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Article **Criteria Comparison for Classifying Peatland Vegetation Types Using** *in situ* **Hyperspectral Measurements**

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- ¹ **Abstract:** This study aims at evaluating three classes of methods to discriminate 13 peatland vegetation types
- ² using reflectance data. These vegetation types were empirically defined according to their composition, strata
- ³ and biodiversity richness. On one hand, it is assumed that same vegetation type spectral signatures have
- ⁴ similarities. Consequently they can be compared to a reference spectral database. To catch those similarities,
- ⁵ several similarities criteria (related to distances (Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, Canberra distance)
- ⁶ or spectral shapes (Spectral Angle Mapper) or probabilistic behaviour (Spectral Information Divergence) and
- ⁷ several mathematical transformations of spectral signatures enhancing absorption features (such as the first
- ⁸ derivative or the second derivative, the normalized spectral signature, the continuum removal, the continuum
- ⁹ removal derivative reflectance, the log transformation) were investigated. Furthermore those similarity
- ¹⁰ measures were applied on spectral ranges which characterize specific biophysical properties. On the other
- ¹¹ hand, we suppose that specific biophysical properties/components may help to discriminate vegetation types
- ¹² applying supervised classification such as Random Forest (RF), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Regularized ¹³ Logistic Regression (RLR), Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA). Biophysical components can
- ¹⁴ be used in a local way considering vegetation spectral indices or in a global way considering spectral ranges
- ¹⁵ and transformed spectral signatures as explained above. RLR classifier applied on spectral vegetation indices
- training size = 25 %) was able to achieve 77.21 % overall accuracy in discriminating peatland vegetation types.
- ¹⁷ It was also able to discriminate 83.95 % vegetation types considering specific spectral range [350–1350 nm], first
- 18 derivative of spectral signatures and training size = 25%. Conversely, similarity criterion was able to achieve
- ¹⁹ 81.70 % overall accuracy using the Canberra distance computed on the full spectral range [350–2500 nm]. The
- ²⁰ results of this study suggest that RLR classifier and similarity criteria are promising to map the different
- ²¹ vegetation types with high ecological values despite vegetation heterogeneity and mixture.
- ²² **Keywords:** Biodiversity; peatland; vegetation type; classification; hyperspectral; *in situ* measurements

²³ **1. Introduction**

- ²⁴ Peatlands represent a diverse array of wetlands that accumulate partially decomposed organic material.
- ²⁵ Whilst they may only cover a small proportion (\sim 3%) of the Earth's land surface, these ecosystems are highly
- important in terms of functional and ecological values. Indeed, undisturbed, global peatland systems act as
- ₂₇ net atmospheric carbon sinks, storing approximately a third of the world's soil organic carbon [1], the vast
- ²⁸ majority of which (450–547 GtC (Gigatons of Carbon)) is held in northern peatlands (those above 45° N [2]).
- From an ecological perspective, these environments also provide important habitats for a number of rare plant 30 and animal species [3].
- Traditionally, species discrimination for floristic mapping needs intensive field work, including taxonomical
- ³² information and the visual estimation of percentage cover for each species which are costly and time-consuming
- and sometimes inapplicable due to their poor accessibility $[4]$. Remote sensing is a technique that gathers data
- regularly about the earth's features. The main advantages that make remote sensing preferable to field-based
- methods in land cover classification, are that it has repeat coverage potential, allowing continuous monitoring,
- and its digital data can be easily integrated into a geographic information system (GIS) for more analysis which
- $\frac{3}{27}$ is less costly and less time-consuming [5,6].
- Historically, aerial photography was the first remote sensing method to be employed for mapping wetland
- vegetation [7]. Currently, a variety of remotely sensed images are available for mapping wetland vegetation
- thanks to of airborne and space-borne vectors with multi-spectral sensors or hyperspectral sensors which operate within the different optical spectrum [8].
- Mapping and monitoring wetlands (and even though peatland) floristic diversity is really challenging.
- Indeed, both temporal and spatial resolutions of remotely sensed imageries and *in situ* plant diversity and
- mixing contribute to the limitation of such techniques. Wetland plants are not as easily detectable as terrestrial
- plants since herbaceous wetland vegetations exhibits high spectral and spatial variabilities because of its steep
- environmental gradients [5,8]. Besides, the reflectance spectra of wetland vegetation canopies are often very
- similar and can be combined with reflectance spectra of the underlying soil, hydrologic regime and atmospheric vapour [9,10].
- However, plant species have been successfully classified in estuarine [11], palustrine [12] and riparian habitats [13], as well in saltmarsh [5], in mangrove [14,15], in swamp [16] but not in peatlands, to our knowledge.
- Peatland mapping faces two great challenges at local and global scales due to their high environmental function
- (biodiversity hotspot, greenhouse gas fluxes, etc.): characterizing their internal diversity [8] and delineating
- their extent [17]. This study focuses on the first challenge for which only high spectral or spatial resolution
- $\frac{1}{54}$ imageries appear appropriate (see for instance [18–20]).
- Plant species classification can benefit from several existing and recent techniques commonly used in remote sensing. Two main methods are applied for vegetation discrimination: the similarity measurement ₅₇ techniques and the supervised classification methods with sometimes application of a preliminary spectral band reduction technique. On one hand, similarity measures enable to discriminate similar classes from a set of spectra, extracted from images or acquired on the field. Some spectral measures, such as the Spectral Angle
- Mapper (SAM) are related to the difference of the spectral shape (*e.g.* [21] identified forests of the Liege oaks
- from other forests, grain crops and steppes using the multispectral Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer
- 62 (AVHRR) with five bands from 580 nm to 1250 nm, 1 km spatial resolution (Overall Accuracy (OA) = 94.10 %, *κ* = 0.93); [22] discriminated tree species using the multispectral Advanced Spaceborne Thermal Emission and
- Reflection Radiometer (ASTER) sensor with 9 spectral bands from 520 nm to 2430 nm and a spatial resolution
- of 15 m or 30 m (*κ* = 0.66)). Other spectral measures, such as the Spectral Information Divergence (SID) are
- related to probabilistic behaviour (*e.g.* [23] classified different tree species at leaf and vegetation cover scales
- using the hyperspectral HyMap sensor: 126 spectral bands from 436 nm to 2485 nm and a spatial resolution
- 68 of $4 \text{ m } (OA = 91.10\%, \kappa = 0.87)$). On the other hand, the supervised classification methods may contribute as
- well to discriminate (group of) spectral signatures for plant species discrimination. The Linear Discriminant
- Analysis (LDA) is a method assuming that independent variables are normally distributed and which attempts
- to look for linear combination of variables to model the difference between the classes of the data (*e.g.* [24]
- succeeded in classifying different tree species at leaf and vegetation cover scales using the HYperspectral Digital
- Imagery Collection Experiment (HYDICE) sensor with 210 spectral bands from 400 nm to 2500 nm, 1.6 m spatial
- resolution (OA = 86 % using an object-based approach)). The Random Forest is an ensemble learning method

 based on the construction of multiple decision trees (*e.g.* [25] succeeded in mapping invasive plants using $\frac{1}{26}$ the hyperspectral Probe-1 sensor: 128 bands from 450 nm to 2507 nm, 5 m spatial resolution (OA = 86% for the leafy spurge classification)). The Support Vector Machines (SVM) is a classifier that looks for the best separating hyperplane (*e.g.* [26] succeeded in classifying different tree species in boreal forest using HySpex VNIR-1600-instrument: 160 spectral bands ranging from 410 nm to 990 nm , with a spatial resolution of 0.4 m $80 \text{ (OA } = 79.2 \text{ %)}$; [27] classified successfully tropical vegetation using the Hyperion (EO-1) sensor (OA = 80 %)). The Regularized Logistic Regression (RLR) is the combination of a linear model (logistic regression) and a regularization term. It is usually used for feature selection (*e.g.* [28] applied it to reduce the 64 spectral bands 83 from the hyperspectral AisaEAGLE II sensor to classify tree species in boreal forest using SVM; [29] applied it ⁸⁴ for reducing the 79 bands from the hyperspectral Digital Airborne Imaging Spectrometer (DAIS) sensor and the 220 bands from the hyperspectral Airborne Visible/Infrared Imaging Spectrometer (AVIRIS) sensor to classify different land covers using SVM) is investigated in this paper as a classifier. Discriminating and classifying plant species can be done. Firstly, using different techniques hyperspectral 88 measurements thanks to a portable spectroradiometer (FieldSpec Pro FR, Analytical Spectral Devices – ASD) which ranges on the reflective domain ([350–2500 nm] with a spectral resolution of 3 nm in Visible and Near InfraRed (VNIR) and approximatively 10 nm in the ShortWave InfraRed (SWIR)) either on laboratory [14] or μ immediately after the leaf was cut using the leaf clip accessory [16]. This can be an indicator of the ability of discriminating plant species using specific wavelengths or evaluating the performance of a classifier. Then, the wetlands heterogeneity mixing vegetation types can be catched still using a portable spectroradiometer: [12] used the ASD spectroradiometer, Ground Field of View (GFOV) = 0.43 m; [5] used the GER 3700 (Geophysical and Environmental Research Corporation) which ranges from 350 nm to 2509 nm) with a spectral resolution of 2 nm below 1000 nm and from 6 to 10 nm beyond 1000 nm, GFOV = 0.13 m. Secondly, with airborne imageries, hyperspectral sensors (SOC-700: 120 spectral bands between 394 and 890 nm with a 4 nm bandwidth and a spatial resolution of 0.5 m and a spatial resolution of 3 m [13]; HyMap: 128 bands in the visible and near infrared (VNIR: $0.45-1.50$ µm with a 10 nm bandwidth) through the shortwave infrared (SWIR: $1.50-2.50$ µm with a 15–20 nm bandwidth [11]). Thirdly, with spaceborne imageries using hyperspectral sensors (Hyperion: 242 101 spectral bands from 357 to 2756 nm with a spectral interval of 10 nm and a spatial resolution of 30 m $[15]$) or multispectral sensors (SPOT-5: 4 bands with 10 m resolution [15]) can be used to map wetlands. This study aims at inventorying and evaluating the performance of discrimination techniques for peatland habitats based on *in situ* spectra. These habitats are characterized by more or less homogeneous vegetation mixing and have been chosen because of their ecological values (*i.e.* biodiversity). As defined by [30], mapping these habitats is therefore important to identify potential and/or effective areas with (at least) a floristic biodiversity function. For instance, we do not aim at detecting *Drosera rotundifolia* but at mapping the habitat favorable to this species (*Sphagnum* ...). Similarity measures and classifiers were applied on spectral signatures and some of their transformations (first and second derivatives, continuum removal, first derivative of continuum removal, normalized spectral signatures, log transformation). These transformations have been

 chosen because they enhance biophysical components which may help to distinguish plant species. These techniques were applied on different spectral ranges that either characterize specific biophysical components [31]. Classifiers were applied on spectral vegetation indices, characterizing specific biophysical components

such as chlorophyll, pigments, nitrogen, cellulose, water.

 This paper is organized as follows. After presenting the study site located in the Pyrenees (France) and associated data collection in Section 2, the methodology is detailed in Section 3. Then Section 4 presents and discussed the results of the different classifications that are suitable for distinguishing vegetation types. Finally, in Section 5, the conclusion summarizes main results and some perspectives are arisen for applying these techniques to hyperspectral imageries.

¹²⁰ **2. Material**

¹²¹ *2.1. Study site*

122 The study site is the Bernadouze peatbog (Latitude: $42^{\circ}47'$ N , Longitude: $1^{\circ}24'$ E ; approximatively 2 ha), ¹²³ which is part of Human-Nature Observatory "Haut-Vicdessos" located in Ariège (Pyrénées, France) (Figure 1) 124 and supported by the French CNRS and the LabEx DRIIHM. It is a long term monitored study site where ¹²⁵ hydrological, climatological, botanical, archeological, remotely sensed surveys are regularly conducted.

¹²⁶ *2.2. Field data collection*

¹²⁷ In this study, thirteen vegetation units with ecological values and potentials (*i.e.* biodiversity) have ¹²⁸ been identified in the Bernadouze peatbog. These units are named hereafter "vegetation types" according to ¹²⁹ the dominant land cover type or to the potential development of interesting plant species which may have 130 ecological values (Table 1). For each type, several locations have been surveyed to characterize their plant 131 species composition (Table A.1).

 For all these 32 sample locations (Figure 1), radiances are measured at three different dates over 9 days in September 2014 (09/04/2014, 09/05/2014, 09/12/2014) under sunny and cloudless conditions between 10:00 134 a.m. and 1:00 p.m. and Sun's azimuth angle ranging from 106 $^{\circ}$ and 160 $^{\circ}$. Data have been collected using an Analytical Spectral Device (ASD) spectroradiometer which ranges on the reflective domain (350–2500 nm) with a 3–12 nm spectral resolution depending on the spectral domain. Its spectral specifications are summarized in 137 Table 2.

Figure 1. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements – True color composite made from hyperspectral (HySpex) aerial imageries acquired on the $09/12/2014$ (R = 639.98 nm, G = 549.06 nm, B = 461.79 nm).

To measure the reflectance of a sample plot (ρ) the reflectance of a white reference (ρ_{ref}) is required. This ¹³⁹ latter was obtained with a Spectralon (Labsphere, North Sutton, NH, USA) panel. Finally, after dark current 140 correction, ρ is given by:

Vegetation types	Code	No. of	No. of			
		09/04/2014	09/05/2014	09/12/2014	locations	spectra
Calluna vulgaris	CAVU				っ	14
Sphagnum sp.	SPHA					22
Eleocharis quinqueflora	ELQU					15
Pinguicula sp.	PING					
Menyanthes trifoliata	METR					12
Juniperus communis	IUCO					19
Rhododendron ferrugineum	RHFR					14
Salix sp.	SALI					17
Aquatic environment a	AQ_A					53
Aquatic environment b	AQ _B					
Aquatic environment c	AQ_C					12
Carex sp. homogeneous vegetation	CA_HV					26
Pinguicula sp. combined vegetation	PI_CV					15

Table 1. Species names, number of measurements, number of locations and total number of spectra collected.

$$
\rho = \frac{L_{\text{sam}}}{L_{\text{ref}}}\rho_{\text{ref}}\tag{1}
$$

¹⁴¹ where *L*_{sam} is the measured radiance from the sample plot and *L*_{ref} is the measured radiance from the white ¹⁴² reference.

The sensor was positioned approximatively 1 m over the target with a 10° field of view. Consequently ¹⁴⁴ the ground spatial resolution is 0.18 m. The ASD was configured to collect 20 samples and automatically average in order to provide a single mean spectral measurement. Then a total of 7 to 53 field spectroradiometer

measurements, *i.e.* spectral signatures, depending on vegetation type was taken.

Table 2. ASD FieldSpec Pro specifications.

	Spectral range	Spectral resolution	Spectral sampling
VNIR (Visible and Near InfraRed)	$0.35 \,\mathrm{um} - 1.00 \,\mathrm{um}$	3.00 nm at 0.70 um	1.40 nm (0.35 μ m $- 1.05 \mu$ m)
SWIR (Short Wave InfraRed)	$1.00 \,\mathrm{\upmu m} - 2.50 \,\mathrm{\upmu m}$	10 nm at 1.40 µm 12 nm at 2.10 µm	2.00 nm (1.05 μ m – 2.50 μ m)

¹⁴⁷ *2.3. Data preprocessing*

 Some spectral bands (1350 nm to 1450 nm, 1810 nm to 1940 nm and 2400 nm to 2500 nm) have been removed due to a small signal-to-noise ratio resulting from strong atmospheric absorption mainly due to the presence of water vapour. More precisely, if the atmospheric transmittance value of the U.S. Standard profile was lower than 0.8 for a given wavelength, this wavelength was not taken into account in the analyse. Thus, each measured spectrum has been smoothed using a Savitzky-Golay filter [32] for reducing the noise. Figure 2 graphs the mean spectral reflectance of each vegetation type and the atmospheric transmittance. For the sake of clarity, standard deviation of each vegetation type is not printed on Figure 2 but can be seen in Appendix B.

¹⁵⁵ **3. Method description**

¹⁵⁶ The flowchart to evaluate the potential of hyperspectral data to discriminate and classify wetland vegetation ¹⁵⁷ types is given in Figure 3. More precisely, three classes of methods have been investigated and compared:

Figure 2. Mean spectral reflectances of the 13 vegetation types and the U.S. Standard atmospheric transmittance.

- similarity measures calculated on spectral reflectance,
- supervised classification based on "local" information (spectral vegetation indices),
- supervised classification based on "global" information (spectral ranges).

 Indeed, spectral matching can be used to discriminate different vegetation types, because it is assumed that the spectral signatures of a given vegetation type must have similarities. To catch those similarities, several mathematical transformations – enhancing absorption features are applied on spectral signatures – (Section 3.1) and several similarity criteria – related to distances or spectral shapes or probabilistic behaviour – (Section 3.2) are investigated. Furthermore those similarity measures are applied on several spectral ranges which characterize specific biophysical properties (Section 3.5) and compared to a reference spectral database 167 using relative spectral discriminatory probability (Section 3.3). On the other hand as it may be difficult to have a spectral reference database, different supervised

 classifiers are used (Section 3.6). Besides, we assume that specific biophysical properties/components may help discriminating vegetation types. Biophysical components can be used in a local way considering spectral vegetation indices (Section 3.4) or in a global way considering spectral ranges and transformed spectral 172 signatures as explained above.

 To evaluate performance of similarity measures and supervised classification, the overall accuracy and 174 F1-score are used (Section 3.7).

3.1. Transformed spectral signatures

 As vegetation types are composed by a mix of various plant species that can be found in various vegetation types, different transformations are used (Table 3). Brightness-normalized spectral signature and second derivative are relatively insensible to variations in illumination intensity causes by changes in sun angle [33,34]. Other transformations (first derivative, second derivative, log transformation, Continuum Removal, Continuum Removed Derivative Reflectance (CRDR)) are linked to absorption features that may differ from one vegetation type to another, depending on the floristic composition.

Figure 3. Flowchart showing the different methods used to classify the vegetation types.

L is the number of wavelengths.

¹⁸² *3.2. Similarity measures*

 Let *ρⁱ* be a spectral signature, *ρi*,*^λ* its reflectance at wavelength *λ* and [1, ..., *L*] its spectral range. Several criteria have been used (Table 4). Some criteria characterize the difference between reflectance levels (like the distances) and other ones are related to the difference of the spectral shape (*e.g.* SAM) and other ones are related to probabilistic behaviour (*e.g.* SID, ...). Table 4 inventories main similarity measurement techniques described in the literature.

¹⁸⁸ *3.3. Relative spectral discriminatory probability*

To determine if a spectral signature belongs to a class, the method proposed by [45] is used. Let $\{\rho_j\}_{j=1}^J$ *J* spectral signatures in ∆ an existing spectral reference database and *τ* be a target signature to be identified using ∆. Let *m*(·, ·) be a given hyperspectral measure, the spectral discriminatory probabilities of all *ρ^j* in ∆ with respect to τ as is defined as follows:

$$
p_{\tau,\Delta}^m(i) = \frac{m(\tau,\rho_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^J m(\tau,\rho_j)}, \text{ for } i = 1, 2, ..., J,
$$
 (2)

where *J* ∑ *j*=1 *m*(*τ*, *ρj*) is a normalization constant determined by *τ* and ∆. The resulting probability vector is defined as

$$
\mathbf{p}_{\tau,\Delta}^m = \left(p_{\tau,\Delta}^m(1), p_{\tau,\Delta}^m(2), ..., p_{\tau,\Delta}^m(I) \right)^T.
$$
 (3)

¹⁸⁹ Using Equation (3), the target signature can be identified by selecting the one with the smallest spectral discriminatory probability because τ and the selected one have the minimum spectral discrimination.

¹⁹¹ Spectral reference database

To build the spectral reference database, spectra of mean reflectance, spectra of median reflectance and median spectra are used. Spectra of mean reflectance is defined as the mean of reflectances for each wavelength *λ*:

$$
\overline{\rho_{\lambda}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_{i,\lambda}, \ \forall \lambda \in [1, ..., L], \tag{4}
$$

192 where *N* is the number of spectra for a plant species. Similarly, spectra of median reflectance is defined as the median of reflectances for each wavelength *λ*. Median spectra is defined as the "closest" spectrum of the median reflectance considering a vegetation type. In other words, giving a spectrum of median reflectance, the spectrum that minimize the Minkowski distance between them is considered as the median spectrum (Figure 4 shows differences between the median reflectances spectrum which is an theoretic spectral signature and the different median spectra which were investigated). As distances are not equivalent considering high-dimensional data, three Minkowski distances are investigated for this study: the Euclidean distance, the Canberra distance and 199 the City Block or Manhattan distance (which are reminded in Section 3.1).

Figure 4. Median spectra, spectrum of mean reflectances, spectrum of median reflectances of *Eleocharis quinqueflora* (ELQU).

²⁰⁰ *3.4. Feature selection of spectral indices*

²⁰¹ Spectral index description

 Spectral indices are combinations of surface reflectance (or the derivated reflectance) at two or more wavelengths or narrow spectral bands. Lots of spectral indices can be found in literature (Table 5) to characterize some biochemical components of plant species such as chlorophyll, nitrogen, lignin, cellulose, water. Although these indices have never been selected in the literature to characterize wetlands plant species, we assume that some of them can still be useful to classify them.

Table 5. Spectral vegetation indices.

	Table 5: continued from previous page.		
DCNI (Double-peak Canopy Nitrogen Index)	$R_{720} - R_{700}$ $(R_{700} - R_{670}) (R_{720} - R_{670} + 0.03)$	Nitrogen	[64]
DD (Double Difference Index)	$(R_{749} - R_{720}) - (R_{701} - R_{672})$	Chlorophyll	[65]
DDn (new Double Difference Index)	$2\left(R_{710}-R_{(710-50)}-R_{(710+50)}\right)$	Chlorophyll	[66]
DPI (Double Peak Index)	$D_{688}D_{710}$ D_{967}^2	Chlorophyll	$[55]$
dG	$\max_{i \in [\![500, 580]\!]} D_i$	Chlorophyll, stress	
dRE	D_i max $i \in [[680, 750]]$	Chlorophyll, stress	[67]
D[730,706]	D_{730} D_{706}	Chlorophyll	$[55]$
D[705,722]	D_{705}^{00} $\overline{D_{722}}$		
EVI (Enhanced Vegetation Index)	$2.5\frac{R_{800} - R_{670}}{R_{800} - 6R_{670} - 7.5R_{475} + 1}$	Chlorophyll	[68]
EGFR (Edge-Green First derivative Ratio)	dRE \overline{dG}	Chlorophyll, nitrogen	[69]
EGFN (Edge-Green first Derivative Normalized difference)	$dRE - dG$ $dRE + dG$	Chlorophyll, nitrogen	
GEMI (Global Environment Monitoring Index)	$\begin{split} \eta(1-0.25\eta) & -\frac{R_{660}-0.25}{1-R_{660}},\\ \text{where}\ \eta &= 2\frac{R_{830}^2-R_{660}^2+1.5R_{830}+0.5R_{660}}{R_{830}+R_{660}+0.5} \end{split}$		$[70]$
GI (Greeness Index)	R_{554} R_{677}	Chlorophyll	$[71]$
Gitelson	R_{700}	Chlorophyll	[72]
Gitelson2	$\frac{R_{750}^{100} - R_{800}}{R_{750} - 1}$ $R_{965} - R_{740}$	Chlorophyll	$[59]$
GMI (Gitelson and Merzlyak Index)	R ₇₅₀ R_{550}	Chlorophyll	$[73]$
Green NDVI	$R_{800}^{500} - R_{550}$ $\frac{\overline{R_{800}+R_{550}}}{R_{780}-R_{710}}$	Chlorophyll	[74]
Maccioni		Chlorophyll	$[75]$
MARI (Modified Anthocyanin Reflectance Index)	$\frac{\overbrace{R_{780}-R_{680}}^{1200}-R_{680}}{R_{800}\left(\frac{1}{R_{550}}-\frac{1}{R_{700}}\right)}$	Anthocyanin	$[76]$, $[77]$
MCARI[700,670] (Modified Chlorophyll Absorption Index)	$\begin{split} &\left((R_{700}-R_{670})-0.2(R_{700}-R_{550})\right)\frac{R_{700}}{R_{670}}\\ &\left((R_{750}-R_{705})-0.2(R_{750}-R_{550})\right)\frac{R_{750}}{R_{705}}\\ &\frac{\left((R_{700}-R_{670})-0.2(R_{700}-R_{550})\right)\frac{R_{700}}{R_{670}}\\ \end{split}$	Chlorophyll, Leaf Area Index	$[78]$
MCARI[750,705]		Chlorophyll	[79]
MCARI[700,670]/OSAVI[800,670]	$(1+0.16)\frac{R_{800}-\overline{R_{670}}}{R_{800}+R_{670}+0.16}$	Chlorophyll	[80]
MCARI[750,705]/OSAVI[750,705]	$(R_{750} - R_{705}) - 0.2(R_{750} - R_{550})$ $\frac{R_{750}-R_{705}}{R_{750}+R_{705}+0.16}$	Chlorophyll	$[79]$
MCARI[750,705]/MTVI2[750]	MCARI[750,705] MTVI2[750]	Nitrogen	[81]
MNDVI[800,680] (Modified NDVI)	$R_{800} - R_{680}$	Chlorophyll	[82]
MNDVI[750,705]	$\frac{R_{800}+R_{680}-2R_{445}}{R_{750}-R_{705}}$ $R_{750} + R_{705} - 2R_{445}$	Chlorophyll	
MSAVI (Modified Soil Adjusted Vegetation Index)	$0.5(2R_{800}+1-\sqrt{(2R_{800}+1)^2-8(R_{800}-R_{670})})$	Chlorophyll	$[83]$
MSI (Moisture Stress Index)	R_{1599} \overline{R}_{819}	Water stress	[84]
MSR[800,680] (modified Simple Ratio)	$R_{800} - R_{445}$	Chlorophyll	$[82]$
MSR[750,705]	$\frac{\overline{R_{680}} - \overline{R_{445}}}{\overline{R_{750}} - \overline{R_{445}}}$ $\bar{R}_{705} - R_{445}$	Chlorophyll	
MSR ₂	K_{750} R_{705} $\frac{R_{750}}{R_{705}}+1$	Chlorophyll, Leaf Area Index	[85]

Table 5: continued from

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¹ MEdium Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer

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R^x represents reflectance at wavelength x nm.

 D_x represents the derivative of the reflectance spectrum at wavelength x nm.

w., c., s., l = water, cellulose, starch, lignin

²⁰⁷ Classical feature selection method - the Kruskal-Wallis H-test

 As some spectra per vegetation types were quite small (8 spectra for *Pinguicula* sp. (PING), 7 spectra for Aquatic type b (AQ_B)), usual ANOVA [118] test or Mann-Whitney U-test [119] can not be used. That is the reason why Kruskal-Wallis H-test [120], a non-parametric test is proposed. Moreover this test is adapted to not independent data and not normally distributed data. The H-test is used to test the hypothesis that there was no significant difference between the median spectral index value between pairs of plant species.

The null hypothesis for $N = 13$ vegetation types and $I = 129$ spectral vegetation indices per reflectance measurements is:

$$
H_0: \eta_n(i) = \eta_{n+1}(i),\tag{5}
$$

213 where η_n is the median spectral index value for vegetation type number $n = 0, ..., N$, and $i = 1, ..., I$ the spectral index. The maximum frequency for this study is $\binom{13}{2}$ 2 214 index. The maximum frequency for this study is $\binom{13}{2} = \frac{13\times(13-1)}{2} = 78$. The hypothesis was therefore tested ²¹⁵ 78 times for all possible combinations of the 13 plant species at the adjusted Bonferroni significance level of **216** $\alpha = \frac{0.05}{78} = 6.410^{-4}.$

²¹⁷ Principle of the applied feature selection method

 In order to discriminate the 78 pairs of vegetation types, the Hellinger distance, which is introduced further, is computed for each vegetation spectral index (Table 5). Then indices are ordered by frequency discrimination. A first subset of indices is composed of ones that can discriminate pairs of vegetation types and that are not redundant. If a pair of vegetation types is not discriminated, the Hellinger distance is computed for a pair of vegetation indices composed of the single most discriminating one and the other ones ordered by frequency distribution amongst previous selected. Then, a second subset of pairs of indices is composed by ordering those pairs of indices by frequency discrimination. To stop the process, a maximum number of subset is then defined. In our case, the maximum subset consists of not more than three indices. Indeed, longer is the tuple length, more difficult it is to explained why such combinations of indices or such biophysical components combination can discriminate such pairs. Finally, selected vegetation indices come from each subset and single spectral vegetation indices or spectral index combinations are retained.

²²⁹ For a better understanding of the feature selection method, an example is given. We consider 4 vegetation z30 types named: V_1 , V_2 , V_3 , V_4 and 5 spectral vegetation indices named: I_1 , I_2 , I_3 , I_4 , I_5 . We suppose that no single

231 spectral vegetation index can discriminate neither V_1 from V_3 nor V_2 from V_4 nor V_3 from V_4 . But different 232 single indices can separate V_1 from V_2 , V_1 from V_4 and V_2 from V_3 . This is summarized in the following table:

233
\n
$$
\begin{array}{c|ccccc}\n & V_2 & V_3 & V_4 \\
\hline\nV_1 & I_1, I_3 & \oslash & I_2, I_3 \\
V_2 & - & I_2, I_3 & \oslash \\
V_3 & - & - & \oslash\n\end{array}
$$

²³⁴ We obtain the first subset $S_1 = \{I_1, I_2, I_3\}$. To discriminate V_1 from V_3 , V_2 from V_4 and V_3 from V_4 , we are 235 looking among the following combinations: $\{I_3 - I_2\}$, $\{I_3 - I_1\}$, $\{I_3 - I_4\}$, $\{I_3 - I_5\}$ because indices are ordered 236 by frequency discrimination: $[I_3, I_2, I_1, I_4, I_5]$. We suppose that $\{I_3 - I_1\}$ can discriminate V_1 from V_3 and V_2 $_{237}$ from V_4 but there is still no index that can discriminate V_3 from V_4 . For the latter case, possible combinations 238 are looking among $\{I_3 - I_1 - I_2\}$, $\{I_3 - I_1 - I_4\}$, $\{I_3 - I_1 - I_5\}$. Whatever a combination of spectral vegetation ₂₃₉ indices can be found to discriminate or not those plant species, the process will stop in our case.

²⁴⁰ The Bhattacharyya coefficient and the Hellinger distance

For two arbitrary discrete probability distributions **p** and **q**, the amount of overlap between those distributions can be measured using the Bhattacharyya coefficient:

$$
C(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sqrt{p_i q_i},
$$
\n(6)

where *n* is the partition number. To measure the similarity between two statistical distributions in remote sensing the Hellinger distance (also known as the Matusita distance) is commonly used. It is defined as:

$$
H(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\sqrt{p_i} - \sqrt{q_i} \right)^2},\tag{7}
$$

$$
= \sqrt{1 - C(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})}.
$$
 (8)

²⁴¹ The Hellinger distance defined in Equation (8) has upper bound equal to 1, indicating the total separability ²⁴² of the class pairs characterized by their distribution. As a general rule adapted from [121],

- **•** if $H(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) \ge 0.95$ then the classes can be separated,
- **•** if $0.85 \leq H(p, q) < 0.95$ the separation is fairly good,
- if $H(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) < 0.85$ the separation is poor.

²⁴⁶ *3.5. Spectral ranges*

²⁴⁷ The transformed spectral signatures defined in Section 3.2 and the spectral ranges adapted from [31] (Table 6) were investigated:

- ²⁴⁹ visible: 350 nm–750 nm,
- \bullet near infrared: 750 nm–1350 nm,
- ²⁵¹ shortwave infrared a: 1410 nm–1810 nm,
- ²⁵² shortwave infrared b: 1940 nm–2400 nm.

²⁵³ The shortwave infrared domain is split in 2 parts. The near infrared and the shortwave infrared are not ²⁵⁴ continuous because of atmospheric water absorption.

- ²⁵⁵ *3.6. Supervised classification*
- ²⁵⁶ All the classifications are performed using Python scikit-learn package [129].

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Table 6. The spectral reflectances of green vegetation on the four regions of electromagnetic spectrum from [31].

²⁵⁷ 3.6.1. Random Forest (RF)

 RF is an ensemble classifier that uses a set of Classification And Regression Trees (CARTs) to make a prediction [130]. The trees are created by drawing a subset of training samples through replacement (a bagging approach). In standard classification trees, each node is split using the best split among all variables. In RF, each node is split using the best predictor, among a user-defined number of features (*Mtry* that is usually set to the square root of the number of input variables [131]). By growing the forest up to a user-defined number of trees (*Ntree* that is usually set to 500 but different values such as 100, 1000 or 5000 have been investigated [131]), the algorithm creates trees that have high variance and low bias. The final classification decision is taken by averaging (using the arithmetic mean) the class assignment probabilities calculated by all produced trees.

²⁶⁶ For this study, *Mtry* = 500 and *Ntree* ∈ [500, 1000, 2000, 5000].

²⁶⁷ 3.6.2. Support Vector Machines (SVM)

 SVM is a supervised non-parametric statistical learning technique therefore there is no assumption on the distribution of the data [132]. The main idea of SVM classification is to construct a hyperplane as a decision surface in a way that the margin of separation between two classes is maximized. To do this, the original feature space is mapped into a space with a higher dimensionality, where classes can be modelled to be linearly separable. This transformation is implicitly performed by applying kernel functions to the original data. ₂₇₃ The learning of the classifier is performed using a constrained optimization process that is associated with a complex cost function. For problems that involve identification of multiple classes, adjustments are made to the simple SVM binary classifier to operate as a multi-class classifier using methods such as one-against-all, one-against-others.

²⁷⁷ For this study, two kernels are retained: a linear kernel (SVM linear) and a Gaussian kernel (SVM RBF).

²⁷⁸ 3.6.3. Regularized Logistic Regression (RLR)

RLR is a linear model based on logistic regression with an additional regularization term. This classifier ²⁸⁰ has been successfully used with high dimensional data (gene selection in cancer classification [133], feature 281 selection in remote sensing $[28,29,134]$).

²⁸² For this study, the ℓ_1 -norm and ℓ_2 -norm regularization term are investigated.

²⁸³ 3.6.4. Partial Least Squares-Discriminant analysis (PLS-DA)

²⁸⁴ PLS-DA is based upon the classical partial least square regression method for constructing predictive ²⁸⁵ models [135]. The goal of PLS regression is to provide dimension reduction in an application where the response ²⁸⁶ variable is related to the predictor variables. In the case of PLS-DA, the response variable (*i.e.* vegetation

 287 types) is binary and expresses class membership [136,137]. This classifier has been successfully used with high dimensional data (gene selection [138], tree species discrimination [139]).

 For this study the number of latent variables is fixed to the number of vegetation types - 1 [138]. This method is not applied on spectral vegetation indices selected but on spectral signatures and their transformations on spectral ranges because it is commonly used when the number of features is much bigger than the number of spectra.

²⁹³ *3.7. Classification accuracy evaluation*

²⁹⁴ To evaluate the classification accuracy of supervised classifiers, a 30 fold cross-validation is used and six ²⁹⁵ training samples size were investigated: 50% , 45% , 40% , 35% , 30% and 25% of all spectra.

To evaluate the classifier precision overall accuracy and F1-score are used. Overall accuracy computes number of correct spectra over all spectra, whereas F1-score is given by:

$$
F1-score = 2 \cdot \frac{PA \cdot UA}{PA + UA'},\tag{9}
$$

²⁹⁶ where PA (Producer's Accuracy) is the fraction of retrieved classes that are relevant whereas UA (User's ²⁹⁷ Accuracy) is the fraction of relevant classes that are retrieved.

²⁹⁸ **4. Results and discussion**

²⁹⁹ *4.1. Similarity measures*

 Considering all transformed spectral signatures, spectral ranges and similarity measures, only the Canberra distance on [350 nm to 2500 nm] gives an overall accuracy higher than 50 % whatever the spectral reference database (Table 7). Indeed, the Canberra distance gives the higher overall accuracy because it is sensitive to a 303 small change when both coordinates are closed to zero [140,141].

304 Because of the high variability of some vegetation types (Appendix B), spectral reference database built ³⁰⁵ from median spectra, that are *real* spectra, gave worse results than spectral reference database built from median ³⁰⁶ and mean spectra, that are *theoretical* spectra not representative of a *in situ* measured vegetation type (Table 7). ³⁰⁷ There is a need to collect more spectral signatures to build a consistent spectral database.

As spectral signatures can be considered as high dimensional vectors, a specific distance is needed to ³⁰⁹ compare them. It is well known that Euclidean distance is not good when comparing high dimension data 310 [142]. Table 8 shows that the Canberra distance always outperforms other distances, including SAM, which is 311 commonly used in remote sensing, when considering the whole spectral range (1823 wavelengths).

³¹² Using the Canberra distance, best results (overall accuracy higher than 60 %) are given with the second ³¹³ derivative, first derivative and CRDR (Table 7), that are closely related to absorption features rather than ³¹⁴ reflectance magnitude [38]. Indeed, vegetation types can be discriminated thanks to their biophysical **Table 8.** Overall accuracy (%) for different distances on [350–2500 nm] considering Median reflectances as spectral reference database.

315 components which will be discussed in details in Section 4.2. Furthermore, Table 9 shows that the whole spectral range gives the best results. Although spectral ranges are related to specific biophysical components (Table 6), the whole spectral range is needed to discriminate the 13 vegetation types because some of them are sharing same plant species (Table A.1) and the spectral signatures are mixed. Worse results are obtained in [1940–2400 nm] whatever the transformed spectral signature. Table 9 show that worse results are obtained by the spectral signature whatever the spectral range. Indeed those transformations are related to absorption features 321 as explained above, which confirm that transformed spectral signatures are more suitable to discriminate vegetation types than spectral signatures.

Table 9. Overall classification accuracy (%) for different spectral ranges considering Median reflectances as spectral reference database and Canberra distance.

323 Considering classification accuracy for each vegetation type, Table 10 shows that best F1-score is obtained $\frac{324}{1224}$ by *Sphagnum* sp. (SPHA) (\simeq 98%), *Juniperus communis* (JUCO) (\simeq 97%), Aquatic type b (AQ_B) (\simeq 93%) 325 and *Salix* sp. (SALI) (\simeq 92%). Excepting JUCO, all of these vegetation types are well classified and their user's accuracy is higher than 85%. Indeed these vegetation types are less mixed than others: Table A.1 shows ³²⁷ that SPHA is mainly dominated by different kinds of *sphagnum*; AQ_B is dominated by *Utricularia* sp; JUCO ³²⁸ is dominated by *Juniperus communis* and SALI is dominated by *Salix*. Only 3 other vegetation types have ³²⁹ user's accuracy equal to 100 %: *Rhododendron ferrugineum* (RHFR), *Calluna vulgaris* (CAVU) and Aquatic type ³³⁰ a (AQ_A). However, only around 57 % of spectral signatures are well identified for CAVU and AQ_A. This can be explained by the high variability of these sample plots. Contrary to SPHA, JUCO, AQ_B and SALI, there is 332 not a single dominated plant species neither for CAVU nor for AQ_A (Table A.1). Worse F1-score is obtained 333 by *Pinguicula* sp. (PING) (\simeq 54%) which is not dominated by only one plant species: this vegetation type is ³³⁴ mainly dominated by *Eleocharis quinqueflora* (ELQU) (40 %), bare ground (15 %), *Molinia caerulea* ssp *caerulae* ³³⁵ (10 %) and *Tomenthypnum nitens* (10 %). It can explain the difficulty to identify this vegetation type in particular rather than the low number of spectra: PING has 8 spectra whereas AQ B has 7 spectra.

³³⁷ *4.2. Supervised classification based on feature selection of spectral vegetation indices*

³³⁸ Feature selection

³³⁹ The Kruskal-Wallis method (Section 3.4, p. 14) does not show any significant index (frequency $\frac{3}{440}$ discrimination $> 75\%$) that allow discrimination between vegetation types (Figure 5, only the first 69 indices **Table 10.** Confusion matrix of the classification based on Second derivative, Canberra Distance on [350–2500 nm] with Median reflectance as reference spectral database. The producer's and user's accuracies, the overall accuracy and the F1-score are also shown.

 are drawn). The best vegetation index (NDWI[860, 2130]) only allows us to discriminate 49 pairs of vegetation types, that may be explained by the plant species mixing within several vegetation types. The proposed method reduced the number of selected indices from 129 to 26 (Table 11). More precisely, on the first step of the method, only 17 single indices amongst 26 are needed to discriminate 59 pairs of vegetation types amongst 78. On the second step, these single indices must be completed by 7 additional spectral vegetation indices to discriminate 346 17 more pairs of vegetation types (Table 12 ; \oslash means either a pair of vegetation type can not be discriminated ³⁴⁷ thanks to a pair of spectral vegetation indices built from single ones selected on the first step, either more than two vegetation indices are needed to discriminate a pair of vegetation type). On the last step, a single index is added to discriminate two vegetation types whereas a combination of previous selected indices allows us to discriminate another pair of vegetation type (Table 11). Finally several different – single or pair or triplet – vegetation indices allow us to discriminate pairs of vegetation types. However, none single spectral index allows us to discriminate all pairs of vegetation types nor the majority: *e.g.* the most discriminating single spectral index, the Water Index (WI), only discriminates around 45 % pairs of vegetation types (Table 11).

Table 13 shows that one single biophysical component can discriminate most of vegetation types except *Carex* sp. homogeneous vegetation (CA_HV). More precisely, three kinds of vegetation types (*Sphagnum* sp. (SPHA), Aquatic type b (AQ_B) and Aquatic type c (AQ_C)) are separated thanks to a single biophysical component. However, some biophysical components are more discriminant than others according to vegetation types: *e.g.* the chlorophyll is more discriminant than the water content for AQ_C whereas the water content is the only discriminant biophysical component for AQ_B ; the water content, the chlorophyll and water, cellulose, starch, lignin (w., c., s., l.) equally discriminate SPHA from all other vegetation types.

 Only two indices related to water content are needed to separate AQ_B from all other vegetation types: WI and NDWI[860,1240] (Table 13) because AQ_B vegetation type is mainly composed of *Utricularia* sp. and water ₃₆₃ (Table A.1). The AO B spectral signatures are lower than the spectral reflectance values of the other vegetation types and the water absorption band at 900 nm and 970 nm are highlighted.

The chlorophyll is the main biophysical component (86.33%) able to discriminate AQ_C from all other ³⁶⁶ vegetation types, except with Aquatic type a (AQ_A) and AQ_B differentiated by considering additional water ³⁶⁷ indices (MSI and NDWI[860,1240]). Indeed, dry matter can be seen on spectral signatures (Figure 7): AQ_B has ³⁶⁸ the lowest slope on the spectral range [705–730 nm] whereas other vegetation types (except AQ_A and AQ_B) ³⁶⁹ have higher values because they still contain chlorophyll. However, as AQ_B and AQ_C have low values of 370 Boochs2 index, they can be discriminated thanks to a water index (right side of Figure 8 shows that those 371 vegetation types can be clearly separated ; indeed, those vegetation types have different shapes and values that ³⁷² characterize each type).

Figure 5. Frequency distribution of the Kruskal-Wallis test for the 129 spectral indices for paired species across the 13 vegetation types. The horizontal red line stands for 75 % of all 78 possible combinations of the 13 vegetation types.

Table 11. Single selected indices from the Hellinger distance and their occurrences.

x ∗ : index selected on first step. x ∗∗: index selected on second step. x ∗∗∗: index selected on third step.

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W., c., s., l. = Water, cellulose, starch, lignin.

Table 14. Pairs of main discriminating biophysical components for each vegetation type and their occurrences $(%)$.

Biophysical components	CAVU	RHFR	CA HV	AQ_A	SALI	PING	IUCO	ELOU	METR	PI CV
Water - chlorophyll	$0.00\,$	0.00	8.33	8.33	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	8.33	0.00
Water - stress	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Water - nitrogen	0.00	0.00	16.67	8.33	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Water - pigment	8.33	0.00	16.67	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	16.67	8.33	8.33
Water - w., c., s., l.	0.00	16.67	0.00	16.67	8.33	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00
Chlorophyll - stress	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Chlorophyll - (total pigments)/chlorophyll	0.00	0.00	8.33	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Chlorophyll - w., c., s., l.	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.33	0.00	0.00	8.33	0.00
Stress - nitrogen	0.00	8.33	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
(Total pigments)/chlorophyll - w., c., s., l.	8.33	8.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

W., c., s., l. = Water, cellulose, starch, lignin.

Figure 6. Mean spectral reflectance of the 13 vegetation types. Dashed lines represent the wavelengths used by WI.

Figure 7. Mean first derivative spectral signatures of the 13 vegetation types on [695–730 nm]. The green dashed line represents the wavelength used by the Boochs2 index.

Figure 8. Left: spectral signatures of AQ_B (blue) and AQ_C (dark slate gray). Red dashed lines are the wavelengths used by the NDWI[860,1240] index. Right: NDWI[860,1240] values for each vegetation type, H is the Hellinger distance.

³⁷³ In some case, there is no single biophysical component allowing us to discriminate vegetation types: *e.g.* both water content (33.33 %), chlorophyll (33.33 %) and w., c., s., l. (33.33 %) are needed to distinguish SPHA from all other vegetation types. More precisely, biophysical components related to water (WI, MSI) are discriminating SPHA from CA_HV, *Pinguicula* sp. (PING), *Pinguicula* sp. combined vegetation (PI_CV) and AQ_B ; biophysical components related to chlorophyll (CCCI, OSAVI[800,670]) are differentiating SPHA from AQ_A, AQ_C, *Eleocharis quinqueflora* (ELQU) and *Menyanthes trifoliata* (METR) ; biophysical components related to w., c., s., l. (F_WP) are separating SPHA from *Calluna vulgaris* (CAVU), *Rhododendron ferrugineum* (RHFR), *Salix* sp. (SALI) and *Juniperus communis* (JUCO) (Table 13). Unlike an index related to water content (Figure 9), an index related to the chlorophyll will discriminate SPHA from AQ_A. Indeed, the right side of Figure 9 shows that some AQ_A plant species can not be distinguished from SPHA because it is a dry moss and the left side of 383 Figure 9 shows that SPHA and non discerned AQ A have the same spectral signature shape. The right side of $\frac{384}{100}$ Figure 10 shows that these two vegetation species can clearly be separated despite the class variability of AQ_A. A complex biophysical component such as F_WP will differentiate SPHA from CAVU (left side of Figure 11) shows that different spectral shapes between those vegetation types can be exploited on the [1220–1280 nm] 387 domain. The right side of Figure 10 shows that the wavelengths corresponding to the maximum of the first derivatives can clearly discern these two vegetation types even if these vegetation types can be mixed.

Figure 9. Left: spectral signatures of SPHA (black) and AQ_A (green). Red dashed lines are WI wavelengths. Right: WI values for each vegetation type, H is the Hellinger distance.

 In most case, a single biophysical component is sufficient to class a vegetation type from the others (except for CA_HV), but a pair of biophysical components is needed to discriminate more specifically some vegetation types (Table 12), apart from some particular cases where a pair of biophysical components is needed CA_HV (Figure 12). Indeed, CAVU and SALI are differentiated with the stress index (CARTER[695, 420]) and the water index (NDII). Among the 78 combinations of pair of vegetation types, only two require three indices to be separated:

³⁹⁵ CA_HV *vs* PING and AQ_A *vs* METR. Indeed, because of its within class variability (Table A.1), only 33.33 %

of single biophysical component can discriminate CA_HV from all other vegetation types (Table 13). Besides, as

397 mentioned in Section 4.1, none of the main plant species of PING represents more than 50% of this vegetation ³⁹⁸ type. The advent of a third index only improves significantly their discrimination (Figure 13).

Figure 10. Left: spectral signatures of SPHA (black) and AQ_A (green). Red dashed lines are OSAVI[800,670] wavelengths. Right: OSAVI[800,670] values for each vegetation type, H is the Hellinger distance.

Figure 11. Left: spectral signatures of SPHA (black) and CAVU (gray). Right: F_WP values for each vegetation type, H is the Hellinger distance.

Figure 12. Left: spectral signatures of CAVU (gray) and SALI (cyan). Right: map of CARTER[695,420] and NDII values for each vegetation type, H is the Hellinger distance.

Figure 13. Left: spectral signatures of CA_HV (pink) and PI_CV (magenta). Right: map of OSAVI[800,670] and GITELSON values for each vegetation type, H is the Hellinger distance value.

³⁹⁹ Supervised classification

 The 26 indices selected WITH the Hellinger distance enables overall classification accuracy scores ranging from 72.90 % to 85.20 % depending on the training size, whereas when considering all indices overall accuracy 402 scores range from 66.70 % to 82.80 % (Table 15). Moreover, these selected indices are robust because no significant difference between classifiers score (except for RF) regardless of the training size is noted (Figure 14). As expected, worst results are given by the Kruskal-Wallis method (to compare performance of the two features selection methods, 26 first indices given by Kruskal-Wallis method have been selected).

RLR gives better results than SVM and RF (Table 15, Figure 14) except when the size of training set equals 50 % for the Hellinger distance. That may be explained by the possible confusion between some vegetation types due to their plant species composition. Indeed, SVM aims to find the best hyperplane that can separate data, whereas RLR aims to find a probability (according to a logistic function) to separate them.

 Considering RLR- ℓ 2 some vegetation types are not easily discriminated whatever the indices. Table 16 and Table 17 show that PING has the lowest F1-score (20.99 % and 33.13 % respectively) which can be explained by ⁴¹² the mixed composition of this habitat (Table B) and not the low number of spectra. Indeed, AQ B has about the same number of spectra: 7 spectra whereas 8 spectral measurements have been collected for PING. Yet it has a F1-score = 91.95 % considering all indices and F1-score = 91.66 % considering indices selected by the Hellinger distance that can be explained by its composition dominated by *Utricularia* sp.

⁴¹⁶ Focusing on shrubs, JUCO has the best performances (F1-score = 94.83 %) whereas SALI and RHFR are 417 often confounded. Table 17 shows that on average 2.53 spectra of RHFR (\simeq 20.02 %) are classified as SALI and 418 on average 2.30 spectra of SALI (\simeq 19.15%) are classified as RHFR. Indeed, as JUCO has a higher foliage density,

⁴¹⁹ the overall spatial signature is less sensitive to the ground influence and as a result JUCO spectral reflectance is

⁴²⁰ close to a pure endmember (Appendix B). In the latter case, the spectral measurements are composed of soil

⁴²¹ and more affected by mixed signatures. Another pair of vegetation types is hardly discriminated: PI_CV and

422 CA_HV. Table 17 shows that on average 4.93 spectra of CA_HV (\simeq 25%) are classified as PI_CV which may be

⁴²³ explained by the plant species they have in common: *Carex* (50 %–100 % depending on the location) and *Molinia*

⁴²⁴ *caerulea* ssp. *caerulae* (40 %–70 %) (Appendix B).

Table 15. Vegetation types identification (overall accuracy $(\pm$ standard deviation) in %) with indices.

Figure 14. Vegetation types identification accuracies (overall accuracy) with indices.

Table 16. Confusion matrix of the classification based on RLR $-\ell_2$ with all indices and training size = 25 %. The producer's and user's accuracies and the overall accuracy average (OAA) are also shown.

	SPHA	CAVU	RH FR	CA HV	AQ_A	SALI		PING JUCO	ELQU	METR	PI CV	AQ_B	AQ_C	Producer's accuracy (%)
SPHA	15.20	0.73	0.43	0.33	0.00	0.17	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00	89.46
CAVU	2.30	6.20	0.67	0.83	0.00	0.07	0.30	0.20	0.17	0.10	0.17	0.00	0.00	56.31
RHFR	1.13	0.77	4.20	0.00	0.07	1.67	0.70	1.57	0.50	0.17	0.23	0.00	0.00	38.15
CA HV	0.00	0.17	0.00	12.17	1.03	0.00	0.53	0.07	0.57	0.57	4.90	0.00	0.00	60.82
AQ_A	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.47	33.40	0.20	0.83	0.00	0.80	1.60	1.00	0.17	1.47	83.48
SALI	0.00	0.30	1.00	0.13	1.33	8.57	0.23	0.00	0.30	0.40	0.70	0.00	0.03	65.97
PING	0.00	0.23	0.23	1.57	1.13	0.00	1.10	0.00	0.60	0.27	0.83	0.00	0.03	18.36
JUCO	0.07	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.13	0.00	0.10	13.40	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.00	95.71
ELOU	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	10.93	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	99.36
METR	0.07	0.00	0.00	1.17	1.40	0.00	0.23	0.00	0.63	4.43	1.03	0.00	0.03	49.28
PI CV	0.00	0.00	0.07	1.83	0.40	0.03	0.37	0.00	0.03	0.10	8.03	0.00	0.13	73.07
AQ _B	0.23	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	4.40	0.00	88.00
AQ_C	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.10	0.67	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.30	0.00	7.73	85.89
User's accuracy $(\%)$	80.00	73.20	62.04	65.43	83.79	79.80	24.50	87.93	74.86	57.24	45.91	96.28	82.06	OAA: 73.31
$F1$ -score $(\%)$	84.47	63.66	47.24	63.04	83.64	72.23	20.99	91.66	85.39	52.96	56.39	91.95	83.93	

⁴²⁵ *4.3. Supervised classification according to the spectral ranges*

⁴²⁶ Only the best results are presented, obtained with the four spectral ranges ([350–750 nm], [750–1350 nm], 427 [350–1350 nm], [350–2500 nm]) and the spectral signature as reference and the three transformed spectral ⁴²⁸ signatures (second derivative, first derivative, Continuum Removed Derivative Reflectance).

a₂₉ Table 18 to Table 21 show the best results obtained with RLR- ℓ_2 on [350–1350 nm] whatever the transformed ⁴³⁰ spectral signatures.

 Considering wavelengths used by selected indices (Section 4.2), most of them use spectral bands located on [350–1350 nm] either: 50 % are located in visible range and 32.35 % in near-infrared range. Indeed, in this spectral range all the biophysical components discriminating the peatland vegetation types can be taken into account. That is confirmed by Figure 15 which shows that the best results are given by [350–1350 nm] considering the training size = 25 % regardless the transformed spectral signatures and the the classifier, except

Table 17. Confusion matrix of the classification based on RLR− ℓ_2 with indices selected by the Hellinger distance and training size = 25 %. The producer's and user's accuracies and the overall accuracy average (OAA) are also shown.

	SPHA	CAVU	RH FR	CA_HV	AQ_A	SALI	PING	IUCO	ELQU	METR	PI_CV	AQ_B	AQ_C	Producer's accuracy (%)
SPHA	15.40	0.90	0.13	0.47	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	90.59
CAVU	0.90	8.03	0.67	0.47	0.00	0.03	0.70	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.13	0.00	0.00	73.07
RHFR	0.47	0.30	6.70	0.03	0.00	2.53	0.43	0.20	0.13	0.20	0.00	0.00	0.00	60.96
CA HV	0.00	0.17	0.20	11.93	0.77	0.00	0.77	0.03	0.57	0.63	4.93	0.00	0.00	59.65
AQ_A	0.00	0.00	0.23	0.40	33.40	0.43	1.50	0.03	0.43	1.63	1.33	0.00	0.60	83.54
SALI	0.00	0.00	2.30	0.00	0.87	7.77	0.80	0.07	0.03	0.40	0.60	0.00	0.17	59.72
PING	0.00	0.27	0.17	1.67	0.37	0.00	2.20	0.00	0.17	0.40	0.73	0.00	0.03	36.61
IUCO	0.00	0.03	0.20	0.07	0.10	0.17	0.07	12.93	0.00	0.07	0.37	0.00	0.00	92.29
ELQU	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.33	0.00	10.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	96.36
METR	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.87	0.73	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.03	6.23	1.03	0.00	0.00	69.30
PI CV	0.00	0.00	0.10	1.23	0.17	0.07	0.23	0.00	0.00	0.37	8.83	0.00	0.00	80.27
AQ _B	0.03	0.00	0.47	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.00	4.23	0.00	84.60
AQ_C	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.47	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.40	93.33
User's accuracy (%)	91.67	82.78	59.82	69.20	90.32	70.64	30.26	97.51	88.19	61.50	49.19	100.00	91.30	OAA: 77.21
$F1$ -score $(\%)$	91.12	77.62	60.39	64.07	86.80	64.72	33.13	94.83	92.09	65.17	61.00	91.66	92.31	

Table 18. Vegetation types identification accuracies (overall accuracy (\pm standard deviation) in %) on [350–750 nm].

	Classifier	Overall accuracy (\pm Standard deviation) (%)									
Training size		Spectral signature	Second derivative	First derivative	Continuum Removed Derivative Reflectance						
50%	SVM linear	83.31 (± 1.10)	$89.09 \ (\pm 2.05)$	$90.91 \ (\pm 1.38)$	84.13 (\pm 2.42)						
	SVM RBF	57.69 (± 4.03)	79.34 (± 4.37)	$87.60 \ (\pm 2.34)$	78.68 (\pm 2.93)						
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$90.41(\pm2.00)$	$88.76 (\pm 2.19)$	89.92 (± 1.42)	$87.44 (\pm 2.42)$						
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$86.28 (\pm 3.25)$	$91.07(\pm1.42)$	$94.88(\pm1.10)$	$90.91(\pm2.45)$						
	RF	53.88 (\pm 2.05)	86.28 (\pm 1.70)	79.83 (± 1.44)	$80.66 \ (\pm 1.53)$						
	PLS-DA	77.52 (± 2.30)	73.72 (± 1.91)	77.69 (± 2.96)	70.74 (\pm 2.84)						
45%	SVM linear	78.15 (± 5.43)	84.15 (\pm 1.86)	$86.31 (\pm 4.17)$	82.77 (\pm 3.85)						
	SVM RBF	59.54 (± 2.21)	72.77 (\pm 3.82)	82.77 (\pm 4.20)	75.85 (\pm 2.31)						
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$86.46(\pm 3.46)$	$85.38 \ (\pm 3.67)$	$87.69 \ (\pm 2.43)$	82.92 (\pm 1.78)						
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$85.23 (\pm 3.49)$	$85.69(\pm2.86)$	$90.46(\pm2.46)$	$85.85(\pm1.58)$						
	RF	53.54 (± 1.79)	$80.15 (\pm 2.73)$	76.77 (± 3.87)	77.54 (± 2.20)						
	PLS-DA	73.54 (± 3.97)	$70.46 \ (\pm 2.31)$	74.15 (\pm 3.56)	$68.15 (\pm 3.53)$						
40%	SVM linear	77.70 (± 5.46)	$80.72 \ (\pm 3.98)$	$83.88 \ (\pm 3.82)$	$80.43 (\pm 6.11)$						
	SVM RBF	58.85 (\pm 2.20)	69.64 (\pm 4.20)	$80.29 \ (\pm 3.04)$	72.95 (\pm 1.62)						
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$85.32(\pm 3.88)$	84.46 (± 3.60)	$88.06 (\pm 3.24)$	81.29 (\pm 2.91)						
	$RLR-\ell_2$	82.88 (± 2.25)	$86.19(\pm 2.38)$	89.64 (± 3.39)	$82.73(\pm 3.83)$						
	RF	53.24 (± 2.61)	77.99 (± 2.75)	74.96 (± 3.29)	73.96 (± 3.48)						
	PLS-DA	72.09 (± 1.54)	72.09 (\pm 2.89)	74.96 (± 3.07)	$68.35 (\pm 3.61)$						
35%	SVM linear	72.86 (± 4.33)	78.44 (± 4.81)	$80.65 (\pm 4.47)$	75.84 (± 2.83)						
	SVM RBF	55.06 (\pm 2.03)	67.14 (± 4.69)	76.23 (\pm 3.50)	66.88 (\pm 2.87)						
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$80.39(\pm 3.71)$	79.22 (\pm 3.60)	84.55 (\pm 2.89)	73.90 (± 3.27)						
	$RLR-\ell_2$	78.57 (± 3.46)	$82.86(\pm 5.61)$	$87.27(\pm 3.22)$	$78.57(\pm4.19)$						
	RF	52.99 (\pm 2.08)	73.64 (± 2.89)	73.51 (\pm 3.00)	69.61 (\pm 3.14)						
	PLS-DA	$70.65 (\pm 2.80)$	70.52 (\pm 2.92)	72.47 (± 3.66)	66.23 (\pm 2.82)						
30%	SVM linear	74.18 (± 1.70)	$80.48 \ (\pm 3.37)$	$81.58 \ (\pm 2.83)$	75.39 (± 2.53)						
	SVM RBF	55.27 (\pm 2.93)	70.06 (\pm 3.81)	76.24 (± 4.72)	67.39 (± 7.39)						
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$80.97(\pm1.19)$	79.88 (± 2.61)	84.73 (\pm 3.05)	76.12 (± 1.61)						
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$80.00 (\pm 3.49)$	$83.88(\pm 3.38)$	$87.64(\pm 3.31)$	$78.79(\pm2.06)$						
	RF	52.00 (\pm 1.69)	74.42 (\pm 2.58)	73.21 (\pm 2.61)	$70.55 (\pm 2.35)$						
	PLS-DA	72.36 (± 3.69)	70.06 (± 4.35)	73.45 (± 3.31)	64.48 (\pm 0.82)						
25%	SVM linear	67.80 (\pm 3.52)	75.48 (± 2.59)	78.19 (± 1.37)	73.11 (\pm 0.68)						
	SVM RBF	53.11 (\pm 2.20)	60.90 (\pm 3.90)	69.94 (\pm 3.63)	66.78 (\pm 2.98)						
	$RLR-\ell_1$	75.14 (± 3.31)	77.29 (± 2.93)	$80.90 \ (\pm 2.46)$	72.77 (± 1.65)						
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$76.84(\pm2.88)$	$78.87(\pm3.46)$	$83.05(\pm4.55)$	$76.95(\pm2.66)$						
	RF	48.59 (± 4.14)	71.64 (± 3.87)	73.11 (\pm 2.04)	69.83 (\pm 2.36)						
	PLS-DA	70.62 (\pm 2.70)	69.83 (\pm 0.68)	72.09 (\pm 2.28)	63.95 (\pm 3.12)						

Table 19. Vegetation types identification accuracies (overall accuracy (\pm standard deviation) in %) on [750–1350 nm].

	Classifier	Overall accuracy (\pm Standard deviation) (%)										
Training size		Spectral signature	Second derivative	First derivative	Continuum Removed Derivative Reflectance							
50%	SVM linear	$83.47 (\pm 2.77)$	93.22 (\pm 0.96)	92.40 (\pm 1.42)	$91.57 (\pm 2.24)$							
	SVM RBF	69.75 (\pm 2.98)	55.04 (\pm 4.10)	76.20 (\pm 4.66)	78.02 (\pm 1.53)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$89.26 \ (\pm 1.65)$	92.73 (\pm 1.69)	$94.05 (\pm 2.63)$	$90.41 (\pm 1.34)$							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$91.07(\pm 3.56)$	$94.05(\pm 1.32)$	$96.36(\pm2.00)$	$94.05(\pm 1.76)$							
	RF	69.75 (\pm 2.80)	$90.25 \ (\pm 1.91)$	$85.45 (\pm 1.44)$	$89.26 \ (\pm 2.45)$							
	PLS-DA	78.51 (\pm 2.45)	$80.83 \ (\pm 2.05)$	81.49 (\pm 2.80)	79.17 (\pm 2.24)							
45%	SVM linear	$80.15 (\pm 4.02)$	$87.38 (\pm 2.15)$	$88.62 \ (\pm 3.05)$	$91.54 \ (\pm 1.61)$							
	SVM RBF	65.69 (± 3.91)	49.38 (± 3.87)	$67.54 \ (\pm 4.70)$	72.77 (\pm 2.31)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$86.31 (\pm 3.49)$	$90.46 \ (\pm 1.43)$	$90.15 \ (\pm 3.01)$	88.62 (\pm 0.58)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$90.15(\pm 3.35)$	$92.15(\pm2.09)$	$92.77(\pm 1.73)$	$91.85(\pm2.21)$							
	RF	65.54 (± 3.99)	$85.85 (\pm 3.25)$	$81.54 \ (\pm 3.08)$	$86.31 (\pm 4.28)$							
	PLS-DA	78.15 (± 1.79)	79.85 (\pm 3.17)	79.69 (\pm 2.04)	76.92 (± 1.54)							
40%	SVM linear	77.55 (± 3.71)	$86.76 \ (\pm 1.62)$	$88.49 \ (\pm 3.44)$	$89.93(\pm4.07)$							
	SVM RBF	63.31 (\pm 3.37)	50.79 (\pm 3.60)	$66.76 \ (\pm 5.62)$	69.35 (\pm 3.24)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$83.17 \ (\pm 1.91)$	$88.06 (\pm 1.33)$	$89.64 (\pm 1.33)$	$85.04 (\pm 3.26)$							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$87.48(\pm 2.79)$	$91.22 (\pm 0.95)$	$91.80(\pm1.41)$	$89.64 \ (\pm 1.96)$							
	RF	64.60 (\pm 2.51)	84.46 (± 3.17)	$80.86 \ (\pm 2.64)$	$85.32 (\pm 4.70)$							
	PLS-DA	77.99 (± 1.68)	$80.00 (\pm 2.00)$	79.42 (± 1.33)	76.40 (± 1.24)							
35%	SVM linear	68.05 (\pm 5.02)	83.90 (\pm 3.77)	84.16 (\pm 2.68)	$85.58 \ (\pm 2.74)$							
	SVM RBF	59.61 (\pm 3.06)	44.03 (\pm 3.37)	63.12 (\pm 4.81)	64.03 (\pm 3.69)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$80.52 (\pm 2.25)$	85.71 (\pm 2.79)	$85.32 (\pm 2.04)$	$80.52 \ (\pm 5.08)$							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$84.68(\pm2.83)$	$85.97(\pm 3.71)$	$89.09(\pm1.99)$	$87.27(\pm 3.73)$							
	RF	63.25 (\pm 2.42)	$80.26 \ (\pm 3.33)$	77.92 (± 1.74)	82.21 (\pm 3.35)							
	PLS-DA	75.58 (± 1.86)	76.36 (± 2.65)	79.61 (\pm 1.95)	75.19 (\pm 1.04)							
30%	SVM linear	72.61 (\pm 1.93)	84.61 (\pm 3.22)	$85.58 \ (\pm 1.97)$	83.76 (\pm 4.10)							
	SVM RBF	60.24 (\pm 2.62)	42.42 (± 3.36)	62.79 (\pm 7.09)	65.21 (\pm 3.08)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	$80.48 (\pm 2.11)$	82.55 (\pm 4.01)	$85.58 (\pm 2.95)$	83.03 (\pm 4.29)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$84.12(\pm 4.12)$	$87.39(\pm4.76)$	$89.70(\pm4.22)$	$86.30(\pm 4.48)$							
	RF	65.21 (\pm 3.31)	79.52 (\pm 4.22)	77.21 (\pm 1.98)	$81.58 \ (\pm 3.08)$							
	PLS-DA	$76.24 (\pm 3.37)$	76.85 (\pm 4.99)	77.58 (± 4.20)	74.79 (± 3.27)							
25%	SVM linear	$70.28 (\pm 2.44)$	$80.90 \ (\pm 2.16)$	83.73 (\pm 2.75)	82.94 (\pm 2.59)							
	SVM RBF	51.64 (± 1.54)	39.89 (± 1.91)	52.54 (\pm 2.84)	61.58 (\pm 2.34)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	77.40 (± 1.96)	$82.15(\pm 3.64)$	$83.95(\pm1.70)$	79.66 (± 2.02)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$81.47(\pm1.10)$	$80.79 \ (\pm 4.42)$	83.16 (\pm 6.33)	$83.84(\pm 3.17)$							
	RF	62.03 (\pm 3.86)	$76.16 (\pm 3.20)$	76.84 (± 1.86)	$80.45 \ (\pm 3.67)$							
	PLS-DA	75.93 (± 2.74)	74.58 (± 2.88)	78.76 (\pm 2.28)	72.66 (± 2.49)							

Table 20. Vegetation types identification accuracies (overall accuracy (± standard deviation) in %) in [350–1350 nm].

	Classifier	Overall accuracy (\pm Standard deviation) (%)										
Training size					Continuum							
		Spectral signature	Second derivative	First derivative	Removed							
					Derivative							
					Reflectance							
	SVM linear	$83.47 (\pm 2.34)$	85.29 (\pm 4.10)	$87.44(\pm1.21)$	$91.90(\pm 1.76)$							
	SVM RBF	61.98 (± 4.31)	19.34 (± 5.95)	22.81 (\pm 0.40)	$25.12 \ (\pm 0.84)$							
50%	$RLR-\ell_1$	$91.07 (\pm 2.30)$	82.31 (\pm 3.16)	83.80 (\pm 3.07)	88.26 (\pm 1.60)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$91.57(\pm 1.42)$	81.49 (\pm 2.37)	82.81 (\pm 2.05)	84.79 (\pm 2.37)							
	RF	71.24 (± 2.63)	$89.92(\pm1.98)$	84.96 (± 2.42)	$90.58 \ (\pm 0.40)$							
	PLS-DA	75.04 (\pm 2.05)	78.35 (\pm 4.91)	75.70 (\pm 2.98)	79.83 (\pm 0.84)							
	SVM linear	79.08 (\pm 1.32)	79.38 (± 1.57)	$82.31(\pm1.61)$	$90.62(\pm 1.78)$							
	SVM RBF	55.38 (\pm 6.10)	22.31 (\pm 0.00)	22.46 (\pm 0.31)	24.15 (\pm 1.58)							
45%	$RLR-\ell_1$	$85.23 (\pm 2.25)$	79.69 (± 2.86)	$81.08 (\pm 2.56)$	84.77 (\pm 2.89)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$86.00(\pm 2.73)$	79.23 (\pm 2.33)	79.54 (± 2.36)	77.69 (± 3.61)							
	RF	69.08 (\pm 4.42)	$85.08(\pm2.46)$	$80.92 \ (\pm 1.32)$	$87.69 \ (\pm 2.96)$							
	PLS-DA	73.08 (± 3.34)	75.23 (\pm 4.31)	72.00 (\pm 3.29)	77.69 (± 1.88)							
	SVM linear	76.12 (\pm 0.84)	79.42 (\pm 0.86)	$82.30(\pm 2.35)$	$88.06(\pm1.68)$							
40%	SVM RBF	53.24 (± 3.61)	23.02 (\pm 0.00)	23.45 (\pm 0.58)	$25.18 (\pm 1.02)$							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	83.88 (± 3.69)	79.28 (± 1.79)	79.86 (± 3.83)	82.59 (\pm 3.98)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$84.75(\pm 2.86)$	81.01 (\pm 3.11)	79.57 (\pm 2.35)	79.28 (± 3.57)							
	RF	65.90 (± 3.48)	$84.17(\pm 3.34)$	79.28 (\pm 2.67)	$86.04 (\pm 2.60)$							
	PLS-DA	73.67 (± 1.85)	74.39 (\pm 2.07)	71.94 (± 3.75)	76.55 (\pm 4.31)							
	SVM linear	69.74 (± 1.13)	77.27 (\pm 1.09)	$79.87(\pm1.79)$	$84.42(\pm 4.35)$							
	SVM RBF	49.87 (± 3.64)	$20.00 (\pm 5.45)$	$20.13 \ (\pm 5.53)$	22.21 (\pm 4.69)							
35%	$RLR-\ell_1$	$82.47 \ (\pm 3.74)$	74.42 (\pm 2.38)	76.23 (\pm 2.04)	$78.05 (\pm 1.26)$							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$83.64(\pm 3.19)$	77.27 (\pm 2.87)	77.14 (± 1.99)	74.94 (± 2.80)							
	RF	64.03 (\pm 3.01)	$79.35(\pm2.83)$	77.27 (± 1.23)	82.47 (\pm 2.82)							
	PLS-DA	71.95 (\pm 2.19)	72.34 (± 2.27)	70.65 (\pm 3.57)	74.42 (± 3.20)							
	SVM linear	69.94 (\pm 3.90)	77.33 (\pm 1.82)	$79.64(\pm2.59)$	$84.36(\pm 5.88)$							
	SVM RBF	48.85 (± 4.05)	22.42 (\pm 0.00)	22.42 (\pm 0.00)	24.12 (\pm 0.89)							
	$RLR-\ell_1$	79.39 (± 2.24)	71.27 (\pm 3.29)	$76.36 \ (\pm 3.27)$	78.06 (± 5.44)							
30%	$RLR-\ell_2$	$83.27(\pm 3.48)$	75.88 (± 4.64)	75.52 (\pm 3.03)	75.15 (± 4.11)							
	RF	65.21 (\pm 3.83)	$78.06(\pm2.22)$	77.21 (\pm 2.67)	$80.00 (\pm 4.25)$							
	PLS-DA	70.18 (\pm 2.80)	71.27 (\pm 3.61)	$68.85 \ (\pm 4.67)$	73.45 (\pm 2.58)							
	SVM linear	65.31 (\pm 4.24)	74.24 (± 1.54)	$77.51(\pm1.49)$	$83.05(\pm 3.29)$							
	SVM RBF	43.05 (± 1.31)	22.60 (\pm 0.00)	22.60 (\pm 0.00)	24.07 (\pm 0.58)							
25%	$RLR-\ell_1$	74.92 (± 1.70)	$67.46 \ (\pm 3.44)$	71.64 (± 2.35)	75.03 (\pm 5.27)							
	$RLR-\ell_2$	$80.23(\pm 0.80)$	73.79 (± 3.57)	74.35 (\pm 2.19)	70.73 (\pm 1.84)							
	RF	62.49 (\pm 4.15)	$74.58(\pm 2.14)$	76.61 (\pm 2.22)	79.10 (\pm 2.95)							
	PLS-DA	$70.17 (\pm 1.40)$	70.96 (\pm 4.00)	$70.06 (\pm 3.24)$	72.43 (± 2.64)							

Table 21. Vegetation types identification accuracies (overall accuracy (\pm standard deviation) in %) on [350–2500 nm].

⁴³⁶ for RF applied on the spectral signature. In this case, considering the whole spectral range improves the result by 1% compared with [350–1350 nm].

Figure 15. Vegetation type identification accuracies with the training size = 25 %.

438 Considering RLR- ℓ_2 in [350–1350 nm], Table 22 shows that the best overall accuracies are given by first derivative, second derivative and CRDR. First and second derivatives overall accuracies are very close (difference lower than 1 %). However, those transformations are sensitive to noise. But CRDR delivered better results than spectral signatures and similar performances than the first and second derivatives (difference is ⁴⁴² lower than 4%). As mentioned in Section 4.1, those transformations are closely related to absorption features rather than reflectance magnitude [38], and are helpful to discriminate peatland vegetation types which are clearly characterized by different biophysical components as mentioned in Section 4.2.

445 Considering RLR, ℓ_1 regularization, which controls the selection or the removal of variables, always underperforms ℓ_2 -regularization, which handles with collinear variables [16]. Because of mixed plant species, it 447 is difficult to remove variables that are not involved in the classification of all the vegetation types. Although, ⁴⁴⁸ SVM and RF are popular classifiers in remote sensing community, they are outclassed by RLR in [350 nm to 1350 nm] which is the spectral range where results are the best (Figure 16). Results given by SVM RBF are lower ⁴⁵⁰ than those obtained with RLR and can be explained by the difficulty to find adapted parameters considering ⁴⁵¹ this high dimensionality problem. However, it is interesting to note that results from SVM linear are close to ⁴⁵² RLR ones considering first derivative, second derivative and CRDR. Further investigations should be conducted ⁴⁵³ to better understand the link between those classifiers and improve the choice of the parameters. Figure 16

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Training size	Overall accuracy (\pm Standard deviation) (%)											
	Spectral signature	Second derivative	First derivative	Continuum Removal	Continuum Removed Derivative Reflectance	log transformation						
50%	$91.07 \ (\pm 3.56)$	$94.05 (\pm 1.32)$	$96.36(\pm2.00)$	$89.59 \ (\pm 1.93)$	$94.05 (\pm 1.76)$	$93.72 \ (\pm 2.13)$						
45%	$90.31 \ (\pm 3.39)$	$92.15 \ (\pm 2.09)$	$92.77(\pm 1.73)$	$87.85 \ (\pm 2.59)$	$91.85 \ (\pm 2.21)$	89.69 (\pm 4.03)						
40%	$87.48 \ (\pm 2.79)$	$91.22 \ (\pm 0.95)$	$91.80(\pm1.41)$	$83.31 \ (\pm 3.79)$	$89.64 \ (\pm 1.96)$	$88.35 \ (\pm 2.15)$						
35%	84.68 (\pm 2.83)	$85.97 \ (\pm 3.71)$	$89.09(\pm1.99)$	$81.56 \ (\pm 3.45)$	$87.27 (\pm 3.73)$	$86.23 \ (\pm 3.45)$						
30%	84.24 (± 4.07)	$87.39 \ (\pm 4.76)$	$89.70(\pm4.22)$	$82.79 \ (\pm 4.09)$	$86.30 (\pm 4.48)$	$84.36 \ (\pm 4.22)$						
25%	$81.47 \ (\pm 1.10)$	$80.79 \ (\pm 4.42)$	$83.16 \ (\pm 6.33)$	$80.45 \ (\pm 2.62)$	$83.84(\pm 3.17)$	$82.15 \ (\pm 2.13)$						

Table 22. Vegetation types identification accuracies (overall accuracy $(\pm$ standard deviation) in %) on [350–1350nm] for RLR- ℓ_2 .

⁴⁵⁴ shows that PLS-DA is the least sensitive classifier to training size regardless transformed spectral signatures in ⁴⁵⁵ [350–1350 nm].

 Table 23 shows that *Pinguicula* sp. (PING) has the lowest F1-score (66.67 % and 56.00 % respectively) as well as for the spectral vegetation indices (Section 4.2). Besides, this vegetation type is hardly discriminated from the other ones (Producer's accuracy (PA) = 53.33 %) and some *Pinguicula* sp. combined vegetation (PI_CV) spectra are classified as PING). However, it should be kept in mind that PING has a small number of spectra. Considering Aquatic type b (AQ_B) which has about the same number of spectra (7 spectra against 8 for 461 PING), User's Accuracy (UA) = 60.98% and some Aquatic type a (AQ_A) spectra are predicted as AQ_B ones. These poor UA results compared to one obtained by spectral vegetation indices can not be explained by the spectral domain. Indeed, the best spectra vegetation index (NDWI[860, 1240]) that discriminate AQ_A from AQ_B has both wavelengths in [350–1350 nm]. However, this result may be qualified by PA. Indeed, on $[350-1350 \text{ nm}]$ domain, UA = 100.00% whereas UA = 84.60% for spectral vegetation indices. Nevertheless, using a continuous spectral domain can lead to worse results for other vegetation types such as *Sphagnum* sp. (SPHA), *Calluna vulgaris* (CAVU), AQ_A: F1-score is always better considering the same classifier (RLR-`2) applied on spectral vegetation indices selected by the Hellinger distance (SPHA: 91.12 % *vs* 82.80 %; CAVU: 77.62 % *vs* 71.43 %; AQ_A: 86.80 % *vs* 82.81 %). Considering SPHA, if PA = 90.59 % for spectral vegetation indices or for [350–1350 nm], the latter predicts more SPHA than observed (UA = 76.24 %) and is more confused with CAVU. This can be explained by plot 7 which is mainly composed of *Calluna vulgaris* (20 %), *Carex rostrata* (25 %), *Molinia caerulea* ssp. *caerulae* (20 %) and *Sphagnum palustre* (20 %) (Appendix B). In our case, reducing feature space by selecting most discriminant wavelengths (using PCA or MNF) has

474 not been implemented, whereas it can be an interesting track to explore to see if it improves results for RLR- ℓ_2 . ⁴⁷⁵ *Juniperus communis* (JUCO), *Eleocharis quinqueflora* (ELQU) and Aquatic type c (AQ_C) have about the same

⁴⁷⁶ F1-score considering spectral vegetation indices or [350–1350 nm]: less than 2 % difference. However, they have

477 better PA on the continuous spectral range (PA = 100.00% for JUCO; 95.56% for AQ_C) which means that this ⁴⁷⁸ spectral range contains discriminant wavelengths able to catch characteristic of those vegetation types.

 Rhododendron ferrugineum (RHFR), *Carex* sp. homogeneous vegetation (CA_HV), *Salix* sp. (SALI) and *Menyanthes trifoliata* (METR) have better results considering [350–1350 nm]. This can be explained by the fact that the spectral vegetation indices used have not been built for that kind of vegetation types. Further investigations can be lead to find specific indices that can discriminate those vegetation types from other ones.

	SPHA	CAVU	RH FR $ $	CA HV	AQ_A	SALI	PING	JUQO	ELQU	METR	PI CV	AQ _B	AQ_C	Producer's accuracy (%)
SPHA	15.40	1.40	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	90.59
CAVU	3.20	7.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.00	63.64
RHFR	1.40	0.00	8.20	0.20	0.00	0.40	0.20	0.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	74.55
CA HV	0.00	0.00	0.00	16.00	1.40	0.20	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.20	2.00	0.00	0.00	80.00
AQ_A	0.20	0.00	0.00	1.80	31.80	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.40	1.40	0.20	3.20	0.80	79.50
SALI	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.40	0.20	11.80	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	90.77
PING	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.40	0.40	0.00	3.20	0.00	0.40	0.00	1.40	0.00	0.00	53.33
IUCO	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	14.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
ELQU	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	11.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
METR	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.60	5.80	0.00	0.00	0.00	64.44
PI CV	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	10.60	0.00	0.00	96.36
AQ _B	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.00	0.00	100.00
AQ_C	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.40	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.60	95.56
User's accuracy (%)	76.24	81.40	97.62	82.47	86.41	95.16	88.89	90.91	87.30	78.38	72.60	60.98	91.49	OAA: 83.84
$F1$ -score $(\%)$	82.80	71.43	84.54	81.22	82.81	92.91	66.67	95.24	93.22	70.73	82.81	75.76	93.48	

Table 23. Confusion matrix of the RLR- ℓ_2 classification using CRDR on [350–1350 nm] (training size = 25%). The producer's and user's accuracies, the overall accuracy and the F1-score are also shown.

Figure 16. Vegetation type identification accuracies on [350–1350 nm].

5. Conclusions and Perspectives

 This study aimed at inventorying and evaluating the performance of discrimination techniques for peatland habitats based on *in situ* hyperspectral measurements with a high spectral resolution and high signal-to-noise ratio. To evaluate the potential of hyperspectral data to separate and classify those habitats, three classes of 487 methods were investigated and compared:

- similarity measures calculated on spectral reflectance,
- supervised classification based on "local" information (spectral vegetation indices),
- supervised classification based on "global" information (spectral ranges).

 This study demonstrated that peatland vegetation types could be discriminated using the Canberra distance on the whole spectral range [350–2500 nm]. This distance is sensitive to a small change when both coordinates approach zero which is the case of reflectance especially in the visible ranges and in the SWIR (Figure 2). Further investigations should be conducted to see if combinations of spectral range can improve overall accuracy or if the lack of spectral signatures in the reference database (which is a weakness of this method) may explain why the whole spectral range is needed to compare spectra in that case. Besides, it is of importance to collect more spectral signatures from peatland vegetation types to build a spectral reference database of peatland vegetation types that can catch more spectral variability.

499 Although, there is no spectral vegetation indices built to discriminate peatland vegetation types, this study showed that some indices could be selected using the Hellinger distance. Although those indices have not ₅₀₁ been built to discriminate peatland vegetation types, they were able to classify them because they focus on biochemical properties such as chlorophyll, nitrogen, water stress, ... Further investigations have to be done to see the impact of spectral bandwidth around the wavelength of selected indices instead of working with one particular wavelength. For instance there are lots of indices that catch the same biochemical property but wavelengths of interest change because they focus on specific plant species (*e.g.* for the chlorophyll, SR[700, 670] is built for field corn, whereas SR[675, 700] is built for soy beans leaves; contrary to SR[675, 700], SR[700,670] has been selected with the Hellinger distance).

 Contrary to similarity measures which had best results considering the whole spectral range, supervised ₅₀₉ classification on specific spectral range as defined by [31] achieved best overall accuracy considering [350–1350 nm] domain. This is in agreement with the spectral vegetation indices: only 4 indices (NDWI[860, 1240], NDWI[860, 2130], NDWI[1110, 1450], MSI) over the 26 selected have a discriminant wavelength which is not in this spectral range. More precisely, the discriminant wavelength is located in the SWIR and all concerned vegetation indices are linked to the water status. Further investigations should be conducted on the extraction or the reduction of features of this spectral range to understand why this domain gave sometimes worse results than spectral vegetation indices depending on the vegetation type.

 Among the three methods, the best results are obtained considering a specific spectral domain [350–1350 nm with RLR regardless the transformed spectral signatures and the size of the training size (overall accuracy ranges from 81.47 % to 96.36 %). However, it should be of interest to apply feature reduction methods usually applied on remote sensing (such as PCA or MNF) to see it results are improved or specific spectral wavelength can be selected.

 To our knowledge, although not popular in remote sensing for classifying (but already used for feature selection), RLR classifier achieves best overall classification accuracy whether applied to the spectral vegetation indices selected by the Hellinger distance (77.21 %) on the [350–1350 nm] domain (83.84 %) considering training $size = 25\%$.

 Furthermore, this study showed that CRDR gave encouraging results event if it is slightly below those obtained by the first derivative and the second derivative considering RLR classifier.

 Considering the habitats, some vegetation types were more easily separated. For instance, JUCO had the best F1-score with the spectral vegetation indices selected by the Hellinger distance (94.83 %) or on the [350–1350 nm] (95.24 %) with RLR and the training size = 25 %. In some case this specific spectral domain gave

better results (F1-score = 92.21 % whereas with spectral vegetation indices F1-score = 64.72 % for SALI) while in

 other case, the spectral vegetation indices gave better results (F1-score = 91.12 % whereas F1-score = 82.80 % for SPHA). As mentioned earlier, reducing feature space have to be investigated to see if a particular feature space exists that can discriminate and classify all vegetation types or if we need to consider either spectral vegetation

 indices or a specific spectral domain depending on the vegetation type to classify. Although all the results strongly depended on the current dataset, this study illustrated promising methods for classifying peatland vegetation types using *in situ* hyperspectral measurements. The next step concerns the 537 application or adaptation of those methods to airborne hyperspectral imageries with high spatial resolution acquired on September 2014 (simultaneously with *in situ* measurements). With the objective of evaluating the benefits of airborne or spaceborne sensors with a lower spectral resolution a lower signal-to-noise ratio, these conclusions may change. For that purpose, some indices (involving wavelengths lower than 480 nm) will not be used because of the camera spectral range sensitivity and some transformed spectral signatures such as second derivative will neither be used because of signal-to-noise ratio. Similarly, the first derivative transformation is very sensitive to the noise coming from the instrument but also from the atmosphere correction and thus can lead to degrade its performance...

 Additional imageries acquired in October 2012 and July 2013 would allow us to test these methods with spectral signatures extracted from the ancillary dataset. Multi-temporal analysis could also be conducted to discriminate vegetation types thanks to the phenological changes. This step would be of interest to evaluate the

robustness of spectral measurements, spectral vegetation indices and classifiers selected previously from *in situ*

hyperspectral measurements to airborne data.

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⁵⁵³ **Appendix A. Composition of vegetation types**

Table A.1. Presence (+) and actual cover percentage of plant species collected on Bernadouze peatbog (Ariège, France) by Florence MAZIER & Nicolas DE MUNIK (09/04/2014 & 09/11/2014).

⁵⁵⁴ **Appendix B. Data from vegetation types**

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Figure B.1. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Sphagnum* sp. (SPHA).

Figure B.2. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Sphagnum* sp. (SPHA).

Sphagnum sp. (SPHA)

Calluna vulgaris (CAVU)

Figure B.3. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Calluna vulgaris* (CAVU).

Figure B.4. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Calluna vulgaris* (CAVU).

Eleocharis quinqueflora (ELQU)

Figure B.5. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Eleocharis quinqueflora* (ELQU).

Figure B.6. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Eleocharis quinqueflora* (ELQU).

Pinguicula sp. (PING)

Figure B.7. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Pinguicula* sp. (PING).

Figure B.8. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Pinguicula* sp. (PING).

Menyanthes trifoliata (METR)

Figure B.9. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Menyanthes trifoliata* (METR).

Figure B.10. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Menyanthes trifoliata* (METR).

Juniperus communis (JUCO)

Figure B.11. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Juniperus communis* (JUCO).

Figure B.12. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Juniperus communis* (JUCO).

Rhododendron ferrugineum (RHFR)

Figure B.13. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Rhododendron ferrugineum* (RHFR).

Figure B.14. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Rhododendron ferrugineum* (RHFR).

Salix sp. (SALI)

Figure B.15. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Salix* sp. (SALI).

Figure B.16. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Salix* sp. (SALI).

Aquatic type a (AQ_A)

Figure B.17. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of Aquatic type a (AQ_A).

Figure B.18. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of Aquatic type a (AQ_A).

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Aquatic type b (AQ_B)

Figure B.19. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of Aquatic type b (AQ_B).

Figure B.20. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of Aquatic type b (AQ_B).

Aquatic type c (AQ_C)

Figure B.21. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of Aquatic type c (AQ_C).

Figure B.22. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of Aquatic type c (AQ_C).

Carex sp. homogeneous vegetation (CA_HV)

Figure B.23. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Carex* sp. homogeneous vegetation (CA_HV).

Figure B.24. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Carex* sp. homogeneous vegetation (CA_HV).

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Pinguicula sp. combined vegetation (PI_CV)

Figure B.25. Location of the *in situ* spectroradiometer measurements for the plots of *Pinguicula* sp. combined vegetation (PI_CV).

Figure B.26. Mean reflectance (*µ*) and standard deviation (*σ*) of *Pinguicula* sp. combined vegetation (PI_CV).

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