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## **Mapping natural habitats using remote sensing and Sparse Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis**

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## Mapping natural habitats using remote sensing and Sparse Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis

This work presents a novel approach for mapping the spatial distribution of natural habitats in the “Foothills of Larzac” Natura 2000 listed site located in a French Mediterranean Biogeographical Region. Sparse Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis was used to analyze two RapidEye datasets (June 2009 and July 2010) with the purpose of choosing the most informative spectral, textural and thematic variables that allow discriminating the classes of habitats. The Sparse Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis selected relevant and stable variables for the discrimination of habitat classes that could be linked to ecological or biophysical characteristics. It also gave insight into the similarities and the differences between habitats classes with comparable physiognomic characteristics. The highest user accuracy was obtained for dry improved grasslands ( $u=91.97\%$ ) followed by riparian ash woods ( $u=88.38\%$ ). These results are very encouraging given that these two classes were identified in Annex 1 of the EC Habitats Directive as of community interest. Due to limited data input requirements and to its computational efficiency, the approach developed in this paper is a good alternative to other types of variable selection approaches in a supervised classification framework and can be easily transferred to other Natura 2000 sites.

Keywords: Dimension reduction; RapidEye, Natura 2000, Dry improved grasslands, Riparian ash woods.

### 1. Introduction

Loss, fragmentation and degradation of natural habitats occur worldwide and are primarily due to the pressures of increasing human population, rapid urbanization and unsustainable use of natural sites. Within the European Union (EU), only 17% of species and habitats and 11% of EU-protected ecosystems are doing well. The rest are under pressure, mainly from human activities, or are in decline (European Commission, 2011). To face the current and future threats to biodiversity and habitats loss, several initiatives at different levels have been launched in the last decades. In the European Union, the Habitats Directive adopted in 1992, imposes on EU member states the conservation of rare and/or threatened habitats and species of ‘Community

interest' (i.e. those habitats and species listed in annexes to the Directive). Articles 11 and 17 of the Directive also require member states to report on four parameters of habitat conservation status every six years: habitat area, range, indicators of habitat quality, and future prospects for habitat survival in the member state (European Commission DG Environment 2007; Vanden Borre et al. 2011). Article 3 sets up a "coherent European ecological network of special areas of conservation", called the Natura 2000 network. Today this network covers more than 25,000 sites and makes up around 17% of the total area of the EU. It is the largest network of protected areas in the world and the backbone of the Pan-European Ecological Network. One of the main challenges for the implementation of Natura 2000 network is the design of accurate and simple methods for a continuous and consistent monitoring on the state and spatial extent of sensitive habitats (Bock 2003; Bocket al. 2005; Díaz Varela et al. 2008). Owing to their exhaustive and systematic coverage of the territory, the frequent repeated measurements and the possibility of obtaining quantitative data at high sampling densities, remote sensing techniques have been long regarded as an attractive option for cost effective generation of environmental data and for natural habitats mapping, particularly in Natura 2000 areas (Weiers et al. 2004).

Remote sensing can contribute to a better understanding of the diversity of natural and semi-natural habitats, their spatial distribution and their conservation status. This has been established by several studies and reported in many review papers like those of Nagendra(2001), Turner et al. (2003), Kerr and Ostrovsky(2003) and more recently Nagendra et al. (2012). Despite the large number of studies cited in these reviews, there is evidence that the vast majority of remote sensing works focuses on the delineation of land cover categories rather than on detailed mapping of habitat types which reveals to be much harder to undertake.

Few studies addressed the topic of classification of remote sensing data into detailed and complex habitat types. Bock (2003) attempted to use Landsat imagery to define spectrally homogeneous vegetation types (e.g. meadows, woody brushes, coniferous and grassland) and then to establish a content-wise correspondence of these classes with the biotope and use types. The major limitation of the developed approach was in the recognition of woody scrubs on water-logged soils that were partly under- or overestimated. In Keramitsoglou et al. (2005), very high resolution satellite imagery acquired over different Natura 2000 sites (located within different biogeographical regions (BGR)), was analyzed with a kernel-based classification algorithm for mapping fine scale habitats according to the EUNIS (European Commission DG Environment 2007) classification schema. This allowed a consistent comparison of the performance of the algorithm across the different sites. The results on the site located in the Atlantic BGR showed that the algorithm performed very well in all identified classes (mainly for calcareous grasslands, unbroken pastures and British forests). However, the algorithm did not work for the French Natura 2000 site using high resolution images due to the coarser resolution as well as the lack of texture in the area. It appears that the finer the spatial resolution the better the performance of the classifier. Bock et al. (2005) were able to successfully distinguish between calcareous grassland and mesotrophic pastures that are known to be difficult to discriminate. They however failed in discriminating between lines of trees and class hedgerows mainly due to the absence of foliage at the time the imagery was acquired. The work of Lucas et al. (2011) is thought to be the first study to successfully map up to 105 sub-habitat types at a nominal resolution of five meters across Wales. The approach is based on an object-oriented rule-based classification of multi-resolution and multi-date satellite imagery. Over 200 rules were developed on the basis of remote sensing and ancillary data. All rules and data gave consideration to ecological or biophysical characteristics (e.g., reflectance of different species and growth stages, photosynthetic activity, proportion of dead

material, moisture content, roughness, slope). The drawback of this approach is the amount of time necessary for i) building the decision tree and ii) for ensuring a transferability of the classification rules to other areas with similar types of habitats.

For such high dimensional multi-class classification problems (multi-sensor and multi-date imagery and the need to separate several classes of habitat types), an alternative approach to rule-based classification lies in the use of multivariate exploratory approaches such as the commonly used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and the Partial Least Square (PLS). In particular PLS has been gaining a lot of attention in high dimensional classification problems especially in the fields of computational biology (Chung and Keles 2010) and chemometrics (Peter Filzmoser, Gschwandtner, and Todorov 2012) despite being criticized for its lack of theoretical justifications. Much work still needs to be done to demonstrate all statistical properties of the PLS (see (Krämer 2007) who addressed some theoretical developments). Nevertheless, this computational and exploratory research is extremely popular thanks to its efficiency and its predictive ability (Lê Cao et al. 2009).

In this paper, we tested a relatively new version of the PLS called the Sparse Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis (SPLSDA) that performs variable selection and classification in a one-step procedure and that has been successfully applied in the field of bioinformatics. The method is applied for the first time on remote sensing data for the classification of natural and semi-natural habitats in a Natura 2000 site located in Southern France. In the next section (section 2), we outline the main statistical properties of the SPLSDA method. Section 3 provides an overview of the datasets and the developed methodology for the classification of habitat classes using the SPLSDA algorithm. The results of the study are reported in section 4. The potentials of the method, some suggested improvements and the transferability of the approach across sites with different types of habitats are discussed in section 5.

## **2. Background to the SPLSDA for variable selection and classification**

In this study, the SPLSDA method, which is an original and relatively new method developed in the fields of bioinformatics and chemometrics, is applied for the first time to the analysis and classification of remote sensing imagery. The SPLSDA belongs to the family of Partial Least Squares (PLS) methods for analyzing relations between data sets by means of neo-variables called latent variables. PLS methods have been extensively used in remote sensing data processing since they are well-suited to deal with collinearity problems, such as those encountered when analyzing multidimensional remote sensing data (e.g. hyperspectral images) (Wolter et al. 2008). The PLS operates by forming latent variables as linear combinations of the predictor variables in a supervised manner, i.e., using the response, and then regressing the response on these latent variables (Chung and Keles 2010). Barker and Rayens(2003) justified the use of the PLS for high dimensional classification problems by establishing its connection with Fisher's Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA). The resulting Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis (PLSDA) performs better than state-of-the-art classification methods (e.g. K-Nearest Neighbours) (Boulesteix 2004) and has several advantages over machine learning approaches (e.g. Classification and regression trees, random forests and support vector machines). The latter do not necessarily require variable selection for predictive purposes and in the case of high dimensional problems, the results are sometimes difficult to interpret given the large number of variables (Lê Cao, Boitard, and Besse 2011). Despite its recognized classification performances, the PLSDA has numerical limitations in particular for large datasets with too many correlated predictors. Therefore the need to obtain more parsimonious models has resulted in the development of a penalized version of the PLSDA called the Sparse Partial Least Square Discriminant Analysis (SPLSDA) (Chung and Keles 2010). The latter is an extension to multiclass classification problems of the Sparse

Partial Least Square regression (SPLS) (Chun and Keles 2010) that proved to outperform classical PLS methods.

We briefly introduce here the formalism of the SPLSDA for multiclass classification problem and the parameters that need to be tuned.

We denote  $X$ , the sample data matrix of size  $n \times p$  and  $Y$  the response data matrix of size  $n \times k$ .  $n$  is the number of samples, and  $p$  is the number of variables in  $X$ . In the supervised classification framework, the samples are partitioned into  $k$  classes (e.g. the classes of habitats). The categorical response matrix  $Y$  is recorded as a dummy block matrix that records the membership of each observation (each of the response categories is coded via an indicator variable). The classical PLS constructs a set of orthogonal components that maximize the sample covariance between the response and the linear combination of the predictor variables. These linear combinations are called the latent variables. The weight vector that is used to compute the latent variable is called a loading vector. There are as many latent variables as loading vectors. The SPLS (i.e. the sparse version of PLS) performs simultaneous variable selection in the two data sets,  $X$  and  $Y$  (Lê Cao et al. 2008). Variable selection is achieved by introducing Lasso penalization on the loading vectors (Shen and Huang 2008). The SPLSDA is based on the same concept as SPLS to allow variable selection, except that this time, the variables are only selected in the  $X$  data set and in a supervised framework, i.e. we are selecting the  $X$ -variables with respect to different categories ( $k$ ) of the samples.

The minimization problem of the SPLSDA can be written as:

$$\min_{u_h, v_h} \|M_h - u_h v_h\|_F^2 + P_\lambda(u_h) \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

where  $u_h$  and  $v_h$  are the loading vectors and  $P_\lambda(u_h) = \text{sign}(u_h)(|u_h| - \lambda)$  is applied component wise in the loading vector  $u_h$  and is the soft thresholding function that approximates Lasso penalty functions. The iterations  $h$ ,  $h = 1 \dots H$ , where  $H$  is the number of performed deflations and refers to the chosen dimensions of the SPLSDA.  $M$  is set to  $M_h = X_h^T Y_h$ . The latent



variables  $T$  are defined as  $T = XW$ , where  $W$  is the matrix containing the regression coefficients of the regression of  $X$  on the latent variable  $t_h = v_h Y$ , and where  $V$  is the matrix containing the loading vectors in columns  $(v_1, \dots, v_h)$ .

More details on the formalism of the SPLSDA can be found in (Chung and Keles 2010).

There are two parameters to tune in the SPLSDA: in addition to the number of dimensions  $H$  to choose, the user must specify the number of variables to choose in the  $X$  dataset (*KeepX*) on each dimension (i.e., we want to select the discriminative features that can help predicting the classes of the samples).  $H$  is usually set to  $k - 1$  where  $k$  is the number of classes. The number of variables to select is challenging. The tuning of this parameter can be guided through the estimation of the generalization classification error and a stability analysis. This is usually performed through a cross-validation or leave-one-out to compute the Mean Squared Error of Prediction (MSEP) or the squared correlation  $r^2$  or the predictive squared correlation coefficient  $Q^2$  (Consonni, Ballabio, and Todeschini 2010).

### **3. Material and methods**

#### ***3.1 Area of investigation***

The area of investigation known as the “Foothills of Larzac” comprises a Natura 2000 site located in the French Mediterranean BGR and covering an area of 5310 ha. It is part of southern Massif Central, between Millau (Aveyron) and Lodève (Hérault) (Central coordinates: 3°24'29" E; 43°45'56" N-Figure 8). This site is characterized by the presence of limestone plateaus, locally called Causses. The elevation ranges between a minimum of 450 meters and a maximum of 820 meters. The richness of the site is related to the combination of two influences: an influence of the “Grands Causses” and a Mediterranean influence. Deep cuts in the edge of the plateau create situations that allow the development of beech (*Fagus sylvatica*) on the Mediterranean side. The waters seeping into the limestone and dolomite of the plateau are

blocked by impermeable marls. On their tops many karst springs exist allowing the development of luxurious vegetation and orchids. The foothills of the Larzac area are also a sanctuary to rare plants, associated with very specific vegetation of springs or seeps developing on wet carbonate materials from limestone deposits. These deposits are often low in nutrients and highly carbonated hence limiting the growth rate of plants. The floristic composition is quite diverse and often dominated by very specialized bryophytes. The main habitats of community interest present on this site are:

- Semi-natural dry grasslands and scrubland facies on calcareous substrates (6210 for Natura 2000 code and 34.31 to 34.34 for Corine biotope code). These include primary dry grasslands of the Xerobromion as well as secondary semi-dry grasslands (Mesobromion grasslands with *Bromus erectus*) result of extensive grazing or mowing. The latter are mostly orchid-rich and are susceptible to shrub encroachment after the abandonment of land use activities. The site is mainly characterized by subtype 34.332 corresponding to Middle European Xerobromion grasslands.
- Extensively managed hay meadows of the planar to submountain zones (6510 for the Natura 2000 code and 38.22 for Corine biotope code). According to the interpretation manual of European Union Habitats (European Commission DG Environment 2007), this habitat corresponds to species-rich hay meadows on little to moderately fertilised soils of the plain to submontane levels, belonging to the *Arrhenatherion* and the *Brachypodio-Centaureion nemoralis* alliances. These extensive grasslands are rich in flowers.
- Mediterranean riparian ash woods (92A0 for the Natura 2000 code and 44.63 for Corine biotope code). Riparian galleries dominated by tall *Fraxinus angustifolia*, mostly characteristic of less eutrophic soils than the (*Alnus*) and poplar (*Populus*) galleries, and of drier stations, with shorter inundation periods, than those occupied by poplar

woods (Aparicio Martinez, Silvestre Domingo, and Junta de Andalucía. Agencia de Medio Ambiente 1987).

The sustainability of these habitats is threatened by the change in anthropogenic activities such as land abandonment (reduction of grazing activities). It is also very much dependent on the physical and chemical properties of the water and its flow. A decrease or an interruption in the water flow may result in the extinction of the vegetation communities or to their decline at the benefit of less specialized vegetation species.

### **3.2 Datasets**

#### *3.2.1 Remote sensing*

The remote sensing data comprise of two RapidEye images acquired on 23 June 2009 and 08 July 2010 (RE<sub>2009</sub>, RE<sub>2010</sub>) in the frame of Geosud project. The project offers online free access to develop homogeneous and up-to-date spatial information on French ecosystems and territories. These images are part of two complete and consistent coverage of the French territory at a very high spatial resolution. A complete coverage for 2011 is currently under production. Hence, we consider that the methodology developed on our pilot site could serve as a basis for an approach that is transferable across the 48 Natura 2000 listed sites located in the French Mediterranean BGR and covered by multi-date RapidEye data.

The images have a spatial resolution of five meters and comprise five spectral bands: Blue (b1=B); Green (b2=G); Red (b3=R); Red Edge (b4=RE) and Near infrared (b5=NIR). They were delivered in 25 km large orthorectified blocks.

For each image, the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) was calculated and used as a surrogate for vegetation productivity.

### *3.2.2 Elevation data*

A variety of hypotheses have been proposed to account for the high diversity in the spatial distribution of natural and semi-natural habitats (Hubbell et al. 2001), and one explanation has to do with local variations in topography. Elevation data plays a crucial role in many species, habitat and niche suitability modelling studies (Mücher et al. 2009). In this study, elevation data has been integrated with remote sensing data for its potential influence on the spatial distribution of the habitats present in the study area. Although we agree that other environmental variables influence the spatial distribution of the habitats such as soil type, we prefer to use terrain related gradients that can be widely available and hence facilitate easy transferability of the method. Besides, on our pilot site, soil maps were not accessible at a scale of 1/25 000 or better. A Digital elevation model (DEM) with 25-meter grid cells provided by IGN, the French geographic institute, was used. The DEM served as a basis for the calculation of the Topographic Position Index (TPI). This index is a flexible way to define the relative position of a location along a topographic gradient (ridge top, middle slope or valley) (Guisan, Weiss, and Weiss 1999). The TPI is simply the difference between a cell elevation value and the average elevation of the neighborhood around that cell. Positive values mean the cell is higher than its surroundings while negative values mean it is lower (Jenness 2006). The TPI is very much scale-dependent. Scale is determined by the neighborhood used in the analysis. For our study, several experiments with different windows radii showed that two circular windows sizes with a radius of five and 25 meters respectively showed the most realistic representation of the variations in local topography.

### *3.2.3 Reference data on habitats distribution*

The SPLSDA method used in this study belongs to the family of supervised classification algorithms. In the supervised classification framework, the classifier (e.g. Nearest neighbor or maximum likelihood algorithms) needs to be trained using a sample of homogeneous areas

that can be identified either directly on the image or using thematic products (e.g. existing maps), or derived from field visits or through the combination of both approaches. Advantages include the ability to specify the desired information classes (MacAlister and Mahaxay 2009). In our case, a map of natural habitats at a nominal scale of 1/25 000 has been provided by the *Conservatoire des Espaces Naturels du Languedoc Roussillon* (CEN-LR). The map was elaborated in 2007 by manual photointerpretation of aerial photos complemented by field visits. The map covers the Natura 2000 site only partially, but extends beyond its boundaries allowing us to test our method not only within the limits of the Natura 2000 site but also in its surroundings. The habitats were classified according to the European Corine Biotope classification system that was developed in the 1980s and used to derive the habitats, meeting the requirements of the Habitats Directive. The data was made available in vector format. 52 habitat classes were recorded in the attributes table. Some polygons were assigned with “complex” habitat categories that correspond to an association of several habitats. These associations were expressed in the form of percentages of coverage per habitat type. Only “pure” polygons assigned to one habitat class with 100% coverage were retained in this study. Besides, some habitat classes corresponded to “non-vegetated” areas such as built-up or water surfaces and others to agricultural areas (e.g. orchards, vineyards, etc.). In this study, only habitat classes that correspond to non-agricultural vegetation classes with a minimum area of 1 ha were considered. Finally, from the initial 52 habitat classes, 15 classes were used for the sample selection (Table 1).

[Table 1]

For each of the 15 habitat classes, half of the total polygons assigned to one specific class has been used for calibrating the SPLSDA algorithm (training set) and the other half for evaluating the quality of the predicted classes (evaluation set).

### ***3.3 Methodological framework***

In this section, we detail the sequence of procedures used in the preparation of the data, including image analysis, for their subsequent integration into the SPLSDA algorithm. All the methods were implemented in R statistical software (mixomics package for the SPLSDA and mvoutlier for the multivariate outlier analysis).

#### *3.3.1 Image segmentation*

The method was implemented in an object-oriented image analysis framework. Unlike pixel-based approaches which only use the layer pixel values, the object-based techniques can also use shape, texture and other types of information supplied by ancillary data (Bock, Xofis, et al. 2005). This is relevant to the problem of distinguishing ecologically meaningful habitat types which do not have necessarily very distinct spectral features. In addition, object-oriented techniques reduce high spatial frequency noise present in very high resolution images by exploiting the spectral and spatial dependency of neighboring pixels, in the form of objects, and thus increasing the classification accuracy (Blaschke 2010).

Hence the first step of the method consisted in the segmentation of the remote sensing data with the purpose of generating meaningful image objects. This phase drives the next steps of variable extraction to be used in the SPLSDA algorithm. The segmentation was performed using eCognition (Definiens 2011) that allows the integration of heterogeneous datasets in the same analysis, thereby increasing the opportunity for exploiting other sources of information, not inherent to the remote sensing data, in the image classification process. All the available datasets (i.e. remote sensing data, the derived vegetation indices, elevation data) were ingested in the same project. The RapidEye image of 08 July 2010 with its 5 spectral bands was used as a basis for the segmentation because it showed the highest contrast. In eCognition the segmentation is controlled by three parameters: scale, color (spectral information), and shape. Color and shape can be weighted jointly, each between zero to one and summing to one.

Within the shape setting, smoothness or compactness can be defined jointly, each between zero to one, and summing to one. Scale is a unit-less parameter that controls the size of image objects, with a larger scale parameter resulting in larger image objects. Several experiments were necessary to decide on the appropriate parameters for image segmentation which can give the smallest possible number of image objects whilst providing homogenous objects in terms of the targeted habitat classes. Homogeneity in this case refers to smaller within-object than between object variance (Laliberte, Fredrickson, and Rango 2007). The following parameters gave the best segmentation results: colour= 0.8, shape= 0.2, compactness= 0.1, smoothness= 0.9, scale = 10. Prior to the next variable extraction step, urban and agricultural areas were masked out from ancillary data. The information on urban areas was provided by the IGN (BD Topo) while that of agricultural areas was available through the French national Land parcel identification system (RPG). By masking these areas, we were able to obtain image objects that correspond only to natural vegetation.

### *3.3.2 Variable extraction*

The image objects obtained from the segmentation can be characterized by features of different origin such as spectral values, texture, shape, context relationships and thematic or continuous information supplied by ancillary data. The next step consisted of extracting features for each image object falling within a class of habitat from the reference map on habitats. Hence for each of the 15 classes of habitats, image objects falling within this class were selected and defined by several features. Object features can number in the 100s, because they are calculated for each layer: in this case on the five spectral bands as well as on the NDVI for the two REye images in 2009 and 2010 ( $NDVI_{2009}$ ,  $NDVI_{2010}$ ) in addition to the TPI at five and 25 meters ( $TPI_5$ ,  $TPI_{25}$ ). We excluded shape features such as area, width to length ratio, shape index, and border length of image objects. Such shape features can be very useful in urban image analysis (Thomas, Hendrix, and Congalton 2003), but natural vegetation cov-

er in our study area is better defined by spectral and textural features. Textural features in eCognition are calculated on the gray level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM) and the gray level difference vector (GLDV) of the object pixels, after Haralick et al. (1973). The GLDV is the sum of the diagonals of the GLCM. It counts the number of references to the neighboring pixels' absolute differences (Definiens 2011), and has shown to be useful in vegetation classifications (Laliberte, Fredrickson, and Rango 2007). A total of 98 object features were calculated and used as variables for input to the SPLSDA (Table 2).

[Table 2]

### *3.3.3 Multivariate outlier analysis*

For each of the 15 habitat classes, image objects falling within a habitat class, were selected as samples to be used partly for training and partly for validating the SPLSDA. The total number of sample image objects  $N$  was around 2500. These samples were derived from the reference habitat map which was generated through field visits and photointerpretation of aerial imagery in 2007. Several quality issues can be associated with this map such as i) the subjectivity of the photointerpreters in the delineation of homogeneous patches of habitat on the aerial photos, ii) the possible changes between 2007 and the image acquisition dates in 2009 and 2010 and iii) the differences between remote sensing and in-situ habitats observations, each measuring different aspects of the same reality (e.g. indirect vs. direct observation techniques, differences in the spatial resolutions, differences in the typologies and in the definition of homogeneous objects). These quality issues associated with the use of such a large sample increase the possibility of having some isolated outliers but also some groups of samples that differ from the rest within the training set. In the context of PLS, the influence of outlier samples is clearly recognized (P. Filzmoser et al. 2009). It is hence recommended to establish if a test sample is similar enough to those used in training, otherwise the model



should not be applied. The possibility of detecting samples whose predictor variables constitute an abnormal vector (different from those of training) guarantees in some sense a kind of robustness against abnormal data in the predictor variables (Lletí et al. 2005). In this study, we used an established method for detecting multivariate outliers with robustly estimated Mahalanobis distance and QQ-plot (Gnanadesikan 1977). For a multivariate vector  $X$ , the squared Mahalanobis distance between an observation and the sample mean vector is:

$$D_i^2 = (X_i - \bar{X})'S^{-1}(X_i - \bar{X}) \quad (\text{Eq.2})$$

where  $\bar{X}$  is the mean and  $S$  is the covariance matrix. We can then define a multivariate outlier as a case with a large squared Mahalanobis distance. On a multivariate normal quantile plot, these cases would appear as points in the upper right that are substantially above the line for the expected  $\chi^2$  quantiles. We used an interactive version of this method based on a multivariate trimming procedure to calculate squared distances that are not affected by potential outliers (Peter Filzmoser, Garrett, and Reimann 2005). On each iteration, some observations with the largest  $D^2$  values are cutoff interactively. From the remaining observations, a trimmed mean and a trimmed covariance matrix are computed. The effect of trimming is that observations with large distances do not contribute to the calculations for the remaining observations. Using the trimmed mean vector and covariance matrix, outliers will appear as points in the upper right that are substantially above the line for the expected  $\chi^2$  quantiles. The analysis was done using mvoutlier package available in R statistical software.

### *3.3.4 Variable selection and classification with SPLSDA*

Given the large number of habitat classes to identify (15 classes in total) and the difficulty in interpreting the visual and numerical results of the SPLSDA, the analysis of the sample dataset was conducted through a stepwise procedure. In a first step, the samples were grouped into three broad physiognomic categories of vegetation: a “Garrigue” group including all ha-

habitats that correspond to low, soft-leaved scrubs (31.812, 32.11, 32.64, 32.162, 32.A); a “Grasses” group including habitats with a herbaceous vegetation cover mainly composed of graminea (34.332, 34.36, 34.721, 38.22, 81.1) and a “Forest” group representing habitats with a high density of trees (41.714, 41.9, 42.67, 44.63, 45.313). Such a grouping of habitat classes is based on the hypothesis that physiognomic characteristics of vegetation can be readily distinguished in remote sensing data due to the signature of the dominant communities. Then the SPLSDA analysis is run sequentially on each of the three groups of habitats to analyze the within-group separability and to see which classes of habitats can be considered separately from the rest of the physiognomic group. This stepwise analysis has several advantages: it allows handling the large number of classes through a progressive identification of separable habitat classes and most of all it improves the computational time of the standard SPLSDA schema.

At each step  $H$  was set to  $k - 1$  where  $k$  is the number of classes. For selecting the number of variables ( $KeepX$ ) to keep on each dimension, we plotted the mean classification error rate (10-cross-validation averaged 10 times) for each SPLSDA dimension. The stabilization of the estimated error rate is an indication on the optimal number of variables to be selected.

Once the most discriminant variables have been selected, the final classification has been obtained by running the SPLSDA model on all image objects resulting from the segmentation and falling within the area of investigation. The accuracy of the map of predicted habitat classes was finally analyzed using the evaluation set (see section 3.2.3).

#### **4. Results and discussion**

In this section we focus on the results of the multivariate outlier analysis and the stepwise SPLSDA that represent the main contributions of this work.

#### ***4.1 Detection of outliers in the sample dataset***

The multivariate outlier analysis can only be applied for habitat classes with a large sample size ( $n \gg p$ ). Hence only classes 32.A ( $n = 248$ ), 41.714 ( $n = 550$ ), 42.67 ( $n = 420$ ), 44.63 ( $n = 247$ ), 45.313 ( $n = 252$ ) were analyzed for detecting possible outliers. The multivariate outlier plots displayed in were obtained for the samples of habitat class 32.A. The left figure is the QQ-plot before the removal of outliers while the right figure is the final result after the iterative removal of all outliers. Outliers show up as points on the upper right side of the plot for which the Mahalanobis distance is notably greater than the  $\chi^2$  quantile value. Once the outliers have been removed, the distribution of the samples resembles more to a straight-line and the Mahalanobis distance between them is considerably reduced. In total 48 outliers were detected and removed from the original sample for habitat class 32.A. The analysis was conducted in the same way for the other habitat classes with large samples. Finally, 87 outliers were detected in class 41.714, 110 in class 42.67, 67 in class 44.63 and 81 in class 45.313.

[Figure 1]

#### ***4.2 Stepwise SPLSDA analysis***

##### *4.2.1 Analysis by physiognomic group*

The SPLSDA was run separately on each physiognomic group of vegetation (“Garrigues”, “Grasses” and “Forest”). Given that each group consisted of 5 habitat classes,  $H$  was set to 4 ( $k - 1$ ) and the number of variables  $KeepX$  to select on each dimension was determined through the analysis of the average mean classification error rate (Ten cross-validations) for each SPLSDA dimension (Figure 2). For the “Garrigues” group (Figure 2a), the error rate does not stabilize even with four dimensions. Besides, the lowest error rate of 0.42 is observed for 55 selected variables (more than half of the total number of variables used as input to the SPLSDA). The analysis of the error rate suggests that it is very difficult to differentiate

among them the classes of habitats of the “Garrigues” group. This is confirmed by Figure 3a which represents the samples by habitat type, within the “Garrigues” group, as a function of the latent variables selected by the SPLSDA. We represent here only the variates (1 and 4) that display the most evident dissimilarities between the samples. The latter show a strong clustering independently of the habitat class to which they belong to, thus confirming the need to group all these samples into one single class (class “Garrigues”). Inversely, the mean error rate of the “Grasses” group shows a relatively low value of 0.32 for only 2 selected variables on 4 dimensions (Figure 2b). These parameters were hence used to run the SPLSDA model on the “Grasses” group. The result is illustrated in Figure 3b using the first and the fourth variate. The isolation of class 81.1 from the rest of the habitats of the “Grasses” group as shown in Figure 3b indicates that this class can be analyzed and classified separately. Likewise, a relatively low error rate of approximately 0.37 is observed for the “Forest” group with 9 selected variables on 4 dimensions. Besides, the stabilization of the error rate with 4 dimensions suggests that reducing the subspace to the first  $k-1$  dimensions is sufficient to explain the covariance structure of the sample data in the “Forest” group. The subspace is defined by the (single) unit vector that maximizes the squared sample correlation between the response  $Y$  and the linear combination of  $X$ .

[Figure 2]

[Figure 3]

Accordingly, these parameters ( $H=4$  and  $keepX=9$ ) were used to run the SPLSDA model on the samples of the “Forest” group. Figure 3c shows the distribution of the samples on the first and fourth SPLSDA dimensions and gives evidence of the possibility of discriminating classes 42.67, 44.63 and 45.313 from the rest of the classes. Oppositely, the samples of class 41.714 (white oak) seem to be very scattered with some samples falling in the clusters of classes 42.67, 44.63 and 45.313. According to the botanists from the CEN-LR, the white oak

species is ubiquitous and can grow both in the foothills and on the plains. In addition, white oak trees are present in the form of mosaics within habitat classes 44.63 and 45.313 which is clearly reflected in the samples distribution in Figure 3c.

Figure 4 a and b provide a closer look on the variables selected by the SPLSDA for the “Grasses” and the “Forest” physiognomic groups respectively. The heat maps of the selected variables by the SPLSDA were obtained by computing the correlations between the original data sets and the scores vectors or latent variables. The most discriminant variables are hence identifiable by high positive (dark red) or negative (deep blue) correlation values. From Figure 4a, we can deduct that the NIR bands of RapidEye images in 2009 and 2010 and the TPI<sub>5</sub> and TP<sub>25</sub> allowed the discrimination of class 81.1 (Dry improved grasslands). The NIR band is sensitive to dry matter; thus it is realistic to expect the selection of this variable for the discrimination of dry improved grasslands. Besides, according to the field experts, improved grasslands occur predominantly on plains of low elevation. This explains the selection of the topographic variables (TPI<sub>5</sub> and TP<sub>25</sub>) by the SPLSDA for the discrimination of class 81.1. From Figure 4b, we can deduct that several spectral variables (e.g. brightness, NIR) but also textural (e.g. GLCM correlation) and topographic variables (e.g. TPI<sub>5</sub> and TP<sub>25</sub>) were necessary for the discrimination of classes 42.67, 44.63 and 45.313. These results are also in-line with several studies that demonstrated the usefulness of textural measures for the classification of tree species (Kim and Hong 2008). Besides, riparian ash woods are likely to be located in locally lower elevations, thus explaining the selection of the topographic variables by the SPLSDA.

[Figure 4]

#### *4.2.2 Analysis on the final habitat classes*

The previous SPLSDA analysis gave insight into the similarities and the differences between habitats classes with comparable physiognomic characteristics. It also showed that the origi-

nal grouping of the classes of habitats needs to be reconsidered by excluding class 81.1 from the “Grasses” group and classes 42.67, 44.63 and 45.313 from the “Forest” group and considering them separately in the final classification. Therefore the next step consisted in running the SPLSDA analysis with the new set of habitats classes: “Garrigues” (comprising classes 31.812,32.11, 32.64, 32.162 and 32.A), “Grasses” (comprising classes 34.332, 34.36, 34.721 and 38.22), Improved grassland (class 81.1.), Black pine (class 42.67), Mediterranean riparian ash woods (class 44.63), Catalo-Provencal (CP) hill holm-oak (class 45.313) and “Other forests” (comprising classes 41.714 and 41.9). To decide on the number of variables to retain for the final classification, we run the SPLSDA with different dimensions and an increasing number of selected variables. In Figure 5 the mean classification error rate is shown for each SPLSDA dimension and a selected number of variables. These results show that at least 4 dimensions are needed to discriminate the 7 classes of habitats. The error rates on dimensions five and six show parallel variations, and are sometimes equivalent on dimensions 6 and 7. The minimum error rate of 0.31 is obtained on dimension 7 with 16 selected variables and on dimension 6 with 35 variables. If we set the maximum acceptable error rate to 0.32, then it is sufficient to set  $H$  to 6 dimensions and the number of variables to choose on each dimension  $keepX$  to 4. Those criteria were selected for running the final SPLSDA model with the purpose of predicting the classes of habitats over the entire study area.

[Figure 5]

[Figure 6]

Figure 6 shows the samples of the 7 final habitat classes represented by the values of their loading vectors computed on dimensions one and four (left) and dimensions three and six (right). The first and fourth dimensions of the SPLSDA allow the discrimination of dry improved grasslands, black pine, oak woodland and riparian ash woods. They fail at discrimi-

nating the “Grasses” group and the “Garrigues” group that are almost invisible on the left figure. On the contrary, the third and the sixth dimensions seem to better differentiate the “Grasses” and “Garrigues” groups while the classes of oak woodland and black pines seem to be more scattered on the same dimensions. As already noticed in the previous analysis, the group “Other Forests” shows a less evident clustering and spreads over the other classes of forest habitats (i.e. oak woodland, riparian ash woods and black pine).

The selected variables that strongly contribute to the discrimination of the seven classes of habitats are shown in Figure 7 and are highlighted by high correlation values with the latent variables. We notice that the variables that mostly contribute to the separation of the habitats are essentially the spectral features of the RapidEye images in 2009 and 2010 (e.g. Mean, brightness and STD) as well as the textural features mainly in the NIR bands of the two images. Curiously, the features derived from the NDVI and the Red band were rarely selected by the SPLSDA and seem to be less important for the discrimination of the habitat classes present in the study area. Temporal variations of the NDVI could help in distinguishing improved grasslands when the NDVI is calculated from different observation dates in the annual cycle (Lucas et al. 2007). The two RapidEye images used in our analysis were acquired during the summer season of 2009 and 2010. Usually, year to year reflectance of the landscape should be relatively similar in the summer period as many vegetation covers are close to maximum production. This possibly explains the lack of significant contribution of the NDVI to the discrimination of the habitat classes.

[Figure 7]

#### ***4.3 Map output and accuracy assessment***

The SPLSDA model defined on a subset of variables was then used for predicting the habitats over the full study area. This stage consists in assigning a class of habitat from the seven final habitat classes to each image object resulting from the image segmentation of the remote

sensing data. The map resulting from the application of the SPLSDA model is represented in Figure 8. An enlarged part of the mapping is provided in Figure 8a exemplifying the level of detail achieved. Compared to the CEN-LR map resulting from photointerpretation of aerial imagery (Figure 8b), the classification using RapidEye imagery and the SPLSDA approach provides a more detailed delineation of the main habitat classes. However, from the initial 52 habitat classes (including non-vegetated and agricultural classes), the method was successful in distinguishing only seven classes. These performances could be considered as acceptable for reporting obligations in the framework of the Habitats Directive which focus on the characterization of the spatial distribution and the total area of specific habitats of community interest.

[Figure 8]

To assess the accuracy of the habitats map, the evaluation set derived from the CEN-LR map was used (section 3.2.2). It consisted of 1024 image objects classified according to the 15 initially retained habitat classes. The latter had to be regrouped into seven classes to allow their comparison with the classification output and for computing the confusion matrix (**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**). The accuracy of classification was assessed using three quality indicators derived from the confusion matrix: the overall, the user's (u) and the producer's (p) accuracies.

[Table 3]

The overall accuracy (71%) of the map, although not very high can be considered as satisfactory in the particular context of the study area, characterized by the complexity and the heterogeneity of its habitats. The highest user accuracy was obtained for dry improved grasslands (u=91.97%) followed by riparian ash woods (u= 88.38%). These results are very encouraging given that these two classes were identified in Annex 1 of the EC Habitats Directive as of community interest. Classes that were less well predicted were “Garrigues” (u= 58%, p=



79%), Catalo-Provencal hill holm-oak woodland (u= 36%, p= 69%) and “Other forests” (u= 49%, p= 63%). The classes are found typically in complex arrangements of vegetation mosaics (mainly for “Garrigues” and “Other forests”). They are also regarded as broadly defined and contain many different types of vegetation communities (e.g. “Garrigues”). Some quality issues associated with the use of the CEN-LR map as a reference for validation need to be considered here: although only pure habitat classes (with a percentage of coverage of 100%) were used as a reference for validation, a majority of the image objects derived from the CEN-LR map contained a mix of vegetation types. This is particularly well illustrated for class 41.714 which is very ubiquitous and spread across other forest tree species. A field visit to the study area accompanied by an experienced ecologist confirmed the tendency of the photointerpreters or the field surveyors to give different priorities to the various components of the observed habitat patches, resulting in different extents of these habitats. For this reason, the results of the accuracy assessment presented here should be interpreted with caution. Providing more consistent delineations of habitats and definitions of vegetation types would reduce the uncertainties both in the training and in the evaluation sets. A solution to be considered is the use of an automatic segmentation of remote sensing data that can ensure consistency and can help reducing the amount of time spent in the visual interpretation and the digitization of aerial photos.

## **5. Conclusion and outlooks**

This study investigated the use of a relatively new multivariate exploratory approach, the SPLSDA, for the classification of natural and semi-natural Natura 2000 habitats from remote sensing data. Several benefits to the approach can be highlighted:

- The SPLSDA approach is very well suited for the analysis and classification of remote sensing data in general and for predicting habitat classes in particular. It includes

a built-in variable selection procedure that allows avoiding collinearity and that can remove unnecessary predictors that add noise to the estimation. This is of particular interest in high dimensional multi-class classification problems as in the case of detailed classification of Natura 2000 habitats with multi-spectral and multi-date remote sensing data.

- The SPLSDA approach selected relevant and stable variables for the discrimination of habitat classes that could be linked to ecological or biophysical characteristics. The variables selected by the SPLSDA can serve as indicators for feature selection if a standard nearest neighbor classification was to be used. Besides, these variables can also guide the implementation of decision rules, if a rule-based classification, similar to that proposed by Lucas et al.(2007) was to be developed.
- 7 Habitat classes were identified and classified by the approach with an overall accuracy of 71% including two habitats of community interest (Mediterranean riparian ash woods and dry improved grasslands). To achieve this level of accuracy, only two RapidEye images were required and a DEM with 25 meter grid cells demonstrating the ease of implementation of the method and its update at a reasonable cost and with limited technical constraints. Due to limited data input requirements and to its computational efficiency, the SPLSDA i) is a good alternative to other types of variable selection approaches in a supervised classification framework and ii) can be easily transferred to other Natura 2000 sites.

For achieving better results in terms of discrimination of a larger number of habitat classes, it is necessary to improve the learning stage of the SPLSDA model. This can be attained through the use of more adequate reference data (e.g. field data tailored to the classification of remote sensing imagery or photointerpretation of homogeneous image objects resulting from an automated segmentation of the remote sensing data). Despite the beneficial

effect of outliers' detection and removal thanks to the multivariate outlier analysis, the reference data still includes heterogeneous areas and ill-defined habitats. In addition to the enhancement of the learning set, a special effort should be dedicated for redefining the typologies of habitats and for establishing a relationship between the classes of habitats in the field and biophysical parameters that can be accessible through remote sensing.

Other data sources could be also tested and included in the SPLSDA analysis for discriminating a larger number of habitat classes. If available, thematic information on soil properties can be beneficial for the discrimination of Xerobromion grasslands that occur naturally on shallow calcareous soils where no forest growth is possible. Multiseasonal remote sensing data can be also very useful for detecting trends in the NDVI that may help in distinguishing between combinations of vegetation types (e.g. improved and semi-improved grasslands) and mainly between coniferous (e.g. Black pine), other evergreen (e.g. holm-oak) and deciduous forest species (e.g. white oak). As recommended by Lucas (2011), multiseasonal image acquisitions ought to occur when contrasts in the spectral reflectance or associated characteristic of vegetation are exaggerated and can be captured. Specifically, the need for early spring imagery before the leaf flush was highlighted as, for many habitats (e.g. broadleaved woodlands) substantial contrasts with their reflectance in the post-spring period were observed which facilitate their discrimination.

The wider application of the method requires: i) access to suitable reference data on existing habitats, ideally, based on photointerpretation and ground-truthing by an experienced ecologist, ii) the availability of very high resolution imagery with NIR band as a primary source for segmenting the landscape into homogenous image objects that reflect the habitat patterns and iii) the availability of ancillary data (e.g. DEM) that would lead to further enhancement of the classification of the habitats. As such, the mapping approach proposed here has application on other Natura 2000 sites. It has been successfully applied on Lagoons of

Palavas site characterized by the coexistence of different coastal habitats: dune systems, fore-shore and salt marshes. Multi-date Worldview-2 imagery, together with colour infrared aerial photos and a Digital Surface Model were used as an input to the SPLSDA. In a future study, we intend to apply the approach on two new sites, the Aude valley (Mediterranean BGR) and Belledonne plain (Alpine BGR) and to compare our results with those of nearest neighbor and rule-based approaches.

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Table 1. The main natural habitats existing in the Foothills of Larzac Natura 2000 site of Foothills of Larzac. Each class of habitat is assigned a code according to the European Corine Biotope classification system that was developed in the 1980s and used to derive the habitats, meeting the requirements of the Habitats Directive.

31.812	Blackthorn-privet scrub	38.22	Medio-European lowland hay meadows
32.11	Evergreen oak matorral	41.714	Eu-Mediterranean white oak woods
32.162	Western deciduous oak matorral	41.9	Chesnut woods
32.64	Supra-Mediterranean box scrub	42.67	Black pine reforestation
32.A	Spanish-broom fields	44.63	Mediterranean riparian ash woods
34.332	Middle European xerobromion grasslands	45.313	Catalo-Provencal hill holm-oak
34.36	Phoenician torgrass swards	81.1	Dry improved grasslands
34.721	Aphyllanthes grasslands		

Table 2. Summary table of the main object features used as variables for input to the SPLSDA. All spectral and textural features were computed on both RapidEye images acquired in 2009 and 2010.

Spectral	Category	Feature	Definition
	Layers values	Mean	Mean values of image object in the B, G, R, RE, NIR bands
		STD	Standard deviation of image object in the B, G, R, RE, NIR bands
		Brightness	Mean of the mean values of all spectral bands of RE images
		Maximum difference	Difference between the maximum and the minimum mean intensity values divided by the brightness of all spectral bands
	Band ratios	Mean NDVI	Mean values of image object calculated on the NDVI
		STD NDVI	Standard deviation of image object calculated on the NDVI
Textural	GLCM	Correlation	Measure of the linear dependency of gray levels of neighboring pixels
		Dissimilarity	Measure of the amount of local variation in the image.
	GLDV	Second angular moment	Measure of the local homogeneity. The value is high if some elements of the GLDV are large and the remaining ones are small.
		Entropy	Measure of the randomness of the gray-level distribution
		Mean	The average expressed in terms of the GLDV. The pixel value is not weighted by its frequency of occurrence itself, but by the frequency of its occurrence in combination with a certain neighbor pixel value.
		Contrast	Contrast is the opposite of homogeneity. It is a measure of the amount of local variation in the image.
Thematic	Topography	TPI <sub>5</sub>	Topographic Position Index calculated with a radius of 5 meters
		TPI <sub>25</sub>	Topographic Position Index calculated with a radius of 25 meters



Table 3. Confusion matrix of the result of the classification using the SPLSDA model. The reference data is represented in columns and the classification outputs in rows.

	Garrigues	Grasses	Dry improved grasslands	Black pine	Riparian ash woods	CP hill holm-oak	Other forests
Garrigues	34	5	3	3	5	5	4
Grasses	0	64	15	0	13	3	2
Dry improved grasslands	0	7	126	0	2	0	2
Black pine	3	3	3	201	17	3	14
Riparian ash woods	0	3	6	10	175	2	2
CP hill holm-oak	3	6	12	16	17	44	24
Other forest	3	8	21	20	25	7	82
Producer accuracy (%)	79.07%	66.67%	67.74%	80.40%	68.90%	68.75%	63.08%
User accuracy (%)	57.63%	65.98%	91.97%	82.38%	88.38%	36.07%	49.40%
Overall accuracy (%)	70.97%						

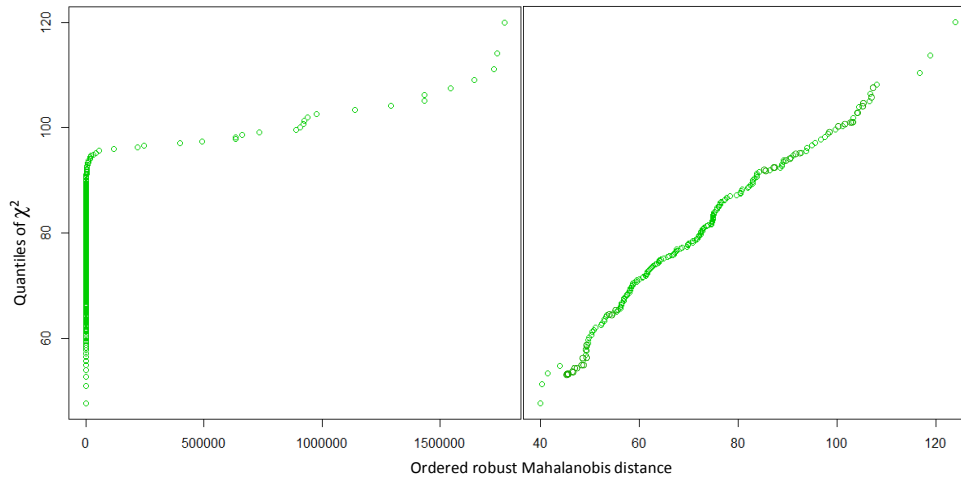


Figure 1. Plot of the ordered robust Mahalanobis distances of the samples of habitat class 32.A against the quantiles of the  $\chi^2$  distribution (left). If the data is normally distributed these values should approximately correspond to each other, so outliers can be detected visually. By user interaction this procedure is repeated, each time leaving out the observation with the greatest distance. This method can be seen as an iterative deletion of outliers until a straight line appears (right).

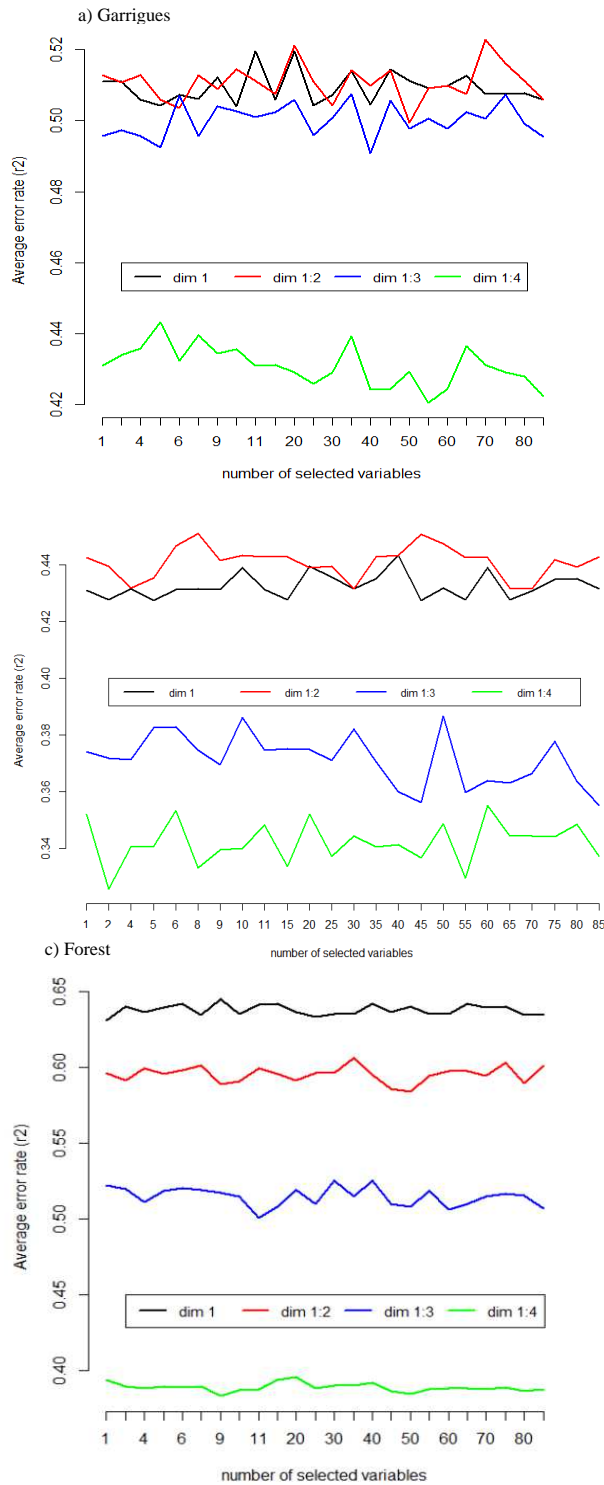


Figure 2. Estimated classification error rate (Ten cross validation) with respect to the number of selected variables on each dimension of SPLSDA for the “Garrigues” (a), “Grasses” (b) and “Forest” (c) groups.

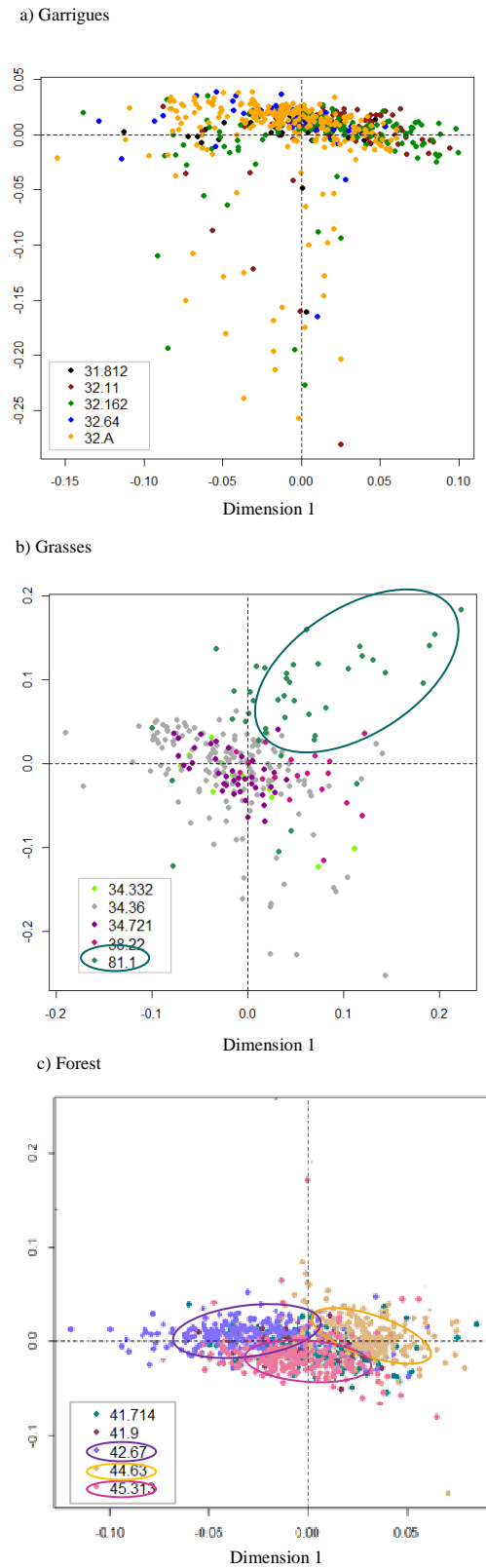


Figure 3. Sample representation using the most discriminant dimensions from the SPLSDA for the “Garrigues” (a), “Grasses” (b) and “Forest” (c) groups.

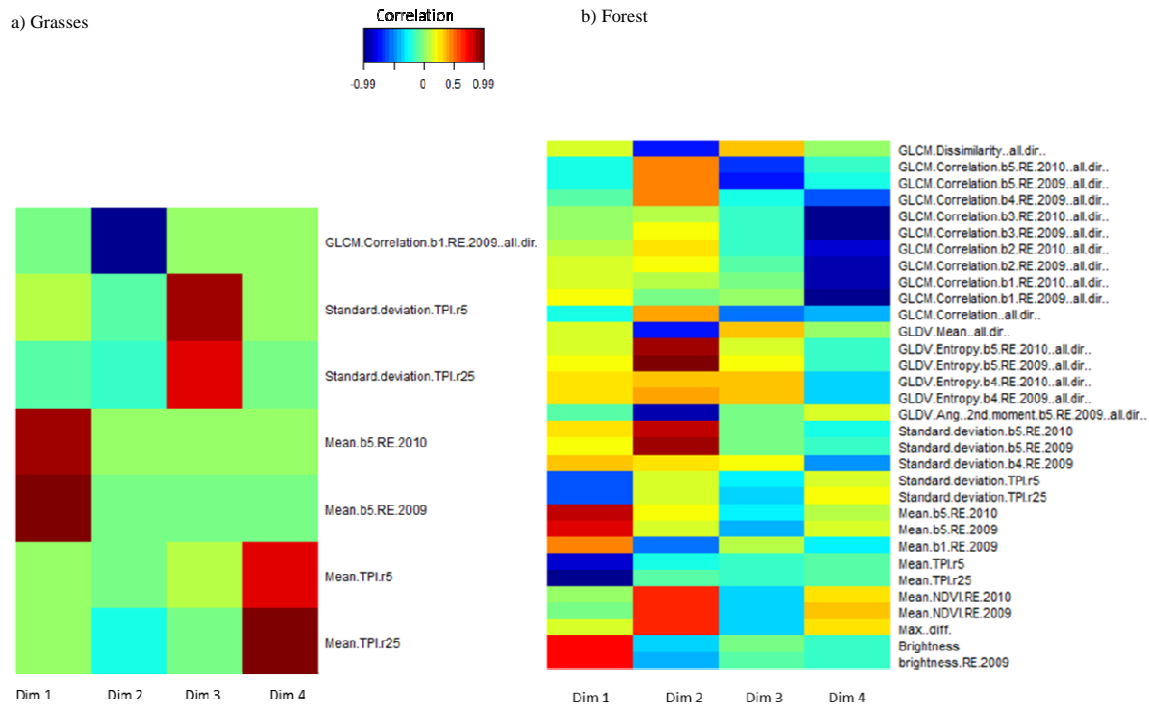


Figure 4. Heat maps of the selected variables by the SPLSDA for the « Grasses » and the « Forest » groups. The colors vary with the degree of correlation between the original data sets and the latent variables.

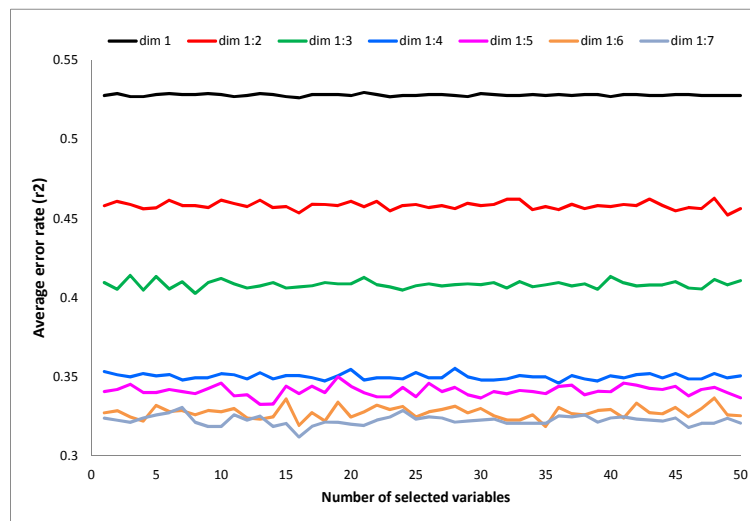


Figure 5. Estimated classification error rate (10 cross validation averaged 10 times) with respect to the number of selected variables on each dimension of the SPLSDA for the seven final classes of habitats.

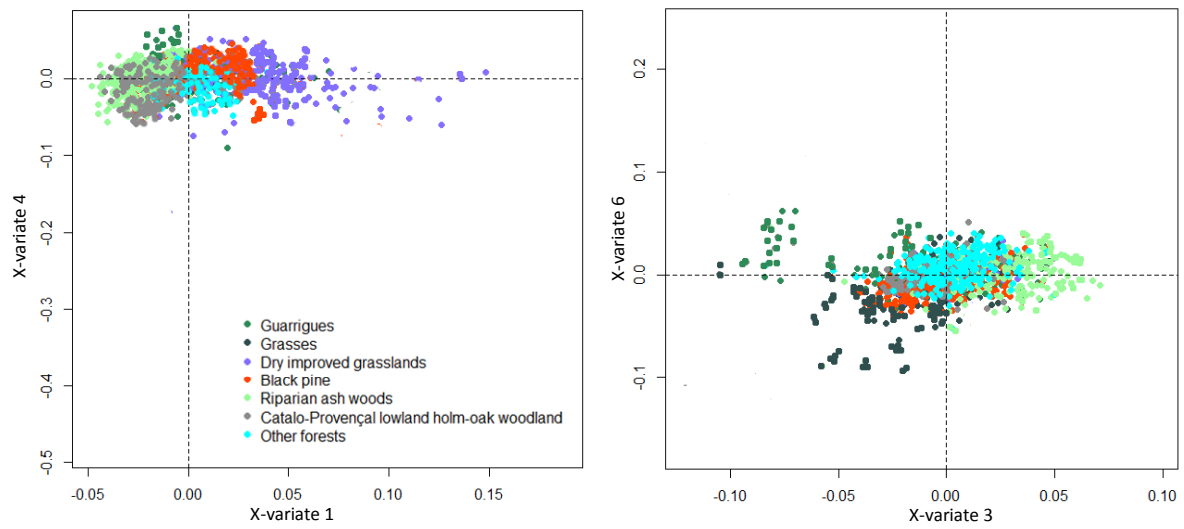


Figure 6. Sample representation using the most discriminant dimensions of the SPLSDA model for the seven final classes of habitats.

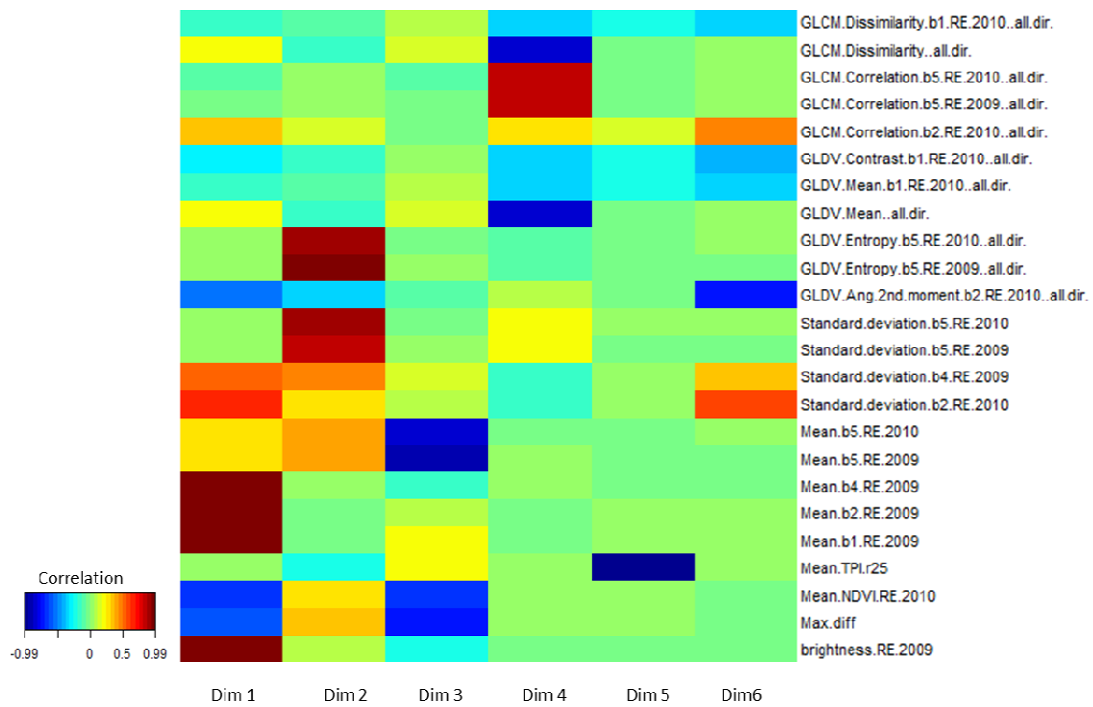


Figure 7. Heat map representing the correlation values between the selected variables and each of the dimensions of the SPLSDA model for the seven final habitat classes ( $H = 6$  and  $keepX = 4$ ).



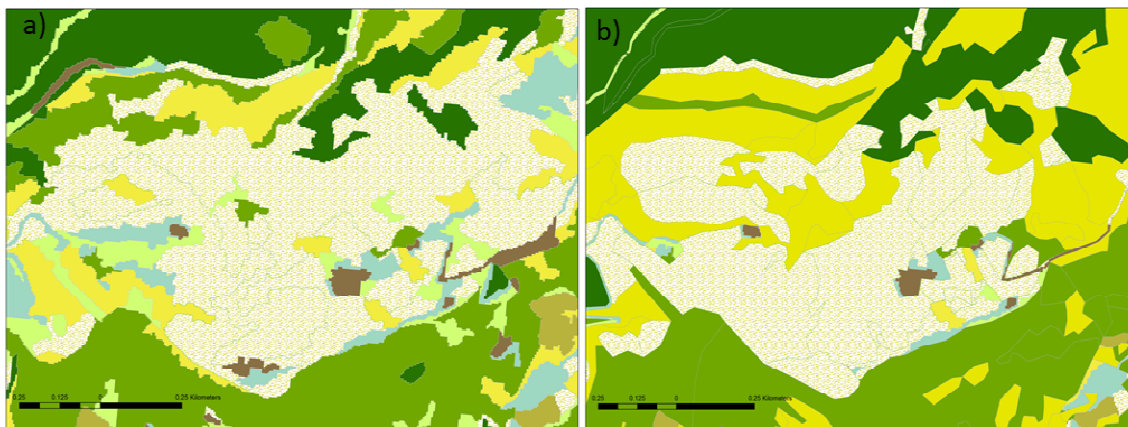
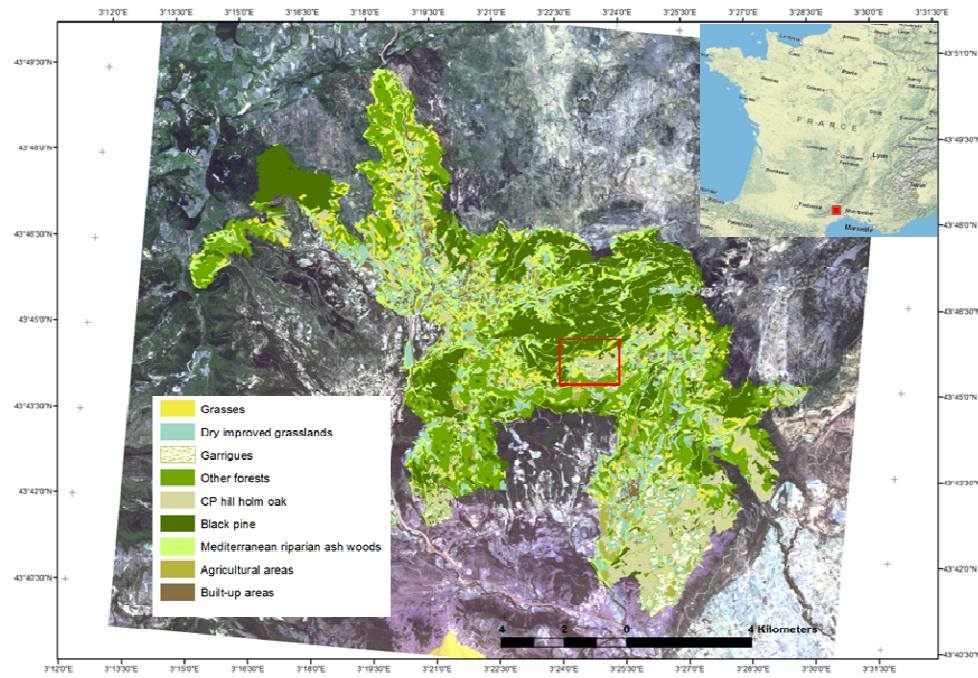


Figure 8. The distribution of natural and semi-natural habitats as mapped by applying the SPLSDA to the RapidEye data acquired in 2009 and 2010. a) An enlarged part of the SPLSDA classification corresponding to the red rectangle; b) the same area derived from the CEN-LR map. Note that agricultural land and built-up areas were derived from the RPG and IGN BD Topo respectively.