

1

2 Original Research Article

3

4 Exploring Forest Cover Dynamics in 5 Bangladesh: A Machine Learning and Google 6 Earth Engine Approach

7

8

10

11 ABSTRACT

Aims: This study aims to explore forest cover dynamics in Bangladesh by applying machine learning techniques to satellite-derived data, and to evaluate the performance of different algorithms in detecting and forecasting land cover changes.

Study Design: A quantitative, remote sensing-based analytical study was conducted using multi-temporal satellite imagery and machine learning models to assess land cover transitions over time.

Place and Duration of Study: The study was conducted across Bangladesh, covering the period from 2012 to 2023, using data processed through the Google Earth Engine platform.

Methodology: Satellite-derived indices and classified land cover datasets were analyzed to detect changes in forest and other land cover types using Landsat 8 (OLI) (30m), and Landsat 9 (OLI-2) (30m), MODIS MCD12Q1 (500m) sensors. Multiple machine learning algorithms, including Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) to capture temporal dependencies; Random Forest, Decision Trees, XGBoost, and Support Vector Machine (SVM), were implemented and compared based on their classification accuracy. Time-series analysis was applied to evaluate temporal patterns and improve prediction performance.

Results: Among the evaluated models, LSTM demonstrated the highest accuracy at 94%, followed by XGBoost (93%), Decision Trees (87%), and Random Forest (70%), while SVM showed the lowest performance at 67%. Land cover analysis revealed a substantial increase in waterbodies by 996.3 km² and built-up areas by 1,054.5 km², indicating changes driven by hydrological variation and rapid urbanization. In contrast, forest cover declined significantly by 1,999.8 km², along with a reduction in overall vegetation by 1,958 km², highlighting ongoing deforestation and ecosystem degradation.

Conclusion: The findings highlight significant transformations in Bangladesh's land cover, particularly the alarming loss of forest resources. The superior performance of LSTM underscores its effectiveness in capturing temporal dependencies for accurate forest cover change detection and forecasting. This study emphasizes the urgent need for sustainable land management strategies and provides valuable insights into the complex interactions between human activities and forest ecosystems.

12

13 *Keywords:* Forest Cover Dynamics, Machine Learning, Google Earth Engine, LSTM, Deforestation, Land Use Change,
14 Ecosystem Degradation

15

16

17 1. INTRODUCTION

18 The world's forests face unprecedented threats, including rampant deforestation, climate change, and unsustainable land
19 use practices. The Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) reports that global forest cover has decreased by around
20 10% since 1990, leading to significant biodiversity loss and disruptions to essential ecosystems (UNEP, 2020). This
21 concerning trend is not limited to developing nations; even developed countries are experiencing forest degradation,
22 mainly due to urban expansion and industrial development (Grantham et al., 2020). In Asia, a region marked by rapid
23 economic growth and increasing population density, forests are under tremendous pressure. Research indicates that

24 countries such as Indonesia and Malaysia have witnessed severe deforestation, largely driven by agricultural expansion
25 and logging (De Jong et al., 2017; Tsujino et al., 2016).

26 Turning to Bangladesh, we find a unique scenario in which a densely populated country strives to balance its
27 developmental ambitions with environmental sustainability (Ahmed, 2019). Forest degradation in Bangladesh is not just
28 an ecological issue. It is deeply intertwined with socio-economic challenges, such as poverty reduction, food security, and
29 the livelihoods of communities reliant on forest resources (Al Faruq et al., 2017; Islam et al., 2021; McKenna, 2020; Nath
30 et al., 2020). Given these pressing concerns, this research aims to unravel the complexities of forest cover changes in
31 Bangladesh, focusing on the factors driving these transformations and their environmental consequences. The ongoing
32 scientific discussion about forest dynamics brings together a variety of perspectives, each contributing uniquely to our
33 understanding of forests and their complex nature. Bangladesh's forests' challenges are multifaceted and can be better
34 understood by examining the country's diverse forest transition pathways (Hansen et al., 2008; Muzaffar et al., 2011; M.
35 M. Rahman, 2021). Some regions in Bangladesh have experienced increased forest cover, while others have seen
36 significant deforestation (Al Faruq et al., 2017; Biswas & Choudhury, 2007). These contrasting trends can be attributed to
37 factors such as the effectiveness of forest management policies, local community involvement, and the socio-economic
38 conditions of the population. Research highlights the importance of community-based forest management initiatives,
39 which have successfully enhanced conservation efforts and promoted sustainable livelihoods in certain areas (Al Faruq et
40 al., 2017). Other studies explore the attitudes and perceptions of local communities toward forest conservation, revealing
41 both the challenges and opportunities for collaborative management (Islam et al., 2021).

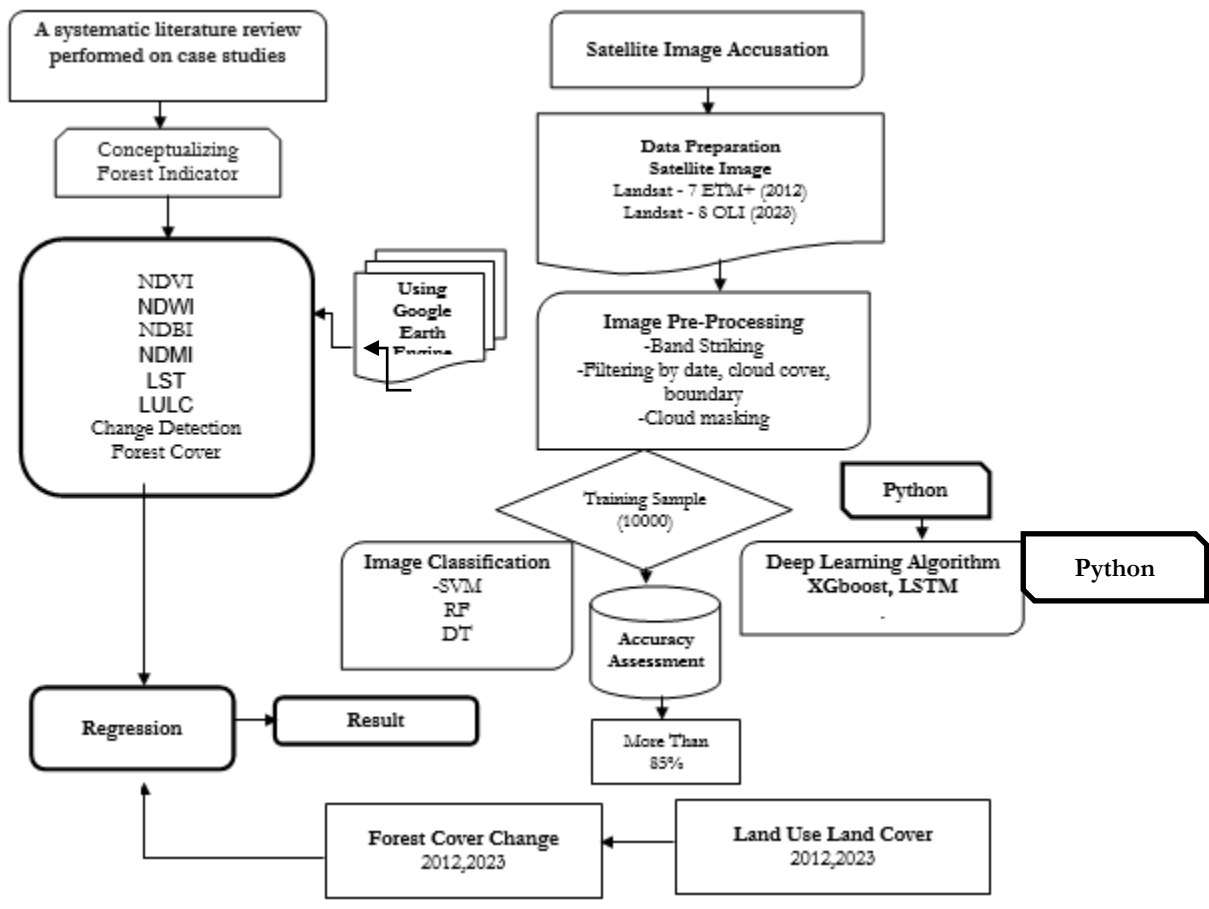
42 This research builds on these insights by exploring the relationship between remote sensing techniques, forest cover
43 changes, and the socio-economic factors influencing Bangladesh's land use and management practices. By combining
44 perspectives from forestry, environmental science, and the social sciences, the study aims to provide a deeper
45 understanding of the drivers and trends of forest cover change in the country. This approach challenges the traditional
46 view of forests as static entities, emphasizing the dynamic interplay of ecological and socio-economic factors that
47 influence forest dynamics. In this context, "forest dynamics" refers to the ongoing processes that affect forest cover,
48 including natural influences, climate variability, and human activities like agricultural expansion and urban development
49 (Tiefenbacher & Poreh, 2020). From an epistemological, technical and methodological standpoint, [user2.1]this study fills
50 an important gap in the literature, knowledge, contemporary methodologies like deep-learning based implementation, and
51 high resolution data usage on assessing forest cover dynamics in Bangladesh. Previous research has primarily relied on
52 remote sensing, GIS analysis, and statistical modeling to track forest cover changes (Potapov et al., 2017; Redowan et
53 al., 2014; Salam & Noguchi, 1998). However, these approaches often focus on one aspect of the issue, neglecting the
54 need for an integrated framework for diverse data sources and methodologies. On a global scale, remote sensing
55 technologies have proven effective in monitoring large-scale forest changes, such as in the Amazon rainforest, where
56 satellite imagery has been used to track deforestation patterns over time (Clark et al., 2011; Hansen et al., 2008).
57 Similarly, GIS has been widely applied in Asia to study forests' spatial distribution and drivers, providing important insights
58 into land use changes (Sano et al., 2021). However, these methods often miss the finer details of forest dynamics like lack
59 of high resolution data usage, or more dependable contemporary methodological implementation, especially in
60 Bangladesh (Erickson et al., 1993; S. Rahman, 2016).

61 This study aims to bridge this gap by adopting a more comprehensive approach integrating remote sensing data with
62 socio-economic indicators and community perceptions. This research offers a more nuanced understanding of forest
63 cover dynamics in Bangladesh by utilizing Google Earth Engine's extensive satellite imagery and geospatial datasets,
64 along with Python programming for machine learning and statistical analysis (Aung et al., 2021; Tiefenbacher & Poreh,
65 2020). Integrating socio-economic data and environmental indicators allows for a thorough analysis of the drivers behind
66 forest cover changes, providing evidence-based recommendations for sustainable land management and conservation
67 strategies in the country.

68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81

82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96

2. METHODS



97

98

Figure 1: Methodological Overview of the Research

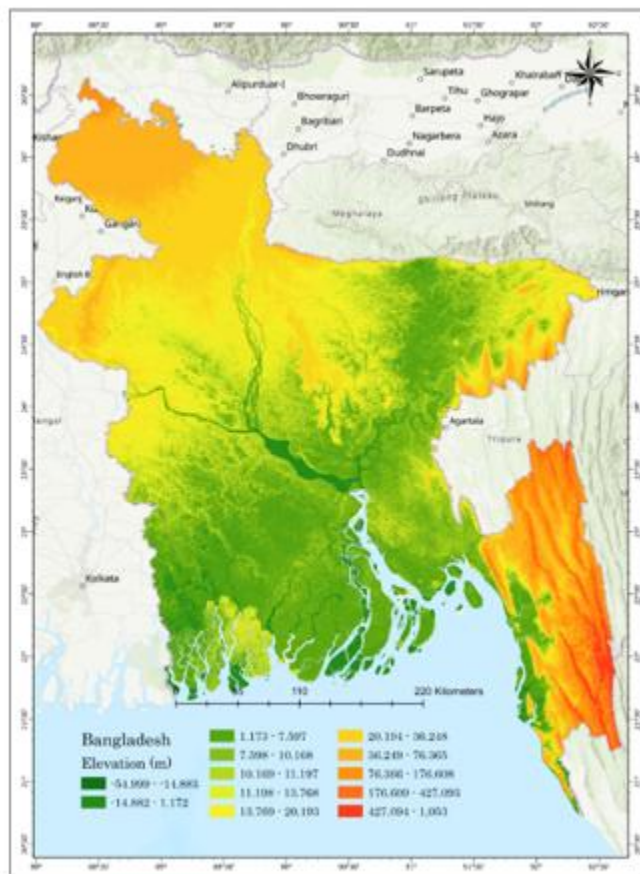
99

2.1 Study Area

This analysis utilizes highly detailed, spatially structured data derived from various land use zones within Bangladesh, a country recognized as an agroecological hotspot in South Asia. Located between latitudes 20°34' and 26°38' N and longitudes 88°01' and 92°41' E (see Figure 2), Bangladesh encompasses a rich tapestry of coastal areas, wetlands, forests, and agricultural lands. Bangladesh covers the administrative area of approximately 147,570 square kilometers. Bangladesh shares border with India in west, north; and Myanmar in the southeastern part. In the southern part there is Bay of Bengal. The country's topography is characterized by a mixture of features, including flat alluvial plains in the central and coastal regions alongside hilly terrains in the southeast and northeast. A Landsat-based land use and land cover (LULC) change study conducted in the early 2000s highlighted Bangladesh's diverse terrain as a compelling case for analyzing LULC changes and their impacts, given its variable land uses and land cover types (Rai et al., 2017).

109

110 Bangladesh's tropical monsoon climate significantly shapes its vegetation and agricultural cycles (Azad et al., 2022;
 111 Shahid, 2010).



112

113 **Figure 2: Study area Map of Bangladesh**

114 **2. Data**

115 **2.1 Data Sources**

116 The study dataset integrates satellite-based imagery and global monitoring systems to track changes in forest cover and
 117 related environmental variables. The analysis employs multiple indices, such as the Normalized Difference Vegetation
 118 Index (NDVI) and Normalized Difference Moisture Index (NDMI), to assess forest health, moisture content, and built-up
 119 area impacts on forest landscapes. Table 1 outlines each dataset's specific data sources, resolutions, and descriptions.

120 **Table 1: Data and Data source table**

Data Type	Source	Spatial Resolution	Temporal Resolution	Description	Adapted Sources
NDVI	Landsat 7,8	30m	16 days	Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) quantifies vegetation health and density across time and space.	(28–30)
NDMI	Landsat 7,8	30m	16 days	Normalized Difference Moisture Index (NDMI) monitors moisture content within vegetation and can detect drought stress.	(31–33)
NDBI	Landsat 7,8	30m	16 days	Normalized Difference Built-Up Index (NDBI) helps identify urban and built-up areas within land use classifications.	(34–36)

LULC	Landsat, MODIS	30m	Annual	Land Use/Land Cover (LULC) classification provides information on various land cover types (forest, agriculture, urban).	(37–39)
Forest Change	Global Forest Change dataset	30m	Annual	Global Forest Change dataset monitors annual forest cover loss and gain globally, using consistent methods.	(40,41)
NDWI	Landsat 7,8	30m	16 days	Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI) detects waterbodies, aiding in identifying hydrological changes.	(42–44)

121

122

2.2 Preprocessing

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

2.3 LULC Classification

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

The Land Use and Land Cover (LULC) classification was a vital aspect of this study, which analyzed the spatial distribution and changes in land cover over time across Bangladesh (Table. 2). High-resolution satellite imagery from Landsat 7&8 (30m) and MODIS MCD12Q1 (500m) of <10% cloud cover from 2012 and to 2023 was taken selected for a detailed and accurate classification. The preprocessing involved atmospheric correction, radiometric calibration, and geometric alignment, ensuring the data were standardized and free from inconsistencies caused by atmospheric and sensor variations. For the training phase, a comprehensive dataset of 10,000 points was developed[user9.1] using the stratified random sampling strategy (stratified based on existing land cover maps to reduce bias towards dominant classes) on the ground truth data from visual interpretation of high-resolution Google Earth imagery and Landsat false-color composites, representing key land cover types, including waterbodies, built-up areas, barren land, vegetation, forest, and agricultural land. These points were carefully selected to account for the spectral diversity of each class, improving the classification accuracy. Several advanced algorithms were used to classify the LULC. Decision Trees and Support Vector Machines (SVM) were employed for their effectiveness in non-linear classification problems. Decision Trees provide a simple yet powerful way to partition data based on feature values. At the same time, SVM offers high accuracy by finding the optimal hyperplane that separates classes in feature space. Random Forest, an ensemble of decision trees, enhanced the classification's robustness and reduced overfitting by averaging predictions across multiple trees. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks, known for their ability to model sequential data, were applied to capture temporal dependencies in land cover changes, improving the detection of long-term patterns. XGBoost, a highly efficient gradient boosting algorithm, was also utilized for its speed and accuracy in handling large datasets. Its ability to correct errors iteratively and handle missing values made it ideal for this complex classification task. Post-processing techniques were applied to refine the classification results, reducing noise and enhancing the precision of the LULC maps. In Google Earth Engine, post-processing methods such as boundary smoothing, sieving to eliminate isolated pixels smaller than 0.5 ha, and majority filtering (3x3 kernel) were used to improve the spatial coherence of the LULC maps and lessen salt-and-pepper noise. Validation was conducted using a separate set of validation points to assess the models' accuracy, and metrics such as overall accuracy, user's accuracy, producer's accuracy, and the Kappa coefficient were calculated to ensure the reliability of the results.

157

Table 2: Description of Land Cover

LULC Type	Description
Waterbodies	Includes rivers, lakes, reservoirs, and other inundated areas.
Built-Up Areas	Areas covered by impervious surfaces like buildings, roads, and urban structures.
Barren Land	Areas with exposed soil, rocks, and minimal vegetation.
Vegetation	Includes grasslands, parks, and non-forest green areas.
Forest	Dense tree cover, including both natural and reforested areas.
Agricultural Land	Areas used for farming, including croplands and plantations.

158

2.4 Change Detection Algorithms

In order to highlight cloud-based image processing and classification several change detection algorithms like Decision Trees (DT), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Random Forest (RF) machine learning algorithms; and XGBoost, Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) deep learning algorithms were utilized in this study for identifying shifts in land use and land cover over time. In order to quantify changes between land cover classes, the final maps were compared pixel-by-pixel, with a focus on the dynamics of forest cover.

2.4.1 Traditional Machine Learning

Decision Trees (DT) are supervised learning models that iteratively divide data into groups using input feature values as criteria, resulting in a tree-like structure of decisions. In the context of LULC classification, DTs demonstrate effectiveness in tasks such as vegetation mapping, urban land classification, and land use change detection, primarily due to their simplicity and interpretability. They classify different land cover types based on spectral signatures derived from satellite imagery (Talukdar et al., 2020).

Support Vector Machines (SVM) are designed to find the optimal hyperplane that separates data into distinct classes while maximizing the margin between them. SVMs are particularly useful in LULC classification due to their ability to handle complex, non-linear decision boundaries and high-dimensional data. They effectively classify land cover types using a combination of spectral, textural, and contextual information extracted from remote sensing imagery, making them suitable for tasks such as land cover mapping, crop type classification, and change detection (Talukdar et al., 2020).

Random Forest (RF) is an ensemble learning algorithm aggregating predictions from multiple decision trees to enhance accuracy and robustness. RFs are adept at handling high-dimensional data and mitigating overfitting, providing reliable predictions across various applications. In LULC classification, RFs effectively classify land cover types by utilizing multi-spectral, temporal, and spatial features extracted from remote sensing data, making them valuable for land cover mapping, deforestation monitoring, and urban growth analysis (Rodrigues et al., 2020).

2.4.2 Deep Learning

XGBoost, or Extreme Gradient Boosting, is a robust machine learning algorithm that enhances computation speed and model accuracy through gradient boosting. Developed by Tianqi Chen, XGBoost constructs a series of decision trees, each aiming to correct its predecessor's errors. This method increases overall accuracy and reduces the risk of overfitting. Notably, XGBoost has shown significant efficacy in wildfire forecasting, as it can process extensive datasets from various sources, including meteorological and geospatial data, to predict fire occurrence and conditions effectively (Zhang et al., 2021).

Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks are a specialized recurrent neural network (RNN) architecture designed to model sequences and time-series data. Unlike standard RNNs, LSTMs can learn long-term dependencies, making them particularly effective for tasks with crucial sequence context (Graves, 2012). In LULC classification, LSTMs are adept at analyzing temporal sequences in remote sensing data, enabling them to track variations in land cover across periods. Their application extends to crop monitoring, where they assess growth and health through time-series analysis of vegetation indices, and urban growth analysis, where they track expansion trends. By capturing and learning from temporal patterns in the data, LSTMs contribute to more accurate predictions, such as forecasting crop yield by analyzing sequences of remote sensing images throughout the growing season (Yuan & Ling, 2020). The temporal framework comprised a 12-step time series of spectral bands and indices (NDVI, NDMI, NDBI, and NDWI) made using annual median composites obtained from Landsat 7 and 8 imagery for every year from 2012 to 2023. In order to balance data accessibility, cloud-free coverage, and computational viability while enabling LSTM to capture inter-annual temporal correlations in forest cover dynamics, this annual structure was used.

2.3 Accuracy Assessment

The Land Use and Land Cover (LULC) classification accuracy was evaluated using an error matrix within the Google Earth Engine (GEE) environment. This matrix compared the classified LULC results with the validation points, allowing us to assess the model's performance. For a robust evaluation, key metrics such as Kappa coefficient (K), overall accuracy (OA), user accuracy (UA), and producer accuracy (PA) were computed based on the confusion matrix. These accuracy measurements provide a thorough grasp of how well the model performed in distinguishing between different LULC classes, particularly considering variations in the quality of satellite images and the spatial distribution of the sample points.

The overall accuracy (OA) was computed by dividing the count of correctly classified pixels by the count of all reference pixels, as shown in Equation 2. User accuracy (UA) was determined for each LULC class by finding the proportion of accurately classified pixels in each category out of the overall reference pixel count in that class (Equation 3). Producer accuracy (PA) was also calculated for each class, measuring the proportion of reference pixels correctly classified, as per

217 Equation 4. The Kappa coefficient (K) was also derived to account for the possibility of random agreement between the
218 classified results and the reference data, calculated using Equation 5 (Fitzgerald & Lees, 1994).

219 The equations used for the accuracy assessment are as follows:

220 Overall accuracy = $\frac{\text{Total number of corrected classified pixels (diagonal)}}{\text{total number of reference pixels}} * 100$ (2)

221 User Accuracy = $\frac{\text{number of correctly classified pixels in each category (diagonal)}}{\text{total number of reference pixels in each category (row total)}} * 100$ (3)

222 P.A = $\frac{\text{number of correctly classified pixels in each category (diagonal)}}{\text{total number of reference pixels in each category (column total)}} * 100$ (4)

223 K.C(T) = $\frac{\text{Total number of Sample} * \text{Total Number of Corrected Sample} - \sum(\text{col. tot} * \text{row tot})}{(\text{Total number of Sample})^2 - \sum(\text{col. tot} * \text{row tot})} * 100$ (5)

224 Here P.A = Producer Accuracy

225 K.C (T) = Kappa Coefficient

226 Deep learning method like LSTM, was employed for the classification because of their superior capacity to capture
227 complex spatial and temporal patterns in land cover data. These models were implemented using Python libraries and
228 executed on Google Colab, where their performance was evaluated through Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC)
229 curves and the Area Under the Curve (AUC) metric. These metrics provided insight into the classification models'
230 sensitivity and specificity, further validating the models' effectiveness in distinguishing between different LULC classes.
231 The workflow was performed in the GEE platform and Python environment, including collecting training and validation
232 points, classification, and accuracy assessments. The post-classification accuracy analysis provided a solid foundation for
233 identifying LULC change patterns over time, allowing us to track land cover transitions from 2012 to 2023 (Figure 2).

234 235 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

236 The study presents the performance of various machine learning and deep learning algorithms applied to Land
237 Use and Land Cover (LULC) classification and change detection in Bangladesh. Each algorithm's performance
238 metrics were discussed, including overall accuracy, Kappa coefficient, and class-wise accuracy.

239 Performance of Machine Learning Algorithms

240 Table 1 summarizes the overall accuracy and Kappa coefficient for Decision Trees, Support Vector Machine
241 (SVM), and Random Forest algorithms applied to LULC classification. Decision Trees achieved the highest
242 overall accuracy of 87% with a Kappa coefficient of 82%, indicating its strong performance in classifying
243 different LULC types. Random Forest exhibited a moderate overall accuracy of 70%, while SVM, despite being
244 effective in specific applications, showed relatively lower performance with 67% overall accuracy and a Kappa
245 coefficient of 65%. The observed lower performance of RF in this study may be explained by suboptimal
246 hyperparameter tuning, high spectral similarity among some LULC classes in the complex Bangladeshi
247 landscape, or the relatively small training sample size in relation to feature dimensionality, even though RF
248 typically outperforms DT in ensemble settings due to variance reduction. These elements emphasize how
249 crucial meticulous model optimization is in diverse settings.

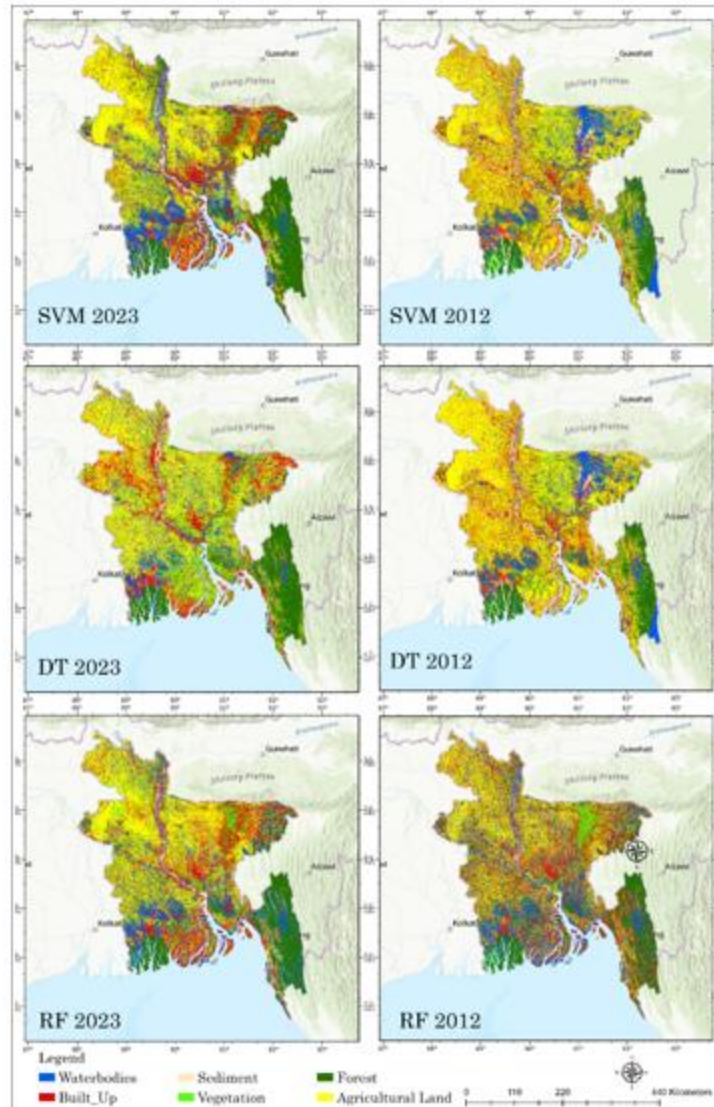


Figure 3: LULC classification Using Machine Learning Algorithm

This study compared the performance of three machine learning algorithms decision Trees, Support Vector Machine (SVM), and Random Forest for mapping Land Use/Land Cover (LULC) shown in (figure 3).

Decision Trees algorithm gave the best overall results, with an accuracy of 87% and a Kappa coefficient of 82. It was particularly good at classifying forest areas (92%) and waterbodies (90%), but it struggled the most with agricultural land (75%). The confusion matrix showed that Decision Trees correctly identified waterbodies (1840 points) and built-up areas (1700 points), but agricultural land was misclassified 100 times as other categories.

SVM algorithm had an overall accuracy of 67% and a Kappa coefficient of 65, which was lower than Decision Trees. SVM performed best on forest areas (80%) and vegetation (75%), but had trouble with built-up areas (60%) and agricultural land (55%). The confusion matrix revealed that agricultural land was often misclassified—233 times as barren land and 100 times as vegetation. It also had issues with correctly identifying waterbodies and built-up areas.

Random Forest algorithm performed better than SVM, with an overall accuracy of 70% and a Kappa coefficient of 65. It was especially good at classifying forest areas (82%) and vegetation (78%), while

266 agricultural land was still the weakest category (65%). The confusion matrix for Random Forest showed fewer
267 misclassifications than SVM. For example, 1367 points were correctly identified as forest, with fewer
268 misclassifications than SVM.

269 Deep Learning Algorithms

270 Deep learning algorithm, LSTM was evaluated for LULC classification and change detection. LSTM
271 demonstrated superior performance with an overall accuracy of 94%, outperforming XGBoost (93%), Random
272 Forest (82%), and Decision Trees (87%). The ROC curve (Figure 4) for LSTM and XGBoost shows excellent
273 sensitivity and specificity in predicting LULC classes. The LSTM model used a 12-step annual time series
274 (2012–2023) built from median composites of Landsat 5, 8, and 9 images, even though the core LULC maps
275 were created between 2012 and 2023. Compared to static models that handled each year separately, this
276 temporal structure allowed LSTM to incorporate inter-annual dependencies in spectral indices and bands,
277 providing contextual information that increased classification accuracy. In order to balance cloud-free data
278 availability and computational efficiency in the Google Earth Engine environment, a modest temporal depth
279 was chosen.

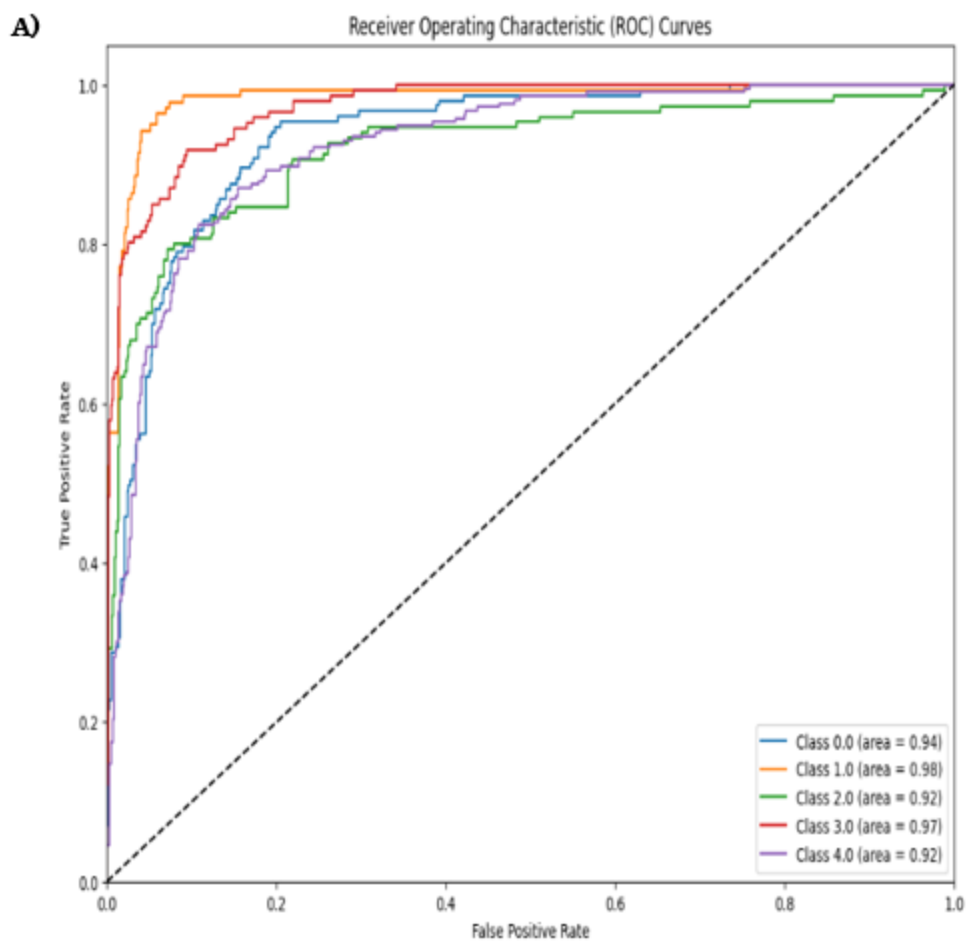
280 Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves and Area Under the Curve (AUC) under the one-vs-rest (OvR)
281 method, which calculates a distinct ROC curve for each class versus all others, were used to further assess the
282 model's performance for the multiclass LULC classification. Strong discriminative capacity was confirmed by
283 this approach's high AUC values (ranging from 0.92 to 0.98 across classes), especially for the LSTM and
284 XGBoost models.

285

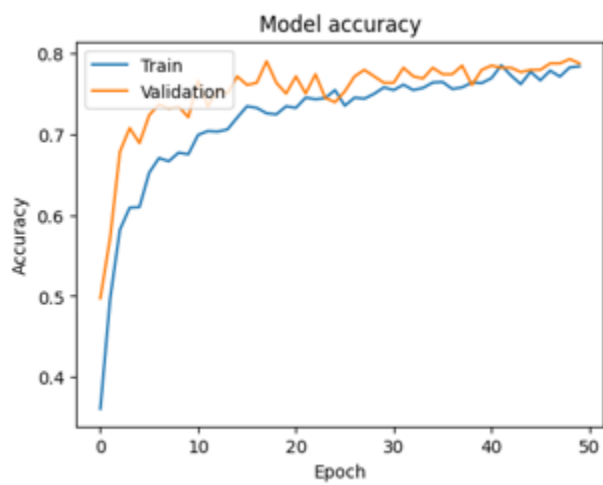
286

287

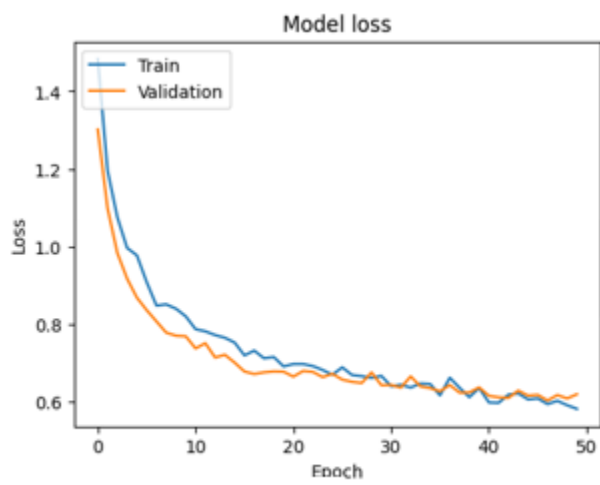
288



289

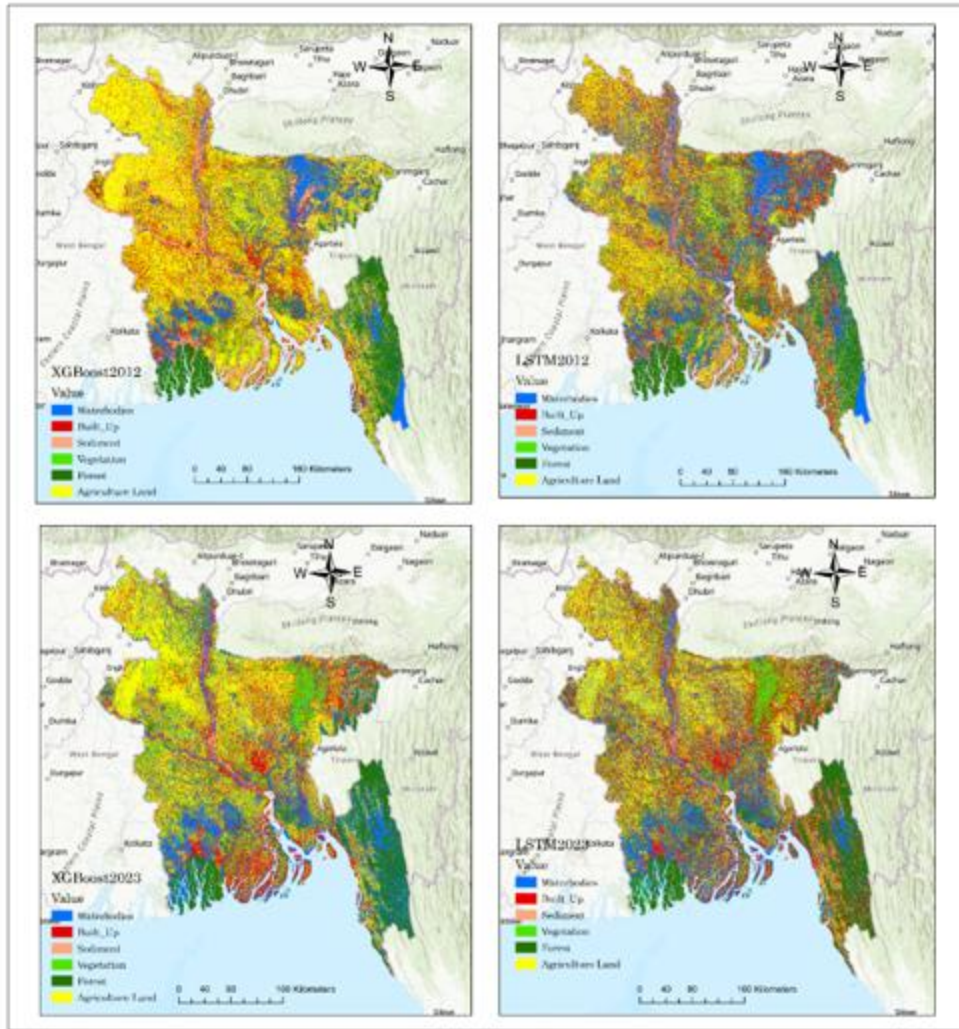


290



291

Figure 4: ROC Curve for Deep Learning Algorithms

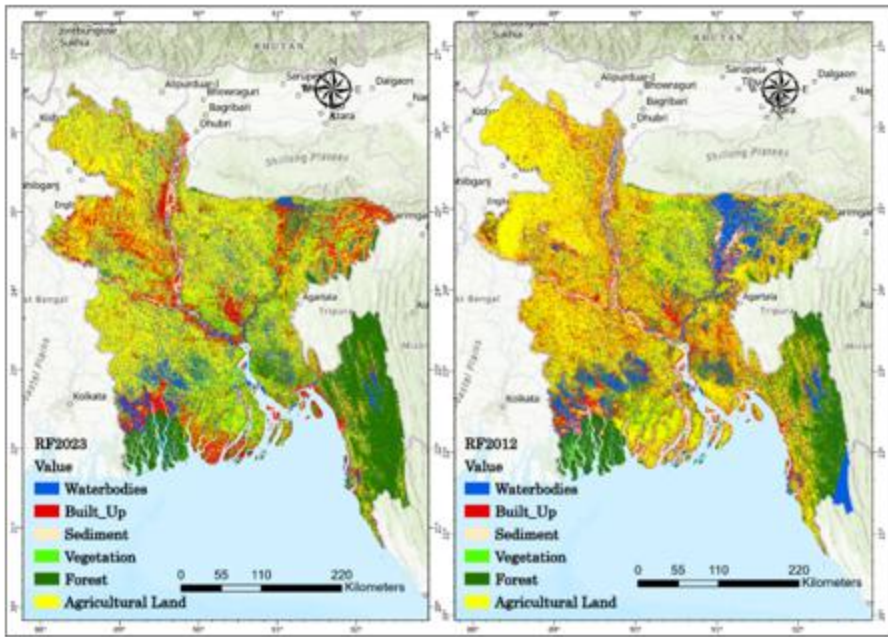


292

293 **Figure 5:** LULC Classification Using Deep Learning Algorithm

294 Selecting the Best Algorithm for Change Detection

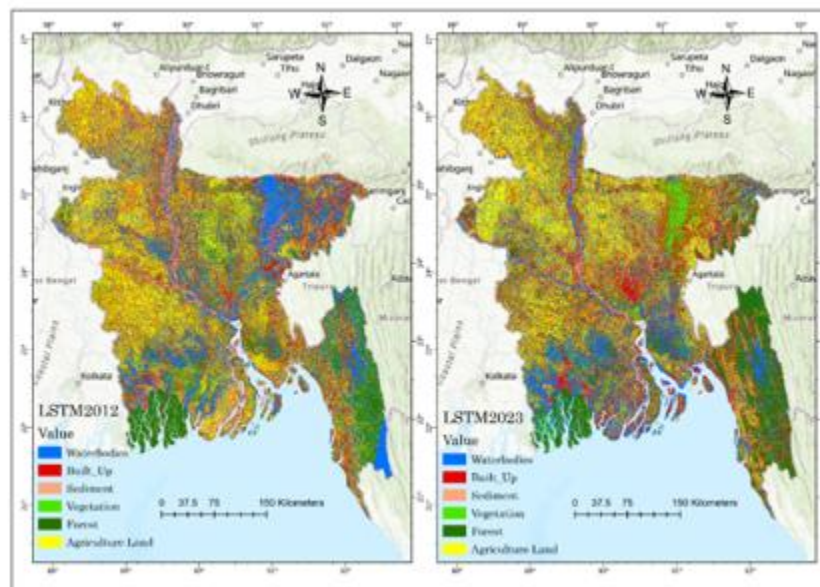
295 In the context of change detection, LSTM emerged as the best-performing algorithm (Figure 7), achieving an
 296 overall accuracy of 94%, which significantly outperformed other machine learning methods, including Random
 297 Forest (Figure 6) and Decision Trees. LSTM's ability to capture complex temporal dependencies makes it
 298 particularly suitable for detecting changes in forest cover over time. XGBoost, with an accuracy of 93% (Figure
 299 5), also demonstrated robust performance but was slightly less effective than LSTM in this specific application.
 300 Support Vector Machine (SVM), with an accuracy of 70%, lagged in this task. LSTM's superior accuracy and
 301 ability to model temporal patterns in the data make it the preferred choice for accurate change detection and
 302 forecasting in Bangladesh's forest ecosystems.



303

304

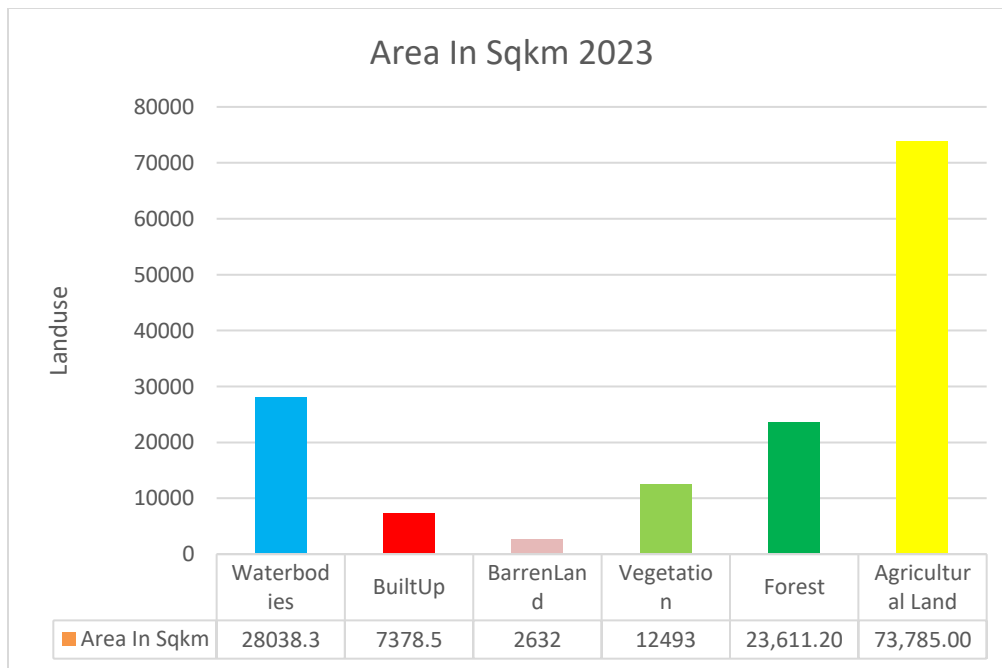
Figure 6: Best Machine Learning Algorithm for LULC Classification



305

306

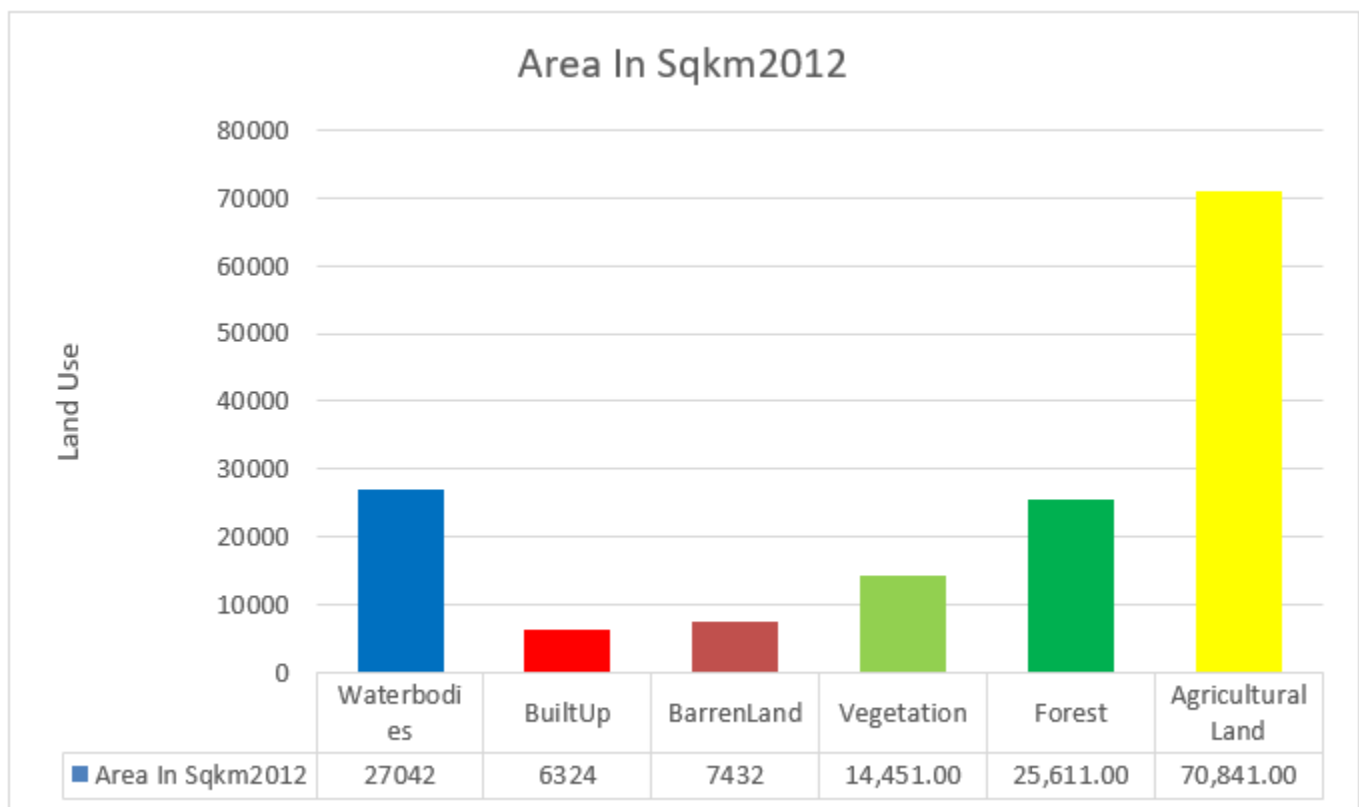
Figure 7: Best Machine Learning Algorithm for LULC Classification



307

308

Figure 8: Total Land cover area in sqkm in 2023



309

310

Figure 9: Total Land cover area in sqkm in 2012

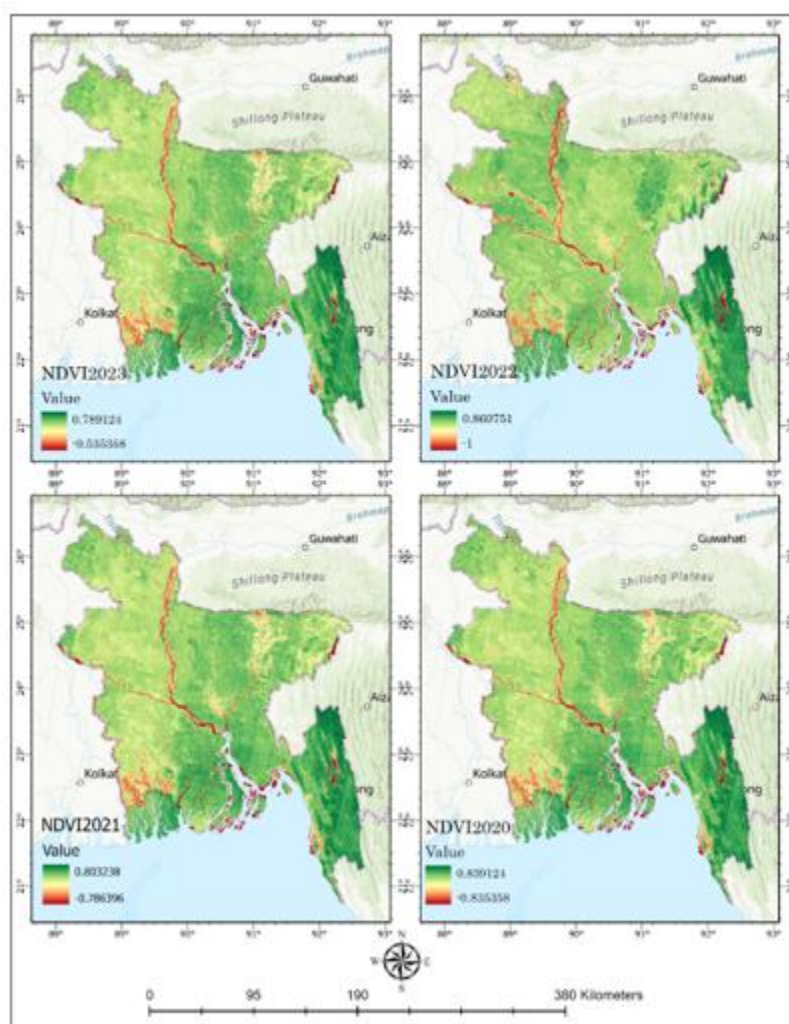
311 The land-use analysis of Bangladesh between 2012 and 2023 shows (Figure 8 and Figure 9) significant changes in both
 312 environmental and human activities, highlighting challenges for sustainable development. Waterbodies grew from 27,042
 313 km² to 28,038.3 km², possibly due to natural expansion or human interventions like reservoirs and better water
 314 management, although further investigation is required to establish causal relationships. Built-up areas increased from

315 6,324 km² to 7,378.5 km², reflecting rapid urbanization driven by population growth and economic development. At the
316 same time, barren land decreased from 7,432 km² to 2,632 km², likely due to reforestation or redevelopment efforts.
317 However, there was a worrying decline in forest cover, which dropped from 25,611 km² to 23,611.2 km², and vegetation
318 areas fell from 14,451 km² to 12,493 km², pointing to deforestation and habitat loss. Agricultural land grew slightly from
319 70,841 km² to 73,785 km², reflecting efforts to meet rising food demands.

320 These changes show the complex relationship between human activities and environmental shifts, raising concerns about
321 Bangladesh's land-use practices' sustainability. The expansion of urban and agricultural areas and the decline of natural
322 habitats highlight the need for sustainable land management to balance environmental protection with socioeconomic
323 growth.

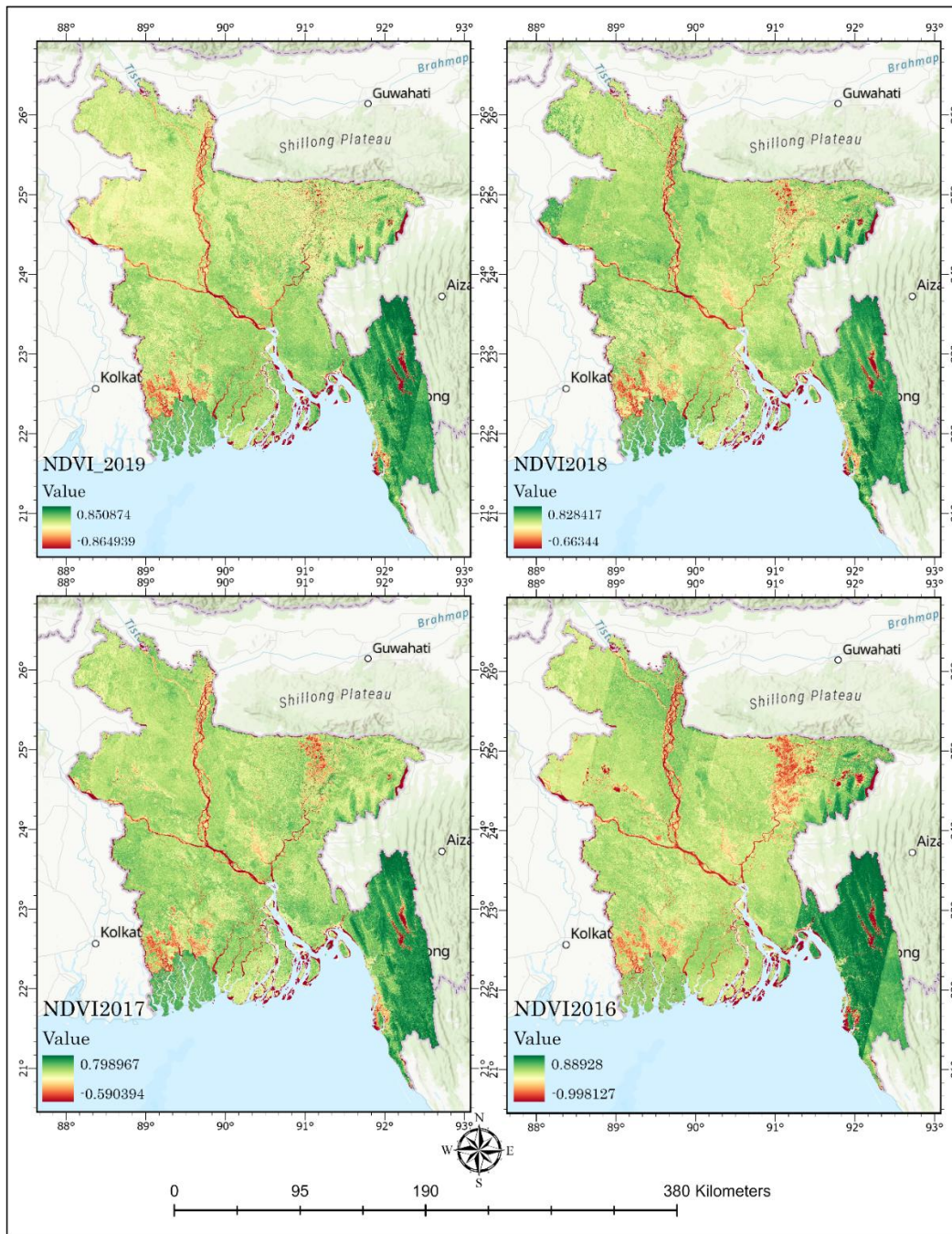
324 To understand these dynamics further, a detailed forest cover change analysis was done using satellite data from
325 Landsat, MODIS, and the Global Forest Change dataset. Vegetation indices like NDVI, NDMI, and NDBI were calculated
326 to assess vegetation health and land characteristics. The study also used regression analysis to link vegetation indices
327 with forest cover changes. The results revealed strong correlations, suggesting that satellite-derived indices can help
328 predict forest cover changes, which is crucial for addressing deforestation and habitat degradation in Bangladesh

329



330

331 **Figure 10:** Normalized Vegetation Index from year 2023 to 2020

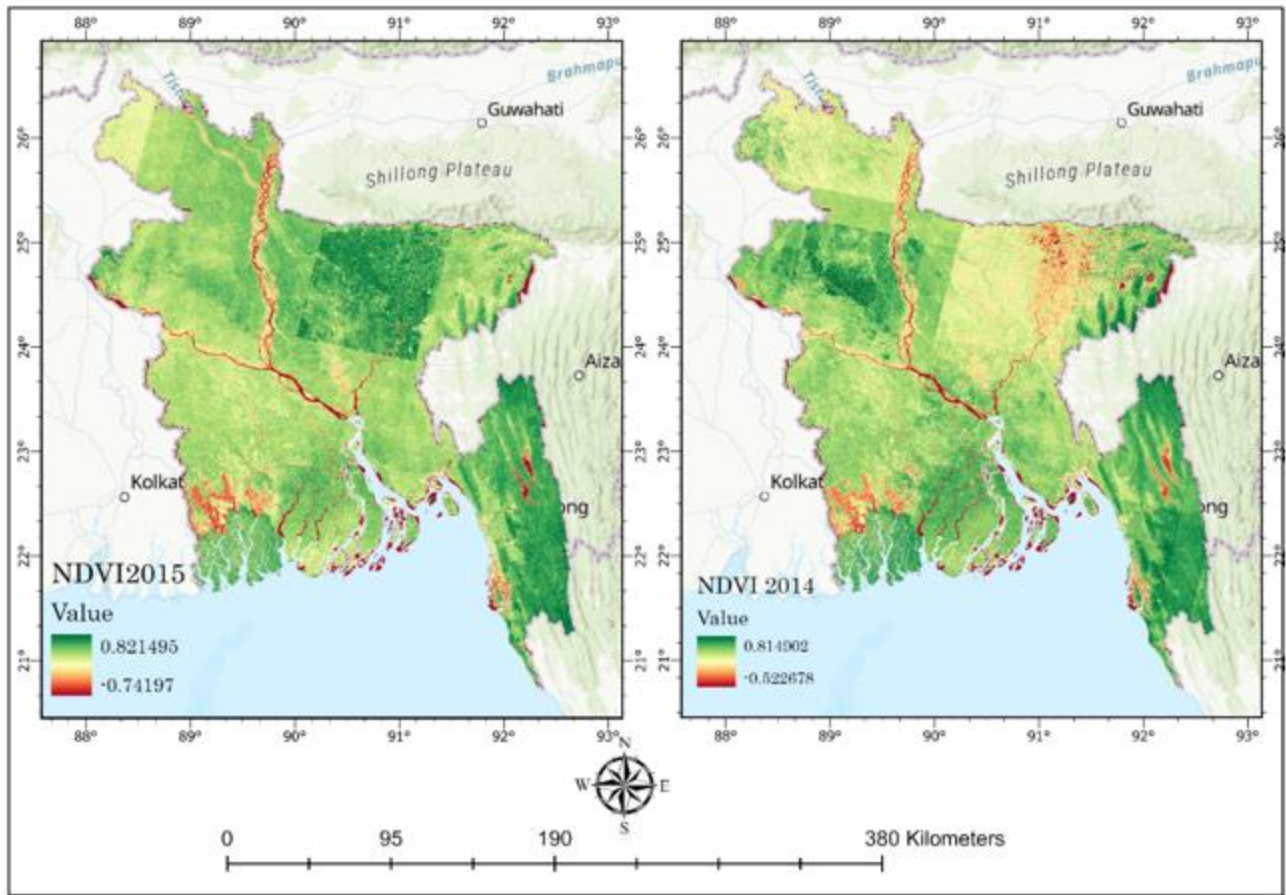


332

333

Figure 11: Normalized Vegetation Index from year 2019 to 2016

334



335

336

Figure 12: Normalized Vegetation Index from year 2015 to 2014

337

338

339

340

341

342

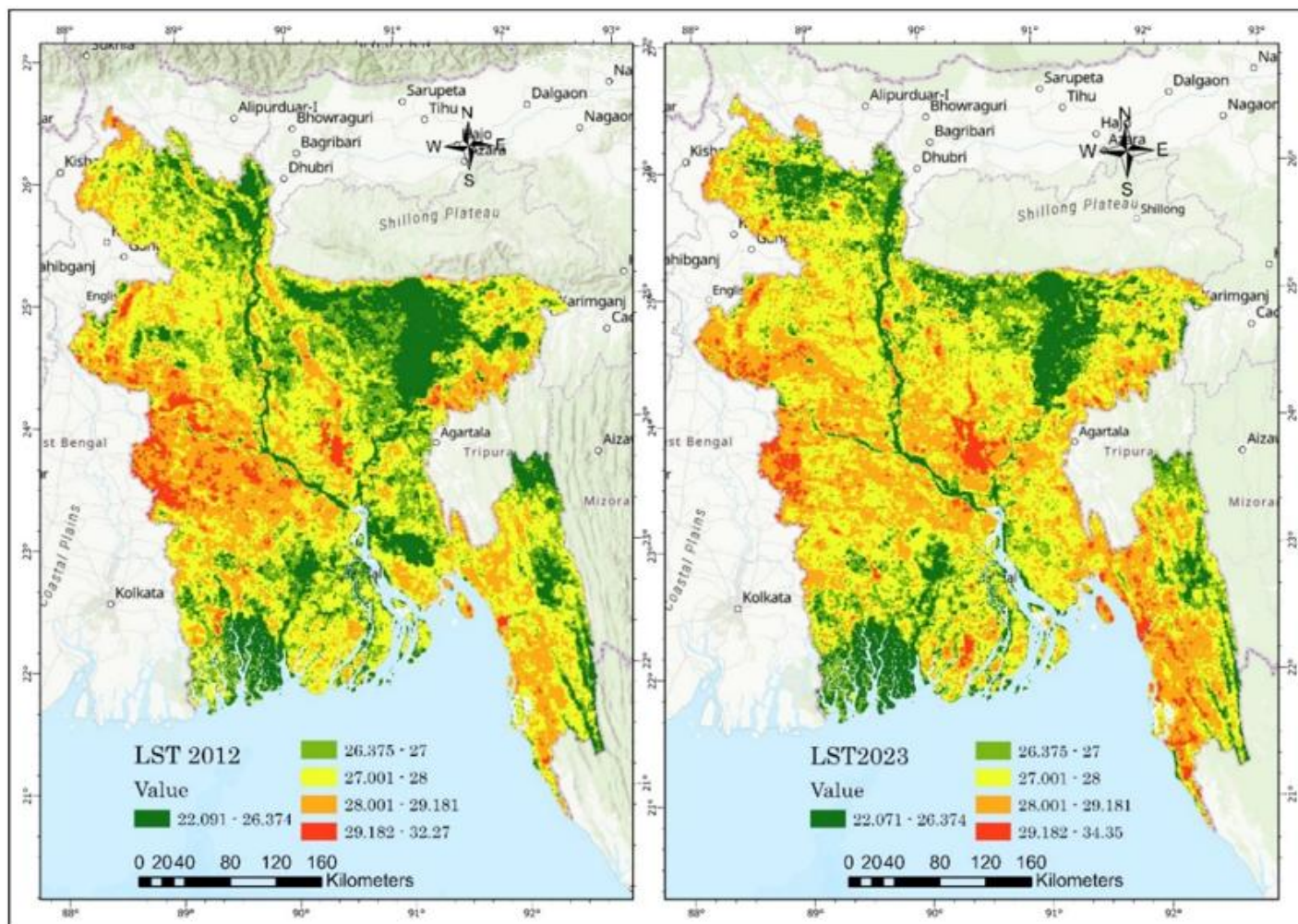
343

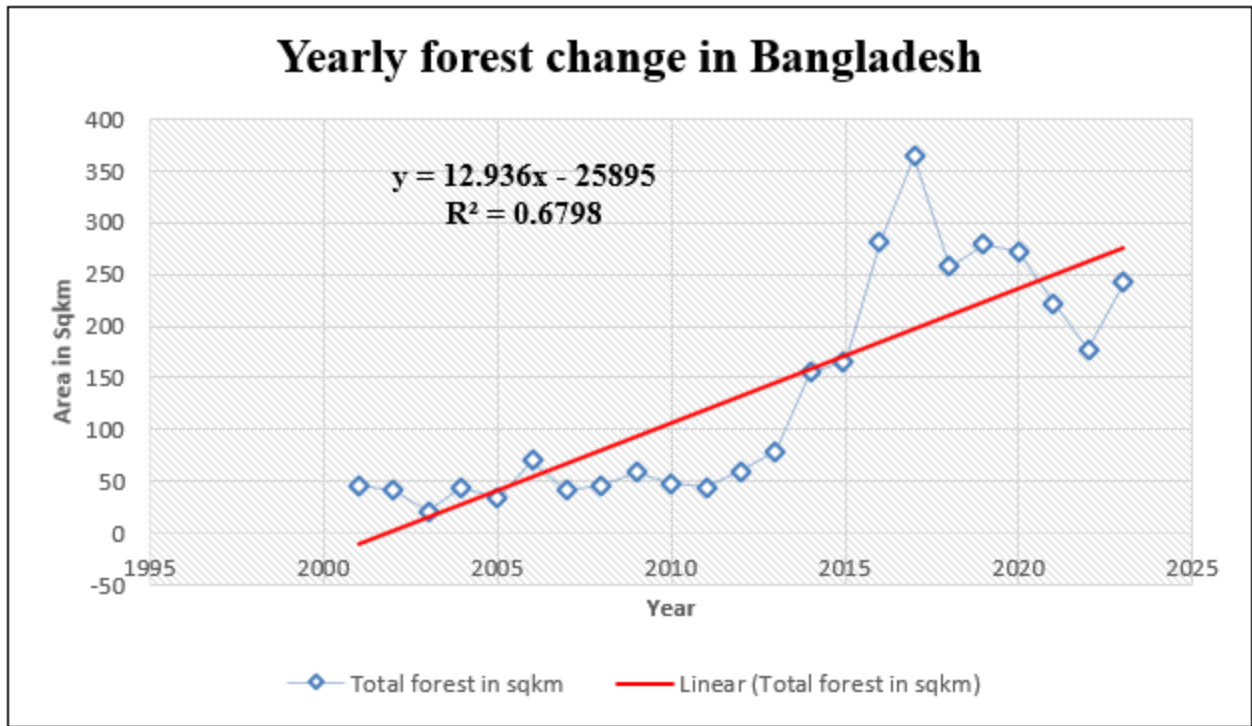
344

This analysis looks at changes in key environmental indices between 2012 and 2023 shows in (Figure 10-12) and how they relate to forest cover in Bangladesh. The NDVI ranged (Table 3) from -0.356 to 0.714 in 2012 and -0.317 to 0.712 in 2023, showing shifts in vegetation health linked to changes in forest cover. The Normalized Difference Built-Up Index (NDBI) increased from -0.192 to 0.694 in 2012 to -0.314 to 0.673 in 2023, reflecting urban growth driven by population increase and infrastructure expansion, which likely put pressure on nearby forests. The NDWI ranged from -0.614 to 0.447 in 2012 and -0.613 to 0.427 in 2023, indicating changes in water distribution that may influence forest habitats. Similarly, the NDMI ranged from 0.447 to 0.694 in 2012 and from -0.314 to 0.673 in 2023, suggesting shifts in moisture levels that are important for forest health, especially during drought or deforestation.

345

Indices	Year	Minimum Value	Maximum Value
NDVI	2012	-0.35634	0.713778
NDBI	2012	-0.192409	0.69375
NDWI	2012	-0.614147	0.446722
NDMI	2012	0.446722	0.69374
NDVI	2023	-0.316794	0.71212
NDBI	2023	-0.313627	0.673196
NDWI	2023	-0.61296	0.42696
NDMI	2023	-0.313627	0.67319

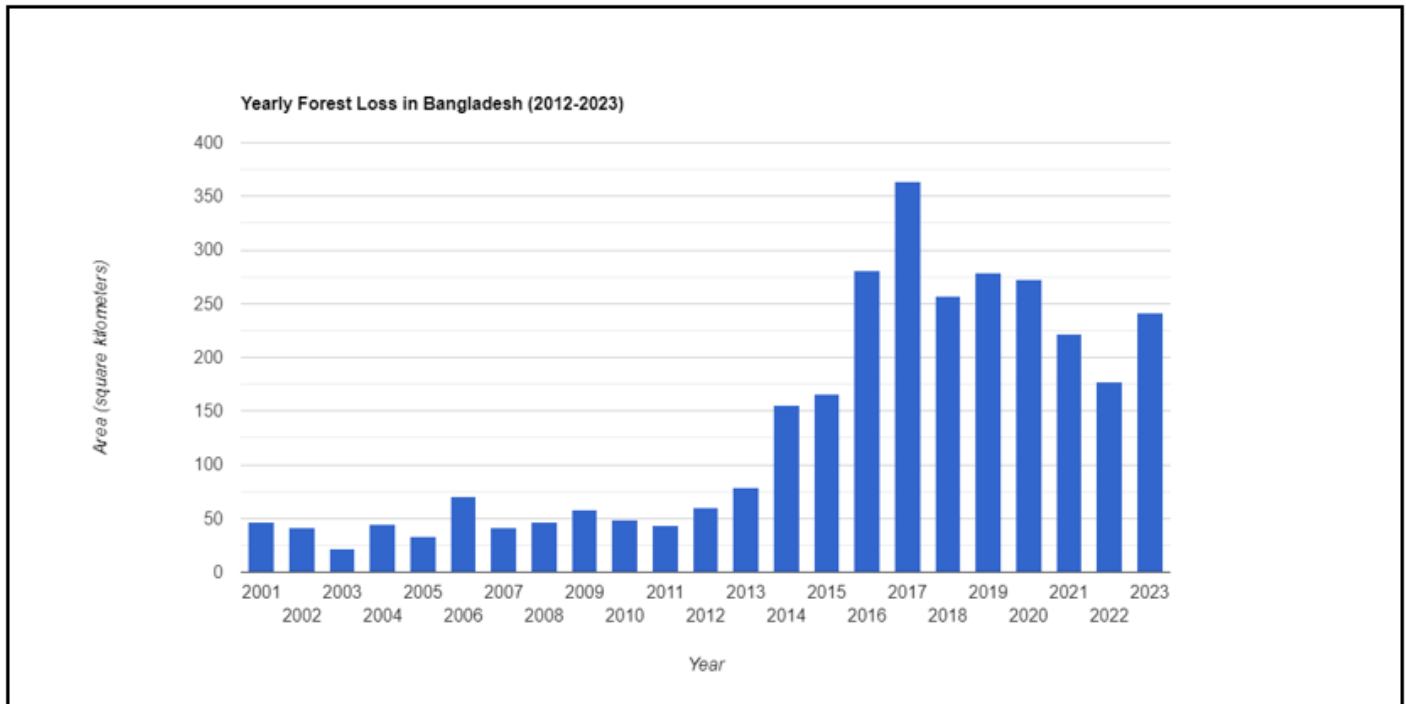




349

350

Figure 14: Forest Change Correlation graph



351

352

Figure 15: Overall Forest cover change map from 2001 to 2023

353

354

355

356

357

358

The forest change dynamics in Bangladesh between 2000 and 2023 were analyzed using the post-classification comparison to assess the patterns of forest loss and gain. The data reveals significant fluctuations in forest cover, with a marked decline in forested areas, particularly between 2012 and 2023 (Figure 15). In 2012, the forest loss was recorded at 59.675 square kilometers, signaling the beginning of a concerning downward trend. This decline accelerated in the following years, peaking in 2017 with a substantial loss of 363.608 square kilometers. Despite minor fluctuations, the forest loss remained high, exceeding 200 square kilometers annually in subsequent years. By 2023, the total forest loss

359 had reached 241.735 square kilometers. These results highlight the urgent need for conservation strategies and
 360 sustainable land management practices to mitigate ongoing forest degradation. The preservation of forest ecosystems is
 361 critical for maintaining biodiversity and supporting the ecological services necessary for environmental stability and the
 362 livelihoods of local communities.

363
 364 **Regression Analysis and Results**

365 The relationship between environmental indices and forest cover in Bangladesh from 2012 to 2023 was investigated using
 366 multiple linear regression analysis (Figure 14) . The analysis utilized a dataset incorporating various environmental
 367 indices: the Normalized Difference Water Index (NDWI2023), Normalized Difference Built-Up Index (NDBI_2023),
 368 Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI_2023), Normalized Difference Moisture Index (NDMI_2023), and Land
 369 Surface Temperature (LST2023) (Figure 13), with forest cover in 2023 as the dependent variable. The dataset was
 370 divided into a training set (80%) and a testing set (20%) to facilitate model development and validation. A linear regression
 371 model was developed and trained on the training dataset. The model was then used to predict forest cover values for the
 372 testing dataset, with the model's accuracy assessed using mean squared error (MSE). The total model explained 68.4%
 373 of the variation in forest cover (adjusted R² = 67.1%) and was statistically significant (F-statistic = 145.67, p < 0.001).The
 374 resulting regression equation is:

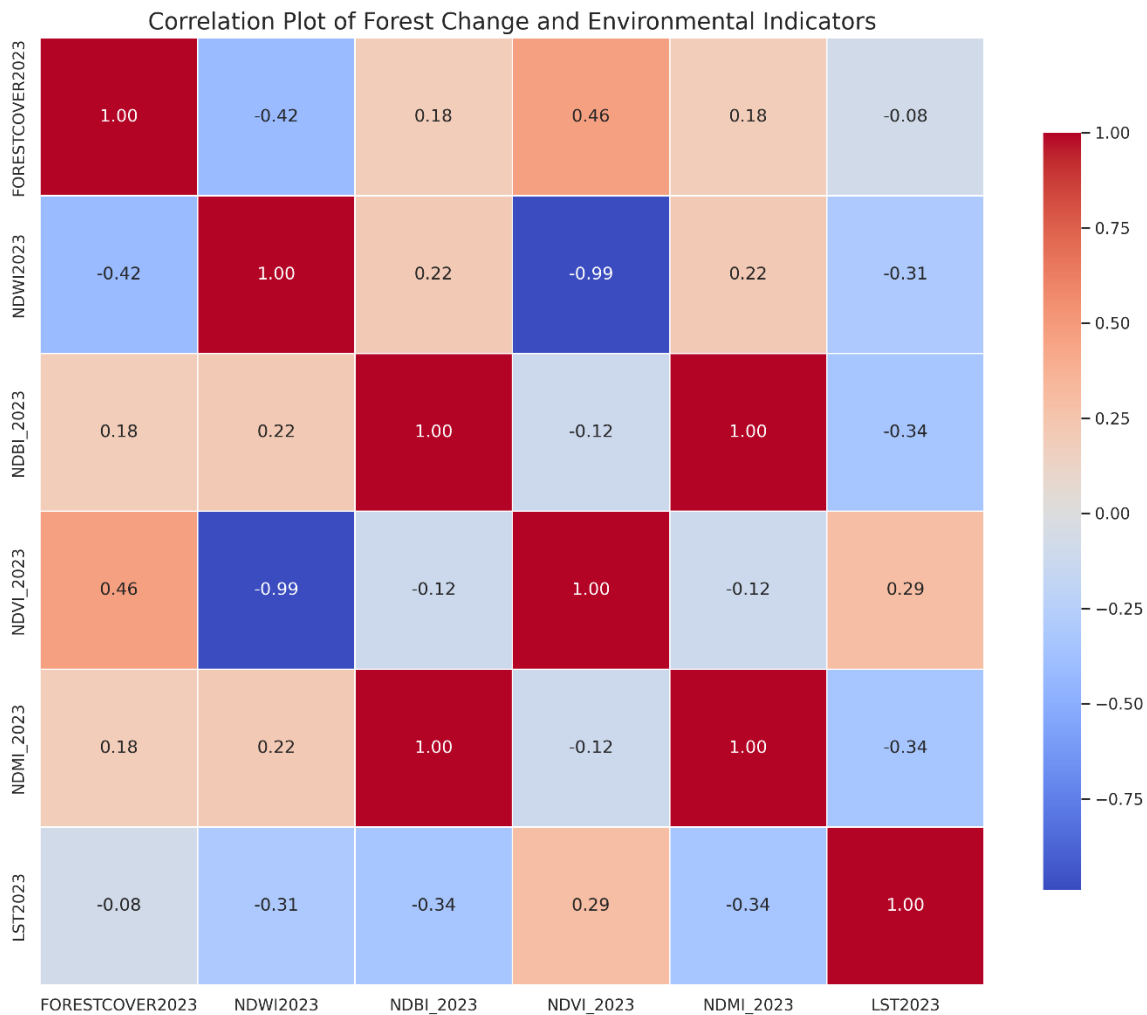
375 **ForestCover2023 = 90.01 + 344.34 * NDWI2023 + 0.88 * NDBI_2023 + 413.35 * NDVI_2023 + 0.88 * NDMI_2023 - 4.48**
 376 *** LST2023**

377
 378 Table 4 presents each variable's coefficients, statistical significance, and standard errors. The results indicate that NDVI
 379 and NDWI are significant predictors of forest cover, with positive associations suggesting that areas with higher vegetation
 380 density and greater water availability tend to have higher forest cover. Conversely, the negative coefficient for LST
 381 suggests that higher temperatures harm forest health. The regression findings underscore the complex relationship
 382 between environmental factors and forest cover dynamics, highlighting the importance of water availability and vegetation
 383 density in shaping forest ecosystems in Bangladesh.

384 NDWI2023 and NDVI2023 had a significant negative connection (r = -0.99) according to correlation analysis of the
 385 independent variables. According to the NDVI, pixels with higher water content tended to have lower vegetation density
 386 within the research area. But rather than being a general biological concept, this pattern is probably context-dependent,
 387 reflecting Bangladesh's abundance of wetlands, open water bodies, and flooded agricultural areas. Furthermore, modest
 388 positive correlations were found between NDWI, NDBI, and NDMI, suggesting that water availability may interact with
 389 urbanization and moisture content in complex ways. These insights contribute to a more nuanced understanding of the
 390 environmental drivers of forest change in Bangladesh, emphasizing the need for integrated land-use planning and
 391 effective conservation strategies.

392 **Table 4:** The coefficients and their statistical significance

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-value	p-value
const	90.01	18.80	4.79	<0.001
NDWI2023	344.34	49.73	6.92	<0.001
NDBI_2023	0.88	6.26	0.14	0.888
NDVI_2023	413.35	45.83	9.02	<0.001
NDMI_2023	0.88	6.26	0.14	0.888
LST2023	-4.48	0.66	-6.80	<0.001



393

394 **Figure 16:** Correlation plot of Relation between forest change and Environmental Indicators

395 The correlation matrix (Figure 16) provides valuable insights into the relationships among environmental variables and
 396 their implications for forest cover dynamics. A striking observation is the strong negative correlation (-0.99) between
 397 NDWI2023 and NDVI2023, which suggests that areas with higher water content tend to have lower vegetation density.
 398 However, the high correlation suggests potential multicollinearity, which was considered during model fitting. Variance
 399 inflation factors (VIF) were examined and the value was found to be $VIF > 5$, suggesting multicollinearity not to be severe.
 400 This finding aligns with ecological patterns, where reduced water availability often corresponds to vegetation decline,
 401 indicating potential risks of deforestation or ecosystem degradation in water-scarce regions. Moderate positive
 402 correlations between NDWI2023, NDBI2023, and NDMI2023 reveal more intricate interactions. While not strong, these
 403 relationships hint at connections between water availability and urbanization or moisture stress. Such patterns may reflect
 404 scenarios where urban development expands into water-rich areas or agricultural activities occur in regions experiencing
 405 moisture stress. On the other hand, weak negative correlations between NDVI2023 and NDBI2023 and NDMI2023
 406 indicate that areas with higher vegetation density are less affected by urbanization and moisture stress. These trends
 407 highlight healthier forest ecosystems, where human activities such as urbanization or intensive agriculture exert minimal
 408 influence.

409

410

411 4. DISCUSSION

412

413 This study provides important insights into Bangladesh's changing forest cover dynamics, using machine learning and
 414 satellite data from Google Earth Engine. We obtained a high classification accuracy of 94% by using the Long Short-Term
 415 Memory (LSTM) model on a 12-step annual time series taken from Landsat images (2012–2023), surpassing
 416 conventional machine learning techniques like Decision Trees (87%). In the context of this work, this improvement shows

417 how LSTM can capture inter-annual temporal trends in spectral indices and bands, improving the identification of changes
418 in forest cover over a 12-year period in Bangladesh. From 25,611 km² in 2012 to 23,611.2 km² in 2023, our data show a
419 worrying decrease in forest cover. The observed rise in built-up areas and agricultural land during the same era suggests
420 that this decline is probably related to concurrent urbanization, agricultural growth, and infrastructure development.
421 However, further socioeconomic and policy-related research would be necessary to show direct causal linkages. A
422 particularly steep decline in forest cover occurred in 2017, coinciding with rapid urban growth and agricultural land
423 conversion. These trends highlight the urgent need for sustainable land management practices to counterbalance
424 deforestation and its negative effects on biodiversity and ecosystem services. The analysis also explored the relationship
425 between key ecological indices, such as NDVI, NDBI, and NDWI, and forest cover loss. The NDVI2023 and forest cover
426 showed a somewhat favorable connection ($r = 0.46$), suggesting that regions with better vegetation density and health
427 tended to preserve more forest cover. This association supports the use of NDVI as a helpful indicator of forest condition
428 in the research area and is consistent with ecological predictions. Additionally, the rise in NDBI values points to the
429 increasing impact of urbanization on forested areas, reinforcing the importance of integrated planning for sustainable land
430 use. This research contributes to the broader understanding of forest cover dynamics in Bangladesh, offering valuable
431 insights for policymakers looking to protect forests and promote sustainable development. This study illustrates the
432 efficacy of cloud-based geospatial technology for scalable, multi-temporal analysis and precise detection of forest cover
433 dynamics in data-intensive environmental management by combining machine learning algorithms with Google Earth
434 Engine-based satellite monitoring. Looking ahead, further research should explore the socio-economic drivers behind land
435 use changes and examine how climate variability impacts forest ecosystems. Expanding this work spatially and temporally
436 will provide a more detailed picture of forest cover trends across Bangladesh, supporting more effective conservation
437 strategies.

438

439 5. CONCLUSION

440 This study examined the dynamics of forest cover in Bangladesh over the past decade, providing critical insights into the
441 causes and patterns of forest loss. The findings reveal a worrying decline in forest cover, primarily driven by urban
442 expansion, agricultural growth, and infrastructure development. By applying the Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) model,
443 we achieved a high level of accuracy in classifying land cover, demonstrating its effectiveness in capturing complex
444 patterns from satellite imagery. The study also found a significant link between forest loss and changes in vegetation
445 health, as indicated by the NDVI. This highlights the importance of monitoring vegetation as a key indicator of ecosystem
446 health and sustainability. The results stress the urgent need for conservation efforts, including better land management
447 practices and reforestation, to combat deforestation and protect biodiversity. These findings underscore policymakers'
448 importance in prioritizing forest conservation and sustainable development. More research is needed to understand the
449 socio-economic factors influencing land use and how climate change may affect forest ecosystems. Ultimately, using data
450 and technology to inform decisions, this research contributes to the ongoing effort to safeguard Bangladesh's natural
451 resources for future generations.

452

453

454 DECLARATIONS

455

456 All authors have read, understood, and have complied as applicable with the statement on "Ethical responsibilities of
457 Authors" as found in the Instructions for Authors.

458

459 Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)

460 Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc.)
461 and text-to-image generators have been used during the writing or editing of this manuscript.

465 AHMED, B. (2019). ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN
466 BANGLADESH: MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS. ASIA
467 PACIFIC JOURNAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, 41(4), 237–245.
468 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1080/23276665.2019.1698930](https://doi.org/10.1080/23276665.2019.1698930)

469 AI, J., ZHANG, C., CHEN, L., & LI, D. (2020). MAPPING ANNUAL LAND USE AND LAND COVER CHANGES
470 IN THE YANGTZE ESTUARY REGION USING AN OBJECT-BASED CLASSIFICATION FRAMEWORK AND
471 LANDSAT TIME SERIES DATA. SUSTAINABILITY, 12(2), 659.

472 AL FARUQ, M. A., ZAMAN, S., & KATOH, M. (2017). PERCEPTIONS OF LOCAL PEOPLE TOWARD
473 COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND FOREST CONSERVATION IN BANGLADESH: THE CASE OF SAL
474 FORESTS. JOURNAL OF FOREST PLANNING, 22(1), 1.

475 AUNG, T. S., OVERLAND, I., VAKULCHUK, R., & XIE, Y. (2021). USING SATELLITE DATA AND MACHINE
476 LEARNING TO STUDY CONFLICT-INDUCED ENVIRONMENTAL AND SOCIOECONOMIC DESTRUCTION
477 IN DATA-POOR CONFLICT AREAS: THE CASE OF THE RAKHINE CONFLICT. ENVIRONMENTAL
478 RESEARCH COMMUNICATIONS, 3(2), 025005.

479 AZAD, MD. A. K., ISLAM, A. R. MD. T., AYEN, K., RAHMAN, MD. S., SHAHID, S., & MALLICK, J. (2022).
480 CHANGES IN MONSOON PRECIPITATION PATTERNS OVER BANGLADESH AND ITS
481 TELECONNECTIONS WITH GLOBAL CLIMATE. THEORETICAL AND APPLIED CLIMATOLOGY, 148(3–4),
482 1261–1278. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1007/S00704-022-03996-8](https://doi.org/10.1007/S00704-022-03996-8)

483 BABALOLA, T. S., OGUNLEYE, K. S., LAWAL, J. A., & ILORI, A. O. A. (2021). AN ASSESSMENT OF
484 DEGRADATION OF SOIL PROPERTIES IN KABBA COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE, KOGI STATE, NIGERIA.
485 NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES AND TECHNOLOGY (NIJEST) VOL, 5(1), 102–
486 109.

487 BAI, X., MCPHEARSON, T., CLEUGH, H., NAGENDRA, H., TONG, X., ZHU, T., & ZHU, Y.-G. (2017).
488 LINKING URBANIZATION AND THE ENVIRONMENT: CONCEPTUAL AND EMPIRICAL ADVANCES.
489 ANNUAL REVIEW OF ENVIRONMENT AND RESOURCES, 42(1), 215–240.
490 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1146/ANNUREV-ENVIRON-102016-061128](https://doi.org/10.1146/ANNUREV-ENVIRON-102016-061128)

491 BISWAS, S., & CHOUDHURY, J. (2007). FOREST AND FORESTRY IN BANGLADESH: THE QUESTION OF
492 SUSTAINABILITY. INTERNATIONAL FORESTRY REVIEW.

493 CLARK, M. L., ROBERTS, D. A., EWEL, J. J., & CLARK, D. B. (2011). ESTIMATION OF TROPICAL RAIN
494 FOREST ABOVEGROUND BIOMASS WITH SMALL-FOOTPRINT LIDAR AND HYPERSPECTRAL
495 SENSORS. REMOTE SENSING OF ENVIRONMENT, 115(11), 2931–2942.
496 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1016/J.RSE.2010.08.029](https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RSE.2010.08.029)

497 DE JONG, W., LIU, J., & YOUN, Y.-C. (2017). LAND AND FORESTS IN THE ANTHROPOCENE: TRENDS
498 AND OUTLOOKS IN ASIA. FOREST POLICY AND ECONOMICS, 79, 17–25.

499 EJENMA, E., DURUMBAH-OBI, F. M., FALANA, O., & SUSAN, A. (2023). ANALYSIS OF LAND USE AND
500 LAND COVER CHANGES IN OWERRI MUNICIPAL AND ITS ENVIRONS, IMO STATE, NIGERIA (2005–
501 2015). JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY, ENVIRONMENT AND EARTH SCIENCE INTERNATIONAL, 27(5), 25–
502 35.

503 ERICKSEN, N. J., AHMAD, Q. K., & CHOWDHURY, A. R. (1993). SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPLICATIONS OF
504 CLIMATE CHANGE FOR BANGLADESH. CITESEER.
505 [HTTPS://CITeseerX.IST.PSU.EDU/DOCUMENT?REPID=REP1&TYPE=PDF&DOI=2089D4EEF5F00C41B7
506 42F1355EBC6C7F88931CA7](https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=2089D4EEF5F00C41B742F1355EBC6C7F88931CA7)

507 FITZGERALD, R. W., & LEES, B. G. (1994). ASSESSING THE CLASSIFICATION ACCURACY OF
508 MULTISOURCE REMOTE SENSING DATA. REMOTE SENSING OF ENVIRONMENT, 47(3), 362–368.

509 GIAM, X. (2017). GLOBAL BIODIVERSITY LOSS FROM TROPICAL DEFORESTATION. PROCEEDINGS OF
510 THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, 114(23), 5775–5777.
511 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1073/PNAS.1706264114](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1706264114)

512 GRANTHAM, H. S., DUNCAN, A., EVANS, T. D., JONES, K. R., BEYER, H. L., SCHUSTER, R., WALSTON,
513 J., RAY, J. C., ROBINSON, J. G., & CALLOW, M. (2020). ANTHROPOGENIC MODIFICATION OF FORESTS
514 MEANS ONLY 40% OF REMAINING FORESTS HAVE HIGH ECOSYSTEM INTEGRITY. NATURE
515 COMMUNICATIONS, 11(1), 5978.

516 GRAVES, A. (2012). LONG SHORT-TERM MEMORY. IN A. GRAVES, SUPERVISED SEQUENCE
517 LABELLING WITH RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORKS (VOL. 385, PP. 37–45). SPRINGER BERLIN
518 HEIDELBERG. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1007/978-3-642-24797-2_4](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-24797-2_4)

519 HANSEN, M. C., STEHMAN, S. V., POTAPOV, P. V., LOVELAND, T. R., TOWNSHEND, J. R. G., DEFRIES,
520 R. S., PITTMAN, K. W., ARUNARWATI, B., STOLLE, F., STEININGER, M. K., CARROLL, M., & DIMICELI, C.
521 (2008). HUMID TROPICAL FOREST CLEARING FROM 2000 TO 2005 QUANTIFIED BY USING
522 MULTITEMPORAL AND MULTIRESOLUTION REMOTELY SENSED DATA. PROCEEDINGS OF THE
523 NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES, 105(27), 9439–9444. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1073/PNAS.0804042105](https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0804042105)

524 HE, X., ZIEGLER, A. D., ELSEN, P. R., FENG, Y., BAKER, J. C., LIANG, S., HOLDEN, J., SPRACKLEN, D.
525 V., & ZENG, Z. (2023). ACCELERATING GLOBAL MOUNTAIN FOREST LOSS THREATENS BIODIVERSITY
526 HOTSPOTS. ONE EARTH, 6(3), 303–315.

527 ISLAM, MD. S., UDDIN, MD. A., & HOSSAIN, M. A. (2021). ASSESSING THE DYNAMICS OF LAND COVER
528 AND SHORELINE CHANGES OF NIJHUM DWIP (ISLAND) OF BANGLADESH USING REMOTE SENSING
529 AND GIS TECHNIQUES. REGIONAL STUDIES IN MARINE SCIENCE, 41, 101578.
530 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1016/J.RSMA.2020.101578](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsma.2020.101578)

531 LU, Y., YANG, J., & MA, S. (2021). DYNAMIC CHANGES OF LOCAL CLIMATE ZONES IN THE
532 GUANGDONG–HONG KONG–MACAO GREATER BAY AREA AND THEIR SPATIO-TEMPORAL IMPACTS
533 ON THE SURFACE URBAN HEAT ISLAND EFFECT BETWEEN 2005 AND 2015. SUSTAINABILITY, 13(11),
534 6374.

535 MCKENNA, M. F. (2020). THE SOUNDS AROUND US. PHYSICS TODAY, 73(1), 28–34.
536 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1063/PT.3.4387](https://doi.org/10.1063/PT.3.4387)

537 MUZAFFAR, S. B., ISLAM, M. A., KABIR, D. S., KHAN, M. H., AHMED, F. U., CHOWDHURY, G. W., AZIZ, M.
538 A., CHAKMA, S., & JAHAN, I. (2011). THE ENDANGERED FORESTS OF BANGLADESH: WHY THE
539 PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTATION OF THE CONVENTION ON BIOLOGICAL DIVERSITY IS NOT
540 WORKING. BIODIVERSITY AND CONSERVATION, 20(7), 1587–1601. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1007/S10531-
541 011-0048-6](https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-011-0048-6)

542 NATH, T. K., JASHIMUDDIN, M., & INOUE, M. (2020). ACHIEVING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS
543 THROUGH PARTICIPATORY FOREST MANAGEMENT: EXAMPLES FROM SOUTH-EASTERN
544 BANGLADESH. NATURAL RESOURCES FORUM, 44(4), 353–368. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1111/1477-
545 8947.12209](https://doi.org/10.1111/1477-8947.12209)

546 POTAPOV, P., SIDDIQUI, B. N., IQBAL, Z., AZIZ, T., ZZAMAN, B., ISLAM, A., PICKENS, A., TALERO, Y.,
547 TYUKAVINA, A., & TURUBANOVA, S. (2017). COMPREHENSIVE MONITORING OF BANGLADESH TREE
548 COVER INSIDE AND OUTSIDE OF FORESTS, 2000–2014. ENVIRONMENTAL RESEARCH LETTERS,
549 12(10), 104015.

550 RAHMAN, M. M. (2021). ASSESSING THE PROGRESS AND PITFALLS OF THE MINISTRY OF
551 ENVIRONMENT, FOREST, AND CLIMATE CHANGE IN ACHIEVING SDGS IN BANGLADESH.
552 BANGLADESH JOURNAL OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, 29(2), 140–158.

553 RAHMAN, S. (2016). IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE, AGROECOLOGY AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC
554 FACTORS ON AGRICULTURAL LAND USE DIVERSITY IN BANGLADESH (1948–2008). LAND USE
555 POLICY, 50, 169–178.

556 RAI, R., ZHANG, Y., PAUDEL, B., LI, S., & KHANAL, N. R. (2017). A SYNTHESIS OF STUDIES ON LAND
557 USE AND LAND COVER DYNAMICS DURING 1930–2015 IN BANGLADESH. SUSTAINABILITY, 9(10),
558 1866.

559 REDOWAN, M., AKTER, S., & ISLAM, N. (2014). ANALYSIS OF FOREST COVER CHANGE AT
560 KHADIMNAGAR NATIONAL PARK, SYLHET, BANGLADESH, USING LANDSAT TM AND GIS DATA.
561 JOURNAL OF FORESTRY RESEARCH, 25(2), 393–400. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1007/S11676-014-0467-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/S11676-014-0467-9)

562 RODRIGUES, M. A. A., BENDINI, H. N., SOARES, A. R., KÖRTING, T. S., & FONSECA, L. M. G. (2020).
563 REMOTE SENSING IMAGE TIME SERIES METRICS FOR DISTINCTION BETWEEN PASTURE AND
564 CROPLANDS USING THE RANDOM FOREST CLASSIFIER. 2020 IEEE LATIN AMERICAN GRSS & ISPRS
565 REMOTE SENSING CONFERENCE (LAGIRS), 149–154.
566 [HTTPS://IEEEXPLORE.IEEE.ORG/ABSTRACT/DOCUMENT/9165671/](https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/abstract/document/9165671/)

567 SALAM, MD. A., & NOGUCHI, T. (1998). FACTORS INFLUENCING THE LOSS OF FOREST COVER IN
568 BANGLADESH: AN ANALYSIS FROM SOCIOECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC PERSPECTIVES.
569 JOURNAL OF FOREST RESEARCH, 3(3), 145–150. [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1007/BF02762135](https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02762135)

570 SANO, E. E., RIZZOLI, P., KOYAMA, C. N., WATANABE, M., ADAMI, M., SHIMABUKURO, Y. E., BAYMA, G.,
571 & FREITAS, D. M. (2021). COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE GLOBAL FOREST/NON-FOREST MAPS
572 DERIVED FROM SAR AND OPTICAL SENSORS. CASE STUDIES FROM BRAZILIAN AMAZON AND
573 CERRADO BIOMES. REMOTE SENSING, 13(3), 367.

574 SHAHID, S. (2010). RECENT TRENDS IN THE CLIMATE OF BANGLADESH. CLIMATE RESEARCH, 42(3),
575 185–193.

576 TALUKDAR, S., SINGHA, P., MAHATO, S., PAL, S., LIOU, Y.-A., & RAHMAN, A. (2020). LAND-USE LAND-
577 COVER CLASSIFICATION BY MACHINE LEARNING CLASSIFIERS FOR SATELLITE OBSERVATIONS—A
578 REVIEW. REMOTE SENSING, 12(7), 1135.

579 TIEFENBACHER, J. P., & POREH, D. (2020). SPATIAL VARIABILITY IN ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE:
580 PATTERNS, PROCESSES, AND ANALYSES. BOD – BOOKS ON DEMAND.

581 TSUJINO, R., YUMOTO, T., KITAMURA, S., DJAMALUDDIN, I., & DARNAEDI, D. (2016). HISTORY OF
582 FOREST LOSS AND DEGRADATION IN INDONESIA. LAND USE POLICY, 57, 335–347.

583 UNEP, F. (2020). THE STATE OF THE WORLD'S FORESTS 2020. IN FORESTS, BIODIVERSITY AND
584 PEOPLE (P. 214). FAO ROME, ITALY.

585 WEISKOPF, S. R., RUBENSTEIN, M. A., CROZIER, L. G., GAICHAS, S., GRIFFIS, R., HALOFSKY, J. E.,
586 HYDE, K. J., MORELLI, T. L., MORISETTE, J. T., & MUÑOZ, R. C. (2020). CLIMATE CHANGE EFFECTS ON
587 BIODIVERSITY, ECOSYSTEMS, ECOSYSTEM SERVICES, AND NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN
588 THE UNITED STATES. SCIENCE OF THE TOTAL ENVIRONMENT, 733, 137782.

589 YUAN, C. Z., & LING, S. K. (2020). LONG SHORT-TERM MEMORY MODEL BASED AGRICULTURE
590 COMMODITY PRICE PREDICTION APPLICATION. PROCEEDINGS OF THE 2020 2ND INTERNATIONAL
591 CONFERENCE ON INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY AND COMPUTER COMMUNICATIONS, 43–49.
592 [HTTPS://DOI.ORG/10.1145/3417473.3417481](https://doi.org/10.1145/3417473.3417481)

593 ZHANG, L., BIAN, W., QU, W., TUO, L., & WANG, Y. (2021). TIME SERIES FORECAST OF SALES VOLUME
594 BASED ON XGBOOST. JOURNAL OF PHYSICS: CONFERENCE SERIES, 1873(1), 012067.
595 [HTTPS://IOPSCIENCE.IOP.ORG/ARTICLE/10.1088/1742-6596/1873/1/012067/META](https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1742-6596/1873/1/012067/meta)