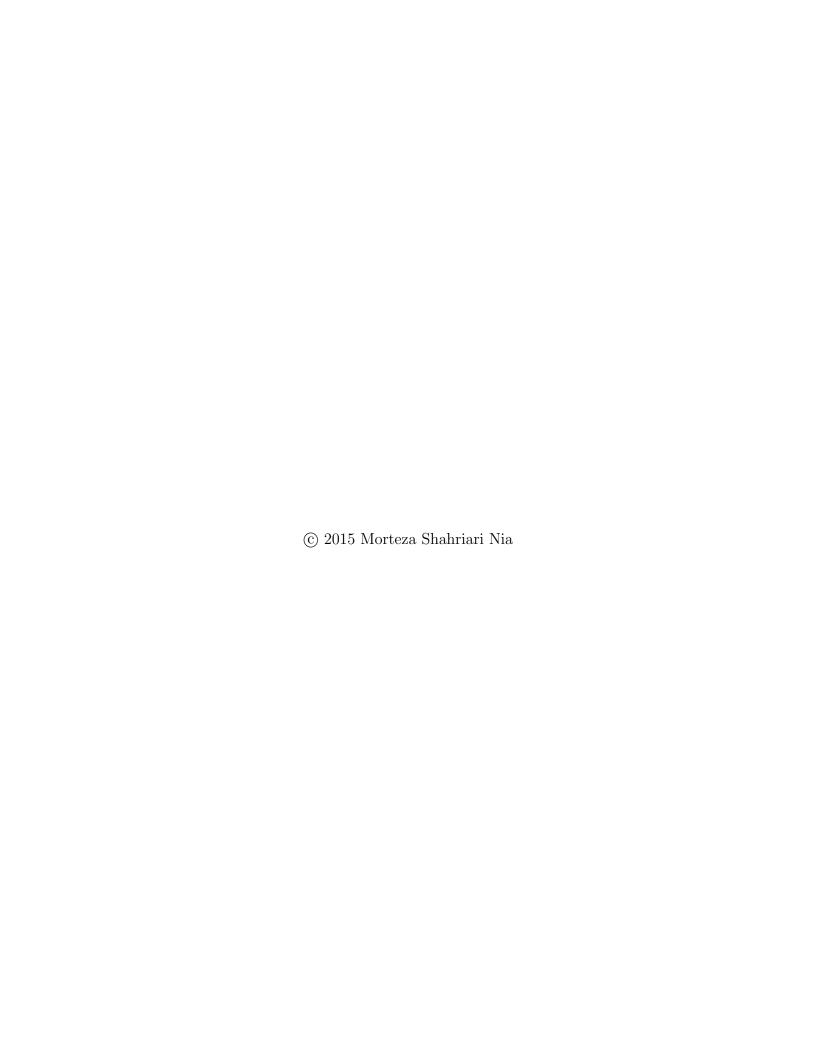
BIG DATA IN ECOLOGY

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A DISSERTATION PROPOSAL PRESENTED TO THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHYLOSOPHY

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Abstract of Dissertation Proposal Presented to the Graduate School of the University of Florida in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Phylosophy

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Ecological sciences benefit from the huge diversity of plant species which play an important role in large scale ecological aspects such as global warming, land cover change, CO² emission, invasive species, fire hazard, and etc. State-of-the-art species classification techniques utilize remote sensing data such as hyperspectral and LiDAR, however this task involves plenty of field data collection which is both highly time consuming, costly and can only be accomplished by ecological experts. Among thousands of the most commonly found plant species there is huge similarities between them from a remote sensing point of view which makes the task of species classification very daunting; therefore we see a whole body of literature specifically dedicated to this issue which is yet far from real world scenarios with thousands of possible species. While this is an indicator of the importance and complexity of the issue, little has been done to tackle the problem from a computational point of view harnessing the power of "big data". Periodic airborne campaigns can generate terrabytes of data on vast swaths of land. To tackle these problems we propose to use probabilistic knowledge bases and deep learning both of which work best when there is lots and lots of data. Probabilistic knowledge base captures ecological expert knowledge in terms of probabilistic rules, which will be maped to remote sensing data and used to infer new facts and therefore enhance species classification accuracy. Deep learning on the other hand as a semi-supervised algorithm will benefit

from the vast amounts of data available and capture intrinsic features of data through its layered architecture and thus help in reducing the amount of labeled data required.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Understanding the dynamics of ecological structures is very important in determining how climate, land cover, fire hazards, and biodiversity evolve. Precision study of plant species is of high environmental and economical impacts which is only possible through geo-mapping the distribution of plant species abundances at ecological scale. Large scale study of ecological domains has been made possible through spaceborne or airborne campaigns utilizing remote sensing technologies such as (multi/hyper)-spectral and LiDAR. In this project we focus on airborne hyperspectral and LiDAR data. Each campaign covering tens of acres of land can generate terra-bytes of data depending on measurement resolution (large volume). On the other hand, apart from state-of-the-art machine learning algorithms, there is a great wealth of expert ecological knowledge covering a whole variety of domains (along with their in-ground associated data) that can be used to enhance species mapping that is not being used and is left for ecological scientists for manual interpretation (data variety). Furthermore, data is being generated at faster pace day after day as technology becomes more afordable. After satellite sensors, airborne sensors came into place and now as airborne is still costly there is a surge of interest towards more affordable drone campaigns (Zhou et al., 2009). So we are facing data being generated at unprecedented rates (data velocity). The final aspect is verasity: imperfect sensors, non-standardized measurements, atmosphere impacts (clouds, humidity, aerosols) and et cetera all create uncertainities that need to be accounted for. Velocity, verasity, volume, and variety are the four V's that indicate ecology is stepping into the realm of "big data" (Hampton et al., 2013; Soranno and Schimel, 2014).

1.1 Remote Sensing

From an ecological point of view, there are two types of remote sensing approaches: active and passive. *Passive* remote sensing uses sunlight as the source of energy and sensors captures the intensity of light being reflected from earth's surface. Light intensity

measurements happens at various wavelengths; if a few (usually 3 to 10) relatively broad wavelength bands are captured it is called multi-spectral. If light intensity at dozens to hundreds of narrow band signals are collected it is called hyperspectral. *Active* remote sensing on the other hand uses laser light emission as its source of energy and captures the intensity of returned signals. LiDAR is a popular active remote sensing technology. Below we explain each in more details:

1.1.1 Hyperspectral

Spectrometers measure the amount of light reflected from surface materials: An optical dispersing element (like a prism) refracts the received light into its constituent spectrums and the energy in each band range is measured by a separate detector. Bands can be as narrow as 0.01 micrometers over a wide wavelength range of typically 0.4 to 2.5 micrometers. Figure 1.2 shows the basic components of an imaging spectrometer.

Raw sensor readings (digital number) can be affected by light source conditions, sensor, atmosphere, and surface material. Raw data which is a unit-less light intensity measure is then calibrated into radiance which has a physically meaningful unit through applying a gain and offset to the pixel values. It essentially means how much light the instrument "sees" from the object being observed. Some reference materials like a pure white or pure black sheets can be used in this process. After adjustments for sensor, atmospheric, and terrain effects are applied, pixel reflectance value is calculated which is the proportion of the radiation striking a surface to the radiation reflected off of it. Reflectance demonstrates light abroption features of the surface material and can be compared with field or laboratory reflectance spectra in order to recognize and map surface materials such as particular types of vegetation or diagnostic minerals associated with ore deposits. Reflectance varies with wavelength for most materials because energy at certain wavelengths is scattered or absorbed to different degrees (Smith, 2006). In this project we deal with reflectance values and refer the reader to (Varshney and Arora, 2004) for more details on how to compute reflectance values. Once reflectance values

are determined there is a whole body of literature for species classification, determining vegetation indices, chemical composites of the surface and etc.

In the visible portion of the spectrum, the curve shape is governed by absorption effects from chlorophyll and other leaf pigments. Chlorophyll absorbs visible light very effectively but absorbs blue and red wavelengths more strongly than green, producing a characteristic small reflectance peak within the green wavelength range. As a consequence, healthy plants appear to us as green in color. Reflectance rises sharply across the boundary between red and near infrared wavelengths (sometimes referred to as the red edge) to values of around 40 to 50% for most plants.

This high near-infrared reflectance is primarily due to interactions with the internal cellular structure of leaves. Most of the remaining energy is transmitted, and can interact with other leaves lower in the canopy. Leaf structure varies significantly between plant species, and can also change as a result of plant stress. Thus species type, plant stress, and canopy state all can affect near infrared reflectance measurements. Beyond 1.3 m reflectance decreases with increasing wavelength, except for two pronounced water absorption bands near 1.4 and 1.9 m.

At the end of the growing season leaves lose water and chlorophyll. Near infrared reflectance decreases and red reflectance increases, creating the familiar yellow, brown, and red leaf colors of autumn (Smith, 2006).

1.1.2 LiDAR

1.2 Data Variety

As of

1.2.1 Markov Logic Network

Markov logic network is a probabilistic logic that applies the concept of Markov network to first order logic. For inference, instead of usning intractable algorithms of prolog or lisp, it uses MCMC sampling.

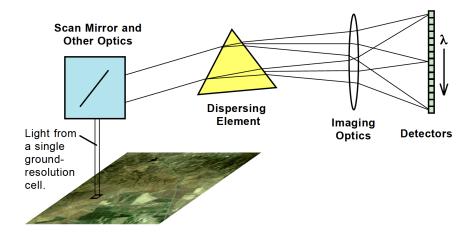


Figure 1-1. Schematic diagram of the basic elements of an imaging spectrometer (Smith, 2006).

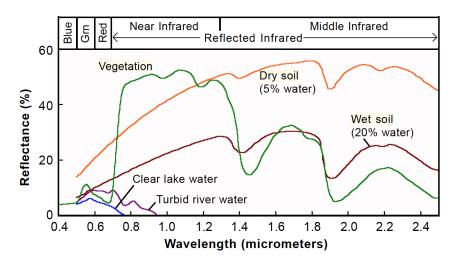


Figure 1-2. Some reflectance examples as how reflectance of different material show different absroption features at different bands. (Smith, 2006).

1.3 Proposed Work

1.4 Proposal Structure

CHAPTER 2 SPECIES CLASSIFICATION

- ${\bf 2.1}\quad {\bf Species}\ {\bf Classification}\ {\bf using}\ {\bf SVM}$
- 2.2 MESMA, SPICE, PCOMMEND
- 2.3 LiDAR Stack and Field Statistics

CHAPTER 4 BIG DATA TECHNIQUES

In this chapter we introduce the tools that we will be using to accomplish the proposal.

4.1 Markov Logic Networks

as first order logic software systems become intractable with not so large set of rules and without even probabilities mln adds probabilities and uses mcmc to tackle scalability.

4.2 Deep Learning

use large amounts of data at hand.

CHAPTER 5 PROPOSED WORK

In this chapter we demonstrate how we use mln and deep learning for species classification.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

This section is where your biographical sketch is typed in the bio.tex file. It should be in third person, past tense. Do not put personal details such as your birthday in the file. Again, to make a full paragraph you must write at least three sentences.