# **Expert Systems With Applications**

# Integrated technique of segmentation and classification methods with connected components analysis for road extraction from orthophoto images --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Biswajeet Pradhan, PhD Road networks are one of the main urban features. Therefore, road parts extraction from high-resolution remotely sensed imagery and updated road database are beneficial for many GIS applications. However, owing to the presence of various types of obstacles in the images, such as shadows, cars, and trees, with similar transparency and spectral values as road class, achieving accurate road extraction using different classification and segmentation methods is still difficult. This paper proposes an integrated method combining segmentation and classification methods with connected components analysis to extract road class from orthophoto images. The proposed technique is threefold. First, multiresolution segmentation method was applied to segment images. Then, the main classification methods, namely, decision trees (DT), k-nearest neighbors (KNN), and support vector machines (SVM), were implemented based on spectral, geometric, and textural information to classify the obtained results into two classes: road and non-road. Three main accuracy evaluation measures, such as recall, precision, and F1-score, were evaluated to determine the performance of the proposed method, with respective average values of 87.62%, 89.71%, and 88.61%, respectively, for DT; 86.61%, 88.17%, and 87.30%, respectively, for KNN; and 89.83%, 89.52%, and 89.67%, respectively, for SVM. Finally, connected components labelling was used to extract road component parts, and morphological operation was employed to delete non-road parts and noises and improve the performance. These results were		

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1	Integrated technique of segmentation and classification
2	methods with connected components analysis for road
3	extraction from orthophoto images
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## 27

## 28 Abstract

Road networks are one of the main urban features. Therefore, road parts extraction from high-29 resolution remotely sensed imagery and updated road database are beneficial for many GIS 30 applications. However, owing to the presence of various types of obstacles in the images, such 31 as shadows, cars, and trees, with similar transparency and spectral values as road class, 32 achieving accurate road extraction using different classification and segmentation methods is 33 still difficult. This paper proposes an integrated method combining segmentation and 34 classification methods with connected components analysis to extract road class from 35 orthophoto images. The proposed technique is threefold. First, multiresolution segmentation 36 method was applied to segment images. Then, the main classification methods, namely, 37 decision trees (DT), k-nearest neighbors (KNN), and support vector machines (SVM), were 38 implemented based on spectral, geometric, and textural information to classify the obtained 39 results into two classes: road and non-road. Three main accuracy evaluation measures, such as 40 recall, precision, and F1-score, were evaluated to determine the performance of the proposed 41 method, with respective average values of 87.62%, 89.71%, and 88.61%, respectively, for DT; 42 86.61%, 88.17%, and 87.30%, respectively, for KNN; and 89.83%, 89.52%, and 89.67%, 43 respectively, for SVM. Finally, connected components labelling was used to extract road 44 45 component parts, and morphological operation was employed to delete non-road parts and noises and improve the performance. These results were also compared with other prior works, 46 which confirmed that the integrated method is an effective road extraction technique. 47

48 *Keywords:* road extraction; image segmentation; image classification; connected components

49 analysis; remote sensing

#### 50 1. Introduction

With the revolution of new generation remote sensing technologies, high-resolution remote sensing imagery has become frequently accessible recently. Image processing and interpretation are necessary to analyze remote sensing images because a massive number of images are captured by these sensors (Grinias, Panagiotakis, & Tziritas, 2016). Among the remote sensing fields, road network extraction from remote sensing images with high spatial resolution is a considerable subject that received ample attention from researchers in recent 57 years (Rezaee & Zhang, 2017). Compared to low and medium spatial resolution images, road parts are displayed in the high-resolution remotely sensed imagery with comprehensive spatial 58 information. Regular updates of road network database are required because the urban 59 environment is rapidly shifting (Abdollahi, et al., 2020). Road lengths are lengthy and generally 60 longer than those of street blocks and buildings, while road width is usually a few pixels in 61 remote sensing imagery (Sujatha & Selvathi, 2015). Therefore, precise road network extraction 62 from very high-resolution remotely sensed images is necessary for different kinds of urban 63 applications, such as updating maps in geographic information system (Abdollahi, Pradhan, & 64 65 Shukla, 2019), road navigation (Li, Jin, Fei, & Ma, 2014), land cover analysis (Zhang, Chen, Zhuo, Geng, & Wang, 2018), and transportation and traffic management (Liu, Wu, Wang, & 66 Liu, 2015). However, owing to existing obstructions and noise in these images, such as 67 contextual structures (shadows, vehicles, vegetation, and trees) and road-like features (such as 68 car parking and railways), which have similar spectral and spatial characteristics and produce 69 heterogeneous areas causing the incorrect segmentation of road parts, extracting road parts 70 71 from remotely sensed imagery becomes a challenging task (Li, et al., 2019). Manual road 72 extraction from high-resolution remote sensing images is inefficient and very time- and costconsuming, thus failing to satisfy real-time processing requests; semi-automatic and automatic 73 74 approaches are preferred (Courtrai & Lefèvre, 2016). Several machine learning methods, such as support vector machine (SVM) (Guo, et al., 2016), random forest (RF) (Rodriguez-Galiano, 75 76 Ghimire, Rogan, Chica-Olmo, & Rigol-Sanchez, 2012), maximum likelihood (Ahmad & Quegan, 2012), and neural networks (Ratle, Camps-Valls, & Weston, 2010), which are pixel-77 based traditional classification approaches, only rely on the spectral information of the images. 78 79 Pixel-wise classifiers have one limitation, that is, they are subject to the color phenomena; this 80 means that these methods classify the images based on color reflectance, which leads to loss of portions with similar color and background (Fauvel, Chanussot, & Benediktsson, 2012). 81 Therefore, integrating segmentation and classification methods that provide high accuracy by 82 utilizing spectral information along with the spatial and texture information is gaining 83 considerable attention in the remote sensing field. 84

#### 85 2. Related works

Road network extraction from high-resolution remote sensing imagery can be divided into
automatic and semi-automatic approaches (Khesali, Zoej, Mokhtarzade, & Dehghani, 2016).
User input as prior information is needed for semi-automatic techniques (Chaudhuri,
Kushwaha, & Samal, 2012), whereas automatic techniques do not need any prior information

90 (Mnih & Hinton, 2010). Miao, Shi, Gamba, and Li (2015) applied an approach derived from 91 semi-automatic approaches to extract road centerline from very high resolution (VHR) 92 imagery. They first used the geodesic technique to exploit the primary road sections and 93 produce the probability map. Then, they utilized thresholding operation to classify the image 94 in non-road and road parts. The obtained results showed that the suggested technique can 95 accurately and rapidly detect centerline of roads from VHR images.

In the work of (Alshehhi & Marpu, 2017), hierarchal graph-based segmentation was 96 introduced for road part extraction from high-resolution remote sensing imagery. This 97 98 technique includes three main steps: (1) pre-processing, which is based on morphological and Gabor filtering to extract features and intensifies the contradiction between non-road and road 99 100 sections; (2) graph-based segmentation, which is based on hierarchical joining and the dividing of the image segments using shape and color characteristics; and (3) post-processing, which is 101 102 applied to remove small artefact features in the extracted road sections and improve accuracy. 103 The outcomes proved that this technique is superior for road parts extraction from high-104 resolution remote sensing imagery in an urban area.

105 In a recent paper, Shen, Ai, and Yang (2019) proposed a novel approach called superpixel centerline extraction to extract dual-line roads from remotely sensed images. First, they used 106 simple linear iterative clustering to segment dual-line roads. Next, the superpixels situated at 107 108 road intersections were merged to generate connection points from their skeleton. Finally, they connected the midpoints and center points of edges of every superpixel to generate road 109 centerlines. The extracted road centerline was tested using an old vector data at a scale of 110 1:50,000. They found that the proposed method can eliminate noises and yield an excellent 111 road extraction result from simple and complex road intersections. 112

113 Gao, et al. (2018) introduced a multiple feature pyramid network for extracting a road class from remotely sensed images. They also presented the weighted balance loss function to settle 114 115 the class unbalance difficulty produced by the sparseness of road sections. They found that compared with cross-entropy loss function, training time can be dramatically decreased by the 116 weighted loss function. Two datasets were used to test their proposed method, and the results 117 confirmed that the method can obtain high accuracy for road class extraction. A semi-automatic 118 approach is presented by (Khesali, et al., 2016) for road class extraction from IKONOS and 119 TerraSAR-X imagery. They applied an integrated knowledge-based and neural network 120 121 approach using spectral and texture information for road extraction. The results proved that the proposed approach is effective for extracting road portions. Kamangir, Momeni, and Satari 122

(2017) performed maximum likelihood method, morphological operations, and random sample 123 consensus approach for image classification, segmented image rectification, and road class 124 extraction, respectively. The obtained completeness factor was 85%, indicating the 125 effectiveness of the suggested approach for road extraction. Da-Ming, Xiang, and Chun-Li 126 (2011) suggested a method for road network extraction based on Markov random field (MRF), 127 SVM, and fuzzy c-mean (FCM). They integrated the latter two models to extract road section 128 and then compared the outcome with that of the MRF method. They found that the fusion 129 method of SVM and FCM is more effective than the MRF method for extracting road class 130 131 from remotely sensed imagery.

A combined approach of SVM and level set (LS) is applied by (Abolfazl Abdollahi, 132 Bakhtiari, & Nejad, 2018) for extracting road regions from google earth imagery. They 133 achieved some common measures, such as completeness and correctness, and realized that the 134 135 integrated technique is efficient in extracting road class. A new approach based on graph 136 theoretical technique for road network extraction from high-resolution remote sensing imagery was introduced by (Unsalan & Sirmacek, 2012). Various kinds of images, such as QuickBird, 137 IKONOS, and GeoEye, were used to designate the deficiencies and robustness of the 138 recommended system. The empirical results demonstrated that the suggested technique can 139 efficiently extract road parts. Revathi and Sharmila (2013) applied pre-processing approach to 140 141 increase the quality of images by removing noises first. They then implemented SVM and mean shift approach to extract road portions from IKONOS images. They obtained completeness and 142 correctness metrics, which show that the proposed model achieved good results in road part 143 extraction. Singh and Garg (2013) extracted road parts using a combination of morphological 144 operators and adaptive global thresholding. The thresholding method was applied to segment 145 roads, whereas the morphological operators were utilized to fill the gaps and improve accuracy. 146 They discovered that the suggested model could achieve acceptable results for road extraction 147 based on the obtained performance measures (e.g., correctness and completeness). 148

A road centerline extraction approach was introduced by Sujatha & Selvathi (2015) for road class extraction from high-resolution remote sensing imagery. They segmented the images and then used connected components operators to extract united road segments. They applied morphological operations to remove pixels of non-road sections. The outcome verified the robustness of the introduced method in road part extraction. Moreover, various shape characteristics with spectral features, such as compound feature set (Valero, Chanussot, Benediktsson, Talbot, & Waske, 2010), image moments (Das, Mirnalinee, & Varghese, 2011),

morphological operations (Shi, Miao, Wang, & Zhang, 2014), and linear feature index (Miao, 156 Shi, Zhang, & Wang, 2012), can be used to improve road class segmentation and classification. 157 Shi, et al. (2014) performed a spectral-spatial classification method and shape features to 158 extract road object from IKONOS and Ziyuan-3 satellite images. They first used opening and 159 closing morphological operations to classify images into non-road and road sections. Local 160 Geary's C technique was then applied to obtain the homogeneity of local gray values. Finally, 161 shape features, such as length and area, were used to improve the road part. The results depicted 162 the effectiveness of the suggested approach in extracting road parts from high-resolution 163 164 remotely sensed image. However, the method is unsuitable for extracting road class from lowresolution images with a spatial resolution below six meters. 165

166 Some eminent shape features were used by Zhang, et al., (2018) for road class extraction from remote sensing imagery. They first extracted road edge using singular value 167 168 decomposition method and then constructed road sections using k-mean clustering approach. 169 Next, a combination of eminent shape features and total variation-based image contraction approach was used to obtain road networks. Morphological operators were used to remove 170 noises and extract non-road parts to improve accuracy. Completeness and correctness 171 assessment measures were achieved and proved that the suggested technique is remarkable in 172 detecting and extracting road class from remotely sensed imagery. Pixel-wise classification 173 174 techniques rely on color and classify images based on feature color reflectance. Therefore, the main problem of these techniques is color sensitivity, which has motivated the authors of this 175 paper to use other characteristics, such as spatial and texture features, to classify images and 176 extract road class. Merging spectral, spatial, and textural information generally demonstrates 177 better outcomes compared when only spectral information is used. Therefore, this paper aims 178 to integrate segmentation and classification methods with connected components analysis 179 using spectral values (mean and standard deviation), geometric information (area, length, and 180 number of pixels), and textural features (entropy, contrast, homogeneity, and mean) to 181 categorize orthophoto images into road and non-road class and extract the road parts. In 182 addition, the utilization of additional shape saliency features can tackle the color sensitivity 183 and improve the performance of road extraction methods. 184

Object-based image analysis (OBIA) usually has more benefits compared with that of traditional pixel-based classification approaches. For example, OBIA techniques consider not only spectral values but also textural and spatial features in classifying images, while pixelbased techniques depend only on a single pixel or its neighborhood information (Maboudi,

Amini, Hahn, & Saati, 2017). The performance of pixel-based classification techniques is 189 generally lower than that of the OBIA when dealing with road extraction and VHR remotely 190 sensed image classification (Blaschke, 2010). Therefore, the main contribution of this work is 191 to offers an integrated model of segmentation and classification methods with connected 192 components labeling for road extraction from orthophoto images. The following steps are 193 conducted to achieve this goal. First, the segmentation technique is used to split the image into 194 some segments, and then the results are processed using the classification methods to 195 categorize the images into non-road and road sections. Then, the connected components 196 197 labeling is applied to the final binary images to assert its pixels into components based on pixel connectivity to extract road parts and delete some components belonging to non-road sections. 198 Finally, morphological operations are performed to remove noises, fill the gaps, and improve 199 the performance. The training time for the proposed classification methods was relatively short, 200 while providing satisfactory results for both quantitative and qualitative parts. Moreover, these 201 methods were incorporated with the connected components labeling and morphological 202 operation for road extraction from orthophoto images, which has not been performed in 203 previous studies. The rest of this paper is organized as follows. The basic principle of the 204 suggested approach is illustrated in Section 3. Section 4 explains the empirical outcomes. 205 206 Section 5 and 6 report the discussion and conclusion parts, respectively.

207

#### 208 3. Materials and methodology

209 3.1. Proposed model

210 An effective model for road section extraction from VHR remotely sensed images is presented in this work. This model has the following three steps. First, multiresolution segmentation was 211 212 performed to divide the images into segments based on their spectral values. A total of 567 segments were selected as labeling data for training classification methods based on the 213 214 segmented images randomly. Then, three main classification approaches, namely, SVM, decision tree (DT), and k-nearest neighbors (KNN), were applied to the segmented image and trained 215 based on sampling data to classify the image into two principal classes: road and non-road class. 216 Finally, connected components analysis and morphological operations were performed to group 217 218 the pixels together in terms of similar connected components and delete holes and noises to improve the accuracy of the proposed road extraction method. Figure 1 illustrates the flowchart 219

- of the suggested method along with the entire process for road part extraction from orthophoto
- images.



Fig. 1. Flowchart of the proposed road extraction method

Image segmentation is a crucial step because it will produce the primary entities for the subsequent processes. The quality of image segmentation has a notable impact on the succeeding operations, making it a crucial yet challenging aspect of OBIA (Grote, Heipke, & Rottensteiner, 2012). The algorithms for image segmentation can be divided into four main categories: edgebased, pixel-based, region-based, and mixture methods. The multiresolution segmentation technique is applied in this study for image segmentation (Saba, Valadan Zoej, & Mokhtarzade,

<sup>224 3.2.</sup> Segmentation process

2016). The scale, shape, and compactness parameters for the proposed segmentation method 202 were set to 20, 0.2, and 0.6, respectively, to obtain high accuracy in the classification process. 203 The proposed segmentation method is a region-based method, which reduces the non-204 homogeneous segments using spectral and shape characteristics (Wang & Li, 2014). In this 205 method, each pixel of the image is considered as an object. Then, using a fusion factor, objects 206 were joined together to make a large one during a repetitive process. Equation 1 shows the fusion 207 factor, which demonstrates the cost of fitting (Saba, et al., 2016).

238 
$$f = W_{color} h_{color} + W_{shape} h_{shape}$$
 (1)

where  $h_{shape}$  is the difference in the shape dissimilarity,  $h_{color}$  is the difference in the spectral dissimilarity,  $W_{shape}$  is the weight of shape dissimilarity, and  $W_{color}$  is the weight of spectral heterogeneity. Furthermore,  $W_{color} + W_{shape} = 1$ . Equation 2 defines the difference between two objects on the basis of spectral heterogeneity in a multispectral image with B band.

243 
$$h_{color} = \sum_{b=1}^{B} W_{b} \{ n_{m} \sigma_{b,m} - (n_{1} \sigma_{b,1} + n_{2} \sigma_{b,2}) \}$$
(2)

 $h_{shape} = W_{smooth} \left\{ n_m \frac{\ell_m}{p_m} - \left( n_1 \frac{\ell_1}{p_1} + n_2 \frac{\ell_2}{p_2} \right) \right\}$ 

+  $W_{comp} \left\{ \ell_m \sqrt{n_m} - \left( \ell_1 \sqrt{n_1} + \ell_2 \sqrt{n_2} \right) \right\}$ 

where n is the number of pixels in every object;  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation of spectral values; indexes 1, 2, and m represent the first, second, and the combined object, respectively; and W<sub>b</sub> is the band weight. Smoothness and compactness dissimilarity represent the difference between the shape heterogeneity of two objects (Maboudi, et al., 2017). The difference in shape dissimilarity is expressed by Equation 3. W<sub>comp</sub> and W<sub>smooth</sub> are the compactness and smoothness dissimilarities, respectively.

where p shows the minimum bounding box perimeter of the object, and  $\ell$  represents the genuine length of the object.  $W_{smooth} + W_{comp} = 1$ .

(3)

253 3.3. Selecting features

In this paper, OBIA, which considers not only spectral information but also spatial and textural features, was applied to deal with color sensitivity and enhance the efficiency of the suggested road extraction approach. Pixels in the image are first grouped into objects on the basis of either spectral correlation or an outer parameter, such as ownership, soil, or geological unit in the OBIA (Blaschke, 2010). The parameter values, such as standard deviation and mean, were considered for each band in the image for the spectral values. The different shapes and elongation of road objects facilitated the easy identification of the proposed method. Geometric features (e.g., length/width, area, and number of pixels) were also considered to ease the classification process. Finally, for the textural values, contrast, entropy, dissimilarity, homogeneity, and correlation values were considered. These features are generally applied to alleviate the classification process and improve the efficiency of road extraction approaches. These features are fed into the classifiers as a training part to accurately classify the image into the road and non-road sections.

266 3.4. Classification process

After image segmentation, classifiers, such as SVM, KNN, and DT, were selected to categorize the orthophoto images into two principal classes: road and non-road. This section presents individual discussions of the above classifiers.

270 3.4.1. SVM classifier

271 SVM, which is one of the supervised machine learning approaches, exhibited ample ability in 272 image classification compared with that of the traditional techniques, such as neural networks (X. Huang, Lu, & Zhang, 2014). The SVM classifier is a linear classification approach that 273 274 creates a hyperplane to separate data. The process of separating data into classes is followed by identifying the best hyperplane and maximum margin (Abolfazl Abdollahi, et al., 2018). SVM 275 276 transforms data according to the predesignated sections in a novel space, wherein data can be detached and classified linearly. Then, a linear equation that provides a maximum margin 277 between two classes is formulated by finding a support line in multi-dimensional space using 278 SVM (Sghaier & Lepage, 2016). The practical application of the SVM method depends on the 279 hypothetical maximum margin classifier. Given that hyperplane is a line separating the input 280 variable space, a hyperplane in the SVM classifier detaches points from the input variable space 281 based on their class (0 or 1). All the input points can be completely split by this line into a two-282 dimension space (Equation 4). 283

284  $B_0 + (B_1 \times X_1) + (B_2 \times X_2) = 0$  (4)

where  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are the input variable,  $B_0$  is set up by the learning algorithm, and  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ specify the slope of the line. In this study, the kernel type for SVM is considered to be a linear kernel explaining the distance measure or similarity between new data and support vectors. The performance of the SVM method is shown in Figure 2. The dotted lines in the figure represent corresponding class support vectors, and the data are presented into two categories (red and blue).

- 290 The long black line is the SVM. Each kind of support vector has a characteristic formula that
- 291 describes the boundary of each group.





293 Fig. 2. SVM performance in categorizing data (Burges, 1998)

3.4.2. KNN classifier

One of the non-parametric techniques in machine learning methods is KNN, which has been 295 utilized in statistical applications since the early 1970s (K. Huang, Li, Kang, & Fang, 2016). The 296 fundamental concept of KNN is the discovery of a collection of k samples in the calibration 297 dataset nearest to uncertain samples based on distance functions. By evaluating the average of 298 299 the response variables (e.g., attributes of KNN class), the class of uncertain samples is specified from these k samples (Akbulut, Sengur, Guo, & Smarandache, 2017). Therefore, k is the key 300 301 tuning parameter of KNN and plays a crucial role in ensuring the efficiency of KNN in image classification. The bootstrap process is used to identify the k parameter (Qian, Zhou, Yan, Li, & 302 303 Han, 2015). Different k values from 1 to 10 were inspected in this study to find the ideal k value from all the training datasets, which finally yielded 2. 304

305 3.4.3. DT algorithm

Regarding the dispensation of data, the DT method can be executed without any previous 306 statistical presumptions because it is a non-parametric classifier. The basic structure of the DT 307 algorithm has three main parts, which include one root node, numerous interior nodes, and a 308 collection of final nodes (Otukei & Blaschke, 2010). The data are recessively broken down into 309 a DT based on the assigned classification structure. Using a breaking test of the form  $x_i > c$  for 310 univariate or  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x_{i} \leq c$  for multivariate decision trees, a decision rule necessary at every node 311 can be performed. Where c is the decision threshold, a is the linear coefficient vector, n is the 312 chosen feature, and xi presents the evaluation vectors. Compared with traditional methods, such 313 314 as the minimum-distance-to-means approach, the DT method has high precision. However, several variables, such as decision threshold, boosting, and pruning approaches, can affect the
efficiency of DT in classification (Mishra, Singh, & Yamaguchi, 2011). Some parameters, such
as max categories, cross-validation fold, and depth, are set to 16, 3, and 1, respectively, for the

318 DT method to achieve optimal results.

319 3.5. Connected component analysis and morphological operations

After applying the classification methods and obtaining the results, connected components 320 labeling was performed to extract road sections. Image pixels were grouped into components 321 using connected components analysis on the basis of pixel connectivity, wherein all pixels in 322 the connected component have the same pixel intensity values and are labeled with color or 323 gray level based on each component (Vijayan & Jyothy, 2016). The image can be partitioned 324 into segments using these connected components. Morphological operators can be used to 325 326 extract connected components. Analyzing connected components can be very useful for several applications, such as line detection and road extraction (Sujatha & Selvathi, 2015). 327

The trivial operation was applied to extract connected component based on some criteria. Assume that P(i) is the connected component, P is the image, and T is the length of the main axis. The trivial opening can then be expressed as follows:

331  $R_0 = \{P \mid Long \text{ axis of minimum ellipse enclosing } P(i) \ge T\}$  (5)

where  $R_0$  is the connected component. According to the T, trivial operation is utilized for 332 suitable connected components extraction. The entire region of connected components is 333 preserved if that component satisfied condition T and is removed otherwise. After extracting 334 the required connected components in terms of road section, common morphological 335 336 operations, such as opening and erosion operations, were used to fill gaps, remove noises, delete non-road parts from the image, and improve the accuracy of the extracted road class 337 338 using the proposed methods (Bakhtiari, Abdollahi, & Rezaeian, 2017; Yadav & Agrawal, 2018). 339

340 3.6. Accuracy evaluation

The road layer from orthophoto images was manually digitized using ArcMap software to compare it with the extracted road class and calculate the accuracy of the proposed road extraction technique. A confusion matrix containing road and non-road class pixels was used to assess the effectiveness of the proposed method in extracting road section. Some common metrics, such as recall (completeness) factor, F1-score, and precision (correctness) factors, were determined and presented in Equations (6), (7), and (8), respectively. The amount of road pixels extracted among all real road pixels is determined by the recall factor. A fusion of precision and recall is considered being the F1-score, while the precision factor determines the number of accurately extracted road pixels among all estimated pixels.

350 
$$F1 = \frac{2 \times Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}$$
 (6)

- 351  $Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$  (7)
- 352 Precision  $=\frac{TP}{TP+FP}$  (8)

### **4. Results**

#### 4.1. Orthophotos and geometric correction

Orthophoto images obtained from the state of Selangor in Peninsular Malaysia with spatial 355 resolution of 7 cm are utilized in this paper (Figure 3). An Optech Airborne Laser Terrain Mapper 356 3100 instrument in an airborne laser scanning of light detection and ranging (LiDAR) system 357 was used to collect orthophotos from the specific area on November 2, 2015. A LiDAR system 358 basically includes a specific GPS (global positioning system) receptor, a scanner, and a laser. 359 The most regularly utilized platforms for collecting LiDAR data over large regions are 360 helicopters and airplanes. Laser scanning systems are classified as topographic and bathymetric. 361 Topographic LiDAR maps the land based on a near-infrared laser, whereas bathymetric LiDAR 362 363 measures seafloor and riverbed elevation and maps land based on water-penetrating green light (Ferraz, Mallet, & Chehata, 2016). The flight height for data collection was 1510 m in a bright 364 sky. The geometric calibration of the orthophoto images was performed to eliminate geometric 365 error and designate single pixels in their appropriate planimetric (x, y) map positions (Aasen, 366 Honkavaara, Lucieer, & Zarco-Tejada, 2018). Subsequently, several well-distributed ground 367 control points in the entire image were selected, and then the least square technique was 368 performed to determine the coefficient. Finally, polynomial equations were formulated to 369 determine the root mean shift error between the X, Y of reference, and the adjusted coordinates. 370 371



Fig. 3. Orthophoto images showing the location of the study area

374 4.2. Experimental results

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375 In this study, a new method integrating segmentation and classification methods with connected components labeling was introduced to extract road class from different orthophoto 376 images with different backgrounds. Three images from different areas, in which road section is 377 covered by some other objects, such as vegetation, vehicles, and buildings, were considered to 378 demonstrate the efficiency of the proposed road extraction method. Software, including 379 MATLAB, eCognition Developer 64, and ArcMap, were used to apply the proposed method and 380 calculate its efficiency in road extraction. We considered two sets of values for parameters such 381 as scale, shape and compactness for the proposed segmentation approach to measure how the 382 parameters of the method affect the detection accuracy. First, we set the values for the scale, 383 shape and compactness parameters of the segmentation method to 50, 0.5 and 0.3 and then 384 applied the classification methods, and the results are shown in Figure 4. Whereas Figure 5 shows 385 the results of road detection by the methods after setting the values of scale, shape and 386 compactness parameters to 20, 0.2 and 0.6, respectively. Both figures are illustrated in five 387 columns and three rows. The first and second columns depict the original RGB images and 388

original ground truth maps, respectively. The third, fourth and fifth columns depict the results of 389 road detection by the KNN, DT and SVM approaches after integration with connected 390 components analysis. Road parts in the main images of Figures 4 and 5 are evidently less or more 391 covered by other occlusions with similar reflectance, making accurate road part extraction from 392 images difficult. This phenomenon is due to the objects with the same spectral features, which 393 possibly become visible as a road section in the extracted image. Consequently, OBIA, connected 394 components analysis, and morphological operations were applied along with segmentation and 395 classification method to obtain additional information, such as texture and geometry, and 396 397 eliminate irrelevant road components and noises to improve the accuracy. As shown in Figures 4 and 5, the proposed integration of KNN, DT, and SVM methods with connected components 398 could generally extract accurate road section from orthophoto images. However, the three 399 proposed classification methods demonstrated better performance for extracting road from 400 images in Figure 5 with parameters values of scale=20, shape=0.2 and compactness=0.6 than 401 those in Figure 4 with parameters values of scale=50, shape=0.5 and compactness=0.3. In both 402 figures, the proposed SVM method could produce better qualitative results for road extraction 403 404 with less false positive (FPs) prediction (shown as blue color) than other methods while KNN method predicted more FPs and less false negative (FNs) (shown as yellow color) and generated 405 406 low-quality visualization results compared to other approaches.

407



408

**Fig. 4.** Extracted road class from orthophoto images with scale=50, shape=0.5 and compactness=0.3. First and second columns show the original image road label, respectively while third, fourth and fifth columns show the results of road detection by KNN, DT and SVM approaches, respectively.



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413

Fig. 5. Extracted road class from orthophoto images with scale=20, shape=0.2 and compactness=0.6. First and second columns show the original image road label, respectively while third, fourth and fifth columns show the results of road detection by KNN, DT and SVM approaches, respectively.

A confusion matrix with four main factors (true negative (TN), false negative (FN), true 419 positive (TP), and false positive (FP)) was used for assessing the accuracy of the suggested 420 approach because road part extraction from remote sensing image is a binary classification. 421 The amount of incorrectly classified pixels in terms of road section is called FP, while the 422 amount of incorrectly extracted pixels related to non-road part is defined as FN. TP is 423 424 considered being the amount of accurately classified road pixels, and TN is the accurately classified non-road pixels (Wei, Wang, & Xu, 2017). Several main metrics, such as recall, F1-425 score, and precision, were considered based on the parameters of the confusion matrix to 426 evaluate the capability of the introduced approach in road network extraction from orthophoto 427 images. Table 1 demonstrates the quantitative results achieved by the proposed methods for 428 Figure 4 and those for Figure 5 are presented in Table 2. 429

Table 1. Evaluated metrics for different methods (Figure 4). Best values are in bold and
 second-best values are underlined.

432

		KNN	DT	SVM
	Recall	0.8833	0.8305	0.8485
Image1	Precision	0.8112	0.8957	0.8765
	F1-score	0.8457	0.8619	0.8623
	Recall	0.8881	0.9025	0.9326
Image2	Precision	0.9095	0.9161	0.9044
	F1-score	0.8987	0.9092	0.9182
Imaga2	Recall	0.7851	0.8058	0.8547
mages	Precision	0.8998	0.8967	0.8823

	F1-score	0.8386	0.8488	0.8683
	Recall	0.8522	0.8463	0.8786
Average	Precision	0.8735	0.9028	0.8877
	F1-score	0.8610	<u>0.8733</u>	0.8829

433

Table 2. Evaluated metrics for different methods (Figure 5). Best values are in bold and
 second-best values are underlined.

436

		KNN	DT	SVM
Image1	Recall	0.8966	0.8492	0.8922
	Precision	0.8442	0.9167	0.8982
	F1-score	0.8696	0.8817	0.8952
	Recall	0.8952	0.9318	0.9218
Image2	Precision	0.9144	0.9023	0.9223
	F1-score	0.9047	0.9168	0.9220
Image3	Recall	0.8064	0.8475	0.8809
	Precision	0.8865	0.8722	0.8651
	F1-score	0.8446	0.8597	0.8730
	Recall	0.8661	0.8762	0.8983
Average	Precision	0.8817	0.8971	0.8952
	F1-score	0.8730	0.8861	0.8967

437

#### 438 **5. Discussion**

Based on Table 1, the average percentage of F1-score metric is 86.10%, 87.33%, and 88.29% 439 for KNN, DT and SVM methods, respectively. Meanwhile, the percentage of such metric 440 presented in Table 2 is 87.30%, 88.61%, and 89.67% for KNN, DT and SVM, respectively. The 441 suggested approaches evidently showed satisfactory performance in terms of road extraction 442 from orthophoto images. However, the accuracy of specific measurements is slightly higher for 443 all the methods in Figure 5 (with scale=20, shape=0.2 and compactness=0.6) than those in Figure 444 4 (with scale=50, shape=0.5 and compactness=0.3). As illustrated in Table 1 and 2, the precision 445 factor percentage is high for the DT model compared with that of the two other methods. 446 However, the SVM model achieved a higher percentage in recall and F1-score than that of the 447 two other methods, which demonstrates the effectiveness of the model for road extraction. In 448 both tables, the KNN method was ranked the least in road detection. The poor road extraction 449 performance of the KNN technique is related to its prediction of a large number of FPs and a 450 smaller number of FNs, which results in poor accuracy. In contrast, the SVM model was ranked 451 the number-one in road extraction in both. In fact, the SVM model could improve the results of 452 F1-score to 2.19% and 0.96% compared to KNN and DT, respectively for Figure 4 and 2.37% 453 and 1.06%, respectively for Figure 5. Figure 6 illustrates the average accuracy of the metrics 454

achieved using the proposed road extraction methods for Figure 4 and 5. The vertical and 455 horizontal axes shows the average percentage of accuracy and the three accuracy assessment 456 metrics, respectively. As displayed in Figure 6, SVM model could achieve better quantitative 457 results than KNN and DT. However, all the three proposed models showed a deficiency in road 458 extraction when road parts are covered by occlusions, such as vehicles, shadows, vegetation, and 459 buildings, and predicted more FP pixels. In addition, we measured the computational time of the 460 proposed methods applied on the three images, which the average running time among the 461 approaches is shown in Table 3. As it is obvious, KNN method takes more time than DT and 462 463 SVM for training with the average running time of 147.33. The reason is that we have to ascertain the value of parameter K (number of nearest neighbors) and the type of distance to be utilized. 464 Therefore, the computation time is much as the model requires measuring the distance of every 465 query instance to all training samples. 466



Fig. 6. Comparison of <u>average</u> performance metrics achieved by the proposed methods for <u>road</u>
 <u>extraction.</u>

470

467

Table 3. Computational time comparison of various approaches. Here, the time is measured in second.

473

Methods	Images				
	Image1	Image2	Image3	Average	
DT	140	104	139	127.66	
KNN	142	105	195	147.33	
SVM	141	106	172	139.66	

In addition, the efficiency of the introduced approaches was compared with that of other works

to demonstrate the effectiveness of the model for road extraction from orthophoto imagery. The

average percentage of recall, precision and F1-score metrics were considered for comparison. A 476 method for road extraction from Ziyuan-3 satellite images based on spectral-spatial classification 477 and shape features was introduced by (Shi, et al., 2014). Recall, precision and F1-score metrics 478 were calculated for the accuracy assessment, in which the average values were obtained caught 479 for comparison. Miao, Wang, Shi, and Zhang (2014) extracted road sections from remotely 480 sensed images according to a fusion method of geodesic, kernel density, and tensor voting 481 techniques. They evaluated recall, precision and F1-score measures to assess the performance, in 482 which the average amount is obtained for comparison with the suggested techniques in this paper. 483 484 A technique for road extraction from different high-resolution remote sensing images was also introduced by (Maboudi, et al., 2017), in which the average percentage of recall, precision and 485 F1-score factors are obtained for comparison. Table 4 depicts the average amount of performance 486 metrics for the proposed methods in this study and other prior studies. 487

488

491

Table 4. Performance factors of different proposed methods compared with various previous
 studies. Best values are in bold.

Methods	Recall	Precision	F1-score
Proposed DT	0.8762	0.8971	0.8861
Proposed KNN	0.8661	0.8817	0.8730
Proposed SVM	0.8983	0.8952	0.8967
Shi et al. (2014)	0.79	0.77	0.7798
Miao et al. (2014)	0.87	0.92	0.8943
Maboudi et al. (2017)	0.86	0.91	0.8842

492

Table 4 shows that the three proposed SVM method in this study demonstrated a higher 493 percentage in F1-score factor compared with that from previous works. The DT method is ranked 494 third with 88.61%, while SVM is ranked first with 89.67%. By contrast, the average value of F1-495 score for the second-best method (Miao, et al. (2014)) is 89.43%, which could achieve better 496 results than the proposed KNN and DT methods. Miao et al. (2014) also achieved a high precision 497 amount with 92%, which is more than the average percentage of precision for the three proposed 498 methods with 89.52%, 89.71%, and 88.17% for SVM, DT, and KNN. The decreasing accuracy 499 for the proposed methods is due to the high FP amount prediction, which affected the percentage 500 of precision. Also, Shi et al. (2014) obtained the lowest amount of F1-score with 77.98%, 501 indicating that their method was ineffective in road extraction. By comparing the quantitative 502

results, it can be seen that the three proposed classification methods integrated with connected
 components analysis demonstrated efficiency in road extraction from orthophoto images.

#### 505 6. Conclusion

506 In the current research, a new integrated model of segmentation and classification methods with connected components analysis is introduced to extract road parts from VHR orthophoto 507 508 images. The introduced model includes three main steps. First, multiresolution segmentation approach was applied to segment orthophoto images. The obtained results are then processed by 509 510 the classification methods, such as SVM, KNN, and DT, to categorize the image into road and non-road sections. Training the approaches not only utilized spectral information but also 511 512 included texture and geometry information to improve the accuracy of the model. Finally, connected components labeling and morphological operations were performed to delete some 513 514 components that do not belong to the road section, fill the gaps, and enhance the model performance for road extraction. Three different orthophoto images were used for applying the 515 methods, and final outcomes proved that the suggested models were capable of road extraction 516 with satisfactory results. The roads layer was manually digitized to compare the results achieved 517 by the suggested approaches, and three common accuracy metrics, such as recall, precision, and 518 F1-score, were calculated. The average metrics percentage obtained by the suggested methods 519 were 87.62%, 89.71%, and 88.61%, respectively, for DT; 86.61%, 88.17%, and 87.30%, 520 respectively, for KNN; and 89.83%, 89.52%, and 89.67%, respectively, for SVM. The results 521 from different accuracy assessment factors were also compared with those of other previous 522 studies, which showed that the integrated model was still efficient in terms of accurate road 523 region extraction from orthophoto images. The novelty of the proposed integrated method lies in 524 525 its capability to distinguish and extract straight and curved road parts. However, some parts of the road in the image are entirely covered by trees and shadows, making accurate road extraction 526 527 from these parts difficult. Therefore, this difficulty is considered a limitation and deficiency of the integrated approach. 528

529

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# Highlights

- Classification methods are presented for image classification into road and non-road
- OBIA is utilized for getting further information
- Trivial opening is applied for road extraction
- Morphological closing is applied for filling holes

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**Abolfazl Abdollahi**: Conceptualization, Methodology, Modelling, Writing original draft. **Biswajeet Pradhan**: Conceptualisation, Supervision, Data capturing and curation, Validation, Visualization, Review & Editing, Funding. Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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