

# Accuracy evaluation of convolutional neural network classification algorithms for building identification in rural and urban areas from very-high-resolution satellite imagery in Jambi, Indonesia

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**Abstract.** Accurate land cover data are essential to a reliable decision-making process; therefore, researchers have turned to novel land cover classification algorithms employing machine learning on high-resolution satellite imagery to improve classification accuracy. The experiment presented in this paper aims to assess the accuracy performance of three patch-based, convolutional neural network architectures (LeNet, VGGNet, and Xception) in classifying building footprints in rural and urban areas from satellite imagery data, with conventional, pixel-based classification algorithms as a benchmark. The experiment concluded that the CNN classification algorithms consistently outperformed pixel-based algorithms in the accuracy of the resulting building-footprint classification raster. It was also demonstrated that larger image patch size does not always improve classification accuracy in all CNN architectures. This study also revealed that the Xception architecture performed best among the three CNN architectures assessed, with a 72-pixel patch size having the best accuracy.

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## Contents:

1. Introduction .....	142
2. Research materials and methods .....	143
2.1. Experiment design .....	144
2.2. Preparation .....	144
2.3. Training process .....	144
2.4. Inference process .....	146
2.5. Evaluation process .....	146
3. Research results and discussion .....	148
3.1. Quantitative assessment of classification result .....	148
3.2. Patch size influence on classification accuracy .....	148
3.3. Qualitative assessment of classification result .....	148
3.3.1. High-density urban area .....	148
3.3.2. Medium-density urban area .....	148
3.3.3. Low-density, rural area .....	149
4. Conclusions .....	152
Acknowledgements .....	153
References .....	153

## 1. Introduction

Urban planning requires an accurate assessment of the latest real-world condition, including the spatial distribution pattern of the buildings in urban areas, as buildings are the primary sites for housing and production. One of the most cost-effective ways of getting this information is by deriving building-footprint information from satellite imagery (Ayala et al., 2021). At 30-cm resolution, Maxar's Worldview-3 and Worldview-4 imagery have the highest resolution available to date, as compared to the previous generation of commercial high-resolution satellite imagery (Zhu et al., 2020), enabling public access of periodic earth observation with unprecedented detail. However, in December 2018, the WorldView-4 satellite experienced a failure in its control moment gyros, preventing it from collecting imagery (Maxar, 2020), leaving only WorldView-3 as the highest resolution commercial earth observation satellite currently available from Maxar.

In the past, changes in building distribution and density in urban areas were typically monitored by manually interpreting aerial photographs captured on an analogue recording medium. However, with the availability of digital image data from remote-sensing satellites, advancement in classification algorithms and robust off-the-shelf software packages, this task can be carried out more efficiently and accurately. Early image classification algorithms employ statistical methods that tend to be less accurate; however, this has shifted into machine learning methods that enable better predictions through rigorous training processes (Aroma & Raimond, 2016). In this study, buildings are defined as structures with a roof and walls that enable people to live or work inside, such as houses, schools, stores or factories, and do not include built structures without roofs and walls, such as pavements, roads, parking lots or bridges.

The most commonly used machine learning classification algorithms for remotely sensed image data include Random Forest, K-Nearest Neighbour, and Support Vector Machine (Thanh Noi & Kappas, 2017; Shah et al., 2018). The advent of classification algorithms employing neural network architectures has dramatically influenced the accuracy of supervised classification (Kattenborn et al., 2019). Even though such classification methods come with a high cost in computing resources, they have helped increase satellite imagery classification accuracy (Zhang et al., 2018). Previous studies have asserted that Convolutional Neural Network

(CNN) architecture significantly outperforms other classification algorithms in satellite image classification (Hu et al., 2018). Another study by Pan et al. (2020) has suggested that built-up area classification from satellite imagery (including the identification and classification of building footprints) is a task that can be reliably solved using CNN (Chawda et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2021).

Many CNN architectures are available in various platforms and frameworks, ranging from classic models such as LeNet and AlexNet to the most advanced ones such as InceptionNet, VGGNet, Xception and DenseNet (Sultana et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2020). The convolutional neural network architectures that will be studied in this paper are LeNet, VGGNet and Xception. LeNet was the precursor of modern neural network architecture introduced by Lecun et al. in 1998, and it is included due to its historical significance and relative simplicity. Originally designed to recognize handwritten numeric characters, its architecture is relatively less complicated (having only five convolutional layers) than the other deep CNN architectures; hence, it is faster to train and process, especially when run on today's hardware. The VGGNet devised by Simonyan & Zisserman in 2018 has 26 convolutional layers, and the Xception architecture (a much deeper CNN architecture designed by Chollet in 2014) has 126 layers. Deep CNN architectures such as VGGNet and Xception can be used for satellite image classification, facial recognition, and scene and feature detection in multimedia data (Muhammad et al., 2018; Pal et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2020; Fatima et al., 2021), and both VGGNet and Xception are currently considered state-of-the-art (Gikunda & Jouandeau, 2019). As the data input, the CNN algorithms require an image patch, whose size depends on the specific network architecture being used. Previous research has demonstrated that a larger image patch size in CNN classifiers can improve classification accuracy (Hamwood et al., 2018).

This study produces raster datasets signifying building footprints derived from the classification process at 1.2-metre resolution, with each pixel carrying a binary attribute (building or non-building). This resolution exceeds the resolution requirement for 1:10,000 mapping (Tobler, 1987; Li et al., 2019). Based on the Indonesian Government Decree Concerning the Map Accuracy for Spatial Planning (Government of Indonesia, 2013), 1:10,000 scale maps are required to perform city-wide spatial planning in Indonesia. By utilizing this raster dataset, this study aims to accomplish a comparative assessment of LeNet, VGGNet, and Xception

network architectures in supervised building classification compared against conventional, pixel-based classification algorithms, such as Random Forest (RF) and k-Nearest Neighbour (KNN), using test points and pixels derived from manually-digitized building polygons as the baseline benchmark for the classification results. RF and KNN were chosen as the comparative baseline since these algorithms are considered to be the state-of-the-art classifier with high overall accuracy (Thanh Noi & Kappas, 2017; Pacheco et al., 2021). Furthermore, we hypothesized that the classification algorithms employing CNN architectures would provide higher classification accuracy compared to RF and KNN, with the larger image patch size and more advanced architecture yielding more accurate results, and we will evaluate the comparative accuracy between various image patch sizes used in the classification training and inference process.

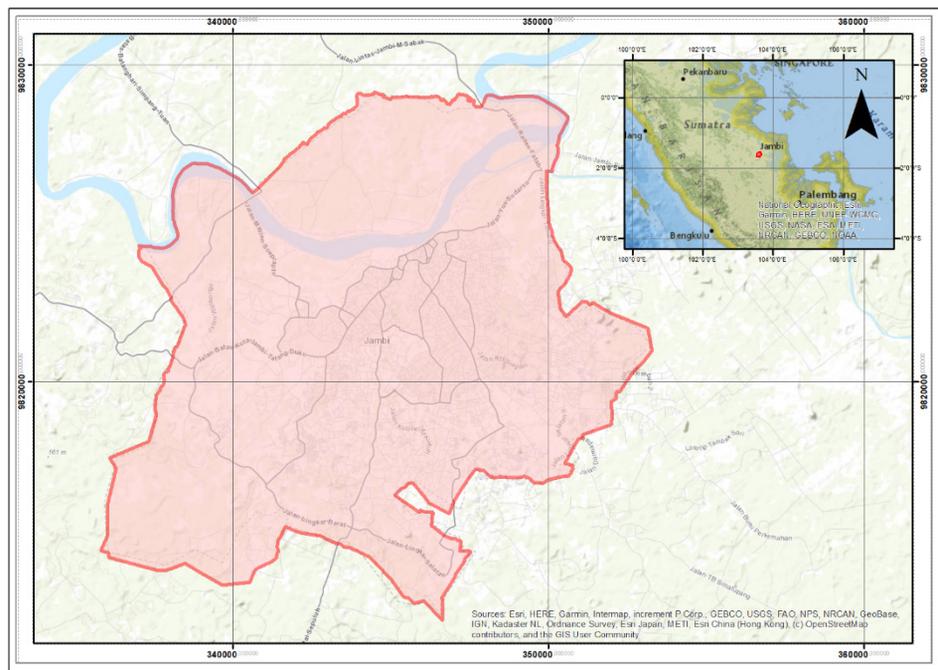
## 2. Research materials and methods

The overall workflow of this experimental study is illustrated in Figure 2. The study area is located within the vicinity of Jambi City in Jambi Province, Indonesia, around the Batanghari River banks. The large bulk of the built-up area in Jambi City is located on the south riverbank. Jambi City is a rapidly developing city (Hardiani & Lubis, 2017) that is

prone to flooding hazards (Fitri & Sumunar, 2019); therefore, rapid and accurate detection of buildings developed along the banks of the Batanghari River is crucial for disaster mitigation efforts.

This experimental study uses a pan-sharpened Worldview-4 imagery mosaic with 30-cm resolution over Jambi City, Indonesia. This mosaic consists of two Worldview-4 scenes: One scene was acquired on 8 August 2017, and the other on 28 March 2018. Both image scenes were radiometrically and geometrically corrected and then combined into a seamless mosaic in December 2018 by the Regional Planning Board of the Jambi Municipality Government. A total of 23 ground control points and SRTM Digital Elevation Model at one arc-second (30-metre) resolution were used to perform geometric correction on the satellite imagery. The satellite image orthomosaic is provided as three-channel natural colour imagery with a bit-depth of 16-bit for each channel (RGB). The near-infrared channel of Worldview-4 imagery was not available for this study. Five distinct training areas were specified throughout the city; each training site is located well outside the test area and is expected to contain standard features typically found within Jambi City. The test area, along with the corresponding WorldView-4 scene coverage, is shown in Figure 1, while the layout of the training area within the study area is shown in Figure 3.

This experiment utilized LeNet, VGGNet and Xception CNN architectures in Python through



**Fig. 1.** Red polygon denotes extent of WorldView-4 satellite imagery in study area  
Source: own elaboration

TensorFlow and Keras framework, while the KNN and RF algorithms were executed in R language utilizing the Caret package. The computing resource being used in this study is an Intel Core i5-7600K CPU clocked at standard speed (3.8 GHz) with 32 GB of random access memory, while the GPU is an NVIDIA GTX 1070. The VGG-19 architecture was designed with the input image size of 224×224 pixels with a minimum possible input image size of 32×32 pixels, while the Xception architecture was designed with an input image size of 299×299 pixels with a minimum possible input image size of 71×71 pixels (Chollet, 2015). In comparison, LeNet-5 requires a minimum patch size of 32×32 pixels (Sultana et al., 2018). Therefore, in this experiment, three image patch sizes were selected to evaluate all three algorithms: 72×72 pixels, 128×128 pixels and 256×256 pixels, translating to areas of 0.047 hectares, 0.15 hectares and 0.6 hectares in the real world, respectively. In identifying a particular pixel classification, the whole image patch in which the pixel is centred is fed into the neural network to infer the classification. The identification process outputs binary information about whether a particular pixel is building or not building. This process is then repeated for all required pixels in the satellite image within the study area.

## 2.1. Experiment design

In this experiment, two independent variables are investigated: 1) the CNN architecture used in the classification and 2) the image patch size. The dependent variable is the accuracy of the classification result, presented through three metrics: 1) Overall Accuracy, 2) Kappa, and 3) Intersection over Union. The hyperparameters for the CNN algorithms were set at predetermined fixed values (as dictated by the hyperparameter tuning process) before the actual training process and were not altered throughout the experiments, so as to ensure that the classification accuracy is only affected by the patch size and the selected CNN algorithm architecture.

## 2.2. Preparation

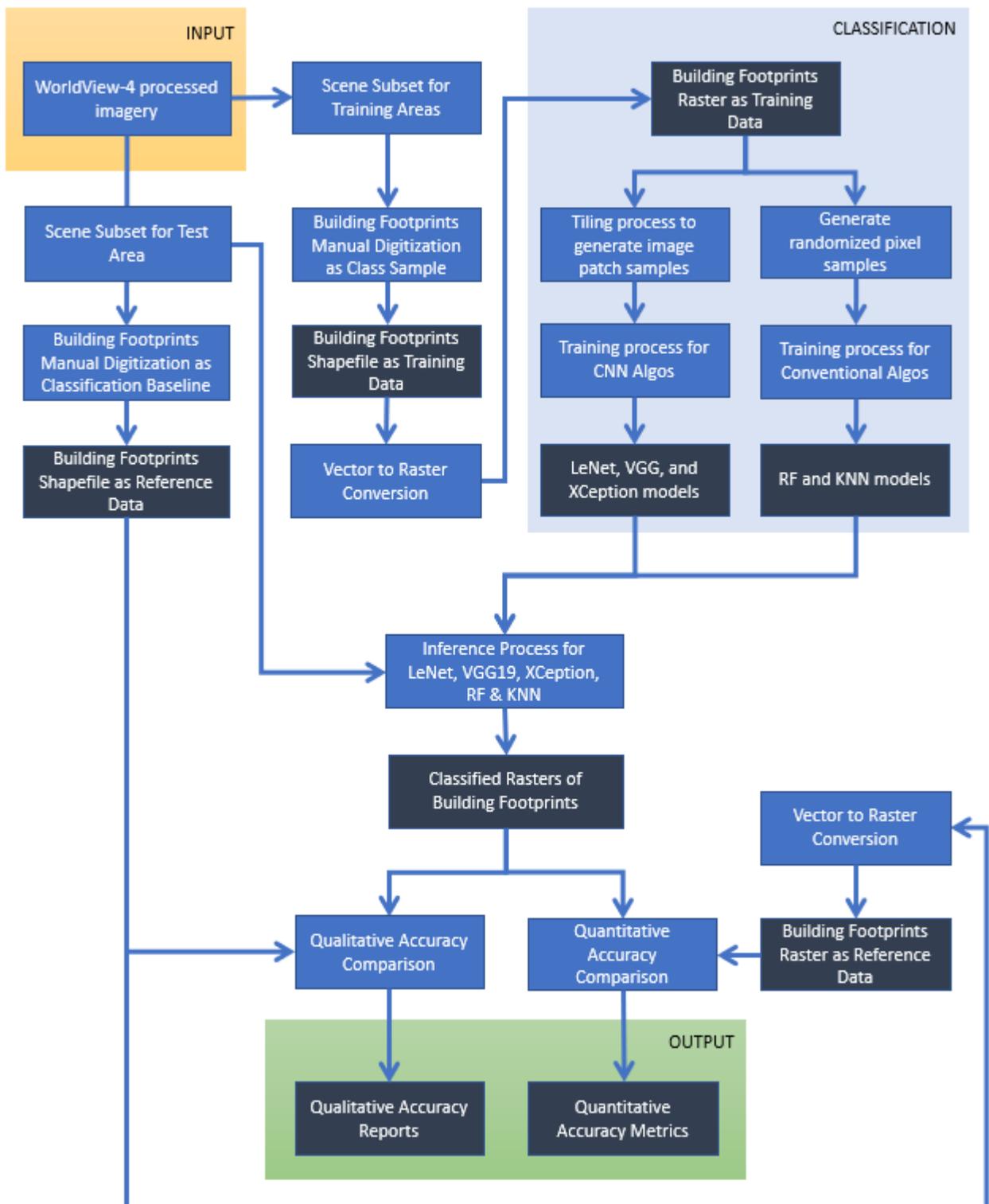
For this experiment, the appropriate Keras-TensorFlow framework was installed on the computer, including all the necessary neural network drivers for the Graphics Processing Unit (GPU). In addition, Anaconda environment manager was utilized to organize and simplify

Python installation and configuration. Each band in the Worldview-4 imagery needs to be normalized before CNN algorithms process it correctly (Bishop et al., 1995). This normalization can be done by linear minimum–maximum rescaling to ensure that the resulting digital number values range from 0 to 1. This linear rescaling can be accomplished by dividing the raw digital number for the pixels in each channel by 2048 as the dynamic range of Worldview-4 imagery is 11 bits (Digital Globe, 2017), albeit it was delivered in 16-bit-per-channel format. Three different Python scripts were prepared to accomplish these tasks related to the CNN algorithm classification process: 1) building training dataset by automatically generating image patches of the training area based on the manually digitized vectors of the building footprints, 2) training process and model creation, and 3) inference process based on the saved model.

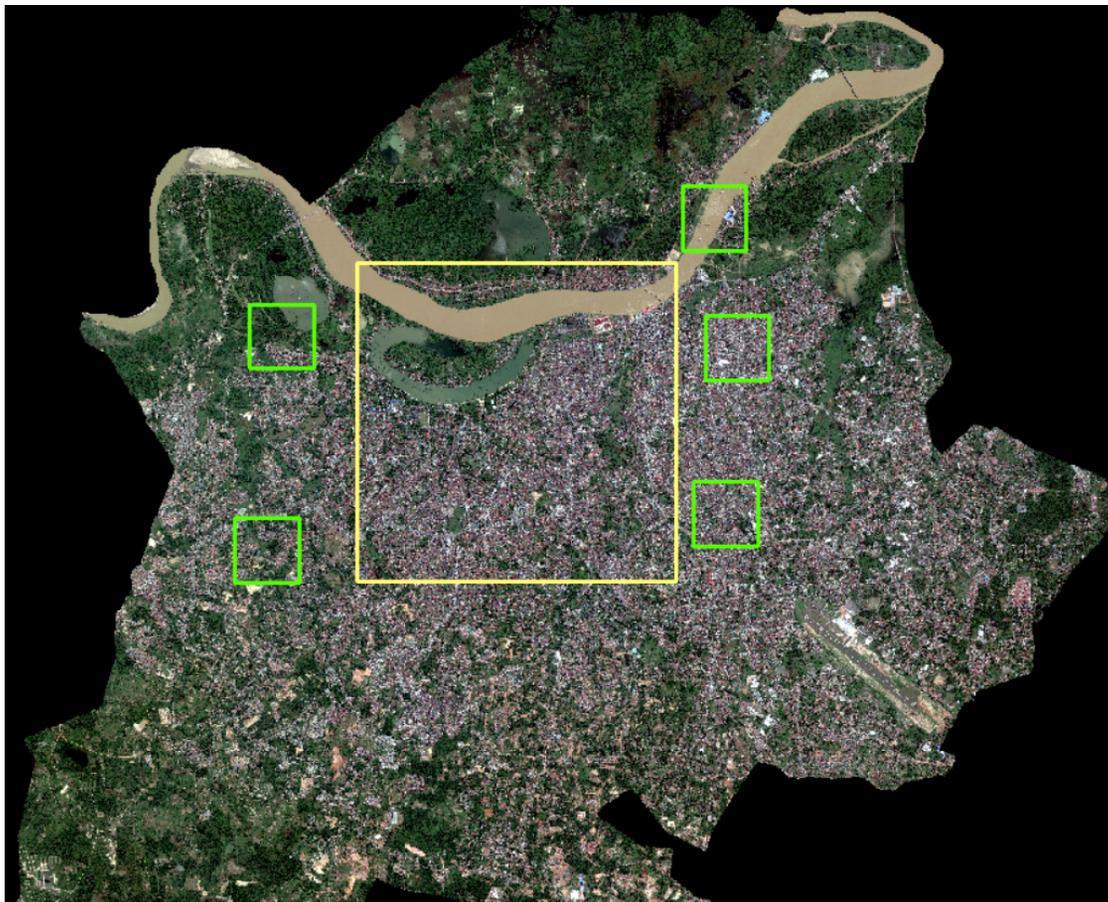
Three sets of image patches of different sizes were generated for 72×72 pixels, 128×128 pixels and 256×256 pixels, with the latter two sizes shown in Figure 4. Each training set with differing image patch sizes was used separately to train the CNN models. In this experiment, a total of 16,000 training image patches for each patch size were generated based on the manually delineated building footprints for all five training areas. The building areas in the five training sites were classified by performing a manual visual interpretation of the satellite image within the training area's boundary. The features interpreted are then digitized into polygonal vectors to signify building and non-building areas. The resulting vectors are then converted into raster data, which will be used to generate sample image patches to be fed into the CNN algorithms during the training process. Each image patch's centre pixel will determine whether that particular patch will be classified as building or non-building. A random sampling procedure was performed to generate sample pixels for the training process for the pixel-based algorithms, RF and KNN.

## 2.3. Training process

The unweighted models for LeNet-5, VGG-19 and Xception were prepared in the Python script, instantiated from the built-in CNN models in Keras. These unweighted models will be trained, and the resulting weighted model will be stored in an HDF5 file. The training sessions were performed for each classification algorithm for all the image patch sizes. Since only one computer system is available for research purposes, the training sessions



**Fig. 2.** Block diagram of the building footprint classification and accuracy evaluation workflow.  
Source: own elaboration



**Fig. 3.** 2500-hectare test site (yellow rectangle) and training sites (five green rectangles, 100 hectares each)  
Source: own elaboration

are repeated for each image patch size set tested. The CNN algorithms' training process's output contains weights for each neural network layer, and these models were stored in HDF5 file format. HDF5 is a high-performance file format for storing heterogeneous data as a model storage format and a container for an organized collection of objects (The HDF Group, 2019) in the Keras-TensorFlow framework. The model varies between architectures, with a larger model size for deeper convolutional neural network architecture.

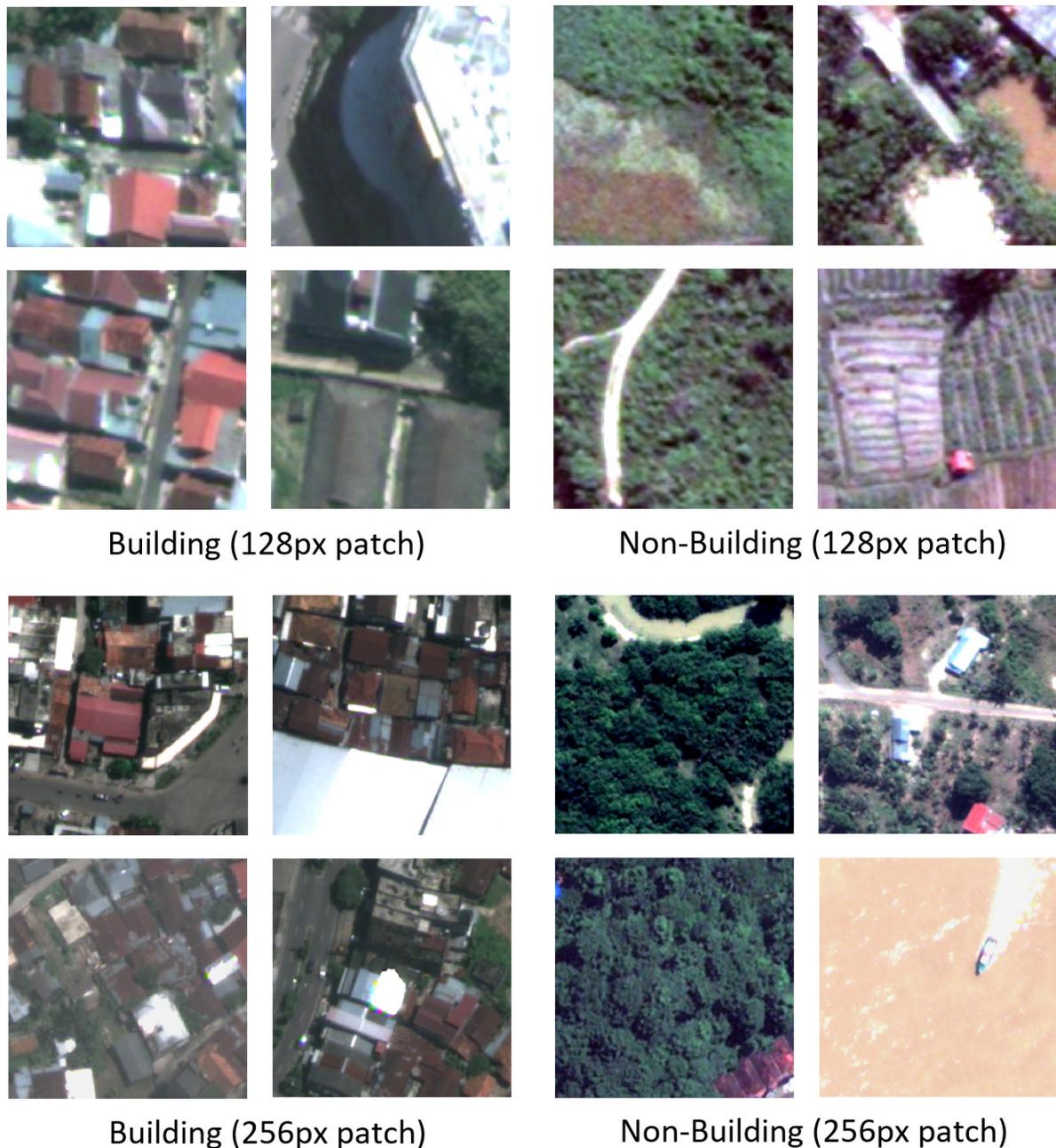
#### 2.4. Inference process

Based on the model constructed and saved in the form of the HDF5 file produced during the training process, the inference process to produce building classification can then be performed on the entire test area. Since the computation will require a considerable amount of time, the test area was split into 25 tiles at 100 hectares each, with enough overlap between tiles to enable incremental

batch processing while minimizing progress loss caused by hardware or power outages. Due to the time constraint and the limitation in computing hardware resources used in this study, not all pixels were classified using CNN algorithms. Instead, only 1 in 16 pixels is processed, thus yielding 1.2-metre resolution in the classification raster. For each pixel-based classification method (RF and KNN), a classification raster with equal resolution (1.2-metre) was generated with no generalization of the classification results.

#### 2.5. Evaluation process

Manual visual identification of the building footprints from the Worldview-4 satellite imagery mosaic was performed in the test area to provide a baseline performance reference. The manual interpretation and classification process was done by a team of professional GIS analysts and took 35 person-hours to complete and an additional 12 person-hours to do quality control. For the classification accuracy



**Fig. 4.** A few samples of image patches were used in the supervised classification training process. A total of 16,000 image patches similar to these were used

Source: own elaboration

evaluation, a stratified random sampling method was used. A sample of 10,000 test points within the experiment area was selected using a stratified random sampling method. The main characteristic of this sampling method is that it ensures that each classification type within the study area receives proper representation within the sample. The accuracy evaluation will use Overall Accuracy (OA), Kappa coefficient and Intersection over Union (IoU)

as the performance metrics, as they are commonly used in Deep Learning literature (Maxwell et al., 2021). The collective accuracy of the classification results can be described using Overall Accuracy, which calculates the proportion of pixels correctly classified as building or non-building. The Kappa coefficient is used as one of the accuracy metrics in this study because of its widespread adoption in the remote-sensing community (Rwanga &

Ndambuki, 2017), even though it has been disputed as a measure of accuracy (Foody, 2020). Intersection over Union (IoU), also known as the Jaccard index, is one of the most popular evaluation metrics for segmentation and object detection tasks and is much more indicative of success for segmentation tasks than pixel-based accuracy metrics (Van Beers et al., 2019). The IoU metric was calculated by comparing the pixels within the inferred building boundaries against the reference data.

### 3. Research results and discussion

#### 3.1. Quantitative assessment of classification result

All classification results showed overall accuracy (OA) ranging from 84.1% to 88%, Kappa ranging from 0.671 to 0.743, and IoU ranging from 0.638 to 0.716 (Fig. 5). Among the eleven classifiers evaluated in this study, all CNN algorithms performed better than KNN and RF algorithms in all three metrics, with Xception on a 72-pixel image window as the best-performing algorithm. Concerning the image patch size, all classifiers showed varying degrees of OA and Kappa when applied to different image window sizes; however, all CNN classifiers performed better than their conventional counterparts. Table 1 summarizes the accuracy measures (Kappa, OA and IoU) for all evaluated classification algorithms.

#### 3.2. Patch size influence on classification accuracy

In this study, varying patch sizes were tested for all three CNN architectures, and, in all cases, a larger image patch size does not necessarily yield better classification accuracy. In each image patch size,

varying performance was observed. Xception achieved the best accuracy performance at 72-pixel and 256-pixel image window size, while, at 128-pixel window size, VGG performed best.

#### 3.3. Qualitative assessment of classification result

Upon closer inspection of the classification result, the patch-based algorithms tend to over-generalize the building footprints. For example, as shown in Figure 6, the classification boundary did not precisely adhere to the building's outline, as the pixel-based algorithms did. However, areas with no identified buildings are markedly devoid of isolated classification patches or secluded pixels; therefore, minimal generalization is needed if the data is processed for further GIS analysis. In contrast, there is a significant presence of "salt-and-pepper" artefacts in the classification result of the pixel-based classifiers.

##### 3.3.1. High-density urban area

Visual inspection (Fig. 7) showed that the building area classified by the CNN algorithm generally bleeds slightly outwards of the actual building footprint. Small, empty lots of land between tightly packed buildings in the urban area are typically erroneously classified as buildings. The Xception architecture is capable of differentiating parking lots from buildings, whereas both LeNet-5 and VGG-19 fail to distinguish such cases.

##### 3.3.2. Medium-density urban area

The sub-urban area surrounding the Jambi city centre is characterized by a lower density of buildings compared to the city centre. The classifiers

**Table 1.** Accuracy metrics comparison, with best values in bold

Accuracy Metrics	LeNet-5			VGG-19			Xception			KNN <sup>4</sup>	RF <sup>5</sup>
	72px	128px	256px	72px	128px	256px	72px	128px	256px		
OA <sup>1</sup>	0.8746	0.8425	0.8437	0.8637	0.8785	0.8544	<b>0.8808</b>	0.8757	0.8716	0.8419	0.8475
KAPPA <sup>2</sup>	0.7234	0.6716	0.6764	0.6841	0.7376	0.6926	<b>0.7434</b>	0.7324	0.7177	0.6580	0.6724
IOU <sup>3</sup>	0.6923	0.6617	0.6583	0.6384	0.7083	0.6583	<b>0.7160</b>	0.7057	0.6878	0.6384	0.6462

1 Overall Accuracy, 2 Kappa, 3 Intersection over Union, 4 k-Nearest Neighbour, 5 Random Forest  
Source: author's own elaboration

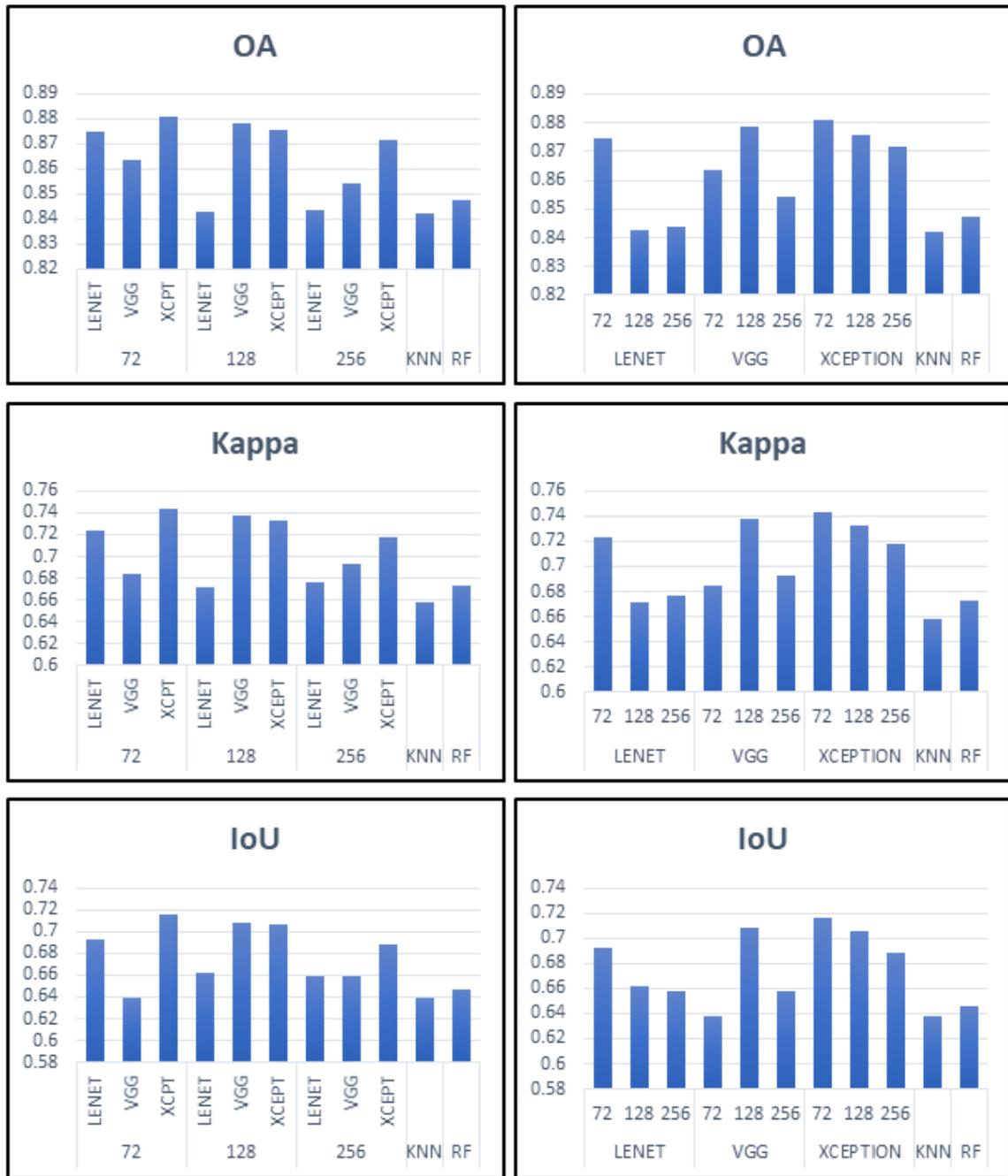


Fig. 5. Accuracy performance chart, grouped by image patch size (left) and by network architecture type (right)  
Source: own elaboration

with CNN architecture were able to classify most of the buildings; however, with larger patch size, the classification boundary tends to bleed into the narrow roads (Fig. 8).

### 3.3.3. Low-density, rural area

Most of the isolated buildings in the rural settlements around Jambi city core were identified correctly by CNN classifiers. However, some buildings with a relatively small footprint and partially occluded by vegetation were misclassified. On the other hand, there are instances where objects that are similar in appearance to a building, such as plastic mulch



Fig. 6. Classification results in detail, showing both rural and urban settings for select classification algorithms (RF and Xception).

Source: own elaboration

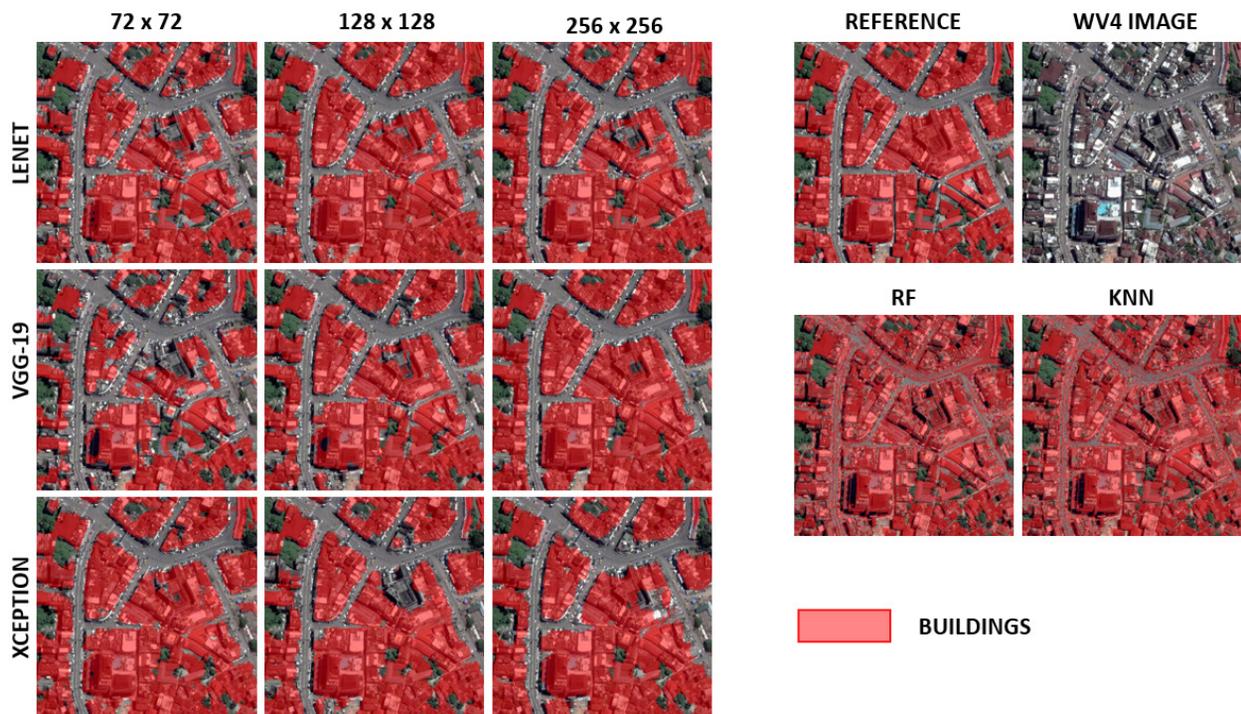
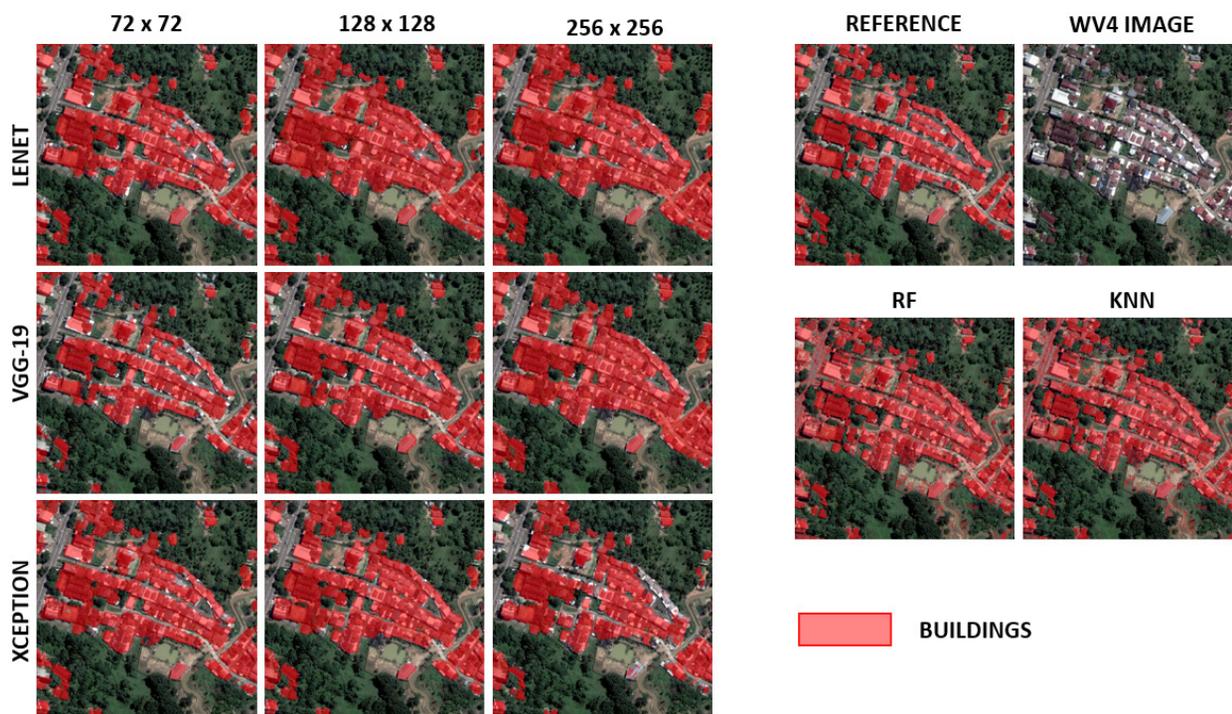


Fig. 7. Classification results on urban areas with high building density

Source: own elaboration



**Fig. 8.** Classification results on sub-urban areas with low building density  
Source: own elaboration

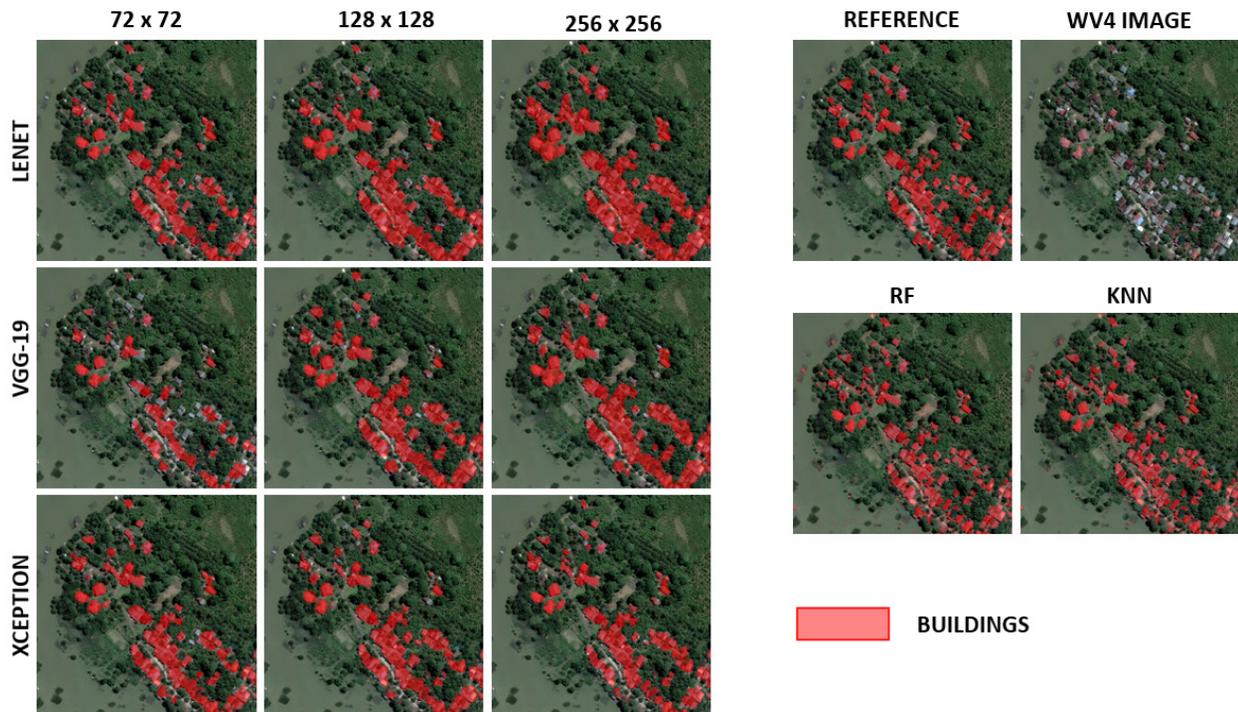
and freshly ploughed fields, were misclassified as buildings (Fig. 9).

The most complex CNN architecture tested in this study – the Xception architecture – produced the best results compared to other CNN architectures when using 72-pixel image patch size, followed by VGG-19 with 128-pixel image patch size. LeNet architecture yielded the lowest accuracy compared to Xception and VGG-19; however, as it contains the shallowest convolutional layer depth compared to other CNN algorithms tested in this study, it was much faster to train and to infer, and at 72-pixel image patch size the LeNet architecture still produced better results compared to conventional, pixel-based classification algorithms. There is a trade-off between the hardware requirements, data processing timeframe limitations and the expected accuracy levels.

This experiment has shown that the Deep Learning classification algorithm is a viable alternative for generating accurate building footprints maps, in line with previous studies (Långkvist et al., 2016; Hamwood et al., 2018; Kattenborn et al., 2019;). Furthermore, this experiment has shown that the CNN classifier produces better accuracy than conventional pixel-based classification algorithms, which agrees with previous studies (Kussul et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Pan et al., 2020). However, even though the quantitative results are satisfactory,

the CNN algorithms fail to infer some specific areas correctly; for example, swimming pools, large bridges and stacks of shipping containers were classified as buildings. These objects were not featured in the training area; therefore, all of the CNN algorithms misclassified them. The proper training dataset remains a critical aspect determining the classification accuracy (Kavzoglu, 2009; Millard & Richardson, 2015); this study shows that even the highest-performing CNN architecture fails to correctly identify objects not featured in the training area.

Paved surfaces such as roads and parking lots, even smaller ones, were successfully identified and classified as non-building by the CNN algorithms. In contrast, in pixel-based classification algorithms, almost any paved surface with a similar radiometric spectral signature as buildings in the training area were classified as buildings. Spatial and contextual data can provide valuable information about the shape of different structures, and such information reduces the classification uncertainty that arises when only spectral information is taken into account and also helps to address the “salt and pepper” artefacts of the resulting classification map (Tarabalka et al., 2018). Nevertheless, as the spatial and contextual scope presented to the pixel-based algorithms was only limited to one single pixel with 30-cm resolution, as in the case of WorldView-4



**Fig. 9.** Classification results on sub-urban areas with low building density  
Source: own elaboration

imagery, much noise was generated in the form of spurious classified pixels or “salt and pepper” appearance in the classification result of the RF and KNN algorithms. This noisy result necessitates a cartographic generalization process before the results can be used further. On the other hand, these spurious small bits of incorrect classification were not observed in the output of the three CNN classifiers evaluated in this study, since the CNN classifiers were fed with more spatial and contextual data within the image patches. However, this study showed that larger image patch size does not always result in higher classification accuracy, as each CNN architecture showed diminishing returns with increasing image patch size.

#### 4. Conclusions

In building classification from high-resolution satellite imagery, the CNN algorithms have significantly and consistently outperformed conventional classification methods, such as Random Forest and k-Nearest Neighbour, in terms of classification accuracy, especially in the study area. However, this higher accuracy comes with the higher cost of a more advanced hardware set-

up, which will cost more to procure and take much longer to produce the classification raster.

More sophisticated CNN architectures with deeper layers can differentiate more subtle patterns and variations of surficial features captured in the satellite imagery, which yields better classification accuracy than pixel-based algorithms. Pixel-based classification algorithm depends on band combination to perform classification for each pixel. Therefore, when given only three natural colour bands, pixel-based algorithms may not produce accurate results, specifically when semantic information can be inferred from the spatial pattern of the surrounding pixels. On the other hand, the CNN algorithms can capture such information because they use image patches instead of single pixels for the classification process. However, larger image patches do not necessarily increase accuracy, as this study has proven. Different CNN architectures perform best at different image patch sizes.

Whereas the CNN algorithms require more time to train and classify, most of the time spent on the process is mostly computing time with minimum human interaction; this is in stark contrast with manual classification, which requires full-time human work. However, although lower in terms of accuracy, conventional pixel-based classification algorithms can perform much faster than their

patch-based counterparts while requiring lower hardware specifications to run. Further research can be done for other unique areas in different geographic regions by utilizing other satellite imagery sensors, ranging from medium-resolution sensors such as Landsat-8 and Sentinel-2 to high-resolution sensors, such as Pleiades and WorldView satellite series.

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