SATELLITE IMAGERY CLASSIFICATION WITH LIDAR DATA

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KEY WORDS: LIDAR, Satellite Imagery, Classification, Support Vector Machine, Feature Extraction, SPOT5

ABSTRACT:

This paper shows the potential of LIDAR for extracting buildings and other objects from medium resolution satellite imagery. To that end, the study integrated multispectral and LIDAR elevation data in a single imagery file and then classified it using the Support Vector Machine. To determine the method’s potential, the study used a SPOT5 satellite from an area situated southeast of Madrid, Spain. First, with the four multispectral bands and the panchromatic band of the SPOT5 image, a multispectral four bands pansharpening was performed with Principal Component Analysis. Once integrated, these four pansharpening images and LIDAR data, were treated as independent multiple band imagery to perform the classification. Using five classes, a sample of ground truth pixels was taken for training and testing. The study used 10% of the ground truth for training and the entire ground truth for testing the robustness of the classification with and without LIDAR data. To assess and compare the classification results numerically, confusion matrices and Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) were calculated for the five classes, for both classifications, with and without LIDAR.

Generally, when using only multispectral imagery, some confusion among classes occurs; for instance, buildings with flat asphalt roofs represent a separate problem in classification, since they are extremely difficult to discern from roads. This is mostly solved when integrating LIDAR data to the multispectral imagery. In general, when adding LIDAR, the classification results show a more realistic and homogeneous distribution of geographic features than those obtained when using multispectral SPOT5 alone.

1. INTRODUCTION

The automatic extraction of buildings and vegetation in urban areas can be used when updating urban inventories to monitor post-disaster emergencies and to assess building or vegetation changes. Regardless of the hazard’s origin, post-disaster emergency agencies need to assess the geographic extent of the damage caused by the disaster and prioritize areas that need urgent assistance. Remote sensing techniques can perform some damage assessment tasks; the data obtained from remote sensing can be integrated into a Geographic Information System and consequently enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of emergency management.

Currently, operators manually extract cartographic features, such as buildings, roads, and trees, by visual interpretation of satellite imagery and aerial photography. Semi-automatic algorithms to assist cartographic technicians would improve the process. Common classification algorithms for low-resolution satellite imagery are too limited to deal with complex high-resolution satellite data and require new algorithms. Several authors have studied classification methods for satellite images (Bernardini et al., 2008; Alonso et al., 2007).

The combination of LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging) with multispectral imagery can significantly improve classification, both in terms of accuracy and automation. LiDAR provides the altitude necessary for discriminating between certain classes but is blind to the type of object it measures, while the multispectral data provides intensity and facilitates the identification of the type of object. In this paper, we show the benefits of synergistically merging sensors for mapping buildings. The automatic extraction of buildings and vegetation in urban areas can aid in the important application of updating urban inventories to monitor urban vegetation and to assess buildings or vegetation changes.

Several authors have combined multispectral and LiDAR data. Syed et al. (2005) consider object-oriented classification as superior to maximum likelihood in terms of reducing “salt and pepper.” Alia et al. (2008) describe an automated procedure for identifying forest species at the tree level from high-resolution imagery and LiDAR data. The results show an improvement in the ability to discriminate between tree classes. Zeng et al. (2002) showed an improvement in the classification of Ikonos imagery when integrated with LiDAR. This integration of LiDAR with multispectral data has proven beneficial for: the detection of buildings (Rottensteiner et al., 2003); the facilitation of accurate delineation of impervious surfaces (Hung and Germaine, 2008); change detection and quality control in urban areas (Walter, 2005); the extraction of roads (Hu et al., 2004); and the classification of coastal areas (Lee and Shan, 2003). The integration of multispectral imagery and multi-return LiDAR for estimating attributes of trees was reported in Collins et al. (2004). Our work combines LiDAR elevation data and SPOT5 multispectral data for the classification of urban areas. We used the Support Vector Machine (SVM), and our results confirm those of the above works by providing additional data and classification algorithm.

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2. MATERIALS AND STUDY AREA

SPOT5 satellite imagery has been used to determine the method’s potential. Launched in 2002, this satellite captures panchromatic images with a 2.5 m resolution and multispectral images with a 10 m resolution (for the bands R, G, and NIR), and 20 m (for the MIR band). This experiment captured the scene at 11:20 a.m. on 12 August 2006; it represents an urban area southeast of Madrid, Spain, on mostly flat terrain. Figure 1 (a) shows the study area in a false color SPOT image generated with bands 1, 2, and 3 for the RGB monitor channels.

Figure 1. False color SPOT image (© SPOT Image Copyright 2004) (a) and LIDAR elevation data (b)

An aerial flight for the same area described for the SPOT5 scene took place also in August 2006 for the acquisition of LIDAR data. We obtained the density of the LIDAR with an average of three points per square meter, subtracted the Digital Terrain Model from the Digital Surface Model, and created the elevation model shown in Figure 1 (b). As mentioned earlier, this shows the LIDAR elevation image of the same area as Figure 1 (a).

The algorithm used for the classification was the Support Vector Machine (SVM); a detailed description of this algorithm can be found in Vapnik (1995). The idea for SVM initially appeared in an article by Boser et al. (1992), in which they applied it to optical character recognition problems. The authors demonstrated the superior generalization of SVM as compared with other learning algorithms. SVM maximizes the margin between the training patterns and the decision boundary.

Several authors have applied SVM to images; for instance, Azimi-Sadjadi and Zekavat (2000) used SVM to classify 10 different cloud and cloudless areas. The SVM has been compared to other classification methods for remote sensing imagery such as Neural Networks, Nearest Neighbor, Maximum Likelihood and Decision Tree classifiers, surpassing them all in robustness and accuracy (Huang et al., 2002; Foody and Mathur, 2004; Melgani and Bruzzone, 2004; Theodoridis and Koutroumbas, 2003; Perkins et al., 2001). These works led us to apply SVM rather than other methods for classification.

3. CLASSIFICATION OF SPOT5 WITH LIDAR

With the four multispectral bands and the panchromatic image, we carried out a multispectral four bands pansharpening performed with PCA (Figure 2).

The SPOT5 multispectral pansharpening images and the LIDAR data are integrated and treated as independent multiple band imagery to carry out the classification.

This study tested several provisional numbers of classes and training samples for the SVM classifier and performed quality assessment following the methodology described in Alonso et al. (2008). Eventually, we established an arrangement of five classes: high vegetation (trees, A), low vegetation (shrubs and lawns, B), natural grounds (C), artificial grounds (D), and buildings (E). With the help of aerial photos and ground visits, we selected samples for training and evaluating the classifier from the SPOT–LIDAR merged data set. The study area corresponded to the city of Alcalá de Henares where the authors reside and allowed for many visits and opportunities for gathering samples. Finally, a ground truth of 11020 pixels was selected. Table 1 and Figure 3 show the distribution of the ground truth.

For training we took a 10% random subset of the ground truth sample. However, we carried out the test with the whole ground truth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ground truth sample</th>
<th>Pixels</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trees (A)</td>
<td>2106</td>
<td>19.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrubs and lawns (B)</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>8.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural grounds (C)</td>
<td>2310</td>
<td>20.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artificial grounds (D)</td>
<td>2284</td>
<td>20.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buildings (E)</td>
<td>3338</td>
<td>30.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11020</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Class Distribution Summary
Figure 3. Distribution of the ground truth

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 4 (a) shows the results for the classification of the multispectral image plus LIDAR data, while Figure 4 (b) shows the classification without LIDAR. A simple visual analysis of both images reveals the superior delineation of cartographic features in Figure 4 (a) over those of Figure 4 (b).

Figure 4. Results of the SVM classifications with LIDAR (a) and without LIDAR (b)

Figures 5 (a), 6 (a), and 7 (a) show three aerial images representing three details from Figure 4 (a) and Figure 4 (b), represented with rectangles in Figure 4. Figures 5 (b), 6 (b), and 7 (b) show the classifications of the three details using multispectral bands plus LIDAR. Figures 5 (c), 6 (c), and 7 (c) represent the classifications of multispectral bands without adding LIDAR.

The left upper corner of Figure 5 (a) shows a motorway correctly detected in Figure 5 (b) but not in Figure 5 (c), where it has been confused with the buildings class. Obviously, the LIDAR data has discriminated the motorway as ground by the SVM when classifying with multispectral imagery adding LIDAR. On the contrary, in the central part of Figure 5 (a) we can see several buildings detected in Figure 5 (b) while in Figure 5 (c), these same buildings have been wrongly taken for artificial ground. Furthermore, the buildings detected in Figure 5 (c) are fuzzier than those in Figure 5 (b); again, the LIDAR data has allowed sharper discrimination by considering height. Visits to the terrain prove that the classification in Figure 5 (b) distinguishes the trees class from the shrubs and lawn class better than the classification in Figure 5 (c). For instance, note the red diagonal of Figure 5 (c) and the cross form at the middle left side of the image to the middle upper side. See Figure 5 (b) and the roundabout at the upper right corner. Figure 5 (b) correctly detects shrubs and lawn (with two trees taken also correctly by two of the red points), while 5 (c) has wrongly mistaken the objects as mostly trees.

Figure 5. Aerial image for reference (a), results of SVM classifications with LIDAR (b), and without LIDAR (c)

The upper part of Figure 6 (a) shows several semi-attached buildings correctly detected in Figure 6 (b), while they are mistaken as a unique building in Figure 6 (c). Also, Figure 6 (b) has correctly classified the parking lots as artificial ground (blue color), while Figure 6 (c) has mistaken them as buildings.

Figure 6. Aerial image for reference (a), results of SVM classifications with LIDAR (b), and without LIDAR (c)

Figure 7 (a) reveals a bullfighting arena (the round object toward the top of the figure). Figure 7 (b) correctly classifies it as a building, while it has been mistaken as artificial ground in Figure 7 (c). The surroundings of the bullfighting arena corresponding to parking lots have been detected correctly as artificial ground in Figure 7 (b) and wrongly classified as buildings in Figure 7 (c).
Figure 7. Aerial image for reference (a), results of SVM classifications with LIDAR (b), and without LIDAR (c)

To assess and compare the classification results numerically, we calculated confusion matrices for both classifications, with and without LIDAR. Table 2 shows the confusion matrix for the classification of Figure 4 (a), while Table 3 shows the confusion matrix corresponding to Figure 4 (b).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ground Truth Class</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trees (A)</td>
<td>2091</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrubs (B)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>958</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natur. g(C)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2310</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artif. g(D)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2115</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>2245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build. (E)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>3229</td>
<td>3353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2106</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>2310</td>
<td>2284</td>
<td>3338</td>
<td>11020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Confusion matrix for classification with the LIDAR band.

Overall Accuracy = \((10703/11020) \approx 97.1234\%\) and Kappa Coefficient = 0.9630

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ground Truth Class</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trees (A)</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrubs (B)</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>878</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natur. g(C)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2225</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>2513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artif. g(D)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1057</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>1568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build. (E)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>1098</td>
<td>2684</td>
<td>3867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2106</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>2310</td>
<td>2284</td>
<td>3338</td>
<td>11020</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Confusion matrix for classification without LIDAR

Overall Accuracy = \((8854/11020) \approx 80.3448\%\) and Kappa Coefficient = 0.7454

The overall accuracy and the Kappa coefficients are 97.12% and 0.96 (see Table 2) for the SVM classification with LIDAR data, shown in Figure 4 (a), while overall accuracy reaches 80.34% and 0.7454 (see Table 3) for the SVM classification without LIDAR data, as shown in Figure 4 (b). Therefore, a gain of 16.77% is obtained in merging the LIDAR data with the multispectral bands for this data set. The confusion matrices allow us to examine the differences of the classifications in detail. For all the classes considered, the omission and commission errors are improved to some degree by the integration of LIDAR (see Table 4).

Table 4. Classification errors for with and without LIDAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Per cent</th>
<th>With LIDAR</th>
<th>Without LIDAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>Commission</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>Commission</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trees (A)</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrubs (B)</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natur. g(C)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artif. g(D)</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>5.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build. (E)</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Spectral signatures of some urban materials are similar in composition. For instance, the roofs of some buildings and roads and parking lots are made of asphalt, therefore the multispectral classifier (without LIDAR) assigns them to the same class; however, when we consider LIDAR elevation data, the classifier discriminates between buildings and artificial grounds, and these errors disappear.

As a measure of performance of supervised classification, we use the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (see Figure 8). See also Metz (1978), for additional information.

Many applications use the area under the ROC curve (AUROC) as a measure of accuracy (Hanley and McNeil, 1982). For the five classes considered in this work, the AUROCs are bigger using LIDAR than without it (Table 5).

Table 5. Area under the ROC curve for each class with LIDAR and without LIDAR classification
Figure 8. ROC curves in the SVM classifications with (straight line) and without (dotted line) LIDAR. TP and FP are true positive and false positive.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated the impact of LIDAR data on the classification of multispectral SPOT5 imagery using SVM over an urban area near Madrid, Spain. A visual evaluation shows an improvement of the classification when using LIDAR data. Two numerical methods—confusion matrices and ROC curves—complemented this evaluation of the results. After defining ground truth samples, we used 10% randomly for training for both classifications (with and without LIDAR), while the evaluation was made with the total ground truth samples. We obtained a gain of 16.78% in overall accuracy for the imagery in this experiment. Furthermore, ROC curves for the classification with LIDAR reveal a superior performance for all classes compared to the classifications without it.

The SVM classifier with LIDAR shows a more realistic and homogeneous distribution of geographic features than that obtained without LIDAR. This is specifically so for buildings and artificial ground, as shown by the ROC curves.

REFERENCES


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