

28

ABSTRACT

29 The use of high resolution imagery in remote sensing has the potential to improve
30 understanding of patch level variability in plant structure and community composition that may
31 be lost at coarser scales. Random forest (RF) is a machine learning technique that has gained
32 considerable traction in remote sensing applications due to its ability to produce accurate
33 classifications with highly dimensional data and relatively efficient computing times. The aim of
34 this study was to test the ability of RF to classify five plant communities located both on and off
35 prairie dog towns in mixed grass prairie landscapes of north central South Dakota, assess the
36 stability of RF models among different years, and determine the utility of utilizing remote
37 sensing techniques to identity prairie dog colony extent. During 2015 and 2016, Pleiades
38 satellites were tasked to image the study site for a total of five monthly collections each summer
39 (June-October). Training polygons were mapped in 2016 for the five plant communities and
40 used to train RF models. Both the 2015 and 2016 RF models had low (1%) out of bag error
41 rates. However, comparisons between the predicted plant community maps using the 2015
42 imagery and one created with the 2016 imagery indicate over 32.9% of pixels changed plant
43 community class between 2015 and 2016. The results show that while RF models may predict
44 with a high degree of accuracy, overlap of plant communities and inter-annual differences in
45 rainfall may cause instability in fitted models. A final RF model combining both 2015 and 2016
46 data yielded the lowest error rates, and was also highly accurate in determining prairie dog
47 colony boundaries.

48

Keywords

49 Remote sensing, random forest, rangelands, plant ecology, high resolution imagery

50

INTRODUCTION

52 Remote sensing of rangelands greatly improves our ability to study and understand
53 complex ecological interactions across the landscape. As technology advances, monitoring of
54 rangelands via remote sensing platforms will facilitate research products freely available to land
55 managers (Browning et al. 2015). One of the main advantages of remote sensing data is its
56 capacity to cover wide areas, allowing assessment of plant communities at landscape level scales
57 as compared to traditional point-based assessments (Ramoelo et al. 2015; Yu et al. 2018).
58 Numerous studies have demonstrated the utility of remote sensing applications in monitoring
59 rangeland condition, including mapping of vegetation communities, plant species composition,
60 biomass estimation, and impact of grazing intensity on the landscape (Blanco et al. 2008; Franke
61 et al. 2012). Additionally, successive images throughout a growing season may potentially
62 capture phenological changes associated with differences in C-3 and C-4 plant species
63 composition (Goodin and Henebry 1997).

64 Advances in remote sensing technology have facilitated the mapping and assessment of a
65 broad range of habitats at different scales (Corbane et al. 2015). For example, Schmidlein et al.
66 (2007) used hyperspectral imagery at 2m resolution in combination with ordination techniques to
67 map functional plant group gradients in a Bavarian pasture. Within the Delaware Gap National
68 Recreation Area, multiple Landsat 7 scenes were used (30m resolution) with classification tree
69 algorithms to map forest and plant communities for the National Park Service Vegetation
70 Mapping Program (de Colstoun et al. 2003). In Majella National Park, Italy, 4m resolution
71 imagery was used with normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) to map and predict grass
72 and herbaceous biomass variability over a 200 km² area (Cho et al. 2007).

73 Many methods for accurately classifying plant communities using remote sensing
74 techniques have been used in numerous ecological and natural resource studies. One method,
75 random forest classification (RF), has gained considerable traction in the remote sensing
76 community for its ability to produce accurate classifications, handle highly dimensional data, and
77 provide efficient computing times (Belgiu and Drăguț 2016). RF is seen as an improvement over
78 simple classification tree analysis by reducing noise and misclassification of outliers (Laliberte et
79 al. 2007; Nitze et al. 2015). RF is an ensemble decision tree classifier which combines bootstrap
80 sampling to construct several individual decision trees from which a class probability is assigned
81 (Mellor et al. 2013). RF builds each tree using a deterministic algorithm selecting a random set
82 of variables and a random sample from the calibration data set (Ramoelo et al. 2015).

83 The utility of random forest algorithms has been demonstrated in remote sensing
84 applications at multiple scales. Lowe and Kulkarni (2015) showed that RF was effective at
85 producing highly accurate classification maps using two Landsat scenes (30m resolution).
86 Ramoelo et al. (2015) successfully used RF modeling to predict leaf nitrogen content using
87 World-View 2 satellite images (2m resolution) in grassland and forest communities. Similarly,
88 Mutanga et al. (2012) concluded that RF regression modelling provided an effective
89 methodology for variable selection and predicting biomass in wetland environments using high
90 resolution satellite imagery (2m).

91 Considerable research has focused on the application of RF classification across different
92 plant communities at various scales, however, concerns exist over the transferability of these
93 models to different sites, across seasons, or years. For example, Juel et al. 2015 showed that RF
94 models have a high degree of classification accuracy for classifying fine scale coastal vegetation
95 using digital elevation maps and high resolution orthophoto imagery, but model accuracy

96 decreased significantly when applied to spatially separated sites, showing a lack of stability in
97 the model. Corcoran et al. (2013) showed an improvement of RF model accuracy in classifying
98 wetlands in northern Minnesota with the inclusion Landsat 5 images across two years using full
99 season data versus summer only, and fall only models. Jones et al. 2018 demonstrated the utility
100 of using RF modeling with 30m Landsat data to monitor rangeland cover across the western
101 United States over a 33 year period. Results of these studies suggest the scale and seasonality of
102 the imagery may play an important role in the stability of RF models to accurately map plant
103 communities. While classification rates are often reported in studies, the potential overlap in
104 plant community composition is rarely explored as a potential source of error within the models.
105 Most research studies focus solely on spectral differences in plant communities and fail to
106 analyze community differences on the ground at the species level (de Colstoun et al. 2003;
107 Geerken et al. 2005). Lastly, while the focus of many of these remote sensing studies is on
108 mapping plant communities at landscape scales to study land use changes and address
109 conservation related issues, very little research has examined the impacts of animal species on
110 plant community composition, and how this might affect classification accuracy.

111 Within the mixed grass prairie ecosystem, black tailed prairie dog colonization is an issue
112 of concern for livestock producers (Miller et al. 2007). Competition between prairie dogs and
113 livestock is a major concern for land managers looking to optimize beef production while still
114 conserving wildlife species (Augustine and Springer 2013). Prairie dogs can reduce availability
115 of forage for livestock by directly reducing the quantity of forage available (through direct
116 consumption, clipping plants to increase predator detection, and building soil mounds), and by
117 changing species composition (Derner et al. 2006). Older core areas of prairie dog towns often
118 become characterized by extensive areas of bare ground and low vegetation production, which is

119 generally limited to annual forb and dwarf shrub species. Pastures containing extensive areas of
120 bare ground due to prairie dog colonization may potentially depress livestock forage intake rates
121 and ultimately beef production. The ability to accurately map prairie dog colonies using remote
122 sensing will help improve our understanding of the impact of prairie dogs on plant communities,
123 and help inform land management decisions within rangelands occupied by prairie dogs.

124 A large collaborative study from 2012-2016 was conducted to evaluate livestock
125 production on mixed-grass prairie pastures with varying levels of prairie dog occupation. A
126 major goal of the larger study was to determine which plant communities on the pastures cattle
127 preferred to graze, and how those preferences shifted within and between years. Plant
128 communities on the site were categorized based on location (on- or off-town) and visually
129 apparent dominant plant functional groups. Thus, plant community as defined for this study was
130 a collection of species within an area of a relatively uniform composition different from
131 neighboring patches. Differences in neighboring patches were evident by differences in
132 dominant functional group (forb vs grass) or differences in photosynthetic pathways (C3 vs C4
133 grasses). We expected the plant communities to remain relatively stable during the study,
134 however their signatures on satellite imagery could change within and between years as a result
135 of the timing and magnitude of rainfall, timing of green up, phenological progression, and other
136 factors. The overall goal of this paper, then, was to develop maps that accurately classify plant
137 communities based on satellite imagery collected between years. Specific objectives of this study
138 were to 1) determine differences in the five identified plant communities based on species
139 composition, 2) assess the utility of using a RF model with high resolution satellite imagery to
140 classify plant communities of interest within a mixed grass prairie ecosystem containing prairie
141 dogs, 3) determine the stability of the RF model when using subsequent years of satellite

142 imagery with identical training data, and 4) determine the ability of high resolution satellite
143 imagery to accurately classify prairie dog towns. Our ability to map and understand these plant
144 communities' at large scales will give researchers insight into applying RF models across years
145 using high resolution imagery. Research from this study will allow us to better assess how
146 prairie dogs drive changes in plant communities, and provide a new tool to map the extent of
147 prairie dog colonization on the landscape to better inform land management decisions.

148 **METHODS**

149 **Study site**

150 The study area (45.74N, 100.65W) was located near McLaughlin, South Dakota on a
151 northern mixed-grass prairie ecosystem. Native prairie pastures (810 ha total area) were leased
152 from 2012-2016; pastures were continuously stocked with yearling steers from June-October of
153 each year to achieve 50% utilization. Of the 810 ha, approximately 186 ha were occupied by
154 black-tailed prairie dogs (*Cynomys ludovicianus*). Predominant soils at the site were clays and
155 loams. Ecological sites, and the plant communities they support vary widely; Loamy and Clayey
156 were the predominant Ecological Sites at the site with inclusions of Dense Clay, Shallow Clay,
157 and Thin Claypan (Barth et al. 2014). Plant species dominating the site were largely native,
158 including western wheatgrass (*Pascopyrum smithii* Rydb.), green needlegrass (*Nassella viridula*
159 Trin.), and needle-and-thread (*Hesperostipa comata* Trin. & Rupr), intermixed with blue grama
160 (*Bouteloua gracilis* Willd. Ex Kunth), buffalograss (*Bouteloua dactyloides* Nutt.), and sedges
161 (*Carex* spp.). The most common non-native species on the site was Kentucky bluegrass (*Poa*
162 *pratensis* Boivin & Love). Woody draws occupied moist drainage areas; vegetation consists
163 primarily of bur oak (*Quercus macrocarpa* Nutt.), American plum (*Prunus americana* Marshall),
164 and chokecherry (*Prunus virginiana* L.). These draws were frequently flanked by snowberry-

165 dominated patches (*Symphoricarpos occidentalis* Hook.). Plant communities on areas occupied
166 by prairie dog towns on the site were largely dominated by western wheatgrass and shortgrasses
167 (buffalograss, blue grama, and sedges) intermixed with patches of bare ground and annual forb
168 dominated areas. Common annual forbs on prairie dog towns included prostrate knotweed
169 (*Polygonum aviculare* L.), fetid marigold (*Dysosodia papposa* Vent.), dwarf horseweed (*Conyza*
170 *ramosissima* Cronquist), and scarlet globemallow (*Sphaeralcea coccinea* Nutt.). A weather
171 station has been maintained on site from May 2013 operated by South Dakota Mesonet. Mean
172 annual rainfall at the site is 446 mm and average growing season (May through September)
173 temperature is 15.3°C (South Dakota Climate and Weather 2017).

174 Five plant communities of interest for our study site were identified: 1) Forb-dominated
175 sites on prairie dog towns (On-Forb), 2) Grass-dominated sites on prairie dog towns (On-Grass),
176 3) Snowberry-dominated sites off-town (Off-Snow), 4) Cool season grass-dominated sites off-
177 town (Off-Cool), and 5) Warm season-dominated sites off-town (Off-Warm). An additional
178 plant community labeled 'Draws' was delineated visually within ArcGIS software due to
179 difficulty in mapping these areas in the field. As mentioned prior, these areas are dominated by
180 bur oak, chokecherry, and American plum, and occupied lower lying drainage areas on the site.

181 **Training sites**

182 To facilitate classification, training site polygons were mapped for On-Forb, On-Grass,
183 Off-Cool, Off-Warm, and Off-Snow plant communities using ArcPad for Trimble GPS units in
184 the summer of 2016. Twenty training sites were mapped for each of the plant communities
185 except Off-Warm, for which only 8 sites were mapped due to the difficulty of finding
186 homogenous stands of warm season grasses. Plant species in the Northern Great Plains are
187 dominated by cool season species; warm season species, where they occur, are typically

188 intermixed into stands of cool season species. Training sites for each plant community were
189 selected from across the entire study area to capture potential site differences across research
190 pastures. Sites were mapped in the field by walking the perimeter of the plant community patch
191 with a Trimble GPS unit. Training polygon perimeter boundaries were always at least 3 meters
192 interior of patch edge to minimize error introduced to the training data as a result of GPS signal
193 noise. Identified patches were then converted into a polygon shapefile within ArcGIS to be used
194 as training polygons for the RF classification algorithm. Within each training site polygon, three
195 0.25 m² plots were randomly located by tossing plot frames into the area of interest to determine
196 sampling area. Within each plot, percent cover by species was recorded in the summer of 2016
197 at the time of polygon mapping.

198 **Plant Community Analysis**

199 Plant community analysis was performed on vegetation data collected from the three
200 0.25m² plots measured in each training polygon. Differences between plant community
201 compositions were determined using a Multi-Response Permutation Procedure (MRPP) with the
202 Sorenson Bray-Curtis distance method. MRPP is a nonparametric procedure used for testing
203 hypotheses between two or more groups (Mitchell et al. 2015). Differences in community
204 compositions were analyzed for all plant communities, and pairwise comparisons generated. To
205 analyze trends in species composition between plant community plots, Non-metric
206 Multidimensional Scaling (NMS) ordination was used (Kruskal 1964). Only species that
207 occurred in 3 or more plots were included in the ordination analysis. NMS analysis was
208 conducted using the Sorenson Bray-Curtis distance method with 250 iterations and a stability
209 criterion of 0.00001. Analysis was repeated five times to confirm ordination pattern in the data.
210 Similarity index matrices were generated to compare plot differences between plant communities

211 and averaged by plant community. All ordination analyses (MRPP and NMS) were performed
212 using PC-ORD 6 software (McCune and Mefford 2002).

213 **Imagery**

214 During the summers of 2015 and 2016, Pleiades satellites were tasked to image the study
215 site. Pleiades satellites, which are members of the SPOT family of satellites, are operated by
216 AIRBUS Defense and Space. This platform was chosen due to its high spatial resolution (0.5 m
217 pan chromatic, 2 m multispectral) and four band spectral resolution: pan chromatic (480-830
218 nm), red (600-720nm), green (490-610 nm), blue (430-550 nm), and near infrared (750-950 nm).
219 Pleiades satellites were designed for commercial tasking and monitoring, allowing multiple
220 revisits to a project site. A total of ten image collections were acquired in the summer of 2015
221 and 2016 (five each year) from June through October during the 1st-15th of each month (Table 1).
222 Image collection times were chosen to correspond to the time periods when cattle were actively
223 grazing on the site. Multispectral images were pan-sharpened and orthorectified by the image
224 provider (Apollo Imaging Corp). Each monthly image collection was converted into an NDVI
225 image. Areas delineated as Draws were removed from the analysis area. In addition, boundaries
226 of the prairie dog town were mapped using a handheld Trimble GPS unit to compare predicted
227 colony location with ground truth location.

228 **Random Forest model**

229 For the RF model, the Random Forest package of the Comprehensive R Archive Network
230 (CRAN) implemented by Liaw and Wiener (2002) was utilized. Training data were constructed
231 by stacking all satellite imagery spectral bands (Red, Blue, Green, and NIR) and NDVI bands for
232 each month of each year (25 total dimensions per year) to create a raster stack for each year's
233 imagery (2015 and 2016). To train the model, pixel values were extracted from the satellite

234 imagery raster stack for each training polygon mapped in the field. The random forest models
235 were built using 200 decision trees and default number of nodes at each split ($\text{sqrt}(n)$), with plant
236 community data as the response category (On-Grass, On-Forb, Off-Cool, Off-Warm, and Off-
237 Snow) and spectral band values as the predictor. Models were checked for error stabilization, for
238 all models error rates stabilized around 50 trees. Yearly models (2015 and 2016) were built for
239 output comparison. A combined years model was also constructed using all available spectral
240 data from 2015 and 2016 (50 dimensions).

241 Within the random forest package, Out of Bag (OOB) error rates were calculated by
242 reserving one-third of the training data to test the accuracy of the predictions. Models were then
243 used to predict class belonging for 2015 and 2016 raster stacks and the combined 2015 and 2016
244 stack using the ‘predict’ function within program R. To assess the stability of the RF models
245 from year to year, the “crosstab” function in the raster package in program R was used to
246 calculate the number of pixels that changed class from 2015 to 2016. The output was used to
247 calculate percent of pixels that were unchanged from 2015 to 2016 model predictions and
248 percent of pixel change that occurred between years for plant community predictions.

249 **Results and Discussion**

250 **Plant Community**

251 MRPP pairwise comparisons results showed a significant difference between all plant
252 communities ($P < 0.001$). Differences are evident between plant communities in the 2-D plot of
253 the NMS ordination (final stress = 20.01, instability < 0.00001 after 66 iterations), with some
254 overlap occurring between communities (Figure 1). Plant communities on-town and off-town
255 are clustered at opposite ends of the ordination plot, with the greatest distance being between On-
256 Forb and Off-Snow. Archer et al. (1987) showed in a detrended correspondence analysis of

257 plant communities ranging from uncolonized, 2 years post colonization, and 4-6 years post
258 colonization, that uncolonized sites were clustered at one extreme and the 4-6 year sites at the
259 other extreme. Interestingly, Off-Warm and On-Grass communities are clustered closer in
260 ordination space. Plant communities shifts on-town towards those dominated by shortgrass
261 species have been documented (Agnew et al. 1986; Koford 1958), and is probably attributable to
262 the high grazing resistance of the C4 species blue grama and buffalograss (Derner et al. 2006).
263 While there is some overlap between plant communities, in general similarities between plant
264 communities are low (< 29%), with the greatest similarity index differences generated from a
265 Sorenson (Bray-Curtis) distance matrix occurring between the On-Forb communities and the off-
266 town communities (Table 2). Based on how plant communities were selected in this study, we
267 expected plant community composition to be distinct between groups. Though plant
268 communities are defined by dominant functional group in this study, the amount of overlap
269 occurring demonstrates that other functional groups and species exist within these distinct
270 patches, which may be a potential source of error in classification models.

271 **Random Forest Model Results**

272 Results from the RF model show low OOB misclassification error rates for each
273 individual plant community (Table 3) indicating a high degree of accuracy in the model. Overall
274 the OOB model error rates were 0.9% and 1.12% for the 2015 and 2016 model respectively.
275 OOB accuracy is an unbiased estimate of the overall classification accuracy eliminating the need
276 for cross-validation (Breiman 2001). Lawrence et al. (2006) showed OOB error rates to be
277 reliable estimates of class accuracy for identifying invasive species. Similarly, OOB error rates
278 have been reported to be reliable in mapping corn and soybean fields across multiple years

279 (Zhong et al. 2014). Belgiu and Drăguț (2016) acknowledge that the reliability of OOB error
280 measurements needs to be further tested using a variety of datasets in different scenarios

281 Consistency in error rates for plant communities appears to indicate stability in the 2015
282 and 2016 RF models which used identical training sites on consecutive yearly satellite imagery.

283 However, when comparing yearly predicted plant community maps, differences between
284 community classifications are slightly more pronounced, indicating the models may not be as
285 stable as predicted based solely on the OOB error rates. Overall a total of 67.04% pixels
286 remained unchanged in their plant community classification from 2015 to 2016 (Table 4). The
287 pixels changing from On-Grass to Off-Cool represented the highest percentage of pixels that
288 changed plant community classification at 7.28%. Johnson-Nistler et al. (2004) observed up to 7
289 times more standing dead forage present on uncolonized sites compared to colonized areas,
290 mainly attributed to prairie dogs clipping vegetation which greatly reduced the amount of grasses
291 that reached maturity. Areas either less maintained on-town or grazed by cattle repeatable off-
292 town may show up similar spectral signatures. Additionally, On-Grass and Off-Cool plant
293 communities have western wheatgrass as a dominant species, and similarity in species
294 dominance between these communities may explain yearly shifts in predictions. Of the pixels
295 that changed classification between years, 15.13 were on-town to off-town transitions, 2.26 were
296 on-town to on-town transitions, and 15.57 were off-town to off-town plant community
297 transitions.

298 It is unlikely in this northern mixed-grass prairie ecosystem that all the changes in plant
299 communities indicated by classification of pixels were real changes from one plant community
300 type to another over one year. In the absence of a major disturbance event, such major shifts in
301 species composition typically occur much more slowly. The results from the plant community

302 analysis indicate training sites were chosen appropriately to account for differences in species
303 composition on the ground, therefore apparent changes are much more likely due to factors that
304 affect the spectral signature of the vegetation. One explanation for the difference in year to year
305 classification could be attributed to the interannual variability of rainfall between 2015 and 2016
306 (Figure 2). While overall total rainfall between years was similar, differences in timing of
307 precipitation that occurred likely affected timing of green up and dormancy for many of the cool
308 and warm season species on the site. This, then, would create different NDVI patterns between
309 years (Figure 3). Wehlage et al. (2016) for example, found that yearly rainfall differences
310 resulted in large differences in NDVI and biomass measurements across two years in a dry
311 mixed-grass prairie. Goward and Prince (1995) suggested that the relationship between NDVI
312 and annual rainfall in any given year also depends on the previous year history of rainfall at the
313 site, and Oesterheld et al. (2001) showed that annual above ground primary production of
314 shortgrass communities is related to current as well as previous two years precipitation. The
315 above average rainfall at the study site in 2015 could have added to the increase in average
316 NDVI in 2016 when compared to 2015 through an increase in cumulative biomass or production
317 at the site.

318 Another possible cause for changes in plant community classifications between years is
319 overlap of plant community species where two plant communities share a boundary. The edges
320 of plant communities in the NGP are seldom sharp; more often there is a transition zone, where
321 species from each community intermingle. This, along with variability in phenological
322 development of different plants (e.g. cool season vs. warm season) associated with precipitation,
323 as mentioned above, could result in pixels appearing to be associated with one plant community
324 in one year and its neighboring plant community the next. It should also be noted that plant

325 communities in the region, which are predominantly comprised of cool season grasses, often
326 include varying levels of warm season species; and snowberry thickets often have an understory
327 of grasses, especially near the perimeter. Thus one should expect some level of spectral mixing
328 within each community, and the possibility that climatic factors could result in changes in NDVI
329 values that, at least initially, might suggest apparent changes between plant communities.

330 As noted above, one issue with using categorically classified vegetation maps is that plant
331 communities in space are rarely mutually exclusive, and tend to change along a continuum with
332 environmental gradients (Equihua 1990). Thus, within both on-town and off-town plant
333 communities, transition zones are likely to account for a portion of the classification change
334 between plant communities between years (Figure 4). Alternative approaches to mapping plant
335 communities can be the recognition of fuzzy properties enabling a single point in space to exhibit
336 characteristics of a number of plant communities (Duff et al. 2014; Fisher 2010). For example,
337 Schmidlein et al. (2007) used NMS of species data in combination with imaging spectroscopy to
338 produce ordination maps of community structure. While fuzzy classification maps are more
339 likely to give a better picture of plant community composition on a per pixel basis, they are also
340 more difficult to use to draw inferences of species dominance and livestock use across
341 landscapes.

342 A final RF model combining all available bands and NDVI values for 2015 and 2016
343 reduced error rates for all plant communities below 1% (Table 3). While we have shown that
344 error rates may not result in more stable predictions, using all available data for a model will
345 likely improve accuracy and result in a more accurate thematic map. The variable importance
346 graph of the combined model indicates that NDVI variables contribute the most to the model
347 over individual bands (Figure 5). Similar results were observed by Mishra and Crews 2014,

348 where spectral classification features (mean NDVI or ratio NDVI) were the most significant for
349 classifying vegetation morphology in a savanna grassland. The variable importance plot from
350 the combined data model also indicates that different months between years contribute highly to
351 the classification accuracy. Of the ten most important variables in the model, 6 were from 2015
352 and 4 from 2016, suggesting additional data in the model is likely to yield greater classification
353 accuracy. Zhou et al. (2018) using RF models showed that a combination of four seasons of
354 Sentinel-1 images and a GaoFen-1 satellite winter image produced the highest classification rate
355 of urban land cover scenes over individual seasonal images. Likewise, several other studies
356 have reported increases in classification accuracy in RF models with the addition of combined
357 seasonal images, hyperspectral data, LiDAR images, radar (SAR) images, and ancillary
358 geographical data such as elevation and soil types (Corcoran et al. 2013; Pu et al. 2018; Shi et al.
359 2018; Xia et al. 2018; Yu et al. 2018). RF models have the ability to handle highly dimensional
360 correlated data, and data combined from multiple different data sources across different temporal
361 scales. The internal information provided by the model, such as variable importance, can be a
362 useful tool for researchers to select features of greatest importance to reduce computation times
363 in the instance of large datasets. At the size of our study area (810 ha) and a maximum of 50
364 variables, the combined 2015-16 data model only slightly added to computation time, but not
365 enough to warrant feature trimming from the dataset.

366 **Remote Sensing Prairie Dog Colonies**

367 Visual comparison of the predicted on-town plant communities versus off-town plant
368 communities show a clearly defined boundary between areas colonized by prairie dogs and areas
369 not colonized (Figure 6). Previous research has demonstrated that colonization by prairie dogs
370 and subsequent increases in grazing pressure can result in significant differences between on-

371 and off-town plant community composition and production (Coppock et al., 1983; Winter et al.
372 2002; Johnson-Nistler et al. 2004; Geaumont et al. 2019). The results of our study demonstrate
373 that these differences are significant enough to be identified using remote sensing techniques.
374 Interestingly, a considerable portion of the area misclassified as on-town is from a previously
375 colonized area that had been poisoned in 2013, suggesting that, at least spectrally, these areas
376 still resemble plant communities similar to those actively colonized. Additionally, most other
377 pixels misclassified as on-town are likely drainage areas with high bare ground off-town, whose
378 variability was not captured in the dataset. Results from mapping colony boundaries with a hand
379 held GPS device estimated the colony to be 276 ha in 2012 to 186 ha in 2015. Total colony
380 acreage estimated from summing the pixel area occupied by the On-Grass and On-Forb
381 community pixels from the combined 2015-2016 RF model was 246 ha. As mentioned prior, the
382 higher area estimate in from the RF model is likely the result of transition areas controlled two
383 years prior. One prior study had sought identify prairie dog colonies using 30m Landsat
384 imagery, however concluded that the scale was too course for accurately measuring prairie dog
385 towns (Wolbrink et al. 2002). High resolution satellite imagery used in this study appears
386 capable at capturing fine scale transitions that occur between plant communities along the on-
387 town off-town gradient.

388

389 **Conclusions**

390 Stability of models is important when applying similar techniques across different sites,
391 plant communities, and in this case years. Differences in year-to-year NDVI values may alter
392 classification results, and the addition of two years' worth of data likely resulted in improved
393 classification accuracy. One of the main benefits to RF classification in remote sensing is the

394 relatively fast computing time (Belgiu and Drăguț 2016), and, given the availability of free
395 satellite imagery, researchers would be prudent to include multiple images across years and
396 seasons in their model to improve accuracy. Furthermore, while the desired outcome is often to
397 produce thematic maps, recognizing that plant communities rarely exist in discrete communities
398 is important when trying to interpret remotely sensed classification maps. This is likely to be
399 magnified as pixel size decreases, resulting in fine scale predictions which may be more
400 susceptible to plant community transitions. Lastly, results from this study indicate that plant
401 community changes induced by prairie dogs are significant enough to be detected via remote
402 sensing techniques. Land managers looking to optimize rangeland health on pastures occupied
403 by prairie dogs may potentially utilize high resolution imagery to monitor colony size and make
404 recommendations of appropriate stocking rates based on extent of colonization.

405 **Acknowledgements**

406 We would like to acknowledge and thank the U.S. Department of Agriculture (Grant
407 Number 2011-68004-30052) for funding this research as well as North Dakota State University.
408 We would also like to thank the McLaughlin family for providing access to the land the research
409 was conducted.

410
411 **References**
412

413 Agnew, W.D., W. Uresk, D., & Hansen, M.R.: Flora and Fauna Associated with Prairie Dog
414 Colonies and Adjacent Ungrazed Mixed-Grass Prairie in Western South Dakota, *Journal of*
415 *Range Management*, 39, 135-139, 1986.

416
417 Archer, S., Garrett, M.G., & Detling, J.K.: Rates of Vegetation Change Associated with Prairie
418 Dog (*Cynomys ludovicianus*) Grazing in North American Mixed-Grass Prairie, *Vegetatio*, 72,
419 159-166, 1987.

420
421 Augustine, D.J., & Springer, T.L.: Competition and facilitation between a native and a domestic
422 herbivore: trade-offs between forage quantity and quality, *Ecological Applications*, 23, 850-863,
423 2013.

424
425 Barth, C.J., Liebig, M.A., Hendrickson, J.R., Sedivec, K.K., & Halvorson, G.: Soil Change
426 Induced by Prairie Dogs across Three Ecological Sites, *Soil Science Society of America Journal*,
427 78, 2054-2060, 2014.

428
429 Belgiu, M., & Drăguț, L.: Random forest in remote sensing: A review of applications and future
430 directions, *Isprs Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing*, 114, 24-31, 2016.
431
432 Blanco, L.J., Aguilera, M.O., Paruelo, J.M., & Biurrun, F.N.: Grazing effect on NDVI across an
433 aridity gradient in Argentina, *Journal of Arid Environments*, 72, 764-776, 2008.
434
435 Breiman, L.: Random Forest, *Machine Learning*, 45, 5-32, 2001.
436
437 Browning, D. M., A. Rango, J. W. Karl, C. M. Laney, E. R. Vivoni, & Tweedie, C. E.: Emerging
438 technological and cultural shifts advancing drylands research and management, *Frontiers in
439 Ecology and the Environment*, 13, 52-60, 2015.
440
441 Cho, M.A., Skidmore, A., Corsi, F., van Wieren, S.E., & Sobhan, I.: Estimation of green
442 grass/herb biomass from airborne hyperspectral imagery using spectral indices and partial least
443 squares regression, *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, 9,
444 414-424, 2007.
445
446 Coppock, D.L., Ellis J. E., Detling J. K., & Dyer, M.I.: Plant-herbivore interactions in a North
447 American mixed-grass prairie: Responses of bison to modification of vegetation by prairie dogs,
448 *Oecologia*, 56, 10-15, 1983.
449
450 Corbane, C., Lang, S., Pipkins, K., Alleaume, S., Deshayes, M., Milian, V.E.G., Strasser, T.,
451 Vanden Borre, J., Spanhove, T., & Foerster, M.: Remote sensing for mapping natural habitats
452 and their conservation status - New opportunities and challenges, *International Journal of
453 Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, 37, 7-16, 2015.
454
455 Corcoran, J., Knight, J., & Gallant, A.: Influence of Multi-Source and Multi-Temporal Remotely
456 Sensed and Ancillary Data on the Accuracy of Random Forest Classification of Wetlands in
457 Northern Minnesota, *Remote Sensing*, 5, 3212, 2013.
458
459 de Colstoun, E.C.B., Story, M.H., Thompson, C., Commissio, K., Smith, T.G., & Irons, J.R.:
460 National Park vegetation mapping using multitemporal Landsat 7 data and a decision tree
461 classifier, *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 85, 316-327, 2003.
462
463 Derner, J.D., Detling, J.K., & Antolin, M.F.: Are livestock weight gains affected by black-tailed
464 prairie dogs?, *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 4, 459-464, 2006.
465
466 Duff, T.J., Bell, T.L., & York, A.: Recognising fuzzy vegetation pattern: the spatial prediction of
467 floristically defined fuzzy communities using species distribution modelling methods, *Journal of
468 Vegetation Science*, 25, 323-337, 2014.
469
470 Equihua, M.: Fuzzy Clustering of Ecological Data, *Journal of Ecology*, 78, 519-534, 1990.
471
472 Fisher, P.F.: Remote sensing of land cover classes as type 2 fuzzy sets, *Remote Sensing of
473 Environment*, 114, 309-321, 2010.

474 Franke, J., Keuck, V., & Siegert, F.: Assessment of grassland use intensity by remote sensing to
475 support conservation schemes, *Journal for Nature Conservation*, 20, 125-134, 2012.

476

477 Geaumont, B.A., Hovick, T.J., Limb, R.F., Mack, W.M., Lipinski, A.R., & Sedivec, K.K.: Plant
478 and Bird Community Dynamics in Mixed-Grass Prairie Grazed by Native and Domestic
479 Herbivores, *Rangeland Ecology & Management*, 72, 374-384, 2019.

480

481 Geerken, R., Zaitchik, B., & Evans, J.P.: Classifying rangeland vegetation type and coverage
482 from NDVI time series using Fourier Filtered Cycle Similarity, *International Journal of Remote
483 Sensing*, 26, 5535-5554, 2005.

484

485 Goodin, D. G., & Henebry, G. M.: A technique for monitoring ecological disturbance in tallgrass
486 prairie using seasonal NDVI trajectories and a discriminant function mixture model, *Remote
487 Sensing of Environment*, 61, 270-278, 1997.

488

489 Goward, S.N., & Prince, S.D.: Transient Effects of Climate on Vegetation Dynamics: Satellite
490 Observations, *Journal of Biogeography*, 22, 549-564, 1995.

491

492 Johnson-Nistler, C. M., B. F. Sowell, H. W. Sherwood, & Wambolt, C. L.: Black-tailed prairie
493 dog effects on Montana's mixed-grass prairie, *Journal of Range Management*, 57, 641-648, 2004.

494

495 Jones, M. O., B. W. Allred, D. E. Naugle, J. D. Maestas, P. Donnelly, L. J. Metz, J. Karl, R.
496 Smith, B. Bestelmeyer, C. Boyd, J. D. Kerby, & McIver, J. D.: Innovation in rangeland
497 monitoring: annual, 30 m, plant functional type percent cover maps for U.S. rangelands, 1984–
498 2017, *Ecosphere* 9 (9), 2018.

499

500 Juel, A., Groom, G.B., Svenning, J.-C., & Ejrnæs, R.: Spatial application of Random Forest
501 models for fine- scale coastal vegetation classification using object based analysis of aerial
502 orthophoto and DEM data, *International Journal of Applied Earth Observation and
503 Geoinformation*, 42, 106-114, 2015.

504

505 Koford, C.B.: Prairie dogs, whitefaces, and blue grama, *Wildlife Society*, 1958.

506

507 Kruskal, J.B.: Nonmetric multidimensional scaling: A numerical method, *Psychometrika*, 29,
508 115-129, 1964.

509

510 Laliberte, A.S., Fredrickson, E.L., & Rango, A.: Combining decision trees with hierarchical
511 object-oriented image analysis for mapping arid rangelands, *Photogrammetric Engineering and
512 Remote Sensing*, 73, 197-207, 2007.

513

514 Lawrence, R.L., Wood, S.D., & Sheley, R.L.: Mapping invasive plants using hyperspectral
515 imagery and Breiman Cutler classifications (randomForest), *Remote Sensing of Environment*,
516 100, 356-362, 2006.

517

518 Liaw, A., & Wiener, M.: Classification and Regression by Random Forest, *R News*, 2, 18-22,
519 2002.

520
521 Lowe, B., & Kulkarni, A.: Multispectral Image Analysis Using Random Forest, International
522 Journal on Soft Computing, 6, 1-14, 2015.

523
524 McCune, B., & Mefford, M.: PC-ORD for windows, Multivariate analysis of ecological data,
525 Version, 6, 2002.

526
527 Mellor, A., Haywood, A., Stone, C., & Jones, S.: The Performance of Random Forests in an
528 Operational Setting for Large Area Sclerophyll Forest Classification, Remote Sensing, 5, 2838-
529 2856, 2013.

530
531 Miller, B.J., Reading, R.P., Biggins, D.E., Detling, J.K., Forrest, S.C., Hoogland, J.L., Javersak,
532 J., Miller, S.D., Proctor, J., Truett, J., & Uresk, D.W.: Prairie dogs: An ecological review and
533 current biopolitics, *Journal of Wildlife Management*, 71, 2801-2810, 2007.

534
535 Mishra, N.B., & Crews, K.A.: Mapping vegetation morphology types in a dry savanna
536 ecosystem: integrating hierarchical object-based image analysis with Random Forest,
537 International Journal of Remote Sensing, 35, 1175-1198, 2014.

538
539 Mitchell, S., Palmquist, K., Cohen, S., & Christensen, N.L.: Patterns of vegetation composition
540 and diversity in pine-dominated ecosystems of the Outer Coastal Plain of North Carolina:
541 Implications for ecosystem restoration, *Forest Ecology and Management*, 356, 64-73, 2015.

542
543 Mutanga, O., Adam, E., & Cho, M.A.: High density biomass estimation for wetland vegetation
544 using WorldView-2 imagery and random forest regression algorithm, *International Journal of
545 Applied Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, 18, 399-406, 2012.

546
547 Nitze, I., Barrett, B., & Cawkwell, F.: Temporal optimisation of image acquisition for land cover
548 classification with Random Forest and MODIS time-series, *International Journal of Applied
549 Earth Observation and Geoinformation*, 34, 136-146, 2015.

550
551 Oesterheld, M., Loret, J., Semmarin, M., & Sala, O.E.: Inter-annual variation in primary
552 production of a semi-arid grassland related to previous-year production, *Journal of Vegetation
553 Science*, 12, 137-142, 2001.

554
555 Pu, R.L., Landry, S., & Yu, Q.Y.: Assessing the potential of multi-seasonal high resolution
556 Pleiades satellite imagery for mapping urban tree species, *International Journal of Applied Earth
557 Observation and Geoinformation*, 71, 144-158, 2018.

558
559 Ramoelo, A., Cho, M.A., Mathieu, R., Madonsela, S., van de Kerchove, R., Kaszta, Z., & Wolff,
560 E.: Monitoring grass nutrients and biomass as indicators of rangeland quality and quantity using
561 random forest modelling and World View-2 data, *International Journal of Applied Earth
562 Observation and Geoinformation*, 43, 43-54, 2015.

563

564 Schmidlein, S., Zimmermann, P., Schüpferling, R., & Weiß, C.: Mapping the floristic
565 continuum: Ordination space position estimated from imaging spectroscopy, *Journal of
566 Vegetation Science*, 18, 131-140, 2007.

567

568 Shi, Y.F., Wang, T.J., Skidmore, A.K., & Heurich, M.: Important LiDAR metrics for
569 discriminating foresttree species in Central Europe, *Isprs Journal of Photogrammetry and
570 Remote Sensing*, 137, 163-174, 2018.

571

572 South Dakota Climate and Weather, South Dakota Climate and Weather Mesonet at SDSTATE,
573 Available at: <https://climate.sdsu.edu/archive/>, Accessed 1st Dec 2017

574 Wehlage, D.C., Gamon, J.A., Thayer, D., & Hildebrand, D.V.: Interannual Variability in Dry
575 Mixed-Grass Prairie Yield: A Comparison of MODIS, SPOT, and Field Measurements, *Remote
576 Sensing*, 8, 19, 2016.

577

578 Winter, S. L., J. F. Cully, & Pontius, J. S.: Vegetation of prairie dog colonies and non-colonized
579 short-grass prairie, *Journal of Range Management*, 55, 502-508, 2002.

580

581 Wolbrink, G. A., Jenks, J. A., Hubbard D. E., & Klaver, R. W.: Feasibility of using Landsat
582 satellite imagery to monitor black-tailed prairie dog towns in western South Dakota, Final report
583 to South Dakota Department of Game, Fish and Parks, 2002.

584 Xia, J.S., Yokoya, N., & Iwasaki, A.: Fusion of Hyperspectral and LiDAR Data With a Novel
585 Ensemble Classifier, *Ieee Geoscience and Remote Sensing Letters*, 15, 957-961, 2018.

586

587 Yu, Y., Li, M.Z., & Fu, Y.: Forest type identification by random forest classification combined
588 with SPOT and multitemporal SAR data, *Journal of Forestry Research*, 29, 1407-1414, 2018.

589

590 Zhong, L., Gong, P., & Biging, G.S.: Efficient corn and soybean mapping with temporal
591 extendability: A multi-year experiment using Landsat imagery, *Remote Sensing of Environment*,
592 140, 1-13, 2014.

593

594 Zhou, T., Zhao, M.F., Sun, C.L., & Pan, J.J.: Exploring the Impact of Seasonality on Urban
595 Land-Cover Mapping Using Multi-Season Sentinel-1A and GF-1 WVF Images in a Subtropical
596 Monsoon-Climate Region, *Isprs International Journal of Geo-Information*, 7, 2018.

597

598

599

600

601

602

603

604

605

606

Tables and Figures

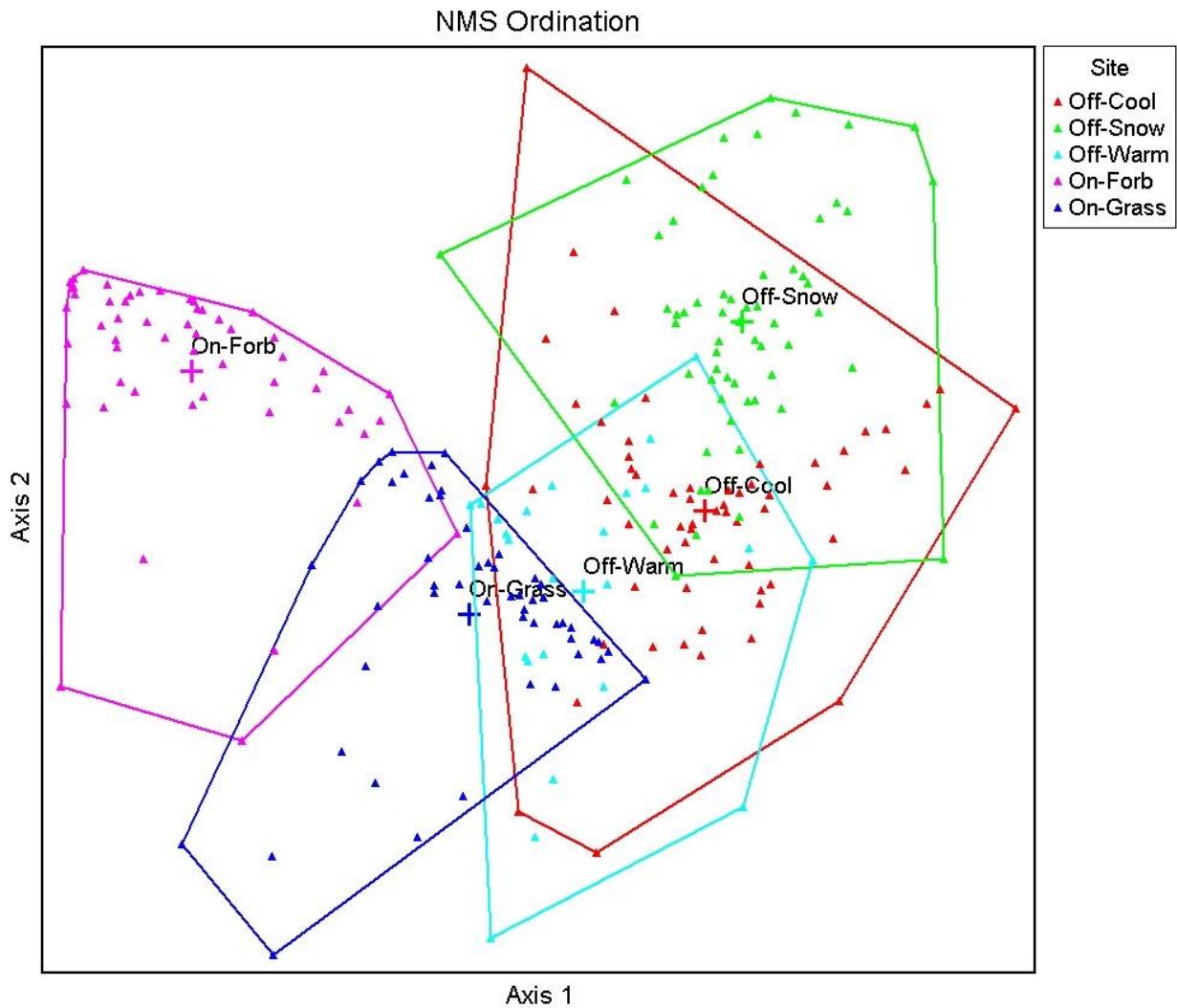
Table 1. Acquisition dates of Pleiades satellite imagery tasked for each month (June – October) in 2015 and 2016.

2015 Dates of Acquisition	2016 Dates of Acquisition
6/1/2015	6/5/2016
7/9/2015	7/2/2016
8/4/2015	8/2/2016
9/1/2015	9/11/2016
10/8/2015	10/1/2016

610 Table 2. Similarity index (Sorensen (Bray-Curtis) distance method) values averaged by plot
611 across plant communities.

Community Comparison ¹	Similiarity Index (%)
Off-Cool vs. Off-Snow	28.2
Off-Cool vs. Off-Warm	27.8
Off-Cool vs. On-PDG	27.7
Off-Snow vs. Off-Warm	21.6
On-PDG vs. On-PDF	17.8
Off-Snow vs. On-PDG	17.3
Off-Warm vs. On-PDG	17.3
Off-Cool vs. On-PDF	7.9
Off-Snow vs. On-PDF	6.2
Off-Warm vs. On-PDF	6.2

613 ¹Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (On-Grass) and forb-dominated
614 (On-Forb); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated (Off-Cool),
615 warm season grass-dominated (Off-Warm), and snowberry-dominated (Off-Snow).



620

621 Figure 1. NMS ordination plots for plant communities located on and off of prairie dog towns,
 622 based on plant cover by species data collected in 2016 on the study site in north central South
 623 Dakota. Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (On-Grass) and forb-
 624 dominated (On-Forb); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated
 625 (Off-Cool), warm season grass-dominated (Off-Warm), and snowberry-dominated (Off-Snow).
 626

627

628

629

630

Table 3: Out of Bag misclassification error rates (%) for each plant community for 2015, 2016, and combined year random forest models.

Plant Community ¹	2015 Model	2016 Model	2015-2016 Combined Model
Off-Cool	0.20%	0.40%	0.04%
Off-Snow	2.2%	1.9%	0.69%
Off-Warm	3.2%	5.3%	0.73%
On-Grass	0.40%	0.60%	0.09%
On-Forb	0.60%	0.70%	0.19%

631 ¹ Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (On-Grass) and forb-dominated
 632 (On-Forb); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated (Off-Cool),
 633 warm season grass-dominated (Off-Warm), and snowberry-dominated (Off-Snow).

634

635

636

637

638

639

640

641

642

643

644

645

646

647

648

649

650

651

652

653

654

655

656

657

658

659

660

661

662

663

664

665

666

667 Table 4: Percent of pixels within each plant community that remain unchanged and that changed class
 668 belonging between 2015 and 2016 models.

669

Transition	2015 PC ¹	2016 PC	Total Pixels	Percent of Total Pixels
Unchanged Pixels	Off-Cool	Off-Cool	9712857	31.03
	On-PDG	On-PDG	6427817	20.54
	Off-Snow	Off-Snow	3401264	10.87
	On-PDF	On-PDF	887151	2.83
	Off-Warm	Off-Warm	555635	1.78
Changed Pixels	On-PDG	Off-Cool	2278390	7.28
	Off-Cool	Off-Snow	1468042	4.69
	Off-Cool	On-PDG	1262373	4.03
	Off-Snow	Off-Cool	1174565	3.75
	Off-Warm	Off-Cool	729511	2.33
	Off-Cool	Off-Warm	716503	2.29
	Off-Warm	Off-Snow	629212	2.01
	On-PDG	Off-Snow	626695	2.00
	On-PDG	On-PDF	362417	1.16
	On-PDF	On-PDG	343774	1.10
	Off-Snow	On-PDG	281061	0.90
	Off-Snow	Off-Warm	155213	0.50
	On-PDG	Off-Warm	82450	0.26
	On-PDF	Off-Cool	72758	0.23
	Off-Cool	On-PDF	69188	0.22
	Off-Warm	On-PDG	43132	0.14
	On-PDF	Off-Snow	19575	0.06
	Off-Warm	On-PDF	573	0.00
	On-PDF	Off-Warm	314	0.00
	Off-Snow	On-PDF	17	0.00

670

671 ¹Plant communities (PC) on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (On-Grass) and forb-
 672 dominated (On-Forb); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated
 673 (Off-Cool), warm season grass-dominated (Off-Warm), and snowberry-dominated (Off-Snow).

674

675

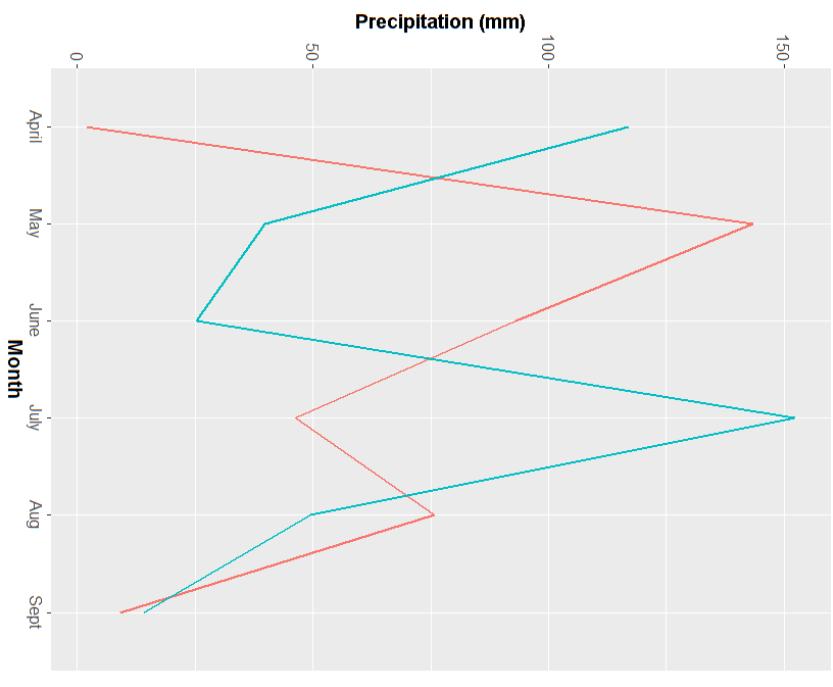
676

677

678

679

Monthly Growing Season Precipitation
for 2015 and 2016



Cumulative Growing Season Precipitation
for 2015 and 2016

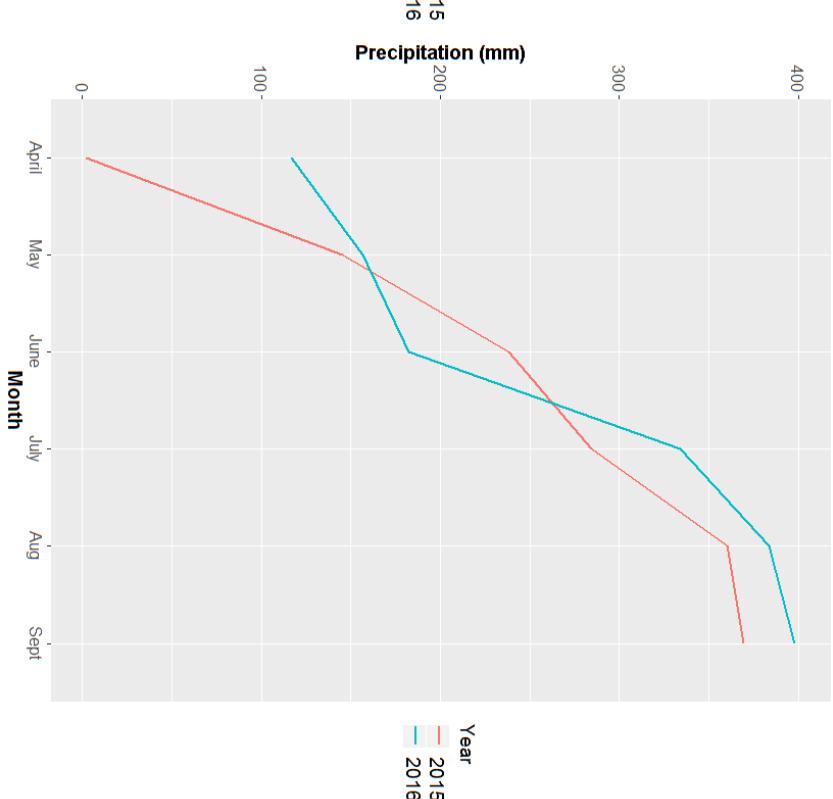


Figure 2: Monthly and cumulative growing season precipitation patterns for 2015 and 2016 recorded at a weather station located on the study area in north central SD (45.737296 N, -100.657540 W) (South Dakota Mesonet 2018).

NDVI Comparisons for Plant Communities 2015 vs. 2016

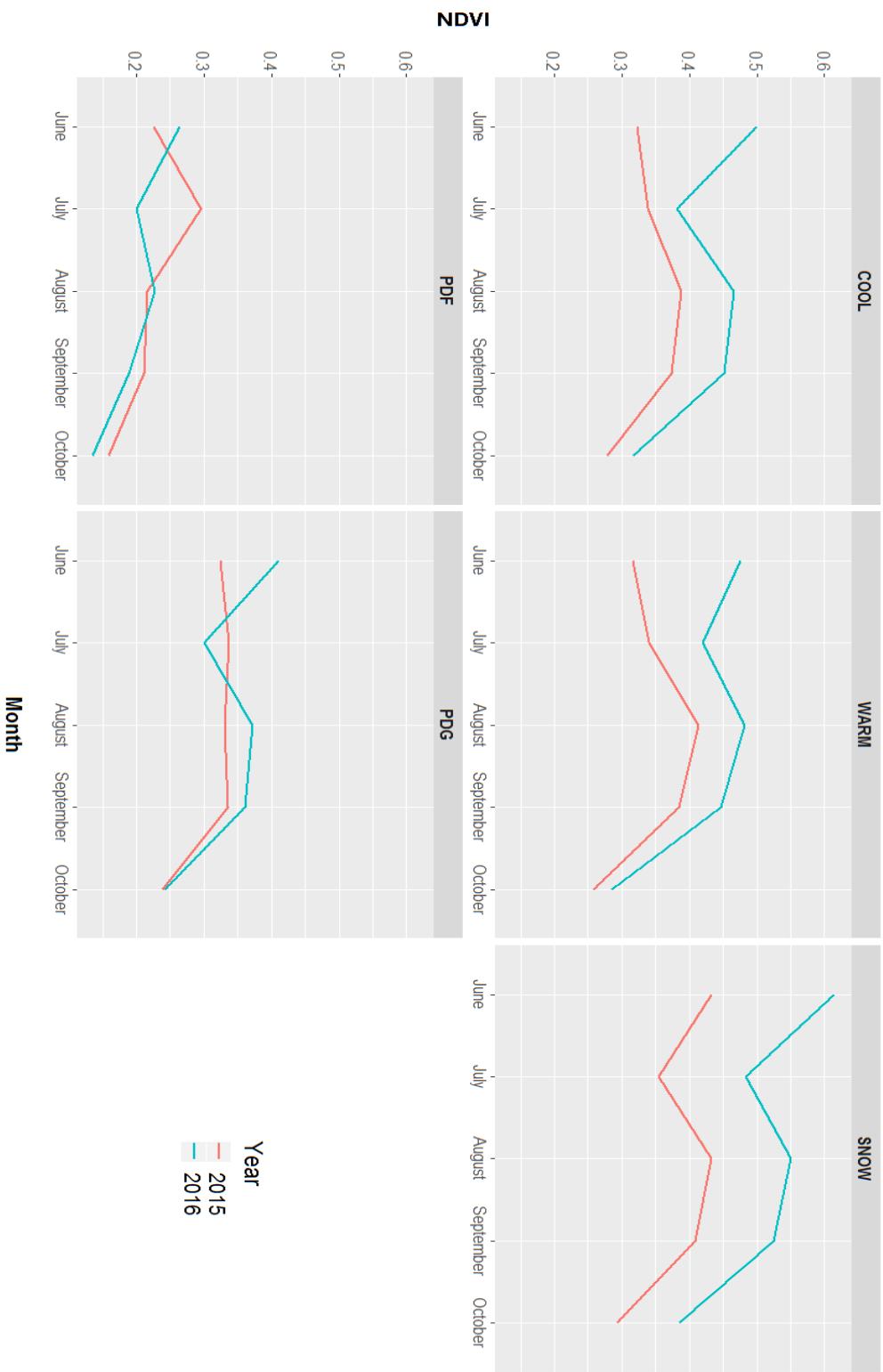
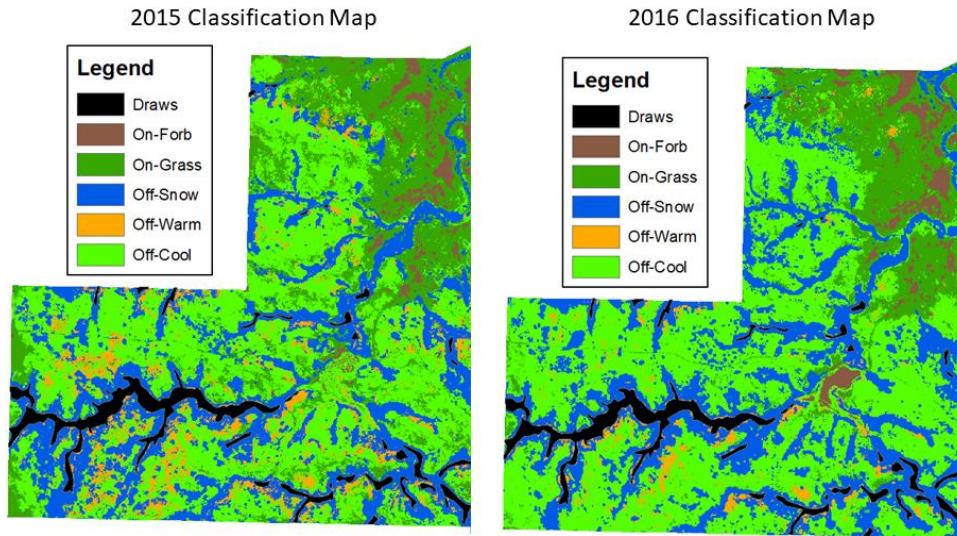
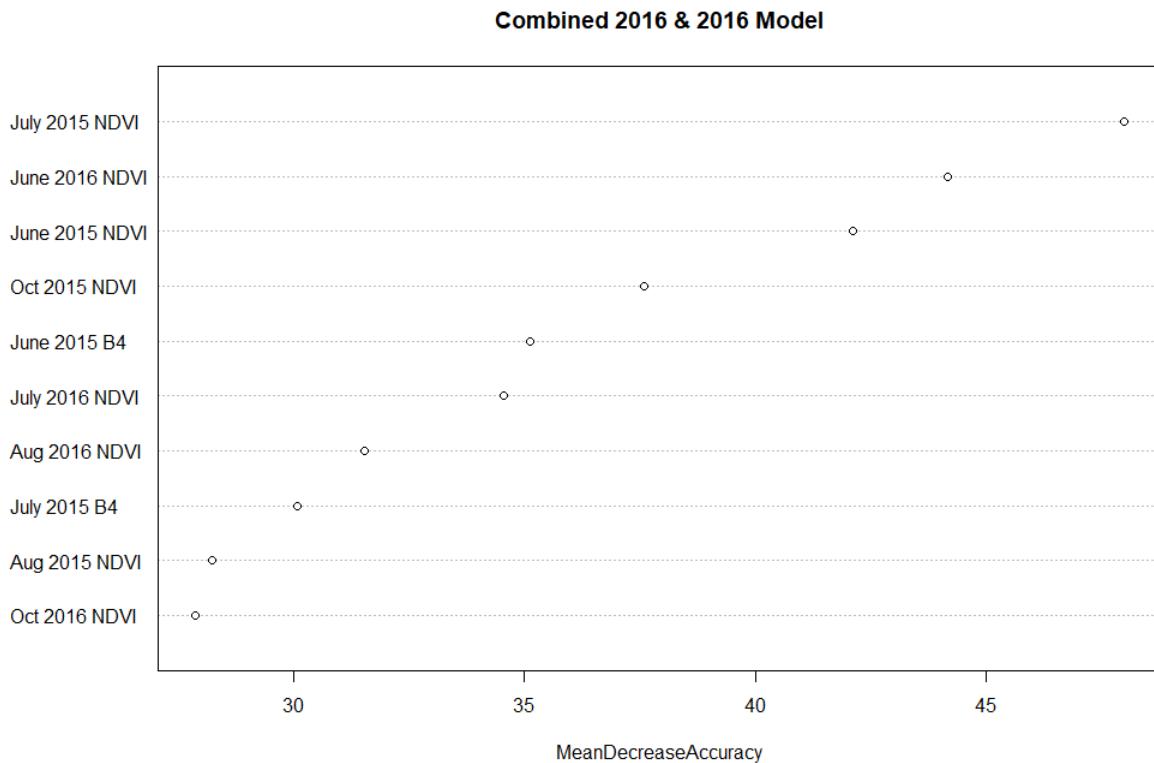


Figure 3: Comparison of mean monthly NDVI for training polygons in five plant communities on the study site in north central SD. Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (PDG) and forb-dominated (PDF); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated (COOL), warm season grass-dominated (WARM), and snowberry-dominated (SNOW).

684
685
686



687
688 Figure 4: Random forest classification maps from 2015 and 2016 of one pasture in the study area
689 in north central South Dakota. Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated
690 (On-Grass) and forb-dominated (On-Forb); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season
691 grass-dominated (Off-Cool), warm season grass-dominated (Off-Warm), and snowberry-
692 dominated (Off-Snow).
693



694

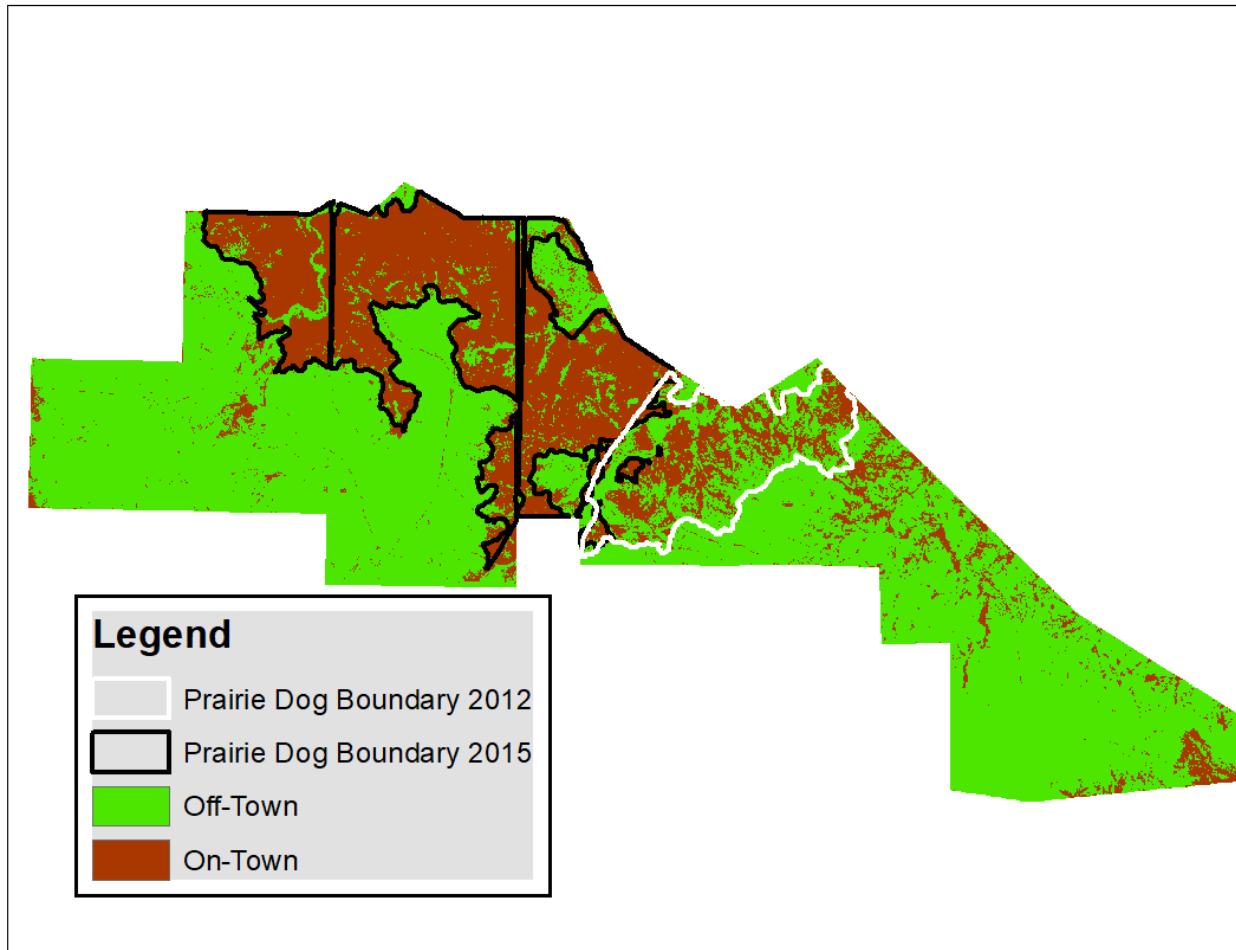
695 Figure 5: Variable importance reported as mean decrease in accuracy. Ten most important
 696 variables are shown, with B1 and B4 corresponding to spectral bands 1 and 4 respectively from
 697 Pleiades image. Variable importance is determined by the model output as the decrease in
 698 accuracy due to the exclusion of that variable during the out of bag error calculation process.
 699 Higher mean decrease in accuracy variables are more important in classifying the data.

700

701

702

703



704
705 Figure 6: Random forest classification map created from predictions from the combined 2015
706 and 2016 models. Off-town areas were created by combining the predicted off-town plant
707 communities (Off-Cool, Off-Warm, and Off-Snow) and on-town plant communities (On-Grass
708 and On-Forb). The prairie dog boundary was mapped using a handheld GPS unit, the outlined
709 2012 prairie dog boundary was former prairie dog colony poisoned in 2013.

710