



# Remotely Sensing Cities and Environments

## Lecture 6: Classification

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✉ a.maclachlan@ucl.ac.uk

🐦 andymaclachlan

🗣 andrewmaclachlan

📍 Centre for Advanced Spatial Analysis, UCL

PDF PDF presentation

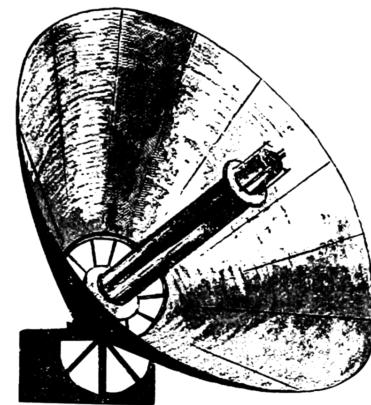
# How to use the lectures

- Slides are made with `xaringan`
-  In the bottom left there is a search tool which will search all content of presentation
- Control + F will also search
- Press enter to move to the next result
-  In the top right let's you draw on the slides, although these aren't saved.
- Pressing the letter `o` (for overview) will allow you to see an overview of the whole presentation and go to a slide
- Alternatively just typing the slide number e.g. 10 on the website will take you to that slide
- Pressing alt+F will fit the slide to the screen, this is useful if you have resized the window and have another open - side by side.

# Lecture outline

Part 1: Review of how classified data  
is used

Part 2: How to classify remotely  
sensed data



Source: Original from the British Library. Digitally enhanced by rawpixel.

Let's look back at last week and see how some studies used classified data

# Urban expansion

## Sensor

- Landsat

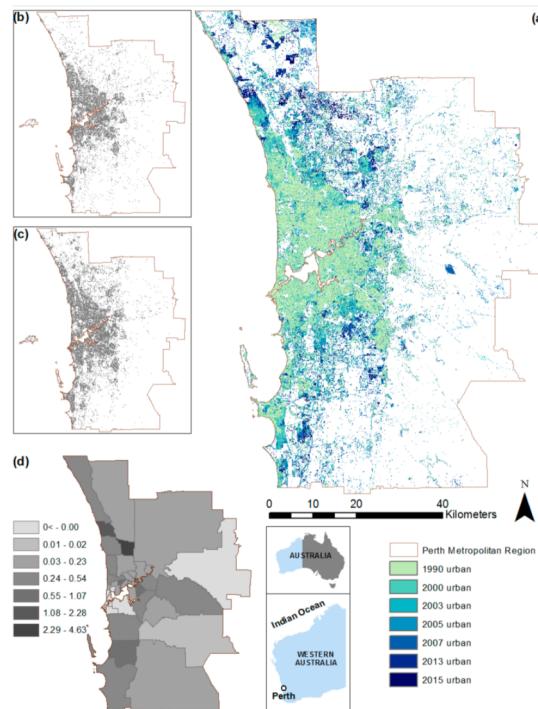


Figure 2. Urban expansion within the Perth Metropolitan Region (PMR) between 1990 and 2015. Vast urban growth has been observed in PMR with graduating colours exhibiting outward expansion (a); (b) and (c) exhibit static snapshots of urban extent from 2000 (b) and 2015 (c); whilst (d) depicts percentage of urban change per subnational administrative boundary (Local Government Area; LGA). Source: MacLachlan et al. 2017

# Air pollution and LULC

## Sensors

- Sentinel-3 Sea and Land Surface Temperature
- Sentinel-5 Precursor Major Air Pollutants

LULC transformation on air pollution, increase MAP (Major Air Pollutants) and LST

- Used regression...
- Honeycombing - hex grids for different sensor data

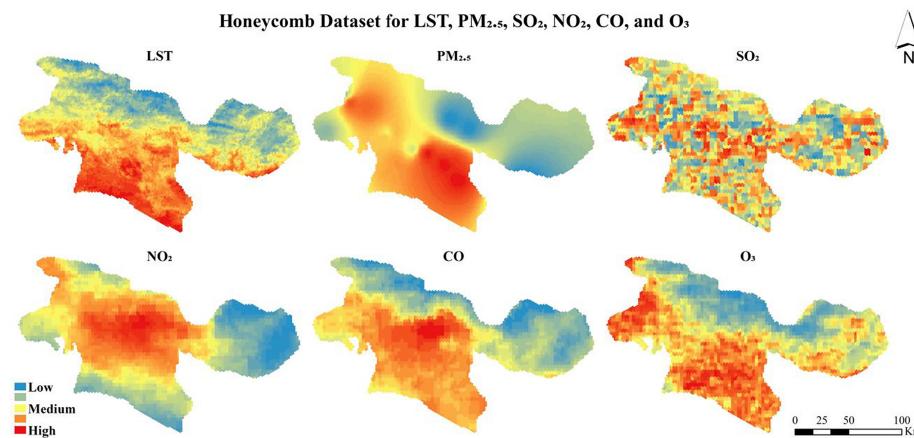


Fig. 2. The classified honeycomb dataset for LST, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and O<sub>3</sub>. Source: Fuldal and Alta, 2021

# Air pollution and LULC 2

There is no doubt that the LULC distribution significantly affects the MAP and LST. Therefore, to determine this relationship the latest LULC distribution shape-file was acquired from the National Cartographic Center of Iran (NCC)

To figure out the impact of LULC on the LST and MAP (Major Air Pollutants) the following statistical comparison perform, the LULC was chosen as an independent variable whereas LST, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and O<sub>3</sub> are considered as dependent variables

Although this wasn't used in regression...that was just for the scatter plots of the variables...

But we have classified data (or we might) from a national center

- although no data is given
- no accuracy or method provided

# Urban green spaces

Our results show that the techniques are hybrid methods (37 cases), followed by object-based image analysis (29 cases), land cover indices (20 cases) and fraction methods (16 cases)

Inventory and assessment (Inv\_Ass);Biomass and carbon (BC);Change detection (CD); Ecosystem services (ES):Overall UGSs mapping (OUGS);Species mapping (Spe);Three-dimensional modeling (TDM).

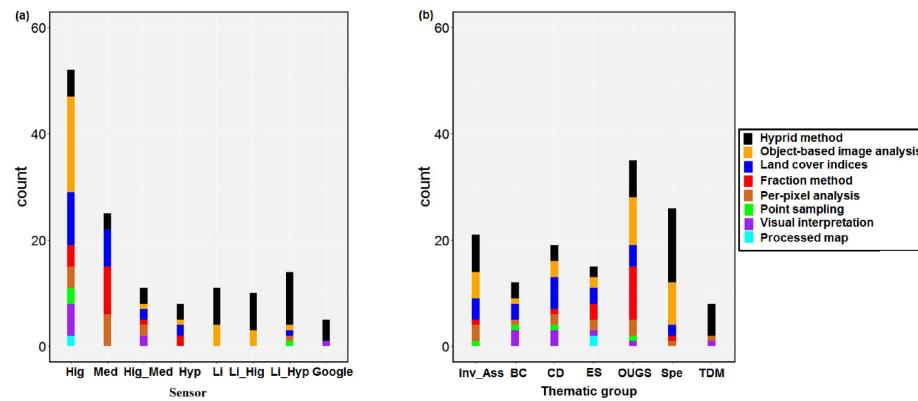


Fig. 2. Different techniques to characterize UGSs: (a) frequency of use of techniques according to type of remotely-sensed data, and (b) frequency of use of techniques according to application area. Source:[Shahtahmassebi et al. 2021](#)

# Urban green spaces 2

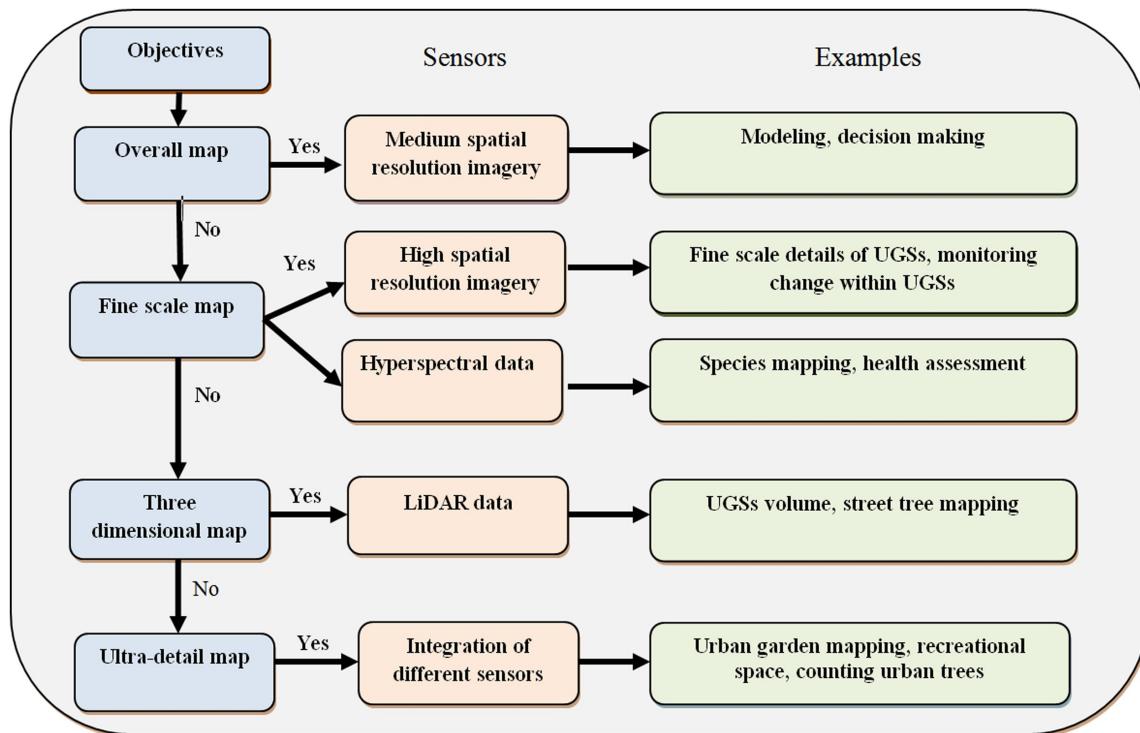
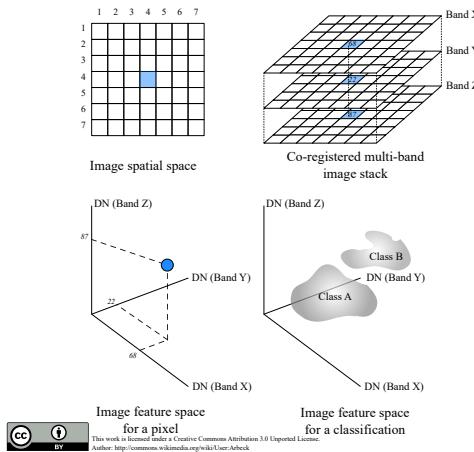


Fig. 2. Different techniques to characterize UGSs: (a) frequency of use of techniques according to type of remotely-sensed data, and (b) frequency of use of techniques according to application area. Source:[Shahtahmassebi et al. 2021](#)

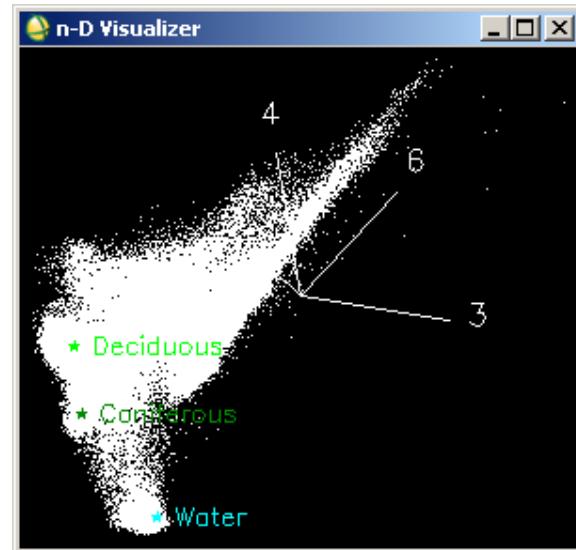
# Monitoring forests + illegal logging 3

"a more generalized feature space"

- Feature space = scattergram of two bands (or things that have been made into bands)
- Can be used for very basic classification - selecting the values that represent land cover



Feature space. Source: [Wikimedia commons 2022](#)

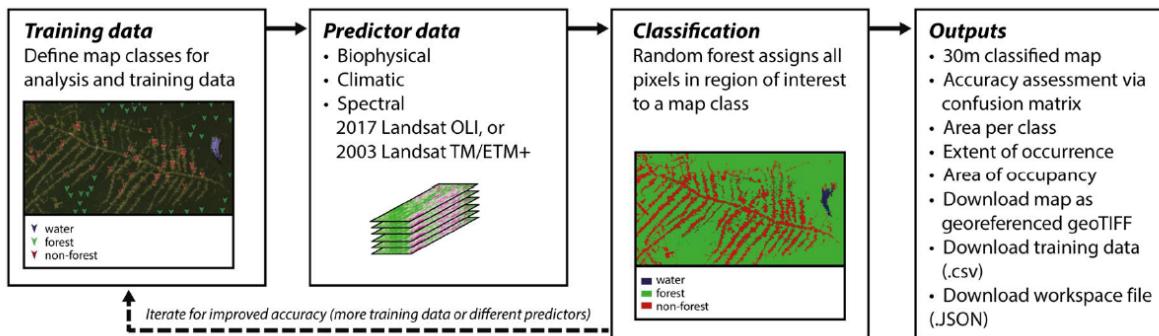


Spectral curves on the scatter plot. Source: [5Onorthspatial](#)

# Monitoring forests + illegal logging 4

- Training data (in supervised machine learning)

Training data to relate to the Landsat metrics were derived from image interpretation methods, including mapping of crown/no crown categories using very high spatial resolution data such as Quickbird imagery, existing percent tree cover layers derived from Landsat data (29), and global MODIS percent tree cover (30), rescaled using the higher spatial resolution percent tree cover data sets



REMAP method. Source:[UN-SPIDER](#)

# Monitoring forests + illegal logging 5

- Classification (supervised or unsupervised)

Decision trees are hierarchical classifiers that predict class membership by recursively partitioning a data set into more homogeneous or less varying subsets, referred to as nodes

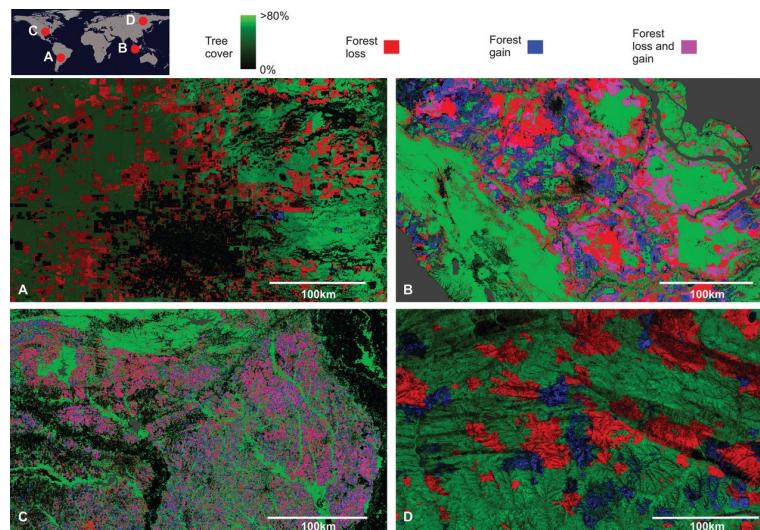


FIG. 2 Regional subsets of 2000 tree cover and 2000 to 2012 forest loss and gain.(A) Paraguay, centered at 21.9°S, 59.8°W; (B) Indonesia, centered at 0.4°S, 101.5°E; (C) the United States, centered at 33.8°N, 93.3°W; and (D) Russia, centered at 62.1°N, 123.4°E.  
Source:Hansen et al. 2013

Used in Brazil to target illegal logging

# Forest fires

- Dates back to the most cited paper on the topic
  - "Application of remote sensing and geographic information systems to forest fire hazard mapping", Chuvieco and Congalton 1989.

Used:

- Sensor Landsat TM 1984
- vegetation, elevation, slope, aspect and road/ house proximity = fire hazard map compared to burned map from Landsat
- Did a weighted overlay of the layers - giving hazard value of 0 to 255, some layers had assigned values (e.g. aspect of 90-180 a value of 0)
- Vegetation was from a classified Landsat TM image - classified 16 categories
- No accuracy assessment
- I assume the manually delineated the burned area pixels

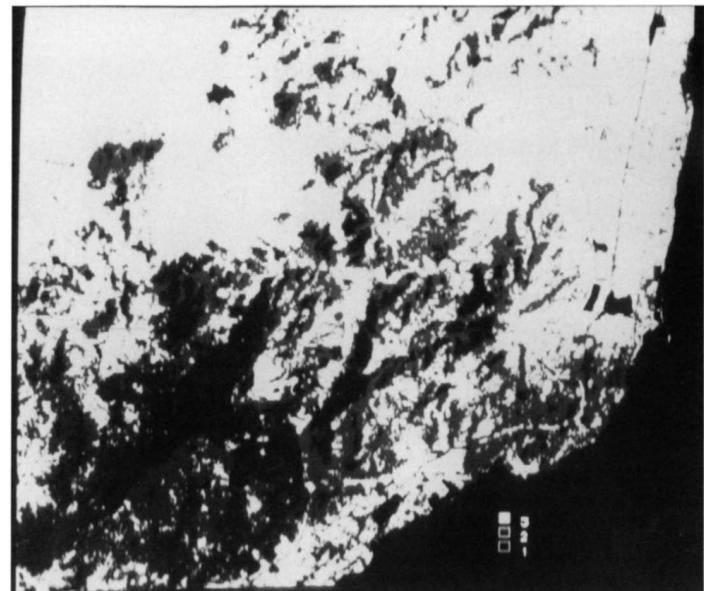


Figure 8. Hazard index map. For display purposes, the whole range of hazard index values has been divided in three categories: 1) high hazard (1–100); 2) medium hazard (101–200); 3) low hazard (201–255).

Source:Chuvieco and Congalton 1989

In some form all these studies extracted Land Cover from EO data

But how can we do that

# How do you do that given some imagery ?



Source:NASA, acquired April 23, 1984

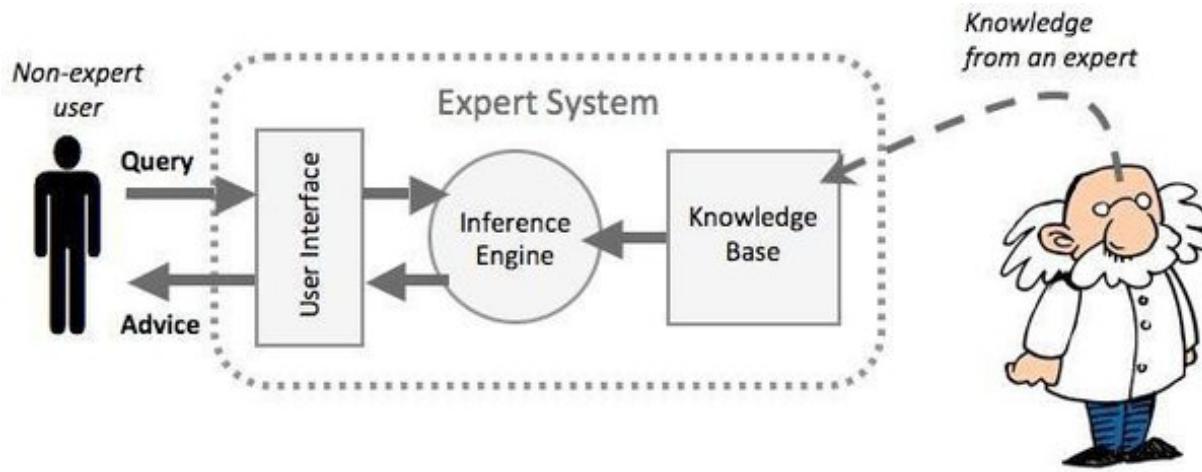


Source:NASA, acquired July 20, 2016

inductive learning = given context we can use experience to make judgement

# Expert Systems

a system that uses human knowledge to solve problems that normally require human intelligence



Source:Aftab Alam

- Knowledge Base = Rules of thumb, not always correct
- Inference Engine = Process of reaching a conclusion and the expert system is implemented

This is different to an algorithmic approach = code to solve a solution and when the problem changes so does the code. See Jensen p.433

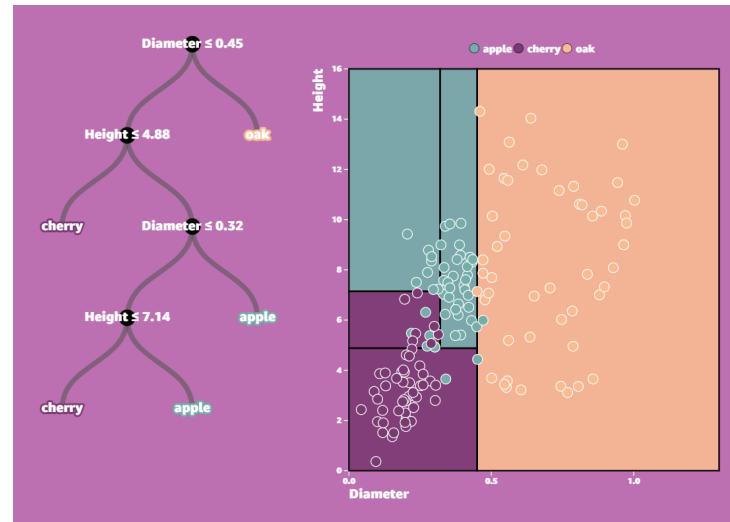
# Expert Systems 2

The problem is how can a computer replicate human knowledge...

**Q: Tell a computer how you arrived at the decision to wear the clothes you have on today or what you had for lunch yesterday ?**

You might try and represent your knowledge through a series of decisions = **knowledge representation through a decision tree**

If you collected data on this you might be able to draw some conclusions...



From the diameter and height of a tree trunk, we must determine if it's an Apple, Cherry, or Oak tree. Source:[Machine Learning University explain](#)

Machine learning = science of computer modeling  
of learning process

When humans have some generalizations we can reach a logical assumption or conclusion = inductive learning.

Machine learning this is a search through all the data to explain the input data and can be used on new input data

# What city am i in?

Population of 5.3 million

Median house price \$1,116,219

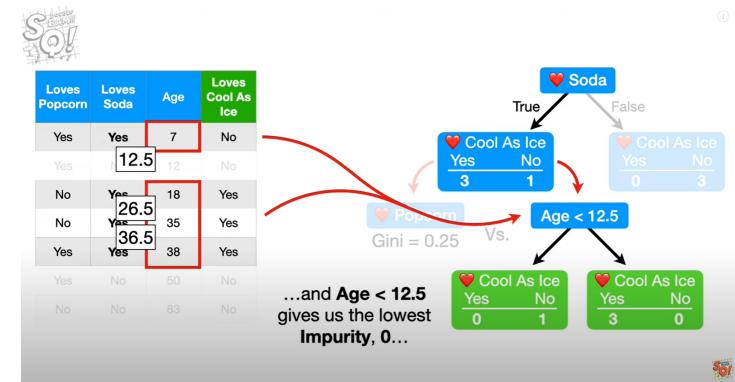
Hemisphere: Southern

Continent: Australia

Landmark: Opera house

# Decision and classification trees (CART)

- When we create a decision tree the final leaves might be a mixture of the categories = **impure**
- We quantify this with the Gini Impurity:
  - $1 - (\text{probability of yes})^2 - (\text{probability of no})^2$
  - weighted based on numbers
- The one with the lowest impurity goes at the top of the tree to start the decision making...**the root**
- We then use the Gini impurity at each branch to split the nodes further
- Once we don't need to split these turn into **leaves** and the output has **the most votes**

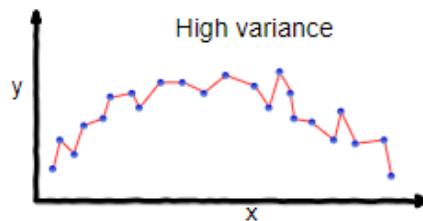


Source: StatQuest

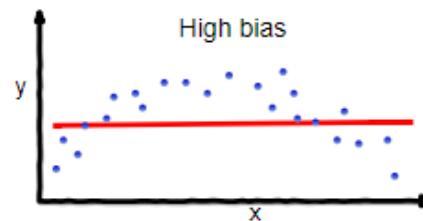
Someone new comes along ...run them (or the data) through the tree

# Decision and classification trees (CART) 2

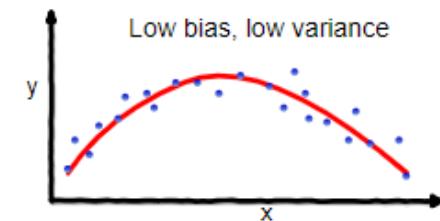
What if we have a leaf with just one person or one pixel value? = **overfitting**



overfitting



underfitting



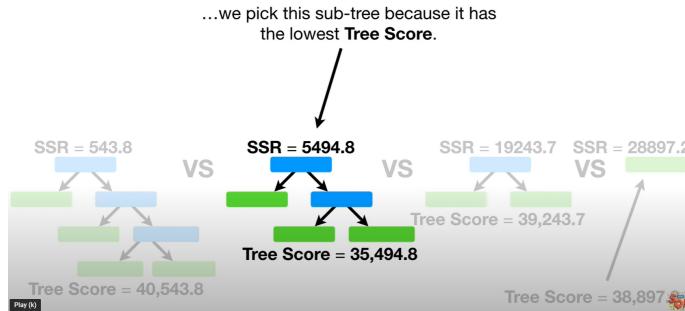
Good balance

Source:Seema Singh

# Decision and classification trees (CART) 3

We can either:

- limit how trees grow (e.g. a minimum number of pixels in a leaf)
- prune the tree:
  - calculate the sum of the squared residuals (SSR, like linear regression) for each leaf
  - Sum for the tree
  - Tree score = SSR + tree penalty (alpha) \* T (number of leaves)



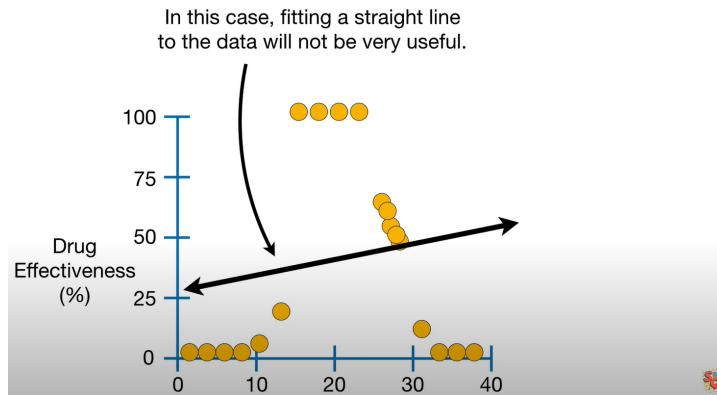
Source:StatQuest

Alpha: use a full size tree (with **all** data), start with a value of 0 then increase until pruning gives lower tree score.

Different alpha gives us different sizes of tree that we can test with cross validation.

# Regression trees

What if linear regression doesn't fit the data? ...but we still wanted a numeric value



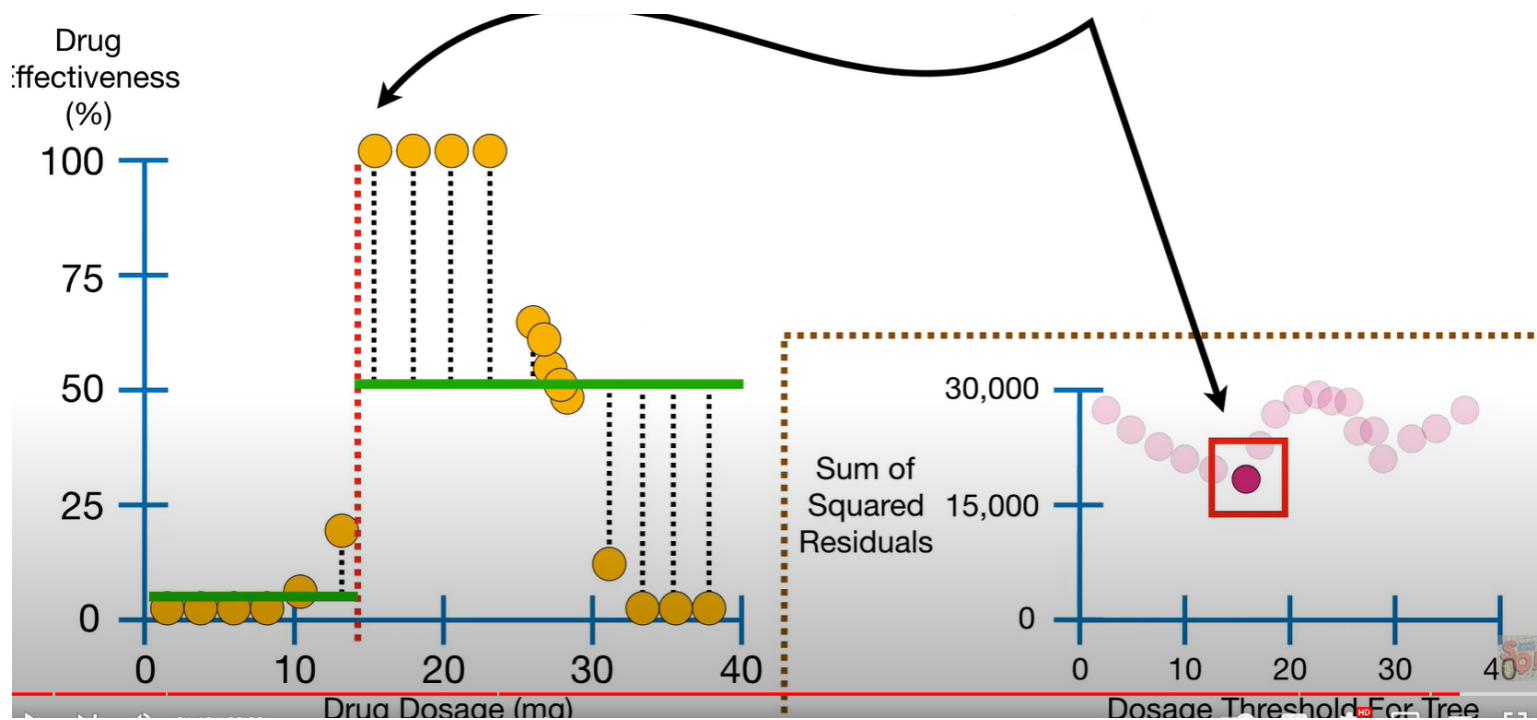
Source: StatQuest

We divide this up into sections based on thresholds (nodes) and calculate the sum of the squared residuals...

We can then check the SSR for different thresholds...**the one with the lowest SSR is the root of the tree to start with...then repeat**

To prevent over fitting we can set a **minimum number of observations before splitting the data again**.

# Regression trees 2



Source: StatQuest

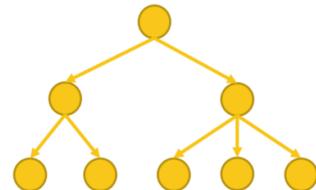
# Regression trees 3

- We can do this with many predictor variables...we try different thresholds and calculate the SSR.
- The best SSR value **across all variables becomes the root**.
- Each leaf **is a numeric value** not category like in classification trees.

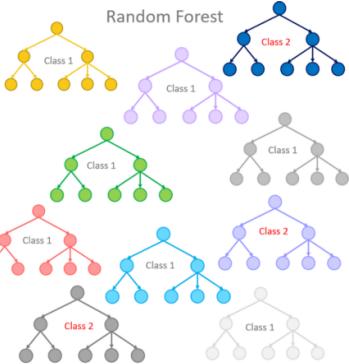
# Random Forests

- Grow many classification decision trees
  - **Many better than one**
- Each tree classifies a pixel - it votes for that class, most votes is the winner
- For each tree about 70% of the training data is used, 30% is left out of the bag (OOB)
- Or bootstrap **re-sampling by replacement** can be used also termed "bagging"
- One tree uses the whole dataset
- Variables used per tree varies - subset of variables (square root of all of them) is considered at each split of the tree

Single Decision Tree



Random Forest



Source: Rosaria Silipo

# Random Forests 2

- No pruning - trees can do down to largest extent
- **Out of Bag Error**
  - all trees that didn't have the values (e.g. rows in the data) in
  - average prediction error - number of correct predicted/total
- Validation data
  - different from OOB
  - never included within the decision trees

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
Windy	Cold	Low	Weak	Yes

Bootstrap sample

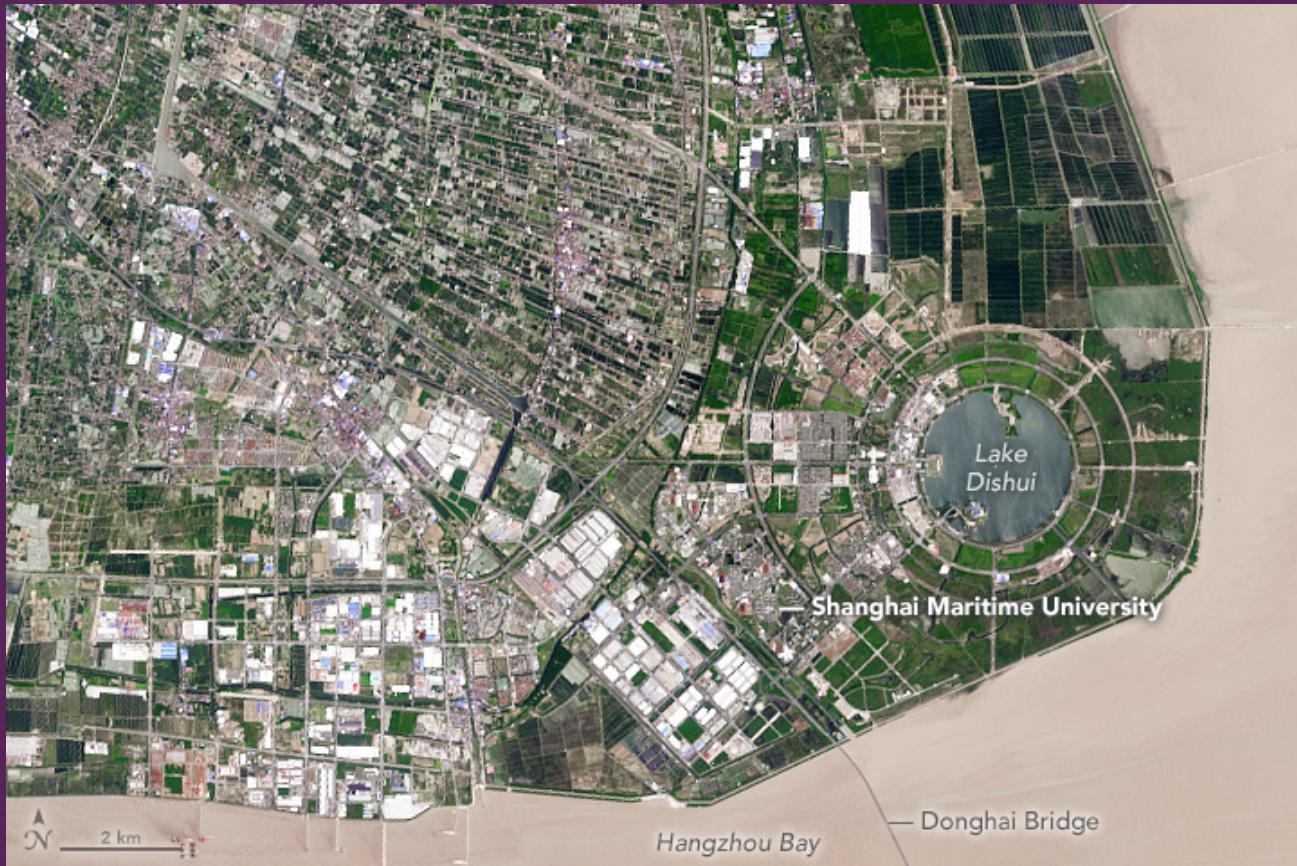
Then the last row that is “left out” in the original data (see the red box in the image below) is known as Out of Bag sample. This row will not be used as the training data for DT 1. Please note that in reality there will be several such rows which are left out as Out of Bag, here for simplicity only one is shown.

Outlook	Temperature	Humidity	Wind	Play Tennis
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Strong	No
Sunny	Hot	High	Weak	Yes
Windy	Cold	Low	Weak	Yes

Out of Bag sample

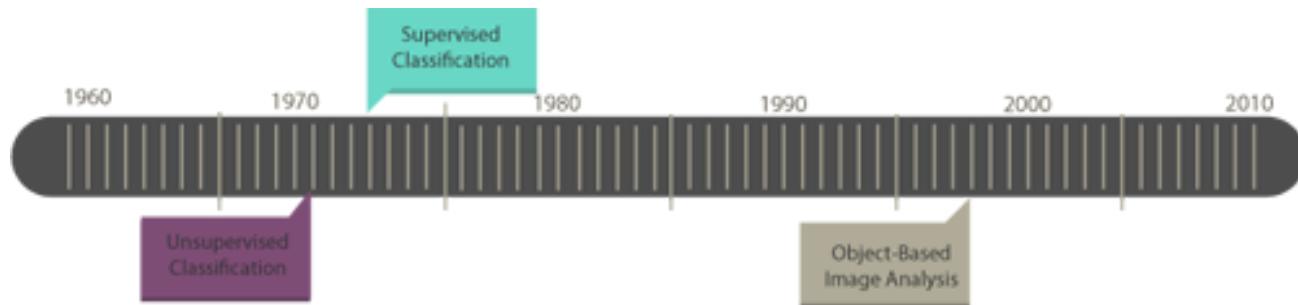
Source: Navnina Bhatia

# How do we apply this to imagery



Source:NASA, acquired July 20, 2016

# Classification trends



Source: [GISGeography](#)

# Image classification

- Turn every pixel in the image into one of a pre-defined categorical classification
- Either supervised or unsupervised classification procedure:

## supervised

- Pattern recognition or machine learning
- Classifier learns patterns in the data
- Uses that to place labels onto new data
- Pattern vector is used to classify the image

Usually pixels treated in isolation but as we have seen - contextual (neighboring pixels), objects (polygons), texture

## unsupervised

- Identify of land cover classes aren't know a priori (before)
- Tell them computer to cluster based on info it has (e.g. bands)
- Label the clusters

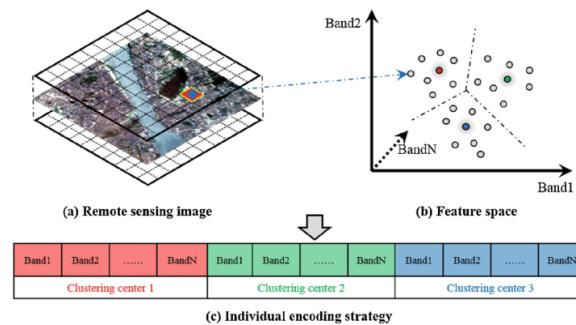
There are *generic* machine learning algorithms  
and remote sensing specific ones\*

# Unsupervised

Usually referred to as clustering / also k-means:

- Place points randomly or uniformly across spectral feature space or across the first PCA
  - Set the radius in spectral feature space at which new cluster to new started
  - Spectral distance to merge (within they are the same)
  - Number of pixels to be considered before merging
  - Max number of clusters
  - Clusters migrate over time - see Jensen page 404.

Repeat until N iterations or no allocations of pixels left.



Source:Yuting Wan

# Unsupervised 2

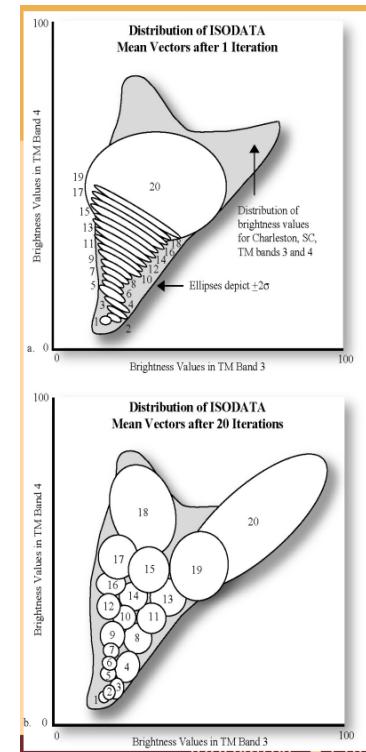
## ISODATA

Same as k-means but adds:

- Any clusters have so few pixels = meaningless
- Clusters are so close they can be merged
- Clusters can be split - elongated clusters in feature space

Typically inputs can include:

- max clusters
- Max % pixels of class values that can be unchanged - stops
- Max times of iterations
- Min pixels per cluster
- Max standard deviation - then split the cluster
- Min distance between clusters (3)



Source: Jensen 2016 p.409 / Muhammad Zulkarnain Abdul Rahman

# Unsupervised 3

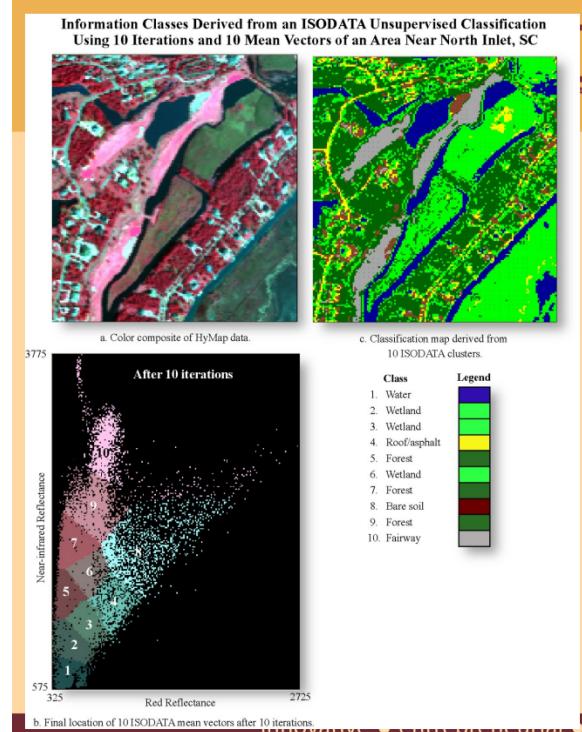
## Cluster busting

ISODATA can create lots of clusters and it's difficult to assign meaning (e.g. landcover)

- Two types of landcover in the pixel
- distribution of mean vectors not good enough to differentiate them

**Let's bust those clusters!**

- Take the incorrect or difficult to label ones
- Mask them
- Perform a separate classification
- Repeat



Source:Jensen 2016 p.409 / Muhammad Zulkarnain Abdul Rahman

How does supervised differ from unsupervised...?

# Supervised

Parametric (normal distribution) or non parametric (not normal)?

I would call most of these "classical" or "traditional" classifiers as they aren't used *much* now

## Parametric

- Maximum likelihood
- More recent work uses machine learning / expert systems(e.g. Support Vector Machine, Neural Networks ) or spectral mixture analysis

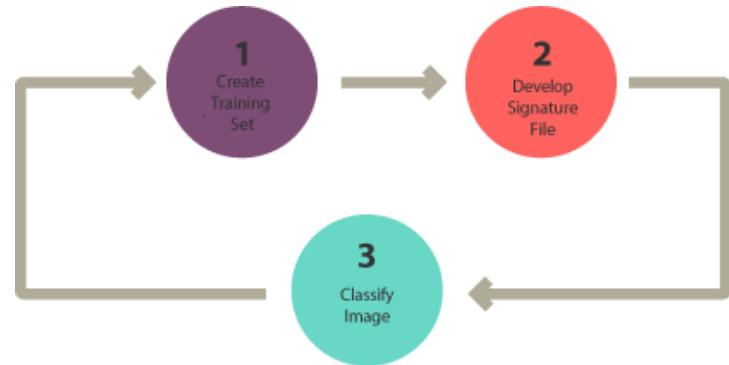
## Non-parametric

- Density slicing
- Parallelepiped
- Minimum distance to mean
- Nearest neighbor
- Neural networks
- Machine learning / expert systems\*

# Supervised 2

Same process for all:

- class definition
- pre-processing
- training
- pixel assignment
- accuracy assessment



Source:[GIS Geography](#)

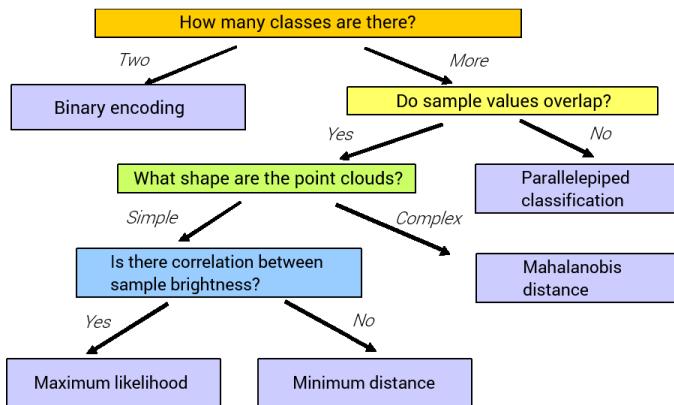
Here we will focus on two common methods -  
maximum likelihood and support vector  
machines

We have already covered decision trees and random forests

But...

# Supervised 3

An approach to select a classifier...in most cases training samples will overlap...unless you select spectrally pure endmembers or use a **spectral library**.



Source:Pavel Ukrainski

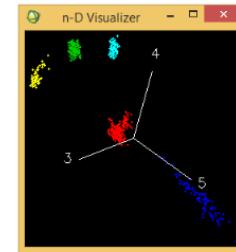
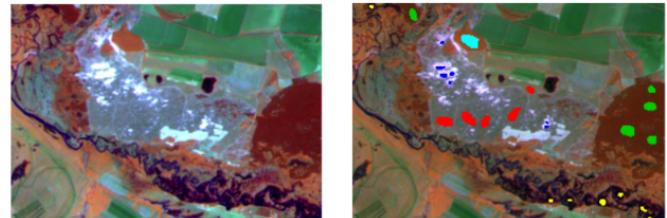


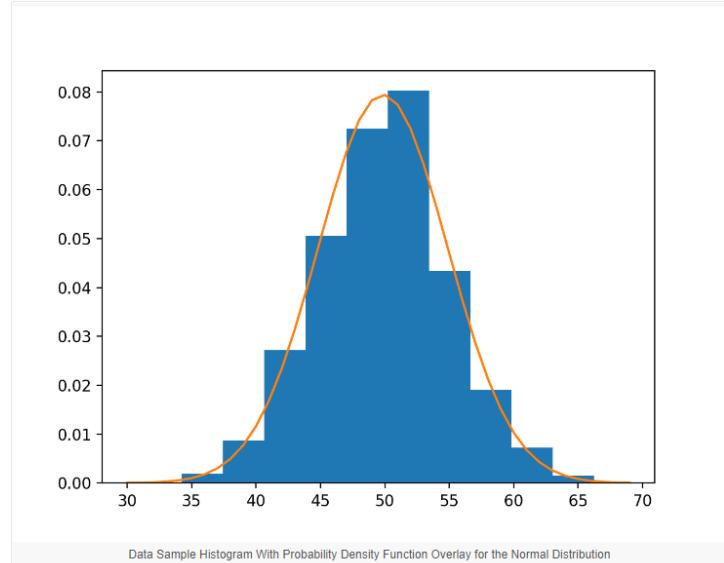
Figure 4. Example of when parallelepiped classification is most suitable

Source:Pavel Ukrainski

# Maximum likelihood

## Basics

- Decision rule classifier
- Uses probability
- Takes the image and assigns pixel to the most probable land cover type.
- You can set a probability threshold which means if a pixel is below it = no classification.

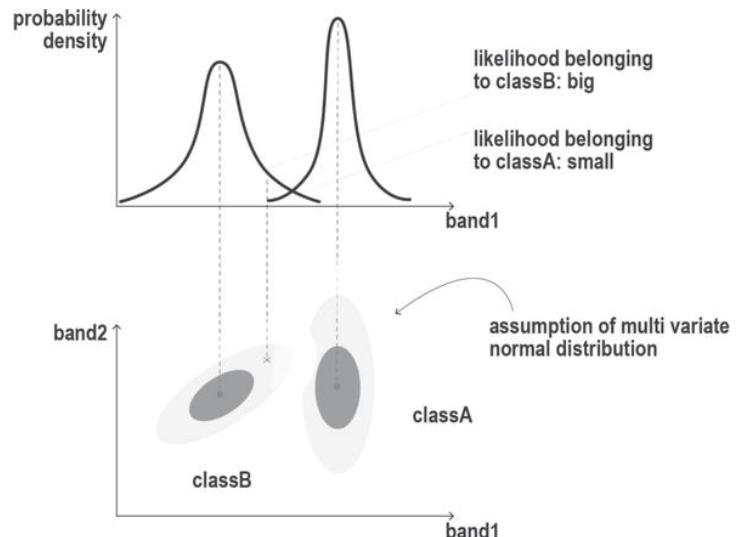


Source: [Machine Learning Mastery](#)

# Maximum likelihood 2

## Specifics

- From histogram to probability density function
  - mean and standard deviation of training data
- In imagery this is  $n$  dimensional multivariate normal density function - see Jensen p.399 for equation.
- Each pixel from image data is passed to the maximum likelihood rule > assigns landover to the largest product.



Source: Núñez et al. 2018 High-Resolution Satellite Imagery  
Classification for Urban Form Detection

Maximum Likelihood allows classification with prior probability information (e.g. 60% expected to be urban)

Usually we don't have this though

## Terminology alert

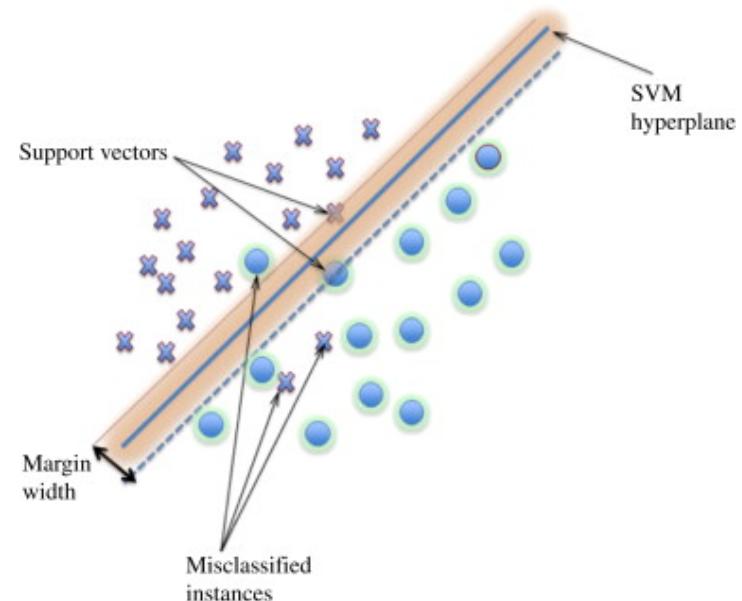
Pattern vector = all the band values per pixel (could include texture etc)

Also recall how we can fuse data from lecture 3

# Support Vector Machine (SVM)

- Simply a linear binary classifier - like logistic regression!
- Maximum **margin** between two classes of training data
- Points on the boundaries are **support vectors**
- Middle margin is called the **separating hyperplane**

This can be thought of as training data for class a on one side and training data for class b on the other side, with band 1 on the x axis and band 2 on the y axis.



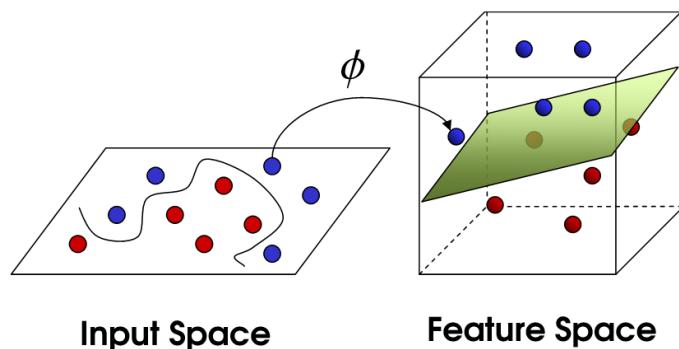
Source: Núñez et al. 2018 High-Resolution Satellite Imagery Classification for Urban Form Detection

# Support Vector Machine (SVM) 2

- Underlying theory is **structural risk minimisation**
  - Minimise error on unseen data with no assumptions on the distribution
- If they aren't linearly separable we can transform the data with the **kernel trick**
  - Apply some function to make them linearly separable

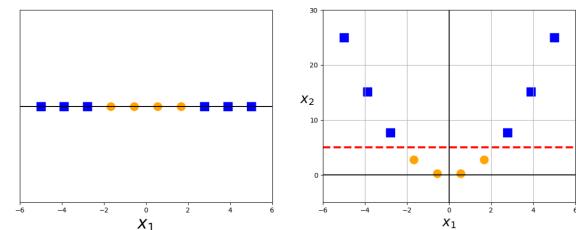
Selectable:

- Type of kernel
- C controls training data and decision boundary maximisation plus margin errors. The bigger = narrower margin.
- Gamma (or Sigma) low = big radius for classified points, high = low radius for classified points
  - More on this next week...



**Input Space**

**Feature Space**

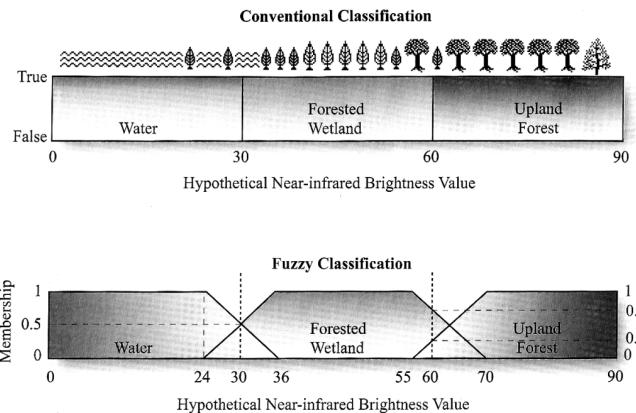


Source:Drew Wilimitis

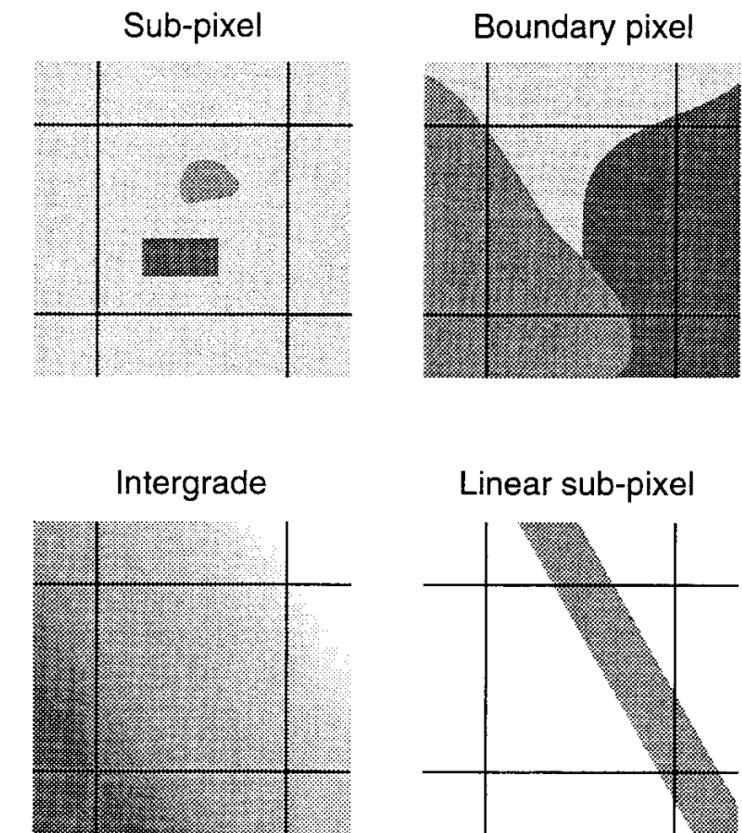
# Some considerations...

**Do not just present a study that classifies imagery ...look back at the examples and how else LULC be used**

# Hard or soft?



Source:Jensen, page 413/Slides



Source:Peter Fisher

A. P. Cracknell, 2010, Review article Synergy in remote sensing-what's in a pixel?

# Pixels or objects?



Source:Jakub Nowosad, supercells



Source:Jakub Nowosad, supercells



Average colour per segment. Source:Jakub Nowosad, supercells

# Pixels or objects?

This stems from simple linear iterative clustering (SLIC)...which uses k-means clustering to create the superpixels. See Achanta et al. (2012)

# Blackbox?

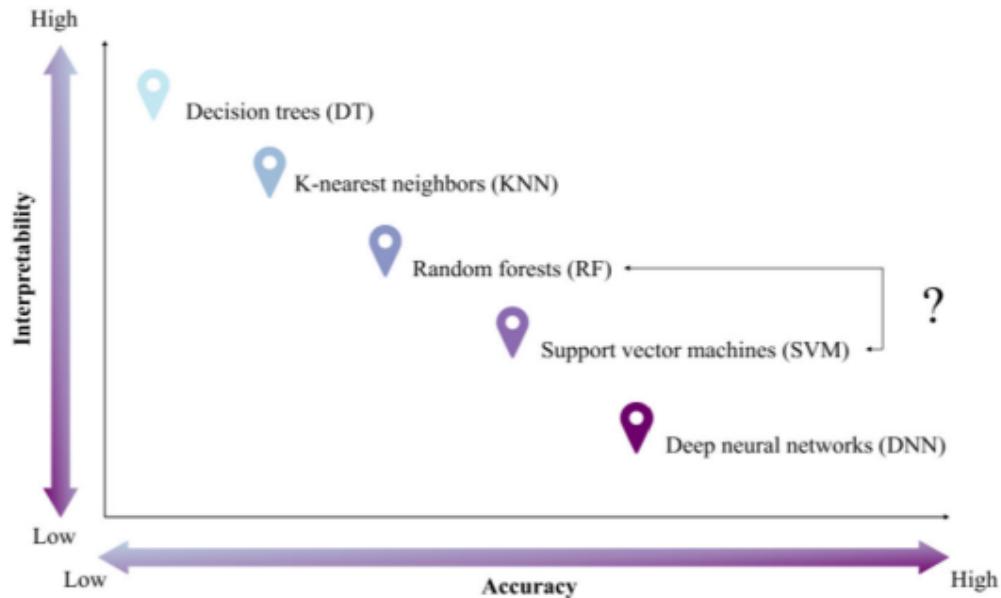


Fig. 1. Interpretability-accuracy tradeoff in machine learning classification algorithms.

Source:SHEYKHMOUSA et al. 2020 Support Vector Machine Versus Random Forest for Remote Sensing Image Classification: A Meta-Analysis and Systematic Review

# Summary

# Task

For the individual assignment of the module you are required to produce a online portfolio of independent study and response questions.

For the task this week you need to:

- Select **two** classification methods and in a maximum of three paragraphs:
  - Describe how they work
  - Outline benefits and limitations for each
  - Demonstrate how they have been used in literature or policy
  - Reference at least two studies

# Papers

<https://gisgeography.com/image-classification-techniques-remote-sensing/>

[https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Land-use-mapping-Maximum-Likelihood-Classification-In-this-study-maximum-likelihood\\_fig1\\_263471542](https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Land-use-mapping-Maximum-Likelihood-Classification-In-this-study-maximum-likelihood_fig1_263471542)

Read: <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/01431160512331314083>

