



# Master Thesis

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Interfaculty Department of Geoinformatics - Z\_GIS  
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## Distantly Trained Random Forest Classifiers for Supervised Crop Type Classification

An Experimental Study Across Multiple  
European Regions

by

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## Statutory Declaration

I declare that I have authored this thesis independently, that I have not used other than the declared sources and resources, and that I have explicitly marked all material which has been quoted either literally or by content from the used sources.



Pia Ferenci

Merching, 15.11.2023

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## Abstract

Crop type classification using remote sensing data has gained substantial importance in various fields. While supervised machine learning approaches have shown high accuracy in crop type mapping, the availability of training data can be a significant constraint, especially in areas with limited access or conflicts. This study aims to explore the spatial transferability of supervised crop type classification models trained on data from regions differing from the classification regions, addressing the challenge of insufficient ground truth data.

This research concentrates on optical data and a multi-temporal approach. Specifically, the maximum value of the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) calculated over 2-week intervals from April 1, 2018, to October 31, 2018 was utilized in this work due to its often demonstrated suitability in distinguishing between different crop types. The focus of this study lies at investigating whether the spatial distribution and similarities between training and classification regions, including altitude, climate conditions, soil properties, and spatial distance, influence classification results.

The study employed Sentinel-2 optical imagery with its high resolution and frequent revisits for multi-temporal crop classifications based on 2018 field data. It utilized the European Soil Database to identify regions by soil types, Corine Land Cover data to select suitable areas, and Ground Truth Data from the LUCAS survey for training and accuracy assessment. Additionally, elevation information from the Global Mid-resolution Terrain Elevation Data 2010 (GMTED2010) was used to evaluate regional altitudes.

The results of the conducted experiment reveal significant differences in classification success among various crop types, with 'Common Wheat' and 'Maize' showing more promising outcomes compared to 'Barley'. Despite extensive analysis, no clear correlations were found between methodic parameters, region parameters, and classification accuracies. Notably, some regions consistently outperformed others as either training region, classification region or both, suggesting that region-specific conditions may influence classification success. The study highlights the potential of using remotely trained RF classifiers for classification of certain crop types. It promotes the idea of creating representative training datasets for suitable crop types to enable supervised classifications independent of the availability of on-site training data.

# Introduction

Crop type classification using remote sensing data is a widely used technique with numerous applications in areas like agriculture, food security or climate modelling (Blickensdörfer et al. (2022), Heupel, Spengler, and Itzerott (2018)). There are abundant approaches for crop type mapping, using varying sensor data, methods and algorithms (Pluto-Kossakowska 2021). Especially machine learning approaches and multi-temporal analysis as well as their combination became increasingly popular during the last years for showing highly accurate results (Benos et al. 2021).

The most basic distinction of methods is the distinction whether a classification is supervised, semi-supervised or unsupervised (Grira, Crucianu, and Boujemaa 2004). Whereas supervised classifications rely on training data for the algorithm to identify different crop types by their different spectral signatures (Perumal and Bhaskaran 2010), unsupervised classifications use statistical clustering methods to group pixels with similar spectral signatures into unlabeled classes (Grira, Crucianu, and Boujemaa 2004). Ma et al. (2020) compared the accuracy of several unsupervised classification algorithms with overall accuracies (OA) between 0.74 and 0.82 (Ma et al. 2020). Pluto-Kossakowska (2021) compared the results of > 50 studies applying different supervised machine learning (ML) algorithms on different sensor data, paying particular attention to the achieved OAs. The different supervised approaches reach OAs of 0.70 - 0.98 % with 73% of them showing an OA of 0.85 or higher (Pluto-Kossakowska 2021).

These findings suggest, that supervised classifications tend to yield higher OAs than unsupervised approaches.

Even though using a supervised classification approach apparently seems to be reasonable, considering the generally higher accuracies to be reached, in some cases it is not possible to collect the absolutely necessary training and test samples for a supervised classification. For crop type classification, this data is usually gathered in the form of in-situ data directly on the fields (Fowler, Waldner, and Hochman 2020). Some areas are naturally difficult to reach or temporarily not available for field data collection due to conflicts or otherwise unsafe conditions. Wang, Azzari, and Lobell (2019) discussed the challenges of crop type-mapping without field-level labels and suggest two possibilities, dealing with a lack of training data: “(1) applying a supervised model trained elsewhere or (2) using regional statistics and an unsupervised learning algorithm.” (Wang, Azzari, and Lobell 2019). Wang, Azzari, and Lobell (2019) pointed out that using available training data derived from a region similar to the area of interest might yield in more consistently accurate classifications than an unsupervised approach.

Ringrose et al. (1994) compared the spectral reflectance of green vegetation throughout different climate zones and under different soil conditions. According to this study, spectral signatures of vegetation are correlated to these factors (Ringrose et al. 1994). This can be used to determine, what makes a region “similar” to another region in terms of comparability of the spectral reflectance of the crop types.

Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022) assessed the spatial transferability of Random Forest models for crop type classification combining Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 data in seven different regions in Germany. The study focused on a comparison of optical-only, radar-only or a combined approach and the reached accuracies for different crop types when transferred to different regions within Germany. Besides the finding that in general best results are reached using Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 data in combination, Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022) found indications that soil properties - in this case the classification according to the Müncheberger soil quality rating (SQR) (Mueller et al. 2014) - as well as altitude of the sample locations might have an influence on the transferability of the corresponding model.



This thesis aims, similar to the study of Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022) and following the suggestion of Wang, Azzari, and Lobell (2019), to overcome a lack of ground truth data by “applying a supervised model trained elsewhere”, to further investigate the spatial transferability of supervised crop type classification models, trained on field data from areas differing from the classification regions. In contrast to Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022) who focused on evaluation of spatial transferability comparing different sensors, the experiment conducted within the frame of this master thesis concentrated on the influence of spatial distribution and similarities between regions. Hence it did not cover several sensors but focused on optical data only. Particular attention was paid to the question, if similarities between training and classification region in terms of altitude, climate conditions and soil properties as well as their spatial distance have an influence on the achieved classification results. The SQR, which was identified as potentially influencing model transferability between regions by Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022), is not available for whole Europe. Instead the soil type of different training and classification regions was taken into account in this experiment.

To meet the objective of this study, the following steps were carried out:

- Identifying several regions throughout Europe with distinct climate conditions and soil properties, which serve as training and classification regions.
- Identifying most abundant crop types in the previously selected regions that serve as target crop types
- Multi-temporal cross-classification: Training of several classification models using multi-temporal training data from the identified regions. Subsequent crop type classification of fields from regions spatially distant to the training regions and accuracy assessment via ground truth data of the respective classification regions.
- Statistical analysis of the achieved classification accuracies, with regard to the similarity of the individual training and classification regions in terms of spatial distance, climate conditions and soil properties.

## Methods

To evaluate the spatial transferability of classification models, existing training data from several regions in Europe was used to train several classifiers and subsequently apply it for classifications of all regions individually.

Bannari et al. (1995) compared and summarized 35 different vegetation indices in regard to their field of application and environments for which they are particularly suitable. They concluded that the choice of one vegetation index over another is a complicated task. As the study regions classified in the course of this work are located in very different environments, the most widely used vegetation index NDVI (Rouse 1974) was used to distinguish between different crop types.

The NDVI shows the normalized difference between near-infrared and red reflectance of the surface (Rouse 1974) (equation 1):

$$NDVI = (NIR - Red)/(NIR + Red) \quad (1)$$

Values near 1 indicate strong “greenness” of vegetation whereas values « 1 usually are associated with

non-vegetation land cover. As the NDVI reflects “greenness” of the landsurface, it is widely used to evaluate vegetation health (Kinyanjui 2011) but also a common measure for crop type classification (Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad 2019).

Zhang et al. (2020) investigated which classification algorithms provide the best classification results using multi-temporal Sentinel-2 imagery. Comparing classifications, using classification and regression tree (CART) decision tree, Support Vector Machine (SVM), and random forest (RF), showed best overall accuracy for RF classifiers (Zhang et al. 2020). Classifications in this thesis were therefore implemented using a set of RF classifiers.

## **Used Data**

### **Satellite imagery**

To calculate the NDVI, optical data is needed which limits the choice of suitable imagery products to optical sensors. Sentinel-2 imagery combines relatively high spatial resolution (10 m for B04 (Red) and B8 (NIR) required for NDVI calculation) and a revisit time of 5 days (ESA 2023) in a multi-spectral sensor and is freely available dating back to June 2015. Therefore it is very suitable for the multi-temporal classifications performed in the course of this experiment, conducted based on field data from the year 2018. Spectral information was abstracted from atmospherically corrected surface reflectance images (SR) from the Sentinel 2 mission.

### **Soil Data**

The European Soil Database v2.0 (European Commission and European Soil Bureau Network 2004) was used to identify regions throughout Europe based on their soil types. Among other information, the data contains a code (“WRBFU”), classifying the soil types according to the World Reference Base for Soil Resources (WRB) (FAO 1998). This attribute built the base for identification of homogeneous regions respecting the soil type.

### **Land Use and Land Cover Data**

LULC data was extracted from the the Corine Land Cover Dataset (European Union 2018). Selecting soil regions exclusively located in areas classified as 211 (“non-irrigated arable land”) or 231 (“Pastures, meadows and other permanent grasslands under agricultural use”) according to CLC classification (European Union 2018) narrowed down the potential study areas.

### **Ground Truth Data**

Ground Truth Data to train the classification algorithms and test classification results, originates from the Land Use and Coverage Area frame Survey (LUCAS) ( Eurostat (2018a)), which is carried out in 28 European countries each three years. LUCAS data provides information on the actual crop types of thousands of fields throughout Europe and therefore can be used as basic information for training and accuracy assessment. Standardization of methodology of data collection and description ensures comparability of the obtained data throughout Europe ( Eurostat 2018a). LUCAS data contains information on land use and land cover and additional information concerning the data collection and reliability of the data itself. This descriptive information was used to identify suitable and reliable data points.

## Elevation Data

To evaluate the results regarding altitude of the different regions, the publicly available *Global Mid-resolution Terrain Elevation Data 2010 (GMTED2010)* (Danielson and Gesch 2011) was used. It provides elevation information with a spatial resolution of 250 m with world-wide coverage.

## Data Preparation

As spectral reflectance of crops not only depends on the crop type itself, but among other factors, it is linked to the soil background in the examined areas (Prudnikova et al. 2019), regions for training and classification were selected in a way, that the study regions are located on one for each region homogeneous soil type. As crop classification by definition deals with the classification of agricultural areas, any non-agricultural areas were excluded from the potential study regions. Adding ground data, containing information on land use and cultivation allowed for narrowing down the potential study areas to several regions with each showing an homogenous soil type, located on agricultural area and containing a suitable number of ground data describing different crop types. As spectral reflectance of vegetation is sensitive to climatic conditions (Ringrose et al. 1994), the spatial distribution of potential areas is taken into account, to allow for comparison of classification results between distant respectively close regions with similar or different climatic conditions.

### 1. Exclusion of non-agricultural land and mixed land use classes

In a first stage, suitable training regions and target crop types were identified, analyzing the abundance and spatial distribution of soil types and crop types in the available datasets.

To narrow down the potential study regions and reach a manageable amount of data, only areas of specific land use according to CLC 2018 (Figure 1) were taken into account. As crop types in various regions in Europe were to be classified, agricultural areas with a very restricted spatial distribution as vineyards were excluded from the potential study areas. Additionally, agricultural areas with complex cultivation patterns and areas with a high amount of natural vegetation were not taken into account. Finally, as this study focused on the distinction between crop types, also areas classified as “fruit tree and berry plantation” were excluded. This selection of distinct land use classes ensured, that the results of the classifications reflect the ability of the classifiers to distinguish between different crop types resp. grassy areas opposed to a differentiation between crop types and a very broad range of land use classes (Figure 2). Clipping LUCAS and soil data to the remaining agricultural CLC classes 211 and 231 (Figure 1) provided the basis for the further isolation of distinct study regions.

<b>211</b>	Non-irrigated arable land
<b>221</b>	Vineyards
<b>222</b>	Fruit tree and berry plantations
<b>231</b>	Pastures, meadows and other permanent grasslands under agricultural use
<b>242</b>	Complex cultivation patterns
<b>243</b>	Land principally occupied by agriculture, with significant areas of natural vegetation

Figure 1: Nomenclature and code of different agricultural areas according to CLC 2018 (European Union 2018)

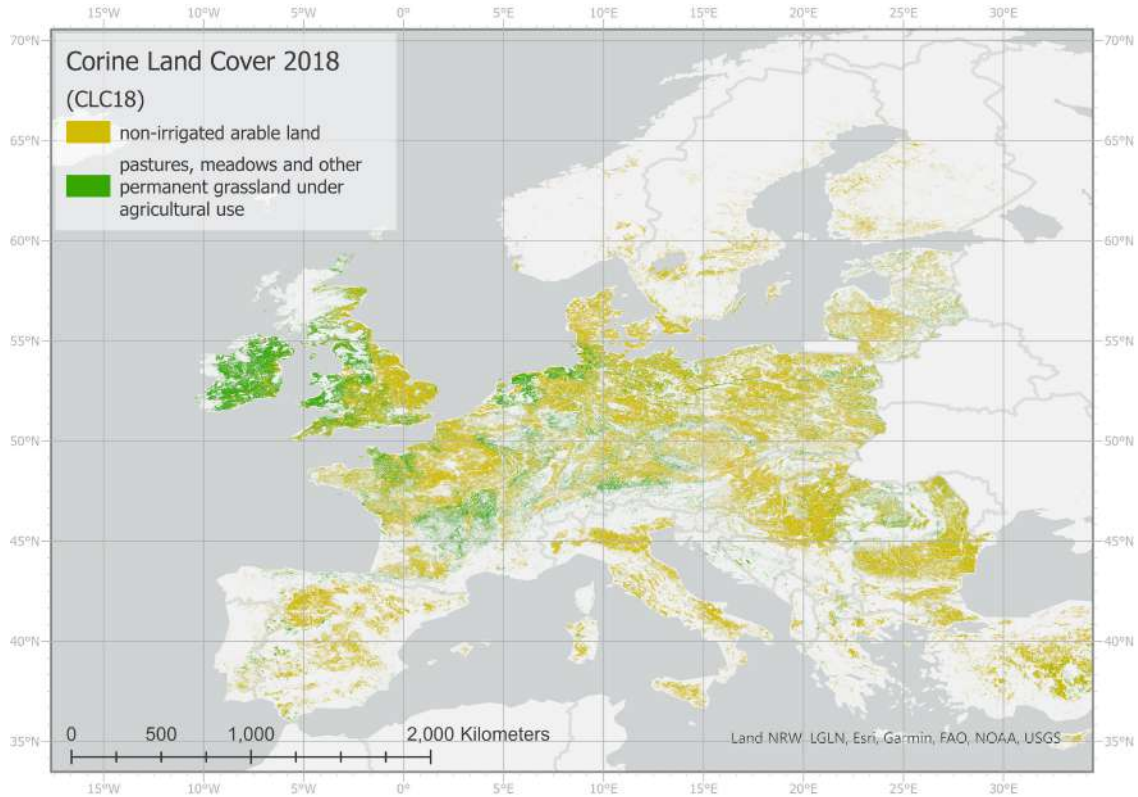


Figure 2: Areas suitable for crop type classification (CLC18-Code 211 resp. 231) (European Union 2018)

## 2. Selection of target crop types

This experiment was designed to evaluate if different crop types throughout Europe can be distinguished using remote sensing, with classifiers trained in areas differing from the classification areas. Suitable crop types therefore need to be abundant in ideally all of the eventually selected study regions. The three most abundant crop types in the LUCAS data set clipped to the suitable CLC land use types 211 and 231 are ‘Common Wheat’, ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’ ( Eurostat 2018b) (Figure 3 ).

## 3. Preparation of LUCAS data

The following information abstracted from LUCAS micro data was used to filter the LUCAS data set and identify suitable and reliable data points:

- GPS distance to point [m]:  $\leq 10$
- GPS coordinate system: WGS84
- GPS precision [m]:  $\leq 5$  (i.e. an inaccuracy of max. 5 m)
- Type of Observation: Field survey, point visible,  $\leq 100$  m

As the classifications used the NDVI calculated from Sentinel-2 bands B04 and B08 with a spatial resolution of 10 m (ESA 2023), the accuracy of the GPS coordinates and the distance between data point and GPS position point needed to be in a similar order of precision. Yet the decision on exclusion limits is a compromise between gaining high reliability of the location of data points and the necessity to keep a sufficient amount of data points for training and testing during classification.

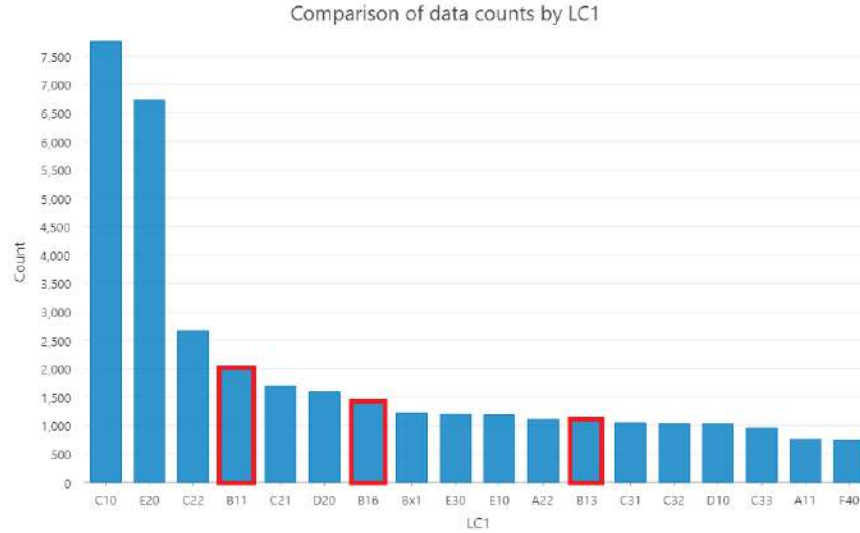


Figure 3: Number of data points by land cover class (LC1) with B11 = 'Common Wheat', B13 = 'Barley' and B16 = 'Maize' and non-crop landcover occupying classes <> 'Bx' (based on data of European Union 2018)

Using “Type of Observation” as filter increased confidence in the correctness of the crop classification during the field survey, which is the very basis for successful classification using remote sensing. To ensure high validity of the training data, data points classified from a distance > 100 m or photo-interpreted were excluded from the data set.

The parameter “Point Longitude E/W” was used to identify data points which are located west of the prime meridian. The GPS coordinates recorded during field survey show values > 0 which implies, the longitude of points with “Point Longitude E/W” = 2 ( Eurostat 2018c) (which are located west of the prime meridian) has to be multiplied by -1 to position the corresponding point at the correct location of data acquisition.

The data set, filtered and modified as described, was used to identified areas with a high amount of data points representing crop types ‘Common Wheat’, ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’. Extraction of areas meeting this criterion was accomplished by creating buffer zones of 50 km around all point data representing the selected target crops (Figure 4), clipping them to the identified areas with CLC code 211 respectively CLC code 231 (Figure 4) and subsequently matching them with the most abundant soil regions, identified in the next step of data preparation.

#### 4. Analyzing abundance of soil types

To create an experimental setting, where results of classifications with the same respectively different soil types in training and classification regions can be compared, abundance, area size and spatial distribution of soil types according to FAO (1998) were analyzed. The objective was to find several soil types with the following characteristics:

1. large connected areas of one distinct soil type
2. spatial distribution of soil types in several distant regions in Europe
3. containing a sufficient amount of data points representing the identified target crop types ‘Common

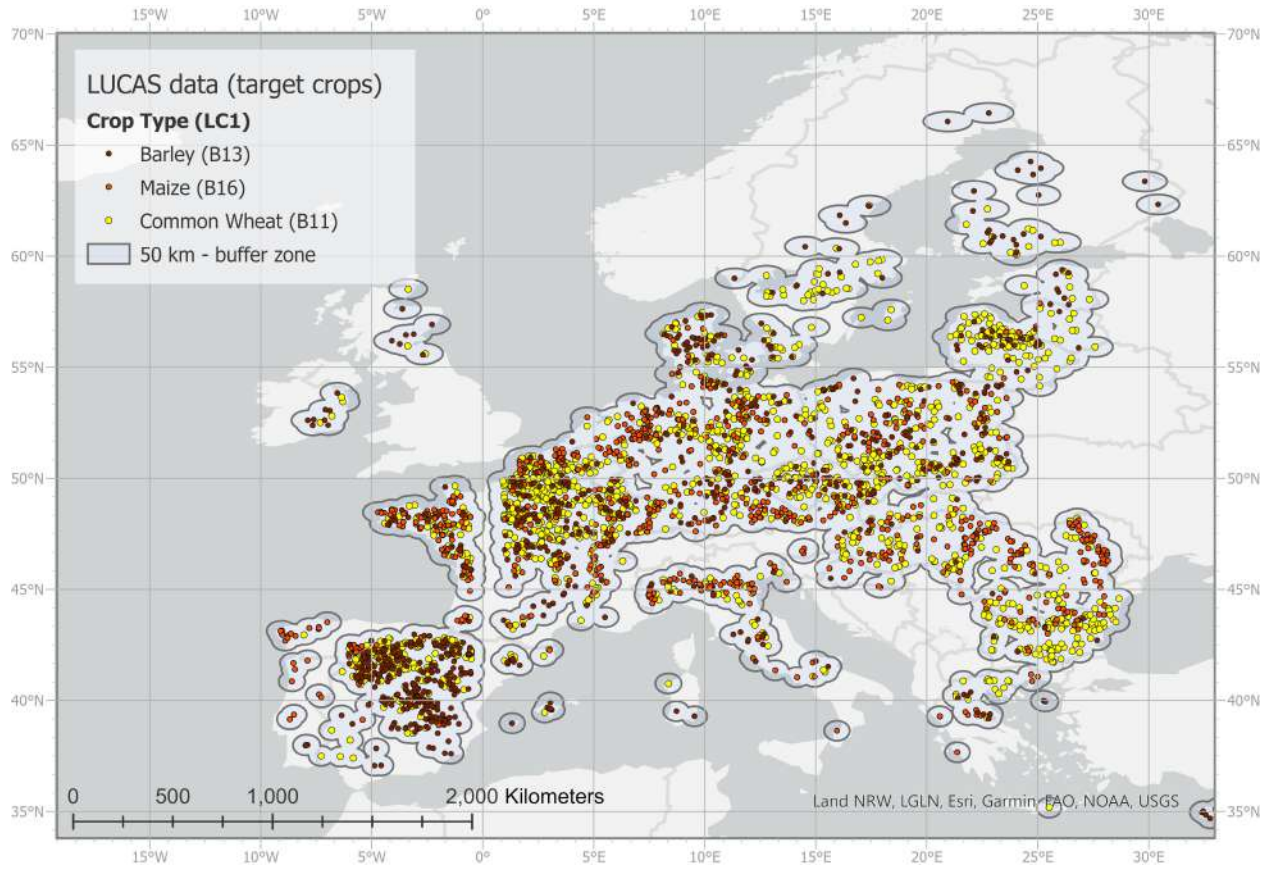


Figure 4: Extraction of zones around LUCAS data points of target crops (European Union 2018)

Wheat’, ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’

Data of the European Soil Database v2.0 (European Commission and European Soil Bureau Network 2004) was clipped to the previously created buffer area around the LUCAS points (clipped to CLC 211 and 231). Borders between features of the same soil type (“WRBFU”) were dissolved and the resulting areas of homogeneous soil types filtered by size, taking only areas > 1.000 km<sup>2</sup> into account. Comparing the area sum of those homogeneous soil regions of substantial size grouped by soil type showed the most prevalent soil types to be *Calcaric Cambisol (CMca)*, *Dystric Cambisol (CMdy)*, *Eutric Cambisol (CMeu)*, *Haplic Luvisol (LVha)* and *Haplic Podzol (PZha)* (Figure 5).

The identified “soil type regions” were compared against criterion 2 and 3 mentioned above. The limitation of data points during preparation of ground truth data lead to difficulties in implementation of criterion 3 (“containing a sufficient amount of data points representing the identified target crop types ‘Common Wheat’, ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’) for a sufficient number of regions. Considering the partially sparse number of data points covering the regions, a number of two data points was considered sufficient for training a classifier in one region. To enable statistically evaluable results, a number of approximately 100 cross-classifications was targeted which requires a number of at least 11 regions (as each of n regions was used as training region for ideally n-1 classification regions).

Among those regions fulfilling criterion 1 and 2, 14 areas were identified as at least fairly fulfilling criterion 3

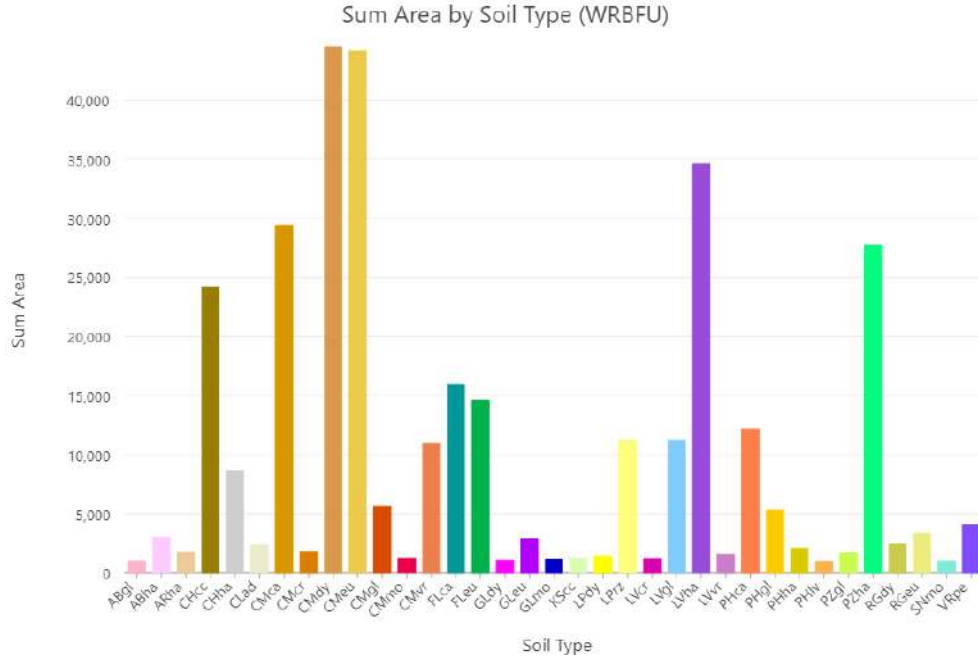


Figure 5: Accumulated area by soil type, taking into account only soil regions of min. 1.000 km<sup>2</sup> area. (based on data of European Commission and European Soil Bureau Network 2004)

(Figure 6), (Table 1).

As displayed in Table 1, eight out of 14 regions were not covering all three classes ‘Common Wheat’, ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’. Regions with a sufficient number of data points for each class can be used to train classifiers for classification of all other regions. Regions with a lack of data may only be utilized as training data for classification of regions which do not contain data points of other classes than the training regions, as this would have a direct impact on the classification results in a negative way. Table 2 shows all possible combinations of training and classification regions, which results in a number of 92 classifications in total.

Each data point represents one agricultural field of specific crop type resp. land cover. To provide a sufficient number of training pixels, for each data point of the target crop types, a polygon was manually drawn in GIS to raise the amount of training pixels per class per region. As a result, for each region, areas of altogether approximately 300.000 - 1.100.000 m<sup>2</sup> were assigned one of the classes ‘Common Wheat’, ‘Barley’, ‘Maize’ respectively ‘Other’ (Figure 7).

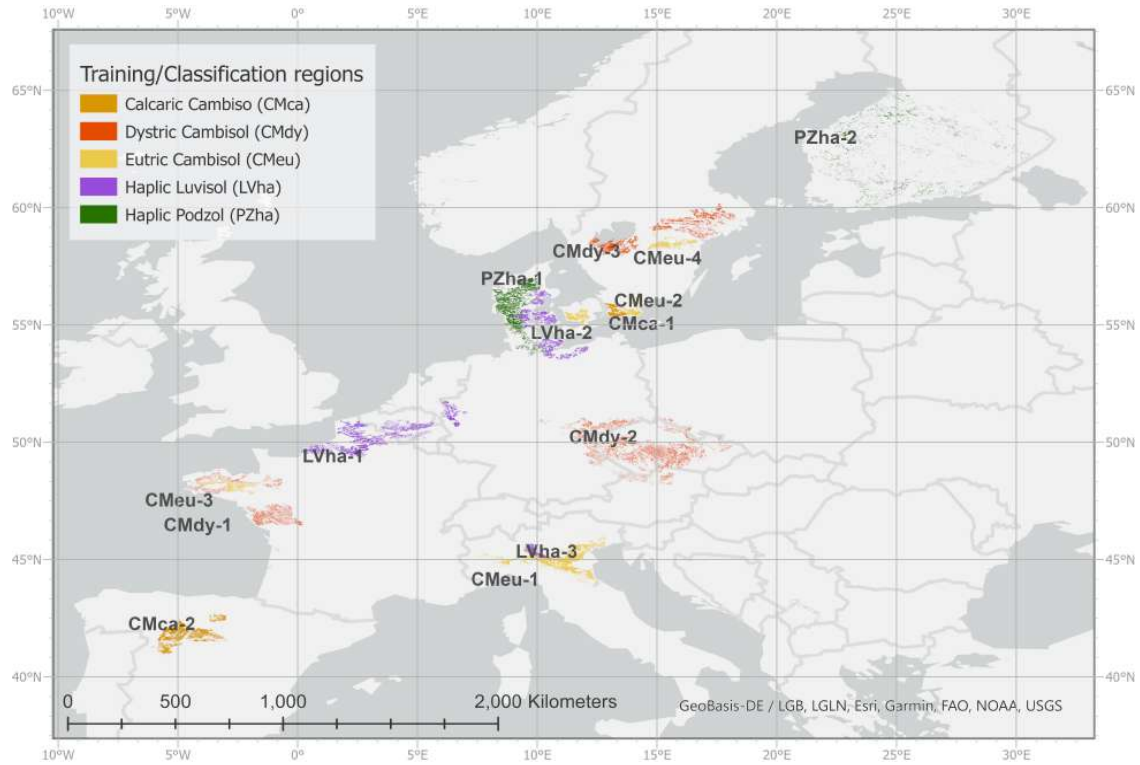


Figure 6: Regions of homogenous soil type selected for crop type classification

Table 1: Identified regions of homogenous soil type with number of ground truth data points for classes ‘Other’, ‘Common Wheat’, ‘Barely’ and ‘Maize’

region	sum	other	common wheat	barley	maize
CMca-1	17	7	6	4	0
CMca-2	146	86	29	31	0
CMdy-1	68	29	11	6	22
CMdy-2	137	87	19	16	15
CMdy-3	79	58	16	5	0
CMeu-1	29	6	12	0	11
CMeu-2	26	20	4	2	0
CMeu-3	23	8	4	2	9
CMeu-4	30	18	12	0	0
LVha-1	95	27	50	7	11
LVha-2	38	15	9	10	4
LVha-3	15	7	1	0	7
PZha-1	64	39	1	12	12
PZha-2	78	61	5	12	0



Table 2: Combination of training and classification regions, based on the availability of data points per class. Classifiers may only be used for classification of regions which do not contain different classes than those covered by the training region.

training region	common			classification regions	number of classifications
	wheat	barley	maize		
CMdy-1	11	6	22	all 13	13
CMdy-2	19	16	15	all 13	13
CMeu-3	4	2	9	all 13	13
LVha-1	50	7	11	all 13	13
LVha-2	9	10	4	all 13	13
PZha-2	5	12	0	CMca-1, CMca-2, Cmdy-3, Cmeu-2, Cmeu-4	5
CMdy-3	16	5	0	CMca-1, CMca-2, Pzha-2, Cmeu-2, Cmeu-4	5
CMca-2	29	31	0	CMca-1, Cmdy-3, Pzha-2, Cmeu-2, Cmeu-4	5
CMeu-2	4	2	0	CMca-1, Cmdy-3, Pzha-2, Cmeu-2, Cmeu-4	5
CMca-1	6	4	0	CMca-2, Cmdy-3, Pzha-2, Cmeu-2, Cmeu-4	5
CMeu-1	12	0	11	Cmeu-4, Lvha-3,	2
CMeu-4	12	0	0	no training	0
LVha-3	1	0	7	no training	0
PZha-1	1	12	12	no training	0
Total	179	107	91	-	92

Depending on the availability of data points, the reached ground truth areas vary in total size. A potential influence of the number of ground truth pixel on classification results is going to be discussed at a later stage. As class-imbalance in training data is considered to tendentially decrease classification accuracy (Mellor et al. 2015), particular attention was drawn to create a preferably balanced data set concerning class coverage during field digitization. Due to the under-representation of classes ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’, corresponding agricultural fields have been digitized almost in their entire field sizes, whereas individual ground truth fields for ‘Common Wheat’ and ‘Other’ generally are smaller in size but larger in number.

The digitized agricultural fields, each assigned as one of the classes 0 - 3 (with ‘Other’ = 0, ‘Common Wheat’ = 1, ‘Barley’ = 2, ‘Maize’ = 3) were subsequently used as training respectively test data for the classifications performed in the course of this experiment.

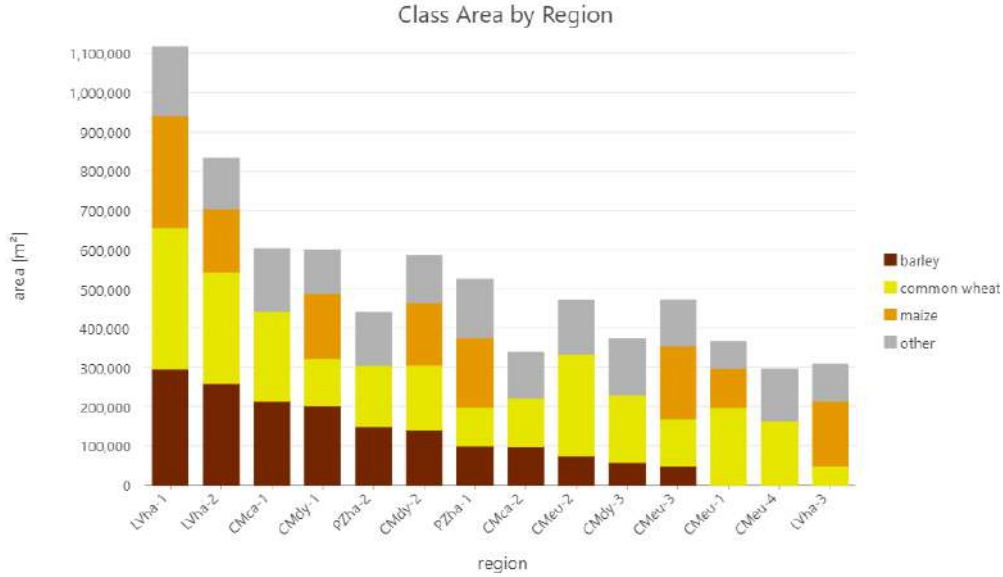


Figure 7: Accumulated area per class and soil type region

## Crop Type Cross-Classifications

Classifications were performed using Google Earth Engine (GEE).

### Input Data

Training data was provided as polygon shapefile, created from LUCAS data points as described in the previous chapter. Another shapefile containing training resp. classification regions was used to limit calculations to those areas.

### Data Preprocessing

Data sets containing ground truth data and region extents were uploaded to the GEE platform. Sentinel 2 imagery from a date range of 2018-04-01 to 2018-10-31 was accessed via GEE. A simple geometry, covering all study regions and directly drawn in GEE was used as spatial filter. The provided regions from the input data set as spatial filter contain too many edges to be processed in GEE so that using a simple geometry was more effective in this case. The Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) was calculated from bands B4 (Red) and B8 (VNIR) for all obtained images in the Sentinel image collection. A new image collection was created, containing only bands “NDVI” and “SCL”. The “SCL” band provides a pixel-wise classification which was used as cloud filter in the further course.

To enable multi-temporal classifications, the image collection containing data from 2018-04-01 to 2018-10-31 and bands “NDVI” and “SCL” was divided into time slots of 14 days. From all available images of each 14-day time interval, the highest reached “NDVI” of each pixel was retained and a new image was assembled from the thereby identified “greenest pixels”. The resulting 14 greenest-pixel images were composited to one resulting image, containing bands NDVI 01-14 and SCL 01-14. Those bands contain information on the maximum NDVI value from each 14-day time interval and the corresponding pixel class according to “SCL”. The classifications in this experiment are based on bands NDVI 01 - NDVI 14, which depict the course of the

NDVI in each pixel throughout vegetation period.

The described steps of data preparation resulted in a single image, containing 28 bands (NDVI 01-14, SCL 01-14). The image was clipped to all 14 regions to create image subsets for subsequent classifications.

## Training and Classification

Ground truth data containing class information (class 0-3) and imagery from the corresponding region containing multi-temporal NDVI values were combined in one *FeatureCollection* per region to train one RF classifier for each region.

Using the maximum NDVI value served the goal to obtain pixels from a relatively cloud-free date of recording. Yet a cloud filter had to be applied to minimize negative effects of cloudiness on the classification results. For this purpose, features from the resulting *FeatureCollections* with SCL = 0 (no data), 8 (medium-probability clouds) and 9 (high-probability clouds) were excluded from classification.

As training and classification did not take place at the same location, there was no need to distinguish between training and test data. All available ground truth data for one region was used for training of the corresponding classifier and all available ground truth data for all classified regions could be used for accuracy assessment. Training and test data for each individual region were extracted from the above created and cloud-filtered *FeatureCollection*.

Reached OAs as well as number of training pixels per class and contents of the confusing matrices of all classifications were stored in a table for subsequent analysis of the results.

Due to processing limitations of the free version of GEE, not all classifications could be calculated in one run. The corresponding script therefore had to be split up and individually modified to run about five classifications at once. The used scripts are accessible on GEE and additionally attached to this thesis in Appendix A1-2. All classification results and derived data is shown in Appendix B1-3.

## Multi-class classifications

### Results

Overall Accuracy of the classification results ranges from very low values (min. OA = 0.13) to very good results (max. OA = 0.92) (Figure 8) (Appendix C: Table 5). To extend insight in the classification qualities, User's and Producer's Accuracies (UAs and PAs) per class were calculated from the confusion matrices.

The classifications show OAs nearly normally distributed and slightly skewed to the left (Figure 9). Regarding the individual classes 0 to 3 however the reached average accuracies (avg. from User's Accuracy and Producer's Accuracy) show different distributions. With a mean average accuracy of 0.24, and a strongly right skewed distribution (Figure 10c)), identification of 'Barley' showed poorest results. The mean average accuracy of 'Common Wheat' classification lies at 0.51 with a bimodal distribution peeking at  $\leq 0.05$  respectively between 0.5 and 0.65 (Figure 10b)). The class 'Other' shows an average accuracy of 0.69 and a left skewed distribution (Figure 10a)). Half of classifications show accuracies of  $> 0.72$  for class 'Other'. Best class recognition was achieved for class 'Maize' with an average mean accuracy of 0.83 and a median of 0.84 (Figure 10d)).

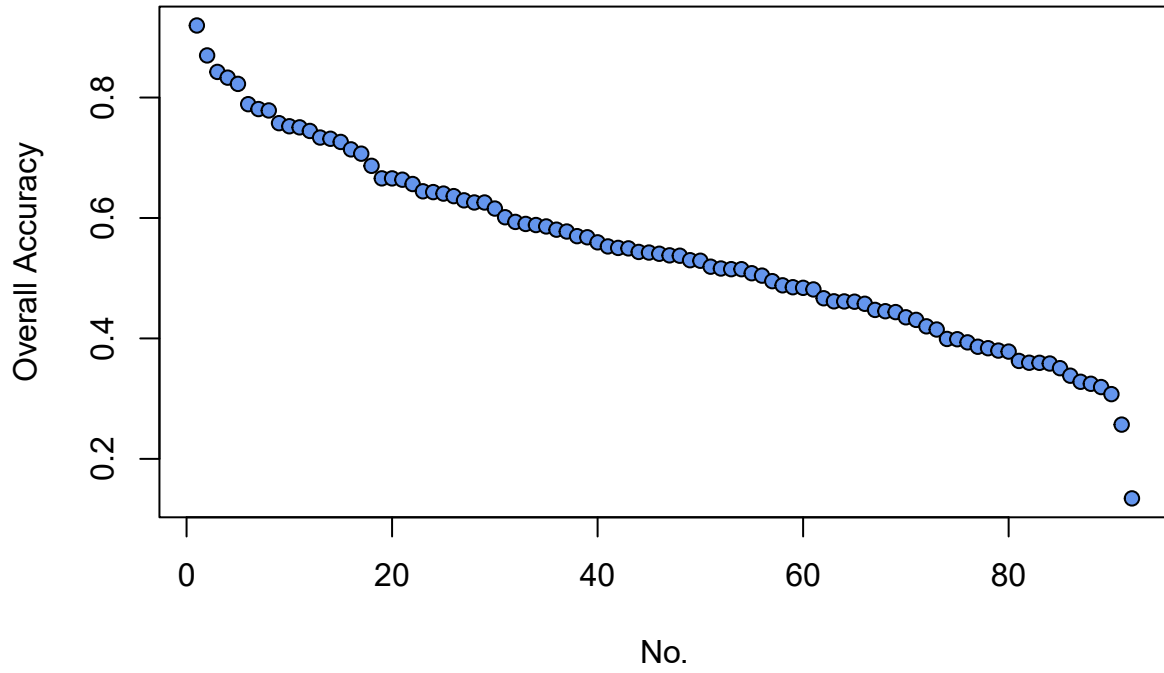


Figure 8: Overview of reached Overall Accoracies (OAs) for all multi-class classifications

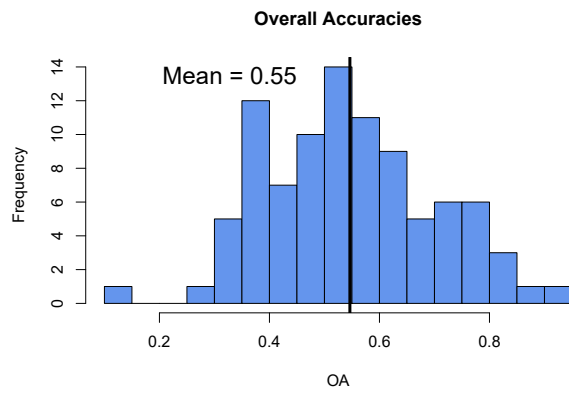


Figure 9: Overview of reached Overall Accoracies (OAs) for all multi-class classifications

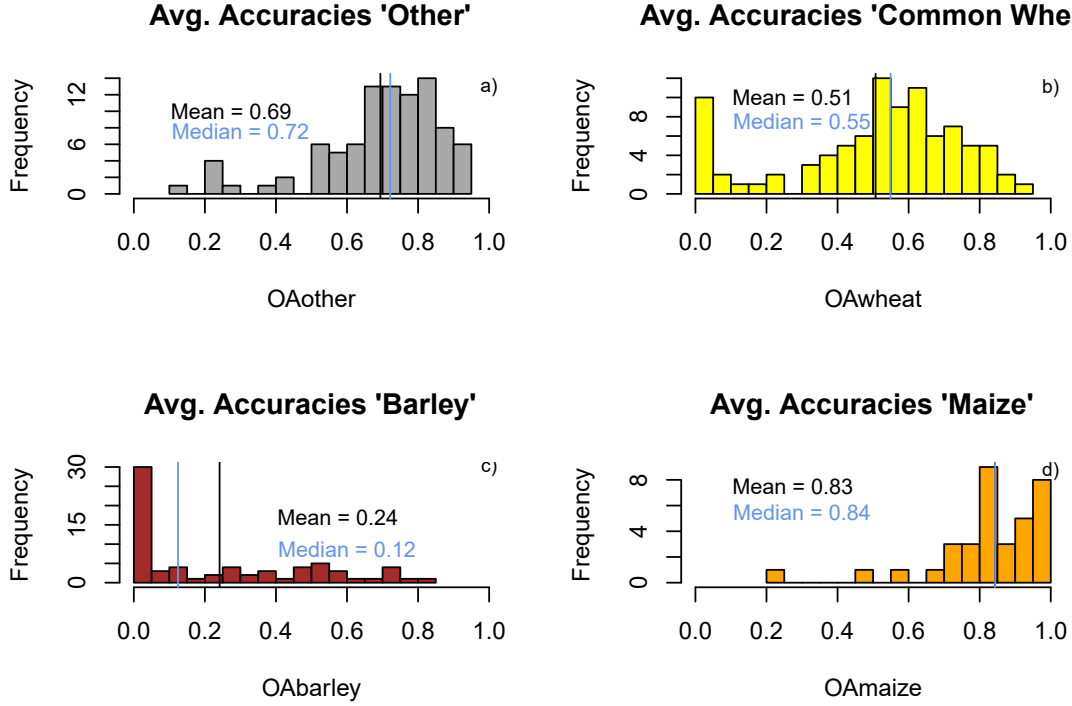


Figure 10: Reached Overall Accoracies (OAs) separated by class

## Influence of class balance

To evaluate the influence of class balance as described by Mellor et al. (2015), an index to measure imbalance of class representation in the used training data was developed.

For this purpose, in a first step, the share of pixels per class was calculated and standardized by number of classes (equation 2):

$$cb0\dots3 = ((px0\dots3)/(px0 + px1 + px2 + px3))/(1/n) \quad (2)$$

with

$cb0\dots3$  = class specific imbalance of classes 0 to 3

$px0\dots3$  = pixel count of classes 0 to 3

$n$  = number of classes

This calculation returns values close to 1 for classes with a pixel count share near to  $1/n$  of the total of used training data. Values  $> 1$  indicate over-representation of pixels for the corresponding class and values  $< 1$  accordingly indicate under-representation of the class in the data set.

The resulting class-specific values were used to determine the overall imbalance of data for each classification by summing up their absolute deviation from 1 and subsequently dividing the resulting value by number of classes  $n$  (equation 3):

$$imbalanceIndex = (|cb0 - 1| + |cb1 - 1| + |cb2 - 1| + |cb3 - 1|)/n \quad (3)$$

with

cb0...3 = class specific imbalance

n = number of classes

Low values of the *Imbalance Index* indicate equally sized classes whereas high values imply higher imbalance regarding pixel counts of the individual classes.

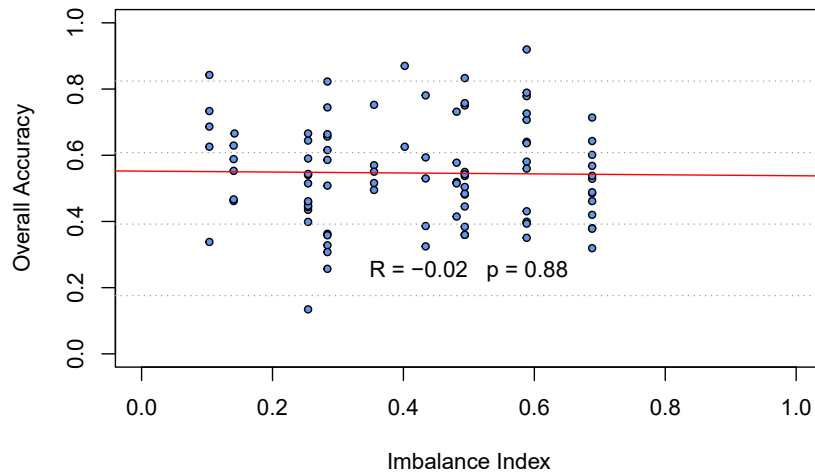


Figure 11: Correlation between Imbalance Index and reached accuracies

The evaluation of a possible correlation between class balance and reached OAs results in a Pearson’s R of -0.02 with a p-value of 0.88. The high p-value, which can be translated to a low confidence interval of 12%, verifies that the relation between the variables is to be considered random. Consequently the results show *no significant correlation* between class balance and reached OAs (Figure 11).

## Binary classifications

The results of the multiclass-classifications indicate a strong variance of identifiability of the different crop types using the depicted approach.

Overall Accuracy is a measure of the ability of a classifier to correctly classify test pixels of all present classes. Thus it represents a mixed quality measure which does not allow for drawing further inferences from it in this case of strongly differing accuracies for the individual classes. Therefore, in the further course, classification results of barley were excluded from analysis. Instead of OAs of the multi-class classifications, reached accuracies for ‘Common Wheat’ and ‘Maize’ were examined separately in binary classifications.

There are generally two possible approaches for separating the achieved accuracies per class:

- pre-processing approach:

Before executing the classifications, the input data set containing training and test data is modified in a way that it is suitable for a binary classification. For this purpose, data which represents ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’ resp. ‘Barley’ and ‘Common Wheat’ is assigned to class 0 ‘Other’ whereas the crop type to be identified (‘Common Wheat’ resp. ‘Maize’) is assigned to class 1. This approach is time intensive as all classifications have to be run again for both classes.

A less time consuming approach is the re-calculation of accuracies from the multi-class classification results as followed:

- post- processing approach:

Overall Accuracies are calculated as the total of all correctly classified pixels out of all classified test pixels. To calculate OAs from the multi-class results without taking into account class ‘Barley’ and ‘Maize’ resp. ‘Common Wheat’, the confusion matrices are consulted. The confusion matrix of a classification gives information on which test pixels were classified as which class. Calculating OAs for a ‘Common Wheat’ (= class 1) classification therefore means summing up all class 1 test pixels correctly classified and all test pixels from class 0, 2 and 3 not classified as class 1. The number of in this sense correctly classified pixels divided by the total number of classified test pixels gives the post-processing calculated OA for ‘Common Wheat’ classifications. OA for ‘Maize’ (class 3) can be calculated analogously, summing up classes 0, 1 and 2. This approach is less time-consuming as re-classification is not necessary. Nonetheless, this approach is based on the assumption, that those crop types which are assigned to class 0 (‘Other’) in post-processing were also correctly classified as class 0 in a regular binary classification (i.e. the pre-processing approach).

The decision which approach to follow in the further course of this study was based on a brief comparison of both approaches using class ‘Maize’ for classification. Only eight out of the 14 regions have a suitable number of ‘Maize’ training sites, which means a total of 56 re-classifications, deploying the pre-processing approach. The hereby reached Overall Accuracies were compared to the post-processing calculated OAs for classification of ‘Maize’. The mean absolute deviation between pre- and post-processing OAs lies at 0.026 with pre-processing OAs by an average of 0.011 lower than the corresponding results of the OAs calculated in the post-processing approach (Table 3). Pre-processing allows for a higher number of classifications, as in the post-processing approach, some region combinations which are possible for ‘Maize’ classification were not executed due to a lack of data points for at least one of the other crop classes investigated in the multi-class classification. Nevertheless, using the *post-processing approach for ‘Common Wheat’* is reasonable as both approaches result in similar OAs and all 92 classifications show results for classification of ‘Common Wheat’. As the differences in reached accuracies between pre- and post-processing approach are neglectable and re-classification regarding class ‘Maize’ allows for a higher number of classifications and thus a more robust basis for statistical analysis of results, *pre-processing results of ‘Maize’ classifications* are evaluated in the further course.

Table 3: Comparison of reached Overall Accuracies for classification of class ‘Maize’ using the pre- resp. post-processing approach

No.	Training Region	Classified Region	OA pre-processing	OA post-processing	OA pre - OA post	OA pre - OA post
1	LVha3	CMeu3	1.000	0.997	0.003	0.003
2	LVha2	CMeu3	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
3	CMdy1	CMeu3	1.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
4	PZha1	CMeu3	1.000	-	-	-
5	LVha2	CMdy1	0.997	0.996	0.001	0.001
6	CMeu3	CMdy1	0.994	0.997	0.002	-0.002
7	LVha1	CMdy1	0.992	0.999	0.007	-0.007
8	LVha1	CMeu3	0.991	-	-	-
9	CMeu3	LVha1	0.989	0.991	0.002	-0.002
10	CMeu1	CMdy1	0.988	-	-	-
11	PZha1	CMeu1	0.986	-	-	-
12	CMeu1	LVha3	0.984	0.999	0.015	-0.015
13	PZha1	CMdy1	0.981	-	-	-
14	LVha2	LVha1	0.979	0.995	0.016	-0.016
15	CMdy1	LVha1	0.973	0.997	0.024	-0.024
16	LVha3	CMdy1	0.967	-	-	-
17	CMdy1	LVha2	0.963	0.963	0.000	0.000
18	CMeu3	LVha2	0.963	0.953	0.010	0.010
19	CMdy1	PZha1	0.963	0.963	0.000	0.000
20	PZha1	LVha2	0.963	-	-	-
21	PZha1	LVha1	0.962	-	-	-
22	CMdy2	LVha2	0.962	0.960	0.002	0.002
23	LVha1	LVha2	0.962	0.962	0.000	0.000
24	CMeu1	LVha1	0.962	-	-	-
25	CMdy2	CMdy1	0.961	0.933	0.029	0.029
26	LVha1	CMeu1	0.952	0.952	0.000	0.000
27	CMeu1	LVha2	0.950	-	-	-
28	LVha2	PZha1	0.949	0.958	0.008	-0.008
29	CMeu3	PZha1	0.949	0.918	0.031	0.031
30	LVha3	LVha1	0.947	-	-	-
31	PZha1	CMdy2	0.946	-	-	-
32	CMdy2	PZha1	0.932	0.916	0.015	0.015
33	LVha3	CMeu1	0.929	-	-	-
34	LVha1	PZha1	0.924	0.924	0.000	0.000
35	CMeu3	CMeu1	0.920	0.930	0.010	-0.010
36	CMeu1	CMdy2	0.918	-	-	-
37	CMeu1	CMeu3	0.918	-	-	-
38	CMeu1	PZha1	0.917	-	-	-



No.	Training Region	Classified Region	OA pre-processing	OA post-processing	OA pre - OA post	OA pre - OA post
39	CMdy2	LVha1	0.911	0.935	0.024	-0.024
40	CMdy1	CMdy2	0.907	0.911	0.004	-0.004
41	CMdy2	CMeu1	0.904	0.896	0.008	0.008
42	CMdy1	CMeu1	0.899	0.955	0.056	-0.056
43	CMeu3	CMdy2	0.894	0.824	0.070	0.070
44	LVha2	CMdy2	0.893	0.925	0.033	-0.033
45	LVha2	CMeu1	0.893	0.898	0.005	-0.005
46	LVha3	LVha2	0.890	-	-	-
47	CMeu3	LVha3	0.874	0.773	0.101	0.101
48	LVha1	CMdy2	0.872	0.922	0.050	-0.050
49	PZha1	LVha3	0.857	-	-	-
50	LVha1	LVha3	0.853	0.916	0.063	-0.063
51	CMdy1	LVha3	0.834	0.966	0.133	-0.133
52	LVha3	CMdy2	0.821	-	-	-
53	LVha3	PZha1	0.808	-	-	-
54	CMdy2	CMeu3	0.762	0.756	0.005	0.005
55	LVha2	LVha3	0.714	0.925	0.211	-0.211
56	CMdy2	LVha3	0.684	0.696	0.012	-0.012
57	Average	-	-	-	0.026	-0.011

## Results for binary ‘Maize’ and ‘Common Wheat’ classifications

To answer the research question, for both, ‘Maize’ and ‘Common Wheat’ classifications, Overall Accuracies were calculated according to the post-processing (‘Common Wheat’) resp. pre-processing (‘Maize’) approach and used for further analysis. OAs provide a general measure for the quality of the classification results regarding both classes, class 0 (‘Other’) and class 1 (‘Maize’ resp. ‘Common Wheat’). As the main interest is the ability of the classifiers to identify ‘Maize’ resp. ‘Common Wheat’, User’s and Producer’s Accuracy for those target classes were additionally evaluated.

Overall accuracies for ‘Maize’ classifications show a mean of 0.93 and median of 0.95 (Figure 12) with 53 out of 56 classifications (95 %) reaching an OA > 0.8 (Appendix D: Figure 23). User’s Accuracies for ‘Maize’ show a mean of 0.93 and a median of 0.98 (Figure 13c)) with 50 out of 56 classifications (89 %) reaching an UA > 0.8 (Appendix D: Figure 31)). Producer’s Accuracies for ‘Maize’ show a mean of 0.72 and median of 0.75 (Figure 13a)) with 25 out of 56 classifications (45 %) reaching an PA > 0.8 (Appendix D: Figure 30). ‘Maize’ classifications which show good results (> 0.8) for both, PA and UA, account for a total number of 25 (45 %) of all ‘Maize’ classifications (Appendix D: Figure 25 and Figure 24).

Overall accuracies for ‘Common Wheat’ classifications show a mean of 0.66 and median of 0.69 (Figure 12) with 18 out of 92 classifications (20 %) reaching an OA > 0.8 (Appendix D: Figure 26). User’s Accuracies for ‘Common Wheat’ show a mean of 0.69 and median of 0.80 (Figure 13d)) with 48 out of 92 classifications (52 %) reaching an UA > 0.8 (Appendix D: Figure 34). Producer’s Accuracies for ‘Common Wheat’ show a mean of 0.45 and median of 0.46 (Figure 13b)) with 18 out of 92 classifications (20 %) reaching an PA > 0.8

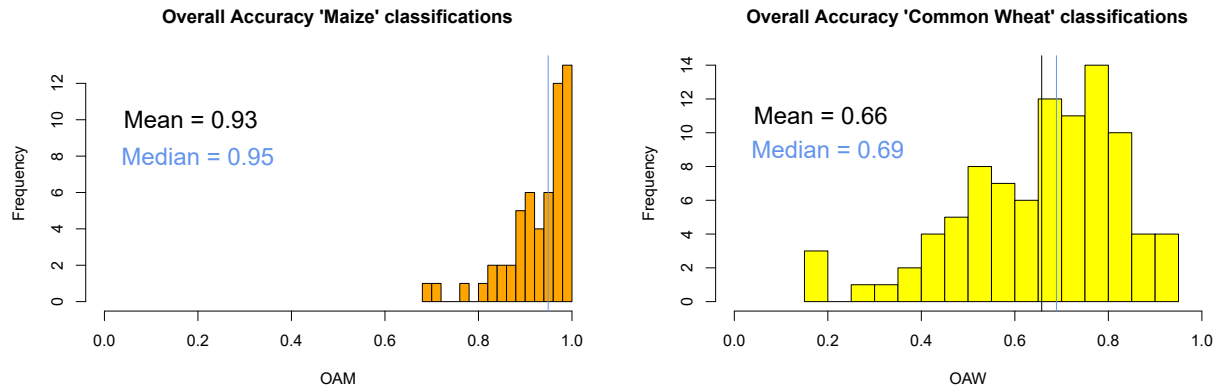


Figure 12: Reached Overall Accuracies (OAs) for binary Maize resp. Common Wheat classifications

(Appendix D: Figure 33). ‘Common Wheat’ classifications which show good results ( $> 0.8$ ) for both, PA and UA, account for a total number of 8 (9 %) of all ‘Common Wheat’ classifications (Appendix D: Figure 28 and Figure 27).

Figures 24 and 25 (Appendix D) show classifications of region ‘CMdy1’ and ‘CMeu1’ achieving very high accuracies in nearly all ‘Maize’ classifications. Contrary to this, ‘Maize’ classifications in region ‘LVha2’ do in no case simultaneously show PAs and UAs  $> 0.8$  which is solely attributable to low to medium PAs in all classifications. CMdy2 does not yield high accuracies in most of the classifications, neither as training nor as classification region. Training data from region ‘PZha1’ is most successfully used for ‘Maize’ classification in the other regions with OAs between 0.86 and 1.00.

‘Common Wheat’ classifications with simultaneously high OA, Pa and UA are executed in region ‘CMeu4’. Training data from region ‘CMeu3’ results in highest accuracies for ‘Common Wheat’ classification in other regions (Appendix D: Figures 28 and 27). Due to the low to medium PAs in most of the ‘Common Wheat’ classifications, none of the regions continuously shows simultaneously high PAs and UAs.

Even though class ‘Other’ shows naturally more diversity in its spectral profiles, spectral profiles of classes ‘Common Wheat’ and ‘Other’ (Appendix E: Figure 37 - 39) show similarities in the general shape with samples peaking in the first and last third of the investigated time range and a depression in between. Only regions ‘CMca2’ and ‘LVha3’ only show high NDVI values in the first half of this time period but still showing similarities between ‘Common Wheat’ and ‘Other’ spectral profiles.

Spectral profiles of classes ‘Maize’ and ‘Other’ (Appendix E: Figure 35 - 36) show less similarities in the general shape as ‘Maize’ is peaking in roughly the time range of lower values of class ‘Other’ samples.

## Influence of model characteristics

Besides potential influences from differing climate and soil conditions, quality of classifications also depends on characteristics of the classifications itself.

Even though RF classifiers are considered relatively insensitive to training set size (Rodriguez-Galiano et al. 2012), the reached accuracies were tested for correlation with methodological characteristics of the individual classifications to identify potential influences by them.

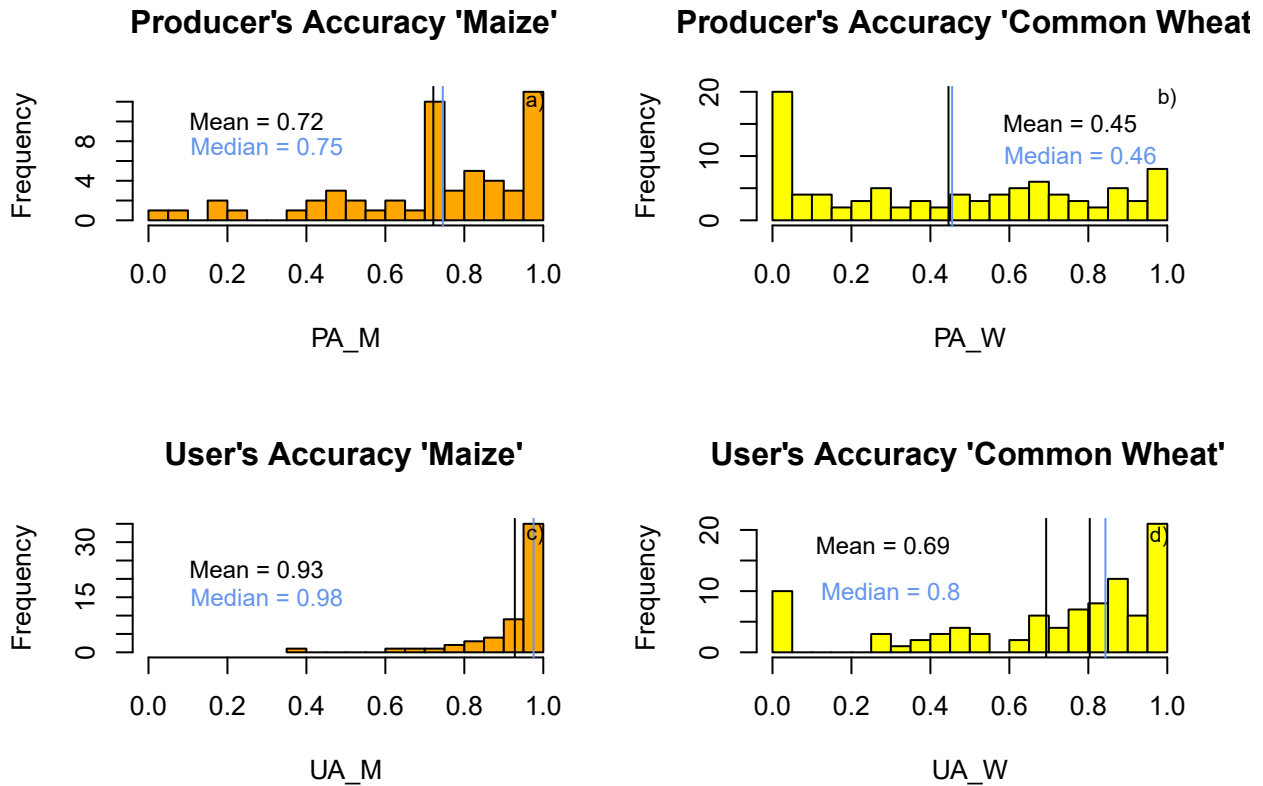


Figure 13: Producer’s (PA) and User’s (UA) Accuracies for classes Maize resp. Common Wheat in binary classifications

### Class imbalance

Due to the initially planned multi-class approach, the prepared training and test data set showed a high imbalance of class representation in regard to pixel count per class for the binary classifications. Even though no significant relation between class imbalance and classification accuracies was detected in the multi-class classifications - with its comparably evenly distributed training sets - a potential correlation between imbalance and results was evaluated in the stronger imbalanced binary classifications (Figure 14).

Correlation tests show Pearson’s R-values between -0.39 and 0.29 and the associated p-values from 0.00 to 0.71.

For ‘Common Wheat’ classifications, the analysis revealed a weak to medium negative correlation, which was highly significant for Producer’s Accuracy (PA) and Overall Accuracy (OA) with p-values of 0.0 (confidence level of 100%). However, this negative correlation was not significant when assessing User’s Accuracy (UA) and the Imbalance Index.

On the other hand, ‘Maize’ classifications exhibited a weak positive correlation for OA and PA, with corresponding R-values of 0.05 and 0.29. This positive correlation was significant for PA, with a confidence level of 97%. There was a weak but not significant correlation observed between UA and the Imbalance Index.

In summary, the results indicate a significant, weak to medium negative correlation between the Imbalance

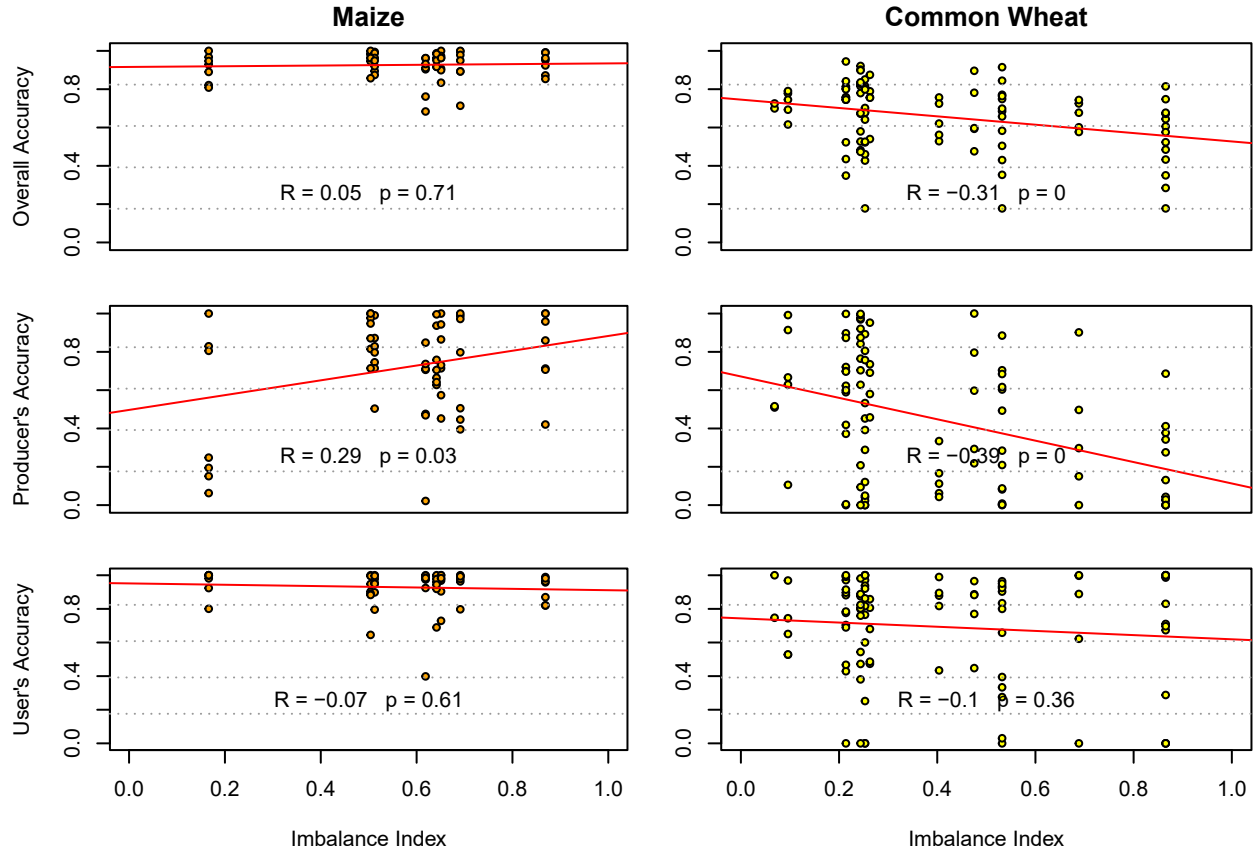


Figure 14: Correlation between class imbalance and reached accuracies

Index and PA/OA for ‘Common Wheat’ classifications. Additionally, there is a significant, medium positive correlation between the Imbalance Index and PA for ‘Maize’ classifications. However, no significant correlations were observed between class imbalance and OA/OA for ‘Maize’ classifications and UA for ‘Common Wheat’ classifications (Figure 14).

### Number of training pixels

Especially the impact of amount and quality of training data is discussed in literature, with among others Rodriguez-Galiano et al. (2012) researching their influence on random forest land-cover classifications. Pal and Mather (2003) emphasize the effect of training set size, especially for heterogenous classes to ensure representation of all the variability present in one class (Rodriguez-Galiano et al. (2012), Pal and Mather (2003)).

Evaluating the potential correlation between the number of training pixels and achieved accuracies, Pearson’s R-values were found to range from -0.09 to 0.11, with corresponding p-values ranging from 0.4 to 0.99. These R-values indicate a generally weak, mostly positive relationship between reached accuracies and the number of training pixels across various datasets. The high p-values associated with these relationships, which translate to low confidence intervals ranging from 1% to 60%, suggest that the observed connections between the variables are likely random and lack statistical significance.

In summary, the results revealed that there is no significant correlation between the count of training pixels

and the achieved accuracies. (Figure 15).

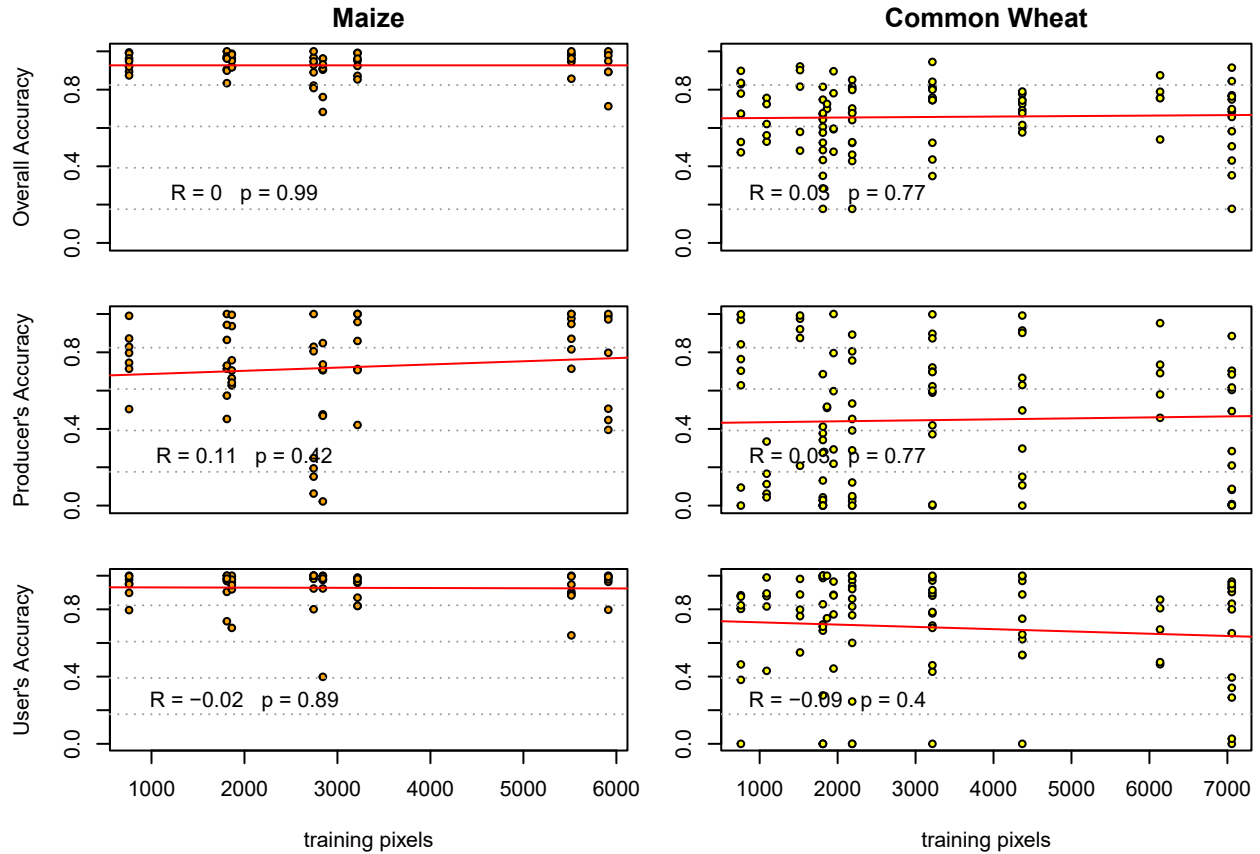


Figure 15: Correlation between number of training pixels and reached accuracies

### Number of test pixels/Number of training pixels

As heterogeneity potentially increases with a larger number of classified (test) pixels, not only the total number of pixels was taken into account but also the ratio of test to training pixels for each classification. The value of the resulting quotient provides a measure for potential heterogeneity of test pixels in comparison to the potential heterogeneity of training pixels. Large values indicate higher potential heterogeneity of classified test areas compared to the training data the classification is based on.

The correlation tests revealed Pearson's R-values ranging from -0.06 to 0.24 and corresponding p-values between 0.02 and 0.66. These R-values suggest a generally weak, mostly positive relationship between achieved accuracies and the ratio of test to training pixels across the various datasets.

However, it's important to note that the correlation between User's accuracy (UA) for 'Common Wheat' classifications and the test-to-training pixel ratio is notably weak but statistically significant, with a correlation coefficient of 0.24 and a 98% confidence interval.

The high p-values associated with the other assessed relationships, indicating low confidence intervals ranging from 34% to 83%, suggest that these connections between variables are likely random and not statistically significant.

In summary, the findings indicate a weak yet significant correlation between the test-to-training pixel ratio

and User's accuracy in 'Common Wheat' classifications. However, no significant correlations were observed between the test-to-training pixel ratio and User's accuracies for 'Maize' classifications, and for Overall accuracies (OAs) and Producer's accuracies (PAs) of both crop types (Figure 16).

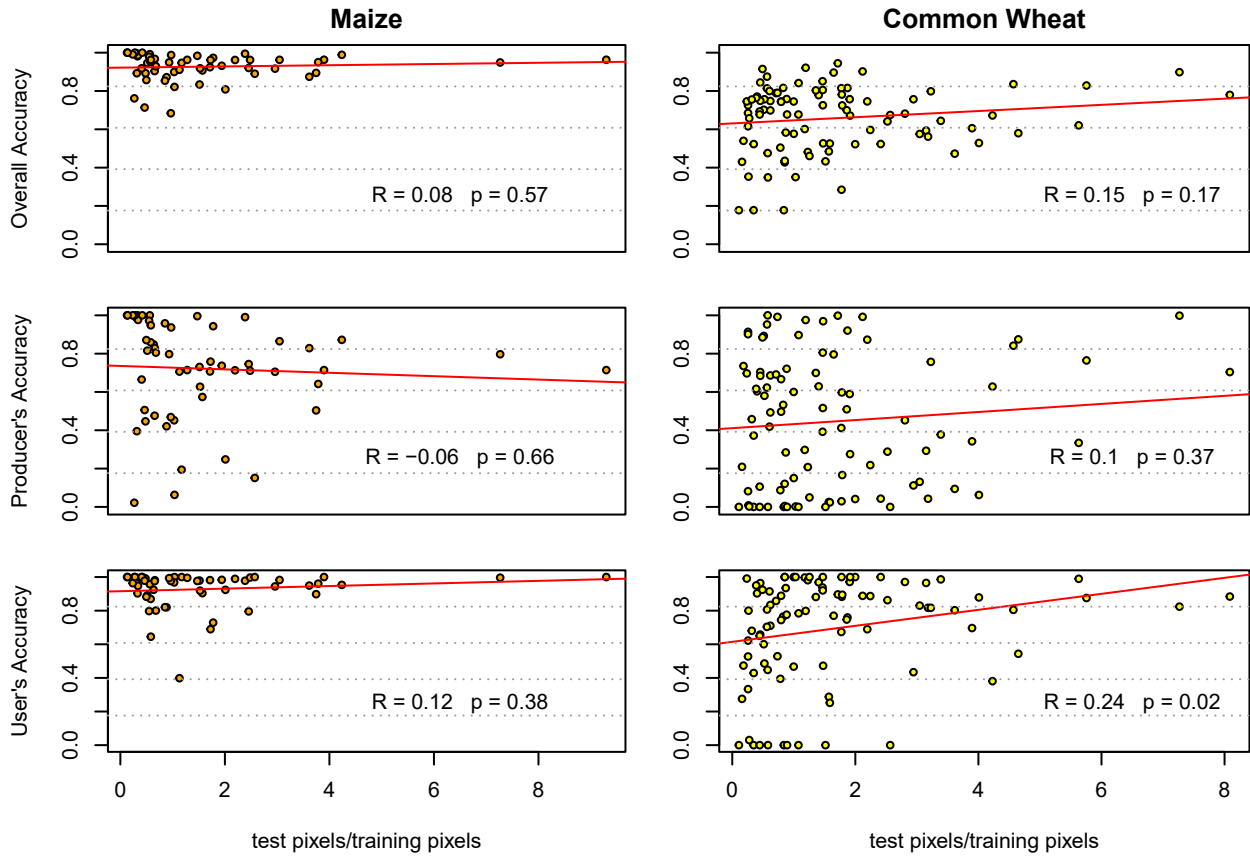


Figure 16: Correlation between ratio of test to training pixels and reached accuracies

## Number of training sites

Accounting for the small number of training sites in some regions (Table 1), accuracies were tested for correlation with the number of used training sites. A low number of sites creates higher homogeneity of the training data and therefore might lead to poorer results as representation of all the variability present in the corresponding class might not be given (Pal and Mather 2003).

Correlation tests show Pearson's R-values between -0.1 and 0.07 and p-values of 0.47 to 0.99. The r-values indicate that there is only a weak relation between reached accuracies and the number of training sites in the several datasets which furthermore points in opposite directions. The high p-values, which can be translated to low confidence intervals of 1% to 53%, verify that the relation between the variables is to be considered random. Consequently the results show no significant correlation between number of training sites and reached accuracies (Figure 17).

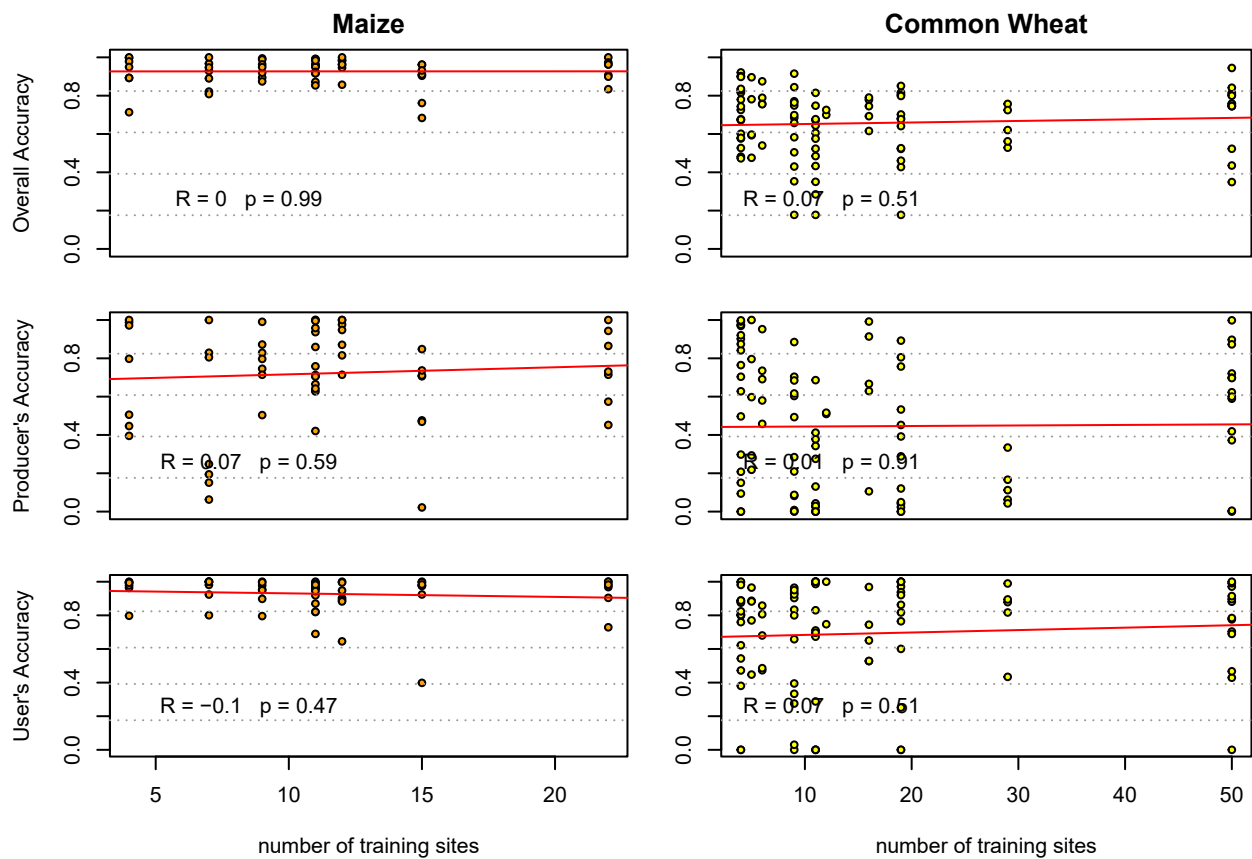


Figure 17: Correlation between number of training sites and reached accuracies

## Correlation between classification results and region properties

### Soil Type

As already proposed by Ringrose et al. (1994), soil background has an influence on the spectral characteristics of vegetated areas. Recent research, such as the study by Piedallu et al. (2019), delves deeper into the impact of soil parameters on the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) derived from satellite data. Notably, factors like water availability and soil nutrition have been identified as crucial contributors to the greenness and, consequently, the resulting NDVI values (Piedallu et al. 2019). Moreover, Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022) identified the Soil Quality Rating (SQR) as a potentially valuable metric for characterizing soil properties, impacting the spatial transferability of Random Forest (RF) models.

Given the limited availability of publicly accessible data with comprehensive information on water availability and soil nutrition, and the uneven availability of the SQR across European regions, the assumption was made that soil falling into the same soil type class according to the World Reference Base for Soil Resources (WRB) (FAO 1998) share similar soil conditions. To validate the classification results, this study assessed the correlation between classification quality metrics, including Overall Accuracy (OA), Producer’s Accuracy (PA), and User’s Accuracy (UA), and the equality resp. inequality of soil types between the training and classification regions (Appendix D: Figures 29 - 34).

Figures 29 - 34 show that for ‘Maize’ and ‘Common Wheat’ classifications, classifications with equal soil type in training and classification region show OAs, PAs and UAs covering the full range from very low values of 0.03 to very high values of 1. There is no correlation between equality of soil type and better classification results.

### Total Distance

According to *Tobler’s first law of geography* (“everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things.” (Tobler 1970)), the correlation between spatial proximity of training and classification region and the reached classification accuracies was examined. Distances between the regions were approximated by using the center points (identified using GIS) of each region for calculation. The distances were ascertained using equation 4 to calculate the distance of two points located on a sphere, following the laws of spherical trigonometry (Kells, Kern, and Bland 1940):

$$distance = r * acos(sin(lat1) * sin(lat2) + cos(lat1) * cos(lat2) * cos(lon2 - lon1)) \quad (4)$$

with

r = radius (approx. 6.370 km),

lat1/lat2 = latitudes of both locations,

lon1/lon2 = longitudes of both locations

Correlation analyses were conducted, revealing Pearson’s R-values ranging from -0.22 to 0.07, with corresponding p-values falling within the range of 0.04 to 0.59. The computed r-values suggest that there exists a generally weak, predominantly negative correlation between the achieved classification accuracies and the total spatial distance between training and classification regions. Specifically, the p-value associated with the correlation analysis between User’s Accuracy (UA) for ‘Common Wheat’ classifications and the total distance



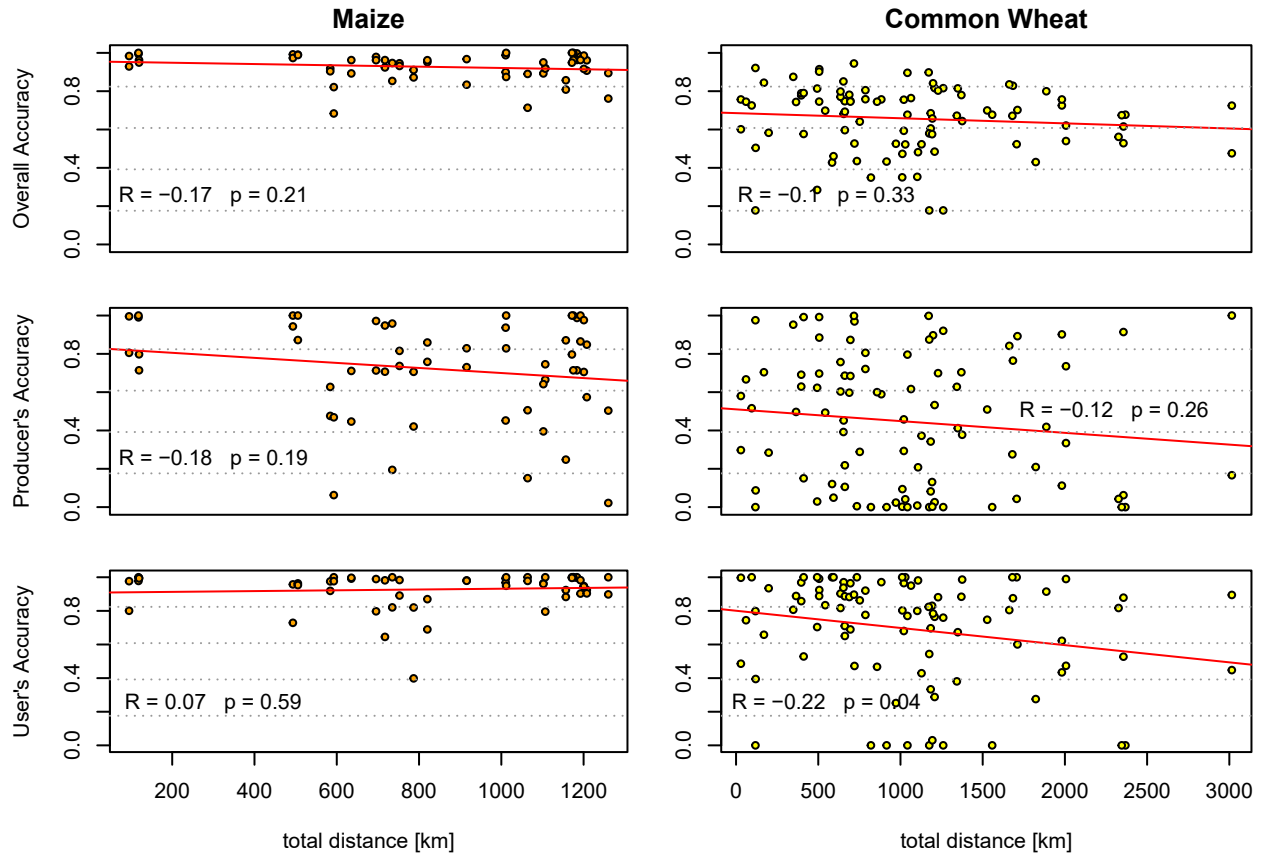


Figure 18: Correlation between total distance of training and classification region and reached accuracies

separating the training and classification regions indicates a statistically significant, albeit weak, negative correlation of -0.22 within a confidence interval of 96%.

The high p-values of the other evaluated relations, which can be translated to low confidence intervals of 41% to 81%, verify that the relation between the variables is to be considered random.

In summary, the findings point to a weak yet statistically significant negative correlation between the total distance separating regions and User's Accuracy in the context of 'Common Wheat' classifications. However, no statistically significant correlations were identified between the total distance and User's Accuracy for 'Maize' classifications, or between the total distance and Overall Accuracy (OA) or Producer's Accuracy (PA) for both crop types (Figure 18).

## Lateral Distance

To explore a potential influence of climate conditions (Ringrose et al. 1994) in training and classification regions on the reached accuracies, correlation between lateral distance and classification results was examined.

Climate is influenced by a multitude of parameters (Stevens 2010). Typically classification of regional climate is accomplished by categorizing regions into climate zones as initially acquired by Köppen (1900), with its latest version published in 1961 by Geiger (1961). This kind of classification results in nominal classes which each comprises a set of characteristics, qualifying a region for one or another climate zone.

To take into account the possible influence of climatic conditions (Ringrose et al. 1994) prevailing in the individual regions, a statistical analysis of metric values instead of nominal classes is favorable. Therefore, in the presented study, latitude served as proxy for climate conditions of the regions as latitude is one of the important influencing parameters when it comes to regional climate (Stevens 2010).

Analogous to the calculation of the absolute distance between regions, the center point of each region was located using GIS. The lateral distance was then calculated by multiplying the distance between latitudes by 111 km which is the approximate distance between two neighboring latitudinal lines and thereby gave the lateral distance between the two center points (equation 5).

$$latDistance = |lat1 - lat2| * 111km \quad (5)$$

Correlation tests produced a range of Pearson's R-values from -0.14 to 0.17, with corresponding p-values between 0.17 and 0.63 (Figure 19). These results suggest that there is only a weak connection between classification accuracies and the lateral distance between training and classification regions.

The relatively high p-values, which imply confidence levels between 37% and 83%, indicate that this relationship between variables appears to be random.

In summary, the study did not find any statistically significant correlation between the lateral distance separating regions and the achieved classification accuracies (Figure 19).

## Altitude difference

Orynbaikyzy, Gessner, and Conrad (2022) found indications, that regions located at higher average altitudes show greater losses in classification accuracies compared to regions at lower altitudes.

To analyze a possible relation between classification accuracies and altitude, for each training resp. classification region, the average altitude was ascertained, combining the region polygons with the publicly available elevation dataset *Global Mid-resolution Terrain Elevation Data 2010 (GMTED2010)* (Danielson and Gesch 2011) and calculating local statistics in GIS (Table 4).

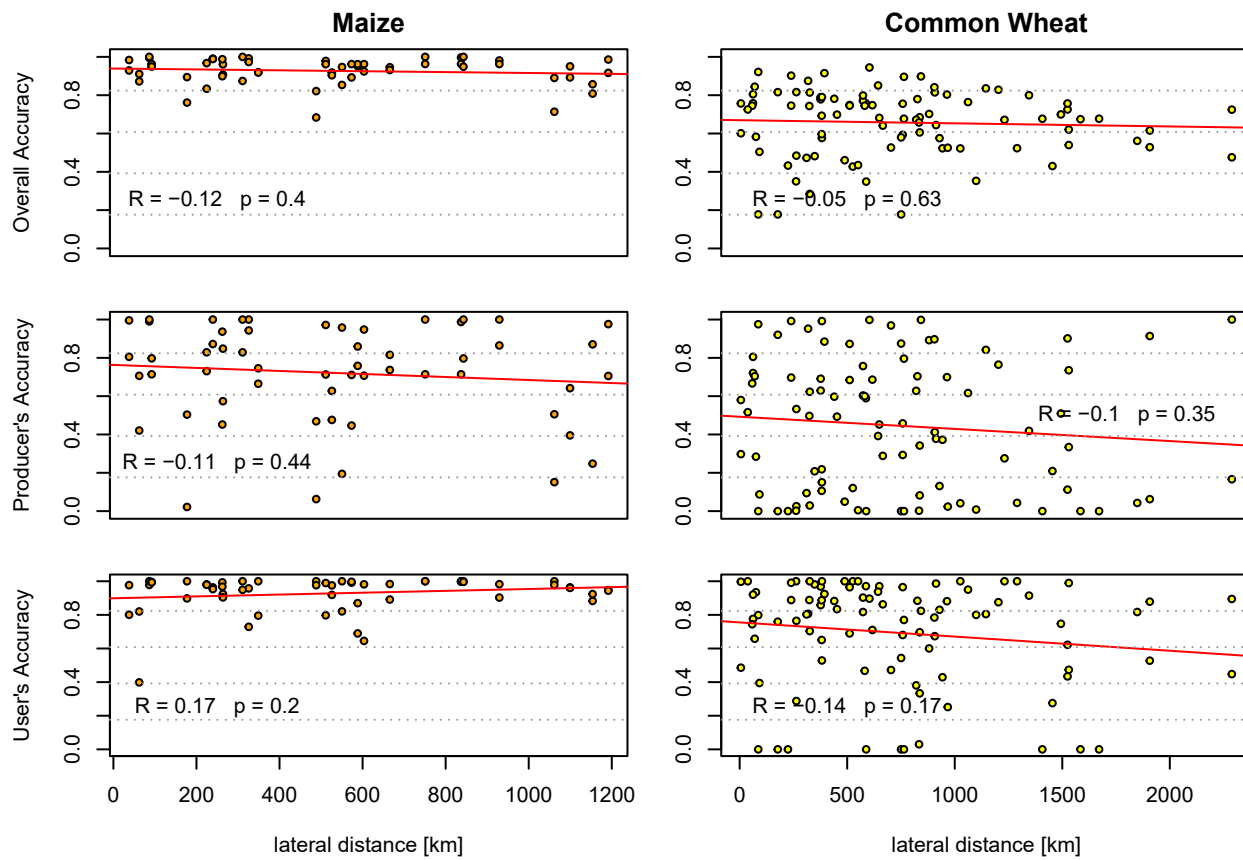


Figure 19: Correlation between lateral distance of training and classification region and reached accuracies

Table 4: Altitude of study regions with minimum, maximum and average elevation height

Region	MIN	MAX	MEAN
PZha-1	-2	154	33.99197
LVha-2	-4	164	41.55583
CMeu-2	-2	166	36.90239
CMca-1	-24	181	35.58366
CMeu-4	0	229	74.62006
LVha-3	17	280	83.45947
CMdy-1	-5	315	105.62546
PZha-2	0	318	88.87766
CMeu-3	2	331	124.35956
CMdy-3	0	332	59.80754
LVha-1	-47	356	113.27975
CMeu-1	-5	951	43.69129
CMdy-2	126	951	481.69786
CMca-2	513	1082	814.38236

Subsequently, the reached classification accuracies were tested for correlation with altitude of training (figure 21) resp. classification region (figure 22) and the height difference between these regions (figure 20).

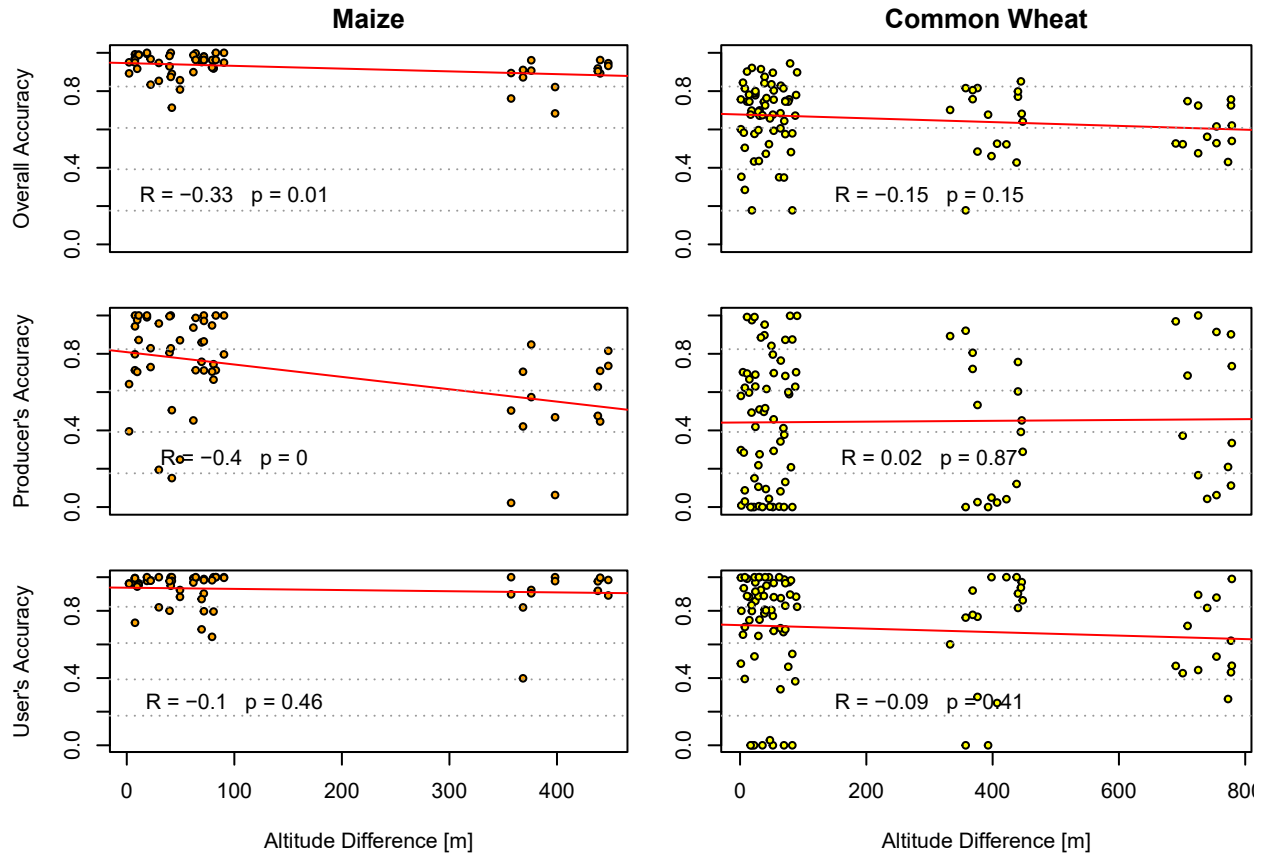


Figure 20: Correlation between altitude difference of training and classification region and reached accuracies

Correlation tests show Pearson's R-values ranging from -0.4 to 0.02, with corresponding p-values between 0.00 and 0.87.

For 'Maize' classifications, a weak to medium negative correlation was detected, particularly notable for Producer's Accuracy (PA) and Overall Accuracy (OA) at confidence intervals of 100% and 99%, respectively. However, this correlation is not significant when comparing User's Accuracy (UA) and altitude difference.

In the case of 'Common Wheat' classifications, there is a weak and mostly negative correlation between reached accuracies and altitude difference. These correlations are not statistically significant, with p-values ranging from 0.15 to 0.87.

In summary, the results show a significant weak to medium negative correlation between altitude difference and PA or OA for 'Maize' classifications, while 'Common Wheat' classifications did not show any significant correlation with altitude difference. (Figure 20).

## Altitude Training Region

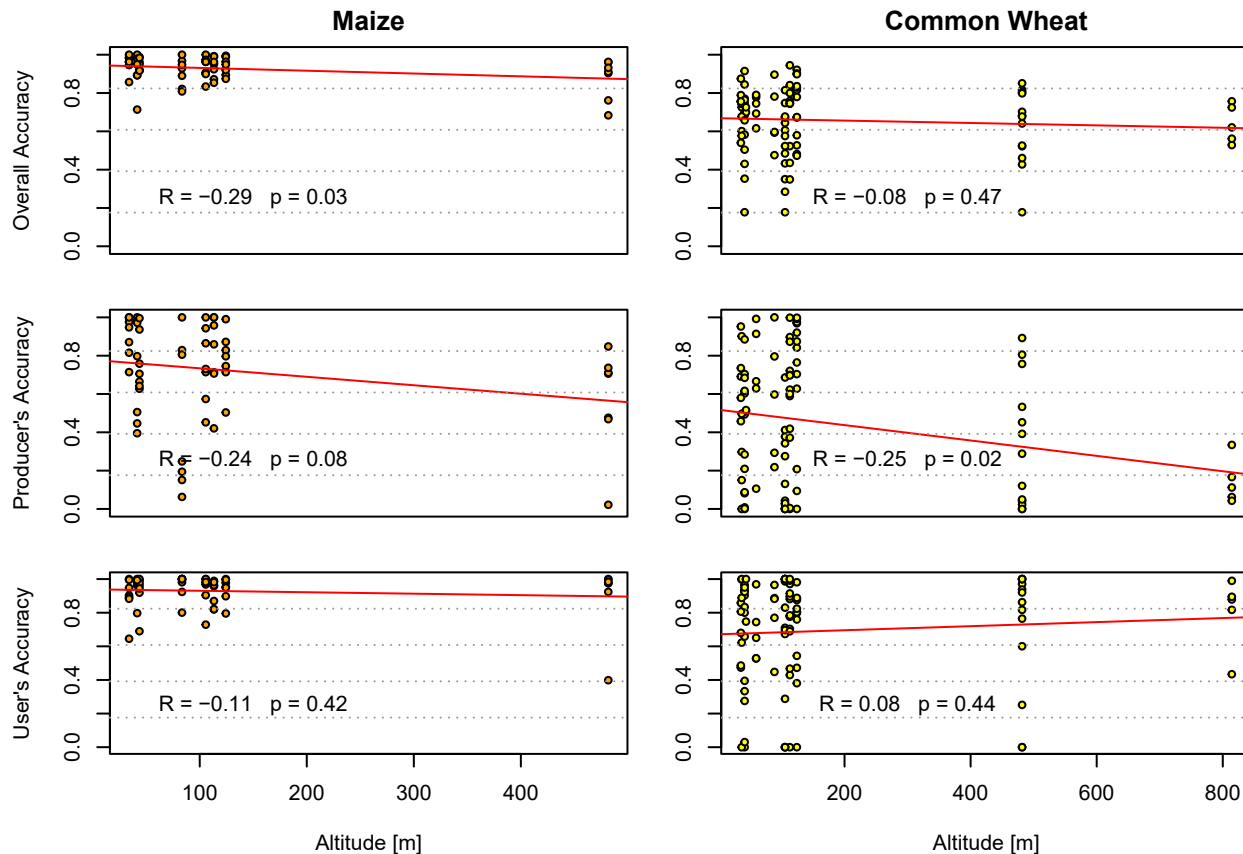


Figure 21: Correlation between altitude of training regions and reached accuracies

The correlation tests yielded Pearson's R-values ranging from -0.29 to 0.08, accompanied by p-values between 0.02 and 0.47.

For 'Maize' classifications, a medium negative correlation can be observed, particularly noteworthy for Producer's Accuracy (PA) and Overall Accuracy (OA), with significance levels of 92% and 97%, respectively. However, this correlation is not significant when comparing User's Accuracy (UA) and the altitude of the training region.

'Common Wheat' classifications show a medium negative correlation between reached PAs and the altitude of training regions, which is significant at a 92% confidence level. Overall Accuracy (OA) and User's Accuracy (UA) do not exhibit any significant correlation, with p-values of 0.47 and 0.44, respectively.

In summary, these findings reveal a significant negative correlation between the altitude of training regions and PA resp. OA for 'Maize' classifications, as well as a significant negative correlation between the altitude of training regions and reached PAs for 'Common Wheat' classifications. However, there was no significant correlation detected between the altitude of training regions and UA for both 'Maize' and 'Common Wheat' classifications, as well as OA for 'Common Wheat' classifications (Figure 21).

## Altitude Classification Region

Correlation tests show Pearson's R-values between -0.26 and 0.29 and corresponding p-values between 0.01 and 0.54.

'Maize' classifications show a weak to medium negative correlation between the altitude of classification regions and reached accuracies. This correlation is significant for Producer's Accuracy (PA) within a 95% confidence interval, but it does not reach significance for User's Accuracies (UAs) resp. Overall Accuracies (OAs).

In the case of 'Common Wheat' classifications a medium positive correlation between reached PAs and altitude of classified regions was detected, as well as weak to medium negative correlations between UAs and altitude of the classification regions. These correlations are significant at confidence levels of 99% and 97%, respectively. However, there was no significant correlation with OAs (p-value of 0.24).

To summarize, the results indicate a significant negative correlation between the altitude of classification regions and PAs for 'Maize' classifications, as well as a significant positive correlation between altitude and reached PAs for 'Common Wheat' classifications. No significant correlations were observed between the altitude of classification regions and UAs resp. OAs for 'Maize,' and OAs for 'Common Wheat' classifications (Figure 22).

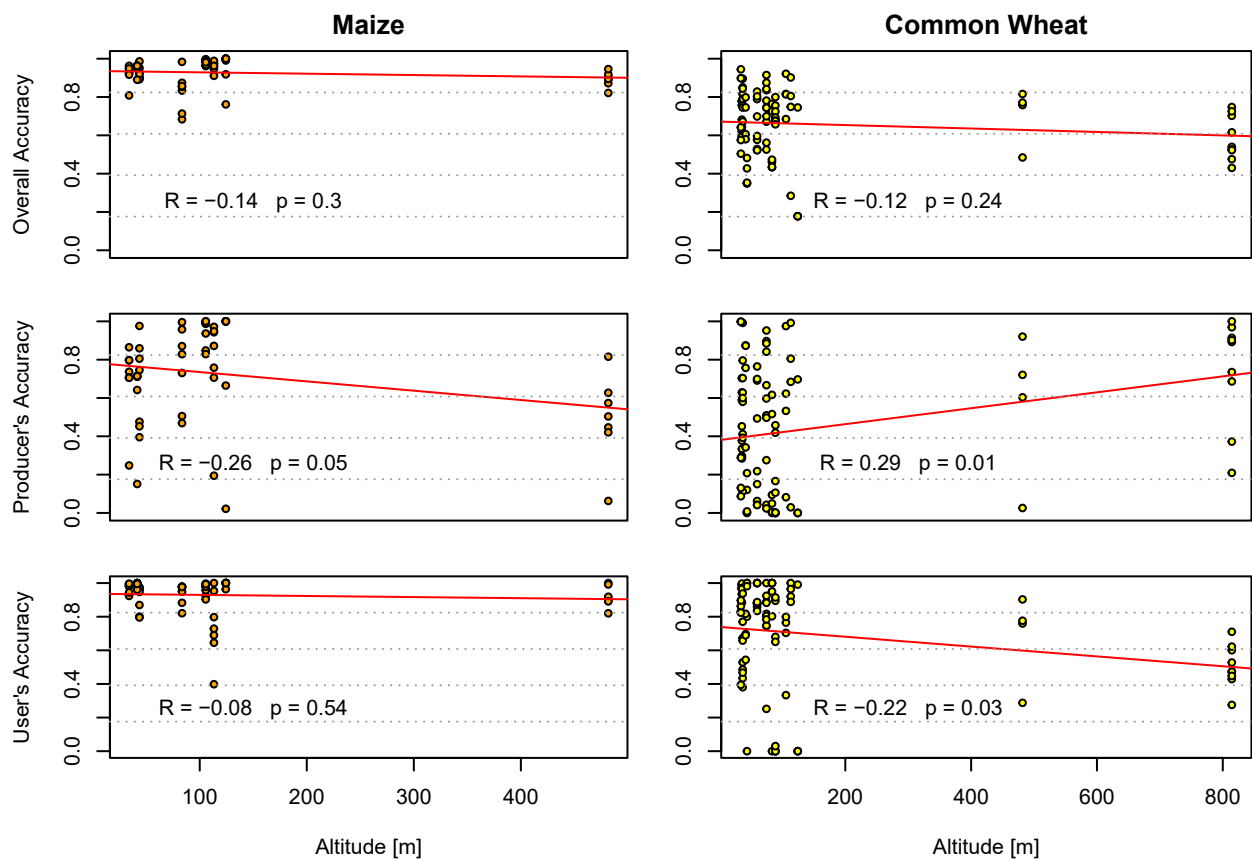


Figure 22: Correlation between altitude of classification region and reached accuracies

## Discussion

Classifications which yield high OAs ( $> 0.8$ ) but only medium to low UAs and PAs ( $< 0.8$ ) for the target class ('Maize' resp. 'Common Wheat') are not considered successful. This might be the case when class 'Other' shows high accuracies but the target class itself is not reliably identified. This approach ensures that only classifications which were able to correctly identify a high proportion of the target class are counted as success.

The findings of this experiments show that there is no clear answer to the question if a RF classifier can be spatially transferred to classify crop types of a different region.

The multi-class classification results indicate, that it strongly depends on the selected target crop type, if the classification of a remote region can be successful. Class 'Barley' was very poorly identified in most of the classifications, whereas classification of 'Common Wheat' showed mixed results and 'Maize' identification worked very well in many cases. To evaluate the identifiability of the target crop types 'Maize' and 'Common Wheat', a binary approach was followed after this discovery.

Binary classifications for crop type 'Maize' showed very promising results regarding OAs, whereas classifications of 'Common Wheat' resulted in a wider range of OAs from values  $< 0.2$  to high OAs of  $> 0.8$ .

Regarding User's and Producer's Accuracies for both crop types, UAs showed much better results than PAs. High UAs indicate that the as target crop classified pixels are very likely to belong to the corresponding class in the ground truth data set. Lower PAs on the other hand indicate that areas belonging to the specific target crop type in reality (i.e. in the ground truth data), were not reliably identified as such.

'Maize' classifications showed very good results ( $> 0.8$ ) for UAs and medium results for the corresponding PAs. 45% of all binary 'Maize' classifications showed high PA and UA simultaneously and can therefore be considered a success.

Even though half of all 'Common Wheat' classifications yielded in UAs  $> 0.8$ , a high number of Wheat fields (as presented in the ground truth data) was not correctly identified as such which lead to low PAs in a majority of the classifications.

Consulting the spectral profiles of 'Maize' and 'Common Wheat' and the corresponding class 'Other', shows higher similarities for 'Common Wheat' and 'Other'. Ergo distinction between those classes is less reliable. This might be one of the main reasons for the high differences of reached accuracies for the target crop types.

## Methodical influence on results

As shown in Figure 11, unequally distributed training pixel counts between the classes did not influence the results of the multi-class classifications.

The subsequently executed binary classifications of maize, resp. the post-processing calculated accuracies for binary wheat classifications came along with a high imbalance due to the merging of all non-target classes pixels to one class 'Other'. Evaluation of corresponding correlations in the binary classifications showed different results for 'Maize' and 'Common Wheat'. There is a highly significant negative correlation between class imbalance and reached OAs resp. PAs for 'Common Wheat' classifications. On the other hand, 'Maize' classifications showed a significant positive correlation between imbalance and PA of class 'Maize'. Correlation test results of 'Maize' classifications indicate, that a higher imbalance and more reliable identification (less

false negatives) of the corresponding class are correlated. This finding not only contradicts ‘Common Wheat’ results but also what one would expect. Consulting figure 14 reveals that only a small number of data points with low PA and low imbalance accounted for the positive correlation of PA and Imbalance Index in ‘Maize’ classifications. Possibly but not conclusively these data points depict outliers that obscure the results. To further investigate the connection between imbalance and reached accuracies, more classifications with widely varying class imbalance should be evaluated.

As shown in figure 15, there is no correlation between the absolute number of training pixels, and reached accuracies which is in accordance with the findings of Rodriguez-Galiano et al. (2012). However, results showed that there is a weak but significant positive correlation between the ratio of test to training pixels and reached UAs of class ‘Common Wheat’. This indicates that a higher potential intra-class variance in the test data due to a proportionally high number of test pixels and/or lower potential variance in the training data due to proportionally less training pixels yield in better classification results. This finding is contrary to the expected potential relation.

UAs of ‘Maize’ classifications and OAs and PAs for ‘Maize’ and ‘Common Wheat’ did not show this unexpected relation or at least with p-values of 0.17 to 0.66 no significance of the correlation.

Figure 15 shows that the majority of classifications have a test/training ratio between  $>0$  and 4. Only a few data points show a higher ratio up to 8 (for wheat classification). Thus the significant positive correlation between UAs of wheat and the discussed ratio could be reducible to an insufficient amount of data at the higher end of the scale. A more regular distributed dataset in regard to test/training ratio could give more insights in a possible correlation.

Another measure for the potential variance in the used training data is the number of training sites. Even if there is a high number of training pixels, the inherent variance is potentially lower as they originate from a low number of sites compared to a higher number of training sites. This is based on the assumption that pixels from the same site show a lower spectral variance than pixels of the same class from differing training sites. Figure 17 shows that even classifications based on a very low number of training sites (min. = 2) did not produce significantly poorer results than classifications with a higher or even very high number of training sites.

## Region specific influence on results

According to this study, equality of soil types in training and classification region does not increase the capability of classifiers to identify the target crop types. However, soil types according to the World Reference Base for Soil Resources (WRB) (FAO 1998) do not explicitly reflect metric soil characteristics like water availability or soil nutrition which are important factors according to Piedallu et al. (2019). Correlating classification results with individual metric parameters could get a better insight in possible correlations regarding the influence of differences or similarities of soil properties between training and classification region on the one hand and reached classification accuracies on the other hand. As this study aims to provide insights on the potential of classifying crop types in regions without available training data from the corresponding site, using publicly available data, this approach however was not considered due to a lack of comprehensive data. It must be mentioned that proper statistical analysis of correlation of nominal soil type classes and reached accuracies requires a sufficient number of regions per soil type. Due to the exclusion of unreliable data and subsequent filtering during data processing, this criterion can not be met in this study.



Also the associated very high number of classifications resulting from combinations of a higher number of training and classification regions exceeds the means of this thesis.

The results indicate a weak negative correlation between total distance of training and classification region and reached User's Accuracies for classifications of 'Common Wheat'. With increasing total distance, the proportion of falsely as wheat classified pixels increased significantly. This finding however is based on a data set with only a few data points showing distances  $> 2,000$  km.

'Maize' classifications did not show this correlation whereby the maximum distance between "Maize regions" lies at about 1,260 km and the maximum distance between "Wheat regions" lies at about 3,015 km. Consulting Figure 18 shows that in the distance range up to about 2,000 km, also Wheat UAs did not show a significant decrease with increasing distance. Based on this finding, for better understanding the potential correlation, further studies need to be carried out, including more regions with distances  $> 2,000$  km. These could on the one hand bring clarification if the observed correlation for 'Common Wheat' UAs is based on coincidentally low UAs for high distances, rooting it too less data points and on the other hand, if the lack of correlation for 'Maize' classifications is based on a lack of data points for higher distances.

Evaluating the relation between lateral distance and reached accuracies showed no significant correlations. Same as for total distances, the number of data points with higher lateral distances is comparably low. Showing no significant correlation however indicates that the total distance has a higher influence on the classification quality than lateral distance. Similar to the parameter "soil type" which is used as proxy for a variety of not directly available soil parameters, the parameter "lateral distance" serves as proxy for climate conditions. As climate is not only influenced by latitude of a region, this proxy might not sufficiently display differences in prevailing climate conditions in the individual regions. Better understanding could be produced by including additional metric parameters like differences of air temperature and precipitation prevailing in training and classification region. Using climate zones as nominal parameters (analogous to soil types) could also increase the understanding of possible coherencies. However using nominal classes limits the deployment of statistical analysis. To statistically analyse correlation between (in-)equality of climate zones in training and classification region and reached classification accuracies, a sufficient number of regions located in equal resp. unequal climate zones is required and thereby bears a disproportionate effort.

'Maize' classifications showed some training resp. classification regions outperforming others by consistently achieving high PAs and UAs simultaneously. This indicates that region specific conditions - despite the lack of previously discovered correlations - are likely to have an influence on the 'Maize' classification results. On the other hand, no outstandingly well performing training resp. classification regions could be identified in 'Common Wheat' classifications.

## Conclusion

This study provides initial insights into the potential utilization of remotely acquired ground truth data for crop type classification in a specific region. Notably, 'Maize' classifications exhibited excellent overall accuracies (OA) and demonstrated promising results in terms of user accuracy (UA) and producer accuracy (PA) in many cases. In contrast, 'Common Wheat' classifications yielded mixed results, while 'Barley' classifications consistently failed to achieve high accuracies.

No conclusive correlations between methodic parameters and reached classification accuracies could be

identified. Statistically significant results for correlation of high imbalance with low accuracies turned out partly contradicting each other. Also none of the evaluated region parameters “soil type”, “altitude”, “total distance” and “lateral distance” shows a clear influence on classification results, even though some regions perform distinctively better than others as training resp. classification region for class ‘Maize’.

The finding that some regions perform noticeably better than others for ‘Maize’ classification supports the impression that region specific conditions which have not been discovered in this study might have a substantial influence on the performance as training resp. classification region. The differences between training and classification region however seem to play no considerable role as well performing regions serve as potent training regions even for very different classification regions in terms of soil type and spatial resp. elevation differences. Even though there are no conclusive results regarding importance of class balance, some results indicate that using a well balanced training set can lead to better classification results. Differences in class balance between the regions could partly contribute to the differently well performing regions.

Due to the initially planned multi-class approach and the accordingly tailored ground truths data set, some experimental conditions like the coverage of higher distances, altitude differences and soil types did not ideally fulfill the requirements. Also the objective to use comprehensively available parameters to test them for correlation with the achieved results might have lead to oversimplification and therefore possibly obscured existing correlations between classification results and climate resp. soil conditions.

Further studies should focus on more distinct, preferably metric soil and climate parameters to enable a clear statistical analysis of their influence. Additionally, covering higher spatial distances between the regions with a sufficient number of classifications is necessary to evaluate, if the partly detected and sometimes contradicting correlations are caused by an insufficient dataset, lacking a sufficiently high number of higher distanced regions. Additionally other crop types could be evaluated for their suitability for this approach as it is clearly shown, that the identifiability of crop types using the depicted approach, varies strongly between different crop types.

Studying the correlations between class imbalance and reached accuracies also can be of interest to increase understanding on this topic.

The primary findings of this study can be summarized as follows:

- a) For some crop types (e.g. ‘Maize’) a lack of training data from the classification region might be overcome by using data from remotely located regions. However the applicability of this approach seems mainly to depend on spectral characteristics of the crop types themselves and is not generally suitable for all crop types.
- b) Some regions perform very well as training location in a wide range of region combinations. This indicates that it might be possible to use these to create sets of representative training data for specific suitable (as indicated in finding “a”) crop types which can be successfully utilized for classifications independent of the availability of on-site training data.

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# Appendix

Appendix A: Google Earth Engine Code

Appendix B: Generated and derived data from classifications

Appendix C: Classification accuracies multi-class classifications

Appendix D: Region combination matrices

Appendix E: Spectral profiles of 'Maize', 'Common Wheat' and 'Other'

**Appendix A-1:**

**Google Earth Engine Code 'multi-class'**

The following data sets are imported to the Google Earth Engine:

- var regions: regions.shp geometry of the individual study regions
- var geometry: geometry.shp used to pre-define the extent
- var training: train\_data.shp training/test data

The following script was used for the multi-class classifications. The following script was used to classify pixels utilizing a classifier, trained in region “LVha-1”. This script is representative for all multi-class classifications and can be modified by (un-)commenting to perform all other multi-class classifications analogously.

```
// Define the regions of interest (ROIs) as a feature collection
var roi = regions;

// Define a list of region names
var regionNames = ['LVha-1', 'LVha-2', 'CMeu-3', 'CMdy-1', 'CMdy-2', 'CMeu-1',
                  'CMca-1', 'CMca-2', 'CMdy-3', 'PZha-2', 'CMeu-2', 'PZha-1', 'CMeu-4',
                  'LVha-3'];

// add Sentinel-2 imageCollection and filter by date and geometry
var S2 = ee.ImageCollection('COPERNICUS/S2_SR')
    .filterDate('2018-04-01', '2018-10-31')
    .filterBounds(geometry);

//function to calculate NDVI
function addNDVI(image) {
  var ndvi = image.normalizedDifference(['B8', 'B4'])
  return image.addBands(ndvi.rename('NDVI'));
}

// map function over imageCollection, keeping only bandy NDVI 01-14 and SCL 01-14
var NDVI_S2 = S2.map(addNDVI).select(['NDVI', 'SCL']);

//subset imageCollection by date range and composite greenest pixel values
//(max NDVIs) to one image

var composite = NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-04-01', '2018-04-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('01', 'CLD01')
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-04-16', '2018-04-30').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('02', 'CLD02'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-05-01', '2018-05-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('03', 'CLD03'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-05-16', '2018-05-23').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('04', 'CLD04'))
```



```

.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-06-01','2018-06-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('05', 'CLD05'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-06-16','2018-06-30').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('06', 'CLD06'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-07-01','2018-07-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('07', 'CLD07'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-07-16','2018-07-31').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('08', 'CLD08'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-08-01','2018-08-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('09', 'CLD09'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-08-16','2018-08-31').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('10', 'CLD10'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-09-01','2018-09-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('11', 'CLD11'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-09-16','2018-09-30').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('12', 'CLD12'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-10-01','2018-10-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('13', 'CLD13'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-10-16','2018-10-31').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('14', 'CLD14'))

// clip 28-band composite to the individual study regions and assign a variable each
var LVha1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'LVha-1')))
  .set({region:"LVha-1"});
var LVha2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'LVha-2')))
  .set({region:"LVha-2"});
var CMeu3 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMeu-3')))
  .set({region:"CMeu-3"});
var CMdy1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMdy-1')))
  .set({region:"CMdy-1"});
var CMdy2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMdy-2')))
  .set({region:"CMdy-2"});
var CMeu1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMeu-1')))
  .set({region:"CMeu-1"});
var CMca1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMca-1')))
  .set({region:"CMca-1"});
var CMca2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMca-2')))
  .set({region:"CMca-2"});
var CMdy3 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMdy-3')))
  .set({region:"CMdy-3"});
var PZha2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'PZha-2')))
  .set({region:"PZha-2"});
var CMeu2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMeu-2')))

```

```

    .set({region:"CMeu-2"});
var PZha1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'PZha-1')))
    .set({region:"PZha-1"});
var CMeu4 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'CMeu-4')))
    .set({region:"CMeu-4"});
var LVha3 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name', 'LVha-3')))
    .set({region:"LVha-3"});

//===== classifications
// define variables for classifier
var label = "class";
var class_bands = ['01','02','03','04','05','06','07','08','09', '10',
                  '11','12','13','14']

// Training data

// create list of all image subsets (individual regions)
var imageList = ee.List([LVha1,LVha2,CMeu3,CMdy1,CMdy2,CMeu1,CMca1,CMca2,
                        CMdy3,PZha2,CMeu2,PZha1,CMeu4,LVha3]);

// function to access training data from featureCollection for each region
// separately
function pixels(img){
  return img.sampleRegions({
    collection: training.filter(ee.Filter.eq("region",img.get("region"))),
    properties:["class", "region"],
    scale:10
  })
}

// Mapping the function to all "greenest pixel" images
// (Source: Oliver Lopez Stackexchange)
var N = imageList.size();
var s = ee.List.sequence(0,N.subtract(1));

var results = ee.FeatureCollection(s.map(function(n){
  return pixels(ee.Image(imageList.get(n)));
}
)).flatten();

// Apply cloud-filter to FeatureCollection, masking out cloudy features and

```

```
// no-data features
var featureList = results.filter(ee.Filter.and(ee.Filter.neq('CLD01', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD02', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD03', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD04', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD05', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD06', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD07', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD08', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD09', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD10', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD11', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD12', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD13', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD14', 0),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD01', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD02', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD03', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD04', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD05', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD06', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD07', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD08', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD09', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD10', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD11', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD12', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD13', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD14', 8),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD01', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD02', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD03', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD04', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD05', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD06', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD07', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD08', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD09', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD10', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD11', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD12', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD13', 9),
    ee.Filter.neq('CLD14', 9)));
```

```

// function to assign training data
function trainingData(regionName) {
  var region_assigned = featureList.filterMetadata("region", "equals", regionName)
  return region_assigned;
}

// execute function (here for region LVha)
var LVha1_train = trainingData('LVha-1')
//var LVha2_train = trainingData('LVha-2')
//var CMeu3_train = trainingData('CMeu-3')
//var CMdy1_train = trainingData('CMdy-1')
//var CMdy2_train = trainingData('CMdy-2')
//var CMeu1_train = trainingData('CMeu-1')
//var CMca1_train = trainingData('CMca-1')
//var CMca2_train = trainingData('CMca-2')
//var CMdy3_train = trainingData('CMdy-3')
//var CMeu5_train = trainingData('CMeu-5')
//var PZha2_train = trainingData('PZha-2')
//var PZha3_train = trainingData('PZha-3')
//var CMeu2_train = trainingData('CMeu-2')
//var PZha1_train = trainingData('PZha-1')
//var CMeu4_train = trainingData('CMeu-4')
//var CMca3_train = trainingData('CMca-3')
//var LVha3_train = trainingData('LVha-3')

// assigning test data for each except the training region (here: LVha1)
//var LVha1_test = trainingData('LVha-1')
var LVha2_test = trainingData('LVha-2')
var CMeu3_test = trainingData('CMeu-3')
var CMdy1_test = trainingData('CMdy-1')
var CMdy2_test = trainingData('CMdy-2')
var CMeu1_test = trainingData('CMeu-1')
var CMca1_test = trainingData('CMca-1')
var CMca2_test = trainingData('CMca-2')
var CMdy3_test = trainingData('CMdy-3')
var PZha2_test = trainingData('PZha-2')
var CMeu2_test = trainingData('CMeu-2')
var PZha1_test = trainingData('PZha-1')
var CMeu4_test = trainingData('CMeu-4')
var LVha3_test = trainingData('LVha-3')

```

```

// create list of test data (without training region LVha1)
var testList = LVha2_test
// .merge(LVha1_test)
  .merge(CMeu3_test)
  .merge(CMdy1_test)
  .merge(CMdy2_test)
  .merge(CMeu1_test)

// .merge(CMca1_test)
// .merge(CMca2_test)
// .merge(CMdy3_test)
// .merge(PZha2_test)

// .merge(CMeu2_test)
// .merge(PZha1_test)
// .merge(CMeu4_test)
// .merge(LVha3_test);

// Make a Random Forest classifier and train it (here on LVha1 training data).
var classifier = ee.Classifier.smileRandomForest(100)
  .train({
    features: LVha1_train,
    classProperty: label,
    inputProperties: class_bands
  });

// classify the images of all regions except training region (here: LVha1)
// this step is split up (commented) to keep the calculation cost per run manageable

//var classified_2to01 = LVha1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_2to02 = LVha2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_2to03 = CMeu3.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_2to04 = CMdy1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_2to05 = CMdy2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_2to06 = CMeu1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);

//var classified_2to07 = CMca1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
//var classified_2to08 = CMca2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
//var classified_2to09 = CMdy3.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);

```

```

//var classified_2to11 = PZha2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);

//var classified_1to13 = CMeu2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
//var classified_1to14 = PZha1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
//var classified_1to15 = CMeu4.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
//var classified_1to17 = LVha3.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);

// Accuracy Assessment
function confusionMatrix(regionName) {
    var testdat_region = testList.filterMetadata("region", "equals", regionName)
    return ee.ConfusionMatrix(testdat_region.classify(classifier).errorMatrix({
        actual: "class",
        predicted: "classification"
    }));
}

//
//var OA_2to01 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('LVha-1').accuracy());
var OA_2to02 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('LVha-2').accuracy());
var OA_2to03 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMeu-3').accuracy());
var OA_2to04 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMdy-1').accuracy());
var OA_2to05 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMdy-2').accuracy());
var OA_2to06 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMeu-1').accuracy());

//var OA_2to07 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMca-1').accuracy());
//var OA_2to08 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMca-2').accuracy());
//var OA_2to09 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMdy-3').accuracy());
//var OA_2to11 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('PZha-2').accuracy());

//var OA_2to13 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMeu-2').accuracy());
//var OA_2to14 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('PZha-1').accuracy());
//var OA_2to15 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMeu-4').accuracy());
//var OA_2to17 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('LVha-3').accuracy());

// print Overall Accuracy (OA)
//print(OA_2to01)
print(OA_2to02)
print(OA_2to03)
print(OA_2to04)
print(OA_2to05)
print(OA_2to06)

//print(OA_2to07)
//print(OA_2to08)

```

```

//print(OA_2to09)
//print(OA_2to11)

//print(OA_2to13)
//print(OA_2to14)
//print(OA_2to15)
//print(OA_2to17)

// print training data
print(LVha1_train, 'LVha1 train')

// print training data separated by class
print(LVha1_train.filter(ee.Filter.eq('class', 0)), 'LVha-1 train, class 0')
print(LVha1_train.filter(ee.Filter.eq('class', 1)), 'LVha-1 train, class 1')
print(LVha1_train.filter(ee.Filter.eq('class', 2)), 'LVha-1 train, class 2')
print(LVha1_train.filter(ee.Filter.eq('class', 3)), 'LVha-1 train, class 3')

// print classification info
print(classifier.explain());

// print confusion matrices
//print(confusionMatrix('LVha-1'))
print(confusionMatrix('LVha-2'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMeu-3'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMdy-1'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMdy-2'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMeu-1'))

// map classification results (representatively for the first 5 classifications)
var palette = [
  'grey',
  'yellow',
  'brown',
  'orange'
];

Map.addLayer(classified_2to02, {
  min: 0,
  max: palette.length - 1,
  palette: palette
})
Map.addLayer(classified_2to03,{

```

```
    min: 0,  
    max: palette.length - 1,  
    palette: palette  
  })  
  Map.addLayer(classified_2to04,{  
    min: 0,  
    max: palette.length - 1,  
    palette: palette  
  })  
  Map.addLayer(classified_2to05,{  
    min: 0,  
    max: palette.length - 1,  
    palette: palette  
  })  
  Map.addLayer(classified_2to06,{  
    min: 0,  
    max: palette.length - 1,  
    palette: palette  
  })  
})
```



**Appendix A-2:**

**Google Earth Engine Code 'Maize binary'**

‘Maize’ classifications were calculated, using the same input data as the multi-class classifications. The following script was used to identify ‘Maize’ pixels utilizing a classifier, trained in region “LVha-1”. This script is representative for all ‘Maize’ classifications and can be modified by (un-)commenting to perform all other ‘Maize’ classifications analogously.

```
// Define the regions of interest (ROIs) as a feature collection
var roi = regions;

// Define a list of region names
var regionNames = ['LVha-1', 'LVha-2', 'CMeu-3', 'CMdy-1', 'CMdy-2', 'CMeu-1', 'PZha-1',
                  'LVha-3'];

// add Sentinel-2 imageCollection and filter by date and geometry
var S2 = ee.ImageCollection('COPERNICUS/S2_SR')
    .filterDate('2018-04-01', '2018-10-31')
    .filterBounds(geometry);

//function to calculate NDVI
function addNDVI(image) {
  var ndvi = image.normalizedDifference(['B8', 'B4'])
  return image.addBands(ndvi.rename('NDVI'));
}

// map function over imageCollection, keeping only bands NDVI 01-14 and SCL 01-14
var NDVI_S2 = S2.map(addNDVI).select(['NDVI', 'SCL']);

//subset imageCollection by date range and composite greenest pixel values
//(max NDVIs) to one image

var composite = NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-04-01', '2018-04-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('01', 'CLD01')
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-04-16', '2018-04-30').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('02', 'CLD02'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-05-01', '2018-05-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('03', 'CLD03'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-05-16', '2018-05-23').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('04', 'CLD04'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-06-01', '2018-06-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('05', 'CLD05'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-06-16', '2018-06-30').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('06', 'CLD06'))
    .addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-07-01', '2018-07-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
    .rename('07', 'CLD07'))
```

```

.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-07-16','2018-07-31').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('08','CLD08'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-08-01','2018-08-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('09','CLD09'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-08-16','2018-08-31').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('10','CLD10'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-09-01','2018-09-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('11','CLD11'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-09-16','2018-09-30').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('12','CLD12'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-10-01','2018-10-15').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('13','CLD13'))
.addBands(NDVI_S2.filterDate('2018-10-16','2018-10-31').qualityMosaic('NDVI')
  .rename('14','CLD14'));

// clip 28-band composite to the individual study regions and assign a variable each
var LVha1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','LVha-1')))
  .set({region:'LVha-1'});
var LVha2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','LVha-2')))
  .set({region:'LVha-2'});
var CMeu3 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','CMeu-3')))
  .set({region:'CMeu-3'});
var CMdy1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','CMdy-1')))
  .set({region:'CMdy-1'});
var CMdy2 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','CMdy-2')))
  .set({region:'CMdy-2'});
var CMeu1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','CMeu-1')))
  .set({region:'CMeu-1'});
var PZha1 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','PZha-1')))
  .set({region:'PZha-1'});
var LVha3 = composite.clip(roi.filter(ee.Filter.eq('Name','LVha-3')))
  .set({region:'LVha-3'});

//===== classifications

// define variables for classifier
var label = "class_maiz";
var class_bands = ['01','02','03','04','05','06','07','08','09','10','11','12',
  '13','14']

// Training data

```

```

// create list of all image subsets (individual regions)
var imageList = ee.List([LVha1,LVha2,CMeu3,CMdy1,CMdy2,CMeu1,PZha1,LVha3]);

// function to access training data from featureCollection for each region
// separately
function pixels(img){
  return img.sampleRegions({
    collection: training.filter(ee.Filter.eq("region",img.get("region"))),
    properties:["class_maiz", "region"],
    scale:10
  })
}

// Mapping the function to all "greenest pixel" images
// (Source: Oliver Lopez Stackexchange)
var N = imageList.size();
var s = ee.List.sequence(0,N.subtract(1));

var results = ee.FeatureCollection(s.map(function(n){
  return pixels(ee.Image(imageList.get(n)));
}
)).flatten();

// Apply cloud-filter to FeatureCollection, masking out cloudy features and
// no-data features
var featureList = results.filter(ee.Filter.and(ee.Filter.neq('CLD01', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD02', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD03', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD04', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD05', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD06', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD07', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD08', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD09', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD10', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD11', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD12', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD13', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD14', 0),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD01', 8),
      ee.Filter.neq('CLD02', 8),

```

```

ee.Filter.neq('CLD03', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD04', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD05', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD06', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD07', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD08', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD09', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD10', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD11', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD12', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD13', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD14', 8),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD01', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD02', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD03', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD04', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD05', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD06', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD07', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD08', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD09', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD10', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD11', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD12', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD13', 9),
ee.Filter.neq('CLD14', 9));

//assign training data

function trainingData(regionName) {
  var region_assigned = featureList.filterMetadata("region", "equals", regionName)
  return region_assigned;
}

// execute function (here for region LVha)
var LVha1_train = trainingData('LVha-1')
//var LVha2_train = trainingData('LVha-2')
//var CMeu3_train = trainingData('CMeu-3')
//var CMdy1_train = trainingData('CMdy-1')
//var CMdy2_train = trainingData('CMdy-2')
//var CMeu1_train = trainingData('CMeu-1')
//var PZha1_train = trainingData('PZha-1')
//var LVha3_train = trainingData('LVha-3')

```

```

// assigning test data for each except the training region (here: LVha1)
//var LVha1_test = trainingData('LVha-1')
var LVha2_test = trainingData('LVha-2')
var CMeu3_test = trainingData('CMeu-3')
var CMdy1_test = trainingData('CMdy-1')
var CMdy2_test = trainingData('CMdy-2')
var CMeu1_test = trainingData('CMeu-1')
var PZha1_test = trainingData('PZha-1')
var LVha3_test = trainingData('LVha-3')

// create list of test data (without training region LVha1)
var testList = LVha2_test
// .merge(LVha1_test)
  .merge(CMeu3_test)
  .merge(CMdy1_test)
  .merge(CMdy2_test)
  .merge(CMeu1_test)
  .merge(PZha1_test)
  .merge(LVha3_test)

// Make a Random Forest classifier and train it (here on LVha1 training data).
var classifier = ee.Classifier.smileRandomForest(100)
  .train({
    features: LVha1_train,
    classProperty: label,
    inputProperties: class_bands
  });

// classify the images of all regions except training region (here: LVha1)
//var classified_1to01 = LVha1.select(bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to07 = LVha2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to08 = CMeu3.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to09 = CMdy1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to10 = CMdy2.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to11 = CMeu1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to12 = PZha1.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);
var classified_1to13 = LVha3.select(class_bands).classify(classifier);

```

```

// Accuracy Assessment
function confusionMatrix(regionName) {
  var testdat_region = testList.filterMetadata("region", "equals", regionName)
  return ee.ConfusionMatrix(testdat_region.classify(classifier).errorMatrix({
    actual: "class_maiz",
    predicted: "classification"
  }));
}

//var OA_1to01 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('LVha-1').accuracy());
var OA_1to07 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('LVha-2').accuracy());
var OA_1to08 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMeu-3').accuracy());
var OA_1to09 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMdy-1').accuracy());
var OA_1to10 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMdy-2').accuracy());
var OA_1to11 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('CMeu-1').accuracy());
var OA_1to12 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('PZha-1').accuracy());
var OA_1to13 = ee.Feature(confusionMatrix('LVha-3').accuracy());

// print Overall Accuracy (OA)
// print(OA_1to01, 'LVha-1')
print(OA_1to07, 'LVha-2')
print(OA_1to08, 'CMeu-3')
print(OA_1to09, 'CMdy-1')
print(OA_1to10, 'CMdy-2')
print(OA_1to11, 'CMeu-1')
print(OA_1to12, 'PZha-1')
print(OA_1to13, 'LVha-3')

// print training data
print(LVha1_train, 'LVha1 train')

// print training data separated by class
print(LVha1_train.filter(ee.Filter.eq('class_maiz', 0)), 'LVha-1 train, _maiz 0')
print(LVha1_train.filter(ee.Filter.eq('class_maiz', 1)), 'LVha-1 train, _maiz 1')

// print classification info
print(classifier.explain())

// print confusion matrices
//print(confusionMatrix('LVha-1'))
print(confusionMatrix('LVha-2'))

```

```

print(confusionMatrix('CMeu-3'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMdy-1'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMdy-2'))
print(confusionMatrix('CMeu-1'))
print(confusionMatrix('PZha-1'))
print(confusionMatrix('LVha-3'))

// map classification results

var palette = [
  'grey',
  'orange'
];

//Map.addLayer(classified_1to01, {
//min: 0,
//max: palette.length - 1,
//palette: palette
//})

Map.addLayer(classified_1to07, {
min: 0,
max: palette.length - 1,
palette: palette
})

Map.addLayer(classified_1to08, {
min: 0,
max: palette.length - 1,
palette: palette
})

Map.addLayer(classified_1to09, {
min: 0,
max: palette.length - 1,
palette: palette
})

Map.addLayer(classified_1to10, {
min: 0,
max: palette.length - 1,
palette: palette
})

```



```
})  
  
Map.addLayer(classified_1to11, {  
  min: 0,  
  max: palette.length - 1,  
  palette: palette  
})  
  
Map.addLayer(classified_1to12, {  
  min: 0,  
  max: palette.length - 1,  
  palette: palette  
})  
  
Map.addLayer(classified_1to13, {  
  min: 0,  
  max: palette.length - 1,  
  palette: palette  
})
```

**Appendix B-1:**

**Generated and derived data from multi-class classifications**

Table with columns: Regions, Imbalance-multi-class, Imbalance 'common wheat' binary, Classification results (accuracies and confusion matrices). Rows include training regions like CM01, CM02, CM03, CM04, CM05, CM06, CM07, CM08, CM09, CM10, CM11, CM12, CM13, CM14, CM15, CM16, CM17, CM18, CM19, CM20, CM21, CM22, CM23, CM24, CM25, CM26, CM27, CM28, CM29, CM30, CM31, CM32, CM33, CM34, CM35, CM36, CM37, CM38, CM39, CM40, CM41, CM42, CM43, CM44, CM45, CM46, CM47, CM48, CM49, CM50, CM51, CM52, CM53, CM54, CM55, CM56, CM57, CM58, CM59, CM60, CM61, CM62, CM63, CM64, CM65, CM66, CM67, CM68, CM69, CM70, CM71, CM72, CM73, CM74, CM75, CM76, CM77, CM78, CM79, CM80, CM81, CM82, CM83, CM84, CM85, CM86, CM87, CM88, CM89, CM90, CM91, CM92, CM93, CM94, CM95, CM96, CM97, CM98, CM99, CM100. Each row contains various numerical values representing classification metrics, accuracies, and confusion matrix elements across multiple classes and models.

**Appendix B-2:**

**Generated and derived data from 'Common Wheat' classifications**



**Appendix B-3:**

**Generated and derived data from 'Maize' classifications**



## Appendix C:

### Classification accuracies multi-class classifications



Table 5: Achieved Accuracies of all classifications, ordered from best to poorest Overall Accuracy (OA). Average accuracies are calculated as the mean of User’s and Producer’s Accuracy for each class and classification

No.	Training Region	Classified Region	Overall Accuracy	avg accuracy		avg accuracy		avg accuracy
				other	common wheat	barley	maize	
1	LVha1	CMeu3	0.92	0.65	0.84	0.00	0.98	
2	CMeu1	LVha3	0.87	0.76	0.76	-	0.99	
3	CMca1	CMeu4	0.84	0.88	0.88	-	-	
4	CMeu3	CMeu4	0.83	0.84	0.82	-	-	
5	LVha2	CMeu4	0.82	0.90	0.90	-	-	
6	LVha1	PZha1	0.79	0.86	0.88	0.27	0.83	
7	PZha2	CMeu4	0.78	0.83	0.74	-	-	
8	LVha1	CMeu4	0.78	0.81	0.84	-	-	
9	CMeu3	PZha1	0.76	0.82	0.85	0.00	0.84	
10	CMeu2	CMeu4	0.75	0.91	0.69	-	-	
11	CMeu3	CMdy3	0.75	0.82	0.79	0.00	-	
12	LVha2	LVha3	0.74	0.76	0.78	-	0.93	
13	CMca1	CMdy3	0.73	0.79	0.72	0.31	-	
14	CMdy3	CMeu4	0.73	0.77	0.71	-	-	
15	LVha1	CMdy3	0.73	0.80	0.74	0.24	-	
16	CMdy1	LVha3	0.71	0.73	0.00	-	0.96	
17	LVha1	CMdy1	0.71	0.65	0.40	0.76	0.98	
18	CMca1	CMeu2	0.69	0.73	0.43	0.74	-	
19	LVha2	CMca1	0.67	0.77	0.61	0.84	-	
20	CMdy2	CMeu2	0.67	0.89	0.53	0.52	-	
21	LVha2	LVha1	0.66	0.43	0.76	0.71	0.82	
22	LVha2	CMeu2	0.66	0.68	0.54	0.67	-	
23	CMdy2	CMca1	0.64	0.84	0.71	0.64	-	
24	CMdy1	CMeu2	0.64	0.88	0.52	0.60	-	
25	LVha1	CMdy2	0.64	0.63	0.65	0.50	0.76	
26	LVha1	LVha3	0.64	0.90	0.50	-	0.87	
27	CMca2	CMeu2	0.63	0.83	0.22	0.59	-	
28	CMca1	PZha2	0.63	0.91	0.52	0.07	-	
29	CMeu1	CMeu4	0.63	0.69	0.63	-	-	
30	LVha2	PZha1	0.62	0.65	0.20	0.73	0.91	
31	CMdy1	CMeu4	0.60	0.78	0.64	-	-	
32	PZha2	CMeu2	0.59	0.93	0.78	0.00	-	
33	CMdy2	PZha1	0.59	0.77	0.57	0.33	0.83	
34	CMca2	PZha2	0.59	0.85	0.49	0.40	-	
35	LVha2	CMdy3	0.59	0.68	0.65	0.54	-	

No.	Training Region	Classified Region	Overall Accuracy	avg accuracy			avg accuracy maize
				other	common wheat	barley	
36	LVha1	CMca1	0.58	0.65	0.56	0.46	-
37	CMdy3	PZha2	0.58	0.85	0.32	0.19	-
38	CMeu2	CMca1	0.57	0.83	0.63	0.11	-
39	CMdy1	PZha1	0.57	0.75	0.47	0.01	0.93
40	LVha1	PZha2	0.56	0.89	0.65	0.00	-
41	CMca2	CMeu4	0.55	0.81	0.43	-	-
42	CMeu2	PZha2	0.55	0.84	0.00	0.00	-
43	CMeu3	LVha3	0.55	0.70	0.45	-	0.80
44	CMdy2	PZha2	0.54	0.90	0.00	0.00	-
45	CMeu3	PZha2	0.54	0.85	0.00	0.00	-
46	CMdy2	CMca2	0.54	0.51	0.66	0.54	-
47	CMdy1	LVha1	0.54	0.70	0.48	0.73	0.90
48	CMeu3	LVha1	0.54	0.42	0.73	0.00	0.93
49	PZha2	CMdy3	0.53	0.71	0.50	0.29	-
50	CMdy1	CMca2	0.53	0.55	0.58	0.39	-
51	CMdy3	CMca1	0.52	0.68	0.53	0.44	-
52	CMeu2	CMdy3	0.52	0.77	0.58	0.01	-
53	CMdy2	CMeu4	0.51	0.78	0.14	-	-
54	CMdy3	CMeu2	0.51	0.61	0.62	0.08	-
55	LVha2	CMdy2	0.51	0.66	0.62	0.06	0.78
56	CMeu3	CMeu1	0.50	0.70	0.59	-	0.73
57	CMeu2	CMca2	0.50	0.52	0.64	0.00	-
58	CMdy1	PZha2	0.49	0.82	0.00	0.00	-
59	CMdy1	CMdy2	0.49	0.68	0.07	0.50	0.74
60	CMeu3	CMdy2	0.48	0.59	0.68	0.00	0.45
61	CMeu3	CMca1	0.48	0.57	0.56	0.00	-
62	CMca2	CMdy3	0.47	0.74	0.35	0.22	-
63	CMca2	CMca1	0.46	0.71	0.38	0.52	-
64	CMdy1	CMdy3	0.46	0.74	0.52	0.00	-
65	CMdy2	LVha3	0.46	0.72	0.52	-	0.73
66	CMdy2	CMdy3	0.46	0.76	0.52	0.00	-
67	CMdy2	LVha2	0.45	0.71	0.72	0.02	0.84
68	CMeu3	CMeu2	0.45	0.58	0.40	0.00	-
69	CMdy2	LVha1	0.44	0.55	0.81	0.36	0.23
70	CMdy2	CMeu1	0.44	0.69	0.56	-	0.69
71	LVha1	LVha2	0.43	0.25	0.63	0.29	0.85
72	CMdy1	CMeu1	0.42	0.95	0.50	-	0.87
73	CMdy3	CMca2	0.41	0.39	0.64	0.00	-
74	LVha1	CMeu1	0.40	0.75	0.00	-	0.82
75	CMdy2	CMdy1	0.40	0.70	0.37	0.58	0.78

No.	Training Region	Classified Region	Overall Accuracy	avg	avg accuracy	avg accuracy	avg
				accuracy	common wheat	barley	accuracy
				other			maize
76	LVha1	CMeu2	0.39	0.53	0.39	0.00	-
77	PZha2	CMca1	0.39	0.73	0.50	0.10	-
78	CMeu3	CMdy1	0.38	0.60	0.57	0.00	0.99
79	CMdy1	CMca1	0.38	0.70	0.49	0.00	-
80	CMdy1	CMeu3	0.38	0.62	0.00	0.00	1.00
81	LVha2	CMeu1	0.36	0.66	0.40	-	0.59
82	CMeu3	LVha2	0.36	0.24	0.59	0.00	0.82
83	CMeu3	CMca2	0.36	0.22	0.65	0.00	-
84	LVha2	CMeu3	0.36	0.85	0.00	0.00	0.99
85	LVha1	CMca2	0.35	0.23	0.34	0.47	-
86	CMca1	CMca2	0.34	0.30	0.52	0.00	-
87	LVha2	CMdy1	0.33	0.76	0.10	0.50	0.98
88	PZha2	CMca2	0.32	0.10	0.66	0.00	-
89	CMdy1	LVha2	0.32	0.53	0.52	0.15	0.86
90	LVha2	PZha2	0.31	0.66	0.01	0.26	-
91	LVha2	CMca2	0.26	0.51	0.21	0.13	-
92	CMdy2	CMeu3	0.13	0.59	0.00	0.00	-

**Appendix D:**

**Region combination matrices**

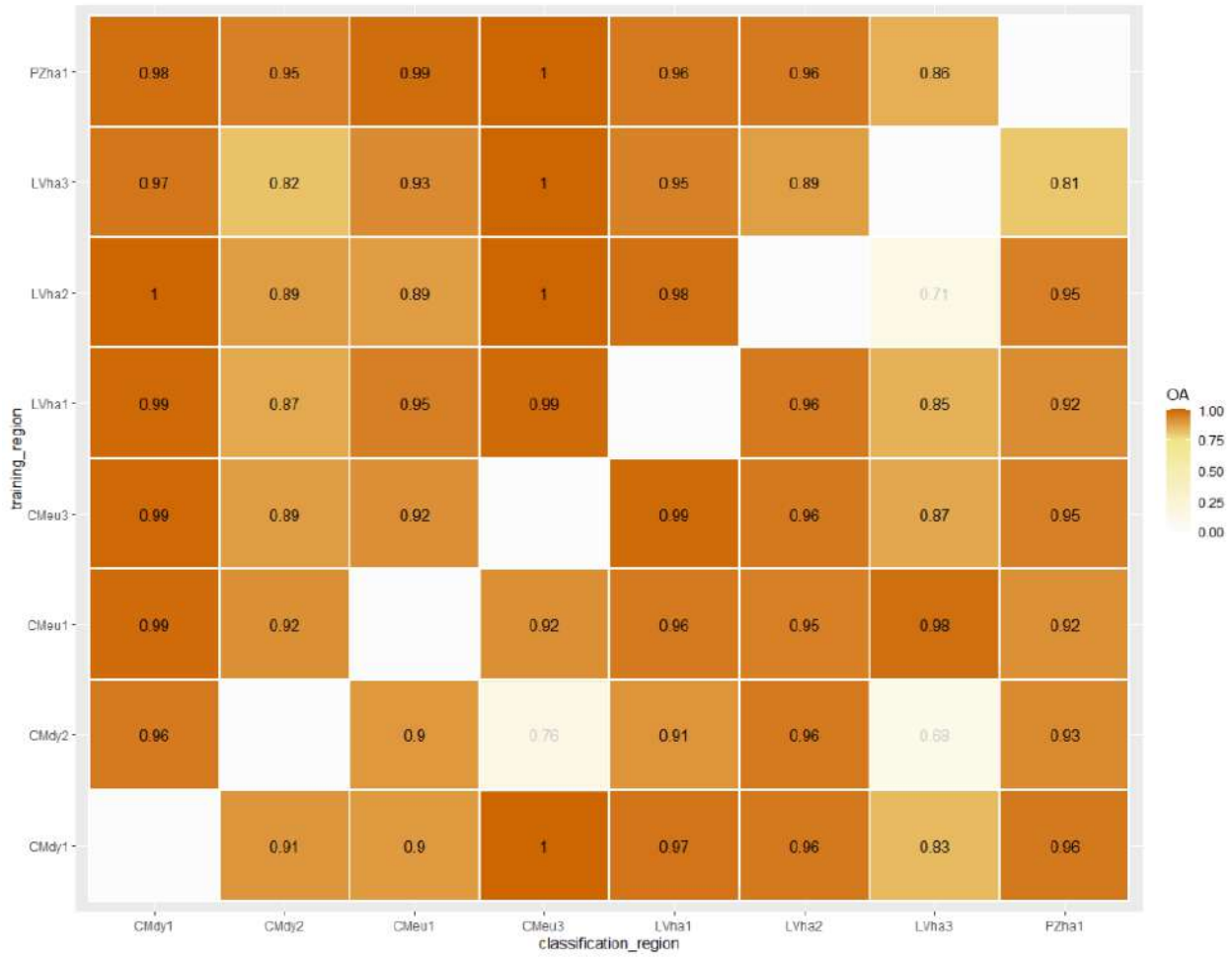


Figure 23: Overall Accuracies for classification of maize with OA > 0.8 highlighted.

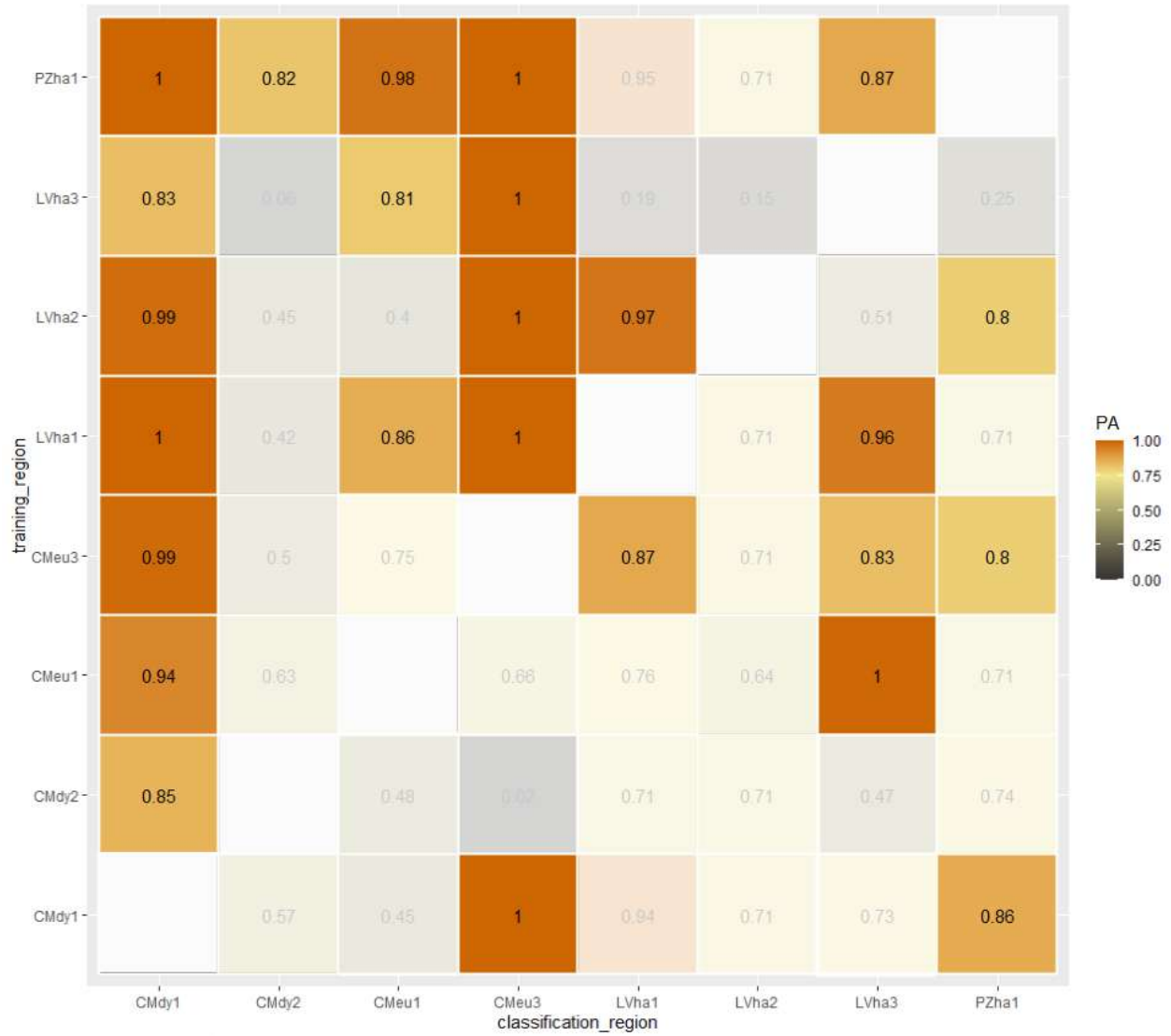


Figure 24: Producer's Accuracies for classification of maize with PA and UA simultaneously > 0.8 highlighted.

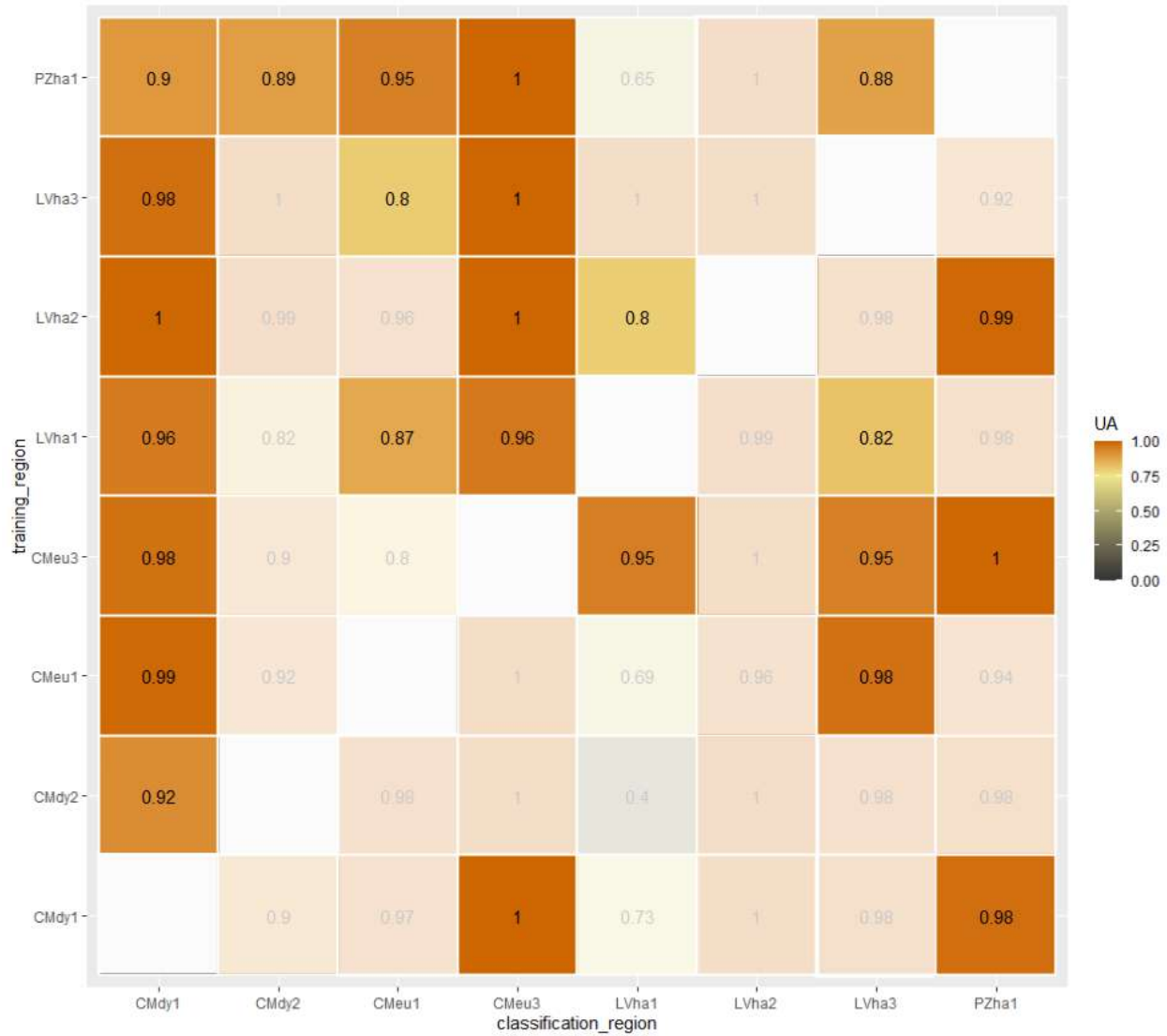


Figure 25: User's Accuracies for classification of maize with PA and UA simultaneously > 0.8 highlighted.

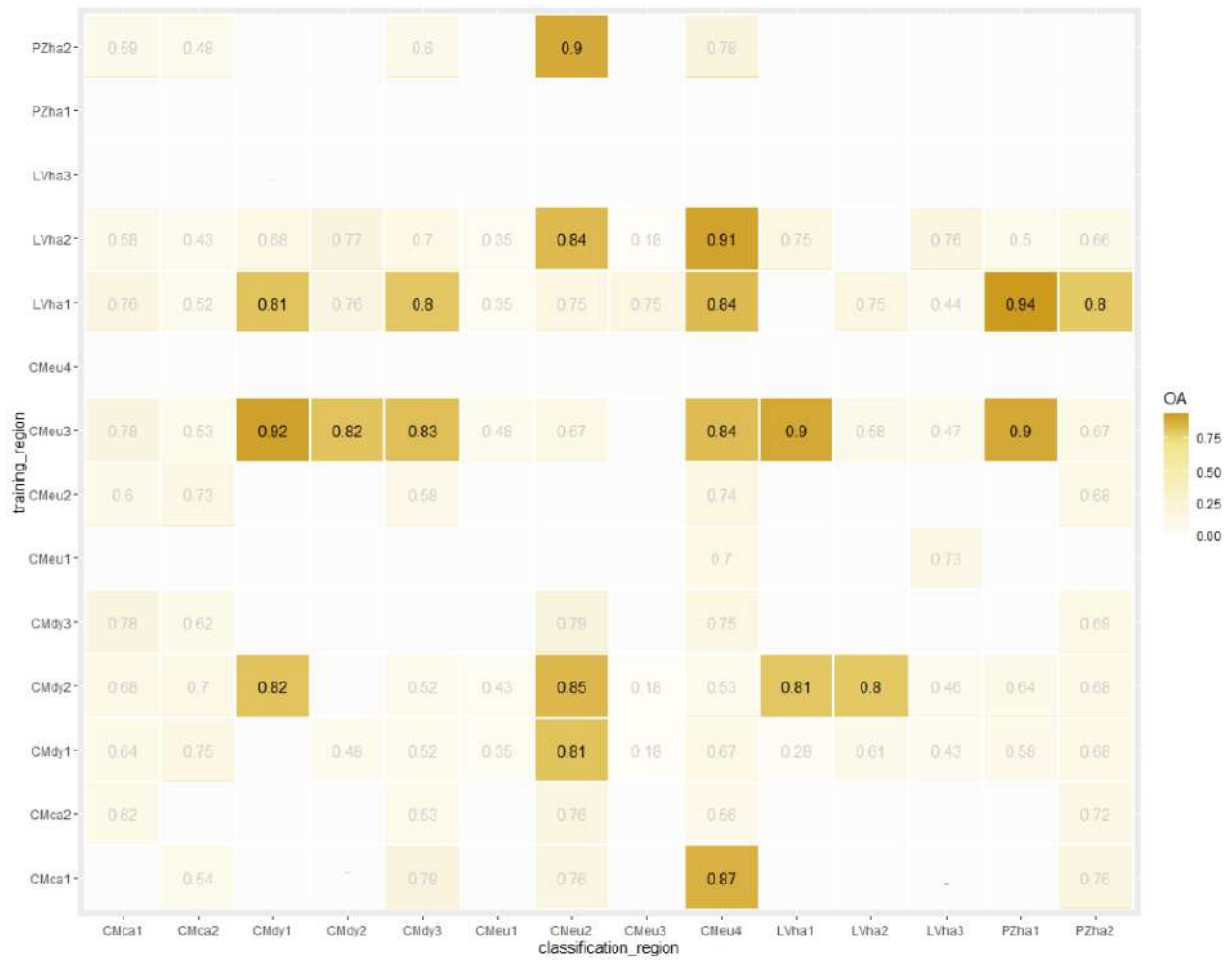


Figure 26: Overall Accuracies for classification of 'Common Wheat' with OA > 0.8 highlighted.



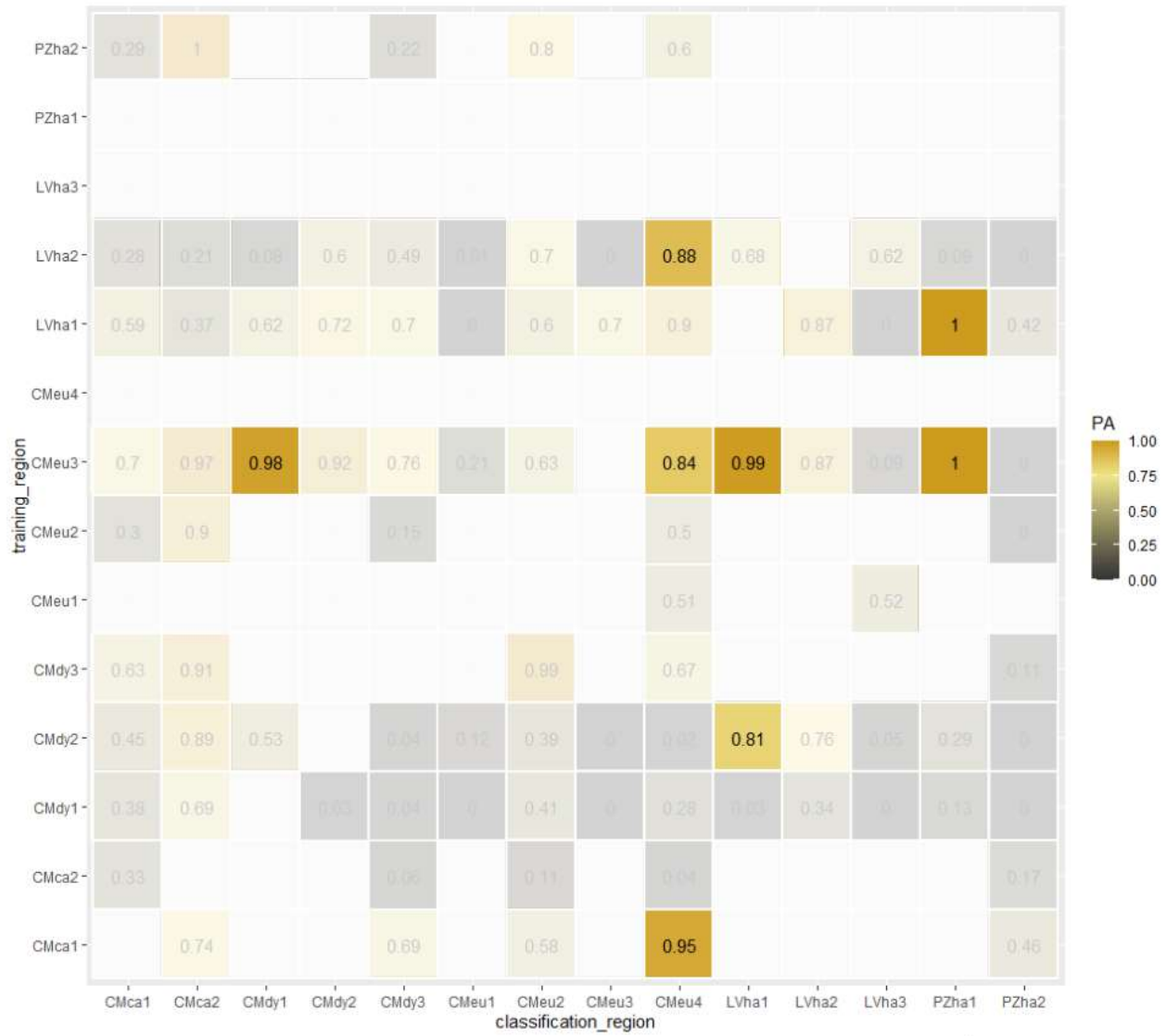


Figure 27: Producer's Accuracies for classification of 'Common Wheat' with PA and UA simultaneously > 0.8 highlighted.

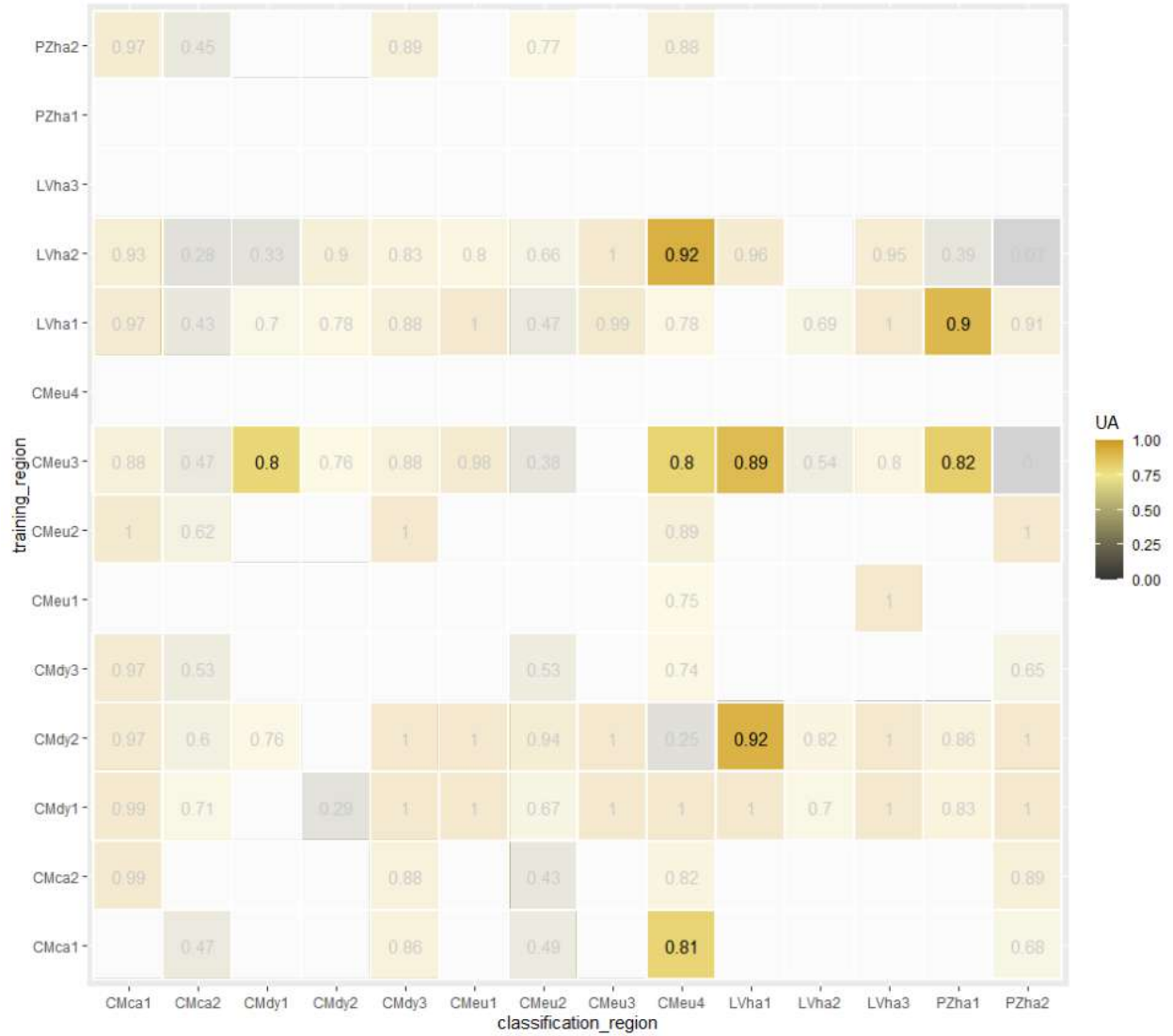


Figure 28: User's Accuracies for classification of 'Common Wheat' with PA and UA simultaneously > 0.8 highlighted.

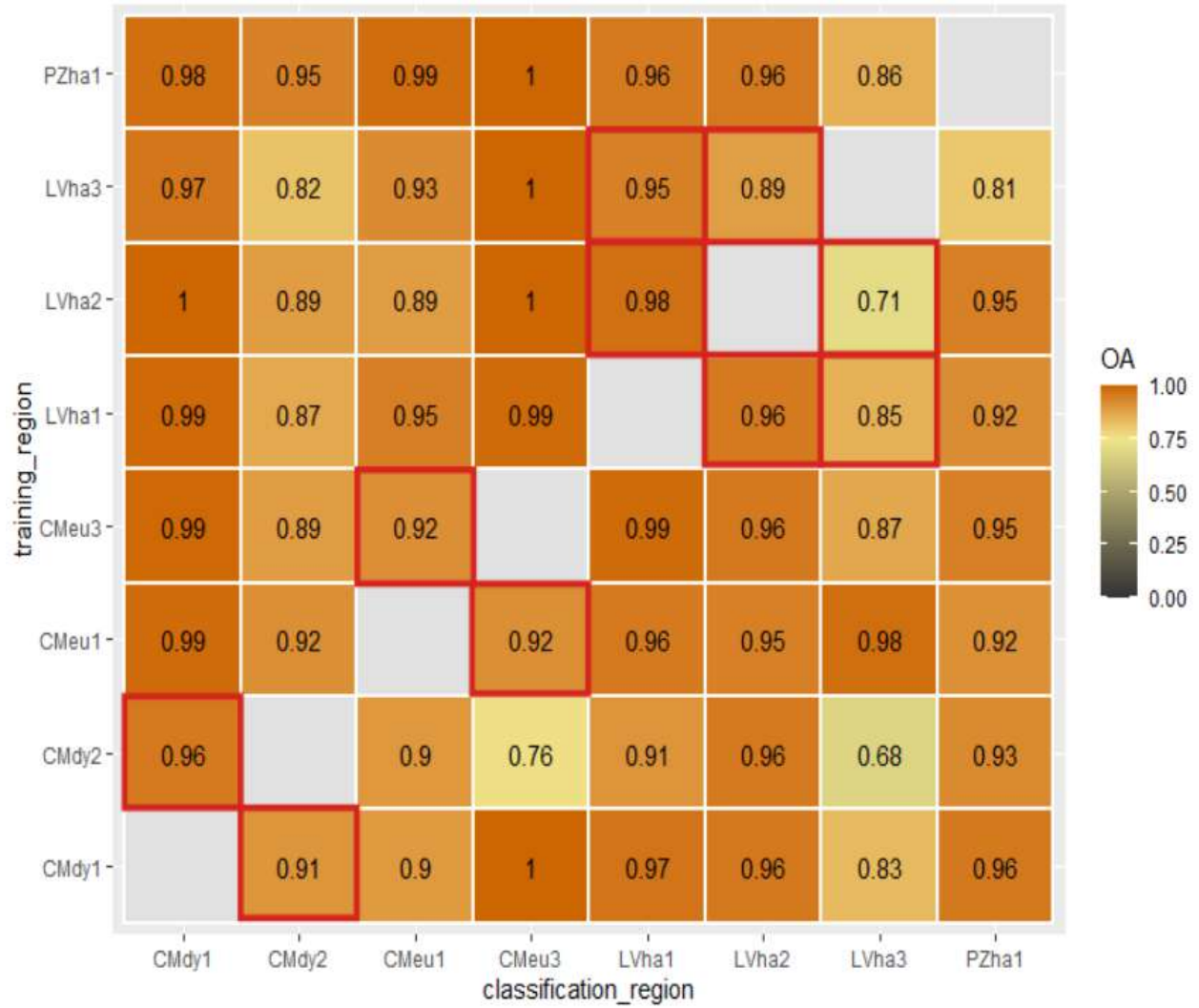


Figure 29: Overall Accuracies for classification of 'Maize' in context of soil type. Red squares indicate results from classifications, where training and classification region are of the same soil type.

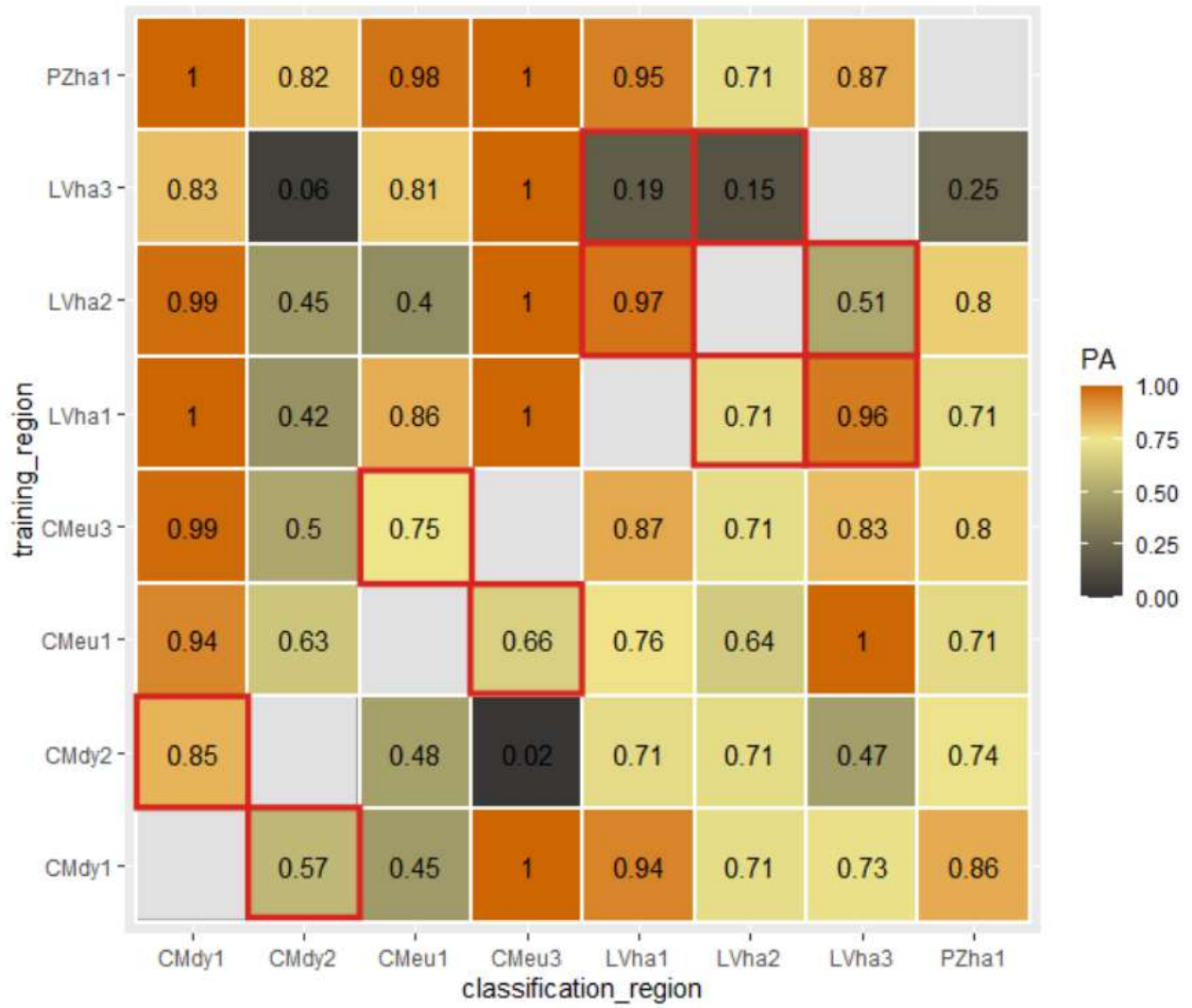


Figure 30: Producer's Accuracies for classification of 'Maize' in context of soil type. Red squares indicate results from classifications, where training and classification region are of the same soil type.

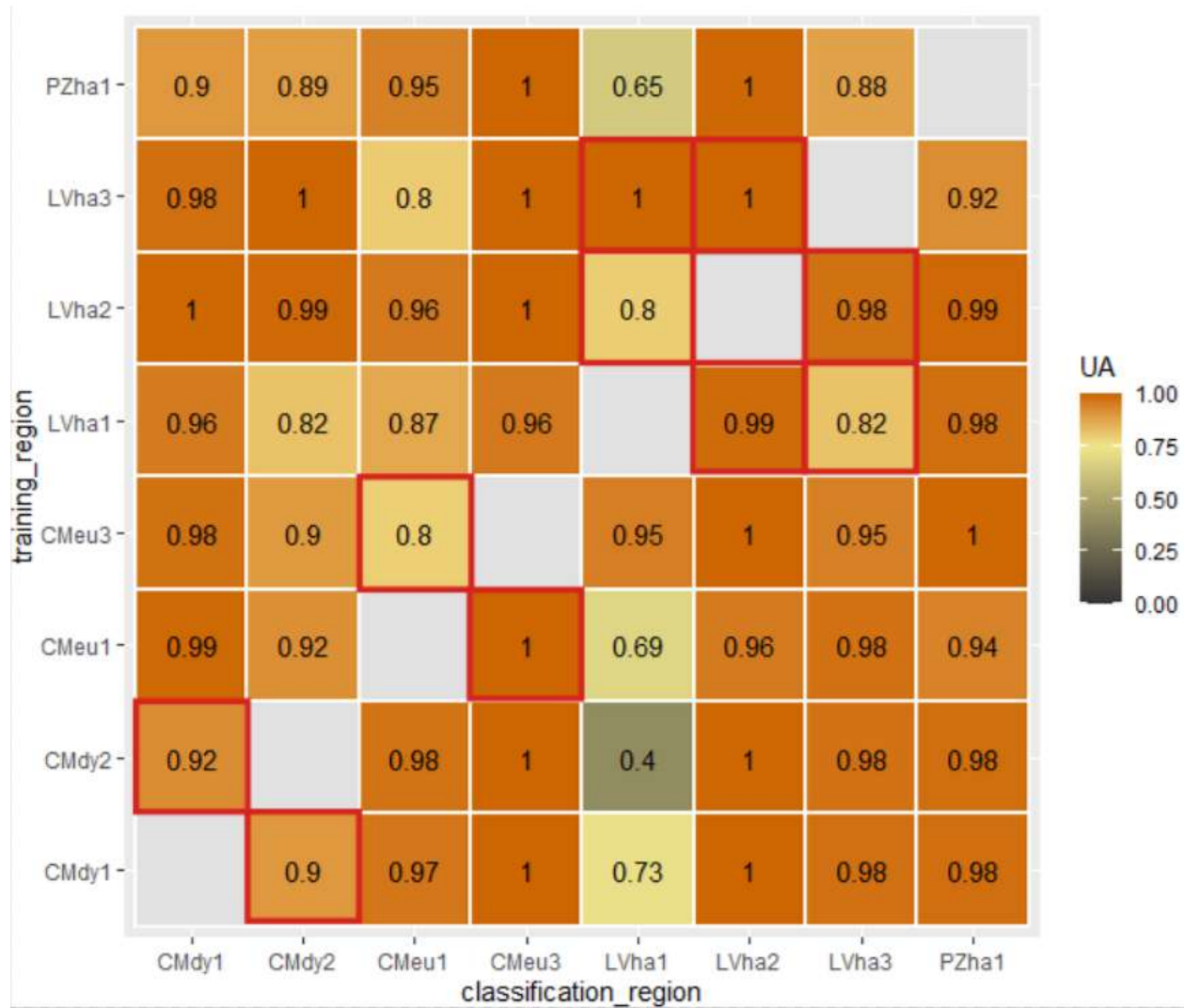


Figure 31: User's Accuracies for classification of 'Maize' in context of soil type. Red squares indicate results from classifications, where training and classification region are of the same soil type.

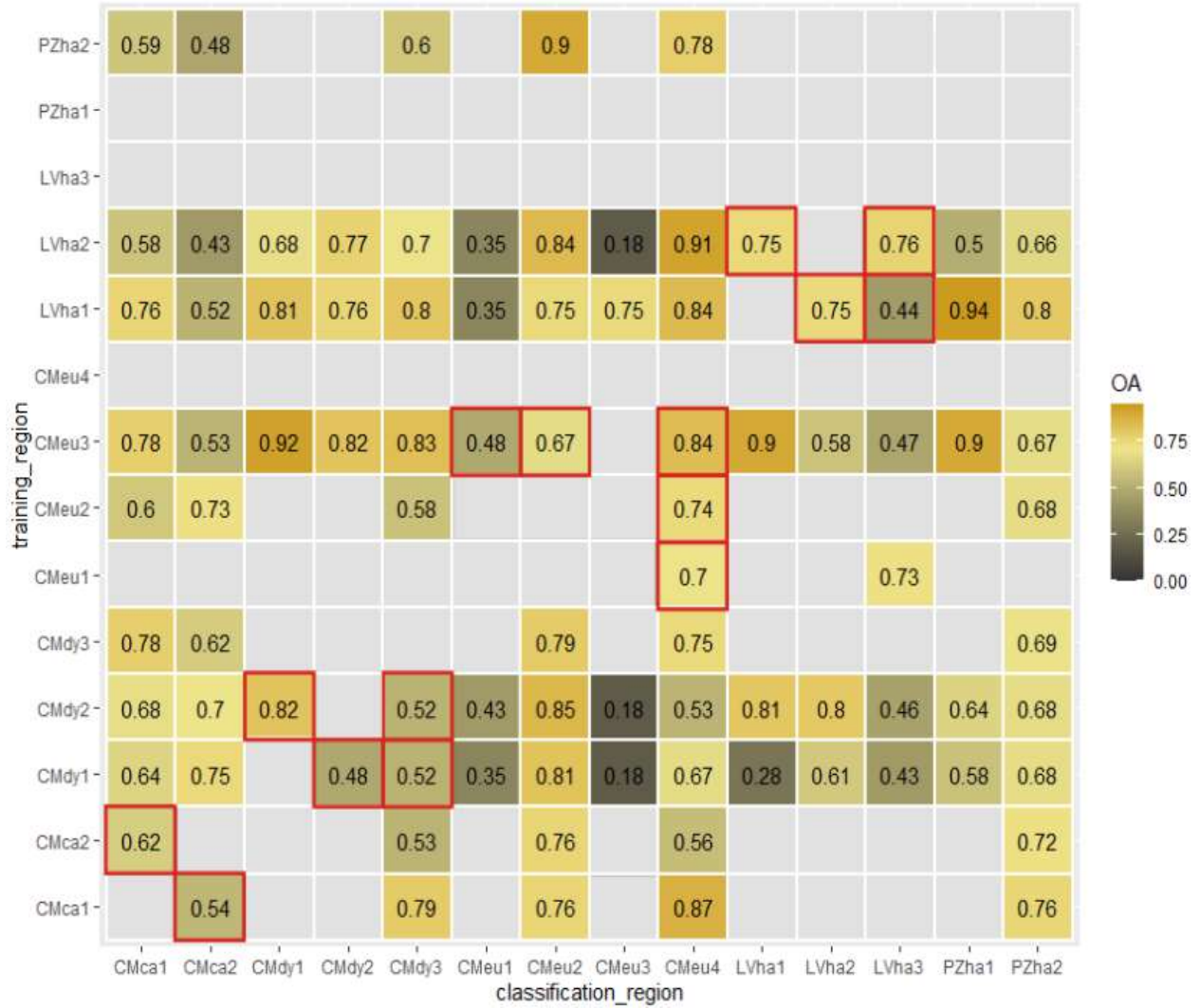


Figure 32: Overall Accuracies for classification of 'Common Wheat' in context of soil type. Red squares indicate results from classifications, where training and classification region are of the same soil type.

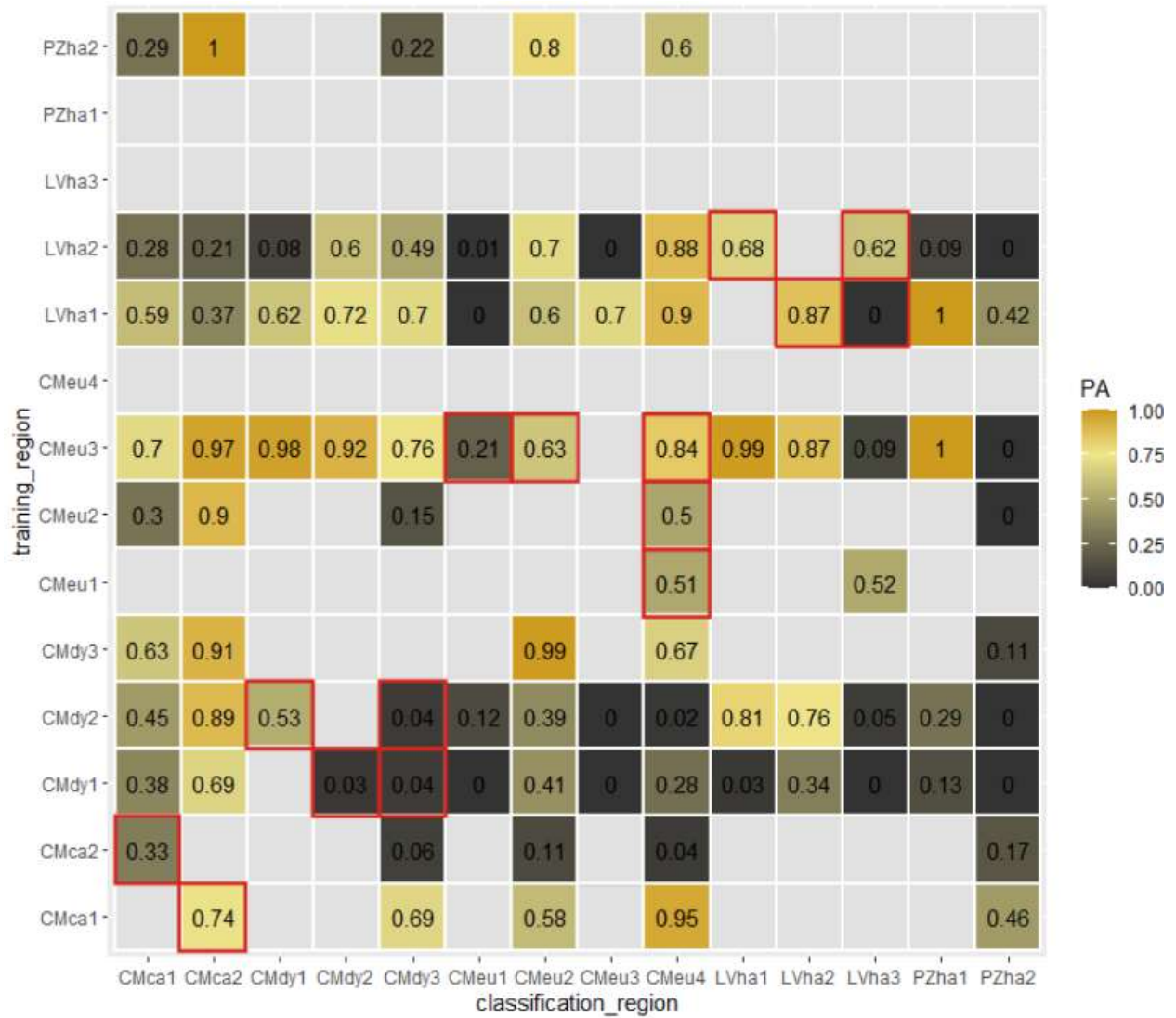


Figure 33: Producer's Accuracies for classification of 'Common Wheat' in context of soil type. Red squares indicate results from classifications, where training and classification region are of the same soil type.

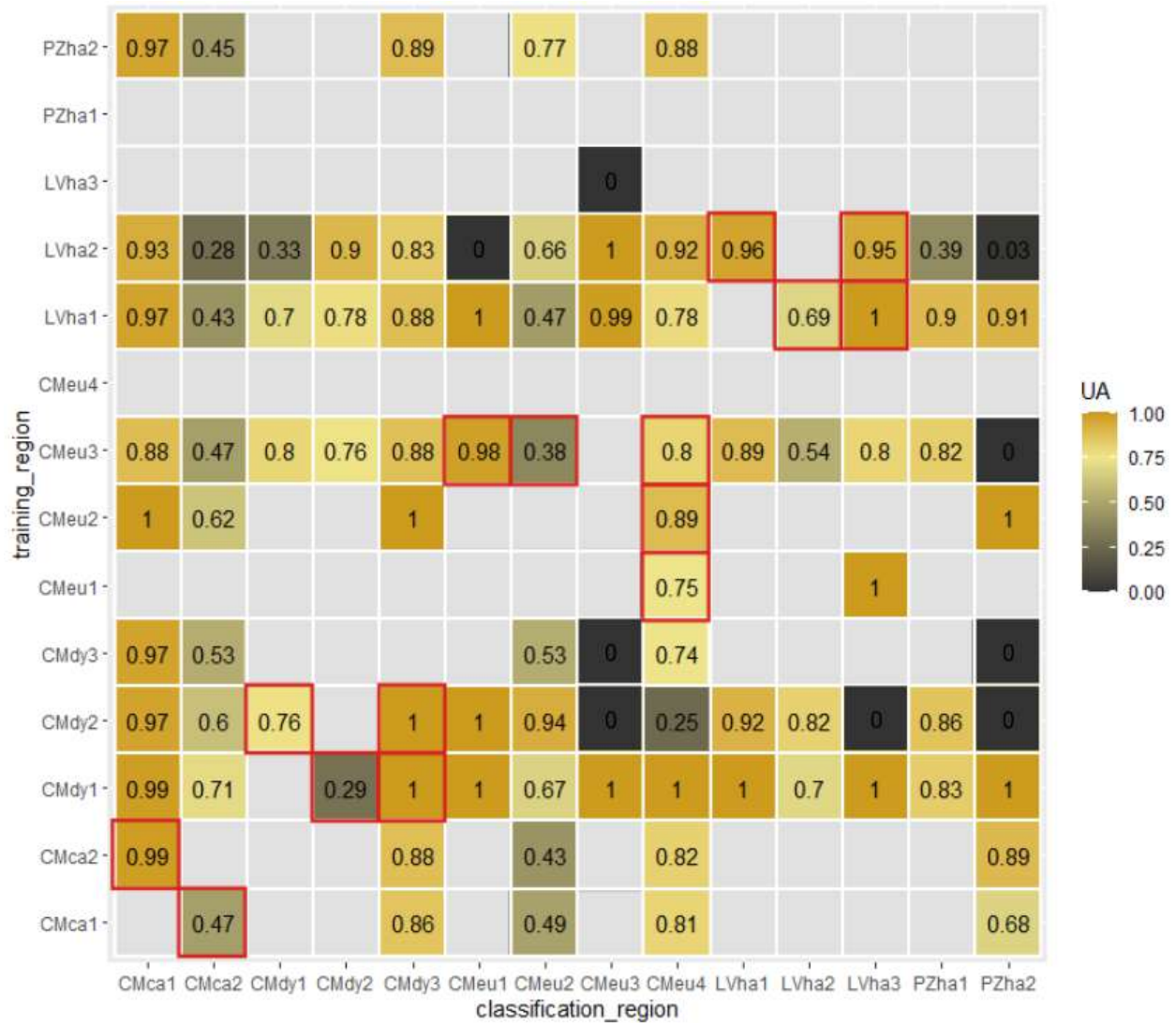


Figure 34: User's Accuracies for classification of 'Common Wheat' in context of soil type. Red squares indicate results from classifications, where training and classification region are of the same soil type.



**Appendix E:**

**Spectral profiles of 'Maize', 'Common Wheat' and 'Other'**

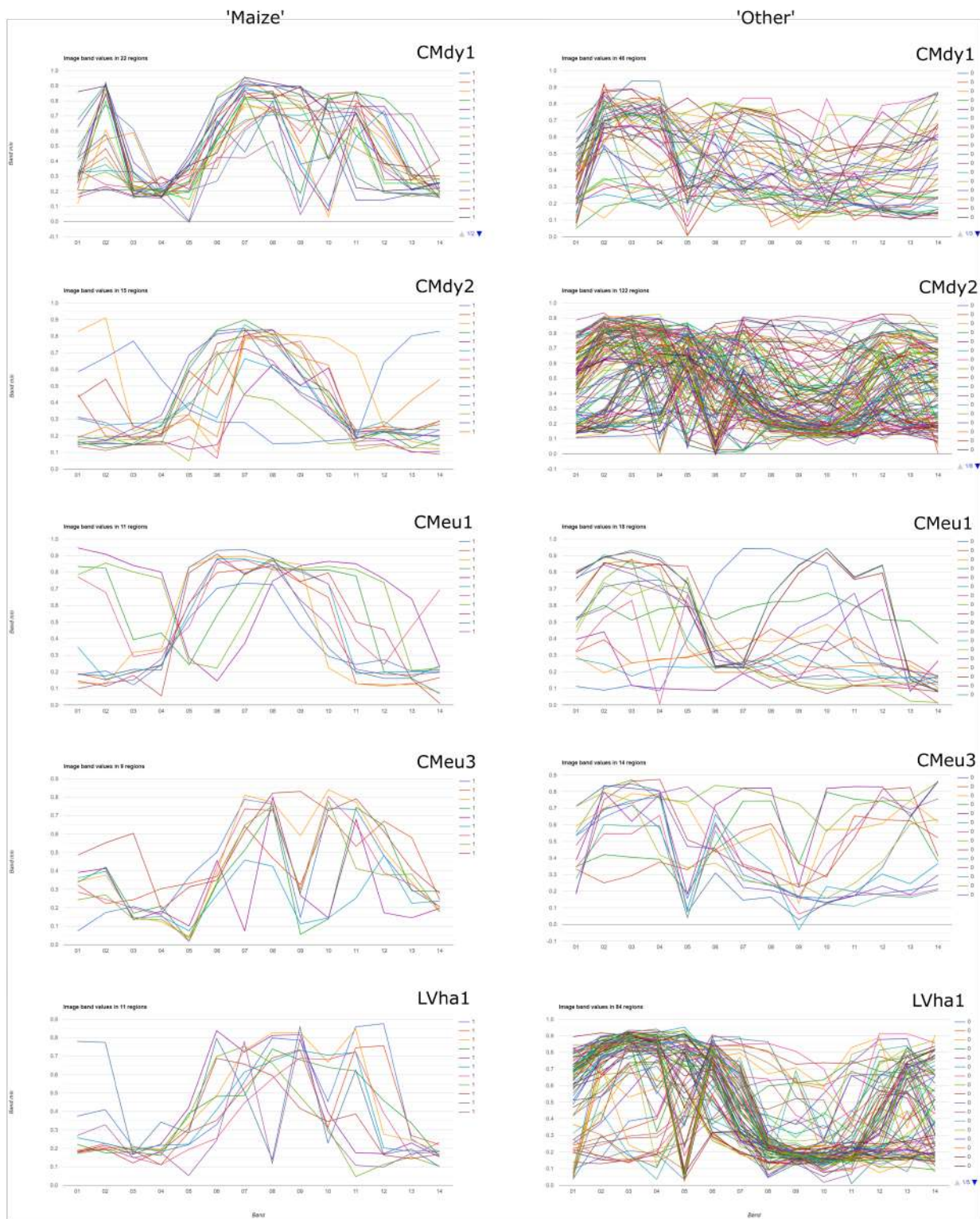


Figure 35: Part 1 - Spectral profiles of 'Maize' and 'Other' from binary classifications (NDVI 1-14)

'Maize'

'Other'

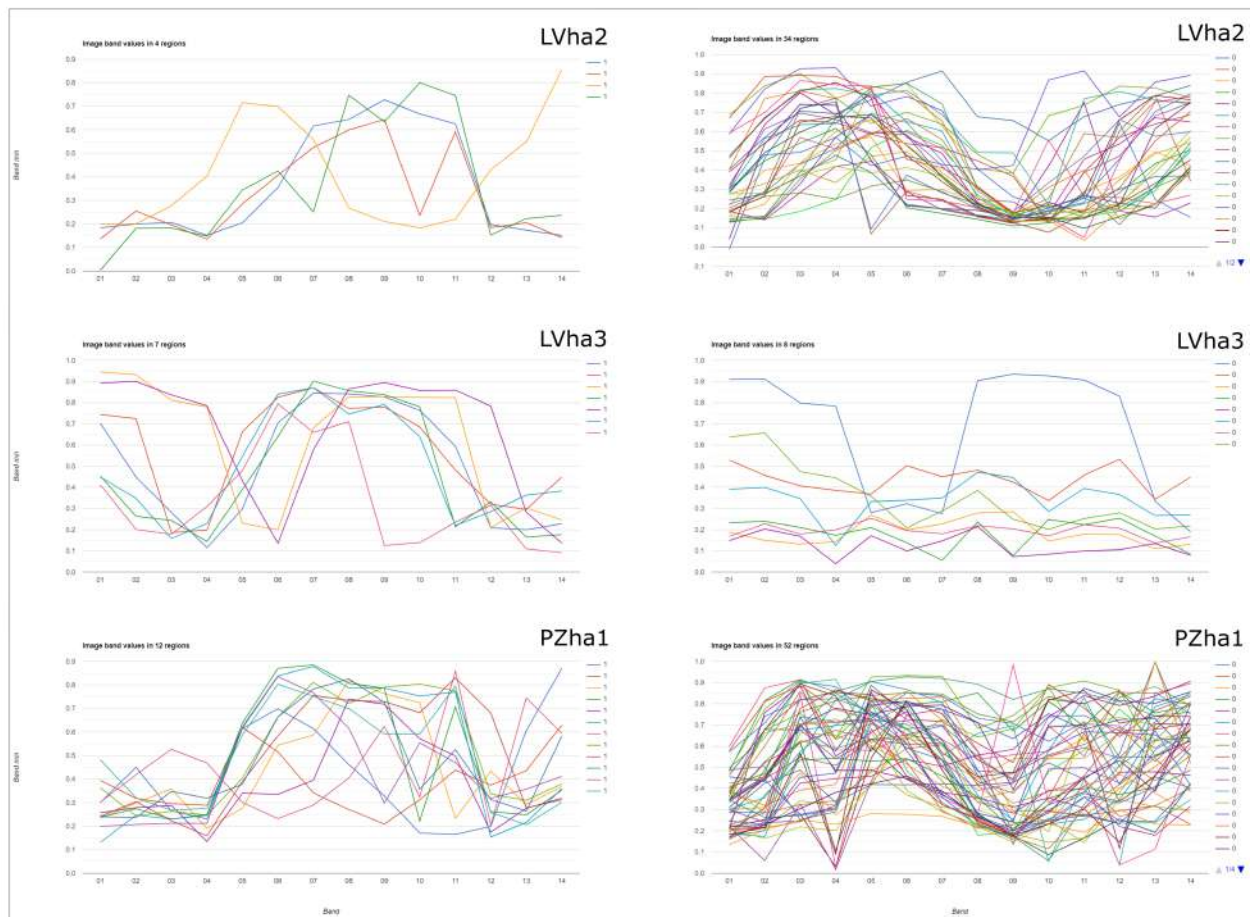


Figure 36: Part 2 - Spectral profiles of 'Maize' and 'Other' from binary classifications (NDVI 1-14)

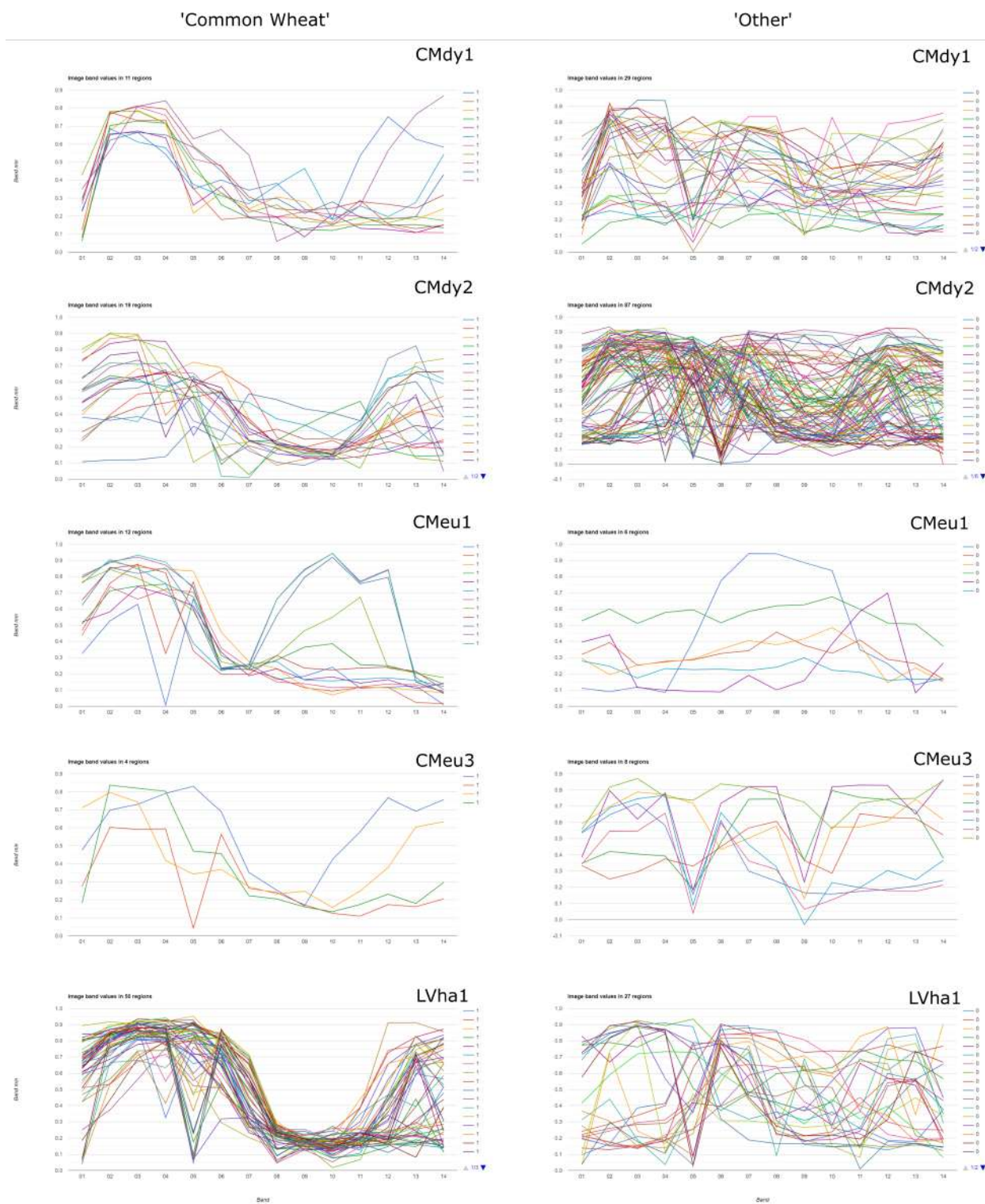


Figure 37: Part 1 - Spectral profiles of 'Common Wheat' and 'Other' from multi-class classifications (NDVI 1-14)

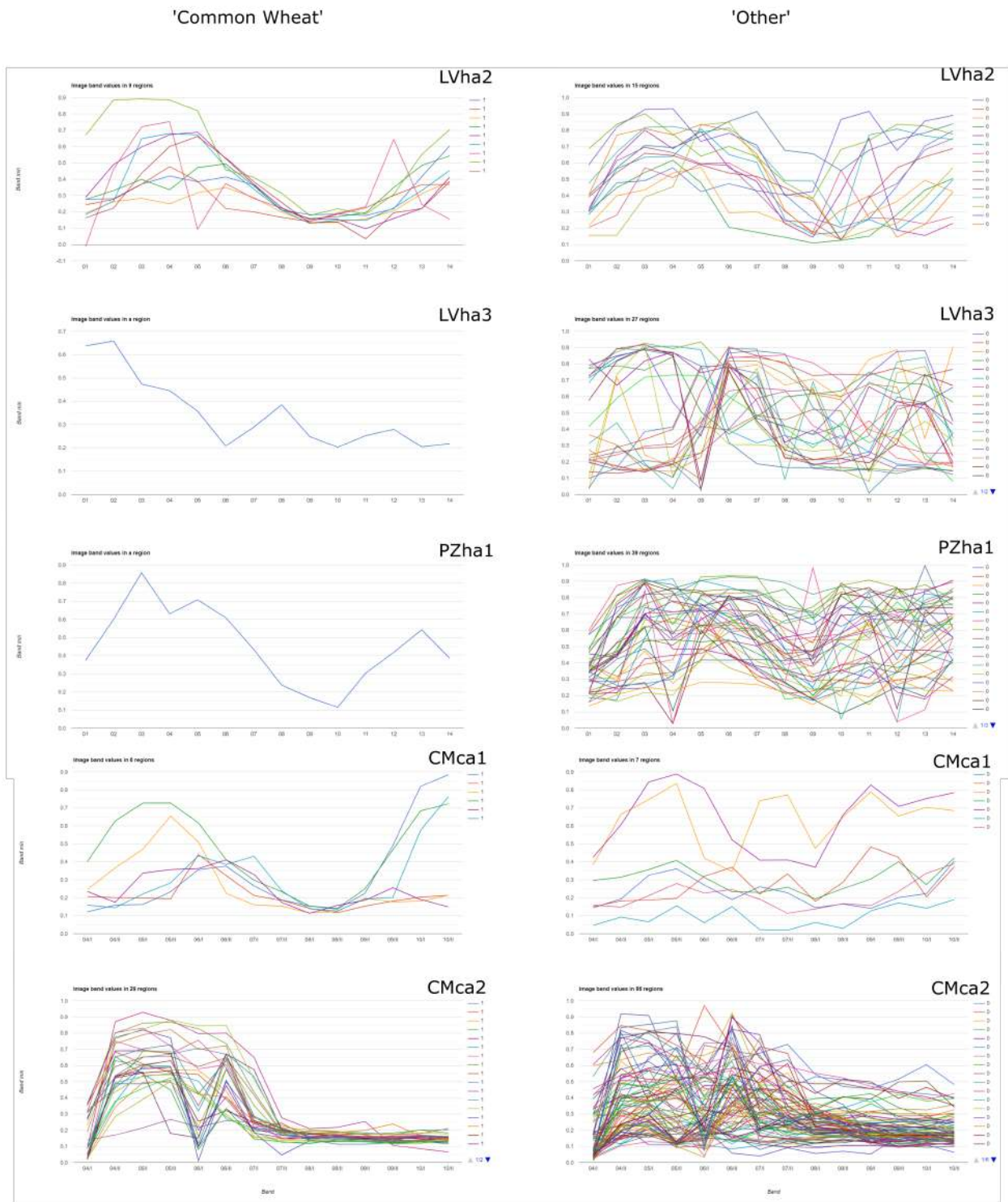


Figure 38: Part 2 - Spectral profiles of 'Common Wheat' and 'Other' from multi-class classifications (NDVI 1-14)

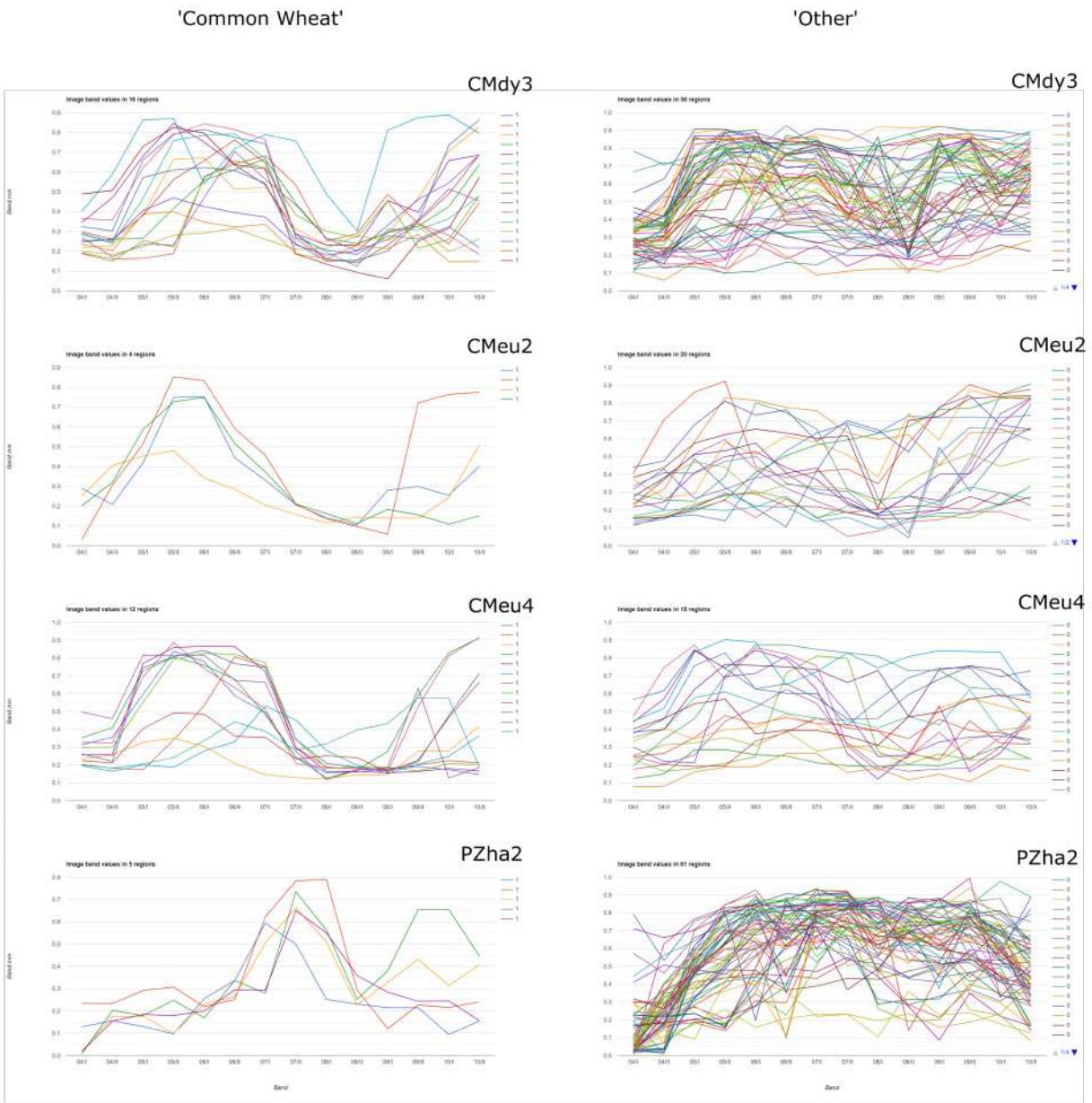


Figure 39: Part 3 -Spectral profiles of 'Common Wheat' and 'Other' from multi-class classifications (NDVI 1-14)