COMPUTER CLASSIFICATION OF REMOTELY SENSED MULTISPECTRAL IMAGE DATA BY EXTRACTION AND CLASSIFICATION OF HOMOGENEOUS OBJECTS

R. L. Kettig
D. A. Landgrebe



School of Electrical Engineering
Purdue University
West Lafayette, Indiana 47907

TR-EE 75-24 May 1975

The work reported in this report was conducted under sponsorship of NASA Grant NGL-15-005-112 and NASA Contract NAS9-14016.

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ABSTRACT

A method of classification of digitized multispectral images is developed and experimentally evaluated on actual earth resources data collected by aircraft and satellite. The method is designed to exploit the characteristic dependence between adjacent states of nature that is neglected by the more conventional simple-symmetric decision rule. Thus contextual information is incorporated into the classification scheme. The principle reason for doing this is to improve the accuracy of the classification. For general types of dependence this would generally require more computation per resolution element than the simple-symmetric classifier. But when the dependence occurs in the form of "redundance", the elements can be classified collectively, in groups, thereby reducing the number of classifications required. Thus a potential exists for increased, rather than decreased, efficiency.

Basically, the method can be thought of as an image partitioning transformation that delineates (extracts) the statistically homogeneous groups (samples) of elements and a

sample classifier that classifies them. Various possibilities are considered for both operations.

The main result is that a combination of the two is found which consistently provided the lowest error rates, rivaling those obtained when ground observational data was used to delineate the samples manually. The relative efficiency of this method depends largely on the complexity of the classification task. For relatively complex classification, the time saved by sample classification more than compensates for the extra time required for partitioning. But for relatively simple classification the simple-symmetric classifier is faster. Of course in the latter case, efficiency is not as great a consideration since the total CPU time involved is much less than in the former case.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The general objective of this thesis is to advance the state of the art of pattern recognition as it is applied in remote sensing technology. This chapter opens with a discussion of pattern recognition and remote sensing systems that leads up to the specific problem under investigation. In the process much of the prevalent terminology is introduced. Other work that is related to this problem is discussed in Section 1.3.

1.1 Pattern Recognition Systems

Man's most abundant source of information about a scene is the radiant electromagnetic energy which emanates from it. The information is embodied in the spatial, spectral, and temporal variations (patterns) of the radiance. The general process of extracting information from patterns (radiance or otherwise) is known as pattern recognition. The most common form of pattern recognition is "classification", the assignment of an observed pattern to one of several prespecified categories (classes). This requires a certain degree of experience; i.e. the recognition system must know the possible classes and have

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some sort of unique characterization for each one. Typically this experience is "learned" from representative "training" patterns (or sets of patterns) that are supplied as references for each class. In the simplest case, each set of patterns is a complete characterization of the class it represents. Then classification is a straightforward matter of comparison. More generally, a statistical characterization might be the only adequate approach, and the training patterns might be used to estimate statistical quantities. Classification then becomes a problem in statistical decision theory.

Of course it is not always possible to prespecify the categories that a pattern might belong to. This is often true in scene analysis, where the number of possibilities can be enormous. Then pattern recognition can take the form of "description". In general, pattern recognition can involve both classification and description. A complex scene composed of relatively simple objects is often described by classifying the objects and recording their relative positions and orientations in the scene. This description might be considered the final result, or it might in turn be used to classify the scene itself.

All systems that extract information from a scene consist of a data collection system and a data processor. The purpose of the data collection system is to reduce the scene to a manageable number of measurements (features) without losing the desired information. Further reduction

1.1

(feature selection) is often possible in the processor. The choice of features obviously depends upon the information that is desired, and conversely the information that can be extracted depends upon the choice of features. Most collection systems are similar in many ways to the human eye, which forms features by "sampling" the spatial, spectral, and temporal dimensions, thereby converting a scene into series of electrical pulses. Spatial sampling can be accomplished by forming an image of the scene on an array of detectors (electrical or chemical) or by scanning the image with an electrical detector. The resolution element of such a system is the projection of the detector back through the optical system onto the scene. It is commonly called a "pixel", short for picture element. The overall system resolution depends on both the pixel size and the interval between samples, which are normally about equal.

Spectral sampling is accomplished by measuring the radiance of each resolution element with detectors (channels) that are sensitive to different spectral bands. A prism, grating, or interference filter is often used to separate the radiant energy spectrally before detection. Temporal sampling is accomplished merely by taking spatial and spectral samples at discrete times.

Depending on the type of information that is desired, one can emphasize or de-emphasize a particular dimension by sampling it relatively many or relatively few times. A

single black-and-white photograph, for example, emphasizes spatial information since it is created by sampling only once spectrally and once temporally. A color photograph contains three spectral samples and thus emphasizes both spatial and spectral information. The extent to which a pattern is sampled falls under the category of "measurement complexity". Under-sampling results in loss of information, but over-sampling results in an excess of data to process. Technically, the data dimensionally increases faster than its intrinsic dimensionality.

"Data dimensionality" refers to the dimension of the measurement or observation space, in which a sampled pattern can be considered an observation of a multi-dimensional random variable. The probability density of this random variable is a function of N variables (dimensions), where N is the number of measurements. The "intrinsic" dimensionality of a random variable (X) is the minimum dimension that another random variable (Y) can have if X is uniquely related to Y. Thus it is the minimum number of measurements that could be used to convey the same information as X if the relationship were known. Over-sampling increases the data dimensionality, but the individual measurements tend to be more highly correlated causing the information conveyed per measurement to decrease.

The information that can be extracted from an image is also limited by the sophistication of the processor which

1.1

must handle the data. Just as the necessary measurement complexity depends on the information being sought, so does the method of processing. The human mind is often an extremely good processor, particularly when the information is of primarily a spatial nature. For this purpose the data is presented in visual image form, which is known as an "image-oriented" processing system. By contrast, in a "numerically-oriented" system the decision-making element is a computer, and the visual image plays little or no part. Advantages of the computerized approach are its high load (volume) capacity, comparatively low cost under high load, and capacity to handle high measurement complexity.

1.2 Remote Sensing of Earth's Resources

An important subject before the engineering and scientific community at the present time is the processing of scenes which represent tracts of the earth's surface as viewed from above. A typical scene consists primarily of regular and/or irregular regions arranged in a patchwork manner and each containing one class of surface cover type. These homogeneous regions are the "objects" in the scene. A basic processing goal is to locate and classify the objects and produce a description of the scene in terms of tabulated results and/or a "type-map". As in other image processing applications, the locations and spatial features (e.g. size, shape, orientation) of objects are revealed by changes in average spectral properties that occur at boundaries. But

unlike most other applications, the spatial features of an object often have only a weak relationship to its class. Research has shown, however, that many classes can be distinguished reasonably well on the basis of their spectral features, using statistical pattern classification techniques. Current research is directed toward use of temporal features as well, but not in this investigation.

Our interest is in the numerically-oriented system approach to processing these scenes. The input to the system is in the form of digitized multi-spectral scanner (MSS) data stored on magnetic tape. A typical multi-spectral scanner samples the spectral dimension and one spatial dimension. The second spatial dimension is provided by the motion of the platform which carries the scanner over the region of interest, generating a raster-type scan. The temporal dimension is provided by rescanning the region at different times.

Computer classification of MSS data is typically done by applying a "simple symmetric" decision rule to each pixel. This means that each pixel is classified individually on the basis of its spectral measurements alone. A basic premise of this technique is that the objects of interest are large compared to the size of a pixel. Otherwise a large proportion of pixels would be composites of two or more classes, making statistical pattern classification unreliable; i.e. the prespecified categories would be inadequate to describe the actual states

of nature. (For later reference we shall call this "Premise A".) Since the sampling interval is usually comparable to the pixel size (to preserve system resolution), it follows that each object is represented by an array of pixels. This suggests a statistical dependence between consecutive states of nature, which the simple symmetric classifier fails to exploit. To reflect this property, we shall refer to simple symmetric classification as "no-memory" classification.

One method for dealing with dependent states is to apply the principles of compound decision theory or sequential compound decision theory. Abend [1] points out that a sequential procedure can be implemented relatively efficiently when the states form a low-order Markov chain. However the prospect is considerably less attractive when they form a Markov mesh, which is a more suitable model for two-dimensional scenes. Furthermore, estimation of the state transition probabilities could be another significant obstacle to implementation of such a procedure. A short appendix on the compound decision approach is included in this thesis.

The compound decision formulation is a powerful approach for handling very general types of dependence. This suggests that perhaps by tailoring an approach more directly to the problem at hand, one can obtain similar results with considerable simplification. A distinctive characteristic of the spatial dependence in MSS data is redundance; i.e. the probability of transition

from state i to state j is much greater if j=i than if j#i, because the sampling interval is small compared to the size of an object. This suggests the use of an "image partitioning" transformation to delineate the arrays of statistically similar pixels before classifying them. Since each homogeneous array represents a statistical "sample" (a set of observations from a common population), a "sample classifier" could then be used to classify the objects. In this way, the classification of each pixel in the sample is a result of the spectral properties of its neighbors as well as its own. Thus its "context" in the scene is used to provide better classification. The acronym ECHO (extraction and classification of homogeneous objects) designates this general approach.

A characteristic of both no-memory and compound decision techniques is that the number of classifications which must be performed is much larger than the actual number of objects in the scene. When each classification requires a large amount of computation, even the no-memory classifier can be relatively slow. An ECHO technique would substantially reduce the number of classifications, resulting in a potential increase in speed (decrease in cost). Whether or not this potential is realized depends on the efficiency of the partitioning operation.

The goal of the current investigation is to further the development of the ECHO concept. In particular, various processing options are devised, implemented, and tested on a

wide variety of data sets. Input parameters are varied to determine their effect, and performance comparisons are made using no-memory classification as a norm.

1.3 Related Work

The recent literature contains numerous references to image partitioning algorithms. Robertson [2] divides them into two main categories. "Boundary seeking" algorithms characteristically attempt to exploit object contrast. These techniques include local gradient [3,4], template matching [5], two-dimensional function fitting [6], clustering [4,7], and gradients estimated from variable-sized neighborhoods [8]. Two of these have been implemented with digitized multispectral imagery.

Anuta [4], investigated a multivariate extension of a two-dimensional gradient operator. The gradient operator of a unispectral image maps each pixel into a number which reflects the average positive difference between that pixel and its neighbors. The multivariate operator sums these numbers over all spectral features for each pixel. Since the differences are generally larger for boundary pixels than for non-boundary pixels, thresholding this sum (for each pixel) at the "proper" level provides a boundary enhanced version of the original image. This technique is relatively fast, but it has several serious problems. First, it is inherently noisy, which is typical of differentiation techniques. It is also very sensitive to

the threshold level used. Furthermore the boundaries derived by this technique often fail to close upon themselves. For example, a boundary line may become discontinuous or fade out completely, leaving the objects ambiguously defined. In special cases where the object shape is restricted [3,9], the true boundaries can sometimes be deduced, but in general they cannot. This may not be a serious drawback for applications such as image registration, but closed boundaries are necessary for sample classification. This particular problem is common to all the boundary seeking algorithms mentioned above.

Wacker |7| developed an algorithm for MSS data which performs a cluster analysis (unsupervised classification) of a small region of the image and then scans the result for the presence of a boundary. The estimated boundary structure for the entire image is obtained simply by taking the union of the boundaries found in all such regions. This is a much more time-consuming process, but it is less noisy and less sensitive to input parameters. Of course it suffers from the same open boundary problem as the other boundary seeking algorithms.

The other category of image partitioning algorithms can be called "object seeking" algorithms, which characteristically exploit the internal regularity (homogeneity) of the objects. As the name implies, an object seeking algorithm always produces well-defined samples (and thus closed boundaries as well). There are two

opposite approaches to object seeking, which we shall call conjunctive and disjunctive. A conjunctive algorithm begins with a very fine partition and simplifies it by progressively merging adjacent elements together that are found to be similar according to certain statistical criteria [10,11]. A disjunctive algorithm begins with a very simple partition and subdivides it until each element satisfies a criterion of homogeneity. For example, Robertson's algorithm [2,12] is based on the premise that if a region contains a boundary, splitting the region arbitrarily will usually produce two subregions with significantly different statistical characteristics.

Early work in the application of sample classification to MSS data was reported by Huang [13]. His method of "polling" requires classification of the individual pixels in the sample and is thus relatively inefficient. Wacker and Landgrebe [14] investigated the "minimum distance approach" using parametric and non-parametric methods. Both studies relied on manual definition of the object boundaries, based on actual surface (ground) observations, to locate the samples that were classified.

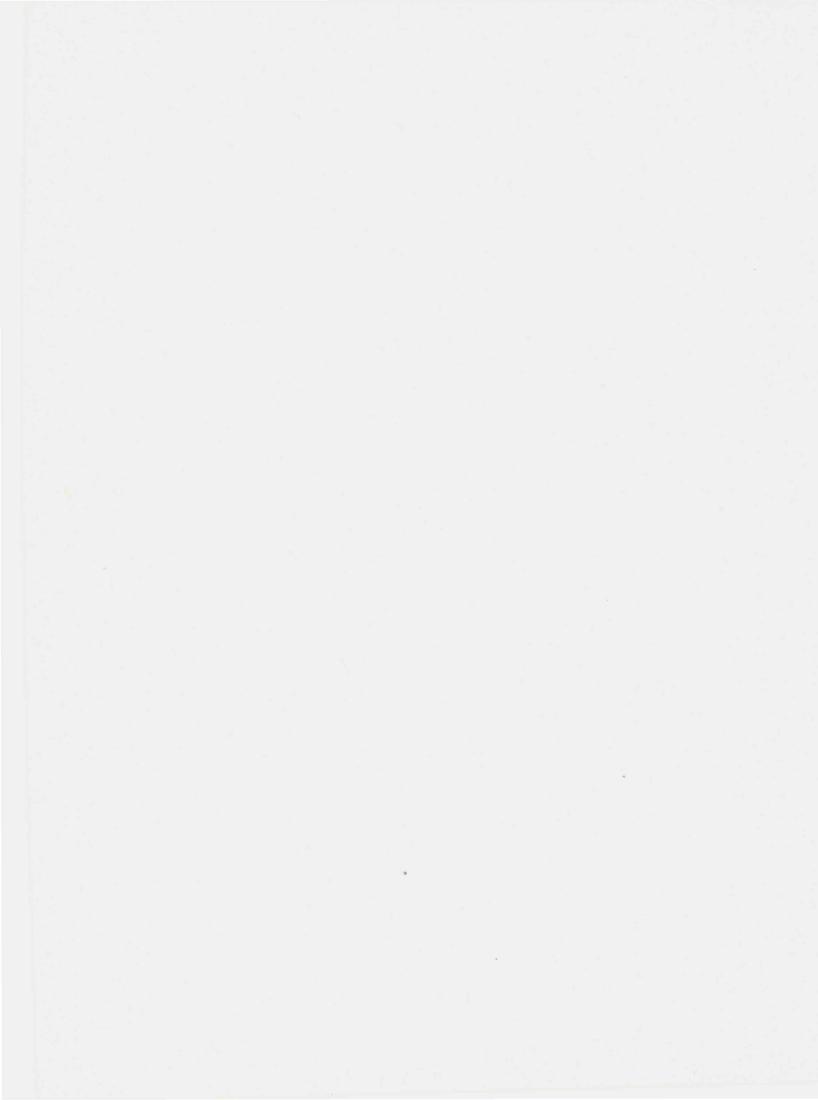
We combined Rodd's conjunctive partitioning algorithm with a minimum distance sample classifier and observed an improvement in classification accuracy over conventional no-memory classification, but processing time was increased [15]. Gupta and Wintz [16] added a test of second order statistics to Rodd's first order test, but obtained

essentially the same results as the first order test at greater cost in processing time. Robertson [2,12] implemented a disjunctive partitioning algorithm with the same minimum distance classifier. He obtained about the same classification accuracy as conventional no-memory classification with an order of magnitude increase in processing time. This points to one essential difference between the disjunctive and conjunctive approaches. With a disjunctive approach, every time a region is divided new sample statistics must be calculated from raw data. With a conjunctive approach, every time two regions are merged the statistics for the resultant region can be obtained merely by "pooling" the statistics of the original two subregions. This results in a significant computational advantage for the conjunctive approach.

The current investigation is devoted to further development of the conjunctive approach. A much faster sample classifier is proposed and tested. This problem is discussed in Chapter 2. New statistical criteria are proposed as well as new object seeking logic in Chapter 3. Extensive test results appear in Chapter 4, comparing different algorithms against each other and against conventional no-memory classification. The main result is that the stability, classification accuracy, and speed of the ECHO technique have been greatly improved. Compared to the no-memory classifier, consistently lower error rates are observed using an ECHO approach, and for a reasonably

1.3

complex classification its efficiency exceeds that of the conventional method.



CHAPTER 2

CLASSIFICATION

The motivation for object extraction is to enable faster and more accurate classification of the pixels within the object. In Section 2.3 we discuss the classification algorithms that accomplish this. They are based on a certain model of the objects to be classified, which is described next.

2.1 Statistical Model of Multi-Spectral Scanner Data

As we have indicated, a typical scene consists primarily of objects whose boundaries form a partition of the scene. The partition is generally unknown at the outset, but we can at least assume that it is relatively coarse compared to the size of a pixel. Each object in the scene belongs to some class. For representation purposes, each class is divided into one or more "subclasses". They are also called "spectral classes" (as opposed to "informational classes") to indicate that they can be distinguished spectrally although it may not be useful to do so. Let Wij denote the jth subclass of the ith class. Let F denote an object (represented by an array of pixels), and let X denote a pixel in some object. (The underbar is used

to indicate a q-dimensional variable ($\underline{X} \in \mathbb{R}^q$), where q henceforth denotes the number of spectral channels.) Then $F \in W_{ij}$ denotes the event that F belongs to the subclass W_{ij} . The a-priori probability of this event is denoted by $P(F \in W_{ij})$. In accordance with Section 1.2, we ignore any statistical dependence of this event on the spatial features of F. If there were a strong, known dependence then it could be used to help classify F, but that is not our intention. A consequence of this assumption is that $P(\underline{X} \in W_{ij}) = P(F \in W_{ij})$, and we denote both quantities simply by $P(W_{ij})$.

The pixels within a given object of a given spectral class are completely characterized by their class-conditional, joint, probability distribution function. For no-memory classification, such a complete model is unnecessary; only the marginal distribution of each pixel is required. Furthermore, the pixels within a single object are usually assumed to have a common (i.e. stationary) marginal distribution, which is due to the homogeneity of the types of objects typically encountered in remote sensing applications. Although the data is digitized, it is convenient to represent this q-variate distribution by a continuous-parameter probability density function (pdf) which, for subclass W_{ij} , is denoted by $p(X=X|X=W_{ij})$ or simply by $p(X|W_{ij})$. (The vertical bar indicates conditional probability).

Two pixels in spatial proximity to one-another are unconditionally correlated, with the degree of correlation decreasing as the distance between them increases. Much of this correlation is attributable to the effect of dependent states, discussed in Section 1.2, which is the effect we wish to exploit. For simplicity we shall ignore other sources of correlation. Thus we assume that pixels within the same object are class-conditionally independent; i.e. each object is a "simple" sample from one of the spectral class populations. Then the joint pdf of the pixels can be expressed as just the product of their marginal pdf's. This approximation leads to fast, effective (though suboptimal) processing algorithms, but theoretical predictions based on this simplified model should be interpreted cautiously. This aspect of modeling is discussed at greater depth in Appendix A.

It is possible to express other statistical characteristics in terms of the ones above. If $W_{\dot{i}}$ denotes the $i\underline{th}$ class, then

$$P(\underline{X} \in W_{i}) = P(\underline{U} \underline{X} \in W_{ij}) = \sum_{j} P(W_{ij})$$
2.1.1

where U denotes the union of events. The pdf of \underline{X} , conditional on this event, is given by

$$P(\underline{x}|W_{i}) = \frac{1}{P(W_{i})} \sum_{j} P(\underline{x}|W_{ij}) P(W_{ij})$$
 2.1.2

This equation defines the representation of a class in terms of its subclasses. The unconditional pdf can be written in

two ways:

$$p(\underline{x}) = \sum_{i} \sum_{j} p(\underline{x}|W_{ij}) P(W_{ij}) = \sum_{j} p(\underline{x}|W_{j}) P(W_{j})$$
 2.1.3

Within this framework, all that is required to complete the statistical model for a given scene (or class of scenes) to specify the spectral classes that are present and assign an a-priori probability and conditional pdf to each. Of course the true distributions are assigned by nature, and the accuracy of the model depends on how well we can estimate them. Fortunately we are usually able to obtain estimates of the class-conditional pdf's based on training samples taken directly from the data set. For this usually rely on actual surface (ground) observations or manual photo-interpretation to locate areas representing each class of cover-type. For the purpose of classifier design, we assume that the size of each sample is sufficiently large that the error in the corresponding distribution estimate is negligible. The subject of training is discussed further in Chapter 4.

The distribution estimates can be parametric or non-parametric in general. It has been found that the multi-variate normal (MVN) distribution is a reasonable model for MSS data [17]; i.e. $p(\underline{x}|W_{ij}) = N(\underline{M}_{ij}, \underline{C}_{ij};\underline{x})$, where $N(\underline{M}, \underline{C}; \underline{x}) = (|2\pi\underline{C}| \exp((\underline{x}-\underline{M})^{\dagger}\underline{C}^{\dagger}(\underline{x}-\underline{M})))^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (Note that $(\underline{x}-\underline{M})$ denotes the transpose of vector $(\underline{x}-\underline{M})$.) It follows that if $X \in W_{ij}$, $E(X) = M_{i}$

$$E(X) = M_{ij}$$

 $E((\underline{X}-\underline{M}_{1};)(\underline{X}-\underline{M}_{1};))) = \underline{C}_{1};$

where E(•) denotes statistical expectation. Thus \underline{M}_{ij} and \underline{C}_{ij} are the mean vector and covariance matrix of the subclass distribution. Note that in order to obtain a parametric estimate of a MVN distribution, it is only necessary to estimate its first and second order moments. This is the approach that we will use.

2.2 No-Memory Classification

In order to introduce certain concepts that will be useful later, we now review some common techniques of no-memory classification including (in one case) a discussion of a bound on the probability of error.

2.2.1 Maximum A Posteriori Probability (MAP) Strategy

Let \underline{X} be a pixel, as before. Under the hypothesis that \underline{X} εW_i , the pdf of \underline{X} is $p(\underline{X}=\underline{x}|\underline{X}$ εW_i), which is given by equation 2.1.2. Assuming that this function is accurately known, the hypothesis is "simple". The goal of classification is to devise a strategy for choosing one of the possible classes (hypotheses) based on \underline{x} , the observed value of \underline{X} ; i.e. we must specify a function, $W(\underline{x})$, which maps \underline{x} into the set of possible classes. We can maximize the probability of a correct decision by always choosing the class, W_i , which has the maximum a posteriori probability, $P(\underline{X}\varepsilon W_i|\underline{X}=\underline{x})$. To show this we merely write the probability of a correct decision in the following form:

$$P(\underline{X} \in W(\underline{X})) = \int P(\underline{X} \in W(\underline{X}) | \underline{X} = \underline{X}) p(\underline{X} = \underline{X}) d\underline{X}$$

$$\times \in \mathbb{R}^{q}$$
2.2.1.1

It is apparent that this quantity is maximized with respect to the decision function by adopting the MAP decision rule. To implement this strategy we use the mixed form of Bayes rule to write

$$P(X \in W_{i} | X = \underline{x}) = \frac{p(X = \underline{x} | X \in W_{i}) P(W_{i})}{p(X = \underline{x})}$$
2.2.1.2

The denominator is independent of i, so we need only to seek the i which maximizes the numerator. In other words, for a given observation, \underline{x} , $\underline{W}(\underline{x})$ is chosen such that

$$p(\underline{X}=\underline{X}|\underline{X} \in W(\underline{X}))P(W(\underline{X})) = \max_{i} p(\underline{X}=\underline{X}|\underline{X} \in W_{i})P(W_{i}) \qquad 2.2.1.3$$

This result can also be obtained as a special case of Bayes decision rule for minimum risk when a "zero-one" loss function is assumed (i.e. when the risk equals the probability of error). Thus it is often referred to as "Bayes classifier".

2.2.2 Maximum Likelihood (ML) Strategy

When all the classes are equiprobable, the MAP decision rule reduces to

$$p(\underline{X} = \underline{X} \mid \underline{X} \in W(\underline{X})) = \max_{i} p(\underline{X} = \underline{X} \mid \underline{X} \in W_{i})$$
2.2.2.1

As a function of i, the statistic $p(\underline{X}=\underline{x}|\underline{X} \in W_i)$ is called the likelihood function, so this decision rule is called the maximum likelihood strategy.

2.2.2

The ML strategy is usually a reasonable approach even when the classes are not equiprobable. In particular, the MAP strategy tends to discriminate against classes whose a-priori probability is low; i.e. it encourages a relatively large conditional probability of error when a "rare" class occurs in order to minimize the overall error probability. Thus when one is interested in classifying the less abundant classes (as well as the more abundant classes) with reasonable accuracy, the MAP strategy may not be as desirable as one which makes more errors but distributes them more equitably among the classes. With the ML strategy, the conditional probability of error when the ith class occurs depends only on the degree of statistical "separability" (or "distance") between class i and the other classes. It is independent of the a-priori probability of class i.

2.2.3 Generalized Maximum Likelihood (GML) Strategy

Often the a-priori subclass probabilities are unknown. Then the hypothesis that $\underline{X} \in W_i$ is a composite hypothesis; i.e. $p(\underline{x}|W_i) = \sum_j A_{ij} p(\underline{x}|W_{ij})$ where the coefficients are unknown. Of course we know that $A_{ij} > 0$ and $\sum_j A_{ij} = 1$. A procedure that has been found to be useful in this situation is to form maximum likelihood estimates of the unknown parameters under each hypothesis. Then the unknowns are replaced by their estimated values, and a hypothesis is selected by the ML strategy. We will refer to this

2.2.3

procedure as the generalized maximum likelihood strategy. The resultant decision rule can be simply expressed in the following form:

$$p(\underline{x}|V(\underline{x})) = \max_{i} \max_{j} p(\underline{x}|W_{ij})$$
2.2.3.1

where $V(\underline{x})$ maps \underline{x} into the set of spectral classes. Then $W(\underline{x})$ is simply defined to be the informational class containing $V(\underline{x})$.

We note that the GML strategy is equivalent to a ML strategy over the set of spectral classes. Thus when all spectral classes are equiprobable, it maximizes the probability of classifying the observation into the correct one.

2.2.4 Probability of Error For The GML Strategy

Let V_1 denote the ith spectral class, and let E be the event that \underline{X} is classified into the wrong spectral class.

$$P(E) = \sum_{j} P(E|X \in V_{j})P(V_{j})$$
 2.2.4.1

If E_{ij} is the event that V_i produces a larger likelihood statistic than V_i , then

$$P(E|V_j) = P(U|E_{ij}|V_j) \leqslant \sum_{\substack{i\\i\neq j}} P(E_{ij}|V_j)$$
 2.2.4.2

Thus it is of some interest to investigate the pairwise error probabilities.

Let $F_{ij}(T) = P(R_{ij}(\underline{X}) > T|\underline{X} \in V_j) = P(L_{ij}(\underline{X}) > \ln(T)|\underline{X} \in V_j)$, where $R_{ij}(\underline{X})$ and $L_{ij}(\underline{X})$ are the random variables:

$$R_{ij}(\underline{X}) = \frac{p(\underline{X}|V_i)}{p(\underline{X}|V_i)} = 1ikelihood ratio 2.2.4.3$$

$$L_{ij}(\underline{X}) = \ln R_{ij}(\underline{X})$$

Then $P(E_{ij}|V_j) = F_{ij}(1)$. Unfortunately the conditional distribution functions of $R_{ij}(\underline{X})$ and $L_{ij}(\underline{X})$ are not usually explicitly available. But, if we can find the moment generating function, $\phi_{ij}(u)$, corresponding to the conditional distribution of $L_{ij}(\underline{X})$ given $\underline{X}^{\epsilon}V_j$, then we can bound $F_{ij}(T)$ as follows:

$$F_{ij}(T) \leqslant T^{-u} \phi_{ij}(u), \quad 0 \leqslant u$$
 2.2.4.4

Furthermore

$$F_{ji}(T) \ll T^{u-1}\phi_{ij}(u), \quad u \ll 1$$

This is known as the Chernoff bound |18|.

By definition:

$$\phi_{i}(u) = E(\exp(uL_{i}(\underline{X}))|\underline{X} \in V_{i})$$
2.2.4.5

When the subclasses are MVN, the expectation can be explicitly evaluated [18]. The result is:

$$\sqrt{\frac{|c_{j}|^{u}|c_{i}|^{1-u}}{|uc_{j}+(1-u)c_{i}|}} \exp(-u(1-u)(\underline{M}_{i}-\underline{M}_{j})'(uc_{j}+(1-u)c_{i})^{1}(\underline{M}_{i}-\underline{M}_{j}))}$$

2.2.4.6

Substituting into 2.2.4.4 provides the desired bound. In particular, for u = .5 we have:

$$F_{ij}(T) \leqslant \phi_{ij}(.5)/\sqrt{T}$$
 2.2.4.7

We note in passing that $-\ln \phi_{ij}(.5)$ is simply the Bhattacharyya "distance" between subclasses V_i and V_j .

Combining equations 2.2.4.1, 2.2.4.2, and 2.2.4.7 gives an expression for a bound on P(E):

$$P(E) \leqslant \sum_{j} P(V_{j}) \sum_{i} \phi_{ij} (.5)$$

$$i \neq j$$
2.2.4.8

By dropping the terms for which V_i and V_j are in the same class, this becomes a bound on the total probability of error.

2.3 Sample Classification

For the purposes of this section we can assume that the partition of the scene is known and we simply want to classify the objects. (In Chapter 3 we discuss conjunctive partitioning algorithms for actually estimating the partition.) We shall treat each object separately, thus ignoring any contextual information resulting from spatial relationships of objects. So we observe a set (sample) of q-dimensional random variables, $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$, from a common population, and our goal is to classify them.

2.3.1 Minimum Distance (MD) Strategy - A Structured Approach to Classification

A structured approach is one in which the basic form of the processor is simply assumed, perhaps leaving certain parameters or options to the discretion of the user. A reasonable procedure is to choose some characteristic that differs from class to class, measure it for the sample to be classified, and select the class whose characteristic most closely matches this observation. Under our assumption of

simple samples, each class is completely characterized by a known q-dimensional pdf. Therefore, in MD classification, the n data vectors are used to estimate the pdf of the population, and the class is selected whose pdf is closest to this estimate as measured by some appropriately defined "distance measure" on the set of density functions. Ideally one would like to choose the density estimator and distance measure in some optimum manner, but in practice the best guidelines are provided by experimental investigations [14]. Note that a possible drawback of the MD strategy is that the sample size (n) must not be too small to obtain meaningful density estimates.

When spatial correlation is introduced into the model (Appendix A), each class is only partially characterized by a simple q-dimensional pdf. Although perhaps not as effective as a higher dimensional pdf would be, it is still a reasonable and valid characteristic for distinguishing between classes. In fact if the spatial correlation is class-invariant (such as that induced by the scanner), the q-dimensional pdf might be just as effective as the higher dimensional one.

2.3.2 M.A.P. and M.L. Sample Classification

In contrast to the MD strategy, the MAP strategy is a completely non-structured approach. The decision rule is determined solely by the criterion of minimum error rate with no a-priori restrictions. Of course a greater degree

of statistical information is also required (the a-priori class probabilities). We can obtain the MAP decision rule by direct extension of 2.2.1.3 if we consider X as a qn-dimensional random variable to be classified. Let x be the set of variates $(\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_n)$ and the event X=x be defined as the joint event $\underline{X}_i = \underline{x}_i$, $i=1,\dots,n$. Then, under the hypothesis $X \in W_i$, the pdf of X is

$$p(X=x|W_{i}) = \frac{1}{P(W_{i})} \sum_{j} P(W_{ij}) p(X=x|W_{ij})$$
 2.3.2.1

$$= \frac{1}{P(W_i)} \sum_{j} P(W_{ij}) \prod_{m=1}^{n} P(X_m = X_m | W_{ij})$$

The MAP decision rule can be stated as follows:

$$p(X=x|W(x))P(W(x)) = \max_{i} p(X=x|W_{i})P(W_{i})$$
 2.3.2.2

There is no minimum sample size required to implement this strategy. For n=1 it simply reduces to MAP no-memory classification (2.2.1.3).

Note that we have represented the joint pdf of a sample in terms of the marginal pdf of one pixel. When spatial correlation is present, this is no longer a fully adequate representation. But as in the case of MD classification, it still provides a useful statistic for distinguishing classes while avoiding the complexities of more rigorous representations.

So far we have tacitly assumed that the decision rule must assign the same class to all the pixels in the sample. With this type of strategy, either all the pixels are classified correctly or all are misclassified. Thus the MAP

decision rule maximizes the average number of times that all the pixels in X are classified correctly. But performance is generally measured by just the average number of pixels in X that are classified correctly each time. We can show that the MAP decision rule maximizes this criterion also. Any decision rule that we adopt must assign a class to \underline{X}_i for any event X=x. We denote this mapping by $W_i(x)$. Let $Z(\cdot)$ be an indicator function, i.e. a zero-one random variable which assumes the value 1 if and only if the event specified in the arguement actually occurs. The number of elements correctly classified in the sample is given by the random variable

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} E(Z(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X))) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int P(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X)|X=X) p(X=X) dX$$

$$\times \in \mathbb{R}^{qn}$$

The integration implied here is a qn-dimensional one. Note that the event $X_i \in W_i(x)$ is equivalent to $X \in W_i(x)$, so all terms of this summation are identical, with the possible exception of the decision function. Thus the decision function which maximizes one term also maximizes the others. This confirms that the optimum decision rule assigns the same class to all the elements of the field. Denoting this decision function by W(x), we have

$$E(N) = n \int P(X \in W(x)|X=x)p(X=x) dx \qquad 2.3.2.4$$

This, of course, is maximized by the MAP strategy (2.3.2.2).

The ML strategy follows directly from the MAP strategy by dropping the a-priori probabilities. The result is

$$p(X=x|W(x)) = \max_{i} p(X=x|W_{i})$$
 2.3.2.5

2.3.3 G.M.L. Sample Classification

We can obtain the GML decision rule by direct extension of 2.2.3.1. The result is

$$p(X=x|V(x)) = \max_{i} \max_{j} p(X=x|W_{ij}) = \max_{i} p(X=x|V_{i})$$

2.3.3.1

We can also bound the probability of error for classifying simple samples. The analysis of Section 2.2.4 carries over directly when X is replaced by X and the moment generating function is recomputed as follows:

$$R_{ij}(X) = \prod_{m=1}^{n} R_{ij}(\underline{X}_{m})$$
 2.3.3.2

$$L_{ij}(X) = \sum_{m=1}^{n} L_{ij}(\underline{X}_m)$$

This is a sum of independent, identically distributed random variables. Thus

$$E(\exp(uL_{ij}(X))|X \in V_{j}) = \prod_{m=1}^{n} E(\exp(uL_{ij}(X_{m}))|X_{m} \in V_{j})$$

$$= (E(\exp(uL_{ij}(X))|X \in V_{j}))^{n}$$

$$= (\phi_{ij}(u))^{n}$$

Equation 2.2.4.7 becomes

$$F_{ij}(T) = P(R_{ij}(X) > T|X \in V_j) \ll (\phi_{ij}(.5))^n / \sqrt{T} \qquad 2.3.3.4$$

It is a property of moment generating functions that $\phi_{ij}(u) \leqslant \phi_{ij}(0) = 1$, so this bound is an exponentially decreasing function of n when $\phi_{ij}(.5) \neq 1$, or equivalently when the Rhattacharyya distance is non-zero. Thus the probability of error for the GML sample classification strategy is bounded by a sum of exponentially decreasing functions of the sample size.

To illustrate how powerful this bound can be we now consider a simple example. Suppose that the ith and jth spectral class densities are as depicted in Fig. 2.3.3.1. The mean vectors are equal, which results in a high degree of "overlap". Therefore the Bhattacharyya distance is only 0.11, and $\phi_{ij}(.5) = \sqrt{0.8} = 0.8944$. The actual conditional error rate, F; (1), for no-memory classification (n=1), is 50%, which represents very poor performance. This implies that a "polling" classifier also has a 50% error rate regardless of the sample size. But Figure 2.3.3.2 shows how the GML performance improves as the sample size increases. For a sample of just 40 observations the error rate is practically insignificant. Although we probability cannot expect such dramatic performance in practice (due to the idealizations of our model), this still provides a strong motivation for our effort to apply sample classification to MSS data.

2.3.4 Maximum Likelihood vs. Minimum Distance

Let $X = (\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n)$ be a simple sample from a MVN

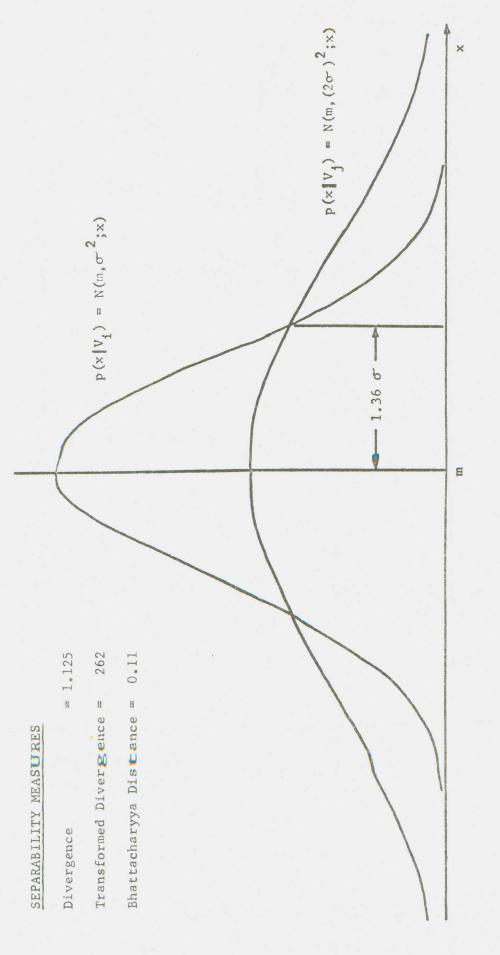
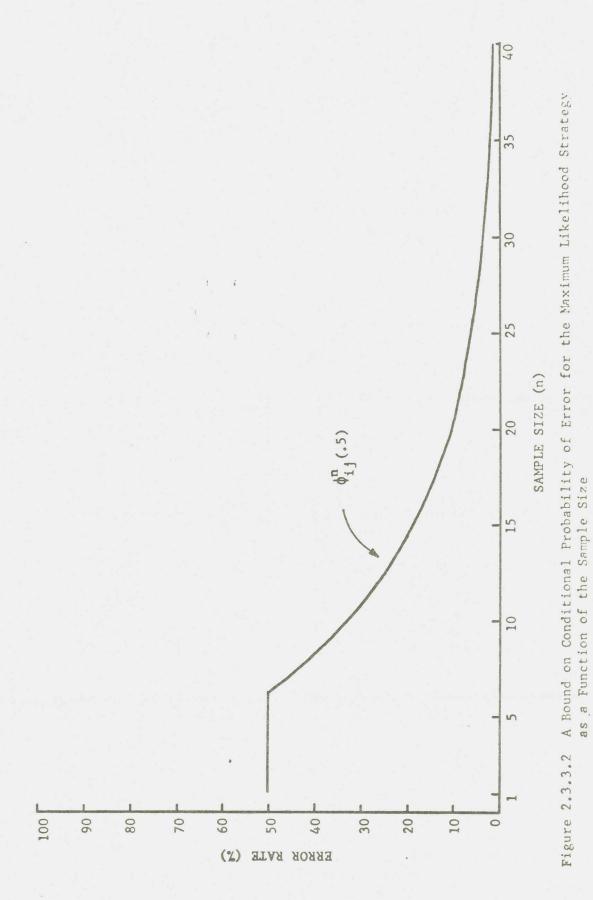


Figure 2.3.3.1 Two Normal Densities With Low Separability



2.3.4

$$\underline{S}_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n \underline{X}_i$$

$$S_2 = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i X_i$$

The maximum likelihood estimates of the mean vector and covariance matrix are:

$$\underline{M} = \underline{S}_1/n$$
2.3.4.2

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\underline{X}_i - \underline{M})(\underline{X}_i - \underline{M})' = \underline{S}_2/n - \underline{M} \underline{M}'$$

The corresponding density estimate is given by equation 2.1.4.

Two popular distance measures are the Bhattacharyya distance and the divergence. If W_i is a class with density $W(\underline{M}_i,\underline{C}_i;\underline{x})$ then the Bhattacharyya distance between this and $W(\underline{M},\underline{C};\underline{x})$ is given by

$$B = .25 \text{ (in } \frac{1(C+C_1)/2!^2}{|C|||C_1||} + (\underline{M-M_1})^*(\underline{C}+\underline{C}_1)^*(\underline{M-M_1}) \text{)} 2.3.4.3$$

and the divergence can be efficiently calculated from D=.5 tr($(\Bar{c}^{-1}+\Bar{c}^{-1})(\Bar{c}+\Bar{c}+\Bar{c}^{-1})(\Bar{c}+\Bar{c}+\Bar{c}^{-1})(\Bar{c}+\Bar$

2.3.4

|14|. And its direct relationship to the Chernoff bound gives B some intuitive appeal as well.

In order for the ML strategy to be computationally competitive with D and B, the likelihood function must be expressed in terms of \underline{S}_1 and \underline{S}_2 as follows:

$$p(X|W_i) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} N(\underline{M}_i, \underline{C}_i; \underline{X}_j)$$
 2.3.4.5

$$= (|2\pi C_{i}|^{n} \exp(\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\underline{X}_{j} - \underline{M}_{i})^{n} C_{i}^{-1} (\underline{X}_{j} - \underline{M}_{i})))^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

 $ln p(X|W_i) =$

$$-.5(n \ln |2\pi C_i| + \sum_{j=1}^{n} (\underline{X}_j \cdot C_i^{-1} \underline{X}_j - 2\underline{M}_i \cdot C_i^{-1} \underline{X}_j + \underline{M}_i \cdot C_i^{-1} \underline{M}_i))$$

The quadratic term yields

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \underline{x}_{j} \cdot \underline{c}_{i}^{-1} \underline{x}_{j} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr}(\underline{c}_{i}^{-1} \underline{x}_{j} \underline{x}_{j}') = \operatorname{tr}(\underline{c}_{i}^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \underline{x}_{j} \underline{x}_{j}')$$

50

$$\ln p(X|W_i) = -.5 \operatorname{tr}(C_i^{-1}S_2) + \underline{M}_i \cdot C_i^{-1}S_1 - .5 \operatorname{n}(\underline{M}_i \cdot C_i^{-1}\underline{M}_i + \ln|2\pi C_i|)$$

$$2.3.4.6$$

which can be computed with just .5q(q+5) multiplications, once the non-data-dependent quantities have been initialized. Thus the ML strategy requires only 25%-50% as many multiplications as D and no matrix inversions or determinants.

It is interesting to express equation 2.3.4.6 in terms of $\underline{\mathbb{N}}$ and $\underline{\mathbb{N}}$. Substituting for $\underline{\mathbb{N}}_1$ and $\underline{\mathbb{N}}_2$ from equations 2.3.4.1 and simplifying, provides:

$$\frac{1}{n} \ln p(X|W_i) = -.5(\ln|2\pi C_i| + tr(C_i^{-1}(C + (M-M_i)(M-M_i)^*)))$$

$$2.3.4.7$$

which we shall denote by $L_{1}(\underline{M},\underline{C})$. By adopting the ML strategy, one is essentially using this quantity as a measure of the "similarity" of sample X to class W_{1} , just as B and D are used to measure their "dissimilarity". Therefore, $-L_{1}(\underline{M},\underline{C})$ can be interpreted as a measure of dissimilarity between the distributions $N(\underline{M},\underline{C};\underline{x})$ and $N(\underline{M}_{1},\underline{C}_{1};\underline{x})$. However it is not a distance measure in the sense of Wacker and Landgrebe [14], because it satisfies none of the three basic properties of distance measures; i.e. if f(i,j) is a "distance" between distributions $N(\underline{M}_{1},\underline{C}_{1};\underline{x})$ and $N(\underline{M}_{1},\underline{C}_{1};\underline{x})$ then

2.3.4.8

2.
$$f(i,i) = f(j,j) = 0$$

3.
$$f(i,j) = f(j,i)$$

One can force compliance with properties 1 and 2 by adding a bias term as follows:

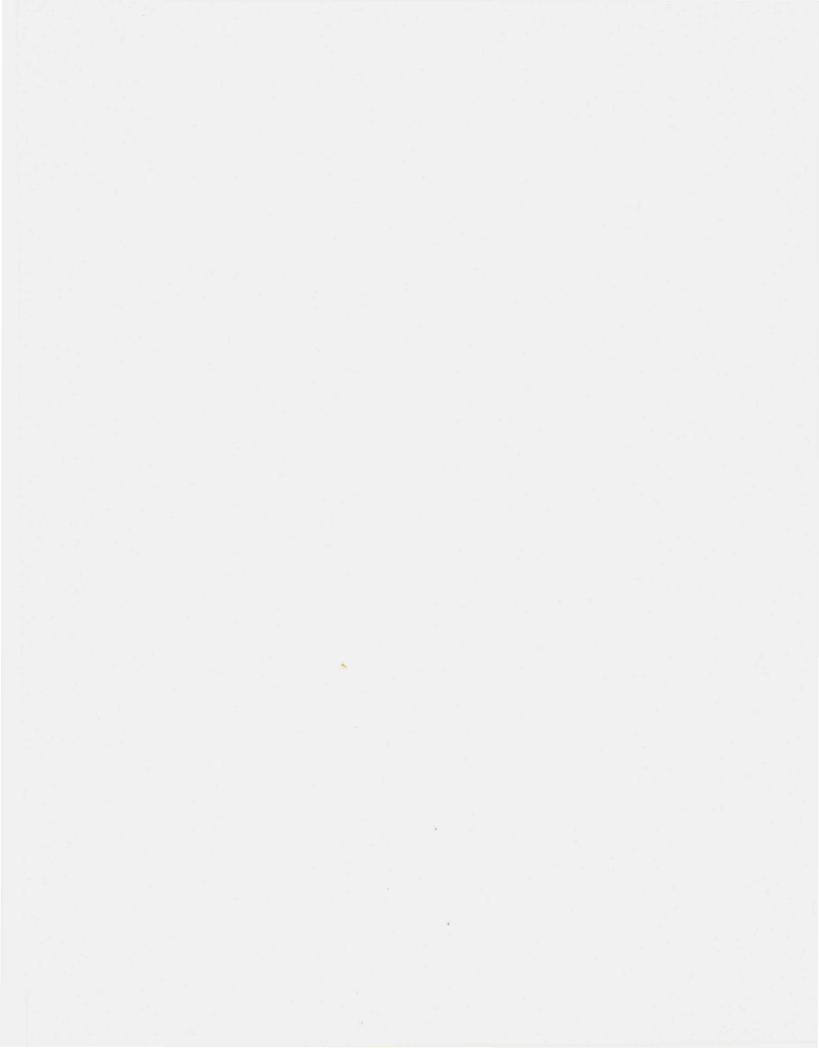
$$d(i,j) = -L_{i}(\underline{M}_{j},\underline{C}_{j}) + L_{j}(\underline{M}_{j},\underline{C}_{j})$$

$$= .5(\ln \frac{|C_{i}|}{|C_{j}|} + tr(\underline{C}_{i}^{-1}(\underline{C}_{j} + (\underline{M}_{j} - \underline{M}_{i})(\underline{M}_{j} - \underline{M}_{i})^{*})) -q)$$

Which can be recognized as a form of one of the Kullback-Leibler numbers [19]. Since the bias term is independent of i (the class number), use of this criterion is still equivalent to the ML strategy, as long as $|C_j| > 0$. Also, the quantity d(i,j)+d(j,i) is equivalent to the divergence, which satisfies all three distance measure properties.

The ML strategy has other compelling properties besides computational efficiency. On theoretical grounds, for the idealized conditions we have stated, it is the optimum strategy (for minimum error rate) when the a-priori class probabilities are equal. Also, the Chernoff bound for ML no-memory classification can be extended to provide an error bound for ML sample classification. Experimentally, under non-idealized conditions, the ML strategy does appear to be slightly better than MD (using B) on the whole, although it is not consistently better. The experimental results appear in Chapter 4. Wacker's experimental results for Kullback-Leibler numbers [14] also lend some support to this observation.

Another important property is that for small sample sizes the ML strategy does not break down as do the MD strategies. For a sample size of 1, it merely reduces to no-memory classification. Finally, the summation in equation 2.3.4.5 is distributed as chi-squared with nq degrees of freedom when $W_{\rm i}$ is the correct hypothesis for sample X. Therefore it can be used to construct a significance test of this hypothesis. This is useful for detecting samples that belong to none of the specified classes.



CHAPTER 3

IMAGE PARTITIONING

Once the partition is known, powerful techniques are available for classifying the individual objects. Thus, when the partition is unknown, an image partitioning algorithm offers an attractive alternative to no-memory classification. For reasons discussed in Section 1.3, the algorithms considered here are the type we refer to as conjunctive object-seeking. We have previously described this approach as a progressive merging of adjacent elements which are found to be similar according to some statistical criterion. Thus an algorithm consists of statistical tests applied in some logical sequence. The "logical sequence" is the subject of Section-3.1, and the rest of the chapter surveys some possible test criteria.

3.1 Partitioning Logic

In general it is not possible to design an error-free partitioning algorithm. First of all, there is a certain amount of ambiguity in defining the "true" partition due to real effects such as pixels that overlap physical boundaries or ambiguity in the physical boundaries themselves. Secondly, two main types of decision errors can occur,

leading to: (1) false boundaries, and (2) missed boundaries. Also the combined effect of these two errors can produce "approximate" boundaries, which is not actually a well-defined category due to the ambiguity of the true partition. Since object size and shape are not used as classification features, Type-1 errors are generally much less likely to lead to misclassifications than are Type-2 errors. This philosophy accounts for certain simplifications in the partitioning logic.

The basic approach that we have adopted (due to Rodd [11]) consists of two "levels" of tests. Initially the pixels are divided, by a (hypothetical) grid, into small groups of four (for example). At the first level of testing, each group becomes a unit called a "cell", provided that it satisfies a relatively mild criterion of homogeneity. Those groups that are rejected are assumed to overlap a boundary and their individual pixels are usually classified by the no-memory method. These groups are referred to as "singular" cells. At this level it is usually desirable to maintain a fairly low rejection rate to reflect the relatively high a-priori probability of a group being homogeneous. The goal at this level is essentially the same as the goal of the boundary seeking techniques discussed in Section 1.3, i.e. to detect as many pixels as possible that lie along boundaries without requiring that the ones detected form closed contours or even be connected.

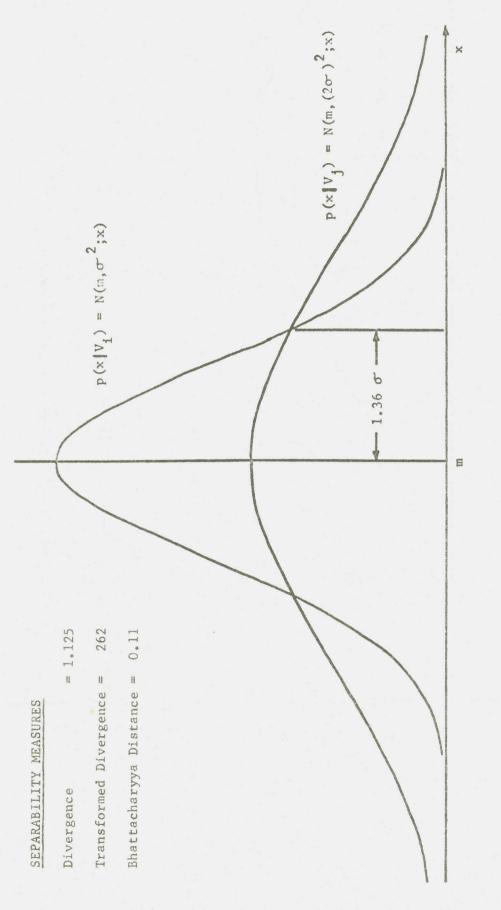


Figure 2.3.3.1 Two Normal Densities With Low Separability

It is a property of moment generating functions that $\phi_{ij}(u) \leqslant \phi_{ij}(0) = 1$, so this bound is an exponentially decreasing function of n when $\phi_{ij}(.5) \neq 1$, or equivalently when the Rhattacharyya distance is non-zero. Thus the probability of error for the GML sample classification strategy is bounded by a sum of exponentially decreasing functions of the sample size.

To illustrate how powerful this bound can be we now consider a simple example. Suppose that the ith and jth spectral class densities are as depicted in Fig. 2.3.3.1. The mean vectors are equal, which results in a high degree of "overlap". Therefore the Bhattacharyya distance is only 0.11, and ϕ_{i} : (.5) = $\sqrt{0.8}$ = 0.8944. The actual conditional error rate, F_{i} (1), for no-memory classification (n=1), is 50%, which represents very poor performance. This implies that a "polling" classifier also has a 50% error rate regardless of the sample size. But Figure 2.3.3.2 shows how the GML performance improves as the sample size increases. For a sample of just 40 observations the error rate is practically insignificant. Although we probability cannot expect such dramatic performance in practice (due to the idealizations of our model), this still provides a strong motivation for our effort to apply sample classification to MSS data.

2.3.4 Maximum Likelihood vs. Minimum Distance

Let $X = (X_1, ..., X_n)$ be a simple sample from a MVN

$$E(N) = n \int P(X \in W(x)|X=x)p(X=x) dx \qquad 2.3.2.4$$

This, of course, is maximized by the MAP strategy (2.3.2.2).

The ML strategy follows directly from the MAP strategy by dropping the a-priori probabilities. The result is $p(X=x|W(x)) = \max_{i} p(X=x|W_i)$ 2.3.2.5

2.3.3 G.M.L. Sample Classification

We can obtain the GML decision rule by direct extension of 2.2.3.1. The result is

$$p(X=x|V(x)) = \max_{i} \max_{j} p(X=x|W_{ij}) = \max_{i} p(X=x|V_{i})$$
2.3.3.1

We can also bound the probability of error for classifying simple samples. The analysis of Section 2.2.4 carries over directly when \underline{X} is replaced by X and the moment generating function is recomputed as follows:

$$R_{ij}(X) = \prod_{m=1}^{n} R_{ij}(\underline{X}_{m})$$
 2.3.3.2

$$L_{ij}(X) = \sum_{m=1}^{n} L_{ij}(\underline{X}_m)$$

This is a sum of independent, identically distributed random variables. Thus

$$E(\exp(uL_{ij}(X))|X \in V_j) = \prod_{m=1}^{n} E(\exp(uL_{ij}(\underline{X}_m))|\underline{X}_m \in V_j) \qquad 2.3.3.3$$

$$= (E(\exp(uL_{ij}(\underline{X}))|\underline{X} \in V_j))^n$$

$$= (\phi_{ij}(u))^n$$

Equation 2.2.4.7 becomes

$$F_{ij}(T) = P(R_{ij}(X) > T|X \in V_j) < (\phi_{ij}(.5))^n / \sqrt{T} \qquad 2.3.3.4$$

decision rule maximizes the average number of times that <u>all</u> the pixels in X are classified correctly. But performance is generally measured by just the average number of pixels in X that are classified correctly each time. We can show that the MAP decision rule maximizes this criterion also. Any decision rule that we adopt must assign a class to \underline{X}_i for any event X=x. We denote this mapping by $W_i(x)$. Let $Z(\cdot)$ be an indicator function, i.e. a zero-one random variable which assumes the value 1 if and only if the event specified in the arguement actually occurs. The number of elements correctly classified in the sample is given by the random variable

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Z(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X))$$

$$E(N) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} E(Z(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X))) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int P(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(X)|X=X)p(X=X) dX$$

$$\times \in \mathbb{R}^{qn}$$

The integration implied here is a qn-dimensional one. Note that the event $X_i \in W_i(x)$ is equivalent to $X \in W_i(x)$, so all terms of this summation are identical, with the possible exception of the decision function. Thus the decision function which maximizes one term also maximizes the others. This confirms that the optimum decision rule assigns the same class to all the elements of the field. Denoting this decision function by W(x), we have

of statistical information is also required (the a-priori class probabilities). We can obtain the MAP decision rule by direct extension of 2.2.1.3 if we consider X as a qn-dimensional random variable to be classified. Let x be the set of variates $(\underline{x_1}, \dots, \underline{x_n})$ and the event X=x be defined as the joint event $\underline{X_i} = \underline{x_i}$, $i=1,\dots,n$. Then, under the hypothesis $X \in W_i$, the pdf of X is

$$p(X=x|W_{i}) = \frac{1}{P(W_{i})} \sum_{j} P(W_{ij}) p(X=x|W_{ij})$$
 2.3.2.1

$$= \frac{1}{P(W_i)} \sum_{j} P(W_{ij}) \prod_{m=1}^{n} P(X_m = X_m | W_{ij})$$

The MAP decision rule can be stated as follows:

$$p(X=x|W(x))P(W(x)) = \max_{i} p(X=x|W_{i})P(W_{i})$$
 2.3.2.2

There is no minimum sample size required to implement this strategy. For n=1 it simply reduces to MAP no-memory classification (2.2.1.3).

Note that we have represented the joint pdf of a sample in terms of the marginal pdf of one pixel. When spatial correlation is present, this is no longer a fully adequate representation. But as in the case of MD classification, it still provides a useful statistic for distinguishing classes while avoiding the complexities of more rigorous representations.

So far we have tacitly assumed that the decision rule must assign the same class to all the pixels in the sample. With this type of strategy, either all the pixels are classified correctly or all are misclassified. Thus the MAP

simple samples, each class is completely characterized by a known q-dimensional pdf. Therefore, in MD classification, the n data vectors are used to estimate the pdf of the population, and the class is selected whose pdf is closest to this estimate as measured by some appropriately defined "distance measure" on the set of density functions. Ideally one would like to choose the density estimator and distance measure in some optimum manner, but in practice the best guidelines are provided by experimental investigations [14]. Note that a possible drawback of the MD strategy is that the sample size (n) must not be too small to obtain meaningful density estimates.

When spatial correlation is introduced into the model (Appendix A), each class is only partially characterized by a simple q-dimensional pdf. Although perhaps not as effective as a higher dimensional pdf would be, it is still a reasonable and valid characteristic for distinguishing between classes. In fact if the spatial correlation is class-invariant (such as that induced by the scanner), the q-dimensional pdf might be just as effective as the higher dimensional one.

2.3.2 M.A.P. and M.L. Sample Classification

In contrast to the MD strategy, the MAP strategy is a completely non-structured approach. The decision rule is determined solely by the criterion of minimum error rate with no a-priori restrictions. Of course a greater degree

Combining equations 2.2.4.1, 2.2.4.2, and 2.2.4.7 gives an expression for a bound on P(E):

$$P(E) \leqslant \sum_{j} P(V_{j}) \sum_{i \neq j} \phi_{ij} (.5)$$
2.2.4.8

By dropping the terms for which V_i and V_j are in the same class, this becomes a bound on the total probability of error.

2.3 Sample Classification

For the purposes of this section we can assume that the partition of the scene is known and we simply want to classify the objects. (In Chapter 3 we discuss conjunctive partitioning algorithms for actually estimating the partition.) We shall treat each object separately, thus ignoring any contextual information resulting from spatial relationships of objects. So we observe a set (sample) of q-dimensional random variables, $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$, from a common population, and our goal is to classify them.

2.3.1 Minimum Distance (MD) Strategy - A Structured Approach to Classification

A structured approach is one in which the basic form of the processor is simply assumed, perhaps leaving certain parameters or options to the discretion of the user. A reasonable procedure is to choose some characteristic that differs from class to class, measure it for the sample to be classified, and select the class whose characteristic most closely matches this observation. Under our assumption of

$$R_{ij}(\underline{X}) = \frac{p(\underline{X}|V_i)}{p(\underline{X}|V_i)} = 1ikelihood ratio 2.2.4.3$$

$$L_{ii}(\underline{X}) = \ln R_{ij}(\underline{X})$$

Then $P(E_{ij}|V_j) = F_{ij}(1)$. Unfortunately the conditional distribution functions of $R_{ij}(\underline{X})$ and $L_{ij}(\underline{X})$ are not usually explicitly available. But, if we can find the moment generating function, $\phi_{ij}(u)$, corresponding to the conditional distribution of $L_{ij}(\underline{X})$ given $\underline{X}^{\epsilon V}_{j}$, then we can bound $F_{ii}(T)$ as follows:

$$F_{i;}(T) \leqslant T^{-u} \phi_{i;}(u), 0 \leqslant u$$
 2.2.4.4

Furthermore

$$F_{ii}(T) \ll T^{u-1}\phi_{ij}(u)$$
, $u \ll 1$

This is known as the Chernoff bound [18].

By definition:

$$\phi_{ij}(u) = E(\exp(uL_{ij}(\underline{X}))|\underline{X} \in V_{j})$$
2.2.4.5

When the subclasses are MVN, the expectation can be explicitly evaluated [18]. The result is:

$$\sqrt{\frac{|c_{j}|^{u}|c_{i}|^{1-u}}{|uc_{j}+(1-u)c_{i}|}} \exp(-u(1-u)(\underline{M}_{i}-\underline{M}_{j})'(uc_{j}+(1-u)c_{i})^{1}(\underline{M}_{i}-\underline{M}_{j}))}$$

2.2.4.6

Substituting into 2.2.4.4 provides the desired bound. In particular, for u = .5 we have:

$$F_{ii}(T) < \phi_{ij}(.5)/\sqrt{T}$$
 2.2.4.7

We note in passing that $-\ln \phi_{ij}(.5)$ is simply the Bhattacharyya "distance" between subclasses V_i and V_j .

At the second level, an individual cell is compared to an adjacent "field", which is simply a group of one or more connected cells that have previously been merged. If the two samples appear statistically similar by some appropriate criterion, then they too are merged. Otherwise the cell is compared to another adjacent field or becomes a new field itself. By successively "annexing" adjacent cells, each field expands until it reaches its natural boundaries, where the rejection rate abruptly increases, thereby halting further expansion. The field is then classified by a sample classifier, and the classification is assigned to all its pixels.

This approach has the important advantage that it can be implemented "sequentially"; i.e. raw data need be accessed only once and in the same order that it is stored on tape. This is important for practical, rather than theoretical, considerations. The flow chart in Figure 3.1.1 indicates how it can be done. In this chart, the top of the scene is referred to as north, and the general processing sequence is from north to south.

A possible drawback of the approach described above is that in certain hypothetical situations, Type-1 errors are a certainty. For example, a U-shaped object would develop as two separate fields which expand southward and eventually meet at the base of the U. But since no provision is made for merging such fields, a false boundary between them will

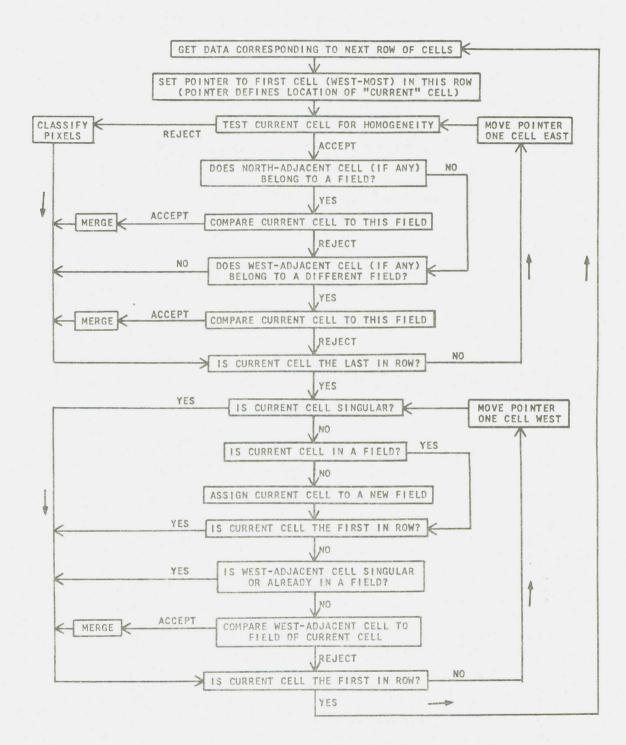


Figure 3.1.1 Basic Flow Chart for a Two-Level, Conjunctive Partitioning Algorithm

result. Such a provision can of course be made, but only at the cost of additional complexity. This does not appear to be warranted by the relatively harmless nature of an isolated Type-1 error. Thus the false boundary actually results from a design simplification rather than a true decision error.

Many modifications (both large and small) to the basic flow chart are, of course, possible. For example, the Level-1 test can be removed from the loop if performed in advance and intermediate results saved on tape. (This is particularly useful in a research environment.) Another modification is described in Section 3.3.3. It involves comparing a cell to as many as three different fields at once, instead of one-at-a-time.

3.2 Unsupervised Mode

In order to implement the sequential approach we must specify two test criteria corresponding to the two levels. In this section we consider ways to do this "unsupervised"; i.e. the test criteria are independent of specific knowledge of the spectral class distributions. Note that our usage of this term is analogous, but not identical, to the conventional usage.

3.2.1 Unsupervised Annexation

Let $X = (\underline{X}_1, \dots, \underline{X}_n)$ represent the pixels in a group of one or more cells which have been merged by successive annexations. Let $Y = (\underline{Y}_1, \dots, \underline{Y}_m)$ represent the pixels in an

3.2.1

adjacent, non-singular cell. Since both X and Y will have satisfied certain criteria of homogeneity, we assume that each is a sample from a MVN population. Let f and g represent the corresponding density functions. It is desired to test the (null) hypothesis that f = g. This is a composite hypothesis, since it does not specify f and g. The "likelihood ratio procedure" [20] provides an effective statistic for testing this hypothesis. Van Trees [21] refers to it as the "generalized likelihood ratio". Let

$$H_0(x,y) = \{p(x,y|f,g): g=f, f \in \Omega\}$$

$$H_1(x,y) = \{p(x,y|f,g): f \in \Omega , g \in \Omega, g \neq f\}$$

where p(x,y|f,g) is the conditional joint density of X and Y evaluated at $x \in R^{nq}$ and $y \in R^{mq}$, and Ω is a set of MVN density functions. The assumption of class-conditional independence enables us to express the joint density of pixels as the product of their marginal densities. Thus:

$$p(x,y|f,g) = p(x|f) p(y|g) = (\prod_{i=1}^{n} f(\underline{x}_i)) (\prod_{i=1}^{m} g(\underline{y}_i))$$

The generalized likelihood ratio is defined by:

$$\Lambda = \frac{\sup_{X \to \mathbb{R}^n} H_0(X,Y)}{\sup_{X \to \mathbb{R}^n} H_1(X,Y)} = \frac{\max_{X \to \mathbb{R}^n} p(X|f) p(Y|f)}{\max_{X \to \mathbb{R}^n} p(X|f) p(Y|g)}$$

$$g \in \Omega$$

$$g \notin f$$
3.2.1.1

For an "unsupervised" approach to partitioning we take Ω to be the following set of functions of $\underline{x}_{\epsilon}R^{q}$: $\Omega = \left\{ N(\underline{M}, \mathbb{C}; \underline{x}) \colon \underline{M}_{\epsilon}R^{q}, \quad \mathbb{C} = \text{symmetric, positive-definite} \right\}$ Since for any $f_{\epsilon}\Omega$ there exists a $g_{\epsilon}\Omega$ that is arbitrarily

close to f, the condition "g#f" can be dropped from the denominator of 3.2.1.1. Therefore:

$$\Lambda = \frac{\max N(\underline{M}, \underline{C}; X) N(\underline{M}, \underline{C}; Y)}{\max N(\underline{M}_{X}, \underline{C}_{X}; X) N(\underline{M}_{Y}, \underline{C}_{Y}; Y)} \ll 1$$

$$= \frac{\max N(\underline{M}_{X}, \underline{C}; X) N(\underline{M}_{Y}, \underline{C}; Y)}{\max N(\underline{M}_{X}, \underline{C}; X) N(\underline{M}_{Y}, \underline{C}; Y)} \cdot \frac{\max N(\underline{M}, \underline{C}; X) N(\underline{M}, \underline{C}; Y)}{\max N(\underline{M}_{X}, \underline{C}; X) N(\underline{M}_{Y}, \underline{C}; Y)}$$

$$= \Lambda_{2} \cdot \Lambda_{1}$$

where

$$N(\underline{M},C;X) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} N(\underline{M},C;X_{i})$$

$$N(\underline{M}, C; Y) = \prod_{i=1}^{m} N(\underline{M}, C; \underline{Y}_{i})$$

and in each case the maximization is with respect to the mean vectors and covariance matrices.

Anderson |22| shows that:

$$\Lambda_1 = (|A|/|S|)^{N/2}$$
 3.2.1.2

$$\Lambda_2 = (|\Lambda_X/n|^n |\Lambda_y/m|^m / |\Lambda/N|^N)^{.5}$$
 3.2.1.3 where

!! = n + m

$$\overline{\underline{X}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underline{X}_{i} / n$$
 $\overline{\underline{Y}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \underline{Y}_{i} / m$

$$A_{\mathsf{X}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\underline{\mathsf{X}}_{i} - \overline{\underline{\mathsf{X}}}) (\underline{\mathsf{X}}_{i} - \overline{\underline{\mathsf{X}}})^{\mathsf{T}} \qquad A_{\mathsf{Y}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\underline{\mathsf{Y}}_{i} - \overline{\underline{\mathsf{Y}}}) (\underline{\mathsf{Y}}_{i} - \overline{\underline{\mathsf{Y}}})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

(In order to assure non-singular matrices with probability 1, we need n > q < m.) [22]

$$\Lambda = \Lambda_X + \Lambda_y$$

$$\underline{M} = (n\overline{X} + n\overline{Y})/N$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{X}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_{i} - \underline{\mathbf{M}}) (X_{i} - \underline{\mathbf{M}})^{*} = A_{\mathbf{X}} + n(\overline{X} - \underline{\mathbf{M}}) (\overline{X} - \underline{\mathbf{M}})^{*}$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (Y_{i} - \underline{\mathbf{M}}) (Y_{i} - \underline{\mathbf{M}})^{*} = A_{\mathbf{y}} + m(\overline{Y} - \underline{\mathbf{M}}) (\overline{Y} - \underline{\mathbf{M}})^{*}$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{x}} + \mathbb{B}_{\mathbf{y}} = A + \underline{mn} (\overline{X} - \overline{Y}) (\overline{X} - \overline{Y})^{*}$$

Anderson also suggests the following modification:

$$\lambda = \lambda_1 \cdot \lambda_2$$

where λ_1 and λ_2 are obtained from Λ_1 and Λ_2 by replacing the number of pixels in each sample by the number of degrees of freedom; i.e. replace n by n-1, m by m-1, and N by N-2 in formulas 3.2.1.2 and 3.2.1.3. In either case, the statistics are invariant with respect to a linear transformation on the data vectors. It follows that their distributions under the null hypothesis are independent of the actual MVN population from which the samples are drawn.

The test procedure is to compare λ with some decision threshold T < 1, which depends in general upon n and m. The hypothesis is accepted if λ > T and rejected if λ < T. In the unsupervised mode, T is determined by specifying the desired "size" (significance level) of the test, because the power of the test is indeterminate. In order to do this, however, the distribution of λ must be tabulated. Under the null hypothesis λ_1 and λ_2 are independently distributed | |22|, so we can simplify the distribution theory and accomplish the same objective by the following procedure. Pick significance levels s_1 and s_2 such that

 $s=1-(1-s_1)(1-s_2)$, where s is the desired significance level. Test λ_i using a threshold T_i such that $P(\lambda_i < T_i|H)$ = s_i , i=1,2, where H denotes the event that the null hypothesis is true. The null hypothesis is rejected if either test produces a rejection. Thus the effective size of the test is given by

$$1 - P(\lambda_1 > T_1, \lambda_2 > T_2 | H) = 1 - P(\lambda_1 > T_1 | H) P(\lambda_2 > T_2 | H)$$

$$= 1 - (1-s_1)(1-s_2) = s$$

as desired. This procedure gives us complete freedom to pick the ratio $s_2/s_1 \gg 0$. As this ratio increases, the power of the test against the alternative $\underline{\mathbb{M}}_x = \underline{\mathbb{M}}_y$, $\underline{\mathbb{C}}_x \neq \underline{\mathbb{C}}_y$ increases, and the power against the alternative $\underline{\mathbb{M}}_x \neq \underline{\mathbb{M}}_y$, $\underline{\mathbb{C}}_x \neq \underline{\mathbb{M}}_y$, $\underline{\mathbb{C}}_x \neq \underline{\mathbb{C}}_y$ decreases.

We now review the distribution theory that is needed to implement these tests. There is a transformation of λ_1 which, given H, has an F-distribution with q and (N-q-1) degrees of freedom [23]. It is given by

$$F_1 = (\frac{|B|}{|A|} - 1) \frac{(N-q-1)}{q}$$
 3.2.1.4

Thus the test for a significant difference between the mean vectors can be implemented by computing F_1 and comparing it to a threshold t_1 determined by the relation $P(F_1 > t_1|H) = s_1$. Alternatively, it can be shown [18] that

$$(\underbrace{181}_{|A|} -1)(N-2) = (N-2)\underline{nm}(\overline{X}-\overline{Y}) \cdot \underline{A}^{-1}(\overline{X}-\overline{Y}) = T^2$$
3.2.1.5

which (given H) has a T^2 distribution with N-2 degrees of freedom [22]. T^2 is Hotelling's generalization of the Student-t statistic, which is commonly used to test the

hypothesis that the means of two univariate normal distributions are equal given that the variances are equal.

The following transformation of λ_2 has the F-distribution (given H) [23]:

$$G = -2 \ln \lambda_{2}$$

$$g = \frac{2q^{2} + 3q - 1}{6(q + 1)} \left\{ \frac{1}{n - 1} + \frac{1}{m - 1} - \frac{1}{N - 2} \right\}$$

$$u = \frac{(q - 1)(q + 2)}{6} \left\{ \frac{1}{(n - 1)^{2}} + \frac{1}{(m - 1)^{2}} - \frac{1}{(N - 2)^{2}} \right\} - g^{2}$$

$$v = \frac{q(q + 1)}{2}$$

$$w = \frac{v + 2}{|u|}$$

$$Z = \begin{cases} \frac{(1 - g - v/w)G}{v}, & u > 0 \\ v & u < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$F_{2} = \begin{cases} Z, & u > 0 \\ \frac{WZ}{v(1 - Z)}, & u < 0 \end{cases}$$

 F_2 has an F-distribution with v and w degrees of freedom. Thus the test is implemented by computing F_2 and comparing it to a threshold t_2 determined by the relation $P(F_2 > t_2|H) = s_2$.

Due to the complexity of the test for different covariance matrices, it may be desirable to rely only on the difference in mean vectors (assuming that a difference exists). A common approach is to simply assume that all covariance matrices are equal, thereby eliminating the need to test the statistic F_2 ; i.e. let s_2 =0. The test of F_1 is

probably fairly robust under departures from this assumption anyway [23]. An alternative approach, which does not require this assumption, is to use the Behrens-Fischer statistic defined as follows [22]:

$$\underline{Z}_{i} = \underline{Y}_{i} - \underline{X}_{i} (m/n)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad i=1,2,...,m \leqslant n.$$

$$\underline{\overline{Z}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \underline{Z}_{i}/m$$
3.2.1.7

$$D = \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\underline{Z}_{i} - \overline{\underline{Z}})(\underline{Z}_{i} - \overline{\underline{Z}})^{*}/(m-1)$$

$$\mathsf{T}^2 = \mathsf{m}(\overline{\underline{\mathsf{X}}} - \overline{\underline{\mathsf{Y}}}) \cdot \mathsf{D}^{-1}(\overline{\underline{\mathsf{X}}} - \overline{\underline{\mathsf{Y}}})$$

This has a T^2 -distribution with m-1 degrees of freedom, or equivalently the statistic

$$F_3 = \frac{T^2(m-q)}{(m-1)q}$$
3.2.1.8

has an F-distribution with q and m-q degrees of freedom under the hypothesis that $\underline{\mathbb{M}}_{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbb{M}}_{\mathbf{Y}}$. Thus the test is implemented by comparing F₃ to a threshold t₃ which satisfies the relation $P(F_3 > t_3 | \underline{\mathbb{M}}_{\mathbf{X}} = \underline{\mathbb{M}}_{\mathbf{Y}}) = s$.

These multivariate tests all have the same weakness as MD classification, namely the problem of estimating a MVN density from a relatively small sample (sometimes known as the "dimensionality" problem). This led to the constraint a > q, a condition which is often not met. Even when the condition is met, poor estimates can result, leading to decision errors. One approach to this problem is to reduce q by deleting features. It is well-known, for example, that a subset of features used to train a classifier from small

training samples can sometimes produce better classification results than the full set |24|. With this approach, however, one is faced with the problem of choosing the subset.

Another approach is to base the decision on the q, univariate, marginal distributions; i.e. simply consider the data in one spectral channel at a time. This has been termed a "multiple univariate" (MUV) approach. In each channel we test the univariate hypothesis that the means and variances of the two samples are equal. Since the boundaries may be strong in some spectral channels and weak in others, we accept the null hypothesis only if the univariate hypothesis is accepted in all q channels. Besides avoiding the dimensionality problem, the MUV procedure requires less computation and simpler distribution theory. However, it must be pointed out that in situations where class separability is primarily a multivariate effect, the MV procedure may be more advantageous.

In order to obtain the univariate tests we can follow the same development that led to the multivariate tests except that q=1 and A_X , A_Y , A_Y , A_Y , and B_Y are just one-dimensional matrices (scalars). Thus equations 3.2.1.4 and 3.2.1.5 simplify as follows:

$$F_1 = T^2 = \frac{(N-2)nm}{N} \frac{(\overline{X} - \overline{Y})^2}{A}$$
 3.2.1.9

This has an F-distribution with 1 and (N-2) degrees of freedom, under the null hypothesis. Equivalently we can say

that the statistic

$$\sqrt{\frac{(N-2)nm}{N}} (\overline{X}-\overline{Y})$$
3.2.1.10

has a Student-t distribution with N-2 degrees of freedom.

The statistic λ_2 simplifies to

$$\lambda_2 = \sqrt{(1+K)^{N-2} f(r)}$$
 3.2.1.11

where

$$K = (m-1)/(n-1)$$
,
 $r = K A_X/A_Y$
 $f(r) = \frac{r^{n-1}}{(r+K)^{N-2}}$

The statistic r has an F-distribution with n-1 and m-1 degrees of freedom, and it is independent of F_1 under the null hypothesis [22]. But since $f(\cdot)$ is not monotonic, two thresholds must be determined in order to implement a test on this statistic. For a significance level s_2 , the thresholds T^1 and T^2 must satisfy

$$P(r < T' \text{ or } r > T''|H) = s_2$$
 3.2.1.12
 $f(T') = f(T'')$

Alternatively one could resort to the transformation in 3.2.1.6.

3.2.2 Unsupervised Cell Selection

"Cell selection" refers to the Level-1 test, which is used to detect cells that apparently overlap boundaries. Such cells frequently exhibit abnormally large sample variances. Thus a possible criterion for a cell is to

require that the sample variance in each spectral channel fall below some reasonable threshold. A similar approach is to form the ratio of the square root of the sample variance to the sample mean and compare it to a threshold (which we shall call "c"). This criterion has the advantage of being independent of the scale of the data.

A possible multivariate approach is to place an upper limit on the sample generalized variance, $|A_y/m|$, that any cell (Y) can have. This is equivalent to placing a lower limit on the value of the statistic max N(M,C;Y). But again we mention that the dimensionality problem seriously weakens the MV approach. It can cause very poor estimation of the generalized variance and increase the chance of a decision error.

3.3 Supervised Mode

In this section we develop a way to "supervise" the sequential partitioning process, using the known spectral class distributions. Our approach is based on the same composite hypothesis testing procedure as the unsupervised approach. The effect of the spectral class distributions is to greatly simplify each hypothesis, but paradoxically the resultant test criterion is much more complicated. Fortunately, much of the computation can be done "sequentially", i.e. relying on previous saved results.

3.3.1 Supervised Annexation

Let X and Y be samples from a field and an adjacent

cell as in Section 3.2.1. We follow the same development as in that section, except that for a supervised approach to partitioning we take Ω as:

$$\Omega = \{p(\underline{x}|V_i): i=1,2,\ldots,k\}$$

where k is the number of spectral classes. Note that this is a considerably more restrictive condition than before. The corresponding generalized likelihood ratio statistic is:

$$\Lambda = \frac{\max_{i} (p(X|V_{i}) p(Y|V_{i}))}{\max_{i,j} (p(X|V_{i}) p(Y|V_{j}))}$$
3.3.1.1

Note that this is a multivariate statistic without the constraint m > q that was necessary in the unsupervised mode. However the maxima in formula 3.3.1.1 cannot be expressed in a simple analytic form as in 3.2.1.1. They can only be obtained by exhaustive search. Furthermore, the distribution of 3.3.1.1 is unknown under either hypothesis, because it depends on the true classes of X and Y. But in return we gain a statistic which should be more "sensitive" to the presence or absence of a boundary. This should produce better performance and make the specification of a decision threshold less critical. In fact, the experimental results in Chapter 4 indicate that the threshold need not be a function of n, the current size of sample X, in order to obtain good results. Furthermore, the results tend to be fairly stable over several orders of magnitude of threshold variation. Thus we will find it convenient to represent the decision threshold as

$$T = 10^{-t}, t > 0$$

3.3.1.2

Unlike the unsupervised approach, a constant decision threshold of T=1 does not imply that the null hypothesis is always rejected. But it does lead to the same final result when the GML strategy is used to classify the objects. This is because A can exceed 1 only if X and Y would be classified the same by the GML rule anyway. Consequently, the only practical values of T are those between 0 and 1. Lacking any distribution theory to provide guidance in choosing a suitable threshold in this range, we shall rely instead on an empirical approach.

Calculation of the generalized likelihood ratio criterion can be greatly simplified by the following measures:

1. Change the denominator of Λ to $\max(p(X|V_i)p(Y|V_j))$. The only effect of this change is to cause the value of Λ to saturate at an upper limit of 1. It does not affect the value of Λ when $\Lambda < 1$. Since T is always less than 1, the change cannot affect any decisions. The simplification that it affords is that Λ can now be written as follows:

$$\Lambda = \frac{\max(p(X|V_i)p(Y|V_i))}{\max_{i} p(X|V_i))(\max_{i} p(Y|V_i))}$$

which is simpler to compute.

2. Compare $ln(\Lambda)$ to ln(T) instead of Λ to T.

 $\ln \Lambda = \max(\ln p(X|V_i) + \ln p(Y|V_i)) \qquad 3.3.1.3$ $-\max(\ln p(X|V_i)) - \max(\ln p(Y|V_i))$ i

Besides converting multiplications into (faster) additions, the quantity $\ln p(Y|V_i)$ can be efficiently computed by formula 2.3.4.6. The quantity $\ln p(X|V_i)$ can be obtained by other means, as we shall see.

3. Assume for the moment that the log-likelihood function of X is already available in a storage array G (say); i.e.

 $G(i) = In p(X|V_i), i=1,2,...,k$

and J is an integer such that $G(J) = \max_{i} G(i)$. Then compute the first term of $\ln(\Lambda)$ using an intermediate storage array, g(say), as follows:

 $g(i) = G(i) + \ln p(Y|V_i), i=1,2,...,k.$

and j is an integer such that $g(j) = \max_{i} g(i)$. So: $ln(\Lambda) = g(j) - C(J) - \max_{i} ln p(Y|V_i)$

If the indication is to merge Y and X, then the new log-likelihood function of the field is just the sum of the log-likelihood functions of X and Y. Therefore we can simply update G and J as follows:

$$G(i) = g(i), i=1,2,...,k$$
 $J = j$

and the preliminary assumption is justified. Thus we avoid using formula 2.3.4.6 to compute In p(X|V;).

When the point is reached that the field X stops expanding, it must be classified. This would normally require the sample mean vector and autocorrelation (or

covariance) matrix, which would have to be continually updated as cells are added to the field. Recall however that the GML strategy is

 $p(X|V(X)) = \max_{i} p(X|V_i) = \max_{i} \exp(G(i)) = \exp(G(J))$ Therefore $V(X) = V_J$, so no additional updating or computation is required to classify the field if the GML strategy is used.

3.3.2 Supervised Cell Selection

A useful statistic for cell selection is

$$Q_{j}(Y) = tr(\mathcal{C}_{j}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_{i} Y_{i}') - 2\underline{M}_{j}' \mathcal{C}_{j}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_{i} + \underline{m}\underline{M}_{j}' \mathcal{C}_{j}^{-1} \underline{M}_{j}$$

where j is such that

$$\ln p(Y|V_j) = \max_{i} \ln p(Y|V_i) = \max_{i} -.5(m \cdot \ln |2\pi C_i| + Q_i(Y))$$

The decision rule is to accept the hypothesis that Y is homogeneous if $Q_j(Y)$ < c, where c is a prespecified threshold. Otherwise the hypothesis is rejected. This criterion has the particular advantage that it tends to reject not only inhomogeneous cells, but "unrecognizable" cells as well. (Unrecognizable cells are those which represent spectral classes that the classifier has not been trained to recognize.) Another advantage of this criterion is that its use of the log-likelihood function makes it especially compatible with the supervised annexation criterion and the GML sample classifier.

As a final note, the distribution function $P(Q_{\frac{1}{2}}(Y) > c|Y \epsilon V_{\frac{1}{2}}) \text{ is chi-squared with mq degrees of freedom.}$

This can be used to provide initial guidance in choosing c.

3.3.3 Alternative Partitioning Logic

The logic of Figure 3.1.1.1 compares a cell to the north, west, and east-adjacent fields (if necessary) seeking a "match". If a match is found, the merge takes place immediately without regard to whether it is the "best" match or not. Another approach that is used is to compare the cell to all three fields at once (if that many distinct adjacent fields exist) and attempt to determine the best match. In the supervised mode a match is determined by comparing the likelihood ratio to a fixed threshold, so a reasonable definition for the best one is the field for which this ratio is largest. Normally the east-adjacent field would not exist at the time the other two comparisons are made, so its likelihood ratio is supplied by "looking ahead"; i.e. the east-adjacent cell is compared to its north-adjacent field and if they match, the current cell is compared to their union to obtain the likelihood ratio.

This approach has not been used in the unsupervised mode, mainly because of the difficulty of determining the best match. A logical approach would be to choose the field for which the null hypothesis is "least rejectable"; e.g choose the field which maximizes the minimum significance level at which the null hypothesis would not be rejected. In other words, if λ_{ij} represents the observed value of λ_i for the jth field, then the field is chosen for which

min P($\lambda_i < \lambda_{ij}$ |H) is maximum. The difficulty in actually i=1,2

doing this is that the complete distribution function of λ_i would be required. Generally it is available for only a few isolated significance levels.

CHAPTER 4

CLASSIFICATION RESULTS

Experimental results obtained in the investigation of multispectral image partitioning techniques are presented in this chapter. Several different data sets of markedly different characteristics are classified by these techniques. In many respects they represent a cross-section of MSS data. Both low altitude aircraft data and 930 km high LANDSAT-1 data are included. The ground resolution varies from 4.6m to 30m, and the size of physical objects varies from just a few pixels to thousands of pixels. Data representation is 8 bits for aircraft data and 6 bits for LANDSAT. Spectral resolution varies from 0.02 to 2.40 micrometers, while the number of spectral channels The actual number of available varies from 12 to 4. channels used for analysis varies between 3 and 6. The number of spectral classes representing ground cover types varies from 5 to 17, and the number of informational classes varies from 5 to 11.

The results are grouped by data set rather than by analysis technique to facilitate the comparison of different analyses of a given data set. In order to provide a quantitative measure of comparison, only data sets are used for

Which a substantial number of "test areas" are available. By comparing the results of a given analysis on a point-by-point basis with the desired result in each test area, one can obtain an estimate of the accuracy (or inaccuracy) of the analysis. The larger and more numerous these test areas, the better this estimate will be. Thus one analysis technique is regarded as being better than another if it tends to achieve fewer misclassifications in the test areas.

Relative error rate is an important measure of a classification scheme, but it is not the only consideration. Obviously speed is a desirable attribute. Although CPU times are compared in this chapter, it is important to remember that efficient coding has a lot to do with speed, and no claim is made that the research programs used here are optimized. A less tangible consideration is the amount of effort and experience required to use a particular The schemes considered in this analysis scheme. designed with simplicity in mind, investigation were requiring a minimum of user input. The results in this chapter will help to assess the degree of experience needed to provide this input, and they provide a data base of experience from which to draw.

4.1 Analysis Schemes

Within the framework of Chapter 3, an analysis scheme is specified by choosing:

 A Level-1 option and associated parameters (threshold and cell size)

- A Level-2 option and associated parameter(s) (significance levels or threshold)
- 3. A sample classifier option.

It would be a hopeless, and probably pointless, task to try to investigate all the possible combinations of these three options. Instead the less logical combinations were arbitrarily eliminated in order to concentrate more effort on evaluation of the remaining ones. Consequently only wholly unsupervised and wholly supervised methods are used for the partitioning phase of processing. (No "hybrid" combinations of Level-1 and Level-2 options are considered.) Thus partitioning is done in either the unsupervised or supervised "mode". Furthermore, in the unsupervised mode, no hybrids of MV and MUV tests are used to test first and second order statistics at Level-2. At Level-1, only the MUV ratio test (described in Section 3.2.2) is used in the unsupervised mode. Although the Behrens-Fischer test requires only one significance level to be specified by the user, it tests only first order statistics, provides unattractively few degrees of freedom, and requires a substantial amount of computation. Consequently it was eliminated as an option. Due to the advantages (enumerated in Chapter 2) of maximum likelihood sample classification over minimum distance classifiers, it was the logical choice for the classifier option. The results of this chapter are based on the ML strategy. When subclasses are necessary the generalized ML strategy is actually used, although it is

refered to simply as a ML classifier.

After all the above simplifications, we basically are left with four schemes to evaluate and compare:

- unsupervised MUV partitioning and ML sample classification
- unsupervised MV partitioning and ML sample classification
- 3. supervised partitioning and ML sample classification
- 4. conventional ML no-memory classification.

Furthermore the cell size for the first three schemes was eliminated as a variable by fixing it at a constant 2x2 pixels, which is the minimum size that can be used in the unsupervised mode of partitioning. This choice appears to provide a reasonable compromise between speed and resolution for MSS data.

A common element of all four schemes is the process of "training". This is the process by which each main class is modeled statistically with the aid of data vectors (patterns) known to belong to that class. If the training data for a class exhibits a multimodal structure, then it is usually divided into two or more subclasses, each corresponding to a mode. This serves two purposes. (1) It enables each subclass to be modeled approximately by a MVN distribution which is completely characterized by a mean vector and covariance matrix. These can be estimated easily from the data vectors assigned to that subclass. (2) Data from a single physical object is usually reasonably unimodal and symmetrical in distribution. Often, those objects which

which are unimodal. Although multimodal training data may be representative of a particular main class as a whole, it is not representative of the individual objects which compose that class. Since it is the individual objects that must be dealt with, the definition of unimodal subclasses is a logical step to take. In other words, $p(x|W_1)$ (eqn. 2.3.2.1) cannot be expressed in terms of $p(\underline{x}|W_1)$ (eqn. 2.1.2). Each component (mode) of $p(\underline{x}|W_1)$ must be known.

The training and test data for a given scene compose a set of labeled observations which we shall refer to as "reference data". There are many possible methods of using a finite amount of reference data to train a classifier and estimate its error rate. Theoretically the best training (i.e. the lowest error rate) is obtained by using all the available reference data for training. If the same data is used for testing, this is called the "C-method". Theoretical and experimental results indicate that, for the Bayes classifier at least, the C-method produces an optimistic (negatively biased) estimate of the error rate; but the bias and variance of the estimate decrease roughly as the reciprocal of the number of observations used [18]. In contrast, the "U-method" requires test data to be independent of training data. The most common procedure (called "sample partitioning") is to use a relatively small proportion (p) of the reference data for training and the remainder for testing. In this case the error estimate is

unbiased and its variance decreases as the reciprocal of the number of test data; but the actual error rate tends to be larger than with the C-method, and its variance is p^{-2} times larger than the error variance by the C-method.

The interpretation of results is usually somewhat easier for the C-method, because the question of whether or not the training is "representative" of the test data does not arise. For comparative purposes our interest is in relative (rather than absolute) performance, so the bias induced by the C-method tends to cancel out. There is no reason to believe that the bias would be significantly greater for one scheme than for the others.

On the other hand the U-method is routinely used in conventional analysis work where absolute performance is emphasized. Effective representation is obtained in most Cases by using a fairly large training data set that consists of observations drawn from the same general regions as the test data. For some of the data sets used in our investigation, reasonably good training statistics are available from previous conventional analyses. By using available training we obtain results with minimum effort, and the results relate directly to those obtained by conventional methods.

For those data sets where previous training is unavailable or inadequate, neither the C-method nor the U-method is used. Instead, the available test areas are sampled at an interval sufficient to provide a reasonably

large training set. Like the C-method this method is simple, it produces representative training, and it eliminates human bias in selecting the training set. It also induces considerably less bias into the error estimate than the C-method does. Of course, once the training set is obtained, feature selection and subclass definition may have to be done before training is complete. An example of this process is described in the next section.

4.2 Run 71052800 - Crop Identification

MSS data collected over a particular region at a particular time and stored on digital magnetic tape is catalogued by "run" number. Run 71052800 is a set of 12 channel data collected over flightline 221 in Indiana on August 12, 1971 during the 1971 Corn Blight Watch Experiment [25]. The correspondence between channel numbers and spectral bands is indicated in Figure 4.2.1. Channels 1-7 cover the visible portion of the spectrum, 8-11 lie in the reflective IR portion, and 12 is a thermal IR sensor. It is evident from the figure that there is a considerable amount of redundancy in the coverage of the visible spectrum. In other words, the data in channels 1-7 will tend to be strongly correlated, causing the information in these channels to be rather redundant, at least more so than in the IR channels.

The area covered by this run is a rectangular strip of agricultural land about 1.6 km wide and 13.8 km long. It is

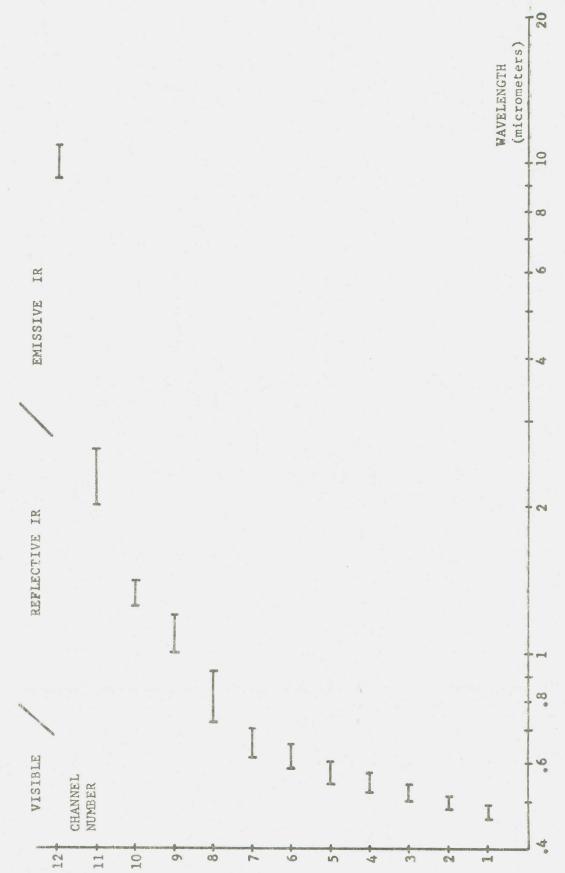


Figure 4.2.1 Correspondence Between Channel Number and Spectral Band for Aircraft Scanner

sampled 222 times along its width and 1374 times along its length. The scanner was carried by aircraft at an altitude of 1524m with an instantaneous field-of-view of three milliradians.

This data set was chosen for analysis for several reasons. (1) A large number of test areas, containing 84,855 pixels, were available from a previous crop identification study [25]. (2) The complexity of the classification is high, providing an opportunity to see how well the new techniques perform in such a situation. (3) The data set contains a combination of some very challenging classes and intermediate classes, as well as some easy classes to identify. The 11 main classes are: corn, soy, wheat (mostly harvested), rye, hay, lespedeza (a grass), pasture, wooded pasture, forest, idle fields, and non-farm. The latter two categories tend to be "catch-all" types which are characteristically difficult to identify by conventional methods. The reason for this will be discussed later.

No previous training statistics were available for this data set, so training data was obtained by sampling the test areas as per Section 4.1. The resultant ratio of the amount of test data to the amount of training data is approximately 5:1. The LARS system (LARSYS) STATISTICS processor [26] was used to compute the statistics of each main class, and SEPARABILITY [26] was used to compute transformed divergence values for every pairwise combination of main classes and every combination of 6 channels. The purpose of this is

"feature selection"; i.e. due to high correlation between channels, it is usually possible to find a subset of the available channels that discriminates between the main classes almost as well as the complete set. Typically only 3 or 4 of the 12 available channels are used to analyze aircraft scanner data, resulting in a large time savings. For the present study, on the basis of the transformed divergence results, the best set of 6 channels is (2,4,10,11,12) plus either channel 8 or channel 9. (Recalling the discussion of Figure 4.2.1, this result is not surprising.) Channel 8 maximizes the <u>average</u> transformed divergence (averaged over all class pairs), and channel 9 maximizes the minimum transformed divergence for any pair of classes. The difference between the two is slight, so channel 8 was selected arbitrarily. Based on histograms of the training data it was decided to subdivide some of the training classes. The LARSYS CLUSTER processor 1261 was used to cluster these classes into 2 or 3 modes and SEPARABILITY was used to determine the divergence between modes. Histograms, cluster quotients, and divergence values were examined to determine if the modes of each class were distinct, and if two modes were not distinct, they were recombined (pooled) into a single mode. The final result is 2 subclasses each for corn, soybeans, lespedeza, and idle, 3 subclasses of pasture, and only 1 "subclass" for each of the remaining classes, a total of 17 spectral classes. The LARSYS MERGESTATISTICS processor was used to merge them into

a single LARSYS statistics deck. Expecting to further reduce the number of channels needed, SEPARABILITY was again applied. It was found that although most class pairs can be distinguished on the basis of some set of 4 or fewer channels, there is no one set of 4 channels which can adequately do this for all class pairs. Thus it was decided to do 6-channel classification. This ended the training phase of the analysis.

Next the data set was classified by a number of different schemes. The LARSYS CLASSIFYPOINTS processor |26| was used to perform ML no-memory classification. The LARSYS SAMPLECLASSIFY processor |26| was used to perform minimum distance (Bhattacharyya) sample classification of the test areas. In the latter case the processor is essentially given a-priori knowledge of the boundaries. Maximum likelihood sample classification of the test areas was accomplished by modifying the SAMPLECLASSIFY software. To avoid confusion this processor will be referred to as "SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML)", and the minimum distance version will be referred to as "SAMPLECLASSIFY (MD)".

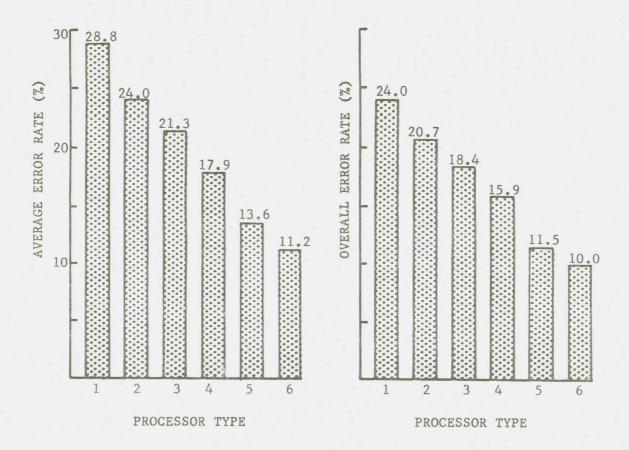
Unsupervised, MUV partitioning and supervised partitioning schemes were implemented using LARSYS-compatible processors that were developed specifically for this investigation. The unsupervised, MV version cannot be used for this data set, because it requires that the number of channels be less than the cell size, which is not the case. The results of all these

analyses are presented in the remainder of this section.

Figure 4.2.2 shows classification performances achieved by the various processors indicated above. Note that processor #2 is equivalent to cell selection without annexation. Thus comparing the results of #2 with the results of #1 (CLASSIFYPOINTS) gives a good indication of the effectiveness of Level-1 alone. And comparing the results of #2 with the results of #3 and #4 indicates the effectiveness of just the annexation (Level-2) phase of processing.

Also note that processor #5 should give about the same results as if the entire partitioning phase were done flawlessly. Thus one can think of the results of #5 as a performance "goal". This goal, however, is not a strict bound (more on this later).

Both "average" and "overall" error rates are shown in Figure 4.2.2. The former is just a straight average (over all classes) of the observed class-conditional error rates. The latter is a weighted average, where the error rate of each class is weighted by the proportion of test data in that class. These proportions are given in Table 4.2.1. Assuming that these proportions coincide roughly with the actual porportions of the classes in the data set, then the overall error rate can be taken as an estimate of the unconditional probability of error.



Processor Key:

- **#1 CLASSIFYPOINTS**
- #2 Supervised Partitioning, t=0
- #3 Optimum Unsupervised Partitioning
- #4 Optimum Supervised Partitioning
- #5 SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML)
- #6 SAMPLECLASSIFY (MD)

Figure 4.2.2 Classification Performance vs. Processing Scheme
- Run 71052800

Table 4.2.1 Relative Influence of Each Class on Overall Performance - Run 71052800

Class	Percentage of Total Test Pixels
Corn	43.1
Soy	22.4
Wheat	17.6
Idle	4.9
Non-Farm	4.3
Lespedeza	3.0
Pasture	1.6
Hay	1.5
Wooded Pasture	0.8
Rye	0.5
Forest	0.4

The class-conditional error rates are given in Figure 4.2.3. The results are grouped by class for easy comparison. Several observations are worthy of mention at this point.

Observation 1

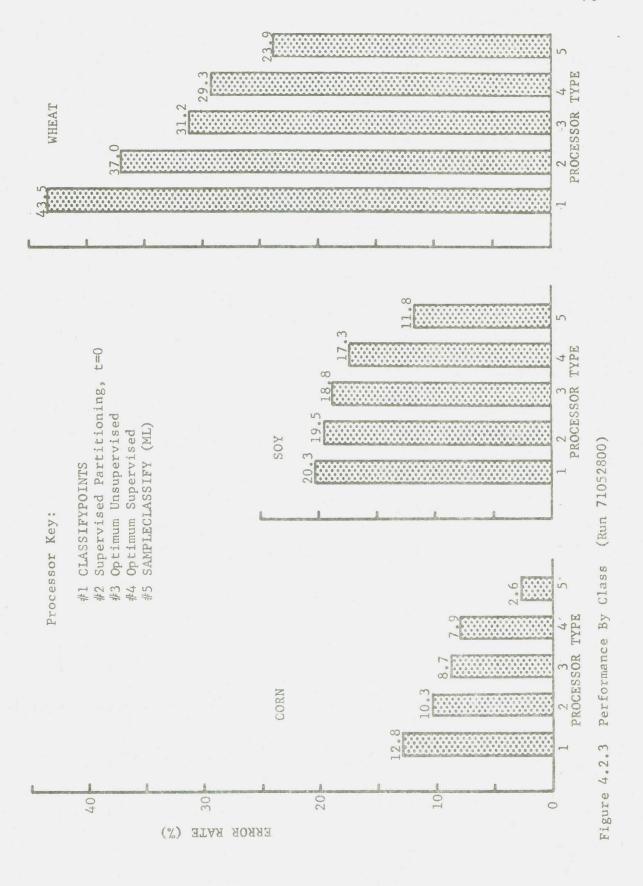
Both the unsupervised and supervised modes are effective at reducing the error rate. As expected, the supervised mode has a fairly consistent advantage. It performed better for 8 of the 11 classes, and its average and overall error rates are lower. The actual reduction in error rate due to the supervised mode is 10.9% (average) and 8.1% (overall).

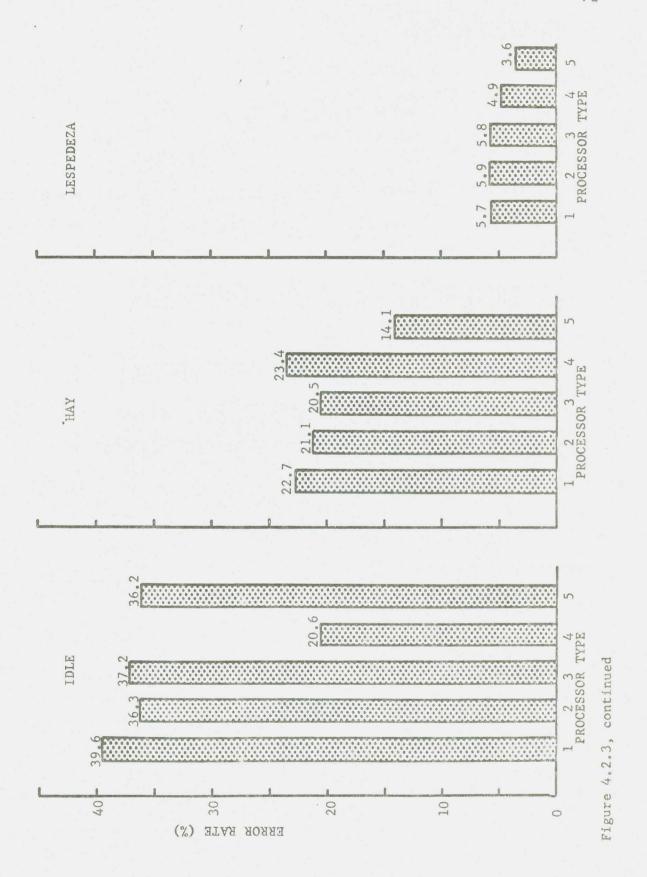
Observation 2

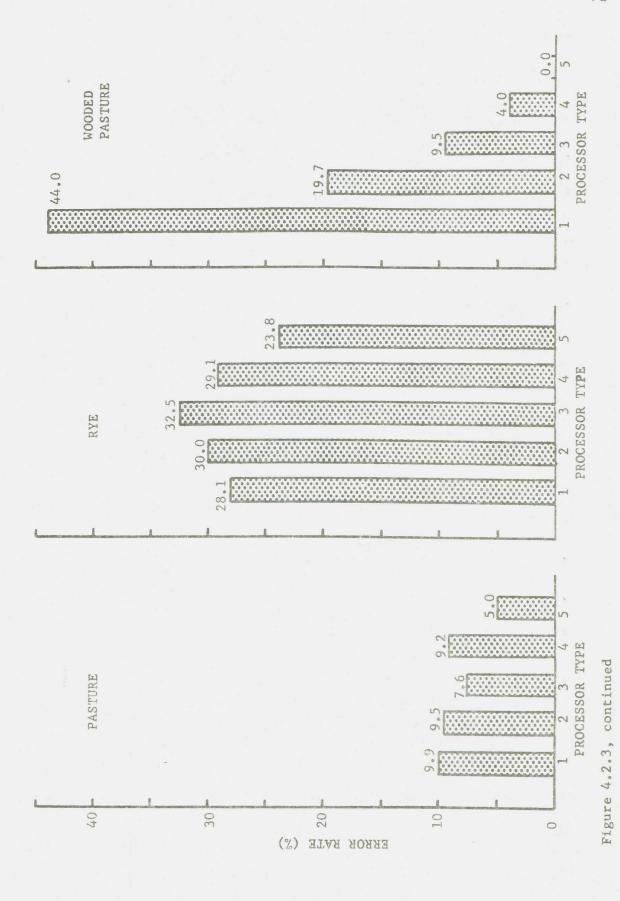
As one would expect, the relative effectiveness of the ECHO approach is highly class dependent. The effect varies from slight degradation for some classes to vast improvement for others.

Observation 3

The classes where the greatest gains are made are wheat, wooded pasture, idle, and non-farm. It has already been observed that the latter two are "catch-all" categories which are typically difficult to identify using CLASSIFYPOINTS. The reason for this is that such classes tend to have relatively broad probability density functions which overlap with those of other classes but at a lower likelihood level. Recalling the case of Figure 2.3.3.1, the







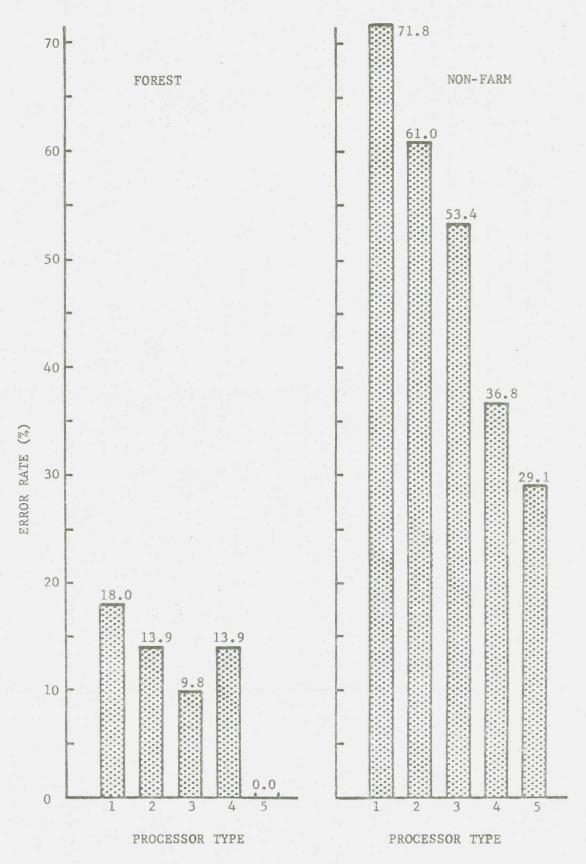


Figure 4.2.3, continued

conditional error rate for the "broad" distribution is 50%, while the conditional error rate for the "narrow" distribution is just 17.4%. If other classes overlap the "tails" of the broad distribution, then this discrepancy becomes even greater. But when a sample of data from the broad distribution is made available for classification, it usually consists of a mixture of values both near and far from the mean. This makes it possible for the classifier to determine the correct classification of the sample.

The wooded pasture class also has a relatively broad distribution due to its composition and spatial texture. Note that this does not necessarily imply that wooded pasture is statistically inhomogeneous or bimodal. We refer to it as a "compound" class. (See Appendix C.) In this particular case it might at first appear that the method of using test areas to evaluate performance is biased in favor of sample classifiers. In other words, the large error rate observed for CLASSIFYPOINTS may be due to the assignment of many test points to the classes forest and pasture, which may actually be accurate labels for those particular pixels. This arguement is invalid on several counts. First of all, the number of test points classified as forest or pasture accounts for only 12 of the 44 percent error rate. The reduction in error rate brought about by supervised partitioning is 40 percent, or 3.3 times as great as the maximum possible error attributable to this cause.

Secondly, whenever CLASSIFYPOINTS classifies an area in a "salt and pepper" manner, the information is highly unreliable. If the area actually were that way, Premise A (Section 1.2) would be violated. Thirdly, even if valid point-by-point classification were possible, most analysts are not interested in the actual classification of each individual pixel. Instead their goal is to produce a "type map" which consists of a partition of the region with a general label assigned to each element of the partition. An element containing a mixture of trees and pasture for example would be labeled "wooded pasture".

These points are illustrated in Figures 4.2.4, 4.2.5, and 4.2.6. Figure 4.2.4 shows a section of Run 71052800 (lines 101-300) that has been classified by CLASSIFYPOINTS. Each class has been assigned a gray level and displayed electronically to form the image. The "classification noise" is readily apparent. In contrast to this, Figure 4.2.5 shows the same section as classified by ECHO (supervised). The random errors have, for the most part, been eliminated. This map is much closer to the desired result than is the CLASSIFYPOINTS output. Figure 4.2.6 shows the centers of these two maps in greater detail. Each class is represented by an assigned symbol (or blank), and each symbol represents one pixel. The four rectangular areas are test areas designated as wooded pasture. This class is displayed as a blank space to emphasize the



Figure 4.2.4 Gray-Scale-Coded Classification Map
- Produced by CLASSIFYPOINTS

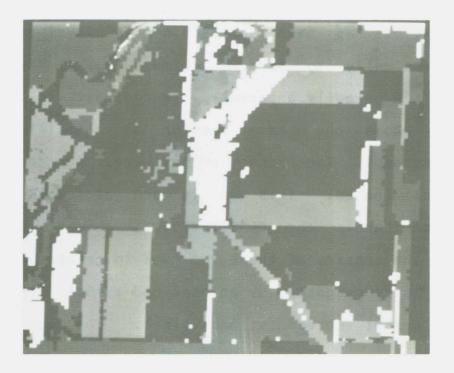
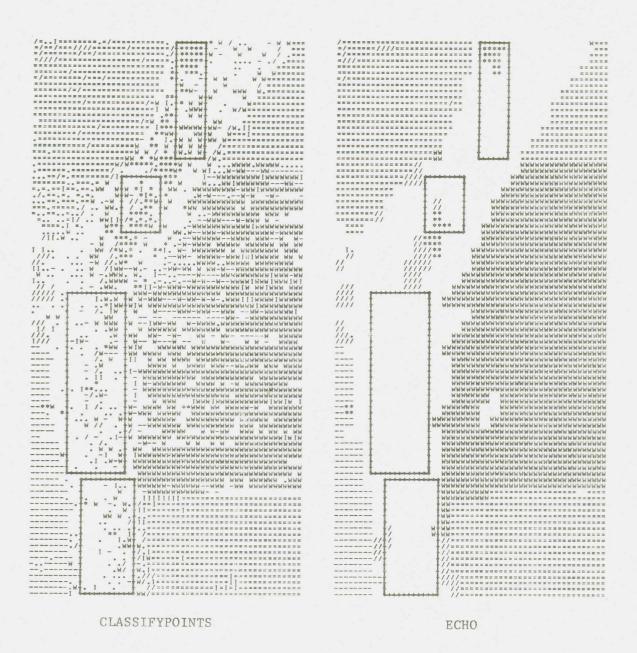


Figure 4.2.5 Gray-Scale-Coded Classification Map
- Produced by ECHO



SYMBOL	CLASS	SYMBOL	CLASS
W.	Wheat	I	Idle
202	Lespedeza	*	Forest
- blank	Pasture Wooded Pasture	,	Corn, Soy, Rye, Hay Non-Farm

Figure 4.2.6 Logogrammatic Classification Maps

contrast between it and the others. The diversity of symbols in the test areas testifies to the inadequacy of CLASSIFYPOINTS for classifying such textured regions. Most of this confusion is avoided by the ECHO technique.

The wheat class too has a broad distribution, probably due to the fact that the wheat is mostly harvested. Whatever the cause, it adds further support to the arguement that classes with broad distributions tend to benefit the most by sample classification. To clarify this point further, the classification improvement is plotted in Figure 4.2.7 vs. the common logarithm of the generalized variance. In the case of a class with subclasses the average generalized variance is used. For this data, the correlation between these quantities is 0.81.

Of course a broad distribution does not necessarily imply that partitioning and sample classification; will produce dramatic improvements over CLASSIFYPOINTS. For example, another class may have about the same distribution, in which case no classification scheme can reliably distinguish between them. Or the class may be so unlike any other class that CLASSIFYPOINTS leaves no room for improvement. Also the broad distribution may be caused by inadequate training (i.e. not representative), in which case accurate classification may be impossible until the training is corrected. Obviously the mechanisms which affect classification performance in a multidimensional,

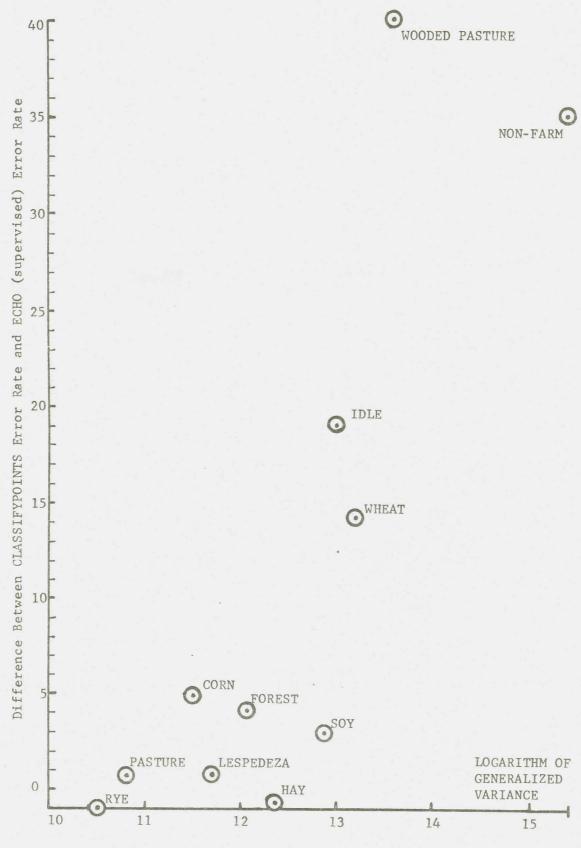


Figure 4.2.7 Class Improvement vs. Log-Generalized Variance

multiclass, multi-subclass situation are very complex.

Observation 3 provides only limited insight into the overall process.

Observation 4

The supervised ECHO results for class idle actually surpass the performance "goal" set by processor #5. A conceivable explanation for this is that idle test areas may actually consist of several physical objects containing different subclasses of idle. Since the ECHO processor can classify such objects separately, it can actually provide an advantage over SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML) which must classify each test area as a whole.

Observation 5

As expected, processor #2 (Level-1 partitioning) can provide a fairly significant degree of improvement on its own. Again the effect is strongly class dependent. The effect would probably be much greater if not for the correlation that exists between adjacent pixels.

The main parameter that is required for the supervised mode is the annexation threshold, t. Figure 4.2.8 shows how the average error varies for seven values of t. Of these, the optimum value is t=5, although all values tried gave significantly better performance than CLASSIFYPOINTS. The Level-1 threshold, being of much lesser importance, was not varied in this study. It was previously established at c= 90 by processing a small subregion of the data set several

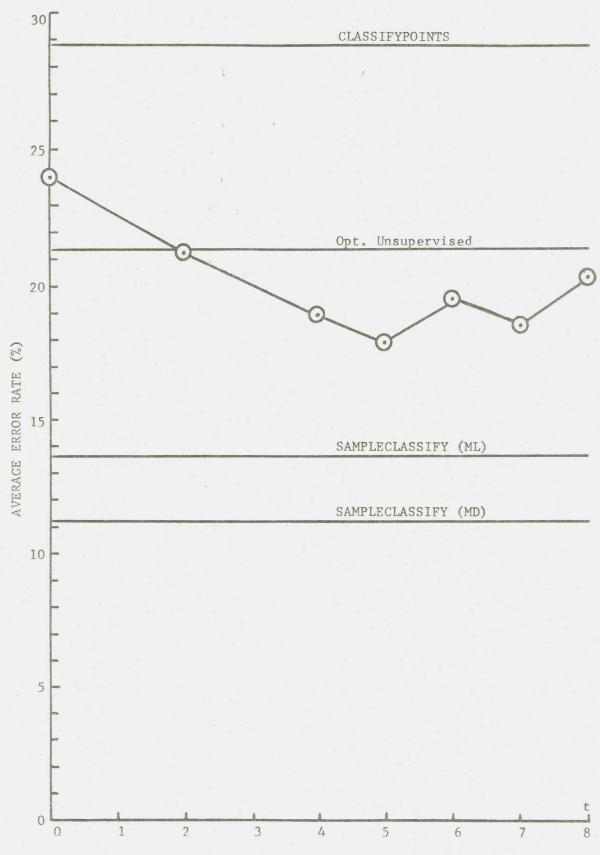


Figure 4.2.8 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Average Performance - Run 71052800

times while varying c. This value provides a sufficiently low rejection rate that the occurrence of singular cells is limited mainly to patterns resembling boundary lines (as desired). Thus the classification results are not necessarily optimized with respect to c, but they are believed to be near that optimum.

Figure 4.2.9 shows the behavior of the overall error vs. t. It is very similar to the average error except that the results are shifted downward due to the heavy influence of the corn class. Its minimum also occurs at t=5.

The analogous results for the unsupervised mode cannot be presented as easily because the performance is a function of two variables, the significance levels. For the same reason, the optimum performance cannot be determined as easily. Tables 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 give average and overall error rates for eight different combinations of significance levels. The Level-1 threshold was maintained at a constant c=0.25. Cells found to be singular at this level were classified as small samples rather than as individual pixels; i.e. "cell-splitting" was not in effect. The best results occur at about $s_2 = .005$ or .001 and $s_1 = .001$. Possibly a lower value of s_1 would produce better results, but this is beyond the capability of the current processor.

Figure 4.2.10 shows how the processors compare with regard to both error rate and CPU time. In terms of time, the unsupervised mode is the fastest by far because it performs

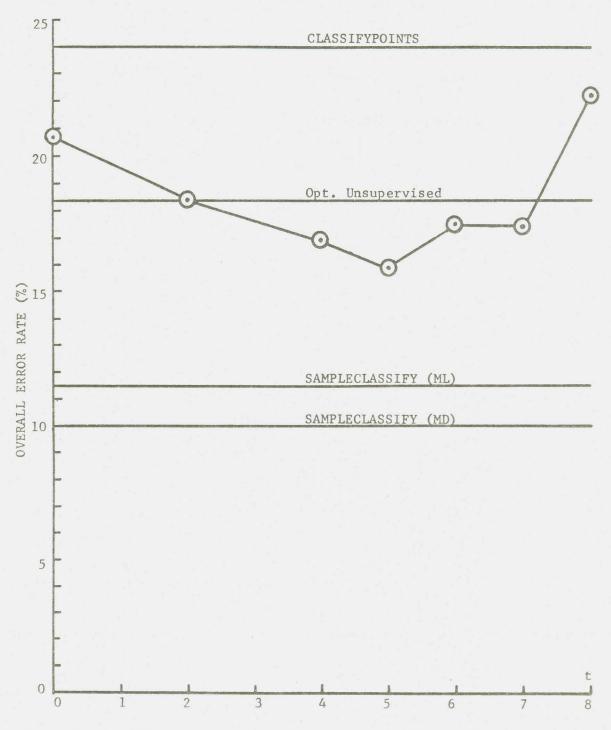


Figure 4.2.9 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Overall Performance - Run 71052800

Table 4.2.2 Matrix of Average Error Rates (%) for Eight Combinations of Significance Levels - Run 71052800

s ₂ s ₁	.001	. 005	.025	.100
.000		24.6	24.3	
.001	21.0	23.4		
.005	21.3	21.9		23.9
.025		21.8		

Table 4.2.3 Matrix of Overall Error Rates (%) for Eight Combinations of Significance Levels - Run 71052800

52	.001	.005	.025	.100
.000		20.1	20.1	
.001	18.7	19.7		-
. 005	18.4	19.3		20.4
.025	The control of the co	19.5		



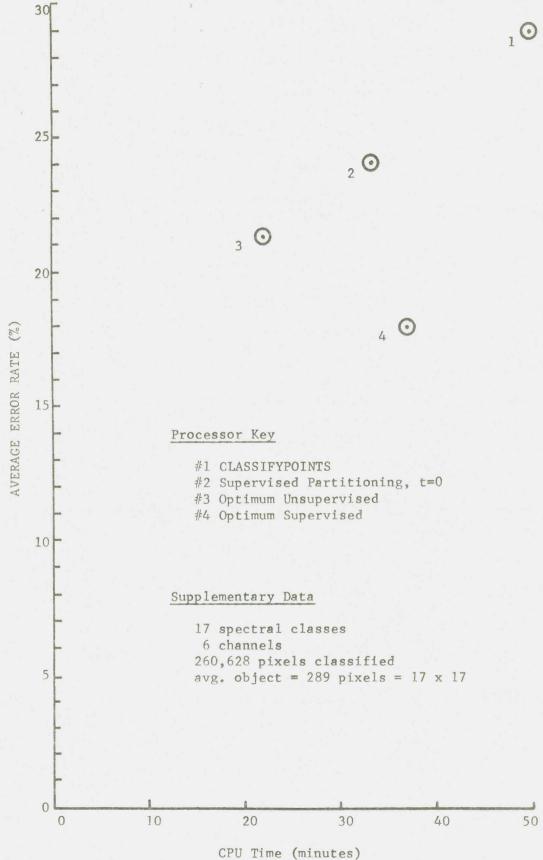


Figure 4.2.10 Error Rate and CPU Time for Four Classification Schemes - Run 71052800

because it performs the most. The supervised mode is in between and provides the lowest error rate.

One of the factors influencing CPU time is the size (in pixels) of an average object, since the larger the objects the greater the number of pixels that can be classified at one time. A rough indication of this factor is obtained by dividing the number of test areas into the total number of test pixels. As indicated on Figure 4.2.10, for this data set an average test area (object) is equivalent to a square, 17 pixels wide.

4.3 Run 72064412 - Classification Of Satellite Data

Three LANDSAT passes over a region in Indiana on different dates were combined to produce this data set. Only data from the first date, August 25,1972, is used for analysis in this study. Four spectral channels are available on LANDSAT-1. The spectral bands are indicated in Figure 4.3.1. The instantaneous field of view for the three visible band channels is 86 microradians. The region covered by the data set is a rectangle 45.1 km wide and 53.1 km long. It is sampled 804 times along its width and 673 times lengthwise, for a total of 541,092 pixels. A 21.4 km by 43.5 km subregion (containing 210,100 pixels) was analyzed. This region was previously the subject of a study of strip mine activity (unpublished). The analyst provided both training statistics and test areas.* Briefly, the

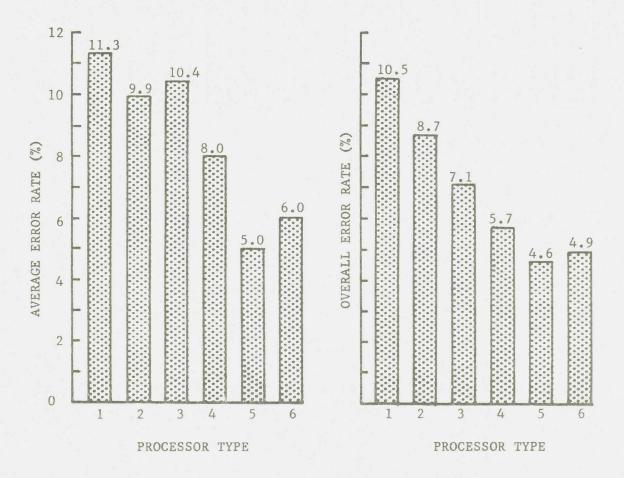
^{*} Courtesy of John Berkebile, LARS.



Figure 4.3.1 Correspondence Between Channel Number and Spectral Band for LANDSAT-1 Scanner

method of training was to perform both a manual analysis of designated training areas, using maps and aerial photography, and an unsupervised clustering analysis of the MSS data corresponding to each training area. The manual analysis was used to associate each cluster class with an informational class, and the statistics of the cluster classes became the training statistics. Training and test areas have no pixels in common. The number of test pixels is 9512, a fairly large number for a LANDSAT analysis. The main classes are agriculture, forest, recent-mine, pit (containing various grades of water), revegetated mine, residential, and clouds. The numbers of subclasses are 3,2,4,2,1,1, and 1 respectively, a total of 14. Test areas were supplied only for the first 5 of 7 main classes. All 4 channels are used in the analysis.

Figure 4.3.2 shows the average and overall error rates of the various processors. The weights for overall error are listed in Table 4.3.1. The class-conditional error rates are given in Figure 4.3.3. As for Run 71052800, the number of channels used is too large to permit unsupervised, MV processing. On the whole, the results appear quite similar to those of Run 71052800, in spite of the considerable differences between the two runs. Both the average and overall error rates are significantly reduced by the ECMO techniques, with the supervised mode providing a consistent advantage over the unsupervised mode.



Processor Key:

- **#1 CLASSIFYPOINTS**
- #2 Supervised Partitioning, t=0
- #3 Optimum Unsupervised Partitioning
- #4 Optimum Supervised Partitioning
- #5 SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML)
- #6 SAMPLECLASSIFY (MD)

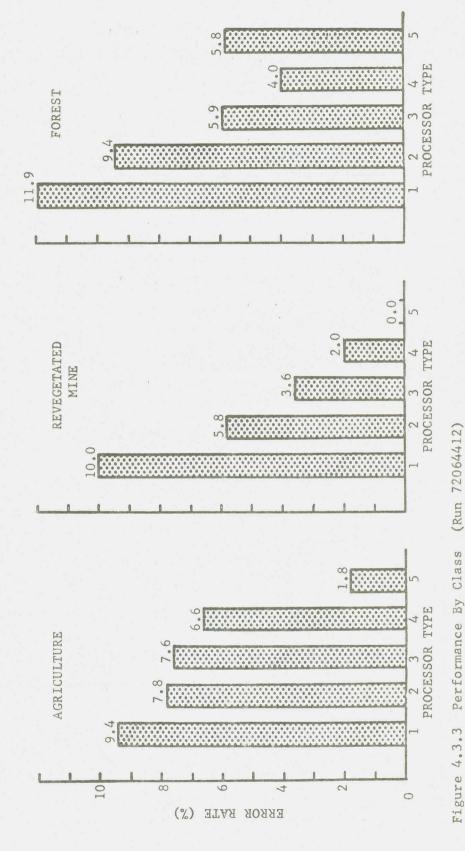
Figure 4.3.2 Classification Performance vs. Processing Scheme
- Run 72064412

Table 4.3.1 Relative Influence of Each Class on Overall Performance - Run 72064412

Class	Percentage of Total Test Pixels
Forest	42.1
Agriculture	24.6
Recent Mine	19.1
Revegetated Mine	11.0
Pit	3.2







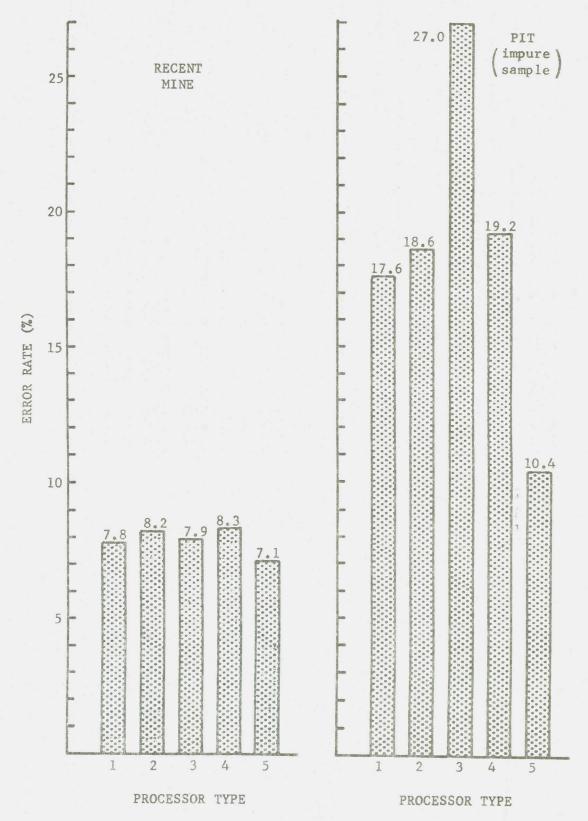


Figure 4.3.3, continued

The behavior of the pit class is misleading and requires further discussion. Normally water is one of the easiest classes to identify using CLASSIFYPOINTS, yet the 17.6% error rate is by far the highest of any class. Therefore it is apparent that something is wrong with either the original training statistics or test areas. As it turns out, Premise "A" (Section 1.2) has been violated, and this has caused the pit test areas to contain many pixels that overlap both pit and mine or revegetated mine classes. Consequently the pit class results are not truely indicative of performance, but they are included here for the sake of completeness. This accounts for the relatively high average error rate of the unsupervised mode, which is still lower than the average CLASSIFYPOINTS error rate. With the exception of this class, it can again be said that no class is significantly degraded, while some are greatly improved.

The recent-mine class is another that bears comment. Notice that processor #5 performs only slightly better than CLASSIFYPOINTS. Consequently one cannot expect partitioning to improve the accuracy, since the classifier seems unable to use the information effectively. The root of the problem is that about half of the test areas in this class are actually labeled "partially revegetated mine", and some of these appear as revegetated mine to the sample classifier. Apparently these categories are spectrally too similar to distinguish reliably even on a sample basis. Confusion of

this sort is also the source of almost all the recent-mine misclassifications that CLASSIFYPOINTS makes, so there is very little other type of error for the sample classifier to correct.

The performance of the supervised mode is again plotted for seven values of the annexation threshold, t (Figures 4.3.4 and 4.3.5). Again the optimum value is t=5. Notice that the overall error approaches both SAMPLECLASSIFY results quite closely. For this study the Level-1 threshold was held at a constant c= 55. This choice reflects the lower number of channels and higher incidence of singular cells as compared to the aircraft data.

The effect of c was briefly investigated when for t= 4, the values c= 55 and c= 80 were compared. The higher value causes slight improvements in the agriculture and forest classes and slight declines in the others. The overall error rate is unchanged however. The effects are not large enough to be of any serious concern here.

The performance of the unsupervised mode is given in Tables 4.3.2 and 4.3.3 for seven different combinations of significance levels. Of these, the best combination is s_2 = .001 and s_1 = .005. The Level-1 threshold was maintained between 0.20 and 0.25, and cell-splitting was not in effect. For comparison, the data was also processed with cell-splitting in effect using the "optimum" s_1 and s_2 above. The pit class performance improved to about the same level as the

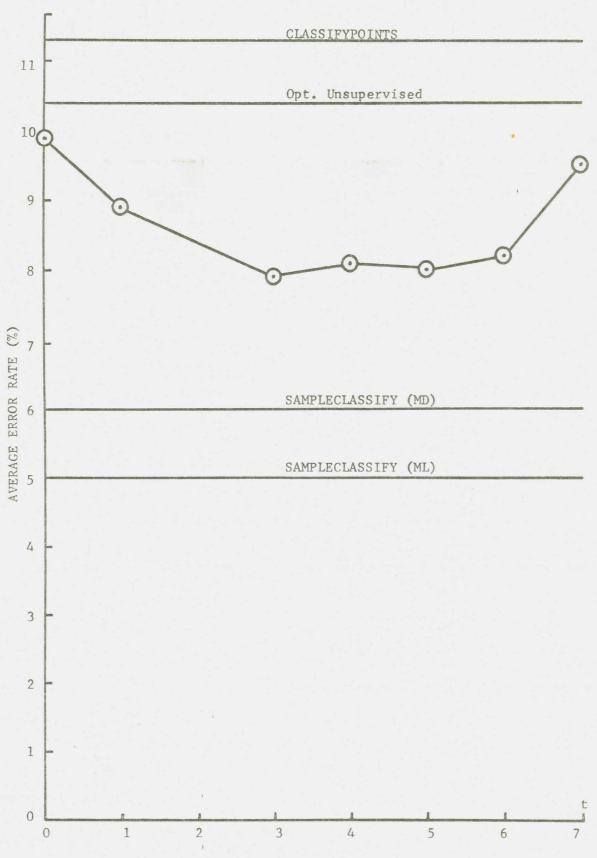


Figure 4.3.4 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Average Performance - Run 72064412

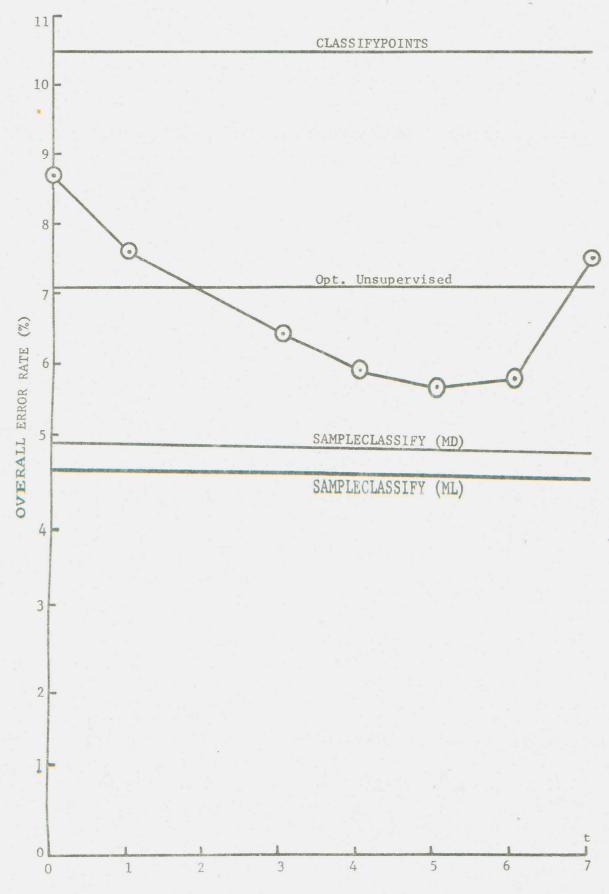


Figure 4.3.5 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Overall Performance - Run 72064412

Table 4.3.2 Matrix of Average Error Rates (%) for Seven Combinations of Significance Levels
- Run 72064412

s ₂	.001	.005	.025	.100
.000	13.1	11.8		
.001	12.0	10.4	10.9	11.8
.005		11.1		

Table 4.3.3 Matrix of Overall Error Rates (%) for Seven Combinations of Significance Levels - Run 72064412

s ₂ s ₁	.001	.005	.025	.100
.000	12.3	9.5		
.001	9.5	7.1	7.9	8.9
.005		8.0		

other processors, but this is overshadowed by degraded performance in the other classes. In contrast to this, a non cell-splitting version of the <u>supervised</u> mode was tried with t= 4 and c= 55, and the class-by-class performance was <u>uniformly</u> worse than with the cell-splitting version. This might imply that the supervised Level-1 test is more effective than the unsupervised Level-1 test or simply that a better Level-1 threshold exists (for the unsupervised test) than the one used here. The evidence is inconclusive on this minor point.

Figure 4.3.6 shows how the processors compare with regard to both overall error rate and CPU time. As before, the unsupervised mode is fastest, and the supervised mode is most accurate. Due to the greatly reduced number of pixels per physical object compared to aircraft data, the difference in speed for the three processors is much less significant.

4.4 Run 71052501 - Forest Cover Mapping

Corn Blight Watch Experiment flightline 218 is a 1.6 x 16.1 km strip of land in southwestern Indiana. In contrast to the relatively flat flightline 221, it is on a "maturely dissected, westward sloping plateau characterized by abundant stream valleys and a well-integrated drainage system." "Most of the land area is in slope, with flat, narrow ridge tops and steep valley walls." [27] Consequently row crops (corn and soybeans) are in the

minority compared to forage crops. About 60% of the land is covered by hardwood forest with a few, small stands of white pine. MSS data was collected over this region on the same date and by the same means as Run 71052800 and labeled 71052501. The region was sampled 1605 times lengthwise and 222 times across its width. In contrast to 71052800, a sun angle correction transformation was applied to the data. This data set was previously the subject of a forest cover mapping study [27], and the analyst's training statistics and test areas are used in the present investigation. Six main classes are considered: deciduous forest, coniferous forest, water, forage, corn, and soy. A composite class (forest and forage) was deleted by the analyst, who recognized the inability of CLASSIFYPOINTS to handle such data adequately. Our previous results on wooded pasture indicate that this would have been unnecessary if ECHO techniques had been available to him. In contrast to the previously described analyses, the training is as simple as possible, involving no clustering or subclasses. The available reference data (53,516 pixels) was simply divided into non-overlapping test and training areas at a ratio of about 13:1. Based on the transformed divergences, the best set of 3 channels is (6,10,12), which is used in the present investigation.

Figure 4.4.1 shows the average and overall performances of the various processors. The weights for overall

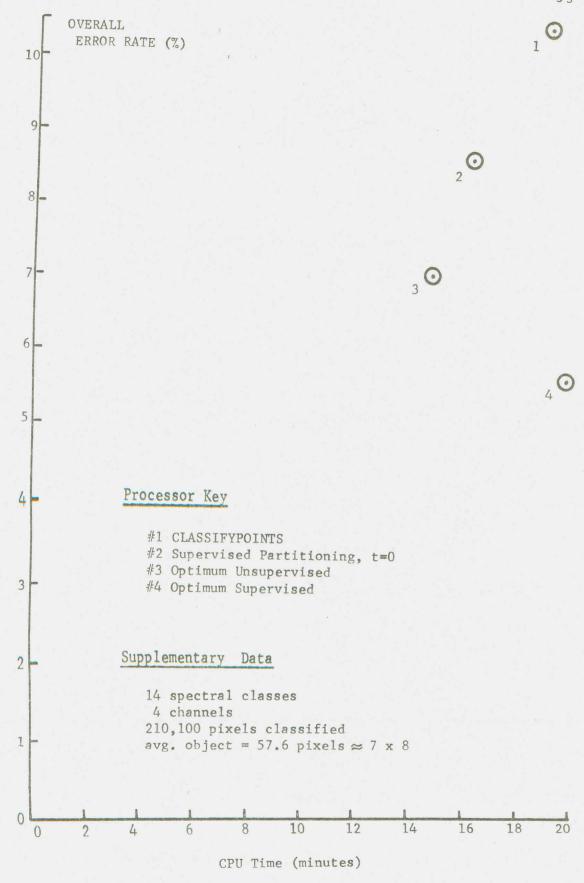
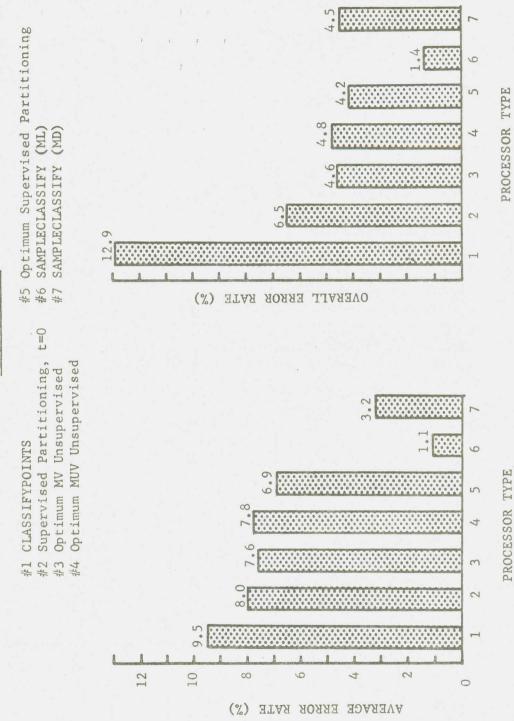


Figure 4.3.6 Error Rate and CPU Time for Four Classification Schemes - Run 72064412

PROCESSOR KEY



Run 71052501 Classification Performance vs. Processing Scheme Figure 4.4.1

performance are given in Table 4.4.1. The original analyst has indicated that these are in roughly the same proportion as the actual occurrence of the classes in the data set. Thus the overall error rates are estimates of the actual probabilities of error. The class-conditional error rates are shown in Figure 4.4.2. Several observations can be made:

Observation 1

Again the average and overall error rates are significantly reduced by the ECHO techniques, with the supervised mode providing the greatest advantage.

Observation 2

This is the only data set analyzed to which the MV version of the unsupervised mode (processor #3) is applicable for the number of channels deemed necessary. Its performance can be described as erratic. It performed much better than CLASSIFYPOINTS for the deciduous class and much better than all processors (except SAMPLECLASSIFY) for the forage class. However it had an especially difficult time distinguishing between soybeans and corn.

Observation 3

With the exception of the coniferous class, the supervised mode (processor #5) again equaled or greatly improved upon the performance of CLASSIFYPOINTS. And the unsupervised, MUV mode did almost as well. In regard to the "apparently" poor coniferous performance, there are

Table 4.4.1 Relative Influence of Each Class on Overall Performance - Run 71052501

Class	Percentage of Total Test Points
Deciduous Forest	64.8
Forage	23.6
Corn	5.4
Soy	5.4
Water	0.7
Coniferous Forest	0.2

Table 4.4.2 Classes Ordered By Generalized Variance

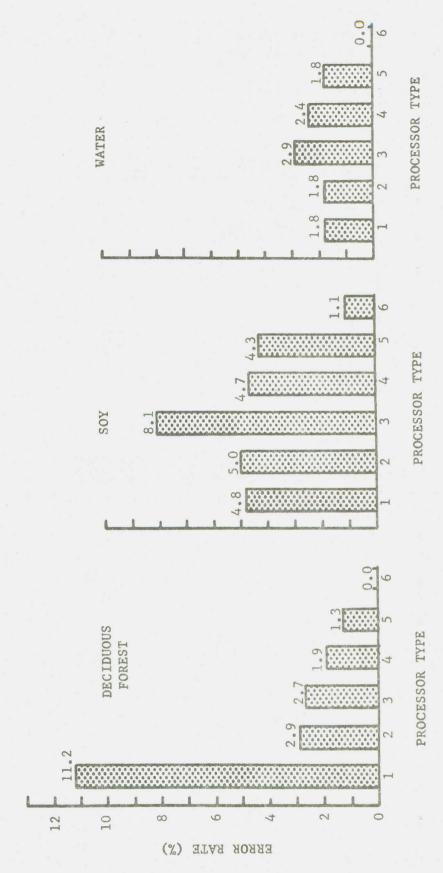
Class	Common Logarithm of Generalized Variance	Improvement Over CLASSIFYPOINTS
Forage	8.02	+9.7 %
Deciduous Forest	6.06	+9.9 %
Water	6.01	0 %
Soy	5.78	+0.5 %
Corn	5.01	+0.3 %
Coniferous Forest	4.33	-4.6 %

PROCESSOR KEY

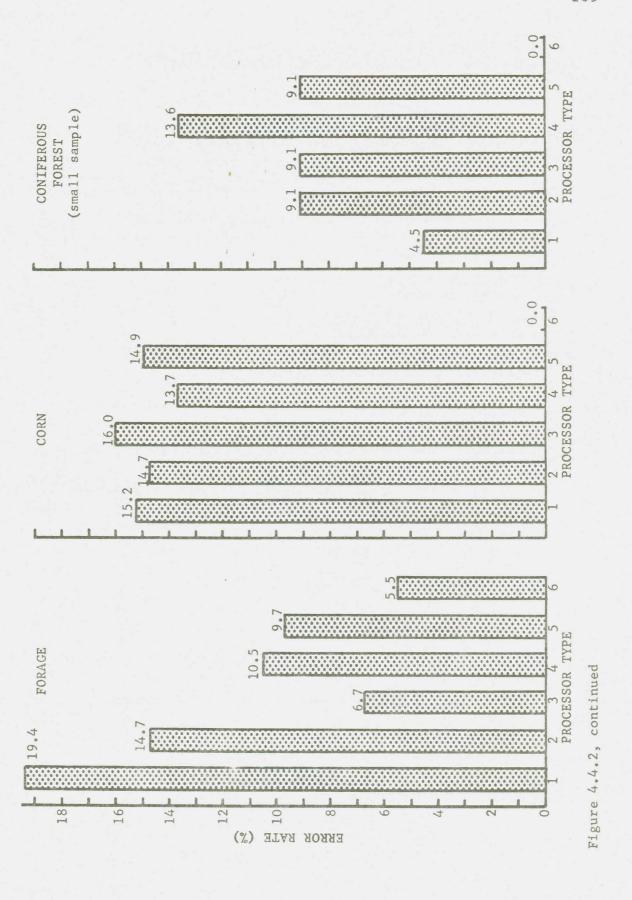
Supervised Partitioning, t=0 CLASSIFYPOINTS ###

Optimum MV Unsupervised

#4 Optimum MUV Unsupervised #5 Optimum Supervised #6 SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML)



(Run 71052501) Figure 4.4.2 Performance By Class



extenuating circumstances to consider. It has already been mentioned that only a few <u>small</u> stands of white pine are known of in the entire data set. The original analyst used most of these pixels to ensure good training statistics, leaving only four areas, averaging only 22 pixels (or 5 1/2 cells) each, for testing purposes. With such an extremely small sample, a difference of 4.6% is entirely insignificant. It represents the misclassification of only 1 cell. Thus the coniferous results are included here only for completeness. No conclusion can be drawn from them.

Observation 4

The classes which benefit the most by the new techniques are deciduous forest and forage. Once again these are the classes with the largest generalized variances, as can be seen from Table 4.4.2. The correlation coefficient for this data is .81, which is coincidentally the same as for Figure 4.2.7.

The performance of the supervised mode is plotted for five values of the annexation threshold, t (Figures 4.4.3 and 4.4.4). The optimum performance occurs at the value t= 4. At this value, the overall error rate is reduced from 12.9 percent to just 4.2 percent. For this study the Level-1 threshold was held at c= 60, so again the results are not necessarily optimized with respect to c.

The performances of the unsupervised modes are given in Tables 4.4.3 through 4.4.6 for various combinations of

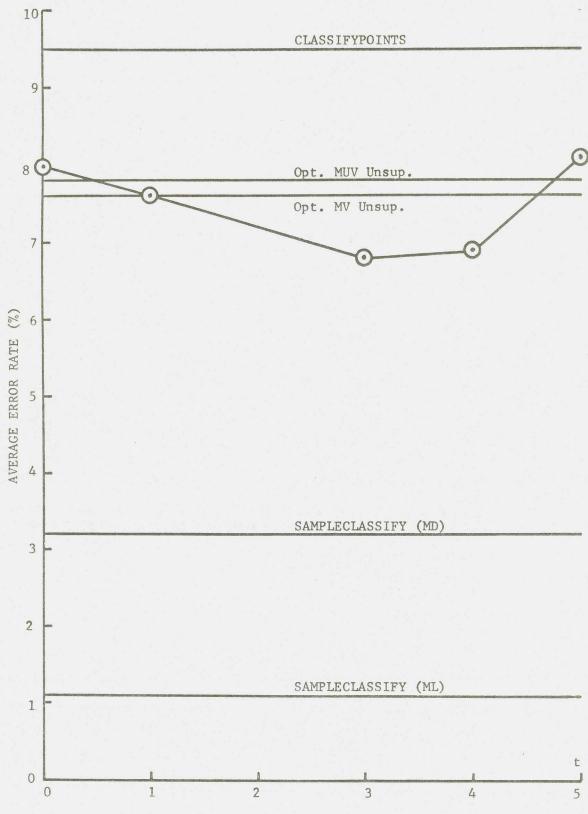


Figure 4.4.3 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Average Performance - Run 71052501

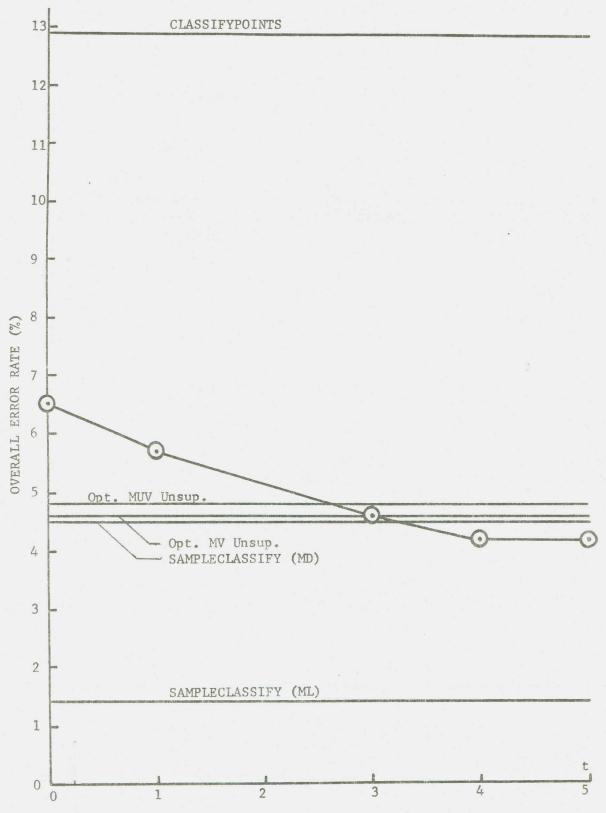


Figure 4.4.4 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Overall Performance - Run 71052501

Table 4.4.3 Matrix of Average Error Rates (%) for Four Combinations of Significance Levels (MV mode)
- Run 71052501

s ₂ s ₁	.025	.050	.100
.000	11.3	9.2	11.6
.001	14.1	7.6*	

Table 4.4.4 Matrix of Overall Error Rates (%) for Four Combinations of Significance Levels (MV mode)
- Run 71052501

s ₂ s ₁	.025	.050	.100
.000	5.6	4.7 4.6*	5.9
.001	6.0		

^{*} result of "cell-splitting"

Table 4.4.5 Matrix of Average Error Rates (%) for Six
Combinations of Significance Levels (MUV mode)
- Run 71052501

s ₂ s ₁	.005	.025	.100
.000	24.8	9.6	8.4 7.8*
.001	11.4	9.1	
.005	-	9.3	

Table 4.4.6 Matrix of Overall Error Rates (%) for Six Combinations of Significance Levels - Run 71052501

s ₂ s ₁	.005	.025	.100
.000	7.3	4.5	4.8 4.8*
.001	6.5	4.9	
.005		5.4	

^{*} result of "cell-splitting"

Level-1 threshold of 0.45. This unusually large value is a reflection of the narrow autocorrelation functions of the forest class (Appendix A). Cell splitting was found to reduce the average error rate some, but it has little or no effect on the overall error rate. The best results for the MUV version occur at about $s_2=0$ and $s_1=.100$, while the MV version is best at $s_2=0$ and $s_1=.050$.

Figure 4.4.5 shows how the processors compare with regard to both overall error rate and CPU time. The small number of classes and channels has reduced the time required to do a single classification to such a low point that a processor's speed depends on considerations other than the number of classifications that it must perform. Thus the speed advantage of the unsupervised modes has disappeared.

4.5 RUN 72032803 - Classification of Satellite Data

This LAMDSAT-1 data set covers a 66.3 km long by 111 km wide region in Illinois on August 9, 1972. The region was sampled 837 times lengthwise and 1920 times along its width. The subregion analyzed is 40.3 km by 46.3 km and contains 406,400 pixels. This area was chosen because it contains a large set of reference data (15,067 pixels), corresponding to actual surface observations [28]. The 5 main classes are corn, soy, other-agriculture (including alfalfa, grass, oats, pasture, and wheat), woods, and town. Training data was obtained by sampling the test areas as indicated in

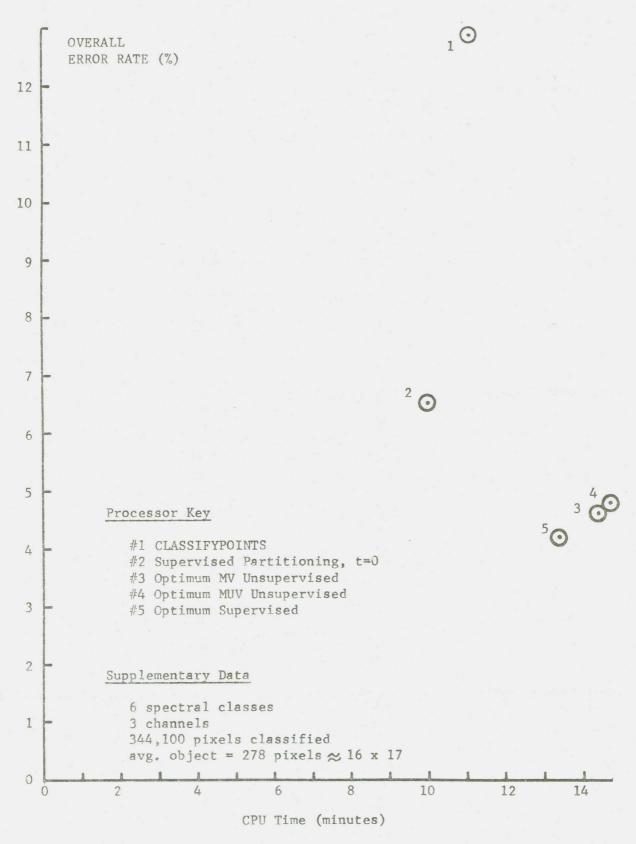


Figure 4.4.5 Error Rate and CPU Times for Five Classification Schemes
- Run 71052501

Section 4.1. The resultant ratio of test data to training data is about 5:1. Examination of the training data indicated that no subclasses were needed. All four channels were used in the analysis, because the separability of the classes is fairly low.

Figure 4.5.1 shows the average and overall performances achieved by the various classification schemes. The weights for overall error are given in Table 4.5.1. The class-conditional error rates appear in Figure 4.5.2. Several observations are worthy of mention:

Observation 1

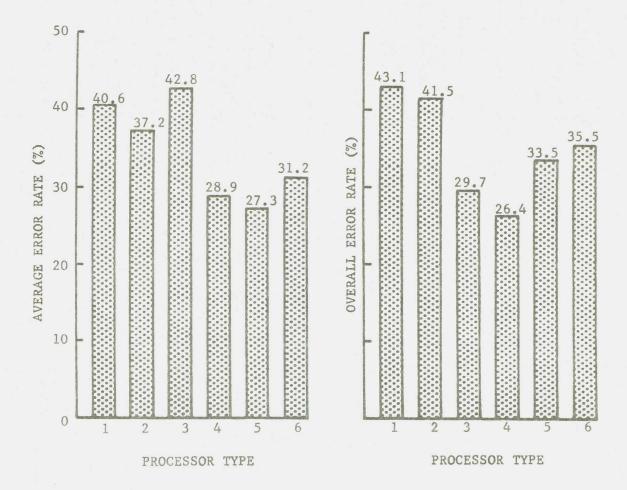
Once again supervised ECHO greatly reduced the average and overall error rates and performed as well or much better than CLASSIFYPOINTS on every class. On three of the five classes, both the supervised and unsupervised modes out-performed even SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML).

Observation 2

The unsupervised mode did very well in terms of overall error rate, but its average error rate is slightly greater than that of CLASSIFYPOINTS due to unusually poor performance in the "woods" class. The reason for this behavior is unknown, but it suggests that the unsupervised mode tends to be less stable than the supervised mode.

Observation 3

This is the only data set in which a "town" class has been included. We would anticipate a fairly broad



Processor Key

- #1 CLASSIFYPOINTS
- #2 Supervised Partitioning, t=0
- #3 Optimum Unsupervised Partitioning
- #4 Optimum Supervised Partitioning
- #5 SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML)
- #6 SAMPLECLASSIFY (MD)

Figure 4.5.1 Classification Performance vs. Processing Scheme - Run 72032803

Table 4.5.1 Relative Influence of Each Class on Overall Performance - Run 72032803

Class	Percentage of Total Test Pixels
Corn	67.1
Soy	18.8
Other-Ag.	10.2
Town	2.9
Woods	0.9

Table 4.5.2 Classes Ordered According to Generalized Variance - Run 72032803

Class	Common Logarithm of Generalized Variance	Improvement (sup. mode) Over CLASSIFYPOINTS
Other-Ag.	4.38	+ 14.0
Town	3.63	+ 21.7
Soy	3.50	+ 1.6
Corn	2.61	+ 21.3
Woods	2.27	0.0

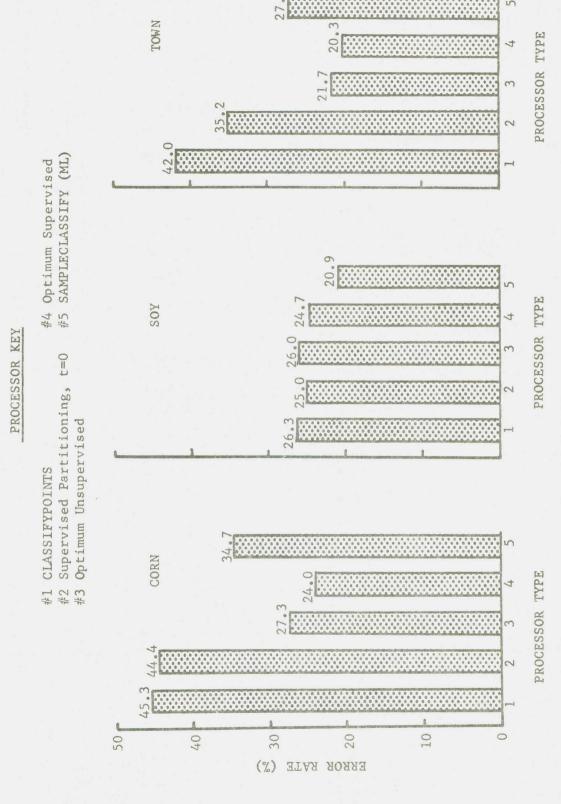


Figure 4.5.2 Performance By Class (Run 72032803)

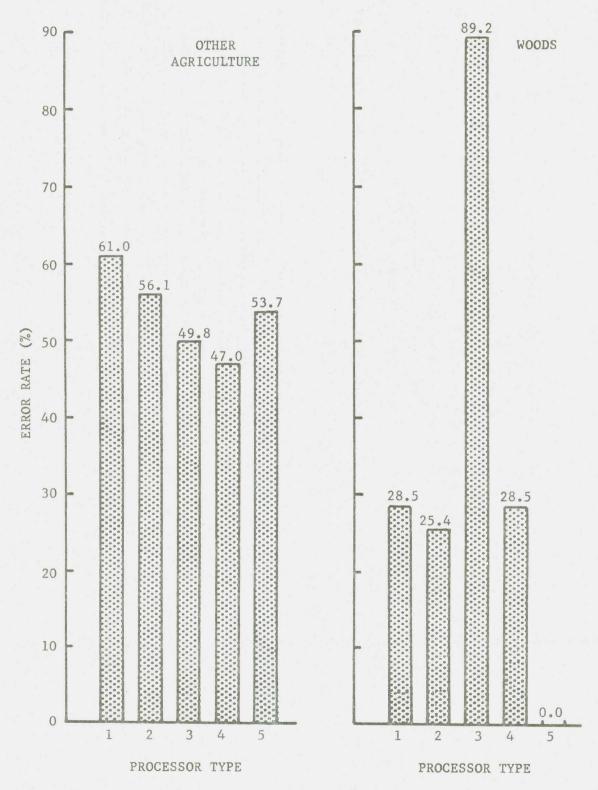


Figure 4.5.2, continued

large improvement in classification accuracy by the ECHO technique. The results bear this out. Table 4.5.2 shows that the town class ranks second in terms of generalized variance and first in terms of classification improvement. But unlike the aircraft data sets, the overall correlation between these quantities is fairly low.

The performance of the supervised mode is plotted vs. t in Figures 4.5.3 and 4.5.4. The best results occur at t=3 and t=4. The Level-1 threshold was held constant at c=50 for this study, and cell-splitting was not used. The effect of c was briefly investigated for t=3 by trying the values c=30 and c=80. Only class "other" was significantly affected. For c=30 its error rate increased 5.4% and for c=80 it increased just 0.3%. Thus performance again appears to be guite stable with respect to c.

Table 4.5.3 shows the average and overall error rates of the unsupervised mode for seven combinations of parameter values. Cell splitting was not used. The best performance occurs for s_2 =0, s_1 =.005 and c=.25 or .20. c=.25 produces the lowest overall error, and c=.20 produces the lowest average error. The value .25 was finally judged as "best" for this data for two reasons. (1) The value .20 produces an excessive number of singular cells. The value .25 produces a pattern of singular cells more closely resembling boundaries, as desired. (2) The high average error rate for

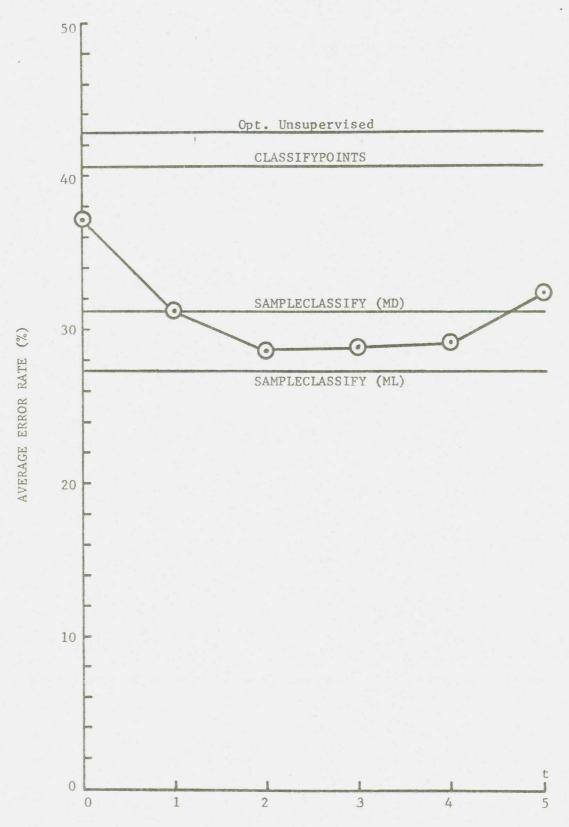


Figure 4.5.3 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Average Performance - Run 72032803

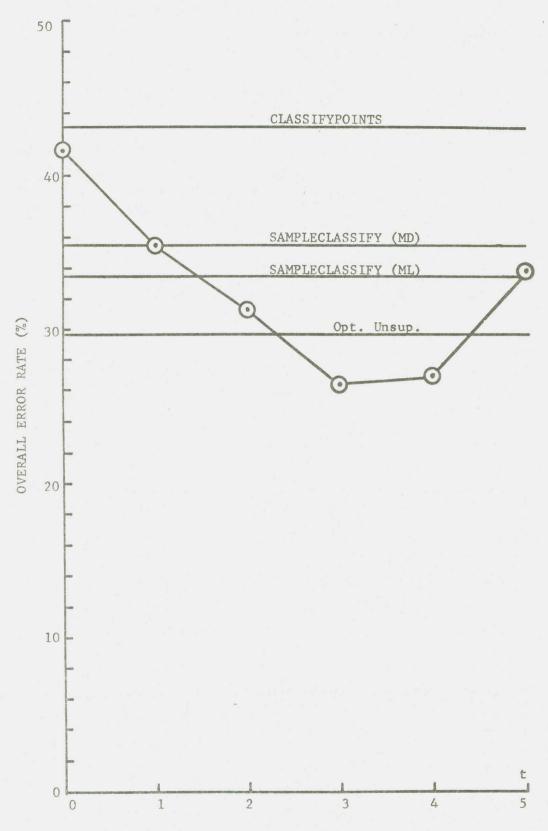


Figure 4.5.4 Effect of Annexation Threshold (t) on Overall Performance - Run 72032803

Table 4.5.3 Effect of Parameters on Performance (unsupervised mode)

s ₂	C	s ₁	Avg. Error	Overall Error
.001	.25	.005	40.3%	38.8%
0	.25	.001	36.2	35.5
0	. 25	.005	42.8	29.7
0	.25	.025	41.7	36.1
0	.20	.001	42.5	32.3
0	.20	.005	35.2	32.1
- 0	.15	.005	38.9	35.2

c=.25 is due solely to the behavior of the minority class "woods". (All the other classes are at their optimum performances for this value.) This behavior is believed to be an anomalous effect attributable mainly to the small amount of test data available for woods (.9%). This belief is supported by the unusual observation that for s_1 =.025, .005, and .001, the error rates for this class are 56.9%, 89.2%, and 48.5% respectively. A similar effect also occurred in the supervised mode. For t=2, 3, 4, and 5, the error rates are 14.6%, 28.5%, 31.5%, and 9.2% respectively.

Figure 4.5.5 compares the overall error and CPU times of the various processors. In this case the partitioning schemes require more CPU time than the non-partitioning schemes. This can be attributed to the low number of spectral classes combined with a small number of pixels per physical object.

We also note that processor #2 performed only one-fourth as many actual classifications as #1 (since the cell size was 4), and yet they required the same CPU time. The same effect occurred on Run 71052501. This indicates a significant margin for improvement of the efficiency (speed) of the supervised mode. The cause of the inefficiency is that the ECHO processors are coded in FORTRAN, whereas the classification subroutine in CLASSIFYPOINTS is coded in assembler language for optimum efficiency.

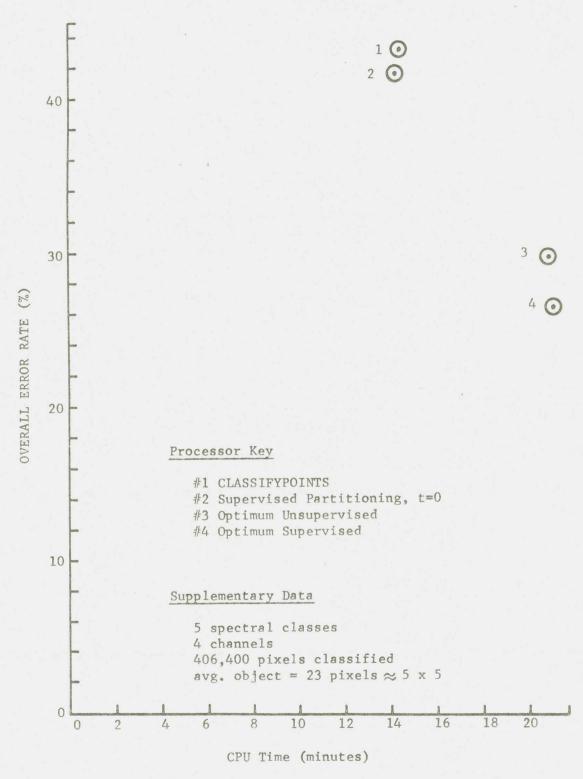


Figure 4.5.5 Error Rate and CPU Time for Four Classification Schemes - Run 72032803

4.6 General Observations

Having studied four significantly different data sets, it is now possible to make some general observations. Strictly speaking, our observations (and therefore our conclusions) apply only to these data sets. But due to the consistency of the results, it is reasonable to expect other data sets to exhibit similar behavior as long as they are reasonably similar to these. This assumes, of course, that representative training data is available and that training is done in accordance with the assumptions of the model.

Observation 1

First of all it is apparent that the new techniques are effective for a wide range of variables including classification parameters (number of classes, subclasses, channels, etc.) and data parameters (spatial, spectral, and measurement resolution and spatial correlation).

Observation 2

Equally important is the stability of the performance with respect to the processor's input parameters. For the supervised mode the performance is very stable. The main input parameter is the annexation threshold, t. On all four data sets all values tried gave better performance than CLASSIFYPOINTS. Furthermore the value t=4 gave optimal, or near optimal, performance in every case. There is some evidence to suggest that as the number of channels increases, so does the optimum value of t.

For the unsupervised MUV mode the main input parameters are the significance levels s_1 and s_2 , in that order. The results seem to be fairly stable with respect to them, but their optimum values tend to be elusive. For the four data sets the optimum value of s_1 varies among .001, .005, and .100. s_2 is usually effective at around .001 or 0. Presently there is no way to predict the optimum combination, which means that in order to use this mode one will generally have to settle for suboptimal results. In most cases however, the results are still somewhat better than CLASSIFYPOINTS.

A secondary parameter is the cell selection threshold c. A suitable value can generally be obtained by processing a small subregion of the data set with different thresholds until one is found which produces a pattern of singular cells that resembles object boundaries (as opposed to random noise). In the unsupervised mode c=.25 most frequently produced this effect, but when spatial correlation was low, a larger value was needed. In the supervised mode, c depends on the number of channels, q. As a rule of thumb, c= 15q appears to be a reasonable empirical guideline (at least for $3 \leqslant q \leqslant 6$). But a larger value (c= 20q) was required when the spatial correlation was low.

Observation 3

Another type of stability is the sensitivity of the processor to the particular characteristics of a class. For

example, CLASSIFYPOINTS is sensitive to the variance of the class pdf. It tends to become "unstable" when a class with a relatively broad distribution is encountered. Since a single pixel contains no information about the variance of its class, CLASSIFYPOINTS is better suited for distinguishing classes that differ in mean rather than in variance.

The partitioning schemes, on the other hand, use both the mean and variance of the data in an object in order to classify it. Consequently they tend to be much more stable in this respect. But in return they should be somewhat sensitive to the typical size of the objects of a particular class. One would expect them to become unstable as the size of the objects approaches the cell size. Some evidence of this was detected (e.g. pit class), but the problem was avoided for the most part by choosing a relatively small cell width (2 pixels). If the object size approaches this value, then Premise A is violated and CLASSIFYPOINTS also becomes unstable, as observed for the pit class.

Observation 4

The main advantage of the unsupervised mode appears to be speed when classification time, as opposed to partitioning time, is the limiting factor. In other words, when the classification is relatively complex, involving many spectral classes and many channels, one can save a significant amount of time by extracting and classifying

objects rather than classifying on a point-by-point basis. This is particularly true when the number of classes is large, because the time required for unsupervised partitioning is independent of the number of classes. The largest number of spectral classes considered in this investigation is 17, for which the unsupervised mode required less than half the time that CLASSIFYPOINTS required. It is not uncommon to see analysts using many more than this, a trend attributable to the increasing size of areas classified (encompassing more classes) and to the increasing use of unsupervised clustering techniques for subclass definition.

It seems advisable at this point to inject a word of caution against the use of clustering beyond that which is necessary to achieve reasonably unimodal training classes. "Creating" more subclasses reduces the number of pixels available per subclass for training. Thus the chance that each subclass is representative of an actual spectral class in the data set is reduced. Also the narrow distributions that result cause the classifier performance to be more sensitive to non-stationary class statistics over a large area. Finally, as the number of subclasses increases, the effective size of the objects in the scene decreases, thus reducing the potential advantage of a sample classifier.

Observation 5

The MV version of the unsupervised mode is not generally

applicable to all situations because of the relation between cell size and number of channels. In one case in which it was applicable it performed erratically, but its overall performance was as good as the MUV version. Although cases probably exist for which the MV version provides a significant advantage over the MUV version, none have yet been encountered.

Observation 6

The supervised mode consistently provided the lowest average and overall error rates (excluding SAMPLECLASSIFY), and for complex classifications it is more efficient than CLASSIFYPOINTS. (This is in spite of the fact that it is programmed considerably less efficiently than CLASSIFYPOINTS.) For the four data sets studied, the average reduction in class-average and overall error rates from the rates provided by CLASSIFYPOINTS is 7.1% and 9.6% respectively. For comparison, the corresponding values for SAMPLECLASSIFY (ML) are 10.8% and 9.9%. For SAMPLECLASSIFY (MD) they are 9.7% and 8.9%. Thus we conclude that the ML strategy is an effective means of sample classification for MSS data, and that supervised partitioning is an effective means of applying it when the true partition is unknown.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary

The general problem that we have investigated is the application of sample classification techniques to MSS data. The purpose of this is to incorporate "memory" into the classification process, thereby improving performance and reducing the number of items that must be individually classified. To begin, we modeled the objects in the scene as simple samples from multivariate normal populations. Then we motivated the investigation by showing that the classification scheme which achieves the minimum error rate when object boundaries are known, is a particular type of sample classification (MAP). Furthermore, the closely related strategy (GML) that we use in practice has an error rate that is upper bounded by a sum of exponentially decreasing functions of the sample size.

When object boundaries are unknown, the technique that is commonly used is to classify each resolution element independently of the others (no-memory classification). This of course is suboptimal, because spatially adjacent states of nature are usually strongly dependent. However an

optimal strategy (Appendix B) would require a complete statistical description of this dependence as well as a large number of classifications and a large amount of computation per classification. As an intermediate approach we chose to exploit the particular nature of the dependence by applying an image partitioning transformation to the data set prior to actual classification. In particular we focused our attention on what we call the conjunctive object-seeking approach. The basic algorithm that we implemented requires two "levels" of statistical tests that are applied in a logical sequence in order to "merge" adjacent elements of the scene that are spectrally similar. The likelihood ratio procedure led us to multivariate tests of first and second order statistics using criteria whose distribution functions are known under the null hypothesis. This enables us to relate the size of the test to the decision threshold. The power of the test depends on the alternative hypothesis. Due to the "dimensionality problem" the "multiple-univariate" versions of these tests are actually more useful in practice.

The likelihood ratio procedure can also be adapted to provide a supervised mode of operation. The test statistic is more complex, but it is multivariate and yet free of the dimensionality problem. Experimental results indicate that it adds a significant measure of stability to the processor's performance. Consequently it consistently

approaching those attained by direct sample classification of the test areas. Also, visual inspection of the results indicated that the classification map produced by this method is much closer to the "type-map" form that is usually desired than is the map produced by no-memory classification.

In terms of efficiency, the partitioning schemes varied from better to worse than the no-memory classifier to which they were compared, depending on the complexity of the classification. But given comparable programming efficiency, it appears that this balance would be shifted significantly in favor of the partitioning approach.

5.2 Recommendations for Further Work

Parameter Selection

One would expect that the optimum values of input parameters such as s_1 , s_2 , and t are statistically dependent in some complex way on factors such as class separability, spatial correlation, number of channels, average object size, and cell size. Therefore it could be beneficial to investigate the possible use of such information to predict the optimum input parameters. As we have noted, this appears to be needed more in the unsupervised mode than in the supervised mode.

Use of Texture

In this investigation we have restricted ourselves to

the assumption that pixels are class-conditionally uncorrelated. However in Appendix A we have shown not only that they are correlated but that the correlation function is class-dependent. We have also indicated how a sample classifier could be designed to efficiently exploit this dependence for improved discrimination between classes. This effect could be investigated through direct sample classification of test areas, similar to the investigation done by Wacker and Landgrebe. If the degree of improvement proves to be significant, then it is likely that the performance of the partitioning schemes can also be significantly improved by redesigning them to exploit spatial correlation.

LIST OF REFERENCES

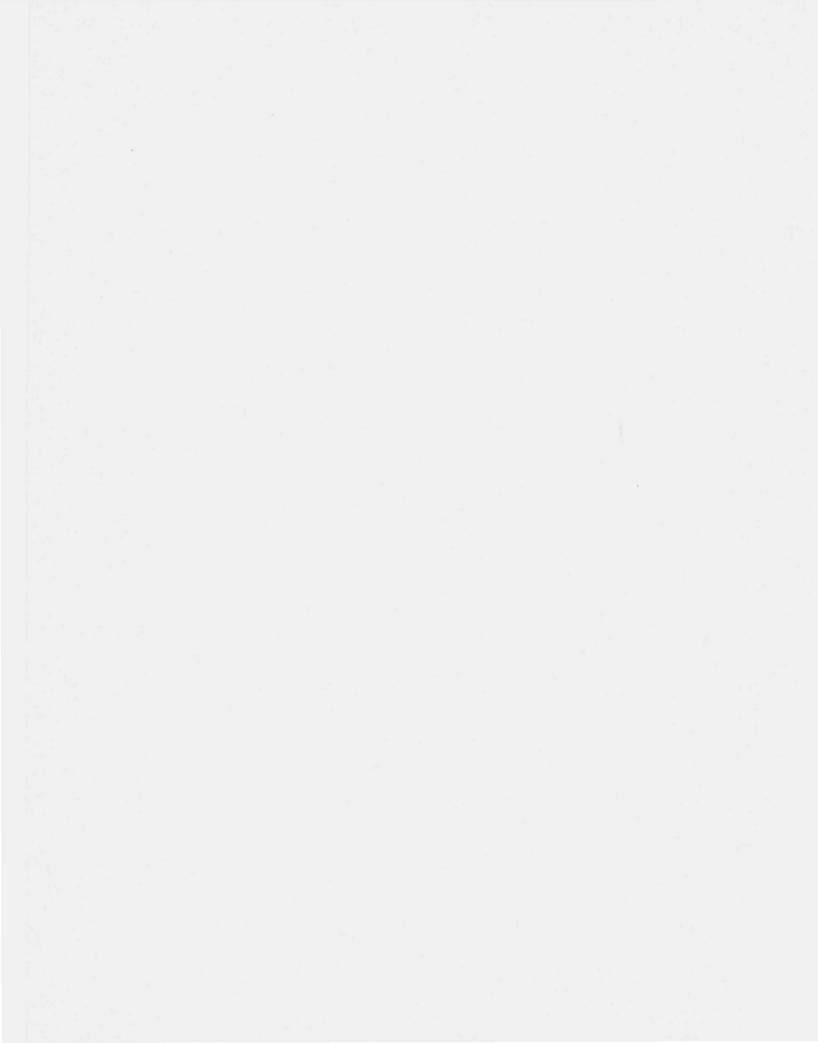
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APPENDIX A

SPATIAL CORRELATION

In Chapter 2 we assumed, for simplicity, that pixels within the same object are statistically independent observations from some subclass population. Then the joint pdf of the pixels can be expressed in terms of the marginal pdf of a single pixel. A more general approach is to allow for some correlation to exist between each pixel (X, say)and the other pixels in the object that lie within some "neighborhood" of X. Spatial correlation can be inherent in the object, and it can also be induced by the scanner. For example, a line scanner induces a certain amount of correlation along each scan line because its bandwidth is constrained to reduce detector noise. Also, one commonly finds that adjacent pixels actually overlap. In LANDSAT-1 data, for example, the overlap is 29%. Due to the position invariance of these effects and to the homogeneity of the objects, it is reasonable to assume that the class-conditional, joint pdf of the pixels in neighborhood of X is invariant with respect to the position of X within the object (as we previously did for the marginal pdf of X alone). This of course neglects any

non-stationary effects of the scanner such as banding, variable sun-angle, non-uniform sampling, and d.c. drift, much of which can, in principle, be corrected for in the data. Another reasonable assumption for most types of objects is "transpose symmetry"; i.e. the joint pdf of a spatial array of pixels is invariant with respect to the row or column transpose of the array. A possible consequence of this is discussed later.

Assuming (as before) that the pixels in an object are jointly MVN, then all that is required to specify their pdf is a mean vector and covariance function matrix (i.e. interchannel covariance matrix as a function of displacement). If $\underline{X}(m,n)$ represents the data vector for the scene element whose spatial coordinates are mand n (line and column numbers), then we can estimate this matrix for a given object by computing the following average:

$$C(m,n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k,1} (\underline{X}(m+k,n+1) - \underline{M}(m,n)) (\underline{X}(k,1) - \underline{M}(0,0))^{*}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k,1} \underline{X}(m+k,n+1)\underline{X}^{*}(k,1) - \underline{M}(m,n)\underline{M}^{*}(0,0)$$
A1

where

$$\underline{M}(m,n) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k,l} \underline{X}(m+k,n+l)$$

and N is the number of terms in the summation. To measure "local" characteristics (e.g. for a particular spectral class), the summations include only pixels from a single object. To measure the characteristics of a larger region, the summations extend over that region. These measurements

have been made for several data sets, and some typical results are presented in Figures A1-A5 (aircraft data) and Figures A6-A10 (satellite data). The quantity $R_{ij}(m,n)$ which appears in these figures is the correlation coefficient, which is related to the covariance by

 $R_{ij}(m,n) = C_{ij}(m,n)/\sqrt{C_{ii}(0,0)} C_{jj}(0,0)$ A2 where $C_{ij}(m,n)$ is the i,j th element of matrix C(m,n). This normalization provides easier comparison of the various functions. Local correlation was measured within the test areas to ensure that only pixels from the same object were used. The results were averaged over all the test areas for a given class to obtain the final estimate for that class. Regional correlation is generally greater than local correlation for a given displacement, because it includes the effect of dependent states as well as the class-conditional (local) correlation effects.

The measurements indicate that intraclass spatial correlation is a significant effect. Naturally the strongest correlation occurs between adjacent pixels, and the effect diminishes rapidly to a fairly low level. The "knee" in the curve generally occurs at a displacement of about 2 pixels. An important point is illustrated by Figures A2 and A3, which compare the classes "deciduous forest" and "forage". We observe a definite class dependency for the spatial correlation functions. The relatively narrow correlation functions for forest indicate

a broader spatial frequency spectrum, thus a faster rate of change, than the forage class. The implication is that this characteristic can be measured and used by a sample classifier to distinguish these two classes. Thus the "texture" of a sample contains potentially useful information about its identity. This comes as no surprise, but it is not always obvious how to exploit such information in a numerically-oriented pattern recognition system. When spectral information is also available and both are observed in a multivariate measurement space, even the human system may be unable to use all the information contained in the sample. We shall now briefly discuss how the classifiers described in Chapter 2 can be generalized to accomplish such classification.

To design a true MAP or ML classifier for a spatially correlated sample, $X = (\underline{X}_1, \ldots, \underline{X}_n)$, is conceptually a straightforward matter, given the mean vector and covariance function matrix of each class. These can be used to construct the nq-dimensional matrix:

$$C_i = E(Q_i(X) | X_EW_i)$$
where

$$\Omega_i(X) = ((X_1 - M_i)^i, \dots, (X_n - M_i)^i)^i ((X_1 - M_i)^i, \dots, (X_n - M_i)^i)$$
 bearing in mind the spatial arrangement of the pixels. Then for the hypothesis $X \in W_i$, the log-likelihood function evaluated at X is given by

$$p(X|X \in W_i) = -.5(\ln|2\pi C_i| + tr(C_i^{-1}Q_i(X)))$$
 A4

For large samples, this rapidly becomes too cumbersome to be practical. Also, a covariance matrix would have to be constructed for each class for each unique spatial arrangement of pixels to be classified.

For large samples, with relatively small correlation distances (small neighborhoods), a more practical approach would be to implement a minimum distance decision rule based on just the marginal joint pdf of a neighborhood, which contains all the information that characterizes a class population. In fact, assuming transpose symmetry holds, this information is contained in the marginal, joint pdf of just one quadrant of the neighborhood. To estimate this pdf from a sample, we estimate the mean vector and covariance function matrix according to formula A1. But we construct only the covariance matrix of an array of pixels corresponding to one quadrant of a neighborhood, thereby avoiding both problems associated with the maximum likelihood approach.

We note that when assuming transpose symmetry, the covariance matrix estimate can be improved for any given displacements, (m,n), by averaging C(m,n) and C(-m,n) to obtain the final estimate.

Also, the above strategy can be easily modified (for simplicity) by truncating the tail of the intraclass correlation function as desired, thereby reducing the dimension of the required covariance matrix. Since the knee

in the correlation function generally occurs at about 2 pixels, this might be a reasonable correlation distance to use.

Finally, the choice of distance measure is arbitrary. However, an interesting possibility is the use of $-L_1(\underline{M},\underline{\mathbb{C}})$ (from Section 2.3.4), appropriately modified for the higher dimensional space. We have seen that it is essentially the same as using a Kullback-Leibler number, but computationally it is much more efficient. Due to its relationship to the likelihood function and its lack of distance measure properties, a strategy that uses this criterion can perhaps best be described as a modified maximum likelihood strategy (modified to avoid an nq-dimensional matrix).

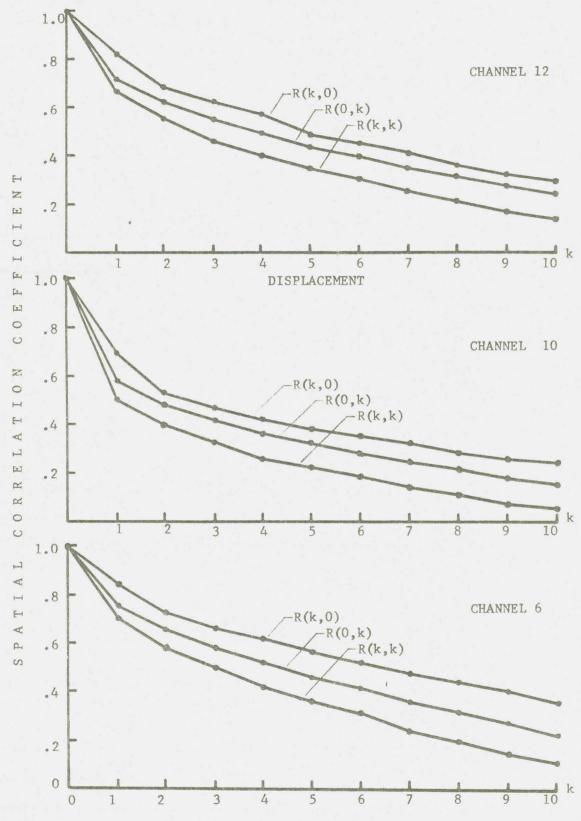


Figure Al Spatial Correlation Coefficients - Run 71052501 Region: lines 501-800, columns 1-100

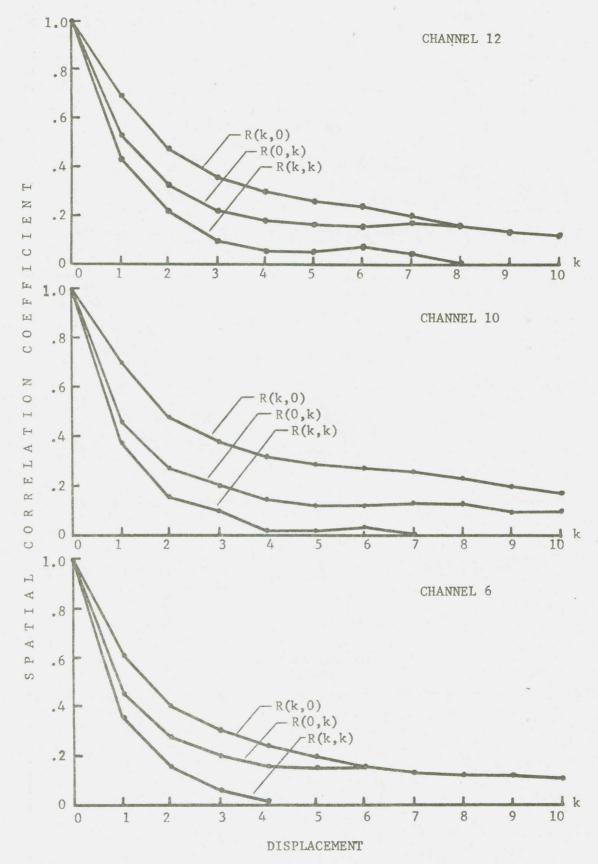


Figure A2 Spatial Correlation Coefficients - Class FORAGE - Run 71052501

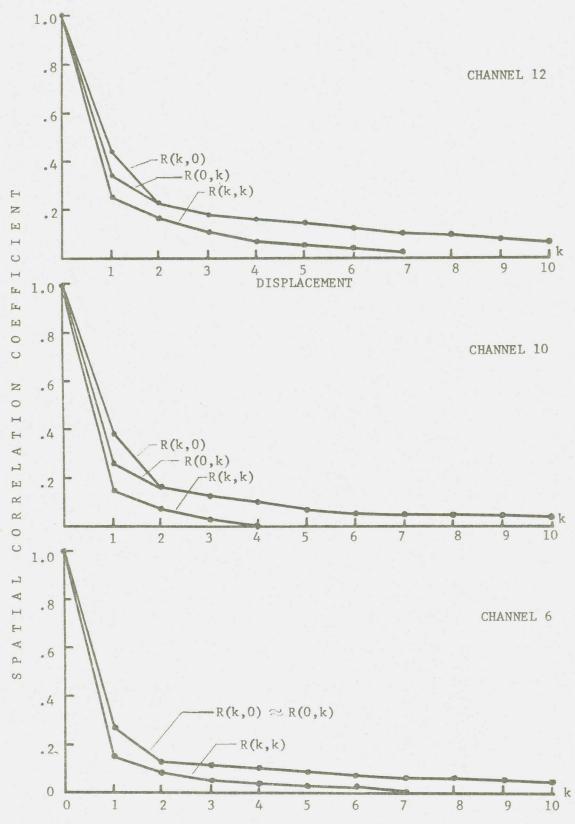


Figure A3 Spatial Correlation Coefficients - Class DECIDUOUS - Run 71052501

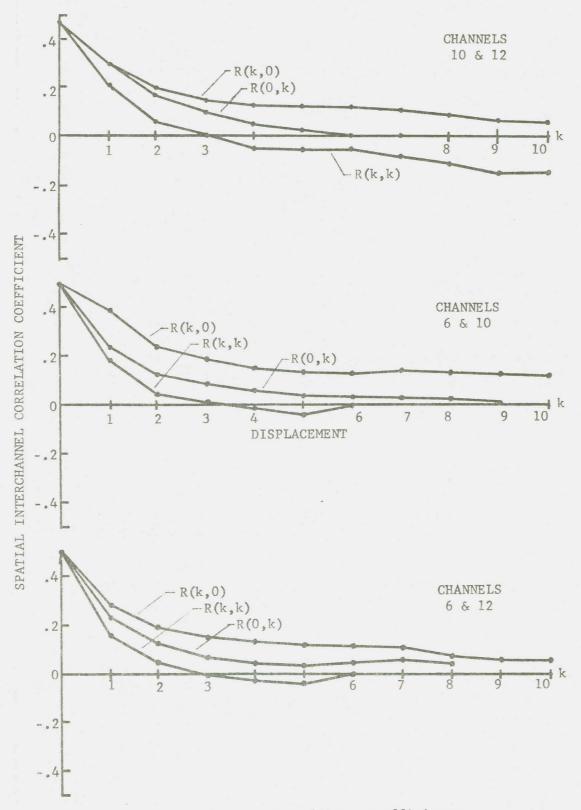


Figure A4 Spatial Interchannel Correlation Coefficients
- Class FORAGE - Run 71052501

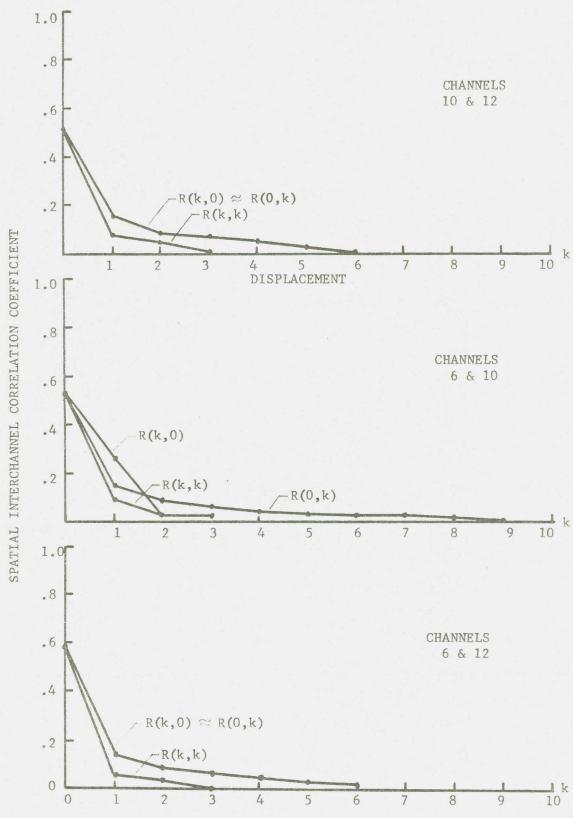


Figure A5 Spatial Interchannel Correlation Coefficients
- Class DECIDUOUS - Run 71052501

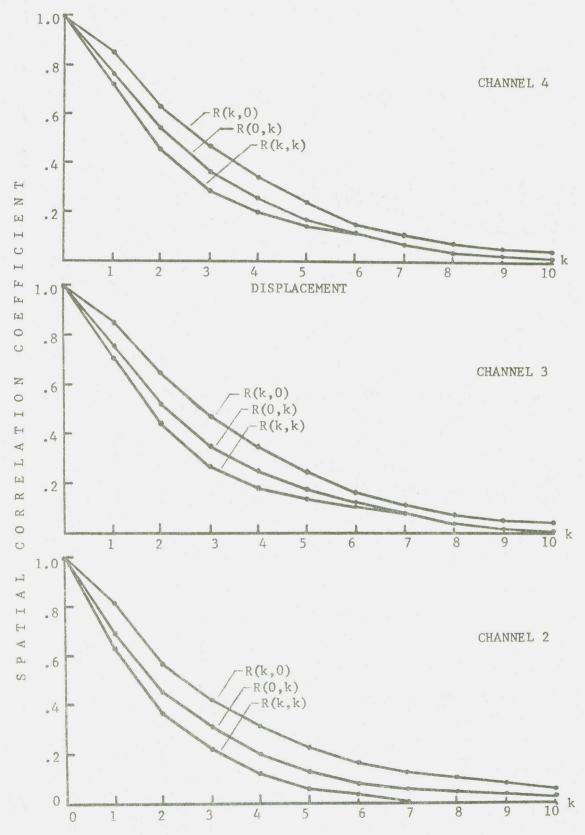


Figure A6 Spatial Correlation Coefficients - Run 72032803 Region: lines 260-559, columns 998-1097

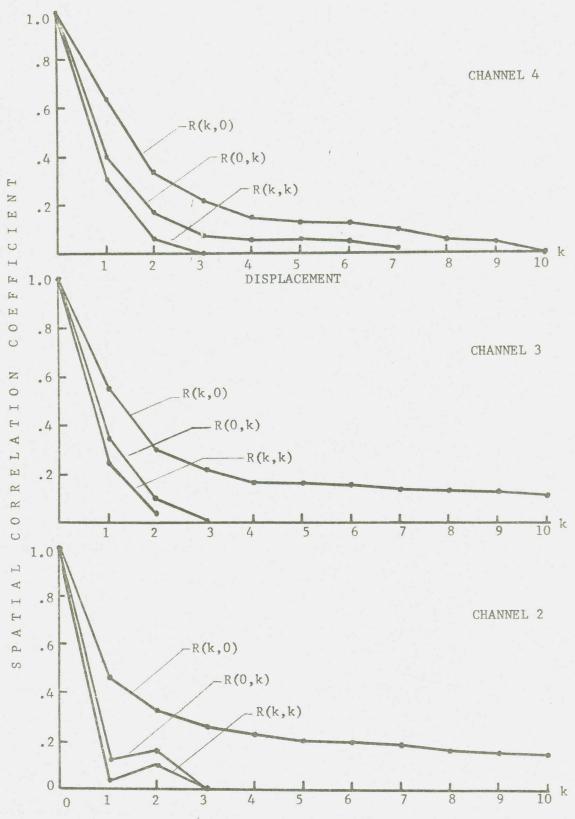


Figure A7 Spatial Correlation Coefficients - Class CORN - Run 72032803

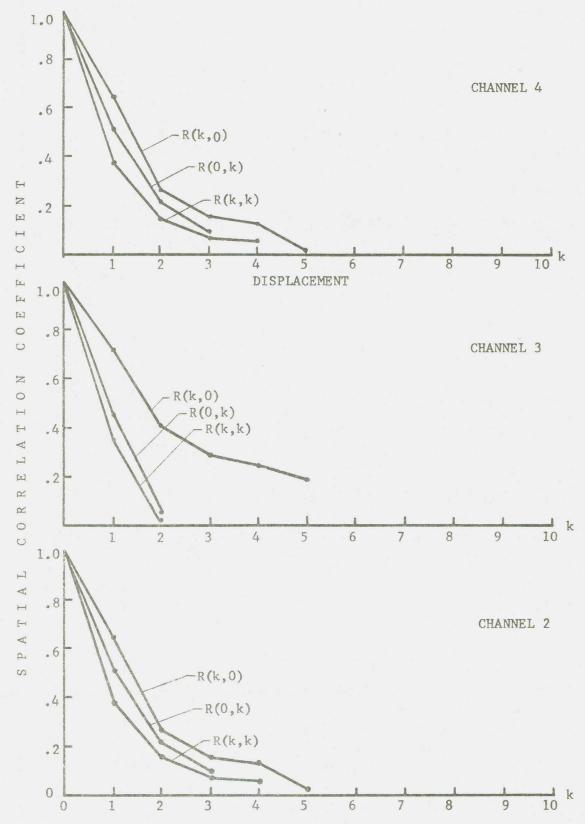


Figure A8 Spatial Correlation Coefficients - Class TOWN - Run 72032803

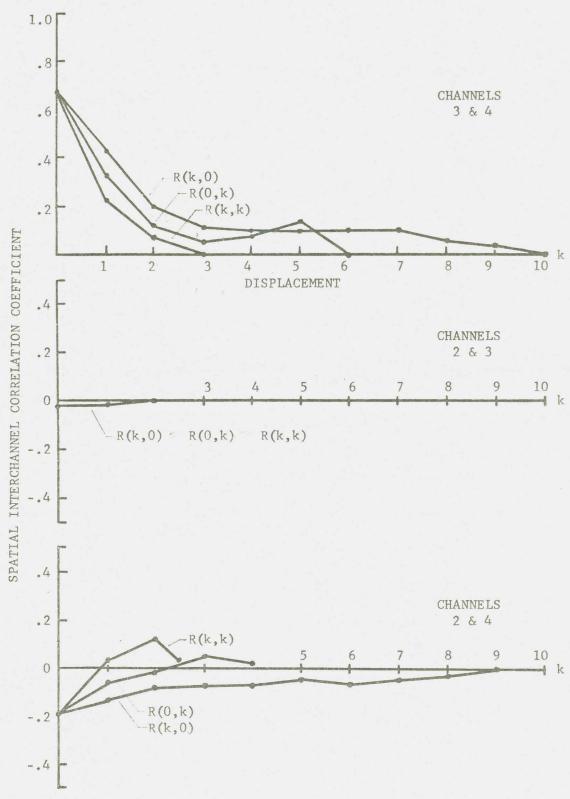


Figure A9 Spatial Interchannel Correlation Coefficients - Class CORN - Run 72032803

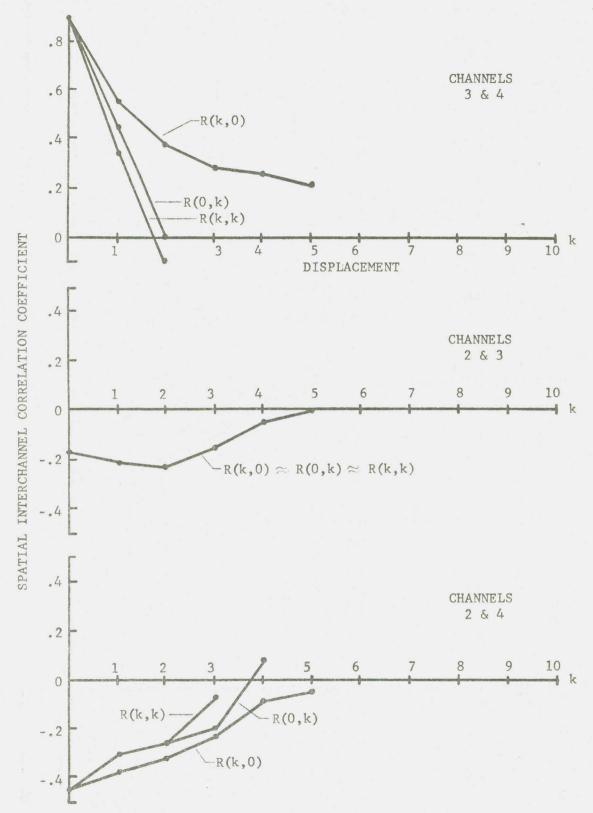


Figure AlO Spatial Interchannel Correlation Coefficients - Class TOWN - Run 72032803

APPENDIX B

THE COMPOUND DECISION APPROACH

Let $X^n = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ denote a set of pixels (q-dimensional random variables) with dependent states (classes). As in Section 2.1 we assume class-conditional independence. The goal is to classify each pixel into the set of classes $W = (W_1, \dots, W_m)$ (i.e. classify X^n into W^n) such that the expected number of misclassified pixels is minimized. As shown in Section 2.3.2, this is accomplished by decision functions $W_i(x^n)$ such that

$$P(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{i}(x^{n}) | X^{n} = x^{n}) = \max_{j} P(\underline{X}_{i} \in W_{j} | X^{n} = x^{n}), \quad i = 1, ..., n$$
 B1

A simpler, though suboptimal procedure is to classify the pixels "sequentially" without "looking ahead"; i.e. let the ith decision function be based only on the observations $x^i = (\underline{x_1, ..., x_i})$. This is equivalent to setting n=i in equation B1. Making this change and applying Bayes rule provides:

$$p(X^{i}=x^{i}|X_{i}\in W_{i}(x^{i})) P(W_{i}(x^{i})) = \max_{j} p(X^{i}=x^{i}|X_{i}\in W_{j})P(W_{j})$$
 B2

Before proceeding we shall shorten the notation by expressing the right hand side of B2 as:

$$\max_{A_i} p(x^i | A_i) P(A_i)$$
B3

where Λ_i denotes both a class and the event that \underline{X}_i is a

random variable from that class. Similarly Aⁱ will denote a vector of i classes and the event that these are the true classes of the set Xⁱ. Defining j=i-1 and applying the law of total probability to B3 provides:

$$\max_{A_{i}} \sum_{A^{j} \in W^{j}} p(x^{i} | A_{i}, A^{j}) P(A_{i} | A^{j}) P(A^{j})$$

$$= \max_{A_{i}} \sum_{A^{j} \in W^{j}} p(\underline{x}_{i} | A_{i}) P(A_{i} | A^{j}) P(A_{i} | A^{j}) P(A_{i} | A^{j}) P(A^{j} | A^{j})$$

$$= \max_{A_{i}} \sum_{A^{j}} p(\underline{x}_{i} | A_{i}) P(A_{i} | A^{j}) P(A^{j} | A^{j}) P(A^{j} | A^{j})$$

Defining the quantity $O_i(A_1,...,A_i) = p(x^i | A^i) P(A^i)$, it is apparent that 34 can be computed recursively as:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
\text{max} & \sum_{A_i} Q_i(A_1, \dots, A_i) \\
A_i & A_i
\end{array}$$
B5

where

$$Q_i(A_1,...,A_i) = p(\underline{x}_i|A_i) P(A_i|A^j) Q_j(A_1,...,A_j)$$
 B6
but the number of terms in the summation grows as m^j .

If the states form a first order Markov chain, B4 reduces to simply:

$$\max_{A_i} R_i(A_i)$$

where

$$R_{i}(A_{i}) \triangleq p(\underline{x}_{i}|A_{i}) \sum_{A^{j}} p(x^{j}|A^{j}) P(A^{i})$$

but it can be computed recursively as:

$$R_{i}(A_{i}) = p(x_{i}|A_{i}) \sum_{A_{j}} P(A_{i}|A_{j}) R_{j}(A_{j})$$
B8

For a kth order Markov chain (k)1) we define j=i-k, and B4 reduces to:

$$\max_{A_{i}} p(x_{i}|A_{i}) \sum_{A_{i-1}} p(x_{i-1}|A_{i-1}) \sum_{A_{i-2}} ... \sum_{A_{j+1}} R_{i}(A_{i},...,A_{j+1})$$
B9

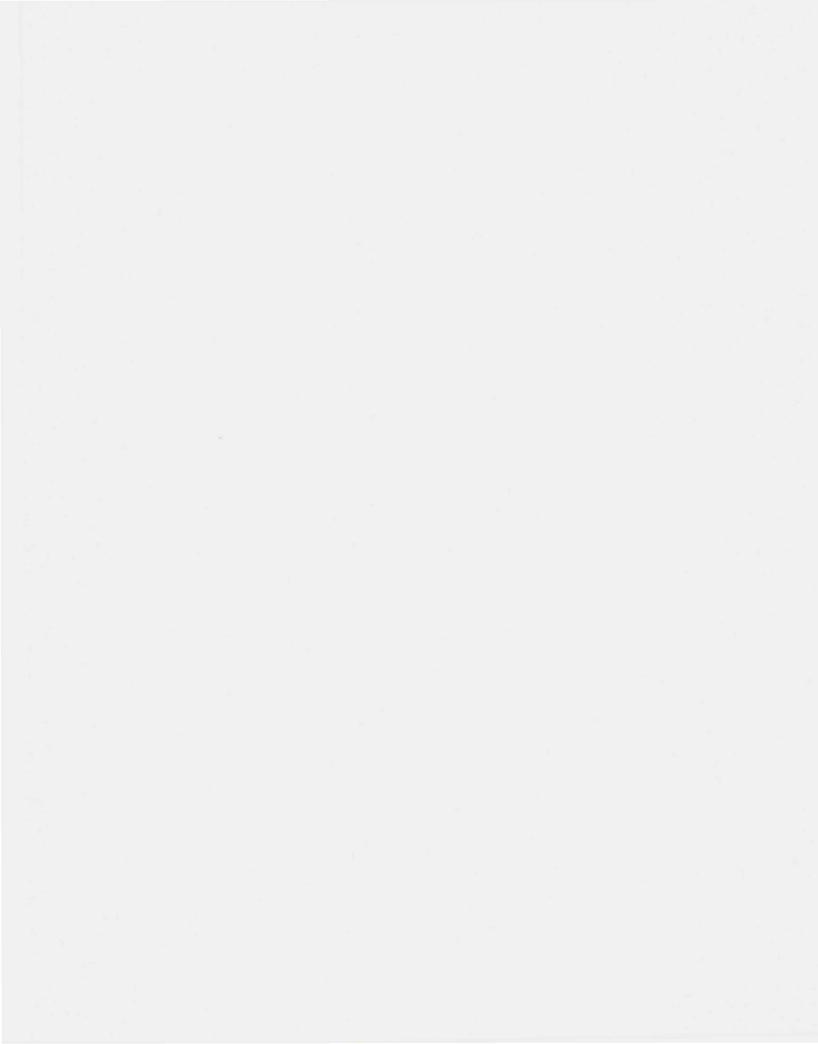
where

$$R_{i}(A_{i},...,A_{j+1}) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} p(\underline{x}_{j+1}|A_{j+1}) \sum_{A_{j}} p(x^{j}|A^{j}) P(A^{i})$$
B10

=
$$p(x_{j+1}|A_{j+1}) \sum_{A_{i}} P(A_{i}|A_{i-1},...,A_{j}) R_{i-1}(A_{i-1},...,A_{j})$$

The number of summation terms in B9 and B10 is only mk.

To obtain this relatively efficient classifier we have assumed a sequential approach, Markov chain dependence between states, and class-conditionally independent data vectors. In spite of these simplifications it is clear that the computational and memory requirements of the compound decision approach are considerably greater than the no-memory approach.



APPENDIX C COMPOSITE CLASSES

Let $p(x|W_1)$ and $p(x|W_2)$ be two univariate normal class densities. Let W_3 be a third class that is a composite (spatially) of the two ground cover-types represented by these densities. The problem is to determine the density of this class. We shall assume that the conditional density of a pixel containing 100*a% of class 1 and 100(1-a)% of class 2 is also normal with mean $M(a) = a*M_1 + (1-a)M_2$ and variance $V(a) = a*V_1 + (1-a)V_2$, where M_1 and V_1 represent the mean and variance of the ith class. Thus

$$p(x|W_3) = \int_0^1 N(M(a), V(a); x) p(a) da$$
 C1

for some distribution p(a) which depends on the overall proportion of each class and the "texture" of the composite.

Assume for example that the overall proportion of each class is 0.5, and consider three different cases of texture:

Case 1 - Maximum Variance

If the texture of the composite is very coarse compared to the size of a pixel, then a pixel will usually contain either one class or the other, not both. p(a) is approximated by $.5(\delta(a)+\delta(a-1))$, where $\delta(\cdot)$ represents the

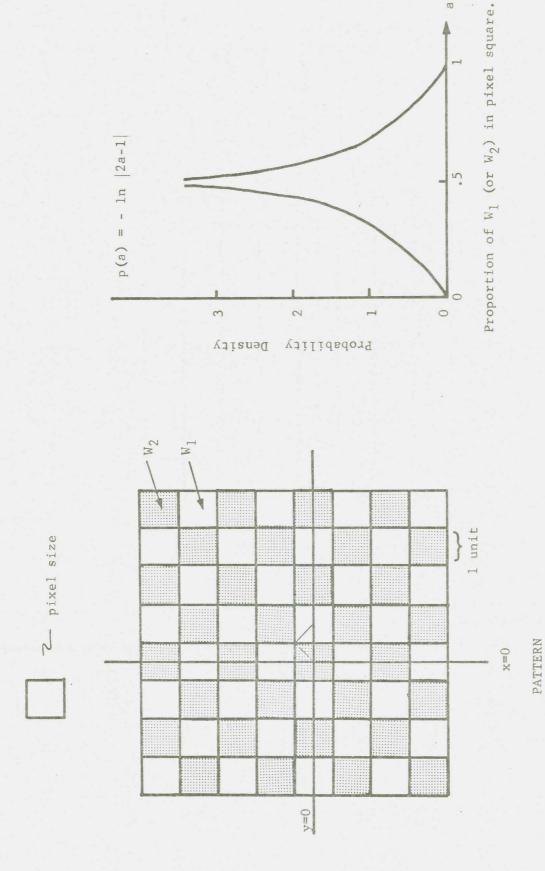
Dirac delta function. Thus $p(x|W_3)$ is approximately $.5(p(x|W_1)+p(x|W_2))$, which of course is bimodal in general. We refer to this as a "mixture" class, because the constituents retain their individual characteristics. The normal way to handle such a class is to cluster the data and treat each mode as a subclass. Thus a mixture of W_1 and W_2 cannot be treated as a distinct third class by a Gaussian classifier. (Of course, post-processing could be applied to the classifier output to search for such a mixture, if desired.)

Case 2 - Minimum Variance

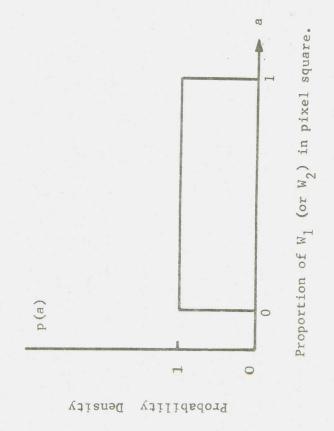
If the texture of the composite is very fine, then p(a) is approximated by $\delta(a-.5)$, and $p(x|W_3)$ is approximately normal with mean $(M_1+M_2)/2$ and variance $(V_1+V_2)/2$. This can (and should) be treated as a distinct third class. We refer to it as a "compound" class, because the constituents lose their individuality.

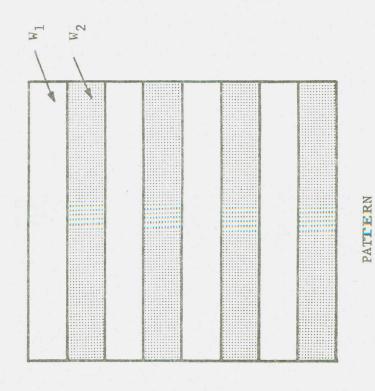
Case 3 - Intermediate Variance

When the texture of the composite is on the same order as the pixel size (e.g. Figures C1 and C2), a randomly selected pixel can contain any proportions of the two classes. As a first-order approximation to p(a) we consider the strictly periodic pattern in Figure C1 and let the coordinates (X,Y) of the pixel be uniformly distributed random variables over the area covered by the pattern. Assume for simplicity that the orientation of the pixel



A case of spatial texture on the order of the pixel size. Figure C1





- pixel size

Figure C2 Texture in One Spatial Dimension Only

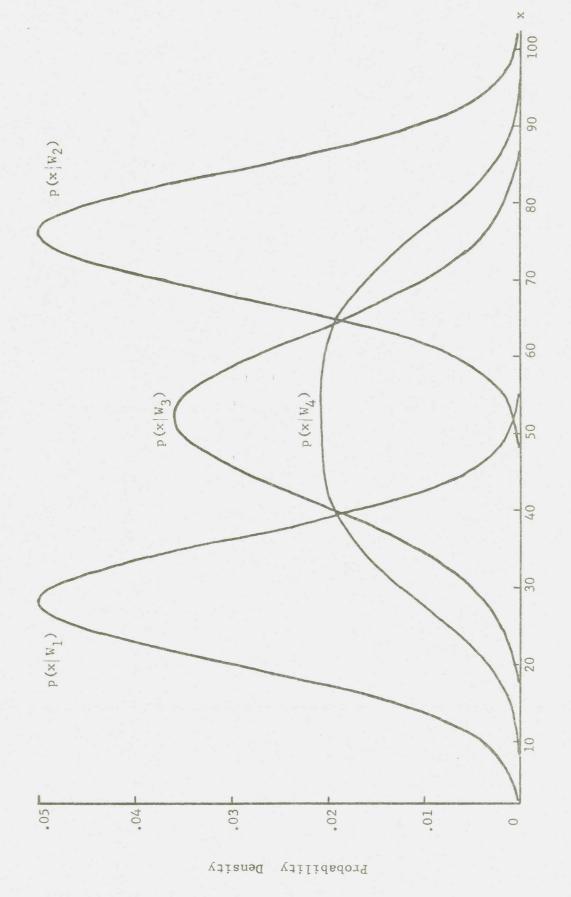
square is the same as the square elements in the pattern. Symmetry considerations require that p(a) be unchanged if the point (X,Y) is uniformly distributed over the region 0 < X (1, 0 (y (min(x,1=x). In this region <math>a(x,y) = x=2xy+y.

By transformation of random variables it follows that: $p(a) = -\ln |2a-1| \;, \quad 0 \leqslant a \leqslant 1 \qquad \qquad C2$ which is shown in Figure C1. The variance of this distribution is intermediate between Cases 1 and 2.

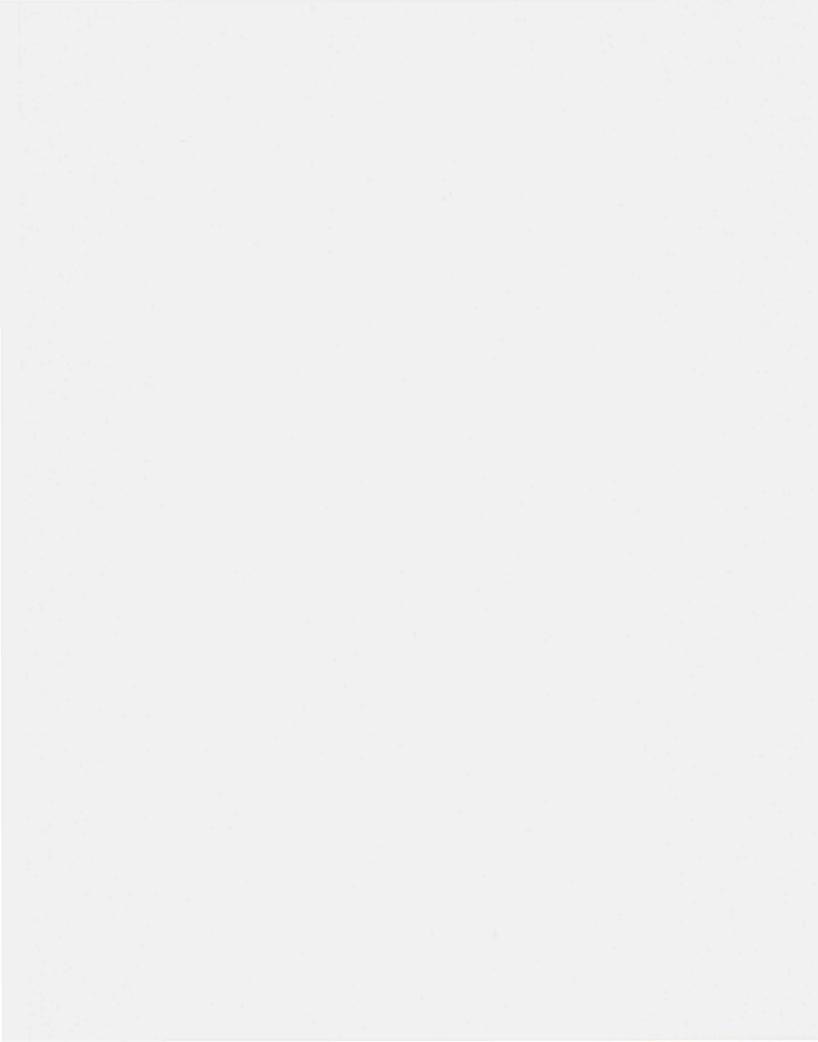
Figure C3 shows two hypothetical class densities, $p(x|W_1)$ and $p(x|W_2)$, and the density of their composite, $p(x|W_3)$ (obtained by numerical evaluation of formula C1 using formula C2). As in Case 2, $p(x|W_3)$ forms a distinct, unimodal class, but its variance is larger due to the spread of p(a).

Another interesting case is the pattern shown in Figure C2. Here the texture is primarily one-dimensional. (This tendency can be observed for instance in a few of the objects in Figure 4.2.4.) When the detector size matches the line width, p(a) is uniform on the interval 0 \langle a \langle 1. Its variance is greater than that of formula C2, which results in the composite class p(x|W₄) shown in Figure C3. Important points to notice are that it is unimodal, relatively broad, and it forms a distinct compound class. As M2-M1 increases relative to the variance of W1 and W2, p(x|W₄) tends toward uniform on the interval (M1,M2). Thus, if other classes lie in this interval, observations from the

compound class will tend to be misclassified at a high rate by a no-memory classifier. Of course, much less confusion should result if classification is done on a sample basis.



Two Densities and Their Compound Density for Spatial Texture on the Order of a Pixel. Figure C3



APPENDIX D

FIELD LISTINGS

TABLE D1 TEST AREAS FOR RUN 71052800

RUN NUMBER (AREA DESIGNATION	FIRST	LAST	LINE	FIRST	LAST	COL	COVER
71052800 71052800	H-15 H-14.0 G-111 G-111 G-111 G-111 G-111 G-111 G-111 G-111 G-111 F-12 F-13 F-13 F-14 F-13 F-14 F-15 F-16 F-17 F-17 F-18 F-19 F-19 F-19 F-19 F-19 F-19 F-19 F-19	17627322451221124456889522223338866666555555555566666677777777777777	419299288287988922334876996355322001446229431899997901101572422 1112222223322333333443444444444555555555666677767787877777		234210111971631013397447000670988000051311132119289504498657098880000513111111111111111111111111111111	4393074565733334456064494083242954936828636692907202421102565248 4393074565733334456064494083242954936828636692907202421102565248 1112 112 112 111 111 111	그녀는 이 아이들 때문에 되었다.	

TABLE D1, CONTINUED

71052800 710528800 710528800	Q-6 Q-6 Q-6 Q-11 Q-11 Q-12 Q-11 Q-11 Q-11 Q-11 Q-11	7786 7786 7786 7786 7786 7786 7786 8004 8179 9008 8139 9016 9016 9016 9016 9016 9016 9016 901	78009631763260985143333144155539923466618104587848888888899999999999999999999999999	979897822654208954865048650438441046680313466265433 1124344468031773336359566265433 112434468031772336359566265433 11243446803177233635956265433 1243446803177233635956265433	164 187 144 184 134 557 943 1446 185 157 127 1787 1787 1788 181	REALENDE DE LA
71052800 71052800	I-2 I-8 H-96 G-8 H-96 G-8 KE-3 CC-4 X-2 X-2 X-2	112 113 207 229 263 278 327 323 482 511 532 635 717 717	128 127 2288 2275 2288 2275 2885 510 8510 6314 7748 7727 739	153 80 160 181 171 149 172 102 73 117 28 136 118	1830 8345 17086 17	\$0 Y \$0 Y \$0 Y \$0 Y \$0 Y \$0 Y \$0 Y \$0 Y

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TABLE D1,	CONTINUED							-14
71052800 71052800	Q-25 M-4 M-4 Q-12 R-5 R-5 AA-4 Z-11 S-11 S-9 S-7 S-7 S-7 S-7 S-7 S-8 BB-3	755 787 787 805 864 867 868 950 1012 1041 1073 1073 1138 1138 1137 1251	784 795 802 807 874 8896 934 10056 10067 1080 1084 1153 1157 1196 1245 1263		130 171 150 153 138 177 129 1118 137 175 1112	132 181 168 168 145 78 64 1133 96 1127 57 1122 103 1187 1145		SOY SOY SOY SOY SOY SOY SOY SOY SOY SOY
710,52,800 710,52,800	I-1999999999999999999999999999999999999	23440313 1112355 1112355 1112223445902389317738890789 11395558279654 112223222233333444444555 11395558279654 11395558279654	1222222333333344455555666 1888988989333333344455555666 188898858989333333344455555666 18914346533329	فمراعم فم أعم أعم أعم أعم أعم أعم أعم أعم أعم أع	137664702 137666702 121384980050801109511758977 121384980050801109511758977 177668844194877 15363457 177668844194877	148 873 775 189 121 189 121 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 180 18	تحرفها فحرافها فعرافها فعسوا فعزافها فعرافها ف	MANAMANAMANA MANAMANAMANAMANAMANAMANAMAN

TABLE D1,	CONTINUED							
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	AA-3 AA-3 V-2 S-3	948 949 1018 1103	961 960 1030 1115		146 181 160 154	178 186 166 184	1 1 1	WHEAT WHEAT WHEAT WHEAT
71052800 71052800	D-7 K-5 D-3 CC-2 X-11 O-5 O-15 O-15 O-15 AA-8 AA-8 AA-8 S-8 S-8 S-8	279 3214 5551 765 816 826 853 878 889 962 9783 1073 1106 1124 1126	285 352 520 629 801 823 836 870 881 888 900 1003 1006 1088 1105 1107 1147 1138		181 202 182 49 65 102 87 115 127 135 151 117 660 566 87 93 97 114	207 208 185 62 74 121 118 126 132 140 1545 63 63 90 101 100 120 111		IDLE IDLE IDLE IDLE IDLE IDLE IDLE IDLE
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	G-16 G-18 F-5 N-6 N-8 X-3 X-3	324 340 406 497 565 634 726	352 343 411 501 603 703 740		77 57 192 78 81 101 142	80 73 199 85 82 112 145	1 1 1 1 1 1	HAY HAY HAY HAY HAY HAY
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	H-20 H-20 H-26 H-3 M-2 M-8 M-8 M-7	147 155 207 229 746 822 830 852	152 159 223 288 784 827 832 855		94 118 38 150 173 179 166	107 100 186 46 164 180 184 171		LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA LESPEDEZA
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	H-22 H-12 H-22 H-6 H-27 D-9 C-3 C-3	183 188 205 228 228 368 488 510	202 206 223 240 288 384 507 512		93 93 93 97 67 23 56	96 100 100 106 73 26 73 64		PASTURE PASTURE PASTURE PASTURE PASTURE PASTURE PASTURE PASTURE
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	E-2 E-2 D-4 V-5	484 504 518 985	491 511 526 995	1 1 1	149 157 206 148	169 169 210 156	1 1 1	RYE RYE RYE RYE
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	H-23 H-23 H-23 H-23	133 155 174 205	150 162 202 222	1 1 1	123 112 101 104	127 118 111 113	1 1 1	WOODPAST WOODPAST WOODPAST WOODPAST
71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800 71052800	X-1 R-6 V-7 V-7 V-4	719 862 975 978 1018	740 866 977 980 1022	hand board board board board	130 99 148 139 151	133 107 155 145 154	1 1 1 1	FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST

TABLE D1, CONTINUED

71052800 71052800	S-14 Z-2	1021 1030	1032 1039	1	58 104	61 115	1	FOREST
71052800 71052800	H-16 H-17 H-21 H-11 H-11 H-7 G-12 G-13 G-1 P-2 P-2 P-4 B-1 B-1 B-1 B-1 B-1 B-1 O-7 S-1 B-1 O-7 X-8 OD-1 S-1 S-1	1561 1666 1782 1782 1782 1782 1782 1783 1783 1783 1783 1783 1783 1783 1783	177880355555247880355555555555555555555555555555555555	다. 마시	249318896170278819755573817988946851341 10234319755573817988946851341 1777878817988946851341 1177887817988946851341	37 495 322 157 30 115 446 466 493 427 446 453 427 446 453 460 483 483 483 483 483 483 483 483 483 483		NON-FARM NON-FARM

TABLE D2 TEST AREAS FOR RUN 72064412

RUN NUMBER	ARFA DESIGNATION	FIRST	LAST	LINE	FIRST	LAST	COL	COVER	
72064412 72064412	AGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGGG	5677840061364047227222222222233333333333333333333333	677870144904779597122213137899597122222222222233333333344444444444455555555		769234456269437653588611442630483245553027783126880 0266773475866349749688611442630483245553027783126880 2222222222222432432455533353242343434433345	7255553478713783204347086196984026564408752230081235 7255553478713783204347086196984026564408752230081235		GRICULTUU GRRICUULTUU GRRICUUL	IN ARAKAN MANAN MA
72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412	F-T F-T F-T F-T F-T F-T F-T F-T	66 85 86 89 90 92 94 94 97	68 96 91 101 103 101 104 98 107		236 367 322 313 434 336 236 275 361 489	247 403 326 321 434 357 270 236 283 375 499	لحما فمم فمما فمما فمما فمما أمما فمما فمم	FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST FOREST	

TABLE D2,	CONTINUED						
72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412	F-ST F-ST F-ST F-ST F-ST F-ST F-ST F-ST	132 132 157 157 122 157 122 157 122 157 122 157 123 157 123 157 123 124 125 125 125 125 125 125 125 125 125 125	136674 16815		35467 4574553387790 3577256649 43877 3577256649 43877	35797 4773 55885 387985 3100 5111 5111 5111 5111 5111 5111 511	FOREST
72064412 72064412	RM RM PRVGM PRM PRVGM PRVGM PRVGM PRVGM PRVGM PRVVGM PRVVGM PRVVGGM PRVVGM PRVVGM PRVVGM PRVVGM	568136025151926192685440724305560276 111111111111111111111111111111111111	7277464998142569339385556855795401 2277464998142569339385556855795401		44443353344232344433333232322333353232223 44443355334223234433333232322233335322223	99919154459469999197059350331231101 430191544594699991970593503315333333333333333333333333333333	RECENT-MINE
72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412	TIP W-S W-S W-S W-S W-C W-C TIP TIP	58 62 64 76 80 81 151 153 186 236	62 63 65 79 80 81 154 156 190 239 243	لمنا لمنا لمنا لمنا لمنا لمنا المنا المنا المنا المنا المنا	465 519 5329 407 534 409 298 516 315 410	467 520 535 3408 536 410 299 518 320 418 413	PIT

TABLE D2,	CONTINUED							
72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412 72064412	T I P T I P W-C T I P W-C T I P W-C T I P W-C W-C	245 248 251 251 391 392 394 469 565	249 249 252 256 396 397 397 396 471 568	416 315 324 447 288 320 292 303 419 408	417 320 326 448 291 322 302 308 420 411		PIT PIT PIT PIT PIT PIT PIT PIT	
72064412 72064412	RVGM RVGM RVGM RVGM RVGM RVGM RVGM RVGM	746145014662971440339444726396505555555555555555555555555555555555	78 71556601 111222224655177 11122222246551779 11122222246551779	38548711488023955858457211248 5444384456334443333333333333333333333333	385560673517935270382712368821 385960673517932770382712368821	שין דיין ניין ניין ניין ניין ניין ניין ני	RRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRR	MINNANAM MEMILANANAM MEMILANANANAM MEMILANANANANANANANANANANANANANANANANANANAN

TABLE D3 REFERENCE AREAS FOR RUN 71052501

RUN ARF NUMBER DESIGN	A FIRST	LAST	LINE	FIRST		COL AREA
	MING 173 NING 519	188 525	1	186 026	192 032	1 DECIDUOUS 1 DECIDUOUS
71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI	NING 046 NING 048 NING 052 NING 055 NING 068 NING 333 NING 396	049 048 053 055 072 339 399		067 076 066 073 052 083 109	070 078 067 077 052 088 126	1 CONIFEROUS
71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI	MING 847 MING 877 MING 1174 NING 1175	155 155 155 155 155 155 155 155 155 155		108 113 120 023 052 108 011 004 002 041 197 011 030 068 075 077 074 082 140	112 119 129 024 053 111 014 008 005 045 202 020 032 073 080 076 085 143	1 WATER, POND 1 WATER, RIVER 1 WATER, RIVER
71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI	NING 32 NING 105 NING 105 NING 115 NING 136 NING 335 NING 405 NING 506 NING 564 NING 650 NING 678 NING 678 NING 853 NING 1143 NING 1143 NING 1189 NING 1202 NING 1275 NING 1449	339 419 510 574 654 681 8259 1152 1193 1209 1284	فعوا فعوا فعوا فعوا فعوا فعوا فعوا فعوا	50 188 187 180 197 211 073 205 048 173 100 144 047 184 109 127	57 195 197 193 192 204 215 086 217 056 118 171 058 208 125 142	1 FORAGE, PAST 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, PAST 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, HAY 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, HAY 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, HAY 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, HAY 1 FORAGE, STUB 1 FORAGE, HAY
71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI 71052501 TRAI	NING 661 NING 683 NING 698 NING 1255 NING 1275 NING 1403 NING 1481 NING 1487 NING 1492	1257 1282 1412 1485 1512		174 137 153 141 93 93 194 033 049	181 143 167 143 100 100 213 042 051 042	1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN 1 CORN
	NING 498 NING 1027	500 1031	1	099	117 025	1 SOY 1 SOY

TABLE D3,	CONTINUED							
71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501	TRAIMING TRAIMING TRAIMING TRAIMING	1045 1191 1253 1473	1048 1193 1274 1479	1 1 1	124 043 129 078	128 046 135 090	1 1 1 1	SOY SOY SOY
71052501 71052501	TESTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT	13827818639010566672792166181746689557515754857974 11222223333333333444668955756667813 107974	00083010241480916625656603444444555566447640916888910224148091682565603444445555664476409183		0.621.31.00.00	1569772888320021599444402338 10012021221599444402338 112212215959444402338 1122122122111052 112212212212221222212122222121222221212222		DECIDUOUS
71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501	TEST TEST TEST TEST	344 409 413 512	348 411 420 514		074 145 141 144	077 150 144 149	1 1 1	CONTERROUS CONTERROUS CONTERROUS CONTERROUS
71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501	TFST TFST TFST TFST TFST TFST TFST TFST	294 834 1191 1195 1206 1213 1214 1216 1219 1224	295 837 1192 1200 1215 1214 1227 1223 1230 1238		158 004 164 161 163 058 007 162 083 161	159 010 167 162 166 063 007 165 086 164		WATER, POND WATER, POND WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER

TABLE D3, CONTINUED

71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501	TFST 1 TFST 1	252 261 279 285 297	1259 1267 1282 1287 1299	080 157 153 149 121	159 155 150	WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER WATER, RIVER
71052501 71052501	TERRORS SOLUTION TO THE TARRORS SOLUTION TO THE TERRORS SOLUTION TO THE TERROR	19231466425605281300002806078315619999239422949993605184956125931	1911111122222222233333344444444444445555555556666677777789999911111111111111111111111	0121657052827140337571872735361 32887 786473505882699360266973 355339052827140337571872735361 32887 786473505882699360266973	1744446577433422957108855512924479 82020 555297903533229120912333311188479 82020 1112121212123332291209123333111883102011312112121212333322912091233331110011001100110011001100110011001	FORAGE, PASSTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT

TABLE D3, C	ONTIMUED	7						
710 52 501 710 52 501	TEST TEST TEST TEST TEST TEST TEST TEST	1131 1162 1179 1199 11221 13252 13133 1360 1403 14455 1474 1482 1496 1499 1510	1142 1175 11866 1209 1252 1274 13356 1405 14464 1489 1501 1516		047 166 085 134 173 061 109 164 050 164 130 118 001 149 107 161 133	058 181 102 146 183 069 125 180 059 180 222 189 150 131 0210 126 174 148		FORAGE, HAY FORAGE, PAST FORAGE, PAST FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, PAST FORAGE, PAST FORAGE, PAST FORAGE, PAST FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, STUB FORAGE, HAY FORAGE, HAY FORAGE, HAY FORAGE, HAY FORAGE, HAY FORAGE, HAY
71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501 71052501	TEST TEST TEST TEST	650 698 707 924 1212 1417 1482 1482 1503 1510	660 700 714 934 1248 1512 1492 1512 1513		174 154 134 159 172 157 052 085 152 196	181 169 146 169 167 082 103 157 203		CORN CORN CORN CORN CORN CORN CORN CORN
71052501 71052501	TESST T TESST TESST TESST TESST TESST TESST TESST TESST TESST TESST TESS	294 7921 1101 11337 11446 1155 11882 11985 112258 14431 14467 1467 1537	318 711 92659 111365 111661 11189 11208 11208 112264 11478 11478 11544	בן נהן בן	218 1909 138 017 010 017 033 015 017 017 124 339 162 162	224 124 1157 1044 1002 1002 1002 1002 1002 1002 1002	בין אין בין אין בין אין בין אין בין בין בין בין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין אין א	

TABLE D4 TEST AREAS FOR RUN 72032803

RUN NUMBER	AREA DESIGNATION	FIRST	LAST	LINE	FIRST LAST	COL	COVER TYPE
72032803 72032803	138 1324 1334 1339 1448 1	8825277602934890056890001355566666899113455666777990122334555666778880 22222222233333333333333333333333333	139942293568646429904423799985121637187198691234978706627899323 7777789012233334444555666666666667777777778778888888888		14389 14389 14389 14389 14389 144889 144889 144881 144881 14452 14452 14453 14452 14453 14452 14453 14463 14464 14463 14464 14463 14464 14463 14464 14463 14464		OOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOO

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72032803	72032803 72032803	0-188	431	432		11 7 5 1221 1298	1179 1227 1300	1 1	RRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRR
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TABLE D4, CONTINUED

72032803 72032803	0-202 B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B B	34444566677777888899990011222233445578800112234556666677777888888899999 4444444444444444444444	657768887810891130377224385665600909855575027015989680617509111247444444444444444444444444444444444		1328635803031964557875931389261653883648436098742841111111111111111111111111111111111	54479019036153003699211121111111111111111111111111111111		RERERERE RERERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERE RERERERERE RERERERERE RERERERERE RERERERERE RERERERERERE RERERERERE RERERERERERE RE
72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803		493 495 524 527 529	494 497 526 529 530		1127 1119 1450 1451 1434			

TABLE D4, CONTINUED

72032803 72032803
23337237173667657667788777889 4198823224486271748137148137148882221244862717481371481371488822212244667788788888888888888888888888888888
11445777790224566678889011222233458899077335781112222344577780256912378 555555555555555555555555555555555555
436689993306560221005153427559671010429776012435356970748497825674155555555555555555555555555555555555
69067174128613005842898387491731162485658905019215665176325016862939 44474317412861333448983874917311624485658905019215665176325016862939
93471581867158493382937808617037797236384310656101085573085560285112 4447764667443914411111111111111111111111111111111
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TABLE D4,	CONTINUED	
72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803 72032803	42 101A 100 128 101B 28 27 88 99A 99A 93A 103B	616 618 618 620 627 628 631 633 633 635

72032803	99B
72032803	103A
72032803	93A
72032803	103B
72032803	92
72032803	93R
72032803	103C
72032803	89
72032803	60 .
72032803	32
72032803	5.8
72022002	21

7203280	3	58
7203280	3	31
7203280		97
7203280		53
7203280	3	52A
7203280	3	33
7203280		107
7203280	3	52B
7203280		112A
7203280	2	51
7203280		110B
7203280	3	110A
7203280	3	109A
1 - 0 0		4 30 011

16006000	107
72032803	112B
72032803	109B
72032803	34
72032803	1-86
72032803	1-82
72032803	L-81
72032803	L-119
72032803	1-80
72032803	1 - 77
72032803	1-79
72032803	L-118
72032803	L-122
72032803	L-123
72022003	1-01

032803	L-91
032803	L-74
032803	L-90
032803	L-112
032803	L-87
032803	L-92
032803	L-111C

72032803	L-111C
72032803	L-111B
72032803	L-68
72032803	L-129
72032803	L-111A
72032803	L-67 B
72032803	L-51
72032803	L-128
72032803	L-67 A
72032803	L-127
72032803	L-114
72032803	L-60

72032803	L-32
72032803	L-93
72032803	L-108C
72032803	L-94

616	622	
616	618	
618	625	
618	619	
620	622	
627	628	
628	630	

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1712 1777

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1482 1612

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627	628	
628	630	
631	634	
631	632	
633	634	
633	634	
635	636	
635	636	
636	640	
637	640	
637	638	

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638		1
643		1
642		1
650		1
648		1
661		1
651		1

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653 655 655 657 656 660 657 662 659 660 660 661		661
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03	705	
03	704	
05	707	
05	707	
05	706	
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11111	1247 1312 1365	1250 1315 1369
1	1365	1369
1	1231	1734
1	1184	1193
1	1296	1193 1301 1355 1294
1	1352	1355
1	1291	1294

293 1298 349 1356 273 1276 296 1299 352 1355 347 1356 257 1262 342 1344 252 1254 201 1215 312 1315
296 1299 352 1355 347 1350 257 1262
296 1299 352 1355 347 1350 257 1262
352 1355 347 1350 257 1262 329 1330 342 1344 252 1254
347 1350 257 1262 329 1330 342 1344 252 1254
347 1350 257 1262 329 1330 342 1344 252 1254
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329 1330 342 1344 252 1254
342 1344 252 1254
252 1254
202 1204
201 1215
319 1323
247 1250
312 1315

272 1273

346	1344
252	1254
201	1215
319	1323
319	1250
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