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Supervised classification of plant communities with artificial neural networks

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Abstract

Questions: Are artificial neural networks useful for the automatic assignment of species composition records from vegetation plots to *a priori* established classes (vegetation units)? Is the assignment more accurate (1) if the classes are defined by numerical classification rather than by expert-based classification; (2) if the training data set is selected to include plots that are richer in diagnostic species of particular classes?

Material: Species composition records (relevés) from 4186 plots of Czech grasslands.

Methods: Plots were classified into 11 phytosociological alliances (expert classification) and into 11 clusters derived from numerical cluster analysis. Some plots were used for training the classifiers, which were the multi-layer perceptrons (MLP; a type of artificial neural network). Other plots were used for testing the performance of these classifiers. Plots used for training were selected (1) randomly; (2) according to higher representation of diagnostic species of particular classes.

Results: Different MLP classifiers correctly classified 77-83% of plots to the classes of the expert classification and 70-78% to the classes of the numerical classification. The better result in the former case was mainly due to two classes in the expert classification, which were well recognized by the classifiers and at the same time contained a large proportion of the plots of the entire data set. Correct classification of the plots belonging to these large classes resulted in a good overall performance of the classifiers. After training with randomly chosen plots, the classifiers produced better results than after training with plots that contained more diagnostic species. This indicates that the biased selection of the training plots disables the classifiers to recognize the entire variation within the classes and results in errors when new plots are to be classified.

Conclusions: MLP is suitable for assigning vegetation plots to already established classes. Unlike some other methods of supervised classification, it performs well even in communities that are poor in diagnostic species. However, the method does not provide clear assignment keys that could be used for class identification in field surveys. It is therefore more appropriate in applications that aim at a reliable class assignment rather than understanding the assignment rules.

Keywords: Cluster analysis; Grassland; Multi-layer perceptron; Phytosociological data; Predictive habitat modelling; Vegetation survey.

Abbreviations: MLP = Multi-layer perceptron.

Introduction

Community ecologists and vegetation scientists routinely use a range of numerical methods for classifying species-by-sites matrices (e.g. Legendre & Legendre 1998) in order to establish community types. Ejrnæs et al. (2004) emphasised an important dichotomy between unsupervised and supervised classifications, which is commonly applied in studies of vegetation patterns based on remote sensing (Ripley 1996), but is rarely used in the context of species-based community classifications. Unsupervised classifications include both agglomerative methods of cluster analysis and divisive methods such as TWINSPAN. These methods require a minimum input from the user and produce classes by searching for patterns in the analysed data set, without considering any external information. When classification is repeated after the addition of new data to the previously classified data set, serious changes may appear, including shifts in the cluster membership of the previously classified sites. This is a disadvantage, because every new classification exercise produces a new classification system that is difficult to compare both with the established standards of existing national or international classifications and with the results of other classification exercises (Bruelheide & Chytrý 2000). In addition, unsupervised classification methods do not include procedures for new sampling units to be assigned to the previously established classes.

By contrast, supervised classification methods are learning an established classification from a training data set, which contains predictor variables measured in each sampling unit and *a priori* class assignments of the sampling units. In this way a classifier is developed which can be used to assign new sampling units to classes. There are several methods suitable for the supervised classification of community composition data, e.g. quadratic discriminant analysis (Ejrnæs et al. 2004), multinomial log-linear regression, classification trees and artificial neural networks (Ripley 1996). In this paper, we will focus on the latter.

Artificial neural networks (Ripley 1996; Lek & Guégan 1999) are computational modelling tools inspired by the structure of the human brain. They learn from experience and recognize complex patterns, predict class membership or values of different variables. One advantage of artificial neural networks is their non-parametric nature, which makes them appropriate for the analysis of nearly any kind of data irrespective of their statistical properties. Artificial neural networks have frequently been reported as giving a more accurate prediction than other supervised methods (Cairns 2001; Liu et al. 2003), but at the expense of the interpretability of the results. They represent a black-box approach which hides the underlying prediction process.

Artificial neural networks consist of a number of units called neurons, which are arranged in layers. The simplest structure consists of an input layer and an output layer of neurons, but usually also one or more hidden layers are placed between the two (Fig. 1). The neurons are interconnected by coefficients called weights, which are successively modified when the network is in operation. After feeding values from the input data set, each neuron passes its given value to the connections leading out from it, and on each connection the value is multiplied by the weight associated with that connection. Each neuron in the next layer then receives a value which is the sum of the values produced by the connections leading to it, performs a simple computation using a predefined function, and delivers the value to the neurons in the next layer (Ripley 1996).

Currently the most popular types of artificial neural networks include the Kohonen network (also called 'self-organizing feature map'; Kohonen 1982) and the multi-layer perceptron (MLP; Rumelhart et al. 1986). The Kohonen network is an unsupervised method which identifies clusters in data; it can be applied to the analysis of species composition data in a similar way as cluster analysis or ordination (Chon et al. 1996; Foody 1999a; Brosse et al. 2001; Giraudel & Lek 2001). By contrast, MLP uses supervised learning and creates a classifier by fitting output values (responses) to input data (predictors) in the training data set. Subsequently, the trained classifier may be used to predict the output values for new cases that were not contained in the training data set.

In the context of vegetation classification, MLP has mainly been used for predictive modelling of the spatial distribution of vegetation or land-cover classes from remote sensing data (Paola & Schowengerdt 1995; Foody 1996; Zhang et al. 1997; Cairns 2001). It is rarely applied to community ecology, where it is potentially suitable for predictive modelling of e.g. species richness (Guégan et al. 1998), biomass or productivity (Lae et al. 1999), performance of dominant species (Tan & Smeins 1996) or conservation priority of habitats (Ejrnæs et al. 2002). MLP can be trained to recognize *a priori* classes from either environmental variables measured in each sampling site (Hirlbert & Ostendorf 2001), a combination of environmental variables and species composition (Liu et al. 2003; Zhang et al. 2004), or pure species composition (Ejrnæs et al. 2002).

The objective of this paper is to test the efficiency of the multi-layer perceptron as a tool for the supervised classification of species composition data in vegetation science. We will focus on comparing its performance when the *a priori* classification is based either on expert knowledge or cluster analysis, and when training is done either with a set of randomly selected sampling units or with a set of units that are considered as the best representatives of particular classes.

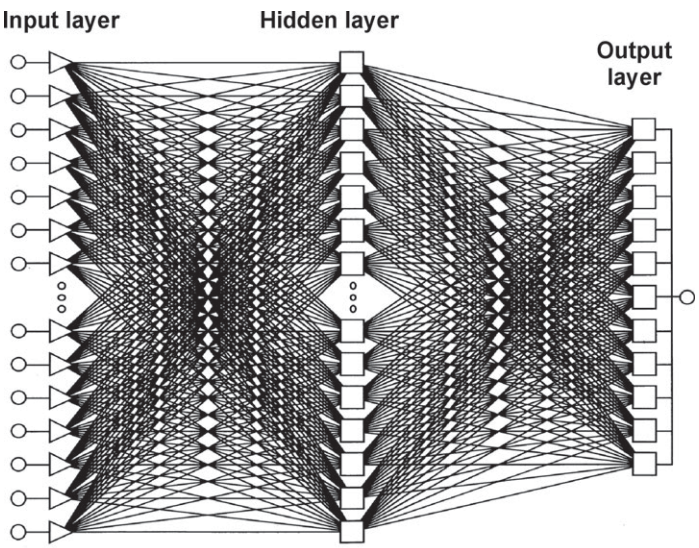

Fig. 1. Schematic architecture of the MLP network with one hidden layer, used to predict the assignment of vegetation plots to one of 11 classes. Input data are cover values of species; the number of neurons in the input layer (triangles) is equal or lower than the number of species in the data set. Output is the plot assignment to one of 11 classes.

Material and Methods

Data sets and a priori classifications

The basic data set used for developing MLP classifiers included 4186 plot records of species composition of semi-natural grasslands from the Czech Republic, taken from the Czech National Phytosociological Database (Chytrý & Rafajová 2003). As plots were irregularly distributed across the national territory, the selection of the data set was based on a geographically stratified resampling which deleted some randomly selected plots in oversampled areas. Plots < 4 m^2 and > 100 m^2 were excluded. To reduce noise in the data, the records of cryptogams, juvenile trees and species with less than five occurrences were deleted. After this reduction, 598 species were included in the analyses. Species cover values were transformed to the nine-degree ordinal scale (van der Maarel 1979).

We used two *a priori* classifications that were subsequently used to train and test the MLP classifier. The first classification ('*expert classification*') was a traditional phytosociological classification, entirely based on expert knowledge. We subdivided the data set of vegetation plots into 11 phytosociological alliances of the standard national vegetation classification (Moravec et al. 1995), using the alliance assignments given by the authors of the individual plot records. The ecologically and floristically closely related alliances *Cnidion* and *Veronico-Lysimachion*, which were represented by few plots, were merged. The second classification ('*numerical classification*') was prepared from the same data set using cluster analysis in the PC-ORD 4 program (McCune & Mefford 1999), with Euclidean

Table 1. Phytosociological and ecological interpretation of classes in expert and numerical classification, numbers of plots in the individual classes and subsets, and performances of the best MLP classifiers in each of the two variants of the selection of the training data set (i.e., either random or by diagnostic species). The best classifiers shown in this table are those marked by * in Table 2.

					Random selection				Selection by diagnostic species			
		No. of plots in the training data set	No. of plots in the test data set	Total no. of plots	No. of test plots assigned to the group by the MLP classifier	No. of test plots correctly assigned to the group by the MLP classifier	Sensitivity	Positive predictive power	No. of test plots assigned to the group by the MLP classifier	No. of test plots correctly assigned to the group by the MLP classifier	Sensitivity	Positive predictive power
Expert classification												
1	*Arrhenatherion* – mesic meadows	138	275	825	273	235	85	86	244	220	80	90
2	*Polygono-Trisetion* – montane mesic meadows	20	40	120	37	23	58	62	42	28	70	67
3	*Cynosurion* – mesic pastures	25	49	148	53	38	78	72	48	31	63	65
4	*Alopecurion* – subatlantic lowland wet meadows	45	89	268	84	55	62	65	138	65	73	47
5	*Calthion* – submontane wet meadows	328	655	1965	670	616	94	92	627	574	88	92
6	*Cnidion* – subcontinental lowland wet meadows	9	17	52	16	14	82	88	12	11	65	92
7	*Molinion* – meadows of wet, nutrient poor sites	70	140	420	136	91	65	67	156	95	68	61
8	*Nardion* – subalpine *Nardus* grasslands	9	18	54	14	9	50	64	15	11	61	73
9	*Violion* – submontane *Nardus* grasslands	36	72	216	67	49	68	73	60	42	58	70
10	*Nardo-Juncion* – wet *Nardus* grasslands	8	8	24	10	4	50	40	12	8	100	67
11	*Nardo-Agrostion* – montane *Nardus* grasslands	16	31	94	34	23	74	68	40	25	81	63
	Total	704	1394	4186	1394	1157	83	83	1394	1110	80	80
Numerical classification												
1	Mesic to moderately dry meadows (*Arrhenatherion*)	104	209	627	191	155	74	81	182	149	71	82
2	Submontane *Nardus* grasslands (*Violion*)	90	180	540	206	149	83	72	177	129	72	73
3	Montane heathlands and *Nardus* grasslands (*Nardetalia*)	44	87	263	86	74	85	86	86	68	78	79
4	Various types of mesic to wet meadows	84	168	505	158	114	68	72	186	124	74	67
5	Wet meadows on base-poor soils (*Calthion*)	60	120	360	108	81	68	75	103	79	66	77
6	Intermittently wet meadows on nutrient-poor soils (*Molinion*)	31	62	186	57	51	82	89	67	52	84	78
7	Various types of wet meadows	113	225	676	246	165	73	67	253	149	66	59
8	Montane meadows (*Polygono-Trisetion*)	15	29	89	31	27	93	87	31	26	90	84
9	*Cirsium rivulare* wet meadows (*Calthion*)	31	63	188	60	53	84	88	58	42	67	72
10	*Scirpus sylvaticus* wet meadows (*Calthion*)	52	104	313	117	94	90	80	123	91	88	74
11	*Filipendula ulmaria* wet meadows (*Calthion*)	73	147	439	134	121	82	90	128	110	75	86
	Total	697	1394	4186	1394	1084	78	78	1394	1019	73	73

distance and Ward clustering method. We accepted 11 clusters from the resulting dendrogram, in order to use the same number of classes as in the expert classification. Ecological and phytosociological interpretations of classes of both classifications are presented in Table 1 and details of species composition in Apps. 1 and 2.

From each of these two classified data sets we selected the *training data set* and the *selection data set*, which were further used for the development of the MLP classifier (see below), and the *test data set*, which was used to evaluate model performance. We used two alternative procedures for dividing plots of the basic data sets into training, selection and test data sets. The first procedure was the random selection of plots. In the second procedure we selected as training data the most typical plots of particular classes, in order to test the hypothesis that training with typical plots would improve the quality of prediction. As a criterion for the selection of typical plots we took the number of diagnostic species of the given class occurring in each plot. Diagnostic species for each class were determined by calculating the phi coefficient of association (Chytrý et al. 2002) between each species and each class. This coefficient ranges from –1 to +1, higher values meaning that the species is more associated with the given class and can therefore be considered as a diagnostic species of the class. To avoid the dependence of the phi coefficient on the relative size of the classes within the data set, we re-calculated this coefficient for the case of equal size of all classes, which was set to 10% of the entire data set size. This procedure enabled direct comparisons of the phi coefficients between the classes that contained unequal numbers of plots. The phi coefficients were calculated using the JUICE 6.3 program (Tichý 2002). We assigned diagnostic status to those species that exceeded the subjectively selected value of $\Phi = 0.25$. For each class, we first randomly selected 1/3 of its plots and assigned them to the test data set. Then we ranked the remaining plots within each class by decreasing number of diagnostic species, and excluded half of these plots, the one which was poorer in diagnostic species. The other half was further randomly divided into two halves, and one of them was used for the training data set and the other for the selection data set. Thus, the division of plots within each class followed the ratio 1 : 1 : 2 : 2 in turn for the training, selection and test data sets and excluded plots. For the sake of comparability, the same division ratio was used for the analyses based on the random selection. In one small class of the expert classification, where the training data set would contain only four plots after this division, we moved another four plots of this class from the selection data set to the training data set.

MLP classifiers for supervised classification

Supervised classification was performed with the multi-layer perceptron (MLP; Rumelhart et al. 1986) in the STATISTICA 7.0 program (www.statsoft.com). This artificial neural network comprises one input layer of neurons, at least one hidden layer and one output layer (Fig. 1). The maximum number of neurons it contains is determined by the number of input variables; in our case, the input layer could contain up to 598 neurons, each corresponding to one species in the data set. Each vector of input values contained species cover values in a particular plot. The hidden layers encode and organize the information received from the input layer and deliver it to the output layer. The output layer contains as many neurons as there are classes in the *a priori* classification (11 in our case). During the training process, data vectors (plots) with a known class membership are submitted to the network and the output values are compared with the correct class membership. Errors identified in these comparisons are used for iterative adjustment of the weights on each connection of the network until the pre-defined error-function value decreases below a certain threshold.

One major problem of artificial neural networks is the risk of over-learning (over-fitting), especially in larger networks with more complex underlying functions. Over-learning occurs when the network is trained to minimize the error on the training data set, but at the same time looses its ability to generalize and recognize newly encountered cases. We prevented over-learning by using an independent data set, called *selection data set*, in the process of network training. The network was trained on the training data set and the error on this data set naturally dropped as the training process proceeded. At the same time, the error was measured on the selection data set. Over-learning was indicated by ceasing of dropping or, indeed, by rising of the error on the selection data set, with simultaneously continued dropping of the error on the training data set. If this situation occurred, the training process was stopped.

Another problem of artificial neural networks is the possible convergence of underlying functions to local minima. To avoid this problem, we used a two-phase training, with initial application of the back-propagation algorithm, which is less prone to stick in local minima, followed by the conjugate gradient descent algorithm. We also tested, for each model, five MLP networks with different architectures, including those with one or two hidden layers, with different number of input variables (some species with lower capacity to discriminate classes were excluded) and with different number of training epochs. Selection of the network architectures was made using the *Intelligent Problem Solver* module in the STATISTICA program.

Evaluation of the classifiers

The MLP classifications of the test data sets were compared with the *a priori* classifications of the same data sets using the concepts of sensitivity and positive predictive power (Fielding & Bell 1997). Sensitivity is the probability of correct classification, i.e. the proportion of sampling units that belong to a particular class and have been correctly assigned to this class by the classifier. Positive predictive power is the probability that a sampling unit belongs to a particular class if the classifier assigns it to this class. Let us use the following contingency table to compare the numbers of sampling units that are correctly and incorrectly classified with respect to class i, where i is 1, 2, …, n, and n is the number of classes in the given classification:

No. of sampling units ...	actually belonging to class i	actually not belonging to class i
classified to class i	a_i	b_i
not classified to class i	c_i	d_i

Using this notation we calculated the sensitivity of the classifier for each class i as $S_i = a_i / (a_i + c_i)$, the positive predictive power for each class i as $PPP_i = a_i / (a_i + b_i)$ and the overall sensitivity for the whole classification as $S = \Sigma a_i / N$, where N is the total number of plots. The values of these variables are given in percentages throughout this paper.

Results

The MLP classifiers for the expert classification correctly classified 81-83% plots of the test data set when trained with randomly selected plots and 77-80% plots when trained with plots containing a high proportion of diagnostic species of particular classes (Table 2). These values were significantly different from each other and significantly higher than the values for the classifier for numerical classification (ANOVA, $P < 0.05$). Plot assignments to the classes of the *a priori* classification and the MLP assignments by the best classifier (i.e. that with the highest sensitivity on the test data set) within each classification type and training data set variant are compared in Table 1 and, in more detail, in Apps. 3 and 4. In the best classifier for expert classification, based on the random selection of the test data set, sensitivity for individual classes ranged between 50-94%. Poorest sensitivity and positive predictive power occurred in those classes that were represented by few plots in the training data set, while the highest values of both of these measures were reached in the large class 5 which contained almost half of the plots of the entire data set. When the classifier was trained with plots rich in diagnostic species, sensitivity for individual classes was between 58-100%, however, the overall sensitivity was lower than after training with the randomly selected plots due to a lower sensitivity of the

Table 2. Basic details of architecture and performance of the MLP classifiers tested. More details on the classifiers with the highest sensitivity on the test data set within each variant (i.e. 5, 10, 12 and 19, marked with asterisks) are reported in Table 1.

Classifier	No. of neurons			Sensitivity		
	Input layer	Hidden layer 1	Hidden layer 2	Training data set	Selection data set	Test data set
Expert classification, random selection of the training data set						
1	311	73	67	99.6	80.7	81.2
2	378	87	73	100.0	79.7	81.2
3	385	98	0	98.7	81.8	80.9
4	215	85	0	97.6	81.6	82.1
5 *	419	97	0	100.0	82.6	83.0
Expert classification, selection of the training data set by diagnostic species						
6	260	98	0	100.0	90.8	79.6
7	313	92	85	100.0	91.4	78.3
8	314	75	68	100.0	92.2	77.0
9	84	55	0	99.6	92.5	78.4
10 *	421	94	0	100.0	93.5	79.6
Numerical classification, random selection of the training data set						
11	450	100	0	100.0	79.2	76.7
12 *	425	96	0	100.0	77.0	77.8
13	312	70	64	96.1	75.0	73.6
14	388	88	82	99.7	75.6	76.1
15	251	78	0	100.0	76.0	74.1
Numerical classification, selection of the training data set by diagnostic species						
16	203	72	68	99.3	91.0	70.3
17	391	97	0	100.0	91.5	72.5
18	372	77	75	100.0	89.8	71.8
19 *	135	72	0	99.6	90.2	73.1
20	392	89	0	100.0	91.0	71.9

classifier for the large class 5 in this case.

The MLP classifiers for the numerical classification correctly classified 74-78% of plots of the test data set when trained with randomly selected plots and 70-73% of plots when trained with the plots that were rich in diagnostic species (Table 2). These values were significantly different from each other and lower than those for the expert classification (ANOVA, $P < 0.05$). Sensitivity for individual classes ranged between 68-93% after training with the randomly selected plots and between 66-90% after training with plots rich in diagnostic species (Table 1). The differences in both sensitivity and the positive predictive power among the classes were lower for the numerical classification than for the expert classification.

In both expert and numerical classification, selection of the training data set based on the higher representation of diagnostic species resulted in a higher sensitivity on the training and selection data sets, but the crucial parameter for the evaluation of the classifier performance, i.e. sensitivity on the test data set, was lower than in the case of random selection of the training data set (Table 2).

Discussion

The MLP classifiers were able to classify correctly 77-83% of plots to the classes of the expert classification and 70-78% to the classes of numerical classification (Table 1). The better results in the case of the expert classification may be surprising, considering that the classification was made subjectively by different researchers with differing opinions and experiences. Not all classes of the expert classification were equally well defined either. For example, the numerical classification indicated a low degree of differentiation of *Nardus* grasslands by including them all in two classes (2 and 3), while the expert classification divided them into four classes (8-11). Inconsistencies inherent to the expert classification resulted in the greater variation in sensitivity of the classifiers among classes, which ranged between 50-100% for expert classifications and 66-93% for numerical classifications. However, the higher overall sensitivity of the classifiers for expert classification does not mean that numerical classification is inherently worse or more difficult to reproduce with the MLP classifier. Both this study and our previous pilot studies indicate that in the classified data sets in which one class contains a high proportion of the plots of the entire data set, the overall sensitivity mainly depends on the classifier's ability to recognize successfully this particular class. In our case, there were two large classes in the expert classification (1 and 5), which together included 68% of the plots in the entire data set. These classes corresponded to the alliances *Arrhenatherion* and *Calthion*, respectively, which are generally accepted as being well-defined alliances of the traditional phytosociological classification of Central European grasslands (Ellenberg 1996; Havlová et al. 2004; Botta-Dukát et al. 2005). The classifiers for expert classification were able to recognize these large classes successfully, both in terms of sensitivity and positive predictive power, and this resulted in higher overall values of these measures for the expert classification. On the other hand, there was a rather heterogeneous but large class 7 in the numerical classification, which was poorly recognized by the classifiers. Therefore the overall sensitivity and positive predictive power of the numerical classification were decreased. We presume that without the effects of these large classes, the overall performance of the classifiers would not considerably differ between expert and numerical classification. From this point of view, there seems to be no fundamental difference in the ability of the MLP classifier to reproduce the presumably less consistent expert classification and the more consistent numerical classification.

In our study, we only considered the unequivocal assignment of each plot to a single class by the classifier. However, neural networks can produce a fuzzy assignment, giving the probabilities of class membership for each plot. Instead of assigning each plot to the most probable class, as we did, it would also be possible to evaluate the classifier's performance by taking membership probabilities for more than one class for each plot. In that case, the sensitivity of the classifiers would most probably be higher than our conservative estimate of 70-83%, because in the cases of misclassification, the membership probabilities for the correct class were usually the second highest. Given this fact and considering that many misclassifications might have resulted from inconsistencies in the *a priori* classifications, we conclude that MLP may be a successful technique for the supervised classification of species-by-sites matrices.

In both cases, expert and numerical classification, worse results were achieved when the classifiers were trained with plots 'typical' of the particular classes (containing several diagnostic species) rather than with randomly selected plots (Table 1), especially with the classifiers for expert classification where this difference was significant. Although the sensitivity on training- and selection data sets was slightly higher with the use of plots rich in diagnostic species, indicating that classes within this subset of plots were easier to discriminate, it was lower on the test data set, which contained plots both poor and rich in diagnostic species. Thus, our original hypothesis that training with typical plots would result in a

higher proportion of correct assignments was not supported. Due to removal of the less typical plots from the training data set the classifier did not learn to recognize such plots and tended to misclassify them in the test data set. A similar result was presented by Foody (1999b) in the context of the remote sensing data classification. In that case, the neural network trained with a set of border patterns performed better than one trained with a set of patterns drawn from the cores of the classes.

This result points to the ability of the MLP classifier of recognizing class membership also for plots that are poor in diagnostic species. This is an advantage against the expert classification of traditional phytosociology, which is predominantly based on diagnostic species, and also against the formalized supervised methods derived from similar principles. Such methods include, for example: (1) the indicator ordination option in TWINSPAN, which provides indicator species and thresholds for plot assignment to the classes (Hill 1979); (2) calculations of similarity coefficients between the species composition of individual plots and species frequencies within classes of *a priori* classifications (Hill 1989; Kočí et al. 2003); (3) the COCKTAIL method, which assigns plots to classes on the basis of the occurrence of species from pre-defined sociological species groups (Bruelheide 2000; Bruelheide & Chytrý 2000; Kočí et al. 2003). However, the black-box approach of the MLP classifiers does not provide sufficient information on the underlying assignment process, which could be used for developing simple keys for the identification of vegetation types in field mapping.

In our application of MLP we directly used the species-by-sites matrix as input data. Ejrnæs et al. (2002) applied an artificial neural network in a similar context (predicting the degree of habitat naturalness from species composition) but used a different, two-step approach. First they subjected the species-by-sites matrix to ordination and then used site scores on the first two or three ordination axes as input data for the neural network. With this approach, supervised classification can be done through the passive ordination of new sites and their subsequent assignment to the appropriate class by the neural network. Our approach is more straightforward, using a single step, but with large data sets it can be computationally more demanding. Future studies should compare both approaches, especially with respect to the possible effect of noise contained in the species-by-sites matrices on the one hand and the potential loss of information due to using only the higher ordination axes on the other hand. The latter issue can possibly have negative influence on the classifier's performance especially when it is assumed to recognize higher numbers of classes.

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