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1 **Evaluation of machine learning methods and multi-source remote**
2 **sensing data combinations to construct forest above-ground biomass**
3 **models**

4

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21 **Abstract:** Rapid and accurate estimation of forest biomass is essential to drive
22 sustainable management of forests. Field-based measurements of forest above-
23 ground biomass (AGB) can be costly and difficult to conduct. Multi-source
24 remote sensing data offers potential to improve the accuracy of modelled AGB
25 predictions. Here, four machine learning methods: Random Forest (RF),
26 Gradient Boosting Decision Tree (GBDT), Classification and Regression Trees
27 (CART) and Minimum Distance (MD) were used to construct forest AGB
28 models of Taiyue Mountain forest, Shanxi Province, China using single and
29 multi-sourced remote sensing data and the Google Earth Engine platform.
30 Results showed that the machine learning method that most accurately
31 predicted AGB was GBDT and spectral index for coniferous ($R^2=0.99$;
32 RMSE=65.52 Mg/ha), broadleaved ($R^2=0.97$; RMSE=29.14 Mg/ha), and
33 mixed species ($R^2=0.97$; RMSE=81.12 Mg/ha) forest types. Models
34 constructed using bivariate variable combinations that included the spectral
35 index improved the AGB estimation accuracy of mixed species ($R^2=0.99$;
36 RMSE=59.52 Mg/ha) forest types and reduced slightly the accuracy of
37 coniferous ($R^2=0.99$; RMSE=101.46 Mg/ha), and broadleaved ($R^2=0.97$;
38 RMSE=37.59 Mg/ha) forest AGB estimation. Overall, parameterising machine
39 learning algorithms with multi-source remote sensing variables can improve
40 the prediction accuracy of mixed species forests.

41 **Keywords:** Google Earth Engine; Mixed Species; Landscape; Satellite;
42 Spectral; Waveband

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Remote sensing has great utility in the determination of forest above-ground
45 biomass (AGB) due to the rapid and repeatable acquisition of multi-sensor derived
46 waveband information that correlates with forest biomass structure. Forests cover
47 approximately 40% of the global non-ice land area, and their biomass accounts for

48 about 90% of the terrestrial biomass, as such forests have an irreplaceable role in the
49 terrestrial carbon (C) cycle (Houghton, 2005). Therefore, estimating forest AGB in
50 the study of the C cycle and C stocks in terrestrial ecosystems is of high importance
51 (Vashum, et al. 2012). Traditionally, AGB of forests was determined through
52 manually intensive collection of forest inventory data; however, the emergence of
53 portable terrestrial light detection and ranging (LiDAR) scanners has provided high
54 resolution data to describe forest structure and derive forest inventory metrics
55 (Wulder, et al. 2012), while satellite and airborne LiDAR has enabled the estimation
56 of forest biomass from large areas of inaccessible forest. Developments in remote
57 sensing technology such as synthetic aperture radar (SAR) and interferometric SAR
58 (InSAR) has, particularly through the application of machine learning (ML)
59 techniques, provided further opportunities to improve the accuracy of forest AGB
60 estimates over large areas (Frolking, et al. 2009; Lechner, et al. 2020; Luo, et al.
61 2020). Recently, LiDAR, optical and radar remote sensing data have been combined
62 into multi-source datasets for research into land cover change and forest biomass
63 estimation (Isbaex, et al. 2021), climate change (He et al. 2023), environmental
64 pollution (Zhang et al. 2023), and forest ecophysiology (Gamon et al. 2023).

65 The integration of multi-source remote sensing data offers huge potential to
66 improve the predictive power of ML algorithms used in data science. Hyde et al.,
67 (2007) demonstrated that the prediction of forest AGB could be improved using a
68 combination of LiDAR, SAR, and InSAR (i.e., LiDAR+SAR/InSAR) rather than
69 using the three types of data individually. Indeed, spatial modelling methods that

70 integrate airborne LiDAR with satellite-based SAR data have been shown to provide
71 spatially explicit AGB estimates over large areas (Tsui et al. 2013). Vafaei
72 et al., (2018) combined multispectral Sentinel-2A imagery with ALOS-2 and
73 PALSAR-2 data to estimate forest AGB using four ML methods. The study revealed
74 that when Sentinel-2A imagery is combined with ALOS-2 and PALSAR-2 data,
75 forest AGB estimates are improved over Sentinel-2A data alone, and that the support
76 vector regression (SVR) method yielded the highest level of accuracy. Similarly,
77 Tamiminia et al., (2022) combined optical, SAR, and airborne LiDAR data to
78 estimate forest AGB using multiple decision tree-based ML methods to reveal that
79 optical and SAR data provided the most accurate estimation of forest AGB; however,
80 there was no significant difference between the ML methods used. Shao et al. (2017)
81 demonstrated the utility of multi-sourced for the AGB estimation of forests by
82 integrating optical (Landsat 8 OLI) and SAR (Sentinel-1A) explanatory variables to
83 parameterize a stacked sparse autoencoder network (SSAE) and show that the data
84 combination outperformed SAR and optical data variables alone for forest AGB
85 estimation over large areas.

86 Most recently, the accuracy of forest AGB estimation was improved by
87 accounting for tree phenology and dominant tree species with the random forest (RF)
88 method parameterised with LiDAR and Sentinel-1 and Sentinel-2 data (Zhang
89 et al 2023). Consensus in recent literature suggests that radar and optical remote
90 sensing data sources can improve forest AGB estimation over optical or LiDAR data
91 alone (Velasco et al. 2023) and opportunities remain to further refine methodologies

92 by evaluating a broader range of multi-source remote sensing data and ML methods.
93 For example, multi- or hyper-spectral data can be usefully analysed to extract metrics
94 that describe biophysical characteristics of vegetation, and the differences in
95 reflectance spectra of vegetation can also be used to identify specific species at
96 different growth stages (Li, et al. 2012), while transformation of spectral bands using
97 the tassal cap transformation can be used to generate indices that are proxies for
98 texture, frequently used to parameterize models of forest biomass.

99 Machine learning methods have become prevalent in the development of forest
100 biomass models as they are able to reveal complicated nonlinear relationships in
101 complex datasets. Machine learning methods are widely used because of their
102 adaptiveness, interpretability, and sustainability, and are divided into supervised and
103 unsupervised categories. Supervised learning enables ML algorithms to use training
104 datasets to reveal the relationship between input and output data. Algorithms that
105 require supervised learning include decision trees, logistic regression, support vector
106 machines, and neural networks (Mountrakis, et al. 2011; Rodríguez-Veiga, et al.
107 2019; Mas, et al. 2008). Whereas unsupervised learning is a data processing method
108 that classifies a large sample of the subject under study through data analysis without
109 category information. Unsupervised classification methods include cluster analysis,
110 principal component analysis and factor analysis (Olaode, et al. 2014). In the ML-
111 based assessment of forest AGB assessment of a single tree species in northern
112 Thailand, the RF method demonstrated higher model accuracy compared to traditional
113 allometric equations and other ML methods (Wongchai, et al. 2022). However, Bulut,

114 (2023) recommends that multiple ML methods be used with multiple data sources in
115 different environmental conditions to obtain the most accurate forest AGB estimates.

116 Commonly used supervised ML methods for forest biomass models include
117 Random Forest (RF; Tian, et al. 2017), Classification and Regression Trees (CART;
118 Breiman, 2017), Gradient Boosting Decision Tree (GBDT; Pham, et al. 2020), and the
119 Minimum Distance (MD; Yang, et al. 2020) method. These ML methods commonly
120 used to estimate forest AGB are evaluated using an R^2 based on the coefficient of
121 determination, root mean square error (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE), and
122 relative error (RE) (Isbaex, et al. 2021; Han, et al. 2021).

123 Google Earth Engine (GEE) is a cloud platform that provides powerful tools
124 for processing and analysis of remotely sensed data (Lu, et al. 2016). Through the
125 GEE interface users can access more than 50 petabytes of remote sensing data from
126 Landsat, Sentinel, SAR and digital elevation models (DEM) (Gorelick, et al. 2017).
127 Data processing on the GEE platform can be conducted using Javascript and Python
128 APIs to access Google's compute infrastructure for parallel processing of massive
129 datasets. Recently, scholars have used GEE to analyse environmental change with a
130 focus on forest monitoring (Tamiminia, et al. 2020), conduct large-area multi-source
131 remote sensing-based forest biomass estimation (Yang, et al. 2018) and to develop
132 online visualisation tools (Yan, et al. 2022).

133 Although several studies have explored the estimation of forest AGB using
134 multi-source remote sensing variables, there is currently no specific construction
135 process to select ML methods and different combinations of remote sensing variables

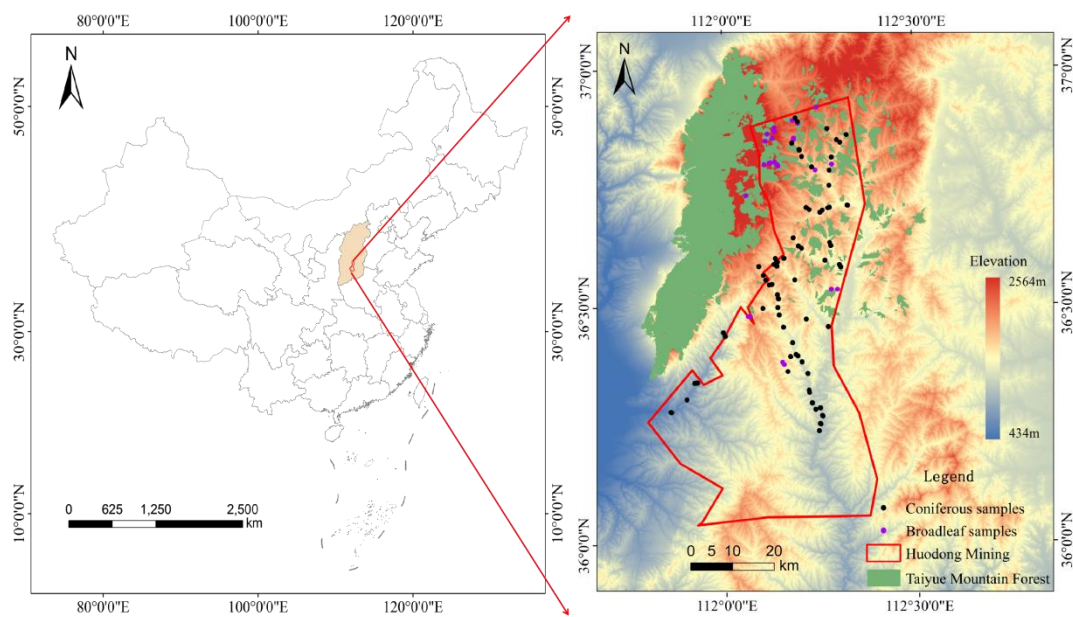
136 (Lu, et al. 2006). Here, we use an optimal ML method to construct different forest
137 AGB models using single input datatypes and construct multi-source remote sensing
138 variables for comparison to the optimal single variable. Multi-source remote sensing
139 variable combinations are then constructed according to their importance and
140 correlation between an array of multi-source remote sensing variables to test the
141 optimal forest AGB model. However, to obtain accurate determination of biomass in
142 mixed species forests, it is necessary to consider tree species-specific differences in
143 remotely sensed data. The objectives of this paper are to: (i) improve the estimation of
144 AGB in different forest types i.e., broadleaved, coniferous and mixed species forests;
145 (ii) determine the optimal combination of remotely sensed data to improve the
146 accuracy of forest AGB estimation using ML approaches; and (iii) to explore the
147 forests within the Huodong coal mine area under Taiyue Mountain to validate the
148 selected method.

149 **2. Material and Methods**

150 **2.1. Study area**

151 Huodong Mining District (36°30'0''N, 112°24'0''E) is a national mining district
152 within Jinzhong coal basin, one of the 14 large coal basins in China delineated in the
153 National Mineral Resources Plan (2016-2020). The mining area is a temperate
154 continental climate, with four distinct seasons and a large temperature difference
155 between day and night. The mean annual temperature is 9.2 °C. The mean annual
156 precipitation is 564.1 mm. It is located in the west of Qinshui Coalfield in Shanxi

157 Province and covers an area of 4,110 km² with a total coal resource of 36.6 billion
158 tons. Huodong mining area is not only rich in mineral resources but also has the
159 largest national Forest Park, Taiyue Mountain Forest Park, in Shanxi province. Taiyue
160 Mountain Forest is a species diverse forest with 233 species of woody plants
161 belonging to 44 families and 99 genera: 62 families and more than 500 species of
162 herbaceous plants. The forest total area exceeds 60,000 hectares and is comprised of
163 northern China's main forest species: *Larix principis-rupprechtii*, *Cunninghamia*
164 *lanceolata*, *Pinus tabuliformis* with *Quercus wutaishanica*, *Populus* spp., *Acacia*
165 *locust*, *Betula platyphylla*. An overview map of the study area is shown in Figure 1.



166
167 Figure 1. Map of the study area in the southeastern of Shanxi Province, China. The
168 red line box is the Huodong mining area, the green area is the Taiyue Mountain forest,
169 Black and purple points are the coniferous and broadleaved forest sampling sites,
170 respectively.

171 **2.2. Data collection and processing**

172 *2.2.1. Data collection*

173 Selection of 128 (30 m × 30 m) forest sample plots (128 mixed, 91 broadleaved, 37
174 coniferous,) was conducted with the GEE platform using high spatial resolution
175 images to obtain the coordinates of the center point of each forest sample plot (Figure
176 2). A total of 128 forest sample plots were surveyed between 1st and 23rd August
177 2022 using a combination of traditional forest mensuration measurements and mobile
178 LiDAR (LiBackpack DGC50) with a relative accuracy of 3 cm, absolute accuracy of
179 5 cm, scanning frequency of 600,000 points/sec. During the measurement process, the
180 surveyors manually measured diameter at breast height (DBH) and height (H) of all
181 living trees. The ABG of each tree species was estimated using a regional tree
182 species-specific allometric equation (Table 1) (Fang, et al. 2001). All remote sensing
183 data were sourced from datasets available in the GEE cloud platform
184 (<https://developers.google.com/earth-engine/datasets/>), with the exception of Landsat
185 8 Level 2, Collection 2, Tier 1 optical data for each 30 m × 30 m forest sample plot
186 Topographic data were obtained from NASA SRTM Digital Elevation, and SAR data
187 were Global PALSAR-2/PALSAR yearly mosaic, and the specific data parameters are
188 shown in Table 2.

189



190

191 Figure 2. Forest sample plot survey (a) single tree diameter at breast height
 192 measurement using a diameter at breast height ruler; (b) scanning the forest sample
 193 plot using a backpack LiDAR; (c) single tree height measurement using a height
 194 gauge; (d) measuring the extent of the forest sample plot using a measuring rope.

195 Table 1. Allometric equations for estimating the forest species in the study area. AGB
 196 is the above-ground biomass (kg), D is the diameter (cm) at breast height (1.3 m), H is
 197 the height of the tree (m).

Tree Species	Allometric Equation
<i>Larix principis-rupprechtii</i>	$AGB = 0.2387114(D^2H)^{0.6784}$
<i>Cunninghamia lanceolata</i>	$AGB = 0.00849(D^2H)^{1.10723}$
<i>Populus</i> spp.	$AGB = 0.07363(D^2H)^{0.7745}$
<i>Pinus tabuliformis</i>	$AGB = 0.14187(D^2H)^{0.8728}$
<i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i>	$AGB = 0.02583(D^2H)^{0.6841}$
<i>Quercus wutaishanica</i>	$AGB = 0.04930(D^2H)^{0.8514}$

198

199 Table 2. Remote sensing image collection

Name	Earth Engine Snippet	Acquisition Date	Processing Level
Landsat	LANDSAT/LC08/C02/T1_L2	"2022-06-01","2022-08-31"	Level 2

8				
DEM	USGS/SRTMGL1_003	"2000-02-11"	V3	
SAR	JAXA/ALOS/PALSAR/YEARLY/SAR	"2020-01-01","2021-01-01"	2.1	

200

201 *2.2.2. Data processing*

202 LiDAR generated 3D cloud point data collected in field for each forest sample plot
 203 was preprocessed using the LiDAR360 software (GreenValley International,
 204 Zhongguancun Software Park, Haidian). The processes involved forest sample
 205 screening and clipping, point cloud data thinning and denoising, ground point cloud
 206 segmentation, point cloud normalization and single wood parameter statistics. Finally,
 207 the tree height and diameter of single trees in all forest plots were counted separately
 208 to obtain the forest biomass of the whole plot.

209 Processing of the Landsat 8, SAR, and DEM datasets involved filtering to extract the
 210 specific study area and removing clouds using a cloud bit mask. Multiple sources of
 211 remote sensing variables were selected from specified bands of different image
 212 collections to obtain the information shown in Table 3.

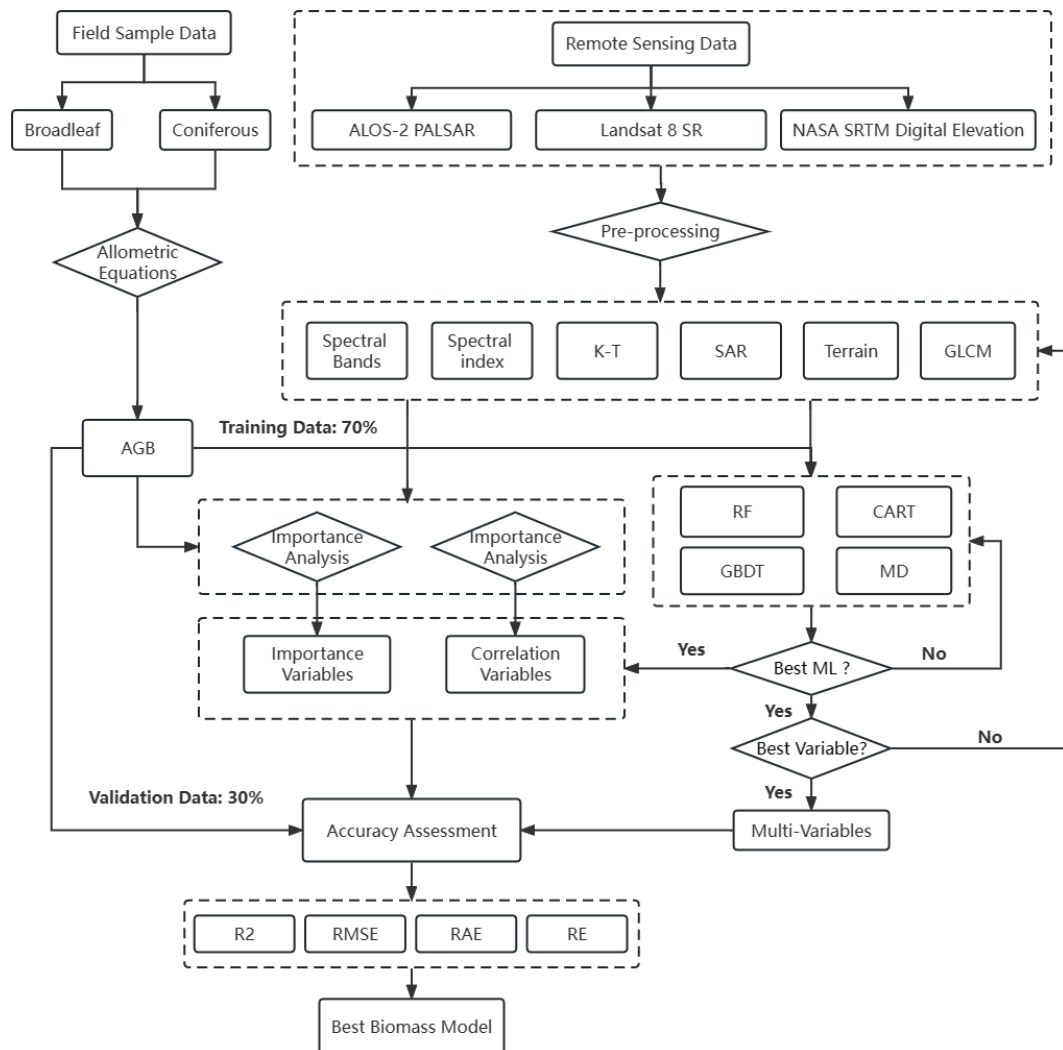
213 *2.3. Experimental design*

214 Most of the scientific literature does not explain how to select appropriate variables to
 215 develop and evaluate forest AGB models. Based on this knowledge, we designed this
 216 experiment to construct forest AGB models using a combination of multi-source
 217 remote sensing variables and then compared the accuracy of different variable
 218 combinations on forest AGB models to more scientifically follow the optimal

219 combination of single variables and reveal which combination of variables had the
220 best fit.

221 Four experiments were conducted to assess the utility of different variable
222 combinations and their accuracy in estimating forest AGB: (i) single variable; (ii)
223 multi-source variable combinations; (iii) variable importance; and (iv) Pearson
224 correlation coefficient. The four ML methods (RF, CART, GBDT and MD) used in
225 this study were evaluated with $n = 500$ decision tree parameters. Each model was
226 analysed by assessing the following four indicators: R^2 , RMSE, MAE, and RE. A
227 flowchart that details the satellite-image processing and the generation of forest AGB
228 models using ML is shown in Figure 3.

229 For model training and validation of the model AGB estimates, the location of
230 each of the 128 forest sample plots was identified using a handheld GNSS receiver
231 (CHC® LT500T, iGage Mapping Corporation, Salt Lake City, USA), and a field-
232 based forest inventory survey conducted.



233

234 Figure 3. Flowchart for satellite-image processing and the generation of forest above-
 235 ground biomass (AGB) models based on machine learning (ML) methods. Among the
 236 six variable types obtained during the data processing, the feature variable synthetic
 237 aperture radar (SAR) was derived from the ALOS-2 PALSAR data. Spectral bands,
 238 spectral indices, Kauth-Thomas (K-T), and gray level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM)
 239 all originate from Landsat 8 SR images. Terrain variables were derived from the
 240 NASA's shuttle radar topography mission (SRTM).

241 **2.4. Machine learning methods**

242 Four decision tree ML methods (RF, CART, GBDT and MD) were selected from the

243 ML methods available in the GEE platform to construct a forest biomass model.

244 *2.4.1. Random Forest*

245 Random forest is an integration-based decision tree approach (Cutler, et al. 2012) that
246 is commonly used for classification, regression, and other tasks (Breiman, 2001). It
247 improves the prediction performance by integrating multiple decision trees, each
248 constructed by random subsampling and random feature selection. The random forest
249 approach takes a self-service sampling method (bootstrap sampling), in which k
250 samples are randomly selected from the original dataset to form a collection of
251 subsamples, which can increase the randomness and diversity of the training set and
252 reduce the phenomenon of overfitting. Multiple bootstrap samples are randomly and
253 repeatedly sampled from the training dataset, and then a decision tree is constructed
254 for each bootstrap sample. Finally, the regression results of all decision trees are
255 averaged to obtain the prediction results (Speiser et al. 2019).

256 *2.4.2. Classification and Regression Tree*

257 Classification and regression tree is a decision tree classification and regression
258 method (Loh, et al. 2008). The CART algorithm recursively constructs a decision tree
259 by binary slicing of sample features, where each leaf node represents a decision
260 outcome (Breiman, 2017). For classification problems, the leaf nodes of the decision
261 tree correspond to a category; for regression problems, the leaf nodes of the decision
262 tree correspond to a value. The CART algorithm generates interpretable decision trees
263 with low computational effort and fast training but may produce overfitting for high-

264 dimensional data (Gómez, et al. 2012).

265 *2.4.3. Gradient Boosting Decision Tree*

266 The GBDT algorithm is implemented to model and predict data by integrating
267 multiple decision trees where in each iteration step, a decision tree is used to fit the
268 residuals of the current data (Friedman, 2001). Eventually, the predictions of multiple
269 decision trees are weighted and averaged to obtain the final model predictions (Pham
270 et al. 2020). The advantages of the GBDT method are that it can effectively handle
271 many types of data (e.g., numerical, subtypes, and sequential) and can automatically
272 select important features and handle missing data. In addition, the method has a strong
273 generalization capability to handle large-scale datasets and yields good performance
274 in most cases (Li, et al. 2020).

275 *2.4.4. Minimum Distance*

276 The MD method is a classic classification method that classifies samples into different
277 categories by measuring the distance between them (Wolfowitz et al. 1957). The
278 method assumes that there is a variability in distance between the sets of samples of
279 different categories, i.e., the distance between the sets of samples of different
280 categories is farther and the distance between samples of the same category is closer.
281 The basic idea of the shortest distance method is that for a new sample, the distance
282 between it and the sample of each category is calculated, and then it is placed in the
283 category with the closest distance to it (Mahdianpari, et al. 2020). Euclidean distance
284 or Manhattan distance is usually used to measure the distance between samples. In

285 this paper, Euclidean distance is used as a parameter for analysis by default. The
 286 advantage of the shortest distance method is its simplicity and ease of use, as well as
 287 the fact that it does not require complex prior training and conditioning of the
 288 samples. However, it also has some disadvantages, such as sensitivity to outliers and
 289 poor performance on unbalanced datasets (Shaharum, et al. 2020).

290 2.4.5. Model Parameter

291 The specific parameters of the four machine learning methods used in this paper are
 292 shown in Table 3. The RF and GBDT methods have six parameters each, while the
 293 CART and MD methods have two parameters each. For a specific parameter
 294 explanation, please see the GEE developer documentation available at
 295 <https://developers.google.com/earth-engine/apidocs>

296 Table 3. Specific parameters of the random forest (RF), classification and regression
 297 tree (CART), gradient boosting decision tree (GBDT), minimum distance (MD)
 298 machine learning methods

Parameter	RF	CART	GBDT	MD
numberOfTrees	500	-	500	-
variablesPerSplit	14	-	-	-
minLeafPopulation	1	1	-	-
bagFraction	0.5	-	-	-
maxNodes	no limit	no limit	no limit	-
seed	0	-	0	-
shrinkage	-	-	0.005	-
samplingRate	-	-	0.7	-
loss	-	-	LeastAbsoluteDeviation	-
metric	-	-	-	euclidean
kNearest	-	-	-	1

299

300 **2.5. Biomass model variable**

301 Biomass model variables involved in the construction were divided into six
 302 categories, which are the spectral bands of Landsat images, spectral indices,
 303 topographic factors, tassell-cap transform (Kauth-Thomas), gray level co-occurrent
 304 matrix (GLCM), and SAR factors, where the texture feature variable consist of 18
 305 components, all of which are applied to SR_B2-B7 bands, respectively, and all of the
 306 total number of multi-source variables is 156, as shown in Table 4. The specific
 307 abbreviated noun explanation is provided in Supplementary.

308 Table 4. Biomass model single variable

Type of variable	Specific variable factors	number
Landsat bands	Blue(SR_B2), Green(SR_B3), Red(SR_B4), NIR(SR_B5), SWIR1(SR_B6), SWIR2 (SR_B7)	6
Spectral index	NDVI, GNDVI, BNDVI, NDWI, NDWI1, MNDWI, NDMI, NDSI, SIPI, RECI, EVI, EVI2, SR, LAI, GVI, RVI, GRVI, DVI, SAVI, OSAVI, ARVI, VARI, SLAVI, NBR, NDGI, GCVI, GRNDVI, GBNDVI, RBNDVI, RGRI	30
Terrain	Elevation, Slope, Aspect, Hillshade	4
Tassel Cap Transform	Brightness, Greenness, Wetness, TCD(Tasseled Cap Angle), TCA(Tasseled Cap Distance)	5
GLCM	ASM(Angular Second Moment), CONTRAST(Contrast), CORR(Correlation), VAR(Variance), IDM(Inverse Difference Moment), SAVG(Sum Average), SVAR(Sum Variance), SENT(Sum Entropy), ENT(Entropy), DVAR(Difference variance), DENT(Difference entropy), IMCORR1(Information Measure of Corr. 1), IMCORR2(Information Measure of Corr. 2), MAXCORR(Max Corr. Coefficient), DISS(Dissimilarity), INERTIA(Inertia), SHADE(Cluster Shade), PROM(Cluster prominence)	18
SAR	HH(Horizontal transmit/Horizontal receive polarization), HV(Horizontal transmit/Vertical receive polarization)	2

309 Spectral bands refer to the electromagnetic waves collected at different

310 wavelengths by satellite sensors during the process of acquiring remote sensing
311 images. Different spectral bands have varying reflectivity characteristics for different
312 features. Therefore, extracting different spectral bands in remote sensing images can
313 be utilized to describe and differentiate features. The B2-B7 bands in the Landsat SR
314 data were selected as the spectral band variable.

315 The spectral index is one of the most important variables for estimation of forest
316 AGB, especially the vegetation index, which is calculated by analysing vegetation
317 reflection or radiation data and can provide information on vegetation growth status,
318 chlorophyll content and vegetation cover (Zeng, et al. 2022). We selected 30 spectral
319 indices as one of the remote sensing variables to participate in the construction of
320 biomass models. Supplementary Table B details all the spectral indices and their
321 abbreviations used in this paper.

322 Terrain variables play an important role in estimating forest biomass. Elevation
323 can affect the climate and soil conditions, and therefore, the growth of forests. Slope,
324 aspect and hillshade can influence microclimate, rates of soil erosion and water
325 distribution, thereby influencing forest growth and biomass accumulation.

326 Spectral transformation is the process of converting raw remote sensing image
327 data into a different representation space. Its purpose is to extract the features of
328 different objects in the image for classification, target detection, change detection, and
329 other applications. Spectral transformation is the process of converting raw remote
330 sensing image data to another kind of representation space. In this paper, the five

331 variables in the K-T transformation were selected as the spectral transformation
332 variables.

333 GLCM is a common texture analysis method based on the second-order
334 combined conditional probability density of the image. It calculates the spatial
335 relationship between different gray levels in the image. Using remote sensing images
336 to monitor forest textural features can capture detailed features within the forest.
337 Through image processing and classification of remote sensing images, various forest
338 types and structural features can be accurately identified. The extraction of the texture
339 features in this paper was performed using the `glcmTexture()` function in the GEE
340 platform.

341 The SAR data can be used to estimate the height, density, and volume of
342 vegetation by measuring the radio waves reflected by the vegetation. The HH and HV
343 (polarization backscattering coefficient) bands in the ALOS-2 PALSAR data were
344 selected as the SAR variables for constructing the forest AGB model.

345 ***2.6. Model Evaluation***

346 *2.6.1. Training and validation datasets*

347 To train and validate the model the 128 plots comprised of coniferous, broadleaved
348 and mixed species forest were allocated into training (70%) and validation (30%)
349 datasets. The number of training and validation of the forest sample points for each
350 tree species are shown in Table 5.

351 Table 5. Training and validation sample points for different tree species

Forest Type	Training Points	Validation Points	Total
Coniferous	25	12	37
Broadleaved	63	28	91
Mixed	89	39	128

352

353 *2.6.2. Feature Importance Analysis*

354 Analysis of variable importance using GEE was conducted to determine the
 355 magnitude and predictive contribution of optimal variables to the prediction of forest
 356 AGB (Zhang, et al. 2019), this analysis method can be used to inform variable
 357 selection, model optimization, and interpretation of model prediction results (Li, et al.
 358 2019). Variable importance analysis is a process of determining the importance
 359 between all multi-source remote sensing variables and the measured biomass. The
 360 biomass of forest sample points is used as training data, and all feature variables as
 361 input properties are input into classifiers, such as RF, as classifier attributes. The
 362 importance of each feature's relationship with forest AGB was determined using the
 363 explain() function in GEE. RF, CART, and GBDT are provided in the developed APP
 364 included in this paper (Section 4.3) for variable importance analysis.

365 *2.6.3. Feature correlation*

366 Pearson correlation coefficient (Eq. 1) was used to assess the degree of linear
 367 correlation between all multi-source remote sensing variables and the field
 368 measurements of forest AGB, which were then ranked from highest to the lowest.

369

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \quad (1)$$

370 In the above equation, x_i and y_i are the variables measured, \bar{x} and \bar{y} are the
 371 mean values of the predicted and measured, respectively.

372 *2.6.4. Accuracy assessment*

373 The accuracy of each ML model and variable combination was evaluated by
 374 validation using data that was not included in the model building process. Four
 375 accuracy evaluation indices: coefficient of determination (R^2 ; Eq. 2), root mean
 376 squared error (RMSE, Mg/ha; Eq. 3), mean absolute error (MAE; Eq. 4) and relative
 377 error (RE; Eq. 5) were calculated to compare the predicted and observed values.
 378 (Cohen, et al. 2009). All of the above evaluation indices were implemented online
 379 through the Javascript API of the GEE platform.

380

$$R^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - \bar{p})(a_i - \bar{a})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - \bar{p})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i - \bar{a})^2}} \quad (2)$$

381

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - a_i)^2}{n}} \quad (3)$$

382

$$MAE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |p_i - a_i| \quad (4)$$

383

$$RE = \frac{(p_i - a_i)}{a_i} * 100\% \quad (5)$$

384 In the above expressions, P_i is the forest AGB predicted by the ML model,
 385 a_i is the measured mangrove AGB, n is the total number of sampling plots, and \bar{P}
 386 and \bar{a} are the mean values of the predicted and measured AGBs, respectively.

387 **3. Results**

388 *3.1. Comparison of different methods*

389 The performance of the four ML methods for predicting the coniferous, broadleaved
 390 and mixed species forest types using a single spectral variable is shown in Table 6.

391 Irrespective of forest type the R^2 for each of the four ML methods was consistent
 392 whilst the differences in RMSE, MAE, and RE metrics enabled selection of the best
 393 model. The error metrics of the GBDT method was the smallest and the error metrics
 394 of the MD method were largest. Overall, the error metrics of the GBDT method
 395 tended to be the smallest and the error metrics of the MD method were the largest.

396 The ranked order of ML method performance by error for broadleaved forest was RF
 397 $< \text{GBDT} < \text{CART} < \text{MD}$, for coniferous forest was $\text{GBDT} < \text{RF} < \text{CART} < \text{MD}$, and
 398 for mixed species forest was $\text{CART} < \text{RF} < \text{GBDT} < \text{MD}$. In aggregate, the GBDT
 399 method performed best to estimate forest AGB for both univariate and multivariate
 400 input datasets.

401 Table 6. Comparison of random forest (RF), classification and regression tree
 402 (CART), gradient boosting decision tree (GBDT), minimum distance (MD) machine
 403 learning methods to estimate forest aboveground biomass.

Forest Type	Performance Indicator	Algorithm			
		RF	CART	GBDT	MD
Broadleaved	R^2	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69

	RMSE	39.59	51.14	40.45	813.97
	MAE	27.80	34.51	28.96	731.24
	RE	0.68	0.83	0.71	18.73
	R ²	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.71
Coniferous	RMSE	80.34	113.40	76.72	646.23
	MAE	61.76	94.31	54.89	576.25
	RE	0.23	0.40	0.20	2.88
	R ²	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.83
Mixed	RMSE	88.67	85.63	89.13	624.61
	MAE	65.89	65.11	66.46	514.01
	RE	0.63	0.47	0.60	8.19

404

405 **3.2. Single and multi-source variables model evaluation**

406 *3.2.1. single variable biomass model construction*

407 The results of the forest AGB models parameterised with a single remotely sensed
408 variable for the three forest types are shown in Table 7. Among the six different
409 univariately constructed models, the RMSE was larger in coniferous forest than in
410 broadleaved and the mixed-species (undifferentiated) forests. For all models with a
411 single variable, spectral index had the highest fit and GLCM had the lowest fit.

412 For the broadleaved forest type the variable that resulted in the highest correlation
413 between predicted and measured forest AGB was spectral index ($R^2=0.97$), however
414 the GLCM variable produced the largest error with an R^2 of 0.01. RMSE, MAE and
415 RE errors of spectral index model are lower than GLCM model. In the coniferous
416 forest spectral index again resulted in the highest R^2 of 0.99, however the GLCM
417 variable produced the lowest correlation with an R^2 of 0.04. Similarly, the strongest
418 correlation of spectral indices in mixed forests had an R^2 of 0.97, while the model
419 constructed by GLCM had the lowest accuracy ($R^2 = 0.02$). Consistency with R^2 was

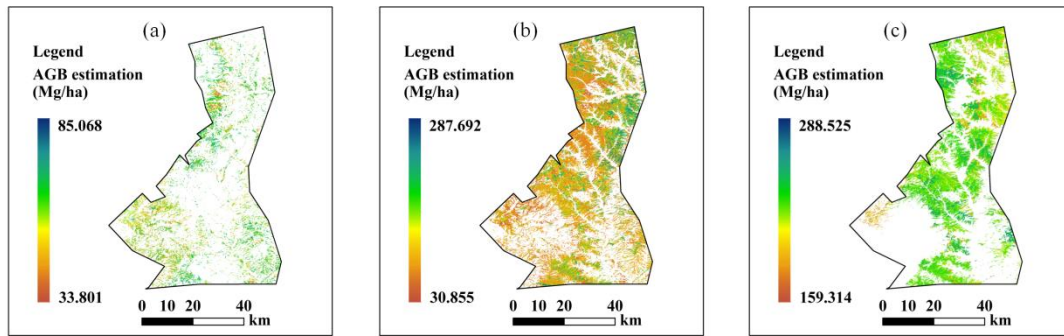
420 demonstrated in the model evaluation results for RMSE and MAE in all forest
 421 species.

422 Table 7. Precision evaluation of single variable models for different tree species.

Forest Type	Variables	R ²	RMSE (Mg/ha)	MAE	RE
Broadleaved	Terrain	0.05	31.00	25.08	0.46
	Band	0.69	40.45	28.96	0.71
	Index	0.97	29.14	21.40	0.35
	SAR	0.17	46.75	33.90	0.61
	K-T	0.10	33.94	28.94	0.52
	GLCM	0.01	30.11	24.45	0.62
Coniferous	Terrain	0.11	74.24	56.64	0.25
	Band	0.71	76.72	54.89	0.20
	Index	0.99	65.52	50.92	0.28
	SAR	0.48	82.68	68.44	0.32
	K-T	0.72	104.93	95.98	0.65
	GLCM	0.04	111.75	93.75	0.95
Mixed	Terrain	0.01	63.99	45.83	0.70
	Band	0.83	89.13	66.46	0.60
	Index	0.97	81.12	51.18	0.61
	SAR	0.22	64.90	47.53	0.82
	K-T	0.48	76.84	52.77	0.55
	GLCM	0.02	92.55	66.92	0.53

423

424 The spatial distribution of forest AGB constructed using a single variable for
 425 different forest types are shown in Figure 4. The forest AGB of coniferous and
 426 broadleaved forests in the region differs greatly, with coniferous forests
 427 predominating and broadleaved forests having a more scattered distribution, and the
 428 forest AGB of coniferous forest is higher than that of broadleaved forest. The forest
 429 biomass distribution without distinguishing tree species (Figure 4b) can more clearly
 430 distinguish the difference in forest biomass distribution in the study area.



431

432 Figure 4. Biomass distribution of single variable (spectral index) for different tree
 433 species. (a) broadleaved forest; (b) mixed-species forest; (c) coniferous forest.

434 *3.2.2. Combined biomass model with multi-wavelength variables*

435 In this experiment, 30 variable combinations were compiled Table A

436 (Supplementary), We selected only variable combinations where the model accuracy

437 (R^2) of AGB estimation was > 0.5 as shown in Table 8.

438 Table 8. Performance comparison of variable combination used in ML to estimate

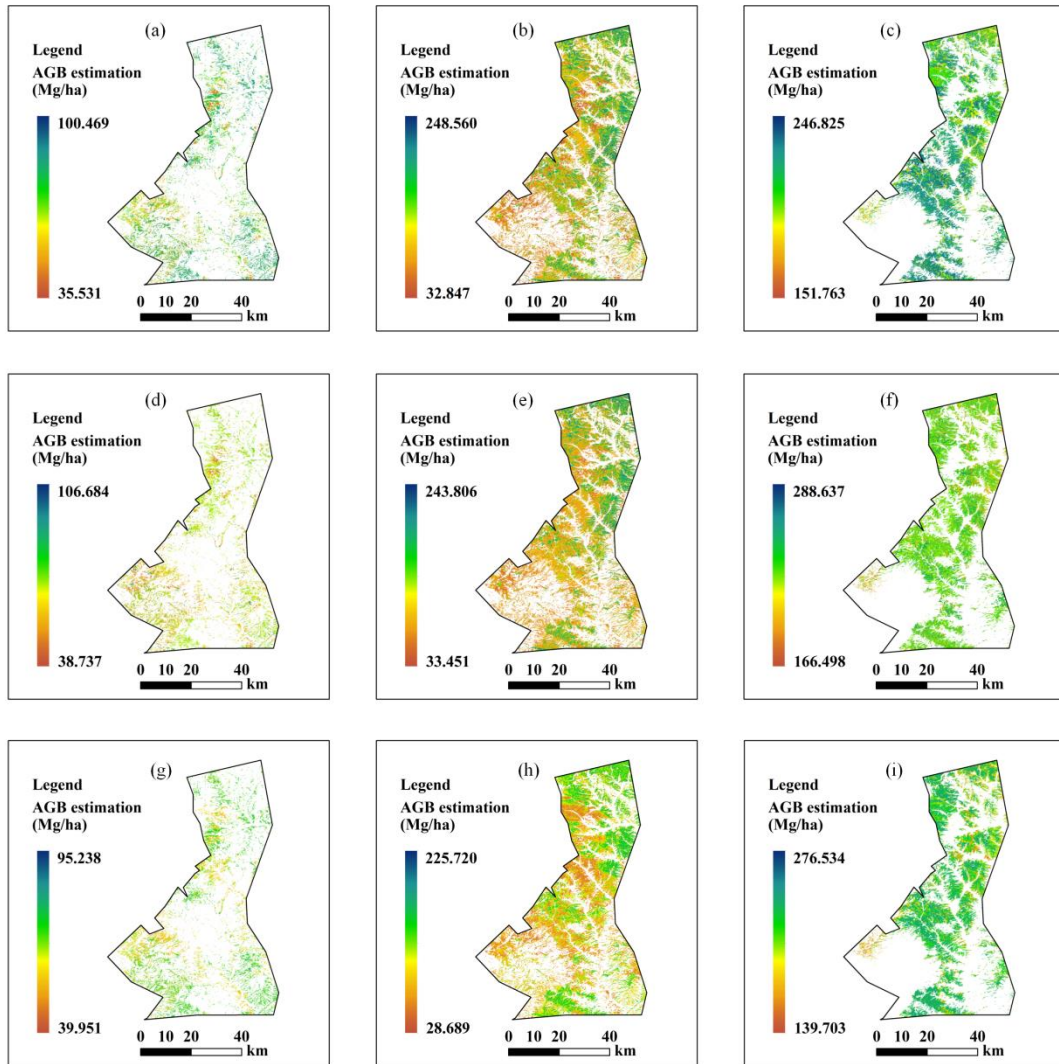
439 forest AGB.

Variable ID	Variables combination	Mixed		Broadleaved		Coniferous	
		R^2	RMSE	R^2	RMSE	R^2	RMSE
V8	SAR + K-T	0.64	46.94	0.46	34.89	0.43	92.88
V10	Index + Band	0.99	59.52	0.97	37.95	0.99	101.46
V11	Index + K-T	0.98	60.54	0.99	27.68	0.99	109.39
V12	Index + GLCM	0.97	86.41	0.98	49.9	0.99	94.05
V13	Band + K-T	0.91	51.94	0.59	30.61	0.81	85.25
V14	Band + GLCM	0.94	84.21	0.28	28.2	0.82	85.05
V15	K-T + GLCM	0.64	82.21	0.01	38.65	0.46	83.37
V20	Band + Index + K-T	0.58	80.97	0.55	28.18	0.63	73.16
V22	K-T + GLCM + Index	0.65	69.57	0.32	36.6	0.81	96.98
V23	Band + GLCM + Index	0.92	55.24	0.51	26.01	0.7	78.08

440

441 Among the combinations of multi-source variables, the highest R^2 (>0.96)
442 between measured and predicted AGB obtained for models using the GBDT method
443 constructed with bivariate combination of spectral indices with spectral bands, K-T
444 transform, and GLCM variables (i.e., V10, V11 and V12, respectively), without
445 distinguishing between forest types.

446 Models constructed by combining spectral bands with the K-T and GLCM
447 variables had an $R^2 >0.8$ (mixed-species and coniferous forest types). Based on these
448 results, models were constructed using three, four, and five combinations of variables,
449 but the R^2 values of the models were lower than those of the bivariate models. Among
450 them, the model R^2 values of the coniferous forest type and mixed species
451 (undifferentiated) forest type in the three variable combinations showed consistency
452 in their estimates, but the model fit accuracy of broadleaved forest was much lower.
453 From the V20-V23 multi-source variable combination, it is easy to conclude that
454 coniferous forest outperforms the mixed species forest in terms of fitting accuracy.



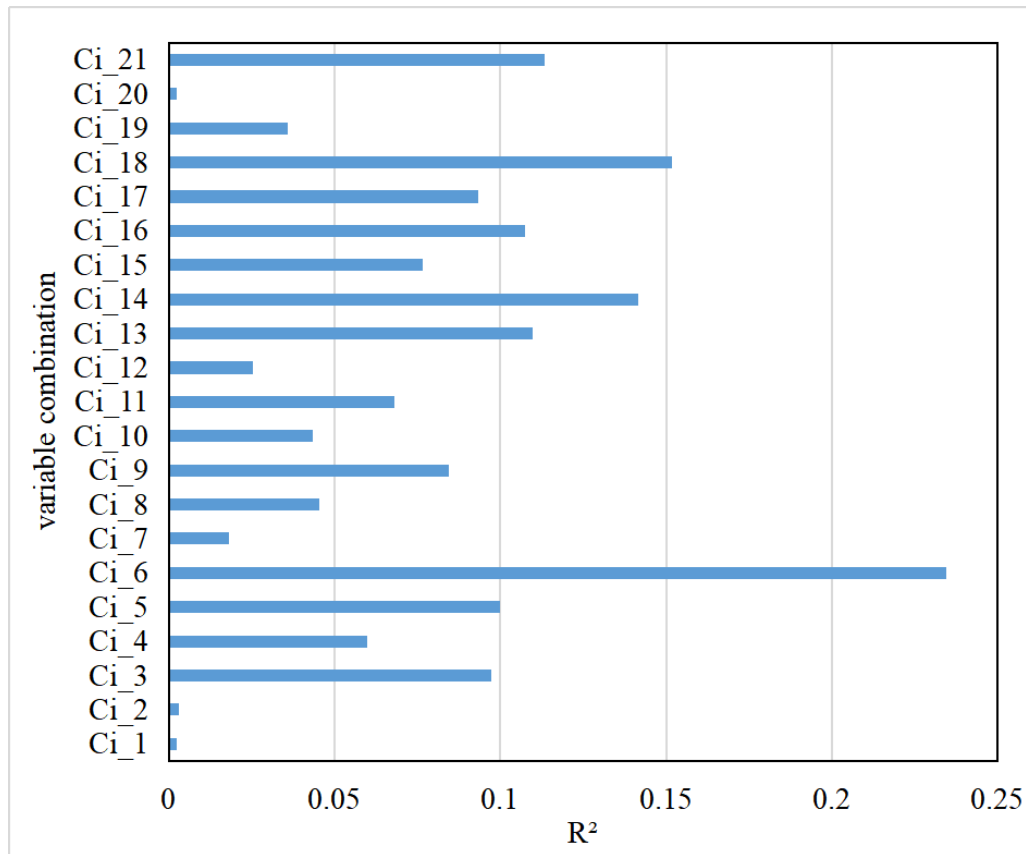
455

456 Figure 5. Predicted Forest AGB distribution maps for V10, V11 and V12 variable
 457 combinations. Broadleaved forest is shown in panels (a), (d), (f). Mixed species forest
 458 shown in panels (b), (e), (h). The coniferous forest shown in (c), (f), (i).

459 The forest distributions of different forest types have a high degree of
 460 consistency (Figure 5). However, because of the differences in the training samples,
 461 the predicted values of the forest biomass model are more stable without
 462 differentiating the tree species. The coniferous forest biomass predictions had the
 463 greatest variation because only 37 sample data point were available, and the
 464 coniferous biomass varied more between sample sites.

465 **3.3. Importance analysis of importance variables**

466 Using the importance analysis method in the GEE platform, all the multi-source
467 remote sensing variables were analysed separately with the forest AGB of the sample
468 site, and the importance results were ranked in descending order. Every five variables
469 were stacked in turn to form a new variable combination (Ci_1 to Ci_21) as the input
470 variables of the forest AGB model. Because there were only 105 variables with non-
471 zero values in the results of the variable importance analysis, there were only 21
472 variable combinations, and the model fitting accuracy results are shown in Figure 6.
473 From the results, it is apparent that there is no strong correlation between the fitting
474 accuracy of variable combinations with varying importance and the number of
475 variables. The biomass models constructed according to the combination of variable
476 importance had low fitting accuracy, and the highest fitting accuracy was only $R^2 =$
477 0.23 for Ci_6.



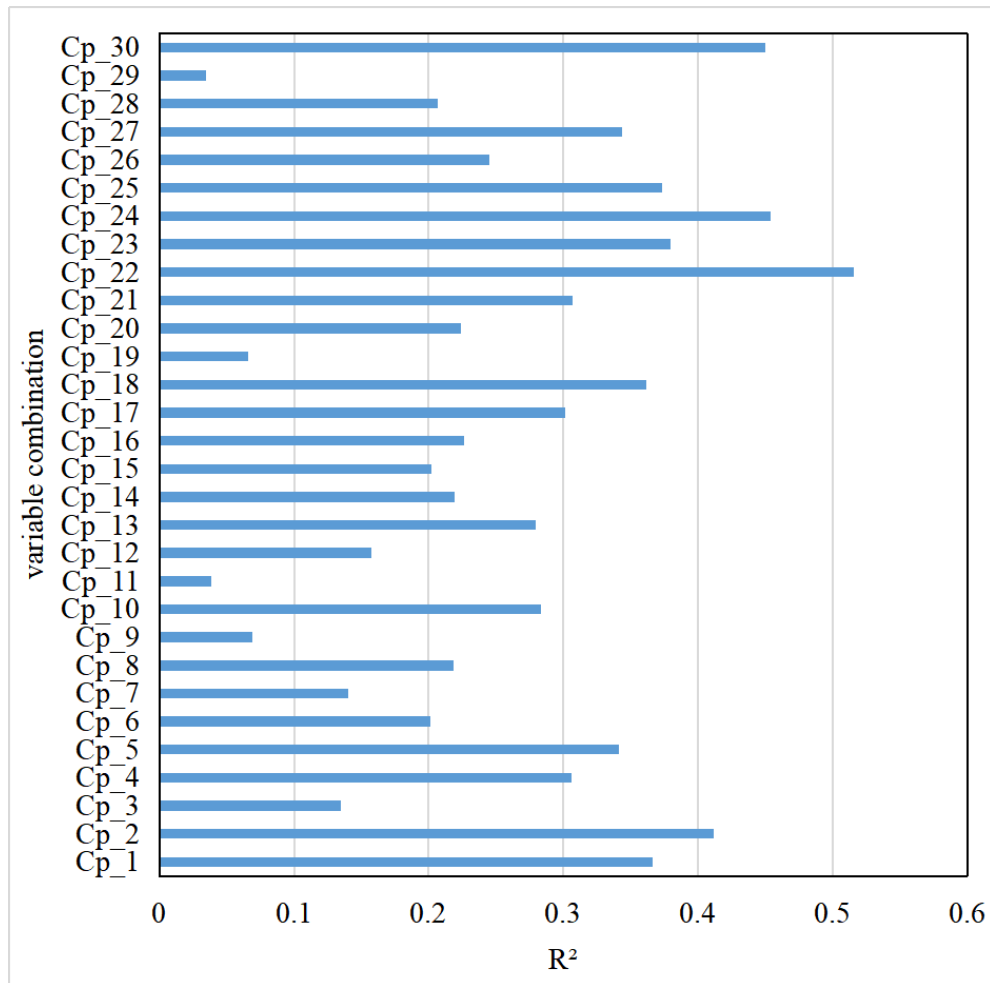
478

479 Figure 6. Variable importance model fit R² results for 21 different variable
 480 combinations.

481 **3.4. Pearson correlation analysis**

482 Pearson correlation analysis was conducted using the RF method for all multi-source
 483 remote sensing variables generating a predicted forest AGB and measured forest
 484 AGB, and the correlation results were ranked from highest to lowest. First, the five
 485 variables with the highest correlation ranking were selected as the initial group of
 486 model variables to participate in the biomass model construction. Later, the
 487 combination of variables participating in the model construction was added based on
 488 the basis of the first group of models, and the cumulative total of 5 variables. Thus,
 489 separately validating the resulting forest biomass prediction model after combining

490 the correlation analysis from high to low variables. However, there were only 150
491 variables with non-empty value values in the results of the variable importance
492 analysis, there were only 30 variable combinations. A new combination of variables
493 (Cp_1 to Cp_30) was formed as the variables of the forest biomass model by
494 superimposing every five variables in turn (Figure 7). In the variable Pearson
495 correlation analysis, the forest biomass model was constructed without distinguishing
496 between tree species in order to reduce the influence of an insufficient number of
497 forest sample points on the results. The results showed that the accuracy of the model
498 fitted by the cumulative equivariant variables tended to first decrease and then
499 gradually increase and stabilise with an increased in the order of correlation of
500 variables. The forest AGB model with the highest accuracy ($R^2 = 0.5154$) was
501 parameterised using the Cp_22 combination of variables (Figure 7).
502



503

504 Figure 7. Variable correlation model R² results

505 **4. Discussion**

506 The objective of this study was to develop a framework for selecting ML methods and
 507 variable combinations to construct a forest AGB model that accurately predicts forest
 508 AGB in different forest types. Many studies have reported superior performance of
 509 the RF method in predicting forest AGB using remotely sensed data (Chen et al, 2017;
 510 Zhang et al, 2023). In this paper, it was found that the GBDT method exhibits higher
 511 forest AGB prediction accuracy, particularly when the number of samples points in
 512 the training data are large . However, there was not a significant difference between

513 the RF and GBDT methods, which aligns with the findings of previous studies
514 (Tamiminia et al, 2022). The method and process of selecting the optimal forest AGB
515 model used in this study is suitable for all forest AGB modelling. Despite the study
516 area being a mixed species forest located in complex terrain it was still possible to
517 make accurate predictions of forest AGB. By comparing the biomass models built
518 with different variable combinations, the results showed that the number of variables
519 is not directly related to the model accuracy, and in a two-variable combination, the
520 model precision is better than models built with combinations of three or more
521 variables. The forest AGB model built by the variable after importance and
522 correlation screening was less accurate than the optimal single variability
523 combination.

524 Forest AGB models that do not distinguish between tree species reduce the
525 accuracy of forest AGB estimation. Distinguishing between different tree species to
526 construct species-specific forest AGB models is likely to result in a more accurate
527 assess forest AGB over large areas using remote sensing. However, the construction
528 of species-specific forest AGB models requires a large effort and resource base to
529 obtain forest sample plots for training and validation. In the Huodong coal mine area
530 under Taiyue Mountain forest the broadleaved trees are mostly distributed at lower
531 elevations, leading to the sampling points being located near residential areas and a
532 fragmented distribution of forest sample plots, which may have led to a low overall fit
533 of other single variables with the exception of the spectral index (Zhang et al, 2023).
534 In contrast, coniferous forest was mostly distributed in sparsely populated areas at

535 high altitudes, which makes forest inventory data collection more difficult and
536 explains the limited sample site available for training and validation in this study.
537 Despite the limitations of sample size, it was still possible to estimate coniferous
538 forest AGB with reasonable accuracy because the patches of conifer forests tend to be
539 located in distinct patches that are not often disturbed. However, due to the small
540 sample size available for coniferous species, the construction of variable importance
541 and correlation variables may have led to instability in model fitting accuracy due to
542 insufficient sample points. Therefore, if ML methods are subsequently used for
543 biomass model construction, it is recommended that sufficient sample points be
544 collected to allow for training and validation activities (Qiuli et al, 2023). According
545 to the experimental results of this paper, at least 100 sample points for a single tree
546 species biomass model are needed.

547 In both univariate and multi-source variable biomass prediction models, the
548 number of samples determines the accuracy of the model, as shown in Figures A and
549 B (Supplementary). Even when no distinction is made between tree species, the
550 prediction of the model for mixed forest AGB were better than those for broadleaved
551 and coniferous forests individually. Among the different combinations of variables,
552 the optimal models that were constructed with spectral indices and K-T best predicted
553 the AGB for broadleaved forests, whilst for coniferous and mixed forests the optimal
554 combination of variables was spectral indices, texture features, spectral indices and
555 bands. In particular, the coniferous forest AGB model parameterised with texture

556 features and spectral indices appeared to compensate for the lower prediction
557 accuracy due to the smaller training and validation sample size.

558 ***4.1. Different forest species models***

559 The optimal ML method for estimating forest AGB in the three different forest types
560 was not consistent. Wongchai et al. (2022) reported that many studies have been
561 conducted where different tree species have been analyzed using the same ML
562 methods, with the rationale that canopy information is tree species-specific. In the
563 present study the AGB model prediction error for the three different forest types was
564 ranked from high to low (i.e., coniferous forest > mixed species forest > broadleaved
565 forest) in both single and multi-source variables. The main reason for the higher error
566 in coniferous forest than broadleaved forest is that the sample points collected in
567 broadleaved forest are mostly concentrated near the roadside, where the most
568 abundant tree species is poplar (*Populus* spp.), and the average tree age is similar.
569 However, the sampling data of coniferous forest are concentrated in the higher
570 elevation area, where there is an uneven age distribution, so the difference in sample
571 biomass data is more obvious, which leads to a higher error in broadleaved forest. As
572 the forest inventory plots were sampled in August, all experiments in this paper only
573 considered the prediction and evaluation of forest AGB models during the vegetation
574 growing season, and future model tests will be conducted for different seasons and
575 forest species based on the available results so as to verify the limitations and
576 applicability of the models.

577 ***4.2. Accuracy comparison of different combinations of variables***

578 In the ML model construction with a single variable, the optimal forest AGB variable
579 was the spectral index variable, which has been often reported (Wang et al, 2020),
580 followed by the spectral band, irrespective of whether it is a broadleaved, coniferous,
581 or mixed-species forest type with the exception of attempts to parameterise using the
582 GLCM variable. In ML models constructed using multi-source variables, the fitted
583 values based on the spectral index superimposed on other variables were better than
584 the other variable models. The fitted values of the models constructed by equal
585 difference series of variable importance and correlation ranking were lower than those
586 of the single and multi-source models constructed by spectral index variables,
587 regardless of the number. The overall level of model accuracy did not depend on the
588 number of variables, in fact the forest AGB models constructed with single variables
589 with high fit values for multi-source variables provided the most accurate forest AGB
590 estimates. Explanatory variables used in AGB model construction were analysed for
591 multicollinearity using a pairwise comparison of Pearson correlation coefficients,
592 which indicated a strong autocorrelation between the spectral index and the spectral
593 band. Additionally, there was a strong autocorrelation among the SAR HV variables.
594 However, there was no significant autocorrelation observed in the terrain features and
595 GLCM variables. Therefore, incorporating the spectral index/spectral band with other
596 variables can effectively improve the accuracy of the forest AGB model. This is
597 consistent with the results of the multi-source feature variable combinations in
598 Section 3.2.

599 ***4.3. Biomass prediction model application***

600 To aid visualisation and interpretation, three GEE-based applications were developed,
601 namely the Forest Biomass and Variable Correlation Analysis Application
602 ([https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-agb-variables-correlation-](https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-agb-variables-correlation-analysis)
603 [analysis](https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-agb-variables-correlation-analysis)), the Forest Biomass and Variable Importance Analysis Application
604 ([https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-agb-variable-importance-](https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-agb-variable-importance-analysis)
605 [analysis](https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-agb-variable-importance-analysis)) and the Forest Biomass Prediction Application
606 ([https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-aboveground-biomass-](https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-aboveground-biomass-prediction)
607 [prediction](https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/forest-aboveground-biomass-prediction)) to correlate selected multi-source remote sensing variables with the
608 collected forest biomass and to filter the remote sensing variables with high
609 correlation based on correlation coefficients for biomass modelling.

610 The correlation analysis results for hundreds of variables include correlation
611 coefficients and p-values. The Forest Biomass and Variable Importance Analysis
612 Application performs variable importance analysis based on multi-source remote
613 sensing variables and forest biomass and selects multi-source remote sensing
614 variables for model building based on the variable importance results with the RF,
615 CART, and GBDT ML methods are provided in the variable importance analysis. The
616 Forest Biomass Prediction Application is based on the aforementioned applications
617 but extends them by permitting users to select different ML methods for biomass
618 model prediction using the 30 multi-source variable combinations used in this
619 analysis enabling the assessment of forest AGB estimates and accuracy (i.e., R^2 ,
620 RMSE, MAE, and RE) to be compared online.

621 **5. Conclusion**

622 In this study, four ML methods were used in the GEE cloud platform to construct
623 forest AGB models using single and multi-source variable combination and their
624 performance evaluated using variable importance values and Pearson correlation
625 coefficients between predicted and measured AGB values. A complete model
626 evaluation system that included R^2 , RMSE, MAE, and RE was used to determine best
627 model to predict forest AGB. The results showed the optimal model results were
628 obtained using the GBDT ML method. The most accurate estimation of biomass was
629 achieved for mixed species forests. Multisource remote sensing data and ML methods
630 was able to accurately estimate forest AGB biomass enabling rapid estimation of
631 forest productivity, standing biomass and C stocks in complex topographical
632 landscapes.

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644 **Disclosure statement**

645 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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