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2 **TITLE**

3 Comparing Stability in Random Forest Models to Map Northern Great Plains Plant Communities
4 Using 2015 and 2016 Pleiades Imagery

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ABSTRACT

28 The use of high resolution imagery in remote sensing has the potential to improve
29 understanding of patch level variability in plant structure and community composition that may
30 be lost at coarser scales. Random forest (RF) is a machine learning technique that has gained
31 considerable traction in remote sensing applications due to its ability to produce accurate
32 classifications with highly dimensional data and relatively efficient computing times. The aim of
33 this study was to test the ability of RF to classify five plant communities located both on and off
34 prairie dog towns in mixed grass prairie landscapes of north central South Dakota, and assess the
35 stability of RF models among different years. During 2015 and 2016, Pleiades satellites were
36 tasked to image the study site for a total of five monthly collections each summer (June-
37 October). Training polygons were mapped in 2016 for the five plant communities and used to
38 train separate 2015 and 2016 RF models. The RF models for 2015 and 2016 were highly
39 effective at predicting different vegetation types associated with, and remote from, prairie dog
40 towns (misclassification rates < 5% for each plant community). However, comparisons between
41 the predicted plant community map using the 2015 imagery and one created with the 2016
42 imagery indicate 6.7% of pixels on-town and 24.3% of pixels off-town changed class
43 membership depending on the year used. Given the low model misclassification error rates, one
44 would assume that low changes in class belonging between years. The results show that while
45 RF models may predict with a high degree of accuracy, overlap of plant communities and inter-
46 annual differences in rainfall may cause instability in fitted models. Researchers should be
47 aware of similarities between target plant communities as well as issues that may arise with
48 using single season or single year images to produce vegetation classification maps.

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Keywords

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

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INTRODUCTION

54 Remote sensing of rangelands greatly improves our ability to study and understand
55 complex ecological interactions across the landscape. One of the main advantages of remote
56 sensing data is its capacity to cover wide areas, allowing assessment of plant communities at
57 landscape level scales as compared to traditional point-based assessments (Ramoelo et al. 2015;
58 Yu et al. 2018). Numerous studies have demonstrated the utility of remote sensing applications
59 in monitoring rangeland condition, including mapping of vegetation communities, plant species
60 composition, biomass estimation, and impact of grazing intensity on the landscape (Blanco et al.
61 2008; Franke et al. 2012). Successive images throughout a growing season may potentially help
62 explain patterns of cattle distribution and landscape utilization across temporal scales, or capture
63 phenological changes within the landscape to distinguish differences in warm- and cool-season
64 grass life history, or changes associated with early brown-down in forb- versus grass-dominated
65 communities on prairie dog towns.

66 Within the Northern Great Plains, black tailed prairie dog colonization is an issue of
67 concern for livestock producers (Miller et al. 2007). Competition between prairie dogs and
68 livestock is a major concern for land managers looking to optimize beef production while still
69 conserving wildlife species (Augustine and Springer 2013). Prairie dogs can reduce availability
70 of forage for livestock by directly reducing the quantity of forage available (through direct
71 consumption, clipping plants to increase predator detection, and building soil mounds), and by



72 changing species composition (Derner et al. 2006). Older core areas of prairie dog towns often
73 become characterized by extensive areas of bare ground and low vegetation production, which is
74 generally limited to annual forb and dwarf shrub species. Pastures containing extensive areas of
75 bare ground due to prairie dog colonization may potentially depress livestock forage intake rates
76 and ultimately beef production. Understanding the impact of prairie dogs on plant communities,
77 and use patterns of livestock within rangelands occupied by prairie dogs requires the ability to
78 map plant communities at landscape scales.

79 Advances in remote sensing technology have facilitated the mapping and assessment of a
80 broad range of habitats at different scales (Corbane et al. 2015). For example, Schmidlein et al.
81 (2007) used hyperspectral imagery at 2m resolution in combination with ordination techniques to
82 map functional plant group gradients in a Bavarian pasture. Within the Delaware Gap National
83 Recreation Area, multiple Landsat 7 scenes were used (30m resolution) with classification tree
84 algorithms to map forest and plant communities for the National Park Service Vegetation
85 Mapping Program (de Colstoun et al. 2003). In Majella National Park, Italy, 4m resolution
86 imagery was used with NDVI to map and predict grass and herbaceous biomass variability over
87 a 200 km² area (Cho et al. 2007). While the focus of many of these remote sensing studies is on
88 mapping plant communities at landscape scales to study land use changes and address
89 conservation related issues, the utility of using thematic maps derived from high resolution
90 satellite imagery to study plant and animal interactions has been less explored.

91 Several methods for accurately classifying plant communities using remote sensing
92 techniques have been used in numerous ecological and natural resource studies. One method,
93 random forest classification (RF), has gained considerable traction in the remote sensing
94 community for its ability to produce accurate classifications, handle highly dimensional data, and



95 provide efficient computing times (Belgiu and Drăguț 2016). RF is seen as an improvement over
96 simple classification tree analysis by reducing noise and misclassification of outliers (Laliberte et
97 al. 2007; Nitze et al. 2015). RF is an ensemble decision tree classifier which combines bootstrap
98 sampling to construct several individual decision trees from which a class probability is assigned
99 (Mellor et al. 2013). RF builds each tree using a deterministic algorithm selecting a random set
100 of variables and a random sample from the calibration data set (Ramoelo et al. 2015).

101 The utility of random forest algorithms has been proven in remote sensing applications.
102 Lowe and Kulkarni (2015) showed that RF outperformed maximum likelihood, support vector
103 machine, and neural network classification models using two Landsat scenes. Ramoelo et al.
104 (2015) successfully used RF modeling to predict leaf nitrogen content using World-View 2
105 satellite images in grassland and forest communities. Similarly, Mutanga et al. (2012) concluded
106 that RF regression modelling provided an effective methodology for variable selection and
107 predicting biomass in wetland environments. The greatest limitation of the general use of RF has
108 been, and continues to be, due to the lack of off-the-shelf tools for RF implementation within the
109 most common GIS and remote sensing software packages (Hamiton 2013).

110 Considerable research has focused on the application of RF classification across different
111 plant communities at various scales, however, concerns exist over the transferability of these
112 models to different sites or between seasons. Previous research has shown that RF models have
113 a high degree of classification accuracy at local scales, but model accuracy decreases
114 significantly when applied to spatially separated sites, showing a lack of stability in the model
115 (Juel et al. 2015). Other research has focused on the use of seasonality of image acquisition on
116 improvement of RF models due to spectral differences in plant communities as a result of
117 phenological change during a growing season. Corcoran et al. (2013) showed an improvement



118 of RF model accuracy in classifying wetlands in northern Minnesota with the inclusion of spring
119 Landsat 5 images across two years over a full season versus summer only, and fall only models.

120 Many of the plant community classification studies in remote sensing tend to focus on
121 acquiring a single image or multiple images across a single growing season, reducing the
122 influence of inter-annual precipitation on NDVI values (Adjorlolo et al. 2014; Beeri et al. 2007;
123 Guo et al. 2000). Furthermore, most research studies focus solely on spectral differences in plant
124 communities and fail to analyze community differences on the ground at the species level (de
125 Colstoun et al. 2003; Geerken et al. 2005). While classification rates are often reported in
126 studies, the potential overlap in plant community species is rarely explored as a potential source
127 of error within the models. Additionally, very little research has examined how yearly
128 differences in NDVI values across plant communities can alter classification models, especially
129 in high resolution satellite imagery.

130 We conducted a large, collaborative study from 2012-2016 designed to evaluate livestock
131 production on mixed-grass prairie pastures with varying levels of prairie dog occupation. A
132 major goal of that study was to determine which plant communities on the pastures cattle
133 preferred to graze, and how those preferences shifted within and between years. Plant
134 communities on the site were categorized based on location (on- or off-town) and visually
135 apparent dominant plant functional groups. We expected the plant communities to remain
136 relatively stable during the study, however their signatures on satellite imagery could change
137 within and between years as a result of the timing and magnitude of rainfall and dry periods,
138 timing of green up, phenological progression, and other factors. The overall goal, then, was to
139 develop maps that accurately classify plant communities based on satellite imagery collected
140 between seasons and years. Specific objectives of this study were to 1) determine differences in



141 the five identified plant communities based on species composition, 2) assess the utility of using
142 a RF model with high resolution satellite imagery to classify plant communities of interest within
143 the Northern Great Plains, and 3) determine the stability of the RF model when using subsequent
144 years of satellite imagery with identical training data. Our ability to map and understand these
145 plant dynamics and patterns at large scales will give researchers insight into applying RF models
146 across years. Research from this study will allow us to better assess how plant communities
147 drive cattle foraging behavior, and evaluate how changes throughout a growing season can cause
148 cattle to shift behavior in response to new resources becoming available.

149 **METHODS**

150 **Study site**

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



164 (*Quercus macrocarpa* Nutt.), American plum (*Prunus americana* Marshall), and chokecherry
165 (*Prunus virginiana* L.). These draws are frequently flanked by snowberry-dominated patches
166 (*Symporicarpos occidentalis* Hook.). Plant communities on areas occupied by prairie dog
167 towns on the site are largely dominated by western wheatgrass and shortgrasses (buffalograss,
168 blue grama, and sedges) intermixed with patches of bare ground and annual forb dominated
169 areas. Common annual forbs on prairie dog towns include prostrate knotweed (*Polygonum*
170 *aviculare* L.), fetid marigold (*Dyssodia papposa* Vent.), dwarf horseweed (*Conyza ramosissima*
171 Cronquist), and scarlet globemallow (*Sphaeralcea coccinea* Nutt.). Mean annual rainfall at the
172 site is 446 mm and average growing season (May through September) temperature is 15.3°C
173 (Mesonet).

174 Five plant communities of interest for our study site were identified: 1) Forb-dominated
175 sites on prairie dog towns (PDF), 2) Grass-dominated sites on prairie dog towns (PDG), 3)
176 Snowberry-dominated sites off-town (SNOW), 4) Cool season grass-dominated sites off-town
177 (COOL), and 5) Warm season-dominated sites off-town (WARM).

178 **Training sites**

179 To facilitate classification, training site polygons were mapped for PDF, PDG, COOL,
180 WARM, and SNOW plant communities using ArcPad for Trimble GPS units in the summer of
181 2016. Twenty training sites were mapped for each of the plant communities except WARM, for
182 which only 8 sites were mapped due to the difficulty of finding homogenous stands of warm
183 season grasses. Plant species in the Northern Great Plains are dominated by cool season species;
184 warm season species, where they occur, are typically intermixed into stands of cool season
185 species. Training sites for each plant community were selected from across the entire study area
186 to capture potential site differences across research pastures. Sites were mapped in the field by



187 walking the perimeter of the plant community patch with a Trimble GPS unit. Training polygon
188 perimeter boundaries were always at least 3 meters interior of patch edge to minimize error
189 introduced to the training data as a result of GPS signal noise. Identified patches were then
190 converted into a polygon shapefile within ArcGIS to be used as training polygons for the RF
191 classification algorithm. Within each training site polygon, three 0.25 m² plots were randomly
192 located. Within each plot, percent cover by species was recorded in the summer of 2016 at the
193 time of polygon mapping.

194 **Plant Community Analysis**

195 Plant community analysis was performed on vegetation data collected from the three 0.25m²
196 plots measured in each training polygon. Differences between plant community compositions
197 were determined using a Multi-Response Permutation Procedure (MRPP) with the Sorensen
198 Bray-Curtis distance method. MRPP is a nonparametric procedure used for testing hypotheses
199 between two or more groups (Mitchell et al. 2015). Differences in community compositions
200 were analyzed separately between on-town groups (PD = PDF and PDG) and off-town groups
201 (NPD = COOL, WARM, and SNOW). Although differences between all 5 plant communities
202 are likely to occur, comparisons between on-town and off-town were not made. On-town and
203 off-town sites were mutually exclusive from each other; for example, PDG cannot occur off-
204 town. To analyze trends in species composition between plant community plots, Non-metric
205 Multidimensional Scaling (NMS) ordination was used (Kruskal 1964). Only species that
206 occurred in 3 or more plots were included in the ordination analysis. NMS analysis was
207 conducted using the Sorensen Bray-Curtis distance method with 250 iterations and a stability
208 criterion of 0.00001. Analysis was repeated five times to confirm ordination pattern in the data.
209 Similarity index matrices were generated to compare plot differences between off-town plant



210 communities and between on-town plant communities and averaged by plant community. All
211 ordination analyses (MRPP and NMS) were performed using PC-ORD 6 software (McCune and
212 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). Boundaries of the prairie dog town were mapped in the fall of
225 2015 using a handheld Trimble GPS unit. Post collection processing of the images included
226 extracting off-town and on-town locations using the “Extract By Mask” tool in ArcGIS.
227 Separate RF models were developed for on-town and off-town plant communities because such
228 plant communities are mutually exclusive on the site (e.g. PDG cannot exist at off-town
229 locations). Each monthly image collection was converted into an NDVI image using the
230 formula:

$$231 \quad NDVI = \frac{NIR-Red}{NIR+Red}$$

232 **Random Forest model**



233 For the RF model, the Random Forest package of the Comprehensive R Archive Network
234 (CRAN) implemented by Liaw and Wiener (2002) was utilized. Training data were constructed
235 by stacking all satellite imagery spectral bands (Red, Blue, Green, and NIR) and NDVI bands for
236 each month of each year (25 total dimensions per year) to create a raster stack for each year's
237 imagery (2015 and 2016). To train the model, pixel values were extracted from the satellite
238 imagery raster stack for each training polygon mapped in the field. The random forest models
239 were built using 100 decision trees and default number of nodes at each split, with plant
240 community data as the response category (WARM, COOL, SNOW, PDF, PDG) and spectral
241 band values as the predictor. Models built for comparison include 2015 off-town, 2015 on-town,
242 2016 off-town, and 2016 on-town. A combined years model was also constructed using all
243 available spectral data from 2015 and 2016 (50 dimensions).

244 Within the random forest package, Out of Bag (OOB) error rates were calculated by
245 reserving one-third of the training data to test the accuracy of the predictions. Models were then
246 used to predict class belonging for 2015 and 2016 raster stacks and the combined 2015 and 2016
247 stack. To assess the stability of the RF models from year to year, the “Combinatorial And” tool
248 in ArcGIS was used to create a new raster combining plant community prediction data from
249 2015 and 2016. The output was used to calculate percent of pixels that were unchanged between
250 the 2015 and 2016 model predictions and percent of change that occurred between years for
251 plant community predictions.

252 **Results and Discussion**

253 MRPP pairwise comparisons were made within on-town communities (PDF vs. PDG)
254 and within off-town communities (COOL vs. WARM vs. SNOW), but not between on- and off-
255 town communities (Table 2). Each plant community was significantly different from all other



256 communities within its on-town or off-town area ($P < 0.001$). Substantial differences are evident
257 between off-town plant communities in the 2-D plot of the NMS ordination (final stress =
258 15.465, instability < 0.00001 after 98 iterations), with some overlap occurring between
259 communities (Figure 1). The On-Town 2-D NMS ordination plot (final stress = 15.591,
260 instability = 0.0005 after 50 iterations) also indicates substantial differences between
261 communities, but with fairly minimal overlap (Figure 1). While there is some overlap between
262 plant communities, in general similarities between plant communities are low, with a similarity
263 index generated from a Sorenson (Bray-Curtis) distance matrix of 21.5 – 27.9% when comparing
264 off-town plant communities and 15.6% when comparing PDF and PDG (Table 2).

265 Variable importance factor graphs indicate that NDVI training values by month tend to
266 contribute the most to each model for both years, both on- and off-town (Figure 2). Similar
267 results were observed by (Mishra and Crews 2014), where spectral classification features (mean
268 NDVI or ratio NDVI) were the most significant for classifying vegetation morphology in a
269 savanna grassland. Differences between importance of months between years within site is
270 likely the result of interannual precipitation timing between the years, with plant communities
271 greening up or browning down earlier or later depending on seasonal rainfall. Results from the
272 RF model show low OOB misclassification error rates (Table 3) indicating a high degree of
273 accuracy in the model. The lower similarity index (Table 2) for on-town communities compared
274 to off-town communities may help explain the lower OOB classification error rates (Table 3) as
275 well as the lower frequency of pixels changing class in the on-town communities (Table 4).
276 OOB error rate was below 5% for all models. OOB accuracy is an unbiased estimate of the
277 overall classification accuracy eliminating the need for cross-validation (Breiman 2001).
278 Lawrence et al. (2006) showed OOB error rates to be reliable estimates of class accuracy for



279 identifying invasive species. Similarly, OOB error rates have been reported to be reliable in
280 mapping corn and soybean fields across multiple years (Zhong et al. 2014). Belgiu and Drăguț
281 (2016) acknowledge that the reliability of OOB error measurements needs to be further tested
282 using a variety of datasets in different scenarios

283 Consistency in error rates for plant communities appears to indicate stability in the 2015
284 and 2016 RF models which used identical training sites on consecutive yearly satellite imagery.
285 However, when comparing yearly predicted plant community maps, differences between
286 community classifications are slightly more pronounced, indicating the models may not be as
287 stable as predicted based solely on the OOB error rates. The pixels that were classified as
288 representing one plant community in 2015 and a different one in 2016 were 24.3% of the total
289 off-town pixels and 6.7% of total on-town pixels (Table 4). The pixels changing from COOL to
290 SNOW and SNOW to COOL represented the highest percentage of pixels that changed plant
291 community in off-town areas. COOL and SNOW plant communities, however, occupied the
292 largest area on the site, and represented 70.3 and 21.0% of total pixels in 2015 and 68.5 and 25.1
293 % of total off-town pixels in 2016, respectively.

294 It is unlikely in this northern mixed-grass prairie ecosystem that all the changes in plant
295 communities indicated by classification of pixels were real changes from one plant community
296 type to another over one year. Such major shifts in species composition typically occur much
297 more slowly. The results from the plant community analysis indicate training sites were chosen
298 appropriately to account for differences in species composition on the ground, therefore apparent
299 changes are much more likely due to factors that affect the spectral signature of the vegetation.
300 One explanation for the difference in year to year classification could be attributed to the
301 interannual variability of rainfall between 2015 and 2016 (Figure 3). While overall total rainfall



302 between years was similar, differences in timing of precipitation that occurred likely affected
303 timing of green up and dormancy for many of the cool and warm season species on the site. This,
304 then, would create different NDVI patterns between years (Figure 4). Wehlage et al. (2016) for
305 example, found that yearly rainfall differences resulted in large differences in NDVI and biomass
306 measurements across two years in a dry mixed-grass prairie. Goward and Prince (1995)
307 suggested that the relationship between NDVI and annual rainfall in any given year also depends
308 on the previous year history of rainfall at the site, and Oesterheld et al. (2001) showed that
309 annual above ground primary production of shortgrass communities is related to current as well
310 as previous two years precipitation. The above average rainfall at the study site in 2015 could
311 have added to the increase in average NDVI in 2016 when compared to 2015 through an increase
312 in cumulative biomass or production at the site. Another possible cause for changes in plant
313 community classifications between years is overlap of plant community species where two plant
314 communities share a boundary. The edges of plant communities in the NGP are seldom sharp;
315 more often there is a transition zone, where species from each community intermingle. This,
316 along with variability in phenological development of different plants (e.g. cool season vs. warm
317 season) associated with precipitation, as mentioned above, could result in pixels appearing to be
318 associated with one plant community in one year and its neighboring plant community the next.
319 It should also be noted that plant communities in the region, which are predominantly comprised
320 of cool season grasses, often include varying levels of warm season species; and snowberry
321 thickets often have an understory of grasses, especially near the perimeter. Thus one should
322 expect some level of spectral mixing within each community, and the possibility that climatic
323 factors could result in changes in NDVI values that, at least initially, might suggest apparent
324 changes between plant communities.



325 As noted above, one issue with using categorically classified vegetation maps is that plant
326 communities in space are rarely mutually exclusive, and tend to change along a continuum with
327 environmental gradients (Equihua 1990). Thus, within both on-town and off-town plant
328 communities, transition zones are likely to account for a portion of the classification change
329 between plant communities between years (Figure 5). Alternative approaches to mapping plant
330 communities can be the recognition of fuzzy properties enabling a single point in space to exhibit
331 characteristics of a number of plant communities (Duff et al. 2014; Fisher 2010). For example,
332 Schmidlein et al. (2007) used NMS of species data in combination with imaging spectroscopy to
333 produce ordination maps of community structure. While fuzzy classification maps are more
334 likely to give a better picture of plant community composition on a per pixel basis, they are also
335 more difficult to use to draw inferences of species dominance and livestock use across
336 landscapes.

337 A final RF model combining all available bands and NDVI values for 2015 and 2016
338 reduced error rates for all plant communities below 1% (Table 3). While we have shown that
339 error rates may not result in more stable predictions, using all available data for a model will
340 likely improve accuracy and result in a more accurate thematic map (Figure 6). Zhou et al.
341 (2018) using RF models showed that using a combination of four seasons of Sentinel-1 images
342 and a GaoFen-1 satellite winter image produced the highest classification rate of urban land
343 cover scenes over individual seasonal images. Likewise, several other studies have reported
344 increases in classification accuracy in RF models with the addition of combined seasonal images,
345 hyperspectral data, LiDAR images, radar (SAR) images, and ancillary geographical data such as
346 elevation and soil types (Corcoran et al. 2013; Pu et al. 2018; Shi et al. 2018; Xia et al. 2018; Yu
347 et al. 2018). RF models have the ability to handle highly dimensional correlated data, and data



348 combined from multiple different data sources across different temporal scales. The internal
349 information provided by the model, such as variable importance, can be a useful tool for
350 researchers to select features of greatest importance to reduce computation times in the instance
351 of large datasets. At the size of our study area (810 ha) and a maximum of 50 variables, the
352 combined 2015-16 data model only slightly added to computation time, but not enough to
353 warrant feature trimming from the dataset. Variable importance plots from the combined data
354 model also indicate that different months between years contribute highly to the classification
355 accuracy between models. For example June 2016 NDVI and October 2015 NDVI were the
356 most important for classification of the data based on the variable importance plot from the
357 combined years' model.

358 **Conclusions**

359 Stability of models is important when applying similar techniques across different sites,
360 plant communities, and in this case years. Differences in year-to-year NDVI values may alter
361 classification results; those differences may be even more pronounced if only one or two satellite
362 imagery scenes are used from a single year. One of the main benefits to RF classification in
363 remote sensing is the relatively fast computing time (Belgiu and Drăguț 2016), and, given the
364 availability of free satellite imagery, researchers would be prudent to include multiple images
365 across years and seasons in their model to improve accuracy. Furthermore, while the desired
366 outcome is often to produce thematic maps, recognizing that plant communities rarely exist in
367 discrete communities is important when trying to interpret remotely sensed classification maps.
368 This is likely to be magnified as pixel size increases, resulting in less “pure” vegetation structure
369 in the classified pixel. Further work should examine the reliability of OOB error rates across



370 different scenarios, and the influence of year and timing of image acquisition on classification
371 results.

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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

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

Community ¹	Similarity Index (%)
COOL vs. SNOW	27.9
COOL vs. WARM	27.6
SNOW vs. WARM	21.5
PDG vs. PDF	15.6

¹Plant 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).

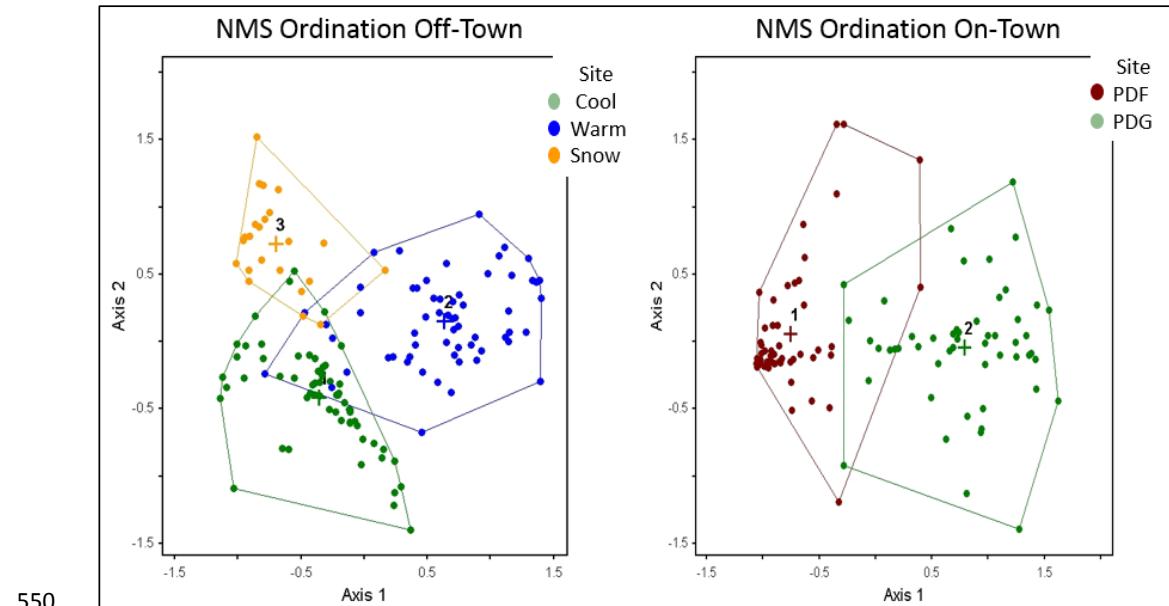
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552 Figure 1. NMS ordination plots for plant communities located on and off of prairie dog towns,
553 based on plant cover by species data collected in 2016 on the study site in north central South
554 Dakota. Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (PDG) and forb-
555 dominated (PDF); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated
556 (COOL), warm season grass-dominated (WARM), and snowberry-dominated (SNOW).

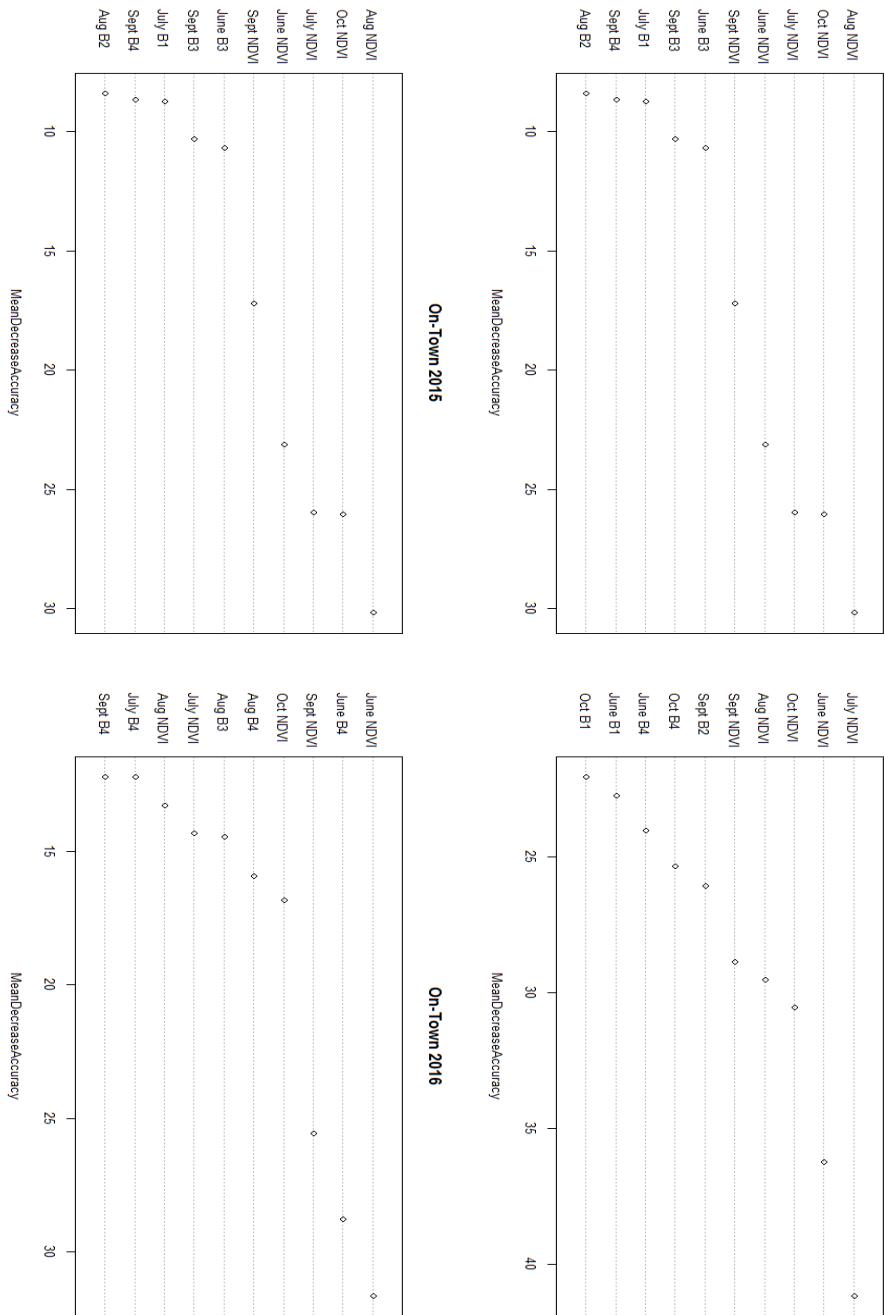


Figure 2: Variable importance reported as mean decrease in accuracy. Ten most important variables are shown, with B1 and B4 corresponding to spectral bands 1 and 4 respectively from Pleiades image. Variable importance is determined by the model output as the decrease in accuracy due to the exclusion of that variable during the out of bag error calculation process. Higher mean decrease in accuracy variables are more important in classifying the data.



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
COOL	0.20%	0.20%	0.03%
SNOW	2%	2%	0.60%
WARM	3%	5%	0.70%
PDG	0.30%	0.20%	0.07%
PDF	0.90%	0.70%	0.30%

558 ¹Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (PDG) and forb-dominated (PDF);
 559 plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated (COOL), warm season
 560 grass-dominated (WARM), and snowberry-dominated (SNOW).

561 Table 4: Percent of pixels within each area (prairie dog town and off-town) for each plant community
 562 that remain unchanged and are changed between class belonging between 2015 and 2016 models.

Community Location	Transitions ¹	Percent of Total Area Pixels
	Unchanged Pixels	93.3
Prairie Dog Town	PDG ↔ PDF	6.7
	Unchanged Pixels	75.7
	COOL ↔ SNOW	14.1
	COOL ↔ WARM	6.7
Off-Town	SNOW ↔ WARM	3.5

563 ¹Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (PDG) and forb-dominated (PDF);
 564 plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated (COOL), warm season
 565 grass-dominated (WARM), and snowberry-dominated (SNOW).

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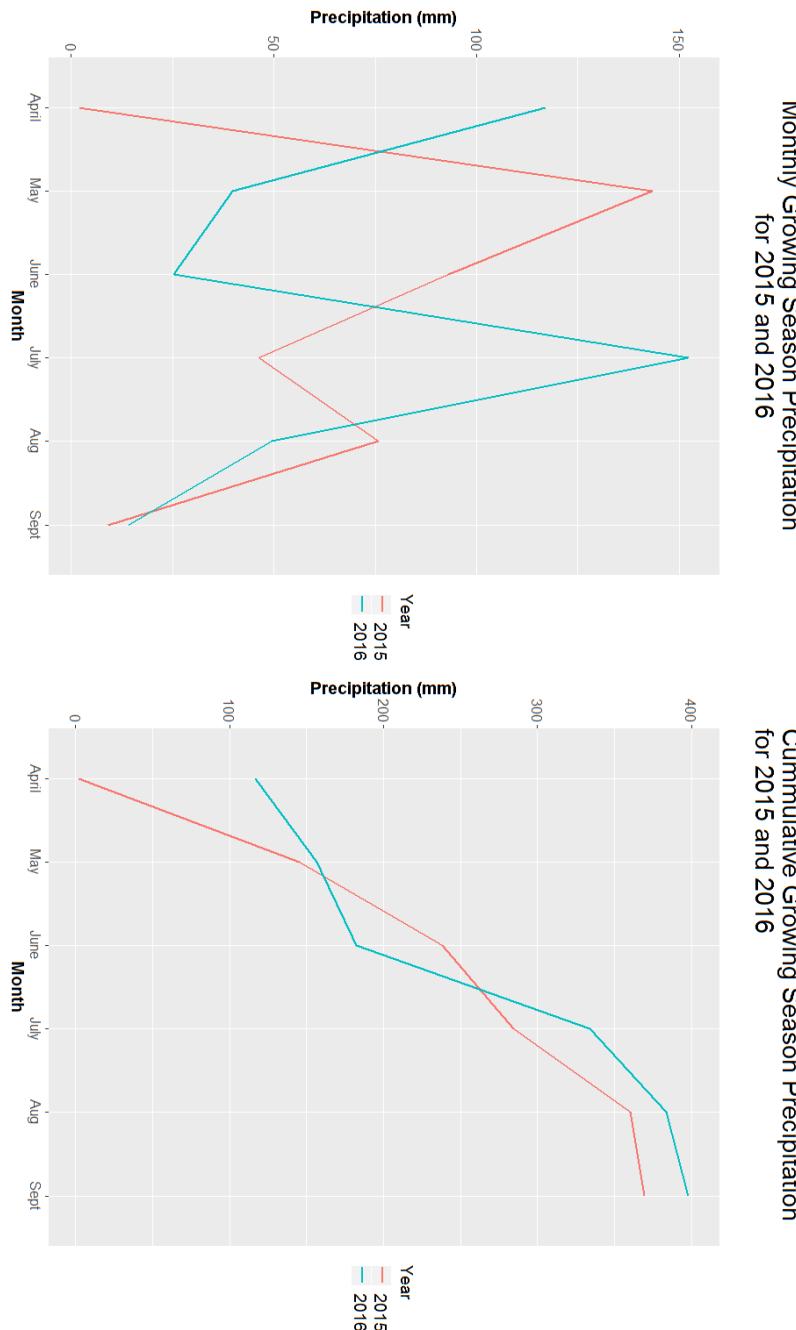


Figure 3: Monthly and cumulative growing season precipitation patterns for 2015 and 2016 recorded at a weather station located on the study area in north central SD (45.737296 N, -100.657540 W) (South Dakota Mesonet 2018).

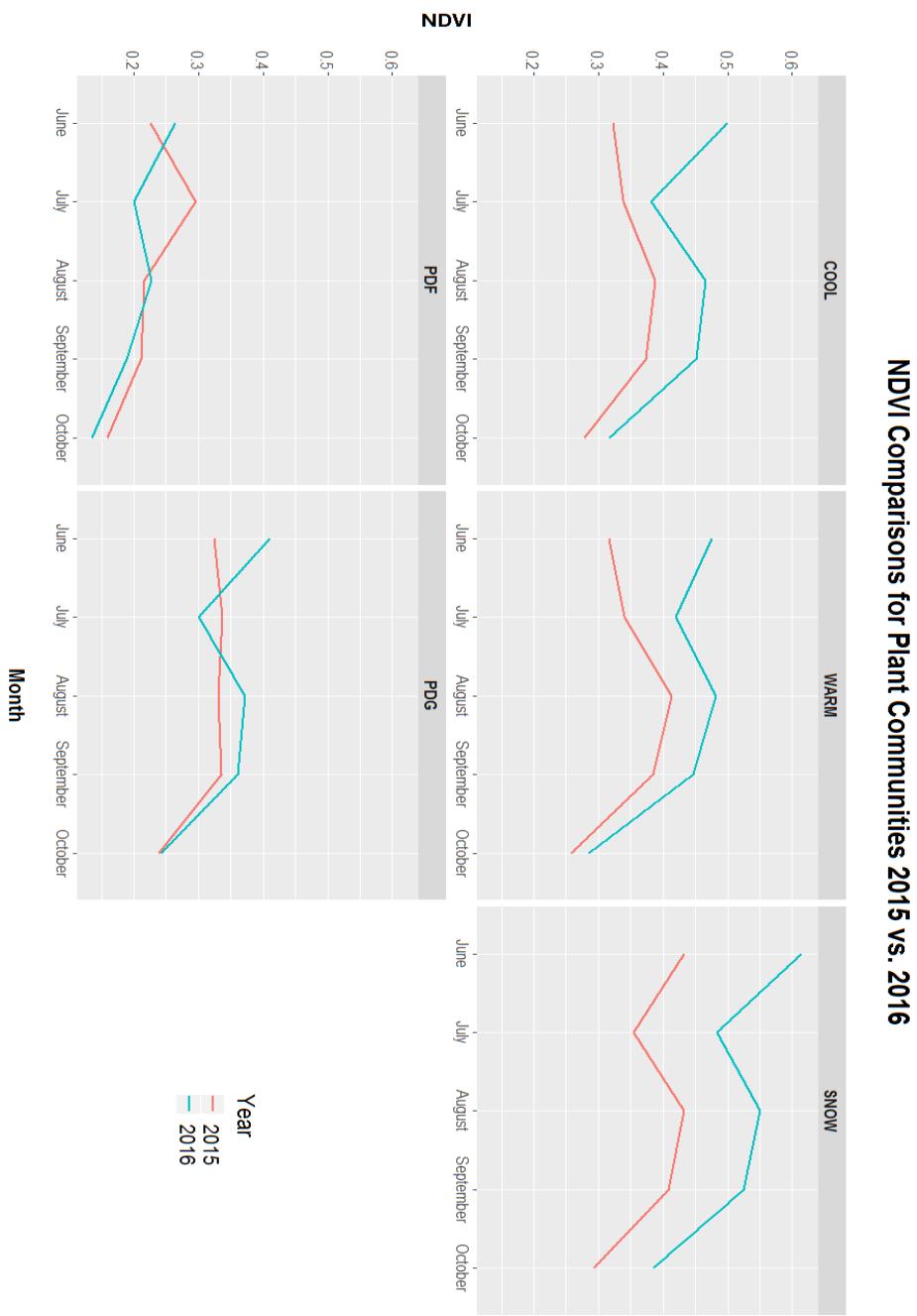
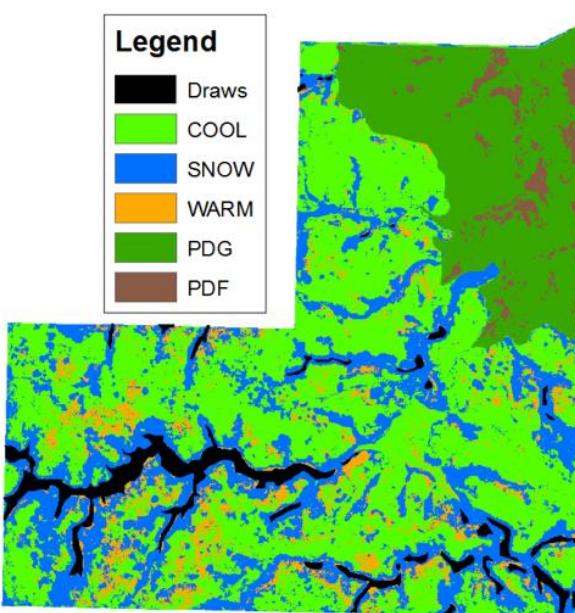


Figure 4: Comparison of mean monthly NDVI for training polygons in five plant communities on the study site in north central SD. Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (PDG) and forb-dominated (PDF); plant communities in off-town areas are cool season grass-dominated (COOL), warm season grass-dominated (WARM), and snowberry-dominated (SNOW).

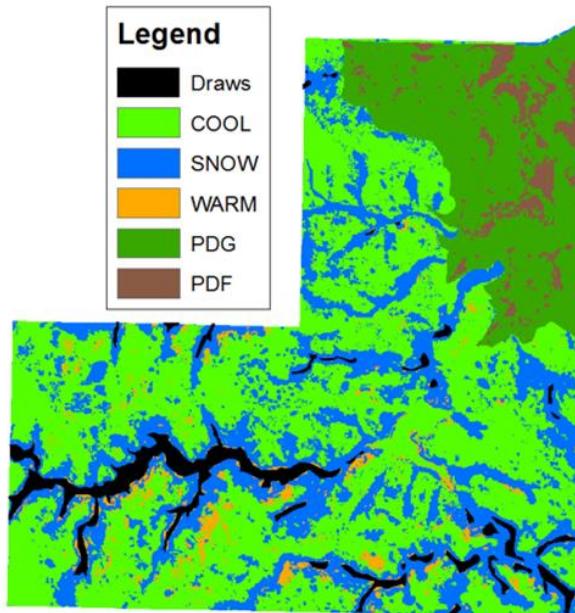


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2015 Classification Map



2016 Classification Map



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Figure 5: Random forest classification maps from 2015 and 2016 of one pasture in the study area in north central South Dakota. 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).



Figure 6: Final random forest generated thematic map of the entire study site in north central South Dakota produced from the combined 2015-2016 imagery data. Plant communities on prairie dog towns are grass-dominated (PDF) 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).

