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An annual land cover dataset for OPENthe Baltic Sea Region with crop types and peat bogs at 30m from 2000 to 2022 Data Descriptor

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We present detailed annual land cover maps for the Baltic Sea region, spanning more than two decades (2000–2022). The maps provide information on eighteen land cover (LC) classes, including eight general LC types, eight major crop types and grassland, and two peat bog-related classes. Our maps represent the frst homogenized annual dataset for the region and address gaps in current land use and land cover products, such as a lack of detail on crop sequences and peat bog exploitation. To create the maps, we used annual multi-temporal remote sensing data combined with a data encoding structure and deep learning classifcation. We obtained the training data from publicly available open datasets. The maps were validated using independent feld survey data from the Land Use/Cover Area Frame Survey (LUCAS) and expert annotations from high-resolution imagery. The quantitative and qualitative results of the maps provide a reliable data source for monitoring agricultural transformations, peat bog exploitation, and restoration activities in the Baltic Sea region and its surrounding countries.

Background & Summary

Land use/land cover (LULC) products are valuable for assessing the status of remaining natural habitats and determining the degree of human pressure on natural ecosystems. Over the past few decades, the availability of openly and globally accessible remote sensing data has fuelled various studies to map LULC over extended areas and time periods¹. In Europe, the CORINE Land Cover (CLC²) is a well-established and comprehensive LULC product that provides thematic LULC maps of roughly 44 land cover (LC) classes across multiple years. Te CLC product has set up a standard for subsequent studies in Europe that followed a similar LC classifcation scheme to produce finer spatial resolution and denser time-series LULC maps^{[3](#page-15-2)-8}.

However, one of the drawbacks of CLC and its derivatives is the lack of detailed information on croplands. For example, the CLC classifcation scheme contains 44 LC classes, but for agricultural land, which accounts for more than 42% of LC in Europe⁹, it does not further differentiate. At the same time, detailed information on agricultural land use enables monitoring of the spatial distribution of crop types, the analysis of crop sequences, and the assessment of the composition of the agricultural landscape as a whole, which is crucial in the context of biodiversit[y10.](#page-15-5) Crop sequence information is also proving useful given the rapid changes that agricultural practices in Europe have undergone in adapting to climate change over the last few decades¹¹. Although there have been attempts to map crop types at both national and continental scales^{[12](#page-15-7)[–14](#page-15-8)}, they are often only available for single or short periods. LULC products with crop type information of large regions and over decadal periods are still generally scarce.

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Located in the center of Europe, the Baltic Sea region (BSR) has witnessed a similar pace of change in agriculture as the rest of the continent¹⁵. In addition to that, the BSR has also experienced the degradation of natural peat bogs and other mires through various activities such as peat harvesting, or draining peatlands to be used as cropland, grassland, or forestry. Since the beginning of 2000, peat extraction in bogs has been estimated at up to 1.2 million t/year in Estonia, and roughly 0.5–0.7 million t/year in Latvia and Lithuania¹⁶. The degradation of peatlands due to mining activities results in adverse environmental impacts across the BSR, including losses in carbon sequestration^{[17](#page-15-11)}, potential and biodiversity¹⁸ and water pollution¹⁹. In addition, degraded peatlands are important carbon sources, with peat decomposition under aerobic conditions causing large amounts of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions^{[20](#page-15-14)[,21](#page-15-15)}. Many factors contribute to the rates of GHG emissions, e.g., management on grassland and organic soils²², land use changes²³ and agricultural practice²⁴, and foremost the water tables depth of drained peatland[s20.](#page-15-14) Hence, annual monitoring of peat bog exploitation in the BSR is essential to inform policy-making and facilitate the conservation of its associated ecosystems, particularly in response to the challenges posed by the climate crisis. Tis could be achieved by interpreting LULC maps with information of exploited and unexploited peat bogs, as well as the land use on drained peatland. So far, there are only a few LULC datasets in Europe that contain information on natural peat bogs and their exploitation. For example, datasets such as Natura 2000²⁵ or Coastal Zone²⁶ provide LC maps with this information, but only within the limited boundaries of natural reserves and coastal areas. In addition, these maps only exist for specifc years, while spatially continuous annual products, which would allow to identify rewetting activities following peat harvesting, for example, are still lacking. Such maps would be helpful for monitoring the success of restoration and efficacy of restoration strategies 2^7 .

To bridge this gap, we here present the Baltic Sea Region Land Cover *Plus* (BSRLC+), the frst set of annual land cover maps at 30m resolution of the BSR over two decades (2000–2022), containing detailed information on crop types and peat bog extractions.

Methods

Study area. We mapped the BSR, here defned as land masses bordering the Baltic Sea without the Gulf of Bothnia. The area covers a total area of [1](#page-2-0),143,000 km² and spans over 9 countries (Fig. 1). It fully covers Denmark, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania, northern parts of Germany and Poland and southern Sweden and Finland. From Russia the Kaliningrad exclave as well as the coastline between Finland and Estonia are covered. All islands within the geographic extent are also included, as well as coastal waters within the respective image tiles of the covered land areas.

Overall workflow. To create the maps, we structured a workflow (Fig. [2\)](#page-3-0) that incorporates multiple processes:

- Satellite data processing: We downloaded and processed all available Landsat and Sentinel-2 imageries over more than two decades (from 2000 to 2022). Tis includes estimating surface refectance, cloud removal and data harmonization.
- Reference data: We collected various existing, open LC datasets and applied different sampling strategies to sample reference LC data to train the machine learning model.
- Mapping: We used deep learning classification and performed hierarchical mapping to predict first level maps (Level 1) containing eight general LC types, followed by detailed prediction of LC maps with crop types and wetland types (Level 2) on top of the Level 1 results. The final maps contain eighteen LC types. For each level, we applied diferent temporal and spatial fltering methods to remove noise.
- Evaluation of final maps: We assessed map accuracies using independent *in-situ* reference LC data and national statistics, using various quantitative metrics, as well as qualitative assessments by comparing with very high-resolution imageries.

Land cover classes. We mapped annual LC using a hierarchical approach, with the low-level map (Level 1) containing eight general LC types: Built-up, Bareland, Water, Shrubland, Coniferous forest, Broadleaf forest, Wetland, Cropland and Grassland. The final high-level map (Level 2) provides more details by separating the Wetland class into Wetland marsh, Exploited peat bog, and Unexploited peat bog as well as separating Cropland and Grassland into: Wheat, Barley, Rye, Oat, Maize, Seed crops, Root crops, Dry pulses and vegetable, Grassland. In Level 2 the Grassland class comprises all areas of the open landscape that are not used as arable land. Tis includes meadows and pastures as well as (semi-) natural grasslands. In summary, we mapped a total of eighteen LC classes, the nomenclature for each class is shown in Table [1](#page-4-0).

Reference land cover data. To support supervised machine learning classifcation over large space and time, diverse and extensive training data are essential. For non-crop-related LC classes, we used existing LC maps, datasets, and remote sensing spectral indices, combined with rule-based fltering for semi-automated data collection. The datasets, mostly including those from the Copernicus Land Monitoring Service (CLMS, [https://](https://land.copernicus.eu/) [land.copernicus.eu/\)](https://land.copernicus.eu/), provided detailed quantitative and categorical maps useful for sampling reference LC types (see Table [2](#page-5-0)).

All datasets that we used (Table [2](#page-5-0)) were rasterized or resampled to a 30m resolution (using cubic interpolation for continuous data and nearest neighbour interpolation for categorical data) to be comparable to our satellite remote sensing data (see Remote sensing data section). From the selected dataset, for each interested

Fig. 1 (a) The Baltic Sea region; (b) Thematic details of CORINE Land Cover² and Continental Europe Land Cover⁶ (44 classes) compared to Baltic Sea Region Land Cover *Plus* (18 classes) maps for 2018; upper example: an area in Germany (center coordinate 52.89N, 10.85E) dominated by agricultural land, which is oversimplifed by existing LC products, whereas our maps reveal the diverse land use in agriculture; bottom example: our map distinguishes unexploited and exploited peat bogs in Estonia (center coordinate 58.54N, 24.37E). High resolution images are taken from Google Earth.

LC class, we applied multiple rule-based methods to acquire large amounts of reference LC points with high confdence. All sampled points were considered consistent (invariant in LC type) during the period from 2006 to 2018, in details:

Fig. 2 Overall workflow.

- Built-up: Imperviousness dataset (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) were used. A 5×5 (pixels) focal filter runs across the dataset in all five years. The center pixels were selected as Built-up if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) All surrounding pixels (24 pixels) have imperviousness values $>$ 20% in all years; (2) The center pixel has more than 50% of imperviousness in all fve years.
- Bareland: Spectral temporal metrics (STM) of Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI²⁸) and Normalized Diference Water Index (NDW[I29\)](#page-15-24), and Imperviousness dataset (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) were used. Based on our analysis on spectral profles, Bareland pixels were selected if they satisfy all of the following criteria: (1) 90th percentile NDVI value is lower than 0.3 throughout 2006–2018 (to flter out pixels with vegetation signal); (2) 90th percentile NDWI value is lower than 0 throughout 2006–2018 (to filter out pixels dominated by water); (3) All imperviousness values=0 in 5 years (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) (to flter out pixels dominated, or close to built-up areas).
- Water: Spectral temporal metrics (STM) of NDWI and NDVI, and Imperviousness dataset (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) were used. Based on our analysis on spectral profles, Water pixels were selected only if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) 10^{th} percentile NDWI value is greater than 0.3 throughout 2006–2018 (to ensure the pixels are dominated by permanent water); (2) 90th percentile NDVI value is lower than 0.3 throughout 2006–2018 (to filter out pixels with strong vegetation signal); (3) All imperviousness values = 0 in 5 years (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018).
- Shrubland: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), N2K dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), Tree Density dataset (2012, 2015, 2018) and Imperviousness (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) were used. Shrubland pixels were selected if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) Both CLC and N2K contains one of these classes: Moors and heathland, Sclerophyllous vegetation and Transitional woodland-shrub in all three years 2006, 2012 2018; (2) Tree

Table 1. Land cover hierarchy and nomenclature.

density values in the pixels \leq 30% in three years 2012, 2015, 2018; (3) All imperviousness values $=0$ in 5 years 2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018.

- Coniferous forest: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), forest type dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), and tree density dataset (2012, 2015, 2018) were used. A 5×5 focal filter runs across all datasets. The center pixels were selected as Coniferous forest if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as coniferous forest in all three years 2006, 2012, 2018 in the CLC dataset; (2) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as coniferous forest in all three years 2012, 2015, 2018 in the forest type dataset; (3) All pixels (25 pixels) have tree density values $>75\%$ in all three years 2012, 2015, 2018.
- Broadleaf forest: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), forest type dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), and tree density dataset (2012, 2015, 2018) were used. A 5×5 focal filter runs across all datasets. The center pixels were selected as Broadleaf forest if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as broadleaf forest in all three years 2006, 2012, 2018 in the CLC dataset; (2) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as broadleaf forest in all three years 2006, 2012, 2018 in the forest type dataset; (3) All pixels (25 pixels) have tree density values>75% in all three years 2012, 2015, 2018.
- Wetland marsh: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018) and N2K dataset (2006, 2012, 2018) were used. A 5×5 focal filter runs across all datasets. The center pixels were selected as Wetland marsh if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as inland marsh or salt marsh in all three years 2006, 2012, 2018 in the CLC dataset; (2) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as inland marsh or salt marsh in all three years 2006, 2012, 2018 in the N2K dataset.
- Exploited peat bog: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018) and N2K dataset (2006, 2012, 2018) were used. A 5×5 focal filter runs across all datasets. The center pixels were selected as Exploited peat bog if they satisfy all of the following criteria: (1) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as peat bog in all three years (2006, 2012, 2018) from in the CLC dataset; (2) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as exploited peat bog in all three years (2006, 2012, 2018) in the N2K dataset.
- Unexploited peat bog: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018) and N2K dataset (2006, 2012, 2018) were used. A 5×5 focal filter runs across all datasets. The center pixels were selected as Unexploited peat bog if they satisfy all of the following criteria: (1) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as peat bog in all three years (2006, 2012, 2018) from in the CLC dataset; (2) All pixels (25 pixels) are classifed as unexploited peat bog in all three years (2006, 2012, 2018) in the N2K dataset.
- • Crop land and grassland: CLC dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), N2K dataset (2006, 2012, 2018), Tree density (2012, 2015, 2018), and Imperviousness (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) were used. A 5×5 focal filter runs across all datasets. The center pixels were selected as Cropland and grassland if they satisfy all the following criteria: (1) Both CLC and N2K contains one of these classes in all three years (2006, 2012, 2018): Irrigated and non-irrigated arable land, Managed grassland (Pasture), Natural grassland; (2) All pixels (25 pixels) have Tree density values = 0% in all three years 2012, 2015, 2018; (3) All pixels (25 pixels) have Imperviousness values = 0% in all fve years (2006, 2009, 2012, 2015, 2018).

We sampled up to 10,000 training pixels per class, and each is considered invariant in LC type during 2006– 2018. Tis way, for each sample, we can derive multi-annual spectral profles from remote sensing data, which enhance the temporal transferability of supervised classifcations (see details in Classifcation section).

For crop type reference data, we used the EuroCrop dataset³⁰, which includes harmonized crop polygons from sixteen European countries. We used all available datasets that overlapped with the BSR. From the reference data statistics, we defned nine major crop types in the area: Wheat; Barley; Rye; Oat; Maize; Seed crops; Root crops; Dry pulses and vegetables; and Grassland (see Table [3](#page-6-0) for nomenclature).

Table 2. Reference LC data for training classifcation.

We rasterized all crop reference data to a 30m resolution that aligned with our remote sensing data (see Remote sensing data section). Next, in each year where crop data was available (2019, 2021 and 2023), we randomly sampled up to 50,000 training pixels per class. As a result, a total of around 2 million crop reference pixels were used for training.

Remote sensing data. We downloaded all available remote sensing satellite scenes covering the BSR from 2000 to 2022 (with cloud cover less than 75% per scene) of Landsat 5 TM (LS5); Landsat 7 ETM+ (LS7); Landsat 8 OLI (LS8); Landsat 9 OLI+ (LS9) provided by United States Geological Survey (USGS, [https://earthexplorer.](https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/) [usgs.gov/\)](https://earthexplorer.usgs.gov/), and Sentinel-2A (S2A) and Sentinel-2B (S2B) provided by the Copernicus Open Access Hub ([https://](https://scihub.copernicus.eu/maintenance.html) scihub.copernicus.eu/maintenance.html). Annual satellite availability is shown in Fig. [3a](#page-6-1). In the study area, we limited the map coverage to land area only and intentionally excluded all tiles fully and permanently covered with water. This greatly reduced the physical space for remote sensing data storage as well as compute processing units.

All satellite data were harmonized and processed to Level-2 surface refectance using the Framework for Operational Radiometric Correction for Environmental monitoring (FORC[E31](#page-16-0)). Six refectance bands were used: Red, Green, Blue, Near-Infrared, Shortwave-Infrared 1 and Shortwave-Infrared 2. We also included three additional indices: Normalized Diference Vegetation Index (NDV[I28](#page-15-23)), Normalized Diference Water Index (NDW[I29\)](#page-15-24) and Soil-Adjusted Vegetation Index (SAVI[32\)](#page-16-1). All bands were processed at 30m resolution, whereas higher resolution bands (from Sentinel-2 data) were resampled to the target resolution with FORCE using an approximated point spread function. The raster data were reprojected to ETRS89-extended/LAEA Europe (EPSG:3035) and divided into a regular 30×30 km grid (see Fig. [1\)](#page-2-0). We derived annual clear sky observations (CSO) to provide an overview of data density per year (Fig. [3b\)](#page-6-1).

Classification. The availability of remote sensing data varied greatly over years (Fig. [3](#page-6-1)). Therefore, when using temporal information as input data, it is ofen required to use aggregation methods to create equidistant feature spaces to support machine learning models¹. However, Pham *et al.*³³ demonstrated that most aggregation methods often transfer poorly when facing irregular temporal data, especially when mapping crop types. The authors proposed a generalized method for capturing annual time-series information called Temporal Encoding. Tis method involves flling a 365-feature data structure with clear observations, placing each observation in a position corresponding to its acquisition date. For days without clear observations, a blank value (0) is assigned. This way, the encoded input data is neither compressed nor extrapolated while remaining the consistent input feature length. The method has been shown to be highly robust even when the temporal data density varies between training and mapping data. In this study, we adapted the methods from Pham *et al*. [33](#page-16-2) with some slight alterations:

- We used weekly encoding: In each satellite band, we created an array with 52 time-steps, representing 52 weeks of the year. For each time-step, all clear observations of every week (7 days) are averaged and positioned to their corresponding week. Weeks that do not have any clear observations are assigned with values of 0. Using weekly encoding allows the input features 7-times lighter compared to daily encoding (365 timesteps) used in Pham *et al*. [33](#page-16-2), while still preserving the detailed LC phenology information (Fig. [4](#page-7-0)). In this study, we used 9 bands (6 spectral bands and 3 indices), making a total of 486 input features (52 time-steps x 9 bands) for the classifcation model. Visualizations of the spectral features space of diferent land cover types for diferent time periods are shown in Fig. [4](#page-7-0)
- The input data (52 time-steps x 9 bands) is then used to train the 1-Dimensional Convolutional Neural Network (1D-CNN) classifer. Here, the 1D convolution layers are applied to the temporal dimension of the input (Fig. [5\)](#page-8-0), followed by max pooling layers and fully connected layers for estimating land cover type probabilities. Details of the network architecture is provided in Supplementary File 1.

Fig. 3 (**a**) Annual satellite availability in the study area. (**b**) Annual clear sky observations (CSO) from 2000 to 2022.

• During the training process, we applied two data augmentation methods Random Observation Selection and Random Day Shifting proposed in Pham et al.³³. These methods are used to simulate the temporal data sparsity and phenological shifs. Incorporating Temporal Encoding and data augmentations have been shown

to greatly improve the transferability of the deep learning model, allowing to transfer the model trained with data from recent years to past years 33 .

To improve the mapping of agricultural and wetland areas, we used a hierarchical classifcation scheme (Fig. [2](#page-3-0)). In the frst step (Level 1) the following general land cover types are diferentiated: Built-up, Bareland,

input data

Fig. 5 Simplifed 1-Dimensional Convolutional Neural Network (1D-CNN) architecture for land cover classifcation with temporal encoding input. Details of the network architecture is provided in Supplement File 1.

Fig. 6 Post processing. (**a**) Spatial fltering (applying to both Level 1 and Level 2 maps); (**b**) Temporal fltering (for Level 1 maps); (**c**) Spatial-temporal fltering (for Level 2 maps).

Water, Shrubland, Coniferous forest, Broadleaf forest, Wetland, Cropland and Grassland. Subsequently, the high-level more detailed classifcation (Level 2) was performed on top of level 1 maps. Here the Wetland class is further distinguished into: Wetland marsh, Exploited peat bog and Unexploited peat bog; and the classes Cropland and Grassland into: Wheat, Barley, Rye, Oat, Maize, Seed crops, Root crops, Dry pulses and vegetable, and Grassland.

Post processing. We performed post-processing for maps for: Level-1 and Level-2 maps (Fig. [6\)](#page-8-1).

- For both levels, we applied spatial filtering independently for each product (Fig. [6a](#page-8-1)). Specifically, in each annual map, we used a 3×3 pixels majority filter across the map. For each run, if the center pixel's LC class difered from the eight surrounding pixels, it was converted into the major LC class within the window.
- For Level 1 maps, after spatial filtering, we performed temporal filtering for every pixel (Fig. [6b\)](#page-8-1). Here, the temporal window has a length of 3 (years) running backwards from 2022 to 2000. For each run, if the

Fig. 7 Examples of Level 2 land cover maps (2015) before and after post-processing.

Table 4. BSRLC+ land cover types and corresponding values.

surrounding years' pixels have the same LC and the center year's pixel has diferent LC, the center year's LC is converted into the surrounding LC.

For Level 2 maps, the temporal filtering process cannot be applied to the maps since crop sequences can happen frequently, i.e., one crop type pixel can be changed to others in next year and returned to the same type in the following years. Hence, we applied a hybrid method namely spatial-temporal fltering (Fig. [6c\)](#page-8-1). Here, a $3 \times 3 \times 3$ pixels cube moving window (height \times width \times temporal) runs across maps of every three years simultaneously (backward from 2022 to 2000). In each current window, if two patches of the surrounding years have the same LC types in all nine pixels, the pixels of the center patch are converted to the pixels of the

Table 5. Number of validation points in four years 2009, 2012, 2015 and 2018.

surrounding patches only if it also has at least seven similar pixel values. This method allows us to filter temporal noise up to two pixels in a 3×3 window, while ensuring that the crop sequences are not over-filtered.

The post-processing methods greatly improved the maps' visuals by reducing noise (Fig. [7\)](#page-9-0). To ensure the quality of the maps, we compared the accuracy of the maps before and after post-processing at each level. The related confusion matrices are shown in Supplement File 1.

Data Records

The Baltic Sea Region Land Cover *Plus* (BSRLC+) dataset is available in the Zenodo repository³⁴ [\(https://](https://zenodo.org/records/10653871) zenodo.org/records/10653871). The dataset consists of twenty-three annual land cover maps (from 2000 to 2022), containing 18 land cover types (see Fig. [1](#page-2-0)), in GeoTIFF format, with a 30 m x 30 m spatial resolution, projected to ETRS89-extended/LAEA Europe (EPSG:3035). The classification legend is shown in Table [4,](#page-9-1) and included as an additional fle in the Zenodo repository (BSRLC_legend.xlss).

The training and validation data used in this study to create the maps are available in a separate Zenodo repositor[y35](#page-16-4) (<https://zenodo.org/records/11073291>). In the dataset, we provide point vector fles in geopackage format (.gpkg) containing LC training and validation data. Each reference point is located in the center of a 30×30 m pixel. Data is projected to ETRS89-extended/LAEA Europe (EPSG:3035). The training points include general LC types which are considered to be consistent (invariant) during the period from 2006 to 2018. Training points for crop types are derived from EuroCrop dataset³⁰, available for the three years: 2019, 2021 and 2023. For validation we used the manually annotated data (Table [5\)](#page-10-0), as well as the harmonized version of the Land Use/ Cover Area frame Survey (LUCAS) data³⁶, which we reclassified to match the BSRLC+ legend (Table [4\)](#page-9-1)

Technical Validation

Validation data. The Land Use/Cover Area frame Survey (LUCAS, [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/lucas\)](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/lucas) program provides *in-situ* LULC. In this study, we used the harmonized version of LUCAS data³⁶ available in four years (2009, 2012, 2015, 2018) to independently validate the BSRLC + maps.

Since LUCAS points are ofen annotated with the LC type of the exact surveying location, they do not always represent the LC of 30 m resolution pixels. Tus, we only selected LUCAS points based on the physical representation at 30 m resolution. This was performed by manual interpretation of the homogeneity of the pixels containing LUCAS points using high resolution imagery from Google Earth. For three classes, i.e., wetland marsh, exploited peat bog and unexploited peat bog, there were only a few samples from the LUCAS surveys (possibly due to the limited accessibilities to the surveying areas), and the LUCAS data also do not separate the peat bog classes. Hence, we performed manual labelling for these three specifc classes. To do this, we used the original LUCAS grids ($2 \text{ km} \times 2 \text{ km}$) combined with the Global Peatland Database (GPD, [https://greifswald](https://greifswaldmoor.de/global-peatland-database-en.html)[moor.de/global-peatland-database-en.html](https://greifswaldmoor.de/global-peatland-database-en.html)). The intersected LUCAS - GPD points were then manually labelled in four years (2009, 2012, 2015 and 2018) using historical high-resolution images from Google Earth. As a result, we acquired around 15,000 to 19,000 validation points in each year (2009, 2012, 2015 and 2018, see Table [5\)](#page-10-0)

Baseline (9-classes LC maps) assessments. First, we evaluated the thematic accuracies of our maps by comparing them to existing LULC products. We compared our BSRLC+ maps to CORINE land cover (CLC², 100 m resolution, available in 2012 and 2018), Continental-European land cover (P-ELC⁶, available in 2009, 2012,

Table 6. Class-wise F1-score of 4 LULC products.

2015 and 2018) and Pan-European land cover (P-ELC^{[3](#page-15-2)}, available in 2015). To create comparable results, we aggregated maps of all products into nine LC classes. Specifcally, all crop classes (excluding grassland) were aggregated as Cropland class; three classes: Wetland marsh, exploited peat bog and unexploited peat bog were aggregated as Wetland. Subsequently, we measured the F1 score for each class, with:

$$
F1 = \frac{\sum True Positive}{\sum True Positive + 0.5(\sum True Positive + \sum False Positive)}
$$
(1)

The baseline validation results (Table 6) showed that our maps produced the highest scores in every class compared to the three other LC products^{[2,](#page-15-1)[3](#page-15-2)[,6](#page-15-22)}. Notably, both P-ELC³ and C-ELC⁶ maps were created by supervised models that were trained with the *in-situ* LUCAS data directly. Our classifers, on the other hand, were trained with independent datasets, and yet achieved the best validation results with LUCAS data. Hence, the thematic accuracy of our maps for nine LC types fully satisfes the standard of existing LULC maps in Europe.

Full (18-classes LC maps) assessments. Next, we evaluated accuracies of all 18-classes of the BSRLC+ maps in four years (2009 - Table [7,](#page-12-0) 2012 - Table [8](#page-12-1), 2015 - Table [9](#page-13-0), and 2018 - Table [10](#page-13-1)). Here, for each class, we measured the mapped area and estimated area (in km²), Overall Accuracy (OA), Producer Accuracy (PA) and User Accuracy (UA) using the validation procedure of Olofsson *et al*. [37.](#page-16-6) Tis approach takes the total mapped areas of each LC into consideration and provides the uncertainty of each metric with confdence intervals.

The OAs were relatively similar in the four validation years, with roughly 0.8 in 2009 and 2012, and 0.83 in 2015 and 2018, respectively. Class-wise, built-up areas, water, broadleaf forests, and coniferous forests

Table 7. Accuracy assessments in 2009.

Table 8. Accuracy assessments in 2012.

consistently achieved the highest accuracies among all land cover classes, with both PAs and UAs consistently exceeding 0.8 across all validation years. Bareland showed PAs ranging from 0.50 to 0.64, with higher UAs ranging from 0.68 to 0.80. Shrubland exhibited slightly higher PAs than UAs, ranging from 0.65 to 0.86 and 0.30 to 0.56, respectively. Exploited and unexploited peat bogs typically had PAs between 0.3 and 0.4, except for 2018 when exploited peat bogs had a PA of 0.7, while both classes achieved UAs consistently above 0.9. Wetland marshes showed PAs ranging from 0.84 to 0.95, with UAs approximately between 0.39 and 0.58.

Results for agricultural classes varied considerably. Wheat, maize, seed crops, and grasslands consistently achieved higher accuracies than other classes across most years, with PAs and UAs ranging from 0.55 to 0.89 and 0.68 to 0.91, respectively. Other cereals such as barley, rye, and oats yielded PAs between 0.25 and 0.65 and UAs between 0.25 and 0.68. Root crops, dry pulses, and vegetables had the lowest accuracies initially, with PAs around 0.3 for both in 2009 and 2012, which notably improved to approximately 0.53 to 0.77 in 2015 to 2018. While root crops consistently achieved over 0.7 for UAs in all four years, the accuracy for dry pulses, and vegetable was notably lower, hovering around 0.2 in 2009 and 2012, and approximately 0.4 in 2015 and 2018. Overall, most agricultural classes displayed improved accuracies in 2015 and 2018 compared to earlier years.

Table 9. Accuracy assessments in 2015.

Table 10. Accuracy assessments in 2018.

Comparison with crop statistics. We further evaluated the crop type classifcation by comparing the estimated areas with official agricultural statistics. Here, we used the national agricultural statistics data for Denmark³⁸, which was available for 14 consecutive years from 2009 to 2022.

The results are shown in Fig. [8.](#page-14-0) Overall, crop area estimations from the BSRLC+ maps showed similar results as the Denmark national statistics in most years. Wheat accounted for the major agricultural area in the country in most years, which was a similar result as from the maps. However, great underestimations of Barley can be seen e.g., in 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012. Tis could be related to the overestimations of Oat and Rye in the same years, which could be seen from the confusion matrices. In addition, afer 2017, crop area estimations tend to be more accurate in recent years, due to the availability of Sentinel-2 data which greatly improved the temporal density of the time series (Fig. [3\)](#page-6-1).

Qualitative assessment of peat exploitation. We evaluated the peat exploitation mapping quality using historical imageries from Google Earth. From the BSRLC + annual maps, we identified an area in Estonia (Fig. [9\)](#page-14-1) where peat bogs have been actively mined every year from 2000 to 2022. From the high-resolution imageries,

Fig. 8 Annual crop statistics of Denmark from 2009 to 2022 compared to estimated areas from BSRLC+.

Fig. 9 Peat bog exploitation in Estonia over two decades (2000–2022). (Lef): Visual assessments showed similar patterns of exploited peatbog between high resolution images from Google Earth and the classifcation from BSRLC+ in three diferent years: 2000, 2010 and 2020. (Right): Estimated peatbog exploitation by year derived from the maps. the exploited peat bogs appeared as linear trenches that can be visually distinguished from natural peat bogs in three years (2000, 2010 and 2020). In responses, our maps correctly captured the increases in mining areas in the respective years.

Code availability

The BSRLC+ maps are available in Zenodo repository[34](#page-16-3) [\(https://zenodo.org/records/10653871](https://zenodo.org/records/10653871)), training and validation datasets used in this study are available in a separate repository³⁵ ([https://zenodo.org/](https://zenodo.org/records/11073291) [records/11073291\)](https://zenodo.org/records/11073291). For creating the maps, we used open-source framework and tools to produce and present our mapping products, including Python 3.9, TensorFlow 2.10.0, QGIS 3.34. Remote sensing data was processed using FORCE, available on GitHub [\(https://github.com/davidfrantz/force](https://github.com/davidfrantz/force)). Codes used for land cover classifcation (including the pre-trained models) are available on GitHub (<https://github.com/vudongpham/BSRLC>).

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Author contributions

All authors contributed to the writing of the manuscript. V.-D.P. investigated and designed the research, coded software, collected training data, collected and analyzed validation data, wrote the original draft; F.dW. collected validation data; F.T. processed the remote sensing data; D.F. and S.vdL. conceptualized and supervised the study.

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