

Introduction

Hyperspectral images (HSIs) capture very detailed information about scanned objects (Figure 1) and, therefore, can be used to uncover various characteristics of the materials present in the analyzed scene.

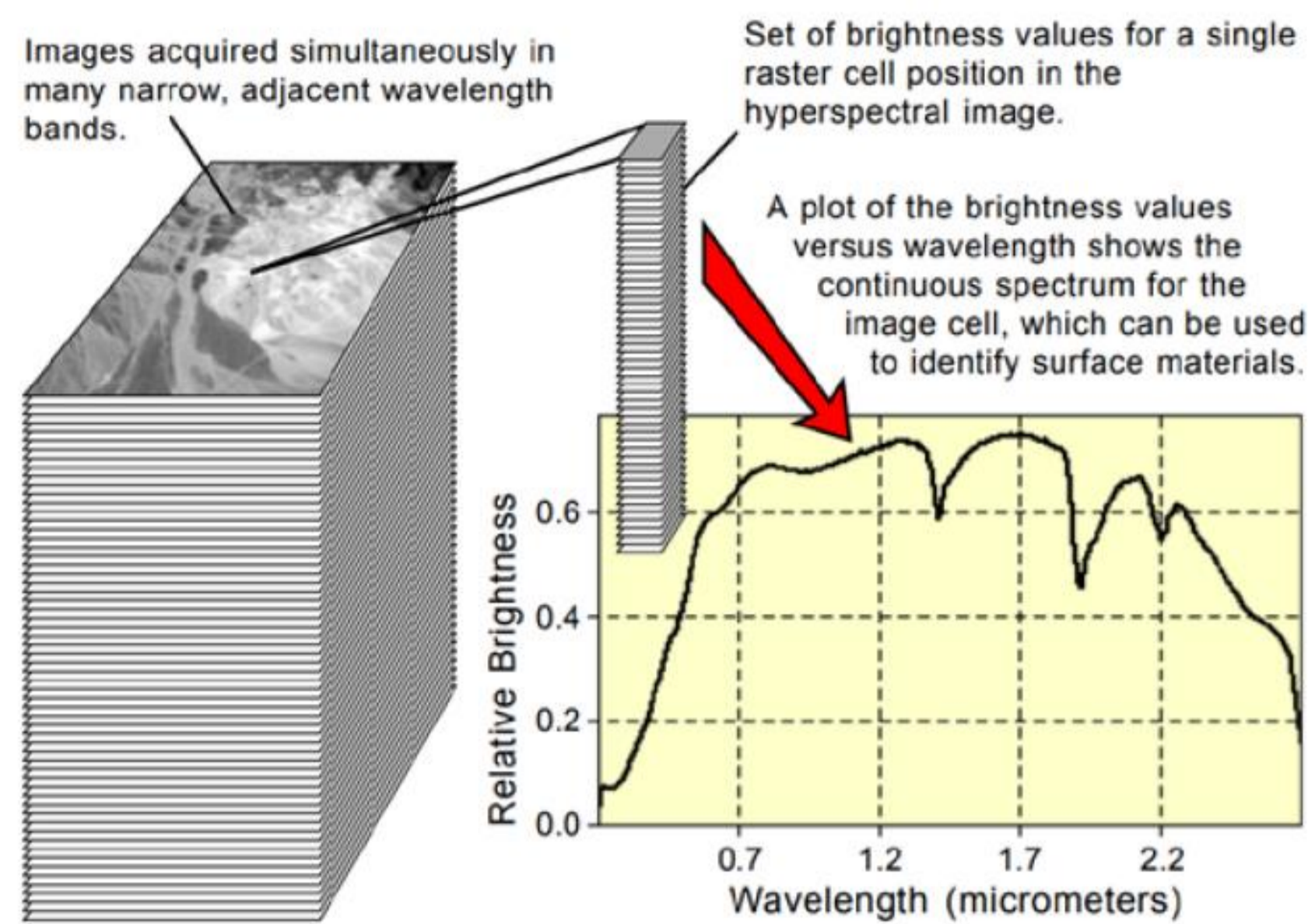


Figure 1: Hyperspectral images contain a large number of bands captured for a contiguous electromagnetic spectrum.

However, due to a large amount of such data (i.e., its huge volume), HSIs are:

- Difficult to visualize,
- Difficult to analyze, interpret, and label,
- Difficult and costly to transfer (e.g., from an imaging satellite).

Therefore, we are lacking large and representative ground-truth datasets that could be used to train AI models for analyzing HSI in emerging EO applications.

Existing datasets for HSI classification

There exist state-of-the-art datasets for HSI classification, such as Indian Pines, Pavia University, Salinas Valley, or University of Houston (Figure 2), but how can we use them to train large-capacity deep learning algorithms for other EO applications?

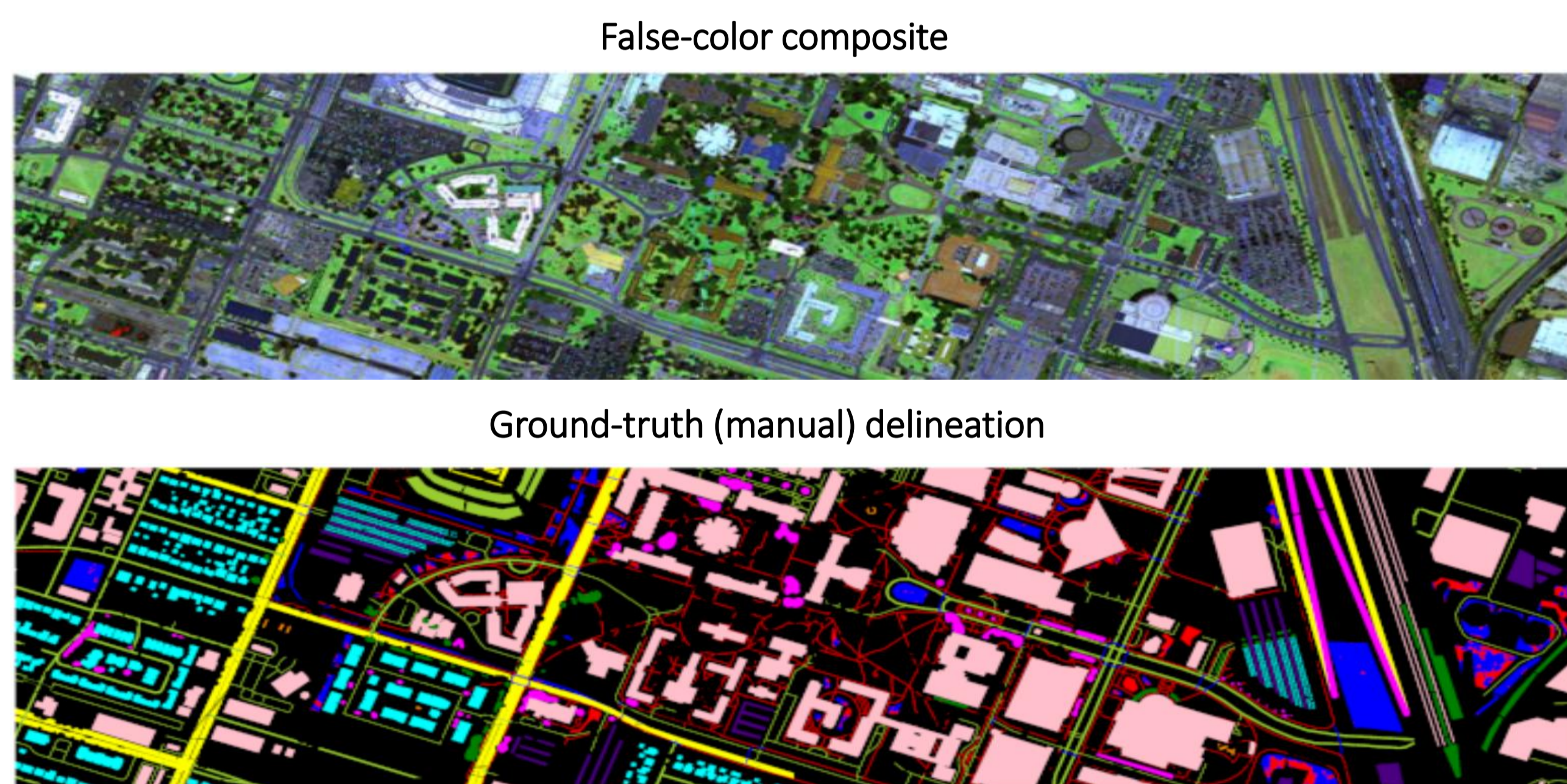


Figure 2: Example hyperspectral scene (University of Houston [7]), together with the corresponding ground truth delineating various objects of interest.

Also, is it fair to quantify the performance of algorithms over the very same scene, e.g., using random sampling for splitting into training and test sets? What if some pixels can land in both training and test subsamples (for models that exploit spectral and spatial information while classifying an incoming pixel, Figure 3) [1]?

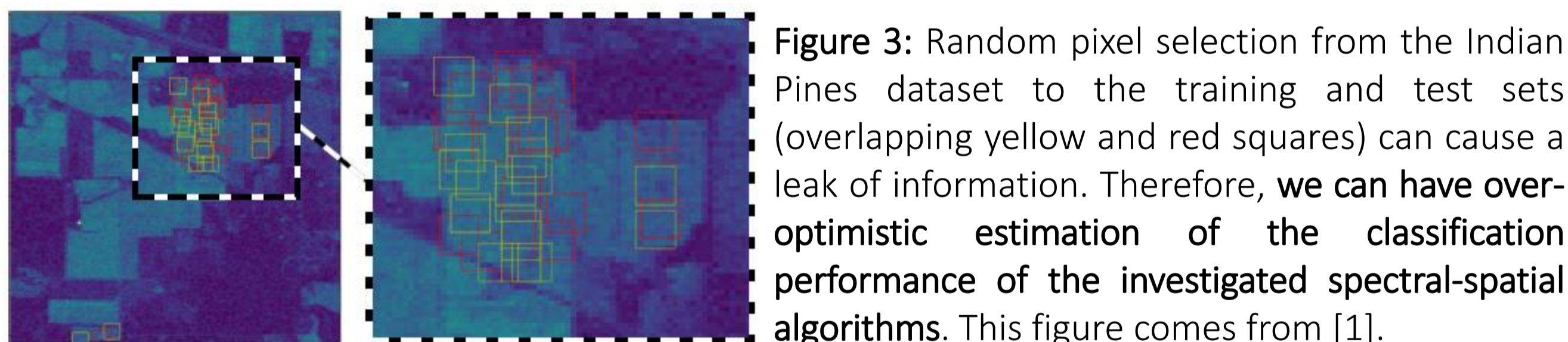
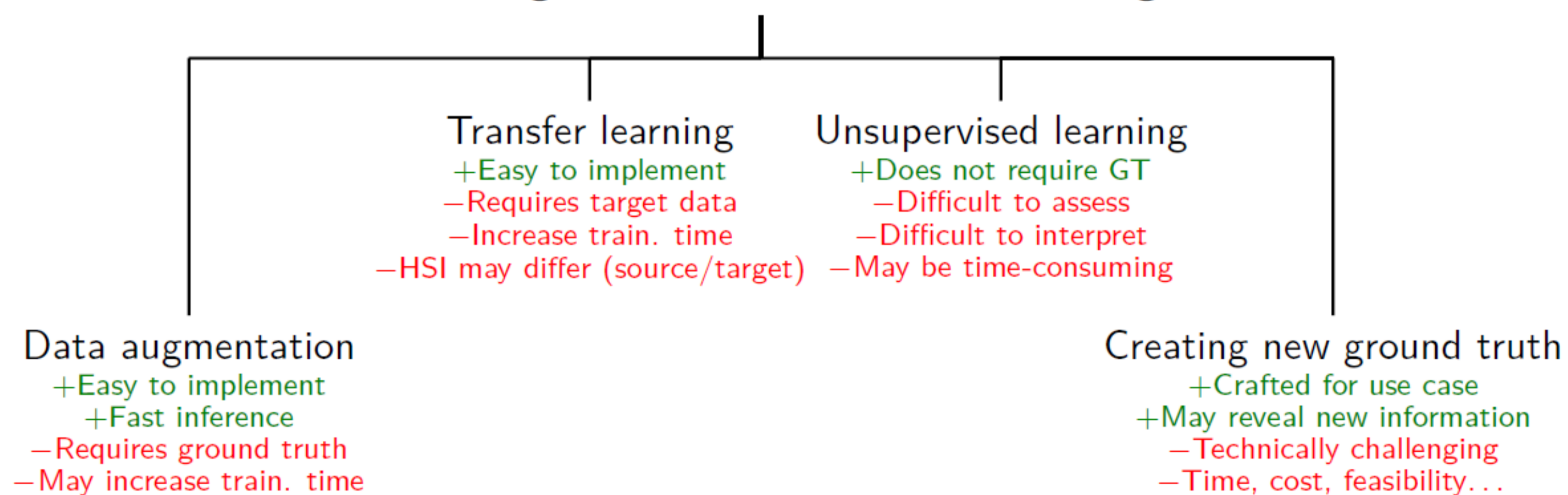


Figure 3: Random pixel selection from the Indian Pines dataset to the training and test sets (overlapping yellow and red squares) can cause a leak of information. Therefore, we can have over-optimistic estimation of the classification performance of the investigated spectral-spatial algorithms. This figure comes from [1].

Lacking ground truth: The remedies

Classification and segmentation of HSI with limited ground truth



Remedy 1: Data augmentation

In data augmentation, we synthesize artificial examples based on the available ground-truth data (hence, such ground-truth examples must exist). For HSI, we can exploit generative adversarial networks (GANs), noise injection, guided noise injection, and other augmentation techniques.

Data augmentation may be utilized before the training (to increase the size of the training sample), and during the prediction, to benefit from the ensemble-like classification approach (Figure 4) [2]. Note that some techniques, e.g., GANs, cannot be used during the inference.

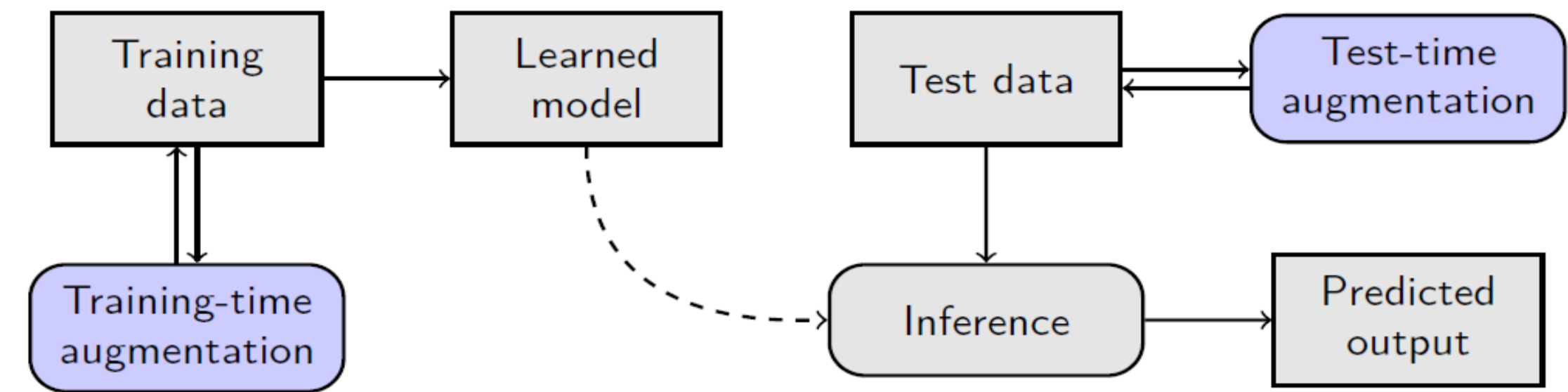


Figure 4: Synthesizing artificial examples through data augmentation helps us increase the size of ground-truth datasets based on the original data distribution, or benefit from ensemble-like approaches. This figure comes from [2].

Remedy 2: Transfer learning

The idea is to train efficient feature extractors from large training data (the source data), and later fine-tune the classifier over the target data of interest (of a much lower size) [3]. As in data augmentation, target data examples must exist.

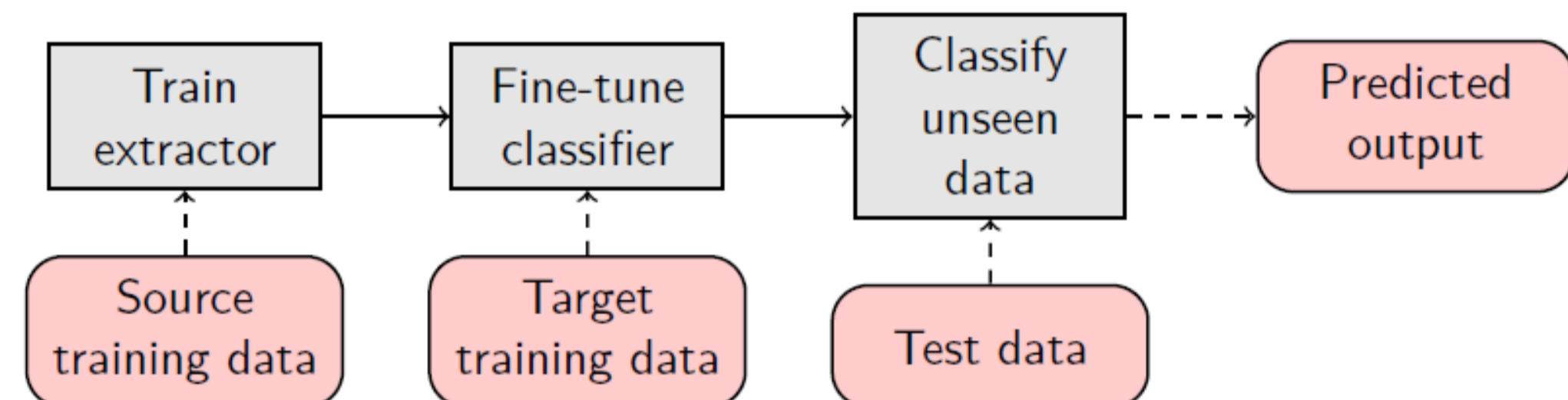


Figure 5: In transfer learning, we build efficient (deep) feature extractors over the source (larger) data, and fine-tune the classification part of a deep learning model over the target (much smaller) data of interest. This figure comes from [3].

Remedy 3: Unsupervised learning

The idea: group the input data to find coherent regions of similar characteristics (e.g., spectral) without the ground truth, and then interpret the segmentation result (Figure 6).

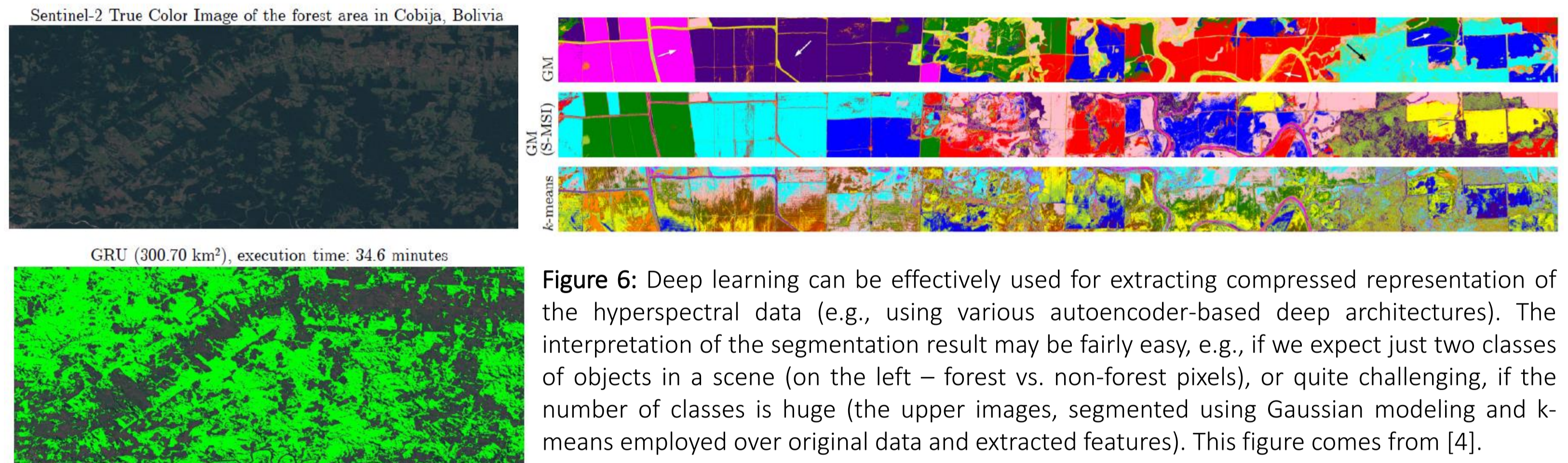


Figure 6: Deep learning can be effectively used for extracting compressed representation of the hyperspectral data (e.g., using various autoencoder-based deep architectures). The interpretation of the segmentation result may be fairly easy, e.g., if we expect just two classes of objects in a scene (on the left - forest vs. non-forest pixels), or quite challenging, if the number of classes is huge (the upper images, segmented using Gaussian modeling and k-means employed over original data and extracted features). This figure comes from [4].

Another advantage: unsupervised segmentation may be considered a pre-segmentation step which - if followed by manual assignment of class labels to coherent image regions - can significantly accelerate the process of generating ground-truth data for emerging use cases.

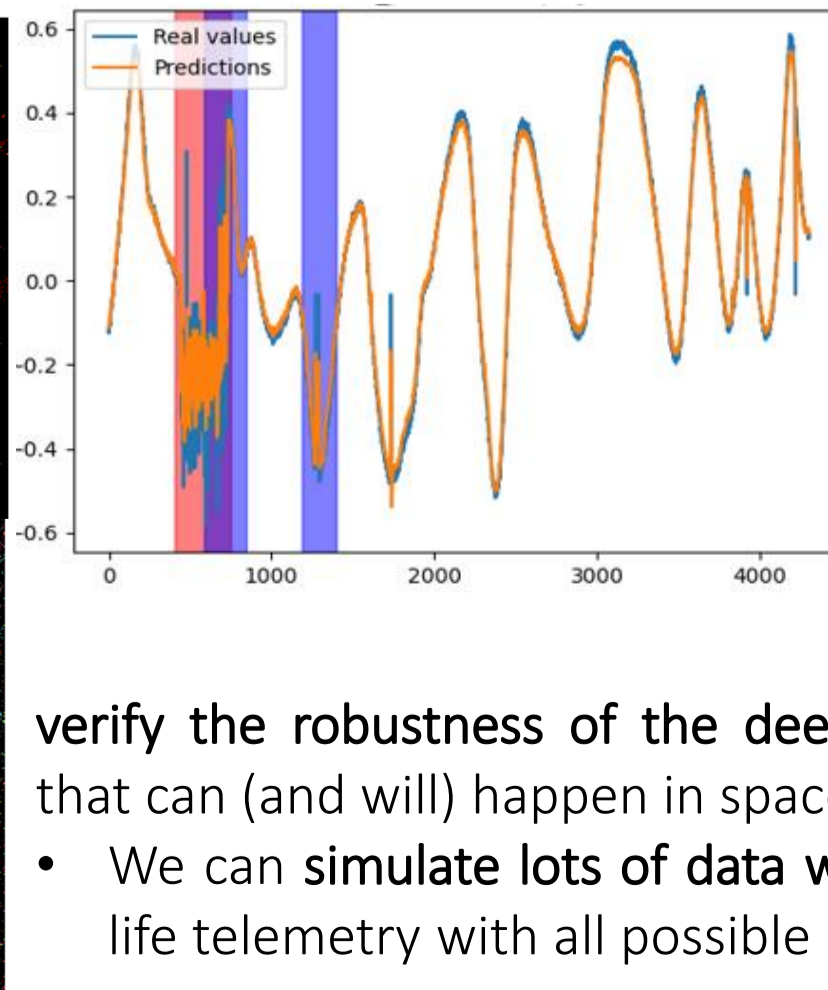
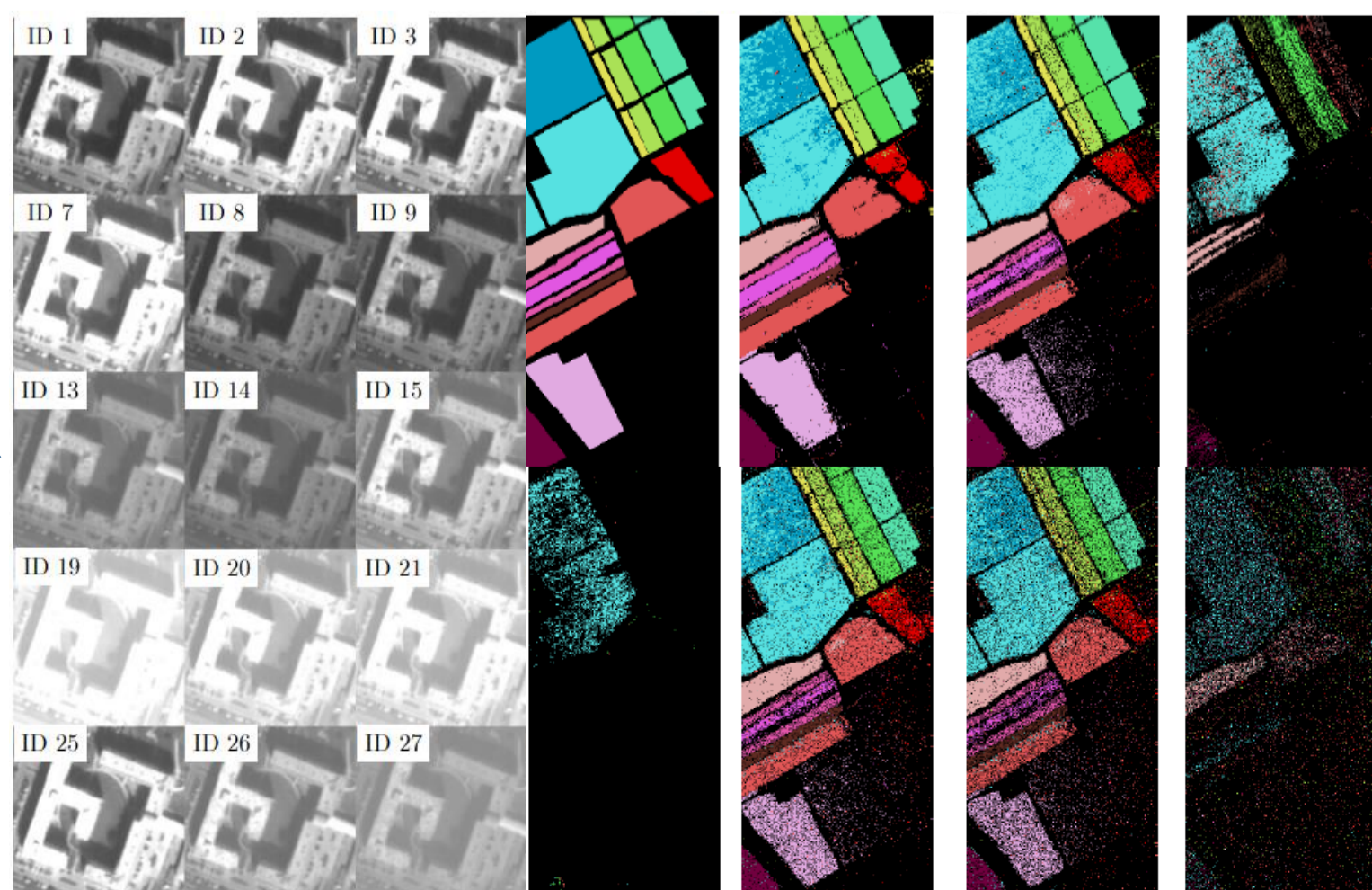
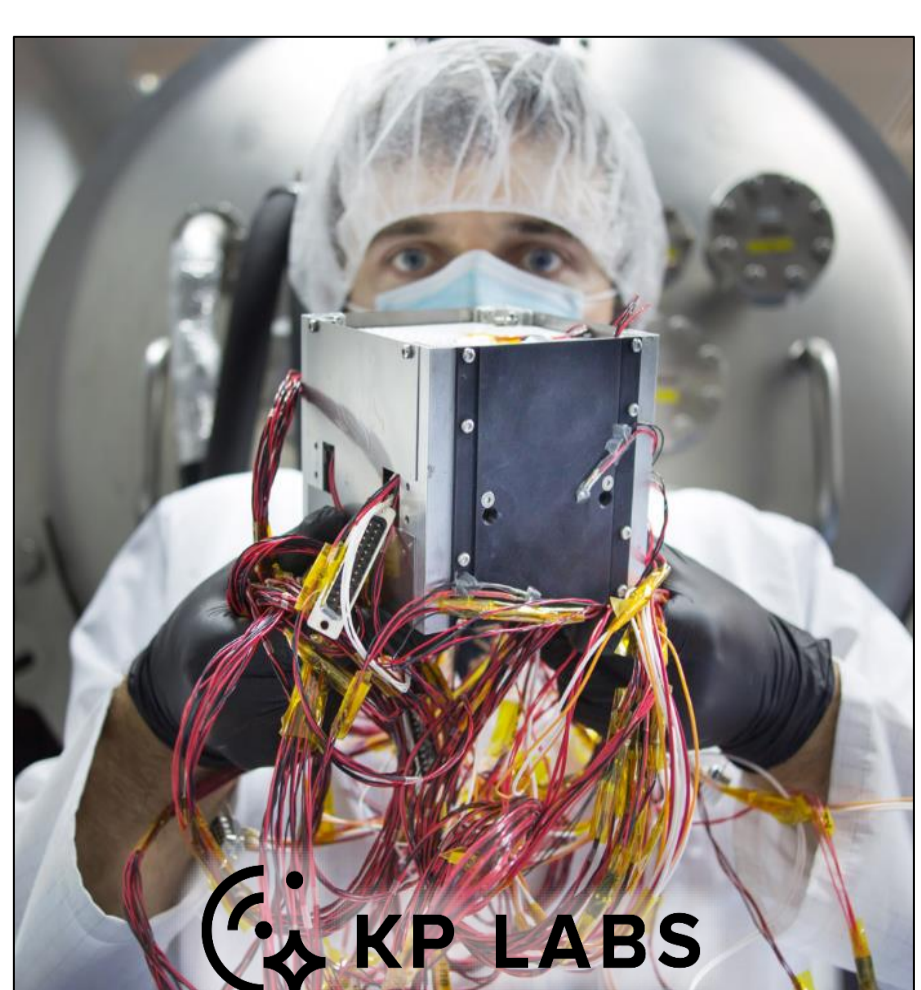
Remedy 4: Creating new ground truth

Creating new ground truth is always an option, but it is costly, time-consuming, does not scale well, is user/area dependent... But capturing even limited ground truth may be coupled with unsupervised segmentation (and intelligent data reduction and selection, e.g., through cloud detection for HSI captured on-board a satellite - do we need cloudy areas at all?), thus can make the manual assignment of class labels easier (Figure 7).



Figure 7: Capturing in-situ measurements (violet points) over a large area may be coupled with unsupervised segmentation (see Figure 6 in which the same area is pre-segmented). Why not to exploit two approaches in HSI analysis? This figure comes from [5].

Remedy 5: Towards digital twins (at the data level)



No ground truth? Why not to simulate it!

Simulators, that reflect the characteristics of a real piece of hardware, can give us lots of advantages (not only in HSI analysis, but also in e.g., detecting anomalies from telemetry):

- We can simulate various acquisition scenarios (e.g., atmospheric conditions) - capturing such real data would be extremely costly (or impossible) [6].
- We can simulate noise of any characteristics, hence we can verify the robustness of the deep learning algorithms (e.g., for HSI classification) against noise that can (and will) happen in space [6].
- We can simulate lots of data with precise ground truth information (imagine capturing the real life telemetry with all possible incorrect events for all hardware components...)

References

- [1] J. Nalepa et al., IEEE Geosci. Remote. Sens. Lett. 16(8): 1264-1268 (2019)
- [2] J. Nalepa, et al., IEEE Geosci. Remote. Sens. Lett. 17(2): 292-296 (2020)
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- [7] Y. Xu et al., IEEE J. Sel. Top. Appl. Earth Obs. Remote Sens. 2019, 12, 1709-1724.