

Machine learning and signal processing for hyperspectral data classification

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① Introduction

- The image processing chain
- Current challenges

② Feature extraction from remote sensing images

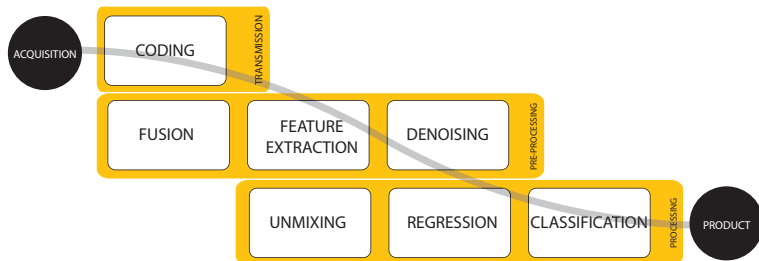
- Spatial feature extraction
- Spectral feature extraction

③ Supervised remote sensing image classification

- Introduction to supervised image classification
- Contextual information
- Multisource image fusion with LiDAR data
- Prior knowledge and invariances

Part 1: Introduction to hyperspectral image processing

A standard image processing chain:



- Many steps and by-products from signal/image acquisition to the product
- Transmission → Preprocessing → Processing
- A wide diversity of problems and dedicated tools

Feature selection, extraction and fusion



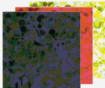
Segmentation



Estimation



Spectral unmixing



Coding



Restoration



Parsing/retrieval



- ❶ Select best features (channels, spatial) that describe the problem (classification, retrieval)
- ❷ Extract (lin/nonlin) combinations of spectral channels that best describe the problem
- ❸ Combine panchromatic and optical bands to improve products
- ❹ Automatically find groups of pixels in the image (for screening, detection)
- ❺ Estimate geo-bio-physical parameters and variables (temperature, LAI, etc) from spectra
- ❻ Estimate the spectral components (pure pixels, endmembers) in a 'mixed' pixel
- ❼ Compress images for storage and transmission, while keeping most of the information
- ❽ Remove noise and distortions due to acquisition (sun glint) or transmission (vertical stripes)
- ❾ Assign semantic classes to objects (pixels, patches, regions) in the scene

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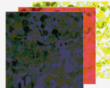
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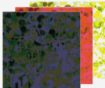
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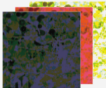
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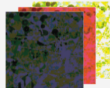
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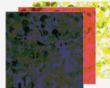
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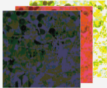
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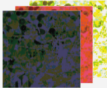
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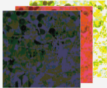
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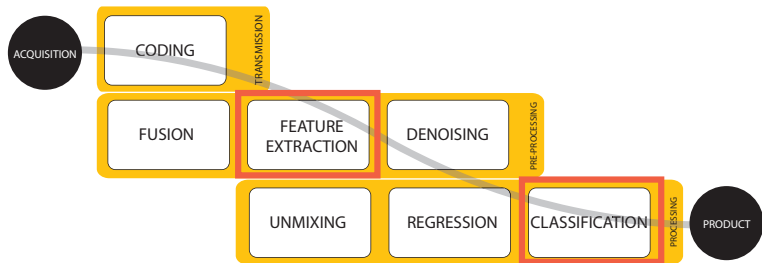
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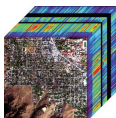
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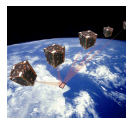
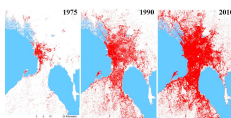
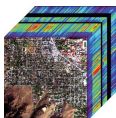
Characteristics of hyperspectral data:

- High spectral resolution → moderate spatial resolutions (mixed pixels, subpixel targets)
- High dimensional data: multi-temporal, multi-angular and multi-source fusion
- Non-linear and non-Gaussian feature relations
- Few supervised (labeled) information is available (high cost)
- Tons of data to process in (near) real-time



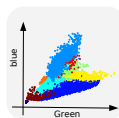
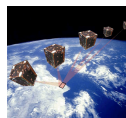
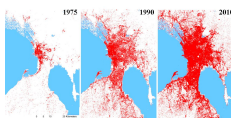
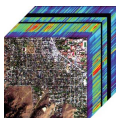
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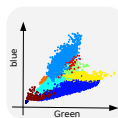
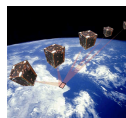
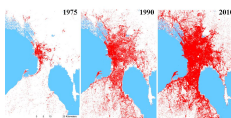
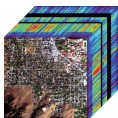
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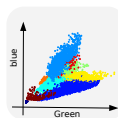
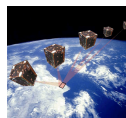
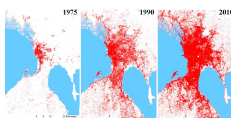
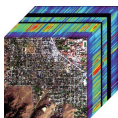
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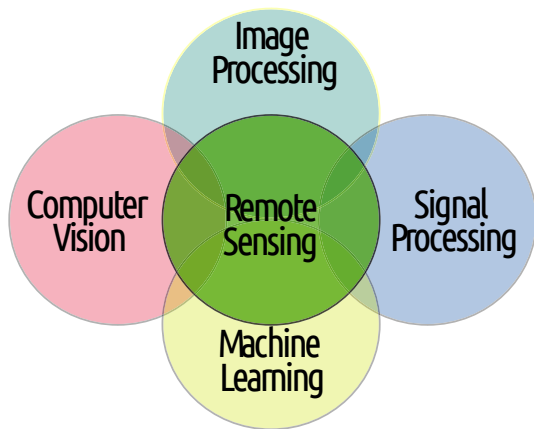


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We will live at the intersection:

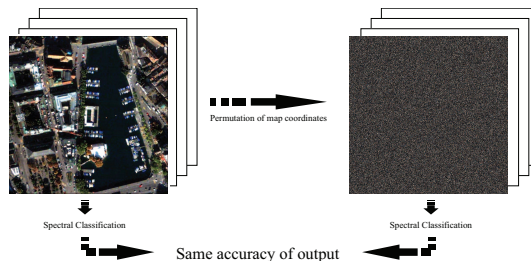


Part 2: Feature extraction from hyperspectral images

Why feature extraction?

Extracting features from remote sensing images is essential to:

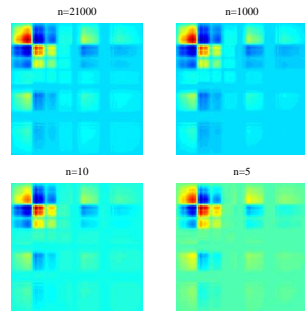
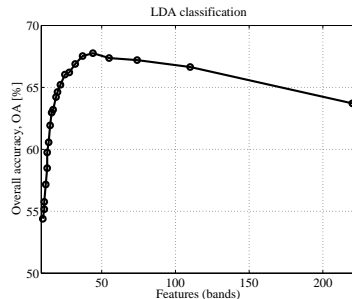
- Compress information for storage/transmission
- Reduce (spatial and spectral) redundancy



- Make image processing algorithms more robust (to noise, #labels vs. dim.)
- Understand the underlying physical relations

Why feature extraction?

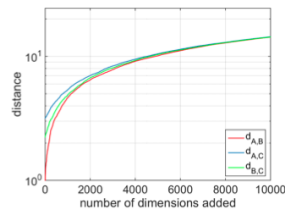
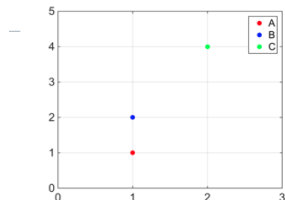
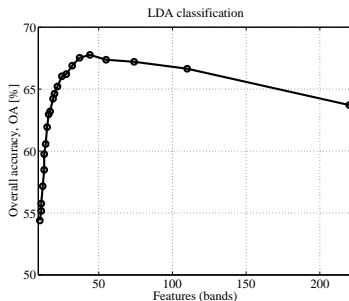
[Hughes69]



- Algorithms cannot deal with high-dim feature vectors efficiently
- We require fast processing of few richer components
- Many times the spectral information is not enough

Why feature extraction?

[Hughes69]



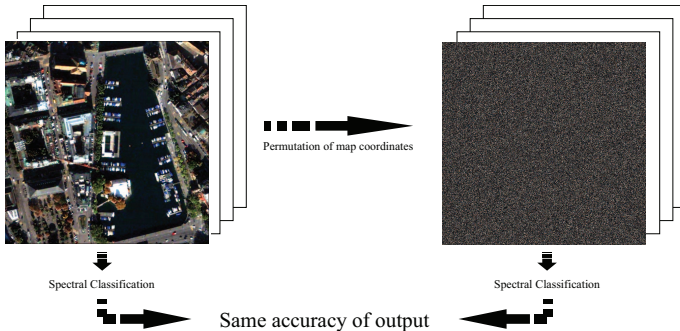
- Algorithms cannot deal with high-dim feature vectors efficiently
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Today we consider:

- ① Spatial/contextual
 - Texture
 - Math morphology
- ② Spectral: extract features that enforce properties of the data we like
 - Compression: PCA
 - Atmospheric compensation: KEMA

Why spatio / spectral features

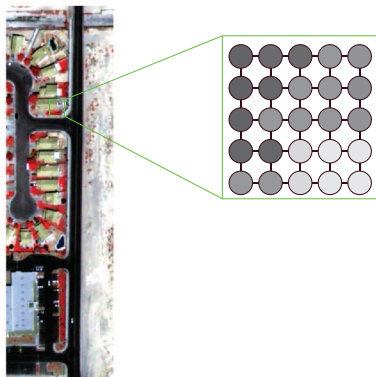
Relying only on spectral information, we disregard the spatial context of the pixels.



Let's consider some assumptions

1. Images are intrinsically spatial, not just 'data'
>> to use the position information makes sense.
2. Objects are sharply separated
>> contrast can be used to avoid oversmoothing.
3. Classes (\sim objects) tend to be spatially consistent
>> neighboring pixels tend to belong to the same class.

1. Images are spatial *random fields*

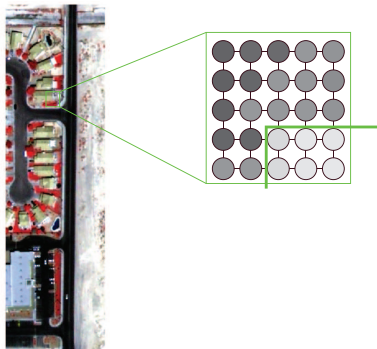


- Gray values vary smoothly in the spatial domain
- They are NOT independent wrt their neighbors

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2. Objects are separated by high contrast regions

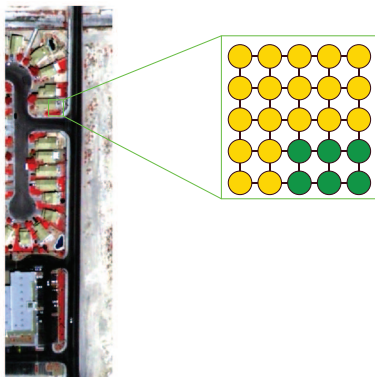


- High gradient is a sharp boundary
- What is beyond is probably another object

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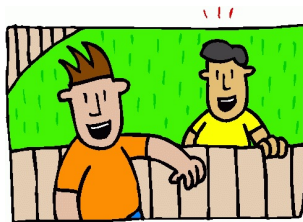
3. Classes are also generally smooth



- Neighboring pixels tend to share the same class
- Size and type of the relation depend on many factors (resolution, type of class, ...)
> prior information

Summing up:

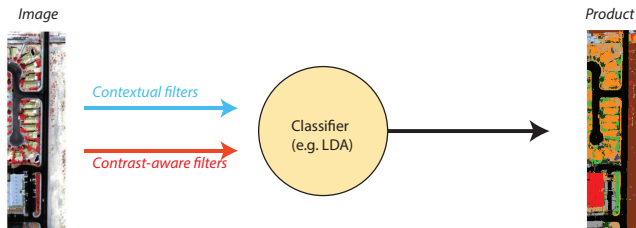
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3. Classes (\sim objects) tend to be spatially consistent



It is time to meet the pixels' neighbors!

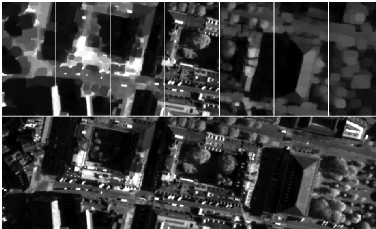
We can act at the feature level

- We generate relevant filters
- (opt.) We select the good ones
- We classify

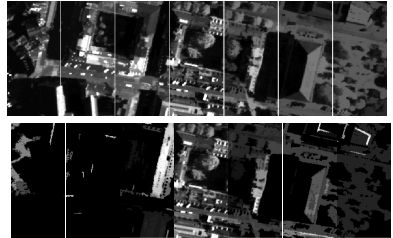


- Signal modifications that smooth or enhance edges.

Morphological opening and closing



Morphological reconstruction



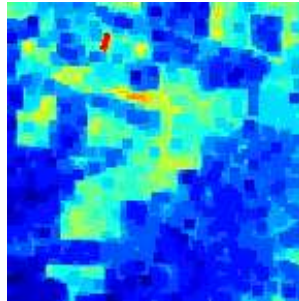
Attribute filtering

- Physics-inspired indices: NDVI, Red-edge, NDWI, ...

Erosion: "Replace pixel with the minimum surrounding pixel over SE."

```
>> se = strel('disk',3); 0 = imerode(I,se);
```

Erosion, disk 3x3

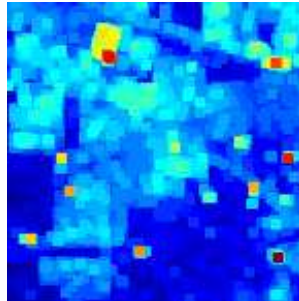


- Darker features than the surroundings are enlarged
- Brighter features than the surroundings shrink

Dilation: “Replace pixel with the maximum surrounding pixel over SE.”

```
>> se = strel('disk',3); I = imdilate(I,se);
```

Dilation, disk 3x3

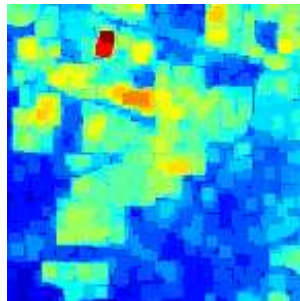


- Brighter features than the surroundings are enlarged
- Darker features than the surroundings shrink

Opening: "Erosion followed by dilation"

```
>> se = strel('disk',3); 0 = imopen(I,se);
```

Opening, disk 3x3

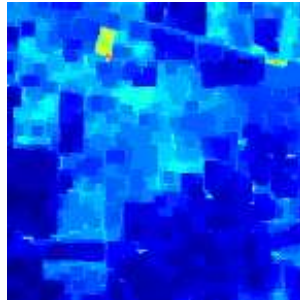


- Brighter features than the surroundings and smaller than the SE disappear
- Other features (dark, or bright and large) remain unchanged

Closing: "Dilation followed by erosion."

```
>> se = strel('disk',3); C = imclose(I,se);
```

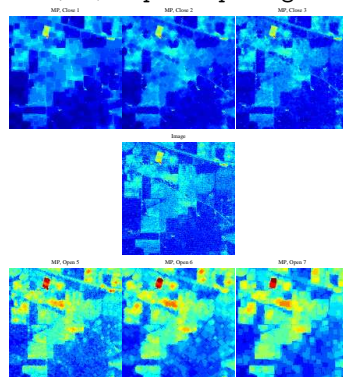
Closing, disk 3x3



- Darker features than the surroundings and smaller than the SE disappear
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Morphological profile: "Openings and closings with increasing SE"

```
>> se = strel('diamond',5); repeat opening-closing operations;
```

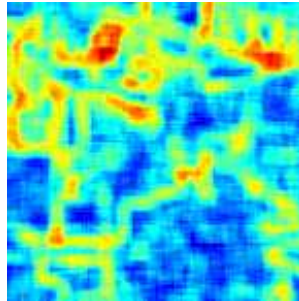


- Pixels turn into a sequential analysis of fine-to-coarse relations
- Useful as a feature vector for processing (e.g. classification)

Local entropy: “Replace a pixel with the entropy value of the neighborhood”

```
>> H = entropyfilt(I/max(I(:)));
```

Local entropy, 9x9 window

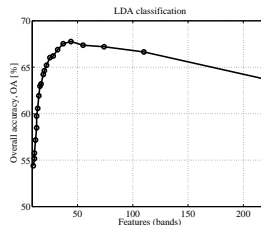
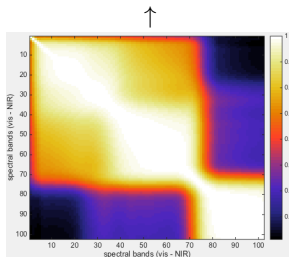


- Useful for edge detection
- Useful for saliency and detection of anomalies

Spectral feature extraction

Ok, now we know how to extract filters. But on which bands?

- In hyperspectral images we have hundreds to thousands of features!
- Extracting filters for each would lead to millions of **redundant** features (the bands are collinear)



- And classifiers will be less accurate (Hughes phenomenon)
- And slower...

... A solution can be found in ...

Dimensionality reduction (a.k.a **feature extraction**)

- We want to recombine information of the image into some features that show some properties of interest for us
- Most of the spectral feature extractors are based on multivariate analysis:
"project data onto a subspace that maximizes explained variance, minimize classification error, etc."

Today we consider two problems:

- ① Compressing the information: principal component analysis (PCA)
- ② Making classes more similar: kernel manifold alignment (KEMA)

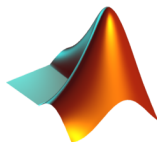
Principal component analysis (PCA)

- *"Find projections maximizing the variance of the data:"*

$$\begin{array}{ll}\text{PCA:} & \text{maximize: } \text{Tr}\{(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{U})^\top(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{U})\} = \text{Tr}\{\mathbf{U}^\top \mathbf{C}_{xx} \mathbf{U}\} \\ & \text{subject to: } \mathbf{U}^\top \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}\end{array}$$

- The Matlab PCA code:

```
>> C = cov(X);  
>> [U L] = eigs(C,d);  
>> Xtest_projected = Xtest*U;  
>> Xtest_projected = Xtest*U(:,1:np);
```



- Pros & cons:

- ✓ Simplicity
- ✓ Easy to understand
- ✓ Leads to convex optimization problems
- × Unsuitable for non-linear problems
- × More dimensions than points?

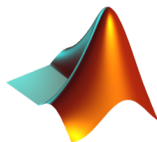
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- The Matlab PCA code:**

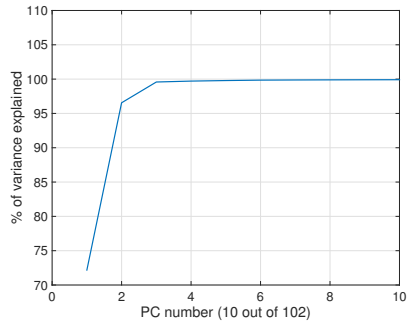
```
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>> Xtest_projected = Xtest*U(:,1:np);
```



- Pros & cons:**

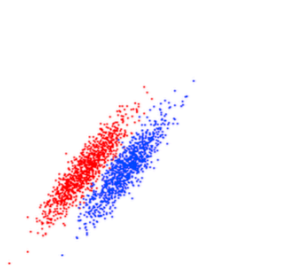
- ✓ Simplicity
- ✓ Easy to understand
- ✓ Leads to convex optimization problems
- ✗ Unsuitable for non-linear problems
- ✗ More dimensions than points?

An Example: Pavia data (with video!)



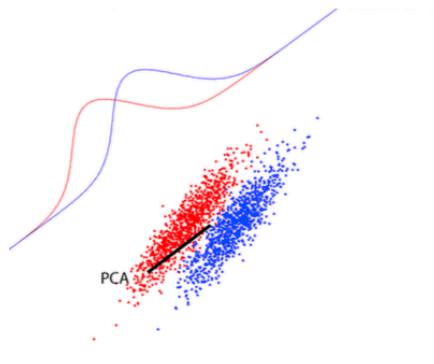
Using feature extraction for other objectives

- PCA compacts information
- It is useful if you want to reduce the dimensionality and have informative features to extract spatial indices
- It has **nothing** to do with classification: the features are not discriminative



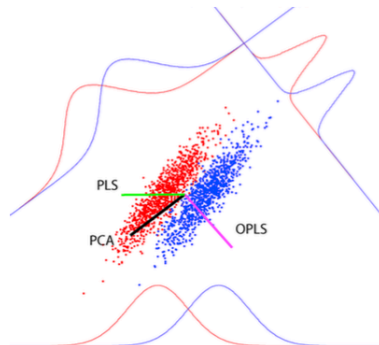
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Using feature extraction for other objectives

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- It is useful if you want to reduce the dimensionality and have informative features to extract spatial indices
- It has **nothing** to do with classification: the features are not discriminative
Other feature extractors are discriminative: PLS, OPLS



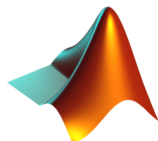
Orthonormalized PLS (OPLS)

- “OPLS chooses the projection \mathbf{U} that minimizes the MSE error using a linear regression:”

$$\begin{array}{ll}\text{OPLS:} & \text{find: } \mathbf{U} = \arg \min \{ \|\mathbf{Y} - (\mathbf{XU})\mathbf{W}\|_F^2 \} \\ & \text{where: } \mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{XU})^\dagger \mathbf{Y} = ((\mathbf{XU})^\top \mathbf{XU})^{-1} \mathbf{XU} \mathbf{Y}\end{array}$$

- The Matlab OPLS code

```
>> [U,D] = eig((X'*Y)*(Y'*X),X'*X);  
>> Xtest_projected = Xtest*U;  
>> Xtest_projected = Xtest*U(:,1:np);
```

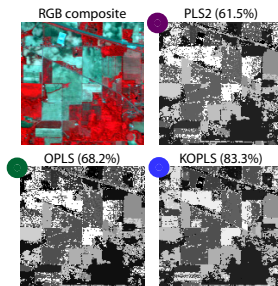
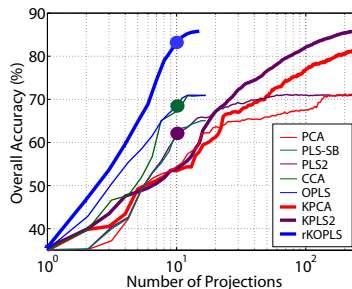


Experimental comparison

● Data:

- AVIRIS image taken over NW Indiana's Indian Pine test site in June 1992
- 145×145 image size, 220 features (bands), 16 land cover classes
- 80% for training and 20% for testing
- Classifier: linear classifier on top of different number of features

● Results:



- Supervised feature extraction often better than unsupervised
- Higher accuracies lead to smoother maps
- kOPLS excels in performance, needs few components
- kOPLS reduce false alarm rates in large homogeneous vegetation areas

Using feature extraction for other objectives: shadow compensation

What if our data show undesired spectral effects?



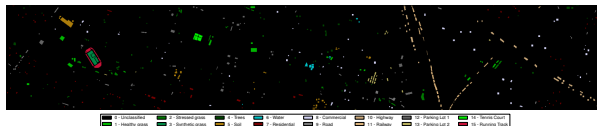
- PCA compacts information
- PLS / OPLS / ... provide discriminative bands
- can we define projections that perform automatic relative normalization?
- like an histogram matching between images, or an automatic atmospheric correction

Using feature extraction for other objectives: shadow compensation

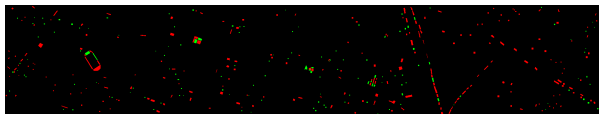
- We have one hyperspectral image from CASI, a part has a strong shadow



- Our ground reference :



- The train ground (\downarrow green) truth is only on lit pixels
- The test ground truth (\downarrow red) is a mixture of lit pixels and under shadow



Using feature extraction for other objectives: shadow compensation

- We have one hyperspectral image from CASI



- A classifier will do something like that (OA: 71%, 4% under the shadow):



- If we add LiDAR and spatial filter (OA: 85%, 23% under the shadow):



Kernel Manifold Alignment

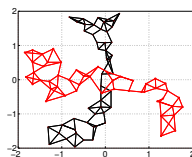
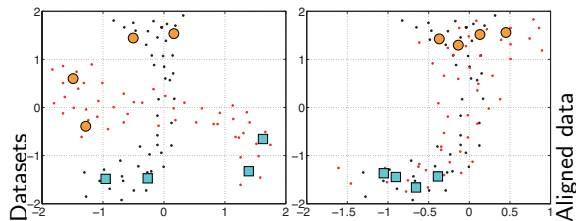
The Kernel Manifold Alignment registers images spectrally. It searches for projections that

- A: Maintain the original spectral neighborhood relationships (keep the reflectance structures)
- B: Pull samples of the same class close
- C: Push samples of different classes apart

Ref. Tuia and Camps Valls: Kernel manifold alignment for domain adaptation. PLoS One, 2016.

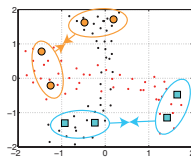
CODE: <https://github.com/dtuia/KEMA>

Kernel Manifold Alignment (intuition)

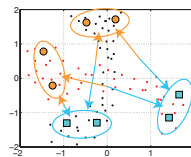


Same geometry

Under constraints:



Pull classes close



Push classes away

Using feature extraction for other objectives: shadow compensation

- We register **spectrally** the illuminated and shadowed parts



- This is how the three first projections look like



- A classifier after projection (OA: 83.8%, 70% under the shadow):



- If we add LiDAR and spatial filter (OA: 94.3%, 91% under the shadow):



Feature extraction: summary

- Extracting features from remote sensing images is essential to:
 - Compress information for storage/transmission
 - Reduce (spatial and spectral) redundancy
 - Visualize data characteristics
- Spectral features rely either on physical prior knowledge or statistical techniques that optimize a sensible criterion
- Spatial features rely on image processing operations building on the classical smoothness assumption in the image space or detect edges
- All in all, they always make the problem better posed, so use them!

Part 3: Supervised hyperspectral image classification

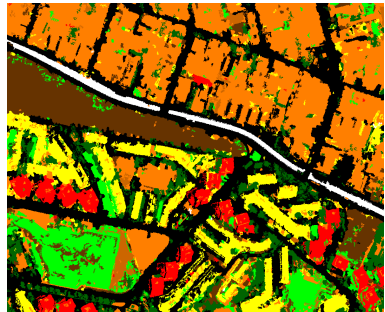
In a nutshell

From here



Gray values, $f(\text{light})$
 \mathbb{R}^b

To here



Limited number of classes
 \mathbb{Z}

[Tuia et al, Classification of very high spatial resolution imagery using mathematical morphology and support vector machines, IEEE TGRS, 2009]

Did you say classification?

Need for generalization of images for:

- land cover / coastal monitoring
- post catastrophe assessment
- military applications
- population movements, urban growth, policy making

Need for automatic routines because

- the human brain is excellent at pattern recognition
- for a computer,
 - a pixel is just a stack of values (one per feature)
 - the notion of object does not exist a priori.

Statistical classifiers have been readily applied to the problem:

Parametric

Assume a particular density distribution
LDA, GMM

Non-parametric

No assumption about the data distribution
 k -NN, NNETS, TREES, SVM

Supervised

Need labeled input-output pairs
LDA, k -NN, TREES, SVM

Unsupervised

No need labels
 k -means, EM-GMM, SOM

Semisupervised

Use both labeled and unlabeled data
Laplacian SVM, TSVM, graphs

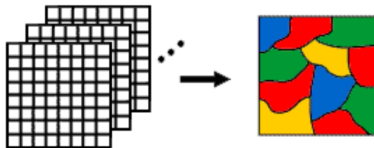
One-class

Interest in detecting just one class
SAM, OSP, RX, OC-SVM

- Not too much success in parametric classifiers, as some assumptions break
- Currently, nonparametric classifiers and committees of experts excel!
- k -NN: good compromise between accuracy and computational cost
- Support vector machines (SVM) typically outperform the rest

Classifiers:

- Linear discriminant analysis (linear, quadratic, Mahalanobis)
- k -Nearest neighbors (KNN)
- Random Forests (RF)
- Support Vector Machines (SVM)

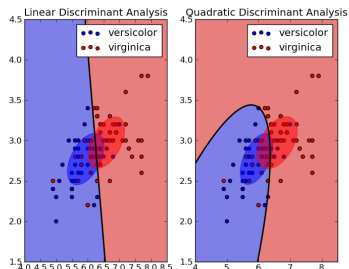


Linear discriminant analysis (LDA): “Fits a Gaussian to each class data”

- Linear discriminant analysis ('linear'): Fit a multivariate Gaussian to each group/class through a joint covariance matrix

```
>> yp=classify(Xtest,Xtrain,Ytrain,'linear');
```
- Linear discriminant analysis ('quadratic'): Fit a multivariate Gaussian to each group/class through a class-dependent covariance matrix

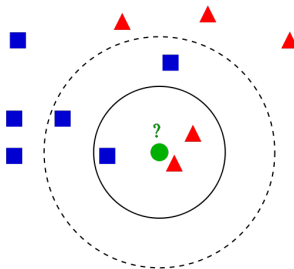
```
>> yp=classify(Xtest,Xtrain,Ytrain,'quadratic');
```



k nearest neighbor (k -NN)

- non-parametric memory-based (lazy) classifier
- assigns the test label from the closest training point(s)
- we can play around with the notion of distance (e.g. Euclidean, SAM, etc.)
- k -NN is a rather slow method with many samples and high k
- $k = 1$ use to work in real applications!

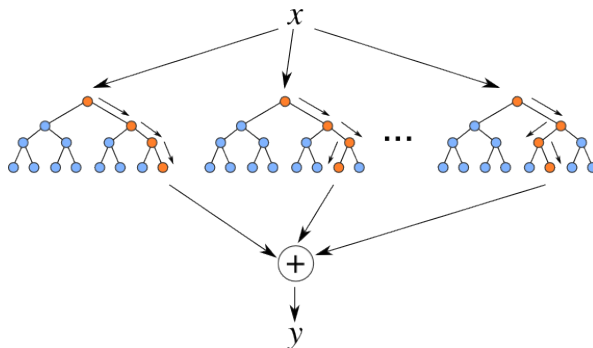
```
>> mdl = fitcknn(Xtrain,Ytrain,'NumNeighbors',1);  
>> yp = predict(mdl,Xtest);
```



Random Forests (RF)

- Trains a set of N trees decision trees built on subsets of data and features
- Final prediction is a vote over the trees responses
- More trees is better (more independence), but also slower.
- More depth of the trees tends to overfit.

```
>> RF = TreeBagger(NTrees,Xtrain,Ytrain);  
>> [yp,scores] =predict(RF,Xtest);
```

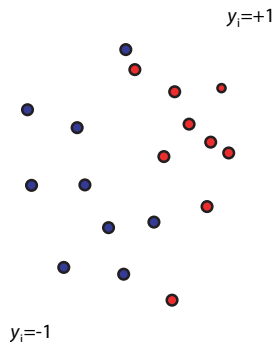


Support Vector Machines (SVM)

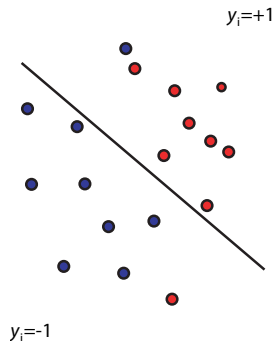
Support Vector Machines (SVM): “non-parametric **kernel** method that fits an optimal **linear hyperplane** separating the classes in a **higher dimensional representation (feature) space**”



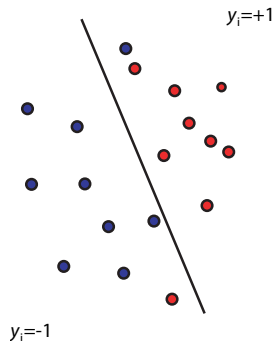
- **Data:** Given n examples $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^B$ and $y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ (classes)
- **Objective:** Linear classifier in Hilbert space, $\hat{y} = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^\top \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b)$.



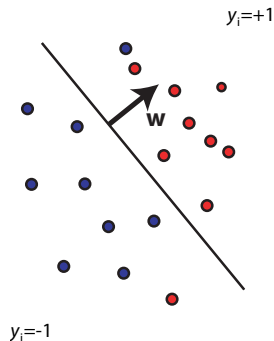
- **Several solutions exist!**
- **Objective:** Define the optimal one (\mathbf{w}, b)



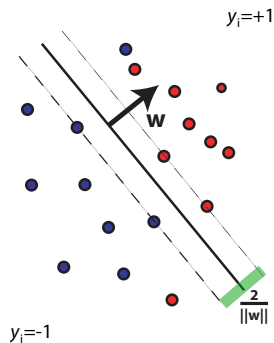
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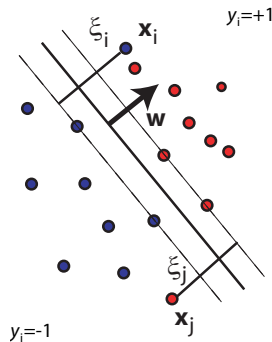
- Intuitively there's an optimal one!
- Objective: Define the optimal one (w, b)



- Maximize margin separation = minimize $\|w\|$: $\min_w \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \right\}$

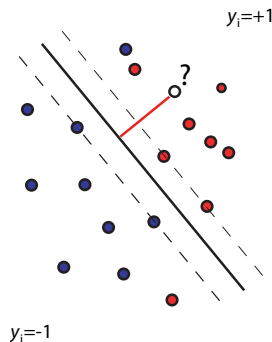


- Errors must be also penalized! $\min_w \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_i \xi_i \right\}$



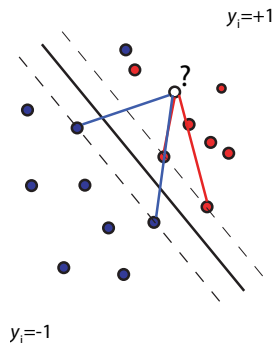
$$\hat{y}_j = f(\mathbf{x}_j) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^\top \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) + b) = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \langle \mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i \rangle + b\right)$$

- Instead of computing the exact position of the point w.r.t the hyperplane
- We compute it relatively to the support vectors
- **Support vectors**: the samples on the margin

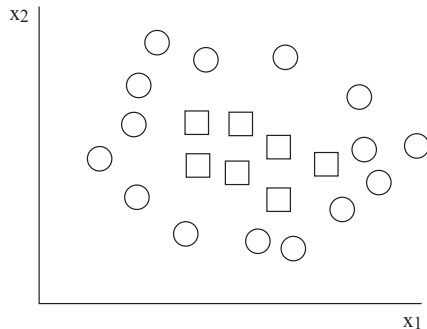


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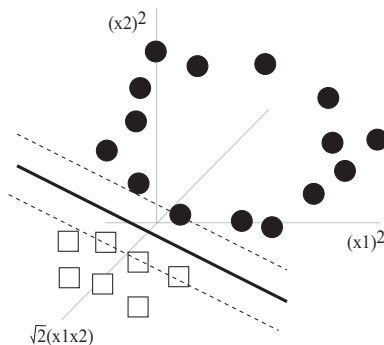
- Instead of computing the exact position of the point w.r.t the hyperplane
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- **Support vectors:** the samples on the margin



But this is only linear. How to solve this?



2 possibilities

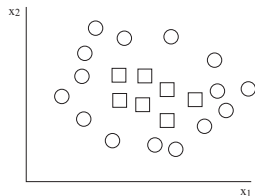


Build a nonlinear model (e.g. NN)

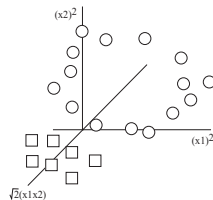


Ask an old friend

Original space \mathcal{X}

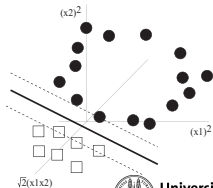
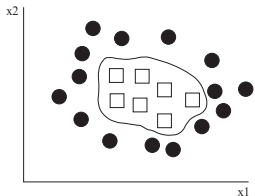


Feature space \mathcal{H}



→ Project →

Use linear model



← Back in \mathcal{X} ←



But how?

- The expression of the projecting function $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ can be complicated
- There are infinitely many possible candidates
- Trick: use samples in the original space, get the projected solution



By using kernels

- A kernel between two samples correspond to their similarity in a higher dimensional space

$$K : \mathbf{x} \rightarrow \phi(\mathbf{x})$$

- We evaluate the function on the input samples, and we get their similarity in the projected one

$$K(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_1), \phi(\mathbf{x}_2) \rangle$$

- e.g squared polynomial kernel in 2D corresponds to a projection on a 3D space

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2 = [x_1, x_2]$$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x})_{poly,2} \in \mathbb{R}^3 = [(x_1)^2, \sqrt{x_1 x_2}, (x_2)^2]$$

Polynomial kernel for 2D data

$$K([x], [y]) = ([x][y])^2$$
$$= (x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2)^2$$
$$= x_1^2 y_1^2 + 2x_1 y_1 x_2 y_2 + x_2^2 y_2^2$$

If $\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2} x_1 x_2 \\ x_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$, $\phi(y) = \begin{bmatrix} y_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2} y_1 y_2 \\ y_2^2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\phi(x) \cdot \phi(y) = x_1^2 y_1^2 + 2x_1 y_1 x_2 y_2 + x_2^2 y_2^2$$

SAME!

Support Vector Machines (SVM): “non-parametric **kernel** method that fits an optimal **linear hyperplane** separating the classes in a **higher dimensional representation (feature) space**”

$$\hat{y}_j = f(\mathbf{x}_j) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^\top \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) + b) = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i K(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{x}_i) + b\right)$$

- **The solution is sparse:** only few examples \mathbf{x}_i with $\alpha_i \neq 0$ are important
- **Support vectors:** define the margin and are misclassified examples
- **The solution is linear in the projected space, but nonlinear in the original one**

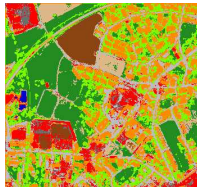
Example: Spatial-spectral multispectral image classification

- Multispectral image: 9 crop classes, Zürich, 2002.
- Quickbird sensor: 4 bands + 22 spatial features (top/bottom hat).
- *Both spatial and spectral information is considered.*

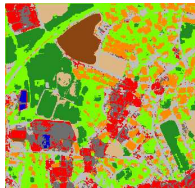
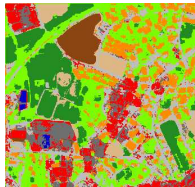
Accuracy and robustness with contextual information:

Training pixels		OA [%]					Kappa				
		LDA	1 Tree	k-NN	SVM	NN	LDA	1 Tree	k-NN	SVM	NN
115	μ	72.93	71.00	75.69	83.37	77.37	<u>0.67</u>	<u>0.65</u>	<u>0.70</u>	0.80	<u>0.72</u>
	σ	(2.85)	(2.97)	(1.28)	(2.40)	(2.48)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.03)	(0.03)
255	μ	77.23	73.47	80.53	85.91	80.61	<u>0.72</u>	<u>0.68</u>	<u>0.76</u>	0.83	<u>0.76</u>
	σ	(1.41)	(1.64)	(1.34)	(1.94)	(0.99)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)
1155	μ	78.35	80.45	87.32	88.03	84.29	<u>0.74</u>	0.76	0.84	0.85	<u>0.81</u>
	σ	(0.69)	(0.73)	(0.63)	(1.68)	(1.77)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)
2568	μ	78.61	81.59	87.26	87.17	85.10	<u>0.74</u>	<u>0.77</u>	0.84	0.84	<u>0.82</u>
	σ	(0.57)	(0.89)	(0.61)	(0.85)	(1.05)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)

Ground truth

 k -NN (87.32, 0.84)

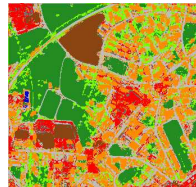
LDA (78.35, 0.74)

**SVM (88.03, 0.85)**

Decision tree (80.45, 0.76)



Neural net (84.29, 0.81)



- SVM and k -NN detect all major structures of the image
- McNemar's test confirmed visual estimation of the quality

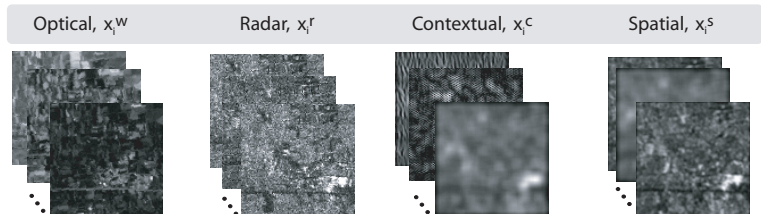
[Camps-Valls et al., Remote Sensing Image Processing, Morgan and Claypool, 2011]

Image classification needs strong regularization:

- SVM imposes regularization naturally by maximum margin
- RF impose regularization naturally by the ensemble of weak learners
- Advanced classification focuses on other forms of regularization:
 - Reduce dimensionality via feature selection and extraction [+Before+]
 - Include synthetically generated data encodes invariance properties [+Next+]
 - Impose spatial homogeneity of images: include spatial information [+Next+]
 - Include information contained in unlabeled samples
 - Include multisource data: SAR, LiDAR [+Next+]
 - Include ancillary information from expert's knowledge (VIs, ecosystems maps, climate regions, etc)

How to integrate multi-source information?

- Spatial features
- Textural features
- Time-varying features
- Multi-sensor features
- Multi-angular features

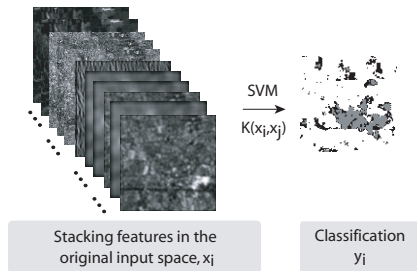


Stacked approach

- Stacking features that characterize a pixel:

$$\mathbf{x}_i \leftarrow [\mathbf{x}_i^\omega, \mathbf{x}_i^c, \mathbf{x}_i^r, \mathbf{x}_i^\rho, \mathbf{x}_i^s, \mathbf{x}_i^t, \dots]$$

- Compute matrix K and solve an SVM with the new samples \mathbf{x}_i .



- Problems:**

- 1 Dimensionality of the samples is increased extraordinarily!
- 2 Cross-relationships among features are not taken into account.
- 3 This would be impractical for neural networks, for example.

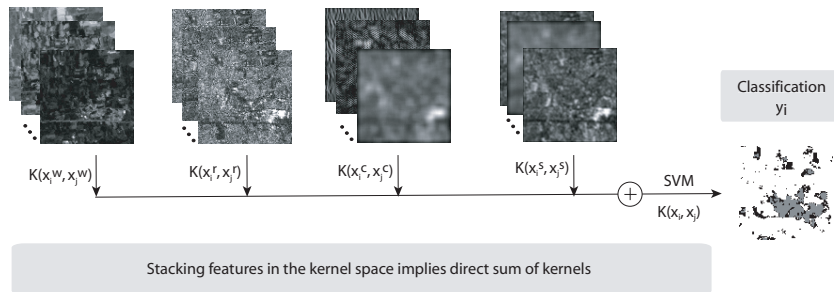
Kernel-based spatial-spectral HSI classification

- Some properties of kernel methods (and SVM):

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = K_1(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) + K_2(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

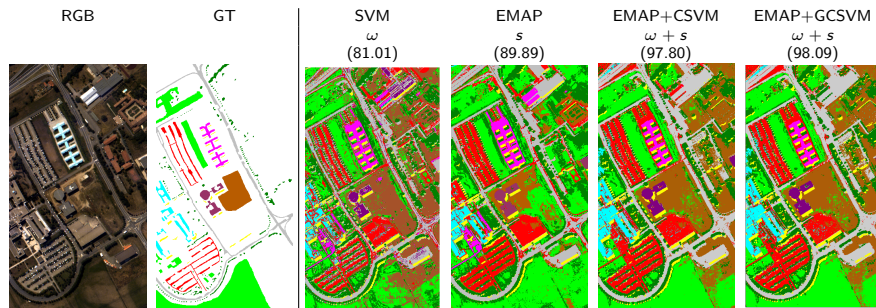
$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = K_1(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) \cdot K_2(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

$$K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \eta K_1(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j), \quad \eta > 0$$



[Tuia et al., Learning relevant image features with multiple kernels classification, IEEE TGRS, 2010]

Combine advanced spatial features and composite SVM



- ROSIS-03 Pavia University area data set (103 spectral channels and spatial resolution 1.3m), 9 classes
- Spatial components:
 - Benediktson11 Extended Morphological Profiles (EMAP)
 - CampsValls06 Cross-kernels composite SVM (CSVM)
 - Li13 Generalized composite kernels (GCSVM)

[Li et al., Generalized Composite Kernel Framework for Hyperspectral Image Classification, TGRS 2013]

GRSS DF-TC competition 2013:

- HSI from CASI1500 sensor (144 bands, 380–1050 nm)
- LiDAR-derived digital surface model (DSM), spatial res. 2.5 m
- 15 classes, challenging problem, diversity of classes
- DSM represents elevation (in [m]) above sea level (Geoid 2012 A model)
- Note a large cloud shadow, validation samples are also there!

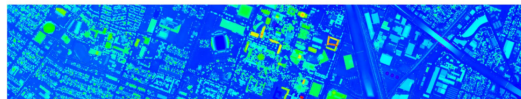
Classes

Class name	Training set	Test set	Class color
Healthy grass	198	1053	■
Stressed grass	190	1064	■
Synthetic grass	192	505	■
Tree	188	1056	■
Soil	186	1056	■
Water	182	143	■
Residential	196	1072	■
Commercial	191	1053	■
Road	193	1059	■
Highway	191	1036	■
Railway	181	1054	■
Parking lot 1	192	1041	■
Parking lot 2	184	285	■
Tennis court	181	247	■
Running track	187	473	■

HSI + LiDAR-derived DSM



(a)



(b)

Credits: Figures from Debes, et al. IEEE-JSTARS 2013. Special thanks to Dr. Saurabh Prasad @ University of Houston, USA.

Data freely available on http://hyperspectral.ee.uh.edu/?page_id=459

Setup

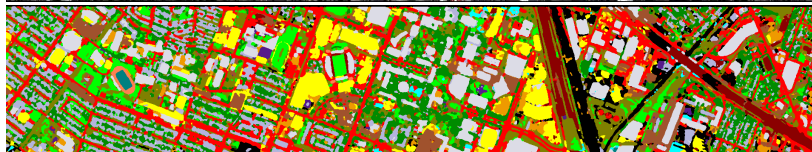
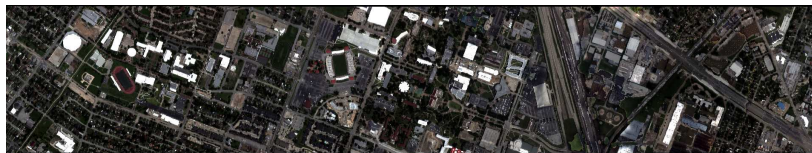
- Training on 2'832 samples
- Testing on spatially separated 12'197 samples
- Classifier: SVM, RBF kernel
- Max of 276 features:
 - 144 spectral bands (shadow corrected)
 - 64 morphological filters from HSI (1st PCA)
 - 1 DSM from LiDAR
 - 64 morphological filters from LiDAR
 - 3 variations of NDVI index
- 8 experiments, accounting for the different features sets
- Post processing: majority vote on
 - 5 independent runs
 - 5×5 moving window

Results

Exp. #	Spectral bands	Morphology on spectral	LiDAR	Morphology on LiDAR	NDVI	Kappa statistic
1			✓			0.319
2			✓	✓		0.702
3	✓					0.832
4	✓		✓			0.868
5	✓		✓		✓	0.869
6	✓	✓				0.899
7	✓	✓	✓	✓		0.942
8	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.946

[Matasci et al., Hyperspectral and LiDAR data fusion for high resolution urban land cover/land use classification, Swiss Geoscience Meeting, 2013]

Results (exp #8)

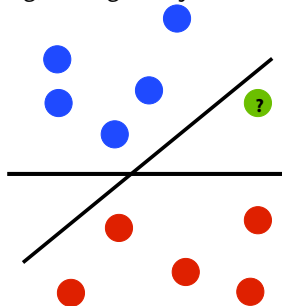


- | | | |
|-------------------|---------------|------------------------|
| ● grass_healthy | ● water | ● railway |
| ● grass_stressed | ● residential | ● parking_lot_empty |
| ● grass_synthetic | ● commercial | ● parking_lot_vehicles |
| ● tree | ● road | ● tennis_court |
| ● soil | ● highway | ● running_track |

[Matasci et al., Hyperspectral and LiDAR data fusion for high resolution urban land cover/land use classification, Swiss Geoscience Meeting, 2013]

But we are still tributary of training specificities

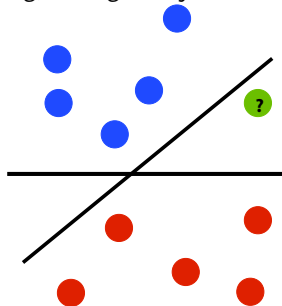
- There are physical facts that we know and we want to be invariant to!
e.g. rotation, shadowing, scaling of objects



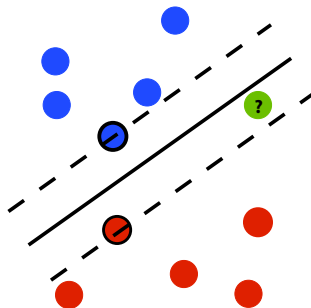
- The example assumes invariance to horizontal transformations
- Given the training data, the point ? is hard to classify
- Modify the SVM to incorporate prior knowledge

But we are still tributary of training specificities

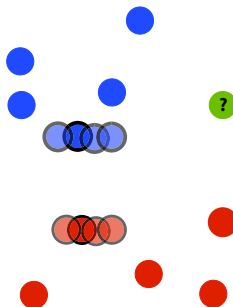
- There are physical facts that we know and we want to be invariant to!
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- The example assumes invariance to horizontal transformations
- Given the training data, the point ? is hard to classify
- Modify the SVM to incorporate prior knowledge

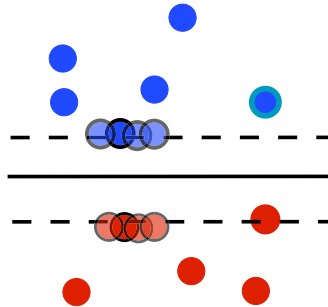


Step 1 Train a SVM and find the SVs



Step 1 Train a SVM and find the SVs

Step 2 VSVs: perturbate SVs to which the solution should be invariant



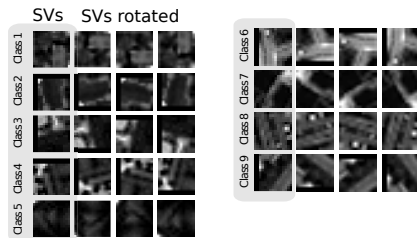
Step 1 Train a SVM and find the SVs

Step 2 VSVs: perturbate SVs to which the solution should be invariant

Step 3 Train a SVM with both SVs and VSVs

Example: encoding invariance to rotations:

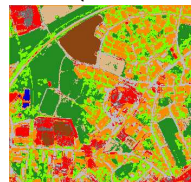
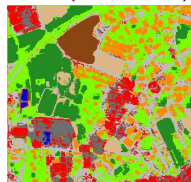
- Quickbird image + 18 spatial features
- Size: 329×347 pixels
- 9 classes
- VSVM encodes invariance to rotation!



RGB

GT

SVM (76.14, 0.73) VSVM (83.15, 0.80)



- Both classifiers show high classification scores
- VSVM improves classification score over +7%
- VSVM is however more computationally demanding

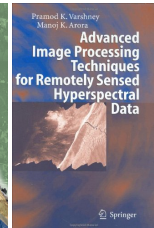
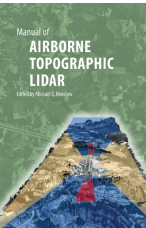
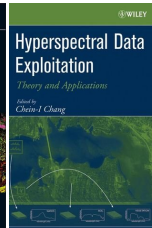
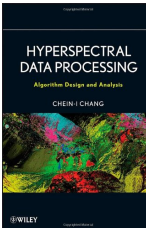
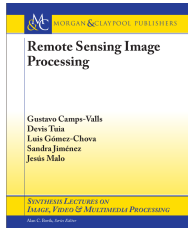
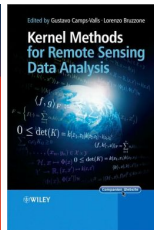
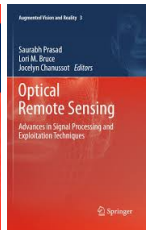
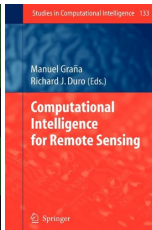
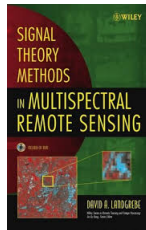
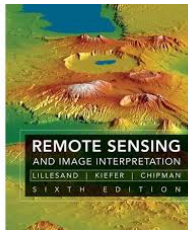
Summary for classification

- Multi- and Hyperspectral image classification are challenging problems
- High dimensional feature spaces scarcely populated!
- Statistical approaches:
 - Supervised algorithms
 - Semisupervised algorithms
- Kernel methods are the current state-of-the-art classifiers
- More info in the classifiers implies improved signal model
 - More samples (by sampling or synthesizing)
 - More meaningful features
 - Multitemporal information
 - More concurrent sensors

Part 4: Conclusions, source code and resources

- Today, we introduced machine learning for remote sensing image processing
- We focused on two major tasks: **image classification** and **feature extraction**
- We reviewed the basis and provided some MATLAB scripts to try them out.
- Need more resources?
 - **Camps-Valls et al.** 'Advances in Hyperspectral Image Classification', IEEE Signal Processing Magazine, 31: 45-54, 2014.
 - **Gomez-Chova et al.**, 'Multimodal Classification of Remote Sensing Images: A Review and Future Directions', Proceedings of the IEEE, 103, 1560-1584, 2015.

Some relevant books:



Need data?

The Image Analysis and Data Fusion Technical Committee of the IEEE hosts a yearly Data Fusion Contest. Data and info can be found on the [IADF website](http://www.grss-ieee.org/community/technical-committees/data-fusion/data-fusion-contest/).

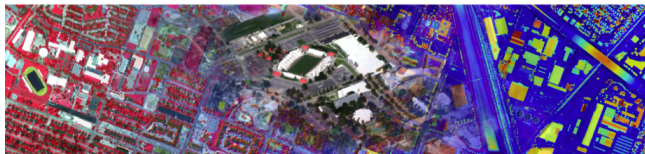
<http://www.grss-ieee.org/community/technical-committees/data-fusion/data-fusion-contest/>



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CULLEN COLLEGE of ENGINEERING
Department of Electrical & Computer Engineering

NCALM
The National Center for Airborne Laser Mapping
University of Houston • University of California, Berkeley

DIGITALGLOBE



>> 2013: LiDAR point clouds + hyperspectral aerial data



>> 2014: thermal hyperspectral + RGB VHR data

Thank you for listening!

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Greatest thanks to Gustau Camps-Valls, with whom we prepared the slides

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