Applied Remote Sensing

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Abstract. The identification and mapping of crops are important for estimating potential harvest as well as for agricultural field management. Optical remote sensing is one of the most attractive options because it offers vegetation indices and some data have been distributed free of charge. Especially, Sentinel-2A, which is equipped with a multispectral sensor (MSI) with blue, green, red, and near-infrared-1 bands at 10 m; red edge 1 to 3, near-infrared-2, and shortwave infrared 1 and 2 at 20 m; and 3 atmospheric bands (band 1, band 9, and band 10) at 60 m, offer some vegetation indices calculated to assess vegetation status. However, sufficient consideration has not been given to the potential of vegetation indices calculated from MSI data. Thus, 82 published indices were calculated and their importance were evaluated for classifying crop types. The two most common classification algorithms, random forests (RF) and support vector machine (SVM), were applied to conduct cropland classification from MSI data. Additionally, super learning was applied for more improvement, achieving overall accuracies of 90.2% to 92.2%. Of the two algorithms applied (RF and SVM), the accuracy of SVM was superior and 89.3% to 92.0% of overall accuracies were confirmed. Furthermore, stacking contributed to higher overall accuracies (90.2% to 92.2%), and significant differences were confirmed with the results of SVM and RF. Our results showed that vegetation indices had the greatest contributions in identifying specific crop types. © 2018 Society of Photo-Optical Instrumentation Engineers (SPIE) [DOI: 10.1117/1.JRS.12.026019]

Keywords: crop; random forests; Sentinel-2; stacking; support vector machine; vegetation index.

Paper 180133 received Feb. 12, 2018; accepted for publication May 7, 2018; published online May 18, 2018.

1 Introduction

From a land-planning perspective, cropland diversity is vital and crop cover maps provide information for estimating potential harvest and agricultural field management. To document field properties, such as cultivated crops and locations, some local governments in Japan have been using manual methods. However, more efficient techniques are required to reduce the high expense of these methods. Thus, satellite data-based cropland mapping has gained attention. Some spectral indices, which are combinations of spectral measurements at different wavelengths, have been used to evaluate phenology or quantify biophysical parameters. As a result, they have also made crop maps more accurate in previous studies, and the abilities of optical remote sensing data have been improved for monitoring agricultural fields. The opportunities to obtain optical remote sensing data have improved due to the Sentinel-2A satellite launch on June 23, 2015. Now, it is collecting multispectral data including 13 bands covering the visible, shortwave infrared bands (SWIR) wavelength regions. Sentinel-2B, which possesses the same

1931-3195/2018/\$25.00 © 2018 SPIE

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specifications, was launched on March 7, 2017, and creates greater opportunities for monitoring agricultural fields. Furthermore, various spectral indices can be extracted including indices based on SWIR, which are influenced by plant constituents, such as pigments, leaf water contents, and biochemicals. Furthermore, vegetation indices derived from reflectance data acquired from optical sensors have been widely used to assess variations in the physiological states and biophysical properties of vegetation. For Specifically, the normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI), soil-adjusted vegetation index (SAVI), and enhanced vegetation index (EVI) have been used for monitoring vegetation systems or ecological responses to environmental change. Multispectral sensor (MSI) data have been used for identifying crop types, le-18 plastic-covered greenhouses, water bodies, and some previous studies showed the potential of VIs calculated from MSI data. However, it is possible to calculate a vast number of VIs from MSI data and most of them have been ignored in the previous studies. In this study, 82 published indices and original reflectance data sources were evaluated to classify six crop types including beans, beetroot, grass, maize, potato, and winter wheat, which are dominant crops on the western Tokachi plain, Hokkaido, Japan.

In addition to qualities of remote sensing data, classification algorithms are important to improve classification accuracies of crop maps. Recently, random forests (RF) is a widely used machine learning algorithm consisting of an ensemble of decision trees, and it has been an extremely successful machine learning algorithm for classification and regression method. It has been applied for generating land cover maps 22,23 and reached around 65% (tree species identification), 76% (crop types identification), 17 and 90% (greenhouse detection) using MSI data in the previous studies.

Some studies showed that support vector machine (SVM) performed better than RF for this purpose, and it has been widely applied for crop-for-crop classification. ^{22,24–26} Its robustness to outliers has been demonstrated and SVM is an excellent classifier when the number of input features is large. ²⁷

The superlearner (SL) methodology,²⁵ also called stacking, is an ensemble learning method in which the user-supplied library of algorithms is combined through a convex weighted combination, with the optimal weights to make the cross-validated empirical risk smaller. Therefore, SL could be expected to classify crop types more accurately than the single use of RF or SVM, both considered in this study. Next, an ensemble approach based on SL was applied for improving classification accuracies.

Within this framework, the main objectives of the present study were to evaluate the potential of Sentinel-2 data for crop-type classification and the potential of ensemble learning based on RF and SVM.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 Study Area

The study area was located in the western part of Tokachi plain, Hokkaido, Japan (Fig. 1, 142°42′51″ to 143°08′47″ E, 42°43′20″ to 43°07′24″ N). Main cultivated crop types are beans, beetroots, grasses, maize, potatoes, and winter wheat. The average monthly temperatures were 8.3°C to 21.8°C and monthly precipitation was 12.0 to 94.5 mm from May to October.

Field location and attribute data, such as crop types, were based on manual surveys and provided by Tokachi Nosai (Obihiro, Hokkaido) as a polygon-shaped file. A total of 12,639 fields [2265 beans fields, 1548 beetroot fields, 2110 grasslands (timothy and orchard grass), 1000 maize fields, 2452 potato fields, and 3264 winter wheat fields] were observed. The fields ranged from 0.05 to 18.21 ha with an averaged value of 2.54 ha. Grasslands were located on the outskirts of the built-up area.

2.2 Remote Sensing Data

The data acquired from Sentinel-2 MSI contained blue, green, red, and near-infrared-1 bands at 10 m; red edge 1 to 3, near-infrared-2, and SWIR 1 and 2 at 20 m; and three atmospheric bands

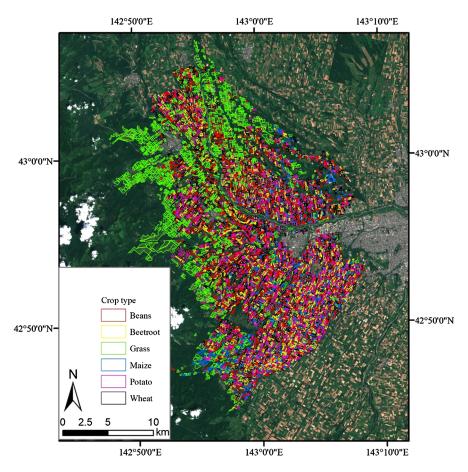


Fig. 1 Study area and the distribution of croplands (background map shows Sentinel-2A data obtained on August 11, 2016, R: band 4, G: band 3, and B: band 2).

(band 1, band 9, and band 10) at 60 m. In this study, the three atmospheric bands were removed, because they were dedicated to atmospheric corrections and cloud screening.²⁸

Although Sentinel-2A imagery was gathered seven times from May to September 2016, for the whole site, all images were covered with clouds except for one acquired on 11 August. The level 1C data acquired on August 11, 2016, were downloaded from EarthExplorer.²⁹ All bands were converted to 10-m resolution with a cubic convolution resampling method and average reflectance values of each band were calculated for each field using the field polygons to compensate for spatial variability and to avoid problems related to uncertainty in georeferencing.

Some vegetation indices, such as NDVI, have been used for improving classification accuracies in previous studies. ^{16,22,30,31} About 82 published vegetation indices for evaluating various vegetation properties were calculated in this study (Table 1).

2.3 Classification Algorithm

All samples were divided into the following three groups using a stratified random sampling approach: training data (50%) for developing classification models, validation data (25%) for hyperparameter tuning, and test data (25%) for evaluation of classification accuracies⁸⁶ and Table 2 shows the numbers of fields of each crop type.

SVM partitions data using maximum separation margins⁸⁷ and the "kernel trick" has frequently been applied instead of attempting to fit a nonlinear model in previous studies.³⁰ In this study, the Gaussian radial basis function kernel, which has mostly been used for classification purposes,³⁰ was used as a kernel and two parameters were tuned to control the flexibility of the classifier, the regularization parameter C, and the kernel bandwidth γ . If the C value is too large, there is a high penalty for no separable points, and we may store many support vectors and

 Table 1
 Vegetation indices calculated from Sentinel-2 MSI data.

Abbreviation	Index	Formula
AFRI1.6 ³²	Aerosol free vegetation index 1.6	Band8 <i>a</i> -0.66*Band11 Band8 <i>a</i> +0.66*Band11
AFRI2.1 ³²	Aerosol free vegetation index 2.1	Band8a-0.5*Band12 Band8a+0.5*Band12
ARI ³³	Anthocyanin reflectance index	$\frac{1}{Band3} - \frac{1}{Band5}$
ARVI ³⁴	Atmospherically resistant vegetation index	$\frac{\{Band8-[Band4-\gamma(Band2-Band4)]\}}{\{Band8+[Band4-\gamma(Band2-Band4)]\}}$
		The γ is a weighting function that depends on aerosol type. In this study, a value of 1 for γ .
ARVI2 ³⁴	Atmospherically resistant vegetation index 2	$-0.18 + 1.17*\left(rac{Band8-Band4}{Band8+Band4} ight)$
ATSAVI ³⁵	Adjusted transformed soil-adjusted	$\frac{a*(Band8-a*Band4-b)}{Band8+Band4-ab+X(1+a^2)}$
	vegetation index	a = 1.22, b = 0.03, X = 0.08
AVI ³⁶	Ashburn vegetation index	2 * Band8 <i>a</i> – Band4
BNDVI ³⁷	Blue-normalized difference vegetation index	(Band8-Band2)/(Band8+Band2)
BRI ³⁸	Browning reflectance index	1/Band3-1/Band5 Band6
BWDRVI ³⁹	Blue-wide dynamic range vegetation index	0.1*Band7-Band2 0.1*Band7+Band2
CARI ⁴⁰	Chlorophyll absorption ratio index	$rac{Band5*\sqrt{(a*Band4+Band4+b)^2}}{Band4}*(a^2+1)^{0.5}$
		a = (Band5 - Band3)/150
		b = Band3 * 550 * a
CCCI ⁴¹	Canopy chlorophyll content index	(Band8-Band5) Band8+Band5) (Band8-Band4) Band8+Band4)
CRI550 ⁴²	Carotenoid reflectance index 550	$\frac{1}{Band2} - \frac{1}{Band3}$
CRI700 ⁴²	Carotenoid reflectance index 700	$\frac{1}{Band2} - \frac{1}{Band5}$
CVI ⁴³	Chlorophyll vegetation index	Band8*Band4 (Band3) ²
Datt1 ⁴⁴	Vegetation index proposed by Datt 1	Band8-Band5 Band8-Band4
Datt2 ⁴⁵	Vegetation index proposed by Datt 2	Band4 Band3∗Band5
Datt3 ⁴⁵	Vegetation index proposed by Datt 3	<u>Band8a</u> Band3∗Band5
DVI ⁴⁶	Differenced vegetation index	2.4 * Band8 - Band4
EPIcar ⁴⁵	Eucalyptus pigment index for carotenoid	$0.0049*\left(\frac{Band4}{Band3*Band5}\right)^{0.7488}$
EPIChla ⁴⁵	Eucalyptus pigment index for chlorophyll a	$0.0161 * \left(\frac{Band4}{Band3*Band5}\right)^{0.7784}$
EPIChlab ⁴⁵	Eucalyptus pigment index for chlorophyll a+b	$0.0236*\left(\frac{\text{Band4}}{\text{Band3*Band5}}\right)^{0.7954}$
EPIChlb ⁴⁵	Eucalyptus pigment index for chlorophyll b	$0.0337 * \left(\frac{Band4}{Band3}\right)^{1.8695}$
EVI ¹⁴	Enhanced vegetation index	$2.5*\tfrac{Band8-Band4}{Band8+6*Band4-7.5*Band2+1}$
EVI2 ⁴⁷	Enhanced vegetation index 2	$2.4*\frac{\text{Band8-Band4}}{\text{Band8+Band4+1}}$
EVI2.2 ⁴⁸	Enhanced vegetation index 2.2	$2.5*\frac{Band8-Band4}{Band8+2.4*Band4+1}$

Table 1 (Continued).

Abbreviation	Index	Formula		
GARI ⁴⁹	Green atmospherically resistant vegetation index	Band8-[Band3-(Band2-Band4)] Band8-[Band3+(Band2-Band4)]		
GBNDVI ⁵⁰	Green-Blue normalized difference vegetation index	Band8-(Band3+Band2) Band8+(Band3+Band2)		
GDVI ⁵¹	Green difference vegetation index	Band8 – Band3		
GEMI ⁵²	Global environment monitoring index	$\frac{n*(1-0.25*n)-Band4-0.125}{1-Band4}$		
		$n=rac{2*Band5^2-Band4^2+1.5*Band5+0.5*Band4}{Band5+Band4+0.5}$		
GLI ⁵³	Green leaf index	2*Band3-Band5-Band2 2*Band3+Band5+Band2		
GNDVI ⁴⁹	Green normalized difference vegetation index	Band8-Band3 Band8+Band3		
GNDVI2 ⁴⁹	Green normalized difference vegetation index 2	Band7-Band3 Band7+Band3		
GOSAVI ⁵⁴	Green optimized soil-adjusted vegetation index	Band8-Band3 Band8+Band3+0.16		
GRNDVI ⁵⁵	Green-red normalized difference vegetation index	Band8-(Band3+Band5) Band8+(Band3+Band5)		
GVMI ⁵⁶	Global vegetation moisture index	$\frac{(\text{Band8+0.1}) - (\text{Band12+0.02})}{(\text{Band8+0.1}) + (\text{Band12+0.02})}$		
Hue ⁵⁷	Hue	$a \tan \left[\frac{2*Band5-Band3-Band2}{30.5} * (Band3-Band2) \right]$		
IPVI ⁵⁸	Infrared percentage vegetation index	$rac{Band8}{Band8+Band5} rac{Band5-Band3}{Band5+Band5} + 1 ight)$		
LCI ⁴⁴	Leaf chlorophyll index	Band8-Band5 Band8+Band4		
Maccion ⁵⁹	Vegetation index proposed by Maccioni	Band7–Band5 Band7–Band4		
MCARI ⁶⁰	Modified chlorophyll absorption in reflectance index	$\begin{array}{l} [(Band5 - Band4) - 0.2 * \\ (Band5 - Band3)] * \frac{Band5}{Band4} \end{array}$		
MCARI/MTVI2 ⁶¹	MCARI/MTVI2	MCARI/MTVI2		
MCARI/OSAVI62	MCARI/OSAVI	MCARI/OSAVI		
MCARI1 ⁶²	Modified chlorophyll absorption in reflectance index 1	1.2 * [2.5 * (Band8 – Band4) -1.3 * (Band8 – Band3)]		
MCARI2 ⁶²	Modified chlorophyll absorption in reflectance index 2	$1.5*\frac{2.5*(Band8-Band4)-1.3*(Band8-Band3)}{\sqrt{(2*Band8+1)^2-\left(6*Band8-5*\sqrt{Band4}\right)-0.5}}$		
MGVI ⁶³	Green vegetation index proposed by Misra	-0.386 * Band3 - 0.530 * Band4 + 0.535 * Band6 + 0.532 * Band8		
mNDVI ⁶⁴	Modified normalized difference vegetation index	Band8-Band4 Band8+Band4-2*Band2		
MNSI ⁶³	Non such index proposed by Misra	0.404 * Band3 + 0.039 * Band4 - 0.505 * Band6 + 0.762 * Band8		
MSAVI ⁶⁵	Modified soil-adjusted vegetation index	$\frac{2*Band8+1-\sqrt{(2*Band8+1)^2-8*(Band8-Band5)}}{2}$		
MSAVI2 ⁶⁵	Modified soil-adjusted vegetation index 2	$\frac{2*Band8+1-\sqrt{(2*Band8+1)^2-8*(Band8-Band4)}}{2}$		
MSBI ⁶³	Soil brightness index proposed by Misra	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{0.406} * \textbf{Band3} + \textbf{0.600} * \textbf{Band4} + \\ \textbf{0.645} * \textbf{Band6} + \textbf{0.243} * \textbf{Band8} \end{array}$		

Table 1 (Continued).

Abbreviation	Index	Formula
MSR670 ⁶⁶	Modified simple ratio 670/800	Band8 - 1
		$\sqrt{rac{Band8}{Band4}+1}$
MSRNir/Red ⁶⁷	Modified simple ratio NIR/red	Band8 — 1
		$\sqrt{rac{Band8}{Band5}}+1$
MTVI2 ⁶²	Modified triangular vegetation index 2	$1.5*{\scriptstyle \frac{1.2*(Band8-Band3)-2.5*(Band4-Band3)}{\sqrt{(2*Band8+1)^2-(6*Band8-5*\sqrt{Band4})-0.5}}}$
NBR ⁶⁸	Normalized difference NIR/SWIR normalized burn ratio	Band8-Band12 Band8+Band12
ND774/677 ⁶⁹	Normalized difference 774/677	Band7-Band4 Band7+Band4
NDII ⁷⁰	Normalized difference infrared index	Band8-Band11 Band8+Band11
NDRE ⁷¹	Nnormalized difference red-edge	Band7-Band5 Band7+Band5
NDSI ⁷²	Normalized difference salinity index	Band11-Band12 Band11+Band12
NDVI ¹²	Normalized difference vegetation index	Band8-Band4 Band8+Band4
NDVI2 ⁵¹	Normalized difference vegetation index 2	Band12-Band8 Band12+Band8
NGRDI ⁶⁹	Normalized green red difference index	Band3-Band5 Band3+Band5
OSAVI ^{54,73}	Optimized soil-adjusted vegetation index	$1.16*\tfrac{Band8-Band4}{Band8+Band4+0.16}$
PNDVI ⁵⁵	Pan normalized difference vegetation index	$\frac{Band8-(Band3+Band5+Band2)}{Band8+(Band3+Band5+Band2)}$
PVR ⁷⁴	Photosynthetic vigor ratio	Band3-Band4 Band3+Band4
RBNDVI ⁵⁵	Red-blue normalized difference vegetation index	Band8-(Band4+Band2) Band8+(Band4+Band2)
RDVI ⁷⁵	Renormalized difference vegetation index	$\frac{\text{Band8-Band4}}{\sqrt{\text{Band8+Band4}}}$
REIP ⁷⁶	Red-edge inflection point	$700+40*\left[rac{\left(rac{\left(Band4+Band7}{2} ight)-Band5}{Band6-Band5} ight]}$
Rre ⁷⁷	Reflectance at the inflexion point	Band4+Band7 2
SAVI ¹³	Soil adjusted vegetation index	$1.5*\tfrac{Band8-Band4}{Band8+Band4+0.5}$
SBL ⁴⁶	Soil background line	Band8 - 2.4 * Band4
SIPI ⁷⁸	Structure intensive pigment index	Band8-Band2 Band8-Band4
SIWSI ⁷⁹	Shortwave infrared water stress index	Band8a-Band11 Band8a+Band11
SLAVI ⁸⁰	Specific leaf area vegetation index	Band8 Band4+Band12
TCARI ⁶⁰	Transformed chlorophyll absorption ratio	3*[Band5 - Band4) - 0.2*
		$(Band5 - Band3) \left(\frac{Band5}{Band4}\right)$
TCARI/OSAVI ⁷³	TCARI/OSAVI	TCARI/OSAVI
TCI ^{43,81}	Triangular chlorophyll index	1.2 * (Band5 – Band3) – 1.5 * (Band4 – Band3) * $\sqrt{\frac{\text{Band5}}{\text{Band4}}}$
TVI ⁸²	Transformed vegetation index	$\sqrt{NDVI + 0.5}$
VARI700 ⁸³	Visible atmospherically resistant index 700	Band5-1.7*Band4+0.7*Band2 Band5+2.3*Band4-1.3*Band2
VARIgreen ⁸³	Visible atmospherically resistant index green	Band3-Band4 Band3+Band4-Band2
VI700 ⁸⁴	Vegetation index 700	Band5-Band4 Band5+Band4
WDRVI ⁸⁵	Wide dynamic range vegetation index	<u>0.1*Band8-Band4</u> 0.1*Band8+Band4

Table 2 Crop type and number of fields	-
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Crop type	Training data	Validation data	Test data	
Beans	1132	566	567	
Beetroot	774	387	387	
Grassland	1055	527	528	
Maize	500	250	250	
Potato	1226	613	613	
Wheat	1632	816	816	

overfit. If it is too small, there may be underfitting. It controls the trade-off between errors of the SVM on training data and margin maximization ($C = \infty$ leads to hard margin SVM). The γ value defines how far the influence of a single training example reaches, with low values meaning "far" and high values meaning "close."

RF is an ensemble learning technique composed of multiple decision trees based on random bootstrapped samples of the training data. ⁸⁸ The output is determined by a majority vote of the results of decision trees. There are two user-defined hyperparameters including the number of trees (*n*tree) and the number of variables used to split the nodes (*m*try). If *n*tree is made larger, the generalization error always converges, and over-training will not be a problem. On the other hand, a reduction in *m*try makes each individual decision tree weaker.

The best combinations of these hyperparameters were determined using the Gaussian process, Bayesian optimization,⁸⁹ which has been widely applied for hyperparameter tuning of machine learning algorithms.¹

Ensemble machine learning methods have been used to obtain better predictive performance than from single learning algorithms, and the SL methodology has been proposed. 90 In this method, given algorithms are combined through a convex weighted combination to minimize cross-validated errors. First, classification models based on RF or SVM were trained as the base algorithms using the training data. Next, a 10-fold cross validation was performed on each and the cross-validated predicted results were obtained. N is the number of rows in the training data, cross-validated predicted results were combined, and an N by two matrices was obtained as the "level-one" data and meta-learning model was generated. To predict the test data, the predictions from the base learners were fed into the metalearning model to generate the ensemble prediction. The data-based sensitivity analysis (DSA), 91 which performs a pure black box use of the fitted models by querying the fitted models with sensitivity samples and recording their responses, was applied for assessing the sensitivity of the classification models.

2.4 Accuracy Assessment

Classification accuracies were evaluated based on the simple measures of quantity disagreement (QD) and allocation disagreement (AD). They provide an effective summary of confusion matrices.

The proportion of fields that are classified as crop i and their actual classes are crop j (P_{ij}) is expressed in the following

$$P_{ij} = W_i \frac{n_{ij}}{n_{i+}},\tag{1}$$

where W_i is the fields classified as crop i, n_{ij} is the number of fields classified as crop i, and their actual classes are crop j. n_{i+} is the row totals of the confusion matrix. In this case, AD and QD are calculated using the following:

$$AD_{i} = 2 \min(p_{i+}, p_{+i}) - 2p_{ii}, \tag{2}$$

$$AD = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_c} AD_i,$$
 (3)

$$QD_i = |p_{i+} - p_{+i}|, (4)$$

$$QD = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_c} QD_i,$$
 (5)

where N_c is the number of classes (six in this study), p_{i+} and p_{+i} are the row and column totals of the confusion matrix, AD_i is the allocation disagreement of crop i, and QD_i is the quantity disagreement of crop i, respectively. The sum of QD_i (QD) and AD_i (AD) are calculated and the total disagreement can be evaluated by the sum of QD and AD_i .

In addition, three indicators including overall accuracy [OA, Eq. (6)], producer's accuracy [PA, Eq. (7)], and user's accuracy [UA, Eq. (8)] were calculated because they have widely been applied for assessing classification accuracies

$$OA = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p_{ii}/N, \tag{6}$$

$$PA = p_{ii}/R_i, (7)$$

$$UA = p_{ii}/C_i, (8)$$

where N is the number of fields, R_i and C_i represent the total number of crop i in the correct data and the total number from the classification results, respectively. McNemar's test⁹⁴ has been used to judge whether the differences between two given classification results were significant,⁹⁵ and it was also applied in this study.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Classification Accuracy

Crop classification maps are shown in Fig. 2, the maximum, minimum, and averaged accuracies of 10 repetitions and confusion matrices when all the repetitions were merged are shown in Tables 3 and 4. Averaged OAs were 89.0% for RF, 90.6% for SVM, and 91.6% for the ensemble machine learning method and the mean PAs and mean UAs derived using the machine learning algorithms were >0.8, excepting those of RF (mean UA for maize was 0.797). All machine learning algorithms performed well in classifying croplands. Especially, the good accuracies were confirmed for the PAs and UAs for wheat (>93.8%) and beet (>89.9%). However, the chi-square values based on McNemar's tests were 12.02 to 40.60, 27.78 to 62.43, and 17.00 to 51.60 for R—SVM, RF—SL, and SVM—SL, respectively. As a result, significant differences were confirmed among the results of three machine learning algorithms (p < 0.05).

Classification results by SL had the best OA and AD + QD (8.5%) and SVM had a slightly better PA of wheat (97.1%). On the contrary, identifying maize fields was difficult due to the similarity in their reflectance. Grasses cultivation employs fewer controls and then a lot of weeds were mixed with timothy and orchard grass in grasslands. As a result, variation in reflectance features was larger than in other crop types, causing misclassifications of relatively large fields.

Figure 3 shows the relationship between field area and misclassified fields for each algorithm after 10 repetitions (i.e., the total number is 10 times of that of the test data). More than 75% of the misclassified fields were <200 a in area for all algorithms, and 95.1% (RF), 95.5% (SVM), and 96.1% (SL) of misclassified fields were below 450 a. Applying stacking made the model more robust for classifying smaller fields and the number of misclassified croplands decreased

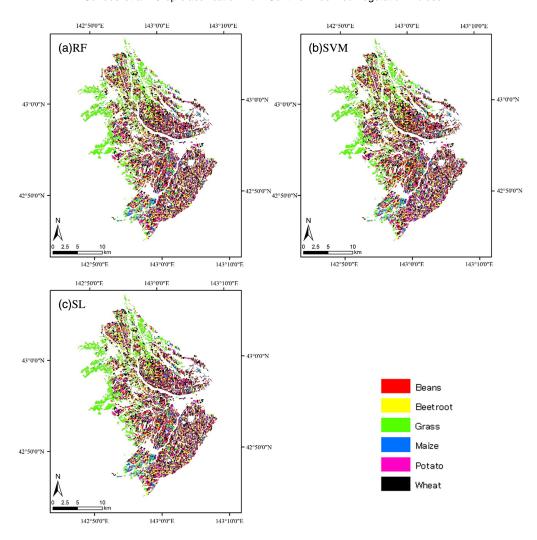


Fig. 2 Crop classification map generated by (a) RF, (b) SVM, and (c) SL.

(813 fields for smaller than 50 a) compared with the results by RF (909 fields for smaller than 50 a) and SVM (855 fields for smaller than 50 a). It was especially useful for identifying beans fields. It was not effective for identifying small grasslands as grass cultivation employs fewer controls and many weeds were present in grasslands. However, stacking was useful for identifying grasslands more than 500 a, which had a certain homogeneity with *Dactylis glomerata* or *Phleum pretense* in the MSI image.

3.2 Sensitive Factor Analysis

Reflectance values obtained from Sentinel-2A are shown in Fig. 4. Differences in reflectance were particularly clear between wheat and beans as the wheat harvest was finished on 11 August and the reflectance of wheat fields was similar to that of bare soil. Beetroot had the steepest gradient between bands 5 and 6 and some differences in the reflectance values at band 11 were confirmed between maize and potato. Differences in the reflectance patterns between grass and beans were not clear.

To clarify which variables contributed to identifying each crop type, DSA was conducted for each algorithm and their importance values were calculated.

For identifying beans fields, Datt3 (6.0%, 6.6%, and 6.3% for RF, SVM, and SL, respectively) and REIP (6.4%, 8.2%, and 7.3% for RF, SVM, and SL, respectively) played important roles in the three algorithms. Some variables (the reflectance values at bands 2 and 3, AFRI2.1, CVI and NDSI) possessed importance values of >5.0% in the RF-based model, whereas no

Table 3 Classification accuracies of each algorithm.

	RF			SVM			SL		
	Minimum (%)	Maximum (%)	Mean \pm std (%)	Minimum (%)	Maximum (%)	Mean \pm std (%)	Minimum (%)	Maximum (%)	$\begin{array}{l} \text{Mean} \pm \\ \text{std} \ (\%) \end{array}$
PA									
Beans	80.6	86.4	83.4 ± 1.6	81.1	90.5	$\textbf{86.2} \pm \textbf{2.2}$	84.7	90.3	$\textbf{87.6} \pm \textbf{1.4}$
Beet	89.9	94.8	93.0 ± 1.3	91.0	96.4	94.5 ± 1.5	93.8	96.1	95.1 ± 0.6
Grassland	84.3	88.3	86.0 ± 1.2	86.7	93.8	89.4 ± 2.5	89.8	94.3	$\textbf{92.1} \pm \textbf{1.4}$
Maize	78.8	84.8	80.8 ± 1.7	78.8	87.6	83.0 ± 3.1	81.2	87.6	84.6 ± 1.8
Potato	82.9	89.7	87.0 ± 1.8	83.5	89.9	$\textbf{87.6} \pm \textbf{1.9}$	84.0	89.7	$\textbf{88.1} \pm \textbf{1.6}$
Wheat	96.4	97.9	97.0 ± 0.5	96.3	97.5	$\textbf{97.1} \pm \textbf{0.4}$	95.7	97.5	$\textbf{97.0} \pm \textbf{0.7}$
UA									
Beans	84.9	88.6	86.8 ± 1.1	82.0	91.4	86.4 ± 2.9	83.4	90.3	88.6 ± 2.0
Beet	94.5	96.9	95.6 ± 0.8	94.3	97.3	95.7 ± 0.9	95.1	97.1	96.0 ± 0.6
Grassland	88.0	93.3	$\textbf{91.0} \pm \textbf{1.4}$	89.9	96.6	94.0 ± 2.3	93.8	97.7	$\textbf{95.7} \pm \textbf{1.1}$
Maize	77.8	82.0	$\textbf{79.7} \pm \textbf{1.3}$	78.4	87.3	$\textbf{81.9} \pm \textbf{2.2}$	81.4	85.2	$\textbf{83.6} \pm \textbf{1.4}$
Potato	78.5	83.1	$\textbf{81.5} \pm \textbf{1.2}$	82.1	87.8	$\textbf{85.2} \pm \textbf{1.9}$	83.0	86.8	$\textbf{85.4} \pm \textbf{1.1}$
Wheat	93.8	96.1	95.0 ± 0.7	94.5	97.2	95.9 ± 0.8	95.1	97.2	$\textbf{96.2} \pm \textbf{0.6}$
OA	88.5	89.4	89.0 ± 0.2	89.3	92.0	90.6 ± 0.9	90.2	92.2	$\textbf{91.6} \pm \textbf{0.6}$
κ	85.9	87.0	86.5 ± 0.3	86.8	90.2	$\textbf{88.4} \pm \textbf{1.1}$	88.0	90.5	89.6 ± 0.8
AD	8.0	9.9	9.0 ± 0.6	6.5	9.7	$\textbf{7.9} \pm \textbf{1.0}$	6.5	8.8	$\textbf{7.3} \pm \textbf{0.7}$
QD	1.3	2.8	2.0 ± 0.5	0.7	2.5	$\textbf{1.5} \pm \textbf{0.6}$	0.6	2.3	1.2 ± 0.5

variables except for Datt3 and REIP had importance values of >5.0% for SVM and SL. Even though the importance values of GEMI, Maccioni, and MNSI in SVM were <5.0%, they were more than five times those in RF. AFRI1.6 and SIWSI were useful for identifying beetroot fields and AFRI1.6 occupied 11.1%, 6.8%, and 9.0% and SIWSI occupied 10.6%, 7.1%, and 8.9% of the importance for RF, SVM, and SL, respectively. GEMI and NDSI also had importance values of >10% for RF, but were <5% for the others. In contrast, REIP was useful in SVM and it occupied 9.1% of the importance in SVM. AFRI1.6, REIP, and MNSI were effective for identifying grassland for all algorithms, whereas SIWSI played an important role (7.8%) for RF and the reflectance at band 6 played an important role (8.2%) for SVM. For identifying maize fields, no variable had importance values >5.0% for any algorithm, but the importance value of REIP was 25.3% for SVM (2.9% for RF). CRI550, CRI700, and MSBI were 9.1%, 12.9%, and 5.6% in RF, respectively (those in SVM were 2.4%, 2.2%, and 3.6%, respectively). REIP played the greatest role for identifying potato fields in all algorithms (12.8%, 6.9% and 9.9% for RF, SVM, and SL, respectively). The importance values of CCCI and CVI were also high in RF (9.9%) but those in SVM were <3.0%. In contrast, Maccioni had an importance of 6.9% in SVM but in RF was 1.4%. REIP also played a great role for identifying wheat fields in SVM, but 1.2% of the importance value was confirmed in RF while AVI occupied 15.1% in RF (1.2% in SVM). However, the original reflectance values possessed importance values of <1.0%.

In this season, the photosynthetic activities of each crop type were different; maize is a C4 plant, beans and beetroot were in their growing season, grassland was after second harvest, potato growth was inhibited by chemicals for easy harvesting, and wheat fields were cultivated.

Table 4 Confusion matrices for (a) RF, (b) SVM, and (c) SL.

		Reference data						
		Beans	Beetroot	Grasslands	Maize	Potato	Wheat	
			(a) RF					
Classified data	Beans	4726	59	247	100	287	26	
	Beet	48	3599	23	28	65	1	
	Grasslands	172	65	4543	52	116	43	
	Maize	139	21	128	2019	177	48	
	Potato	503	119	230	235	5332	123	
	Wheat	82	7	109	66	153	7919	
		,	(b) SVM					
Classified data	Beans	4888	77	212	119	333	34	
	Beet	61	3659	17	22	63	2	
	Grasslands	110	34	4720	40	70	49	
	Maize	112	14	130	2076	166	40	
	Potato	429	79	121	189	5368	115	
	Wheat	70	7	80	54	130	7920	
			(c) SL					
Classified data	Beans	4965	82	105	83	333	42	
	Beet	61	3680	11	17	61	3	
	Grasslands	59	17	4861	37	52	53	
	Maize	85	8	121	2114	169	32	
	Potato	426	77	113	200	5403	112	
	Wheat	74	6	69	49	112	7918	

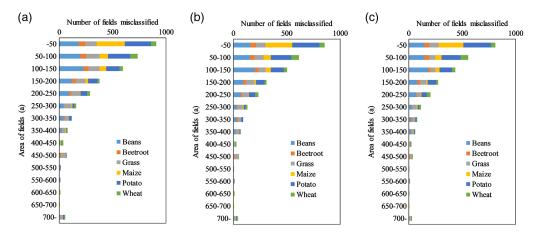


Fig. 3 Relationship between field area and misclassified fields (a) RF, (b) SVM, and (c) SL.

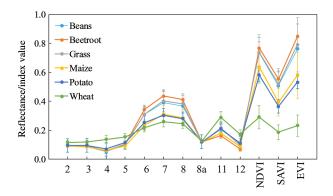


Fig. 4 Mean reflectance spectra and standard deviations of each crop.

In addition to indices related to chlorophyll content, the additional use of shortwave infrared data contributed to the estimation of photosynthetic pigments, water, nitrogen, cellulose, lignin, phenols, and leaf mass per area (e.g., NDSI). As a result, vegetation indices had greater influence on the classification results than the original reflectance. However, there were differences among algorithms in which vegetation indices were more important. The importance values in SL were near the averaged values of RF and SVM. So, the differences in importance between RF and SVM were useful when stacking was applied, and the modification contributed to identifying croplands with higher accuracies.

4 Conclusions and Future Work

Cropland classifications were conducted using a single image from Sentinel-2 MSI and the suitability and accuracy of vegetation indices from the original reflectance data from Sentinel-2 MSI were assessed.

Of the two algorithms applied (RF and SVM), the accuracy of SVM was superior and 89.3% to 92.0% of OAs were confirmed. Furthermore, stacking contributed to higher OAs (90.2% to 92.2%) and significant differences were confirmed with the results of SVM. Based on DSA, the vegetation indices calculated from the original reflectance from Sentinel-2 MSI data were useful to identify the specific crop types. Although the vegetation indices that played the largest roles were different between RF and SVM, stacking helped to modify and reduce the importance of specific variables, which might prevent overfitting. Stacking should be utilized to monitor agricultural fields for improving classification accuracies.

The field is used as a basic unit in classification and some problems related to the borders of fields remain to be resolved. We are planning to evaluate the potential of geographic object-based image analysis in conjunction with MSI data and address this question in future work.

Disclosures

No potential conflicts of interest are reported by the authors.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Tokachi Nosai for providing the field data.

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