

# Rapid land cover classification using a 36-year time series of multi-source remote sensing data

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# Type of the Paper (Article) Rapid land cover classification using a 36-year time series of multi-source remote sensing data

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Abstract: Long-time series land cover classification information is the basis for scientific research on 14 urban sprawl, vegetation change, and the carbon cycle. The rapid development of cloud computing 15 platforms such as the Google Earth Engine (GEE) and access to multi-source satellite imagery from 16 Landsat and Sentinel-2 enables the application of machine learning algorithms for image classifica-17 tion. Here, we used the Random Forest algorithm to quickly achieve a time series land cover classi-18fication at different scales based on the fixed land classification sample points selected from images 19 acquired in 2022, and the year-by-year spectral differences of sample points. The classification ac-20 curacy was enhanced by using multi-source remote sensing data, such as synthetic aperture radar 21 (SAR) and digital elevation model (DEM) data. The results showed that: (i) the maximum difference 22 (threshold) of sample points without land class change determined by counting the sample points 23 of each band of landsat time series from 1986 to 2022 was 0.25; (ii) the kappa coefficient and observed 24 accuracy of the same sensor from Landsat 8 are higher than the results of TM and ETM+ sensor data 25 from 2013 to 2022; (iii) the addition of a mining land cover type increase the kappa coefficient and 26 overall accuracy mean values of the Sentinel 2 image classification for a complex mining and forest 27 area. Among the land classifications by multi-source remote sensing, the combined variables spec-28 tral band + index + topography + SAR result in the highest accuracy, but the overall improvement 29 is limited. The method proposed is applicable to remotely sensed images at different scales and 30 using sensors under complex terrain conditions. The use of GEE cloud computing platform enabled 31 rapid analysis of remotely sensed data to produce land cover maps with high-accuracy and a long 32 time series. 33

Keywords: Google Earth Engine; sample migration; land classification; multi-source remote sens-34ing; spontaneous forest; machine learning; AI Earth.35

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# 1. Introduction

Land cover classification is important to enable detailed studies of temporal and spa-38tial environmental change, land resource management and sustainable development [1,2].39Changes in land cover can affect carbon (C) balance; for example, a study in Shandong40Province, China showed that between 2010 to 2020 land cover change resulted in the loss41of  $106 \times 10^4$  t C stored in vegetation [3].42

Classification of land cover is usually based on natural geographic features such as 43 vegetation type, climatic conditions and topographic features that enable the construc-

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**Copyright:** © 2023 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). tion of different types of thematic classification e.g., urban land [4], biogeoclimatic ecosys-45 tems [5], and forest types [6]. Land classification methods traditionally rely on historical 46 data of land classification and field observations than can require a large amount of time 47 and resources to process as image-based land classification was mainly achieved through 48 visual interpretation of photogrammetry. Subsequently, the availability of remotely 49 sensed data enabled land classification based on statistically analysis of spectral features 50 extracted from image pixels [7]. As the availability and diversity of multi-source remote 51 sensing data has increased there have been opportunities to greatly improve the accuracy 52 of land classification. 53

Remote sensing has an important role in determining land cover types as multi-sen-55 sor-derived waveband information can be used to classify land use cover quickly and re-56 producibly at different temporal and spatial scales [8]. For example, Tadese et al. [9] used 57 remote sensing data as a basis for analyzing and understanding the long-term dynamics 58 of land use and land cover change in the Awash River Basin. Remote sensing imagery can 59 also be used to generate macro-time-series land cover datasets for a region, country or 60 even globally. An example is the Global Land Cover 30 series (GlobeLand30) dataset, 61 which consists of ten primary land cover classes i.e., water bodies, wetland, artificial sur-62 faces, cultivated land, permanent snow/ice, forest, shrubland, grassland, bareland and 63 tundra [10]. The release of GlobeLand30 provides a database for large-scale land cover 64 change studies and has been used for large regional-scale studies [11]. Whilst the above 65 studies demonstrate the value of land classification at the spatial scale, the datasets are 66 only available for specific years and are not regularly updated as the spectral characteris-67 tics of land cover or landscape features can vary interannually. As a result, sample points 68 selected for analysis in one year are not optimal for other years, which can create issues 69 related to training datasets and model migratability [12]. To resolve this limitation, a sam-70 ple point migration approach was developed that enables migration of classification 71 thresholds for a feature from a single chronology to a long-time series dataset [13]. 72

Google Earth Engine (GEE) has been recognized as a powerful tool for processing 73 large-scale Earth observation data, with the ability to access and process large amounts of 74 multi-source, multi-scale and time series remote sensing data via a cloud platform [14]. 75 GEE provides access to a variety of datasets in an integrated system, including various 76 satellite image sources, geophysical data, climate data, and demographic data that facili-77 tates the use of time series and multi-source datasets for land cover mapping [15,16]. For 78 example, Sidhu et al. [17] accessed the GEE platform's utility in processing raster and vec-79 tor image manipulations for spatio-temporal analysis of urban and wetland land cover 80 types in two subregions of Singapore, affirming the spatio-temporal analysis capabilities 81 of GEE. However, most existing studies focus on one land cover type or generate land 82 cover maps for certain areas at specific times of image collection. As a result, these studies 83 often find it difficult to incorporate long-time series datasets. The utility of GEE for land 84 cover detection using annual Landsat derived normalized difference vegetation index 85 time-series data was demonstrated by Huang et al. [18] to create a dynamic map of land 86 cover change in Beijing over a 30-year period with an overall accuracy of 86.61% 87

The mulit-petabyte curated catalogue of geospatial datasets available in GEE permits 88 and improves classification results by reducing the likelihood of dataset gaps and uncer-89 tainty through the provision of multiple sources of data [19]. Multi-source remote sensing 90 data is particularly effective at improving the efficiency of land cover classification as the 91 data fusion and integration of spectral, spatio-temporal, and thermal information from 92 multiple sensors can improves the accuracy of classification [20]. For example, Li et al. [21] 93 generated a land cover map of the entire African continent at a resolution of 10 m using a 94 combination of Sentinel-2, Landsat-8, Nighttime Light and MODIS data. 95

Machine learning algorithms such as maximum likelihood [22], support vector machines [23], random forest (RF) [24] are recognized as accurate and effective methods of 97

analyzing large-dimensional and complex spatio-temporal data when compared to tradi-98 tional parametric algorithms [25]. Selection of a good classification method is a key factor 99 in the classification process that is dependent on the analysis objectives; for example, RF 100 is one of the most frequently used supervised machine learning methods due to its high 101 efficiency and accuracy in identifying single-class elements such as urban number space 102 [26] in remotely sensed imagery as well as its ability to distinguish between multiple land 103 types [27,28], time series data [29] and complex farming areas [30]. The improvement of 104 machine learning methods to achieve efficient, fast, and accurate land classification for 105 long time series remains the focus of research. 106

In this study, we implemented the RF classifier in GEE to perform time series land 107 classification at different spatial scales with Landsat-8 and Sentinel-2 datasets for the veg-108 etation growing season in 2022. Our overarching aim was to use different land classifica-109 tion models constructed using multi-source remote sensing variables to establish an effi-110 cient, accurate, and general land classification model for time series datasets, and to iden-111 tify land classification sample points and migration thresholds based on the differences in 112 sample point image values without land classification changes. Our objectives were to: (1) 113 determine the threshold value of sample point migration based on no change in land class; 114 (2) analyse the accuracy of the land classification model produced using a 36-year time 115 series of Landsat remote sensing imagery and high-precision Sentinel imagery based on 116 threshold values; (3) determine the optimal RF land classification model based on differ-117 ent combinations of multi-source remote sensing variables and compare the impact of im-118 age resolution on the classification accuracy. 119

#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1. Study area

Shanxi Province is located within the Loess Plateau and the Yellow River Basin 122 (N34°34'-40°44', E110°14'-114°33') and occupies a total area of 156,700 km<sup>2</sup>. Mountains ac-123 count for more than 80% of the total surface of the region with the topography highest in 124 the northeast and lowest in the southwest, with an average altitude of 1,500 m. Shanxi 125 Province is an important coal energy base in China, with the retained reserves of coal 126 resources reaching 270.9 billion metric tons. At the same time, Shanxi Province contains 127 seven national nature reserves and is an important ecological barrier between mining ac-128 tivities and the Yellow River Basin. Within the Jinzhong Coal Base of Shanxi Province, the 129 Huodong National Coal Planning Area covers a total area of 4,110 km<sup>2</sup>. The region is 130 widely forested and includes the Taiyue Mountain National Forest Park that is an intimate 131 mix of mining and forestry operations. The study area and land classification sample sites 132 are shown in Figure 1. 133

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**Figure 1.** Overview of the study area. (a) Landsat 8 RGB image of Shanxi province in 2022, the red outline is the huodong mining area. (b) Sentinel-2 RGB image of Huodong mining area in 2022.

#### 2.2. Data sources

The Landsat series of satellites collect data at a resolution of 30 m and have been 138 providing fundamental data for long-time series scientific research on a global scale since 139 their launch in 1972. In this study remotely sensed data from 1<sup>st</sup> June 2022 to 31<sup>st</sup> August 140 2022 was used to capture the spectral reflectance of vegetation and assist in identification 141 and extraction of information on land cover types, such as forests and grasslands, while 142 effectively distinguishing bare ground and other landscape features. 143

Sentinel-2 satellite data offers 13 spectral bands, which include four 10 m, six 20 m, 144 and three 60 m spatial resolution bands. MultiSpectral Instrument (MSI), Level-1C data is 145 the standard of the Sentinel-2 archive and represents the top of the atmosphere (TOA) 146 reflectance. Sentinel-2 imagery is commonly used to monitor land use and land cover 147 change on a global scale and is designed to provide high-resolution, multispectral remote 148 sensing data for monitoring surface change and environmental conditions. 149

In addition to the above images, we used the NASA digital elevation model (DEM) 150 and Sentinel-1 synthetic aperture radar (SAR) as multi-source remote sensing images for 151 land classification. All the multi-source remote sensing images involved in land classification are shown in Table 1. 153

The workflow of this analysis was comprised of four phases described below: (1) preprocessing acquired imagery; (2) sample point threshold acquisition; (3) land classification; 155 and (4) accuracy assessment (Figure 2). 156

Table 1. Multi-source remote sensing image data at two different resolutions used in this analysis. 157

Name	Earth Engine Snippet	Date	Resolution
Landsat 5	LANDSAT/LT05/C02/T1_L2	"1984-03-16"- "2012-05-05"	30 m
Landsat 7	LANDSAT/LE07/C02/T1_L2	"1999-05-28" -	30 m
Landsat 8	LANDSAT/LC08/C02/T1_L2	"2013-03-18"-	30 m

Sentinel 1	COPERNICUS/S1_GRD	"2014-10-03"-	10 m
Sentinel 2	COPERNICUS/S2	"2015-06-23" -	10 m
DEM	NASA/NASADEM_HGT/001	"2000-02-11"	30 m

#### 2.3. Image pre-processing

The pre-processing of optical remote sensing images included image stitching, de-159 clouding, mosaicking, and cropping. In particular, the image de-clouding methods all re-160 move clouds and cloud shadow elements by calling the QA quality bands of Landsat and 161 Sentinel-2 data and operating the mask bit by bit. The mosaic processes of the images were 162 both fused using the median method, which in turn resulted in the Landsat series of im-163 ages from 1986–2022 and Sentinel-2 remote sensing images of vegetation growing seasons from 2019-2022, respectively.

The Sentinel-1 polarized data GEE has officially undergone ground range detection 166 (GRD) boundary noise removal, thermal noise removal, radiometric calibration, and radi-167 ometric correction processes. In this study, the VV and VH polarization bands in the interferometric wide swath (IW) mode, which is suitable for remote sensing studies of land surfaces, were selected. The DEM data were reprojected and resampled to extract varia-170 bles such as elevation, slope, and aspect as topographic factors to participate in the con-171 struction of the land classification model. 172



Figure 2. Flowchart of land classification method based on machine learning methods and multisource remote sensing variables. It consists of four parts: Data pre-processing, Sample migration, Land classification, and Accuracy assessment.

#### 2.4. Sample point selection

The land classification of Shanxi Province was divided into six types: forest land, 178 grassland, arable land, bare land, water bodies, and impervious surfaces. Additionally, a 179 mining land type was added to the land classification system to account for the Huodong 180 mining area and to assist in the differentiation of the mining and forest in the Taiyue 181 Mountain National Forest Park complex area. 182

Fixed sample points for different land classifications were selected by importing the 183 sample points into Google Earth to determine the accuracy of the sample points by com-184 paring high-resolution remote sensing images. A total of 1507 sample points from Landsat 185 imagery and 1235 sample points from Sentinel imagery were selected. 70% of the sample 186

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points were used as training sample points and 30% as validation sample points in the lassification process, the specific land classification sample points are shown in Table 2.

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Image	Commission		fication	T-1-1					
	Samples	Forest	Water	Crop	Grass	Building	Bare	Mining	Total
Landsat	Training	139	104	227	176	274	135	0	1055
	Validation	59	44	97	76	118	58	0	452
Sentinel	Training	150	29	160	141	195	21	168	864
	Validation	65	12	69	60	84	9	72	371

 Table 2. Number of sample points for each land classification.

### 2.5. Technical method

#### 2.5.1. Sample Migration

Spectral features and indices are common methods used to analyze remotely sensed 192 imagery. Spectral features are calculated from ratios or differences between reflectance or 193 emissivity in different bands of the remotely sensed image. These features and indices can 194 be used to extract feature information, monitor vegetation cover, and monitor water qual-195 ity, among other things. In this study, the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index 196 (NDVI), Normalized Difference Built-up Index (NDBI), Normalized Difference Water In-197 dex (NDWI), and Difference Vegetation Index (DVI) were used to calculate the difference 198 in values between forest, grassland, and cropland, respectively, from year to year, and 199 NDBI and DVI were used to calculate the difference between built-up (working) land and 200 bare land. The spectral characteristics of unchanged land types are counted over a number 201 of years so that a reasonable range of thresholds can be determined. In the GEE, the 202 ee.spectralDistance() function was used for image difference statistics. The main purpose 203 of this function is to compute the per-pixel spectral distance between two images. 204

#### 2.5.2. Random Forest algorithm

Random Forest was used to train a decision tree with randomly selected samples and206features from the data set, with the results of the decision trees are assessed to obtain a207combined result. The advantage of using the RF algorithm is that it avoids the problem of208overfitting and is reliable for handling data such as missing values and outliers.209

#### 2.5.3. Feature Model Construction

Comparison of single and multi-source remote sensing variables was conducted by 211 combining different dimensions of remote sensing variables to investigate their influence 212 on land classification results. Four remote sensing feature variables were selected: spectral 213 band, spectral index, topographic features, and SAR data with the specific variable factors 214 shown in Table 3. In the construction of the multi-source remote sensing variables, five 215 combinations of spectral band, spectral band + spectral index, spectral band + SAR, spec-216 tral band + spectral index + SAR, and spectral band + spectral index + terrain features + 217 SAR were used, respectively. 218

Table 3. Multi-source remote sensing variables feature variables.

Multi-source remote sensing image	Variable factors
Spectral Band	Blue, Green, Red, Nir, Swir1, Swir2
Spectral Index	NDVI, NDBI, NDWI, RVI, DVI
Terrain	Elevation, Slope, Aspect
SAR	HH, HV

2.5.4. Accuracy Assessment

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Accuracy of the classification results was determined by calculating the Overall Accuracy (OA) as the ratio of correctly classified number of samples to the total number of samples, which is a common measure of classifier performance. The Kappa coefficient is a statistic used to measure the agreement between classifiers or evaluators. It can be used to assess the agreement between two evaluators on a classification task. Kappa coefficient values range from -1 to 1, with higher values indicating better agreement. 227

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Determination of thresholds

A total of 180 sample points without land classification change were selected by com-230 paring remote sensing images of the same period from 1986 to 2022 that used 30 sample 231 points per land cover class and included data from each spectral band (Blue, Green, Red, 232 Swir1, Swir2) and spectral indices (NDVI, NDBI, NDW) for each point year by year to 233 obtain the maximum and minimum value range (Table 4). The results show that Landsat 234 can vary somewhat in the image bands between bands and indices, but the fluctuation 235 range is between 0.01 and 0.25. The variation between land classes indicated that water 236 bodies are the most stable followed by grasslands; the bands associated with forests fluc-237 tuated more in the NDVI and NDWI indices. The final upper threshold value for land 238 classification sample points was set at 0.25 for Landsat long-time series land classification. 239

#### **Table 4.** Threshold information of each band for sample points without land class change.

D 1		Landcover									
band	Forest	Water	Crop	Grassland	Building	Bare					
Blue	0.13	0.07	0.12	0.11	0.15	0.04					
Green	0.08	0.08	0.12	0.09	0.12	0.08					
Red	0.02	0.05	0.06	0.04	0.15	0.11					
Swir1	0.13	0.07	0.18	0.04	0.25	0.24					
Swir2	0.06	0.05	0.10	0.02	0.21	0.19					
NDVI	0.25	0.07	0.20	0.13	0.12	0.11					
NDBI	0.04	0.03	0.23	0.08	0.01	0.02					
NDWI	0.23	0.05	0.12	0.04	0.15	0.09					
DVI	0.14	0.01	0.19	0.01	0.02	0.02					

#### 3.2. Land classification of Landsat imagery

Land cover classification using Landsat remote sensing images from 1986-2022 was 242 conducted using the sample point migration threshold of 0.25 and the accuracy assessed 243 using OA and kappa coefficient with the number of migrated sample points were counted 244 (Figure 3). The results show that the classification accuracy of the images was highest in 245 the years closer to the 2022 fixed land classification, while the difference between kappa 246 coefficient and OA became larger as the number of years from the 2022 initial land classi-247 fication sample points increased. However, the overall land classification accuracy re-248 mained high, with the lowest kappa coefficient being 0.60 and the lowest OA being 0.75 249 in 1999. The number of classification sample points decreases as the number of years from 250 2022 increases, with the migrated sample point data remaining stable at 900, which ac-251 counts for approximately 60% of the original number of sample points. It is noteworthy, 252 that differences between Landsat TM/ETM and OIL sensor technology can explain the 253 lower accuracy of results from the start of the study 1986 until 2012. 254



Figure 3. 1986-2022 Landsat land classification and sample sites. The y-axis on the left of the figure represents the accuracy of Kappa coefficient and Overall accuracy, and the y-axis on the right rep-257 resents the number of sample points of land classification.

#### 3.3. Land classification of sentinel-2 images

To verify the generality of this paper among different remote sensing images and its 260 reproducibility under complex terrain conditions, we selected the Huodong national planning mining area in Shanxi Province with complex terrain conditions as the study area and added a mining class to the land classification system for Sentinel-2 high-resolution remote sensing images from 2019 to 2022. The land cover classification accuracies in different threshold ranges (0.1 - 0.4) were assessed separately by counting each waveband 265 for different years of the land class (Table 5). The results show that the land classification 266 accuracy is higher when the threshold value of training sample point migration is set in the range of 0.20 - 0.30 and the number of sample points for year-by-year land classification after threshold screening is maintained at about 70% of the original number, which 269 can meet the number of sample points required for land classification to a greater extent. 270 At the same time, the kappa coefficients between 2019 – 2021 are stable around 0.90, while 271 the OA is also all around 0.91. 272

Table 5. Land classification accuracies for different thresholds in 2019-2021

		20	019	2020		2021		
Thresh- old	Method	Accu- racy	Num- ber of Sam- ples	Accu- racy	Num- ber of Sam- ples	Accu- racy	Number of Sam- ples	
0.1	Kappa	0.333	19	0.639	56	0.582	11	
	OA	0.500	17	0.923	00	0.684		
0.15	Kappa	0.707	108	0.644	160	0.867	70	
0.15	OA	0.818	100	0.792	100	0.896	70	
0.20	Kappa	0.829	560	0.910	681	0.935	556	
0.20	OA	0.874	500	0.949	001	0.941	556	
0.25	Kappa	0.884	967	0.886	056	0.914	901	
0.25	OA	0.907	003	0.908	930	0.931		

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0.30	Kappa	0.901	1028	0.914	1004	0.870	1055
	OA	0.919	1028	0.931	1094	0.910	1055
0.25	Kappa	0.882	1110	0.921	1157	0.889	1122
0.33	OA	0.903	1112	0.904	1137	0.876	1152
0.40	Kappa	0.846	1172	0.891	1102	0.926	1176
	OA	0.875	1175	0.905	1193	0.893	1176

#### 3.4. Multi-source remote sensing images for land classification

### 3.4.1. Sentinel-2 multi-source remote sensing land classification

A combination of multi-source remote sensing variables improved the model accu-277 racy of land classification (Table 6 ; Figure 4), and the model accuracy is improved with 278 an increase of different variables, especially the combination of spectral band + index + 279 SAR + The combination model of feature variables and terrain has the best effect (Table 6 280 ; Figure 4). In 2019, for example, the kappa coefficient eventually increased from 0.863 for 281 a single spectral band to 0.910 for Spectral band + index + Terrain + SAR, whilst the OA 282 also increased from 0.888 to 0.927 for the sample variable combinations. In addition, com-283 pared to the 2022 participation in land classification accuracy, the sample points after 284 threshold screening can be used to eliminate the misclassification of sample points in the 285 selection process, so that the 2019–2021 land classification accuracy is better than the 2022 286 land classification accuracy. 287

 Table 6. Land classification accuracy of sentinel-2 multi-source remote sensing variables in 2019-2022

Variable combinations	2019		2020		2021		2022	
variable combinations	Kappa	OA	Kappa	OA	Kappa	OA	Kappa	OA
Spectral band	0.863	0.888	0.877	0.900	0.867	0.893	0.860	0.887
Spectral Band + Index	0.874	0.907	0.878	0.900	0.867	0.892	0.883	0.905
Spectral band + SAR	0.866	0.890	0.878	0.901	0.907	0.924	0.875	0.896
Spectral band + Index + SAR	0.903	0.915	0.913	0.929	0.896	0.916	0.900	0.915
Spectral band + index + Terrain + SAR	0.910	0.927	0.880	0.903	0.921	0.936	0.889	0.919

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Figure 4. Sentinel-2 8 Land Classification in 2019. (a) spectral band (b) Spectral Band + Index (3)291Spectral band + SAR (d) Spectral band + Index + SAR (e) Spectral band + index + Terrain + SAR292

3.4.2. Landsat multi-source remote sensing land classification

The land classification accuracy of Landsat-8 (Table 7; Figure 5) with various combinations of variables is lower than those of multi-source remote sensing land classification based on Sentinel-2 imagery. In 2022, for example, the highest land classification accuracy is achieved with the combination of spectral band + index + SAR, and the model combination of spectral band + SAR is better than spectral band + index. 2019 and 2020 have the best accuracy for the full variable combination, while the best variable combination for 2021 and 2022 is spectral band + index + SAR. 300

**Table 6.** Landsat 8 multi-source remote sensing variable land classification accuracy for the years3012019-2022302

Variable combinations	2019		2020		2021		2022	
variable combinations	Kappa	OA	Kappa	OA	Kappa	OA	Kappa	OA
Spectral band	0.833	0.864	0.828	0.864	0.836	0.869	0.881	0.903
Spectral band + Index	0.837	0.868	0.835	0.866	0.851	0.879	0.828	0.861
Spectral band + SAR	0.848	0.877	0.870	0.896	0.846	0.876	0.882	0.903
Spectral band + Index + SAR	0.831	0.864	0.866	0.894	0.871	0.894	0.917	0.933
Spectral band + Index + Terrain + SAR	0.872	0.897	0.892	0.913	0.848	0.878	0.900	0.919

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**Figure 5.** Landsat-8 Land Classification in 2019. (a) spectral band (b) Spectral Band + Index (3) Spectral band + SAR (d) Spectral band + Index + SAR (e) Spectral band + index + Terrain + SAR.

## 3.4.3. Comparative analysis of the accuracy of land classification products

Landsat 8 and Sentinel-2 remote sensing images of land classification results in 2020 307 are shown in Table 7, in Huodong mining area forest and grassland area as a whole accounted for about 80% of the whole area, of which forest land accounted for about 40% of 309 the whole study area, the coal mine area accounted for about 1.5% of the whole study area, 310 and the water and bare ground area is only between 0.2%-0.3%. 311

Table 7. Land classification results of different remote sensing images in 2020

Land Classification		Landsat	Sentinel		
	Area (km2)	Percentage of total area (%)	Area (km2)	Percentage of total area (%)	
Forest	1187.62	40.43	1163.98	39.68	
Water	7.05	0.24	6.22	0.21	
Crop	486.41	16.69	536.17	18.28	
Grass	1161.89	39.55	1139.87	38.85	
Building	48.11	1.64	48.77	1.66	
Bare	8.29	0.28	8.00	0.27	
Minging	34.41	1.17	34.58	1.18	

Three high-resolution land classification products from 2022 were obtained for the 313 comparison of forested land classification results at resolutions ranging from 10 to 30 m 314

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(Table 8). However, notably, in the list of classification products shown in Table 8 the
JAXA/ALOS/PALSAR/YEARLY/FNF4 products does contain both forest and non-forest
land classes. Despite this subtle difference in classification procedure and imagery resolution, the area of forested land ranged from 1136.74 to 1418.27 km<sup>2</sup> with both the highest
and lowest area estimates being produced at 10 m resolution.

Table 8. Comparative analysis of forested land classification products in 2022

Earth Engine Snippet	Resolution (m)	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )
ESA/WorldCover/v100	10	1418.27
GOOGLE/DYNAMICWORLD/V1	10	1136.74
JAXA/ALOS/PALSAR/YEARLY/FNF4	25	1147.41
LANDSAT/LC08/C02/T1_L2	30	1187.62
COPERNICUS/S2_SR	10	1163.98

### 4. Discussion

In this study the utility of the GEE cloud computing platform for building land cover 322 classification models using multiple sources of Landsat and Sentinel remote sensing im-323 agery at different spatial resolution over a 36-year time series was assessed. High accuracy 324 spatiotemporal land cover classification maps can help to reveal the impact of human ac-325 tivities such as coal mining and urban expansion on land use over time that could enhance 326 our understanding of the impact of population growth, changes in demography and pro-327 vide an evidence-base to facilitate future government policy decisions; for example accu-328 rate assessments to the spatiotemporal changes in forest C stocks in the context of C ac-329 counting and net zero targets [31]. 330

Cloud computing platforms such as GEE, PIE-Engine and AI Earth have improved 331 access to high-performance computing necessary to process large and complex datasets 332 and facilitated an increase in both the speed and accuracy of land cover classification. The 333 approach used in this study was to use the GEE platform to conduct classification based 334 on sample point migration and determine the sample point threshold value required to 335 detect land cover classification change. The selection of sample points migration method 336 has the advantage of not needing to choose new sample points for each time period image 337 and thereby the efficiency of the classification process is improved [32]. 338

Fusion of multi-source remote sensing data into composite data products has been 339 shown to improved accuracy of land cover classification [33]. In this study, when as-340 sessing the classification of both Landsat and Sentinel multispectral images differences in 341 the classification for crops and grassland were apparent because the imagery obtained for 342 the vegetative growing season did not have substantial differences in the image spectra 343 between grassland and crops. This finding supports the requirement for multi-sources of 344 remotely sensed images obtained with different sensors (e.g., SAR and multispectral data 345 available in Landsat and Sentinel series of images) to accurately classify land cover. 346

In our comparison of publicly available land classification products (Table 8), the 347 land classification results for forested land ranged between 1136.74 and 1418.27 km<sup>2</sup> for 348 the Google and ESA products respectively, which is broadly consistent with our own classification of forest land area. The higher estimation of forested land area by the ESA product is likely due to the inclusion of sparse forest land in the classification of forested land, 351 whereas the variance between the other four products is only 50.88 km<sup>2</sup> despite differences 352 in image resolution. 353

Land cover classification based on the non-parametric RF algorithm is able to handle 354 multi-dimensional and non-linear data sources whilst also removing the requirement for 355

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a balanced number of individual sample points [34] unlike the non-parametric minimum 356 distance, maximum likelihood and Bayesian classification methods. The combination of 357 multi-source remote sensing data and the RF method has been shown to perform land 358 cover classification effectively and accurately. Random forest methods of land cover classification have generated higher accuracy outputs compared to other non-parametric machine learning methods such as support vector machine and artificial neural network 361 [35,36].

Generation of accurate land cover maps over a 36-year period has several challenges 363 relating to the detection of land cover change and technological advances. Sensor technol-364 ogy is continually evolving which has improved the diversity, quality, and quantity of 365 remote sensing datasets available for analysis. The difference in satellite sensors between 366 Landsat-8 Operational Land Imager (OLI) and Sentinel-2 MultiSpectral Instrument (MSI) 367 did not have a large impact on the land cover classification results of the same area despite 368 the higher resolution of the Sentinel-2 acquired datasets, which, in theory, should facilitate 369 more accurate land cover classification and reduce the misclassification of features and 370 reduce the necessity to filter imagery [37,38]. However, the fusion of multi-source re-371 mote sensing datasets that incorporate textural features [39] has resulted in greater im-372 provements in classifications than relying on the increased image resolution. For example, 373 fusion of datasets from different sensors has been shown to improve accuracy of land 374 classification [40], forest biomass estimation [41] and natural disaster monitoring [42]. The 375 complex topography and forest species composition and density in the typical mountain-376 ous mining area used in the study demonstrated that effective integration of topographic 377 features such as elevation and slope can be more conducive to distinguishing forests from 378 buildings and crops. 379

#### 5. Conclusions

The GEE remote sensing cloud platform was used for rapid land cover classification 381 using Landsat 5, 7, 8, and Sentinel-2 remotely sensed images with a time series spanning 382 36 years. Single sample point migration was used to produce a time series land cover clas-383 sification map at both the provincial-regional scale and the scale of mining operations. 384 The final sample point migration threshold value that corresponded to no change in clas-385 sification was 0.25. The optimal combination of multi-source remote sensing variables 386 used to parameterize the RF machine learning algorithm was the spectral band + index + 387 terrain + SAR for both Landsat 8 and Sentinel-2 generated data. The RF model produced 388 a classification map with highest accuracy for the year 2022 using the Landsat 8 data with 389 an OA of 0.90 and Kappa coefficient of 0.919. Our analysis suggests that a higher accuracy 390 can be achieved when imagery with higher spatial and temporal resolution is used. Fur-391 ther work, assessing the collation of low-resolution remotely sensed imagery and machine 392 learning techniques will enable the assessment of a global-scale land cover classification 393 map over a long time series. As sensor technology develops, we expect the accuracy of 394 land cover classification will continue to improve enabling the future identification of land 395 cover classes not yet considered. 396

To aid visualisation and interpretation, a GEE-based Land Classification based on Spectral Differences (1984 - present) application was developed and is available at the following URL: https://bqt2000204051.users.earthengine.app/view/land-classification-oflandsat-imagery. The main purpose of this land classification program is to allow users to input a predetermined set of land classification points for a specific year, choose a designated threshold, and utilize the RF algorithm to classify land images from 1984 to the current year.

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Data Availability Statement: We encourage all authors of articles published in MDPI journals to416share their research data. In this section, please provide details regarding where data supporting417reported results can be found, including links to publicly archived datasets analyzed or generated418during the study. Where no new data were created, or where data is unavailable due to privacy or419ethical restrictions, a statement is still required. Suggested Data Availability Statements are available in section "MDPI Research Data Policies" at https://www.mdpi.com/ethics.421

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