Applications of Machine Learning in Remote Sensing

Homework 3

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https://github.com/np1140/MLRemoteSensing/

Classification

```
In [1]: from scipy.io import loadmat
    import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    import pandas as pd
    from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
    from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
    from sklearn.linear_model import LogisticRegression
    from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, confusion_matrix, accu
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
    import seaborn as sns
```

```
In [2]: data = loadmat('PaviaU.mat')
        gt = loadmat('PaviaU gt.mat')
        X = data['paviaU']
        Y = gt['paviaU gt']
        print("Data shape:", X.shape)
        print("GT shape:", Y.shape)
        num classes = len(np.unique(Y)) - 1 # Exclude background class
        print("Number of classes (excluding background):", num classes)
        print("Data type:", X.dtype)
        print("GT type:", Y.dtype)
        print("Data min/max:", X.min(), X.max())
        print("GT min/max:", Y.min(), Y.max())
        print("Data mean/std:", X.mean(), X.std())
        print("GT mean/std:", Y.mean(), Y.std())
        print("Number of non-zero GT labels:", np.count_nonzero(Y))
        print("Number of zero GT labels (background):", np.size(Y) - np.count non
        print("Unique GT labels:", np.unique(Y))
        print("Data sample (5 pixels):", X.reshape(-1, X.shape[2])[:5])
        print("GT sample (5 pixels):", Y.reshape(-1)[:5])
        print("Data shape after reshaping:", X.reshape(-1, X.shape[2]).shape)
        print("GT shape after reshaping:", Y.reshape(-1).shape)
```

Since the task involves classifying pixels into multiple classes, it is important to know the proportion of pixels belonging to each class, including those representing the

background. It is also necessary to understand how background pixels are represented, whether as zero values or some other coding. Also, the total number of classes is important to consider.

```
In [3]: rgb_bands = [60, 30, 10]
    rgb_image = X[:, :, rgb_bands]

# Normalize
    rgb_image = (rgb_image - rgb_image.min()) / (rgb_image.max() - rgb_image.

plt.figure(figsize=(7, 6))
    plt.imshow(rgb_image)
    plt.title(f"RGB image")
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.show()
```

RGB image

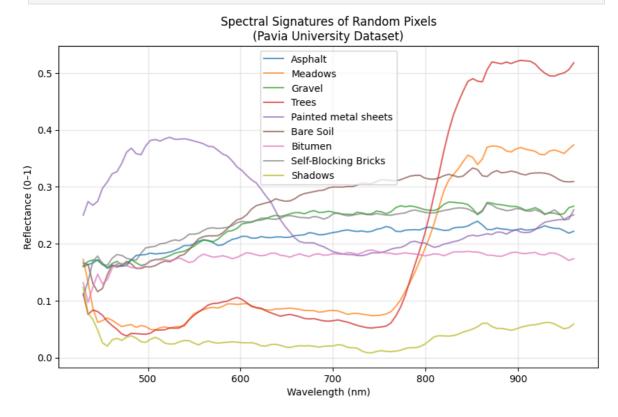


```
In [4]: start_wavelength = 430  # nm
  end_wavelength = 960  # nm
  num_bands = X.shape[-1]
  wavelengths = np.linspace(start_wavelength, end_wavelength, num_bands)

# Reflectance normalized to 0-1
  X_norm = (X - X.min()) / (X.max() - X.min())

# Define class labels and names
  class_names = {
    1: "Asphalt",
    2: "Meadows",
```

```
3: "Gravel",
    4: "Trees",
    5: "Painted metal sheets",
    6: "Bare Soil",
    7: "Bitumen",
    8: "Self-Blocking Bricks",
    9: "Shadows"
}
np.random.seed(2)
samples per class = 1
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 6))
for c in np.unique(Y)[1:]: # skip background (0)
    y idx, x idx = np.where(Y == c)
    rand_pixels = np.random.choice(len(x_idx), samples_per_class, replace
    for i in rand pixels:
        spectrum = X norm[y idx[i], x idx[i], :]
        plt.plot(
            wavelengths,
            spectrum,
            label=class_names[c] if i == rand_pixels[0] else "",
        )
plt.xlabel('Wavelength (nm)')
plt.ylabel('Reflectance (0-1)')
plt.title('Spectral Signatures of Random Pixels\n(Pavia University Datase
plt.legend()
plt.grid(alpha=0.3)
plt.show()
```



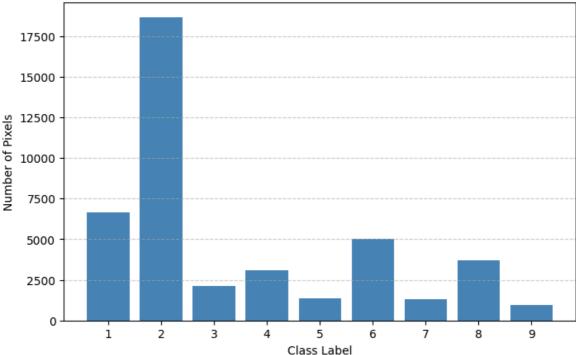
The spectral plot illustrates the reflectance characteristics of different classes across various wavelength bands. Shadow exhibits the lowest reflectance across all wavelengths. The painted metal sheet shows high reflectance in the visible range,

which decreases toward the near-infrared (NIR) region. In contrast, both tree and meadow classes display a sharp increase in reflectance in the NIR region, indicating healthy vegetation.

Class distribution in ground truth data

```
In [5]: labels = Y.flatten()
        labels = labels[labels > 0]
        # Count frequency of each class
        unique, counts = np.unique(labels, return counts=True)
        # Plot as bar chart
        plt.figure(figsize=(8, 5))
        plt.bar(unique, counts, color='steelblue')
        plt.title("Class Distribution in Pavia University Ground Truth")
        plt.xlabel("Class Label")
        plt.ylabel("Number of Pixels")
        plt.xticks(unique)
        plt.grid(axis='y', linestyle='--', alpha=0.6)
        plt.show()
        # print numerical distribution
        for u, c in zip(unique, counts):
            print(f"Class {u}: {c} pixels ({c/len(labels)*100:.2f}%)")
```





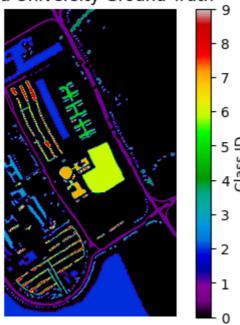
```
Class 1: 6631 pixels (15.50%)
Class 2: 18649 pixels (43.60%)
Class 3: 2099 pixels (4.91%)
Class 4: 3064 pixels (7.16%)
Class 5: 1345 pixels (3.14%)
Class 6: 5029 pixels (11.76%)
Class 7: 1330 pixels (3.11%)
Class 8: 3682 pixels (8.61%)
Class 9: 947 pixels (2.21%)
```

The class distribution shows class imbalance between classes. So, Stratified train–test split can be utilized.

Visualize ground truth classes

```
In [6]: plt.figure(figsize=(5,4))
    plt.imshow(Y, cmap='nipy_spectral')
    plt.title("Pavia University Ground Truth")
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.colorbar(label='Class ID')
    plt.show()
```

Pavia University Ground Truth



```
In [7]: wavelengths = np.arange(430, 961, 5)[:X.shape[2]] # ensures 103 waveleng
    rows, cols, bands = X.shape
    X_flat = X.reshape(-1, bands) # (610*340, 103)
    Y_flat = Y.flatten() # (610*340,)

# Create DataFrame
    columns = [f"{wl}nm" for wl in wavelengths]
    df = pd.DataFrame(X_flat, columns=columns)
    df["target"] = Y_flat

    print("DataFrame shape:", df.shape)
    df.head()
```

DataFrame shape: (207400, 104)

Out[7]:		430nm	435nm	440nm	445nm	450nm	455nm	460nm	465nm	470nm	475nm	•••
	0	647	499	464	371	291	319	365	322	296	305	
	1	604	546	527	455	378	377	336	314	324	329	
	2	621	746	556	360	285	300	274	276	332	319	
	3	637	592	482	556	508	284	178	198	193	224	
	4	625	560	480	360	377	341	264	208	231	266	

5 rows × 104 columns

1

Choose only five bands

```
In [8]: selected_columns = ['490nm', '560nm', '650nm', '705nm', '865nm', 'target'
    df_selected = df[selected_columns]
    df = df_selected
```

```
In [9]: df.tail()
```

Out[9]:		490nm	560nm	650nm	705nm	865nm	target
	207395	325	521	583	614	2065	0
	207396	464	582	595	588	2142	0
	207397	370	573	566	556	2292	0
	207398	422	616	573	523	2249	0
	207399	319	543	525	462	2471	0

Remove background pixels

```
In [10]: df_nonzero = df[df['target'] != 0].copy()

print("Original shape:", df.shape)
print("After removing target=0:", df_nonzero.shape)
```

Original shape: (207400, 6) After removing target=0: (42776, 6)

Without considering class proportion

Here, the assignment of binary values (0 and 1) is done prior to dividing the data into class-wise training and test sets. Doing so does not ensure the required proportion of data from each class in the training and test sets.

Create binary dataset for vegetation and non-vegetation

```
In [11]: df_binary = df_nonzero.copy()

# Map target: 2 & 4 -> 1, all others -> 0
df_binary['binary_target'] = df_binary['target'].apply(lambda x: 1 if x i
```

```
print(df binary['binary target'].value counts())
        binary_target
             21713
             21063
        Name: count, dtype: int64
         Logistic Regression
In [12]: X = df_binary.drop(columns=['target', 'binary_target']).values
         y = df binary['binary target'].values
         # Standardize features for logistic regression
         scaler = StandardScaler()
         X scaled = scaler.fit transform(X)
In [13]: X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(
             X scaled, y, test size=0.2, random state=42, stratify=y
         print("Train size:", X_train.shape[0])
         print("Test size:", X_test.shape[0])
        Train size: 34220
```

Test size: 8556

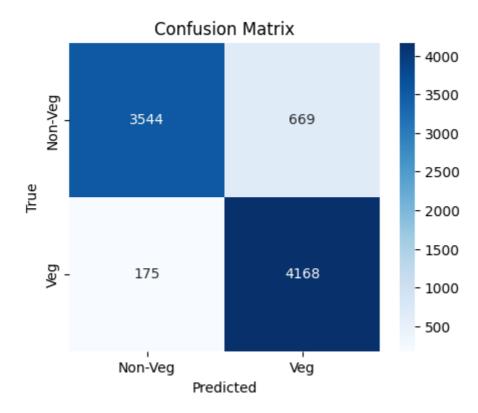
Given the sufficient representation of samples in both classes, the dataset is divided into training and testing sets with an 80:20 ratio.

```
In [14]: clf = LogisticRegression(max iter=1000, random state=42)
         # Train the model
         clf.fit(X train, y train)
         # Predict on the test set
         y_pred = clf.predict(X_test)
         # Accuracy
         acc = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)
         print("Test Accuracy:", acc)
         # Classification report
         print("\nClassification Report:\n", classification_report(y_test, y_pred)
         # Confusion matrix
         cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)
         plt.figure(figsize=(5,4))
         sns.heatmap(cm, annot=True, fmt='d', cmap='Blues', xticklabels=['Non-Veg'
         plt.xlabel('Predicted')
         plt.ylabel('True')
         plt.title('Confusion Matrix')
         plt.show()
```

Test Accuracy: 0.9013557737260403

Class	ific	ation	Report:

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0 1	0.95 0.86	0.84 0.96	0.89 0.91	4213 4343
accuracy macro avg weighted avg	0.91 0.91	0.90 0.90	0.90 0.90 0.90	8556 8556 8556



Precision measures the proportion of correctly predicted positive samples out of all samples predicted as positive.

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

Where:

- (TP): True Positives
- (FP): False Positives

Recall measures the proportion of correctly predicted positive samples out of all actual positive samples.

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

Where:

• (FN): False Negatives

When class proportions are not considered during the train-test split, there tends to be a large difference between precision and recall values. Classes with larger representation (such as meadows, asphalt, and trees) are more likely to appear in the test set. Due to overrepresentation of meadow class the model learn more separable decision boundaries for the meadows class, resulting in fewer false positives and thus higher precision for vegetation class during testing.

In contrast, for the non-vegetation class, we observe low precision but high recall. Since the model learns a larger boundary for distinguishing meadows than asphalt, it is more prone to false positives than false negatives, which explains the higher recall and lower precision.

With considering class proportion

Here, the data is first divided into training and test sets using stratified sampling, which ensures that the required proportion of data from each class is preserved in both sets. Only after this are the binary values (0 and 1) assigned. This ensures that the original nine classes are well represented in the two-class problem.

```
In [15]: df_bal_binary = df_nonzero.copy()
    train_df, test_df = train_test_split(
        df_bal_binary,
        test_size=0.2, # train-test split ratio 80:20
        random_state=42,
        stratify=df_bal_binary['target'] # preserve original class proportio
)

    print("Train size:", train_df.shape)
    print("Test size:", test_df.shape)

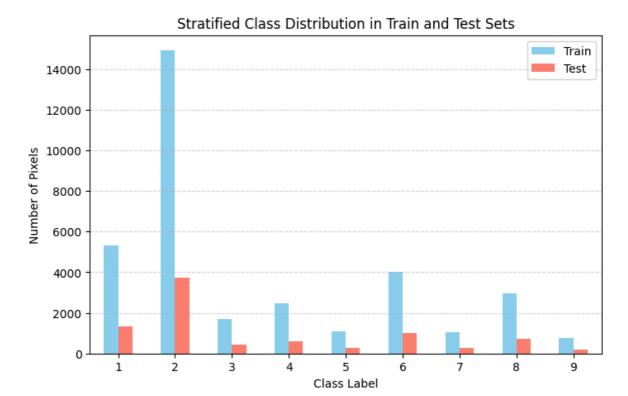
Train size: (34220, 6)
Test size: (8556, 6)
```

Sample size: Training -> 34220 samples Testing -> 8556 samples

```
In [16]: train_counts = train_df['target'].value_counts().sort_index()
    test_counts = test_df['target'].value_counts().sort_index()

# Combine into a DataFrame for plotting
    dist_df = train_counts.to_frame(name='Train').join(test_counts.to_frame(n

# Plot side-by-side bar chart
    dist_df.plot(kind='bar', figsize=(8,5), color=['skyblue', 'salmon'])
    plt.xlabel('Class Label')
    plt.ylabel('Number of Pixels')
    plt.title('Stratified Class Distribution in Train and Test Sets')
    plt.xticks(rotation=0)
    plt.grid(axis='y', linestyle='--', alpha=0.5)
    plt.show()
```



```
In [17]: def map to binary(x):
             return 1 if x in [2, 4] else 0
         train df['binary target'] = train df['target'].apply(map to binary)
         test df['binary target'] = test df['target'].apply(map to binary)
         print("\nTrain binary distribution:\n", train_df['binary_target'].value_c
         print("\nTest binary distribution:\n", test_df['binary_target'].value_cou
        Train binary distribution:
         binary target
             0.507598
        1
             0.492402
        Name: proportion, dtype: float64
        Test binary distribution:
         binary_target
             0.507597
        1
             0.492403
        Name: proportion, dtype: float64
```

There is an identical proportion of classes 0 and 1 in both the training and test datasets, indicating that the data for the two classes is balanced.

```
In [18]: X_train = train_df.drop(columns=['target', 'binary_target']).values
    y_train = train_df['binary_target'].values

X_test = test_df.drop(columns=['target', 'binary_target']).values
    y_test = test_df['binary_target'].values

# Standardize features
scaler = StandardScaler()
X_train_scaled = scaler.fit_transform(X_train)
X_test_scaled = scaler.transform(X_test)
clf = LogisticRegression(max_iter=1000, random_state=42)
```

```
# Train the model
         clf.fit(X train scaled, y train)
Out[18]:
                         LogisticRegression
         LogisticRegression(max iter=1000, random state=42)
In [19]: from sklearn.metrics import confusion matrix, classification report, accu
         def evaluate model(clf, X, y, dataset name="Dataset"):
             y pred = clf.predict(X)
             # Overall accuracy
             acc = accuracy_score(y, y_pred)
             # Confusion matrix
             cm = confusion_matrix(y, y_pred)
             # Per-class accuracy
             per class acc = np.diag(cm) / cm.sum(axis=1)
             mean per class acc = per_class_acc.mean()
             # Precision, Recall, F1-score (macro)
             precision = precision_score(y, y_pred, average='macro')
             recall = recall_score(y, y_pred, average='macro')
             f1 = f1 score(y, y pred, average='macro')
             print(f"\nEvaluation on {dataset name}")
             print(f"Mean Accuracy: {acc:.4f}")
             print(f"Mean Per-Class Accuracy: {mean per class acc:.4f}")
             print(f"Precision (macro): {precision:.4f}")
             print(f"Recall (macro): {recall:.4f}")
             print(f"F1-score (macro): {f1:.4f}")
             return y_pred
In [20]: y_train_pred = evaluate_model(clf, X_train_scaled, y_train, dataset_name=
         y test pred = evaluate model(clf, X test scaled, y test, dataset name="Te
        Evaluation on Training Set
        Mean Accuracy: 0.9047
        Mean Per-Class Accuracy: 0.9038
        Precision (macro): 0.9101
        Recall (macro): 0.9038
        F1-score (macro): 0.9042
        Evaluation on Testing Set
        Mean Accuracy: 0.8998
        Mean Per-Class Accuracy: 0.8990
        Precision (macro): 0.9048
        Recall (macro): 0.8990
```

When considering class proportion the precision recall is identical for both trianing and testing samples. As required proportion of samples from each class are acquired, the model can develop an unbaised decision boundary and thus resulting in balanced precision and recall.

F1-score (macro): 0.8994

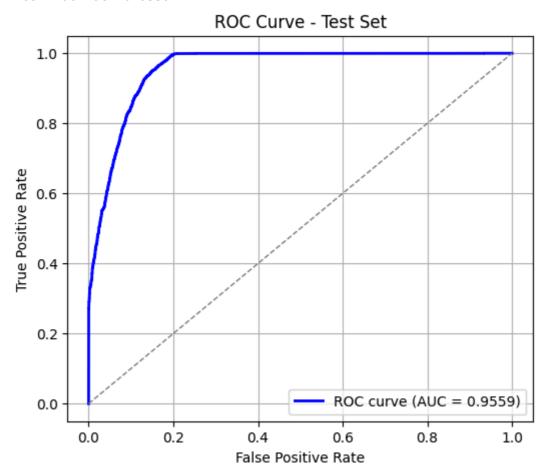
Compute the ROC curve and AUC

```
In [21]: from sklearn.metrics import roc_curve, roc_auc_score

y_test_prob = clf.predict_proba(X_test_scaled)[:, 1]
fpr, tpr, thresholds = roc_curve(y_test, y_test_prob)

# Compute AUC
auc = roc_auc_score(y_test, y_test_prob)
print(f"Test ROC-AUC: {auc:.4f}")
plt.figure(figsize=(6,5))
plt.plot(fpr, tpr, color='blue', lw=2, label=f'ROC curve (AUC = {auc:.4f})
plt.plot([0,1], [0,1], color='gray', lw=1, linestyle='--') # diagonal
plt.xlabel('False Positive Rate')
plt.ylabel('True Positive Rate')
plt.title('ROC Curve - Test Set')
plt.legend(loc='lower right')
plt.grid(True)
plt.show()
```

Test ROC-AUC: 0.9559



The high AUC value indicates that the classifier is able to perfectly distinguish between two classes.

XG Boost

```
In [22]: df_xgboost = df_nonzero.copy()
    df_xgboost.head()
```

Out[22]:		490nm	560nm	650nm	705nm	865nm	target
	91	1327	1631	1915	1922	1827	1
	92	1663	1764	1688	1593	1163	1
	93	1182	1056	1034	1013	1113	1
	94	927	1016	1185	1357	2069	1
	95	1559	2101	2641	2628	1882	1

Here same number of features as problem 1 have been utilized to train XGBoost model.

```
In [23]: from xgboost import XGBClassifier
         X = df xgboost.drop(columns=['target'])
         y = df xgboost['target'] - 1 # Make sure labels start from 0 (i.e., 0-8)
         X train, X test, y train, y test = train test split(
             X, y, test size=0.2, random state=42, stratify=y
         scaler = StandardScaler()
         # Fit on training set only
         X train scaled = scaler.fit transform(X train)
         X_test_scaled = scaler.transform(X test)
         xgb multi = XGBClassifier(
             objective='multi:softmax', # or 'multi:softprob' for probabilities
                                          # number of classes
             num class=9,
             eval metric='mlogloss',
             learning rate=0.1,
             n estimators=200,
             max depth=6,
             subsample=0.8,
             colsample bytree=0.8,
             random state=42
         xgb_multi.fit(X_train_scaled, y_train)
```

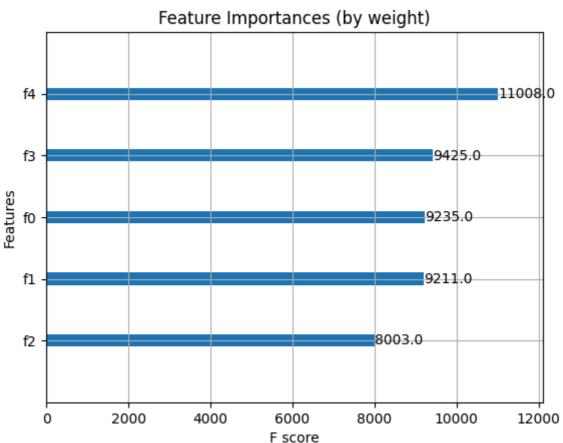
```
Out[23]:
```

Feature importance plot

```
In [24]: import xgboost as xgb
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

```
# Plot feature importance
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))
plot_importance(xgb_multi, importance_type='weight', max_num_features=10)
plt.title('Feature Importances (by weight)')
plt.show()
```

<Figure size 1000x800 with 0 Axes>



Confusion matrix

```
In [25]: from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix, ConfusionMatrixDisplay

y_pred = xgb_multi.predict(X_test_scaled)

# Compute confusion matrix

cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)

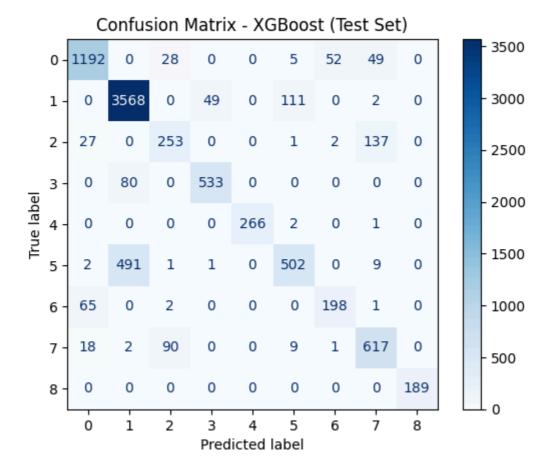
classes = np.unique(y_test)

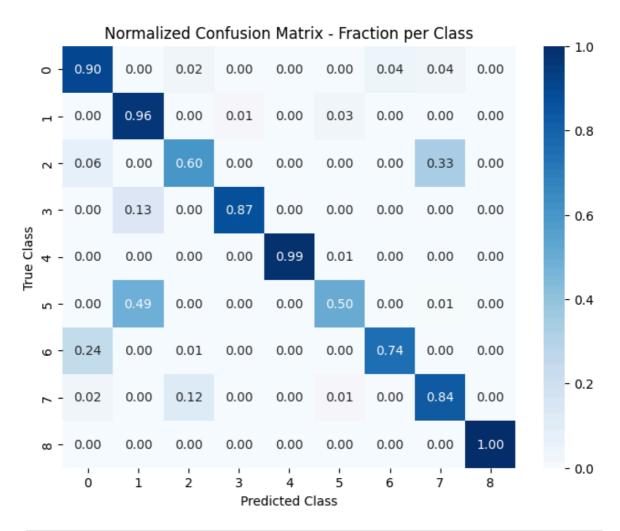
# Plot confusion matrix

disp = ConfusionMatrixDisplay(confusion_matrix=cm, display_labels=xgb_muldisp.plot(cmap='Blues', values_format='d')

plt.title("Confusion Matrix - XGBoost (Test Set)")

plt.show()
```





```
In [27]: mean_accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)

# Confusion matrix
cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)

# Mean per-class accuracy
# accuracy per class = correct predictions for class_i / total samples in
per_class_acc = cm.diagonal() / cm.sum(axis=1)
mean_per_class_acc = np.mean(per_class_acc)

# Precision, Recall, F1 (per class and average)
report = classification_report(y_test, y_pred, output_dict=True)
report_df = pd.DataFrame(report).transpose()

print(f"Mean Accuracy: {mean_accuracy:.4f}")
print(f"Mean Per-Class Accuracy: {mean_per_class_acc:.4f}")
print("\nDetailed Report:\n")
print(report_df)
```

```
Mean Accuracy: 0.8553
```

Mean Per-Class Accuracy: 0.8219

Detailed Report:

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
0	0.914110	0.898944	0.906464	1326.000000
1	0.861628	0.956568	0.906619	3730.000000
2	0.676471	0.602381	0.637280	420.000000
3	0.914237	0.869494	0.891304	613.000000
4	1.000000	0.988848	0.994393	269.000000
5	0.796825	0.499006	0.613692	1006.000000
6	0.782609	0.744361	0.763006	266.000000
7	0.756127	0.837178	0.794591	737.000000
8	1.000000	1.000000	1.000000	189.000000
accuracy	0.855306	0.855306	0.855306	0.855306
macro avg	0.855779	0.821864	0.834150	8556.000000
weighted avg	0.852685	0.855306	0.848542	8556.000000

Data balancing -> Downsampling

```
In [28]: df_xgboost = df_nonzero.copy()
    df_xgboost.head()
```

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	490nm	560nm	650nm	705nm	865nm	target
91	1327	1631	1915	1922	1827	1
92	1663	1764	1688	1593	1163	1
93	1182	1056	1034	1013	1113	1
94	927	1016	1185	1357	2069	1
95	1559	2101	2641	2628	1882	1

```
In [29]: class_9_count = (df_xgboost['target'] == 9).sum()
print("Number of samples with target value 9:", class_9_count)
```

Number of samples with target value 9: 947

Since there is a large imbalance in the number of samples between classes, the data has been undersampled to match minority class size. After downsampling, the number of samples in each class is 947.

Undersampling

```
In [30]: # from sklearn.utils import resample

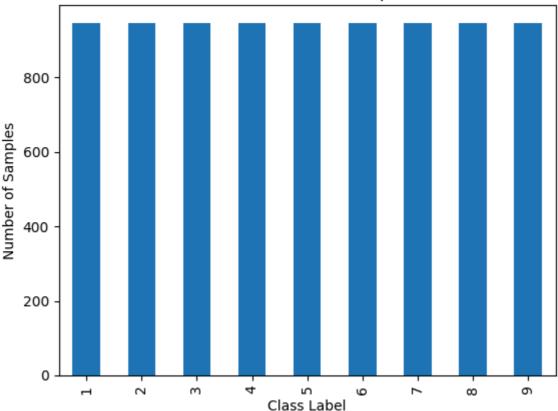
# majority_class = 2 # example, Class 2
# fraction = 0.34 # reduce by 34%

# # Separate majority class
# majority_df = df_xgboost[df_xgboost['target'] == majority_class]
# other_df = df_xgboost[df_xgboost['target'] != majority_class]

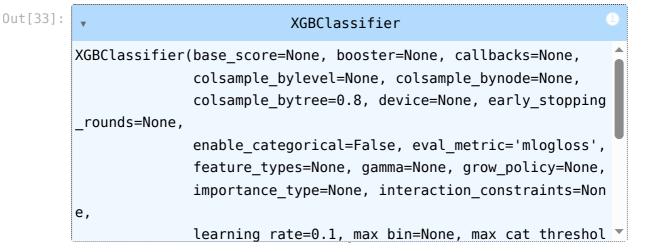
# Downsample the majority class by fraction
# majority_down = resample(
# majority_df,
```

```
replace=False,
         #
               n samples=int(len(majority df) * fraction),
               random state=42
         # )
         # # Combine with the other classes
         # df new = pd.concat([majority down, other df]).sample(frac=1, random sta
         # # Check new distribution
         # print("New class counts:\n", df new['target'].value counts().sort index
In [31]: target count = 947
         # Downsample each class to 947 samples
         df new = (
             df xgboost
             .groupby('target', group keys=False)
             .apply(lambda x: x.sample(n=target count, random state=42))
             .reset index(drop=True)
         print(df new['target'].value counts())
        target
             947
        1
        2
             947
        3
             947
        4
             947
        5
             947
        6
             947
        7
             947
        8
             947
             947
        Name: count, dtype: int64
        /tmp/ipykernel 651779/3320971126.py:5: FutureWarning: DataFrameGroupBy.app
        ly operated on the grouping columns. This behavior is deprecated, and in a
        future version of pandas the grouping columns will be excluded from the op
        eration. Either pass `include_groups=False` to exclude the groupings or ex
        plicitly select the grouping columns after groupby to silence this warnin
        g.
         df xgboost
In [32]: df new['target'].value counts().sort index().plot(kind='bar')
         plt.title("Balanced Class Distribution (Undersampled to Class 9 count)")
         plt.xlabel("Class Label")
         plt.ylabel("Number of Samples")
         plt.show()
```





```
In [33]: X = df new.drop(columns=['target'])
         y = df_new['target'] - 1 # Make sure labels start from 0 (i.e., 0-8)
         X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(
             X, y, test size=0.2, random state=42, stratify=y
         scaler = StandardScaler()
         # Fit on training set only
         X_train_scaled = scaler.fit_transform(X_train)
         X test scaled = scaler.transform(X test)
         xgb_multi = XGBClassifier(
             objective='multi:softmax', # or 'multi:softprob' for probabilities
                                          # number of classes
             num_class=9,
             eval_metric='mlogloss',
             learning_rate=0.1,
             n estimators=200,
             max_depth=6,
             subsample=0.8,
             colsample_bytree=0.8,
             random_state=42
         xgb_multi.fit(X_train_scaled, y_train)
```

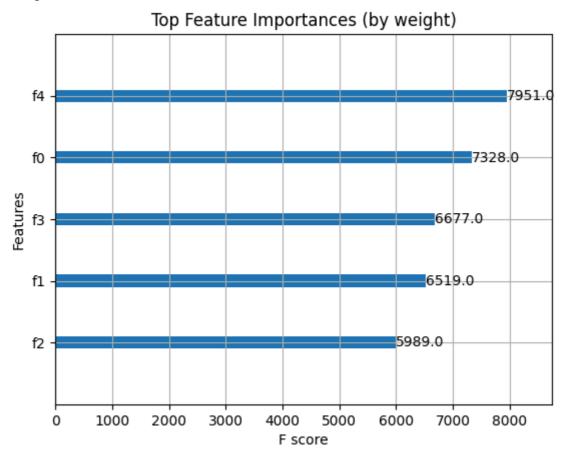


Feature plot

```
import xgboost as xgb
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from xgboost import plot_importance

# Plot feature importance
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))
plot_importance(xgb_multi, importance_type='weight', max_num_features=10)
plt.title('Top Feature Importances (by weight)')
plt.show()
```

<Figure size 1000x800 with 0 Axes>



The feature importance plot showcases the important features in order. The feature number 4 (near-infrared) is found to be important feature for classification followed by

0 (blue) and 1 (red). It is because the larger numner of pixels (meadows) shows large reflection in NIR region represented by fourth feature.

```
In [35]: from sklearn.metrics import confusion_matrix, ConfusionMatrixDisplay

y_pred = xgb_multi.predict(X_test_scaled)

# Compute confusion matrix

cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)

classes = np.unique(y_test)

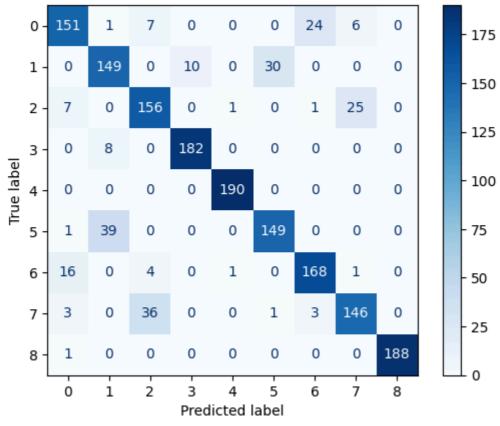
# Plot confusion matrix

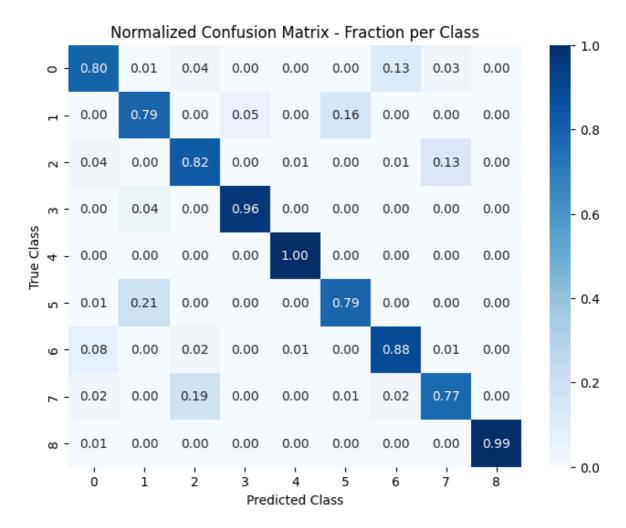
disp = ConfusionMatrixDisplay(confusion_matrix=cm, display_labels=xgb_muldisp.plot(cmap='Blues', values_format='d')

plt.title("Confusion Matrix - XGBoost (Test Set)")

plt.show()
```

Confusion Matrix - XGBoost (Test Set)





Here class 2 (class 1 in confusion matrix) is being confused as being 6 (class 5 in confusion matrix). These classes are meadows and soil. This is because these two materical exhibit same spectral signature for the choosen bands. Similarly, there is also confusion between Gravel and self-blocking bricks as they may have similar material properties.

```
In [37]: mean_accuracy = accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)

# Confusion matrix
cm = confusion_matrix(y_test, y_pred)

# Mean per-class accuracy
# accuracy per class = correct predictions for class_i / total samples in
per_class_acc = cm.diagonal() / cm.sum(axis=1)
mean_per_class_acc = np.mean(per_class_acc)

# Precision, Recall, F1 (per class and average)
report = classification_report(y_test, y_pred, output_dict=True)
report_df = pd.DataFrame(report).transpose()

print(f"Mean Accuracy: {mean_accuracy:.4f}")
print(f"Mean Per-Class Accuracy: {mean_per_class_acc:.4f}")
print("\nDetailed Report:\n")
print(report_df)
```

```
Mean Accuracy: 0.8674
Mean Per-Class Accuracy: 0.8673
```

Detailed Report:

```
precision recall f1-score
                                              support
0
              0.843575 0.798942 0.820652
                                           189.000000
1
              0.756345 0.788360 0.772021
                                           189.000000
2
              0.768473  0.821053  0.793893
                                           190.000000
3
              0.947917 0.957895 0.952880
                                           190.000000
4
              0.989583 1.000000 0.994764 190.000000
5
              0.827778 0.788360 0.807588 189.000000
6
              0.857143 0.884211 0.870466
                                           190.000000
              0.820225 0.772487 0.795640
7
                                           189.000000
8
              1.000000 0.994709 0.997347 189.000000
accuracy
              0.867449 0.867449 0.867449
                                             0.867449
              0.867893  0.867335  0.867250  1705.000000
macro avg
weighted avg
              0.867947 0.867449 0.867334 1705.000000
```

A simple approach of randomly downsampling the majority classes to match the proportions of minority class improved the mean class accuracy by 5.5%. Other approaches, such as oversampling and SMOTE, can also be employed depending on the nature of the data and the problem requirements.

There was a large margin between precision and recall before balancing the data, particularly for class 6 (represented as 5 in the confusion matrix). After data balancing, this difference has decreased significantly. The precision and recall are now more balanced, indicating that the model's ability to identify positive samples and its accuracy in predicting positives are comparably strong.

Regression

```
In [38]: import numpy as np
         # Load the data
         X = np.load('landis_chlorophyl_regression.npy')
         y = np.load('landis_chlorophyl_regression_gt.npy')
         print("X shape:", X.shape)
         print("y shape:", y.shape)
        X shape: (1000, 10)
        y shape: (1000,)
         EDA
In [39]:
         print("Data type:", X.dtype)
         print("Ground truth type:", y.dtype)
         print("\nX summary:")
         print(" Min:", np.min(X))
         print(" Max:", np.max(X))
         print(" Mean:", np.mean(X))
         print(" Std:", np.std(X))
         print("\ny summary:")
```

```
print(" Min:", np.min(y))
print(" Max:", np.max(y))
print(" Mean:", np.mean(y))
print(" Std:", np.std(y))
Data type: float64
```

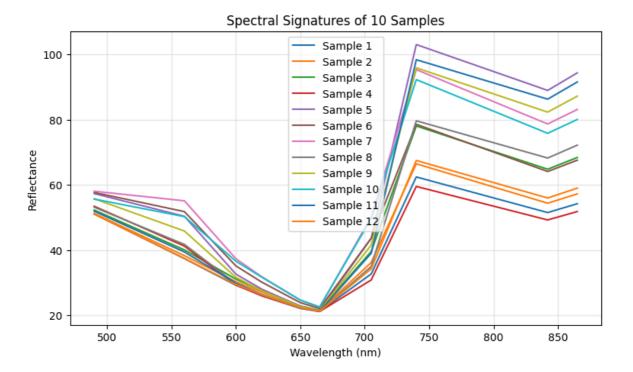
Data type: float64
Ground truth type: float64

X summary:
 Min: 21.118434995442527
 Max: 121.76891403260653
 Mean: 50.98832065303078
 Std: 21.474362004098783

y summary:

Min: 1.0502608279721377
Max: 79.84666034713156
Mean: 40.42283372218778
Std: 22.66210493530633

As this is a regression problem, the statistics of the dataset being utilized are important. Therefore, a statistical summary is derived. The shape of the data is also displayed to visualize the number of features and the sample size.



There is a smooth transition from blue to green wavelengths. A noticeable dip appears in the red region (660 nm) due to strong chlorophyll absorption. As vegetation reflects strongly in the red edge and near infrared (NIR) region, a sharp increase in reflectance is observed. Reflectance values in the 750–850 nm and 490-560 nm, and 600-650 nm range are nearly identical, suggesting a high correlation among bands in this region.

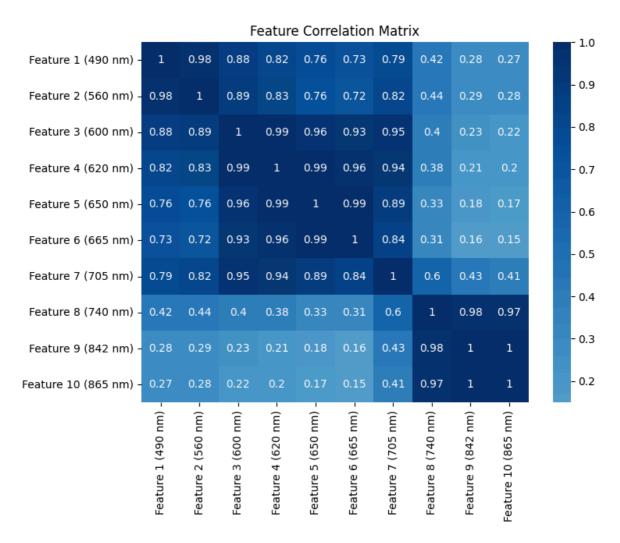
Multicolinearity identification

```
import pandas as pd
import seaborn as sns
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# Convert to DataFrame for easier handling
df_X = pd.DataFrame(X, columns=[f'Feature {i+1} ({center_wavelengths[i]})

# Compute correlation matrix
corr = df_X.corr()

plt.figure(figsize=(8,6))
sns.heatmap(corr, annot=True, cmap='Blues', center=0)
plt.title('Feature Correlation Matrix')
plt.show()
```



There is a noticeable correlation between features 1 and 2 (Blue, 490 nm, and Green, 560 nm); between features 3, 4, 5, and 6 (Yellow, 600 nm; Orange, 620 nm; Red1, 650 nm; and Red2, 665 nm); and between features 8, 9, and 10 (Red Edge 2, 740 nm; NIR_Broad, 842 nm; and NIR1, 865 nm). This pattern is also evident in the spectral signature plot above, where major transitions occur primarily between these wavelength ranges.

```
In [42]: # import pandas as pd
# import seaborn as sns
# import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# # Convert to DataFrame for easier handling
# df_X = pd.DataFrame(X, columns=[f'Feature {i+1} ({center_wavelengths[i]} )

# # Compute correlation matrix
# corr = df_X.corr()

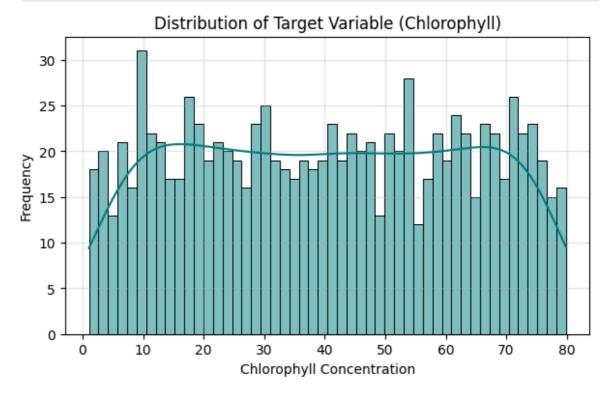
# plt.figure(figsize=(8,6))
# sns.heatmap(corr, annot=True, cmap='Blues', center=0)
# plt.title('Feature Correlation Matrix')
# plt.show()
```

Data distribution

```
In [43]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
```

```
import numpy as np

plt.figure(figsize=(7, 4))
sns.histplot(y, bins=50, kde=True, color='teal')
plt.title('Distribution of Target Variable (Chlorophyll)')
plt.xlabel('Chlorophyll Concentration')
plt.ylabel('Frequency')
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
plt.show()
```

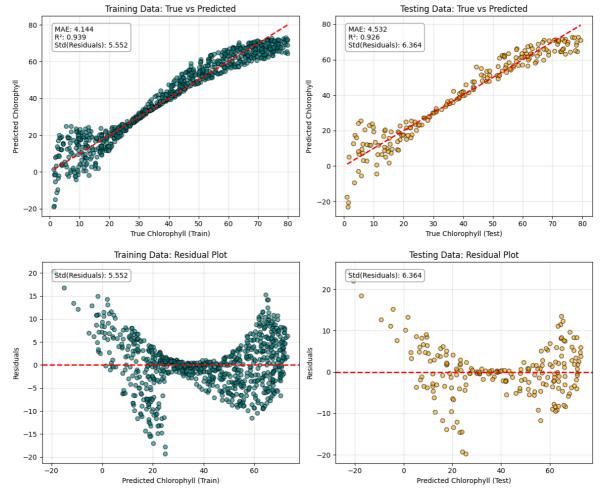


The distribution of target/output variable looks balanced.

Linear Regression

```
y train pred = model.predict(X train)
         y test pred = model.predict(X test)
         # TRAIN METRICS
         mae train = mean absolute error(y train, y train pred)
         r2 train = r2 score(y train, y train pred)
         residuals train = y train - y train pred
         std resid train = np.std(residuals train)
         # TEST METRICS
         mae_test = mean_absolute_error(y_test, y_test_pred)
         r2 test = r2 score(y test, y test pred)
         residuals test = y test - y test pred
         std resid test = np.std(residuals test)
         # PRINT RESULTS
         print("TRAINING SET METRICS:")
         print(f" Mean Absolute Error (MAE): {mae train:.4f}")
         print(f" R-squared (R2): {r2 train:.4f}")
         print(f" Std of Residuals: {std resid train:.4f}\n")
         print("TESTING SET METRICS:")
         print(f" Mean Absolute Error (MAE): {mae test:.4f}")
         print(f" R-squared (R2): {r2 test:.4f}")
         print(f" Std of Residuals: {std_resid_test:.4f}")
        TRAINING SET METRICS:
          Mean Absolute Error (MAE): 4.1442
          R-squared (R^2): 0.9389
          Std of Residuals: 5.5521
        TESTING SET METRICS:
          Mean Absolute Error (MAE): 4.5318
          R-squared (R^2): 0.9262
          Std of Residuals: 6.3638
In [47]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
         import numpy as np
         from sklearn.metrics import mean absolute error, r2 score
         # Predictions
         y_train_pred = model.predict(X_train)
         y_test_pred = model.predict(X_test)
         # Residuals
         resid_train = y_train - y_train_pred
         resid_test = y_test - y_test_pred
         # Compute metrics
         def regression metrics(y true, y pred):
             mae = mean absolute error(y true, y pred)
             r2 = r2 score(y true, y pred)
             std_resid = np.std(y_true - y_pred)
             return mae, r2, std_resid
         mae train, r2_train, std_train = regression_metrics(y_train, y_train_pred
         mae test, r2 test, std test = regression metrics(y test, y test pred)
         # REGRESSION PLOTS
```

```
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 5))
# Training
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.scatter(y_train, y_train_pred, alpha=0.6, color='teal', edgecolor='k'
plt.plot([y train.min(), y_train.max()],
         [y train.min(), y train.max()],
         'r--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("True Chlorophyll (Train)")
plt.ylabel("Predicted Chlorophyll")
plt.title("Training Data: True vs Predicted")
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
# Add metrics box
train text = (f"MAE: {mae train:.3f}\n"
              f"R<sup>2</sup>: {r2 train:.3f}\n"
              f"Std(Residuals): {std train:.3f}")
plt.text(0.05, 0.95, train text, transform=plt.gca().transAxes,
         fontsize=10, va='top', bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4",
         fc="white", ec="gray", alpha=0.8))
# Testing
plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.scatter(y_test, y_test_pred, alpha=0.6, color='orange', edgecolor='k'
plt.plot([y_test.min(), y_test.max()],
         [y test.min(), y test.max()],
         'r--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("True Chlorophyll (Test)")
plt.ylabel("Predicted Chlorophyll")
plt.title("Testing Data: True vs Predicted")
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
# Add metrics box
test text = (f"MAE: {mae test:.3f}\n"
             f"R2: {r2 test:.3f}\n"
             f"Std(Residuals): {std_test:.3f}")
plt.text(0.05, 0.95, test text, transform=plt.gca().transAxes,
         fontsize=10, va='top', bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4",
         fc="white", ec="gray", alpha=0.8))
plt.tight layout()
plt.show()
# RESIDUAL PLOTS
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 5))
# Train residuals
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.scatter(y_train_pred, resid_train, alpha=0.6, color='teal', edgecolor
plt.axhline(0, color='r', linestyle='--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("Predicted Chlorophyll (Train)")
plt.ylabel("Residuals")
plt.title("Training Data: Residual Plot")
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
plt.text(0.05, 0.95, f"Std(Residuals): {std train:.3f}",
         transform=plt.gca().transAxes, fontsize=10, va='top',
         bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4", fc="white", ec="gray", alpha
# Test residuals
```



The data in the mid range fit the line, while the points at both ends show greater scatter. The high residual values and the clear pattern indicate poor model performance. Overall, the model does not fit the data well, and both the mean absolute error and R² are quite high.

Partial Least Squares Regression (PLSR)

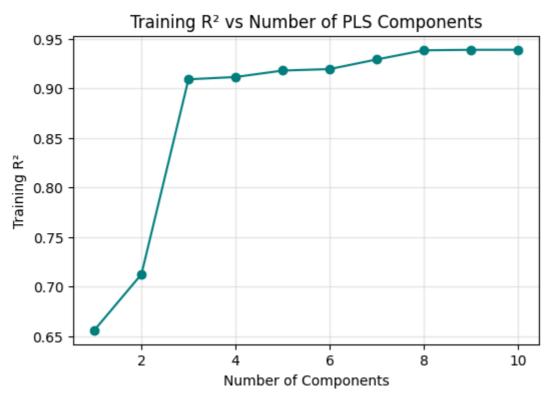
```
In [48]: from sklearn.cross_decomposition import PLSRegression
from sklearn.metrics import r2_score

r2_train_scores = []

# Test components from 1 to 10
for n_comp in range(1, 11):
```

```
pls = PLSRegression(n components=n comp)
     pls.fit(X train, y train)
     y_train_pred = pls.predict(X_train)
     r2 train = r2 score(y train, y train pred)
     r2 train scores.append(r2 train)
 # Display results
 for i, r2 in enumerate(r2_train_scores, start=1):
     print(f"Components: {i}, Training R2: {r2:.4f}")
 best n = np.argmax(r2 train scores) + 1
 print(f"\nBest number of components: {best n} (R^2 = {r2 train scores[best n})
Components: 1, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.6561
Components: 2, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.7124
Components: 3, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9091
Components: 4, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9114
Components: 5, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9179
Components: 6, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9194
Components: 7, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9291
Components: 8, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9384
Components: 9, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9388
Components: 10, Training R<sup>2</sup>: 0.9389
Best number of components: 10 (R^2 = 0.9389)
```

```
In [49]: import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
         plt.figure(figsize=(6,4))
         plt.plot(range(1, 11), r2 train scores, marker='o', color='teal')
         plt.title("Training R2 vs Number of PLS Components")
         plt.xlabel("Number of Components")
         plt.ylabel("Training R2")
         plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
         plt.show()
```



Using the best-performing component count to generate same regression and residual plots

```
In [50]: pls best = PLSRegression(n components=best n)
         pls best.fit(X train, y train)
         # Predictions
         y train pred = pls best.predict(X train).ravel()
         y test pred = pls best.predict(X test).ravel()
         # Residuals
         resid train = y train - y train pred
         resid_test = y_test - y_test_pred
In [51]: from sklearn.metrics import mean absolute error
         # Compute metrics function
         def regression_metrics(y_true, y_pred):
             mae = mean absolute error(y true, y pred)
             r2 = r2 score(y true, y pred)
             std resid = np.std(y true - y pred)
             return mae, r2, std resid
         mae train, r2 train, std train = regression metrics(y train, y train pred
         mae test, r2 test, std test = regression metrics(y test, y test pred)
         # Regression Plots
         plt.figure(figsize=(12,5))
         # Train
         plt.subplot(1,2,1)
         plt.scatter(y_train, y_train_pred, color='teal', alpha=0.6, edgecolor='k'
         plt.plot([y train.min(), y train.max()], [y train.min(), y train.max()],
         plt.title(f"PLSR (Train) Components = {best_n}")
         plt.xlabel("True Chlorophyll")
         plt.ylabel("Predicted Chlorophyll")
         plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
         plt.text(0.05, 0.95, f"MAE: {mae train:.3f}\nR<sup>2</sup>: {r2 train:.3f}\nStd: {st
                   transform=plt.gca().transAxes, fontsize=10, va='top',
                   bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4", fc="white", ec="gray", alpha
         # Test
         plt.subplot(1,2,2)
         plt.scatter(y test, y test pred, color='orange', alpha=0.6, edgecolor='k'
         plt.plot([y_test.min(), y_test.max()], [y_test.min(), y_test.max()], 'r--
         plt.title(f"PLSR (Test) Components = {best n}")
         plt.xlabel("True Chlorophyll")
         plt.ylabel("Predicted Chlorophyll")
         plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
         plt.text(0.05, 0.95, f"MAE: {mae test:.3f}\nR<sup>2</sup>: {r2 test:.3f}\nStd: {std
                   transform=plt.gca().transAxes, fontsize=10, va='top',
                   bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4", fc="white", ec="gray", alpha
         plt.tight layout()
         plt.show()
         # Residual Plots
         plt.figure(figsize=(12,5))
```

```
# Train residuals
  plt.subplot(1,2,1)
  plt.scatter(y train pred, resid train, color='teal', alpha=0.6, edgecolor
  plt.axhline(0, color='r', linestyle='--')
  plt.title("PLSR Residuals (Train)")
  plt.xlabel("Predicted Chlorophyll")
  plt.ylabel("Residuals")
  plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
  plt.text(0.05, 0.95, f"Std(Residuals): {std_train:.3f}",
             transform=plt.gca().transAxes, fontsize=10, va='top',
             bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4", fc="white", ec="gray", alpha
  # Test residuals
  plt.subplot(1,2,2)
  plt.scatter(y_test_pred, resid_test, color='orange', alpha=0.6, edgecolor
  plt.axhline(0, color='r', linestyle='--')
  plt.title("PLSR Residuals (Test)")
  plt.xlabel("Predicted Chlorophyll")
  plt.ylabel("Residuals")
  plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
  plt.text(0.05, 0.95, f"Std(Residuals): {std test:.3f}",
             transform=plt.gca().transAxes, fontsize=10, va='top',
             bbox=dict(boxstyle="round,pad=0.4", fc="white", ec="gray", alpha
  plt.tight layout()
  plt.show()
               PLSR (Train) Components = 10
                                                              PLSR (Test) Components = 10
       MAE: 4.144
R<sup>2</sup>: 0.939
Std: 5.552
                                                     MAE: 4.532
R<sup>2</sup>: 0.926
Std: 6.364
                                                 60
Predicted Chlorophyll
                                               Predicted Chlorophyll
                                                 40
  40
                                                 20
                                                 -20
  -20
                     True Chlorophyll
                                                                    True Chlorophyll
                  PLSR Residuals (Train)
                                                                 PLSR Residuals (Test)
  20
                                                     Std(Residuals): 6.364
                                                 20
  15
  10
                                                 10
  -10
                                                 -10
  -15
  -20
                   Predicted Chlorophyll
                                                                  Predicted Chlorophyll
```

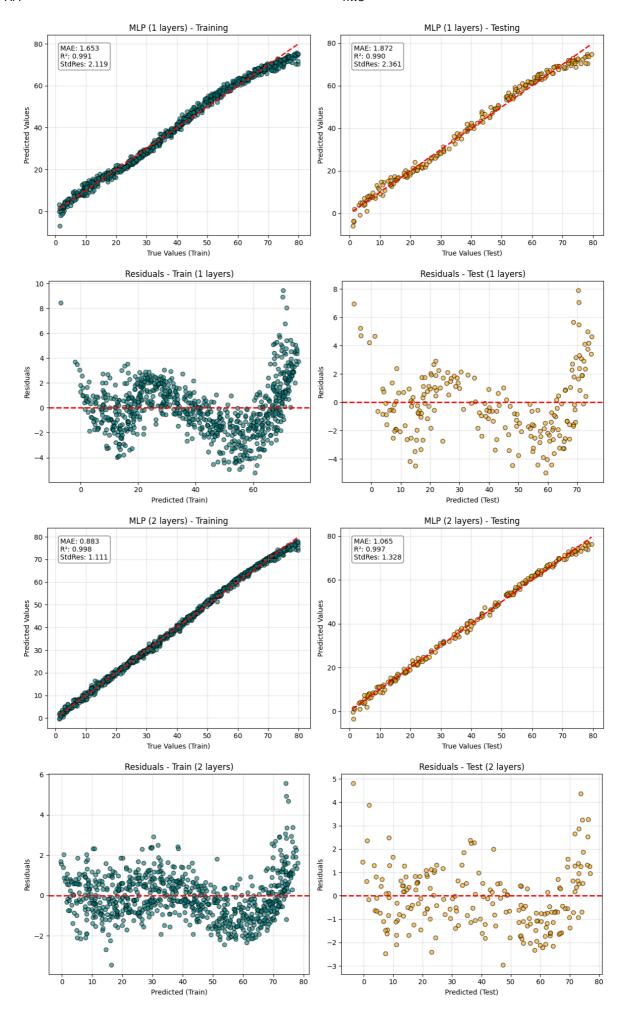
There is a clear pattern in the residual plot, with high residual values. The mean absolute error and R-squared are also high, indicating that the model does not fit the

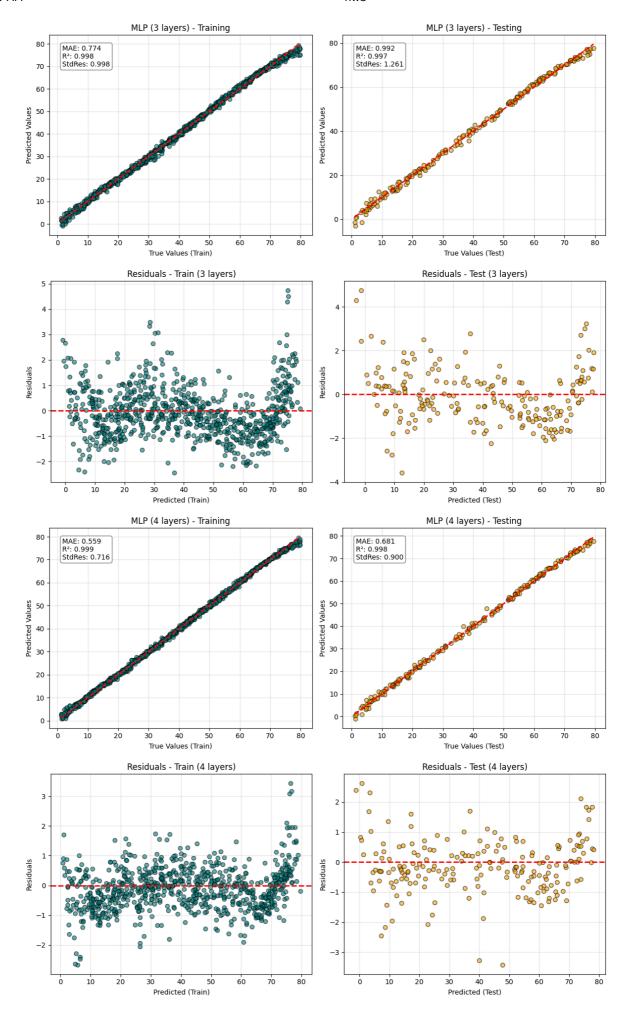
data well. Since the best performance is obtained when using all 10 components, the performance between Partial Least Squares Regression (PLSR) and linear regression is identical.

Multiple Layer Perceptron (MLP)

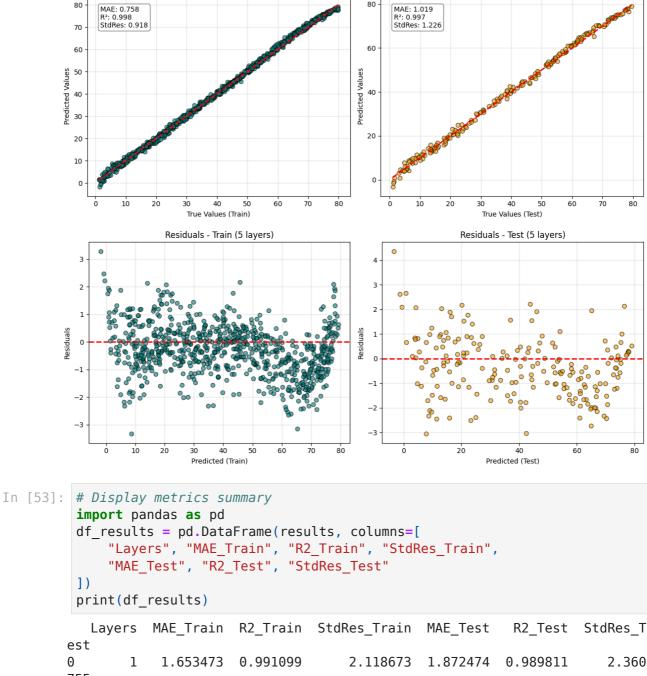
```
In [52]: import numpy as np
         import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
         from sklearn.neural_network import MLPRegressor
         from sklearn.metrics import mean absolute error, r2 score
         from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
         # Standardize data
         scaler X = StandardScaler()
         scaler_y = StandardScaler()
         X train scaled = scaler X.fit transform(X train)
         X test scaled = scaler X.transform(X test)
         y_train_scaled = scaler_y.fit_transform(y_train.reshape(-1, 1)).ravel()
         y test scaled = scaler y.transform(y test.reshape(-1, 1)).ravel()
         # Function to compute metrics
         def compute_metrics(y_true, y_pred):
             mae = mean absolute error(y true, y pred)
             r2 = r2_score(y_true, y_pred)
             std resid = np.std(y true - y pred)
             return mae, r2, std resid
         # To store results
         results = []
         # Loop over different layer counts
         for n layers in range(1, 6):
             # Create hidden layer sizes (each layer has 64 neurons)
             hidden layers = tuple([64] * n_layers)
             # Initialize and fit model
             model = MLPRegressor(hidden_layer_sizes=hidden_layers,
                                  activation='relu',
                                  solver='adam',
                                  max iter=2000,
                                   random_state=42)
             model.fit(X train scaled, y train scaled)
             # Predict
             y_train_pred = model.predict(X_train_scaled)
             y_test_pred = model.predict(X_test_scaled)
             # Inverse scale to original range
             y train pred inv = scaler y.inverse transform(y train pred.reshape(-1
             y_test_pred_inv = scaler_y.inverse_transform(y_test_pred.reshape(-1,
             # Metrics
             mae_train, r2_train, std_train = compute_metrics(y_train, y_train_pre
             mae_test, r2_test, std_test = compute_metrics(y_test, y_test_pred_inv
             results.append((n_layers, mae_train, r2_train, std_train, mae_test, r
```

```
# Plotting
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 5))
# Regression plot (Train/Test)
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.scatter(y train, y train pred inv, alpha=0.6, color='teal', edgec
plt.plot([y train.min(), y train.max()],
         [y_train.min(), y_train.max()], 'r--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("True Values (Train)")
plt.ylabel("Predicted Values")
plt.title(f"MLP ({n_layers} layers) - Training")
plt.text(0.05, 0.95,
         f"MAE: {mae train:.3f}\nR<sup>2</sup>: {r2_train:.3f}\nStdRes: {std_tra
         transform=plt.gca().transAxes, va='top',
         bbox=dict(boxstyle='round', fc='white', ec='gray'))
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.scatter(y test, y test pred inv, alpha=0.6, color='orange', edged
plt.plot([y test.min(), y test.max()],
         [y_test.min(), y_test.max()], 'r--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("True Values (Test)")
plt.ylabel("Predicted Values")
plt.title(f"MLP ({n layers} layers) - Testing")
plt.text(0.05, 0.95,
         f"MAE: {mae test:.3f}\nR<sup>2</sup>: {r2 test:.3f}\nStdRes: {std test:
         transform=plt.gca().transAxes, va='top',
         bbox=dict(boxstyle='round', fc='white', ec='gray'))
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
plt.tight layout()
plt.show()
# Residual plots
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 5))
resid_train = y_train - y_train_pred_inv
resid test = y test - y test pred inv
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.scatter(y_train_pred_inv, resid_train, alpha=0.6, color='teal', e
plt.axhline(0, color='r', linestyle='--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("Predicted (Train)")
plt.ylabel("Residuals")
plt.title(f"Residuals - Train ({n_layers} layers)")
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.scatter(y test pred inv, resid test, alpha=0.6, color='orange', e
plt.axhline(0, color='r', linestyle='--', lw=2)
plt.xlabel("Predicted (Test)")
plt.ylabel("Residuals")
plt.title(f"Residuals - Test ({n_layers} layers)")
plt.grid(True, alpha=0.3)
plt.tight layout()
plt.show()
```





MLP (5 layers) - Training



MLP (5 layers) - Testing

	Layers		112_110111	5 cartes_11 ain	11/1L_105	112_105	J cartes_1
es 0	t 1	1.653473	0.991099	2.118673	1.872474	0.989811	2.360
75. 1	2	0.882527	0.997538	1.111169	1.064976	0.996765	1.327
95 2	3	0.774416	0.998017	0.997985	0.991615	0.997096	1.260
60: 3 24:	4	0.558917	0.998952	0.716406	0.680537	0.998495	0.900
4	5	0.758482	0.998149	0.918464	1.019000	0.997052	1.226

Here, MLP networks with 1 to 5 layers, each containing 64 neurons, were implemented. The best model, achieving a mean absolute error of 0.680537 on the test set, was obtained with 4 layers. Models with one or two layers exhibit a curved pattern, indicating insufficient non-linearity to capture the inherent patterns in the data. As the number of layers increases (model complexity and non-linearity), the residuals scatter more randomly around zero, indicating a better fit to the data.

The linear regression and Partial Least Squares Regression (PLSR) models could not fit the data well, indicating high bias. In contrast, the MLP model fits the data very well and exhibits low bias, with comparable performance on both training and testing sets. However, a complex model that fits the training data closely may perform poorly when exposed to noisy or slightly different data, resulting in a significant drop in performance. This situation corresponds to a high-variance model. Therefore, careful evaluation of the model is necessary.