 already degraded or have naturally lower biomass, mostly located in the DRC and western Cameroon,

162 which are often outside designated forest concessions and are accessible to the public via older road
163 networks. This latter region has experienced the highest deforestation rates (Supplementary Figure 1),
164 partially associated with improvements in the road network⁴⁶.

165 We documented the highest forest loss around roads in the DRC, with annual deforestation rates of
166 2.6% near older roads and 1.6% near newer roads inside concessions, and 2.5% and 2.2%,
167 respectively, near old and new roads outside concessions. Abandoned roads had substantially lower
168 mean annual deforestation rates of 0.3% inside concessions and 0.6% outside concessions. For all
169 other countries in the Congo Basin, mean annual deforestation rates inside concessions were <1% for
170 old and new roads and <0.3% for abandoned roads (Supplementary Figure 1). Hence, the DRC had 2-
171 3 times higher rates of deforestation and forest degradation inside concessions than did other Congo
172 Basin countries¹⁶.

173 The DRC has been the only country in the region with a moratorium on new logging concessions,
174 which has been in place since 2002⁴⁷. However, this policy was dramatically altered in early 2018 by
175 6,500 km² of new concessions awarded to Chinese logging corporations⁴⁸. Concessions in the DRC
176 still cover a lower proportion of the overall forest area than in other Congo Basin countries, but this
177 situation could change rapidly. At present, informal (and often illegal) logging activities and chainsaw
178 milling account for up to 90% of all logging operations in the DRC⁴⁹. The remaining concessions
179 have been criticized for illegal and unsustainable forestry practices⁵⁰. Compared to other Congo Basin
180 countries, a smaller proportion of roads inside concessions have been abandoned in the DRC (see
181 Supplementary Figure 2). If the aim of DRC's moratorium was to reduce deforestation and forest
182 degradation, it has been marginally successful at best. Prevailing corruption, lack of law enforcement,
183 and tenure conflicts⁵¹ all exacerbate the damaging effects of roads by facilitating forest conversion.

184 **Pathways to limit road impacts**

185 Road management needs to become an integral part of the cycle of sustainable forest management.
186 We show that inside well-managed concessions, the impact of logging roads on forest loss is
187 ameliorated by the nearly four-fold higher rate of road abandonment than areas outside concessions.

188 This process could be aided and scaled up by a wider application of road decommissioning.
189 Depending on the local context, a combination of physical barriers, removal of stream crossings, road
190 surface decompaction, and active forest restoration may be the most effective measures for avoiding
191 unauthorized vehicle access to forest resources (however, it is considerably more challenging to halt
192 access for people on foot or motorcycles²³). In the larger picture, reducing the overall spatial footprint
193 of roads in the Congo's many areas of high conservation value can only be achieved by strategic
194 planning and long-term spatial prioritization. This includes optimal geographical distribution and
195 territorial confinement of new concessions as well as mitigating the effects of large-scale road
196 building schemes currently under way across Africa³¹. Within the tropical forest domain, this process
197 often begins as logging roads that are subsequently converted to public roads. Despite substantial road
198 abandonment, we found that 28% of Congo logging roads remained open over the long term (for more
199 than 15 years after concessions commenced). Even if these roads have measures in place to restrict
200 access, the effectiveness of such measures is limited. Such 'permanent' roads are more likely to lead
201 to fragmentation and conversion of forests via advancing shifting agriculture, mining, and other forms
202 of encroachment¹⁰. The most powerful impact-mitigation efforts should therefore focus on carefully
203 planning and, where possible, limiting the expansion of permanent roads. Among other factors, the
204 high expense of maintaining roads in wet tropical environments provides a potent incentive for
205 tropical nations to be conservative and minimalist in expanding their road networks^{3,25}.

206 We conclude that the most vulnerable areas where the greatest negative impacts might occur are the
207 dense, slow-growing forests⁵² of the border region between the Republic of Congo and Central
208 African Republic, and the carbon-rich wetlands of the Cuvette Centrale⁵³. Rapid expansion of logging
209 road networks, and their subsequent transformation to a new trans-African highway, will create
210 substantial threats to the integrity of these unique and biologically rich forests. Of particular
211 conservation concern are the gorillas and chimpanzees that are still relatively abundant in this
212 region⁵⁴. Logging-concession holders together with governments, local communities, and
213 international funders need to engage in proactive environmental planning, especially focusing on road

214 projects³ and identifying economically marginal projects that should be discouraged from a
215 conservation standpoint⁵⁵.

216 Effective road planning spans the interests of different stakeholders and decision makers and clearly
217 has the potential to determine the fate of forested ecosystems for the benefit of people, biodiversity,
218 and carbon storage. On the landscape scale, forest-certification systems offer an important platform
219 for guiding standards and practices; for instance, regarding effective road decommissioning after
220 logging. A key challenge is scaling up regional planning that encompasses several nation states and a
221 variety of conservation and development interests. An organization such as the Commission of
222 Central African Forests (COMIFAC) can play a key role in this regard. In the Congo region, forests
223 and natural resources are being rapidly exploited, but there is much scope to improve the social
224 equitability and environmental sustainability of projects via greater transparency and rule of law, all
225 of which is in the immediate interests of these sovereign nations.

226 **Methods**

227 **Study area**

228 We defined the Congo Basin forests as the tropical moist forests of >75% tree cover within the
229 Central African countries Cameroon, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, Central African Republic, Republic
230 of Congo and Democratic Republic of Congo.

231 **Road data**

232 We compared two large road data sets for Central Africa that are mostly based on LANDSAT satellite
233 imagery. The old logging roads and public roads dataset is from Laporte et al. (2007)²¹, who manually
234 digitized roads on over 300 LANDSAT images from the 1970's to 2003.

235 The new logging roads dataset is based on crowd-sourced data from Open Street Map (OSM). The
236 quality of Open Street Map data has increased greatly over recent years, and has been successfully
237 used to estimate global road coverage². Open Street Map data in the Central African Region results
238 from a collective effort of research institutions and a citizen science initiative, where logging roads

239 were digitized manually from LANDSAT images (www.loggingroads.org). For one of the hotspot
240 regions of logging in Cameroon, Republic of Congo and Central African Republic, data were used
241 from Kleinschroth et al. (2017)⁷. Overall, the OSM data covers roads built from the 1980s to 2016.
242 We downloaded the full country data sets from six Central African countries provided by Geofabrik
243 (<http://download.geofabrik.de/africa.html>). To filter all roads from the full dataset, we used the
244 Osmosis command line application for processing OSM data⁵⁶ using the following tag filters: “accept-
245 ways highway=*” and “accept-ways abandoned:highway=*” to capture both open and abandoned
246 roads. We excluded urban roads from the OSM dataset based on the following tags: 'residential',
247 'cycleway', 'living_street', 'pedestrian'.
248 The Laporte et al. (2007) dataset is limited to the road network within the forested region of Central
249 Africa with >75 % tree cover (updated in Hansen et al., 2013)³⁶. We therefore clipped the OSM map
250 to the same extent. We kept roads from OSM outside this area only for illustration purposes in
251 Figure 2. We manually updated OSM data to 2018 based on most recent LandSat images.

252 **Road age classification**

253 Due to the temporal overlap in the two data sets, we used the year 2003 as the cut-off, and defined any
254 road that existed before that as old and any road built after that as new. To make the two manually
255 digitized data sets coincident, we used the “integrate” tool in ArcGIS with a tolerance level of 300 m.
256 We then removed all parts from the OSM dataset that coincided with the Laporte dataset. As an
257 attribute, we added to each road segment the information on which of the two original data sets it
258 appeared. Roads that appeared on both data sets were labelled “old, open”, those that only appeared
259 on the old dataset “old, abandoned” and those only on the new dataset “new, open”. Especially in the
260 densely populated regions of Cameroon, the OSM dataset appeared to be more detailed than the
261 Laporte (2007) data. The length of “new, open” roads outside logging concessions might therefore be
262 overestimated and the length of “old, open” underestimated.

263 The location of roads inside and outside of formally designated logging concessions was identified
264 based on data from WRI (<http://www.wri.org/our-work/project/congo-basin-forest-atlases>)^{34,57,58}. We

265 intersected the merged road dataset with concessions and split lines at the point of intersection. We
266 could then select all roads depending on their locations inside and outside of concessions.

267 **Road abandonment**

268 To improve the identification of road abandonment, we used the red bands of 135 Landsat 8 images
269 from the years 2017 and 2018 covering the Congo Basin. Following the approach of Kleinschroth et
270 al. (2015)⁵⁹, this allowed us to distinguish open and abandoned roads. While the road surface itself is
271 on average 7 m wide, actively used roads in the Congo Basin are typically maintained with 10 m wide
272 cleared strips on both sides of the actual track¹⁰. The main purpose of this is to open the canopy to
273 allow the sun dry the surface of the road after the frequent rains⁶⁰. The contrast between the bare soil
274 of the road surface and the surrounding forest allows relatively straightforward visual detection of
275 open road networks mainly due to their strong signal on the red band of the Landsat satellite.

276 Abandoned roads typically get overgrown within a year, both due to vegetation establishment on the
277 road track and from lateral ingrowth²³. This vegetation recovery leads to a gradual disappearance of
278 the road signal from the red band of Landsat. Abandoned roads can still be used by people on foot or
279 motorbikes and remain detectable for 20 years on the infra-red bands of Landsat, indicating higher
280 photosynthetic activity⁵⁹.

281 Due to abundant cloud cover in Gabon and Southern Republic of Congo, an estimated 10% of the
282 forest area was not clearly visible on any image in 2017/2018 and road abandonment could not be
283 identified. Overall abandonment is therefore a conservative estimate.

284 We calculated the sum of the length of different types of roads (old, new, abandoned, open, inside and
285 outside of concessions) using QGIS⁶¹. We used field-based maps and photographs collected during
286 three phases of fieldwork in 2014, 2015 and 2017 to correct the remotely sensed maps.

287 **Forest loss data**

288 We calculated forest loss within a buffer of 1 km around roads. While road-related impacts may well
289 spread beyond this distance, we followed the approach of Ibisch et al. (2016)², who consider 1 km as a
290 minimum value for road-effect zones that is applicable globally. This corresponds with the typical

291 maximum distance that loggers in the Congo Basin use for skidding, i.e. where they enter the forest
292 with bulldozers to drag tree logs to a road²¹. In logging road layouts that systematically cover a forest
293 area, using a buffer that is wider than 1 km would capture several parallel roads at once and confound
294 the forest loss effect of each individual road.

295 We used QGIS to create a 1 km-buffer around the different types and locations of roads (old, new and
296 abandoned roads in six countries, inside and outside of concessions). This resulted in 36 polygons that
297 we uploaded to Google Earth Engine⁶². Within each polygon we quantified forest cover loss based on
298 “Hansen Global Forest Change v1.5” annual forest loss data from 2000 to 2017³⁶. To correct for the
299 different size of the road networks (e.g. in countries of different size) we calculated the percentage of
300 the annually lost forest area compared to the forest area in 2000 (according to the “Hansen Global
301 Forest Change” dataset) within the road buffer. The Hansen et al. (2013) annual forest loss products
302 contain map errors of unknown directions (bias towards omission or commission) and magnitude.
303 Therefore, we calculated three-year moving averages of annual tree cover loss to show a general trend
304 from map pixel counts over time, following the approach of Tyukavina (2018)⁶³. The resulting
305 temporal trend needs to be interpreted with caution as the Hansen et al. (2013) map tends to
306 underestimate forest loss area at the beginning of the 2000s, and overestimate loss after 2010⁶³.

307 Additionally, Hansen et al. (2013) only covers gross forest loss and does not take into account forest
308 regrowth. Both selective logging and shifting agriculture are highly dynamic processes and forest loss
309 is often followed by long periods of vegetation recovery⁶⁴. Between 2000 and 2005, net deforestation
310 in the overall Congo Basin was 35% lower than gross deforestation. This “reforestation” ratio varied
311 strongly between different countries: in Gabon 100% of lost forest were regained, in Cameroon 82%,
312 Republic of Congo 50%, Central African Republic 40% and DRC 31%.¹⁶ We assume net
313 deforestation respectively lower than the gross forest loss values reported by us. To illustrate the
314 location of permanent conversion of forest to agriculture in Figure 2A, we used land cover change
315 data from 1992 to 2015 from the ESA CCI land cover change dataset
316 (<https://maps.elie.ucl.ac.be/CCI/viewer/>)⁶⁵. To a certain extent, forest loss can be seen as an indicator
317 for other - less visible - impacts on the forest, such as forest degradation and defaunation. Forest edges

318 next to new canopy openings are typically most prone to degradation due to climatic effects and the
319 presence of people who use the forest e.g. for hunting⁶⁶.

320 All further analyses were done in R⁶⁷, using packages “raster”, “rgdal”, “rgeos”, “zoo” and “ggplot2”.

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327 contributors who digitized road data, particularly the loggingroads.org initiative led by Moabi, the
328 Joint Research Center of the European Commission and Global Forest Watch.

329 **Author contributions**

330 FK and WFL conceived the ideas, FK and NL collected and analyzed the data. All authors contributed
331 to the writing.

332 **Data availability statement**

333 The spatial datasets generated and analysed during the current study will be made available on the
334 ORNL DAAC (<https://daac.ornl.gov>) upon acceptance of the manuscript.

335 **Code availability statement**

336 Google Earth Engine codes used during the current study are publicly available under :
337 <https://code.earthengine.google.com/9758a45a0a19a1d48f7453b406b8cb66>

338 R-codes used during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable
339 request.

340 **Competing interests**

341 The authors declare no competing interests.

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