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# **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

# The impact of training class proportions on binary cropland classification

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9 The collection of ground truth data required for training supervised classifiers is usually carried out as to maximize the number of samples under time, budget and 10 accessibility constraints. Yet, the performance of machine learning classifiers is, among 11 12 other factors, sensitive to the class proportions in the training set. In this letter, the joint effect of the number of calibration samples and the class proportion on the accu-13 racy was systematically quantified using two state-of-the-art machine learning classifiers 14 (random forests and support vector machines) in the context of binary cropland classifi-15 cation. The analysis focused on two contrasted agricultural landscapes. Results showed 16 that the classifiers were more sensitive to class proportions than to sample size, though 17 18 sample size had to reach 2,000 pixels before its effect leveled off. Optimal accuracies were obtained when the training class proportions were close to those actually observed 19 on the ground. Then, synthetic minority over-sampling technique (SMOTE) was imple-20 mented to artificially regenerate the native class proportions in the training set. This 21 resampling method led to an increase of the accuracy of up to 30%. These results have 22 direct implications for (i) informing data collection strategies and (ii) optimizing clas-23 sification accuracy. Though derived for cropland mapping, the recommendations are 24 generic to the problem of binary classification. 25

Keywords: binary classification, accuracy, class proportions, cropland mapping,
 synthetic minority over-sampling technique

# 28 1. Introduction

Supervised image classification is a widely used technique for the extraction of land 29 cover information from remotely sensed data. Usability and reliability of a map gen-30 erated by a supervised classification depends on its accuracy. Consequently, much 31 research has been devoted to solve the issues that prevent the increase in classifi-32 cation accuracy in order to yield optimal or near-optimal outputs. Yet, achieving 33 optimal classifications remains challenging for several reasons. First, different classi-34 fiers trained with the same calibration data often yield dissimilar outputs as a result 35 of how they use the training data and how they partition the feature space (Huang, 36 Davis, and Townshend 2002; Foody and Mathur 2004a). However, to a large ex-37 tent, accuracy also depends on the intrinsic characteristics of the calibration data 38 sets. How a classifier is trained can have a larger impact on accuracy than the 39

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classification technique itself. This situation has prompted research on the design 40 of the training stage such as sampling design (Chen and Stow 2002), size of the 41 training set (Foody and Arora 1997; Foody and Mathur 2004a), composition of the 42 training set (Millard and Richardson 2015), spacing of training samples (Atkin-43 son 1991). The size of the calibration set, *i.e.*, the number of samples available for 44 training, has frequently attracted attention because of the costs involved in data 45 collection. In general, studies have shown that a large number of training samples 46 is beneficial (Pal and Mather 2004; Foody and Mathur 2004b) because it provides 47 a more complete representation of the class populations. However, small training 48 samples are attractive for practical reasons (Li et al. 2014). Numerous recommenda-49 tions were made on the optimal size of training sets (see Mather and Koch (2011); 50 Van Niel, McVicar, and Datt (2005) for instance). Given the costs of collecting in 51 situ calibration data, budgeted sampling approaches are often preferred. For crop-52 land mapping particularly, the crop-related samples are typically collected during 53 field surveys while non-crop samples are digitized on screen based on very high 54 resolution imagery. Further efforts to reduce the burden of ground truth data col-55 lection investigated the use of existing land cover maps as a source of calibration 56 data (Waldner, Canto, and Defourny 2015). Conventional data collection schemes 57 from either sources have generally dedicated more attention to the sample size 58 than to the respective class proportions in the sample. Even with the large adop-59 tion of machine learning algorithms, which are usually more adequate to handle 60 high-dimensional and multi-source data sets, the question of the appropriate dis-61 tribution to optimize a learning algorithm remains compelling. This issue has been 62 intensively investigated for imbalance learning, a problem that arises when one class 63 has much more samples than the others. Imbalance heavily compromises the process 64 of learning, because machine learning models tend to focus on the prevalent class 65 and to ignore rare classes (Japkowicz and Stephen 2002; Visa and Ralescu 2005). 66 In addition, all classifiers generally present some performance loss when the data is 67 unbalanced, albeit this behavior might different among classifier algorithms (Prati, 68 Batista, and Silva 2015). 69

In this letter, the joint effect of the number of samples and the class proportions on accuracy was investigated in the context of binary cropland classification. To that aim, two specific research questions were addressed:

(1) What is the magnitude of the gain/loss in classification accuracy due to a change in class proportions and number of samples?

(2) Can resampling strategies and *a priori* information on class prevalence be combined to optimize the performance of a classifier?

The working hypotheses were that class proportions can significantly affect the ac-77 curacy of a classifier and that a priori information of the actual class distribution 78 could be used to artificially modify them to optimize the classification accuracy. 79 Throughout this article, optimal is intended in the sense of achieving the maxi-80 mum possible accuracy with a given calibration data set. These two questions were 81 systematically investigated over two contrasted agricultural landscapes and for two 82 state-of-the-art machine learning classifiers, namely random forest (RF) and sup-83 ports vector machines (SVM). 84

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# 85 2. Data and study sites

This study focuses on two sites located in Belgium (top left: 51.00° N, 4.50° E 86 and bottom right: 49.60° N, 5.80° E) and South Africa (top left: 26.85° S, 24.55° E 87 and bottom right: 30.74° S, 29.77° E). They each cover an area of 60 km x 60 88 km and are dominated by cropland (see Bontemps et al. (2015) for an assessment 89 of those data sets). For both sites, a 20-m multi-sensor time series consisting of 90 SPOT-4 (Take 5) data and Landsat-8 data spanning from February to December 91 2013 were at hand. For Landsat, only reflectances in the green, red, near infra-red 92 and short wave infrared wavelengths were considered. The SPOT-4 and Landsat-93 8 images were processed with the Multi-sensor Atmospheric Correction and Cloud 94 Screening processor (Hagolle et al. 2015). The time series were gap filled using linear 95 interpolation and three spectral-temporal features were extracted. These spectral-96 temporal features correspond to reflectance composites at the minimum and the 97 maximum of normalized difference vegetation index as well as the mean reflectance 98 over the season. Such features were shown to provide high discrimination power 99 between cropland and non-cropland areas (Waldner, Canto, and Defourny 2015; 100 Matton et al. 2015). 101

Ground truth observations from the corresponding growing season supplemented 102 the satellite image time series. In Belgium, field polygons were sourced from the 103 Land Parcel Identification System and non-cropland polygons were digitized based 104 on very high resolution imagery. In South Africa, both cropland and non-cropland 105 objects were both digitized based on very high resolution data. These reference 106 data sets were evenly split at the polygon level into two independent sets to 107 be used for calibration and validation, respectively. The calibration data sets 108 contained between 81,000 and 85,000 pixels for Belgium and South Africa, in 100 proportions corresponding to the actual cropland proportions (Table 1). Native 110 cropland proportions were derived from vectorized parcel data. Hereafter, the term 111 "prevalence" refers to cropland proportion as the native cropland proportion was 112 dominant. 113

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Table 1.: Characteristics of the calibration and validation data sets for the two study sites.

Site	Prevalence (%)	Size of training set (pixels)	Size of validation set (pixels)
Belgium	62	85,342	88,788
South Africa	75	81,250	99,213

## 115 3. Methodology

## 116 **3.1.** Classification methods

SVMs are based on a binary classifier concept and on the notion of separating classes in a higher dimensional feature space, which is created using a kernel function. Optimal separating hyperplanes are fitted between two classes in the feature space focusing on those training samples that lie at the edge of the class distributions (Vapnik 2000). Training of SVMs includes choosing the kernel parameter  $\gamma$  and the regularization parameter C. C was set to ten and the widths of the kernels were October 25, 2017

defined using heuristics. The RF classifier is an ensemble of decision trees which are trained based on random bootstrapped samples of the training data (Breiman 2001). Two meta parameters must be defined: the number of trees and the number of features used to split the nodes in the trees. The number of trees was set to 500 and the number of features was set to the square root of the total number of input features (Gislason, Benediktsson, and Sveinsson 2006).

## 129 3.2. Monte Carlo Assessment Procedure

The RF and SVM models were calibrated with different class prevalences ranging 130 from 5 to 95% of the full training set and different sample sizes. Ten sample sizes 131 were tested: 200, 375, 500, 750, 1,000, 1,500, 2,000, 3,000, 4,000, 5,000; similarly 132 twelve cropland proportions were considered: 5%, 10%, 20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, 133 70%, 80%, 90%, 95% plus the native prevalence. A Monte Carlo procedure was 134 implemented to derive robust estimates of the model performances. 25 iterations 135 were executed per combination of prevalence and sample size. The model perfor-136 mance measures were averaged over the 25 model runs. In total, the Monte Carlo 137 procedure consisted of 2,700 iterations per site. Within an iteration, the calibration 138 set was randomly sub-sampled to generate a new calibration subset in agreement 139 with the sample size and prevalence values for that iteration. Then, the SVM and 140 RF models were trained with the training subset. Finally, the output of each model 141 was run against the same validation set to evaluate the model performance. Three 142 accuracy measures were evaluated: the overall accuracy as well as the F-score for 143 the cropland and the non-cropland classes. A locally weighted regression interpo-144 lation (Cleveland and Devlin 1988) was implemented to interpolate the accuracy 145 measures. 146

# 147 3.3. Resampling with synthetic minority over-sampling

In the context of supervised classification, imbalanced calibration samples are often 148 handled by over- and under-sampling to achieve a more balanced calibration data 149 set. In this study, a synthetic minority over-sampling technique (SMOTE; Chawla 150 et al. (2002)) was applied to generate synthetic calibration samples for the minority 151 class so that the training class proportion respect their native occurrence. SMOTE's 152 core idea is to artificially generate new samples of the minority class using boot-153 strapping and k-nearest neighbors. As a hybrid method, SMOTE features both 154 oversampling of the minority class and undersampling of the majority class. To cre-155 ate a synthetic sample, one randomly chosen minority class sample as well as one of 156 its randomly chosen next neighbors were interpolated, so that finally a new artifi-157 cial sample of the minority class is created. In addition, the dominant class samples 158 were randomly undersampled (only 90% of the samples belonging to the dominant 159 class were kept). The performance of resampling the calibration data set to the 160 native cropland proportion with SMOTE were evaluated following the Monte Carlo 161 assessment procedure detailed previously. Paired t-tests were performed to assess if 162 the differences in accuracy were significant at the 5% level. 163

#### 164 4. Results

# 4.1. The respective impact of the training set size and the class prevalence

The performance of the RF and SVM classifiers was systematically tracked for different sample sizes and prevalences (Figure 1; left-hand side column). The yaxis is the proportion of cropland samples in the training data; the x-axis gives the accuracy of the model on the test set, averaged over 25 random draws of the training set. The black horizontal line indicates the native class prevalence.

The classification accuracies exhibited different patterns depending on the study 172 site but similar trends were obtained for both algorithms. Overall, SVMs yielded 173 consistently slightly higher accuracies than RFs. In Belgium (Figure 1a), the over-174 all accuracy and the F-scores were generally high (>0.9) with exceptions for large 175 (>0.75) and low (<0.25) cropland prevalences. The highest accuracies were reached 176 when the native cropland prevalence was used. In South Africa (Figure 1c), the 177 overall accuracy increased with the cropland prevalence from 0.55 to 0.65. High-178 est F-scores for the non-cropland class were clearly obtained for near-native class 179 prevalences. The results demonstrate that the overall accuracy was mostly driven by 180 the accuracy of the dominant class (the cropland class). Optimizing the accuracy of 181 the classification depends on which measure one wants to optimize because different 182 accuracy measures do not necessarily behave similarly (see the F-scores in South 183 Africa for instance). In the present case, the goal was to identify the rare class, *i.e.*, 184 non-cropland. The lowest accuracies were obtained for a combination of extreme 185 prevalences and very low sample sizes. Highest accuracies were found when main-186 taining approximately the native class prevalences. Equal class prevalences always 187 showed sub-optimal accuracies compared to the native prevalences case. Results 188 also showed a stronger sensitivity to class prevalence than to the size of the training 189 data set. This effect is further illustrated in Figure 2 (red line) which charts the 190 evolution of accuracy observed at a training set prevalence of 25% for each sample 191 size. It highlights that once a certain sample size is reached (2,000-2,500) the impact 192 of adding more the calibration samples levels off. 193

## <sup>194</sup> 4.2. The impact of artificially re-generating the native prevalence

To maximize the classification accuracy, two main observations can be derived from 195 Figures 1a and 1c. First, balancing class prevalence before training (50/50) does 196 not systematically improve classification accuracy. It will do so only if it brings 197 the sample class prevalence closer to the native class prevalence. Second, one can 198 achieve a higher accuracy with fewer samples if their prevalence is closer to the 199 native prevalence. Figures 1b and 1d illustrate the effect of artificially recreating 200 the native prevalence within the calibration data set before training the classifier. 201 The region outside the black lines and the grey lines correspond to statistically 202 significant improvements as measured by the paired t-tests at the 0.95 confidence 203 level. 204

Overall, SMOTEing the calibration data sets had a leveling-up effect across all accuracy measures for both sites and algorithms. Besides, it narrowed the spread of accuracies while at the same time increasing it overall. Still, the lowest accuracies were obtained for extreme prevalences and low sample sizes. It should be mentioned that SMOTE artificially modifies the size of the sample to reach the correct



Figure 1.: Evolution of the accuracy measures as a results of varying sample sizes and the class prevalences. The top row refers to the Belgian site and the bottom row to the South African site. Figures on the right-hand side integrate a SMOTE resampling whereas figures on the left-hand side do not.

prevalence. The assessment of the impact of size and proportion might therefore be blurred and more difficult to isolate. The magnitude of the effect of SMOTE was sitespecific (Figures 1a and 1c). For Belgium, where the average accuracy was already high, a limited increase was observed (1-5%). For prevalences close to the native



Figure 2.: Evolution of the classification accuracy for a cropland class prevalence of 25% and for different calibration set sizes. Accuracy reaches a plateau at around 2,000-3,000 samples while the use of SMOTE induces a systematic shift towards higher accuracies. The magnitude of the shift is 3-5% in Belgium and 20-30% in South Africa.

one, a rather small decrease in accuracy was measures (3% maximum) and it was 214 not statistically significant. However, for a low cropland prevalence, the accuracy 215 increased up to 15% after applying SMOTE which was a statistically significant. 216 In South Africa, the benefit of SMOTE was even more striking, with significant 217 improvements in accuracy of up to 30%. The effect of SMOTE is also highlighted in 218 Figure 2 for a prevalence of 25%, *i.e.*, far from the native prevalence of both sites. At 219 this prevalence, differences between the SMOTE (green lines) and the non-SMOTE 220 (red lines) approaches are statistically significant for both sites. Both approaches 221 have a similar shape with respect to the site and the accuracy measure but SMOTE 222 consistently shifted the performance of the classifiers towards higher accuracies. This 223 increase was of about 3-5% for Belgium and 20-30% for South Africa. It highlights 224 the interest of SMOTE for very unbalanced calibration data set. 225

## 226 5. Discussion

Results confirmed that training data have a more pronounced impact on accuracy 227 than the choice of the classifier algorithm (Foody and Arora 1997) and that this 228 magnitude and patterns of the response are agrosystem-specific (Waldner et al. 229 2016). Furthermore, the results are also in line with previous research recommend-230 ing that the class proportions of the training data should be representative of their 231 actual proportions in the landscape (Millard and Richardson 2015; Zhu et al. 2016). 232 However analyzing the effect of class proportions for multi-class classifications re-233 mained generally bounded to two cases (native and equalized proportions) due to 234

the difficulty to draw some general conclusions for other class distribution. The bi-235 nary classification approach allowed quantifying the evolution of accuracy due to 236 changes in the training class prevalence in a systematic fashion. Algorithms were 237 found more sensitive to the class prevalence than to the sample size, especially 238 when a minimum number of samples is provided ( $\sim 2,000$ ). A priori knowledge on 239 the native class proportions could therefore be used to inform both data collection 240 and resampling strategies which in turn will optimize the classification accuracy. 241 Conventional field data collection for crop mapping implies that entire fields are 242 sampled so that the proportion of field belonging to each class is representative 243 of the actual prevalence but not necessary the number of pixels. Caution should 244 therefore be exercised before training a classifier such as RF or SVM on the whole 245 sample set regardless of the pixel class proportions. 246

A resampling algorithm (SMOTE) that adjusts the training sample proportions 247 was successfully implemented to optimize accuracy. Such resampling techniques 248 could prove instrumental to meet the standards of accuracy associated with reli-249 able area estimation (Waldner and Defourny 2017). Whilst simple over-sampling 250 generally produced unwanted effects such as over-fitting and time overhead, under-251 sampling resulted in information loss as potentially valuable data points might be 252 discarded. SMOTE addresses these limitations by changing the distribution of the 253 data by interpolation method while increasing the number of minority class samples. 254 It adopts artificially generated examples rather than randomly copied examples. 255 Thus SMOTE can avoid the problem of over-fitting, but may also introduce noise. 256 Results obtained here apply for the case of limited native class imbalance ratios 257 (1:4 and 1:3) and might differ in the case of stronger imbalance, e.g., 1:1,000. It 258 should be noted that the original design of the SMOTE algorithm was to boost an 259 extremely rare class and consequently modify the native class proportion. Its imple-260 mentation here differs thus from the classical implementation in class-imbalanced 261 classifiers (Lusa et al. 2010). Future research could extend this approach to a larger 262 diversity of agrosystems, classifiers and benchmark resampling algorithms. 263

#### 264 6. Conclusion

The main objective of this letter was to quantify the combined effect of the class 265 proportions and size of the calibration data on classification accuracy as well as to 266 assess the potential of a straight-forward resampling strategy (SMOTE) to compen-267 sate for potential negative effects of these two issues on the classification accuracy. 268 Based on the results, we found that the effect of class prevalence, *i.e.*, the class 269 proportion of the calibration samples had a much stronger impact on classification 270 accuracy than the total number of calibration samples when using machine learning 271 algorithms for solving a binary classification problem (here: cropland classification). 272 The results of this research further suggest that the class proportion of a calibration 273 data set can be advantageously adjusted using a resampling strategy like SMOTE. 274 This offers some positive prospects in situations when a sampling scheme consid-275 ering the actual class prevalence cannot be realized due to, for instance, financial 276 or access limitations in the study area. Further, it allows to consistently increase 277 the accuracy of a RF or SVM classifier, especially when the calibration sampling 278 prevalence is strongly deviating from the actual one. The magnitude of the increase 279 of accuracy when using SMOTE and imbalanced calibration samples was as high as 280 281 30% in some cases. The findings of this study allow formulating a set of general recommendations for performing an efficient calibration sampling in the case of binarycropland classification:

• Ideally, collection of calibration samples should be carried out in a statistical framework that allows a robust estimation of the real class proportions. In the case of binary cropland classification, it implies to collect samples from both cropland and non-cropland areas. In particular, balancing class proportions equally by default is contraindicated for both RFs and SVMs.

• If the sampling units are objects and the calibration is pixel-based, the training sample proportions should be adapted using a resampling algorithm such as SMOTE to ensure that the pixel proportions follows the object proportions.

If the prevalence of each class is not statistically assessed, it could be approximated thanks to existing land cover maps or statistics. Such information on class proportions could then be used for resampling the calibration data set to the native proportions.

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